



O Britain, chosen Port of Trade, What art who rules in other Lands? That first gave Lustre to thy Reigns; Be Commerce then thy sole Design;
 Now Luxury near thy Sins invade; On Trade alone thy Chery stands. And scatter'd Plenty o'er thy Plains: Keep that, and all the World is thine.
 Whenever neighbouring States contend, That Benefit is unconjunct. As that alone thy Wealth supplies, Gay, Vol. II. Fable VIII. To his Native
 'Tis thine to be the general Friend. Dissuasing Good among Mankind; And drives all Europe's envious Eyes. Country.
 C. Hooper, Sculp.

THE
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY
OF
TRADE and COMMERCE:

WITH LARGE
ADDITIONS and IMPROVEMENTS,

Adapting the same to the
PRESENT STATE of BRITISH AFFAIRS in AMERICA,
since the last **TREATY of PEACE** made in the Year 1763.

With **GREAT VARIETY** of
NEW REMARKS and ILLUSTRATIONS
Incorporated throughout the Whole:

TOGETHER WITH
Every Thing essential that is contained in **SAVARY'S DICTIONARY:**

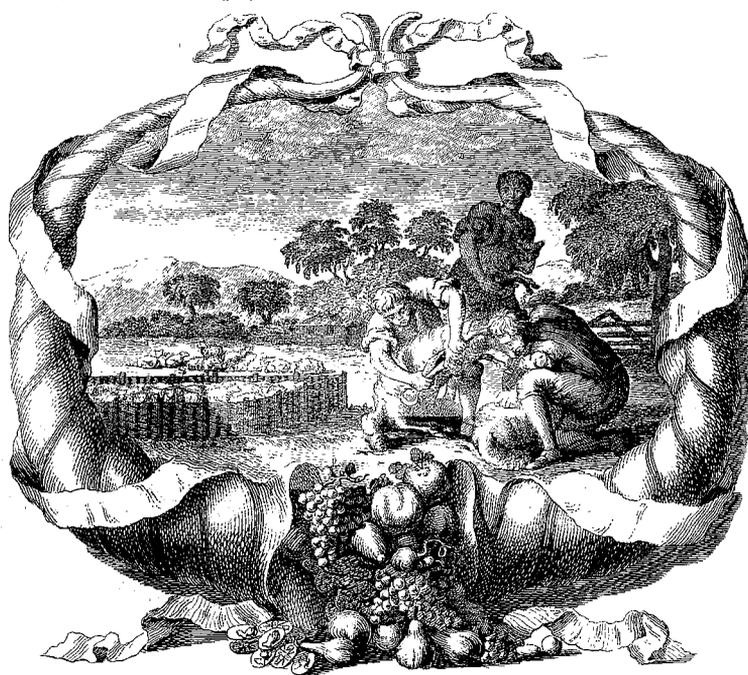
ALSO,
All the Material **LAWS of TRADE and NAVIGATION**
relating to these **KINGDOMS,**

AND THE
CUSTOMS and USAGES to which all **TRADERS** are subject.

By **MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT, Esq;**

THE THIRD EDITION.

V O L. I.



L O N D O N:

Printed for H. WOODFALL, A. MILLAR, J. and R. TONSON, J. RIVINGTON, J. HINTON, R. BALDWIN,
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MDCCLXVI.

TO THE
RIGHT HONOURABLE GEORGE NELSON, ESQ.
LORD MAYOR OF THE CITY OF LONDON;
AND TO THE
ALDERMEN, AND COMMON COUNCIL,

Who constitute the MAGISTRACY of the commercial METROPOLIS of GREAT BRITAIN.

MY LORD AND GENTLEMEN!

THE Magistracy of this ancient commercial City being composed of the different Ranks of Traders, comprehended in Miniature, within the Dominions of Great Britain; and being elected into their Office, by the Suffrages of the Citizens, who are constituted of the like Body of respectable Traders themselves; the Author of this Performance upon Trade and Commerce, humbly conceives, that he could not address his Labours with more Propriety than to the Corporation of so illustrious a Trading City.

Though the mercantile Order of Persons, amongst the several Degrees of the City Magistrates, is esteemed the supreme Class of Traders in general, yet it is observable, that the Number of Merchants in the whole City, and even throughout the whole Kingdom bears but a small Proportion to that of the London Traders contained only in the Metropolis. Nor, indeed, could Merchants subsist, was it not for these Traders in this City; who make a numerous Body in the Wholesale and Retail Way. For they first purchase of the Merchants their foreign Imports, Wholesale, and then vend and circulate them again by Wholesale and Retail, amongst all the other Country Traders, residing in the remotest Parts of the Kingdom. The Execution of this inland Circulation of Trade, does not fall within the peculiar Province of the Merchant, whose Business is, or should be, to maintain his Dignity, restrained chiefly to Exportation and Importation in the maritime Branch by wholesale Purchases, and Sales. But it is the Employment of the London Traders in general, to sell and disperse their Imports from the Metropolis to other Parts of the Nation; and the London Traders are the great Paymasters of the London Merchants. Of what Use could the London Merchant be, without their neighbouring Traders, Purchasers, Customers, and Paymasters, to take their foreign Commodities off their Hands?

In the like Manner, do not the London Traders, Warehousemen, Factors, &c. take our native Commodities from all the Country-Manufacturers of every Appellation? And do not they sell them in general to the Merchants, who export them? So that, as the London Trader first purchases of the Merchant his foreign Imports, so likewise he sells to him his Exports; and as the Merchant gives the London Trader short Credit for his Purchases; so does the London Trader give the Merchant Credit for his Exports of native Commodities: And when our Exports exceed in Value our Imports, as they ever ought to do, and ever will, if the State is as wisely governed as it should be, the London Traders, Warehousemen, and Factors, &c. give larger Credit to the Merchants, than the other Set of Traders receive from them.

In this Light, London Traders appear to constitute the very active Soul of the Commerce of the whole British State; and that they are an essential Medium between the Merchant, the Country Shop-Keeper, and the Consumers. And although it may seem, at first Sight, something assuming to assert, that the City-Traders, taken in every Degree, as contradistinguished from the foreign Exporter and Importer, are the Support of all Country Shop-Keeper, and therefore of the greatest Part of the whole Commerce of the Kingdom; yet it is nevertheless true: for we cannot go to a Shop-Keeper of any Repute, in the most distant trading Towns throughout Great Britain, but holds some Correspondence with the Traders of London: And as all Country Shop-Keeper purchase more or less at London, so are they not all ever indebted to the London Traders? And

therefore, the whole Country may be justly said to trade upon the City's Stock, seeing the London Tradefmen, Factors, and Warehoufemen, give them all Credit.

Of such high Concernment are the London Tradefmen to the whole Traffic of the Nation, that all our native Commodities and Manufactures almost of every Sort, more or less, center at first in London, and amongst the London Tradefmen, brought to them from all the inland manufacturing and trading Towns; and are afterwards sent again from London to the several different trading Towns and Cities throughout the Kingdom, where those Commodities and Manufactures are not made or produced. The Countrymen shear their Sheep, sell their Wool, and carry it from Place to Place; the Manufacturer sets it to Work, to combing, spinning, winding, twisting, dyeing, weaving, fulling, dressing, and thus they furnish their numberless Manufactures in the whole Woollen Branch. But what must they do with them, if London did not take them first off their Hands, and the London Tradefmen, Warehoufemen, Factors, and Wholesale Dealers, did not vend and circulate them again amongst the London Merchants, as well as to all the remote Parts of the Nation? London is the grand central Mart to which the gross Body of all our native Commodities are first brought, and from whence they are again sold; the London Tradefmen purchase of the Country Manufacturers, and pay them, and then sell them chiefly to the Country Tradefmen and Shop-keepers. This is the Case, be it Manchester for Cotton Wares; Yorkshire for Coarse Cloth, Kerfies, &c. Wilts and Gloucester for Fine Cloths; Norwich for Stuffs; Wales for Flannels; they all first go to London, and all have their Money, or other Goods in Return from London, and the London Tradefmen pay and supply them.

Whence it appears, that except that Proportion of the inland Trade of the Nation, that is immediately carried on from the Out-Ports, the whole is carried on to and from London, and all through the Hands of London Tradefmen: and so we have seen is the whole of the Trade of foreign Exports and Imports; and our London Tradefmen have no small Share in the whole mercantile Shipping of this Kingdom, as well as of all the coasting Vessels; which tends to the general Support of the Navigation of the Empire, its Brood of Seamen, and the Benefit of Freight, Ship-building, and Ship-victualling of the trading Part of the Nation.

Upon the whole, therefore, it is not at all to be wondered, that such immense Estates have been acquired amongst the London Tradefmen, no less than London Merchants; since this magnificent City hath been, and we hope ever will remain the most opulent and splendid commercial Emporium in the whole World. Nor is it to be admired, that from London Traders, and from the Magistracy of so illustrious a Corporation, such numerous noble Families should spring, who reflect a brilliant Lustre upon the Metropolis, as that does upon all the illustrious Personages who have been concerned in its Magistracy: from the Common Council, they frequently ascend to Aldermen, and from Aldermen to Lord Mayors, whose Dignity, Power and Authority (occasionally) is not inferior to any of the greatest Nobility in this Kingdom.

If a Trader of this City arrives at the high Office of Lord Mayor, does not the Dignity intitle him to the distinguished Epithet of Right Honourable? And is not his Lordship constitutionally invested with the sacred Character of a Judge, as well in capital as civil Affairs? Does he not even precede the Chancellor, and other Judges and Officers of the Crown, upon peculiar Occasions? In case of an Interregnum, does not the Lord Mayor of London, become the chief Magistratè in the Realm? Have not Numbers of wise and eminent trading Citizens arrived, even at the Honor of Lord Chancellor; been created Peers of the Realm, Knights of the Garter, Bath, Bannerets, and Privy Councillors? And what more can be said of Divines, Lawyers or Soldiers?

To give a few Instances in Honor to the City of London—The Ancestors of the following noble Families sprung from Trade and the Magistracy of the City of London; viz. Legg, the Earl of Dartmouth; De la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, Chancellor of England, and Knight of the Garter; Brown, Lord Viscount Montacute; Bullen, Lord Viscount Rochfort, and Earl of Wiltshire and Ormond; Holles, Earl of Clare, and afterwards Duke of Newcastle; Osborne, Duke of Leeds; Hicks, Lord Hicks, and Viscount Camden, Ancestor to the Earl of Gainfborough; Dormer, Earl of Carnarvon, and Lord Dormer; Cromwell, Earl of Essex, and Knight of the Garter; Capel, Ancestor to the present Earl of Essex; the Riches Earls of Warwick and Holland; Coventry, Earl of Coventry; Cranfield, Earl of Middlesex; Fitzwilliams, Earl Fitzwilliams; the late Lord Haverham; the present Earl of Tilney, and the Grandfather of the Duke of Bedford; and numerous other of the most noble Families in the British Empire; with which this illustrious List might be adorned, to the Honour of Trade and the Magistracy of this famous City—Nor should it be forgot, that Henry VIII. thought it no Indignity, when he quitted his Queen, to marry Anne, the Daughter of Thomas Bullen, Lord Mayor of London: And the first William, who founded our Royal Race, was the Grandson of a Tanner.

So far is Trade from being inconsistent with the Character of a Gentleman, that in England it makes Gentlemen, and hath peopled this Nation with Nobles and Gentlemen; for, after a Generation or two, have not the Children, or Grandchildren of Traders sprung from the Magistracy of London,

become as good Gentlemen, Statefmen, Parliament-men, Privy Councillors, Judges, Bishops, and Noblemen, as those of the highest Birth, and the most antient Families ?

Hath not likewise the Magistracy of the Corporation of London produced some of the most distinguished Friends to the Trading Interest of the Kingdom ? And hath not the Parliament itself reposed the greatest Confidence in them ? Was not this the Case of Philpot and Walworth, two very noted Aldermen of London ; by placing the Money granted by Subsidy in the Minority of the Reign of King Richard II. in their Hands, to carry on the War, instead of those of the Duke of Lancaster, and the other Regents at that Time ? Did not Alderman Philpot, at his own Expence, fit out a Fleet with a Thousand Men to protect the English Merchants in his Days, because the Regency had then shamefully neglected to do it ? What important Service to Trade did the celebrated Citizen Sir Thomas Graham do in his Time ? Was not also Mr. Sutton, the Founder of the Charter-House, the chief Instrument in retarding the Sailing of the Spanish Armada, intended to enslave these Kingdoms ? Was not the Corporation of London remarkably zealous in bringing about the happy Revolution ; to which we owe the present Felicity of this Nation ? Have not the Citizens of London been ever loyally attached to the present august Family regnant on the Throne of these Kingdoms ? Were they not remarkably so, in the Time of the unnatural Rebellion in the Year 1745 ? What other Association for the Support of the Public Credit could have had the happy Effect that had ?

From these few Observations, it appears how egregiously mistaken in the Importance of the Trading Citizens, and of the Weight and Influence of the Corporation of London over the whole Kingdom, they must be who have affected to treat them in a Manner unbecoming their supreme Utility to the State ? From the mean Indignities too frequently cast upon the City Magistracy in its corporate Capacity, I have judged it not useless to disabuse those who have been misled to entertain a different Opinion to what I do of this illustrious Corporation : And this I hope will atone for dwelling so long on a Topic agreeable to myself.

Does not the Extent of the Traffic of the Citizens of London, with the remote Parts of the Kingdom, give them a notable Influence by their commercial Connections, and the Universality of their trading Correspondence over the Nation ? When the Citizens thrive in their Trade, can other Traders throughout the Kingdom do otherwise ? When the far distant British Traders feel a Decline, do not the London Traders do so likewise ? In consequence hereof, it is apparent, that the Voice of London Traders is the commercial Barometer of the State of our Commerce : when they prosper, the whole Nation cannot do otherwise. Is it then to be wondered, when they complain that the whole Kingdom should echo their Sentiments ?

These few Remarks will serve to shew, the mistaken Judgment of those who are too apt to censure, and often ridicule the Conduct of the Corporation of London in their publick Capacity. For what Motive can they have to complain, when there is no Occasion ? The most sacred Causes that concern the Prosperity and Happiness of these Kingdoms, are those of Trade and Liberty. When the Corporation of London have felt and experienced them to be affected, they complain, they remonstrate, they dutifully petition the Legislature. Is this unbecoming the Weight and Dignity of the commercial Metropolis ? They never set up for Infallibility any more than other great Bodies. Yet it is rare, very rare, that they ever err, in Regard to what is the most dear to Britons ! Do not those who condemn the Corporation of London, dishonour the noblest Families, who are descended from its Magistrates ?

I have the Honour to be,

My Lord and Gentlemen,

With great Veneration,

Your most Humble

and most Obedient Servant,

Feb. 10, 1766.
Broad Street; London.

MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT

INTRODUCTION.

THIS DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE is the first of it's kind that was ever published in Great-Britain; and having obtained a reputation for above fourteen years, with those esteemed the best judges in the kingdom, amongst the nobility and gentry; and it's credit and character also amongst commercial people of the best understanding, as well merchants as tradesmen, manufacturers and artizans of every respectable rank, render it the less necessary to urge any thing now in it's recommendation. With respect to the present NEW EDITION here offered to the public, it will be expected that some account should be given of it.

The last WAR, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE made in the year 1763, having made a great alteration in the state of the British trade and territories in America and Africa, since the publication of the SECOND EDITION, and the public calling for a THIRD, due notice is taken therein of the various changes made in the American and African trades by the said DEFINITIVE TREATY. In consequence of which, the same treaty having made a great variation in the territories of France and Spain, in favour of the British empire, it hath become necessary to represent those changes and alterations, in regard to the dominions of their respective kingdoms.

That the candour and impartiality of the author may be the more conspicuous in his representations upon this occasion, he hath continued his former REMARKS upon the trade and territories of the several before-mentioned potentates, which were made prior to the last war and treaty of peace; and hath made his ADDITIONAL REMARKS upon the same trade and territories since the peace hath been concluded, in the same manner and form as they were made in our former editions of this performance. By the method we have pursued, every one will be enabled to judge from plain facts, and natural deductions drawn therefrom, of the different state and condition of the commerce and territories of the diverse powers concerned in the last war, as well before its commencement, as since the peace of 1763.

The author being convinced how much the prosperity and the trade of this nation depend upon the mechanical and manufactural arts; and how greatly their ingenuity in working up their wares, commodities, and manufactures of a good quality, to recommend them to all foreign states and empires; has been remarkably elaborate in his endeavours to excite and stimulate those artists to make every sort of improvement in their respective employes. He has sanguinely pleaded their cause with the government and legislature, that all wise encouragement should be given to this body of useful undertakers; to the end, that their industrious ingenuity may not be surpassed by any rival nation whatsoever, more especially by France.

From this motive, the most judicious laws, edicts, and arrets of that kingdom, relative to the restriction and regulation of the meanest manufactures amongst them, that every workman might be obliged, by such rigid laws and regulations, to make his goods agreeable thereto, for the credit and reputation of that nation are duly represented. For by these wise regulations it is, that France has hitherto surpassed and out-rivalled all the world in their manufactures: and by these means they at present worm Great-Britain, more or less, out of every branch of trade in Europe, and elsewhere. Nor could any thing have ever so efficaciously accomplished this great end, since they add the cheapness of their commodities to their external qualities.

Some people being pleased to censure our taking such notice of the regulations of the French in the above respects, as thinking them too trivial to be duly remarked on in a dictionary of commerce; we differ in sentiment: and we have the judgment of the British legislature to confirm us therein. For whoever is conversant with our statute-laws of trade, will find that every branch, at one time or other, has been very minutely sifted into, and put under very minute and severe regulations, for the credit and honour of the commerce of the kingdom. But the difference between us and France consists chiefly in this; that they take no less care in the execution of their laws of trade, than in making them: we are remarkable for good laws, but are shamefully neglectful in their execution. Is it not upon this account, that our bakers are suffered to adulterate their bread, to the injury of the public health; and to daily trick the poor in the weight, as well as the rich and poor in the quality of their bread? In France these things are better guarded against.

In the like manner, and for the same reasons assigned, we have taken notice of the brewers of France. This being a respectable branch of trade in England, we have pointed out the regulation under which it is put in France; to the end, that if the British legislature should think proper to adopt any of them, they are ready at hand. Most trades at one time or other have been abused; and it is, therefore, the parliament have been obliged to lay them under severe laws and restrictions. And can this nation be too well informed in the regulation of other countries, to furnish them with every useful hint and intimation? They certainly cannot.

Will any one that understands trade say, that bakers and brewers have no connections with the subject? Why do the British statutes abound with peculiar laws for their regulation? Why do we say, that bread is the staff of life? Does not the landed interest greatly depend upon baking and brewing? May we not as well say, that corn is no article of trade, and not connected with it? Does the revenue gain no advantage by the malt-tax, or the excise in brewing? What would the industrious poor do without due regulations by law in baking and brewing? They would soon have bread unfit to eat, and beer to drink!

Abstract of the laws of other nations respecting many trades as well as abstracts of our own, has been esteemed a very useful part of a dictionary of commerce: without due notice taken thereof, and without making the use and application of them as is done in this work, it would certainly have been judged very imperfect. And can the public expect a complete dictionary of trade without them.

This work abounds with no small variety of suggestions and intimations for the advancement of numerous branches of the trade and commerce of these kingdoms; which every discerning reader will make his proper use of, either for his own private benefit and advantage, or those of the public. Many manufacturers have wrote letters to the author, returning him their grateful thanks for the services he has laboured to do them; and he has been happily instrumental to set several new manufactures on foot for the public interests.

The peculiar interest of tradesmen in every respectable branch of business is herein promoted to the utmost; and that of the merchant and mercantile affairs, was never set in the light they are throughout this performance; and we may appeal only to one single article of it; that of MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

That a summary view of the design of this work may appear; we submit the following brief sketch of the contents to the impartial public.

A GENERAL IDEA of the CONTENTS.

THE present performance is compiled to answer the following purposes.

The peculiar benefit and advantage of British traders in general, in their practical concerns, from the supreme merchant to every other subordinate class of respectable traders in the community.

For the use of such persons of distinction, who are desirous to obtain a political knowledge of trade and commerce.

For the service of such, who would become masters of the nature and constitution of the finances of this kingdom.

For the satisfaction of such who would acquire a knowledge of the political systems of commerce, that prevail in the several states and empires of the world.

For the service of those who would be acquainted with the commercial and marine treaties, made between one potentate and another, for the maintenance of commercial intercourse.

Concerning the commercial policy of states, as relative to the mechanical and manufactural arts in trading nations; and of the emolument arising from the labour, industry, and ingenuity, of all commercial artists.

The mutual advantage of Great Britain and her American plantations, in divers most interesting lights.

The reciprocal benefit of Great Britain and Ireland.

The landed and trading interests harmonized.

The monied interest considered in various important views, as compared with the landed and trading.—Of reductions of interest.—Of stockjobbing, bubbling, and gaming, the destruction of trade and traders.

The constitution of trading and monied corporations: their use and abuse to individuals, as well as the community.

The immensity of the national debts, and tax-incumbrances; and their destructive consequences to the trade of the kingdom, if not speedily prevented.

Qualifications of the British senator.

The commercial constitution of parliament.

The pernicious consequence of taxes on native commodities.

Of the revenue from the conquest to the reign of George III.

Of importation and exportation, in a practical as well as political light.

Of the balance of trade.

Of augmentation and diminution of coin.

Of the several societies for the discovery of new arts, trades and manufactures, and their progress.

The utility of the Royal Society to trade.

The jurisdiction of the admiralty relative to commercial concerns.

Of the office of ambassadors, residents, and consuls, in foreign states.

Of the computation of annuities on lives, leases, and reversions.

Of commercial arithmetic; and of the foreign exchanges, and their arbitration, in a new and interesting view.

The art of debtor and creditor exhibited in a new concise light; with the whole art of banking.

The new MERCANTILE COLLEGE, for training of young British merchants with greater advantages than ever. Also a new institution for the education of young persons of distinction for parliamentary business.

Of the constitution of the several banks throughout Europe, with illustrations.

The standard of gold and silver throughout Europe; with the intrinsic value of foreign coins.

Of trading in bullion gold and silver, and foreign coins to advantage.

Of insurances of shipping and merchandize; with great variety of curious cases, relating to this essential

part of the mercantile commerce—with the political discussion of the point of insuring the ships and merchandize of enemies in time of war.

Of foreign weights and measures, and the conversion of the one into the other.

The laws, customs, and usages, of merchants and traders, with respect to foreign and inland bills of exchange—with numerous important cases adjudged in courts of law.

Of freight, bills of lading, masters and owners of ships, charter-parties, averages, baratries, bottomree, shipwrecks, demurrage, and the laws relating thereto.

An ample representation of the business of the custom-house, and its several departments; the method of computing the duties of import and export; with an explanation suiting all present and future books of rates: with abstracts of the commercial laws relating to drawbacks, bounties, and premiums for the advancement of the British trade: also the penalties, as well as the rights and privileges to which traders are entitled, never before so represented.

The act of navigation.

An account of the foreign shipping frequenting the ports of England—with political considerations, concerning the interests of British merchants, owners of ships, and others, relative to the employment and increase of British shipping, and British navigators.

The superior importance of the city of London, as the trading metropolis; the commercial connections of its tradesmen and citizens over the whole kingdom, as well as its mercantile interest over the world—the great influence of the trading citizens over the nation, on all state emergencies.

The supreme dignity of London, as a corporation: shewing that the greatest families in the kingdom originally sprung from our trading citizens, who have distinguished themselves as its chief magistrates.

Concerning the bad policy of want of harmony between the court and the city: the weight the city has given, and ever will give, to the conduct of government, both at home and abroad, in support of the national power and dignity.

Anecdotes of the distinguishing services to the state of many eminent citizens of London, in commercial affairs.

Of its incorporated city companies; and of the bodies of trade in the city of Paris.

Also all the various material French edicts, arrears, and laws, extracted from SAVARY, concerning the chief trades in France, from whence any useful intimations may be derived for the benefit of the British trade, as that nation have borrowed many good laws and regulations from this.

Many of the like laws, relative to the commerce of other foreign nations, from the same motives.

Of the peculiar regulations of the French trading corporations, to spirit up an emulation among their fraternities to excel in their respective branches.

Of the strictness of several trading corporations of France, not to admit persons to the freedom of their companies, without manifesting their qualifications for the same, by the actual performance of some masterpiece of workmanship, in the presence of the best judges, sworn for that purpose.—The severe penalties in cases of connivance and corruption, on such like occasions.—Their particular care and vigilance to manufacture their goods of the best quality for foreign markets.—With REMARKS, shewing the political sagacity of the French to propagate their trade throughout the world, by such like wise measures.

On the circulating cash requisite to carry on the trade of a nation.

Of the nature and effect of paper credit in commercial states and empires.

The par and equation between gold and silver.
The representation of Sir Isaac Newton upon the necessity heretofore of lowering the price of guineas, from 21s. 6d. to 21s. in order to prevent the scarcity of silver coin in England.

The state of the coin and coinage of England, from the revolution to the reign of his present majesty king George III.

Of the practical arts of assaying gold and silver, necessary for the merchant or other traders, who may be concerned in trafficking therein, to determine upon their own judgment the value thereof, according to the current price of the standard gold and silver in England.

Of the art of assaying gold and silver from their ores; together with the knowledge of all metallurgical operations to judge of mines and minerals of every kind, upon true philosophical principles: as well for the use of private gentlemen as traders.

Of subterranean treasures of all sorts, and the art of mineralogy; and also of estimable earths, clays, boles, manures, and their utility in the improvement of landed estates.

Concerning the vegetable productions of nature, considered as the great objects of traffic throughout the world; represented under the various states, kingdoms, and empires, geographically as well as commercially described.

Variety of philosophical experiments, whereby an idea may be formed, of what sort of experiments are necessary to be made, the better to judge of the quality and worth of certain natural productions.

Of the productions of art, respecting great variety of capital traffickable commodities and manufactures; as well in other countries as our own; in order to what the invention of our artists to imitate or excel them.

Of the judges, inspectors, and overseers of the manufactures of France in particular, established in the several provinces of that kingdom.—Many of the like kind of regulations for the advantage of the woollen manufactories of Great Britain; which are shamefully neglected, to the degeneracy of the English manufactures in quality.—The causes hereof; and the use and abuse of such kind of regulations.

The extraordinary wise and political measures taken by that able statesman Monsieur Colbert, of France, while superintendant and inspector-general of the commerce and navigation of that nation; with intent to establish the valuable manufactures there, and perpetuate their encouragement; which has had a tendency to extend the commerce of France over the whole globe.—Of patents granted in Great Britain for the like purposes; with interesting observations on this head.

Public fairs, free and otherwise, kept in France, and in other the most remarkable places throughout Europe; also of the Asiatic and African caravans, and how commerce is carried on by means thereof, and the caravanas.

The commerce of the Chinese, and the East-Indies in general; by what means carried on.—Of the excessive cheapness of their arts, manufactures, and produce; whereby all European nations are attracted to trade with them, and resort to them for their productions and manufactures. With pertinent observations to carry on this commerce both in a private and public way, the best to the advantage of Europe.

The peculiarities of the Turkey, Arabian, and Persian trades, with suitable illustrations.

Wherein the British improvements in the African trade consists; and by what means one part of that commerce may remain free and open to our separate traders; and by what measures the inland trade may be more cultivated by this nation than it ever was, to the greater emolument of this kingdom, and our East-India company.

Monopolies in general and particular.—British laws relative thereto; with political animadversions.

Political arithmetic, and its application to commercial affairs and finances.

The funds of Great Britain considered in diverse lights, respecting the trade of the kingdom.—The consequences to the nation, if we continue the destructive practice of funding and borrowing in times of war.

The injurious effects of becoming tributaries to foreigners, by reason of the magnitude of the national debt.—Of the great detriment our trade sustains by mortgaging the funds of the kingdom.—With various suggestions for their timely redemption.—The disadvantage in rendering our funds irredeemable, when public exigencies required fresh loans.

That the excessive dearthness of all English commodities and manufactures is occasioned by the great weight of the public debts, and the oppressive incumbrances of taxes in consequence thereof.—That this excessive dearthness of English commodities and manufactures, is the principal cause of this nation being underfold at all the markets in Europe, by the French and Dutch; and that this national evil has been growing, as our national debts and taxes have increased; and is at present arrived to a greater pitch, than was ever before experienced by this kingdom.

That until the trade of England is freed from a considerable part of its taxes, we shall never be able to sell English wares so cheap at foreign markets, as our foreign competitors in commerce are at this time able to do.

That the dearthness of English commodities, is the chief cause of smuggling being so universal in Great Britain as well as her American colonies.

That the present parliamentary provision made for the speedy redemption of the numerous taxes on the English trade, is inadequate to the purpose intended.

That the height of the revenue of customs only proves, that our imports of foreign commodities and the foreign manufactures increase, to the ruin of our native ones; and that mortgaging that revenue, is greatly detrimental to the trade of our exports.

That the commercial grievances of England daily increase; and that the chief causes thereof seem quite unattended to.

That this performance is intended to suggest variety of ways and means, whereby the commercial grievances of the kingdom may be relieved.

That one great end designed to be answered by this work, is to promote a happy and lasting COMMERCIAL UNION between Great Britain and her American colonies at this critical juncture.

And as the author apprehends, that nothing has been, or is so detrimental to the whole trade of England, as the multiplicity of tax-incumbrances; which he conceives is the great cause of the general dearthness of its commodities and manufactures in foreign countries, notwithstanding the drawbacks allowed; so he humbly conceives, that he cannot be of more service to the nation, than starting a design to save it the future expence of engaging in the CONTINENTAL WARS OF EUROPE; since they have hitherto contributed so greatly to the enhancement of taxes upon our trade in general.

With many other interesting additions, of no less consequence to private traders than to the whole British empire, never before published. The whole containing a greater fund of commercial knowledge, relating to universal trade and navigation, both practical and political, than ever appeared in any dictionary of commerce, in this, or any other state or empire: and the great end aimed at by the author is to promote and advance, to the utmost of his abilities, the commercial prosperity and happiness of the British empire, and her colonies and plantations in America.

THAT a better idea of this performance may be formed, than merely by the preceding sketch of its general contents, it may also be proper to observe, that our labours abound with occasional animadversions to shew, that the exercise of trade and commerce is the soul of the whole British empire; and as they have hitherto been the great instruments of rendering the same what it at present appears to be; so the continuance of the same cause can only tend to its lasting support and preservation.

Upon the peculiar arts of carrying on trade, as well for the benefit and advantage of the community in general, as individuals therein employed, we have largely expatiated upon pertinent topics: for we look upon the arduous industry of traders, to be productive of the prosperity of the kingdom; and that commercial vigilance, activity, and industry, cannot be too much encouraged and inculcated.

If we consult history, whether ancient or modern, we shall find that idleness and luxury have, in all ages of the world, been the nurse and parent of voluptuousness and effeminacy; which gradually increasing in proportion to a constant diminution of labour and industry, finally brought an irreversible destruction upon such countries, wherever they gained the general ascendancy.

The monarchy of the Assyrians is a pregnant and remarkable instance; which degenerating from those masculine and great achievements which originally gave rise to their universal greatness, into a libidinous and intemperate course of life, became an easy prey to Cyrus the Great.

Thus it fared with the Persian monarchy; which being over-run with ease, luxury, and riot, with soft and effeminate delights and wanton pleasures, with all manner of delicacy and licentiousness, seemed to the great Alexander rather like beasts fitted for the slaughter, than for labour, business, and industry; and gave his warlike Macedonians more trouble to disrobe them of that pageantry and sumptuous apparel, which, like so many theatrical grandees, they came vainly adorned with to battle, than they found in obtaining an easy conquest over those pusillanimous and gaudy Persians, who scarce gave any opposition.

But then, how quickly do we find the scene changed in this mighty conqueror, who no sooner devoted himself to pleasures, and to foster himself in idleness and immoderate excess, but this very man, who had been the terror of the universe, became the scorn and contempt of his own soldiers? Whilst he pursued the Macedonian strictness, and following the genius of his native country, by a warlike activity, vigilance, and industry, so long they adored him as a god: when he began to wear the effeminate apparel of the Persians, and to habituate himself to their vices, even his greatest favourites hardly accounted him a man; whose debauchery and intemperance soon put an ignominious period to the life of that once illustrious prince, and to the Macedonian empire, which otherwise might have been of permanent duration.

The like ill destiny attended the Roman monarchy: when the Turks, who had been constantly inured to hardships and perpetual toil, found the others a people uneasy with their plenty, and so burthened with their time, that it was difficult to find ways enough to spend it.

And it was, doubtless, foreseen by that grand impostor Mahomet, that idleness and luxury would, if indulged, so gradually enervate that mighty empire, as soon to bring it to destruction: for the prevention whereof, like a subtle legislator, he enjoined it as a law, which even their very emperors were not to be exempted from; namely, to eat no more than the labour of his hands could purchase every day.

It would not be a task less arduous than disagreeable, to represent the miseries which at this day attend upon those people, who are denied the unspeakable benefits of arts, labour, trade and commerce. How do the wild Arabs live, and associate with their herds? from whom, besides the erectness of their stature, no other marks of distinction are so visible upon them, as that they are the more careful beasts in providing for their companions.

For want of arts, industry, and trade, to civilize the aborigines of America, how miserably wretched are they, in comparison to the commercial Europeans? What avail the immensity of the richest territory to Indians and Caribbeans? Was it not for the perpetual exercise of the European arts, ingenuity, industry, and trade amongst them, what chance would they ever have stood to become humanized?

To come nearer home: we find the Irish, by the accounts given us in their own histories, written in their native tongue, to have been some of the most abject and miserable people in the universe, when the English first arrived amongst them. Before the English conquest they were not very numerous, and lived in great idleness and sloth, being destitute of arts, labour, and commerce; which put them upon a necessity of committing rapine, and continually preying upon each other for subsistence: for another man's herd being more numerous than that of his neighbour, seemed just grounds of waging war with him. But the English laws and government having introduced arts, labour, industry, and trade amongst them, they have grown populous and wealthy, humane, civilized, and polite, in comparison to what they were; excepting those who, among that nation, will obstinately adhere to their life of indolence, and savage brutality; of which the late and learned Dr. Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne, greatly complained; and from which he took great pains to reclaim them.

As the progress of traffic hath advanced in every country, so hath that of arts and sciences, civility, and urbanity. For when trade and industry administered wealth and honour, then was encouragement given to letters: in return for which, learning and science have contributed to the general advancement of trade and commerce. In this island our ancient Britons, the Picts and Scots, were little better than other savages of the human race.

To evince how unspeakably mankind in general are indebted to trade and commerce, we need only take a transient retrospect of the historical state of all civilized countries in the world, and compare them with the present state of those countries that have made no such advances. The consideration of the trifling degree of trade, which is carried on in the large territory of Barbary; is it any wonder, that the people remain savage, even to a degree of brutality? What further conviction can be required, that commerce with other nations, as well as within themselves, has an apparent tendency to polish and civilize our species? In consequence thereof, has not government been established, and mankind ruled by salutary laws that have conducted to render them far happier than their original state of nature; without commerce, seemed to admit of? The contemplation of the state of our own country, when our commerce was in its infancy; and to compare ourselves then with what we at present are, there will appear to be almost as much difference as there is now between some of the Barbarian countries and our own. Should not this consideration afford us just notions of the invaluable blessings of the commercial state, beyond that of the Hottentot?

Since it is a true maxim, that by what means any thing is acquired, by the same it is preserved; it must ever be for the interest and glory of this nation, to cherish and encourage to the utmost the commercial arts of every kind, which have hitherto been productive of our grandeur and felicity. Does it not hence follow, that studies of this nature cannot be too warmly and zealously promoted by those who wish well to mankind, and have any regard to the welfare and happiness of their native country? What would our gentry, our nobility, or our sovereign be better than those of Barbary, was it not for our superiority of traffic and navigation? Nay, were

were we quite destitute of trade, and as little acquainted therewith as any of the most unknown and intrafficable parts of Africa, what reason have we to imagine that we should be better than they? Were the inhabitants of this island traded in, by the other European nations for slaves, as the negroes of Africa are, to the ignominy of all countries who carry on this inhumane commerce; what more should we islanders have to boast of than those wretched Africans? Can we civilized and polite Europeans think, that the people of so extensive a territory as Africa, above 4000 miles in length from north to south, and near the same in breadth from east to west; were designed by the Supreme Being, either to be made slaves of by Europeans, or to enslave them, as some parts of the piratical states do the Europeans, in return for their superlative humanity? Will not Africa admit of a commercial civilization no less than other barbarous parts of the globe have already done? Will not this quarter of the world allow of a far more extensive, and lucrative trade with Great Britain, as well as other countries, than ever it yet hath done? Are not these people, notwithstanding their colour, capable of being gradually nurtured in all the arts of humanity, by the means of trade, as well as many barbarous nations have been? Is there no probability, that the Africans in general, by the wise management of the Europeans, might become as industrious and ingenious in all the agricultural, mechanical, and manufactural arts, as the people of any other country? Are not their rational faculties in general, equal to those of others of the human species? Would it not be far more beneficial for all the trading European states, rather to endeavour to cultivate a friendly, humane, and civilized commerce, with those people, into the very center of their extensive country, than to content themselves only with skimming a trifling portion of trade upon their sea-coasts? Has not the author of this performance, to no purpose yet, many years since suggested ways and means, whereby this might be done to the immense benefit of the British empire? What avails the insignificant advantage we have received by driving the French out of the river Senegal, in comparison to the great and important designs that have been proposed by the author, to enlarge and extend the whole of that commerce in times of peace? Might not what he intimated on this head enrich a commercial corporation, as well as the kingdom, far more than any of their Asiatic trade hath hitherto done? Might not this be effected, even consistent with the present freedom of the African trade, and thereby give no umbrage to the separate traders? This I have shewn; and some people may be sooner obliged to take due notice of it, than they, at present, seem to be aware of.

Certain it is, that the effectual advancement of the whole African commerce, as the same might affect the interest of these kingdoms, would be attended with the increase of divers other branches, that would be connected therewith. Both our exports and lucrative imports might be very considerably augmented; by which our commercial industry would render the kingdom more and more prosperous, wealthy, and formidable.

The Germans are a people inferior to none in their veneration for antiquity, and due estimation of noble blood, that is derived from a race of virtuous and honourable progenitors; on which they set so superlative a value, that they despise to an excess, an intermixture with the plebeian crowd: yet amongst their nobility, the younger of whose families are employed in their armies, there is rarely found one of them destitute of some manual art; by which, if reduced to extremity, he might be able to get a livelihood, rather than subsist upon the benevolence of others. For this they look on as most ignominious foridness of temper, to which they bear an abhorrence and detestation; having so much of that brave Roman spirit, which had rather lose a life than hold it at the courtesy of another.

This brings to remembrance a story that used to be told, at his time of unbending from regal concerns, by that illustrious prince King George the first. About the year 1615, there was a nobleman in Germany, whose daughter was courted by another young lord. When he had made such progress in this affair, as is usual by the interposition of friends, the old lord had a conference with him, asking him, how he intended, if he married his daughter, to maintain her? He replied, equal to her quality. To which the father replied: That was no answer to his question; he desired again to know, what he had to maintain her with? To which the young lord then answered, he hoped that was no question; for his inheritance was as public as his name. The old lord owned his possessions to be great, but still asked if he had nothing more secure than land, wherewith to maintain his daughter? The question was strange, but ended in this: that the father of the young lady gave his positive resolve, never to marry his daughter, though his heir, and would have two such great estates, but to a man that had a MANUAL TRADE, by which he might subsist, if drove from his own country. The young lord was master of none at present, but rather than lose his mistress, he requested only a year's time, in which he promised to acquire one: in order to which, he got a basket-maker, the most ingenious he could meet with, and in six months became master of his trade of basket-making, with far greater improvements than even his teacher himself: and as a proof of his ingenuity, and extraordinary proficiency in so short a time, he brought to his young lady a piece of workmanship of his own performance, being a white twig basket, which, for many years after became a general fashion among the ladies by the name of DRESSING-BASKETS, brought hither to England from Germany and Holland.

To complete the singularity of this relation; it happened some years after this nobleman's marriage, that he and his father-in-law sharing the misfortunes of the wars of the Palatinate, were drove naked out of their estates; and in Holland, for some years, did this young lord maintain both his father-in-law and his own family, by making baskets of white twigs, to such an unparalleled excellency as none could attain: and it is from this young German lord, the Hollanders derive those curiosities that are still made in the United Provinces, of twig-work.

It is a laudable practice in all nations, to manifest a fondness and ambition for arts and mechanical employments, whereby to avoid both idleness and future distress and difficulty. If we descend to the lower and meaner sort among the Germans, we find their industry so remarkably great, that even children of four years old will earn their bread: add to this, that they are kept out of harms-way by the same diversion, though more profitable, than we keep our children in this kingdom: that is, by making toys, painted boxes, pipes, &c. for our children to play with: they employ all the children of a town, from four years to eight. When they advance more in years, it is then usual to pitch upon a trade; and generally they apply themselves to that of their fathers, whereby you shall oftentimes find them to derive their pedigree and their uninterrupted succession in the same trade or employment, in a continued line from father to son for some hundred years. And this genealogy, in many reputable families, as well in occupation as descent, is insisted upon by them with as much pride and ostentation as can be shown by their nobility, in their continued tracings and derivations of themselves from a numerous and ancient stock of their famous and heroic progenitors.

It is not their practice, as with us in this kingdom, to bind an apprentice to a trade for seven years; three or four is their common standard: the reason is, because they are educated from their cradle to something of manual employment, which renders them the more apt and docible, and consequently the more capable of attaining to a ripeness and quicker proficiency in business. Whereas our youth, here in England, being bred to no sort of manual operation before they enter into their apprenticeship, make a very slow progress, and require much longer time wherein to reach the perfection of accomplished artists.

Such

Such as are of families uneducated in the mechanical or manufactural employments, are made use of either in affairs military, or else in studies of genteeler and finer arts than either of these: by which admirable decorum, so regularly observed; in proportioning every order and degree of men among them to their suitable and respective vocations and capacities; it thence happens, that in whole provinces there is not a man that eats the bread of idleness, or of other mens labour and industry.

In the Hanse-towns they still shew a greater care and solicitude in concerns of this nature, not judging it expedient to admit of any more than an useful and competent number for the city, of any who profess the liberal sciences; but, on the contrary, oblige all their natives and inhabitants, either to merchandize, navigation, or to manual arts and manufactures; insomuch, that the famous mart of Hamburg, to which belong more ships of burden, for all manner of trade and commerce, than to any city in Europe, London and Amsterdam excepted, admit, as we have been informed, of no more than one physician, of two civilians for the law, and of but one divine, besides those who are constantly employed in the city: yet on the contrary, they give great encouragement to men of all nations to inhabit among them, that are trained to mechanic labour and the sea-service, accounting him but a necessary evil, whose industry and parts lie only in his brain, or bound their situation in the head; and one of such they deem sufficient for thousands, who work with their hands.

By reason of which orderly management of affairs, and the provision made to promote labour, and to discourage idleness and all useless and unactive men, it is very remarkable, that in this city we see no beggars: yet many aged and unfortunate poor there are, occasioned by losses and accidents at sea; but then so charitable a commiseration of their condition is entertained by the government, that in all bargains and contracts in that city, something is preserved as a voluntary gift for the poor; and this is repositied in the hands of the minister of the parish, who has church-wardens joined with him, in order to make a right distribution thereof among the proper objects.—A ship does not go to sea, without an iron box for the use of the poor, of which the keeper has no key, but it is kept by the minister and church-wardens; and upon the return of the voyage, when the master receives the sacrament, he brings to the altar his box, which he uses all care to replenish; and there is not a seaman in his ship but puts something into it, whenever he receives his wages.

It would be needless to instance the example of the United Provinces, which are so deservedly famed throughout the whole universe for their eminent and industrious improvements, and for such superadditions of art to nature; which have been of far more utility to them than all their martial strength and exploits, for the defence of their country against their enemies, and have advanced them from the poor and distressed, to the honourable title of the high and mighty states of Holland. Is not this, formerly useless and small spot of land, become the richest in Europe? Is not this a glaring demonstration of the miraculous power of trade and industry, and of those prodigious acquisitions to which human nature is capable of attaining, by a laborious and indefatigable pursuit? Does not this reflect disgrace and ignominy upon their neighbouring nations; whilst enjoying fertile and profitable countries, both in their situation, and other abundant national emoluments, far superior to the United Provinces; which suffer their land to lie waste and uncultivated, and neglect all the opportunities both of art and nature, whereby to enrich and improve them? On the contrary, are not the Dutch forced to change the very elements, having more inhabitants living upon the water, than they have upon the land; which is so plentifully stocked, that it admits of no more?

In Flanders they admit no young men to enter into the matrimonial state, without first obtaining a certificate from the magistrate of the place of his residence and abode, setting forth his having planted such a number of trees, &c. &c. The truth of this point might be demonstrated from a great variety of other instances, both of countries and persons, which are pertinent to the present design: but, aiming at brevity, these may suffice to shew the great care and laudable endeavours of foreign governments, to oblige their people to labour and industry, by the cultivation of useful arts, trade, and commerce?

It is matter that deserves consideration, what vocations and employments every part or class of the kingdom is most fit and proper for; and when there is not employment in manufactures, if it be near the sea, to employ them in fishing or navigation; or if they do not take to either of these, and their native country does not afford them other employment, they should then be duly encouraged by the state to remove to other parts of the British territories; that they might not remain idle hands at home. For want of due attention to this policy, how many hundreds in the year are cut off by the hand of justice, that might have become more useful members of the kingdom? Nor is this the case of our numerous poor only, who may have been bred to some industrious employment; it is that of too many gentlemen's children, who not only oftentimes become a charge, but enemies to their native country, by being an annoyance to those who are the blessings to it, by their honest labour and industry, in some useful employment. Is not this frequently owing to their education? Is it not a strange piece of gentility, that looks upon it as an invasion upon its privileges if put to a trade, and will rather submit to a halter than indentures.

The glory of a kingdom consists in men and money: England enjoys, in a good proportion, the blessings of both, but might be improved to more than double. At the most moderate computation, it is not half peopled; and is not the best way to supply that deficiency, by excitements to general industry and trade? This would not only increase the treasure of the nation, but that which is far more estimable, the treasures of men. It is a matter as well of experience as lamentation, that want of employment puts men upon loose and unwarrantable actions: idleness must be fed, and luxury indulged, and pride and gentility supported; and when profuseness and dissipation become habitual, and have destroyed the hereditary substance and patrimony, especially where there is but little at first, which is commonly the case of younger brothers, then the genteel way of taking a purse, is generally the prologue to the succeeding tragedy, whose scenes are as dismal as they are common. If such idle extravagants cannot maintain themselves singly, without plunging into these destructive counsels, how can they provide for a family? Wherefore, if some happy expedient was thought of to prevent children who have not a certain degree of fortune, from being admitted to be kept longer at school than fourteen or fifteen years of age, and they were then put to some trade or useful employment, there would be less work for the executioner; and probably, in twenty years to come, there would be a greater number of people than in fifty before.

If none under a handsome fortune were admitted to apply themselves to literature, and to the study of the liberal sciences, it might be looked upon as an unreasonable limitation of such whose natural genius and ability might intitle them to a very great proficiency in science and learning; and consequently to very eminent stations both in the church and state, and yet come not under such qualified degrees of fortune as might be proposed. This, say some, would be a great obstruction and discouragement to learning, which is as well the ornament, as the interest of every nation to promote; and there are not wanting instances of some considerable personages, patrons of this kind, who were men of mean birth, and of an inferior fortune in the world. To this it may be observed, that the limitation that might be suggested, would occasion no want or decay of useful learning in any, much less in all sorts, where there should be many thousands that would come under the qualification

qualification supposed: and that ought to be such, as would render literature more respectable than it seems to be in our days. Besides, useful trades and business have raised people to as high a condition from a very low one, as the greatest learning, which we have shewn in many parts of this work, and far more in number.

That the sons of diverse very ordinary persons have arrived to an eminent height by their distinguished literature, is a truth too undeniable to be disputed: and, indeed, by how much they have by their studies advanced themselves from a low and despicable state, to an high degree in the world; by so much the more are they to be esteemed persons more honourable, and merit our greater respect; such who raise themselves by their own acquisitions of virtue and industry, from the plebeian state to that of some exalted station, deserve our regard more than those who are derived from a long and uninterrupted line of heroic ancestors, but basely degenerate from those noble and virtuous achievements, which at first ennobled the blood of their predecessors. These last are as great a reproach and infamy, as the others are a credit, both to themselves, their progenitors, and their country. But then it must be considered, that though there may, and have been some rare learned men among the vulgar; yet there are hundreds for one amongst them, who enter the stage of life like Pharaoh's frogs, that only croak and make a noise in the country, and not meeting prosperity for want of ability, become, instead of an ornament; a disgrace and a nuisance to the kingdom. Were it not for this, we should not experience such variety of enthusiasm and errors in religion; so many empirics in physic; nor so many pettifoggers and barraters in the law; all which are a discredit to those learned professions, and a general detriment to the community: and, to complete our legions of scholars, who rob the mechanic and manufactural arts and trades of various kinds of the like number of useful hands, the nation swarms with beggars, who never having been bred to any of the useful arts connected with commerce, are unable or unaccustomed to turn to what would certainly gain them not only a comfortable subsistence, but probably a handsome fortune for themselves and families, who, at present, become a burthen to the state. Has not the knowledge of mechanics, manufactures, and commerce, proved infinitely more beneficial to the mass of the people, than the subtilties and fooleries of the schools, the arts of pedantry, and the crack-brained altercations of enthusiastic zealots?

There is scope enough for those of the plebeian stamp, that are of a pregnant ingenuity, to employ it in the fine arts, and the most curious sort of industry and labour; wherein they may not only arrive to great eminence, but become more profitable instruments to the good of the kingdom, as well as themselves, than they can hope to be by their mere learning; of which we have no prospect of any want, but may be thought to stand upon equal terms with any part of the universe. Nor are we yet arrived, in many of the mechanic and finer arts, to a superiority beyond several other nations; and these improvements seem naturally to be the province for the middling people of this kingdom to be engaged in, leaving the study of human literature to those who are able to maintain themselves, if by an adverse genius, or other obstacles and exigencies, they should happen to miscarry therein.

Should it be said, that if we educate the younger sons of gentlemen to trade, it will hinder the nation from martial improvements, and so reduce it to the necessity of employing foreigners in the greatest posts of trust in the army; it may be replied, that such of the younger brothers as are addicted to the military turn, may be easily initiated into that employment, and so may be reasonably accounted as if conversant in trade; and such as shall affect the sea, may be bred to navigation. So that if the method should be pursued, of putting out all the youths of the nation upon some useful employment or other, this signal advantage would accrue from it; that whereas now armies are supplied out of the vagrants and refuse of the kingdom, they would then be composed of a better sort of men, though yet many of them so extravagant as to be impatient under sober confinement and daily labour; but numbers of them would return to their respective trades, when disbanded from the sea or the army.

From what has been urged, we are inclined to think, that the use of trades, and of every kind of the mechanic and manufactural arts and industry, is more commodious, and more adapted to a trading state, than the educating the poorer sort only to learning and the sciences,

The advantages that will arise to the kingdom in general, by breeding and keeping all hands at work, are numerous; the chief of which we shall briefly intimate.

We are, at present, supplied from foreign countries with a variety of commodities, which our very numerous Imports too sufficiently indicate; with which, if the kingdom and it's colonies were replenished with useful hands and artizans, they would amply furnish us with. For what is it that makes the United Provinces so full of merchantable commodities, and of their own arts and manufactures, which they transport to all parts of the world, but that every one there is bred to some trade, and so forced to rack their inventions to obtain an honest livelihood? Notwithstanding they abound, proportionably to their territory, with so many people as would be accounted a burden to us, as we are at present circumstanced, yet they still give encouragement for foreigners or fugitives that are artizans to live amongst them. And this spirit for the advancement of trade and useful arts, disseminates itself more and more throughout all Europe.

As this employing of all sorts of people in the useful trades, commerce, and arts, would increase the strength of the kingdom by the number of it's inhabitants; so would it also as well the national riches and stock by it's treasure, every bee then adding some honey to the hive of wealth; and at the same time would ease every individual man from a great part of the taxes under which he now groans: a matter than which nothing is more wanted in this kingdom at present.

Another happy effect it should seem to promise is, to disburthen the nation from beggars, who, by their multitudes, are become the ignominy, as well as the plague of it; whose children are begot, and so bred up in the trade of begging, as if they were embodied into a society, and established by law.

There seems to be no effectual way of doing this, but by laying a good foundation, in taking up the younger sort, and putting them to working trades; and as for the elder and decrepit, that are quite incapable of any employment, such should be maintained by the parish, but so as to have no liberty for begging, as is too much the case: and will not the consequence be, that we shall soon have no aged or decrepit poor, most of whom are rendered so, either by fraud and design of vagrants themselves, or by being the children of such, and so for want of due care and attendance become deformed and maimed?

It is also to be remarked, that plenty of laborious mechanical and manufactural people, and people in trade, prevent famine in a nation; however paradoxical, at first sight, this may appear, that the multiplying of mouths that eat corn, whose hands sow none, should nevertheless increase food: yet matter of fact solves it; for who ever saw a famine in Holland? On the contrary, they who sow none, do yet supply other parts of the world with corn, and this they effect by means of their trade and navigation, which drives the more lucrative plough of the two, that of the sea.

It is observable, that no places are more frequently afflicted with famine, than those countries which are employed in tillage; the reason of this scarcity is obvious; for if their corn fails, they have no other way whereby to supply their want; but it is otherwise with those who depend upon arts and maritime trade, for the extent of

their harvest reaches to the utmost confines of the known world; and if one place fails, they can easily have recourse to another by their navigation.

Labour and arts are a means to purchase to us one of the greatest blessings upon earth, health and the length of days; for it both prolongs life, and prevents untimely death. For proof of the first of these it is observed, as a matter of common experience, that there are more old men, who from their infancy have been employed in labour and trades, than there are of gentlemen; which is consistent with what the physicians affirm with truth and reason, that the work of the body is not so destructive of, nor decays the vitals so much, as the study and labour of the head. And that labour and trade prevents untimely death, is a truth so undeniable as needs no arguments to confirm it, every day's experience sufficiently evincing, that when youth are educated in the way and course of constant trade and business, their heads as well as their hands are ever employed; which leaves them no room for vicious plots and designs, nor for pinching necessity to enforce their breaking through the laws of God and man, to make provision for those lusts and exorbitancies, that at length, bring them to the gibbet.

As men bred up to no useful trade or employment, and a superficial degree of learning, have rarely any virtue or religion; so neither are they demeanable to the laws of the land, to which religion is the surest tie or objection; and subordinately to that, business and employment have the next prevailing force: for those naturally beget a property, which requires protection and security by those laws; whereas he that hath nothing to lose, nor endeavours to acquire any thing but by a manifest violation and infringement of the laws, his sinister interests are such as strongly incline him to destroy them.

This work is designed throughout to raise the spirit of universal art and industry in this nation, that the labour and ingenuity of our people, being inferior to those of no other state or empire, the kingdom may not dwindle into poverty and ignominy; and from being the greatest nation in the world, we may not become the least and most contemptible. And really the face of things is so changed to what it was, that general industry and ingenuity seems to be at a stand among our mechanics and manufacturers; which must be owing to the general bankruptcies that prevail amongst the trading part of the kingdom.

PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE the FIRST.

The PRESENT COMMERCIAL GRIEVANCES of the NATION DELINEATED :

With their CAUSES and CURE briefly attempted.

Also Strictures upon the ILL STATE of the FINANCES of the KINGDOM; and a PLAN to cement a more interesting COMMERCIAL UNION between GREAT BRITAIN, and her AMERICAN COLONIES and PLANTATIONS, according to their present extent of Territory.

HUMBLY ADDRESSED TO THE PARLIAMENT.

In tenui Res est.

VIRGIL.

THAT trade which promotes the employment of our people, advances the sale of our commodities and manufactures, and encreases our navigation, is profitable to the state; but that which obstructs the labour of our people, lessens the consumption of native wares, and employs the shipping of foreigners is detrimental. Whence the consideration of exportation and importation arises.

To give effectual encouragement to the exportation of our product and manufactures, common policy directs, that we shall be able to send them abroad as cheap, or cheaper than other nations, which are our commercial competitors; for wherever different nations attempt to outvie each other in the sale of the same kind of commodities, the lowest price will be the governing market price, to which all other sellers must be able to conform, or cease to trade at all.

From this motive the Dutch exempt their exports from all port-duties: the French have nearly followed their example. So impolitic was this nation as to continue to burthen our exports with the subsidies of poundage, and other impositions, as laid on by the statute of the 12th Car. II. till they were discharged therefrom in the year 1722, by the act of the 8th of Geo. I. cap. 15. § 7. where it is said, "And for the further encouragement of the British manufactures, that the several and respective *subsidies*, and all other duties *whatsoever*, upon the exportation of any goods and merchandizes of the product or manufacture of Great Britain shall cease and determine, &c."

To what end was this act made by the Legislature, but to exempt our product and manufacture from all port-duties that render them dearer at foreign markets? But this exemption not being judged to reduce our wares to a price sufficiently low to enable us, at that time, to cope with our rising rivals in trade in foreign countries; we allow DRAWBACKS upon their exportation, of the inland duties, with which some of our commodities are loaded, and would still render them too dear for foreign markets. Accordingly the statutes which impose an excise upon various of our products and manufactures, are remitted upon exportation.

But it does not seem that the whole burthen of our excise and other inland duties that fall heavy upon our produce and manufacture, are drawn back on their exportation, whereby, it is feared, that the end of drawbacks is defeated; for is it not the intention of granting drawbacks to exempt our native commodities from ALL INLAND DUTIES AND TAXES WHATSOEVER, as the taking off the port-duties was, to exempt them from all subsidies and other impositions; to the end that we may not be underfold by any other trading nation? To this purpose should not every duty, tax, or imposition of any kind, that heightens the price of provisions and labour, and every material towards a manufacture, and every ingredient used in the completion of the same be drawn back; since every burthen upon such material or ingredient, will prove yet a heavier burthen upon the manufacture itself, no less than the high price of provisions? Whereas our inland duties on our home consumption, by augmenting the general price of living, necessarily augment the general price of all our other merchandizes: so that unless every sort of taxation that tends to enhance the price of our commodities at home, was annihilated at their exportation, we cannot say the drawback is effectual, to exempt our product and manufactures from all sort of duties and impositions whatsoever that enhance their prices. 'Tis not the drawing back of one simple excise duty, that will free the commodities from a multitude of compound of excise and inland duties with which a manufacture is directly or virtually loaded at its exportation. Whence it should seem, that the superior price of English manufactures to those of our rivals at foreign markets, is owing to the multiplicity of tax-incumbrances wherewith they actually continue burthened at their exportation, notwithstanding the simple drawback allowed to render them duly cheap.

Certain it is from the statutes, which grant drawbacks, that it was the sense of the Legislature above forty years ago, that we were then in danger of being underfold at foreign markets by foreign rivals; even when our tax-incumbrances on our trade were nothing like what they are at present, our public debts then not being much above one-third part of what they now are.

Notwithstanding the taking off the old subsidy and the granting of drawbacks; in the year 1735, and for some time before, France began to underfell England, even in the staple commodities of the nation, the woollen-manufactures, from ten to twelve *per cent.* at several European markets. Such being the precarious state of public affairs from the years 1725, to that of 1735, our general taxes continued unreduced, and the kingdom received no general alleviation of its incumbrances upon trade, sufficient to keep us upon an equality of price with our competitors.

After the great Spanish war, and the peace of Aix la Chapelle, when our public debts were increased about thirty millions more of principal money, and our tax incumbrances on commerce became considerably augmented to answer the additional debts, France then began to underfell England at several foreign markets, from twelve to sixteen *per cent.* and upwards, and increased thereby in their number of foreign purchasers at many

more new foreign markets. Since the further increase of public debts that have been contracted by the last war, and the further additional increase of tax-incumbrances on trade, is it to be wondered that France shall at present be in a condition to increase their sales in every foreign country in the world at our expence, by underfelling us? Can any one be surprized to hear this; when, as a belligerent power, the expences of France, and their taxes upon their commerce and navigation, have bore little proportion to those of this nation, during the last war?

And, indeed, it seems to have been the determined policy of that kingdom to beat us in trade, though they have been worsted in war. And what means can prove more effectual to conquer us in both? If once they can by such like measures, bring English commodities to such an excessive height of dearness, that foreigners will naturally exclude them from their respective states and empires, must not all English wares and manufactures give way to the more cheaper ones of France? Can any thing more effectually conduce to supplant us in all the foreign markets of the universe, than commodities from ten to twenty *per cent.* cheaper than English? What will any treaties of commerce avail to preserve our foreign trade? For although we are upon a level with our competitors in point of duties of import in the like commodities into all countries, can such treaties have any effect to prevent their giving the preference to the much cheaper commodities? It is impossible they should; however we may be amused to the contrary. It would be an affront to the understanding to attempt to prove, what all mankind readily allow, that the cheaper commodities will ever and every where exclude the much dearer; and therefore, I shall think myself better employed by observing, that it is an undoubted truth, that France is able to undersell England in most of her staple commodities and manufactures; and by that means she will run away with our foreign trade, and aggrandize her own upon the ruins of that of this nation, provided effectual means are not soon taken to prevent it by reducing the price to a par with those of our French and other rivals.

However obvious and glaring the cause of the high price of English commodities is, yet too many seem inclined rather to ascribe it to any cause but the true one, which alone is adequate to the effect: and I am persuaded, that no other adequate one can be proved to exist in this kingdom, except that alone of the weight of our present public debts, and of the oppressive load of our tax-incumbrances in all their detrimental consequences occasioned thereby. This appears to be the case to me; which makes it necessary to repeat a few of those observations and arguments deduced therefrom, that are urged throughout all my writings upon this matter. For although there may occasionally be divers other concurrent causes that have contributed still to increase the price of our commodities and manufactures in general; yet my sentiments are, that those causes being only temporary, if they were removed, as it is to be hoped the wisdom of the Legislature will soon happily effect: notwithstanding such removal, it is to be feared, it may not greatly reduce the prices of English commodities and manufactures in general, not near so sufficiently as to enable this nation to sell her native wares upon a level in price with either France or Holland in particular; and therefore, as their commodities and manufactures will continue cheaper than those of England, those rivals will supplant us in the foreign commerce of Europe, if not of other parts of the trading globe.

The temporary causes that concur at present to make the prices of all English goods so dear, we apprehend to be those of suffering the uniting of farms, monopolizing, forestalling and regrating: but the grand causes of all are our PERPETUATED TAXES, to speak in parliamentary language, for the payment of interest of the national debts till their redemption; together with our great ANNUAL TAXES FOR THE CURRENT SERVICE, which the kingdom has long borne; we mean the land and malt taxes, in conjunction with our numberless perpetual ones. For lay the taxes where we will, they will all ultimately terminate on the COMMERCE OF THE NATION, as we are at present circumstanced; and an annual land tax of four shillings in the pound, in time of peace, is detrimental to trade, though not so directly and apparently discerned and felt, with respect to raising the price of commodities and manufactures, as those taxes that are imposed directly on commodities, as we shall see by the sequel.

That our present taxes of every denomination, and more especially those imposed directly upon commodities, are the cause of the high price of English wares in general, appears from the following facts and apparent deductions.

Taxes laid upon native consumptions by excises, considerably advance their prices: they are, indeed, more than doubled, if not in many cases trebled in their price to the consumer upon the merchandize by the augmentations, which the taxes make, in being paid and repaid by all the hands through which the merchandize passes; and by the augmentations, which this increased sum adds to the price of the crude materials, to the price of workmanship, to the expence of the workmen and traders, which must come out of the price of the merchandize that has undergone, and comprehends all such augmentations, and prove an enormous incumbrance upon English product and manufactures; seeing that our taxes upon taxes are so highly multiplied, by the immensity of our national debts. It has become more necessary than ever to recapitulate a few particulars that run through this work.

This point has been most evidently and undeniably exemplified by the tax upon leather; by means of which it is found, that the price of shoes is charged with numerous distinct augmentations, which the leather hath paid, in passing successively from the hands of the grazier, through those of the butcher, tanner, and his workmen, the leather cutter, the shoemaker, and his workmen. Here are already divers proportional augmentations of DEARNESS for the shoes, which they themselves use, as well as their customers; an expence, which every one of them must regain on LEATHER itself: then there is the augmentation of the tax itself, and several augmentations in proportion to the profits, which must be made by the butcher, the tanner, the cutter, and the shoemaker, out of the price thus swelled of the leather.

A like tax will operate the very same effect upon the candles and soap, the starch, the beer, and other the numerous commodities, all which used by every hand through which the leather passed in shoes to the hands of the consumer: here are again numerous other augmentations on the price of shoes, from every one of those articles being likewise taxed.

All who contribute to the fabric and commerce of cloth, from the shepherd to the wholesale merchant, wear shoes; and every one of them must charge the augmentations of them upon the wool, and upon the numberless fashionings it must receive before it is manufactured into cloth. Thus the augmentations of the tax on the consumption of necessaries of life will be repeated *ad infinitum*, till all those sums are ultimately paid in an accumulated lump by the last consumer. It will not, therefore, be hard to believe, that before coming to him, the tax will have been more than doubled, if not trebled; especially if it be observed, that the tax is, by every one of those who pay it, and receive it again upon the merchandize, increased at least the interest of the enhancement he has made, reckoning from the first who pays the naked tax.

In like manner operates the excises on malt, beer, ale, salt, starch, &c. &c. and on all other necessaries.

There is no proposition more evident, than that every tradesman, handicraftsman, labourer, or any other person, who subsists merely by the profits of trade or labour, must necessarily advance the price of the commodities he deals in, or the wages he earns, in proportion to every tax he is obliged to pay; more especially,

cially, as we have seen, those of excises upon all our native commodities, or he cannot possibly maintain himself.

This price must still be further advanced, on account of every other tradesman's taxes he is obliged to deal with for the common necessaries. So that when any person of fortune, or tradesman, pays another tradesman's bill, he not only pays a proportion of his taxes on candles, soap, salt, leather, beer, ale, shoes, &c. &c. &c. but also a further proportion of the same taxes, on account of every other person such tradesmen also deals with for necessaries. To corroborate what has been urged—The taylor is obliged to pay an enhanced price for meat, on account of the butcher's taxes; and a further enhancement on account of the taxes paid by the several tradesmen the butcher deals with for necessaries, which he must charge on his meat, as it is the only article in which he deals. He also pays the like enhancements on the same account to the baker, shoemaker, and every other tradesman he deals with for articles, necessaries, either for sustenance, or for carrying on his trade; all which enhancements he must add to his own taxes, and charge the whole on the cloaths he makes.

As the taylor is obliged in this manner to enhance the price of cloaths, the shoemaker must enhance the price of shoes on the same account, and add a further enhancement on account of the dearness of cloaths—The tallowchandler enhances on the price of candles on account of his own taxes, and several further enhancements are made on account of the dearness of cloaths, shoes, &c. &c. all which are absolutely necessary for subsistence, and enhanced in their prices on account of those taxes. So that each alternately lays the several enhancements on the commodity he deals in, or adds to the price of his labour, until the whole comes to the consumer.

It may appear surprizing to those who have not considered the consequences of laying taxes on necessary articles, should it be asserted, that they are paid sometimes FIVE HUNDRED, AND SOMETIMES EVEN A THOUSAND FOLD by the consumer; and yet it is often the case, though little attended to.

For instance, a pane of glass that does not weigh a pound, which cost but a shilling before the last tax of a penny a pound was laid on glass, was immediately advanced to the price of eighteen pence, which is 600 per cent. advance on account of this tax. The shoemaker has in like manner advanced the price of a pair of shoes that do not weigh above a pound, two shillings and upwards extraordinary, on account of a tax of two-pence a pound upon leather, which is above 1000 per cent. advance on account of that tax.

When the parliament laid the additional tax of three shillings per barrel on beer, which is one farthing a pot, the brewers and victuallers in conjunction, raised the price of beer one half-penny per pot; so that by thus doubling immediately the duty, they accumulated into their own pockets a sum full equal to what the legislature raised by this tax for the service of the government; and at the same time the beer was generally reputed to be much worse in quality than what it was before the tax. The journeymen and day labourers, who are the chief consumers of beer, imagining that by this means they were ill used and oppressed, raised the price of their labour three-pence per day; the journeymen taylors, indeed, raised the price of their wages six-pence per day. Hence therefore, the public, by means of this small tax being laid on one of the necessaries of life, pays above eight times the sum that the government receives for the support of the state.

Three-fourths of the people have been computed to consist of persons without property, who work for their daily bread, and consume three-fourths of our numerous excise commodities: wherefore, they pay three-fourths of the excise duties thereon. As these industrious people live but from hand to mouth, whatever taxes are laid on their consumables, they are obliged to shift off, or they cannot subsist at all: and since these multiplied duties have been projected, they must earn enough to pay the taxes, the enhanced price of taxed goods, and of the enhanced prices of all other necessaries, viz. of meat, bread, cloathing, or whatever they must necessarily use. Consequently such taxes must occasion the rise of the wages of the working people, as well as the prices of all commodities.

Tradesmen paying enhanced prices on every thing they consume, as well as vend, must have enhanced profits: for whether they lay out their stocks of money in goods that bear their natural value only, or in goods that bear a double value, or merely the weight of taxes, still a living profit must and will be obtained on the stock they employ. For the wages of the manufacturer, the mechanic, the labourer, and the general expences of the master-undertaker, and tradesmen, being of necessity raised, the first cost of goods must be so too: and considering the various tradesmen's hands that goods pass through in their circulation, from the workman and labourer, to the consumer, charged as we have seen, with profit upon profit by each of them, on account of the tax (which in small trades, that furnish the industrious poor, must be very great, otherwise their returns being small they could not live) the enhancement in price thereby occasioned, may, at the most moderate computation be computed at double, if not treble the gross, taxes on most goods to the consumer.

This compelling people in general to live at a much greater expence than if there were no such taxes, causes a proportionate general dearness of every thing throughout the whole kingdom, and amongst every class thereof; and must not this general dearness of all our native commodities necessarily affect our foreign trade, since the same taxes are so great an oppression upon our domestic? For although we are amused, I say, with the drawback of taxes upon the exportation of many of our native commodities, yet is it possible that the repayment of a simple tax should exempt goods from various compound taxes, and the arbitrary enhancements upon enhancements thereby occasioned?

Whence it appears, that notwithstanding the temporary causes before intimated, such as the ingrossing of farms, and of monopolizing, forestalling and regrating, &c. being so long shamefully suffered to prevail, have certainly contributed to the general expence of living, and thereby raised the prices of commodities and manufactures; yet the combined weight of all those unnatural and illegal practices are not alone adequate to account for the excessive height to which all English wares are grown, compared with those of our trading competitors. But if we have recourse besides, to the multitude of taxes upon taxes of every species, with which the whole commerce of the kingdom is loaded, this will be found to be a cause amply adequate to answer the effect our trade experiences.

Not is the effect wholly to be ascribed to the fatal system of PERPETUATED TAXATIONS, as before observed: ANNUAL ONES contribute their share to the evil; and that not only by means of the malt but the land tax. For will not the continuance of four shillings on land so operate as to occasion the landlord to raise his rents upon the tenant? Will not he be induced to alleviate such an incumbrance upon his estate as well as the trader the like upon his commodities? To actuate hereto, does not the landowner bear his proportion of taxes on commodities as a consumer, as well as every other class of the community? When the weight falls heavy upon him as well in his landed capacity as in his consuming one, it is natural to ease the burthen as much as he can.

As this is the case of the landed man as well as the trader, have we reason to imagine, that if the tenant bears an advanced rent, that he will not in his turn also strive as much as may be to shift it from his own shoulders? To this end, must we not expect that the tenant will reimburse the extra expence of his ad-

vanced rent by the imposition of arbitrary taxes upon the produce of his lands? Whence at length does not the land tax terminate on the consumer of land productions, in the like manner as taxes laid on all other commodities do? And will not the farmer and the grazier, &c. all concerned in agriculture, enhance their prices more than proportionate to the advanced rents upon them, as the trader does any tax upon his wares? Experience proves they all do this: nay, has it not grown a practice of late for the tenant to be faddled even with the whole land tax itself, as well as all other parochial taxes? And will not the tenant shift what proportion he can off himself upon the public? So that every species of taxes, lay it wherever you can, will fall at length upon the national trade; and when that is already overloaded, every addition thereto becomes very sensibly felt throughout the kingdom.

What occasion would there be for a four shilling land-tax in time of peace, were not the public debts so greatly augmented as they at present are? Does any tax require more equalizing than the land tax; to the end, that in time of peace the landed interest might have due relief, the better to enable them to sustain a greater burthen in time of war? Should an equal land-tax of two shillings in the pound produce what one of four shillings now does, what reason can there be to defer so national a benefit? In this case, a general equalized land-tax of four shillings in time of war might and would be necessary in our present circumstances. And why should we not prepare for it, by giving all requisite ease to the land in time of peace? Why should this salutary work be longer deferred; when we know not how soon we may stand in need of such a measure? While every branch of the perpetuated part of the revenue is thought necessary to be put into a state of improvement, what reason can be assigned why the annual part should be neglected, when our finances in general require every kind of improvement possible? Procrastinating a measure of this kind is deferring relief where and when it is manifestly required; for if that was immediately given, it might have no small effect to lower the general prices of provisions throughout the nation: an abatement of two shillings in the pound to those who have so long bore the burthen of four shillings, may prevent the raising of rents, and the consequence will be obvious; and those already raised may, after their contract is expired, fall, if that cannot be obtained before. Nor perhaps would any thing be conducive to lower the general price of the necessaries of life, next to that of regulating all public markets, and putting an effectual stop to monopolists, forestallers and regrators.

We cannot put an end to these few observations, without noticing that trite remark in the mouth of too many; that if the industrious poor can obtain enough to maintain themselves in five days, they will not work the whole six. Whence they infer the necessity of even the necessaries of life being made dear by taxes, or any other means, to compel the working artisan and manufacturer to labour the whole six days in the week without ceasing. I must beg leave to differ in sentiment from those great politicians, who contend for the perpetual slavery of the working people of this kingdom: they forget the vulgar adage, all work and no play. Have not the English boasted of the ingenuity and dexterity of her working artists and manufacturers, which have heretofore given credit and reputation to British wares in general? What has this been owing to? To nothing more probably, than the relaxation of the working people in their own way. Were they obliged to toil the year round, the whole six days in the week, in a repetition of the same work, might it not blunt their ingenuity, and render them stupid instead of alert and dexterous; and might not our workmen lose their reputation instead of maintaining it by such eternal slavery? Have not all wise nations instituted holidays, sports and pastimes, for the diversion of the minds of the people? To what end? Certainly to give them a fresh relish for their labour. And if they had not unbendings, we may presume they would pine away, and become enervated as well in body as marred in understanding. And what sort of workmanship could we expect from such hard-driven animals?

However some London workmen may now and then impair their healths by drunkenness and debauchery, the bulk of the industrious artisans and manufacturers throughout the kingdom do otherwise; and when they do make a holiday, they will easily fetch the lost time up, as they term it, in cases of piece work, and many of them will execute as much work in four days as a Frenchman will in five or six. But if Englishmen are to be eternal drudges, 'tis to be feared they will degenerate below the Frenchmen. As our people are famed for bravery in war, do we not say that it is owing to good English roast beef and pudding in their bellies, as well as our constitutional spirit of liberty? And why may not the superior ingenuity and dexterity of our artists and manufacturers be owing to that freedom and liberty they enjoy to divert themselves in their own way; and I hope we shall never have them deprived of such privilege, and that good living from whence their ingenuity no less than their courage may proceed. However, some regulations may be requisite, even for the diversions of the industrious poor.

Did not the common working people find time to spend their earnings, what would become of the public revenue? If they may make three-fourths of the people of Great Britain, do not they pay three-fourths of the inland taxes? If so, have we not seen that every thing they consume must be proportionably raised in price by being taxed; and how can it be expected that they should subsist at rates they did before our taxes were so enormously encreased? When people complain of the wages of the industrious labourers, and level all their might at them, are we not apt to neglect the essentials? Should we not rather show the necessity of the reduction and annihilation of taxes, than spend our political breath in vain against the poor labourer? If labour in general is too dear, why is not the real cause removed? The effect will soon follow.

The success of a kingdom, says a shrewd politician, depends upon a wise regulation of its revenues; and particularly so in a trading nation. For when taxes are not laid and levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of the subject, a moth in the treasury, the universal lamentation of a state, and the interest and joy of our trading competitors. But a wise disposition of them is the soul of a state, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and distress to foreign rivals, and a perpetual fountain of the richest blessings to human life.—I could wish I had reason to say this was the case of the constitution and state of the present revenue of this kingdom; but I am convinced it is highly exceptionable in its essentials.

As our mortgaged and perpetuated taxes on trade cannot be reduced or annihilated, 'till the public debts become so, without detriment to the public credit of the nation, ought not every other evil that can be removed be so, to reduce the price of things as much as may be, in order to give all possible relief to the general trade of the nation? But after all, 'tis to be feared, that till the reduction of taxes shall be accomplished, our trade will receive no extraordinary ease by very other method that is in our power, perhaps; though what is in the immediate power of the nation to do, ought by no means to be delayed for more reasons than I chuse to mention.

The only parliamentary provision made for the reduction of the public debts, and the annihilation of taxes, is the establishment of the sinking fund; and that having been instituted near fifty years, but instead of being out of debt by this time, as we have been long ago given to understand we should have been, by means of the efficacious operation of that all redeeming fund, are not our public debts near trebled since the first establishment of that fund? And are not the tax-incumbrances of the nation encreased to a degree beyond the credibility of any person who lived forty years ago? Was not that fund originally intended to have discharged public debts contracted before the year 1716? Instead thereof, has it not been applied to the current

rent service, and now become mortgaged as a collateral security for fresh debts incurred since that year? When the interest of the public creditors became reduced in the year 1727, from six to four *per cent.* computations were made, that, by virtue of a sinking fund of one million a year only being inviolably applied, to the discharge of the national debt, and the savings that might have been made by compound interest at four *per cent.* the nation might have been out of debt by the year 1756, such fund discharging a debt of fifty millions by that time: and if the interest of fifty millions had been reduced in the said year 1727 to three *per cent.* and there had been a million and an half sacredly applied to the purpose of discharging the principal debt, it would have been paid off before the year 1752.—And that an hundred millions of principal money might have been paid off by the year 1765: in consequence of which, all our perpetuated taxes were to have been redeemed to the public.—But after fifty years experience, all these expectations having proved visionary; and what reason can we at present have to trust to this fund for our general redemption hereafter? Has it not also been boasted, that this all redeeming fund was a greater security to the public creditors for the certain repayment of their principal? And was not that made a pretence to strip the national creditors of one-third of their interest by the year 1727, and since of one-half? In this manner have the creditors of the nation been amused; and instead of their principal being rendered more secure by means of the sinking fund, is it not become less so? And the more and more, the public debts shall increase, the more and more insecure will the repayment of the principal be? And the more and more tax-incumbrances on trade shall augment, will not every species of British commodities grow dearer and dearer? Is it possible under such circumstances, that the trade of the nation can grow better and better? Must it not, on the contrary, grow worse and worse, and that of rival countries grow more and more prosperous upon the ruin of ours?

Of these things the author has long complained throughout the course of his writings: he in particular forewarned the nation, at the commencement of the last war, of what has come to pass, in his tract called GREAT BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM. Herein he shewed the necessity of raising THE SUPPLIES WITHIN THE YEAR, though he, nor any man else then thought the supplies necessary would have been so enormous as they have been, and proved the ill consequences of doing otherwise: and while the ANNUAL EXPENCE shall exceed the ANNUAL REVENUE, he repeats it again, is it possible our affairs should mend? Is it not a pernicious practice to borrow money at interest on mortgaged funds? Is it not a ruinous practice to borrow on funds that shall not WITHIN THE YEAR BE APPLIED FOR THE PAYMENT OF THE PRINCIPAL AS WELL AS INTEREST? Is it not a destructive practice to load our commerce and manufactures with taxes in the manner that has been done, and to mortgage these destructive taxes for a time to come injudiciously as they have been? Hath not a total disregard to these maxims been productive of almost every commercial evil we at present labour under? And must not a continuance in those egregious political errors one day make this nation rue it; the landed, the trading, and monied interests, will all inevitably feel the fatal effects of a series of such perverse and wrongheaded measures this nation has pursued by the influence of weak and wicked ministers, since the revolution? And if there is not public virtue enough in the kingdom to relinquish such a ruinous system, and that without delay too, may it not be quite out of our power to do it, when the emergencies of state may make it indispensably requisite to increase our public debts and our tax incumbrances?

The time of peace is the season for every kind of national improvement to be made against that of war. Should we neglect the present opportunity to extricate the kingdom from every difficulty, how can we expect to do it when it shall appear impassable? If the nation is not in times of peace put into a sure and certain state of redemption from its debts and taxes; I mean a considerable proportion of them speedily, what reason can we have to expect the conservation of our trade and commerce? And what a pitiful figure will the British empire make without them?

'Tis not paying off A FEW MILLIONS OF THE NATIONAL DEBTS, WITHOUT THE REDUCTION OF TAXES, that will give any sensible relief to the commercial interest. It may, indeed, as such expedients heretofore have done, give a temporary political puff to the public credit. But what end will that answer? Judge as we have repeatedly experienced. The consequence will be this: public credit will be bloated for a time; and then advantage may, and very likely will again be taken of the happy crisis, to reduce the interest of the public funds to two *per cent.* and what will become of the saving? Will it not be transferred, as usual, to the unfathomable gulph of the sinking fund? When it is arrived there, can we be certain that it will not be applied to the current service, if occasion requires? Or, may it not become, as it has done, a new additional interest fund, whereby the more easily to increase the public debts, instead of paying any off, to a degree of significance? And will such payments avail the nation? Can we expect more advantage thereby than what we have received by the past payments since the institution of the sinking fund? And what easement will that be to the nation? None at all: I pronounce, if conducted upon the same principles of former payments; all which have terminated hitherto in the further reduction of the interest of the public creditors; and can we think they will esteem that a benefit? The proprietor of 20,000*l.* in the funds will make a mighty figure in the world with his annuity of 400*l.* a year; and a lady with her 20,000*l.* fortune will appear in great splendor at Mrs. Cornelly's.

However agreeable such a further reduction of interest may sit upon the stomachs of some, what mighty emolument will the trade of the nation receive by this thread-bare expedient? Can taking away one third more of the spending money of those public creditors subject thereto, benefit trade? Can they spend the more the less they have to spend, without breaking in upon their principal? To what a hopeful condition will such fund-holders be reduced, when they shall experience their income to be reduced, and the price of all things to grow dearer and dearer? When a third part more of their present annuity of three *per cent.* shall be pledged to pay interest to new annuitants, or become otherwise applied, and their spending money shall be curtailed, will not all the specific funds feel the happy effects of such profound policy? But it will be said, perhaps, that our acts of parliament abound with provisos that obviate these trivial objections; for if any funds prove deficient, when once we have got such funds established, the bounty of the legislature oblige themselves to make such deficiency good the ensuing session: so that any new funds, as well as our ancient ones, can never, in reality, become deficient, although their regular and commercial produce be annihilated. A very happy system truly! An inimitable way of raising money, without the appearance of NEW TAXES, however much the old ones shall be reduced. An admirable prop this to the public credit! Does not every man see through this cobweb policy? What avails it, whether the funds, with which the public creditors are amused, answers the purpose for which they are pitched on or not, seeing their deficiencies are certain of being supplied by the legislature? But I would ask, Do not these deficiencies as well as any specific taxes fall upon trade? Does such practice any way lessen our burthens upon the commerce of the nation?

Though the deficiency is supplied, what becomes of the surplus? Does this go to the payment of the principal for which such funds were new coined? We have seen what hath become of the old sinking fund, constituted of the surplusses of the Aggregate, the South Sea, and the General funds. As those surplusses have been thrown into the sinking fund for the payment of debts contracted before the year 1716; so likewise have all the distinct surplusses which have arose from all the new funds that have been established since, by the act of the 25th of George II. for consolidating the funds. But what hath the nation been relieved of its taxes both by the means of the OLD or the NEW FUND-SURPLUSSES? I recollect

left but one single appropriated tax that hath been taken off, except the old subsidy imposed in Charles the Second's time, since the year 1716, when the old sinking fund was first established: that was the salt duty, in the year 1730; and that was again laid on in the succeeding year. So that however wise an institution the sinking fund might have been in the opinion of some for the discharge of the public debts, and at length for the redemption of taxes appropriated for payment of the interest thereof; yet we find, that after so many years trial and experience of its mighty effect for the national ease, we have received none at all. On the contrary, the public debts and taxes to answer them, are now brought to such an enormous height, it appears that both the old and the subsequent sinking funds have proved an encouragement to increase BOTH, instead of diminishing either. And why? Because they have facilitated the raising of money by repeated loan after loan, and been made an INTEREST FUND, instead of a REDEMPTING ONE, for fresh debts, or applied to the current service.

If ever it is intended to get rid of the public debts, without violating the public faith, does it not seem necessary that another system should be established for the purpose? A new fund, which should never more be christened a SINKING FUND, but a SOVEREIGN DEBT-PAYING, or rather a TAX-RELIEVING FUND, and never to be misapplied.

If the public debts shall not be put into a sure road of redemption, but the state-creditors are to remain perpetual annuitants, it may not indeed be bad policy to think of reducing their interest as low as we can: in which case, the lower that is reduced, the nearer we shall be to get rid of a great part of the debt; for its magnitude will be no burthen, when we shall pay no interest for it; and the nearer we draw to a total exemption from the incumbrance of paying interest, that may effectually answer the end of a sponge, and then the kingdom will be in a happy state to be sure!

But perchance the wise scheme of reducing of interest further may defeat itself; for when the public creditors are so alarmed, can we be certain that they will not sell out their funds as fast as they can? And will a run on the funds make the reduction of interest more easily practicable? It will not only render the project abortive, but may give such a blow to the public credit as will not facilitate our borrowing more money, when we shall have the utmost occasion for it. Wherefore, it is to be hoped, that some such consideration may contribute to the laying such a scheme aside, if it ever was intended, as hath been lately talked of among some great politicians.

Let any gentleman reflect a moment upon the state of the old sinking fund since its commencement; and will he not be convinced that the public creditors have been fleeced of too many millions already to admit of more? Had we from the first establishment of that fund to pay off the debts contracted before 1716, have been resolute to have raised the supplies within the year, the old sinking fund, as it increased, might have been made a permanent redeemer of the old debts.

Nay, although it had not been found practicable to have raised the whole of the supplies necessary within the year; and we had, therefore, been obliged to have contracted occasionally some new debts, yet had the sinking fund been made the right and proper use of, the nation need not, perhaps, have been near one moiety of the principal sum indebted it now is; a great part of the load of our tax-incumbrances have been prevented, and the public credit bottomed on a more solid basis than it at present is. But this matter hath been egregiously mistaken, and by those too who have been accounted superlative financiers.

However well the sinking fund has been improved to facilitate the increase of the public debts and taxes, it has been badly situated, as was at first intended, to ease the nation of the latter. And what benefit is it to the community to pay a few millions now and then of the principal money debt, without reducing at the same time our taxes?

But in such manner is the sinking fund constituted, that no taxes have been taken off, when any parts of the debt have been discharged: and, indeed, such is the nature of that fund, that if taxes had been reduced, as we might have paid the principal by means of that fund beyond the savings made by the reduction of the interest money, such reductions of taxes would have UNDERMINED THE VERY FOUNDATION OF THE SINKING FUND ITSELF. For the whole of that fund is constituted, as well of the continuance of taxes as of the savings by the past reductions of interest; the surplusses of the aggregate, the South Sea, and the general funds, composing a principal part of that fund, and being made up of taxes as well as the savings by interest: and the subsequent parts of the sinking fund arising since the consolidating act 25th of George II. are compounded of new taxes, and their distinct surplusses; so that if any taxes had been reduced and annihilated, the sinking fund could never have swelled to the magnitude it hath done; and would not that have been a check to the extravagant profusion of the public money? Would the nation have been the worse for that?

Whence, it appears, that in the first constitution, perhaps, of the sinking fund, it was illy contrived to give due relief to the nation, although it was a notable device to reduce the interest of the public creditors from six per cent. to its present state; and might have been also devised to have eased the kingdom of its taxes, instead of augmenting them, as it has been made the means of doing; but that matter has been beneath the consideration of our profound statesmen hitherto.

The paying off a few millions of the national debt, without the annihilation of any tax-incumbrances that can prove an easement to the commercial interest, can only give a temporary blast, I again say, to public credit, and may thereby tend, as observed, still to the further reduction of interest: nay, such measures may be so practiced as to bring the irredeemable part of the debt into a state of redemption, and thereby reduce the interest of that, as well as the redeemables; and in consequence thereof, we may still add more and more to the sinking fund, and thereby provide fresh interest funds for the additional increase of fresh public debts, as hath been our case already. The repetition of this shameful policy may be carried to such a degree, as we have seen, to destroy quite the credit of the funds and of the nation. But it is to be hoped, that all such expedients will be treated as they shall merit, unless the saving by further reductions of interest on the funds should be sacredly applied to a proportionate reduction of taxes.

Were, indeed, all the funds reduced to a level of interest at three per cent. which cannot be done without an infraction of public faith, 500,000*l.* more might be saved: but if that was swallowed up in the sinking fund gulph, instead of being applied to the reduction of taxes, that would prepare the way to increase the public debt about sixteen millions more, if converted into a fresh interest fund for the purpose, according to past example. In the like wise manner may the interest of the whole national debt be reduced from three to two per cent. per annum, and an additional interest fund be created of between one and two millions more, which may prove the happy means of swelling the national debt to above one-half as much more as it is, and make it up no less than the round sum of TWO HUNDRED MILLIONS. Every one discerns how this wise British system may be carried to still greater and greater lengths, and bring the kingdom to a very prosperous situation at last; for by means thereof, we shall neither be able ever to pay what we owe, nor to borrow a shilling more; and thus will Great Britain be duly prepared for the first conqueror who shall make the attempt.

Whether the perpetrators of this allwise project will call themselves friends to the present illustrious family upon the throne of these kingdoms; whether this is the grateful recompence that the best of sove-

reigns deserves from this kingdom, is submitted to the reflexion of those whom it may nearly concern; and whether they may think themselves beholden to the author for those remarks, is a matter of indifference to him; for let them be taken as intended, or otherwise, he is sure to be not one farthing the better for it, unless by the enjoyment of that self-felt satisfaction in having done his duty.

I could wish the subject I am engaged on was at an end, being tired of so disagreeable a task that I have voluntarily imposed upon myself.—But to resume the subject of PAYING DEBTS WITHOUT REDUCING TAXES.

We have considered the scheme of discharging PUBLIC DEBTS WITHOUT EASING THE PUBLIC; or to speak in other words, the scheme of paying public debts by being the worse instead of the better for so doing. For have we not seen that this hath hitherto been our case, and what reason have we to believe the pursuit of this scheme of proceeding can ever mend our affairs, pursuant to the present constitution of the revenue?

Were we to continue in a state of perfect peace and tranquillity for ten years together, and to pay off a million annually of principal money-debt, would the discharge of ten millions be any sort of easement to the commerce of the nation, without the reduction of taxes? Was this ten millions paid by virtue of the sinking fund, which, perhaps, would not be so easily practicable, we can expect no annihilation of taxes that constitute that fund; and whether that fund in such case would admit of the payment of ten millions in twenty years, is to be questioned. Or were we to add the savings of the interest of the said discharged million a year, either simple or compound, and pay the accumulated interest as principal, what hope should we have of the reduction of taxes? Nay, should we be enabled in virtue of the sinking fund to pay off a million and one-half annually, for ten years uninterruptedly, with the accumulated compound interest, it would not discharge above 17,196,465*l.* with a continuance of taxes; and this could only affect the stockholders by reducing of their interest lower and lower.

As such payment of the public debt would have a tendency to a further reduction of interest; and if that should take place, the spending money of the nation would be diminished, would not the tax-funds sensibly feel it? And though the deficiencies of funds shall be made good from year to year, by parliament, yet will not the public bear the weight of such taxes, notwithstanding the declension of its trade by such fund-deficiencies?

Should it be said, if the interest of the funds should be further reduced, it might oblige many to enter into trade, who could not subsist upon their fund-annuities. It might be so, and they might then be quite ruined; for do we not find the Gazette abounds with bankrupts enough daily? And what has this been owing to? The decline both of our domestic as well as foreign trade; the one owing to the smuggling of foreign commodities and manufactures into the kingdom, and her plantations; the other to the excessive high price of English commodities by reason of our immense tax-incumbrances, as we have seen.

Moreover, can people unbred and unskilled in the arts of carrying on trade obtain knowledge and experience sufficient for the purpose instantaneously? Can they suddenly raise a fund of commercial credit, who never before had, or required any? But what trades are they to strike into, that will admit of unexperienced people thriving in? If it be said, that men who have been in trade and left it off, and live upon their annuities in the funds, may strike into the same trades again; I ask, can persons advanced in years, as others seldom betake themselves to live upon the interest of their stocks gained by trade, begin life again? We may as well pretend to make the aged young again. Who then are to be induced to engage in trade that were wholly out of it?

Besides, provided further reductions of interest in the funds should be thought of, in order to compel people into trade who are out of it, should we not previously experience the inducement to be very engaging? Ought it not to admit of a certain greater profit than is to be made in the funds, even when reduced? How can raw and untrained people be sure of this? Are not long and large credits given in trade as sellers? But how will such find the like as buyers? If they cannot, what hazards of ruin must they run?

Was the domestic and foreign trade of the nation greatly extended; and were the profits thereof inviting, the rising generations might be encouraged to be bred thereto: but few stockholders would again engage therein, who had chose to live at their ease; so that the further reducing scheme would give no great temptation to such proprietors again to turn traders. Some few, perhaps, might rather incline to lend a part of their property on personal security for larger interest than they then could make in the funds. But those to make any greater sure advantage by so doing, would be people who had acquired experience in trade, and a good knowledge of the man they trusted, or the risk would be great; and very few skilful people would chose to run it. Should the unskilful be rash enough to hazard their fund-incomes in trade with others, they might soon have occasion to repent it. And female proprietors, however numerous, would not think of trade.

Notwithstanding, therefore, the trade of the nation should be something enlarged, yet as the spending money of stockholders would be abridged, might not the general trade lose as much the one way, as it acquired by the other? And how would the nation be gainers? How would stand the plight of the funds? Deficiencies upon deficiencies might be multiplied; and would not that prove a dead weight upon the enlarged trade? But in what manner can the trade of the kingdom be extended, while our commodities and manufactures continue so excessively dear by the means of taxes? Were they indeed effectually reduced, it might be shewn how easily the trade of the nation might be largely extended. Let this be done, and we shall find people enough rise up to carry it on, without depending upon the conversion of stock-annuitants into traders, by the means of reducing of their interest.

Were our taxes on trade competently reduced, and the price of every thing, in consequence thereof, to such a degree, that a stockholder could live as well upon his annuity of two *per cent.* as he at present does on that of three or four *per cent.* and our general commerce greatly increased, as it might be by wise management; if there did want more people in trade, experienced traders would the longer decline going out of it, and converting themselves into stockholders; and the reduction of interest might and would conduce to this; and if the savings that might be made hereof were faithfully applied to supply the places of the most burthensome perpetuated taxes, these latter might be reduced still further and further, which would tend to the greater and greater increase of the general trade.

Nor is it the reduction of taxes to any small degree that will give the trade of the nation substantial redress, as we are circumstanced. The reduction of taxes of one hundred thousand, or two hundred, or THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS A YEAR, would not be felt by a kingdom in general that pays above FOURTEEN MILLIONS *per annum*, in time of peace, with all enhancements on its commodities, although the imposition of fresh annual taxes to the amount of TWO OR THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS A YEAR, would be grievously felt by the whole nation. There is a great difference at present between the laying on of NEW TAXES, and the taking off OLD ONES, to the same amount. Like the horse overladen already, a very little more may sink him. Being so highly tax ridden as we are, a small addition to the number is very sensibly felt by trade, since traders are compelled to raise their wares in price, as taxes on them are increased, which soon disseminates itself through the whole community, when imposed upon any commodity universally consumed by the mass of the people. And if once the general prices of commodities are greatly augmented by the multiplication of taxes upon taxes, as we have seen by various instances, it is not the annihilation,

nihilation, as has been said, of a simple tax that will remove the evil entailed by numerous compound ones, which contributed to the greater enhancement the one of the other: they augment the prices of English goods in a ratio suitable to their number, as well as the weight of every particular tax. Remove, therefore, the simple tax on one commodity only, and not the others that proportionally contribute to raise the price of goods; which have an affinity therewith, can we expect THAT to lower the price of goods sufficiently to advance our foreign and domestic trade?

We must give therefore such general relief as the trade of the nation should seem to require: that is to say, to enable England to sell as good a commodity at any foreign market, and that at as cheap a rate, as any of our trading foreign competitors are able to do; which is the real relief that the foreign trade of this nation requires, if we mean to retrieve, preserve, and extend it. And without foreign trade, will the mere domestic commerce of the nation render it opulent or formidable? Will not the maritime potency and glory of the British empire dwindle and degenerate from its dignity and splendor? Wherefore, if this kingdom will maintain its influence, weight and power in the world, ought any measure to be neglected that shall tend to the preservation of its maritime trade, which is the permanent source of all we enjoy, as a great and powerful state?

It is agreed on all hands, that the mere inland trade of the nation cannot sustain its maritime prowess. If we once lose our power by sea, how long can we avoid becoming a prey to the neighbouring conquerors, whose maritime trade and power must increase as ours shall decline? What can more effectually prevent the fatal catastrophe than the support of our foreign trade? Can any thing do that to such purpose like the being, and ever continuing upon an equality with any rival nation in all the prices of our manufactures? And if the multiplicity of our simple taxes upon simple taxes, and our compound taxes upon compound taxes, appear to be the chief and real cause of the high prices of all English wares; if this cause, and this only considered in its full weight and extent, shall be deemed the cause adequate to the general effect, the natural remedy for such a national evil is certainly to remove the cause; and to remove it as effectually, and as expeditiously as we can. For the evil is daily growing upon us; our competitors are daily supplanting us at more and more foreign markets, and increasing in their rivalry more and more at every particular foreign market; and therefore, the fulness of time seems now to be come, when sound policy dictates an attention to every possible measure that can expedite the reduction and absolute annihilation of as many of our perpetuated tax-incumbrances as we can; and those should be first annihilated that the most immediately affect the prices of all commodities and manufactures, that are the support of our foreign traffic.

Could any person be weak or perverse enough to deny the effectuality of the commercial policy to reduce the prices of English commodities for exportation, in order to preserve and extend the foreign trade of the nation, let him only consider the trade of the East Indies; let him consider that it is the excessive cheapness of all sorts of East India wares, commodities and manufactures in general, when compared with those of the Europeans, that has induced most of the chief commercial states to establish great joint-stock companies to traffic in their productions and manufactures, and to export them from one European state to another, or to their respective plantations in America, or their settlements in Africa. This single fact, relative to the general cheapness of East India commodities, and the eagerness of European states in their purchase, and in their resorting to the Indies by long voyages, and establishing joint-stock companies for that end, is sufficiently convincing, that the great article of cheapness is the governing principle of the trade of the world: and this is the great point of policy whereby the wisest trading states study to conduct themselves; and therefore, it must be fruitless to spend more time to prove what is an affront to the understanding, to presume that any man would dispute the verity of the maxim, by which he is swayed himself in his purchases. Even people unacquainted with practical trade, know, that their self governing principle is that of cheapness, quality for quality; and traders daily experience both in their sales and purchases, that one or two *per cent.* and sometimes less, will govern the markets, as well at home as abroad.

Wherefore, the deduction of the following consequences is obvious, and can be as little disputable as the premises: while the French and the Dutch commodities, or those of any other nation, that interferes in foreign states and empires, with the sale of the English, by being considerably cheaper than ours, can we suppose, that foreigners will give the preference to ours the dearer, unless there is some other interesting inducement which shall compensate for the dearer price given. When this, indeed, is the case, it will often force the sales of our dearer commodities; when the luxurious returns taken in barter for English wares shall give the Spaniards and Portuguese, &c. advantages superior to what they shall receive from the French and Dutch, who stand in no need of their wines or their fruits, &c. &c.

Let it be supposed, that English woollen goods of divers sorts arrive at the Spanish or Portuguese market in Europe, and that of the like sorts there are of the French or the Dutch, equally good quality for quality, and if sold outright for cash, could be afforded from ten to fifteen *per cent.* cheaper than those of England; can we suppose the Spaniard or Portuguese will give the preference to the dearer goods? But says the Spaniard or Portuguese, the Frenchman or Dutchman will not purchase our wines or our fruits, and the Englishman will be fool enough so to do. Therefore, on the account of barter with the Englishman, I can afford, says the Spaniard or Portuguese, to allow him five or six *per cent.* or considerably more than I need the Dutchman or the Frenchman, because I get rid of the superfluities of wines and fruit; and by so doing, I find, in the end of the account, that I get as much by the Englishman as by the French or the Dutchman. And what says the English merchant? Though I cannot afford to sell my English woollen goods under eight or ten *per cent.* or more, dearer than the French or Dutch can, yet by the profits arising in England on the wines or the fruits in return, I find the gains on the conclusion of the voyage out and home will answer, upon the whole, in the way of barter.

But was not the Englishmen to take wines and fruit, what chance would he stand to dispose of his goods, when his French and Dutch Competitor could so much undersell him? This we call forcing the markets, and putting off his dearer goods by the means of taking in lieu the Spanish and Portuguese luxuries for our solid woollen goods. This does not render the gain of England, in trading with Spain or Portugal, equal to that of France or Holland, who take the Spanish and Portuguese gold and silver instead of their superfluities of wines and fruit—Nor would England, we may imagine, sell any goods in Spain or Portugal, while they can have these so much cheaper of our rivals, unless we were to take their luxuries in return.

England, indeed, gains by the article of freight: and England gains to the revenue by the duties of Spanish and Portuguese imports; but had not England mortgaged such duties, and therefore stood in no need of them, if Spain or Portugal did not take our manufactures, should we be under any national inducement to take their disadvantageous luxuries? As things are, the English consumer of wines and fruit pays, in effect, for the English woollen goods consumed in Spain, and the duties of import laid on the nation, are more than equivalent to the benefits of freight; so that what mighty gainers can we be by this trade as we are at present circumstanced upon the whole? We are not such gainers thereby as France or Holland, whose sales must be much larger, because much cheaper than ours; and as they make use of their own bottoms as well as we, their profits by freight are only less by the returns, which they compensate by other trading voyages from Spain or Portugal, and

make up amply the deficiency by having larger quantities of their cheaper goods in the flota and galleons, and in the Brazil fleets.—Whence it should seem to follow, that our share in the commerce of Spain and Portugal is of much less benefit and advantage to Great Britain, and of more to our rivals than many may imagine.

If it should be objected, that the exchange between England and Spain, and between England and Portugal being in our favour, shews that we are gainers by those branches of trade, and how can that be, if the ballance is not on our side? To which we answer, that although this is the case, and the course of exchange appears to our advantage; yet it does not follow that this criterion is an infallible one to prove, that it is on account of a greater value of English goods being consumed in Spain and Portugal than we consume of theirs, though it may indicate that we receive larger remittances from thence in value than we send thither from England; and for this plain reason, that English resident merchants, or merchants resident in England, may be interested in sending French manufactures thither to a larger value than they do of English; and in consequence of such transactions from England, and remittances made to England from Spain and Portugal on account of French manufactures, wherein English merchants may be concerned, occasion the exchange to appear in favour of this nation, when the ballance of trade is against us. For,

Do we not well know, that the French have now arrived at an extraordinary imitation of every art practiced in the English fabrics, particularly in the woollen and silken manufactures, and even in their lengths, breadths, marks, and package, &c. &c? Do we not likewise know, for a certainty, that French manufactures have been imposed on foreign countries for English by English merchants? And pray what has induced to such like practices? Hath it not been, that French goods sell better there than English, because they are cheaper?

A merchant is a citizen of the world; 'tis one of the chief mercantile arts to purchase any where, and of any one, the cheapest wares of any kind, and sell them where ever he can the dearest. Will not this tempt merchants resident in England, to interest themselves rather in cargoes of the cheaper French goods, that will easily vend in foreign states, than in English, that will lay rotting in their factors warehouses abroad? Our mere wine merchants, as we term them, are not the only merchants that trade to Spain and Portugal from hence; but does it follow, that they trade thither wholly in English goods, when they can no less easily trade thither in French? Cannot the Spanish or Portugal merchant resident in England embark a large capital, either for his own sole account, or in anonymous partnerships with French merchants in France, who will rejoice at their correspondence for sake of their commissions? Is it not easy for such English merchant to consign such French goods either to his English or French factory from hence, who may impose them upon the Spaniards and Portuguese for English manufactures, being made *façon d'Angleterre*? And may not such merchant resident in England have his remittances made to England for such French manufacture; and will not this swell the exchange for money in our favour, when the real ballance for goods may be against England? This deception is as easy as natural; and the greatest proportion of such remittances hither may be drawn from England again, to pay for the French manufactures. Is not this the natural consequence of France underselling us as they do, and having arrived at so great an excellence in many of their fabrics? Is it possible by any laws to restrain, much less wholly prevent such mercantile practices? No: nothing will hinder them, but an ability in the English nation to sell their manufactures equally cheap with any rival nation. This will have the desired effect; and is it not well worthy the most serious attention of a British legislature? For is not this one of the chief occasions of the present groans and lamentations of our English artists, mechanics and manufacturers, notwithstanding the short-lived temporary starts of employment they may occasionally have, which are easily accounted for? If the skill, and stocks in trade of our English merchants shall be rather embarked in the encouragement of the commerce of France than England, is it not a very melancholy consideration, when the idea is extended to the degree it will admit of?

If likewise our own merchants shall gain more by the legal and illegal practices of importing French or other cheap goods into England, and the former may cover the latter arts, must it not tend to the inevitable destruction of our own advantageous branches of trade, our exports? But while we parade it by our great imports, and the employment of our shipping in consequence of such imports, does not this dazzle the eyes of many with the idea of immense gains, while we may be going to ruin apace?

I am sorry to have occasion to dwell longer on a subject so disagreeable. But is not he a better friend to the nation, who endeavours to probe a malady to the root, in order to excite to the thorough cure of it, than he that artfully labours to skin it over, that it will certainly break out again with incurable virulence?

The dearest markets, or such markets where every thing in general sells at the dearest rates, are the greatest temptation to the consumption of foreign imports, either legally or illegally. The former we encourage for the sake of keeping in good plight a revenue mortgaged in perpetuity till its redemption: and when that will be, can any man in the nation say? I say, it can never be duly effected, till an entire change of the system of our revenue we have so long and so shamefully adopted takes place: and in what manner this can be accomplished is the business of our rulers to think of, there being not the least encouragement for any private man to think about it; for so sure as he does, he may ruin himself by his endeavours to serve the nation: and will he not rather be laughed at, and despised, than pitied for his public spirit?

Some judge of the increase of the national trade by the increase of the DUTIES OF IMPORTS; and say the good plight of the revenue of customs is a criterion of a flourishing trade. Not sure of a prosperous trade, a trade nationally advantageous; however the merchant may gain by it, the kingdom may lose. It is a sign of the increase of FOREIGN PURCHASES, and FOREIGN LUXURIES, and even of FOREIGN MANUFACTURES into this kingdom; but no one will say, that such kind of traffic can be the touchstone of a trade beneficial to the kingdom. Imports of foreign materials of utility to our manufactures are entered DUTY FREE; but other IMPORTS, unless they occasion an equivalent export of native commodities are certainly detrimental, and ought to be discouraged, unless admitted for re-exportation, but not domestic consumption, when our own commodities and manufactures will do in their stead, and give employment to our own industrious poor. In this case, the revenue of customs is no great gainer, unless they are consumed here; and this is too often the best market for them, because foreign goods sell to greater advantage here than elsewhere: so that what the kingdom may gain in point of freight and navigation, is in part, if not wholly lost by such domestic consumption.

The duties of customs were originally devised to impede and discourage an inundation of foreign wares and luxuries being consumed in the nation, and to promote the domestic consumption of our own. This policy seems perverted in our enlightened age; and for the sake of keeping up the revenue of customs to the highest pitch of produce we can; and to bring in as much as may be into the exchequer, and not to enrich the kingdom, all encouragement is given to the legal importation of foreign commodities that are charged with duties at the port. And why? Is not this because the duties of customs are mortgaged to the public creditors? Is not this the greatest misfortune that can attend a trading nation? To have its revenues imposed upon foreign goods to prevent their consumption instead of our native, pledged for the support of the public credit! What is this, in effect, other than a declaration to foreign states, that the purchase and im-

portation of their luxuries and their manufactures are become so absolutely necessary to the maintenance of the PUBLIC CREDIT of Great Britain, that we are not able to pay interest for our public debts without them? Import them, therefore, say some we must, let the conduct of those states towards us be ever so detrimental, for the sake of keeping up our revenues! Can any thing more strikingly than these considerations demonstrate the unspeakable injury this nation receives from the weight of its enormous debts, and its oppressive mortgaged taxes in consequence thereof? For as on the one hand, the burthen of our inland tax-incumbrances thereby occasioned, obstructs the sales and exportation of our native commodities; so on the other, the necessity of continuing our duties of customs, makes it dangerous to discourage, or much less to prohibit the purchase or importation of foreign goods, foreign luxuries, and even foreign wrought manufactures. Because we have suffered our revenues, and the natural effects and consequences thereof, not only to be so immense a load upon all our trade, but that load to become so mortgaged and anticipated, that we are disabled from removing it in part, much less in the whole. What an unhappy situation is this for a nation to be reduced to?

To speak at present with relation only to our foreign imports, and the duties of customs laid thereon.— While the public debts shall render it impracticable to annihilate any of these duties, how can we, without injury to the public credit, lessen or prohibit such importations to any considerable value; however necessary to the interest of the nation either the one or the other may be? How can we resent any mal-treatment in a commercial way, that we may receive from any state with whom we trade? Has not this been the reason, that instead of retaliating injuries in the way we should do, without wars, we have been obliged to plunge headlong into them, when they might easily have been avoided by commercial restraints and prohibitions?

Let it be supposed, that Spain or Portugal declines in their purchases of English goods, owing to their greater dearth, or any other cause real, or pretended in time of peace, is it politic in England to continue to take the same value of their wines and their fruits, as we did before such declension on their side took place? Do not the public interests require, that as they lessen in their purchases of English goods, that England should diminish in her purchases of theirs, to preserve the ballance as equal as we can, if we shall not be able to keep it in our favour? To do otherwise, is to suffer ourselves to carry on trade to no purpose but the exhaustion of our treasure; and is it not better to let such disadvantageous trade alone, unless it shall prove essential to the preservation of the connections of such branches as may be beneficial? Provided that is not the case, are we, for the sake of keeping up the revenue of customs, still to encourage a detrimental trade? Shall it be said, that because the revenues on their foreign goods are mortgaged to the public creditors, that we are obliged to permit such imports, or suffer the public credit to be undone? For that if we lay any obstruction, or a prohibition on such branches of trade, and thereby annihilate such a proportion of the revenue of customs, we know not how to supply that deficiency by new taxes.

Whence it should seem, that we are reduced to the fatal dilemma; either the public credit must be hurt, or the kingdom must be exhausted. Is not this a deplorable circumstance? And to what is this owing, but to the enormous magnitude of the public debts, which have plunged us into such a situation? For if the duties of customs remained unmortgaged, should we not, or ought we not, to retaliate upon Spain or Portugal, in the like commercial way? If we lessened our imports from them as they did theirs from us in the like proportion, we should still be upon an equality with them: if they prohibited our manufactures either by public laws or by excluding them, by giving the preference to those of our competitors, which would be the same in effect to us, we should devise some methods to diminish our imports, or legally prohibit them, as they had done ours. But does not mortgaging the revenues arising from foreign imports so tie up the hands of British government, as to make it difficult for the wisest administration to know what steps to take upon the supposition suggested?

Hath not this mortgaging the revenues of customs on foreign wrought silks proved the cause, that our silk weavers have been, and still continue to be reduced to great distress and calamity; because the administration hath been at a loss to supply, by new taxes, the deficiency that shall arise in the revenue by the PROHIBITION OF ALL FOREIGN WROUGHT SILKS; those revenues being mortgaged, as well as others, upon foreign imports. Whereas, 'tis not unreasonable to believe, that if ministers could have easily supplied any deficiency that might have happened in the revenue by new taxes, we should before now have had foreign wrought silks prohibited. Could this also have been done, with respect to some other branches of our imports, we should long since, perhaps, have lessened or prohibited several, and by this time have supplied ourselves with the like commodities, either at home or from our plantations.

'Tis of little weight to say, that if we did not import these foreign wrought manufactures, that tend to the ruin of our own, foreigners would not purchase our goods. We pay at least A MILLION a year for foreign wrought silk, both legally and illegally consumed in the nation. Did we save this, by the employment of our own silk manufacturers, would not this make a difference to the nation, between spending and saving, of TWO MILLIONS a year? Can any one prove that this loss is compensated any other way, in consequence of our consumption of foreign wrought silks in general? From what motive was the general wear of French Cambrics prohibited in the nation? Was it not by reason it cost us between two and three hundred thousand pounds a year? And that if we saved that annuity by the employment of our own weavers in the manufactures of blonds, gauzes, and the numerous other particulars which were encouraged in consequence of the prohibition, the nation would gain half a million thereby? Has not this measure preserved numbers of our weavers from perishing? Has it not been from the like motives, that we have encouraged our linen manufactures in general instead of foreign? Has not Great Britain and Ireland experienced the unspeakable emolument of this policy? Is not TWO MILLIONS a year worth saving, by giving bread to our own silk manufacturers instead of foreigners? To deny this, may it not with equal reason be urged, for the importation of French woollen manufacturers to destroy all English looms, and turn this great body of our people out of the kingdom?

Amongst our several grievances, that of our manner of supplying revenue deficiencies, as we have had occasion to touch on that point, without the imposing of new taxes, is one that should by no means be passed over in silence, by reason the practice may be attended with bad consequences. It is an increase of the politic arts of laying imperceptible burthens on the public, when the visible and barefaced ones by laying new additional taxes are oppressive enough.

By such arts as these it matters little what funds a minister may pitch upon; for if it does not produce a surplus, the sum it is proposed to answer for is made good the ensuing session of parliament; and if it produces a surplus, that is not applied to make good the deficiency of other funds, but is transferred to advance the credit side of the sinking fund. To such a height have we now arose in the practice of making good deficiencies, that if millions are taken annually from the sinking fund itself, and applied to the current service, the deficiency of the sinking fund is again made good the next year. Whence it appears, that this notable practice of raising large sums without specific taxes, may grow to such an exorbitant degree, that the publick debts may be doubled instead of diminished; for by such arts fresh interest money may be found for fresh debts. Can such practices be conducive to that annihilation of taxes the nation is so greatly in need of?

To such a pitch of good policy have we at length arrived, by supplying deficiency upon deficiency, and adding surplus upon surplus to encrease the magnitude of the sinking fund, that we find our annual tax-deficiencies no less than our perpetual ones are made good. But were not our annual taxes, as well as our perpetual, annually mortgaged and anticipated, what reason can there be to supply the deficiencies of annuals? Ought not the annual land taxes to be ever levied within the year to prevent any such practices?

Is there not some degree of danger to the constitution attending this practice? 'Tis an easy transition from mortgaging annual taxes only for a single year, to mortgage the same for two or three years; and after this, to convert the annual taxes of land and malt into perpetual ones, as we have done all the rest of our taxes? Will not this practice produce a most notable augmentation to the sinking fund, and make a fresh additional interest fund, still more and more to increase the sinking fund? It may be attended with a further alarming consequence to the nation. For I would ask, what then occasion will there be for parliaments at all, when our annual taxes shall be changed into perpetual as all the rest are?

Should the nation be once brought to this pitch of fund-policy, to convert our land and malt taxes into perpetual mortgaged ones, when are we likely to see their redemption any more than of the rest of our tax-ridden oppressions? Is it not, therefore, a most dangerous practice to suffer money to be borrowed at all upon those taxes, lest future wicked or wrongheaded ministers should so abuse it as to destroy the very being of parliaments? For the happy conservation of their own existence, does it not become the wisdom of the legislature to pay some attention to these strictures, and think seriously rather of converting the constitution of the revenue, and change our perpetual into annual taxes, than to suffer the prevalence longer of that dangerous and impolitic system of perpetuation and anticipation we have fallen into? It is humbly hoped, that the great wisdom, impartiality and candor of a British parliament will receive these few thoughts as they are honestly intended.—To resume the consideration of the revenue of customs.

Let it be supposed that the neat total produce of the revenue of customs yields TWO MILLIONS a year to the exchequer: and be it further supposed, that those duties, on an average, amount to fifty *per cent.* upon the prime cost paid for our imports, must we not lay out for such imports four millions *per annum* at least to raise two millions by customs? So that to raise a revenue of two millions by customs stands the nation in six millions.—If the duties of our imports are not supposed to amount on an average to fifty *per cent.* then the sums paid for imports will be more than four millions to raise the revenue of two millions only.

Let it be reckoned that two millions of the said four millions of imports come from the British plantations in general; and that we pay no more to foreign countries for our other imports than two millions *per annum*, from which we raise a neat revenue of customs of one million only, and that we raise the other million of the custom-revenue from our PLANTATION IMPORTS, and that our plantations take of British commodities in return to the full amount of TWO MILLIONS; this trade between Great Britain and her plantations circulates the whole four millions amongst British subjects, in British bottoms, and our plantation goods re-exported brings an additional profit to the nation.

And did, as our plantations are supposed to do, the several European states take of British produce and manufactures to the amount we take from them, we should be upon an equality with them, and not pay many of them a considerable balance yearly to our great disadvantage: a point that has been most shamefully overlooked, and even often for their being our enemies, when from the motive of being such gainers by us in the way of trade, we had a right to their friendship.—Though we have had so just and reasonable a plea and foundation for such powers to join us in times of war, yet when have they done so? Instead of that, have they not entered into subsidiary engagements with our enemies, to enable them to hurt our interest more and more, by plunging us into greater and greater expences, to make a compensation for these unspcakable obligations they have too many years been under to the British nation?

This is our case with regard to the east countries of Russia, Sweden and Denmark; to which we have not paid for many many years less for the balance of trade than A MILLION AND AN HALF ANNUALLY; some have computed it at TWO MILLIONS PER ANNUM loss to the kingdom in time of war: and do we not pay annually likewise A MILLION AND AN HALF more for interest money to foreign creditors on the continent of Europe? I should be glad to see it satisfactorily proved, that we gain THREE MILLIONS YEARLY by our commerce with all the rest of Europe, to compensate for the exhaustion we sustain by the East countries and interest money paid to foreigners: I am afraid that cannot be very easily done. But if it could, where would be our national gain, if our outgoings by one part of our European trade and our money transactions equal our profits by the rest?

If this is our present situation, considered in the most favourable light, respecting the interests of the nation in relation to our European traffic, will this support the immense revenues raised throughout the kingdom, and leave any profits within the state? As our exports may be forced to Spain and Portugal, as has been observed, and we pay so dear for their imports by heavy duties imposed thereon, that there seems reason to apprehend the nation but in a very indifferent state, however opulent it may appear to some people, by the external appearance of a few, compared with the mass of the people: and by what means are these few enabled to support their exorbitant splendor? Is it not by dint of the enormous revenues that have been raised in times of war as well as peace? The sudden monstrous estates acquired in time of war, have raised numbers from a mean to a magnificent condition. But have not all these riches been spun out of our own bowels! What princely revenues center in few hands by the calamities of war? What immense estates are daily acquired by circulating the millions upon millions through the exchequer!

However great gainers our East India company may become at present, their risk seems to be proportionate in its consequences, since they have commenced a kind of military company instead of a trading one. Be that as it may happen, the author is of opinion, that a commercial corporation might trade with greater certainty elsewhere, and perhaps with no less advantage, than they may expect altogether from the East, and promote the prosperity of the nation at the same time they did their own.—But this is not my present business; that is chiefly to promote a further COMMERCIAL UNION between GREAT BRITAIN and her AMERICAN COLONIES and PLANTATIONS.

It is a doubt with many wise men, whether it is probable that the immense extent of territory acquired by this nation at the late peace, will operate towards the prosperity or the ruin of the island of Great Britain?

It has been long ago agreed upon by persons of reason and observation, that it is not the extent of a country, but the number of inhabitants in proportion to its extent, that constitutes the opulence of a nation. The observation has not been found to be erroneous from experience.

So extensive now are our American colonies, that they seem to threaten us with an evil not only dangerous but ruinous, viz. depopulation. Settling small colonies may do such services as to counterbalance an inconsiderable loss of people; but settling vast tracts may exhaust the mother-country of its inhabitants, and prove destructive. Letting a little blood may be not only harmless occasionally, but salutary to the human body; yet excessive bleeding will as certainly kill as any disease to which it is liable. 'Tis not necessary to spend time by enumerating the various ways in which our colonies drain us of our people. Men of rank or wealth, who have obtained grants of lands, spare no pains to inveigle them away in crowds to settle their several possessions,

possessions, because without people what are these possessions worth? Multitudes go away of their own accord, allured by the enchanting prospect of wealth; and either never return at all, or return in a frail diseased state, unfit for propagation. We suffer no inconsiderable loss in the many thousands of seamen and soldiers, which must now be sent to all parts of the known world, to annoy our enemies in time of war, and to protect our friends in time of peace.

In proportion as the number of hands is lessened, the price of labour, and the first cost of our exported commodities must be increased; at the very same time the quantity of those commodities must decrease, and the gain upon them centering here, must be diminished by the two concurrent causes.

If, therefore, a trade to our plantations be highly profitable, we ought to be the more concerned, lest by driving the matter too far, we leave next to nobody at home to trade with them.

The advantage is in danger of being lost another way. Our plantations are becoming so extensive, that it is probable they will speedily set up manufactures of their own, and be our rivals instead of our customers. With this have they not lately threatened the mother kingdom, and indeed carried their design in a great measure into execution? Our commodities might not be sufficient for them to consume, as they augment in people; and they will be too costly for them to purchase, as growing dearer and dearer, as we grow less and less populous.

The only thing by which it has been said it is retarded is, that as lands are cheap in America, and labour dear, it is a more immediate and sure way for a family to get bread by cultivating the ground, than by fabricating goods which may be brought from Great Britain; but if at no cheaper a rate than they can fabricate them, can we suppose they will neglect so doing?

But this will soon be at an end: they will strike into manufacturing, both from the number of people settled in places near the sea, and from the insatiable avarice of the proprietors of land, who will not part with them but at a very great profit. Nothing hath stood in the way hitherto, but the difficulties which attend the first setting up manufactures in every country. Whenever interest or necessity, therefore, shall overcome those difficulties, it is easy to foresee what an amazing and rapid progress will be made in every branch of manufacture, by an enterprising and industrious people, as the North Americans in particular are.

We have had a confirmation of this, by the number of manufacturers who have gone, and are daily encouraged to go lately from different parts of the kingdom to America. It hath been said, that a large number of stocking-weavers are gone from Nottingham, and that several different branches of manufactures have been set up in New England and in many of the other of our continental colonies, in consequence of the stamp act. From what we have lately experienced, and the loss Great Britain hath thereby sustained, we have too much reason to apprehend the abilities in our North Americans to supply themselves amply with every species of manufactures with which they shall stand in need. For what material for the purpose can they want, in territories from the extent of the Gulph of Mexico to the North Pole, with little exception? And their extent westward we are unacquainted with.

That we have been long apprehensive of their setting up manufactures, and therewith to supply themselves, appears by several of our acts of parliament to restrain them from so doing. To do this to the mutual interest both of the mother country and her plantations, herein consist the difficulty of legislation.

Before we think of that point, it may be proper to examine another circumstance in our situation with regard to the colonies, viz. our exclusive right to trade with them. It may be said, let them be as extensive as you please; let them set up as many manufactures as they shall think proper; still their trade will be valuable, and it is wholly confined to this island; they are not permitted to carry on business with any other nation but through the medium of Great Britain. But what signifies a trade, if it comes to be a losing trade? And that, from some of the above considerations, it may be sooner than we are aware of.

Whenever they can supply themselves with manufactures they will have no need of us; most of the luxuries and delicacies of life they can get nearer home from one another, they being, indeed, a kind of world amongst themselves in their variety of climates.

Besides, this exclusive right to trade with them may operate slowly and silently indeed, but constantly, and at last fatally, to our prejudice. There is much selfishness in human nature; and it will be, nay, probably it has been, **A TEMPTATION TO US NOT TO MAKE OUR MANUFACTURES AS GOOD AND AS CHEAP AS POSSIBLE TO PROCURE VOLUNTARY PURCHASERS, BECAUSE WE THINK WE CAN SEND THEM TO THOSE WHO ARE OBLIGED TO TAKE THEM.**

Let no man think this a slight circumstance, or of no moment. The moral causes, says Montesquieu, of the thriving or the decay of a nation, viz. such as arise from the tempers or principles of the people, the spirit of their constitution, or the situation with regard to others, are unspeakably more powerful than occasional causes, such as war, famine and pestilence, or their contraries. The reason is plain—The effect of those which he calls moral causes, though impracticable, is *universal and perpetual*. If, therefore, our exclusive right to trade to our plantations, tempts us to trust or lean too much to it, it may sink under the weight, and prove the cause of our destruction.

Another consequence of our exclusive trade is, that our merchants will import from other nations what they can export to the British plantations with advantage. Such commodities passing through our hands make a great parade of commerce; and yet add next to nothing to **OUR STRENGTH OR NUMBERS, AND NOT SO MUCH TO OUR WEALTH AS MAY PERHAPS BE SUPPOSED.** Does not this, at least, show that our possessions may have the same effect upon us, that the conquest of Mexico and Peru had upon the Spaniards, who have become poor by means of the gold and silver mines? We may slacken our own industry, and supply our plantations by the industry of other nations. Great men and great merchants, who have estates and properties abroad, may make a splendid figure for a time, while the body of the kingdom is gradually losing its nourishment, and falling into an incurable consumption.

The spirit of commerce is of a very nice and delicate nature—it is of a very subtle and penetrating nature. The reason is the same for both. It is animated and conducted entirely by the interest of individuals: so that unless this happens to coincide with the public good, one part of the nation must be indefatigable in bringing on the ruin of the whole. Wherever interest leads, or seems to lead, trade will force its way over all obstructions; neither can it almost be forced to go another way. Do we not daily hear of great outcries against these mercenary wretches, who, for the sake of private gain, will suck the very blood of the poor, and riot in the spoils of their country?

Nothing but mutual interest can knit and cement mankind together in society. Without this, ten thousand legislatures constantly employed could not devise the means, and an hundred thousand judges could not enforce the execution. The spirit of all laws on the commerce of a people, must be to make public and private interest not only really, but apparently and evidently the same.

Whence it follows, that an exclusive trade, preserved by force against the inclinations of the people concerned, cannot be carried very far, and cannot continue very long. While we serve our plantations with as **GOOD COMMODITIES, AND AS CHEAP** as other people, we may expect they will cheerfully trade with us: so soon as we either will not, or cannot do this, they will use every possible means either to supply themselves, or be supplied

supplied from another quarter. The Spaniards have the exclusive trade to their own colonies; and yet there are few branches from which we derive greater profit than an illicit trade with the Spanish settlements. If we are so partial to ourselves, as to trample upon every law, and every national engagement, when we hope to do it with impunity or profit, why should we expect others to be more honest than ourselves, or that our colonies will continue to trade with us longer than it is their interest to do so? For this reason we should bend all our force to the improvement of our own country, by increasing the number, sobriety and industry of its inhabitants. If there be any defect here, the most valuable distant settlements will do us no good; and if there be a visible disproportion between our colonies and our abilities to trade with them, upon just and equal terms, the more they are enlarged, the sooner shall we be destroyed. — All this, and much more might be said with regard to our present large possessions in America. If those fears are quite groundless, so much the better for us and our posterity; but do they not carry too much weight with them to be treated with indifference? If they merit the most candid consideration, as they certainly do, it were to be wished, that the best means were pointed out for retarding our ruin as much, and as long as may be, if we cannot totally prevent it.

Without the mother country shall make it for the interest of her colonies and plantations to purchase her manufactures in preference to those of all other rival nations, can it be reasonably expected that our colonists will not rather become buyers of those of our rivals, that are so much cheaper than English? We cannot expect a stop will be put to smuggling in our British plantations any more than in Great Britain, while this disproportion of prices continues.

Could Old Spain supply their American colonies with all the manufactures for which they have occasion, as cheap as they can purchase them of other European powers, would not there be an end of smuggling in the Spanish Indies? For people are not disposed to run occasional hazards of loss, where they can supply their wants wholly without such hazards.

Until, therefore, the English manufactures shall come as cheap to British colonists as those they can obtain from our competitors, can we suppose that they will not give them the preference? If such severe laws are made, that they shall not be able to obtain them, is it not natural to believe they will set up manufactures wherewith to supply themselves on the continent of America? They are not deficient in one part or other of those extensive colonies in any materials for the purpose; and that to what extent they please; if they once resolve so to do, they most certainly will so do, sooner or later, if not timely otherwise diverted, let us amuse ourselves as we may with contrary notions. And if once they experience the benefits of so doing, can we flatter ourselves that they will not become our rivals in the very staple manufactures of this kingdom, more especially in the Spanish West India trade? When they were able to become such, is it impossible that they should supply the Spanish flota and galleons, or have a due share therein as well as any European nation?

What can obstruct this but the superior dearth of North American manufactures? If this shall be the great impediment, can we imagine that they themselves will not be actuated by the same motives to set up manufactures for their own supply at least, since they daily experience the disadvantage of doing otherwise?

That North America will daily grow more and more populous there can be no doubt, from all parts of Europe: and if they shall have plenty of people, as they have plenty of land to cultivate, what hinders but they may strike deeply into all the manufacturing arts? Will not plenty of people, and plenty of land, render every thing else plenty? And if the Colonists shall find, that by the manufactural arts they can save the share of property, which they now send out of the colonies for manufactures, how long can we suppose they will cease to do so? If once manufactures take deep root amongst them, and they experience thereby a currency of cash instead of paper, may not their paper currency gradually approach nearer and nearer to a par with sterling money? Will not this render the price of their manufactures cheaper and cheaper? Will they not soon fall to a price with those which they at present take from the mother kingdom? And when this comes to be the case, how long after can we presume that they will continue the importation of a single manufacture from England? We must believe this beneficial part of our trade will soon absolutely cease.

Though the New England currency may now be at 525, New York 160, Pennsylvania 170, Maryland paper currency 220, South Carolina 750, and North Carolina 1000 *per cent.* sterling; yet that neither can, nor will be any long obstruction to manufacturing, when once they commence in earnest. For if they will content themselves to wear their own manufactures, be they at first ever so ordinary, they will find themselves grow more and more wealthy, as well as their people more and more expert in the manufacturing arts; whereby they will find the paper currency realized as they increase in wealth, and the consequence will be, that they then will have manufactures full as cheap, if not cheaper than they at present can those of England.

'Tis to be feared there is a deception in this point of dearth of things at present in North America, by which we are led to think, that they will not, because of such dearth, attempt manufacturing for themselves. The deception seems to arise from an Englishman's consideration of their paper currency. For if 1000*l.* in North Carolina is only equal to 100*l.* in England, then twenty shillings a day paper currency is equal only to two shillings English. Now, if a manufacturer can purchase as much of the necessaries of life for twenty shillings paper currency, as he now can in England for two shillings a day sterling, why should he not be as well contented in America as in England? And if a suit of cloaths shall cost 50*l.* of paper currency for what we can purchase in England for 5*l.* is the man in a worse situation in America than he is in England?

As England hath increased in manufactures and commerce, hath not the value of money grown less and less; and why should it not do the like amongst the Americans? Do we not know that this hath been the state of all the trading nations of the world? As they have all had their ebbs and their flows, the time may come that 1000*l.* English paper currency may be only equal to 100*l.* of American hard money, if England shall decline in her manufactures and commerce, as America may advance?

If this should ever come to pass, will not the value of lands in Great Britain dwindle to the worth of money at present in America? Does not a matter of this weight and importance merit the serious attention of British legislation?

Should it be said, that if the British colonies, we mean throughout these observations, chiefly those on the continent, should cease to take our manufactures, in consequence of supplying themselves wholly therewith, and, perhaps, becoming our rivals in our very staple fabrics, that we shall deficit in our turn from taking any of their produce; seeing we can have every thing absolutely necessary that we now have from thence from European states, particularly from the East countries.

This may be said. But it is little satisfaction to be rather drained by Europe than America. The question with us is, whether we could, when we had lost our exports to America, sustain the supposed drain from any other parts of Europe? And if we could not afford this drain for naval stores of every kind, as when we had lost our navigation to and from America we should not want, nor could we bear it, Great Britain would decline in wealth and power as British America would rise in both? How long after the loss of our commercial connections

nections with our plantations should we be able to pay interest to our foreign, or indeed our British public creditors?

Hence it should seem, that if the colonies supply themselves with manufactures, and we should continue to be supplied by them with what we at present take from them, that the ballance of trade must inevitably turn highly to our disadvantage, even with our own colonies: and if this comes to be the state of trade between Great Britain and her plantations, will they not be instrumental to exhaust the mother kingdom of her treasures no less than the East countries have hitherto done? Will not this so aggrandize those colonies as the sooner to enable them to fulfill the apprehensions of many, and become absolutely independent of Great Britain? And provided we cease to take their product, as they shall cease to take our manufactures, will not all intercourse of commerce be destroyed between this kingdom and her colonies? When that is done, will they not be left to set up for themselves, and what can then hinder their becoming a flourishing and potent empire? For if we do not trade with them, other nations will, and laugh at us for our superior wisdom and policy. If we shall attempt to compel our island colonies to have no trade with their brethren of the continent, will this be relished by either? May it not create such a coalition of interests, as to induce them both to unite in one American empire, as independent of the whole world as they would soon be of Great Britain; and should not we then be in a fine condition to subdue them again to our obedience?

Such kind of a commercial union may not appear altogether of a visionary aspect, if we consider the late union they struck into upon the memorable occasion of the stamp act. Ought not an attempt of this nature so to alarm us as to put us on our guard, and incline us to take every wise precaution to prevent the like again, lest it should prove the prelude to one of a more dangerous and formidable nature? For if once a commercial union should take place between the British continental colonies and the islands, to a certain degree, they might think it worth their while, probably, to hazard the loss of the British markets for the sake of the gain arising from a general freedom of trade to all other parts of the world. What then may become of the British navigation to and from America? When that is lost, will not all our revenues arising from our present American imports be annihilated; and what will be the state of the public credit of this nation, when such a catastrophe shall ever happen, will make a true friend to the interest of Britain tremble to think of.

The North Americans, as well as Britons, in general have a wishful eye upon the trade of Spanish America, and we well know that they dislike every restraint thereon; and being now situated in the contiguous center, as it were, of the Mexican empire, from our possession of the Floridas, our right of trade to the Mississippi, and in the Gulph of Mexico; will not this consideration be an inducement to the North Americans to cultivate trade with the Mexicans to the utmost? While they shall remain unable to supply the Mexicans with manufactures of their own, will they not use every art to have the European manufactures wherewith to supply them as cheap as they can obtain them? And will not this prove a prevailing motive with the North Americans to set up manufactures first, to supply their brethren of the Floridas with them, in order to bring in a quantity of specie, and the sooner enable them to annihilate their present paper currency amongst them? Can the Floridas wish to be better situated for the purpose? And can our more northern colonists have a more lucrative temptation to establish manufactures that will bring them in specie, instead of taking it from them by the importation of British manufactures, which carries all their money away, and leaves them at present little else besides paper? Is it unnatural to believe that our Americans will exert themselves to partake of the treasures of Mexico, at the first hand, that they may enjoy the whole profits of that money trade to themselves, instead of letting the bulk of it slip through their hands for the emolument of the mother country, in conjunction with other nations, whose manufactures go by the flota to La Vera Cruz?

The contiguity of our colonies to those of Mexico, may, one day, strike more terror into the Spaniards, than can be done, perhaps, by any European potentate; and may not that be conducive to promote hereafter a commercial union between North America and Spain; the former to furnish their galleons no less than their flota, with North American manufactures, to the exclusion of any supply from other states? For the Spaniards knowing that the North Americans want nothing but specie, and the Spaniards being able to furnish that, and the Americans able in their turn to furnish them with manufactures, may not such like circumstances, as well as their near neighbourhood, produce these natural effects before suggested?

If the Spaniards shall find it more for their interest to deal with the North Americans than the Europeans, and the North Americans more for theirs to cement an intercourse of trade with them, there can be nothing strained to apprehend extraordinary consequences hereafter.

The discontents that at present appear in old Spain, as well as new, have, doubtless, their cause, and that, perhaps, a more influential and important one, than the idle stories we have had already concerning the troubles in that nation and their Spanish colonies. The late loss of the Havanna may have made a deep impression in old Spain, to the disadvantage of the Spanish government there, and why not likewise in America? By this time the Peruvians, as well as the Mexicans, may, perhaps, be ripe for a revolt from the conception of a weakness in Spanish policy to suffer the prevalence of the French to promote the late rupture between Great Britain and Spain, which ended in the loss of their great bulwark of the Spanish Indies. Something of this kind seems to have taken deep root amongst the old Spaniards in Europe, seeing we hear of the revival of the proverb amongst them, *paz con Anglaterra con todos otros la guerra*. And does not this idea seem to be confirmed by the voice of the people, who have shown, and still continue to show, great respect to the British ambassador, and less than usual to the French? Our accounts say, that the people are for rooting out all French fashions, and introducing those of England more and more. These things may forebode some other consequences not at a great distance possibly. And if the Spaniards should be induced to call for the aid of the British North Americans, will not the North Americans then discern their important service to the Spaniards? For they can have no immediate assistance in Mexico now, but from the English in North America.

Should our colonists once experience this, they will know how greatly the Spaniards are in their power; for those neighbours who may prove of great service on extraordinary occasions, may also become great enemies, in consequence of the fluctuating events of things. North America grows daily more and more populous, wealthy and potent, and they must inevitably become formidable. When that comes to pass, may not these Americans be able to make a conquest of the Havanna, even without the aid of Great Britain? Their adjacency, as well in the Gulph of Florida as that of Mexico, will certainly administer great advantage for such an enterprize, as they increase in strength. And to what degree might they not exert themselves to obtain a prize of so invaluable a nature? For if once they obtain it, 'tis to be questioned, whether they will ever be prevailed on to give up such a treasure, if they aim at becoming an empire independent of Britain. And how will Spain be able to recover it out of their hands?

Here presents a scene that may deserve consideration. For the key of the Spanish American treasure will be no little temptation to those Americans to struggle hard to become masters of it. And if a commercial union should take place, for the reasons before urged, between our North American colonies and our present

American islands, might not their conjoint power bid fair for such conquest, notwithstanding the assistance of the impotent English to prevent it, when they shall have lost their American trade and navigation?

From these few reflections, it seems as if our territorial acquisitions to the southward of the American continent may be attended with still greater and greater power, should they ever become independent of their mother state. And may not this conquest of the Havanna prove the establishment of a very formidable new commercial empire in the American world? The great motive to the North Americans to set up manufactures of every kind, would be the prospect of a ready vent for their wares of all kinds, no less than furnishing themselves amply therewith. And what better prospect could they desire, when masters of the Havanna, than the supply of all Mexico and Peru with the manufactures they want? The Mexicans and Peruvians will purchase them much cheaper from the North Americans than they now do from the Spaniards, seeing there would be no exorbitant insult imposed on their manufactures outwards, that so extravagantly enhance their price to the Spanish Indies at present.

As there may be a revolution in the British plantations and colonies in America, unless due care in time is taken to prevent it; so likewise there may be one in the Spanish Indies to shake off their present dependency. Mexico and Peru may become distinct empires, kingdoms or states, and may not be indifferent to commercial alliances with the North Americans, who, if they cultivate manufactures, and are once possessed of the Havanna, would be the best able to furnish them with all they wanted for their money.

On the northern parts of the American continent, and its various island-dependencies thereon, as ceded to the crown of Great Britain, by the peace concluded in the year 1763, there offers another scene from whence great power may arise to the continental colonists. Should North America change masters, alter their form of government, and set up for themselves, it is not unnatural to suppose that they would extirpate not only the French wholly from the Newfoundland fisheries, but the English, and monopolize them solely to their own use, if they should ever be able; or oblige all who shall enjoy the privilege of fishing on the borders of any of their dependent dominions to become tributaries to them for such privilege.

North America abounding with timber for ship-building, and New England and New York built-ships already not being of a defpicable kind, but purchased occasionally by the merchants of London and the island colonies, as great numbers are built for mere sale, which are sent to England and our islands for that purpose. They have all manner of materials for ship-building very cheap, and excellent timber, as also masts and yards merely for cutting; so that they build ships to very great advantage. Their ships also have the reputation of being well built, are good sea boats, and strong bottoms: they have not heretofore, indeed, proved always the best sailors, but that hath been owing to their building so very strong; but they have greatly improved in this branch, and will, doubtless, excel herein as well as any other part of the world.

The colonies also of Virginia and Maryland are as well furnished with timber and plank, and all sorts of materials for ship-building, as New England and New York, though they have destroyed infinitely more for clearing the land, their plantations being exceeding large, and extended so far over the country.

They indeed have not applied so much to ship-building as the New England people do, nor has it been so well worth their while; the planting of tobacco having hitherto been their chief care, and taken up all their hands, which hath occasioned them to buy so many negro slaves, besides transported felons from England, and all the other white servants, which they have got volunteers from England, and especially from Scotland and Ireland, which have been a prodigious number.

But, as it seems that their tobacco trade of late hath not turned to so good account, they may, and doubtless will betake themselves to other branches, and amongst the rest, doubtless to ship-building. For this is at any time in their power to extend. They build, at present, all their own sloops, which, as they are so highly useful, that no plantation of any consideration can be without them, as well to carry their tobacco and other product down the creeks and smaller rivers to the ships which are loading for England, or for the islands, and to land and bring home their returns of goods from the said ships; 'tis scarce credible what a number of them are employed in this business, some small, some large, that carry goods from one plantation to another, from 50 to 150 hogheads; and these are loaded oftentimes with provisions for the West Indies, and bring back rum, sugar and melasses, for the supply of the country, as is done in the other colonies. The number of ships employed for those purposes is so great, that it would appear incredible; but there is no doubt of there being many thousands of them, small and large, the constant building of which makes the people as expert in the art of ship-building as any people in Europe.

The ship-building that is now going forward in Canada likewise, and in all parts of these colonies, where they are well situated for the purpose, and the ports for that convenience being very numerous, this must convey an idea to every one, that the art of ship-building, by reason of the constant navigation that is between North America and the island colonies, will arrive to great perfection, and that these colonists may become of themselves a formidable maritime state or empire: and what such a mighty power may not one day be able to do, who can say?

That the idea of a great degree of maritime power must, and will certainly spring from the consideration of North America, and their commercial connection with the islands, is obvious to every one, who considers that they now, and will soon have to a much greater degree, the command of the three great gulphs of St. Laurence and its great river, the gulph of Florida, and the gulph of Mexico, and the great river Mississippi. Moreover, the immense lake-navigation, as well that of the very numerous great river internal navigation, must necessarily vastly contribute to the surprizing increase of shipping, seamen and navigation of every kind amongst them. 'Tis said, that we have lately authentic accounts from New York, that the spirit of adventuring has lately discovered the course of a river that branches out from St. John's, and extends south-south-east all the way navigable to the confines of Florida, and within twenty miles land carriage of St. Augustine, from which great advantages are expected to arise.—Ports for ship-building they possess, or can have innumerable, and what can hinder the present British Americans from becoming a formidable maritime potentate? Had the Dutch, the Genoese, or the Venetians, any thing comparable to such advantages? Has Great Britain itself now so many, comprehending every circumstance that we have with all brevity noticed?

This sketch of the potentiality of these colonies to become very formidable at sea, ought to alarm this nation with apprehensions that they actually will do so. Nay, we may presume to say, it cannot be otherwise. Wherefore, can we be too early on our guard to prevent their growing independent of the British empire? We certainly cannot, since their territories are now so immense, and they grow daily more and more populous, and this not only at the expence of draining of many other parts of Europe, but at that of hazarding the depopulation of Great Britain in general, and England in particular. For the hardships of living, under which the industrious poor of England at present labour, are motives that drive thousands continually to America; and the arts of kidnapping people for that purpose are said never to have been so prevalent, particularly amongst the artificers and manufacturers of every denomination. Does not this merit the consideration of our rulers?

From this view of things, and from the reasonable indulgence lately given by the legislature, in the repeal of the stamp act, to the British Americans, it is no small incitement for the people of England, and elsewhere, to flock away to America.

Since the Americans have deservedly met with the favour of the British parliament, and have been most graciously gratified in what they have so warmly requested of their mother country to comply with on her side, in respect to the stamp act, we are of opinion, that there are some other essential compliances, wherein 'tis conceived, Great Britain ought still further to grant to her American subjects; to those in North America in particular; provided a more interesting commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies is really intended.

That the ballance of trade has been annually so much as a MILLION AND AN HALF at least to the disadvantage of Great Britain, during the last war, with the East countries, will not be disputed;—and that we, at least pay a MILLION AND AN HALF more a year for interest money due to our foreign public creditors, is no less certain.—That the high prices of our English commodities at this time is a great obstruction to our whole European commerce, and that our foreign competitors therein daily avail themselves at all the European markets, to our unspeakable detriment, are points likewise incontestible.

Upon these considerations, it becomes the wisdom of this nation to exert every nerve of policy to diminish such drains of our treasures out of the kingdom. With respect to the annuity paid to our foreign creditors, there is no way to prevent that but being in a capacity to pay them off as fast as we possibly can; and to contract for the future public debts only within ourselves, if debts cannot be avoided, that the interest money may center in the kingdom, and not exhaust it of its wealth. But these things seem to be at a distance.

What is in our power to effect immediately, ought not to be delayed, to compensate for the commercial drains we now experience; and therefore, I would humbly propose, that whatever we import from the east countries of Russia, Sweden and Denmark, should be raised with all possible expedition in North America, there being no one thing that we import to our disadvantage from the said countries, but we may obtain from the continent of America to our advantage.

To this end every reasonable encouragement should be given by bounties, premiums, &c. to the raising of plenty of naval stores of every kind in our own plantations, and whatever else we take at a disadvantage from other countries; and as fast as we can be supplied therewith from thence; that we import them from America, and cease to take any thing of that nature from the East countries, or from other countries, where the ballance of trade is not in our manifest favour.

That every encouragement be given to our American fellow subjects to supply Great Britain with every species of timber we at present take from Norway in particular.

England is certainly now in a capacity to turn the whole channel of the Norway trade from that country to North America, and to supply itself with fir, timber, balks, spars, poles and deal boards from North America, infinitely more to the advantage of the commerce of England in general, than it is supplied from Norway, and every way as cheap to the English purchaser.

Most certain it is, that the trade in deals and timber, as at present carried on with Norway, and has been for too many years, is much to the loss of Great Britain in the ballance of trade, because almost all that trade is paid for in hard money, and very few British goods are taken in part of it; and which is still worse, the money exported for that purpose is generally not foreign silver, but English coin, crowns and halfcrowns, as is well known, have circulated far more plentifully in Norway than in England for many years past; the quantity is so great, that there is reason to believe more money in specie is carried out of Great Britain by the trade to Norway, than by the trade to the East Indies, however popular the complaint has been of the one more than the other, especially of late years, since the spirit of house-building has been so prevalent in this kingdom.

Great part of the Norway trade is carried on in Norway ships, navigated by Danes, whereas this trade would be carried on in British or North American shipping, which is all one, and these ships wholly navigated by British seamen; an advantage very considerable, the freight all centering amongst ourselves, while we shall preserve a due commercial union with our colonies.

It might be further proved, if we could suppose that any one could doubt it, that with respect to hemp, pitch and tar, flax, and all those things which fall under the name of naval stores, which have been so long fetched as far as from Riga, Narva, Petersburg and Archangel, all might be plentifully raised in and they brought from those English colonies in America, highly to the reciprocal advantage of Great Britain as well as her colonies; and so plentifully and cheaply may they be raised there, as to vie with the East countries themselves, whereby we might re-export quantities to other nations, besides supplying ourselves cheaper therewith than we ever have done.

Nay it is equally certain, or this nation has many years been most shamefully duped and imposed upon, that we might long ago have raised RAW SILK in North America; but it is not to be questioned at present we may, as our territories have extended so much to the southward of that continent. And if the prohibition of foreign wrought silks shall happily take place, and we shall likewise be able amply to furnish ourselves from our colonies with raw silk, and manufacture the whole up in Great Britain, the difference may be above two MILLIONS PER ANNUM advantage to the British empire. We cannot import so little in value of foreign wrought silk, either legally or illegally of every kind, as to the value of a million sterling annually, as observed, and the difference between purchasing foreign wrought silks and supplying ourselves therewith, will make a difference to the nation of double the sum.—To which must be added the expected benefit of furnishing ourselves from America with raw silk, instead of buying it from Turkey, Italy and Persia, by way of Russia, which will still considerably more augment our national emolument.

That we may be also furnished with plenty of wines of divers kinds from America is not to be doubted; I mean from the continent. But if that should never prove the case, 'tis certain that we may be furnished amply from our sugar colonies, if proper measures were taken for that purpose, the basis of all wines being a saccharine substance, as the learned Doctor Shaw has proved.

In a word, there is no impartial man, who is well informed in the present state of British America, but will allow we import a great variety of very costly particulars from Europe and other parts, that we might easily have for luxury no less than utility and convenience from our colonies, either from the continent or from our islands, to the mutual benefit of both Britain and her colonies.

One principal reason that may have been assigned for the neglect of this hitherto, is, that if we encouraged our plantations too much upon the old system, we might and should have lost as much in the diminution of our exports to several European countries, as we gained by supplying ourselves with variety of imports from our colonies: whatever weight such reason might have, we say, upon the old system of conduct between us and the colonies, and when we were less incumbered with public debts and taxes, and when our commodities and manufactures in general were considerably cheaper, and our European trade was far less injured by competitors: however substantial such arguments might be heretofore, when our colonies were not so greatly extended, and not so capable of furnishing our wonted imports, that reason which held good formerly

merly, when we were differently circumstanced, has lost all its force in our present situation; and the fullness of time seems to be come, which renders it now good policy to save every particular ballance of trade we pay, to enable the nation to get rid of its tax-incumbrances as expeditiously as we can; and we are of opinion that our colony trade rightly regulated, may be made the great foundation of so doing: Should this be happily effected, our colonies may prove the salvation, instead of the ruin and destruction of Great Britain: our vast continental and other colony acquisitions may then answer the desirable end of a lasting mutual prosperity.

However heretofore the power and dignity of the British empire hath been pretty happily sustained, before the last two wars, when our debts and taxes were not much above one-third part of what they now are; and how-ever this nation has, by the dint of a stupendous scene of paper credit and paper currency, hitherto held up its commercial head, we cannot reasonably presume to do so long under the national burdens we at present are obliged to bear; unless every disadvantageous channel of trade is stopped up, and every beneficial one shall be opened; and that of the colonies, 'tis humbly apprehended, may be made subservient to our national support, notwithstanding our load of tax-incumbrances is swelled to an enormous magnitude; to a magnitude, I am persuaded, far greater than has been duly considered.

The neat income of taxes perpetuated, till the redemption or reduction of the public debt, into the exchequer, does not amount to so little as FIVE MILLIONS A YEAR; and the gross produce for the receipts and issues of charges of management upon this occasion only does not come to less than twenty *per cent.* upon the neat revenue, which makes another MILLION for the collection and distribution of so large a dead national burthen on the state.—It is reckoned by the best judges in the kingdom, that we do not owe less than one-third part of the public debt to foreigners, and consequently that we are not tributaries to them for less than ONE MILLION AND AN HALF PER ANNUM as British annuitants, which is a constant drain of treasure upon the nation.

By the account now before me delivered into parliament the 13th day of March 1766, of the money given for the service of the year 1765, it amounts to the sum of 7,969,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* together with deficiencies of grants for the current service of the said year 1765; which being added to the said SIX MILLIONS, make 13,769,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* raised in time of peace, exclusive of his majesty's CIVIL LIST REVENUE for the support of his household and the honour and dignity of the crown; which, if further added; will make the whole 14,569,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* besides some other public expences we shall pass over, besides that great one in the raising and issuing the said sum of 7,969,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* which is extravagantly large, as I could show.

If it be considered, that we further expend yearly, according to reasonable estimation, not less than A MILLION AND AN HALF more by the poor's tax; what is also expended annually in all other parochial taxes together, it can hardly amount to so little as HALF A MILLION yearly more, which will make a total of 16,569,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* without reckoning any thing for the annual expences of TURNPIKE ROADS, which is also a charge on our commerce, as well on our foreign, as our domestic; which, that we may not be supposed to exaggerate, we will exclude from the total of our accumulated charges upon the national trade of this kingdom, which is the great fund of the public treasure.

Now, let it be considered, dispassionately considered, what may be presumed to be the amount of the arbitrary enhancements of the public expence levied upon the whole traffic of the kingdom by so enormous a revenue.—From the example before given; it must certainly amount to something very considerable, occasioned thereby; and must inevitably raise the price of all things consumable throughout the nation, by the way of trade and commerce; and this must proportionably affect the foreign no less than the inland trade of the whole British empire.—It may look too invidious to attempt any sort of estimate of this matter, since the bulk of the arbitrary enhancements upon the general trade, in consequence of such an immense taxation, must be so very extraordinary, seeing it may be said, we will suppose, that the chief part circulates and centers in the nation. But notwithstanding that, as our domestic commerce alone will not enrich the state, nor add any great matter to the maritime power of the kingdom without foreign trade; if our general foreign trade be so highly loaded with tax-incumbrances, most certainly such an oppressive load must necessarily affect every foreign branch, as hath been shown, by raising the prices of all English commodities and manufactures to a degree that renders them unpurchasable in foreign countries, by reason of their excessive dearness, when compared with those of rivals; and therefore can we reasonably hope and expect to preserve our foreign trade while this shall be the case?

In a word: the whole tax-incumbrances upon our trade (for there the whole terminates, that being now our great fund of property) comprehending all our arbitrary enhancements upon enhancements, cannot amount to near so little as TWENTY MILLIONS *per annum.* And if one moiety only of that immense tax-burthen was absolutely annihilated, what an extraordinary easement would not this prove to the whole commerce and navigation of England? Would it not enable us to sell our wares and manufactures in general to foreigners as cheap as any other nation? Who will take upon him to demonstrate the contrary? Persuaded I am, that if only all our appropriated and perpetuated taxes were justly and equitably abolished, that pay interest money for the public debts, and thereby send a million and an half a year out of the nation as tributary debtors; persuaded is the writer, if this was effectually done, consistent with the preservation of the public faith and credit, that we should be able to sell our goods as cheap at foreign markets as any nation in Europe.

This being the simple and unexaggerated state of our enormous expence, I would pray leave to ask, whether under such circumstances it can be eligible and politic for us to permit of an additional drain of treasure of A MILLION AND AN HALF that we pay to the East countries, in our intercourse of trade with them to our disadvantage? For if we are tributaries to our foreign national fund-creditors to the amount annually of A MILLION AND AN HALF; and we pay a ballance of trade likewise to Russia, Sweden and Denmark, to the amount of A MILLION AND AN HALF more; will not this exhaust the nation of THREE MILLION a year of the public wealth? Can we, under our present circumstances, afford to suffer such great outgoings? I should be glad to know what certain national recruits we have constantly to supply such large exhaustions of treasure?

The immense fortunes that have been acquired during the two last wars, have bloated the nation with fund-credit to an enormous degree, which hath centered amongst a few families only, compared with the whole of the people. And because our large fund-treasures have so greatly swelled; and those paper-credit-mongers make so splendid a parade, by their wealth wrung out of the bowels of the kingdom, instead of being brought into it, by fair and honest traffic with foreign states and empires, we are dazzled with the gaudy and tinsel appearances. Of what, I ask? Of PAPER-PROPERTY, PAPER-CIRCULATION, and PAPER-CREDIT: of these, indeed, we are full; we overflow. But what is all this show of riches but the shadow of that solid wealth with which we have hitherto parted for fairy treasures? Upon what a foundation this magnificent system of paper-wealth stands, we may easily discern, from what hath been said in these few sheets. With what design do you ask? The writer will frankly and honestly tell you. With a design that the maladies of the nation may be probed to the root: to the end that they may be radically cured, not skinned over only, as they have too long been, to fester, gangrene, and break out in a state of incurability.

We have seen the potentiality of our colonies to become capable of supplying this nation with many of those valuable and expensive imports we at present take from other nations at a disadvantage; it is to be hoped, that the conduct of the colonies themselves will enable the mother-state to render them actually so.

It is apparently the present disposition of the legislature, and, indeed, that of the whole kingdom in general, to adopt every measure that will promote the interest of the colonies: but this spirit of indulgence, if no equivalent returns shall be made on the side of the colonists, will soon disable Great Britain from a continuance of those indulgences. She will be compelled, from the principle of self-preservation, to contract, instead of enlarge and extend them; or what is she about? Is she not pursuing direct ways and means to render herself an impotent and beggarly nation, to raise her colonies to that state of aggrandizement which has been represented, the sooner? Will not such conduct in this nation tend to make the colonies great and formidable at her expence and ruin; provided the colonies shall not, without a moment's delay, manifest their intention to return reciprocal advantages to the mother state? The desirable commercial union cannot be duly cemented between them, unless it is fixed upon the basis of mutual interest and advantage: without this, it is impossible it should be of any duration.

It remains then only to be considered, how and in what manner the colonies shall as effectually evince their regard to the mother kingdom as that has already done towards them? Every man will anticipate the answer, because quite natural and untrained. The colonies desire this kingdom to give their trade every sort of encouragement, and take off every restraint thereon, that the colonists apprehend disadvantageous to their rising power and splendor. The mother state rejoices in this promotion, provided they are assured that rise in the colonies shall not injure or ruin her, as we have seen is not at all improbable. But with what reason can the colonists expect to be suffered to rise to the pitch of grandeur they are capable of, unless the mother-state shall rise at the same time? If the rise and magnificence of the British Colonies shall have any tendency to the impoverishment and destruction of Great Britain, is it not the interest of Great Britain to keep them in a state of poverty, instead of elevate them to that independent wealth and power? The colonies have experienced the tenderness and affection of an indulgent parent. How shall they manifest their returns of duty and sensibility? If they do not, must they not look for an increase of obstacles to their advancement, rather than further indulgences to it? This is common policy, dictated by the sovereign principle of God and nature.

We must presume, that none are more sensible of this than the colonists themselves; and that we cannot require them to grant more grateful returns than they are cheerfully disposed to do. What returns can the mother-kingdom require of them, for all past advantages received, and to encourage them to grant them more and more? The answer, I have said, is natural and obvious. If the colonies expect a continuance of this happy disposition in us to extend our good will and munificence, there is certainly reciprocal obligations due on their part. If this kingdom shall be disposed to grant them every encouragement by largesses and premiums, to promote their interests in agriculture and planting in general, and in THE PRODUCTION OF EVERY THING THAT WE NOW TAKE FROM OTHER NATIONS, AND IMPORT THE SAME FROM THEM, is it not their interest to take whatever they can in return of us to compensate for our outgoings on their account?

They cannot expect that we should hazard the encouraging of them first in these productions we at present take from other nations, and take the same; in consequence of such encouragement from them, unless they shall think of taking an equivalent from us. This would be unequal; it would be impolitic; it would be reducing ourselves to an abject state of poverty to make them our masters, ourselves their dependent slaves; it would absolutely undo our whole landed and trading interest, and destroy all hope of future prosperity. This the colonists know as well as we do; and cannot be ignorant of what would in such case be in their power, and how much it would be out of ours to right ourselves, should we be so infatuated as to consult their interest independent of our own. There seems no intention in this kingdom but to do all they can for the benefit of the colonies. This appears now too glaring to be denied; the colonists will acknowledge it, not only by words, but every other testimonial of gratitude in their power, it is not to be doubted. Our regard has been demonstrated by actions that some think were unbecoming the wisdom of the British nation. The writer hereof is of different sentiments. He judges the repeal of the stamp act a right measure; and the other steps taken for the benefit of the colonies hitherto not altogether wrong: but why does he think so? Because he doubts not of becoming returns from the colonies to their mother-country. This is his chief reason for adopting this opinion; and he hopes he shall not be therein mistaken by experience.

Was he not morally certain of that, he should think it the most impolitic step the British legislature could have taken. From his opinion of the happiest disposition in our colonists to approve themselves worthy of all regard that this kingdom has shown towards them, or shall be hereafter induced to show them; he will take the liberty to declare what he thinks to be incumbent on their part to do, without delay, in order to cement that everlasting COMMERCIAL UNION that he hopes may subsist between Great Britain and her American territories.

Before he declares himself, he desires, that the reader will please to recollect what has been already urged.— That the dearth of English commodities and manufactures in general, and therefore the cause of our being underfold by our competitors at foreign markets, no less than that of smuggling in Great Britain, are owing to the weight and oppression of our TAXES IN GENERAL. Wherefore, the writer has recommended the lessening of our taxes as soon as possible, in order to lower the prices of our manufactures; to the end, that our American colonists, as well as any foreign European state, may purchase them at as cheap a rate as they can do those of France or any other rival nation; this being an inducement to the colonies as well as the mother-country to lay aside smuggling.

Till our taxes can be sufficiently reduced by certain means the writer conceives to be in our power, to enable us to sell our manufactures upon an equality with our rivals, 'tis to be hoped that our colonists will not be averse to co-operate with their mother-country in the reduction of our taxes, as we have so readily reduced theirs, and obliged ourselves to make good the deficiency of the supposed produce of the late stamp-act: seeing the mother-country has done this for the colonies, we cannot presume but the colonies will as readily unite with the mother-country to ease her taxes in general. And, indeed, will not the colonies themselves reap no less benefit by such conduct than this kingdom will? Will they not purchase our manufactures the cheaper, if the general taxes of Great Britain shall be considerably reduced? And can they, or will they refuse to lend their helping hand to forward a work so beneficial to themselves no less than to Great Britain?

However impracticable the natural reduction of taxes may appear to some; yet the writer is of a contrary opinion; and that one great foundation for its accomplishment may be laid, by promoting the commercial union he proposes by these papers, between this kingdom and her American plantations. By what means such an advantageous union may be effected, is by the plainest and simplest means; it not requiring any mighty complicated and mysterious scheme to bring the same to pass. They are so obvious, that every man will, 'tis apprehended, readily discern their reasonableness, and acquiesce therein upon the first hearing.

The short plan, therefore, that I would propose is only as follows: viz. That Great Britain gives effectual encouragement to the colonies to produce whatever we at present import from the East countries; and as fast as the colonies shall be able to afford the same, that Great Britain shall import them from these American colonies.

That Great Britain gives effectual encouragement to her colonies to produce every other species of materials for manufactures, that we do not, at present, import from the East countries: RAW SILK in particular, together with every OTHER MATERIAL that we import from any other parts of Europe, or elsewhere.

That this kingdom gives effectual encouragement to her colonies for the making of cochineal, and the raising every species of dyeing productions used in our manufactures, that we now import from any other parts of the world: also cotton and flax in plenty, and whatever else we take from other countries that is contained in our WHOLE CATALOGUE OF IMPORTS, where it cannot be demonstrated that this nation is a gainer by such importations.

That we give effectual encouragement for the productions in our colonies, as well in the island as the continental ones, of whatever in general we take for use, or convenience, or even luxury, from other states, that will come to us in a little time cheaper than we import them from such other states, either for British consumption or for re-exportation to other foreign countries.

What our own extensive colonies in general may not be able to afford as objects of traffic, is hard to determine: provided, we say, that the encouragement we give them shall be effectual for the purposes of fair and repeated trials and experiments made there for that design. And, therefore, it is hard to say, what commodities we shall stand in need of within ourselves, or for trade with other nations, that cannot be obtained from some or other of the present British colonies.

Should we carry this matter to the full extent it will admit of, we may certainly obtain a great variety of materials for manufactures more than we at present have; and such, perhaps, with which we are quite unacquainted at present. And if these are obtained in that great plenty that the extent of our whole American dominions will now allow of, why may we not obtain such materials at a rate as cheap as they can be from any other parts of the globe? They certainly may. When this great point shall be gained, the next we ought to aim at is to manufacture them as cheap as any nation under the sun can do. But how can this be effected but by the speedy annihilation of taxes to their proper degree? By what obvious means one good foundation for this can be obtained, we shall next animadvert on.

The supposed full and adequate encouragements being given to our colonies to raise every thing for traffic, that the great variety of climates abound with in America; we mean such materials for British manufactures as can be raised there by agriculture, husbandry, or planting in every respect, that shall be experienced to be practicable; and every thing else that we shall find our interest to consume amongst ourselves, or re-export to any where else.—This is our general idea, without further expatiation on the matter.

Hereby we shall render, perhaps, Great Britain for every species of imports that we want for domestic use, convenience or luxury, or re-exportation, in a great measure independant, as it were, for imports of any sort with every other part of the world: We say, as we would be so understood, that if we should judge it politic to encourage our colonies to the full height they will admit of, we might have little occasion for any sort of foreign imports whatsoever: we might become sellers to all the world of much more than we yet ever did, and buyers of much less. This will so enrich the nation as to enable her to reduce HER TAXES, and thereby PERPETRATE THE PROPOSED NATIONAL SYSTEM OF COLONY-UNION.

But whatever we did import from any foreign country, ought we not to oblige such foreign country to take an equivalent of our native products and manufactures in return? Or why not cease to have any commercial intercourse with them? Is it not more eligible to cease to trade with any country, than to carry on a losing trade with them? We mean, a losing trade when the same shall be considered in all its circumstances, relations and connections, with any other branches of trade; for one branch may be a losing one, and yet that may prove instrumental to render some other branch or branches more beneficial than they otherwise could be, and therefore amply compensate, or more than do so, for any loss we might occasionally sustain. So that if we lose by one branch of trade, yet that very branch giving being to, or tending to render some other advantageous, we should not trade to our national injury upon the whole. For we can never expect to get rid of the bulk of our taxes, and preserve the public faith, but by rendering our particular balances of trade as advantageous as we can, in order to make the general more so.

Our colonies then being actually brought to furnish us as before represented, in as ample a manner as shall be judged politic on our side, we come now to the short question; What conduct ought to prevail amongst all our colonists? To which we answer, that as we advance in their encouragement to furnish us, is it not their interest to enable us to pay them for what they shall so be enabled to furnish us? Without this, 'tis impossible we should either be able to encourage them, and continue our imports from them.

But if our colonies determine one and all, and that also in the most effectual manner, that they will take and actually shall take, all their manufactures from Great Britain, whom they shall furnish with all materials for that purpose, instead of taking them from the East countries, or elsewhere, &c. &c. this conduct on the part of the colonies will put Great Britain in a condition to pay them for every species of materials wherewith they shall supply them; and every sort of production, which they at present import from any other state, which does not take an equivalent value of British commodities and manufactures.

That the colonies duly indicate their intention to do this, is it at all unreasonable, that they should as much as possible, desist from, lay aside and forbear, every sort of attempt to supply themselves with such manufactures, as they ought in justice to take from their mother-kingdom? We are of opinion, that it is incumbent upon the colonies to manifest immediately the sincerity of their intention to lay aside manufacturing, and that instantly, all those manufactures lately set up upon the continent, and all other, except such as shall be reasonable to except. But this cannot be effectually evinced by the vague declarations that they have hitherto only made to this kingdom. During the dependence of the reconsideration of the late act before the legislature, they forbid their correspondents in this nation to send British manufactures to America. This was done to show their general disgust and dissatisfaction the stamp act had given them: no sooner was the same repealed, than these orders were gratefully and politely countermanded, and the course of trade hath partly reverted to its wonted channel.

Notwithstanding this, in consequence of our humble opinion to enlarge and cement the commercial union to the degree we have proposed, and to induce the mother-country to acquiesce in the measures suggested for that purpose, something more should seem requisite to be done and performed on the part of the colonies; apprehending what they have hitherto done only to be a significant prelude to what ought to succeed; which, we conceive, should be something bordering upon the following conduct, and that is humbly submitted.

That the respective colonies in their legal assemblies, or by their deputies, authorized to convene for that purpose, come to something like these resolutions, viz.

That

That in consequence of his Majesty and the Parliament of Great Britain having, in their great wisdom, been pleased to regard the remonstrances of the British Americans against the late stamp-act, and have at their humble request and sollicitation repealed the same, the several and respective colonies have come to the following resolutions:

1. It is resolved, by and with the consent of the said several and respective British colonies in all his Majesty's dominions in America: That they have unanimously resolved, in consequence of the repeal of the stamp-act in Great Britain, to make and enact such law and laws in the several assemblies, as shall encourage the importation of British manufactures into the said colonies.

2. It is resolved, That all manufactures which interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain, and which have been at any time set up and established in the said colonies, shall be absolutely abolished, from and after the _____ day of _____ — That proper laws be made by the several assemblies belonging to the respective colonies; and that all and every of his Majesty's subjects residing in the said colonies, shall be prohibited from manufacturing, from and after the said _____ day of _____ any household furniture, or wearing apparel of any kind or kinds, *except such as shall be excepted, &c. &c. &c.*

3. It is resolved, That no kind or kinds of manufactures shall be suffered to be made in the said colonies, excepting such only as have relation to agriculture, husbandry, or to planting, and the raising of all such materials for manufactures, and all such other productions as Great Britain shall encourage to be produced within those colonies; and excepting also the making of all such utensils as may be necessary *to the building of dwelling houses, the erecting of plantations, &c. &c. &c.*

4. It is resolved, That all discouragement shall be given to the illegal importation by smuggling of every kind of French or other foreign manufactures into the British colonies, pursuant to the laws that are, or shall be enacted for that salutary purpose in these colonies and in Great Britain.

5. It is resolved, That proper measures be taken by the British colonies to represent to the parliament of England: that it is their desire to enlarge and extend the COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES, by their giving such encouragement to agriculture and husbandry, and to planting, and the raising of all such other productions, &c. &c. as to their wisdom shall seem meet; as well with respect to the commerce and navigation between her and her northern colonies, as between Great Britain and her whole American colonies in general.

Something like the preceding resolutions being solemnly agreed upon, and formally and duly represented to the parliament of Great Britain, may probably be attended with all the happy consequences briefly set forth in these papers. Certain it is, that such measures being taken by the colonies, would manifest the disposition of the colonies towards their mother-country; and the latter would, doubtless, make becoming returns towards such a representation. In a word, by such steps as are hereby generally signified being taken on both sides, will naturally bring about those desirable events aimed at by this discourse. Let it be supposed, for a moment, that our plantations actually prohibited all manufacturing of household furniture and apparel only; and this kingdom, in consequence thereof, was only to give effectual encouragement for the productions in America, and the importation from thence of all those several imports that we at present take from the East countries: this first step would considerably enlarge our commercial connections with each other. If we look to the additional amount of a million and an half a year from our colonies, this would enable the colonies in their turn to take to the like additional value of our manufactures.

Was this the case, would not this create an additional circulation of trade and navigation between this nation and British America to the amount of THREE MILLIONS A YEAR? Is not this an object deserving the attention of parliament? What considerations relative to the East countries can induce us to forego such a national emolument? There are no alliances or treaties that we can make with those powers, either in time of peace or war, that can be an equivalent advantage to Great Britain; for the loss of such a commercial union as these measures would inevitably produce between this kingdom and her American plantations. For this increase of union will be conducive to a further, not only with North America, but between our continental and our island colonies; and as the more opulent both grow, the more manufactures will they both be able to take from Great Britain, and enrich her likewise, as the commerce will increase her breed of seamen, and augment her maritime power to a degree far beyond any service we can expect to receive from the East countries beneficial to these kingdoms. Moreover, every addition made to this branch of trade will be our own trade, under our own controul and direction, and will prove the increase of our own best strength, the increase of employment amongst the industrious poor, and the increase of our own national treasure. Wherein can the East countries, I solemnly ask, benefit Great Britain to such like degree? They may tend, as they have hitherto done, to exhaust us by subsidiary alliances, as well as by their commerce, if we continue in the lethargic state we are in.

Should it be said, that if we decline in our commercial connections with Russia, Sweden and Denmark, our commercial rivals may think it the more politic in them to increase in theirs, and adhere also to that subsidiary system we may find it our interest to relinquish. Let our rivals do this; let them trade with the East countries to the disadvantage we have too long done: let them increase their subsidiary exhaustions of treasure, and let them pursue this trade for naval stores, &c. &c. to their detriment, while we augment ours with our colonies, to our high advantage; what will the consequence be? While they shall behold us rising in opulence, maritime strength and splendor, by an extended commercial union between us and our colonies: while they shall behold this scene of prosperity on our side, will they not experience themselves to grow poorer and poorer, and more and more impotent, while this kingdom grows more and more wealthy, potent and formidable? What need we then to dread their closest connections with the East countries, when our maritime strength will be a match for their united naval force? Provided, likewise, some other measures shall be adopted by the court of England, that we may suggest, it is the humble opinion of the writer, that Great Britain will have little reason to apprehend any kind of injury from the presumed connections that may probably take place between our competitors and the East countries.

Another objection that might be made against gradually declining in our disadvantageous trade with the East countries, as we shall augment in that of our colonies, is, that the revenue of customs will suffer by the loss of our imports from the East countries. Every one conversant with our subject will instantly obviate this objection, by observing, that the same duties will be laid upon the like commodities as gradually imported from our plantations, as at present come from the East countries; and the new duties may be appropriated as the old at present are. The revenue, therefore, can sustain no diminution from such a change of conduct; and as to the temporary expence to which the nation may be at first put for encouraging premiums, bounties, &c. &c. to the colonies; That when put into the scale against the national benefits, will be of no weight in the balance, even with relation to the East country trade alone. But if the plan be farther extended, even to the production of raw silk, cochineal, and every other article of dying ingredients we have imported from other parts, the balance of national advantages will not be inconsiderably augmented in our favour, without the enumerating a great variety of other imports we take from countries we are less beholden to than is generally imagined; that this nation ought to study how to have them from her American plantations, our circumstances requiring this

policy to be carried to the utmost pitch it is capable of; for if we make the certain benefit and advantage of the kingdom our guide herein, we can never carry the principles upon which we reason to too great lengths. The more the colonies shall be enabled to take of our manufactures, the more they will take; and the more we shall be able to import from them, the more able will they be to increase their imports from us; and by this increase of commercial intercourse, our navigation will be proportionably enlarged, by our own unprecious traffic, independent of the caprice of all foreign states whatever.

Be it supposed, we add no more than the article of raw silk to that of the East country trade, it will be well worth our while to exert our efforts to accomplish it. Let the value of the import of raw silk be estimated, in conjunction with that of foreign wrought European silks, legally and illegally imported, at no more together than one million *per annum*; and that by means of our colonies, and the prohibition of European wrought silks, our weavers shall be enabled to supply us therewith, the difference to the kingdom between spending a million a year out of the nation, and saving the same sum within it, will make two millions a year. If half a million only of raw silk be imported from the colonies, instead of Turkey, Persian and Italian, and the colonies shall in lieu thereof take half a million of our manufactures, this creates a circulation of a million between the kingdom and her colonies, and improves her navigation. And if by the prohibition of European wrought silks we preserve at least in the kingdom the other half million we pay for those manufactured silks, this will save a million more to our internal circulation; so that together with the three millions before of circulation on account of the East country trade between this nation and her plantations, will occasion a saving of five millions a year to this kingdom. Sure this is an object deserving of our attention.

Let it be imagined, that by carrying our commercial connections to the degree intimated between Great Britain and her American colonies, and declining something in those between us and those of Italy, will not the saving of the balance we at present pay for Piedmontese raw silk, compensate for any loss we may be presumed to suffer by our exports to the several other Italian states, when the value of wrought silk imported from Italy hath been duly considered. The Italians cannot do without our lead, our tin, and our fish; and if they take the woollen goods they have hitherto done from us wholly from France, would this equalize the advantages, which we may derive from supplying ourselves from our colonies with raw silk, and supplying ourselves likewise and our colonists with wrought silks?

The Turkey trade is at present in our disfavour, and has been so for some time; why should we be anxious for the preservation of a trade we are losing by, unless at length to become gainers by it? Is it not better policy to turn every disadvantageous branch of our foreign trade into a beneficial one, by means of increasing our trading connection between us and our colonists upon the footing suggested, than to continue in the lethargic state of disadvantage for want of rousing ourselves to turn the channels of commerce into lucrative currents? If indeed by the change of channels our maritime power should suffer by it, it might have some weight in a nation whose study ought to be to preserve their mercantile navigation, for the sake of maintaining a powerful royal navy. On the contrary, by cultivating a more extensive navigation with our colonies, we shall certainly considerably more increase our naval prowess than we shall diminish it by any imaginary losses in the decline of our trade with other European states. And it should not be forgot, candid reader, as before noticed, that our colony trade IS OUR OWN TRADE, UNDER OUR OWN CONDUCT AND CONTROL; and while regulated upon the general principles herein proposed, may be rendered conducive to the increase of our trade to all other parts of the world hereafter, as well as the immediate enrichment of the nation. For why may not we become *SELLERS* of all North American, as well as our island productions, to other nations? Under proper regulations, and by strengthening the act of navigation in consequence of what has been said in the general, we may aggrandize the colonies no less than ourselves; and they will then never be induced to attempt an independency, when they experience themselves happy and prosperous in the reverse state and condition. Nothing will urge them to that but finding their interest neglected, instead of encouraged, from principles reciprocally beneficial to the mother-country, as well as to themselves. To this both have a right; and without that right being duly maintained and perpetrated, the subserviency and dependency of the colonies long upon this kingdom cannot be expected; the grand tie and cement of union being destroyed.

Willing to hope and believe, that something like what has been suggested may take place, the consequence must have a very pleasing aspect with relation to both. Provided the North Americans shall be encouraged to direct their whole efforts to the productions of all things that shall not interfere with those of the mother-state, but may interfere with those of other European states or any other country whatsoever: provided they shall cheerfully acquiesce in the laying aside all sorts of British manufacturing, and will determine to take the most vigorous measures to promote the importation of British manufactures, and to discourage, by the most severe and salutary laws and regulations amongst themselves, the smuggling of any kind of foreign wares or manufactures into the British colonies in general, the islands as well as the continental plantations: if these measures shall be adopted, and resolutely adhered to, their temptation to the purchase of foreign commodities and manufactures will cease, because those of England may become as cheap as those of France. For as such like conduct will enrich the mother-country, as well as the colonies, will not this lay a *SURE FOUNDATION* for the annihilation of British taxes; and will not that prove the effectual means, if carried to its proper extent, to lower the price of all English wares to a level with those of any European state or empire? Where then will be the temptation to British colonists to prefer foreign commodities and manufactures to British?

Till a more desirable commercial union than hitherto has taken place, between Great Britain and her colonies shall do so, to their mutual benefit and advantage, is it not the duty of our rulers to take every measure that shall tend to the reduction of taxes, in order to cheapen all English manufactures, that the colonists may be the more readily inclined to take them, and relinquish the smuggling of those of our rivals? It is most certainly incumbent on them to forward and promote to the utmost of their power, whatever has a tendency to so happy an end. How, otherwise, can we imagine that the colonies will continue to prefer English manufactures to those of our competitors, if the abolition of tax-incumbrances to some purpose is not zealously pursued?

Instead of any thing of this kind appearing to have been thought of by men in power for above these forty years past, we have seen, that the whole revenue is so constituted, in its present state and condition, as to give either to ourselves or our colonists very little hopes soon of so happy an event; however practicable such a notable system might be, and however soon such might take place, were there public virtue and public spirit enough in the nation to encourage it. But private persons have too long experienced difficulties and discouragements enough in consulting the public interest. Prudence, therefore, directs every such person to attend to his own avocations, and leave public concerns to those who enjoy their *THOUSANDS* and their *TEN THOUSANDS* a year only to distract the kingdom, and increase the public debts and taxes, instead of studying how to prevent the one or to lessen the other. Unhappy Britain! What must be thy fate, if those who have been so amply rewarded to raise thy prosperity, shall only still think of their dear selves, and neglect thy welfare, splendor and glory! Is this the grateful return made to the best of sovereigns for his gracious endeavours to make his subjects happy? Is it not one of the greatest misfortunes of this kingdom that there are such numerous lucrative

places for the great folks to struggle for, by their party cabals and intrigues, instead of duly regarding the true national interests? It is to be questioned, whether his Majesty and his kingdoms would not be better served, were there fewer, much fewer places of profit and honour to bestow? And on whom are the bulk of the public posts of trust, honour and profit bestowed? Are they bestowed on those only who have performed any thing really meritorious? No: they are generally given to those who have done no public service: to those sometimes, who have done great mischief; to those who have lent their aid to make the worst of laws, and have thereby contributed to alienate the affections of the subjects from the best of princes.

But what encouragement can any man in the kingdom expect from any such idle schemes and projects as the discharge of public debts and the abolition of taxes; while some of our rulers themselves think, and sagely declare too, that the increase of public debts and taxes is a national emolument and blessing, instead of the reverse? When such destructive principles are embraced, by those whose duty it is to discountenance them, is it any wonder that men in power should be so lukewarm as they appear to be, about their reduction? This, however, may be one of their political pretences; because there is something more difficulty in the diminution and abolition of national debts and taxes, than in augmenting them.

It is extraordinary that a people so jealous of their liberties and their constitution of government as we affect to be, should not set themselves one and all against the continuance of national debts and taxes, from the imminent danger they apparently are to both; for as the judicious Mr. Hume observes, "The time may come when the vile and infamous scheme of shutting up the exchequer may again happen, and all the funds may be seized, by the advice of wicked ministers." As the funds of this kingdom are so enormous at present, and we have experienced such unparalleled profusion of the public money, bad ministers, if they cannot obtain parliaments to give a sanction to their pernicious schemes, may advise the absolute cessation of parliaments, and what then will become of our liberties and constitution? Though we are in no danger of such like practices under the government, at present, of the best of sovereigns, yet our present most gracious sovereign cannot answer for his successors, nor the ministers they shall employ. If our public debts and taxes were equitably abolished, we should have no occasion for perpetuated taxes of any kind; and bad princes and worse ministers could never have such immense revenues at their command; and therefore could neither have it in their power to destroy the being of parliaments or the public credit; for no revenue being then raised but what should be ANNUALLY so done, the parliament must ANNUALLY meet to raise THE WHOLE, or the prince would have none whereon ever to rely independent of parliaments.

To secure, therefore, to posterity the EXISTENCE OF PARLIAMENTS, as well as the life of PUBLIC CREDIT, would it not be a sovereign preservative to both to discharge the PUBLIC DEBTS and reduce the PERPETUATED TAXES, and suffer no taxes in future to take place, but such only as shall be ANNUALLY voted by parliament for the ANNUAL CURRENT SERVICE, and that ANNUAL DEFICIENCIES shall be made good the succeeding year, and all ANNUAL SURPLUSES of particular taxes applied to make good their part, if not the whole of such ANNUAL DEFICIENCIES.

Was this practice once happily introduced, and our fund-system so changed as never to contract fresh debts to endanger our liberties or constitution, what halcyon days, what prosperous days might not the whole British empire enjoy? We might possess, upon the principles suggested, infinitely more commerce and navigation between Great Britain and her American colonies in general than we ever did, and by the cheapness of our British manufactures and our plantation productions, draw the whole world to trade with us, and be the general arbiters of their differences, without acting the belligerent part in any.

But while our public debts and taxes shall continue as they are, and be liable to an increase by every fresh war, we can never expect a permanent state of peace or prosperity. While we shall remain in so precarious a state, our neighbouring potentates will never permit us to continue long in a peaceful condition; for they will discern their true road to victory, is to put us under the fatal necessity to go on to augment our public debts and taxes, which will at length inevitably destroy all our trade; and when that is gone, what head shall we be able to make against any foreign enemy? What eternal broils, dissensions and rebellions at home shall we not be subject to? And will not our colonies then be liable to revolt, and shake off their dependency, from so miserable and distracted a mother-country? May we not thank ourselves for shamefully neglecting the means of safety which we have in our power, by a wife and honest public spirit being exerted and encouraged for our preservation?

The public debt is attended with every dreadful consequence that can accompany any national calamity. If it was payable only out of the rents of lands, and of such as live on their means, it might be pretended, that since the industrious farmer must pay his rent, it is the same thing to the nation, whether it is wholly possessed by a lord, or one-half of it be enjoyed by a stockjobber. Even in that case there would be a wide difference. But the rents of lands are not so much in question; and the farmer must pay his share out of his own particular profits, independent of what the lord shall pay out of his estate. A tax of five or ten *per cent.* on any commodity, must raise the price of it above eight or sixteen *per cent.* and as our artists, manufacturers and tradesmen, work under the disadvantage of paying taxes for every thing they consume, either directly or virtually, it is impossible that they should afford to sell their workmanship and goods so cheap as those who pay considerably less, as before shewn.

To judge fairly of the bad effects of our taxes, let us suppose ourselves released from them, or a considerable part of them, and a proportion thereof given in bounties to the artists, manufacturers and exporters; and then let one imagine how many more hands would be set to work at home; how many foreigners would be attracted hither; and whether we should not be able to undersell all the European world at foreign markets, instead of being undersold by any state in Europe.

If our people are grown more idle and less industrious than they were heretofore, as some will have it, may not our public debts and taxes have occasioned it? The civil magistrate, whose chief office ought to be to restrain vice, is forced to connive at it. The large revenue cannot be supported without encouraging idleness and expence, by licensing numberless more public houses than ever before existed in the nation: most of which are to be considered as so many academies, for the acquiring and propagating the whole science of iniquity. From these academies it is that Newgate is peopled, and Tyburn supplied; but it is likewise from these that a very considerable part of our great revenue arises; which otherwise, we may presume, would be suppressed, the better to support honest industry rather than sloth and debauchery. Pulpits may thunder against vice, and juries may hang criminals to eternity, while every means of corrupting the morals of the bulk of the people is thrown in their way to entice them from their duty: it is in vain to expect reformation.

The public debt has opened the iniquitous traffic not only of stockjobbing, but that species of gaming has introduced the general spirit of the same destructive practices amongst all degrees of people, even into their own families, by routing it at home, and assembling it abroad. The attention of the merchant is too much taken off from solid trade; he engages, through the prevalence of custom, in what he fancies is the more lucrative business of Exchange-Alley, and leaves export and import to such as have more patience to follow it. And what is too frequently the consequence? Does it not fill our Gazette with bankrupts, and increase distress and poverty, instead of promote the national commerce or private gain in the general?

The trade of the Alley consists too much in conspiring to pick the pockets of every body not in the temporary secret. Those who are, can make stocks rise and fall at pleasure, and pocket the difference. A has 5000*l.* to lay out. India stock is at 180. B transfers 100*l.* to C at 179. Next morning he transfers another 100*l.* at 178*l.* The price is set, and A buys 5000*l.* at 178. In a week or two, A wants to sell. If the object is considerable, an article in the Hague Gazette is made to confirm that the emperor of Monomotapa desires to be comprehended in the alliance of Petersburg. C transfers his 200*l.* back to B at 180; the market is settled again, and A falls out at 180. Thus their industry brings two *per cent.* in a few weeks. But who do they get it from? From women, young brothers, and all such of the well-meaning people of England as will dabble in stocks, without being in the secret, or without knowing how to carry on the lucrative scheme, if they are. It is from this scandalous commerce that numbers of these mere fund-jobbers have, in a few years, acquired millions amongst them at the expence of the unknowing ones.

One would imagine, that nothing but our necessities could make us wink at a practice so iniquitous and detrimental; yet there are some men absurd enough to fancy, that we are extremely beholden to those money-mongers, for condescending to set up their trade amongst us, for the circulation of public credit, as they affect shamefully to term it.

The city of Bristol, or Birmingham, might with equal reason think itself obliged to a set of sharpers, who should bring a sum of money along with them, and set a faro bank for all the citizens to pont at. Nor would it be more ridiculous in a country Iquire to think to improve his carp, by throwing in a parcel of pike amongst them. We can only increase our people as we do our game, by discouraging poachers and destroying vermin.

There is a public detriment attending the public debts not inferior to any mentioned, which has escaped the notice of most. The public debt has produced a different interest in this nation, that we have greatly suffered by, and if not remedied, can have no end. It is the interest of the stockholders to involve the nation in wars, because they are gainers thereby, although they shall in the long run ruin the kingdom: it is the interest of landed men and the merchant, the national merchant, whom the state only ought to encourage, and not the stockjobbing merchant, whom the state ought to discourage to the utmost rather than engage the kingdom in war upon his account; or the chief burthen and evils thereof will fall on land and trade.

However contemptible some may think the weight of the stockjobbing class, in comparison to that of the solid trading one, it has been by their superior influence, that the nation was involved in the two last great wars. The greater the public debt, the greater the weight of the public creditors, and the louder their cry for wars. And may we not expect that this worthy set of stockjobbing patriots will, on every the least occasion, renew their efforts to plunge us again into the like thralldom? Deplorably precarious must the situation be, where one class of people must be undone, even by a necessary war, and another, of perhaps equal influence, impoverished by the best peace.

If England was obliged to pay a tribute to France, or to any other foreign country, of A MILLION AND AN HALF A YEAR, would not every man declare, that we could not sustain such a drain of treasure long without being undone? And yet that tribute stands on a footing at present still more destructive to the nation; because there is no effectual provision yet made for getting free from that burthen paid to foreign creditors, without giving an extravagant purchase for our redemption, which we are incapable of doing, by the present state of the kingdom. Besides, foreign stockholders have a temptation to increase the tribute due to them, by applying their dividends daily to buy up more stock, out of the hands of the natives; who, as our foreign creditors grow richer and richer, so Britains in general grow poorer and poorer: than which nothing can be a greater confirmation than the numerous bankrupts we daily experience in the kingdom, and the very few that happen amongst our chief foreign creditors in comparison thereto.

To those who are not resolved to shut their eyes against indubitable truths, it must be obvious, that if the public debts and taxes were cleared off, the profits of the manufacturer, the tradesman and the merchant, would be their own. They would be exempted from large disbursements out of their gains. It would be equal, in every respect, to a bounty to that amount on all our productions of nature or of art, and of proportionable advantage to the day-labourer. With those advantages, why should we not be able to underfell our competitors? Our people would of course multiply, for which there is now all discouragement instead of the reverse: our poor would find full employment, and live more comfortably, when we enjoyed greater plenty of every thing at cheaper rates: new arts and manufactures would be introduced, in consequence of invention being on the wing, and the old ones brought to greater perfection: our most barren lands would be cultivated, both in Britain and America, to reciprocal benefit, provided a due commercial union took place between them, and our general produce of both would be insufficient to supply ourselves and our foreign customers: so large would be the demand.

In consequence hereof, the stockjobbers, when paid off, would find employment for their money in trade and manufactures, and would find that turn to a more certain and better account than preying on the vitals of their country; which, if successful, they do; and if otherwise, does not such jobber ruin himself and numerous others who have connections with him, as is more or less daily experienced?

Men of narrow conceptions may, probably, object, there was a time when we owed no debt; and yet this country was never richer, nor had it more trade than at present. Let such men recollect the state of this nation sixty or seventy years before king William's war, with respect to the numbers of people, the trade, shipping, wealth and manufactures; and let them compare it with our situation when that war broke out, and then let them give a reason why we have not increased in the same proportion since that period. Trade was then in its infancy; our colonies were hardly established; those times had all the expence of them, and we all the profit: Ireland was then but little better than our infant settlements in America are now; we had no union with Scotland, and Portugal afforded but little money; each of these has opened a new source of wealth to us; and with such advantages, ought we not to have thrived in the same proportion we did in the former period? Had it not been for the public debt, there can be no doubt but our improvements for the last sixty years must have surpassed those of the sixty years preceding.

The enormity of the annual taxes we pay, together with all the enhancements upon enhancements we likewise pay on occasion of our perpetuated and annual taxes, cannot amount to so little we affirm, as the full value of all the lands in England, if valued at twenty millions *per annum*; and if all the national taxes could at once be discharged by the landed property, what would the nation be worth may deserve consideration. 'Tis true we are swoln with a vast paper credit, and that dazzles us with imaginary instead of solid treasures. Such an immense public debt, its perpetual sales, purchases and transfers, and the circulation of its interest, occasion a great parade of wealth; so does the circulation of other paper securities, exchequer bills, bank notes, bankers notes, bills of exchange, personal notes, bonds and mortgages, and every other species of paper circulation property, make a show of a prodigious magnitude of riches: but as the real treasure of the nation cannot be estimated, till all public incumbrances shall be discharged, the deduction of twenty millions a year will make a considerable drawback upon the national property: and if to this consideration we add those other of the
balance

ballance of trade we pay yearly to the East countries, together with the interest money sent out of the kingdom to satisfy our foreign public creditors; all these disadvantages under which the nation labours, put in ballance against the whole of its magnified paper wealth, should incline us to think that these together ought to alarm us to retrench every expence we are able, and take every measure to abolish every tax-incumbrance that impedes the increase of the solid national property. Could we free ourselves from the load of six millions a year we now raise for national debts, what might that be presumed to ease the nation of annually, if it be considered the enhancements upon enhancements on our whole trade and navigation six millions gross revenue occasions? If every tax is no more than doubled, considered in its compound as well as simple light, as we have observed, the national expence will be so on our whole trade.

During the last two wars we beheld numerous opulent families to have sprung up.—But whence came this mighty treasure? Has it not been extracted from our own intestines; from the millions upon millions that have been raised in this nation during those periods? Before those æras, the nation was solidly wealthy, and daily increasing therein, by enriching commerce and navigation, which dispersed the treasures more equally amongst the people: since those æras, that treasure has been extracted from the pockets of all classes of people by the immensity of taxes; and those taxes have been converting into funds to pay interest for above thirty times such annual tax amount, that has been only in paper property; which some wise men have termed imaginary or fairy property, and not real. This fabric of imaginary property, or, if you like it better, this PUBLIC DEBT PROPERTY, and its mighty circulations, furnish the appearance of millions upon millions of such sort of property, and this PUBLIC DEBT PROPERTY will hold up its circulating head, while the nation shall continue able to pay interest for it. Will not every thinking man consider, how long we can support the paying so many millions a year as are raised upon our general trade, to pay interest only for such public debts? For our arbitrary enhancements on the prices of every taxed commodity renders our burthen at least of ten millions *per annum* on that account only. How long can this nation besides afford to raise above ten millions more yearly, with additional enhancements for the current service, and other expences; especially if to the accumulated annual expence be tacked also that of the poor's tax raised throughout the kingdom, together with every other parochial tax, and the charge of turnpikes? If these should all be considered as burthens on the trade of the nation, and certainly they ultimately center there, every man will allow this cause alone to be adequate to account for every commercial grievance we at present perhaps experience: this however is the grand cause. And why may not this be the natural cause even of that monopolizing and forestalling spirit that prevails?

If our debts and taxes do not diminish, they must increase; and if they do increase, we may pronounce with certainty, that nothing can preserve us but our neighbours being in the same unhappy situation with ourselves, and that we shall only continue a great nation as long as they do so.

When the art of funding, and borrowing thereon, was first introduced, the common talk of mankind was, that in time the people of England must be undone, by adhering to a system so detrimental to the state. Some tell us, that the event has proved the futility of that apprehension. The prediction has been verified, and that, perhaps, in the strictest sense. All that could be meant by the assertion was, that the then possessors, and their posterity, must be undone, and their inheritance taken away from them, and become the property of other men. It could never be their meaning, that the land could run away, or cease to be occupied by somebody. At present, that is above 70 years after the revolution, one tenth part of the lands of England is not possessed by the posterity or heirs of those who possessed it at that period of time; and if the extermination (as it may be justly termed) is not universal, it is only because there were a few overgrown estates; such as the Devonshire, Bedford, Curzon, &c. which have been proof against the waste of luxury and taxes.

Suppose the Turks were to over-run England, it might certainly be affirmed with propriety, that, if we did not drive them out, England must be undone; and yet, if they should prevail, the land would still remain, would still be occupied and cultivated, and possibly the trade of England would receive some advantages from the favour of other Mahometan nations, who have been customers for the woollen and most other manufactures: and it is more than probable, that a greater proportion of the property of the country would remain in the possession of the original inhabitants 70 years after such a conquest, than is now to be found in the posterity of those to whom it belonged at the revolution. As the cause, I mean the public Debt, still subsists, by its amazing magnitude, the present possessors must not expect a more durable establishment. Was the plague to rage in a city, and all the rich to perish, the poor would get possession of their lands, houses, and effects; but if the infection continued to prevail, they would soon make way for others in their turn.

We have seen that our debts and taxes have arrived at such a height, that the nation hath at length sufficient cause to be alarmed at the danger; the monied interest in particular ought to be so, seeing they are liable to be the first that will feel the fatal effects, provided they do not bestir themselves to procure the speedy redemption of their monied property. The weight of taxes thereby occasioned upon trade and navigation, may one day be thought to render their property so highly detrimental to the public interests, that future bad ministers may take it into their heads to attempt to annihilate all their principal, by an abolition of the funds existing for their annuities; for if the public debts and taxes shall not be put into a train of more certain and more expeditious state of redemption than they seem to be in at present, and thereby the latter shall be lessened, they will both assuredly increase; and if they shall continue to increase, they may become insupportable; and when things shall be brought to an extremity, it may occasion such convulsions in the state as may conduce to the taking of such violent measures as otherwise might never be thought of.—In a like extremity, when the clergy had ingrossed too large a share of the property of the country, Henry VIII. was obliged, for the relief of the people, to seize on their temporalities, and has since had the general approbation of the nation for so doing.—Our continuance in the increase of public debts and taxes will reduce the nation to a condition much more intolerable than we were in before the days of Henry VIII. because the clergy contented themselves with possessions in land, without pretending to a share in the general industry of the people, as the monied interest must have, and be intitled to, in consequence of such increase of taxes upon taxes.

As to a violation of laws and public faith, it may be in vain to urge those in cases of extreme necessity. The first of all principles is that of self-preservation; nor could the ties of law and public faith be stronger in favour of fund-holders now, than of the clergy at the reformation. As to public credit, we should have no more occasion for it, since people, relieved from so oppressive a burthen, would, on any future emergency, by submitting to the former taxes, be better enabled to raise money *WITHIN THE YEAR*, than they can do under our present circumstances be brought into the exchequer by anticipations; and the greatest advantage of abolishing the debt would be, that it might secure us against running into debt for the future.

Should it be said, that it might be dangerous to drive so powerful and so opulent a body of people as the proprietors of above 130 million to despair: true it is, they are powerful at present, while they possess so large a share of national property, and their cry is loud, because they are possessed of such vast treasure; but if they should be stripped of that, as would then be the case, they must and would be as inconsiderable, and as little listened to, as any other set of beggars in the kingdom. We do not say it would be wise or equitable in any prince to act this part; and we are assured, that during the days of the present best of princes, he will never suffer

suffer such a melancholy catastrophe to happen; but we cannot answer for his successors, nor the conduct of future ministers, if the nation should be driven to desperation, from the increased magnitude, weight, and oppression of our public debts and taxes.

The monied interest will naturally infer from what has been observed, and it has been so observed on their account chiefly to remind them, that the greater and the greater the public debts shall grow, the greater and greater will the tax-incumbrances grow, or the greater and greater reductions of their interest must take place, to create new INTEREST FUNDS for NEW DEBTS, as we have before noticed, to the disadvantage of the stock-proprietors, as well as to that of the nation in general: and yet, when we stand in need of more money, the state must be supplied, and 'tis to be hoped ever will, be the temporary consequence as it may.

Dangers of this nature have been suggested to attend the monied-interest; and those not only in the manner above intimated, but by other injurious projects to which the state of desperation might drive a nation so circumstanced. It has been observed, that the French, since the year 1613, have, in order to decrease their public debts, and to reduce the prices of their commodities, by frequent enhancements of their money, varied the relation between silver and commodities; that is, they have altered the measure of value; by which means, they do not give half so much silver for a day's labour as they did an hundred and fifty years ago. At that time they coined about eighteen livres out of eight ounces troy-weight of fine silver; and now they coin near fifty four livres out of the same quantity; and yet they now give no more fous for a day's labour than they did before such enhancement of their money. Hence it is manifest, that, from this circumstance alone, THEIR LABOUR IS FALLIN TWO THIRDS, whilst our silver money has remained the same; and hence our labour has received no diminution; and ought not, and it is to be hoped never will, by such like destructive projects. This circumstance, however, added to their cheaper way of living, and our enormous tax-incumbrances, together with our arbitrary enhancements on all taxed commodities, will account for the diminution of our trade to Italy, Turkey, and Spain in particular, wherein the French are our potent rivals, and wherein they will soon become so universally, unless our public debts and taxes shall be reduced to a competent degree, as before signified throughout these observations.—The national detriment that would attend the enhancement of our coin, would prove highly ruinous to the whole monied interest, as well as to the nation in general. See our article COIN, where this matter is put in our intended general light; and wherever we have mentioned this FRENCH project, in any of our writings, the reader will please to observe, that it is only done with a design to shew by what combinations of policy that rival nation is enabled to underfell us, but with no view whatsoever to recommend such a detestable practice to this nation. Projects of this kind are inconsistent with the constitution of our government; and we hope that our public debts and taxes will never be suffered to increase upon us, as to make any such kind of desperate measure necessary: to prevent which is one principal view of my labours, by alarming the kingdom now in time of peace, of the intolerable magnitude of their incumbrance, and thereby exciting to the speedy reduction of our taxes, by every possible measure that can be devised; and particularly to apprise the monied interest to contribute all in their power to such an abolition of taxes, as may not put the nation under the necessity of practising any means for lessening the public debts that shall be repugnant to the public faith, or any way detrimental to their interest in particular, as they are likely to be the most destructively and the most immediately affected thereby: and certainly they are the whole class of people who are the best able to prevent such calamity, while their property and their power shall continue so great as it at present is. Is not this motive sufficient for them in time to take what has been urged in their behalf in good part?

The monied interest, we say, is more particularly concerned to take care that their monied property be put into a more certain state of redemption than it hitherto has been, as well for their own greater security as well as that of the nation. Can they expect that the nation will be anxious about what they themselves shall be indifferent? We have seen the danger wherein their great estates may be, provided debts and taxes are not reduced. It has been seen, that it is no better than a political amusement, to pretend to DISCHARGE ANY PART OF THE PUBLIC DEBTS WITHOUT THE REDUCTION OF TAXES; we have seen likewise, that all reductions of interest have been thrown into the sinking fund, and that this fund, instead of being made a debt, or a tax redeeming fund, for the decrease of national taxes, hath become only a public debt and tax increasing fund, by turning interest money the more easily for such detrimental practices.—We have had fifty years experience of the efficacious operation of this fund to ease the nation. Instead of that, are we not the worse for the existence of any such fund at all? Have not our debts and taxes been by the means of that fund rendered so immensely enormous as they at present are? For whatever hath facilitated the means of raising such immense sums as have been raised, hath made ministers the more profuse and extravagant of the national treasure, and ever will. Such facilities rarely prompt to parsimonious measures, but stimulate to exorbitant dissipation. We have seen the enormous height to which our ANNUAL SUPPLIES for the current service in time of peace also have arose; and that they all ultimately terminate on the commerce and navigation of the empire; that our annual, no less than our perpetuated supplies, fall most heavily thereon; even without those additional enhancements that traders in general are obliged to levy upon the nation, by the increase of the general prices of every thing throughout the kingdom.—We have seen to what an amazing burthen these must inevitably amount, even exclusive of the poor's tax, and all other parochial taxes and turnpikes on our trade. We have seen, that the weight and oppression of our taxes are amply sufficient to account for the excessive prices of all English commodities, without having recourse to any temporary causes which have likewise contributed thereto: this cause alone, considered in all its consequences, is adequate to all our present grievances; and this is a standing, a durable, not a temporary cause; and without the removal of this cause, the effect cannot cease; it will grow worse and worse, and the national calamities more and more intolerable.

The annual ballance in trade that we pay to the East countries is, at the same time, a drain of national treasure we ought not on any account to admit of, if we can possibly prevent it. We cannot support it.—The other constant drain of treasure that we sustain on account of our public debts to foreigners, is another additional grievance that tends to our greater impoverishment. Does not common policy direct that such mighty drains may cease? And yet they seem to be never thought of by our very ministers of state, whose duty it is to do so! What! will not the present high price of gold and silver alarm them! Will not these barefaced destructive phenomena rouse the nation from its lethargy! Will not *****

To contribute to bring about these happy consequence we have recommended a more interesting union between Great Britain and her American colonies; we have presumed to sketch in what manner such a further union might take place, to their reciprocal benefit and advantage.—We have shown how such a happy union, carried to its full extent, might so enrich the nation as to enable us to lessen our public debts and taxes, and thereby augment our commerce and navigation with our plantations more and more, by reason of the greater cheapness of English commodities. When these national measures shall be duly pursued, our colonists will increase in their importation of them from us, and we in our importations from them. This will enlarge and cement the desirable commercial union, and nothing else can or will effectually do it. We have shewed by what easy means these things may be accomplished.—We have shown that the same duties may be levied upon our additional

ditional plantation imports that are now levied upon those detrimental ones from the East countries and elsewhere; so that the revenue cannot suffer in this respect, by the proposed change of measures.—We have shown what additional and extensive a circulation of trade may be carried on between Great Britain and America by such measures; especially between her and her continental colonies.—We have seen in what manner that commerce and navigation may be enlarged between the continent and the islands, to their mutual advantage.

From the increase of our island commerce in America that seems to be promised by our additional territories, we may expect considerable benefits; especially if well regulated free ports shall take place, consistent with the act of navigation.—We have intimated that our American trade is our own trade, and under our own controul and government, and if wisely regulated by this kingdom, may and will answer ends of infinite emolument to this nation; regulated as well to the advantage of the colonies as the mother kingdom; to such a degree, perhaps, might the same be carried, that this nation might in time become not very anxious as to any other branch of maritime trade that should not be apparently and unquestionably profitable to the nation as well as the trader; and therefore this commerce is an object well deserving the most attentive legislative care and concern. By cultivating this trade to the pitch it will admit of, will furnish innumerable articles for re-exportation to all parts of the European world, and augment our maritime power, and bring in treasures from every quarter; it will amazingly increase our wealth and our maritime prowess: as it will detach us from all commercial connections but such as shall be evidently beneficial to the state; so it will never subject us to the caprice and insults of other potentates; for whenever they shall use us ill, by the infraction of commercial treaties or otherwise, we shall have nought to do but to return the treatment in a commercial way: that is to say, if they shall impede and obstruct our trade with them in any unjustifiable manner, we shall resent it in the like manner, without having immediate recourse to the sword.—On the contrary, every state will be the more cautious how they shall dare to quarrel with us, when they shall behold us in a kind of state of independency of trade with them all, and in a capacity to right ourselves at any time, upon any kind of injurious treatment that sound policy shall direct to resent with our whole national force. And when we shall arrive at this happy state of commercial independency, as it were, who have we to fear? What power, or what combination of powers will presume to disturb our tranquillity, especially if some other points shall be regarded that we may hereafter, if our other avocations shall admit of it, suggest?

The increase of navigation and maritime power between the mother-kingdom and her colonies, may become very great; it may really become unspeakably great, by means of the commercial union suggested: and as we shall then get into the sure track of discharging the public debts and annihilating taxes, what will hinder but likewise then the happiest commercial union may take place between Great Britain and Ireland? For nothing hath hitherto obstructed that measure, but the immensity of our debts, and the enormous burthen of our taxes. When once our tax-incumbrances shall be duly annihilated; and whenever, in consequence thereof, all English commodities and manufactures shall be reduced in price to a level with those of our competitors, may not Great Britain, Ireland, and her American plantations, become so happily united, as to bid defiance to almost any combined power that may dare to maltreat or insult us? These are the days that every true friend to his country ought to rejoice to see; and till the due reduction of our debts and taxes, we cannot expect to see, for more reasons than I chuse to mention; and although I am persuaded, that I shall not be thanked for what I have said; that gives me no manner of concern; independency is the state I enjoy, and shall ever endeavour to maintain; persons in other conditions giving themselves no trouble to represent things in their true light, private interest swaying them to the contrary, or to be quite indifferent about public affairs, while they enjoy their lucrative posts of profit and honour.

Then it is we may expect to see the enhanced price of provisions and every thing else fall, to the comfort and relief of the industrious British artisan and manufacturer, and to the renown and glory of the British empire. Bread alone is insufficient to comfort the laborious heart; they must have meat also, and in plenty too, in order to replenish their exhausted strength; yet it is at present so dear, that even persons of middling fortunes can hardly afford a joint of the best for their families. Does not this merit the most serious attention of legislation? Is not the worst of confusions always to be expected from an oppressed, a starving, and a despairing people? Does not all history show the tragical effects of the prevalence of want and famine, and prove that it is impossible to retain the obedience of any nation, while the people's bellies are empty? Will not people destitute of the comforts of life, refuse to be bridled by laws? Will persons in that forlorn condition be restrained from violence, by sentiments of regard for superior condition? Has not this been lately exemplified by our neighbours in Spain, where the general cry of the people seems to be against the government for impoverishing them? Will not the same causes have the same effect every where? Is it not full time to remove the causes of general discontent in this nation?

In Greece, Italy, Persia and Egypt, whenever the public was observed to be assailed by real or artificial famine, officers were employed both at home and abroad, to buy up the necessaries of life wherever they could be obtained, at the most reasonable rates, and convey those inestimable commodities, at the public charge, to the unfortunate cities where want raged, that the subjects might not be traded out of their lives and domestic quiet, by engrossers, forestallers and regraters. All wise ministers have always looked upon it as a matter of the last importance to pay a capital attention to the wants of capital cities, because the working multitudes assembled in the service of a large metropolis, can neither want, nor provide for themselves. Why is every proper arrangement that can be made, till our taxes can be abated, neglected, to prevent the enormous price of butchers meat in our markets? The virtuous and humane may propose associations of private men to provide for the wants of the public. Such designs are laudable, and merit every possible private encouragement. But 'tis to be feared, that no attempts of this sort will be crowned with the wished for success, till a national reinforcement can be obtained against national evils. The same is the case at Birmingham; wheat has been lately near double the price it was about twenty years ago; so has beef, mutton, pork, veal; also cheese, butter, &c.—We hear the same melancholy accounts from the manufacturing towns of Leeds, Halifax, Manchester, &c. Thus our own industrious poor, who by their labour support our manufactures, and even the kingdom itself, are in several parts almost starving alive. Will not people, prompted by the irresistible force of hunger and nakedness, endeavour, by some means or other, to get redress? May not calamities of this nature create a kind of desperation amongst his majesty's subjects, and the consequence prove of the most dangerous nature, if not soon put a stop to?

If ministers are at a loss to reduce our most burthensome taxes themselves, that oppress the oppressed, why do they not employ and reward well, those who are able to do it in their stead? 'Till this can be done by somebody, why do they not put in execution what they have in their immediate power, to put a stop to monopolizers, forestallers and regraters? It will not be said, that it is not in the power of the legislature to effect this. Why then do not our ministers lay the matter before them without delay? Why have the most salutary measures that can be thought of been delayed so long? Can any thing be unequal to the wisdom of a British parliament? Though we cannot be of opinion that the removal of those causes, which we have termed temporary, will be striking at the root of our grievances, yet ought not every thing be done that can

be towards the lowering the price of provisions in the first place, to pacify the minds of the working people, till the most effectual measures shall be taken to lessen the public debts and taxes? Is not the burthen of nett eight millions a year, besides the vast expence of collection, burthen sufficient for the nation to support in time of peace, without bearing our enormous tax-incumbrances for public debts also; more especially when it is considered, that the whole weight of national burthens fall upon trade, as the ultimate great fund that supports all other?

Let any impartial man duly consider, what cannot be too often inculcated, to what an intolerable height our enhancements upon enhancements still further augment the vast national expence; and to what a still greater degree our poor's tax, and all other heavy parochial taxes incumber the whole commerce of the kingdom; and then let him judge, whether this cause alone is not adequate to every calamity the kingdom at present groans under?

'Tis no compensation to the nation to attribute the cause of our misfortunes to this or the other administration; we may complain upon this head to eternity, without redress. Has it mended, or can it mend public affairs, merely to turn out one ministry and put in another raw and unexperienced? Can changes alone amongst men of power relieve the kingdom from millions of the national taxes from which it requires to be relieved? Has granting some great men pensions, the sons and relations of others places upon places, contributed one jot to render the nation more prosperous and more happy? Has not this political farce been too long acted to bear being brought upon the stage any more? Is not such state-craft grown quite ridiculous in the eyes of every wife and upright man? Does it not incline every one to think, that nothing more is meant thereby than mere ministerial scrambles for places of profit and honour? Must not this prove a great affliction to the best of sovereigns? Would he not enjoy a far greater share of complacency and consolation, we repeat it again, had he less instead of more lucrative places to bestow, since they occasion such eternal wranglings, intrigues and distractions in the nation? Is it not scandalous to behold such numerous profitable places said to be in the gift of the crown; and yet the whole power of bestowing them wrested out of the royal hands by over-ruling cabals and intrigues, that seem to care as little for the honour and dignity of the crown, as they do for the felicity of the people? But if a strict scrutiny is made into the possessors of all places of trust, honour and profit, said to be in the gift of the crown, for it is no more than a say-so, on whom shall we find them bestowed, and for what public service have they been bestowed on their possessors in most reigns? Have they been given to men who have deserved them; who have done any real services to the sovereign or the nation? Was this matter duly enquired into, where is the list of those superlative patriots who have laboured to keep the kingdom free from debts and taxes? Instead of recollecting any large catalogue of the names of those worthies, I confess myself at a loss to think of one single great personage, who has for many years filled any of the great posts of profit and honour, that has distinguished himself in preventing those grievances the nation now labours under. Were we happy enough to have been blessed with but a few of these, we could never have been reduced to the condition we are now in. On the contrary, it would be no difficulty to furnish, within my own time, a very large list of persons, among whom, and their relations and dependents, many millions upon millions of the public treasure have been amassed, together with great titles of honour. But where are our celebrated financiers, who have annihilated our tax-oppressions? And wherein consists the public virtue of heaping tax upon tax upon the nation, which has heaped calamity upon calamity upon it, till we are brought to the state we are at present in?

The system of multiplying debts and taxes is now carried to great lengths; and our statesmen will not be convinced it is carried to its full extent, till it shall be out of our power to carry it further. But if we are to wait till that very day comes, before we shall begin to think of changing the system, will it not then be too late to do it? How far distant that very day may be, is no great difficulty to prejudge, from the several national symptoms, that are so flagrant at present. What other prognostics of its near approach would we have, than what we at present experience, and are represented through the course of this short discourse?

The present money system calls aloud for reformation: for this, added to the accumulated force of what has been here urged, occasions the magnitude of our public calamity, by the excessive high prices of every thing in England; from those of provisions in general, to those of all other commodities and manufactures.

If the effects of that great paper circulation which is now carried on in the nation be duly considered, we shall find that to be a cause that contributes to the evils we complain of; and indeed is a necessary effect proceeding from our mighty public debts and taxes. The price of labour, and the value of commodities, it is evident, would not be the same in this island, when there is twenty millions of pounds in circulation, as when there is forty millions of paper: but as the monied interest has arose to the pitch they are, and in consequence thereof paper circulation has become so very extensive, it has created this artificial kind of circulation. Add to this, the greatness of banking carried on in the kingdom, by the silent but incessant issuing of notes; this has more than doubled the new coined current specie of the island; consequently a crown will not go further than half a crown would have gone formerly. Thus they have in a manner stripped the landed gentlemen of a great part of their incomes, as one thousand a year is now of little more value than five hundred pounds, through this artificial increase of paper money; for the price of labour and commodities has arisen in a faster proportion than the landed gentleman's property has been improved.

If we examine the extent of this circulation, we shall find it immense. It has been computed by some judicious persons, that including our national debts, and every other kind of paper currency, there are notes existing in this kingdom at present, in the proportion of twenty, or rather twenty-four pounds in paper, for every pound in gold and silver. Almost the whole of this artificial specie has been coined, year after year, by private persons; and opportunities of loans to the government has been the very inlet by which they have insinuated their nominal money into circulation. Neither the whole of the gold, nor of the artificial specie, is kept up in actual currency; but from the slightest attention to money-matters at present, we may perceive, that there is above ten times greater quantity of the latter kind of money used, than of the former. All sums of one thousand pounds, or upwards, are now paid almost wholly in paper. It is nearly the same with sums of one hundred pounds: nay even shop-keepers and tradesmen's bills, of twenty or forty pounds, are now generally paid in bankers notes. The stewards of noblemen and gentlemen, in the remotest parts of the island, receive the rents chiefly in paper: and it is even said, that a very few years ago, for some time, certain copper-plate presses have worked off many hundred of notes a day for circulation. Does not this demonstrate the necessity of restraining somehow the power of such artificial coinage in the hands of monied men, who seem not to care how soon they unnerve the nation, provided the public distress will afford them an opportunity of enlarging their fortunes? While there is a malady subsisting in the state, corrupting its very blood, in vain do we attempt to restore health by mere palliatives. If we would effect a cure, we must apply remedies to the very root of the evil.

This renders the order of monied men a very dangerous nuisance, instead of an ornament, strength, and advantage, to the kingdom. May not this, in time, conduce to their ruin, instead of their further aggrandisement at the public expence? Formerly we had no considerable monied men out of the order of merchants and undertaking

manufacturers, (exclusive of the gentlemen of landed property;) but within this half century, numbers have started up, that monied men, without having been concerned in manufacture or traffic, or being possessed of land. Can their fortunes be otherwise raised, than by preying upon the necessities of the State, or upon the industry of private persons? Consequently, should not a business of so detrimental a nature be somehow restrained, if not totally suppressed, by every well policed government? And how can this be most effectually done, but by the gradual annihilation of the public debts and taxes, as soon as possible, and contract no perpetual taxes for such debts evermore?

While monied men have been encumbering the state, and sinking the value of money, by their arbitrary increase of paper currency, the wicked practice of stockjobbing has added occasionally to the confusion and distress. The greatest part of the professed money-jobbers may not unjustly be termed public robbers; for by their artifices they have for these several years past, stripped innocent individuals of more of their property than all the highwaymen in Great Britain. Their practice is exactly similar in its effects to that of house-breakers. A gentleman, we shall suppose, buys 1000 *l.* stock for 1000 *l.* and locks up his title thereto in the future, or has it legally transferred. Here he may reasonably think it safe; yet the event has proved the mistake; for the tricks of the money-jobbers shall have such an influence upon its value, that when he offers it for sale at market he will find it is not worth quite 700 *l.* Would it have made any difference to this gentleman, to have had his treasure broke open at home, and out of 1000 *l.* cash contained in it, to have found 300 *l.* carried off by thieves?

Had there been no annual loans, the stocks would have ceased to fluctuate as they have done; and by the establishment that ought to take place, they should be continually kept up at par, or very near it, till we can annihilate the whole, even in times of war. This would give new life to trade, save millions from going out of the kingdom. Though the fluctuating state of the funds should not really affect the public credit of the state, yet their instability and low price has too frequently given an opportunity to foreigners to draw large sums out of the kingdom, and tempted many manufacturers and traders to forsake their business, and go into Exchange Alley with their money; where for every eight pence they could purchase a shilling, which has been a greater profit than they could expect by following their occupation. This profit, however, few of them ever receive; for not being able to wait to realize their shilling, by seeing stocks rise to par, they are obliged by the necessity of their affairs, to sell out at much the same rate they bought in, and find themselves sufferers by having neglected honest industry. The broker, however, still thrives, by a succession of new bubbles; but trade, in the mean time, is daily receiving fresh wounds under such a system, and that spirit of industry, which is the very life of the state, by continually supplying new resources from agriculture, and the labour of artists, and the solid arts of commerce, declines more and more into a spirit of gaming, which subsists merely by devouring the solid resources of opulence.

Part of every new loan is made up by deductions out of the old funds; for the money lenders are gainers even by selling out of the old funds one *per cent.* less, when they subscribe the same money into a new loan of two *per cent.* advantage. The funds, by this means, are kept gradually sinking, and the government, on the other hand, is obliged proportionally to augment its premiums, the burthen of all deficiencies being laid at last upon the state. The public funds are like a granary, with a hole at the bottom. While the grain is drawn out every day by that opening, it is no wonder that the heap sinks down, notwithstanding any small supplies that may be poured in at top; but if the opening were once stopped up, the granary would soon be filled up, by the fresh stores brought to it from all parts.

In the like manner, the funds must immediately rise, if the government once cease to make any demands for supplies from the monied men; for no part of the yearly expence of government being drawn from thence, the number of sellers would be very few in comparison of the buyers, which is always the most certain means of raising the market. If there were to be no transfers or deductions from the funds, but those occasioned by real necessities of stockholders, less than half a million of money brought to market would be sufficient to raise them to par at any time.

The mischievous practices of swelling our paper circulation are far from ending with the war: even in time of peace, persons not only assume the coinage, but the sole direction of the circulation of all our paper money, which is a power too great to be left in the hands of private men, who are every day extending it more and more, to the great prejudice of the state. Though the bad consequences of this paper coinage have never been attended to at home, yet the colony of Connecticut have not only remarked them, but guarded against them by a wise law, which ordains, "THAT ANY SOCIETY, PRESUMING TO EMIT OR ISSUE BILLS OF CREDIT, TO BE USED AS MONEY IN TRADE, SHALL BE PUNISHED AS IN CASE OF COUNTERFEITING; AND THE UTTERER OF SUCH BILLS SHALL FORFEIT DOUBLE THE SUMS." Douglas's Summary of American affairs, vol. II. p. 200

If bankers are suffered to proceed without any kind of legal controul, at this rate they alone will be in possession of all the gold and silver in the nation; in which case, exclusive of the great power they would acquire, trade would be as much burdened by an over-abundance of paper specie, as it is at present by taxes. Bankers, at present, by issuing notes, draw all the cash to themselves, which they offer in loans to the government; and as these loans are paid at eight or ten different payments, it renders it still more easy to keep up their arbitrary paper circulation.

According to the vulgar prejudices, indeed, loans of ten or twelve millions have been raised for some years together, from the mere savings of our wealthy traders; but this opinion, from what has been urged, must appear to be false and absurd in the highest degree.

Besides the opportunity which a loan affords to the bankers of issuing notes, which exist as so much paper wealth, and lie as a burthen on the state till they be redeemed by parliament, that is, till the debt be paid off.

The sway and influence of our paper-monied men, as things have been unhappily managed for the nation, have been very formidable; but is not that entirely owing to their being made useful engines to the state, to multiply the public debts and taxes? What would their power and interest be, if they were not supported by their connection with the government? Should the government wisely detach themselves from their old system of raising money, they would become of all men the most dependent; for as the richest of them have issued more paper obligations than they can well answer at certain times, instead of being able to check others, they will be checked themselves, with the perpetual apprehension of such runs upon them for cash, as might end in the ruin of numbers. This would force them gradually to abridge their dealings in paper, and turn themselves to some other business, which would be doubly beneficial to the state.

It would neither be cruel nor injurious for the state to oblige any body of men, who thrive by distressing the public, under the appearance of serving them, to quit their pernicious occupations, and betake themselves to some other means of living consistent with the welfare of the state. Hardly any public reformation can be effected, without interfering, in some measure, with the private interest of individuals: but that is never thought any just reason why such reformation should not take place. At the conclusion of the war, a hundred thousand men were turned out of bread; that is, were deprived of their then means of subsistence, and

compelled to look for some other: but this was no reason why the war should continue for ever, lest those who made it their profession should want employment. When the art of printing was invented, numberless persons got their living by writing. This had no weight against the encouragement of the art of typography, since it has been judged, in all well-policed countries, that as many, or more, might get their living by printing, as ever had done by writing, and the world become infinitely better instructed. The interest of watermen who ply on the river Thames, was opposed to the general convenience that would arise from the building of London, Westminster, and Blackfriars bridges, and others; yet these useful undertakings have not been discouraged in the least on account of that trifling objection. The interest of the water-carriers in London, who were formerly a very numerous body, was opposed to the scheme of introducing the New River water into the metropolis; but though it was easily foreseen that their trade would be ruined, if the new scheme should take place, yet the extraordinary convenience that would accrue to the public, from the constant and plentiful supply of water, outweighed all considerations of the private interest of these individuals, who could earn a livelihood by turning themselves to some other employment. The society of water-carriers, it will be allowed, is not much missed in this great city, the inhabitants of which are now better supplied with water by the New River company, and the Bridge House, &c. who, for a small expence, circulate it in pipes through the streets and houses, in great abundance. This circulation has been attended with so many conveniences, that the trade of the water-carriers has long been rendered useless and obsolete; and to those who are accustomed to think only of modern times, it now seems odd that such a society ever existed.—If ever, therefore, this great point of paper-circulation in this kingdom should be duly considered by the legislature, as perhaps may sooner become the case than many are wont to apprehend, the whole system may be reformed that we have too long been habituated to; and the interest of all the monied proprietors may be put upon a more secure establishment than ever it will be without it. They will then think well and respect the memory of all who shall have endeavoured to promote the required reformation; and it is better it should come upon them gradually, as the national incumbrances might very easily be lessened, than suddenly, to their entire destruction. Before the late revolution, there was no distinction of monied-interest, nor scarce a single banker in all London, much less a banking-house in every great city; yet in those times trade flourished, the people lived in plenty, the prices of things were in the general *extremely cheap* to what they at present are; which made our manufactures find every where a ready market, and the national stock of gold and silver kept annually increasing. If the nation could then prosper without such paper credit, and paper circulation, which has contributed its share to the present state of things in this kingdom, why should it be thought that it could not still flourish, though we were not incumbered with a shilling of national debt, nor a single banker in the nation; especially as our liberties and properties might then be better secured, and great improvements added to the arts, and the intercourse between us and our colonies likely to be infinitely extended?

And whether the prevalence of such a practice hath not contributed, in conjunction with our mighty tax-incumbrances, to the present high price of every thing throughout the kingdom, may one day well deserve the most attentive deliberation of the legislature; for it is to be feared, that this has been none of the least grievances under which the nation hath too long laboured, as it has facilitated the raising immense sums of paper-money for the service of the government, and thereby made it easy for ministers to increase the public debts and taxes to the height to which we have seen they are arrived: And it is now full time to consider, whether this uncontrolled arbitrary augmentation of paper circulation, to such degrees beyond the solid wealth of the nation, will not one day so bloat the kingdom with imaginary treasure instead of real, that the whole paper fabric must at last inevitably blow up, if it is suffered longer to prevail without any sort of legal check or restraint.

And if to the vast stretch of private paper credit and paper circulation, we continue to add the still further increase of public debts, we shall, at length, certainly arrive at an immense degree of paper riches. While such sorts of paper wealth and paper circulation shall be deemed as good as solid gold and silver, and merchandise of every kind, we have nothing else to do but to multiply this species of national treasure: and if we can only devise ways and means to pay interest for paper public debts, both abroad and at home, with paper, what have we to do but to coin on? An admirable system to grow rich as fast as we please! There can be no end of such a Babel of treasure; we may tower it to what height we please; the larger the fabric grows the firmer it will be; the more our public paper debts, as well as private, augment, the safer will such monied property become. This will doubtless be the infallible way to render every thing as cheap as we please and the nation most formidable, without further trouble!

Notwithstanding what has been represented, the affairs of this nation are very far from being irremediable; yet we judge it requisite to apprise our rulers of the difficulties with which, we apprehend, they have to encounter, to the end that they may be the better prepared to subdue every obstacle to the common prosperity, and the more speedily take every proper step to act offensively and defensively against any enemies that may deserve chastisement from this nation.

We have at present a notable foundation laid in America for the most beneficial commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies; a union that might be as glorious as interesting, if it shall not be obstructed by a weak administration, but forwarded by a wise, an able, and an upright one. And on whom can the kingdom so securely confide to accomplish this happy design as a tried, a faithful, a wise, and a successful minister; a minister beloved by the people, and will ever render his sovereign universally so, while he himself shall retain the confidence of the people: the minister, whose weighty interposition at once united the hearts of the Americans with their mother country? Can any minister be prejudged so likely to carry the desirable commercial harmony between this kingdom and her plantations to its pitch of supreme reciprocal emolument? No man in the nation is so fit to bring about this great work; and this event alone will conduce to bring about many other we stand in need of. It will rectify our affairs at home as well as abroad. For if his majesty shall graciously condescend again to place the great commoner at the head of his affairs, what is it he will not be able to effect, if through his means a coalition of men of the best abilities shall act in concert with so wise and so weighty a guide at the head of public business, and an end is put to ministerial cabals, intrigues and distractions? Such then may the last peace become, if duly improved, upon the principles herein suggested, that we shall have no less reason to esteem the peace makers and the peace improvers, than the successful war conductors.

The improvement of the last peace in America to the utmost stretch of sound policy, is the great point this nation has to pursue; if that is steddily and wisely done, a reform in the money-system may soon be brought about, under an administration of apparent public virtue and true public spirit, let whoever will be at the head of it. And it is to be hoped, that we have many wise and good men in the kingdom fit to be so, should the great commoner not chuse to be so, and be rendered by any means incapable of so important a trust, in the opinion of a wise sovereign, and the voice of his loyal and well-intentioned people.

THE END OF THE FIRST PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE.

PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE the SECOND.

ANIMADVERSIONS ON THE FOUNDATION LAID FOR A MORE INTERESTING COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND BRITISH AMERICA, BY THE DEFINITIVE TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND PEACE BETWEEN HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY, THE MOST CHRISTIAN KING, AND THE KING OF SPAIN, CONCLUDED AT PARIS THE 10TH DAY OF FEBRUARY, 1763: TO WHICH THE KING OF PORTUGAL ACCDED ON THE SAME DAY:

Also

OF THE GOOD EFFECTS AND CONSEQUENCES SUCH UNION MAY HAVE TOWARDS THE BETTER ENABLING GREAT BRITAIN TO REDRESS THE NATIONAL GRIEVANCES REPRESENTED IN THE PRECEDING PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE:

With

CONSIDERATIONS UPON THE CONDUCT OF GREAT BRITAIN, WITH RESPECT TO ALLIANCES WITH EUROPEAN POTENTATES TO PRESERVE THE SAID PEACE, OR TO CARRY ON WAR, WHEN THE SAME SHALL BE NEEDFUL.

FROM what has been urged in the foregoing discourse, some may imagine that it is not very likely to have any good tendency to preserve the present tranquillity; instead of intimidating those potentates disposed to break through it, such a melancholy representation of the affairs of this kingdom, may rather encourage a rupture than prevent it.

Be the consequence as it may, such premonition will be of utility. If the representation of our affairs therein given be true, could it answer any wise or good end to conceal it? Will it not, on the contrary, apprise our rulers of the difficulties they have to encounter: and will not that the better enable them to make provision, in time, for the purpose? If they shall prove false and groundless alarms upon due examination, and that we have no such grievances to redress, of which we have complained, so much the better; our rulers may pass them by as a kind of political romance; and they will have the less trouble upon their hands. But great care should be taken that they are not deceived themselves instead of the writer. If he happens to be so, the fallibility of a private man is not to be wondered at, and the consequence is of little concern; but if men in power, if those on whom the nation, and his Majesty depend to redress every public grievance, shall disregard what it is their duty to enquire into, can we admire that a general discontent shall spread itself throughout his Majesty's dominions? Can we be surprized, that our gracious Sovereign has no sooner made choice of one set of ministers, than he shall experience the necessity of taking another into his royal service? For if ministers shall be disinclined or indifferent about enquiring into the true cause of general murmurs, complaints, and dissatisfaction in a state, how is it possible that they should cease? The eternal changing of ministers will never change the state of the national grievances: it will increase, instead of redress them; and therefore ministers are more obliged to them who lay the causes of public maladies before them, than to those who shall stifle or palliate them: can the state-physician cure state distempers, unless the causes shall be exposed to his view? Can he preserve the affections of the people, or of his Sovereign, without he is able to effect the cure? He deserves neither the one nor the other; nor will enjoy it in this kingdom. And how can he expect it? How then can we be surprized, that the nation should be distracted with changes of men in power, when the people do not experience relief, relief sufficient to render them easy, contented and joyous, instead of the reverse? No ministers can reasonably expect to sit easy in the seat of power, nor any sovereign enjoy complacency of mind, unless the people do so too, in this kingdom.

National ferments will sometimes spring from imaginary, and not real causes; these are only temporary in free states, and subside when the cause comes to be discovered. The present discontents of the people seem to proceed from causes every way adequate to them, in our humble opinion; and therefore, until those causes shall be competently removed, 'tis greatly to be feared, that general murmurs, discontent and distraction will increase in the kingdom. I could heartily wish and rejoice at my mistakes, as a private man, delighting in the general happiness of my country. 'Tis from no other motive I write; as being unpaid, un-pensioned, and unplaced: I write not to distract, but to conciliate men in power to unite in a coalition of abilities and resolution to strike at the root of the public evils; for many there most certainly are, and I am willing to believe I have exhibited the principal.—But it is not talking or writing of them that will cure them, though these are previously necessary; for if our rulers are not convinced of the cause, they can never be able to cure them: if they are once convinced of that, they will prescribe themselves the method.

Lest the foreign enemies of this kingdom should presume to take advantage of the present state of our affairs, and break the peace, I take the liberty to say they will most assuredly repent it, far more than they have yet done the effects of the last war. For there is nothing represented as a grievance in all we have urged in the foregoing discourse, but what, in our humble opinion, is to be redressed, and that soon too, notwithstanding they may be judged otherwise. We apprehend that one sure foundation for that purpose is already laid; we mean a foundation in the state of our American affairs, as the arrangement thereof has been adjusted by the last definitive treaty of 1762. This is our private sentiment; and 'tis upon this foundation we would desire to be understood, that we aim at the firm erection and establishment of that further COMMERCIAL UNION we have attempted in these discourses between this kingdom and British America.—This step, 'tis conceived, carried to its due extent of policy, upon the general principles we have before suggested, will prove the secondary foundation, whereon the mutual prosperity of the mother kingdom, and her colonies, may be laid for redress of grievances in both.

Should it be said, that this is a work of long time, before it can ripen to such maturity as is requisite to enrich the kingdom, as to enable it to reduce our public debts and taxes to any degree to be sensibly felt by the people: we are of a contrary sentiment; more especially if the proper coinciding steps be also taken in England to co-operate the more immediately and the more powerful to promote that happy commercial union we would intend.

But if our ministers shall once resolve upon the general measure, and our Northern colonists shall determine to act in concert with them, in some such manner as has been intimated, every requisite step may then be previously thought of to render whatever we have in view effectual.

And if once France, and her allies in the FAMILY COMPACT, shall find that we are in earnest to promote the proposed union to the utmost, they will, doubtless, endeavour to thwart it, and that by an infraction of the last treaty of peace, and an open rupture.

We shall, therefore, at present, enquire how far it may be presumed to be in the power of France and Spain to defeat our intentions.

In our former discourse we have shewn the possibility of the independency of the Northern colonies from their mother kingdom, provided a more interesting commercial union should not take place between them and this nation. But, as we shall presume, that no wise measure will be left untried to prevent an event of that kind, as well on the part of the colonies, as on that of Great Britain, it may be necessary to consider how, and in what manner the foundation has been laid by the definitive treaty of 1763, to conduce to the further commercial union, the better to answer the purpose hereby honestly designed.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, all Canada, and its dependencies, the river St. Laurence, the coasts of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, are ceded and annexed to the crown of Great Britain.—— Hereby is secured to this nation an uninterrupted intercourse to the gulph and river St. Laurence, all the islands contiguous thereto, and to the straits of Belle-Isle. This, together with our freedom of navigation to and from Hudson's Bay, renders us formidable in this part of the world.

By the cession of all CANADA, and its dependencies, to this kingdom, and the very trifling possessions the French at present enjoy of the small islands of St. Peter and Miquelon, for a shelter only for their fishermen at Newfoundland, cannot enable that nation to annoy us from thence in any of the territories of Canada and its dependencies. Stripped as France now is of the territory of CAPE BRETON, called very properly the Dunkirk of North America, as well as that of Newfoundland, they are destitute of every place, by the means whereof, they are not capable to rendezvous any formidable naval power to do us any great injury in this part of America, if we shall take due care to keep all our territories in those parts in a proper plight and condition, and be able to sustain our brave Americans with a due degree of maritime force.

And although the same definitive treaty grants the subjects of France the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, such as is specified in the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, which is renewed and confirmed thereby, except as therein excepted, &c. yet as they have no place to resort to where they can form any degree of marine or military force, they being limited to a guard of fifty men only for the police in the small islands of Miquelon and St. Peters, what hinders but we can, at any time, when they shall break treaties with us, deprive them of this fishery for ever after? So that as she will be in no condition in those seas to resist us, if a due union shall be preserved between this kingdom and North America, we, on the contrary, shall be able to do them the greatest mischief by turning them quite out of this valuable fishery.

By the cession of Canada to the crown of England, and extirpating the French, we have also secured to us the internal navigation of all the great lakes and rivers within the extent thereof, and hereby laid the surest internal foundation in North America to raise a more numerous race of seamen than we ever had there before: and the navigation of the gulph and river St. Laurence, and all our other dependencies upon Canada, will administer constant employment for a great number to be employed externally as well as internally.

Had not the extensive and valuable territories of Canada been secured to us by a free navigation to and from the great gulph and river of St. Laurence; or had the French been left any other possessions in this part of the world, except the trifling islands of St. Peter and Miquelon, without force, we might have been liable to their insults or interruption; but now we never can be so, without being enabled to chastise them for any insolent conduct to us in those seas.

Whence it should seem, that France will not be able to prevent or interrupt our further desirable commercial union between this nation and this part of North America, without being likely to suffer an eternal deprivation of the privilege of fishing in those seas at all. And what Briton would not rejoice at this? To what degree would not our gallant North Americans exert themselves to dispossess them for evermore of that liberty they long to enjoy to themselves, in conjunction with the rest of their fellow Britons? France have always been losers by waging war with us in America; and they will be infatuated to think they shall be gainers by another, let them attempt it as soon as they will.

By the definitive treaty we have likewise secured to ourselves the safe and uninterrupted navigation to and from all our other colonies on the American continent, as well from Spain as France. By settlements at Mobile and Pensacola in Florida, and our right of navigation into the great river Mississippi, in the other gulph of Mexico; by our settlements likewise of St. Augustine and St. Mattheo, in the gulph of Florida, together with our situation at the Bahama islands, and at Georgia and the Carolinas, we most certainly shall be far better able to protect and defend our southern continental colonies from any attempts of the Spaniards, than we were before, if due care is taken of them for that purpose. And as we shall be able to do this, so we are also in a better condition to act offensively against Spain than ever we before were in the gulphs of Florida and Mexico. Have we not therefore so well secured all our North American colonies by dint of a free navigation to and from them, as to afford us more encouragement than we ever before had to enlarge and cement a more interesting commercial union with them? Were we not so secured by the navigation to and from the three great gulphs, we might be discouraged to make farther attempts to extend our union with them; but the definitive treaty has left us every motive, and every incitement to do it to the utmost of our power. So that as our North American colonies are secured to the more northerly parts from France; so are they from Spain to the more southerly. For although since the conclusion of the said definitive treaty, France has agreed to transfer New Orleans to Spain, for latent considerations, we apprehend will soon appear, yet we cannot look upon such a step as disadvantageous to this kingdom, the Indian nations not being so much under the influence of the one as they have heretofore been under the other; there, indeed, having been an inveterate antipathy between them and Spain, instead of a friendship betwixt them and France.

'Tis true the Spanish American territories are nearer to ours on the continent than they ever were before: and are not ours nearer to theirs? May we not regard this rather as an advantage than otherwise?

We being now situated in the gulph of Mexico, as well as that of Florida, will not this in time of peace more facilitate our trade with this part of Spanish America, than when our dominions were at a greater distance? In times of war, do we not approach nearer to La Vera Cruz? Are we not more contiguous to the Spanish Mexican mines of treasure? And will not the freedom of navigation in the Mississippi give us advantage over the Spaniards here, when occasion may make it eligible to take it? May not our adjacency to the Havanna render its conquest now more easy than ever it was before? Though we no less than the Spaniards, once thought that key of the Spanish wealth invincible, yet Spain, to their loss, have experienced it otherwise; and what has happened may again more probably, from our nearer and our stronger neighbourhood thereto; and more especially when a more formidable union between Great Britain and North America shall happily take effect. Can the Spaniards hinder it? We say, they now are not near so able as they were before we possessed the Floridas, the right of navigation in the Mexican gulph, and to and from the Mississippi; they are not so able to do it, while we have the ports of Mobile and Pensacola in that great gulph, and those of St. Augustine and St. Mattheo, in that also in the gulph of Florida. Are not also, in consequence

quence hereof, the Bahama islands become of more importance to this nation than ever we knew them before? When we shall be at war with Spain, is not the Havanna at present, as it were, quite surrounded with British dominions and British power? And are not those dominions from their natural contiguity more able to give mutual aid and assistance to each other, and therefore to render the whole British maritime power more formidable in this part of the world than it ever was before the last definitive treaty of 1763? Port Royal, in South Carolina, together now with the ports of St. Augustine and the Bahamas, are all so contiguously situated, that they can soon give assistance to each other. Carolina-Port Royal is capable of receiving ships of any size or number; and these, with ships stationed at St. Augustine, and cruisers at the Bahamas, we now lie conveniently not only to guard our northern colonies on this side, but to assemble a maritime force, when occasion, to attack any enemy in those parts.

The Spanish galleons or flota, from the Havanna, in their passage through the Gulph of Florida, may now be easily intercepted by a squadron stationed at South Carolina-Port Royal and Augustine, assisted by such private advices as the cruisers belonging to Providence may constantly be able to furnish them with; but there is no instance of the king's ships stationed at Jamaica having ever intercepted the Spanish galleons or flota in their return home; for they have either had notice from Jamaica before a British squadron appeared, or when they have seen our ships cruising for them, they have lain safe and quiet at the Havanna till the English have been tired out and retreated through sickness, or for want of provisions, or else carried with the stream through the gulph, and then the Spanish fleets have soon followed and escaped us. Is not likewise our situation at Mobile and Pensacola, in the Gulph of Mexico, more likely to catch the flota from La Vera Cruz to the Havanna than ever it was before?

British ships bound to Jamaica from Great Britain or Ireland, or the plantations on the American continent, or from the coast of Africa, instead of passing through the Gulph of Florida, where the current is strong against them, or through the Windward-Passage, which is equally hazardous, shape their course so as to fall down so far southward, till they arrive somewhat east of the Caribbee-islands, in a parallel latitude with Jamaica; to which end they generally make the island of Antigua, or others in that neighbourhood, from whence they alter their course due west, and bear away with the trade-wind to Jamaica.—But when such ships are homeward bound to Europe, or the northern colonies on the continent of America, they have their choice of two courses, viz. either through the Windward-Passage or through the Gulph of Florida.

From clearing the west point of Jamaica to the west of Cape St. Antonio, in the island of Cuba, the ship has the advantage of the trade-wind upon her starboard quarter all the way; but when she doubles Cape St. Antonio, and changes her course to bear away for the Gulph of Florida, which is in the teeth of the trade-wind, she then loses much more time and way than she had gained in her quick passage from Jamaica to the leeward of Cuba: and while she has been thus beating against the wind between the coast of Cuba and the Gulph, she has been in great danger from the Spanish guarda costas from the Havanna; and supposing she escaped them, and was just entered the Gulph, she was still in danger from the coast and current of Florida.—Now we are in possession of Pensacola and Mobile in the Gulph of Mexico, and St. Augustine, we can dispatch cruisers after them, and intercept the Spanish trade or their guarda costas much better than ever we could before; whereby the navigation from Jamaica is rendered more secure. Besides, next to being in actual possession of the Havanna itself, we are now as happily situated as we need be, as well for our own security as to annoy the Spaniards.

There is no other homeward course, except that through the Windward-Passage, in which the trade-winds blowing continually from east to west, and the most difficult part of this passage being from Port Royal point in Jamaica to Morant, which is directly against the wind, often detains ships for a month or six weeks together; and even after that, many have been forced to return to Port Royal in Jamaica, and pass through the Gulph of Florida. So that as our most constant course of mercantile navigation is through the Gulph of Florida; so likewise is that of the Spanish flota and galleons, though the latter have sometimes steered through the Windward-Passage; but the unwieldiness of those ships making it rather more difficult than private merchants ships, they very rarely chuse this passage.

Upon the whole, therefore, our settlements as well in the Gulph of Mexico as Florida, considered at present in conjunction with those of the Bahama islands, and those of Georgia and South Carolina, seem to be happily situated, as well to intercept the Spanish treasure in the galleons and flota, in their course home to Old Spain, either before they may reach the Havanna, or when they shall sail from thence for Europe. Next therefore, as observed, to our being in possession of the Havanna itself, we could hardly be better situated for the purpose of such interception of the Spanish American treasure; especially if we wisely embrace every other advantage we may enjoy in these parts, in consequence of the last peace, however badly it may have been represented by many, who do not seem to me to have duly considered the benefits we may derive from it by our present whole American situation.

The reason for my observations hereon at present, is owing to the consideration of the prepared state British America is now in for the commercial union herein submitted. For if our colonies were not in that state of security the last peace left them; if the French or Spaniards continued so situated on the continent of North America as they were before the last war, and we were liable to the same perpetual distraction by their machinations with the Indian nations, we could not have that encouragement we at present have to attempt that extensive commercial union we have suggested in the foregoing discourse. As we shall increase the trade on that continent, we shall find more commercial employment for the Indian nations in general; for we cannot prosper but they must do so likewise; and when once the arts of agriculture, planting, and raising every production which Great Britain shall find it her interest to encourage, the Indians themselves, as well as the Europeans, may naturally fall into the like, there being so close a connection and affinity with the present Indian way of life, and those of agriculture, planting, &c. The wants of the Indians may, by good policy, be increased, and this instigate to their efforts to supply them; which, together with intermarriages between their people and our Europeans, will create a desirable incorporation between them. This will produce harmony and affection, instead of scalping and wars: they will experience more felicity to arise from such amicable and commercial connections than they ever did from the reverse. May we not, therefore, presume, that the whole face of things will soon be entirely changed on this continent, when a due commercial union shall be promoted? The Indians also may as easily be induced to strike into the employment that will be afforded them, by a very extensive inland navigation, as from a great increase of agriculture, husbandry and planting, &c. &c. it is an easy transition from hunting to agriculture and planting, and from fishing to a trading navigation.

By the more interesting commercial union between this kingdom and North America, we may create such an universal spirit of commercial industry, as well amongst the Indians as others, as will inspire universal love and amity amongst the people in general: and if wise regulations are made to prevent every species of the wanted fraudulent impositions upon the Indians, they will become one united people with us. This will remove the common cause of those broils and misunderstandings we have too frequently had with these people.

On these considerations it very clearly appears, that we are better situated than ever this nation before was, to act offensively as well as defensively against Spain, in America; and in the former in the most important manner, and to the most important purposes. For as assuredly as we took the Havanna itself, so certainly are we better able

now to retake it than we ever before were, from the circumstances of the preceding account. The contiguity of the situation of our most southerly continental colonies is such, that we may have aid much sooner, and much more formidable, from the continent in those parts than we ever had; and we may do much greater execution there against Spain than we could ever before do. From the Carolinas to the Floridas, we are in a capacity to raise a more considerable land and maritime force than was ever before in our power, from America alone; and, therefore, may we not reasonably presume, that we shall be able to do more execution against the Havanna itself in a few months than heretofore we have been ever able to do 'till the last war? Nay, upon any future rupture with Spain, it is to be hoped, that we shall level our whole maritime strength, as well from the American continent as from Europe, directly against the HAVANNA, this being the short cut to chastise them at once effectually, and by no means to trifle with ourselves or them at all in Europe. Will not this ever prove the least expensive, the shortest, and the most formidable way to deal with that nation, without spending our strength elsewhere? Will not this conduct in Great Britain be far more eligible than even waiting for the interception of their flota or galleons? For they may keep them a tedious while locked up in their other Spanish American ports at a great uncertainty to us: and therefore at a great expence to us, in waiting for them: whereas, if we once again possess ourselves of the Havanna, how can that nation be able to get home their American treasure? Or, how can they with safety bring any from Old Spain to New? With the greatest difficulty will they be capable of doing either: and when the whole currency of this Spanish trade shall be stopped up, and obstructed, what will become of the Spanish revenues arising from this the most valuable part of their whole commerce? By a resolution in the court of London to level the whole of that force the British nation can apply against Spain, in any future rupture with that nation, wholly at once against the Havanna, we shall do more execution against that nation, when they shall deserve it, in one twelvemonths, than in our former dilatory and vague ways of dealing with Spain we have done in some years: in such a condition has the definitive treaty of 1763 put this kingdom with relation to that of Spain. And may not such management save us millions upon millions of expence hereafter, which heretofore we have expended to right ourselves against that insolent Spanish nation?

As by means of the advantageous situation we at present have in North America, we are better enabled to take the Havanna again when that point shall be resolved on by the government of Great Britain; so is there not the greatest probability that we shall not be disappointed in our attempt? Have we not now safe contiguous harbours for our fleets to fit and rest? Can we not reinforce them as we shall have occasion, as much and as expeditiously as the Spaniards shall be able to guard or to defend themselves at the Havanna? Are we not at present better able than ever we were to surround such part of the island of Cuba as shall be conducive to our success, as well from Jamaica, as from Port Royal in Carolina, the Bahamas, St. Augustine, Pensacola and Mobile? Can we not give assistance also from our logwood settlement in the river Baylis, if that settlement be made the proper advantage of? Can we not likewise very easily take possession from Pensacola, and elsewhere, of the bay of Campeachy; and from thence carry a great maritime force to the Havanna? In short: while the Havanna shall be open at top, as our brave Admiral said formerly at the taking of Gibraltar, what is it that our gallant and magnanimous British seamen and soldiers will not cheerfully attempt and succeed in? What is it they will not accomplish, if wisely conducted by harmony between our sea and land officers, under a wise administration, which shall engage them by encouraging rewards to exert themselves? By such like animating measures, whatever is possible to be done, by the bravest of men, we may take for granted will be done. They have been lately accustomed to conquer; and what is it they will not determine to conquer under an administration they have been wont to conquer? An administration beloved at home, and dreaded abroad; an administration judicious in the choice of officers of every kind to conduct our forces: officers tenacious to support their honour as British seamen and soldiers; determined to live in friendship, and unanimously resolved on victory?

We do not flatter ourselves with impossibilities: the presumption of success, we may, with great truth, say, is more probable than ever, because we are better situated to obtain it than ever of the Spaniards. And are we not in the like circumstances with relation also to France in North America, as we have before briefly shown? Well then: as we have seen that France is not in less danger on a future rupture with this nation to lose for ever the privilege of the Newfoundland fisheries, from the happy situation we are in, by virtue of the definitive treaty in America: so is Spain of losing the Havanna for ever on the like occasion. Perhaps, France may think this a visionary idea, that may appear plausible upon paper only. We pretend to no divinatorial gift of prediction: but we hope we are not dispossessed of that of common sense, which surpasses every enthusiastic phantom. Let them judge from numerous things we foretold, from the principles of common sense, for many years before the last war: whether we are likely to be mistaken in our future, if they and Spain force us into one soon again. And this, we conceive, they will do: and so sure as they do, they will rue it. For notwithstanding the present state of our domestic affairs may look with a melancholy aspect, from the representation given of them in the former Preliminary Discourse, yet, we know, that every grievance, as before intimated, therein complained of may be redressed: and that soon too to their sorrow. And although they may please themselves with our present ministerial divisions; and think this the proper time to take advantage of us; let them remember, that all Britons will unite to scourge them when there shall be occasion for it. This their great minister Richlieu ever foresaw, though weaker ones may not.

We are happy in the enjoyment of the liberty of the press: we are happy even in the abuse of that liberty; was it for no other reason than to deceive our enemies; for 'tis observable, that they rarely distinguish the difference between party and national writings. All we write is for the national service, having nothing to do with party distractions of any kind: and if we put our rulers in mind of any grievances, 'tis only from a motive to have them redressed: not to show that it is impracticable. We, however, shall have no reason to be sorry if our enemies shall make another use of them than what we intend; they will repent it. Will not their loss of Jamaica, and their loss of the Floridas, and our gain of them, and the ports of St. Augustine, Pensacola and Mobile; and our gain of the freedom of navigation to and from the Mississippi, make Spain dread the further consequences of quarrelling with Great Britain? Let France too remain insensible to their losses of Canada, and all its dependencies, of Cape Breton, the islands of St. Johns, Miscou, Richlieu, &c. &c. let them remember that they are now possessed only of the trifling islands of St. Peters and Miquelon in their own right, and the privilege of fishing at our will and pleasure under British restrictions; and let them judge what chance they will stand to retain this privilege upon another rupture with this nation; and they must be infatuated to quarrel with us soon again.

We not only behold with pleasure, the state of affairs at present in all North America, and the ability we are there in to act offensively as well as defensively, but we view also the rising condition of our new acquired Island territories in America.

By the definitive treaty of 1763, the three islands of DOMINICA, ST. VINCENT and TOBAGO, are yielded in perpetual sovereignty to the crown of Great Britain, and the island of ST. LUCIA is ceded to France, in exchange for the island of GRANADA, with the GRANADINES, and all their dependencies, which are also for ever yielded to this nation.

Such is the situation of the island of DOMINICA, that besides the immediate assistance it may receive from our ancient isle of Barbadoes, a respectable Squadron, on the first appearance of a rupture with France, might be sent to Prince Rupert's Bay for its protection; and will serve as a place of arms, and the rendezvous of our forces, from all parts of the West Indies; and from the nature of its situation, the whole of the French commerce in these parts will instantly become precarious, and all their settlements lie at BRITISH MERCY.

The island of ST. VINCENT is situated directly to the leeward of Barbadoes, and may in a few hours be reached from thence; and is, at the same time, so seated, as to cover and connect the small islands that lie between it and Granada.—By the island of St. Vincent, Great Britain has likewise gained an additional check upon the French inland colonies in general; and particularly on that of St. Lucia. There can be no measure taken there, of which we may not have immediate notice; and if we consider the situation of this island in respect to that, and the rest of the French islands, now that Granada and all its dependencies are become British, it is apparent that we may from thence establish a cruize; by which the French may be effectually blocked up, or at least deprived of all commerce in case of a future war. This island may likewise serve us for a place of arms, by which forces may be transplanted from the other adjacent islands, and embarked very conveniently for our future expeditions in this part of the world. It also contributes to cover and connect all our other possessions, that together we have acquired by the peace; and from thence reinforcements and supplies may be sent with equal ease and expedition to Dominica.

TOBAGO, the most remote of all our new acquired islands in America, being situated near to the Spanish main, is an advantage that may tend to render this isle of important utility. It may open to us a correspondence with the free Indians, who live upon the continent; and who would be glad to have commerce with us; and with good management we might thereby make an acquisition of people as we have done of country. From hence we might be able to annoy the Spaniards, as well on the island of Trinidad as on the continent, if we shall find it worth our while in time of future war, as they have done us from that Spanish island during the last war.

Another advantage we have gained by the definitive treaty, is that of annexing the island of Granada to the crown of England. By our most accurate accounts, it appears to be about twice as large as Barbadoes, larger than St. Lucia, St. Vincent, or Tobago. The harbour, which lies to the north-west end of the island, and is called the Carenage, the harbour of Port Royal, or the Old Port, has been always reckoned one of the best harbours in the West Indies, as possessing almost every advantage that can be desired. It is so capacious as to hold, with ease, a Squadron of TWENTY-FIVE SHIPS OF THE LINE, where they may ride with perfect safety, in respect to wind or weather. In time of war, this island will give us very great advantages against the Spaniards no less than the French: and if it should so happen, that by a multiplicity of services, our naval force should be so divided as to leave us only an inferior Squadron in those parts, the CARENAGE would afford us a safe retreat, without obliging our ships to quit that station: a circumstance well worthy our regard, of which the French availed themselves often, so long as this island remained in their possession. Nor should it be forgot, that our island of Granada, and its dependent Granadines, are free from hurricanes; to which also our island of St. Vincent is seldom exposed.

By the arrangement of things in the West Indies, in consequence of the treaty of 1763, there is not now an island small or great there, the right and possession of which is not duly ascertained. By virtue of this adjustment, we possess a NEW AND CONSIDERABLE PROVINCE IN THE WEST INDIES, composed of islands well situated; as well for the mutual protection of each other as for their offensive annoyance of an enemy; and for their general intercourse with Great Britain. This new distribution of territorial property has brought us much nearer to the Spanish main, and this in time of peace may enable us to furnish them with supplies of negroes, and other necessaries, which they have long received from the French and Dutch. From these islands, we have in times of war effectual means of keeping ENEMIES FLEETS IN AWE, interrupting all correspondence between their West India settlements, and making descents upon their coasts, let them break with us as soon as they will.

The French judged Martinico could not be secure without St. Lucia. They were strangely prepossessed with the notion of St. Lucia, not to discern, that we possess in DOMINICA much more than we could possibly have had, if we had kept St. Lucia. For Dominica lies in the very middle of the channel, between Martinico and Guardaloupe, to the windward of the last of these islands, and not so much to the leeward of the former, but the vessels can easily fetch the road of St. Peter, which is its principal town and port from Dominica. We have also in that island, to leeward, Prince Rupert's Bay, and to windward the Great Bay; so that, having Barbadoes to the windward of all, and Antigua to leeward of Guardaloupe, it is scarce possible in time of war, that EITHER TRADE, OR SUPPLIES should get into these French islands. Dominica is of large extent, and great natural strength; and may be defended against any force: St. Lucia is so accessible on every side, that it must of necessity fall to a superior maritime force. Dominica will serve to cut off the communication between Martinico and Guardaloupe in time of war, and reduce the inhabitants of both these French isles to the last extremity.

Upon the whole: it appears, that the proportion between the property, and consequently between the power of Great Britain and France in the West Indies, is now extremely altered to what it was before and since the conclusion of the peace of 1763. Our property, in the former period, compared to theirs, was no more than one to five: whereas 'tis now as near as ten to fifteen, or nearly as two to three. If, therefore, when we were in so much a weaker state, we were still able to protect, even the smallest of our islands, during all the late wars between the two crowns, and in a condition to conquer almost all theirs; shall we have any reason to fear when we have acquired so large an accession of UNITED FORCE in the West Indies?

Besides: the situation and disposition of our islands give us, in respect to France, still greater advantages. Our northern islands will remain what they always have been; a perpetual check on them on that side. Dominica lies, as shewn, in the very center of their possessions; so as to command and distress the navigation equally of Martinico and Guardaloupe. At the southern extremity again we have Granada, and its dependencies, connected with St. Vincent; from whence we have an easy correspondence with Barbadoes, and a number of safe and commodious ports, whereto our FLEETS may at all times resort: all which considerations, taken with their united force, may banish the apprehensions of danger, either to our old or new colonies in these parts, in case of another rupture with France.

From this concise view of our present situation, in point of security, to act defensively and offensively against the united powers of France and Spain, both in North America, as well as in the West Indies: what can Great Britain have now to dread from those mighty potentates? We have little to fear from these nations: but they have every thing to fear from the due exertion of the force of Great Britain once more being turned against them both.

But what will they not have to fear, from THE ADDITIONAL COMMERCIAL UNION PROPOSED to be made between Great Britain and her North American, and her island colonies; and as well between those of our British colonies on the continent as our islands?

After this view of their situation for defence and offence, we shall now give an idea of the additional commerce we may derive from our new acquired island colonies.

Dominica is a large island, at least twenty eight English miles in length, and about thirteen in breadth, in circumference about thirty leagues. It is not intersected by large inlets of the sea, as many others, both of the larger and lesser of our own, as the French West India islands are, and of course contains more land. Some have judged it near twice as large as Barbadoes, and the French esteem it near half the size of Martinico. The climate in general is reputed wholesome. The face of the country is rough and mountainous, towards the sea side especially, and within land, there are many rich and fine vallies, and some spacious and fair plains. The declivities of the hills are commonly gentle, so as to facilitate their cultivation, and the soil in general a deep black mould, and commended for its fertility, by the Spaniards and French, as well as the English. It is well watered, by at least thirty rivers; some of which are spacious and navigable for several miles, the rest commodious for planting, and variety of fish. It abounds in all kinds of *TIMBER* that are customary in the West India isles. Their fruits are superior to those in Martinico and Guardaloupe. Hogs, both wild and tame, are in plenty, as well as most sorts of fowl. Ground provisions in general are here as good as in any of the other isles; such as bananas, potatoes, maniac, from which the cassida is made, the common bread of the Indians, Negroes, and even Europeans.

The settlements made here by the French upon the coast were esteemed equal, if not superior in produce, to those in their own isles. There are several safe ports and convenient creeks. On the north west end of the island there is a deep, sandy, large bay, well defended by the adjacent mountains from most winds, called Rupert's Bay, where our armament under the late lord Cathcart lay very commodiously, and which was of great service to our squadron in the course of the late war. There is good anchoring ground along in all the *LEEWARD COAST*.

The French have acknowledged, that sugar, cotton, coffee, cocoa, and indeed every thing, that either they, or we have been able to raise in any of the other islands, may be produced in large quantities, as well as in great perfection in this island. As it is greatly peopled already, it will induce to the discovery of that mine for which this island has been always famous, as believing it, from tradition, to be silver, but what the French well know to be gold; and though it should not be judged expedient to open it; yet the certain knowledge of it could do us no injury, as the fame of it might invite numbers there, and prove of great benefit.

The island of St. Vincent is from north to south about twenty-four miles in length, and about half as many in breadth; sixty, or thereabouts in circumference. It is rather bigger than Antigua, and if no larger, at least as large as Barbadoes, somewhat smaller than St. Lucia, and much about two-thirds of the bigness of Dominica. The warmth of the island is so tempered with sea breezes, that it is looked upon as very healthful and agreeable, and on the eminencies, that are numerous, the air is pleasantly cool.

The soil in general is extraordinary fruitful: though the country is hilly, and in some places mountainous. Amongst the former there are pleasant vallies; at the bottom of the latter some spacious and luxurious plains. No island of the like extent is better watered; from the mountains there descend rivers, and lesser streams run on both sides from almost every hill. There are various fine springs at a small distance from the sea; and the slopes so easy and regular, that there are hardly any marshes, and no standing waters on the island. There are besides large quantities of valuable *TIMBER*, as well as good fruit trees; some peculiar to this isle. It abounds with wild sugar canes, from which the natives make a pleasant liquor; corn and rice, and all sorts of ground provisions are raised in plenty, and without great trouble. In the south part, where the French have raised some large and flourishing settlements, they have coffee, cocoa, indigo, anatto and *lignum vitæ*, and very fine tobacco. They have plenty of cattle and poultry. The rivers are stored with divers sorts of fresh fish; and the sea contiguous to its coasts abounds with those proper to its element and the general nature of the climate. Land and water fowl are in great plenty.

With respect to its produce in general, it bids fair to become inferior to none of the other isles, according to its extent: and it has many commodious bays on the north and north-west sides, with abundance of convenient creeks and good anchoring ground on every side. At the southern extremity there is a deep, spacious, sandy bay, called St. Antonio, where ships of large size may lie safely and conveniently. The French for several years went on settling, planting, cutting timber, and raising every kind of West India commodities, except sugar, and carrying on a very lucrative trade to their other islands, in which a number of sloops were employed.

Tobago is thirty-two miles from south-east to north-west, which is the greatest length, and where broadest is about nine miles, from east to west, somewhat more than seventy miles in circumference. It differs not a great deal in bigness from the isle of St. Vincent, is rather larger than Barbadoes, and of consequence than any of our leeward islands. The climate, though it lies only eleven degrees and ten minutes north from the equator, is not near so hot as might be expected; the force of the sun's rays being happily tempered by the coolness of the sea breezes. 'Tis another favourable circumstance that this isle lies out of the track of hurricanes.

There are many rising grounds over this island, but they cannot be properly stiled mountainous, except, perhaps, in the north-west extremity, and even there they are far from being rugged or impassable. The soil is well diversified; being in some places light and sandy, in others mixed with gravel and small flints, but in the general it is a deep, rich black mould. From the extraordinary size of the same sort of trees that grow in the other islands; and from the trials made by the Courlanders and the Dutch, this island is esteemed to be luxuriantly fertile; well suited to the different productions that are raised in the West Indies; and from the concurrence of various circumstances, may be wrought with ease, and is not liable to the blast, and other accidents, which are sometimes fatal to the most promising crops in some of our leeward islands.

It is generally agreed, that hardly any country can be better watered than this is. Besides springs that are found in plenty all over the island, there are not fewer than eighteen rivulets that run from the hills into the sea, some on the east, some on the west side. Some of those take a serpentine course through the meadows; others pent up by rocky channels, roll with such rapidity, as renders them very fit for driving of mills; but there are very few or no morasses or marshes, or lakes, pools, or other collections of standing water, which of course must render it more healthy, and in all parts of it alike habitable.

Yet this distribution of fresh water is not more commodious than the disposition of the bays and creeks of the sea upon its coasts. At the south end lies the bay of La Guira, and at a small distance the lesser and the great Rockley bays. The latter of these may, with propriety, be stiled a harbour, for it is land-locked on every side, and is very secure. In this bay, the Dutch and French fleets engaged in the year 1677, in which engagement the French ship called the Glorieux, of seventy guns, belonging to the squadron of count D'Etrees, was blown up; which shews that it is capable of receiving as considerable squadrons, and those of as large ships, as are usually sent into those seas. To the northward of these lies Fat Hog bay, and beyond that Grand River bay, Great Hog bay, Little Hog bay, and L'Ancre Batteau, covered by the island of Little Tobago — Opposite to this, on the other side of the island, is John Moor's bay, now Man of War bay, very deep and spacious, with ten fathom water close to the shore, with two fine rivulets running into the bay, where

where our ships may careen, with the utmost conveniency and greatest safety; it being surrounded by high hills, that come down close to the shore, by which the vessels lying there will be effectually sheltered from both wind and weather. There are also several little commodious bays between this and Great Courland bay, and Sandy Point bay, which brings us again to the southern extremity of the island.

Whence it evidently appears; that this island is in all respects most convenient for commerce, and affords many obvious and extraordinary advantages to provide for and preserve its security.

This island is covered with all that vast variety of valuable **TIMBER**, that is to be found in most countries in the West Indies; many sorts of which are no less extraordinary in their size than excellent in their nature. The same may be said with respect to fruit trees, and amongst these there are some that are peculiar to Tobago. Such, for instance, as the true **NUTMEG TREE**, which the Dutch themselves, who are good judges, affirm to have found there. They, indeed, say it is a wild nutmeg, that the mace is less florid, and the taste of the nut itself more pungent, though larger and fairer to the eye, than the spice of the same kind brought from the East Indies by them.—The **CINNAMON TREE** grows likewise in this island, though the bark is said to have a taste of cloves as well as cinnamon.—Here also grows that tree which produces the **GUM COPAL**, resembling that brought from the continent of America, and very different from what goes by the same name in the rest of the West India islands.

All ground provisions are produced here in great abundance, as well as perfection. Here likewise are plenty of wild hogs and other animals, together with large quantities of fowl, and an amazing variety both of sea and river fish. During the time the Dutch possessed this island, which was not many years, they exported large quantities of **TOBACCO**, **SUGAR**, **CASSIA**, **GINGER**, **CINNAMON**, **SASSAFRAS**, **GUM COPAL**, **CACAO**, **ROCOU**, **INDIGO** and **COTTON**, besides rich woods, materials for **DYING**, **DRUGS** of different kinds, and several sorts of delicious sweetmeats. Thus we have a prospect of raising here all the most valuable commodities which the West India islands produce.—There is no sort of improbability of our being able to produce a great part, if not all the variety of **SPICES** of the East Indies in this very island.

We shall now consider what commercial advantages may be derived from our possession of the island of Granada, and the Granadines. This island lies south from St. Vincent seventeen or eighteen leagues; south-west from St. Lucia about thirty-five leagues; south-south-west from Martinico fifty leagues; south-south-west from Dominica somewhat more than sixty leagues; west-north-west from Tobago thirty-five leagues, or according to some charts forty leagues; south from St. Christophers one hundred leagues, and north from the Spanish main about thirty leagues. It lies in the latitude of eleven degrees thirty minutes north, the farthest to the south of any of the Antilles. It is upwards of thirty miles in length, fifteen or sixteen in breadth, in some places, though in others less, and is about twenty-five leagues in circumference. It is near twice as big as Barbadoes, larger than St. Lucia, St. Vincent or Tobago, and according to some French memoir writers, contains of cultivatable lands near one-third of what is to be found in Martinico.

Though the situation of this isle is warm, yet the French writers assure us, that it is much moderated by the regular returns of sea breezes, by which the air is rendered cool and pleasant. From the same authority we may assert, that it is wholesome. The seasons are remarkably regular; the blast has not hitherto been known in this island, and it lies out of the track of hurricanes; which, with respect to the safety of the settlements on shore, and the security of navigation, is an inestimable benefit in this part of the world.

There are in Granada some very high mountains; but the number is small, and the eminencies scattered through it are in general rather hilly, yet gentle in the ascent, of no great height, fertile and capable of cultivation. The soil is every where deep, rich, mellow, and fertile in the highest degree: so as to be equal in all respects, if not superior, to that of any of the islands in the West Indies, if the concurrent testimony both of French and British planters may be relied on.

It is perfectly well watered by divers streams of different sizes, and running in different directions, flowing from a large lake on the summit of a high mountain situated very near the center of the isle. There are small brooks running from most of the hills, and very fine springs almost every where, at a small distance from the shore. All these rivers abound with variety of good fish, and are resorted to by multitudes of water fowl. There are likewise in Granada several **SALT PONDS**, which have their uses and their value.

The great produce of this country, at our first possession of it, was a prodigious variety of most sorts of **TIMBER** that are to be met with in the West India islands, which is of no little advantage. It abounds with many rich fruits, valuable gums, dyeing woods, and diversity of vegetable productions; such as oils, resins, balsams, &c. which have always born an high price here. All the various kinds of ground provisions, which are so requisite to the subsistence of West India plantations, are here in great quantities, and some kinds of grain ripen very kindly in this, which are not raised at all, or are raised with difficulty in other islands. River and sea fish are here in great abundance; in respect to the latter, turtle of large size and fine flavour, as well as lamentins. They have plenty of all sorts of fowl, and prodigious quantities of game, ortolans, and a kind of red partridge especially. The woods are stored with many wild animals, that afford excellent food, and are very rarely met with in the other islands. They have much cattle; and as their hills yield excellent pasture, they increase daily.

But the distinguishing excellency of Granada does not lie simply in its great fertility, or in its fitness for a vast variety of estimable commodities, but in the peculiar quality of its soil, which gives a surprizing and incontestible perfection to all its productions. The **SUGAR** of Granada is of a fine grain, and of course more valuable than either that of Martinico or Guadaloupe. The **INDIGO** is the finest in all the West Indies. While **TOBACCO** remained the staple commodity, as once it was, of those islands, one pound of Granada tobacco was worth two or three that grew in any of the rest. The **CACAO** and **COTTON** have an equal degree of pre-eminence; nor is this founded simply in the opinion of the French, but is equally known and allowed by the English and Dutch.

By memoirs of the French, the true **CINNAMON** and **NUTMEGS** are here: this island, with Tobago, may render us masters of valuable spice islands. In respect to situation, and those expositions that are essentially requisite to the proper cultivation of those valuable productions, these islands are every way equal: or, if upon making the experiment, Granada should be found preferable to Tobago, it will be preferred accordingly.

There is good anchoring ground on all the coast, and many commodious creeks and bays, both on the east and west sides; which will be infinitely advantageous to commerce, when this island shall be completely cultivated. There are besides two large ports of great excellence, and which deserve particular notice. The first of these is the harbour of **CALIVENTIE**, at the south-east extremity of the island, and is singularly safe and spacious. It consists of an outward and an inward port. The former is three quarters of a mile broad at its entrance, but widens as you advance, and becomes above a mile in extent within. As to the entrance of the interior port, it is above a quarter of a mile broad, but presently expands itself on both sides, so as to be very capacious, and has about seven fathom water, with a soft and muddy bottom; from whence seamen will judge of its utility. Ships lying here in the utmost safety, may from warehouses take in their lading very conveniently, and may then with great ease be hauled into the outer port, which has this peculiar advantage,

that

that ships may either come into or go out of it with the ordinary trade wind. This port, supposing there was no other, in an island thus situated, and so very capable of being improved, would, in a trading nation like ours, render it a most important acquisition.

But the worth of Granada must be highly enhanced, when we consider, as before hinted, the other harbour, which lies at the north-west end of the island, and is called the *CARENAGE*, the harbour of Port Royal, or the Old Port, which has been always esteemed one of the best harbours in the West Indies, as possessing almost every advantage that can be desired. It is a full quarter of a mile broad at its entrance, and, when once entered, is so capacious as to hold with ease a squadron of twenty-five ships of the line, where they may ride in perfect safety in respect either to wind or weather. There lies also, at a small distance from this port, a lake of a considerable size, very deep, and which by cutting through a sand bank, might be easily joined to the port, and would then make it one of the finest basins in the world, and afford all the conveniences that could well be wished, for careening the largest squadron of the largest ships that are ever employed in this part of the world. The benefits that may be justly expected from such a port, that may be fortified to what degree we please, in an island so well situated, and producing such a diversity of valuable commodities, are so obvious, that it is needless to enter into a detail of them. In time of war it will give us inexpressible advantage against the Spaniards as well as the French: and if at any time it should so happen, that by a multiplicity of services our naval force should be so divided, as to leave us only an inferior squadron in those parts, the *CARENAGE* would afford us a safe retreat, without obliging our ships to quit that station; a circumstance worthy attention, and of which the French availed themselves often, so long as this island remained in their possession.

The French, for some years before this island came into British hands, produced 12,000 hogheads of *SUGAR* annually, besides *COFFEE*, *COCOA*, and a large quantity of excellent *COTTON*. Yet they never settled above one-half the country, nor received above one-half the profit even that would admit of, had the inhabitants been better planters, and better supplied with slaves.

Exclusive of these productions, this island was of great utility to the French during the last war, when the single ships of force they sent to the West Indies, with the transports under their care, came regularly hither, with little danger of falling into the hands of cruisers. Here they remained in safety, and from hence they sent supplies of men, ammunition and provisions, in small vessels, which creeping along the Granadines, St. Vincent and St. Lucia, arrived generally speaking safely in the harbour of St. Peter's in Martinico. In this respect, as well as many others, the French will very sensibly feel the loss of this island, as we shall the advantage arising from our possession of it. A British squadron stationed here, will certainly be a severe check both upon the Spaniards and French in time of war.

From the southern extremity there runs a long range of small *ISLETS*, extending about twenty leagues. Their number is about twenty-three, capable of cultivation. Their soil is remarkably rich, and the climate pleasant. They will afford large quantities of *INDIGO*, *COFFEE* and *COTTON*; nor are they unfit for *SUGARS*. They abound with excellent *TIMBER*. They were formerly serviceable to the planters of Barbadoes, who cut large quantities of *MILL-TIMBER* for their sugar works. But for many years past the French have not only prevented this, as injurious to their property, but by stationing guard-ships upon the coast, made prizes in time of full peace, of all English vessels they found at anchor there, and even of such as appeared in sight of them, which was a great detriment to our navigation. For if vessels bound to Barbadoes, either through thick weather, or being disabled, missed that island, and run down the south of it, which was the common rout, they came of course upon these islands, and fell into the hands of the French guard-ships; the apprehension of which made them so cautious, as to render their voyages to that British island longer and more tedious than it now need to be, which enhances the value of these islands.

There are besides these, five larger islands dependent on Granada, covered with valuable timber, interspersed with rich fruit trees, and are capable of variety of West India improvements, which render them estimable. They are named *CARRONACOU*, which has a convenient and capacious harbour, *isle of L'UNION*, *CARMOEN*, *MOUSTIQUES*, or *MOSKITO ISLAND*, and *BEOVVA*, or *BEKIA*.

The consideration of these smaller islands led to the question, whether they might not, all circumstances considered, be more proper for the introduction of *SPICES* than even that of *TOBAGO*? The five islands of the *MOLUCCAS*, which are *TERNATE*, *TYDOR*, *MOTIER*, *MARQUIEN* and *BACHAM*, were so many separate kingdoms, before they were known to the Europeans. They lie in a line like these, and none of them larger than some of the five of ours. They have small straits of the sea between them like the Granadines, bear the same *TREES*, *HERBS* and *ROOTS*, are some of them like those, deficient in fresh water, and produced originally *CINNAMON* and *NUTMEGS*, as well as *CLOVES*, the uses as well as the method of *CULTIVATING* and *CURING* of which were taught them by the Chinese, as Dr. Angenola, who wrote an excellent history of the *MOLUCCA ISLANDS*, informs us. *BANDA*, where the *NUTMEGS* originally grew, is not above half the size of *BEKIA*; and *AMBOYNA*, to which the Dutch seem at present inclined to confine both *NUTMEGS* and *CLOVES*, is rather inferior in point of extent to our *GRANADA*.

To judge of the true value, and to ascertain the real importance of all our new island acquisitions, we must view and contemplate them in all their different lights, from which they may every one of them become more or less, immediately or remotely, directly or indirectly, assisting to the interests, increasing the power and commerce, extending the navigation, and thereby promoting the welfare of Great Britain; or, in other words, conducing to the industry, the independency, and the happiness of their fellow citizens and fellow subjects, who are the inhabitants of the *MOTHER-COUNTRY*.

In virtue of the general arrangement of things by the treaty of 1763, many of our old plantations will avail themselves of those supplies of *TIMBER*, from which they were for many years before precluded. The run away negroes will not be able to shelter themselves any more in uninhabited islands, and those impediments to, and embarrassments of our navigation, which have often been severely felt, and in consequence of which so many frequent and loud complaints have been made to almost every government in our colonies, is now removed, by taking away the cause. For there is not now an island small or great in the West Indies, the right to as well as the possession of which, is not clearly ascertained.

Our old settlements will gradually disburthen their supernumerary inhabitants on territories belonging to their mother-state, instead of resorting, as has been too notorious that great numbers have done, to *DANISH* and *DUTCH* settlements.

If we advert to the alterations this new distribution of territory has made, in regard to the French in those parts, it appears plain enough from what has been already observed, that they have lost the convenience of raising vast quantities of fresh provisions, as well as very considerable supplies of valuable commodities of the various kinds before enumerated, as belonging to our respective new acquisitions in the West Indies, which the French constantly received from those that were styled neutral, but so far as this went, were in reality made French islands. They have also lost the advantage of felling *TIMBER* and building *SLOOPs*, and even larger vessels in *Dominica* and *St. Vincent*, as they were accustomed to do; and all these benefits are now thrown into the British scale of wealth, power and security. Besides, they are deprived of their communica-

tion with the Indians in the one, and with the Indians and the free Negroes in the other of those islands, from whence they derived, by their own confession, such services as were productive of variety of advantages, exclusive of the check they kept upon us. They no longer enjoy the turtle and lamentin fishing round the coast of Tobago, which was their annual resort, but are now confined within the bounds and to the coasts of their own islands.

These consequences, when considered together, have given very great advantages to our planters, and brought very sensible difficulties upon the French planters, and a larger number of hands for procuring those necessary supplies, which they formerly received in great abundance, with little trouble and very small expence. It will also follow, as all who are acquainted with those countries must know, that from being thus freightened they are compelled to employ more negroes; and yet, even with this increase of slaves, less will be done in their sugar plantations than formerly, when almost all their wants with respect to subsistence, and even with regard to building, were supplied upon such easy terms, as we have seen. In this situation likewise as many vessels of different sizes were continually occupied in their intercourse with those isles, with which they can now have no further connections, their navigation of course declines.

By the arrangement made, the French have not only lost the additional produce of sugars, coffee, cotton, &c. of the several before described islands, which taken all together must be very considerable, with all title to any further improvements they have not only lost there, but all the advantages of those various safe and commodious ports before described, as belonging to our several new colonies; they have lost the facility which they had from thence of succouring all their islands, even when we had superior squadrons in those seas, to which for the future they must in case of future war with us be inevitably exposed. They have also been deprived on one side of the intercourse they had with the Spaniards, and must hereafter run much greater hazards than formerly, in receiving, when their necessities shall require them, supplies of provisions and military stores from the Dutch.

As to the French having St. Lucia, they can receive no great benefit from that island, nothing comparable to what we do from the rest before represented. For that island is far from being healthy. It is full of venomous creatures of different sizes, that the French can scarce stir abroad but in boots. It is not only very mountainous, but even the flat country is full of marshes. Besides, it lies so immediately within the view, and under the power of the well settled colony of Martinico, that without being at a great expence in fortifications, and keeping a constant military force there for its defence, we could scarce hope that it would ever have been thoroughly settled. If even with the assistance of fortifications and a regular force, it had been settled by us, it might have been found impracticable to have secured it, as there are so many landing places in different parts of the island; and as in case of a war, this small settlement would have been immediately exposed to the whole strength of the French islands, so that the inhabitants might have been ruined before any assistance could have been sent them; and this, if the country had been recovered, or quitted by the enemy, would certainly have discouraged our people from settling it again. As the case now stands, the French are liable to all these inconveniencies; and whoever considers the situation of this island, and of those belonging to us in its neighbourhood, and reflects at the same time on the superiority of our maritime force, will see, that in time of war it must be a very precarious possession, more especially if so thoroughly settled as to make the conquest of it a matter of much consequence to us.

Our new British island colonies, like our old ones in America, must depend entirely upon us, and draw from hence every necessary, every conveniency that they want, either for their own subsistence, or for carrying on their plantations; and how extremely beneficial this is, and so considerable an increase of commerce must it be to the mother-country has sufficiently appeared.

There can be no room to fear that our new settlers will not find wherewithal to make considerable returns, from the particular valuable West India commodities before enumerated to be produced. So that the increased intercourse of trade between the new colonies and their mother-country, as it has from the causes before represented began, so the advantages arising from it will diffuse themselves generally over the whole island of Great Britain; indeed through the whole sphere of the British dominions in Europe, since very large quantities of linens and salt provisions will be exported for the use of those colonists and their servants from Ireland; their increased demand, we may reasonably hope, will, in a great measure, absorb those supplies with which the inhabitants of that island have hitherto furnished the French and Spanish ships, and contributed thereby to their navigation much cheaper than otherwise they could have done.

But exclusive of the benefits flowing from their direct trade with us, they will bring in likewise considerable advantages by the encouragement they will afford to other branches of our commerce. The African trade has received a new spring from their demands, since all that they can do at present, or in future, must chiefly arise from the labour of negroes. The supplying them with slaves, therefore, will be a continual source of wealth in that shape to such as are employed in that branch; more especially to those who have the largest share therein, the merchants of London, Liverpool and Bristol.

This trade is of importance to Great Britain, as it is carried on principally with our own manufactures, and more especially with woollen goods of different kinds, to a large amount; and in all the incidental profits, exclusive of what is produced by slaves, which arise from our correspondence with Africa, whether obtained by the purchase of elephants teeth and gold dust, upon the coasts of that country, or from the sale of commodities to foreigners in the West Indies, finds its way hither. On the winding up of the account, therefore, as the sale of the negroes centers in the West Indies, the profits arising from them, and every other accession of gain centers ultimately here, and becomes the property of the inhabitants of Britain.—— This will appear with greater degree of evidence, when we reflect, that more than the moiety of that part of the cargo for the African trade, which is not made up of our own goods, consists of the manufactures of the East Indies. Besides the quantity of India goods employed on the coast of Africa, there is likewise no small demand for the same commodities in our OLD SUGAR COLONIES, and of course there will be the like demand in our NEW.

From what we have said, we may discern in what manner the comprehensive chain of commerce is united, and in what manner the different products of the most distant parts of the world are carried to and brought from these distant countries in British shipping; and that all the emoluments arising from this extensive navigation, which will be daily augmented, by our new accession of territory, in the West Indies only.

And if the further interesting commercial union shall be promoted to the full degree and extent to which the same will now admit of with greater safety and security than ever it could do heretofore, what vast emolument must not inevitably from hence arise? To what an amazing height in trade and navigation may this kingdom not arrive by an increase of the circulation of commerce between Great Britain and her colonies and plantations in America and Africa? Nay, will not our Asiatic trade likewise derive great advantage from the augmentation of general traffic that will hence ensue? And while these shall go on daily advancing, will not our European trade receive advantages proportionate hereunto? Especially so, provided in consequence hereof, we shall so increase in opulence as to become able to lessen the public debts and taxes to that degree as

shall make our commodities of every kind cheaper for exportation, as well our plantation commodities in general, as our native manufactures in particular: especially, we say, when our native commodities in general shall be reduced to a degree of cheapness equal to those of our most detrimental competitors, by the due reduction of taxes in this kingdom?

The prodigious compass of this additional commercial circulation, will be essentially defective, if we should omit mentioning the constant connection that will subsist between all the NEW BRITISH SUGAR COLONIES and our NEW NORTHERN COLONY ACQUISITIONS. A connection equally necessary, and reciprocally advantageous to those of our subjects who shall be settled in both; a connection, that will be ever maintained between them, by which the daily increase of numerous subjects of Britain, who shall settle either in the continent of America or in the West Indies, to their mutual benefit, as well as that of the mother empire.

The British northern colonies supply the sugar islands chiefly with lumber and provisions, which are articles capably lucrative to both. Hereby, they dispose of numerous bulky commodities; derive immense advantages from their fisheries, support an extensive navigation, which is so much the more profitable to them, as it is carried on intirely with ships of the northern colony built; circumstances which to the eye of a judicious reader, who extends his view to the whole circle of this commerce, will place this trade, and all its beneficial consequences that attend it, in a very conspicuous and interesting point of light; and convince him, that nothing can be either more convenient for these people, or more to their profit: and therefore, the more the new island colonies shall take of the northern colonies, the more the new as well as the old northern colonies will be benefited.

On the other hand, the benefits that will result to the inhabitants of the new sugar colonies, are not less considerable. They draw all these necessary supplies from the nearest, and consequently from the cheapest market; markets that by the additional advantages they have received by the peace, will become more and more inexhaustible, more and more plentiful, and therefore more and more cheap on all their productions, if the additional commercial union shall take due effect, and upon which our sugar islands may always depend for a cheap and ample supply. These are brought to them both by their North American countrymen to their own doors; which is a circumstance exceedingly suitable to their situation as it spares them the pains and labour requisite to provide them, which would otherwise be a great drawback on their industry in their sugar plantations. These supplies they pay for in their own productions of another kind, which is a great advantage, and no obstruction to their different commercial improvements: from all which circumstances, comprehended together, it is apparently obvious, that the convenience of this mutual correspondence, and benefits resulting from it, are equally on both sides, and exactly suited to the genius, the temper, and the situation of the people by whom it is thus carried on.

By the attentive consideration of this conjunction of interests, we cannot but plainly discern, that by these new acquisitions in the West Indies, new markets are opened, to which our new subjects on the continent may resort. These islands will more than replace to the people of Canada, the trade they formerly carried on to the French colonies; and will, at the same time, enable our other settlements upon the continent, to find new customers for all their additional commodities, without leaving them that colour of necessity which was the only plausible excuse they had to plead for supplying our rivals with the materials essentially necessary to the support of their sugar plantations, and of course detrimental in the same degree to those of their fellow-subjects. Besides, as the increase of our sugar islands affords them the increase of commerce, so from their situation they will be a great bar to that illicit and injurious trade with the French and Dutch, which cannot for the future be carried on with the same facility as it has heretofore been.

As the inhabitants of the sugar colonies are continual purchasers from such as are settled upon the continent of America, the amount of their purchases constitutes a ballance from them in the favour of all those who dispose of them. On the other hand, the inhabitants of the northern colonies, drawing large and constant supplies of commodities and manufactures from hence, we at present, for the same reason, have a ballance in our favour against them. And upon the promotion of the further commercial union between us and them, the mutual sales and purchases may be highly augmented on both sides, and the general equilibrium of trade between them rendered more equal than it ever yet has been.

There will be room in our new islands for attempting many things, and improving more. The planting cocoa walks cannot be considered as impracticable, since we see the French have succeeded in it; and so, no doubt, may we, at least in a degree sufficient to furnish our own and our North American consumption. We have coffee already in our islands, but it would certainly turn to more account if the culture of it was better understood; in order to which, pains should be taken to be thoroughly informed of the manner in which it is managed in Arabia, since it is not at all improbable that the flavour, in which only our coffee is deficient, depends upon the culture and the method of curing it. Tea, if we may believe the French, is a native of the West as well as of the East Indies; in respect to which it would be certainly right to make due enquiries, and in consequence of them experiments; and if from thence it should, if it is not already there, it might easily be carried thither, and a trial made whether it might not be cultivated to advantage. It has been no difficult matter to introduce black pepper, rhubarb and fenna, and several other estimable DRUGS are said to have been raised in the West Indies by the curious to great perfection. If the culture of these, and other medicinal plants, were once understood, they might be rendered profitable articles of commerce. The laudable Society for promoting arts and manufactures, have given several premiums with respect to sarsaparilla, and other things; and it is to be wished, that those endeavours, so well intended, may have good effects; for the increasing the number of our commodities appears to be an affair of no little consequence.

The success attending these, or any other experiments of the like kind, might become the means of improving many spots of ground that would otherwise prove useless; as it is well known that either lands worn out, or which are utterly unfit for either sugar or cotton, might be employed for cocheneal. The raising a variety of more commodities, would prevent the losses that sometimes ensue from short crops; a season unfavourable for some things, might be advantageous to other. In respect to many articles that have been mentioned, the cultivation of them might be carried on with fewer negroes, and yet afford comfortable subsistence to white families; the increase of which in our colonies, is an object of great concernment, and is a matter constantly attended to by the French. Add to this consideration, that though tea, coffee and chocolate are at present not improperly reckoned as articles of luxury, they would be much less so, if they only, or even if they principally, came from our own plantations; and the consumption of them should become much greater than it is at present, would likewise promote and increase the consumption of our great staple commodity of sugar, and thereby augment the revenue thereon. In these, and in divers other lights, such plantation improvements would be experienced of great consequence, and are therefore extremely well worthy of consideration for the extending our commercial union of trade between Great Britain and British America.

The prosperous settlement of our new islands in the West Indies, can be no detriment to our old sugar colonies. It has been generally allowed, that there was a want of more sugar-land in the West Indies; and this being admitted, it is certain, that Britain is a great gainer by the peace of land fit for the cultivation of sugar in our own plantations plentifully. This was not only an opinion, in respect to the truth of which the best judges agreed, but it was a point also decided from matter of fact; because it is known, that numbers of British subjects resorted to countries in the possession of other powers. No one will deny, that many English subjects are settled in the Danish settlements of ST. CRUZ; that there are many resident in EUSTATIA, and that many more are interested in the Dutch settlements upon the continent of America. Did it not, therefore, become highly necessary to remove this growing evil, by giving such adventurers an opportunity of exercising their industry in countries belonging to their mother country; and to these many of them have returned?

Moreover, as from facts it has appeared, that old sugar colonies began to be overstocked, so as to afford little encouragement to new plantations, it seemed incumbent upon us to have an eye at making the peace to this circumstance, to prevent such enterprising people, who were determined to seek their fortunes in those parts, from being driven into foreign settlements; where their labour and industry, instead of benefiting us, would continue to have turned to the advantage of our rivals; and foreign markets would have been supplied, for the profits of foreigners, by commodities raised by the skill and pains of British subjects.

Nor can we but observe, from what has already fell out, that indigent people here, would go in search of subsistence elsewhere; and we must also be sensible, that by providing countries for such people to resort to, their industry, though not their persons, will still be preserved to Britain. By that increase of trade, which their labour abroad gradually produces at home, the number of our necessitous people here have been greatly lessened. There have been also large quantities of our commodities and manufactures wanted, that are requisite in our plantations; and to supply those, numbers have been set to work, who were either idle before, or subsisted by the poor's rate, or took methods of subsisting more injurious to the public, and much less to their own advantage and comfort, than if they had betaken themselves to honest labour here, or even went abroad to those new islands.

From what has been said, it must appear to every candid and impartial man, that our new West India acquisitions have contributed to lay a most notable foundation for that most lucrative commercial union we have recommended to be superfructed thereon. This has been accomplished by the last peace, likewise, with the respect to our continental colonies. We have already considered the points of security, and of acting defensively and offensively in virtue of the last peace against both Spain and France in North America, as well as in the West Indies. There remains nothing more to be said, than to speak at present more fully with regard to the improvement of the commerce of the continental colonies between the mother kingdom and them, for the further extensive promotion of our mutual commercial union, harmony and concord.

Were not our North American colonies accessible by our mercantile shipping and royal naval power, the vast extensiveness of those newly acquired colonies would have rendered them rather a burthen than an emolument to this kingdom. But so wisely has the peace been devised, as to render them accessible on the NORTH, THE SOUTH, AND THE WEST, BY SEA, as our ancient colonies were before on the east only, as we have before shown. And does not this maritime accessibility add an invaluable estimation to those colonies, while Great Britain shall preserve her superiority of power on the ocean? While this shall be the case, will not this happy circumstance administer a more permanent stability and security, as well to our OLD AS OUR NEW acquired colonies and plantations, than they ever before had? Nay, will not the increase of mercantile navigation to and from the gulph and the great spacious river of St. Laurence; to and from the gulph of Mexico, and the great river Mississippi, and to and from the gulph of Florida, contribute to the maintenance of that stability and security we have obtained? And will not this at all times enable us to act as well offensively against France and Spain, as defensively, in this part of America, as we have before shewn?

But to what degree our mercantile shipping in North America will increase, by virtue of that maritime accessibility, we, at present, enjoy, has not yet been duly represented. Wherefore, it will be necessary to give some idea of that matter, with relation to the additional internal mercantile navigation, that this vast continent will afford to our British traders. For provided our mercantile navigation shall daily increase there, as well as to and from the West India islands, will not this give additional strength to the whole royal maritime power of the British empire? Will not a vast additional increase of mercantile internal navigation in North America, greatly contribute to expedite and facilitate that further commercial union we plead for between the mother kingdom and those colonies?

The whole country of North America, now annexed to the crown of Great Britain, abounds with every advantage to promote a more beneficial commercial union between them and the mother kingdom. It abounds with very large rivers, which it were endless to enter into the detail of. The river St. Laurence is the largest in all North America, and inferior to few in the world, it being computed about twenty-five or thirty leagues wide at the mouth, and two hundred fathoms in depth, and one hundred and sixty leagues in length; and yet by the help of a good south wind, and the currents, which are pretty strong, may be sailed, according to Charlevoix, in twenty-four hours. As to its source, though the European missionaries have sailed up it above 700 or near 800 leagues, that is as far as the LAKE of ALEMPIGON, yet it is still unknown, unless it really springs from that lake, which no one hath yet been able to decide—That LAKE discharges itself into that called the UPPER or SUPERIOR, and this into that of HURON, and this again into that of ERIE, or CONTI, and this last into that of FRONTENAC, or ONTARIO; all this by means of the SAME RIVER, from which it seems to issue out with a smooth course during the first twenty leagues; after which it becomes more rapid during another thirty leagues; that is till it comes to MONTREAL. From this it resumes its smooth flow quite to that of QUEBEC, growing still wider as it runs, till it empties itself into the sea above one hundred leagues below it: but according to the report of the Indians, this famed river arises out of another LAKE, farther up, and larger than any of those we have mentioned, and which they call the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, or ASSIBOUELS; and this last is said by them to lie about fifty or sixty leagues above that of ALEMPIGON, and is supposed to have a communication with the NORTHERN SEA; and it is not improbable but a northern passage into it may be found by means of this LAKE. There are falls or cataracts, such as that of NIAGARA. The river is, however, deep almost all the way, and hath a number of pleasant islands in it; the most remarkable of which are COUDRES, ORLEANS, MONTREAL, ST. JOHN, MISCOU, RICHLIEU, and several others. The highland is well wooded, and some lowlands well inhabited and manured, inasmuch that they yield vast crops of corn and other grain, besides fruits, pulse, &c. The settlements, which are mostly round the shore, are also well situated and built, and yield a noble prospect as one sails by them: the same may be said of the rest.

The river St. Lawrence receives several considerable rivers in its course, the chief of which are called DES-PRAIRIES, or OF THE MEADOWS; the MONS, the TREBLE RIVER, and the large one of SANGUENAY, and
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ST. MARGARET, near the mouth of it. All these, and many other less remarkable, fall into it on the north side: there are others also on the south.—The RIVER MISSISSIPPI runs through the whole province, which was the French LOUISIANA, from north to south, and overflows, at certain seasons, a vast quantity of land, and renders the same the more fertile in the general: this great river is called by the Spaniards LA PALLISADA, from the prodigious quantities of TIMBER of divers kinds, which are sent down upon it in flotas to the sea. It is known to be navigable 450 leagues up from its mouth. The spring head remains still unknown, though the natives say, that it flows from a large stream that comes down from a hill in the country of ISATI, about the fiftieth degree of latitude. We have extraordinary accounts of the numerous tribes of Indian nations met with on each side of this river, and they are represented as an hospitable civil people, and willing to commerce with Europeans. The French formerly made two settlements, the one near the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, which is computed about thirty leagues round; the other among the Chogaskades, or Stout People, who live in their neighbourhood.

The MISSISSIPPI receives a great many spacious rivers into it; and the country on both sides is fruitful enough, and inhabited, as observed, by a great variety of nations of different appellations, for which we refer to Monsieur Sale's account thereof, who sailed down it in the year 1638, made some settlements on each side of it, and hath marked the distances between all those rivers that fall into it, and the names of the several tribes that live between them on each side; the amount of which, from the river of the ILLINOIS, from which he first set out, down to the mouth of it, he computes to be 653 leagues. The river discharges itself into the gulph of MEXICO by two branches, which form an island of considerable length.

The most important place upon the Mississippi is reckoned to be at the FORKS OF THAT RIVER, where the OHIO falls into the Mississippi; which, like another ocean, is the general receptacle of all the rivers that water the interior parts of that vast continent. Here those large and navigable rivers the *Ohio*, river of the *Cherokees*, *Wabache*, *Illinois*, *Missouri*, and *Mississippi*, besides many others, which spread over the whole continent, from the Apalachean mountains to the mountains of New Mexico, upwards of one thousand miles, both north, south, east and west, all meet together at this spot; and that in the best climate, and one of the most fruitful countries, of any in all that part of the world, in the latitude of thirty-seven degrees, the latitudes of the Capes of Virginia and of SANTA FÉ, the capital of New Mexico. By that means there is a convenient navigation to this place from our present settlements to New Mexico; and from all the inland parts of North America, farther than we are acquainted with it: and all the natives of that continent, those old friends and allies of the French, have by that means a free and ready access to this place; and the French formed a settlement, to secure their interest on the frontiers of all our southern colonies. In short, this place is in the CENTER OF THIS VAST CONTINENT, and of all the nations in it, and seems to be intended by nature to command them both; for which reason it ought not to be neglected by Britain.

As soon as we pass the Apalachean mountains, this seems to be the most proper place to settle at; and was pitched upon for that purpose, by those who were the best acquainted with these countries, and the proper places of making settlements in them, of any we know. And if the settlements of this place had been made by the English, as they were proposed, about twenty-three years ago, they might have prevented, or at least frustrated, the late attempts to wrest that country, and the territories of the river Ohio, out of the hands of Britain.

It may be said, that those inland parts of North America will be of no use to Britain, on account of their distance from the sea, and inconvenience to navigation. That indeed might be said of the parts which lie immediately beyond the mountains, as the country of the Cherokees, and Ohio Indians about Pittsburgh, the only countries thereabouts that we can extend our settlements to, which are inconvenient to navigation. For that reason, the first settlements we make beyond the mountains, that is, beyond those we are now possessed of, should be upon the Mississippi, convenient to the navigation of that river; and in time these settlements may come to join to our present plantations; and we may by that means reap the benefit of all those inland parts of North America, by means of the navigation of the Mississippi and the other great rivers that fall therein, which will be secured by this post at the FORKS.

This great river the Mississippi, is navigable upwards of two thousand miles to the falls of St. Anthony, in latitude forty-five degrees, the only fall we know in it, which is sixteen degrees of latitude above its mouth; and even above that fall, there is thirty fathom of water in the river, with a proportionable breadth. About 1000 miles from its mouth it receives the river OHIO, which is navigable 1000 miles farther, some say 1500 nigh to its source, not far from LAKE ONTARIO in NEW YORK; in all which space there is but one fall or rapide in the OHIO, and that navigable both up and down, at least in canoes. This fall is 300 miles from the Mississippi, and 1300 from the sea, with five fathom of water up to it. The other large branches of the OHIO, the river of the Cherokees, and Wabache, afford a like navigation from LAKE ERIE in the north, to the CHEROKEES in the south, and from thence to the bay of Mexico, by the Mississippi; not to mention the great river Missouri, which runs to the north-west part of New Mexico, much farther than we have any good accounts of that continent. From this it appears, that the Mississippi affords the most extensive navigation of any river we know; so that it may be justly compared to an inland sea, which spreads over nine-tenths of all the continent of North America, all which the French, before the last peace, pretended to lay claim to for no other reason but because they were possessed of a paltry settlement at the mouth of this river.

If these things are considered, the importance of the navigation of the Mississippi, and of a port at the mouth of it, will abundantly appear. It is the only navigation for all the interior parts of North America, which are as large as a great part of Europe; no part of which could have been of any service to Britain without the interior navigation of the Mississippi, and settlements made upon it. It is not then without reason that we say, whoever are possessed of this river, and of the vast tracts of fertile lands upon it, must in time command that continent, and the trade of it, as well as all the natives in it, by the supplies, which this navigation will enable them to furnish those people. Had the French, therefore, or any others, been left in possession of the Mississippi, while we had neglected it, they must have commanded all that continent beyond the Apalachean mountains, and disturbed our settlements much more than ever they did, or were able to do; the very thing they engaged in the last war to accomplish, and we to prevent.

The Mississippi, indeed, is rapid for 1200 miles, as far as to the Missouri, which makes it something difficult to go up it by water. For that reason the French have been used to quit the Mississippi at the river St. Francis, from which they had a nigher way to the FORKS OF THE MISSISSIPPI by land. But however difficult it may be to ascend the river, it is notwithstanding done, and its rapidity facilitates a descent upon it, and a ready conveyance for those gross commodities which are the staple of North America, from the most remote places of the continent abovementioned; and as for lighter European goods they are more easily carried by land, as our Indian traders do, over great part of the continent on their horses, of which this country abounds with great plenty.

The worst part of the navigation, as well as of the country, is reckoned to be at the mouth of the river, which, however, is from seventeen to eighteen feet deep, and will admit ships of 500 tons, the largest generally

rally used in the plantation trade. And even this navigation might be easily mended, not only by clearing the river of a narrow bar in the passes, which Charlevoix, and others, think might be easily done; but likewise by means of a bay, described by Mr. Coxe, from the actual survey of his people, lying to the westward of the south pass of the river, which, he says, has from twenty-five to six fathom water in it, close to the shore, and not above a mile from the Mississippi, above all the shoals and difficult passes in it, and where the river has 100 feet of water. By cutting through that one mile then, it should appear, that a port might be made there for ships of any burden; the importance of which is evident, from its commanding all the inland parts of North America on one side, and the pass from Mexico on the other, so as to be preferable in these respects even to the Havanna; not to mention that it is fresh water, and free from worms, which destroy all the ships in those parts. And if we have another war with France and Spain, 'tis not unlikely that we shall leave neither of them any more footing here; and then we may obtain such a valuable port independent of them.

If the state and extent of our ancient colonies in North America, before the last peace, be considered, it will be found that we really stood in need of an increase of continental colonies, instead of possessing too much land there before the peace, as some people have asserted.

Our ancient possessions in North America, between the sea and the mountains, appeared, from many surveys and actual mensurations, as well as from all the maps and other accounts of them, to have been at a medium about three degrees of longitude, or 110 miles broad in a straight line: and they extended from Georgia, in latitude thirty-two degrees, to the bay of Fundi, in latitude forty-five degrees (which is farther than the lands appeared to be of any great value) which makes thirty degrees difference of latitude, or 780 miles: this length multiplied by the breadth, 110, makes 109,200 square miles. This is not much above the quantity contained in Britain and Ireland, which by Templeman's Survey make 105,634 square miles. Instead of being as large as a great part of Europe, as we have been commonly told, all the lands we possessed in North America between the sea and mountains, did not amount to much more than these two islands. This appears farther, from the particular surveys of each of our colonies, as well as from the general estimation of the whole.

Of these lands, which are thus possessed, both the northern and southern parts are not of the extraordinary kind. It is only in our middle plantations, Virginia, Maryland and Carolina, that the lands produce any STAPLE COMMODITIES for Britain. It is only the more rich and fertile lands on and about Chesapeak bay, with a few swamps in Carolina, like lands on the Mississippi, that turns to any great account to this nation in all North America, or that were ever likely to do it. This made the quantity of lands that produce any staple commodity for Great Britain in North America incredibly small, and vastly less than what has been commonly imagined. It is reckoned that there are more such lands in Virginia, than in all the rest of our old colonies; and yet it appeared from the public records, about twenty-eight years ago, that there was not above as much land patented in that colony, which is at this time the oldest of any in all North America, than is in the county of Yorkshire in England, to wit, 4684 square miles, although the country was then settled to the mountains. Our colonies are already settled to the mountains, and have no lands, either to extend their settlements, as they increase and multiply; to keep up their plantations of staple commodities for Britain, or to enlarge the British dominions by the number of foreigners that remove to them, till they pass those mountains, and settle on the Mississippi.

This scarcity of land in the colonies proceeds from the mountains, with which they are environed, and by which they are confined to this narrow tract; and a low vale along the sea side. The breadth of the continent from the Atlantic ocean to the Mississippi appears to be about 600 miles, of sixty to a degree, of which there is about 140 at a medium, or 150 at most, that lies between the sea and mountains; and there is such another, and rather more fertile tract of level and improveable lands, about the same breadth, between the western parts of those mountains and the Mississippi; so that the mountainous country, which lies between these two, is equal to them both, and makes one-half of all the lands between the Mississippi and Atlantic ocean; if we except a small tract of a level champaign country upon the heads of the OHIO, which is possessed by the SIX NATIONS and their dependants.

These mountainous and barren desarts, which lie immediately beyond our ancient settlements, are not only unfit for culture themselves, and so inconvenient to navigation, whether to the ocean or to the Mississippi, that little or no use can be made of them, but they likewise preclude us from any access to those more fruitful lands that lie beyond them, which would otherwise have been occupied long ago, but never can be settled, so at least as to turn to any good account to Britain, WITHOUT THE POSSESSION AND NAVIGATION OF THE MISSISSIPPI, WHICH IS, AS IT WERE, THE SEA OF ALL THE INLAND PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA, BEYOND THE APALACHEAN MOUNTAINS, WITHOUT WHICH THOSE INLAND PARTS OF THAT CONTINENT CAN NEVER BE OF ANY ADVANTAGE TO THIS NATION.

This makes the possession of the Mississippi absolutely necessary to reap the benefit of it. We possessed but one-fourth part of the continent between that river and the ocean; and but one-tenth part of what lies east of Mexico, and can never enjoy any great advantages from any more of it, till we settle on the Mississippi.

How necessary such settlements on the Mississippi may be, will farther appear from what we possess on this side of it. The lands in North America are in general but poor and barren; and if any of them are more fertile, the soil is light and shallow, and soon worn out with culture. It is only the virgin fertility of fresh lands, such as those on the Mississippi, that will render them of any great and lasting value to Great Britain. Such lands in our colonies, that have hitherto produced their staple commodities for this nation, are now almost exhausted and worn out, and we meet with none such on this side of the Mississippi. But when their lands are worn out, neither the value of their commodities, nor the circumstances of the planters, will admit of manuring them, at least to any great advantage to this kingdom.

The staple commodities of North America are so gross and bulky, and so small in value, that it generally takes one-half of them to pay the freight and other charges in sending them to Britain; so that unless our planters have some advantage in making them, such as cheap, rich and fresh lands, they can never continue to make any; their returns to Britain will then be neglected, and the trade will be gained by others, who have those advantages, as the Germans, Russians and Turks, who have plenty of lands and labour cheap: by which means they make more of our staple of North American tobacco than we do ourselves, while we cannot make their staple of *bemp, flax, iron, pot-ash*, &c. &c.—By that means our North Americans have been obliged to INTERFERE WITH THEIR MOTHER COUNTRY, for want of the use of those lands of which there is such plenty in North America, to produce these commodities that are so much wanted from thence.

The consequences of this may be much more prejudicial to this nation than is commonly apprehended. The trade of North America, whatever may be the income from it, consists in those gross and bulky commodities that are the chief and principal sources of navigation, which maintain whole countries to make them, whole fleets to transport them, and numbers of people to manufacture them at home; on which account this trade is more profitable to a nation than the mines of Mexico and Peru.

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Those gross commodities that afford these sources of navigation, however valuable they may be to the public, and to this nation in particular, are far from being so to individuals: they are cheap, and of small value, either to make or to trade in them by the planter, and for that reason they are NEGLECTED BY PRIVATE PEOPLE, unless the public take care to give them all due encouragement, and set them about those employments; for which purpose good and proper lands, such as those on the Mississippi, are become absolutely necessary, without which we shall make no advancement but decline in this estimable trade.

The many advantages of such lands that produce staple commodities for Britain in North America, are inexpressible. The whole interest of the nation in those colonies depends upon them, if not the colonies themselves. Such lands also enable the colonies to take THEIR MANUFACTURES AND OTHER NECESSARIES FROM BRITAIN; TO THE MUTUAL ADVANTAGE OF BOTH. How necessary that may be, will appear from the state of these colonies in North America, which do not make one with another, as much as is sufficient to supply them only with the necessary article of cloathing, not to mention the many other things they stand in need of, and would take from Britain, WERE THEY ENABLED TO DO IT BY PROPER ENCOURAGEMENT. In short, it would appear that our colonies in North America cannot subsist much longer in a state of dependance for all their manufactures and other necessaries, unless they are provided with fresh lands that may enable them to purchase them; and where can they find any such lands, but such as the peace hath given them upon the Mississippi?

When their lands are worn out, are grown poor and barren, or are in an improper climate or situation, so that they will produce nothing to send to Britain, such lands can only be converted into corn and pasture grounds; and the people in our colonies are thereby necessarily obliged, for a bare subsistence, to interfere with Britain, not only in MANUFACTURES, but in the very PRODUCE OF THEIR LANDS.

By this we may discern the absurdity of the popular outcry, that we have already land enough, and more than we can make use of in North America. They who may be of that opinion, should show us where that land is to be found, and what it will produce, that may turn to any account to this nation. Those people derive their opinion from what they see in Europe, where the quantity of land that we possessed in North America, before the peace, would maintain a greater number of people than we had there. But they should consider, that those people in Europe are not maintained by the planting of a bare raw commodity, with such immense charges upon it, but by *farming, manufactures, trade and commerce*, which our colonies would soon have been reduced to, had they continued confined to our antient settlements, between the sea coast and the mountains that surround them.

Lands should be made in North America both cheap and plentiful, by which they might reap much greater profit by PLANTING THAN BY MANUFACTURING. That is, moreover, a pledge for the ALLEGIANCE AND DEPENDENCE OF THE COLONIES; and at the same time makes their dependance become their interest. It has been found by experience, that the making of a staple commodity for Britain is more profitable than manufactures, provided our colonies have good lands to work on.

There is an inconvenience attending some of our ancient colonies, with regard to any improvements on them for Britain, which is not to be remedied. The climate is so severe, and the winters so long, that the people are obliged to spend that time in providing for the necessaries of life, which should be employed, in profitable colonies, on the making of some profitable commodity, and returns to Britain. They are obliged to feed their creatures for five or six months in the year, which employs their time in summer, and takes up the best of their lands, such as they are, which should produce their staple commodities to provide for themselves and their stocks against winter. For that reason the people in all our northern colonies are necessarily obliged to become *farmers*, to make corn and provisions, instead of *planters*, who make a staple commodity for the mother country, and thereby interfere in the most essential of all employments to a nation, agriculture.

Neither the soil or the climate of our ancient northern colonies will admit of any additional improvements for Britain. If they could produce any thing of that kind it must be hemp, which yet never could be made in them to any advantage, as appears from many trials in New England, according to Douglas's history of America, and Elliot's improvements of New England. The great dependance of those northern colonies is upon the supplies of lumber and provisions, which they send to the islands. But as they increase and multiply, their woods are cut down, lumber becomes scarce and dear, and the number of people increases the value of land, and of every thing it produces, especially provisions.

If this is the case of those northern colonies on the sea coast, what can we expect from the inland parts; in which the soil is not only more barren, and the climate more severe, but they are, with all other disadvantages, so inconvenient for navigation, on account of their distance off the river St. Laurence, that it is to be feared those inland parts of the northern colonies will never produce any thing for Britain, more than furs, which they will do much better in the hands of the natives than in ours.

However, these northern colonies are very populous, and increase and multiply very fast. There are above one million of people in them, who can make but very little upon their lands for themselves, and still less for their mother country. For these reasons it is presumed, it would be an advantage to them, as well as to the nation, to remove their spare people, who want lands, to those vacant lands in the southern parts of the continent, which will turn to much better advantage than what they are possessed of. There they may have the necessaries of life in great plenty; their stocks maintain themselves the whole year round, with little or no cost or labour, "by which means many people have a thousand head of cattle, and for one man to have "two hundred is very common, with other stock in proportion." See Description of South Carolina, p. 68.

This enables them to bestow their whole labour both in summer and winter on the making of some staple commodity of the mother kingdom, getting lumber and provisions for the islands, &c. which both enriches them and the whole nation. That will be much more preferable, surely, than to perish in winter for want of cloathing, which they must do unless they make it, which will excite those jealousies, that will ever subsist between them and Great Britain in their present state, and grow so much the worse, the longer they continue in it.

The many advantages that would ensue, from the peopling of those southern parts of the continent from our northern colonies, are hardly to be expressed. We might thereby people and secure those countries, and reap the profits of them, without any loss of people, which are not to be spared for that purpose from Britain, or any of her dominions. This is one great use and advantage that may be made of the expulsion of the French from those northern parts of America. They, before the peace, obliged us to strengthen those northern colonies, and confined the people in them to towns and townships, in which their labour could turn to no great account, either to themselves or to the nation; by which we lost, in a great measure, the labour of above one-third of the people in our colonies.

But as they are now free from any danger on their borders, they may extend their settlements with safety, disperse themselves on plantations, and cultivate those lands that may turn to advantage both to them and to the kingdom: they may now make some staple commodities for the mother country, on which the interest of the colonies and of the nation chiefly depends, and which we could never before expect from those colonies.

The staple commodities we might get from those southern parts of North America will appear, when we mention HEMP, FLAX and SILK, those great articles and necessary materials for manufactures, for which alone this nation pays one million and an half a year, if not two millions, and we could never get them from all the colonies we had. COTTON and INDIGO are equally useful: not to mention copper, iron, potash, &c. &c. which with HEMP, FLAX and SILK, make a great ballance of trade against the nation, and drain it of its treasure; when we now might have those commodities from our colonies for manufactures, and both supply ourselves, our colonies and others with these manufactures from Great Britain—*Wine, oil, raisins and currants*, &c. those products of France, Spain and Portugal, on which Britain expends so much of her wealth to enrich those nations, might likewise be had from those her own dominions. Britain might thereby cut off those resources of her enemies, secure her colonies for the future, and act, when occasion shall require, more powerfully against them in time of war.

The sea coast in general is the same with all the rest of the coast of North America to the southward of New York, and indeed from thence to Mexico, as far as we are acquainted with it. It is a low flat sandy beach, and the soil for some twenty or thirty miles distant from the shore, more or less, is a pine barren. But however barren this coast is in other respects, it is entirely covered with pines, which afford great store of PITCH, TAR and TURPENTINE. These pines likewise make good masts for ships, which have lasted twenty odd years, when it is well known, that our common ship-masts of the New England white pine, will often decay in three or four years. The CYPRESS, of which there is such plenty in the swamps on this coast, is reckoned to be equally serviceable, if not more so, both for masts (of which it would afford the largest of any tree that we know) and for ship-building. And ships might be built of both these timbers for half the price, perhaps, of any other, both on account of the vast plenty of them, and of their being so easily worked.

In most parts of these coasts likewise, especially about the Mississippi, there is great plenty of CEDARS and EVER-GREEN OAKS, which make the best ships of any that are built in North America. And it is said, that of these CEDARS and the AMERICAN CYPRESS, the Spaniards built their ships of war at the Havanna. It is not without reason, therefore, that Monsieur le Page du Pratz tells us, the LARGEST NAVIES might be built in that country at a very SMALL EXPENCE. From this it appears, that even the sea coast, barren as it is, from which the whole country has been so much depreciated, is not without its advantages, and those peculiarly adapted to a trading and maritime nation.

All along the Mississippi, Dumont tells us, the lands, which are free from inundations, are excellent for culture, and produce Indian corn, tobacco, &c. and all kinds of provisions and esculent plants, with little or no care or labour, and almost without culture, the soil being in all those places a black mould of an excellent quality.—These accounts are confirmed by our own people, who were sent by the government of Virginia in 1742, to view the western parts of that province; and although they only went down the Ohio and Mississippi to New Orleans, they reported, that “they saw more good land on the Mississippi, and its many large branches, than they judge is in all the English colonies, as far as they are inhabited; as appears from the report of that government to the board of trade. What makes this fertile country more eligible and valuable, is, that it appears both from its situation, and from the experience the French have had of it, according to Du Pratz, to be far the most healthy of any in all those southern parts of North America; a thing of the last consequence in settling colonies, especially in those southern parts of America, which in the general are not so very healthy. Those lands on the Mississippi are high, dry, hilly, and in some places mountainous at no great distance from the river; besides the ridges of the Apalacheans before mentioned, that lie to the northward of them, which must greatly refresh and cool the air over all the country, especially in comparison of what it is on the low and flat, sandy and parched sea coast of our ancient colonies. These high lands begin immediately above the drowned lands, at the mouth of the Mississippi; above which the banks of that river are from 100 to 200 feet high, without any marshes about them, and continue such for 900 miles to the river Ohio, on the east side of the river. Du Pratz.

Such a situation on rich fertile lands in that climate, and on a navigable river, must appear to be of the utmost consequence. It is only from the rich lands on the river sides (which indeed are the only lands that can be called rich in all countries) that this nation reaps any thing of value from all its colonies it has in North America. How ought we then to value such rich and healthful countries on the Mississippi? As much sure, as some would depreciate and vilify them. It may be observed; that all the countries in America are only populous in the inland parts, and generally at a distance from ocean navigation; as the sea coasts both of North and South America are generally low, damp, excessively hot and unhealthful, in the most southern parts, of those from which we can expect any considerable returns. Instances of this may be seen in the adjacent provinces of Mexico, New Mexico, Terra Firma, Peru, Quito, &c. and far more in our southern colonies, which never became populous till the people removed to the inland parts, at a distance from the sea. This we are prevented to do in a manner in our ancient colonies, by the mountains which surround them, and confine us to the coast; whereas on the Mississippi the whole continent is open to them, and they have, besides, this healthy situation on the lower part of the river, at a small distance from the sea.

It is by this means, that we have not been able to get in one hundred years, above twenty-five thousand people in South Carolina. The low and drowned lands, indeed, about the mouth of the Mississippi must, no doubt, be more or less unhealthful; but they are far from being so very pernicious as many would represent them.

The Floridas, east and west, being annexed to the crown of Great Britain, and our colony of Georgia having them for a barrier, whatever can be produced here will, we hope, be encouraged in those most southern parts of our continental colonies, especially as we are possessed of the ports of Pensacola and Mobile in the bay of Mexico for our further protection, the former in north latitude thirty degrees twenty-five minutes, and which is a road, wherein ships can be safe from all winds. It is land-locked on every side, and will hold a great number of ships, which have very good anchorage in it, in a good holding ground, and from twenty-five to thirty-four feet of water. There is not less than twenty-one feet of water on the bar, which is at the entrance into the road, provided you keep in the deepest part of the channel.

As there is but half a foot rising on the bar of Pensacola, every ship of war, if it be not in a storm, may depend upon nineteen, perhaps twenty feet of water, to go into the harbour, as there are twenty-one feet on the bar. Ships that draw twenty feet may be towed in. By this we see, that ships of sixty guns may go into this harbour, and even seventy gun ships, the largest requisite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed, like the Dutch ships, might pass every where in that harbour.

In the year 1719 Pensacola was taken by Monsieur Champmesin in the Hercules man of war of sixty-four guns, but carried only fifty-six, in company with the Mars, pierced for sixty-four guns, but had only

fifty-four, and the Triton, pierced for sixty-four guns, but carried only fifty, with two frigates of thirty-six and twenty guns*.

The road is subject to one inconvenience; several rivers fall into it, which occasion strong currents, and make boats or canoes, as they pass backwards and forwards, apt to run aground; but as the bottom is all sand, they are not apt to founder. On the other hand there is a great advantage in this road, it being said to be free from worms, which never breed in fresh water, so that vessels are never worm-eaten in it. If we may credit F. Laval, royal professor of mathematics, and master of the marine academy at Toulon, who was sent to Louisiana on purpose to make observations in 1719, and had the accounts of the officers who took Pensacola at that time, and surveyed the place.

F. Charlevoix seems to contradict this last circumstance: "The bay of Pensacola would be a pretty good port, says he, if the worms did not eat the vessels in it, and if there was a little more water in the entrance into it; for the Hercules, commanded by Mr. Champmelin, touched upon it." It is not so certain then, that this harbour is altogether free from worms; although it may not be so subject to them as other places in those climates, from the many small fresh water rivers that fall into the bay, which may have been the occasion of those accounts, that are seemingly contradictory.

However, in such a place ships might be preserved very probably from worms, by paying their bottoms with aloes, or mixing it with their other ingredients: that has been found to prevent the biting of those worms, and might be had in plenty on the spot. Many kinds of aloes would grow on the sandy lands about Pensacola and in Florida, which is the proper soil for them, and would be a good improvement for those lands.

It has been objected, that the French Louisiana country is not likely to turn to any account, because the French made so little of it.

But that objection, however common, will appear to proceed only from the ignorance of those who make it. No country can produce any thing without labourers, which, it is certain, the French never had in their Louisiana, in any number, at least, sufficient to make it turn to any greater account than it has done. The reason of this appears not to be owing to the country, but to their proceedings and misconduct in it. Out of the many thousand people, who were contracted for by the grantees, to be sent to Louisiana in 1719, there were but 800 sent; and of those the greatest part were ruined by their infamous schemes; which made them and others abandon the country entirely. The few who remained in it, were cut off by an Indian massacre in 1729, which broke up the only promising settlements they had in the country, those of the Natches and Yafous, which were never afterwards reinstated.

Instead of encouraging the colony, the minister, cardinal Fleuri, either from a spirit of oeconomy, or because it might be contrary to some other of his views, withdrew his protection from it, gave up the public plantations, and must thereby, no doubt have very much discouraged others. By those means, the French had few or no people in Louisiana, but such as were condemned to be sent to it for their crimes, women of ill fame, deserted soldiers, insolvent debtors, and galley slaves; who, "looking on the country only as a place of exile, were disheartened at every thing in it, and had no regard for the progress of a colony of which they were only members by compulsion, and neither knew nor considered its advantages to the state. It is from such people that many have taken their accounts of this country, and throw the blame of all miseries in it upon the country, when they are only owing to the incapacity and negligence of those who were intrusted to settle it."—Charlevoix Hist. N. France, tom. III. p. 447.

There remains nothing for our further consideration immediately relative to our further commercial union with British America, than a view of the Canadian parts of the northern continent, from whence an idea may be formed of the commercial emolument we may derive from thence likewise.

Before the last definitive treaty of 1763, the boundaries of Canada and Louisiana, and those between the British and French colonies, were ever left vague and undetermined on the whole continent. At present, they are clearly and explicitly ascertained, by the said definitive treaty, without the least uncertainty or ambiguity: an advantage this nation, nor her American colonies ever before enjoyed; an advantage that we have ever stood in need of since we have had any territory in the new world; an advantage from whence we may now raise a superstructure of invaluable other benefits, which were before not with safety to be attempted by Great Britain. See our article America, where the reader will find the definitive treaty at large, to which, together with our map of North America, we refer our readers to, that there may be the less interruption respecting our present animadversions.

All that part of Canada and its dependencies, which before the treaty of 1763 lie on the eastern side of the Mississippi, belonged to the French, being annexed to the crown of Great Britain, its extent is so great both in length and breadth, that its temperature, climates, soil, &c. cannot but vary accordingly. All that part which lies along the banks of the great river St. Laurence, is, generally speaking, pretty cold in winter, though hot in summer, as most of those American tracts commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The rest of the country is intersected with large woods, lakes and rivers, and has no inconsiderable quantity of good fertile lands; which, by long experience, has been found capable of producing corn, barley, rye, and other grain, in abundance, and tobacco, which it has yielded in large quantities.

There are plenty of stags, elk, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, castors, and numerous other species of wild animals in the woods, besides great plenty of wild fowl and game. The southern part in particular, breeds great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. and a prodigious variety of other animals, both wild and tame.

The meadow grounds, which are all well watered, afford excellent grass, and breed great quantities of large and small cattle; and where the arable land has been well manured, it produces large and rich crops. The mountains abound with coal mines, and some, we have been told of silver, and divers other metallic and mineral productions. The marshy grounds, which are likewise very extensive, swarm with otters, beavers, and other amphibious creatures, and the rivers and lakes with fish of most sorts, and fine of their kind. We have before given some idea of their numerous and extensive lakes, and of their vast interior navigation that may, and certainly will be carried on by means thereof.

We have also given a brief view of their prodigious river navigation, which it is endless to enter into a further detail of; the great rivers, those of St. Laurence, the Mississippi and the Ohio, &c. abound with great variety of fish, and receive considerable smaller rivers in their course.

CANADA PROPER, as 'tis called by geographers, includes all the north and west of the great river St. Laurence and lakes; hath on the north Terra de Labrador, Hudson's Bay and New Wales. On the east, the

* The admiral was on board of the Hercules, which drew twenty-one feet of water, and there were but twenty-two feet into the harbour in the highest tides, so that they despaired of carrying in this ship. But an old Canadian, named Gruneau, a man of experience, who was perfectly acquainted with that coast, boasted of being able to do it, and succeeded; for which he was the next year honoured WITH LETTERS OF NOBLESSE (Dumont, an officer here at that time) II. 22.

river Sanguenay divides it from the province of that name. The numerous Indian nations of those parts are enumerated by baron la Hotan, to whom we refer the reader for a particular account. We shall only observe, that between our European colonists and them, an immense scene of valuable trade may be cultivated. For why may we not bring them gradually, by humane and just usage and equitable dealings, to conform to the customary European modes of living, and thereby induce them to industry and planting of divers kinds? Why may we not civilize persons of such strong natural understandings, and incline them not only to afford us the material for manufactures of skins and furs, as they have for years done, but dispose them to planting and agriculture, increase their wants, and thereby rouse their active industry to matters of more pleasurable benefit and advantage to themselves as well as to this kingdom? Can we pronounce this impracticable, especially now we have no European competitor to disturb and annoy our plantations here, without being able severely to chastise them for so doing? Why may not our people intermarry with them, and we and they become gradually one people? May it not prove as good policy to think of every means of turning the aborigines of America to every European art of cultivating lands to advantage, as merely thinking of peopling of our new acquired territories with Europeans?

The **THREE RIVERS**, so called from the three rivers which form their currents near it, and fall into the great one of St. Laurence, was the capital of the French government formerly, and much resorted to by several nations, who came thither to trade considerably in valuable furs of divers kinds. It was the common emporium for the Indian trade. The country about it is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordships and handsome seats, and there is on each side of the river a vast number of genteel houses, scarce above a gun shot from each other, and the river is full of pleasure and fisher boats, which catch vast quantities of fish.

MONT-REAL is situated on an island of the same name in the river St. Laurence, about fourteen leagues long and four wide, where broadest, and is very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town drives a prodigious trade with the natives and Europeans. The great concourse of Indian traders begins about June, and some of them are said to come hither about 500 leagues. The fair is kept along the banks of the river, where those natives barter their commodities with the European colonists.

SANGUENAY, a province in the Eastern Canada, is divided on the west from that properly so called, by the river of its name. It has adjacent several Indian nations. Its extent is computed from the Three Rivers, which is the frontier of Canada Proper, quite to the farther end of the bay called the Seven Isles.

The territory and land on each side the river here were round so indifferent, and that the colony that had settled here suffered so much, that they were for a time discouraged; but at length, upon their sailing up as high as Quebec, they found such encouragement as produced great prosperity there.

The river Sanguenay springs from the lake St. John, and falls into that of St. Laurence, at the town of Jadouffac. The haven is capable of containing twenty five men of war, and hath a good anchorage and shelter from storms, it being of a circular figure, and deep, and surrounded at a distance with very high rocks.—'Tis needless to dwell longer in the description of this province, it being much the same, as to its soil, climate and inhabitants, with that of Canada Proper. It is, indeed, remarkable for an extraordinary plenty of marble of several kinds, inasmuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches and palaces, but even the houses of private men are built of it.

QUEBEC, the metropolis of Canada, is situated on the confluence of the great rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, and on the north side of the former, and about one hundred and forty leagues from the sea. The haven is large, and capable of containing at least one hundred sail of ships of the line.

Without the enumeration of the several tribes of Indians, who inhabit contiguous to this part of Canada, it seems most useful only to take notice of the **IROQUOIS**, who are the most considerable, and the best known hereabouts. They are seated along the north side of lake Ontario, Frontenac, and along the river of that name, which is that which carries the water of the lake into the river St. Laurence. They are bounded on the north by the nations called Algonkins and Outavays, about Montreal; and on the east and south-east by New England, New York, Jersey, &c. on the south by part of Canada Proper, and the lake Erie, and on the West by that of the Hurons, and the canal between those two lakes. Before Canada became British, the Iroquois were so advantageously situated between the English and French, that they could join forces either with the highest bidder, or with those who could keep them in the most subjection. Now we have dispossessed France of those parts, it will be our own fault if effectual measures shall be neglected so to attach them to the English nation, that they may be instrumental to keep all the other Indian tribes, with our proper aid, in a strict commercial alliance with us, as well for the general benefit of trade, as for defence and offence, when we may have occasion. It seems they at present complain of the English at New York, having encroached greatly on their territories, wherein they should be righted.

The **ILLINOIS INDIANS** inhabit near the lake and river of that name. They live in villages at a great distance from each other, on the marshy plains, on both sides of the river, near which are large woods and hills, covered with a delightful verdure about nine months in the year, whilst the current thereof, which is mostly south-west, is so smooth and agreeable, that vessels of a considerable size may sail up and down it with ease and safety, for a course of one hundred and twenty leagues, before it falls into that of the Mississippi.—The lands on each side afford such plenty of pasture, that they are covered with herds of large and small cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other animals of the wilder kind. The river swarms with water fowl of divers species, such as swans, geese, cranes, ducks, &c.

The Illinois have been great friends to the French, as they were wont to protect them from the other Indian nations, with which they were at enmity; and the French always dealt with them with honour and honesty, and invariably adhered to their alliances with them. Were not those the natural means to attach them to the interest of our enemies and rivals? Shall we not regard the like measures to engage them to us, now we have got rid of so troublesome a neighbour, when it is more in our power than it ever was before?

The eternal disputes that have heretofore subsisted between Britain and France, relative to Acadia and Gaspe, are finally adjusted by the treaty of 1763, as being included in Canada and its dependencies; so that we are now in a condition to reap uninterruptedly all the benefits of Nova Scotia. La Hotan says, that almost every part of Acadia yields corn, fruit, pease and other pulse; that in several places there are **MISTS AS STRONG AS THOSE OF NORWAY**, AND THAT ALL KINDS OF SHIPPING MIGHT BE BUILT HERE, THE **OAK TIMBER THAT GROWS HERE BEING BETTER THAN THAT OF EUROPE**.—Charlevoix says it abounds with all the necessaries of life, in every season to subsist the inhabitants without much fatigue.—He also says, that Monsieur Denys, who published an accurate description of this country, in which he resided a long time, and was proprietor and governor for the French king of the east coast, reports, THAT ONE SINGLE GRAIN OF WHEAT, SOWN NEAR **LA HURVE**, PRODUCED ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY EARS, VERY LONG, AND SO LOADED, THAT THEY WERE FORCED TO SUPPORT THEM WITH IRON HOOPS.—The Jesuit adds, that here are mines both of copper and coal, and that about three-fourths of a league from the isle of Monano, which shows the way into **ST. JOHN'S** river, on the north side of **FUNDA BAY**, there is a rock of **LAPIS LAZULI**, which

which is almost covered with the sea; and Monsieur Denys, who saw a piece that had been taken off it and sent to France, says it was valued at ten crowns an ounce. *The bay of Funda* breaks two hundred miles into the land from *Cap Sable*, the most southern point of New Scotland, to the istmus, which joins the peninsula to the continent. According to Charlevoix, it is two French leagues over to the river of St. John, and has a clean shore, with depth of water enough to carry THE LARGEST SHIPS TO THE LESSER BAY.

Annapolis, which lies in a fair clean bay within the bay of Funda; Charlevoix says this harbour has but one fault, which is the difficulty of entering or coming out of it, so that only one ship can pass in or out of it at a time. This, says he, excepted, nature has scarce omitted one thing to make it the finest harbour in the world. It is two leagues in length and one in breadth, having a small island called Goat Island, almost in the middle of the basin, which, it is said, is able to contain ALL THE SHIPS IN AMERICA, where they may lie secure from all winds. In a word, by means of the isle of *Cape Breton*, *St. Johns* and *Anticosti*, &c. and all the dependencies of Canada, England now commands the navigation to Canada by the gulph and river St. Laurence, and a MOST EXCELLENT ADDITIONAL FISHERY on all this coast, together with several good harbours for our shipping; and when the natural commercial advantages shall be made of the whole of the territories here annexed to the crown of Great Britain, what increase of trade and navigation shall we not experience, at the cost of the French?

By our possession of all Canada and its dependencies, here is presented to this nation an unspeakable source of commercial benefit, even from what hath hitherto been set forth respecting this point. But if we consider the numerous Indian nations that lie on the back of our ancient northern colonies, now within our own new ceded acquisitions, with the countries they inhabit, and the vast productions that may be made to arise from those countries; if we so happily manage the natives to fall into the arts of cultivating lands, and duly planting them by suitable encouragements, why may we not expect advantages no way inferior to those we derive from the fur trade by their hunting? How glorious would it be for us to undertake the cultivation of men as well as lands within those continental territories? To civilize so many nations, and improve so large and spacious a country from north to south, as well as from east to west, may be made to administer an immensity of wealth to this kingdom, and the reign of George the Third rendered the most conspicuous æra that this nation ever yet beheld, by communicating our constitution and liberties, both civil and religious, to so many numbers of rational beings, whose delight and happiness would increase at the same time that an increase of treasure and power will be added to Britain!

Have we not experienced the benefit of instructing and civilizing the Mowhaws, amongst the great nation of the Iroquois, who from a mercurial people have been trained to trade, and entered into alliances with all the nations round the lakes Huron and Erie, to the westward of the Mississippi; which trade is now firmly established by the gain they make by it, and the advantages we have acquired by the possession of Canada and its dependencies. The English from New York have fixed at Oswego, Niagara, St. Joseph, Mississippi, at the bottom of the Illinois lake, in their country, and 'tis to be hoped they will not act unequitably by those people, who are disposed to carry on a large trade with us; and with other numerous nations, whose names were unknown to us before.

By those and many other settlements that we are now possessed of, we also may the more safely encourage the Hudson's Bay trade to unspcakably greater benefit to this nation than we ever before did. We may now be happily invited to lay open this monopoly for the general advantage, which would open a greater vent for British manufactures, as well for this trade as that in all North America. Whereas all the trade we have at present, whilst it is confined to the company, is only the employment of about 30 men in all their confined factories and to or three ships in the trade, manned with about 200 men in time of war, to enrich nine or ten merchants at their country's expence; at the same time it is said that they have betrayed the nation, by allowing the French to encroach upon us at the bottom of the bay, they giving up before the greatest part of their trade there to the French, rather than their own countrymen should reap the full emoluments of it; was this estimable branch laid open by parliament.

It is, therefore, humbly submitted to the government, at present, whether it is not just, as well as prudent, as we are now so happily situated for the purpose, to open this whole trade to all British merchants, and resume at the same time the charter, so far as to take from them all the lands they have not reclaimed or occupied, after eighty years possession? leaving them only their factories, and such lands as they have reclaimed adjoining to them, and to give grants, as usual in other colonies, to all who shall go over to trade and make settlements in the country; for no grants were ever intended to be made to them, to enable them to prevent other subjects of Britain from planting those colonies, which they themselves would not plant or occupy; for such a power, instead of being beneficial, is highly prejudicial to Britain.

All the objections that have ever been made to this great point by the company, have appeared to be frivolous, and it is to be hoped, will no longer be regarded, as 'tis needful for us to open every channel of advantageous commerce. For the whole state of this matter, and answers to objections against it, the reader is desired to turn to our article HUDSON'S BAY, where he will find, that since Canada and its dependencies are ceded to the crown of England, we can now do that with great benefit, which might before have been attended with great difficulty. — This affording us an additional field of trade, to which our Canadian settlements may become a grand barrier, we are willing to hope, it will be duly attended to, as well as every other branch that may be cultivated with the Indians, and to which they may in any shape be rendered lucrative to the British empire; since we have every inducement of security to promote it, from every part of the British American continent, in virtue of the late peace.

But above all, we should not be unmindful of that most valuable branch of trade, which we may derive from our FISHERIES of every kind upon our present extended coasts of North America, the definitive treaty having possessed us of greater advantages for that purpose than this nation ever enjoyed before. For although Britain has condescended to suffer the French to fish upon the coast of the dependencies of Canada, yet it is only while they shall keep within the limits to which they are by the treaty restrained. As soon as they shall deviate therefrom, we have a right to deprive them of that privilege. In the like manner, when they swerve from the spirit of the treaty that has granted them the liberty to fish on the coast of Newfoundland, we may with great justice cease to grant them that liberty; and that without their being able to resent us in those seas. Their possession of the trifling islands of St. Peters and Miquelon, is restricted to an insignificant force merely for the police of those islands, which are suffered only for a shelter for their fishermen there. Besides, we have not excluded ourselves from fisheries where we have indulged France; so that we can always watch their motions and prevent their infractions of the treaty. We can, therefore, only look upon this privilege granted to France of fishing at all in those seas in the light of a trial for their good behaviour; the moment they shall transgress the treaty, they being liable to have that privilege taken from them, by a far superior force in those parts, as we have before shown. And if we shall be again provoked to turn them out of these whole fisheries, they will hardly ever be reinstated again; as we shall endeavour further to shew before we have finished these observations.

But first we desire the reader to recapitulate in his own mind, from what has been represented, the foundation laid in America by the treaty of 1763, for that future enlarged commercial union between Great Britain and British America that we recommend; and then let him judge, whether we have not, at present, the greatest inducement and the greatest encouragement to attempt to raise a most notable superstructure of commercial prosperity, by the means of our happy situation in America? Whether we could well wish to be better circumstanced than we are there, to act either defensively or offensively against France and Spain, should they disturb us in extending our commercial union in those parts? Whether we can have any thing to fear from France in North America? Whether, on the contrary, that nation has not every thing to fear from us on the whole sea coasts? Whether we have any thing to fear from France, with respect to the interior parts of the American continent? What can we have to intimidate us there from increasing our commercial union? Have the French now power there to do it themselves? No one will say this. On whom then must France depend to do this great work for them? It will be said, perhaps, the Indians. That some of the Indians, who had been many years in the friendship of the French, may by their occasional machinations be influenced to misbehave to the subjects of Great Britain resident the most contiguous to them. But have we not more numerous Indians already attached to our interest, who will take up the hatchet against our Indian enemies? Are we not daily making fresh friendships amongst those people, and drawing great numbers into our scale of power? And as all the eastern parts of the Mississippi belong to the crown of England, and those parts grow more and more populous with our European settlers, will not this make the balance of dominion greatly preponderate in British favour? If not by dint of amicable alliances more for the Indian interest than is now in the power of France to do, by the dint of our arms, we can reduce every Indian enemy to our subjection; though I am persuaded that the most friendly, just and equitable measures will be practiced towards the natives, as being measures by far the most eligible for both parties. Besides, are not we master of the navigation of all the lakes, and the great and small rivers contained within our own territories? Can we not by means thereof greatly humble the Indian powers, which consists only of disjointed nations, whose interests lie different to each other? But have not these Indians experienced that Great Britain has conquered her great European enemies there; and that we are now in possession of all their lands they before enjoyed? Can it be supposed, that this has not struck a great awe into all the Indians in general? And will not their good sense lead them to discern, that those who have been able to conquer and extirpate the French themselves from thence, will be able, if provoked to it, to do the same much easier by them? Must they not know, therefore, that it is their natural interest to maintain friendship and harmony with us, who are so much their superiors in power?

Well: but if the French, at present, have it not in their power, with the aid of some few of their deluded Indians, to hurt us, may not the union with them of the Spaniards, who are now possessed of New Orleans on the American continent? What can the Spaniards do to irritate Indians against us, who are so remarkably abhorred by them? Is it not far more likely, that the Indians would rather join with us against the Spaniards than them against us? Has not this giving up New Orleans by France to Spain, precluded France from any settlement on the east of the Mississippi? And whether this very step hath not also precluded them from all navigation to and from the river Mississippi, in virtue of the definitive treaty may be questioned? For by the seventh article it should seem that France had left to them New Orleans only for the sake of the navigation of that river, as well as the English; and if they give up the possession with which the privilege was given, do they not give up the privilege itself? For we have not heard of any new treaty made by Britain to grant the right to France of that navigation to Spain as well as France. And if we granted France that privilege, it does not follow that Spain shall enjoy the same, although France may have given them up New Orleans; and therefore, the Spaniards, without the consent of the crown of England, can have no right to the navigation of the Mississippi. And although the good behaviour of the Spaniards towards this nation may induce us, to continue the privilege to them; yet when they cease to deserve it, can they expect we shall longer grant it? No; nor the possession of New Orleans itself; and then we shall have no competitors on the American continent that can injure this nation. It does not seem that this gift of France can be any detriment to us, but it may be of some to Spain, especially if they have given up the Spanish part of Hispaniola, or any other equivalent to obtain it, seeing Spain may one day lose New Orleans, without any restoration of such equivalent.

From the united weight of what has been urged, it appears, that the way is quite clear now for us to make what further additional commercial union with our colonies we shall judge eligible, without fear of any obstruction either from France or Spain, or from the Indians. What hinders then that we should not do it to the utmost stretch of good policy? Have we not every motive to induce thereto, as we have shewn in our first discourse, and that upon the broadest bottomed system that we can?

Have we not seen how easily evasible all treaties of commerce are with European potentates in our prior preliminary discourse? For what avails the most seemingly beneficial treaties of commerce with any European potentates whatsoever, while we shall be underfold in the dominions of that very potentate, by a foreign rival in trade? Had we, indeed, an exclusive treaty of commerce with a nation, it might, perhaps, be of some extraordinary advantage, whilst our commodities continued as dear as they at present are, and those of our competitors as cheap as they are; yet this extraordinary advantage would be greatly diminished by the smuggling trade of our rivals into such country? But we can never expect such exclusive trade with any country; and therefore we can never expect to make a beneficial treaty of commerce with any state, while we shall be liable to be underfold; the underfelling nation ever supplanting us; and depriving us of any imaginary advantages we may flatter ourselves with having obtained; and this they will do, without having any treaty of commerce subsisting with the same nation at all. How then shall we deceive ourselves with great expectations from any extraordinary commercial treaty with Russia or any other power, while France shall be permitted to sell the very same sort of goods in their empire as we shall be permitted to do?

Instead of amusing the nation with such sort of advantageous treaties, would it not be far more eligible to put the kingdom into a condition to be able to sell our commodities upon an equality of price with our rivals? For that is the previous step requisite to render any treaty of commerce beneficial; and without it, we are lulled with imaginary gain for our real loss, because as such treaties always stipulate mutual advantages to both states, if we grant any to our disadvantage, and we are disabled to reap any to our benefit, we are certainly deceived, and the nation is injured instead of advantaged by such sort of treaties of commerce, however common it has been to impose such conduct on the nation for superlative strokes of British policy.

But in the name of truth, wisdom and sound policy, why are we solicitous to make treaties of commerce with foreign countries, whose advantage must at best be doubtful, as our trade is at present loaded with tax-incumbrances, and to neglect them with our own colonies and plantations; where we may be certain to reap the full benefit of them, if grounded on the maxims we have urged throughout these discourses? And, indeed, the additional commercial union hereby intended, may not improperly be considered as a NEW TREATY OF COMMERCE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES AND PLANTATIONS, for the

solid mutual permanent interest of both. In this light, we say, what hath been suggested may be considered: nay, it is the only rational view wherein the matter ought to be considered; it is in that, however, it is designed by the writer, let others put what construction they please thereon. For herein we have not less comprehended the interest of the colonies than that of the mother-state; judging it a weak and sandy foundation to ground our new commercial superstructure upon the interest of Great Britain alone, without including that of our colonies at the same time: we would be understood to be advocates as well for the one as the other, esteeming their interests inseparable.

Without entering, with all possible brevity, into the detail we have exhibited, and without exhibiting the same in the divers lights wherein we have done it, no true judgment could have been made of the foundation that is laid in America for that extensive commercial union we have recommended between this kingdom and her colonies. Speaking in general would have carried no conviction, nor have answered the purpose we have in view, which is to shew to what degree such further union might be presumed to contribute towards the redress of those grievances, of which we have complained in our first preliminary discourse.

That our new acquired continental as well as island colonies, are daily increasing in Europeans from various parts is certain. — That the Indian tribes in both are extremely numerous is no less so; and that they daily grow more and more friendly and tractable, and have a better relish for the British government and constitution, and are more inclined to civilization, is not to be doubted. On the continent, they have experienced our superiority of power and dominion; and this must have impressed on them a formidable idea of the magnitude of our strength in war, seeing we have obtained the mastery over both France and Spain, and left them no more territory on the whole eastern part of the Mississippi, than the trifling spot of New Orleans. Must not this give the numerous Indian tribes an excellent conception of the mighty sway and supreme power and authority of the British nation, by which such great feats have been accomplished? Than such events so illustrious to this kingdom, nothing can have a more happy effect to excite in them the ideas both of dread and attachment. And will not these operate, by kind, humane and equitable treatment, to cement concord and harmony between us? They assuredly will promote a lasting friendship between us and all the Indian tribes; and perhaps they are not in the whole less numerous at present on that continent, than all the Europeans taken together. Nay, if we once gain the hearts of all the Indians within our own boundaries, will not this naturally draw them to us from remoter parts? Whence it appears, that we have not only gained an extent of territory, but we have gained numerous people, which must render such territories proportionably lucrative to the mother empire. For now we have no weighty European competitor to deal with on the continent; we have, or soon may put an end to all machinations to irritate the Indians against this nation. This being done, may we not expect, that these sensible Indians can by good policy on our side, be brought to the cultivation of lands, as they have been naturally disposed to hunting and fishing for their maintenance? The transition from the one to the other is so familiar, that the one may soon become as pleasing to them as the other: and then they will divide their time into a more delightful variety of objects; and their old men may direct agriculture, farming and planting, with due instructions, while their youths shall execute the laborious part. Why not? They lay claim to large territories; and if they are put into a more sure way of preserving them to their posterity, by cultivation, and having them secured and guaranteed to them by British laws, may they not be convinced that their interest is inseparably united with ours? Will not this prove the means of preventing those broils and misunderstandings in future about the extent and rights of lands, more effectually than by any other whatsoever? They will not want understanding to be made sensible hereof; and when once they become convinced that no injury, but benefits shall be intended them, why cannot their native robustness and activity be turned into channels to increase their felicity? Cannot the wisdom of the British government devise ways and means to render those people more beneficial to the state, as well as happier within themselves, than they yet ever have been? As it is beneath the dignity as well as interest of Britain to neglect this, we will not suppose it; we will, on the contrary, please ourselves with the agreeable idea, that Indian labour and industry may be converted to the British no less than Indian happiness. And why not intermarriages between them and Europeans become as fashionable as heretofore between them and the French? When such consanguinity and incorporation of families shall take effect, will they not become a more united and civilized people amongst our Europeans? When these things shall be effected, will not the Indian tribes be easily brought to habit in the European modes; and this increase of their wants, and ability to supply them, will increase their demand for British manufactures, as it will our demands for the productions of their materials for every purpose of that kind.

We look upon it as not the least advantage to have such a body of new British subjects united to this kingdom, provided we shall be wise enough to make the right use of them. If we do not, it will not be the fault of the Indians; but it will be an eternal ignominy to this nation. Who will believe that good hunters and fishermen should not make good planters, vine-dressers, flax and hemp-dressers? Who will credit that even their women and children cannot nurse the silkworms in their proper clime, as well as raise flax and hemp, and food? Will not olives grow in America, as well as flax, hemp and cotton? Why should we not be supplied with oil as well as wine and raisins from British America, no less than sugars? Let any man cast his eye on the Book of Rates, and let him view the thousands of articles that we import from other countries at a great expence, that we may now have from British America, at a far greater advantage, as might be shewn in numerous particulars? Is it not bad policy to neglect it as we are at present circumstanced, when we shall be certain that the more we take from America, the more the Americans will be able to take in return from us upon the plan proposed? But how are we certain of this from any foreign country, as the dearth of our commodity almost exclude us from too many markets? Is it not wiser to enjoy a certain lucrative degree of foreign trade and navigation of our own, and under our own direction and management, than to be liable to the will and caprice of any foreign states and empires solely? I could wish to see this point duly weighed and considered by our rulers, being persuaded it would turn to the unspeakable interest of the British empire, and their eternal glory at this time.

Let me not be understood to contend for an exclusion of this nation from all trade with other European countries except with British America; this would be repugnant to the whole spirit of my writings: but this I would be understood to mean and intend, that since we are possessed of such great advantages in America; it is right that we should not neglect them; if we do, we have shewn how such neglect may tend to the detriment of the nation, by rendering America independent of Britain. — If we embrace them to the full extent they will now admit of, it will make the British colonies more and more dependent on Britain, and strengthen and aggrandize both to a degree beyond what this nation ever before experienced. This is what we contend for; and we also contend for the diminution of our foreign imports from every nation we have dealings with, as they shall diminish in the importation of our commodities, let it proceed from what cause it will. This will be the way to prevent many of our particular balances of trade being so much to our disadvantage, and will contribute to turn the general balance to our general advantage. — This is what I have ever aimed at in all my labours for the public service, and what I would be judged to design at present. For by this means only can the nation become solidly wealthy; by this means only can we be put into a condi-

tion to reduce the public debts honourably; and by this means only can we obtain a competent annihilation of our taxes, and enable us to sell our native as well as our plantation commodities at cheaper rates.

The reader will hardly forget, that we have endeavoured to shew the improbability of France and Spain obtaining any advantage by a fresh rupture with us in America. However, lest these nations should again think of quarrelling with Britain, the sooner she extends her commercial union with her own colonies, the better will she be prepared to cope with them; and therefore it will be impolitic to be dilatory in a matter of such immediate important concern.

But if we should be again forced into a war, it may not be inconsistent with this work to say a word with respect to every other preparatory step requisite to be pursued, as well in regard to Europe as to America: indeed this will be expected, seeing we have promised some considerations upon this point, which we call

A NEW DESIGN TO RENDER THE PEACE OF EUROPE MORE LASTING, AND TO SAVE GREAT BRITAIN THE FUTURE EXPENCE OF ENGAGING IN THE CONTINENTAL WARS OF EUROPE.

NO man in the kingdom, we apprehend, no more than ourselves, ever imagined that the supplies to carry on the last war could ever have rose to the height they did, nor the successes of the war have been so extraordinary as they proved.

Wherefore, at the commencement of the last war, the writer drew up a tract, which was intitled GREAT BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM; wherein is endeavoured to be shewn, 1. That the increase of the public debts and taxes must, in a few years, prove the ruin of the monied, the trading and the landed interests. 2. The necessity of raising the SUPPLIES to carry on war, within the year. 3. That such a design, however seemingly difficult, is practicable; and 4. AN EXPEDIENT to support the PUBLIC CREDIT in all times of public danger.

The fundamental principles whereupon the raising the supplies within the year was grounded, was, that the government should deal with all contractors for the navy and army, &c. payable within the year, or rather, if possible, at three months credit, which is esteemed equal to ready money dealings, if punctuality could be depended on.—That to enable the government to have complied therewith, the supplies should be raised as early in the year as possible, and that all contractors should have been paid as soon as possible; so that by the money collected from the people returning into their hands again as soon as possible, such a quick circulation from and to the hands of the public, the supplies might have been raised without running the nation further in debt, and the nation oppressed with no additional taxes after the war had been ended.

This proposition was supported by a variety of reasonings in divers lights, all which seems to have corroborated the rectitude of the measure. Though the manner of handling the subject was well received by the greatest men in the kingdom, yet party distractions prevented that being carried into execution, which every one approved and applauded. And this may possibly prove the fate of the EXTENSIVE COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES the writer has proposed in these discourses; and that from the like party broils and dissentions, there appearing a similitude of circumstances between our great men at present as heretofore; and there may be the same cause to repent the neglect of the one as there has been that of the other. For,

Had public affairs been so happily conducted as to have left the nation exempt from those great additional tax-incumbrances, we now sustain, in consequence of adhering to the destructive ways of funding and borrowing, the circumstances of the kingdom would have been widely different from what they are at present; not only the industrious poor would have been in a much happier condition; but every rank of people in the community.

As things have happened otherwise, the writer is not weary of well-doing; and therefore taking the state of our affairs as they are, he is willing to hope that he has fallen upon the most natural way to extricate the nation from the present difficulties under which it groans. Though such policy may be presumed to operate but slowly to redress the public grievances, yet he presumes to say the effects will be sure. Besides, this capital step, the writer apprehends, may be aided by some others, that will both facilitate and expedite it, and that much sooner, perchance, than may be judged practicable, by those unacquainted with what he may possibly hereafter have leisure to consider. The writer's other daily avocations not admitting of his digesting, at present, what he conceives will co-operate with what he has already suggested, he is obliged to defer it, till he shall have time to execute it to his intentions. And if he shall be able to accomplish his end to his own satisfaction, he may probably submit the same to the consideration of the legislature, provided he shall be assured previously, that he shall be intitled to an adequate PARLIAMENTARY RECOMPENCE for his public service, which, he humbly apprehends, would be very important, whether the nation continues in peace, or is compelled to go to war. Without this he is obliged to attend his private affairs, take care of his family, and damp instead of cherish that public spirit which is so natural to him, as appears throughout all his labours.—But there being in these our happy days no encouragement for any private man to serve his country, he has no hopes to be enabled to execute what he judges of the MOST IMPORTANT CONCERN TO THE KINGDOM AT THIS TIME.

In the beforementioned treatise of raising the supplies within the year, the writer has in the Introduction intimated a NEW PLAN OF BRITISH POLITICS, WITH RESPECT TO OUR FOREIGN AFFAIRS, AND OUR CONNECTIONS ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.—This plan of foreign affairs, before the last war, was intended in aid of the plan to raise the supplies within the year without increasing the public debts or taxes, and was never yet made public; but the writer put it into the hands of the ministry, it being then not proper for publication. But as it may prove of public use hereafter, he will communicate a part of the substance of it, preparatory to what he shall submit upon the same topic at present.

It never being imagined that we should attempt to increase the territories of Great Britain to the degree we have done, the FOREIGN PLAN was adapted to render the war as successful against the enemy as we could, at the least expence to this nation. The new foreign system offered for that purpose was to have formed, at the beginning of the war, a GENERAL PROTESTANT COMMERCIAL CONFEDERACY against France, and all the CATHOLIC ALLIES SHE SHOULD JOIN WITH AGAINST GREAT BRITAIN AND HER CONFEDERATES.

The new COMMERCIAL PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY was founded on the eventual success against the enemies; and each power was to be intitled to its due share of new acquired territory that should be taken from the enemies of the confederacy, and that in proportion to the stipulated quota of maritime or landed force that each confederate should be able to advance to promote the success of the common cause.—Thus the interest of every confederate being concerned in the eventual success of the war, no one would be backward in furnishing the full degree of force such confederate should be in a capacity to advance, according to their situation

situation or their circumstances so to do; and that the division of the new acquired territory that should be obtained from the enemies, should be made by the congress appointed for that purpose in the most equitable manner, as well as every circumstance of conducting the confederate war to a successful issue.

That as Great Britain was at the head of the Protestant commercial confederacy, and was presumed to be the most capable to contribute a superior share or quota of maritime strength; so her stipulated share should be settled at the congress; and she should be intitled to no more of the new acquired territory, or other commercial wealth, than should have been proportionate to her quota of men, ships, &c. In a word, every preliminary article was to have been stipulated by the congress of the confederate powers, before the sword should be drawn, and after the same should be sheathed, the most advantageous peace should be made for their mutual benefit.

That the Protestant commercial confederacy should ever subsist for the preservation of the tranquillity of Europe, against any Catholic state whatever that should interrupt it, and for the due preservation of perfect amity, concord and unity between the Protestant confederates.

That no Catholic state whatever should be admitted amongst the Protestant commercial confederates, lest such state should have been any way instrumental to have dissolved the Protestant alliance, &c.

That such of the Protestant confederates who should not then be in a capacity to raise as much degree of force as they were desirous of doing, should have the liberty to have raised what money they required amongst any of the confederated states, for which they should pay four *per cent.* interest till the principal should be repaid to the lenders; and that the whole confederacy should have been guarantees for the discharge of both the principal and interest.—And that as a further collateral security to the lenders, the new acquired share of territory, or any other sort of acquisition by the capture of ships and merchandizes, &c. should have been mortgaged for the same loans, &c. to the whole confederacy, &c. That the confederates agreed, that all the acquisitions of wealth or territory made by the united force SHOULD NEVER HAVE BEEN RESTORED.

These were the outlines of the NEW FOREIGN BRITISH SYSTEM intended: the whole may one day, perhaps, see the light.

That a more adequate idea of the whole may be at present formed, be it supposed, that the millions which were raised by Great Britain alone, had been raised amongst the whole body of Protestant confederates; and that the acquisitions that were made, had been done by the united aid and assistance of the whole confederacy, instead of Britain alone.

Suppose also, that there were SIX PROTESTANT STATES confederated for the purpose aforesaid, and that Great Britain was admitted to bear two-sixths, equal to one-third of the whole expence, and the other five states two-fifteenths each of them, and the whole acquisitions made were to be equitably divided amongst the confederates, by the congress settled for that purpose: this supposed, then all the captures and territory obtained by the last war would have belonged to, and have been divided amongst the several parties interested therein.

Those who are of opinion, that we have obtained too large a share of territory, may not judge the preceding plan of foreign politics a romantic or visionary system. Had the case been, as submitted by the new plan, we could have been intitled to no more than one-third of the conquests the whole confederate force should have made; and then we should have been at no more than one-third of the expence we have been at, and should have saved the other two-thirds. Which of the two might have been more eligible for Great Britain, is a question that others may think of; we are certain, that the whole Protestant cause would have been a much more considerable gainer in general than this kingdom has been, and the Catholic ones would have been a much greater loser. For the Protestant interest would have gained the Havanna amongst them, as well as the French sugar islands, except their part of Hispaniola.

Had the possession of the Havanna, the key of the Spanish Indies, together with the whole fisheries of Newfoundland, amongst other parts of the conquests, been allotted to the share of Great Britain, and the States General of the United Provinces, for their seven-fifteenths parts, and had the residue been as equitably proportioned as could have been, between the other confederates, would not this have drawn the teeth and have pared the nails both of France, and Spain? Would not nine-tenths of the whole sugar trade of the world have been possessed by the Protestant interest, as well as the principal fisheries of America?

With respect to the American continent, and all to the eastward of the Mississippi, such parts might have been appropriated as would have tended to the security and due enlargement of the antient British colonies, and the remainder might have been distributed amongst such other of the confederated powers as might have chose it; and the whole distribution of territory might have been made under the guarantee of the whole confederated Protestant allies; and who would have wrested the same out of their hands? So likewise might the American conquered islands have been distributed amongst the Protestant states. In virtue of the proportion coming to Prussia, might not that monarchy have been constituted a maritime power, and Sweden and Denmark have received their proportion of estimable commercial conquests taken out of the enemies scale of power, and thrown for ever into that of protestantism?

Be it further presumed, that the English and Dutch had, in conjunction, possession of the Havanna, and in consequence the whole island of Cuba, as the French and the Spaniards possess the island of Hispaniola, might not England and Holland have made the Spaniards for ever tributaries to them, for permission to have traded to Spanish America, had the Protestant confederates chose to continue to them that privilege under such certain regulations and restrictions as they should have granted it, as a check upon them for the future? And by the Spaniards being obliged to have paid England and Holland for the privilege of trading to their American colonies, through the medium of the Havanna; and the resort thither of the galleons and flota, the advantages arising from thence, would have well enabled Britain and Holland to have maintained the Havanna, and have virtually constituted them masters of the whole Spanish American commerce, under the guarantee of all the Protestant confederates.—This might have proved the high importance of the Protestant confederated interest against Spain; and with relation to France, when they had been deprived of the whole of the Newfoundland fisheries, and the sugar colonies, and all the neutral islands, what injury could they have ever after been able to do to any of the Protestant powers in Europe, while the same commercial confederacy subsisted, as it was proposed to have always done? They could not have dared to have maltreated the least respectable Protestant state in Europe, the confederacy rendering every individual as powerful as the whole.

Moreover, those states would, doubtless, have had DUNKIRK absolutely demolished and razed to the ground, and all the BARRIER TOWNS put into Protestant hands, and effectually upheld and maintained at the joint charge of the whole Protestant confederacy, and not supported in such a scandalous condition as they have been between a Catholic and a Protestant state, whose interests are ever incompatible. Had this taken place, what future danger could the Protestant interest have been in as well in Europe as America, when Austrian no less than French Flanders had been at the mercy of the Protestant confederates? Could France and the house of Austria have ever more been able to have waged wars in Germany, provided a *potent barrier Protestant sovereign* had been settled in the Austrian Netherland, as was further proposed by the new Protestant System, by the consent of the confederates? Need Great Britain, or the States General, or his Prussian majesty,

majesty, Sweden or Denmark, or our sovereign's GERMAN DOMINIONS been longer in danger; or this nation obliged to expend more money on the continent to prevent wars there with Catholic states?

Or, if a powerful protestant barrier prince had not been judged eligible to have been settled, by the consent of the confederates, in Austrian Flanders, and duly supported and guaranteed by them, the States General of the United Provinces might have more naturally, perhaps, had their dominions extended thither, and they have undertaken to have maintained the Protestant barrier against the houses of Bourbon and Austria, under the permanent support and maintenance of all the Protestant confederates: that is to say, that the said confederacy being presumed to be perpetual, that whenever the Protestant barrier should have been attacked, the active union should instantly take place, to withstand such attack, and the quota of each confederate being stipulated in the alliance, it might have rendered the barrier impregnable: and Dunkirk being absolutely demolished, French Flanders would be open to the penetration of the confederates on one side, and the Austrian dominions on the other. For, as soon as the tranquillity of the barrier state had been disturbed, the confederates would have instantly taken the alarm; Great Britain might, in conjunction with the States General, immediately have had forty or fifty, or even one hundred fail of men of war ready, with a competent military force, ready encamped in the Isle of Wight, to have poured into French Flanders, and prevented the junction of France and Austria, by ravaging all the coasts of France. On the other side, the Protestant confederates also would have been prepared to have kept the House of Austria in due subjection, and hereby have maintained the peace of Germany. This, however, was the writer's plan, and the design of the new confederacy; and whether the same might not have been to improved upon by the joint wisdom of the confederates, is humbly submitted to those who are judges of it, from the sketch exhibited.

But it did not end here. It was extended to Africa no less than Asia, as well as America and Europe, wherein such a confederacy might have been rendered successfully formidable to any Catholic compact that could have been formed against it. The design, in a word, was so devised as to have preserved the tranquillity of Europe in all probability far more durably than it ever had been before, and would have lowered the crest of all opposers to as great a degree, perhaps, as might have been found requisite.

The reader will please to observe, that this new system at the beginning of the war was bottomed upon the prevailing sentiment, that Great Britain did not stand in need of any extraordinary addition of territory, if that share of which she was possessed had been made the best use of. As it has so fallen out, that we have obtained a far greater share of valuable territory than was ever before thought necessary, we have seen the foundation that is laid to reimburse us the great expence we have been at to gain it: and it is wisdom to make the best advantage we can of it.

The writer had taken no notice of the former proposed foreign confederacy at this time, did he not conceive, that if another rupture should take place between this kingdom and the Catholic states, this plan might either in part, or in the whole, be adopted. Should the FAMILY COMPACT extend itself to a far greater degree than we may at present be apprized of, we have seen in what manner it may be effectually matched for the benefit of the Protestant cause. And a Protestant commercial confederacy might, perhaps, stand a fairer chance for greater success, than they could have done in the last war, had it then taken effect; seeing Great Britain is at present so happily situated in America to act offensively for the benefit of the confederates; and such being more likely to be benefited by their alliance with Great Britain than the latter with them, their interest might probably prompt them cheerfully to enter into such alliance, to enlarge their commerce and territory, if the same should be properly represented to them.

Another principle whereon the Protestant confederacy was grounded, was that of its being unnatural for any Protestant state whatever to league with a Catholic one.

There have been no more inveterate animosities between states, than those which have sprung from the differences of religion; the present necessity may, indeed, dissemble them, but it is scarce possible that time should not discover them; and how is it to be imagined that amity can ever be maintained between them, when the one cannot trust the other? When the ruin of this is the interest of that? Confederacy with those of a different religion is lawful, when its end is the intermission of war and liberty of commerce, such as that was which Isaac made with Abimelech. 'Tis the well known maxims of Popish states, that no obligations are to be kept with Heretics, as they stile all Protestants. Hence has the Gallica fides towards England and other protestant potentates become proverbial.

In the reign of Charles II. there was a tract published, entitled Christianissimus Christianandus, in which the author endeavoured to prove, that the most Christian king was himself void of all the common principles of Christianity; and this very treatise was encouraged to be printed by Lord Danby, then Lord Treasurer; yet this very treasurer suddenly changed sentiments, and by his councils, his master in the closet formed a most dangerous alliance with that crown. We never gained any advantage by leaguings with that nation, as we experienced also when we allied with them in consequence of the treaty of Hanover in the year 1725; for when Gibraltar was attacked by the Spaniards, they gave us no manner of assistance. How we have suffered by our alliances with the house of Austria, let our national debts declare. Nor did they give us any sort of assistance at that time, though we were put to a great expence to prevent the consequences of the treaty of Vienna, notwithstanding the Spaniards seized the effects of the South Sea company, to a very great value, at La Vera Cruz, and took our merchants ships at sea.

Our former alliances even with Protestant powers having never been devised upon the principles of the New System, were never of any great advantage either to Great Britain or her allies. They were grounded upon temporary, subsidiary or auxiliary treaties only. Had they, on the contrary, been bottomed upon commercial and territorial acquisitions, the tranquillity of Europe might have been of far longer duration than it usually has; for such interesting ties and inducements would have made the confederates more faithful to each other than ever they were, it being once resolved that every commercial advantage they could obtain by war should never be given up at a peace. Our former alliances have only proved a rope of sand, being left always of a very vague and precarious nature, and never calculated but as temporary expedients to answer merely the present purpose. The New System we see was quite otherwise projected.

If any thing of the kind here planned should ever take place amongst the Protestant states, it will be first preventively necessary to secure their mutual safety in Europe, before they turn their eyes on the enlargement of their trade and territories in America, or elsewhere. To contribute to that, Great Britain would advance her reasonable quota of expence cheerfully, and certainly could be more assisting therein, by the aid of her maritime force, than by exhausting herself by any continental expence: so that if it again should become necessary to oppose continental measures, the other powers most likely to suffer thereby ought to take care of that matter for their own sakes; or, be the consequence as it might, Great Britain will be obliged to take care of herself and her British territories, and not intermeddle with the continent, if those who are more nearly concerned do not think proper to do so. If the rest of the Protestant states will neglect their own safety, they can never again expect support from this nation, be the consequence in regard to the king's German dominions what it may. For by dint of our maritime power, we shall be in a condition to oblige any Catholic state to restore them again to the elector, his Britannic majesty, though the Germanic body and constitution would hardly suffer them

to be wrested out of our monarch's hands, while they should embrace a neutrality, if the rest of the Protestant states themselves shall chuse to prefer a state of inaction upon such an occasion.

Should a GENERAL PROTESTANT COMMERCIAL CONFEDERACY be thought uneligible or impracticable at first, the next point that may concern Britain to consider with respect to alliance, will be, whether that of a commercial one with the States General of the United Provinces might take place, such having been ever judged a natural alliance preservative of both powers. And is there no way to bring this about? If, indeed, it is not in the power of Britain to make it as much for the commercial interest of Holland to engage offensively in conjunction with her against any Catholic state, it will be in vain to expect them to relinquish their neutrality as well hereafter as they have done heretofore. Unless, we say, the States General can be thoroughly convinced of this, they cannot be expected to break with France or any other power by whom they will gain more advantage by their neutrality. Should Britain, therefore, think at all of any offensive alliance in case of a future rupture with France, &c. and Holland be thought of for the purpose, it seems to be in our power to offer the United Provinces terms that they may probably accept.

The fisheries of Holland are justly esteemed by the Dutch as more valuable than mines of gold. They were the first rise of that republic, and have been the grand prop and support of their commerce and navigation. The most estimable of all their fisheries is their herring fisheries, which the Dutch carry on upon the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland. Sir Walter Raleigh informed king James, that the Dutch fished on the coast of Great Britain with no less than 3000 ships and 50,000 men, and that they employed and set to sea, to transport and sell the fish so taken, and to make returns thereof, 9000 ships more, and 150,000 men besides: and, if we hereunto add what he says further, viz. that twenty buffes maintain 8000 people, and that the Hollanders had in the year 1618 no less than 20,000 ships at sea, as also their fishing, navigation and traffic by sea, with its dependencies, since that time to the year 1667, increased to one-third more; if this be so, we may then easily conclude, he observes, that the sea is a special means of Holland's subsistence, seeing Holland by this means alone yields, by its own industry, above 300,000 lasts of salt fish.

The French too make great advantage by the herring fishery on the coasts of Britain and Ireland. When the French king was moved, in the wars of queen Anne, to admit the Dutch and English fishing boats into Dieppe, Dunkirk, St. Vallery, and other ports, with their herrings, the king answered, *NO! BY NO MEANS: IF MY PEOPLE WILL HAVE HERRINGS, WHY DO THEY NOT CATCH THEM, AS THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH DO?* Upon which, the merchants of those parts immediately fitted out vessels, and took herrings sufficient for all the country, and have continued to do so ever since upon our coasts.

There is no treaty subsisting between Great Britain and the United Provinces that grants the Dutch the privilege of fishing on our coasts, neither is there any that grants the French that privilege; they both enjoy this liberty only as a matter of favour and indulgence, and not as a matter of right, as is shown under our article Fisheries.

Now, as neither of the subjects of either of those powers have any such right by treaty; be it supposed, that in order to lay the foundation between Great Britain and the United Provinces, for a better PROTESTANT COMMERCIAL CONFEDERACY, it was proposed by this nation to grant by TREATY, amongst other commercial articles to be stipulated between the contracting parties, the subjects of the UNITED PROVINCES THE FULL LIBERTY OF FISHING ON THE COASTS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, in the same manner as is done to the subjects of his Britannic majesty, without being liable to any molestation.

II. That the subjects of France, or any other power, shall be EXCLUDED from carrying on the said fisheries upon the coasts of Britain and Ireland, and the subjects of all other powers, unless those who shall be invited and accede to this Protestant commercial alliance.

III. That the subjects of the United Provinces shall be intitled to the right of fishing on the coasts of NEW-FOUNDLAND; and that the subjects of France, and of all other states, shall be for ever EXCLUDED from the Newfoundland fisheries, unless those who shall be invited and accede to this commercial alliance.

IV. That this alliance shall be extended to what other branches of their fisheries the contracting parties shall judge proper, and also the subjects of those powers who shall accede hereto.

V. That this alliance may be also extended for the mutual protection of the commerce and territories, both offensively as well as defensively, of the contracting parties, in all parts of the world, and all other Protestant states who shall be invited and accede to it.

VI. That this alliance shall subsist in time of PEACE, as well as WAR; and that in times of war, the quotas chosen to be stipulated by the several contracting parties, shall be explicitly agreed on to act offensively or defensively.

VII. That the several parties to this alliance shall have the privilege to BORROW ANY SUM OR SUMS OF MONEY IN THE DOMINIONS OF EACH OTHER, to enable them to advance their respective quotas at ——— per cent. interest.

VIII. That it be agreed, that all COMMERCE OR TERRITORY the allies shall be able to take from their enemy or enemies, shall be DIVIDED AMONGST THEM AS EQUITABLY AS POSSIBLE, according to the proportion of the expence which they have been at jointly with the rest.

IX. That the EVENTUAL TERRITORIES taken from the enemy shall be a special SECURITY to the LENDING PARTIES in the several states, and that the whole confederacy shall be a COLLATERAL SECURITY for all such sums of money that shall be borrowed for the purpose of annoying and distressing their common enemies.

X. That no Catholic state whatever shall be admitted to accede to this Protestant commercial alliance.

XI. That no new acquired territory shall be given up at the end of the war.

XII. That this alliance be PERPETUAL, and shall exist as well in time of PEACE AS WAR, and shall be further cemented by such stipulations as shall be judged necessary by the contracting parties.

XIII. That no TREATIES OR ALLIANCES shall be entered into by any of the confederates without COMMUNICATING THE SAME TO THE REST, for their consent and approbation; and without their unanimous consent, no treaty or alliance either between themselves or with any Catholic state shall be entered into.

These will serve as a sketch of the outlines of this new Protestant alliance to counteract the FAMILY COMPACT made amongst the Catholic states, to preserve peace, and to extend the commerce and navigation of all the Protestant states.

Without entering into a further detail of other stipulations for the PERPETUATION OF THE PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, and for the common security of their trade and territories, and for the extension thereof, the writer judges that he has intimated sufficient to convey the general idea of his intention, leaving any additions or amendments thereto to the wisdom of those who may think the future preservation of the Protestant interest against the FAMILY COMPACT, &c. merits attention.

It will be naturally observed, that the proposed commercial alliance between Great Britain and the United Provinces, may be made to terminate in a grand general Protestant commercial alliance, as before shewn.

The writer being of opinion, that it is unnatural for Protestant states to ally with Catholic ones, has restrained what he has humbly submitted to the former; the latter having already entered into a compact, that may make such a counter-alliance sooner necessary than many may be inclined at present to conceive. Wherefore, he apprehends the time of peace is the proper time to ruminate on what may be done to preserve the tranquillity longer than has been hitherto the case of Europe.

Notwithstanding the United Provinces, during the two last wars, have not been induced to relinquish their neutrality, and join with Britain offensively against her enemies; yet it is not improbable that the time may soon arrive, when the States General may possibly be glad to ally both offensively and defensively with this nation. For the United Provinces are situated between two fires; and they may, perhaps, one day be attacked on the one side by a warlike monarch, as well as by France and her allies on the other: in such case, on whom can the States depend for protection but their old friends Great Britain? who, let them remember, have sacrificed many advantages on their account, since the treaty of Utrecht, which ought to wipe off any ill impression which that treaty justly made on them. And if this nation shows a due regard, without injury to herself, to promote the commercial interest of the United Provinces, something in the manner that has been shown, it may contribute to revive and cement that ancient friendship that ever ought to have subsisted between these maritime powers, for their mutual benefit.

Being upon the topic of commercial union, it is no way repugnant to our subject just to mention that of Ireland with Great Britain, which is not less desirable than that with her colonies and plantations.

The great obstacle hereto has been that of Britain's public debts and taxes; and while these shall remain to the degree they are, 'tis no wonder that should be ever despaired of. Whereas, were they duly diminished, that Ireland might be induced to acquiesce and solicit this kingdom for such union, that she might be exempt from those restraints in trade to which she is liable, it would contribute to their mutual emolument, by taking that share of trade out of the hands of our rivals, which we of this nation are not able to do at present, or rather to put both nations on a level in trade. Wherefore, ought not this to be a further motive to us to try every possible measure to accomplish that desirable end? For the advantages thereby arising to Ireland, would in a great measure center in Britain, and add to the enrichment and strength of the united empire.

To lessen the public debts and taxes, we have shown in the former discourse the indispensable necessity of, as well to promote and extend the further commercial union between this kingdom and her plantations, as between us and Ireland. For when we shall be able to sell our manufactures cheaper to our colonists, they will the more readily decline every species of smuggling therein; in which case, they will take larger quantities of British manufactures; which will enable us to give them greater encouragement to supply us with every species of material, and every kind of production that they shall be capable to raise.

In order to advance these several commercial unions which we recommend, there is another kind of union that seems to be the source, and indeed the grand basis of all the rest: we mean a union between those BRITISH PERSONAGES WHO ARE LIKELY TO BE THE RULERS OF THE STATE, under his majesty's gracious choice and authority. This is a union at home amongst ourselves, of which we highly stand in need; and which to our grief be it said, that the best of sovereigns has not enjoyed to his desirable content ever since his reign, except just at the commencement of it. To what causes can this be attributed? 'Tis much to be feared, that our late divisions, distractions and animosities, that have subsisted amongst the great people, have been owing to his majesty's having in his power too many favours to bestow. This may be a greater misfortune possibly to the best and wisest of princes, in a free state, than is commonly considered; for if a monarch has less to bestow, he may have less solicitations for his liberality, and consequently there will be less struggling for the loaves and fishes, than where he has more to give by lucrative places and pensions. This creates jealousies and envy, and at length invidious cabals and intrigues amongst the great folks, to supplant each other in the favour of their sovereign.

Another reason of those dissensions may be, that the road to posts of trust, profit and honour, hath not always been made so respectable as could be wished; for when the prince is eternally distracted with those personal intrigues, to gain them, it is impossible for the best intentioned monarch always to bestow them upon the most deserving and the most meritorious objects; whereby, oftentimes, the greatest places have been wrested out of the prince's hands by objects the least deserving of them. Whereas, were there much fewer very profitable places in the gift of the crown, and were those filled only by such personages that had, in the opinion of all wise and good men, earned them by their meritorious services to the king and kingdom, where is the Briton that would express his displeasure at such choice? Would not the people have reason to confide in the future behaviour of those, whose advancement had been owing solely to their public and private virtues? Would not this render the people ever happy and contented as well as their monarch?

Moreover, by custom, not reason, it is usual, when sovereigns have been, as it were, forced to bestow one great place upon a great bad man, and a very weak man, and this great man shall have in his gift a score, or perhaps many more places belonging to his department, will such a great bad man bestow his subordinate places, by whom the whole of the public business is oftentimes transacted, on good and able men? Will he not, on the contrary, bestow his liberality upon undertrapping wretches of the same kidney with himself? Persons who shall be ready to do every species of dirty work their worthy patron shall put them upon? And will not such people blood-suck the public from secret combination, to aggrandize themselves at the expence of the nation? Will not this make the people feel the oppression of, and magnify every tax-burthen that is levied on them, far more grievously than otherwise they would do? This has been another great source of national discontents.

What can be expected from the sale of places, but the purchasers will make the most of them at the public expence? Has not this rendered the perquisites of offices so exorbitantly great upon the public, that a petty clerk of 100*l.* a year salary, shall out-spend the country gentleman of 500*l. per annum*? Do not all such like burthens fall upon the public, and render every thing dearer and dearer in the kingdom?

Were there much fewer places in the disposal of government, and those for life, bestowed on such only who had done some distinguished public service, the government and the nation would be well served. While also administrations are eternally upon the change, who will accept of places as changeable as those of ministers themselves? The glory and interest of the state being thus made the certain road to preferment, what unspeakable emolument might not the community expect from such policy? The whole nation would then become genuine patriots; nor would the public want a succession of those who should study the public prosperity and happiness.

What a universal emulation to serve the nation would not such conduct in government create throughout the whole British empire; as well within doors as without, when meritorious deeds being made the only way to obtain all places of trust, profit and honour? Instead of our most gracious sovereign being eternally tormented by ministerial changes, cabals and intrigues, the prince would instantly pitch upon such men for his ministers, who had themselves done the greatest public services? And would not such men ever have the voice of the people on their side? Would not such a prince ever attach to himself the hearts and affections of his subjects?

What

What way could be so effectual to unite the king with his people, and the people with his ministers? There is, perhaps, no art of government that could do it to such good purpose, as there is no surer method to extricate the nation out of every difficulty, as soon as any was seen growing. Instead of ministers being everlastingly on the stretch to devise new taxes, we should have no occasion for them. Every head would then be at work to abolish most of the old ones, which we should soon be able to do, if due rewards and honours were sure to attend the doing so.

To bring a design of this kind to the ultimate perfection, every man should print any thing for the public service; and if his majesty made his ministers, who had the most public merit themselves, judges thereof, no private man would be shamefully tricked out of the merit of his own labours by those who had none of their own to boast of. For that, in our happy days, is the common practice of the PRETENDED PATRONS of private persons. And have not many great men made themselves greater by such detestable perfidy, and increased both their honours and estates by such like nefarious practices? Was this the case, private people then need not chance attendance and dependence upon the unworthy. They need only make their intentions public in print, and send them to those, whom the wise and good prince should authorize to examine into their utility, and have their reward accordingly. And such who might not chuse their recompence by places of profit and honour, as might be the case of many advanced in years, should have it in money, for the benefit of their families. What honour would not the minister deserve, who should advise the adoption of such a design for the encouragement of public merit? What ineffable public advantages would not the state derive from such a wise institution? What glory would the prince obtain, who should wisely countenance an establishment of this kind, so as not to be abused? Might not this be instrumental to call forth, or raise numbers of great geni of every class and degree for the national service and splendor? We should not then see men of the first rate understanding buried in obscurity, lamenting their ill treatment received from some SUPERLATIVE SCOUNDREL OF GREAT DIGNITY WITH HIS BORROWED TRAPPINGS, DERIVED FROM THE LABOURS OF THOSE THEY HAVE ABUSED AND DECEIVED.

But while this nation shall be unhappily distracted by party cabals, only from mercenary and ambitious principles, we can never expect that any noble designs will take root in the kingdom.

When discord reigns amongst those who ought to unite for the public service, the consequence is generally no less unhappy for the people than the prince: they will catch the flame of discontent when kindled amongst their superiors; and has not that frequently terminated in insurrections and civil wars? The smallest things increase by concord; by discord the greatest fall to the ground. Those, which being divided, were weak and impotent, when united resist any force whatever. These have been represented in various similitudes. The many-fold cord is not quickly broken. What arm can pull off the horse's main, when the hairs shall be well twisted, or break a bundle of arrows? And yet either of these, of itself, is unable to withstand the least violence. By emblems of this kind, Sertorius and Scilurus, the Scythian, expressed the strength of concord, which of many distinct parts make one united, and consequently strong body. All the works of nature are preserved by amity and concord; and when this fails, they decay and die. What is the cause of death but the prevalence of discord in the human body? The very same happens in commonwealths; as common consent made them a society, so a dissention between the greatest or most powerful part dissolves again, and dissociates, or new models them. This division engenders hatred, whence revenge arises, and from that a disrespect to laws, without the authority of which, justice loses its efficacy; and where that fails, arms are taken up, and intestine wars breaking out, the order of the state, wholly consisting in unity, is confounded. The bees no sooner fall out, but their commonwealth is destroyed. If it has the same effect between citizens, how will they be able to unite for the common defence and interest? Plato used to say, nothing was so pernicious to commonwealths as divisions. Concord is the wall and guard, no less than the ornament of states. Domestic dissentions are so many victories for the enemy, as those formerly of the Britons were to the Romans, *nostris illi dissentionibus, & discordiis clari, vitia hostium in gloriam exercitus sui vertunt*, says Tacitus in vit. Agric. and elsewhere, *conversis ad civile bellum animis, externa sine cura habentur*.

What differs from, and is at variance with itself, must of necessity suffer, and what suffers can never be lasting. Who, when a republic is divided, can keep the flames of dissention within certain bounds? Who will afterwards quench it, when all are involved in them? For these, and such like reasons, ought not discords to be nipped in the bud, and union encouraged in a state? And is not that easily maintained, if none be advanced to places of trust and honour but those who shall have deserved them, as well in the eye of the people as the prince? Where the equal distribution of favours and gratuities are made amongst the meritorious, they will be a true support and aid to the good prince under the greatest difficulty and distress. Under the administration of such a monarch, the whole executive part of government will be faithfully observed; the laws duly obeyed and enforced; the industrious poor duly kept to their honest toil, by the encouragement of trade and commerce, and have corn and provisions cheap and plentiful; the nobility in government employed in arms and useful literature, will discourage and stifle cabals and clandestine meetings to distract the state; the great ones will be kept frugal and modest, and the inferiors peacefully and universally contented; all which will conduce to a greater mediocrity in wealth, and a general poverty prevented amongst the mass of the people. From the reformation and regulating of those things, results good government; and where that is, there peace and concord ever flourish.

There is but one case wherein it seems warrantable to kindle discords in kingdoms; that is, when they are already troubled with seditions and intestine broils; for then to distract them into factions, will be a means to weaken the power of the bad, the only end in that being to render peace to the good. And it is a piece of self-preservation, not to suffer disturbers to be at quiet, in as much as the concord of ill men is to the prejudice of the good; as it is to be wished that these may live peaceably, so it is that those may be in discord; for good men and good subjects always come by the worst, when bad men are united. *Concordia malorum contraria est bonorum, & sicut optandum est, ut boni pacem habeant ad invicem, ita optandum est, ut mali sint discordes. Impeditur enim iter bonorum, si unitas non dividatur malorum.*

When the same thing is done occasionally between ministers, it may have its use; some kind of emulation and diffidence one of another, might make them more attentive to their duty; for if once through a neglect of this, they dissemble and conceal each others faults, or with one consent are suffered to join the pursuit of their own interests, there is as great danger to the prince as to the state, without remedy; in that none can be employed but by their hands. But if a public spirited and generous emulation to serve the nation shall degenerate into aversion and enmity, it will create the same inconveniencies; for they will then be more intent on contradicting and thwarting one another, more solicitous to overthrow each others councils and actions, than to promote the public good and their prince's service. Every one has his friends and creatures, and the common sort of people are apt to be led into factions; whence generally arise tumults and insurrections. For this reason, Drusus and Germanicus joined themselves, lest the flame of dissention kindled in the palace of Tiberius, should be increased by the blast of their favour.

The arts of fowing discord, and procuring the rise of one minister by the fall of others, are too much in use in courts and palaces. They proceed from ambition; for rewards being already divided, and there being no means to introduce new forms but by the corruption of others, they procure it by scandal and violence. Sometimes 'tis the envy of one minister towards another, for some excellent qualifications, endeavouring to prevent his continuance in post where they may become the more conspicuous; or else to ruin the reputation he has already acquired by false and inflammatory accusations: and when he cannot obscure the truth, he sneers, jokes at, and ridicules it, under pretence of a kind of friendship; that losing his credit in things of small concern, he may afterwards gain it in things of greater moment. Such malicious sly tricks are at length ever pernicious to their author. *Perniciem aliis, says Tacitus, ac postremum sibi invenere.* Notwithstanding says the same historian, Lucius Proculus succeeded well, by accusing others—*Ut cuique erat, criminando, quod facillimum factu est, pravus & callidus, bonus & modestus antiebat.* This happens sometimes, when goodness and modesty are so reserved as to live privately, despising the honours and favours of princes, as it befalls those, who, through distrust of their own abilities, are thought unfit for the management of public affairs: such as these, assiduous malice, such as are intent upon gaining men's opinion, easily robs of the due rewards of their virtue. But such artifices fall with the same speed they rise; of which we have numerous examples in history.

Whether this nation may be again upon the brink of a fresh war or no, we cannot be too early in our preparations for it. If our condition shall not require it, for military purposes, such proper preparation may be applied for the redress of other grievances. Occasions do not always happen as we could wish; sometimes it is not in our power to retard or hasten them. It will, therefore, be the part of political prudence to consider, whether it is better to execute our resolutions with leisure or expedition; for that some affairs require speed in their resolutions, others, time and mature consultation; and to offend on either hand, will be to the prejudice of the government. Consideration, when of worse consequence than rashness, is to be avoided. In sudden emergencies, counsels are better snatched than dilatorily deliberated. Whatever time is spent in deliberation, will either overcome the danger, or lose the opportunity. The greatest part of our deliberations are upon things already past, and the counsel comes after the event. Our affairs run with so much swiftness, that counsel must be speedy to pursue them; nay, even that will be too slow, it ought to be in readiness to expect them. Our affairs, which allow time, should be transacted with maturity; for nothing is more opposite to prudence than precipitation. Impetuosity is seldom successful, and examination and attention are confounded by it. Whence it is that hot rash counsels almost always please at first sight; are difficult in the execution; in the event oftentimes grievous, and the persons who suggest them, though they may appear at first daring, yet when they come to execute are at a stand, being embroiled by their own counsels, for haste is blind, and without forecast.

The common people love to see effects before they do causes, and so always condemn slow counsels; yet wise rulers will ever be proof against these murmurings, which, upon success, will ever redound to their glory. Nevertheless, delay must not be so great, as to let slip the opportunity of execution. This is a general error in imprudent counsellors, who, perplexed with the weight of affairs, can neither judge of the danger, nor come to any conclusion; whence they start at the least shadow, and think by these doubts to pass for profound statesmen. They suspend their counsels, till time itself furnish them; and then begin to resolve, when the opportunity is lost. Counsels, therefore, should be ripened, not hurried; for maturity errs neither in excess nor defect of time, either in affairs of peace or war.

We have throughout these preliminary discourses given our humble sentiments, and we hope not without decency, upon what the writer apprehends to be the general cause and cure of the chief of our public grievances; we mean more particularly those relative to our commerce and our finances. He has done it with an honesty, and he flatters himself not with an unbecoming zeal, for the true service of his king and country.

The general system of our money affairs that he has censured, he attributes to no person in being; but he is of opinion, that it cannot be too soon rectified, the prosperity of our whole commercial interest depending upon a wiser regulation of the revenue upon solid commercial principles, not temporary expedients; which has been too much the case of this nation for these fifty years past.

The further commercial union of Great Britain and her colonies upon the principles herein suggested, the writer judges to be a right measure, and that there is a broad bottomed foundation laid to carry the same to a very prosperous extent; which will facilitate a reform in the money system; and the former also expedite the more successful execution of the latter, the one being mutually helpful to the other.

The sketch here given of the new Protestant commercial confederacy, is done with a view to answer the following purposes. 1. To counterbalance the power and strength of any Catholic compact or confederacy, to the disadvantage of the general cause of Protestantism and the liberties of mankind. 2. That as the new conquests annexed by the last peace to the crown of Great Britain, render her more capable than she ever before was to promote the commercial interests of all the Protestant states, she proposes, to be at the head of the said confederacy, to increase their joint interests by adding to their respective territories more for that purpose. 3. That a general confederacy now of all Protestant powers, would prove an overmatch for any confederacy that could be made by the Catholic states to oppose it. 4. That such a kind of Protestant league might be perpetual, and ever ready to unite, for their joint advantage. 5. That such an alliance between Protestant states alone, would not be so liable to be dissolved, as if any Catholic power was united therein. 6. That such a league may be naturally commenced first between Great Britain and the United Provinces, upon the basis of the fisheries. 7. That the United Provinces would discern their commercial advantage to be better and more lastingly advanced by the Protestant confederacy, than by a neutrality in times of war between this kingdom and Popish powers. 8. That it would be more beneficial to the Protestant states than making temporary subsidiary treaties, either with this nation or any Catholic power. 9. That it would render the peace of Europe more lasting than it has generally, if ever been before. 10. That the liberty of the less opulent and powerful Protestant states borrowing money wherewith to supply their quotas of expence, will defeat any objection of inability to accede thereto. 11. That it will prove more likely to advance the trade and increase the territories of any Protestant power who should desire to extend both, or become a maritime state. 12. That Spanish, French and Portuguese America would afford the confederates such acquisitions as would increase the commerce and navigation of them all, wholly at the expence of the Catholic powers, and the more permanent increase of the Protestant interest in the world. 13. That as Great Britain has now a constitutional militia established, fifty or sixty sail of men of war, and transports, with thirty or forty thousand of the confederated Protestant troops encamped at the Isle of Wight, would be able to ravage the coasts of France, and defend those of the Protestant states in Europe. 14. That the confederates, who were the best situated for the purpose, might act in Germany, if needful, on one side, and the States General, in conjunction with them, on the other, with far less additional expence than was ever done before, and with far more success against the houses of Bourbon and Austria. 15. That great advantages are to be gained by a Protestant confederacy,

federacy, as well in Africa, Asia and America, as in Europe, to their mutual interest. 16. That they may greatly increase their commerce amongst each other in virtue of such a confederacy, and that at the expence of their opponents, by retaining all the conquests made. And lastly, that a confederacy of this kind may be made instrumental to keep Great Britain ever after from engaging in the manner she has hitherto done, since the revolution, in wars upon the German continent, and thereby save in future those millions of public debt, and those millions of tax-incumbrances, with which she is at present oppressed.

A commercial confederacy first begun between this kingdom and the United Provinces, might be presumed to terminate in that general Protestant one suggested by the writer at the commencement of the last war; and might, probably, upon another taking place, enable Great Britain to raise the supplies necessary for her quota, WITHIN THE YEAR, and prevent the contraction of any future public debts, or perpetual taxes. This was the writer's great aim in drawing up his GREAT BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM to raise the supplies within the year for the last war, by the aid of this new *foreign Protestant system*. Had this been then done, the nation would have been less in debt than it now is by sixty MILLIONS OF MONEY, and have been less taxed than it is by two millions *per annum* at least.

Indeed, had a general Protestant commercial confederacy taken place at the beginning of the last war; and had they, by means of their united force, made no more conquests than they did, and stipulated amongst themselves not to have given any territories up which they had taken from the enemies, not only Great Britain, but every other Protestant ally, would have been greatly advantaged, as might easily be made appear by their possession of the Havanna amongst the confederates.

But although that has not proved the case, by the Protestant confederacy being adopted, the nation may possibly be compelled to embrace it, should another war soon take place. Should then such a confederacy take place, it might, and most certainly would be productive of unspeakably commercial advantages to the whole Protestant interest, as will be easily discerned, by any one, who has duly attended to what has been urged upon that head already, without saying more.

The advantages resulting to Protestant nations in general from so extensive a confederacy, will hardly be denied by men of impartiality; but it is to be apprehended, that too many sovereigns, imagining they shall thereby be rescinded from the imperious pleasures of disturbing the tranquillity of human kind, so frequently as they could wish to do, and of wasting the blood and treasure of their subjects to satisfy sanguinary resentments, and of acquiring of false glory by filling the world with terror and desolation, may renounce the calmer means of rendering their subjects happy, where peace and abundance would long accompany their footsteps.

Whatever may be the inclinations of princes, it is more to be dreaded, that ministers will exert every effort to disappoint such a plan for the future tranquillity of Europe; because, by removing the causes of after contention, they may lose the power of working on the passions of princes, and nothing remaining to be pursued but the public interest, can no longer acquire that powerful ascendancy over them, which is generally obtained by daring to injure their native country, in obedience to the destructive inclinations of their masters; and which bear them on into immense riches and distinguished honours, for actions to which, in the eye of justice, the most ignominious deaths are only due.

It is not unnatural to think, that the military exploits of the Greeks and Romans being rendered more illustrious by the writers of those nations than their legislative institutions, have, in a great measure, contributed to stamp on the deeds of arms, a superior worth to that of legislation and sound policy, and particularly on the minds of princes; but were it reflected on, how much the genius of a legislator is superior to that of the most consummate general, how much more arduous the task of planning and perfecting government, is than that of defeating armies, that intellect and virtue can alone be equal to the former, and casualty may, and frequently does, give victory to inferior understandings and vicious hearts: was this duly considered, sovereigns might be induced to relinquish the clamorous joy of triumph from the silent and self-approving enjoyment of spreading happiness for many years on millions, and by that means the ambition of writing their renown in blood on half the plains of Europe, might yield to the long continuance of peace, by a wise establishment thereof by the means proposed.

Would it not redound more eminently to a sovereign's immortal fame, to have it inscribed on his tomb, Here lies the prince who first exerted himself in establishing a GENERAL PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, by which all Europe was rendered happier? than to have a sumptuous monument, adorned with trophies, and all the military instruments of death, embellished with pompous inscriptions of thousands slain, cities ransacked, kingdoms laid waste, and empires ruined? Millions unborn; at the hour of those eternal military achievements, have since deplored the ruin which was brought upon them by the loss of those fathers who fell in victory; millions to come shall feel the bliss and blest that Protestant power which gave long rest and happiness to mankind in general, and tied the hands of the sanguinary powers of popery to root heretics from the face of the earth. The latter resemble the supreme parent, the former the implacable destroyer of man.

Happy will be that PROTESTANT POTENTATE, who shall first endeavour at the execution of a design of this kind; and when so many sovereigns, friends to the felicity and the liberties of mankind in general, shall unite in a congress for the UNSHAKEN ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PROTESTANT INTEREST IN THE WORLD; we may imagine that our present wife and beloved British prince would cheerfully be the foremost in promoting this universal happiness and long tranquillity, in freeing the subjects of all Protestant states from being eternally liable to be involved in cares, imposts and oppression, in contributing to extinguish for many years the rage of war, and profusion of national treasure, in acquiring immortal glory by acts of public virtue, and delivering down a more permanent felicity to a people who may have reason to bless him through many succeeding generations.

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T H E

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

O F

TRADE and COMMERCE, &c.

A.

A A M

A B A

A, The first letter of the alphabet, not only in the English, but most other languages. Merchants, bankers, and book-keepers use it, either alone, or followed by some other initial letters, as an abridgment of certain terms in trade for saving time, and room in their journals, and other books of account. Being set alone, after mentioning a bill of exchange, A stands for accepted; in French accounts A. S. P. signifies, 'accepté sous protest, i. e. accepted under protest.' A. S. P. C. 'accepté sous protest, pour mettre à compte; i. e. accepted under protest, to be placed to account.' A. P. signifies to protest. Merchants commonly distinguish their sets of accounts by the letters A, B, C, &c. which answers the end of No. 1, 2, 3, &c. in order to refer by these letters, from new sets of books to the old, to certain articles which had their rise in the preceding books.

AAGGI-DOGGII, a Persian word, signifying 'The bitter mountain.' It is so called, on account of being a very dangerous passage for the trading caravans, which travel into Persia, and take their route of Constantinople to Ispahan. It is situated a day's journey from Louri, on the frontiers of Persia, near Chauqueu.

When these caravans are arrived at the pass of this mountain, all the camels and horses are numbered, for each of which the caravan-bachi takes a duty, which he employs partly for the pay of soldiers that guard the caravans, and partly for other small charges: but he detains the greatest part for himself.

AAM, or **HAAM**, is a measure of 4 ankers, or 2 stekans, or 32 mingles, the mingle being of 2 pints of the measure of Paris. 6 Aams make one ton of 4 hogheads of Bourdeaux, each hoghead making at Amsterdam 12 stekans, and 50 stekans the ton, or 800 mingles of wine and lees; which amount to 1600 pints of Paris, and consequently the aam contains about 250 to 260 pints of Paris.

The aam is also a measure which the Dutch use generally in the seven united provinces of the Low Countries; it agrees to that of the hoghead, barrel, or ton, provided the contents of each of these vessels be 128 mingles, which is a Dutch measure also, used for liquids, and which weighs about 36 ounces avoir-dupois.

The Bourdeaux and Rhenish wines, brandies, and the different sorts of oils, are sold in the same provinces by the aam. Mr. Savary is mistaken in saying, that the mingle makes two pints of Paris measure, it making only one pint, and about $\frac{1}{2}$. His error was occasioned by Ricard's Treatise of the trade of Amsterdam, which he made use of, where in page 19 it is said, that it is divided into two pints. Mr. Ricard, not having explained what pint he meant, occasions foreigners to mistake him; it is the English pint that he intended, which makes a little more than the half pint of Paris, whose difference is not above half an ounce; for the Paris pint, filled with common water, weighs 31 ounces, and that of England

16 ounces. According to this, the aam, filled with common water, weighs 288 pounds, and makes of Paris pints 148 $\frac{2}{3}$, and not 250, to 260, as Mr. Savary says: it makes in English pints the same number as that of pounds, viz. 288 pints, the English pint of water being a pound.

From hence it is plain, that the mingle makes more than two English pints, by about four ounces; but retail traders in the same provinces make use of the division of two pints, as Monf. Ricard says, by way of obtaining good measure.

Lastly, the aam of oil, among the retail traders, is reckoned no more than 120 mingles, by reason of the waste to which it is liable.

ABACA, a kind of flax or hemp, gathered in some of the Manillas or Philippine islands.

There are two sorts of it, the white and the grey. This plant is a sort of Indian plantane, which is sown every year, and, being gathered, it is steeped in water, and beaten as hemp is. The white abaca serves for making very fine linnen; but the grey is employed for nothing but cordage.

ABAGI. See **ABASSI**.

The abagi (which seems to be the same thing as the abassi, although of different value) is worth at Teflis, and throughout all Georgia, about 36 sols French money; four chaouris, which are also called sains, make one abagi. An ufalton is worth half an abagi, or two chaouris. Forty aspers, or carbequis, make one abagi. Finally, the sequin of Venice is worth six abagis, or three chaouris.

ABASSI, a silver coin in Persia, in figure and size very much like the ancient pieces of fifteen sols in France. The abassi takes its name from Shah-Abas II. king of Persia, who ordered the coinage of it. It has on one side, for legend, the profession of the Mahometan faith, 'There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet;' and on the other the king's name, and that of the city where it was coined.

This coin, which has a great currency in Persia, is worth two mammoudis or four chayas; the chaye being estimated at the rate of nine sols six deniers of French money, makes the abassi worth thirty-eight sols, or seventeen sols of Holland. They have also pieces of five abassis, in value nine livres, and from twelve to thirteen French sols; and likewise pieces of two abassis, which are in value one half of the former. Of these they coin but few, and they are scarce current in commerce, being commonly accounted a sort of pocket-pieces. The pieces of five abassis are round, a little thicker and larger than a French crown, and the half of these in proportion.

In trade, both at Ispahan and in the rest of Persia, the silver coin passes by weight, not by tale: the bags contain 50 to-mans, which make 2500 abassis: they are weighed by weights of one toman, or fifty abassis each. If they suspect that there are any light or counterfeit pieces, they discover them by weighing 25 of them against 25, and so on.

ABATELEMENT, a term used by the French in the ports of the Levant, signifying a sentence of the consul, which imports a prohibition of commerce to all merchants and traders of the French nation, who will not stand to their bargains, or who refuse to pay their debts. This prohibition is so severe, that those against whom it is issued, are not suffered to sue any person for the payment of their debts, till they have made satisfaction, according to the consul's sentence, and have got the abatement taken off, by the execution of its full contents.

ABATEMENT, otherwise **REBATE**, a term in use among traders, for a discount or abatement in the price of certain commodities, when the buyer advances the sum directly, for which he might have taken time.

As traders are not always inclined to pay ready money, an abatement or deduction of so much per cent. per ann. has been devised to induce them thereto, that they may take the advantage of the customary discount.

'Tis also the practice of several great trading companies in foreign countries, to allow discount for payment of ready money, and of that of the English East-India company in particular, to allow 6 per cent. to the buyer for prompt payment, as it is termed.

ABATEMENT. It sometimes happens, that goods upon delivery at the custom-house are found to have received damage. In this case, the surveyor and landwater are to make their report on the back of the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers; who are then to chuse two indifferent and experienced merchants to view the goods, and upon oath to determine the quantum of the damage. Then the surveyor and landwater certify, that the goods viewed by the merchants are the same for which duty was paid: whereupon a certificate of the whole proceedings is made out, and a proportional abatement of the duty is made, and repaid to the merchant upon his signing the receipt.

ABB, so the clothiers call the yarn of a weaver's warp. They also say abb-wool in the same sense.

ABBAASIES, a silver coin current in Persia. See **ABASSI**.

ABEL-MOSC, which the French call ambrette, or graine de musc, (musk-seed) is the seed of a plant growing in Egypt, and in the Antille islands, having greenish and velvet leaves, very much resembling those of the marsh-mallows; for which reason the modern botanists have given it the name of the velvet marsh-mallow of the Indies. The seed is scarce bigger than a very large pin's head, formed like a small kidney, of a greyish colour, and, as it were, shagreened on the upper side, of a scent like a compound of amber and musk. Its principal use is in the composition of some perfumes, with which it is difficult to incorporate, without knowing how to manage it. The Italian perfumers use a great deal of it; and in France the nuns and pater-noster makers use it to make chaplets, or bead-frings. This plant is stiled by Monsieur Tournefort, 'ketmia Ægyptiaca, semine moschato, Ægyptian ketmia, with seeds smelling like musk;' and the ingenious Mr. Miller (Gardener's Dictionary) observes, that it is commonly called musk-seed in the West-Indies.

The ambrette of Martinico is the best of all. It ought to be chosen new, plump, dry, neat, and of a good scent.

ABERDEENSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the south with part of Angus and Merns, or rather with the river Dee and the Grandbain mountains; with part of Bamf on the north-west; part of Murray on the north; the German ocean on the east; and the river Spey and part of Badenoch on the west. The chief places of trade in Aberdeenshire are,

1. **ABERDEEN**, one of the principal cities in this shire; there are two towns or cities of that name, the old and the new; the old lies about a mile northward from the new, and is situated in the mouth of the river Don, which is remarkable for its extraordinary plenty of salmon and perch.

2. **NEW ABERDEEN** is situated at the mouth of the river Dee. It exceeds all the cities in the north of Scotland for largeness and beauty. It stands in a fine air, and has a great revenue arising from its salmon fishery. The adjoining sea not only furnishes them with plenty of fish, but reproaches them with their negligence, when they see the Dutch fleets perpetually fishing on their coasts, to very great advantage: but it has been till lately the humour of the inhabitants to apply themselves chiefly to the salmon-fishing, and to neglect that of all other sorts.

The quantity of salmon and perch, taken in both rivers, is a kind of prodigy. The proprietors are united into a company, there being so many shares, of which no person can enjoy above one at a time. The profits are very considerable, the salmon being sent abroad into different parts of the world, particularly into England, France, the Baltic, and several other parts.

The herring-fishing is a common blessing to all this shore of Scotland, and is like the treasure of the Indies at their door, were it properly used by the Scots in general: by this, however, the merchants of Aberdeen are enabled to carry on a trade to Dantzick and Koningberg, Riga and Narva, Wybourg and Stockholm.

They have also a very good manufacture of linnen, and worsted stockings, which they send to England in great quantities. They make some so fine as to be sold from 14 to 30

shillings a pair. They also send them over to Holland, and into the north and east seas, in great quantities; yet the poor who knit them, if they get two pence sterling a day, think they make a good day's work.

They have a great exportation of pickled pork, packed up in barrels, which they send chiefly to the Dutch for victualing their East-India ships, and their men of war, the Aberdeen pork having the reputation of being the best cured, for keeping on long voyages, of any in Europe.

They also export corn and meal; but they generally bring it from the Firth of Murray, or Cromarty, the corn coming from about Inverness, where they have great plenty.

The people of Aberdeen are indeed universal merchants, so far as the trade of the northern part of the world will extend; and it may be justly esteemed the third city in Scotland; that is to say, next after Edinburgh and Glasgow.

3. **PETERHEAD**, in this shire, on the south side of the water of Ugie, is a sea-port of considerable trade, and has a bay or road that will contain 100 sail of ships with good riding in 8 or 9 fathoms. 'Tis high water here when the moon is directly fourth.

4. **STRATHBOGY**, in this shire, is fruitful in corn and pasture, has black cattle, sheep, and horses for exportation; and is remarkable for its fine linnen yarn, spun here by the women, and sold to the merchants.

R E M A R K S.

The trade of Scotland, particularly the linnen manufacture, being at a very low ebb, before the year 1725, the royal boroughs, who are the guardians of the trade of Scotland, took under their consideration the state of their trade and manufactures, in their general annual convention, held at Edinburgh, in July 1725, and in several subsequent meetings of their grand annual committee in that year.

The society also for the improvement of agriculture, and many persons well skilled in trade and manufactures, formed proposals and schemes for encouraging the manufactures and fisheries: the result of which was, that, in their meeting of February 1725-6, they resolved to address his majesty, to have the monies, settled by law for the encouraging of their manufactures applied for that purpose, in such a manner, as that all misapplication might be prevented.

The effect of this was, that his late majesty was graciously pleased to write the following letter to the royal boroughs, which was presented to the convention by his majesty's advocate, upon the 6th of July 1726, and has had very happy consequences in regard to their manufactures in general ever since.

Superscribed **GEORGE R.**

Trusty and well beloved, we greet you well. We having observed, that the several sums of money reserved and provided by the treaty of union, and by divers acts of parliament, to be employed for the improvement of fisheries and manufactures in Scotland, have not hitherto been applied to the uses for which they were intended; principally, because no particular plan or method hath been concerted, directing the manner in which these sums should be applied for the said purposes. And being desirous to remove that hindrance, as speedily as may be, we have thought good to recommend to you, that, at your first general meeting in the month of July next, you do take into your consideration the state of the said fisheries and manufactures, and of the monies provided for encouraging the same; and that by yourselves, or by committees of your number, you do devise and propose the particular methods, rules, and regulations, which to you shall seem the most proper, for the application of the said sums towards the encouraging and promoting fisheries, and such other manufactures and improvements in Scotland, as shall most conduce to the general good of the united kingdoms; and that you do return to us the propositions in which you shall have agreed, to the end, that, upon due consideration thereof, a certain method may be settled for the application and management of these sums for the future. The welfare of our loving people of Scotland, and the prosperity of the royal boroughs, is so much concerned in what we recommend to you, that we doubt not you will go on in the execution of what is expected from you, with the utmost diligence, unanimity, and impartiality: and, on our part, we assure you of our countenance and encouragement in what you shall propose for the real good of your country, consistent with the general interest of our united kingdom, &c.

HOLLIS NEWCASTLE.

In consequence of this letter from the throne, the convention agreed upon an answer, wherein they expressed their joy and gratitude to his majesty, for his tender concern for the welfare of Scotland; which filled the hearts of the most knowing people, with great gratitude and loyalty, and animated them zealously to exert themselves to obtain several acts of parliament for regulating their linnen manufacture, and promoting the fisheries in general of this part of the united kingdom. And, since this period of time, the linnen manufactures of Scotland have arose to a very extraordinary perfection; and 'tis now to be most ardently wished and desired,

fired, that their fisheries will meet with such success and prosperity, as to employ numberless of the distressed poor, and prove as good a nursery for our British seamen as the coal trade has been.

The reason for taking notice of his late majesty's regard to the improvement of the Scots manufactures and fisheries, is with a view to observe, what great and happy effects proceed from proper encouragement being given by authority to any particular branch of trade. The commissioners and trustees appointed in Scotland, in consequence hereof, for the care of their trade, were so affected with his majesty's tender concern for their prosperity, that they bestowed their time and attendance upon the service of the public, without fee or reward. Their meetings were frequent and regular. Every sedentary manifested, that their service was of great use and importance to their country, by contributing greatly to advance the improvement and extension of their fisheries and manufactures of every kind. Numberless letters were received by their secretary from every corner of their country, for the solution of doubts and questions, and as petitions and applications for encouragement of various kinds upon different branches of trade; also memorials and complaints of abuses, defects, slovenly and unprofitable practices in the management of many parts of their manufacture, and proposals of improvements, and of the most frugal and expeditious methods of carrying on several branches of trade to the best advantage. These the commissioners duly weighed, and gave full satisfaction thereto by regular answers, according to the best information they could possibly receive. And such have been the good effects of this correspondence, and zeal for the interest of trade since, that we may truly say, that the whole face of Scotland is changed. But, under the head of Scotland, we shall represent the general state of the trade of that part of the united kingdom, as we shall the particular branches carried on in the several shires or counties.

ABLAQUE, as la foye Ablaque, or Ablaque silk, is the Ardashine silk, which comes from Persia by the way of Smyrna. It is very beautiful, and hardly inferior in fineness to the Sourbafis. It is but little used, however, in the manufactures of silk stuffs made at Lyons and Tours, because it will not bear hot water in the winding. The French have given it the name of Ablaque silk.

ABORTIVE VELLUM, is made of the skin of an abortive calf. See **VELLUM**.

ABOUCOUCHOU, a sort of woollen cloth made in France, particularly in Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphine, designed for Egypt. See the article **CLOTH**, where mention is made of those that are sent to the Levant by the way of Marseilles.

ABRA, a silver coin in Poland, worth from 24 to 25 French sols. The abra is current at Constantinople, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seignior: it is received there upon the foot of one fourth of the asiani, or Holland's dollar. See **ASLANI**.

ABRIDGMENT, a summary or contraction of a writing, &c. wherein the less material things being omitted, or more briefly mentioned, the whole is brought into a lesser compass.

ABROHANI, or **MALLEMOLLE**, the name of a certain muslin, or clear, white, fine cotton-cloth, brought from the East Indies, and particularly from Bengal, being in length 16 French ells and 3 quarters, and in breadth five eighths.

ABRUZZO, a province in the kingdom of Naples in Italy. It is divided into two parts; the one called the Farther Abruzzo, the other the Nigher Abruzzo. The former of these is bounded on the north-west, by the Marca d'Ancona; on the south-west, by Sabina and Campagna de Roma; on the south-east, by the Nigher Abruzzo; and on the north-east, by the Adriatic sea.

This country is cold and mountainous, being crossed by the Apennines; yet is fertile in grain, fruits, and especially in saffron; and breeds great quantities of beasts both wild and tame. It is healthy, pleasant, and well inhabited, and the people are industrious, given to traffic, and some manufactures, particularly the woollen.

The Nigher Abruzzo, is more mountainous and cold than the other, and yet is far from being so healthy as that. The rivers of it are the Lenta, Foro, Moro, Feltrino, Sangro, Asignella, and Irigno. The country watered by them produces great plenty of corn, rice, wines, fruit, and especially saffron; but here are many large woods, that shelter great number of wolves, bears, and other wild creatures, which oblige travellers to go always in troops and well armed: which prevents improvements in trade.

Ortona al Mare, in this province, so called to distinguish it from Ortona di Marsh in the same province, is an ancient town belonging to the Frentani, and situate on the Adriatic gulph, between the rivers of Foro and Moro. It had formerly a convenient and safe harbour for shipping, but is now thinly inhabited and little frequented, because the Venetians spoiled the haven.

R E M A R K.

We may here observe, that, in places where there is no trade, they are hardly worth taking notice of, unless to manifest the necessity of cultivation in our own country, wherever it appears practicable.

ABUCCO, **ABOCCO**, or **ABOCCHI**, a weight used in the kingdom of Pegu. One abucco is twelve teccalis and a half; two abuccos make an agiro, which is also called giro; two giri make half a biza, and the biza weighs 100 teccalis; that is to say, 2 pounds 5 ounces the heavy weight, or 3 pounds 9 ounces light weight of Venice. See **VENICE** for its weights, &c.

ABUKESB, or **ASLANI**. See **ASLANI**.

ABYSSINIA, or upper Æthiopia, is bounded on the north by Nubia or Sennar. On the east it had formerly the Red Sea, and the coast of Abex; on the south by Alaba, Jendero, or Gingiro, as the Portuguese write it; on the west by the river Maleg, which falls into the Nile, and by this last quite to the boundary of Nubia. For the more tedious disputable descriptions with respect to its boundaries, we refer to those who have professedly written thereon; our view being only to take a survey of what commerce they have, and this is very trifling for so extensive a kingdom.

R E M A R K S.

Trade and manufactures are wholly wanting here; and, tho' their way of living makes them need the fewer, yet even those that are most necessary, they are supplied with by the Jews; such as weaving stuffs for dresses, and forging heads for their lances, &c. They have a natural aversion for all smiths, as people that deal in fire, and live in a kind of hell as they conceive of it; and yet their princes are not insensible of the great advantages a plenty of all sorts of trades would be to their dominions, though they dare not, it seems, force their subjects to what they would deem an insupportable slavery; witness the letter, which David one of their monarchs, sent to John III. of Portugal, wherein he desired him to send over to him some printers, armourers, cutlers, physicians, surgeons, architects, carpenters, masons, goldsmiths, miners, bricklayers, and jewellers.

They seem indeed by their churches, and other ruined places, to have heretofore encouraged architecture. But the workmen were sent for from other countries, and were forced to do all themselves; so that when these fabrics were reared, especially the imperial palace built by Peter Pais, a Portuguese architect, the people flocked from all parts of Ethiopia to view it, and admired it as a new wonder of the world. However, these occupations which they have among them, are always conveyed from the father to the children.

Gold, silver, copper, and iron, are the principal ores with which their mines abound in this extensive part of Africa; but not above one third part is made use of by way of merchandize, or converted into money; of which they have little or no use in Abyssinia. They cut their gold indeed into small pieces for the pay of their troops, and for expences of the court, which is a pretty modern custom among them; the king's gold, before the end of the seventeenth century, being laid up in his treasury in ingots, with intent never to be carried out, or never used in any thing but vessels, and trinkets for the service of the palace.

In the lieu of small money, they make use of rock salt as white as snow, and as hard as a stone. This is taken out of the mountain of Lafta, and put into the king's warehouses; where it is reduced into tablets of a foot long, and three inches broad, ten of which are worth about a French crown. When they are circulated in trade, they are reduced still into smaller pieces, as occasion requires. This salt is also applied to the same purpose as common sea salt.

This salt is sold, as it were, weight for weight for gold. With this mineral salt the Ethiopians purchase pepper, spices, and silk stuffs, which are brought to them by the Indians, in their ports in the Red Sea.

Cardamums, ginger, aloes, myrrh, cassia, civet, ebony-wood, ivory, wax, honey, cotton and linnens of various sorts and colours, are merchandizes which may be had from Abyssinia; to which may be added sugar, hemp, flax, and excellent wines, if these people had the art of preparing them.

It has been thought, that the coffee-berry was originally transplanted from Ethiopia into Arabia, from whence a great quantity is brought: but this is uncertain, as there are no signs of it among them at present.

'Tis affirmed by good historians, there are in this country the finest emeralds that are any where to be found; and, tho' they are found but in one place, they are there in great quantities, and some so large and so perfect, that they are inestimable in value. Also on the islands near Arqua (which for that reason the Turks keep a garrison at) they find very good bright pearls, and very large, some of which are of the finest colour.

The greatest part of the merchandizes, whereof we have spoken, are more for foreign than inland trade. Their domestic commerce consists chiefly in salt, honey, buck-wheat, grey pease, citrons, oranges, lemons, and other provisions, with fruits and herbage necessary for the support of life.

Those places that the Abyssinian merchants frequent the most, who dare venture to carry their commodities by sea themselves, are the Arabia happy, and the Indies, particularly those of Goa, Cambaye, Bengal and Sumatra.

With regard to their ports on the Red Sea, to which foreign merchants commonly resort, the most considerable are those

of Mette, Azum, Zajalla, Maga, Dazo, Patea, and Brava. They had formerly Ercooco and Quaqueu; but the Turks ruined these ports towards the middle of the seventeenth century, and with them others of their maritime cities.

The trade of the Abyssinians by land is inconsiderable. There are, however, bands of Abyssinians who arrive yearly at Egypt, particularly at Cairo, laden with gold dust, which they bring to barter for the merchandizes of that country, or of Europe, for which they have occasion.

These caravans or caravans, if we may be allowed thus to call a body of 40 or 50 poor wretches, who unite together for their mutual assistance in their journey, are commonly three or four months on their route, traversing forests and mountains almost impassable, in order to exchange their gold for necessaries for their families, and return immediately with the greatest part of the merchandize on their backs. Sometimes the Jews or the Egyptians will give them credit.

'Tis extraordinary that these merchants should give these poor wretches credit, against whom they have no recourse, if they fail of payment. But experience has shewn, that they have never abused the confidence reposed in them, not even on account of their death; for, if that happens, their fellow-travellers take care of the effects of the deceased, for the benefit of their families, and in order therewith to discharge those debts contracted at Cairo.

Other nations with whom the Abyssinians carry on trade by land, are the inhabitants of the kingdom of Adel, the Turks who are now masters of Ercooco and Quaqueu, the Melendians, the people of Mofambique, and the Portuguese who are settled upon those coasts.

Before we conclude, it should be remembered, that one of the principal branches of trade of these people, is that of slaves, who are greatly esteemed in the Indies and Arabia for the best, and the most faithful of all that the other kingdoms of Africa furnish. The Indian and Arabian merchants frequently substitute them as their factors; and, on account of their good services and integrity, not only often give them their liberty, but liberally reward them.

Though the productions and populousness of this part of the world, would admit of a surprizing improvement in general commerce with the Europeans; yet it is as little cultivated here, as in any other parts of Africa. See AFRICA, and its several divisions from that general head.

ACACIA is, according to Pomet, the fruit, or rather the seeds of a yellow fruit inclining to red, of the size of a magdalen-pear, or less than that of an orange. The tree which bears these, is, according to the Sieur Rousseau's letter, 5 or 6 feet high, adorned with leaves of a yellowish green, and something of the shape of ivy. The flowers are small, and grow in tufts, of a carnation colour; from whence comes a yellow fruit, or seed, of the bigness of a chestnut, of the shape of a kidney, and of an olive colour, covered with a nut or stone, wherein is a white almond, which, after it has been roasted like a chestnut in the fire, is pleasant to eat.

The Americans cut the yellow fruit in slices, and eat it in the manner we do a China orange, as well to revive the spirits, as to cool them, because they are full of a well-tasted juice.

You must chuse such as are large and new, of an olive-colour, with white kernels, which are the certain signs they are fresh; and not of a chestnut colour, which is a sign of their being old and over-ripe.

ACACIA VERA is, according to many authors, the thickened juice of a large tree, growing in Egypt and Arabia, whose blossom is white and purgative, and which is all over thorny, except its trunk. From this tree it is, as some other authors pretend, that the gum arabic issues. However that be, for the opinion of both has but a slender foundation, this thickened juice, from what tree soever it is produced, comes from the Levant, in round balls of different sizes, wrapped up in very thin bladders.

The acacia vera, to be good, ought to be full ripe, of a tan colour, of a reddish brown, smooth and shining, and of a styptic and something disagreeable taste. This drug is used in the composition of Venice treacle.

ACACIA GERMANICA, or German Acacia, is a counterfeited drug, made of the juice of sloes, or wild plums, which grow upon the black-thorn; that juice is boiled afterwards to a solid consistence, and put into bladders like the true acacia, which comes from Egypt. But nevertheless it is scarce possible to be mistaken in it; the acacia vera being of a reddish tan colour, and the acacia Germanica as black as common Spanish liquorice. Lemery says, the true acacia is made by expression out of the fruit, and that either ripe, or unripe. From the ripe fruit there is a black juice: from the unripe fruit a red or yellowish juice, the colour not so black, but more inclining to red, and of a sweet scent. This, he adds, is the true acacia of Dioscorides, which is to be used in making Venice treacle.

ACAJOU, is the fruit, or rather the seed of a tree, growing in the Antille islands, and in many places of the continent of America, and especially in Brasil.

There are three kinds of trees which bear this name, but there is but one of them that produces fruit. The fruit bearing acajou is a tree of a middling size, with branches that in-

cline very much downward. Its leaves are broad and streaked with many veins, and round at the end. The blossoms, which grow in clusters, and are of a very agreeable smell, are white, when they first open, and afterwards of a carnation and purple colour. Its fruit is of the form of an apple somewhat oblong, covered with a thin rind of a lively red, and crowned with a kind of crest of an olive colour. In the inside are spongy filaments, which yield a juice between sweet and sour, very good for quenching the thirst, and against fainting fits, when mixed with sugar. The Indians make a liquor of it, which will inebriate like wine; and lastly, the stone or seed, which is what the druggists and grocers at Paris sell under the name of acajou, is a kind of chestnut in the form of a hare's liver, within which there is a kernel, and that being peeled is an excellent stomachic.

The acajou nuts should be chosen fresh, and of an olive colour. When incisions are made in the acajou tree, it emits a clear transparent gum, very like the gum arabic.

The Chevalier des Marchais, in his *Voyage de Guinée*, Tom III. p. 266, says,

That there are two kinds of acajou; the first is that to which the Spaniards have given the name of cedar, on account of the scent of its wood, though in reality it differs as much from the cedar, as the cedar does from the apple-tree. The second kind has retained throughout all America, the name which the Indians of all nations have given it, with so little difference from each other, that it is plainly known to be the same in all their idioms. This tree is so common, that there are whole forests of it in Brasil and Guiana. The Portuguese have no remedy more sure for curing their negroes of a pain in the stomach, which is a kind of dropy, than to leave them to themselves, in places abounding with these trees. Hunger pressing those poor wretches, and they not finding any other food but the fruit of the acajou, they glut themselves with it; and the fruit soon cutting the noxious humours, that occasion the distemper, these dropical slaves, who were scarce able to stir, are seen in a short time running like stags, and in a wonderful state of health.

The nut, which the fruit bears at its extremity, contains in the shell an oil, which is the more sharp and biting, the less ripe it is. This oil is however of a wonderful use, in drying up and cleansing the oldest ulcers, and all other diseases of the skin; and also for killing those dangerous insects that get under the toe-nails, and into the wrinkles of the skin, where they occasion ulcers that are frequently incurable. The Portuguese call them bichos, the Spaniards niguas, and the French chiques.

In proportion as the fruit ripens, the sharpness of the oil decreases; but there always remains more than enough to make the tongue and gums of those smart, who are so imprudent as to crack that nut with their teeth.

There is no occasion to extract this oil in the country where the fruit grows, in order to bring it to Europe; it being sufficient to send the nuts thither. Though they be never so stale, they always retain oil enough. In order to extract it, the nut must be split, and its pieces laid upon burning charcoal. The oil, which is contained between the two coats of the shell, comes out as soon as it feels the fire: it is collected with a little cotton, and applied to the uses mentioned above. The kernel contained in this shell is white, solid, delicate, and of a better taste than the best almonds, and is much like that in the stone of a pine apple. These nuts are eaten raw when fresh gathered, after having been steeped for a short time in water, with a little salt: many like them better roasted. In order to that, the shell is a little broke, and laid for a moment on the coals: it then opens of itself, the kernel is taken out, and a little brown skin, that covers it, being peeled off, it is then of a delicious taste. These nuts will keep many years, and scarce lose any thing of their goodness. The Indians set so great value upon the fruit of the acajou, and the nut that adheres to it, that they often make war with each other, for the crop of this fruit, which in Guiana is ripe in the months of December, January and February.

This fruit is of the form of an apple. The skin is thin and smooth, of a fine red on the side next to the sun, and of a gold colour on the opposite side. Their smell is sweet, agreeable, and comforting. Their substance is entirely spongy, and full of an exceeding tart and styptic liquor, before the fruit is ripe; but sweet, pleasant, and wholesome, when it has attained its maturity. They refresh and exhilarate; and, though they are a little binding, yet they wonderfully provoke urine.

They make a tart and pleasant wine of it, which is heady, kept two or three days; after which it turns into a very sharp vinegar. People of skill might make a wine of it, that would keep longer: some have caused the juice of the acajou fruit to be distilled, which has produced a very strong spirit.

This tree, during the great heats, emits lumps of gum, of an amber colour, hard and friable, or apt to crumble. The Indians dissolve it in water, and give it with success to women troubled with hysteric disorders, or their periodic maladies. This gum has little or no scent.

ACANTHUS, otherwise called *branca ursina*, or bear's-breech, is a plant used in medicine. Its leaves are somewhat like

like those of the thistle; the flowers are labiated; the under lip of the flower is divided into three segments, which in the beginning is curled up in form of a short tube: in the place of the upper lip are produced the stamina or seeds, which support the pointals: the cup of the flower is composed of leaves which are prickly; the upper part of which is bent over like an arch, and supplies the defect of the upper lip of the flower. The fruit is of an oval form, and is divided in the middle into two cells, each containing one single smooth seed.

There are four species of this plant known, *viz.*

1. *Acanthus fativus, vel mollis Virgilii.* The smooth-leaved garden bear's-breech. This is the sort used in medicine, and supposed to be the mollis acanthus of Virgil. 2. *Acanthus aculeatus,* the prickly bear's breech. 3. *Acanthus rarioribus & brevioribus aculeis munitus,* the middle bear's-breech, with short spines. 4. *Acanthus Lusitanicus, amplifimo folio lucido,* the Portugal bear's-breech, with large shining leaves. All these plants are easily propagated by parting their roots in February or March, or by seeds sown at the same time.

ACAPALTI, a plant of New Spain or Mexico, that bears the long pepper. Its trunk grows winding like that of the vine, and has leaves upon it like those of white pepper, but longer and more pointed, of a very strong scent, and a hot and sharp taste. The fruit is round, and from two to three inches long, of a pretty red colour, when it is near its maturity; which it can never attain entirely on the plant; so that it is necessary to gather it, as soon as it begins to redden, in order to compleat its ripening in the sun.

This pepper is eaten either green or dried, and both ways gives a very high relish to meat, provided, that, after seasoning therewith, it be not put again to the fire; in which case it loses part of its taste and strength.

ACAPULCO, a port town in America, situate in Mexico, on a large bay of the South-Sea, from whence a rich ship has been said to sail annually to Manilla in the Philippine Islands, near the coast of China, in Asia; and another returns annually from thence to Acapulco, laden with a great treasure from the East-Indies. One of those rich ships laden with silver, and bound from Acapulco to Manilla, was taken by the late Lord Anson.

R E M A R K S.

It is a great, though general mistake, that the Spaniards employ but two ships to Manilla, whereof one goes and one returns every year; for they send out two ships or galleons, and receive back two every year. Sometimes indeed it happens that they come not back till two years, but that is extraordinary and by accident. The burthen or cargo which these ships carry is very great; the ordinary loading, besides their guns and stores, being 1000 to 1100 ton each: and they had one many years which carried 1600 ton.

Those Manilla ships are always full laden outwards with European goods, besides the silver, and bring back likewise a full loading of all sorts of East-India and China goods; and all these goods, both out and home, except what are sent southward to Panama and Lima, are carried by land carriage from and to Mexico, which is about 240 miles: and these goods by computation, besides what may go to Lima and that way, cannot be less than 4000 ton in weight, that is 2000 ton one way, and 2000 ton the other, and this encreases the trade of the country in the employment of people, horses, mules and carriages.

The Acapulco ships carry all sorts of European goods from America; and these furnish the Spaniards therewith at Manilla chiefly, and the Indians of the Philippine Islands in general, whom the Spaniards have taught to go clothed after the Spanish manner, with all kinds of European manufactures: some of these are also sold to the Maylayans, and the Indians of all the coasts and islands contiguous; but much more considerable in value are the utensils, weapons, fire-arms, workmen's tools, and all heavy goods made of iron and brass, which are brought from Acapulco, which are vended amongst all those Indians to great advantage; also unwrought iron, or iron in bars, is brought from Old Spain to Acapulco, and carried from thence to Manilla; and here the Chinese and Japanese, who are the best cutlers in India, and make all manner of utensils, purchase large quantities of iron and brass of the Spaniards. Both Chinese and Japanese are pretty curious workers in most kind of hard-ware in gold and silver: they are good founders, turners, goldsmiths and locksmiths, but not good gunsmiths, nor good sword-blade makers.

However, being very dextrous in their way, and having great variety of materials by the Spanish ships from Acapulco, this occasions a numerous resort of traders at Manilla, from whence they disperse their goods to the other Indian islands, and trade with their respective countries and countrymen, even in the European factories; as in Borneo in particular, and to Sumatra and Malacca, where some of those European goods are vended amongst the natives.

But as for the manufactures of woollen, linen or silk, they are of small use, except to the Spaniards themselves; the Chinese and Japanese supplying themselves with cotton ma-

nufactures of all kinds, such as muslins, callicoës, &c. Yet the Spaniards find several things which the Acapulco ships bring, with which the natives of those countries are greatly taken, and for which they get in return the product of the countries they come from; which being of very little value there, and of great value in America, the traffic is by so much the easier; as particularly beads, toys, looking glasses; pins, needles, and all kinds of small wares of iron, steel, pewter and brass; with variety of glass ware, which is particularly valued by the Indians in general.—In return, the product of the place is itself rich, and infinitely valuable among the Spaniards; as particularly their estimable perfumes, which being originals, and the produce of mere nature, are extremely dear when they come to New Spain, as ambergrease, civet, bezoar, &c. Nor does any nation in Europe or America use more than the Spaniards, both men and women; and especially in those hot climates of Mexico and Peru. Besides these, they have several other valuable products, which never lose or lessen their price, amongst Christian nations, although they may have the same things among themselves: as particularly, 1. Very large pearls, of a good colour, which the Spaniards tell us are the best in the East, the oriental pearl being found on the coast of India, in the mouth of the Persian gulph, and at Ormus, and parts adjacent in the Persian gulph; they being finer and fairer than any of the Batavian or Borneo pearls, or most others. 2. They have also gold, which is found in almost the pure metal, and of the most perfect quality, in the rivers, as it is in other countries, and some in the mountains: they send about the value of 50000 doubloons a year to New Spain in this metal only. How that agrees with the account some give us, that this country costs the king of Spain 250000 pieces of eight a year to support it more than the produce, is not easily reconcilable: we are rather of opinion, that they supply the treasury of Spain with those 50000 doubloons in gold every year, as the product of this government; for if it were otherwise, how should the governors, who live in such state and pomp that some sovereign princes do not equal, lay up such immense sums in the eight years of their government, (for so long they continue at the Philippines) and appear so rich in Europe as it is said they do? For we are told that they generally return back to Europe or to Acapulco, with a treasure of two millions of pieces of eight, or more.

They have also great plenty of honey and wax; both which, but especially the latter, is very valuable in Spanish America, and is carried thither yearly in large quantities. They have estimable drugs and gums of divers kinds, which the Spanish padres, who are generally physicians, gather and send to their particular societies in America, and they again to Europe: so that they are a kind of merchandize peculiar to themselves. Of these they name several which are in great estimation, as the Cassia, aloes, gum arabic, sago, camphire, and several others, as likewise medicinal herbs, of which they have no small variety.

The articles are very considerable that enable the Spaniards to make so rich a return to America by their Acapulco ships. They have the richest spices of the east, drugs, diamonds and gold, muslins, callicoës, china, taffaties, rich attaffies, and several other sorts of the richest wrought silks, china ware, and tea, fine lacquered ware, cabinet work, tables, screens, umbrellas, and other niceties of the country. Thus the Philippines, by the course of their neighbouring trade, are furnished with stores of merchandize for making their returns to Acapulco, and that in a manner fully to the satisfaction of the Spaniards, who usually make a profit of four for one in all the goods they send from Acapulco to Manilla.

It may be wondered why the Spaniards so strictly confine themselves to the sending of no more than two ships a year on this trade; nor can we easily suggest the reason for it: however, the merchants make themselves amends another way, for they build those ships so vastly large, that they ordinarily carry from ten to twelve, or fourteen hundred ton, some have said to sixteen hundred ton burden. So that though it is making a great adventure in one bottom, yet as those seas are generally very safe and pacific, they can afford the freight the cheaper in proportion: and on the other hand, as these large ships are built prodigious strong, they are able to bear the sea with the greatest steadiness, if navigated by able seamen.

Above all, they are the more secure against pirates and rovers, who cannot easily hurt them, and dare not, as the seamen term it, lay by their side; for they have all three decks, and carry large guns of 24 to 30 pound ball, which the smaller ships cannot bear the shot of: on the other hand, the smaller ships can hardly, except by fire only, any way hurt the great ship, and to burn them does not answer the pirate's end. When Rogers and Cook attacked the Acapulco or Manilla ships, they saw them both, and took the smallest, a ship of about 4 or 500 ton; but when they came to attack the great carrac, a ship of 1200 ton, they could make nothing of it; every shot they received made them tremble, and stand off to stop the leak; whereas, the shot they made at the carrac stuck in her sides, but could not go through; and when they thought to board her, she

boomed them off with great pieces thrust out by the multitude of her hands; for she had, passengers included, above 800 men on board; and when they found she began to open her lower tier of ports, and put out guns, which were 36 pounders at least, they durst come near her no more, tho' there were three ships to one.

Thus, in case of a war, or of rovers and pirates, the Spaniards seem to judge right in sending great ships as the most secure, and their main end is answered hereby also; for two ships at this rate carry as many goods as twelve ships or more of 200 tons each would do: and it appears that the goods they bring are a very great quantity, and of a very great value; for at their arrival they occasion a fair at Acapulco, as great in proportion as the fair at Porto-bello, when the galleons from New-Spain arrive there; and the merchants repair to Acapulco from Mexico, Lima, from Curco, from all the capital trading places of Peru, and even from Chili itself, to buy the rich goods they bring: which fair sometimes continues thirty days; and it is not one or two, no nor ten or twenty ships only, that attend to carry off the goods, besides the great quantities that are carried upon mules and other beasts by land. So that, during the fair, which is always proclaimed and appointed on that occasion, the town of Acapulco, which at other times is empty, and only inhabited by a few fishermen and mean people, is for that time so full, that it is not able to receive them, much less to entertain the number of people.

ACCEPTANCE, a term in the traffic of inland and foreign bills of exchange. The acceptance of a bill of exchange, is the subscribing, signing, and making a person debtor for the sum of its contents; by obliging him in his own name, to discharge it at the time mentioned therein. The acceptance is usually made by the person upon whom the bill is drawn, when it is presented to him by the bearer.

Bills payable at sight are not accepted, because they must be paid on being presented, or else protested for want of payment. There are some acceptances that need not be dated, and others that it is necessary to date.

The acceptances which need not be dated, are those upon bills payable at a day fixed, at usance or double usance, &c. Upon these the word 'accepted' ought only to be wrote, and the acceptor's name; dating being of no use in them, because they are always to run to the day mentioned for their payment. And the time for the bills at usance, double usance, &c. begins from the day of the date of the bills themselves.

It is not absolutely necessary to have bills of a fixed day, at usance, double usance, &c. accepted, because their time is always running: it is however an advantage to the bearer to have them accepted, because, by virtue of the acceptance, he has the security of two instead of one, the acceptor and the drawer.

If the person upon whom a bill is drawn, at a day fixed, at single or double usance, &c. should make difficulties to accept it, the bearer has a right to have it protested, for want of acceptance, and to return it to the drawer, in order to oblige him, either to cause it to be accepted, or to give security (in case it should not be paid when due, by the person upon whom it was drawn) to return and restore the sum mentioned in it, with the difference of exchange, re-exchange, and the charges of the protest.

The acceptances which it is necessary to date, are those drawn at a certain number of days sight, because the time does not begin to run, till the next day after that of acceptance. This kind of acceptance is made thus, 'accepted such a day and year,' and signed.

If the bearer of a bill of exchange consents to an acceptance at twenty days sight, for instance, instead of eight days expressed in the bill, he runs the risk of the twelve days of prolongation, in case the acceptor happens to break in that time; and the bill remains to his account, without any recourse against the drawer.

If a bill was drawn for three thousand pounds, and the bearer should think fit to take an acceptance for two thousand only, and should receive no more than that sum, the remaining thousand would be at his own hazard, as well as in the case of prolongation of time.

These examples may be sufficient for acceptances of this kind. It is, however, not amiss to observe, that if the bearer of a bill should have written orders from the drawer, to have the same accepted in either of the manners as above, in such a case, the bearer would have undoubtedly a right against the drawer, for an indemnification.

In former times, bills payable during the fairs of the city of Lyons, which are called payments, were not accepted in writing; the person, upon whom they were drawn, used to say by word of mouth, 'seen without acceptance, to be answered at the time,' and the bearer noted it in his bill-book. But, because of the contests which happened on occasion of these verbal acceptances through the breach of faith of acceptors, an article was inserted in the ordonnance of the exchange of the city of Lyons, made June 2, 1667, by which the manner of acceptances was regulated. It is the 3d article, and is to this effect: "That the acceptances of the said bills of

exchange shall be in writing, dated and signed by those upon whom they are drawn, or by persons duly empowered by letters of attorney, the original of which shall remain in the hands of the notary; and all acceptances made by factors, clerks, and others, not empowered by letters of attorney, shall be void and of no effect, against the person upon whom such bills shall be drawn, without prejudice however to the legal recourse against the acceptor." This regulation or order was confirmed by Art. 7. of Tit. 5. of the ordonnance of commerce, of March 1673, the tenor of which is as follows: "We do not intend to make any innovation in our regulation of June 2, 1667, concerning acceptances, payments, and other dispositions relating to the commerce of our city of Lyons." And, by article 2. of the same title of the said ordonnance, the manner of making acceptances is regulated for the other places in the kingdom, and runs thus: "All bills of exchange shall be accepted purely and simply in writing. We abolish the use of verbal acceptances, or in these words, 'seen without accepting;' or, 'accepted to answer at the time;' and all other conditional acceptances, which shall pass for refusals, and such bills shall be liable to protest."

In the general, he to whom a bill is made payable, at the time should demand acceptance thereof, both for his own and the drawer's security, and on refusal of acceptance to return it with protest.

The address of a bill of exchange is the directions signifying by whom, and where the payment shall be made when due, and to whom the possessor may apply, in case the party, who is to accept or pay, be not in the way.

He that has the bill may demand acceptance of the person the bill is addressed to; and, in case that person hath no order or power to accept the same, the possessor may desire such person, if to be trusted, to send such bill to procure acceptance, or to return it with protest. This the person to whom the bill is addressed is obliged to do, otherwise the possessor may, before the said person, make protest for non-acceptance. If the possessor can't safely trust the person to whom the bill is addressed, to procure acceptance; or if the drawer has not addressed the bill at all; the possessor must cause the bill to be sent to somebody, in whom he can confide, that lives at the place where the person resides on whom it is drawn, to demand acceptance, and, upon refusal, to protest.

When the remitter or possessor has no correspondent to send the bill to, who lives where the acceptant does, it is common to desire the drawer to send the prima bill, to procure acceptance, and return it accepted to the remitter, or possessor. The drawer is not obliged to do this, yet he cannot well refuse it, if he be assured of the honesty of his correspondent, and that he will accept his bill.

In case the drawer does not in convenient time return the bill accepted to the remitter, the drawer is not obliged to give further satisfaction to the remitter, but the remitter must look to it himself, and send a second bill to some other, to procure acceptance, and to enquire whether the prima be accepted, or not; if not, the acceptant must accept the second bill, or a protest must be made for non-acceptance.

A cautious remitter will not leave a prima bill in the drawer's hands to procure acceptance, unless he is well assured of his worth and integrity.

When the possessor of such bill has no correspondent at the place where the acceptant lives, nor dare trust the drawer with it; it is usual for the possessor to advise the acceptant by letter that he has such a bill on him, and desire him to return answer, whether he accepts the same, to pay it at the time, or no; if he returns answer that he will not accept it, nor pay it, or if he gives no answer at all, the possessor is obliged to carry or send the bill to that place, and there formally, by a notary public, to demand acceptance; and, in case of refusal, to protest.

If the acceptant be an out-dweller from the place where the bill is to be paid, it is usual, when acceptance is demanded, to desire the acceptor to underwrite to whom he must apply for payment, when due.

When a bill is payable to order, by an out-dweller, and not to a certain person, and the acceptor has not ordered to whom the last party it is assigned to, shall address for payment when due, the possessor is obliged to give the acceptor timely notice to whom the bill must be paid, that the acceptor may, within the respite days, return an answer, and take care of the payment.

If the out-dweller remits, at the time appointed, to the possessor of his accepted bill, in other bills due at the same time with his bill, the possessor is not obliged to demand acceptance, and to get those bills paid, without provision allowed him. But, when the acceptor directs him to any particular person for payment, the possessor is obliged to go to such party to receive his money without provision.

An out-dweller having a bill remitted to him payable by an in-dweller, and the out-dweller desiring his acceptor at the day to send his money in specie, or to remit him the value in other bills, the in-dweller is not obliged to do this without allowance of provision.

If the possessor of a bill payable by an out-dweller does not get his money in time, he must order a public notary to protest for non-payment, which protest, though not made in the presence of the person, nor at the house of the acceptor, is valid, because the possessor of the bill is not obliged to protest against an out-dweller at his house or dwelling, nor to seek him out of the town where the payment is to be made. If an out-dweller refuses acceptance when a bill is sent to him, a protest may be made either at the house of the out-dweller by the possessor, or else at the place of payment. A letter from the person that demands acceptance, being produced to a notary, is sufficient to ground a protest upon, as also in case of non-payment.

Although the possessor is not obliged to seek payment of an out-dweller in any other place but where the bill is payable, and the drawer or acceptor hath addressed; yet, in case of non-payment, the acceptor or his effects are liable in any place where either can be found.

Should an acceptor of a bill of exchange fail or become insolvent after he has accepted a bill, the drawer of the bill will be obliged to pay the same, with re-exchange, provision, and charges to the possessor.

When the person on whom a bill is drawn understands that the drawer has failed before acceptance is demanded, he need not accept such drawer's bills, notwithstanding he may have promised to honour such bills, without indemnification from all and every one that shall make any demand thereof, whether it be the drawer, his creditors, trustees, or his principal, for whose account the draught was made, &c. &c.

Nor ought any one on whom bills are drawn, accept them from an insolvent drawer, though the bill is dated before the insolvency is known, and the letter of advice bears the same date, whether it comes by the common post or not; because there is reason to suspect some fraud, and that both the bill and letter were antedated.

If A draws on B, on account of C, and B before acceptance has advice that A has failed, B should not accept such draught, though he promised A he would; because C is not obliged to make good the value to B. And more especially so, if C advises B of A's failure, or on any suspicion hath forbid B's acceptance for his account, although he had ordered the acceptance thereof before.

On failure of a drawer, the acceptor is not obliged to give better security for payment; but the possessor must wait till the day of payment, before he can demand any thing of the acceptor; and then the acceptor is obliged to pay, though he accepted for the drawer's account, and has no effects of his in hand.

If an acceptor refuses payment of a bill, on failure of the drawer, the possessor is not obliged to return the bill and protest, to the place from whence it is drawn; it being apparent, that the charges of re-exchange cannot be recovered of the insolvent drawer. The possessor therefore must without delay, after a protest is made, proceed by attachment: for a difference in conduct is required when the drawer maintains his credit, and when he has failed.

When an acceptor fails or absents himself, the possessor is obliged to get a protest made by a public notary, and send the same, with the bill, to the remitter, to procure satisfaction from the drawer; and advice should be given directly to the first remitter, and not to the last endorser only, that the drawer may, if he pleases, order some other to honour his bill, and prevent loss by the re-exchange, &c.

Though a possessor through ignorance of custom, or of the acceptant's failure, or by reason the bill did not come to hand till after due, or for any other cause of the like nature, does not, or cannot make protest by a public notary; yet this will not hinder the possessor's redressing himself on the drawer and endorser, though the acceptor failed before the bill became due.

When an acceptor fails before the day of payment, if the bill be payable to order, the possessor must get a protest made and send it to the first remitter, but keep the bill till it falls due, that, if the drawer orders any other to honour his bill in time, the possessor may be ready to receive the value.

If any other offer to accept and honour a bill whose first acceptor is failed, in favour of the drawer, or any other endorser, the possessor is not obliged to accept such offer, if he disapproves the offerer; but if the offerer is a sufficient man, or will give security, the possessor cannot refuse such an offer. It is not safe to accept a bill, whose first acceptor is failed, without a protest for non-payment, declaring the bad circumstances of the acceptor; and such an acceptant, in honour, must presently send the said protest, together with the notary's attestation of his accepting the same in honour, to the drawer, or to him for whose account he has accepted the same. Acceptance after the day of payment past is usual, and good. L. Raymund 364, 574. So acceptance for the honour of the drawer. Idem. 575.

The question, whether a general indebitat assumpsit will lie upon a bare acceptance of a bill of exchange, in the argument of the case of Bellasis and Hester. By Justice John Powl, a general indebitat assumpsit does not lie on a bill of exchange; but it ought to be a special declaration upon the

custom of merchants, as in the case of Brown and Londoni: 1 Levinz 298. 1 Mod. 285. 2 Keble 695, 731, 758, 822: 1 Vent. 152. In which case, judgment was arrested after verdict, as reported by Levinz and Ventris.

Acceptance of a bill of exchange may be pleaded as payment in bar of an action of account. Luc. 37.

Where the drawee first accepts, and then suffers the bill to be protested, he shall pay interest from the time of the protest. Luc. 37.

If a bill be accepted, and afterwards indorsed to the drawer, he may maintain an action as indorsee, in case he had effects enough in the hands of the drawee, to answer the bill: but it is otherwise where the acceptance was only for the honour of the drawer. Luc. 37.

A bill was drawn on the York-buildings company; one Bishop, who was their cashier, accepts it without writing 'for the company,' or any thing to that effect: an action was maintained against him in his private and single capacity upon this acceptance.

If a bill is drawn upon a merchant in London payable to J. S. at double usance, J. S. is not bound in strictness of law to procure an acceptance, but only tender the bill when the money is due: but merchants, who generally have generous spirits, will not surprize a man, but first procure an acceptance, or at least leave the bill for the party to consider, and give his answer, and then give advice of the same, and, if the money be not paid, then protest.

A protest is no more but to subject the drawer of a bill to answer in case of non-acceptance, or non-payment; nor does the same discharge the party acceptor, if once accepted; for the deliverer hath now two remedies, one against the drawer, and the other against the acceptor.

To entitle the party to an action at law in England against the acceptor, it matters not whether there be a protest; but to entitle the party to a recovery against the drawer beyond the seas or elsewhere, there must be a protest before a public notary.

If a merchant hath accepted a bill, and, before the same becomes due, he proves insolvent, or at least his credit is publicly blasted, a protest ought to go.

By the statute of 3, 4 A. c. 9. it is enacted, That if the party on whom an inland bill of exchange shall be drawn, shall refuse to accept the same by underwriting it, the party to whom the same is made payable, may and shall cause such bill to be protested for non-acceptance.

No acceptance of such inland bill of exchange shall be sufficient to charge any person, unless the same be underwritten or indorsed in writing thereupon; and, if such bill be not accepted by such underwriting or indorsement, no drawer shall be liable to pay any costs, damages, or interest thereon, unless such protest be made for non-acceptance thereof, and without, fourteen days after such protest, the same be sent, or notice thereof be given to the party from whom such bill was received, or left in writing at the place of his usual abode.

If such bill be accepted, and not paid before the expiration of three days after the same shall become due, then no drawer shall be compellable to pay any costs, damages, or interest thereon, unless a protest be made and sent, or notice thereof be given in manner above-mentioned: nevertheless, every drawer shall be liable to pay costs, damages, and interest, if a protest be made for non-acceptance, or non-payment, and notice thereof be sent, given, or left as aforesaid.

Such protest is not necessary, unless the value be acknowledged in such bill to be received, and unless the bill be drawn for 20 l. or upwards.

If any person accepts such inland bill of exchange in satisfaction of a former debt, the same shall be esteemed a complete payment of such debt, if the person accepting such bill for his debt doth not take his due course to obtain payment thereof, by endeavouring to get the same accepted and paid, and make his protest as aforesaid.

Before this statute, the declaration need not have shewn a protest upon such bill, though the drawer ought to have had convenient notice of non-payment. L. Raymund 992, 993. But the law seems to be altered, as to the protest by this statute.

A bill drawn on two jointly must have a joint acceptance, otherwise it must be protested; but to two or either of them, & contra.

Then, if the same be accepted by one, it is pursuant to the tenor of the bill, and ought not to be protested but in case of non-payment; and in that case the person acceptor is liable to an action, but, if it be on joint traders, an acceptance by one will conclude and bind the other.

A factor of the Hamburg, Turkey, or India company, draws a bill on the same, and a member accepts the same, this perhaps may make him liable, but not another member.

So it is if ten merchants shall employ a factor at the Canaries, and the factor draws a bill on them all, and one of them accepts the bill, and then refuses payment, this will not oblige the rest.

But

But if there be three joint traders for the common stock and benefit of all three, and their factor draws a bill on them, the acceptance of the one will oblige the residue of the company.

A small matter amounts to an acceptance, so that there be a right understanding between both parties: as, 'leave your bill with me, and I will accept it;' or, 'call for it to-morrow, and it shall be accepted;' that does oblige as effectually by the custom of merchants, and according to law, as if the party had actually subscribed or signed it, which is usually done. But if a man shall say, 'Leave your bill with me, I will look over my accounts and books between the drawer and me, and call to-morrow, and accordingly the bill shall be accepted;' this shall not amount to a complete acceptance: for this mention of his books and accounts was really intended to see if there were effects in his hands to answer, without which perhaps he would not accept of the same. And so it was ruled by the Lord Chief Justice Hale at Guildhall, London.

A bill may be accepted for part, for that the party upon whom the same was drawn, had no more effects in his hands; which being usually done, there must be a protest, if not for the whole sum, yet at least for the residue: however, after payment of such part, there must be a protest for the remainder.

Before the time of payment of the bill, the party may notwithstanding accept it, and pay it at the time of payment; or another may accept the bill for the honour of the drawer, and, if he pay it in default of the party, yet before payment he is bound to make a protest, with a declaration that he hath paid the same for the honour of the drawer, whereby to receive his money again.

Any time before the money becomes due, the drawer may countermand the payment, although the bill hath been accepted. The countermand is usually made before a notary; but, if it comes without, so it comes under the party's hand, it is well enough.

If the bill be accepted, and the party desires to have the money before it be due, and it is paid, and then there comes a countermand, it hath been conceived that it ought not to be allowed; for, as he could not enlarge the time, so he could not shorten it, but his duty is to follow his order.

The drawer of a bill is bound to the deliverer, and the acceptor to the party to whom the bill is made payable; yet both are not bound to one man, unless the deliverer be a servant to the party to whom the money is made payable; or the party to whom the money is made payable be servant to the deliverer: yet both taker and acceptor are liable till the bill is paid.

Therefore, when you bring your action, be sure to draw your declaration accordingly, and make the same part of the custom as you set it forth; for, if you vary, you must expect to be non-suited: and the party is not bound to alledge a particular place of demand.

If a bill be protested for want of payment, the drawer is to repay the money and damage, or else he may procure a security, which is no more but another person of value subscribes the bill, in these or the like words, 'I here underwritten do bind myself as principal, according to the custom of merchants, for the sum mentioned in the bill of exchange whereupon this protest is made, dated, &c.'

Now the drawer, by virtue of this supplemental agreement, hath as much time again to pay monies as there was given him in the bill when it was first drawn; so that if the money be not paid, together with the rechange and charges of the party, the party may recover the same on the principal or security.

Beyond the seas the protest (that is to say, for non-payment, the bill being once accepted) under the notary's hand, is sufficient to shew in court, without producing the very bill itself. But if a bill in England be accepted, and a special action grounded on the custom be brought against the acceptor, at the trial the party plaintiff must produce the bill accepted, and not the protest, otherwise he will fail in his action at that time.

Therefore it is safe that a bill once accepted be kept, and only a protest for non-payment be remitted; but a bill protested for non-acceptance must be remitted.

If a bill is left with a merchant to accept, and he loses the bill (or at least it is so mislaid, that it cannot be found) the party shall request the merchant to give him a note for the payment according to the time limited in the bill of exchange; otherwise there must be two protests, one for non-acceptance, the other for non-payment: but if a note is given for payment, and there happens to be a failure, yet in that case there must be protest for non-payment.

No person, be it wife or servant, can accept of a bill of exchange to bind the master without a lawful authority, as a letter of attorney, and the like, which must be under hand, unless that it has been formerly and usually done by the wife or servant in such case, when the master hath been out of town, who hath approved of the same and answered payment: it must be usually done; but one partner may for another.

If a bill of exchange by contrary winds or other occasions be so long on the way, that the usance or time limited by the bill be expired, and, being tendered, both acceptance and payment are denied; protests for both must be made, and the drawer must answer the value, rechange, and damage.

A bill, once accepted, cannot be revoked by the party that accepted it, though, immediately after and before the bill becomes due, he hath advice the drawer is broke.

If a bill is not accepted to be paid at the exact time, it must be protested; but, if accepted for a longer time, the party to whom the bill is made payable, must protest the same for want of acceptance according to the tenor; yet he may take the acceptance offered notwithstanding. Nor can the party, if he once subscribes the bill for a longer time, revoke the same, or blot out his name, although it is not according to the tenor of the bill; for if by his acceptance he hath made himself debtor, and owns the draught made by his friend upon him, whose right another man cannot give away, and therefore cannot refuse or discharge the acceptance.

Note, This case will admit of two protests, perhaps three.

1. One protest must be made for not accepting according to the time.

2. For that the money, being demanded according to the time mentioned in the bill, was not paid.

3. If the money is not paid according to that time that the acceptor subscribed or accepted.

A bill was drawn payable the first of January, the person upon whom the bill was drawn accepts the bill to be paid the first of March; the servant brings back the bill: the master, perceiving this enlarged acceptance, strikes out the first of March, and puts in the first of January, and then sends the bill to be paid; the acceptor then refuses payment: whereupon the person to whom the monies were to be paid, strikes out the first of January, and puts in the first of March again: in an action brought on this bill, the question was, whether these alterations did not destroy the bill? And ruled it did not.

A draws a bill on B, and B is in the country; C a friend of his hearing of the bill accepts it: the party to whom the money is to be paid, must make a protest for non-acceptance by B, and then he may take the acceptance of C, and it shall bind C to answer the money.

Where a merchant hath accepted, and, before the same became due, he becomes insolvent, or at least his credit publicly blasted, a protest ought to go; but then there is usually a demand made, which once coming, the drawer is compellable to give better security; and if a second bill comes, if no protest, then drawer and security lie at stake.

If a bill be accepted, and the party dies, yet there must be a demand made of the executors or administrators; and, in default or delay of payment, a protest must be made: and although it may fall out, that the monies may become due before there can be administrators, or the probate of the will be granted; yet that is delay sufficient for a protest in case of non-payment.

N. B. Fourteen days are allowed from the death before administration can be committed, unless there be a will.

But on the other hand, if the party be dead to whom the monies are made payable, and the monies are ready to be paid, and there is no person that can legally give a discharge, yet a protest ought not to go for non-payment; the reason is, because there is no person that hath any authority either in deed or in law to make it, and a notary ought not to make it; if he does, and the party receives any prejudice thereby, an action of the case perhaps may lie against him for his pains: nor does it avail, that if security be offered to save him harmless against the executors or administrators, for that is an act left to his own discretion; for perhaps the security may not be liked: but whether good or bad, makes nothing as to oblige him in law.

N. B. An intimation ought to go, and that the acceptor is willing to pay according to order. For further matter on this head, see **BILLS of EXCHANGE, DRAWER, REMITTER, INDORSER, PROTEST, NOTARY PUBLIC.**

ACCEPTER, the person who accepts a bill of exchange by signing it, and obliges himself to pay the contents, when it becomes due. As long as the acceptor has his signature in his own power, that is, as long as he has not returned the bill with his name to it, he may strike out his acceptance: but, when he has once delivered it, it is no longer in his power so to do, though it should come again into his hands. In a word, there is no retracting an acceptance once delivered: the acceptor must pay the bill. Some use the word acceptant, which is the usual French term: though they also use the term accepteur.

It is the custom at Amsterdam, that all who accept bills of exchange make themselves debtors for them, by virtue of their acceptance; and though the drawers should become insolvent before the term for the payment elapsed, the acceptors can have no recourse against the endorsers of the bills. Ordinances of Amsterdam, quoted by Mr. Ricard, in his *Traité General du Commerce*, under the title Acceptances.

ACCOMMODATION, is used both in matters of trade and of law, to signify a friendly agreement or composition between

between persons at variance, and is frequently brought about by the mediation of common friends, or by a partition of the things in dispute.

ACCOUNT, or **ACCOMPT**, signifies in general all computations made arithmetically, whether by the addition of several sums, or by subtraction, multiplication, or division. We account time by years, months, &c. distances by leagues, miles, poles, perches, &c. weights by tuns, hundreds, quarters, pounds, ounces, drams, &c. long measure by rods, ells, yards, &c. liquid measures by tons, hogheads, pipes, barrels, gallons, quarts, &c. dry measure by quarters, bushels, pecks, &c. money by pounds, shillings, &c.

Money of account is an imaginary species, continued in several states, to facilitate the keeping of accounts, as nobles, angels, marks, were in England, mill-rees in Portugal, &c.

REMARKS relative to practical trade.

ACCOUNT is also used collectively for the several books which merchants, traders, and bankers keep, and in which they enter all their business, traffic, and bargains with each other. Hence they say, To make out an account, to pass accounts, &c. All merchants in France, are obliged to keep books of their accounts, and all bankrupts to deliver up theirs. See the articles **BOOKS OF ACCOUNTS**, **BOOK-KEEPING**, &c.

These books are kept in the manner of debtor and creditor; that is to say, the debit, which is the receipt of the account, is wrote on the left side, or page; and the credit, which is the expence, on the right side, or page. The debit side is distinguished by the word *Dr.* (debtor) which is placed at the beginning of the page after the name of the debtor; and the credit side by the letters *Cr.* for creditor, which is placed opposite to the other. The French, instead of the words debtor and creditor, use the words *doit* (owes) and *avoir* (to have). There are three kinds of accounts absolutely necessary for closing books of double entries; namely, the accounts of stock, of profit and loss, and of balance.

The account of stock is the particular account opened on the debtor and creditor side of the ledger. It contains all the effects of a merchant; that is to say, his ready money, merchandizes, bills, promissory notes, bonds, contracts, accounts settled, real and personal estate, and all in general, that is his own, free and clear of all debts and mortgages. This kind of account is sometimes closed on the debit, and sometimes on the credit side of the account of profit and loss. On the debit side, when the loss exceeds the profit; and on the credit side, when the profit exceeds the loss.

The account of profit and loss is opened upon the ledger. It consists of all the losses and gains made, by a merchant in his trade: the losses are written on the debtor, and the profit on the creditor side of the book.

This account is generally balanced annually, or when the books are to be closed, in order to the opening of new ones; or when the merchant intends entirely to leave off trade.

To balance the account of profit and loss, separate additions must be made of the debtor and creditor sides, and the lesser total subtracted from the greater, of which the remainder, if the profit exceeds the loss, is carried to the credit of the account of stock, and to the debit, if the loss exceeds the profit.

The account of balance is opened in the ledger, only for the closing of the books. When the books are to be finally closed, it is called the account of the final balance; but, when new books are to be opened, it has the name of balance of entry, or balance carried over.

In the final balance account all that is due to stock is carried to the debit, and all that is owing from it to credit; and in the account of balance carried over, or of entry, all on the credit of final balance is placed to the debtor, and all on the debit to the creditor; the ending or continuing trade making such reversed entries necessary.

The merchants and traders who keep their books by double entries, have one in particular, which they call the book of accounts current, wherein they enter copies of all the accounts which they make out, and send to their correspondents, in order to have recourse to it occasionally. This book, which is of the number of those commonly denominated auxiliaries, is ruled and kept in the same manner as the ledger. See **BOOKS**, &c.

Mr. Savary, in his *Parfait Negociant*, liv. 3. chap. 2. of the second part, lays down excellent rules for apprentices, factors, or agents of merchants, or wholesale dealers in France, with respect to the manner of settling accounts with retailers, the substance of which is as follows, *viz.*

“ I. The clerks, factors, or agents of wholesale dealers ought to go to the houses of the retailers, to whom the merchandizes have been sold, to settle the account or bill with them as soon as possible, in order to avoid the difficulties which commonly arise, either with regard to the price or the measure of goods; for, if that be delayed too long, the memory easily fails.

“ II. In settling accounts, they ought to be very careful of what they are about; that is, they ought not to admit tares upon pieces of goods, before they have measured them

themselves, in order to see whether they be right, and not to allow any out of complaisance, because that is against their master's interest.

“ III. To settle an account regularly, they ought to make an extract from the journal or day-book, containing the numbers, the measures, and the prices, for which the goods were sold.

“ IV. Finally, in order to have the bill well drawn up, they must compare the extract they carry, with that which was delivered together with the merchandize, to see whether they agree; and upon each article they should set down the tare, if there be any, and the sum to which it amounts: and, on their return to the warehouse, they ought to enter it exactly in the book itself, that there may be an agreement between their master's book, and that of the retailer with whom they have settled the account. This exactness keeps up the good understanding that should subsist between the merchant or wholesale dealer, and the retailer.”

To open an **ACCOUNT**, is to enter it for the first time into the ledger. This is done by writing in large characters the christian name, surname, and place of abode of the person with whom an account is thus opened: afterwards the articles are posted to it, either on the debit or credit side, as affairs occur.

When an account is opened in the ledger for any one, his name must be entered at the same time in the alphabet, and the folio of the book set down, where the account is entered, for the more easily referring to it.

Merchants, who keep open accounts with each other, sometimes agree to honour the bills of exchange, which they draw reciprocally.

To post a sum to **ACCOUNT**, is to enter into the ledger, either on the debit or credit side, the articles for which persons become either debtors or creditors.

Counterpart of an **ACCOUNT**, is in the bank file of *France*, and in that of the clerks in the offices of the king's farms, the register kept by the controller, wherein he enters and posts all the articles which the book-keeper, if for the bank, or the receiver, if for the king's farms, charges his book with. See **BANK-ROYAL**.

Order of an **ACCOUNT**, is its division into three heads, of receipt, expence, and defalcation; that is, the deduction of such sums as are taken into the account, and not received or admitted. The French call it *reprise*.

To examine an **ACCOUNT**, is to read it exactly, to point the articles of it, and prove the computation, in order to know whether there be no errors, and whether the balance be right. I have examined your account, it is right, there is nothing to except against it.

To settle an **ACCOUNT**, is to cast it up, by calculating every article of it, and balancing the same. In the like sense are used the words to shut, to balance, to close, to make up an account. Accounts are balanced upon the ledger on two occasions; the one, when traders settle or adjust affairs with some debtor or creditor, in order to know what they owe, or what is due to them: the other, when it is necessary to carry over accounts to some new folios in the same book, or into another, in order to continue them, for want of room in the former.

Prudent merchants ought to settle their accounts at the end of every year, in order to open new ones in the beginning of the next.

To place to **ACCOUNT** (*passer en compte*) is to give one credit for a sum received, either of him or for him. It signifies also to make him debtor for a sum paid to him, or for him. Thus, in a bill of exchange, the drawer puts sometimes these words after the sum, Which you'll place to my account, or, To the account of, &c.

To purge an **ACCOUNT**, as the French say, is to cause all the disputed articles to be adjudged by a referee, and the objections to be obviated.

Ballance of an **ACCOUNT**, is the sum in which the debt exceeds the credit, or the credit the debt, when the account is duly examined and settled, and the ballance taken. I owe you 300*l.* for the ballance of our account. There is so much due to me for the ballance of our account.

ACCOUNT in **Bank**, is a fund which merchants, traders, bankers, and other private persons, if they think fit, deposit into the common cash of some bank, to be employed in the payment of bills of exchange, promissory notes, bonds, debts contracted, either in trade or otherwise, as by buying estates in land, &c.

The French, in their mercantile writings, commonly use certain characters, or initial letters, to signify in brief, the different kinds of accounts kept by merchants and traders; **C.** signifies *compte* (account) **C. O.** open account (*compte ouvert*) **C. C.** *compte courant* (account current) **M. C.** (*mon compte* (my account) **S. C.** *son compte* (his account) **L. C.** *leur compte* (their account) **N. C.** *notre compte* (our account). A man is said to teach the keeping of books of accounts, when he teaches the manner of keeping them in a proper order, either by single or double entry.

Merchants and traders, in *France*, are obliged to deliver in their books of accounts, in good form, when legally required.

To affirm an ACCOUNT, is to declare and make oath that it is true. The accountable when they deliver in their accounts, in order to their being examined, usually write in the margin of the first page, 'Presented such a day, and affirmed true.'

To dispute an ACCOUNT, is to make remarks or objections upon the several articles of an account, either for augmenting the receipt, or diminishing the expence therein contained.

To note an ACCOUNT, is to make, in the margin of each article, certain remarks, shewing either that there is no exception to be made, and that they are to pass as set down, or reasons for disputing them, and shewing under what conditions they are to pass. The remarks which the person who audits an account, sets on the side of each article by way of approbation, or otherwise, are called the notes (apostrophes) of an account.

ACCOUNT in Company, is a species of account between two merchants, or traders, in consequence of a kind of association, or partnership between them.

ACCOUNT is also a relative term, used with regard to a partnership, when two or more persons make receipts or disbursements on account of each other. In this sense a man is said to keep a good account, to signify that he is just in his dealings, and does not defraud his partners or masters.

ACCOUNT also signifies gain, profit, advantage, and, in French, the word compte is also taken for a good bargain. The most common expressions in which this term is used, as to trade and merchandize, are the following: the merchants have perfectly found their account, in the effects they have bought this year of the French East-India company, at the sale of Nantz. Some manufacturers work at a better account (that is, cheaper) than others. People find their account in buying goods at the first hand, where they are made; and, finally, a merchant is said to have made his small account (in French, son petit compte) when he has acquired a competent fortune in the trade wherein he was concerned.

ACCOUNT is also used to signify voluntary disbursements and charges, which are to be at the expender's loss, and cannot be passed in account. They say, if he expends beyond his orders, it will be on his own account. If he commits errors in his calculations; if he suffers himself to be robbed, it shall be on his own account; that is to say, it will not be allowed in his accounts; it will be entirely to his own loss.

The French say, to receive à bon compte, or à compte, that is, on account, to signify, to receive a sum on condition of deducting it from what is due. To pay à bon compte, is to pay on account, on condition also of deducting it from the debt.

ACCOUNT (compte) as also used in various mercantile and proverbial phrases, but with different significations. The French say, He has his account (il en a pour son compte) that is, he is cheated, made a bubble, he is caught, or taken in. He takes it to his account (il le prend sur son compte) to signify, that a man charges himself with a thing, and answers for it. Good accounts make good friends; which implies, that people cannot continue friends, without mutually keeping their engagements, and observing the rules of justice and equity. They say also, à tout bon compte revenir, good accounts will suffer a revival; to intimate, that those need not fear coming to a second account, when there has been no deceit in the first, though there may have been some involuntary mistake or oversight in it.

The French use the word compte (account) in several other significations, which it would be superfluous to repeat here.

ACCOUNT-Paper, is a sort of fine large paper, so called at the paper mills in France, and by the stationers and others who trade in paper, because accounts are commonly wrote upon it. It is like our post-paper in England, on which merchants generally write their commercial letters, and draw out their various accounts.

ACCOUNT of Sales, is an account given by one merchant to another, or by one factor to his principal of the disposal, charges, commission, and net proceeds of certain merchandizes sent for the proper, or company account of him, who consigned the same to such factor or vender.

When the like account is inland or domestic, the same is transmitted in the current money of that country, wherein the business is transacted. As from a Blackwell-hall factor to the clothiers in the country, or from the warehousers in town, who deal by commission for the country manufacturers, as bay-factors, druggist and duroy-factors, and the like.

E X A M P L E.

The following is the natural form of a Blackwell-hall factor's account of sales to a clothier.

C | D | Account of Sales, charges and net proceeds [or produce]
 of 20 pieces of superfine cloths, received per A B's
 wagon of —, consigned to me by C D of Wiltshire,
 for his account, marked and numbered as per margin.

Jan. 5th, 1750. Sold to E F draper, 6 ps. superfines, per A B. qt. — yards at — per yard, to pay in 6 months — — £

Jan. 12, 1750. Sold to G H, 14 ps. ditto
 qt. — yards at — per yard, to pay in 6
 months — — — — — £

C H A R G E S.

Paid carriage to London £
 Portage and warehouse room £
 Postage of letters £
 Commission a — per cloth £

Deduct charges £ from the sales.

The net proceed is paid to the credit of your account, without my prejudice.

London, Feb. 10, 1750. E. E. N. O.

R E M A R K S.

1. . . It must be observed that, in this domestic or inland account of sales, the manufacturer is supposed to run all the hazard in the sales, and that the factor has only his common commission of so much per cloth for the sale thereof. This is plain from the words, 'without my prejudice'; the meaning of which is, that, if the buyer should fail, the clothier must stand to the loss.

2. . . But some manufacturers, perhaps the generality, rather chuse that their factors should run the hazard of bad debts, their residence in town giving them opportunity of knowing the characters of buyers, and inducing them to be the more cautious whom they trust. In which case, the factor is allowed an extra-commission for standing the middle-man; which is reasonable.

3. . . If the manufacturer chuses to run the hazard himself, then he cannot expect his money before it becomes due from the buyer. But if it should so happen, that he stands in need of some part of his money before that, as is commonly the case, the factor permits him to draw for such a proportion thereof as they shall agree upon, the manufacturer allowing the factor the common provision for thus advancing the money before it becomes due.

Yet, under these circumstances, the factor has the security of the manufacturer, as well as the buyer, since he did not allow the factor an extra-commission to induce him to remain answerable for bad debts.

4. . . As the generality of manufacturers cannot afford to be so long out of their money, as the usual time of giving credit requires, it is the more ordinary practice for the factor to stand to bad debts, on consideration of having greater commission allowed him on the sales, and to have provision also for what money he advances before the time of payment.

Mr. Locke says, 'that the multiplying of brokers is prejudicial to the trade of any country; that they eat up too great a share of the gains of trade, and therefore, he observes, it would be convenient to hinder, as much as is possible, any one from selling any of our native commodities, but he that makes them; shopkeepers in this being worse than gamesters; for they do not only keep so much of the money of a country constantly in their hands, but also make the public pay them for their keeping of it.'

These are severe reflections upon shopkeepers, factors, and brokers, and indeed very unjustly grounded. For, if the clothier was to attempt to act both in the capacity of a factor and a woollen-draper, who must attend his manufacture in the country? While his attention was fixed in town upon the sales, might not the commodity dwindle and degenerate in quality; and thus the clothier, by over-acting his part in one shape, under-act it in another? Was this maxim in general to take effect, it might prove the ruin of all our manufactures, by gradually debasing them.

Besides, for a clothier to take this upon him, not only requires three times the capital, but such an expence by town residence, as, I am afraid, would prove of little benefit to him in the long-run; especially, as the nature of credit is at present circumstanced.

'Tis true, these middle-men between the manufacturer and consumer may be said to be instrumental to enhance the price of our manufactures among ourselves; and this was Mr. Locke's motive for bearing so hard upon them. But 'tis much to be doubted, whether the public could have their manufactures cheaper at home, was the clothier to take upon him to act in a treble capacity, he being obliged to raise the price of his commodity, in proportion to the extraordinary expence he is at.

Manufacturers, who have thought themselves injured by their factors, which doubtless is sometimes the case, have attempted this, but few have found their account in it. Some have carried their view so far, as even to turn merchant-exporters, but to their absolute ruin to my certain knowledge; for the skill of a manufacturer and that of a merchant are very distinct, the knowledge of a Solomon, in the one respect, making him but an idiot in the other.

These observations are not made to discourage, but to caution the ingenious and enterprising manufacturer to be upon his guard, and neither to undertake too much either at home or abroad.

Notwithstanding what has been said, 'tis very desirable that our British manufactures may go as cheap to foreign markets, as those of our rival nations; which are not superior in point of quality. Upon this principle Mr. Locke reasoned; and 'tis upon this principle that merchants of the most money and skill purchase commodities at first hand of the manufacturer, pay him ready cash, and send their goods abroad, with every advantage.

And these exportures of our manufactures, who are not in circumstances to send them abroad at first hand, are an injury, rather than a benefit to the national trade; they injudiciously glutting the markets abroad, which sinks the price too often below what they can afford to sell at; and yet they are importunate for remittances, and thereby force their factors to sell almost at any rate. Such merchants not only hurt the trade of a kingdom, but are sure to hurt themselves, and all who have connexions in trade with them.

A REAL MERCANTILE EXAMPLE.

Account of Sales, and net proceeds of 2 bales of druggets, received per the Hollandia, Capt. Jan. Roeloff Smith; for the account of M. P. of London.

Nov. 4. 1740. Consigned the above 2 bales of druggets qt. 112 pieces qt. 4875 yards as per factory [i. e. invoice, which is frequently filed so] which a 3 1/4 palms per yard are palms 18280 net, a fols 9 s. 4 d. per palm, to pay in two months ————— 8530 13 4
Sold and consigned 2 pieces of white druggets for wrappers as above, for ————— 140 00 0

CHARGES, viz.

Freight and primage ——— 106 5 0
Porters landing and carrying to wareh. 6 0 0
Opening to visit, affording and making up ——— 4 0 0
Warehouse room ——— 8 0 0
Brokerage 2 1/2 per cent. ——— 43 7 0
To commission and standing to bad debts a 4 per cent. ——— 346 16 4

Aggio deducted a 118 2/3 per cent. 8156 5 0
1283 0 2

Genoa, 30th Nov. 1740. E. E. * Bco. 6873 4 10

* E. E. Signifies Errors excepted in the account rendered, and Bco. signifies the Bank money of Genoa.

REMARKS.

- Foreign accounts of sales of merchandizes, are or ought to be, governed in some measure by the invoice, sent therewith from the principal. See INVOICE.
- Merchants, being inured to hazard from their first setting out in life, send their property to foreign countries with as much alacrity, on the good faith and honour of their correspondents, as a monied man lends his property at home on land security. Credit therefore, is the great foundation of commerce between nation and nation, as well as between one man and another in the same nation. Whence it follows, that the first principle the trader should tenaciously cultivate, is the support of his personal credit.
- It too often falls out, that those who take up their residence at foreign factories, no sooner get a house established there, than they use every art to draw people in, to send them large consignments of merchandizes by commission. To which end, they at first make remittances to their principals in a reasonable time, and give them an handsome profit upon their goods, in order to induce them to increase their consignments.
- When they have thus drawn people in to entrust a large fortune in their hands abroad, it is then that they too often begin to use every dishonourable art, to keep them out of their money. If you pres for remittances, you are given to understand, that nothing can procure them but fresh consignments, which have proved the ruin of many; and, if you draw upon them for your property, your credit may suffer by that means at home.
- On these considerations, our most opulent and experienced merchants have established houses of their own at many of the British factories in foreign countries; wherein they breed up a succession of persons, whom they gradually take into partnership, which makes it for their interest to be punctual and faithful.
- Such capital houses seldom take commission from any, but the persons who are the principals belonging to those houses: and such are generally capable to supply them, with whatever

goods they are able to vend, and those too with that variety of assortments, which engage the natives to give the preference to these houses, in their general dealings.

7. Other houses, which take commissions in the general, and never give any in return, too often use no little craft in the making out their foreign accounts of sales, by couching great impositions under many of their articles of charges, which they have never paid.

8. Nor is this the only practice which ought to be guarded against. Goods perhaps may be sold at three or four months credit, or for ready money, and yet the principal kept out of his property for years, by false and frivolous pretences.

These arts are mentioned, with a view only to guard the young and unexperienced from being too easily ensnared; and we hope they will have the good effect thereby intended.

ACCOUNTANT, or ACCOMPTANT, one who is not only well skilled in casting up all sorts of accounts, and readily performs all arithmetical operations, but who is versed in the art of book-keeping, by charge and discharge, or by debtor and creditor.

This appellation is applicable to a person, or officer, appointed to keep the accounts of a public company, or office; as the accountant of the South-Sea, or India company, or of the Bank, the Custom-house, or Excise, &c.

ACCOUNTANTSHIP, comprehends not only a skill in figures or arithmetic, but a knowledge in the art of account-keeping by debtor and creditor, or by the method of regular charge and discharge, according to the nature of the transactions; which method keeps every distinct account, if they are ever so numerous, always fit for a balance: and that balance is found by subtracting the sum total on the debit side from the sum total on the credit side, or the sum total of the latter from that of the former.

To be fundamentally grounded in arithmetical operations requires a competent acquaintance with geometry and algebra, because the geometric and algebraic way of reasoning discovers certain rules and theorems, whereby to calculate numerically in the most concise manner: and to be properly grounded in the nature of debtor and creditor requires a knowledge in the art of keeping accounts, according to the method of double entry, or what is commonly distinguished by the Italian method of Book-keeping, or by the name of Merchant's Accounts.

From hence it may be observed, that no person can be properly said to be duly skilled in accountantship, without being skilled in the art of debtor and creditor, as well as in that of numbers: nor, on the other hand, does any one deserve the name of an accountant, who is only acquainted with book-keeping, and not with figures.

The art of accountantship is not only applicable to the regular adjustment of the variety of transactions among traders of every denomination, but also to the private affairs of gentlemen and noblemen. And as it well becomes all persons of the greatest distinction to take due care of their estates; so nothing, perhaps, can have a happier tendency to that end, than a knowledge in the art of debtor and creditor, as well as that of numbers. For 'merchants accounts, says Mr. Locke, though a science not likely to help a gentleman to get an estate, yet possibly there is not any thing of more use and efficacy to make him preserve the estate he has. 'Tis seldom observed, that he who keeps an account of his income and expence, and thereby has constantly under view the course of his domestic affairs, lets them run to ruin. And I doubt not but many a man gets behind-hand before he is aware, or runs farther on, when he is once in, for want of this care, or the skill to do it. I would therefore advise all gentlemen to learn perfectly merchants accounts, and not to think it a skill that belongs not to them, because it has received its name, and has been chiefly practised by men of traffic.'

Nor is accountantship less useful to the gentlemen of the law, than to private gentlemen; and not only to those who are intended for the bar, but to all solicitors and attornies; litigations between traders making so considerable a proportion of the business of our courts of law and equity. Without the perfect knowledge of debtor and creditor in particular, accounts may be so craftily and sophistically stated, as to deceive the most upright judge and jury, as well as the council, if they are not capable of unravelling them in the course of their pleadings.

Persons of distinction also, who are concerned in the chief posts of the public revenue, or who act in the senatorial capacity, cannot be too well skilled in accountantship. The one will thereby be enabled to acquit himself with credit and reputation, in whatever branch of the revenue he shall be employed; and the other will become perfectly acquainted with the finances and money affairs of the kingdom. For such is the nature and excellency of the mercantile art of debtor and creditor by double entry, that it is as easily applicable to the accounts of nations as to those of traders, or private gentlemen, millions being as familiarly adjusted thereby, as hundreds of pounds. When once a person is acquainted with the several funds from whence the national revenue arises, as likewise their appropriations to the payment

of interest of certain national creditors; when it is duly observed in what manner the deficiencies of some funds are occasionally supplied, and the surpluses of others transferred: when the general heads of such accounts are understood from the statutes, and the accounts annually laid before the parliament are duly attended to, any gentleman, well grounded in the art of debtor and creditor, may obtain as complete a knowledge of the money affairs of the nation, as of his own private concerns: that is, when he is a master of the facts relating thereunto, and the distinct heads under which the funds are kept, he will be capable so to state these accounts by way of charge and discharge, or debit and credit, as always to have a satisfactory view before him of the state of the national debts and funds, and of the several variations they shall from time to time undergo. See **MERCHANTS ACCOUNTS**, or the nature of debtor and creditor, according to the method of double entry.

ACCOUNTING-HOUSE, COUNTING-HOUSE, or COMPTING-HOUSE, is a place set apart by merchants, and other traders, wherein to transact their business, and to keep their books of accounts and vouchers relating thereunto.

R E M A R K S.

It is the custom of the Dutch merchants in Holland to keep a kind of Public Counting houses, for the reception of a number of gentlemen's sons of fortune, more particularly of the English, Scots, and Irish, who pay them at the rate of one hundred pounds sterling per ann. and continue with them upon that footing from year to year, as long as they please. It is common to see ten, or a dozen, or more of these young people in a Dutch counting-house; some being weak enough to imagine, that a foreign country is the best place to be bred in, in order to understand the British commerce, and that there are no merchants who reside in England, are able to qualify their sons so well as foreigners who reside abroad.

An humble attempt, however, was lately made to introduce something of the like kind of practice, of keeping a Public Counting-house in our own country; and accordingly, a treatise was published for that intent, entitled 'The Merchant's Public Counting-house, or the New Mercantile Institution:' wherein is shewn the necessity of young merchants being bred to trade with greater advantages than they usually are: with a practicable plan for that purpose.

In this plan are digested, in miniature, the various qualifications, which have been judged necessary to form the accomplished British merchant. And, however low an idea some may entertain of the abilities of such a trader, it is presumed that, upon the perusal of the before-mentioned tract, they will be of a different opinion. Persons of candor and impartiality, it is imagined, will therein see, that it is not thrusting a young spark into any counting-house, either at home, or abroad, that is likely to qualify him to save, much less to improve, an handsome fortune by merchandising. Those who are desirous of perusing this tract, may meet with it at Mr. Horsfield's, bookseller in Ludgate-street, by asking for Postlethway's Merchant's Public Counting-house, or New Mercantile Institution, &c.

ACHAIA, now Livadia, a province of Turkey in Europe, is bounded on the north by Epirus, by Thessaly, from which it is divided by mount Oeta, now Banina, and by the Eurius, now the straight of Negropont; on the east by the Archipelago; on the south it has the gulph of Engia, or Egina, the isthmus of Corinth, and the gulph of Lepanto; and, on the west, the Ionian sea, and part of Epirus. Achaia is at present divided into three parts: namely, 1. Livadia, properly so called. 2. Stramulipa, or Stramnzupa. 3. The dutchy of Athens.

A little way out of Thebes there is a hill, where they dig a kind of stone, of which they make bowls for tobacco-pipes. The stone, when it is first dug out of a deep pit, is of the colour of new cheese, and almost as soft, being in lumps commonly as big as a man's two fists. This they bring to the town, and carve very curiously into bowls of pipes; and as soon as it is dry, it grows very hard, as white as snow, and shining. The natural dexterity of the people of Athens, in all the little matters they undertake, shews itself extraordinary, as in buying, selling, and in all their domestic affairs; and it is observed by Mr. Wheeler, that so much of their ancient spirit remains, that few towns in Turkey have preserved themselves so well as this, or enjoy greater privileges, under the tyranny of the Turks. Some other cities, indeed, seem, by trading, more rich: but is it not a wonder, that Athens, though she has had but an equal share in the ill fortune of all those noble cities of the East under the dominion of the Turks, should be inferior to many of them in trade, when she wants neither good harbours, nor good merchandizes for general commerce? The revenue of the city is raised upon the customs, caratchs, or poll-money, weights of the town, avenues, or amercements, tenths, and vellanies; these latter are the cups of acorns, with which they tan their leather. They also who carry merchandizes to any fair must pay a certain duty to the Veivode, who receives the whole revenues, and pays to the Kiasar Aga, or chief of the black Eunuchs, 30,000 crowns a year for his place, which yet brings him in 5000 crowns more, all charges and expences defrayed.

Livadia is large and populous, and is inhabited by many rich Turks, who are more numerous here than the Christians, and there are but few Jews. The trade consists in some woollen stuffs, made here, and in rice, which they sell ready husked, and prepared by water-mills, and therewith they furnish all the adjacent country.

The inhabitants of Megara, which are all Christians, get their living by tilling the ground, for which they have half the crop; the rest goes to the Turks, as their landlords under the Grand Seigneur. They also make pitch, and saw boards and planks, out of the pines and firs, which grow in great abundance on the mountains about them.

The trade of Salona consists in some cotton, but chiefly in tobacco; of which 15 okas are worth but one dollar: an oka weighs about 42 ounces.

The little trade they have at Delphos, now Castri, consists in cotton and tobacco; their wine is exceeding good.

The trade of Lepanto consists in leather, oil, tobacco, rice, barley, and wheat: furs are also pretty cheap here. On each side of the city, under a mountain, are fruitful vallies, which stretch out towards the sea. That to the westward is well planted with olives, vineyards, and corn; and that to the eastward is equally well planted, and divided into gardens of oranges, citrons, and lemons. The wine here is the best in Greece.

All ships that pass out of the gulph of Patras pay 3 per cent. custom to the Emir, who pays about 6000 crowns rent per ann. for his office.

ACHIA, a kind of cane that grows in the East Indies, which is pickled green in the country, with strong vinegar, pepper, and some other spice and ingredients. This pickle comes to Europe in a sort of earthen jars, about a foot high, and the same in breadth, growing narrower at the mouth. The bits of cane are an inch and a half in diameter, and a little above two inches long, almost of the same consistency with pickled cucumbers, being no less crisp, and cutting as well. They are of a pale yellow colour; and, instead of pulps, their inside is a close, fibrous substance, like that of the common canes, when the outside coat is off. The Dutch bring home great quantities of this pickle, which their cold climate makes them think wholesome. They generally eat it towards the end of their meals, judging it very good to quicken the appetite, and strengthen the stomach, because of the strong vinegar, lemon, pepper, and other spices, of which the pickle is made up, and in which the achia must always lie, in order to keep it, give it a sharp taste, and make it very hot and fiery.

This fruit is also called achiar. It is a green, which is preserved in vinegar. It is extremely esteemed throughout all the East-Indies, and they drive a prodigious great trade in it. The best comes from Persia, and is preserved in bottles, almost after the same manner as those small cucumbers are in France, which they call cornichons. Each sort of fruit is not preserved by itself, but several sorts are put together into the same bottle.

ACHIAR, is a Malayan word, which signifies all sorts of fruits and roots, pickled with vinegar and spice. The Dutch import from Batavia all sorts of achiar, which the Chinese make after the manner of the Malayans; but particularly that of bamboe, a kind of cane, extraordinary thick, which grows in the East-Indies, and is preserved there, whilst it is still green, with very strong vinegar and spice. This is called bamboe-achiar. The name changes according to the fruit with which the achiar is made.

ACHIOTL, a name given by the Brazilians to a drug used in dyeing, more commonly called Rocou. See **ROCOU**.

ACHTELING, a measure for liquids, used in Germany. Thirty-two achtelings make a heemer; four seiltems, or seiltems, make an achteling.

ACHTENDELEN, or **ACHTELING**, a measure for grain, used in some parts of Holland. Two hoeds of Gorcum make five achtendeelens; 28 achtendeelens of Aasperen make 32 of Rotterdam, which contain only 26 of Worcum. 29 achtendeelens of Delft make 12 viertels of Antwerp. Four achtendeelens $\frac{2}{3}$ of Delft make the hoed of Bruges.

ACICOCA, an herb that grows in Peru, and is sometimes used instead of the herb of Paraguay, of which it is said to have all the properties. A great quantity of it is yearly carried from Lima, and other parts of Peru, to the city of Avira, from whence it is sent to Potosi, especially when that of Paraguay is very scarce, and consequently dear.

ACORI, or **BLUE CORAL**. The true acori is very scarce; some, however, is fished upon the coast of Africa, particularly from Rio-del-re, to the river of the Camarones. This coral is part of the merchandizes which the Dutch trade for with the Camarones: that of the kingdom of Benin is also very much esteemed. It grows, in the form of a tree, upon a rocky bottom. See **CORAL**.

ACQUIESCENCE, in the French commerce, signifies the consent that a merchant, or other person, gives to carry into execution the determination given either by arbitration, or by a consul, or by any other resolution, in the course of justice. There is no receding from such a judgment

or sentence, after an acquiescence, or agreement thereunto. See **ARBITRATION**.

ACQUITTANCE, in France, a kind of discharge upon stamped paper, which is made out and delivered to traders, factors, or carriers, by the officers, receivers, and comptrollers of the two grand farms, established for the imports and exports in the kingdom of France, and the provinces reputed foreign.

There are four sorts of acquittances; those of payment; those of caution, or precaution; those for security of passing, or those of personal security, or bail; and those of certificates of franchise.

The **ACQUITTANCE** of payment mentions the quantity, quality, weight, or value of the merchandize; the number of chests, bales, and packs, in which they are contained; their marks and numbers; the leaden-marks or tickets affixed to them; the sum paid for duties of import or export; the merchant's name for whose account they are sent; the place where they are to be unladen; and the road the carriers are to go. This acquittance, or certificate of payment, must go with the merchandize, and remain at the last office of the customs, to be revised and examined by the clerks of the farms, in order to know whether the duties have been fully received or not; and, in case they were not fully received, to cause the deficiency to be paid by the merchant to whom the merchandizes belong. Besides all these particulars being enumerated in such acquittance of payment, the time in which the merchandize is to arrive at the last custom-house, is also mentioned; after which they remain void, and cannot be received by the officers, except there has been some lawful hindrance, which must be proved by a verbal process, in due form. The carriers are also forbidden to pass by any other custom-house, except those mentioned in the acquits, and are obliged to carry the goods directly to all the offices of the customs upon their route, and present their acquits, in order to their being indorsed, viz. seen; and, finally, to leave them at the last office, where, after the chests, packs, or bales, have been opened and inspected, the officers deliver to them a warrant, called *brevet de controle*, without any charge. The carriers are also obliged to produce their acquits on the first demand of the officers of the customs, whom they meet upon their route, at whose discretion it is to keep them, on delivering, in the like manner, a *brevet de controle*; though the opening can be done no where but in the custom-houses, and of such goods only as have not been visited before, it being prohibited, with regard to those that have already been examined, to open them any where but at the last office of the customs. All this is directed by the *Ordonnance* of the five great farms, of February 1687, Tit. 2. Act. 16, 17, 18, 19, 20.

The **ACQUITTANCE** of caution, or precaution, or of security, or bail, is delivered by the officers of the customs to a private person, who binds himself as security, that a bale of merchandize shall be inspected by the officers of the custom-house at the place to which it is consigned, and that the customs, if there are any due, shall be paid there; in consequence of which, the bale is packed, corded, and loaded, at the office, where the acquittance is delivered, that it may not be opened, nor the goods changed, upon the route they are to go. And, when the bale arrives at the place of its destination, and the merchandizes, and other things contained in it, have been examined and visited by the inspector, the receiver and comptroller, on the inspector's certificate, cause the duties to be paid, if any are due, and endorse the receipt upon the back of the acquittance, which is afterwards sent back to the person who bound himself, to be returned by him to the officers from whom he had it, in order to his being discharged from his bond.

The **ACQUITTANCE** for security of transit, or passage, relates to certain merchandizes; or materials, for working and manufacturing; such as are exempt from the duties of import and export in the kingdom of France, and also from tolls, grants, and other imposts; as are those which relate to the manufactures established in the towns and districts of Lille, Doway, Orchies, Tournay, and other cities in the Low Countries, conquered by the King of France in Flanders, or yielded to him by treaties of peace, or truce, and which are entered and cleared at the custom-houses of Calais, Bayonne, Sestome, near Marfeilles, Pont de Beauvoisin, Straßburg, and Peronne, to be sent into the Indies, Spain, Italy, and England.

This acquittal is usually delivered by the officers of the customs at Lille, according to the certificate of the magistrate of the town, and mentions the name of the person for whose account the merchandizes are, their quantity, quality, and weight; the number of the bales, packs, or chests, in which they are contained; how corded, packed, and loaded; their marks and numbers; the custom-houses through which they are to enter and clear: that they are not to be lodged any where, except in the custom-houses through which they are to pass, nor opened, except at the last office on the frontier, where they are to clear, and to be viewed and visited by the officers of the farms. For security of which, the merchant, or who consigns them, enters into a bond

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to bring in, within four months from the delivery of the acquittance, a certificate in due form, that the said merchandizes have been found, in number, weight, quantity, and quality, with the bales, package, and leads of the custom-house, whole and entire, conformably to the acquittance. This certificate, being endorsed upon the back of the acquittance, the security is discharged, without any difficulty.

The **ACQUITTANCE**, or certificate of franchises, concerns the exemption from the duties of export on merchandizes, intended to be sent out of the kingdom, which are bought and sent away during the franchises, or freedom of fairs.

They are particularly used at Lyons, during the four free fairs, which are those of Twelfth-day, Easter, August, and All-faints, each of which continue a fortnight free, and begin as follows: That of Twelfth-day, the first Monday after that festival; that of Easter, the first Monday after Low Sunday; that of August, the 4th of that month; and that of All-faints, the 3d of November.

This acquittance, or certificate of franchises, is at first delivered by the receivers and comptrollers deputed, or appointed, by the provost of the merchants, and by the aldermen of the city; it mentions the person for whose account the merchandizes are, their quantity, quality, weight, the number of bales, packs, or chests; that they have paid none of the usual duties of the city, and that the said bales, packs, or chests, were taken away, and loaded, during the time of the franchise, or freedom of the fair, and have been marked by them, with a particular mark, of which there is a stamp in the margin of the certificate; and that they contain no prohibited or contraband goods. On the back of this acquittance, or certificate, must be set down the warrant of the clerks of the general office of the custom-house, to the clerk of the gates of the city, commanding him to certify the going out of the bales, packs, or chests, mentioned in the acquittance, or certificate of the magistrates of the city, and that the duties are allowed to have been paid during the fair; and that declaration has been made, that they shall be exported out of the kingdom, through such a province. It must be observed, that, in order to have the benefit of the franchise for exemption from duties, the merchandizes must be carried out of the town, towards the end of each fair, and out of the kingdom before the first day of the fair next following; except, however, in cases of just and legal hindrances.

The acquittance, or certificate, or permit, as we term it in English, of franchise, must go along with the merchandize, to the last office of export, and remain there.

ACQUITTANCE, among the French merchants, signifies also a receipt. Paid such a one, by acquittance, of such a day; that is to say, upon receipt, or acquittance. When a banker, or any other person, gives to a servant, or porter, a bill of exchange that is due, in order to go and receive the payment of it, he generally endorses it in blank; that is, leaving a void space above his name, that the receipt may be wrote there. But a man must always take care, with regard to those blank endorsements, to put the words, "pour acquit," for receipt, or acquittance, under his name, that the void space may not be filled up with an order payable to another, which might be attended with very bad consequences.

To **ACQUIT**, signifies also in French, to pay the duties of import or export for merchandizes, as they are imported into, or exported out of, cities, and at the custom-houses. Thus they say, 'that merchant drives a vast trade, he has 'acquitted (that is, he has paid) this year, above 100,000 'livres duty to the king.' It signifies also to pay one's debts: 'this merchant has at last acquitted himself towards 'his creditors;' that is, he has paid them entirely. They also say, to acquit bills of exchange, promissory notes, bonds, &c. that is, to pay them.

ACQUITTANCE, a release, or discharge, in writing, of a payment, debt, or any other thing we are obliged to pay or perform. Some acquittances are made before a notary-public, and others only under a person's private sign manual; they are both equally good, but not equally safe with regard to what may happen afterwards, the latter being sometimes liable to very great inconveniencies.

The receipt wrote on the back of a bill of exchange that is paid, is properly a true acquittance.

ACTION, a right which a person has to sue for any demand or pretension, at law. It is also said of actions entered against a person, and of the proceedings carried on for asserting and proving one's right.

ACTION, in French commerce, signifies sometimes the moveable effects: thus they say, that a merchant's creditors have seized upon all his actions; which is as much as to say, that they have taken possession of all his active debts, that is, the debts owed to him.

ACTION REDHIBITORY, is an action at law by which the buyer may oblige the seller to take back damaged goods, or such as do not prove according to the agreement.

ACTION of a Company is an equal part, or portion of stock, of which several, joined together, make the capital fund, or stock, of a trading company. Thus a company which has 300 actions, of a 1000 l. each, has a fund of 300,000 l.

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which is to be understood in proportion as the actions are settled at a larger or smaller sum. A merchant, or any other person, is said to have 4 or 6 actions in a company, when he has contributed to the capital stock, and is concerned in it for, 4 or 6000 l. if the actions are 1000 l. as we have just supposed.

A proprietor cannot have a deliberative vote in the assemblies of a company, unless he has a certain number of actions, fixed by the letters patents of it's establishment; nor can he be a director, unless he has still a greater number of actions. This proportion of actions, in order to a deliberative vote, or the directorship, is mentioned in another place. See **TRADING COMPANIES**.

ACTION signifies also the bonds, contracts, and acknowledgements, or **STOCK** in general, which the directors of trading companies transfer, or deliver, to those who have paid their money into the company's cash, and made themselves proprietors. Thus to deliver an action, is to expedite in due form the title by which the actionary becomes a proprietor of the action he has taken out.

The actions of trading companies rise or fall, according as such companies gain or lose credit. A very small matter often occasions this rising or falling of the actions, and frequently an uncertain rumour of a rupture between neighbouring powers, or the hope of an approaching peace, when they are at war, is sufficient to lower, or raise the price considerably, at which they are usually negotiated. It was seen in France, in the year 1719, how far the credit of a company is capable to carry that of its actions: those of the company of the West-Indies, known since by the name of the India company, having rose, in less than six months time, to 1,900 per cent. which had never happened to any other company, however high it's credit or power were.

Before the war which France declared against the States General of the United Provinces, in 1672, the actions of the Dutch East-India company had rose to 650 per cent. which is the utmost height to which they were ever known to arrive. But, in the first months of that war, which was like to have proved so fatal to that republic, the actions fell to less than 250. The company having afterwards retrieved themselves, their actions rose again, after the peace of Nimeguen in 1678. The different ruptures that have happened since, between France and Holland, till the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, either on the account of the league of Augsburgh, or the succession of Spain, did indeed occasion some fall in the actions, but always inconsiderable in comparison to that of 1672; and they easily resumed their price at the end of each war, and even rose higher than they had been before: so that, in the year 1718, they were not much below 600 per cent. the actionists, as they are called in Holland, thereby seeing their capital increased to six times it's original value, and each action, which, at the establishment of the company, cost only 500 livres de Gros, or 3000 florins, being then worth 18000 florins.

The trade of actions, or stocks, is one of the most considerable that is carried on upon the exchange at Amsterdam, and in all the other cities of the United Provinces, where there are chambers, or courts, of the East-India company; and there are even great numbers of people who subsist and enrich themselves by this traffic only. What renders this trade so common, and often so profitable, in Holland, is, because it can be carried on without any great fund of ready money, and consists only, if we may use the expression, in a continual vicissitude of buying and selling of actions, which they buy when they fall, and sell out again when they rise.

In the buying or selling of actions of the Dutch East-India company, a broker is almost always employed; and when the price is agreed upon, the seller transfers them, and signs the acquittance, or receipt, in the presence of one of the directors, who causes them to be booked by the secretary, or register, which is sufficient for transferring the property of the stock sold, from the seller to the buyer.

The broker's fee for his trouble is usually at the rate of six florins for each action of 3000 florins, one half paid by the buyer, and the other by the seller.

It is not so easy to speak of the trade in the actions of the French company, as of that in the actions of the Dutch companies every thing in the latter being transacted with the utmost regularity, and exact form; and all things in the former being at first conducted with a kind of frenzy, which seemed to have seized all persons, whom the prudence of the directors could not moderate for a great while; and which had, in a manner, cleared all the shops at Paris of their traders, to make as many brokers or stock-jobbers of them, and had robbed the neighbouring states of their inhabitants, who came to share the immense fortunes of the street called Quinquempoix, where the caprice of the people had in a manner fixed the center of that rich traffic, as Change-alley, near the Royal Exchange, was at London, in 1720.

The method of transferring Actions, or Stocks, at Amsterdam.

When two persons have agreed between themselves, or by

the assistance of a broker, upon the price of one or more actions, and they are to be delivered, the seller goes to the East-India house, to make his declaration to the book-keeper, who immediately enters it; and, after having made the seller sign it, causes it also to be subscribed by one of the directors, before whom the seller must likewise declare, by word of mouth, that he has sold it. The transfer being thus registered, and the seller having informed the buyer of it, the latter has a right to go and assure himself farther of it at the East-India house, in case he does not think fit to trust the person with whom he has negotiated: after which, he ought to cause the value of the actions transferred to be passed over at the bank to the sellers account, who, when he is certain that the value has been placed to his account, or credit; at the bank, returns to the East-India house, and signs the acquittance, or receipt, at the bottom of the transfer which he has made. As long as this acquittance is not signed, the purchaser cannot dispose of the actions transferred, though he has paid for them: but, in case of the seller's refusal to sign such acquittance, after receiving the full value, he may be compelled to do so, only by a petition to the echevins, or aldermen. Each transfer costs three florins and ten stivers, both, for the seal, and to the book keeper.

It must be observed, that the registers of transfers consist of printed forms, in which the clerks have only to fill up the blank. These forms are called Seals, because they have an impress upon them, not unlike the stamped paper of France; This regulation for the transfer of actions was established by several placarts, or decrees, of the States-General of the United Provinces; and, among others, by those of July 15, 1621, May 30, 1624, and September 16, 1677. By the same decrees, all persons, of what quality soever, are prohibited to sell, either for a fixed term, or for the present, any actions of the company, either for their own account, or the account of others, unless the said actions be really and actually entered in their name, or in the name of those for whom they sell, at the time of such sale, upon penalty of the seller's paying a fine of one fourth part of the price for which they shall have sold them: ordering further, that the transfer of them shall be registered within the space of 14 days after the sale, if they were sold in a city where an office or chamber of the East-India company is kept, or within a month, if it be in another city, under the same penalty of being fined a fourth; nor shall the contracting parties have power to except against those placarts, or decrees, nor the brokers for them, upon pain of the latter being immediately deprived of their office, and for such as are not brokers to be punished arbitrarily, as the case shall require.

The French ACTIONS are, at present, of three sorts; namely, simple actions, actions rentieres, or rent actions, and actions intéressées, or actions bearing interest.

The simple ACTIONS are those which have a share in all the company's profits and losses, having no other security than the company's fund only.

The ACTIONS rentieres, or rent actions, are those which have a profit certain of two per cent. for which the king made himself security, as he was formerly for the annuities upon the city; but they have no share in the dividends.

The ACTIONS intéressées, or bearing interest, are, as it were, a medium between the two former; they have two per cent. fixed revenue, with the king's security, like the rent-actions; and must, besides, share the over-plus of the dividends, with the simple actions. These actions were established in behalf of ecclesiastical communities, who might have money to put out to use.

Besides this distinction of actions, authorized by the king's edicts and declarations, the caprice of the stock-jobbers of the street Quinquempoix had invented many others; as actions of the old west, actions of the five hundred, of mothers, of daughters, of grand-mothers, of grand-daughters, and some others equally ridiculous. But, as all these terms came to nothing at the same time, with the credit of that street, it would be useless to trouble the reader with an explanation of these bubbles.

We shall only add here some other more successful terms, which had their day in the traffic of actions. Such are those of dividend, of well fed actions (nourrir) to feed an action, and to turn an action into cash; all these expressions, being pretty well established in the trade of actions, deserve a place in this Dictionary.

To feed an ACTION, is to pay exactly, when they become due, the several sums subscribed to the stock of the company, according to the orders of council, made for the creation of the new actions; to sell or dispose of them, according to the occasion, for cash, either to feed other actions, or for other affairs.

An ACTION fed, is one upon which all the payments have been made, and which is capable of sharing in the dividends of the company's profits. Till this complete and entire payment is made, it is not properly an action, but a subscription. See **SUBSCRIPTION**.

Dividend is what is otherwise called repartition, that is, the part, or share, which each proprietor of actions is to have

out of the profits of a company, in proportion to the number of actions he has in it.

OBSERVATION.

Of the commerce of Actions, or Stocks, in foreign countries, from the remarkable period of the year 1719, to 1721.

What we shall add in this place relates to the actions, or stocks, of foreign companies, which have been carried to as great an excess as those of France, and have met with much the same success; the insatiation and avidity of suddenly growing rich having been in a manner equal amongst almost all the nations of Europe, and made them turn to an ill use one of the best and most advantageous establishments that ever was, for the increase of trade, and to make it flourish in a country.

The example of what passed in France, in the trade of actions, and the immense fortunes which some persons made there, tempted both the English and the Dutch at the same time; so that an infinite number of new companies were soon seen to deluge, in a manner, England and Holland. Amsterdam, Leyden, and Haerlem were almost the only cities in the United Provinces which were not carried away by the torrent; and so prodigious a number of those chimerical establishments were seen in London, that the whole trade of that great metropolis was almost reduced to the sole negotiation of stocks; which, by their fall, ruined the fortunes of many considerable merchants, and several of the most illustrious families of Great Britain.

The companies whose stocks, or actions, made the greatest noise at London, were, among the old ones, the South Sea, the East-India, and the Bank.

The South-Sea stock, which, in the beginning of April 1720, was only at 120 per cent. was raised, in the month of July following, to 1020 per cent.

Bank stock rose from 148 to 300, and East-India stock from 198 to near 500.

Those times, so favourable to the old proprietors, continued scarce a few months: after several fluctuations, South-Sea stock fell in November to 100, and, towards the beginning of the year 1721, it could be raised only to 150 per cent. Bank stock to 130, and East-India stock to 160: and they fell afterwards into such a discredit, that the parliament made it their chief business, for above a year, to discover and punish the frauds and mismanagements of the cashiers and directors of those three companies, and to restore the credit of their stocks, which could not be accomplished before the year 1723.

The London Assurance company was, of all the new companies in England, that which seemed to make its first appearance, under the most favourable auspices. Its stock, on which only ten per cent. was paid at first, presently rose to 120 per cent. that is, to twelve times the capital paid in, and even to 160. This flourishing state continued but a short time. A storm, which, towards the end of October 1720, occasioned the loss of twelve Jamaica ships, gave the affairs of that infant company so terrible a shock, that its stocks fell the same month to 60; other losses having also weakened it some time after, the stocks fell to 12 or 15 per cent. In short, towards the close of the same year, this promising company scarce subsisted, but in the complaints the proprietors made of being cheated by the directors.

The actions of the new companies established in Holland, or augmented according to the model of those of England, soon experienced the like revolutions:

The directors of the West-India company, having obtained leave from the States-General to take in new subscriptions, at the rate of 250 per cent. soon saw them rise to 650; but, falling afterwards almost on a sudden, they came down to cent. per cent.

The actions of the company of Assurance, established at Rotterdam, in the beginning of July 1720, on which only 4 stivers per 100 guilders had been advanced, that is to say, 10 guilders for every action of 2500 guilders, soon rose to cent. per cent. But their credit hardly continued some months, when no body would give 18 per cent. for them.

Those of Gouda (or Ter Goude) for which but one per cent. was paid in, after having sold at the rate of 30 per cent. soon fell again to their original value.

Those of the Delft company met with the same fate, and in a shorter time. Finally, not to tire the reader with a tedious detail of particulars as there was scarce a city in North Holland, even to the most inconsiderable, but where, after the example of Rotterdam, companies of navigation and assurance had been established, so there was not one, in which the avarice of the proprietors was not punished by the fall of their actions, and the entire loss of the money employed in them.

REMARKS.

To caution proprietors of stocks from being hereafter led away by the like insatiations as prevailed in the year 1720 in England.

From this succinct account of the extravagant rise and fall of actions or stocks in these several public companies both at

home and abroad, it may prove useful and agreeable to such of our readers to whom these matters may be new, to give the sentiments of those, who have set the fatal consequences hereof in the strongest light; in order to warn posterity against being led into the like calamitous schemes and projects.

The close connexion which at present subsists between the monied and trading interests of these kingdoms makes this the more natural and necessary in a Dictionary of Commerce; our trade having then received, and always must receive, the greatest injury from such enormous abuses, as took place in our stock negotiations, in that famous æra in England, called the South-Sea year.

Such is the nature of the public credit, that nobody would lend their money to the support of the state under the most pressing emergencies, unless they could have the privilege of buying and selling their property in the public funds, when their occasions required. 'Tis certain, therefore, that the greatest delicacy and tenderness is to be observed, in laying any restraints upon these transactions, lest the public credit should be thereby irrecoverably prejudiced.

In regard to great trading companies and banks, which carry on business, and make thereby a certain and apparent profit, it can never be difficult for the chief managers of such corporations to be able to judge pretty nearly, at all times, of the value of the properties of their constituents: and whenever the value of their actions, by any kind of artifices or unfair practices, are made to rise or fall beyond their real worth, it seems a duty incumbent on them to set the public right upon those interesting occasions.

It has been thought by some very wise and honest men, that one way to prevent those evils, which may attend the sudden and exorbitant rise or fall of stocks, would be, if these companies were obliged, once a year, to state an account of trade, and of their real profits, and lay it before their general court; and if they were tied down from dividing more than their profits, as the Dutch East India company are said to have done, with great honour and stability to that corporation.

The great disproportion between paper and specie currency, in this kingdom, shews, that, without the former, the business and trade of the nation must be, perhaps, proportionably stagnated; unless we could supply our deficiency in currency by hard money.

If by such arts as were practised in the Mississippi and South-Sea times, the stocks of this nation, belonging to our public companies, should be blown up again to be nominally worth one thousand times more than they intrinsically are; although this would increase the quantity of paper circulation, yet, as it would not increase our commerce in proportion, it would only draw the money out of all the channels of trade, and reduce us to real beggary, by grasping at imaginary wealth.

To support the public credit of the nation upon a solid basis, and to prevent the spreading of these corruptions and enormities in our public companies for the future, the sentiments of those cannot be too often inculcated throughout this kingdom, who have zealously laboured to guard us against the like public distress and calamity for the future, which the nation was plunged into in the South-Sea year.

As this matter is set in a strong and affecting light in what was urged by wise and honest men in those frenzied times, we shall give the reader the substance thereof, with some suitable variations. And as for other political hints, which are interlarded, and which are not directly pertinent to the point we intend to illustrate, the reader may pass them over as he thinks proper; since mangling the piece would destroy the spirit of it.

The gentleman, whose sentiments these are, having explained the true nature of public credit, which consists, as he says, in the affluence of trade, the general wealth of the nation; and the confidence of the people in the justice and integrity of their governors, proceeds thus:

I have endeavoured to shew what, and what alone, ought to be called credit. But there hath lately risen up, in our age, a new-fangled and fantastical credulity, which hath usurped the same name, and came in with the word Bite, which hath been made free of a neighbouring court*; whereby the poor, innocent, industrious, and unwary people have been delivered into the ravenous and polluted jaws of vultures and tygers; and thousands, I had almost said millions, have been sacrificed, to satiate the gluttony of a few. This hath inverted the œconomy and policy of nations; made a great kingdom turn all gamesters; and men have acquired the reputation of wisdom, from their skill in picking pockets. It hath entered into the cabinets of courts; hath guided the counsels of senates, and their whole wisdom, and most of their time, hath been employed in keeping up this vile and airy traffic, as if the business of government was not to protect people in their property, but to cheat people out of it.

* Hereby is meant the Mississippi scheme, which was set a foot in France in 1719.

This is eminently true in a neighbouring country [meaning in France] and I wish I could say, that nothing like it had

ever happened amongst us. — Neither public nor private credit can consist in selling any thing for more than it is worth, or for any thing but what it is. It is certainly the interest of a country, that its commodities should sell at a good price, and find a ready vent; that private men should be able to trust one another; that lands should find ready purchasers, good securities, money at low interest; and that mortgages should be easily transferrable. And the way to bring these good purposes to pass, is to ascertain titles; give ready remedies to the injured; to procure general plenty by prudent laws, and by giving all encouragement to honesty, industry, and trade. But it will never be effected by authorizing, or countenancing frauds; by enabling artful men to circumvent the unwary, stamping the public seal upon counterfeit wares; and by constantly coining a new sort of property, of a precarious, uncertain, and transitory value; and, by constant juggles and combinations, conspiring to make it more so; which conduct, whenever practised, must soon put an end to all public and private credit.

In what country soever these practices meet with encouragement, all fair and honest commerce will be turned into juggling. There will quickly grow a sort of cabalistical learning; and there will be a secret and a vulgar knowledge; one to be trusted only to the *verè* adepts, and managers of public companies; and the other to be divulged to the people, who will be told nothing but what it is for the interest of their betters to communicate; and pretty advantages may be made by being in the secret. As for example; just before any public misfortune is to make its appearance, those who know it may sell out their actions or stocks; and in the height of the danger buy again; and when it is over, by taking another opportunity, they may sell a second time; and, when these evils are averted, they may go to market once more; and so, totes quotes, till the greatest part of the property of a kingdom, or a public company, is got into the hands of but a few persons, who will undoubtedly govern all the rest. Nor can these mischiefs be possibly prevented, but by wholly destroying this sort of traffic, or by appointing skilful pilots to set up occasional buoys and sea-marks, according to the shifting of the winds and the tides; that is, by ascertaining and publishing the real value of all public securities, as often as there is an alteration made in them by new provisions, or by wholly preventing the abuses, occasioned by the mere trade of stock-jobbing.

*Till something of this kind is done, it is foolish to think, and worse to pretend to think, that any effectual methods can be taken to discharge and pay off the national engagements; for in whatever country it happens, that the public funds become the markets and standing revenues of those, who can best cure the evil; where great and sudden estates may be more easily raised by knavery and juggling, than small ones by virtue and merit; where * plumbs may be got at once, and vast societies may be made the accomplices of power, in order to be indulged with separate advantages; it is not to be hoped, that effectual methods will be taken to dam and choak up such inexhaustible sources of wealth and dominion. On the contrary, it is to be feared that new projects will be yearly invented; new schemes coloured with popular pretences, to toss and tumble the public securities, and to change them into as many shapes as Proteus knew. One year shall metamorphose the schemes of another, and the next shall undo both. The leaders of one faction shall unravel the projects of their predecessors; shall charge their designs with corruption and rapine, and be more rapacious themselves; and all, in their turns, shall raise immense estates upon the public ruins; and the last spirits shall be always the worst.

* A plumb is a kind of cant word for an hundred thousand pounds.

I would gladly know, what advantage ever hath, or ever can accrue to the public, by raising stocks to an imaginary value, beyond what they are really worth to an honest man, who purchases them for a regular support to himself and family, and designs not to sell them again, till he hath occasion for the money they will produce. It can most assuredly serve no honest purpose, and will promote a thousand knavish ones. Besides these before-mentioned, it turns most of the current coin of England out of the channels of trade, and the heads of all its merchants and traders off their proper business. It enriches those who are instrumental to bring no riches into the nation by fair and honourable traffic, and it ruins the innocent who are unacquainted with the tricks and artifices of stock-juggling. It hath changed honest commerce into bubbling; our traders into projectors; industry into tricking: and applause is earned, when the pillory is deserved. It hath caused all the confusion in our public finances. It hath overwhelmed the nation with debts and burthens, under which it is almost ready to sink; and it hath hindered those national debts from being paid off; for if stocks sell for more, or much more than the prices, at which they are redeemable, or more can be got by mere jobbing them than by discharging them, then all arts will be used to prevent a redemption.

*Tis folly in any one, who is the least acquainted with the

affairs of nations to pretend not to see, that if we do not soon put our public debts in a method of being paid, they can never be paid; and all will do their utmost to prevent so fatal a mischief to their country, who do not intend it. But, if there are any such, they will undoubtedly take early care to save themselves out of the general wreck, which very few will be able to do, though all will intend it. Those in the secret will have the advantage; for, when selling of stocks becomes the word, no one can sell, unless he sells for little or nothing. All are waiting for a rise; and, if that happens, all or most will endeavour to sell, and then all selling is at an end. The managers and brokers will engross the books, as they did in the South-Sea year, and command the first sale; and, by the time they are got out, no one will be able to get out.

There is nothing left to be done, but for all honest men to join heads, hands, and hearts, to find all means to discharge the public burthens, and to add no more to them; to search every measure, whereby we can lessen the national expences; to avoid all occasions of engaging in new ones; and to do all in our power to increase the public wealth by solid trade, which will afford constant employment for our people, and convert our paper-money into substantial cash.

Such a revolution of property did this abuse, in the buying and selling of stocks, occasion in England in the year 1720, that a zealous advocate for the public interests expresses himself in the following manner, which will give us a strong idea of what may be expected on the like occasion:

What, says he, can be more invidious, than for a nation staggering under the weight and oppression of its debts, eaten up with usury, and exhausted with payments, to have the additional mortification to see private and worthless men riot in their calamities, and grow rich, whilst they grow poor; to see the town every day glittering with new and pompous equipages, whilst they are mortgaging and selling their estates, without having spent them; to see blazing meteors suddenly exhaled out of their jakes, and their mud, as in Egypt, warmed into monsters?

For other matter relating to public companies, see the several GREAT COMPANIES established throughout Europe, under their proper heads. As the EAST-INDIA COMPANY OF ENGLAND, under East-India; SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, under South-Sea; HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY, under Hudson's-Bay; DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, under Dutch East India, &c.

ACTIONARY, or ACTIONIST, a proprietor of stock in a trading company. In France the word *Actionnaire* is in use, and that of *actioniste* in Holland. It is lawful for an actionary, or proprietor, to sell his actions or stock, either in whole or in part, with loss or with gain.

To enter an ACTION, is to commence a process at law against one, for the recovery of a debt. The word *actioner* was formerly used in matters of French commerce; but it is now almost out of date, and they say assigner.

ADARME, a small weight in Spain, which is also used at Buenos-Aires, and in all Spanish America. It is the 16th part of an ounce, which at Paris is called the *Demi gros* (or half drachm.) But it must be observed, that the Spanish ounce is seven per cent. lighter than that of Paris, so that a hundred ounces of Madrid make but 93 of Paris.

ADATAIS, or ADATY'S, a muslin or cotton-cloth, very fine and clear, of which the piece is ten French ells long, and three quarters broad. This muslin comes from the East-Indies. The finest adatais are made at Bengal.

ADDITION, in arithmetic, is the first of the four principal rules, or operations in the art of calculation by figures. It consists in finding the sum total, or amount of several numbers added one to another.

The common character which denotes addition, by our modern arithmeticians, is +, or plus, the same as is used by algebraists. Thus 5 + 7 denotes the sum total of 5 and 7. The addition of simple numbers is plain. Thus it is readily known, that 5 and 7, or 5 + 7, make in the whole 12; and 12 + 10 make in the whole 22.

In compound numbers, those which are of the same kind, are set under each other; i. e. units under units, tens under tens, &c.

Addition of numbers of different kinds or denominations, is performed by casting up each denomination by itself, beginning with the lowest; and, if after the addition there be enough to make one or more of the higher denomination, they must be added to the figures of that denomination; reserving the odd remaining number by itself, under its proper denomination.

ADIT of a mine, is the hole or opening through which it is entered and dug, and through which also the water and ore are carried out. See MINING.

ADMINISTRATION, thus the Spaniards in Peru call the staple magazine, or warehouse, established at Callao, a small town on the South Sea, which is the port of Lima, the capital of that part of South America, and particularly of Peru. The foreign ships, which get leave to trade along that coast, are obliged to unload at the administration, or

staple magazine of all the European merchandizes they carry thither, paying 13 per cent. of the price they sell for, if the cargo be entire, and even 16 per cent. if it be not. Besides which, they pay 3 per 1000 duty for consuls, and some other small royal rights and claims.

ADMIRAL, he who commands a fleet. It is also the name of the ship which he commands. In France, the admiral is one of the great officers of the crown, general of the marine, and of all the naval forces of the kingdom. All the captains and masters of merchantmen, or trading vessels, are obliged to take their licences, passports, commissions, and safe conducts, of him.

The tenth of all prizes taken at sea, or on shore, under a French commission and flag, belongs to him, together with the tenth of all ransoms, the whole of all fines adjudged in the particular courts of admiralty, and half of those adjudged at the marble tables. (See that article.) He also has the duties of anchorage, tonnage, and sea-marks, and one third of all the effects taken out of the sea, or cast on shore; all this is according to the marine law or ordonnance made in 1682.

ADMIRAL is also said, in France, of the most considerable ship of a fleet of merchantmen, which keep company together: it is the same with regard to the ships bound to Newfoundland, which go fishing for green cod on the great bank. As for those which go for dried cod, when several fishing vessels meet together, and design to fish, and cure the cod in the same harbour, he whose long-boat lands first, has the admiral-ticket given him. The business of this admiral is to take care, that a board be posted up, and kept on the scaffold erected to dry the fish; upon which board each master of a ship is obliged to set down his name, and the day on which he arrived: the admiral also gives proper orders, and appoints the fishing-places to those who come after him, and it is his business to determine their differences. He has also the privilege of chusing what place he pleases on the sandy shore, to dry his fish; and all the wood he finds upon the coast on his arrival, belongs to him. As long as the fishing season continues, this admiral carries the flag on his main-mast. See the article **COD-FISHING**.

ADMIRALTY, the office of an admiral. In France that office is bestowed on none but princes, or persons of the highest birth and quality.

The office of high, great, or first admiral (for in different countries they give him these different titles) is always very considerable; and the high admiral is one of the great officers of the state in all maritime kingdoms and sovereignties, and is either a prince, or a person of the first rank. We have seen, for instance, in England, that James duke of York (only brother to king Charles II, who himself was afterwards king, and died in France) was invested with that office, during the war with the Dutch. His title was Lord High Admiral of England, and he enjoyed very great powers and privileges. The same high office has also been often divided among several persons, under the title of Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty; and thus it is at present, there being now no high admiral in this kingdom.

They call in France duties of the admiralty, those duties which belong to the admiral, and are received in his name, in all the ports and places under his jurisdiction, by his receivers and deputies. You will find in the article **ADMIRALTY** what those duties are.

ADMIRALTY of Great Britain. It was formerly under a great officer of the crown, who was stiled Lord High Admiral, and capitaneus nautarum & marinellorum, in reference to his deciding all differences among those in the king's service. And as the place was great, so the power was extensive, especially in all things belonging to the royal navy. He sat formerly in the king's house, and there kept his court, as the French admirals do at this day, at the marble-table in the king's house at Paris. But, at present, this office is administered by a number of commissioners, appointed by the sovereign of Great-Britain: they are stiled, Lords Commissioners for executing the Office of Lord High Admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. By the statute 2 Will. & Mar. sess. 2. cap. 2. sect. 2. it is declared, "that all jurisdictions and power, which by act of parliament, or otherwise, are invested in the lord high admiral of England, have always appertained to the commissioners of the admiralty, as if they were lord high admiral." But the perquisites are, of late years, on every new commission being made out, resigned, by some deed or writing, to the crown. When the office of lord high admiral is in commission, the number is not fixed; but, at present, it consists of a first commissioner, who presides at the board, and six more, who take place in the order in which they are named in the commission. The next immediate officers under them are the vice and rear-admirals of England, who are generally the two senior admirals. The persons who do business under them, are two secretaries, a solicitor, seven clerks in ordinary, besides supernumeraries, door-keepers, messengers, &c. The first lord, or commissioner, of the admiralty, is, in effect, lord high admiral, having the supreme direction of the

board, except that no orders or commissions are valid when signed by him alone, it being necessary for two more to sign with him; notwithstanding which, he is not to be controuled by them.

Under this authority are all the naval officers and shipping; as the navy-office, victualling-office, sick and wounded office; Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerneys, Plymouth, and Portsmouth dock-yards; as are also all the ships and vessels of war, their admirals, commanders, lieutenants, officers, and men.

The jurisdiction of the lord high admiral, or of the lords commissioners, is over Great-Britain, Ireland, and Wales, with the dominions and islands belonging to them; as also New England, New York, East and West Jersey, Jamaica, Virginia, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Montserrat, Bermudas, Antigua, Newfoundland, in America, and Guinea, Benin, and Angola, in Africa, and all and singular of the plantations, dominions, and territories whatsoever, in parts beyond the seas, in the possession of any of his majesty's subjects.

The lords commissioners of the admiralty have the general direction of the affairs of the navy; though sometimes the sovereign interferes by his secretaries of state, and directs the motions of the fleet.

The admiralty grants their commission to such person as his majesty directs, whereby he is appointed admiral and commander in chief of the fleet, for the expedition which is designed; and such admiral, when out of the British channel, appoints all officers, as vacancies happen, who are generally confirmed by the admiralty, unless any very material objection occurs. An admiral is usually furnished with full powers to hold courts martial, and commonly appoints his secretary the judge-advocate; yet any officer may hold courts martial whom the admiralty empower, though he be a private captain only: but the judge-advocate at home is appointed by the admiralty.

When any naval business is to be transacted, as building, repairing, fitting out, or victualling ships of war, the admiralty direct their orders to the proper officers. They likewise direct their warrant to the master-general of the ordnance, for such naval stores as are wanting on board the ships of war.

They also, by their warrant, direct the commissioners of the navy to appoint officers in the dock-yards, rope-yards, &c. as likewise all standing officers aboard ships of war; as pursers, gunners, boat-swains, and carpenters; but the masters, surgeons, and cooks are appointed by warrant of the commissioners of the navy. Admirals, captains, lieutenants, chaplains, volunteers, and schoolmasters are appointed by the board of admiralty.

Before the meeting of the parliament, the admiralty present their memorial to the king in council, praying his majesty to declare the number of seamen proper to be employed for the current year; and the commissioners of the navy and victualling-office are directed to make out suitable estimates, which being approved of, and the general sanction of the king and parliament had, orders are issued accordingly.

When war is declared, the admiralty, by memorial presented to the king and council, pray his majesty to direct the advocate for the office of high admiral in the court of admiralty, to prepare and lay before his majesty, for his royal approbation, the draught of a commission, authorizing him the high admiral (or the lords commissioners) to empower the court of admiralty, in the foreign governments and plantations, to take cognizance of, and judicially proceed upon, all manner of captures, seizures, prizes, and reprisals of all ships and goods seized; and to adjudge and condemn the same, according to the course of the admiralty, and law of nations; as also all ships and goods liable to confiscation, pursuant to the respective treaties between his Britannic majesty and other princes and states.

As also to desire his majesty's direction in council, to his advocate-general in the high court of admiralty, and to the advocate-general of the high admiral in the same court, to prepare and lay before his majesty a commission, authorizing him the high admiral, or the lords commissioners of the admiralty, to issue forth letters of marque and reprisals to those whom he or they shall deem fitly qualified, to seize all ships or vessels of the enemy, &c. as also to direct the advocate of the said court to prepare, for his royal approbation, instructions to commanders of merchant ships, to whom such letters of marque and reprisals shall be granted; the substance of which instructions are as follows:

I. They are empowered to seize all ships of war, and other vessels whatsoever, as also the goods, merchandizes, vessels, or subjects of the prince, or state, against whom war shall be declared; as likewise all other ships and vessels that may have contraband goods on board; but to take care, that not any hostilities be committed, nor prize taken, within the harbours of princes and states in amity with his majesty, or in rivers or roads within the reach of their cannon.

II. To bring such prizes as they take either to some port of this kingdom, or to carry them to any of his majesty's foreign

colonies and plantations, where there are courts of admiralty, as it may be most convenient for them, in order to their being legally adjudged. And here it may not be improper to observe, that there is no other appeal from the said courts of admiralty abroad, with relation to prizes, than to a committee of his majesty's most honourable privy council, particularly appointed to hear and determine therein.

III. They are to produce before the judge of the high court of admiralty, or the judges of the admiralty-courts in the foreign governments, three or four of the principal persons who belonged to the prize, that so they may be examined and sworn, touching the interest and property of such ships, goods, and merchandizes; as also to deliver to the judge all papers found on board such prize, and to produce some person who can make oath that those papers were actually found on board at the time of capture.

IV. To take care that not any thing belonging to the prize be embezzled, before judgment be given in the high court of admiralty, or by the courts abroad, that the said ship, goods, and merchandizes are lawful prize; and not to kill any person belonging to such ship in cold blood, or to treat them otherwise than according to custom in such cases.

V. They are forbid to attempt or do any thing against the true meaning of any article, treaty, or treaties, depending between the crown of Great-Britain and it's allies, or against the subjects of such allies.

VI. It is declared lawful for the captors, after condemnation, to sell or dispose of such prizes, with the goods and merchandizes on board them, such only accepted as by act of parliament ought to be deposited for exportation.

VII. They are required to aid and assist any ship or vessel of his majesty's subjects, that may be attacked by the enemy.

VIII. Such persons who shall serve on board merchant-ships, with commissions of marque, or reprisal, are in no wise to be reputed or challenged as offenders against the laws of the land.

IX. The merchants, or others, before their taking out such commissions, are to deliver in writing, under their hands, to the lord high admiral, or to the commissioners for executing that office, or to the lieutenant, or judge, of the high court of admiralty, an account of the name and burthen of the ship, with the captain and owner's names, her number of guns and men, and for how long time she is victualled.

X. The commanders of such ships are to hold a constant correspondence with the secretary of the admiralty, and to give an account of the designs and motions of the enemy's ships, as far as they can discover, or be informed thereof, as also of their merchant-ships and vessels, and whither bound, either out or home.

XI. They are restrained from wearing the king's colours, commonly called the union jack, and pendant; but, besides the colours borne by merchant-ships, they are allowed to wear a pendant, together with a red jack, with the union jack described in a canton, at the upper corner thereof, next the staff.

XII. They are required, upon due notice given them, to observe all such other orders and instructions as his majesty shall think fit to direct.

XIII. It is also further declared, that those who violate these instructions shall be severely punished, and be obliged to make full reparation to persons injured.

XIV. Before letters of marque, or reprisal, are issued, it is required that bail be given in the high court of admiralty, before the judge thereof, in the sum of 3000 l. if the ship carries about 150 tons; and, if a lesser number, 1500 l. to make good any damages that shall be done contrary to the intent and true meaning of their instructions; and (in case the whole of the prizes is not given to the captors) to cause to be paid to his majesty, or to such person as shall be authorized to receive the same, the full tenth part of the prizes*, goods, and merchandizes, according as the same shall be appraised, as also such customs as shall be due to the crown.

* *N. B.* His most gracious majesty George II. was pleased to give up, during the late war, these royal advantages, which his prerogative entitles him to, for the benefit of the British seamen of this kingdom.

The admiralty, on the entering into a war, give directions to the navy and victualling-offices, for the getting ready and victualling such ships and vessels as, by the report of the commissioners to their lordships, are found fit for service, and to rebuild or repair the rest, as they direct, and to contract with master builders in the merchants yards for such purposes, &c. but it is to be observed, that nothing of importance can be done, or any contracts made, by such inferior officers, without a report by them first delivered in, and an order thereupon obtained from the high admiral, or from the commissioners, who have before them a list of all the navy ships and vessels fit for service, or otherwise, with their rates, tunnage, complement of men, and guns.

ADMIRALTY COURT of Great-Britain (*curia admiralitatis*.) This court is held at Doctors-Commons in London. The lord high admiral, or the commissioners for executing that office for the time being, are supreme in this court. Under them are a deputy judge (usually a doctor of the civil law) two registers, advocates, proctors, and a marshal. The judge is constituted by the king's letter patents, and holds his place, *quamdiu se bene gesserit*, i. e. during good behaviour.

This is not esteemed a court of record, our common lawyers say, because it proceeds by the civil law, the judge having no power to take such a recognizance as a court of record may: yet it is thought this court may fine and imprison for a contempt in the face of the court. The process and proceedings are in the name of the lord high admiral, and by libel: the plaintiff and defendant enter into a stipulation, or bail, by a kind of recognizance, for appearance, and to abide the sentence.

This court is generally ruled by the civil law, and the maritime laws of Oleron. It has power to determine all maritime causes arising wholly upon the sea, out of the jurisdiction of a county. See OLERON LAWS.

The jurisdiction of the admiral, or of the commissioners for executing that office, is declared by several statutes, which cannot be dispensed with by any non obstante, because all the king's subjects have an interest in the jurisdiction of the admiralty.

By the 13th Richard II. chap. 5. "The admirals and their deputies shall not meddle with any thing done within the realm; but only with things done upon the sea. By the 15th Richard II. chap. 3. The court of admiralty has no manner of cognizance of any contract, or any other thing, done within the county, either by land or water, nor of wreck of the sea: but of the death of man, or of mayhem, done in great ships, being and hovering in the main stream of great rivers only, beneath the points of the same rivers, the admirals shall have cognizance. And also to arrest ships in great fleets, for the voyages of the king and kingdom; and shall also have jurisdiction in such fleets during such voyage. By the 2d Henry IV. chap. 2, the 13th Richard II. chap. 5. is confirmed; and 'the party 'grieved against the form of that statute shall (by action 'upon his case) recover double damages against the professor in the admiralty, and the professor shall also forfeit 10l. to the king.' By the 5th of Elizabeth, chap. 5. p. 30. "The offences beforementioned, which hereafter shall be done upon the main sea, or coast of the sea, being no part of the body of any county, and without the jurisdiction of the Cinque ports, and out of any haven, or pier, shall be tried and determined before the admiral." We have already observed, in the beginning of the article of the ADMIRALTY of Great-Britain, that by the statute 2 Will. & Mar. the jurisdiction and powers of the lord high admiral belong to the commissioners of the admiralty.

Appeals from the admiralty are to a court of delegates, appointed by the commission, whose sentence is final. 8 Eliz. chap. 5. From inferior admiralty-courts, the appeals lie to the lord high admiral, or lords commissioners of the admiralty, in this court: but the warden of the Cinque Ports is supreme admiral within his own jurisdiction. 5 Elizabeth. Piracies and felonies, committed within the admiral's jurisdiction, may be tried at sea, or on land, according to the court of the admiralty. 2 Will. & Mar. sess. 2. chap. 2.

Persons in actual service and pay aboard his majesty's ships of war, committing any of the crimes mentioned in the 13th Car. II. chap. 9. upon the shore in foreign parts, may be tried and punished for the same, as if the offences had been committed on the main sea, or on board any ships or vessels of war. 6 Geo. chap. 19.

Within the cognizance of this jurisdiction are all affairs that particularly concern the lord high admiral, or any of his officers, as such; all matters relating to the navies of the kingdom, the vessels of trade, and the owners thereof, as such; all affairs relating to mariners, whether ship-officers or common seamen, their rights and privileges respectively; their office and duty; their wages; their offences, whether by wilfulness, casualty, ignorance, negligence, or insufficiency, with their punishments: also all affairs of commanders at sea, and their under officers, with their respective duties, privileges, immunities, offences, and punishments. In like manner, all matters that concern owners and proprietors of ships, as such; and all masters, pilots, steerfmen, boatswains, and other officers; all shipwrights, fishermen, ferrymen, and the like: also all causes of seizures and captures made at sea, whether *jure belli publici*, or *jure belli privati*, by way of reprisal, or *nullo jure*, by way of piracy. Likewise, all charter-parties, coaquets, bills of lading, sea commissions, letters of safe conduct, factories, invoices, skippers rolls, inventories, and other ship-papers. Also all causes of freight, mariners wages, load-manage, port-charges, pilotage, anchorage, and the like: also all causes of maritime contracts indeed, or, as it were, contracts, whether upon or beyond the seas; all causes of money lent to sea, or upon the sea, called *scenus nauticum*, *pecunia trajectitia*, *usura maritima*, *bomary money*, the gross adventure, and the like. All causes of pawning, hypothecating, or pledging, of the ship itself, or any part thereof, or her lading, or other things, at sea; all causes of *jactus*, or casting goods overboard; and contributions either for redemption of ship or lading, in case of seizure by enemies or pirates, or in case of goods damaged, or disburdening of ships, or other chances, with average: also all causes of spoil, depredations at sea, robberies and piracies; also all causes of naval consort-ships, whether in

war or peace; infurance, mandates, procurations, payments, acceptations, discharges, loans, or oppignorations, emptions, venditions, conventions, taking or letting to freight, exchanges, partnerhips, factorage, passage-money, and whatever is of a maritime nature, either by way of navigation; upon the seas, or of negotiation at or beyond the sea, in the way of marine trade and commerce: also, the nautic right which maritime persons have in ships, their apparel, tackle, furniture, lading, and all things pertaining to navigation; likewise all causes of outredders, or outriggers, furnisners, hirers, freighters, owners, and part-owners, of ships, as such. Also all causes of privileged ships or vessels in his majesty's service, or his letters of safe-conduct: all causes of shipwreck at sea, flotton, jetson, lagan, waifs, deodands, treasure-trove, and fishes royal, with the lord admiral's shares, and the finders respectively. Also all causes touching maritime offences, or misdemeanors; such as cutting the buoy-rope, or cable, removal of an anchor, whereby any vessel is moored, the breaking the lord admiral's arrest, made either upon persons, goods, or ship; breaking arrests on ships for the king's service, being punishable with confiscation, by the ordinance made at Grinby in the time of Rich. I. mariners absenting themselves from the king's service after their being impressed, impleading upon a contract, or in a maritime cause elsewhere than in the admiralty, contrary to the ordinance made at Hastings by Edward I. and contrary to the laws and customs of the admiralty of England. Forefalling of corn, fish, &c. on ship-board; regrating and exacting of water-officers; the appropriating the benefit of salt-water to private use, exclusively to others, without his majesty's licence: kiddles, wears, blind-stakes, water-mills, and the like, to the obstruction of navigation in great rivers: false weights or measures on ship-board: concealing of goods found about the dead within the admiral's jurisdiction, or flottons, jetsons, lagans, waifs, deodands; fishes royal, or other things, wherein the king's majesty, or his lord admiral, have interest. Excessive wages claimed by shipwrights, mariners, &c. maintainers, abettors, receivers, concealers, or comforters, of pirates: transporting prohibited goods without licence; draggers of oysters and muscles at unseasonable times, viz. between May-day and Holyrood-day; destroyers of the brood or young fry of fish: such as claim wreck to the prejudice of the king or lord admiral: such as unduly claim privileges in a port: disturbers of the admiral's officers in execution of the court-decrees: water-bailiffs and searchers not doing their duty: corruption in any of the admiral-court officers: importers of unwholesome victuals to the people's prejudice: freights of strangers vessels contrary to the law: transporters of prisoners, or other prohibited persons, not having letters of safe-conduct from the king, or his lord admiral: casters of ballast into ports or harbours, to the prejudice thereof: unskilful pilots, whereby ship or man perish: unlawful nets, or other prohibited engines for fish: disobeying of embargoes, or going to sea contrary to the prince's command, or against the law: furnishing the ships of enemies, or the enemy with ships: all prejudice done to the banks of navigable rivers, or to docks, wharfs, keys, or any thing whereby shipping may be endangered, navigation obstructed, or trade by sea impeded: also embezzlements of ship-tackle or furniture; all obstructions of mariners wages; all defrauding of his majesty's customs, or other duties at sea; all prejudices done to or by passengers on ship-board, and all damages done by one ship or vessel to another: also going to sea in tempestuous weather, sailing in devious places, or among enemies, pirates, rocks, or other dangerous places, not being necessitated thereto: all clandestine attempts, by making private cork-holes in the vessel, or otherwise, with intent to destroy or endanger the ship. Also the shewing of false lights by night, either on shore or in fishing vessels, or the like, on purpose to intice sailors to the hazard of their vessels: all wilful or purposed entertaining of unskilful masters, pilots, or mariners, or sailing without a pilot, or in leaky or insufficient vessels: likewise overburdening the ship above her birth-mark, and all ill stowage of goods on ship-board; all importation of contraband goods, or exportation of goods to prohibited ports, or the places not designed; together with a great many other things, relating to the state or condition of persons maritime, their rights, their duties, or their defaults.

OBSERVATIONS relative to commercial and marine affairs.

It must be observed, that the jurisdiction of the court of admiralty is sometimes interrupted by a writ, which in our law is called a prohibito, and may be properly defined to be, "A writ, forbidding to hold plea in any matter or cause, supposed to be without the jurisdiction and cognizance of the court where the suit depends."

But, in all cases where the admiralty have legally an original or concurrent jurisdiction, the courts of common law will be well informed, before they will take cognizance of them. We shall give some of the principal cases relating to the jurisdiction of the admiralty, as to matters cognizable there, or at common law.

If a man be in custody for piracy, if any aids or assists him in his escape, though that matter is an offence at land, yet the admiralty, having jurisdiction to punish the principal, may have likewise power to punish such an offender, who is looked on as an accessory to the piracy; but, to rescue a prisoner from an officer of theirs, they may examine the cause, but they cannot proceed criminally against the offender.

Mariners may join and sue in the admiralty for wages, which is an indulgence; and was granted, because the remedy in the admiralty was easier and better than at common law; easier because they must sever here, but may join there; and better, because the ship itself is answerable. Yet it was never allowed the master should sue there; nor is it reasonable, where he commenceth the voyage as master; for, tho' the mariners contract upon the credit of the ship, the master doth contract on the credit of the owners. Lord Raymond 397. But yet the mate may sue in the admiralty for his wages, because he contracts with the master, as the rest of the mariners do. Lord Raymond 632.

If a ship rides at anchor in the sea, and the master sends his boat on shore for victuals, or other provisions for the ship, and accordingly the shop-feller brings victuals and provisions; in that case, if the contract be made there, it must be sued for in the admiralty: but, if the goods are by the purser or mariners contracted for at land, they must sue at common law.

But a suit in the admiralty for seamen's wages, grown due in the river, though no voyage made, was not prohibited. Lord Raymond. 1044.

If a fault be committed in any port, haven, river, creek, or any place within the body of a county, the common law shall have jurisdiction to answer the party damaged; but if the same be committed on the high sea, the admiralty shall have jurisdiction of it; and, if it be on a place where there is divisum imperium, then according to the flux or reflux the admiralty may challenge.

Trials are to be where original contracts were made, which if in England, though the subsequent matter to be done be upon the sea, the trial shall be at the common law. But if the contract and what is to be done, all of it, is beyond sea, it cannot be tried at law here, but in the admiralty; but if part be done here, and part beyond sea, so as it is mixed, then it shall be tried at law. As an action upon the case*, upon a policy of assurance made at London, that a ship should sail from Melcomb Regis, in the county of Dorset, to Abville in France, safely, &c. And the plaintiff declared, that the ship, in sailing towards Abville, viz. in the river Soame in France, was arrested by the king of France, &c. and the issue was, whether the ship was so arrested or not; the trial was by Nisi Prius in London, and resolved to be well brought; though 'twas objected, that this issue, arising merely from a place out of the realm, could not be tried at law, for the assumpsit †, being at London, was the ground and foundation of the action, and therefore shall be tried here, for otherwise it could not be tried at all. Cited in Dowdale's case, 6 Rep. 47. 6. Godbolt, 76 and 204.

* Action upon the case, is a general action, given for the redress of a wrong done any man without force, and not especially provided for by law. This, of all others, is now most in use—Where there arises an occasion of suit, that has neither a fit name, nor certain form already prescribed; the clerks of the Chancery, antiently conceived a proper form of action for the thing in question: which was called an action upon the case, by the civilians *actio in factum*.

† Assumpsit, is a voluntary promise made by word, whereby a man assumeth, or taketh upon him, to perform or pay any thing unto another. This word included any verbal promise made upon consideration, which the civilians express by divers words, according to the nature of the promise, calling it sometimes *pañum*, sometimes *spñsionem*, sometimes *promissionem*, *pollicitationem*, *constitutum*.

And so if a contract be made at land, though beyond sea, the trial shall be at law, though what is to be done be all of it beyond sea, by laying the contract made at a place in England; as in Bourdeaux apud Illington in Com. Middlesex. So is the case of Slaney and Cloberry against Cotton, where the plaintiff sued the defendant in the admiralty-court, upon a promise made in Barbary, to sail from Sirborona in Barbary to Ricumpta in Brazil, &c. Upon suggestion that the contract was made in London, prohibition was granted: for the performance of the consideration does not give the action, without the contract; and this was made at land, though beyond the seas, which may be supposed to be done in a place in England. 2 Rolls Rep. 486. See Tucker and Cuff's case in the same book, 492 and 497, and 2 Brow. 10, 11.

A contract was made at Newcastle, that a ship should sail from Yarmouth to Amsterdam; a debt was brought upon this contract in the court of Newcastle; adjudged that the action would not lie there, being a limited jurisdiction, which shall not have cognizance of any matters done in partibus transmarinis, but only the courts at Westminster. March's Rep. 3. If one libel in the court of admiralty for a thing done upon the land, and it appeareth upon the libel that the thing was

was done upon the land, and they, notwithstanding that, hold plea of it, a *præmunire* * lieth upon it; but, if the same do not appear within the libel, then it is not within the 13 of Rich. II. cap. 5. and 15 of Rich. II. cap. 3. but a prohibition shall only issue. 2 Leon. 183.

* *Præmunire*, is taken either for a writ so called, from the words therein, *præmunire facias*, or *præmonere facias*, &c. signifying to forewarn, or bid the offender take heed, or it is the offence on which the writ is granted.

A Dutch ship was broken by a great tempest in a creek of the sea, *infra corpus comitatus de Dorset*; the sailors, upon pretence that the goods in the ship were *bona peritura*, procured a commission of sale out of the admiralty-court to sell them; and the true owners, to prevent such sale, brought a *superfedas* *; and, upon shewing the libel to the court, a prohibition was granted. (1.) Because the cause of action accrued *infra corpus comitatus*. (2.) Because the sale of the goods was good, as *bona peritura*. Calmer against Brand, 2 Sid. 81.

* *Superfedas*, is a writ in divers cases, and signifies in general a command to stay, or forbear the doing of that which ought not to be done, or in appearance of law were to be done, were it not for that whereon the writ is granted.

Thus a man regularly is to have surety of peace against him of whom he will swear he is afraid, and the justice required hereunto cannot deny him; yet if the party be formerly bound to the peace, either in Chancery, or elsewhere, this writ lies, to stay the justice from doing that which otherwise he ought not to deny.

One having taken a ship as prize, which had *bona peritura*, entered into recognizance with sureties before the judges delegate, to bring the money raised by sale of the goods in the admiralty-court before such a day, if they, upon a plaint there depending, did not adjudge the ship and goods to be lawful prize; which they adjudged lawful prize; and after, at another time, cited the owner before the judges of the admiralty, and, for his not coming and bringing the money at the day, they threatened to sue execution against the bail or sureties, who were merchants of London; upon which prohibition was prayed; for, by their first judgment or sentence, their recognizance was discharged, and they ought not, by colour of this, to endanger the credit of men of reputation; but the court would not grant a prohibition, for they said an unjust sentence of the admiralty, in a cause of which they have original consueance, is not a cause of prohibition. 2 Sid. 152. Becks v. Chelcoke.

In the case of Sir Richard Hawkins, vice-admiral of the county of Devon, who was prosecuted in the Star-chamber, for abetting and comforting Hull, and other notorious pirates. It was there resolved that, by the common law, the admirals ought not to meddle with any thing done within the realm, but only with things done upon the sea; and also by the statute of 13 Rich. II. cap. 5. 2 Hen. IV. cap. 11. It was likewise resolved, that the said statutes are to be intended to hold plea, and not of a power to award execution; for the judge of the admiralty, notwithstanding these statutes, may do execution within the body of the county.

Where one admits the jurisdiction of the admiralty by pleading there, no prohibition shall be granted. Jennings against Audley, 2 Brow. 30. 12 Rep. 77. Therefore, on a motion for a prohibition in a suit for seamen's wages there, the suggestion was, that the court below refused to allow the defendants allegation; that the place, where the plaintiffs intitled themselves, was not a port of delivery: this is no foundation for a prohibition; if any thing, it must be an appeal.

Cradock bought divers things within the body of the county, which concerned the furnishing a ship, as cordage, &c. the vender sued him in the admiralty-court; a prohibition was granted, 2 Brow. 37. Cradock's case, Owen 122. 3 Keeble 552. Merryweather against Mountford. Note, No appeal from the admiralty before a definitive sentence. Lord Raymond 1248.

The defendant being master of a ship, of which the plaintiff was owner, the ship was taken by pirates upon the sea; and, to redeem himself and the ship, he contracted with the pirate to pay him 50l. and pawned his person for it; the pirate carried him to the isle of Scilly, and there he paid it with money borrowed, and gave bond for the money at his return; after the redemption both of the ship and himself, he sued in the admiralty for the 50l. and had a sentence for it, and thereupon a prohibition to the admiralty was prayed, but denied; because the original cause began upon the sea, and whatever followed was but accessory and consequential. Hard. 183. Prohibition was granted to the admiralty-court, on the 22d and 23d Car. II. cap. 26. sect. II. in suit there, for the forfeit of a ship on selling wares in Ireland without breaking bulk, being put into Ireland from America, by contrary winds, this being triable in the plantation-, or any court of record in Westminster. Pidgeon con. Trent, 3 Keeble 640, 647, 651. A master of a ship agreed with certain merchants concerning a voyage, and received orders from them to lay in provisions of meat and drink, and to provide mariners, &c. and, after the voyage was finished, the merchants refused to pay the master of the ship what they had agreed for; upon which

he libelled against them in the admiralty; prohibition was granted upon the statute of 2 Rich. II. cap. 3. the contract being upon land, and denied the case, Hill, 8 Car. I. Cro. 296. which saith, that when a thing is in its nature maritime, as in the cases of mariner's wages, the admiralty shall have the consueance of it. Woodward against Bouifhan, Raymond 3 and 3 Levinz 60. Coke against Cretcher, &c. 2 Vent. 181.

If a contract or obligation be made upon the sea, yet, if it be not for a cause marine, the suit upon this shall be at common law, not in the admiralty. Hob. 11.

If the original contract be made at sea on a marine cause, and after reduced into writing at land, the common law, not admiralty, shall have the consueance. Hob. 79, 212. Palmer against Pope.

If a charter-party be made in England to do certain things in divers places upon the sea, though that no act is to be done in England, but all upon the sea, yet no suit shall be in the admiralty for non-performance of the agreement; for the contract is the original, and is out of their jurisdiction; and where part is triable at common law, and part in the admiralty, the common law shall be preferred. Maldonado and Slaney 1 Roll. Abr. 532, 533.

A contract laid to be made *intra fluxum & refluxum maris*, &c. is well enough laid to give the admiralty a jurisdiction: it was upon the high seas when the water was at high-water mark, and it might be at land when the water was at low-water mark. In that case, there is *divisum imperium* between the common law, and admiralty jurisdiction. Lord Raymond, 1453.

It was moved for a prohibition to the admiralty, because the libel was to execute a sentence of the Alcade, which is the admiralty at Malaga in Spain, upon a thing done within a port there, and, after a rule for a prohibition Nisi, 'twas moved that no prohibition should be; for though this court will not execute the sentences of any foreign court, inasmuch that it is governed by a distinct law, yet these of the admiralty may, and it is their use to do so; for this, that all the admiralty-courts in Europe proceed by the same law viz. the civil law, and Wibrel and Wiat's case, 5 Jac. was cited to be adjudged accordingly. But, upon reading the libel in the principal case, it appears that the sentence was not definitive, but interlocutory, concerning a matter that sounds as an action upon the case, and no sum set; and also the Alcade is not an admiralty there, and for this a prohibition was granted. Jurado and Gregory, 1 Sid. 418. 1 Levinz 267. 1 Vent. 32, and 2 Keeble 512, 610.

Motion for prohibition to the admiralty, for that they libelled against one for rescuing a ship, and taking away the sails from one that was executing the process of the court against the said ship, and for that, in the presence of the judge and face of the court, he assaulted and beat one, and spoke many opprobrious words against him. Now, seeing that these matters were determinable at law, the ship being *intra corpus comitatus*, and they could not adjudge damages to the party, or fine, or imprison, a prohibition was prayed, but denied; for they may punish one that resists the process of their court, and may fine and imprison for a contempt, though they are no court of record; but, if they should proceed to give damages, they would grant a prohibition as to that. Sparkes, &c. against Martin, 1 Vent. 1. The same doctrine Lord Raymond's Rep. 446. and 1 Vent. is there cited.

Suit in the admiralty, the defendant pleaded the statute of limitation; if that court deny the plea, prohibition will be granted; or if they do receive the plea, but will not give sentence accordingly, prohibition will go. Hardres 502. Berkly and Morris.

A prohibition prayed to the admiralty, where there was a libel for a ship taken by pirates, and carried to Tunis, and there sold, for that it did not appertain to the court to try the property of the ship being sold upon land. In regard it was taken by pirates, it is originally within the admiralty jurisdiction, and so continues, notwithstanding the sale afterwards upon the land. Otherwise, where the ship is taken by enemies, for that alters the property. Contrary to Lord Hobart in the Spanish ambassador's case, 78. 1 Vent. 308. 3 Cro. 685. After sentence in the admiralty-court for the seizing of a ship, trover and conversion at law will not lie. Beak contra Thynwhitt, Laws of the sea, 425.

Case upon the statutes of 13 Rich. II. c. 5. 15 Rich. II. c. 3. and 2 Hen. IV. c. 11. for suing in the admiralty for matters done upon land. The ship of the plaintiff was arrested in the port of London, with goods going to the East-Indies, by which the plaintiff lost the profit of his voyage. The East-India company having an exclusive charter, by the statute 13 Car. II. petitioned the king in council to stay the ship, and an order was made to the admiralty to stay the ship by their process, which was issued accordingly; all which was done by the defendants as agents of the company, and they, as agents, paid the fees of the prosecution; and, if guilty, damages for the plaintiff in duplo 1500l. and so upon arraignment judgment for the plaintiff, and an error affirmed, Sands against Sir Josias Child and others. 3 Levinz 351. A like case, 1 Vent. 47. Home against Ivie.

ADMIRALTY is also said of the jurisdiction or court in France, where justice is administered in the name and under the authority of the admiral. The admiralty general of France sit at the bench of the marble-table, in the hall or court of Paris, every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday in the week; it is composed of a lieutenant general who presides, a particular lieutenant, three counsellors, the king's advocate and solicitor, a chief register, or secretary, and two ushers or sergeants. All these officers, as well as those of the general and particular courts of admiralty, established in the ports and harbours of the kingdom, are appointed by the admiral, but they must have their commissions from the king.

The jurisdiction of the judges of the admiralty, has been regulated by Title II. of Book I. of the Ordonnance of the Marine, or Navy, of the month of August, 1681. That title comprehends the fifteen following articles.

I. The judges of the admiralty shall take cognizance, exclusively of all others, and between all persons, of what quality soever they be, even privileged persons, natives or foreigners, both plaintiffs and defendants, in all matters relating to the building, rigging, tackle, arming, victualling, manning, sale, and adjudication of ships.

II. We declare to belong to their cognizance all actions arising from charter-parties, freights, bills of lading, carriage or passage, dues, lifting and wages of seamen, and the provisions to be allowed them, whilst the vessels are fitting out; as also from policies of insurance, bonds for money ventured on the ship's bottom, or for their return from the voyage, and generally from all contracts relating to commerce by sea, notwithstanding any exemption or privileges to the contrary.

III. They shall also take cognizance of prizes taken at sea, wrecks of all kinds, of goods thrown overboard, and contribution for them, of averages, and damages sustained by the ships or cargoes, together with the inventories, and delivery of goods left on board by such as die at sea.

IV. They shall likewise have cognizance of the duties for passes, thirds, tenths, buoys, anchorage, and other duties belonging to the admiral; as also of those which shall be raised or claimed by lords, or other private persons dwelling near the sea, for fishing, or for fish, or for merchandizes or ships departing from, or entering into, ports.

V. The cognizance of fishing either at sea, in salt lakes, or at the mouths of rivers, shall also be vested in them, as likewise that of inclosed fishing-places, of the nature of nets, of sales and bargains of fish, in boats, upon the strands, and in ports and harbours.

VI. They shall, besides, have the cognizance of the damages done by shipping to inclosed fisheries, even in navigable rivers, and of those which vessels may receive from such fisheries, as also of the ways allowed for the towage of ships, coming from the sea, if there be no regulation, title, or custom, to the contrary.

VII. They shall also take cognizance of damages done to keys, moles, banks, palisadoes, and other works built for staying the violence of the sea, and take care that the ports and harbours be preserved in their due depth and cleanness.

VIII. They shall cause drowned bodies to be taken up, and shall draw up accounts of the condition of dead corpses found at sea, upon the sands, or in ports, and even of seamen drowned in working their vessels in navigable rivers.

IX. They shall assist at the musters and reviews of the inhabitants of the parishes which are obliged to watch the coasts, and shall take cognizance of all the differences that may arise on occasion of such watch, as also of the offences committed by those who are to guard the coast, during the time of their continuing under arms.

X. They shall, moreover, take cognizance of piracies, plunders, and desertions of ships crews, and in general, of all crimes and offences committed at sea, or in ports, harbours, and on shore.

XI. They shall admit all master ship-carpenters, ropemakers, sail-makers, mast-makers, and other artificers, who work only in the construction of vessels, masts, and riggings, in such-places where there are free companies of these different trades, and shall take cognizance of the offences committed in the respective trades.

XII. The remissions granted to foccagers for crimes cognizable by the officers of the admiralty, shall be referred to, and adjudged by, the courts of the admiralty, from which there lies no appeal but to our courts of parliament.

XIII. The officers of general courts of the admiralty, at the marble-table, shall take cognizance in the first instance of all matters, as well civil as criminal, contained in this present ordinance, when there shall be no particular courts in the places where such matters shall occur; and by appeal, except in cases of corporal punishment, in which cases our ordinance of the year 1670 shall be observed.

XIV. They shall have power to call up before them, from inferior judges, causes exceeding 3000 livres in value, when the matter shall have been laid before them by appeal from a decree or interlocutory sentence, given in the first instance.

XV. We prohibit all provosts, judges of castlewards, viguiers, bailiffs, seneschals, presidials, and other ordinary judges, judge-consuls, and commissaries, persons holding the courts

of requests of our household and court of justice, and our great council, to take any cognizance of the above-mentioned cases, circumstances, and dependencies. We also prohibit our courts of parliament to take cognizance of them in the first instance; and all merchants, mariners, and others, to proceed before those courts for such matters, upon pain of being fined arbitrarily.

Here follows the regulation made by the admiralty in France, established at the marble-table in the Justice-hall at Paris, the 29th of August, 1673. This regulation is composed of 12 articles, which, with the king's good-will and pleasure, ought to be followed in all proceedings, and pleas relating to differences and suits brought before the admiralty.

I. The court shall sit every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, in the week, from 10 o'clock in the forenoon till 12; and, in case one of these days shall be holy-day, the court shall sit the next day.

II. The summons, or writs, to appear with regard to such parties as have their dwellings at Paris, or who shall have chosen a fixed dwelling-place, by themselves, or their attorneys or agents, shall be made returnable in three days, within which are comprehended the day on which the summons is issued out, and the day of appearance; and, with regard to aliens, or persons having no fixed dwelling-place, in cases of appeal, the usual delays shall be observed.

III. In such cases, however, where there might be some danger in delays, the summons shall be delivered from day to day, by virtue of an order written at the bottom of a petition, which for that purpose shall be presented by the party, and signed by his attorney or solicitor.

IV. On the day of appearance, the cause shall be brought before the court, and, for want of appearance in either of the parties, a verdict, or sentence, of default, shall pass in behalf of the plaintiff, with cost of suit, and his complaint be judged just and equitable (in case the defendant does not appear) and likewise a sentence with cost in behalf of the defendant (in case the plaintiff does not appear) the attorney having first taken a minute of it, in court, of which a deed shall be given to him in writing, and mentioned also in the sentence; which sentence, however, may be reversed in the same sitting of the court; and, in such a case, no deed shall be delivered.

V. The parties, appearing in person before the court, shall be admitted, if they think fit, to plead their own cause, without the assistance of a council or attorney.

VI. The party, condemned for want of appearance, shall be at liberty to sue in opposition, within eight days from the date of the summons, by refunding the cost, which of right shall be determined to the sum of four livres.

VII. The opposition shall be admitted, whether it be made by a petition, or by a single deed, signed by the attorney.

VIII. Three days after the opposition, including the day on which it was notified, and that of its expiration, it shall be brought before the court, without any further delay, provided the petitioner did set down in the summons of notification the day on which he intended to bring it before the court.

IX. After the first opposition, if the opposer is cast by default, it shall not be in his power to bring in a second opposition, under what pretence soever; but he may have a remedy by an appeal, which shall not be turned into an opposition, but with the consent of all parties concerned.

X. In case the defendant in an opposition does not appear before the court, on the day appointed to answer the opposition, a sentence of default shall be given against him, for the profit of which the plaintiff shall be allowed to put in his claim as opponent; and, with regard to the chief point, the parties shall be referred to the next sitting of the court, for a decisive and final sentence.

XI. The summons and other proceedings shall not be notified but by the tip-staffs belonging to that court.

XII. It is ordered, by this last article, that these regulations shall be published, the court sitting, and notified to the register of the society of the advocates and attorneys of the parliament, and to the register of the court of insurances at Paris.

The ADMIRALTY of Holland. The admiralty of the States General of the United Provinces is divided into five colleges, which are those of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Hoorn, Middleburgh, and Harlingen.

Each college has its particular officers; namely, an advocate-fiscal, a receiver-general, a commissary-general, several secretaries and registers, an overseer of the sailors, a commissioner of sales, a treasurer-paymaster, a grand provost, and many officers for the inspection of passports, and the receipt of duties.

That the reader may have a more complete notion of all these colleges, and of their rights, privileges, and functions, we shall give a particular account of that of Amsterdam, which will be sufficient to make the others known.

The college of Amsterdam is composed of 12 lords, called counsellors of the admiralty. Of these 12 lords, one is computed by the nobility of Holland, one by the city of Amsterdam, one by that of Leyden, one by Haerlem, one by

Gouda, and one by Eadam. The other six are chosen by the other provinces; viz. Guelderland, Zealand, Utrecht, Groninger, with the Ommelanden and Overijssel.

These lords of the admiralty have the right of taking cognizance of all the cases that happen in respect to the frauds, malversations, and contraventions committed against the placards and ordinances relating to the navy; as well concerning the duties of export and import of merchandize, as to take care that the prohibitions relating to contraband goods be observed; upon all which cases they pass sentence summarily and sovereignly; excepting, however, such civil matters in which the sum in dispute amounts to above 600 florins: in these cases a man may remove the cause by appeal, before the States General, and have a rehearing of it.

Passes must also be taken out from the admiralty, and they are distributed in the chambers, or offices, which are called simply convoys; and this is also the name given to the duties of export and import, paid on merchandizes. At Amsterdam the convoy is kept in the prince's court, which is a great building, where the college of the admiralty sits.

All the duties of import and export, paid by goods imported into, or exported from, the United Provinces, are paid to the admiralties; each college of which has its offices and officers for that purpose.

Those of the college of Amsterdam are at the entrance of the city, on the side next the gate called Boorn. When boats go to, or return from, any ship, with merchandize, the officers have a right to visit them, and examine whether they have not more goods on board than are contained in the pass, in which case they may stop them; however, they are not allowed to break open or unpack any thing, before notice be given to the commissary-general.

ADRESSE, in commerce, signifies a direction to any one by letter or otherwise. My adresse is at Mr. — at Orleans, &c. that is to say, You will direct for me at —

ADVANCE, an anticipation of time. Money paid by way of advance is money paid before goods are delivered, work done, or business performed.

To pay a note of hand, or bill, by advance, is to pay the value before it becomes due, for which a discount is usually taken.

ADVANCE signifies also loan of money, or supplying with merchandize. I am upon advance with such an one: that is, I have lent him considerable sums; I have supplied him with abundance of goods, and do not know when I shall be reimbursed.

ADVANCE. In the terms of bills of exchange they say, advance for the drawer, when, upon a negotiated bill, the person who has negotiated it, receives above par upon it, that is, more than the sum contained in it. On the contrary, they say, advance for the payer, and loss for the drawer, when he, to whom the bill belongs, does not receive the full value of it.

To **ADVANCE**, to be at the expence of an undertaking, before the time arrives for being reimbursed. Abundance of money must be advanced in fitting out ships, before any returns come to hand; he has advanced all the costs of that manufacture, &c.

To **ADVANCE**, signifies also to lend money, or supply a person with commodities. I have advanced abundance of money; I have supplied that merchant with abundance of goods, to support him in his trade.

They say, to advance the payment, to signify to pay a bill before the time it has to run be elapsed. When the payment of a note of hand, or bill, is made, or advanced before it is due, it is always customary to allow discount for the time it is pre-advanced.

ADVENTURE, a term used in commerce by sea, which the French seldom employ without adding to it the epithet grosse; mettre de l'argent à la grosse aventure, that is, to apply money in order to share in the profits of ships.

The English, instead of adventure, vulgarly use the word venture for a small parcel of goods, &c. sent with a friend that goes to sea, to any part of the world.

ADVENTURER. A merchant's ship is called an adventurer that goes to traffic within the limits of a grant to a trading company, without having obtained their permission.

ADVENTURER, signifies also a person little or not known in public business, who boldly thrusts himself into affairs, and proves a trickster: all prudent merchants ought to be well aware of such persons.

ADVENTURERS, so they call those bold and enterprising pirates, who join together against the Spaniards in the West-Indies, and form enterprizes against them both by sea and land, which would scarce be credible, if the French adventurers of St. Domingo had not in some sense verified them, by the taking of Cartagena under Messieurs de Pointis and du Casse. The name more usually given them is Buccaneers, though not so honourable. See **BUCCANEERS**.

Merchant-ADVENTURER, is a merchant that adventures his goods to sea, and trades to foreign parts; so called, in distinction from such as carry on only an inland or home trade.

ADVENTURERS, those also are called so, who undertake either by themselves, or in companies, the settlement of colo-

nies and plantations in America; which distinguishes them from the planters, by the name of proprietors of such lands, colonies, or plantations.

The latter are employed in planting and cultivating the lands, and the others lend their money, and hazard or adventure it, in hopes of the profits they are to receive thereby. These are what, properly speaking, are called in France, actionnaires; the others, inhabitants, colonists, and grantees. In this sense we find, in the collection of the charters of England, the adventurers and planters of Virginia, the adventurers and planters of New England, and so of the rest; the charters granted for new colonies always distinguishing those two kinds of parties concerned, and granting them different privileges.

ADVENTURINE, or **AVENTURINE**, a precious stone of a yellowish-brown colour, full of little specks, which seem to be of gold. There are pretty fine pieces of it found in Bohemia, Silesia, and different parts of France.

This stone takes the polish easily, but then it easily breaks. It is used in the finest inlaid works: snuff-boxes, patch-boxes, and watch-cases, are also made of it.

There is a counterfeit aventurine made with the filings of brass, and powdered glass (whilst they are in fusion over the fire) to which a yellow tincture is given; but the factitious aventurine never comes near the genuine and natural.

To **ADVERTISE** any thing that is lost, or stolen, which the French call recommander une chose perdue, is, with them, to send to all the merchants or traders, who might purchase the same, tickets or notes, containing a description of the thing, its nature, quality, form, &c. that, in case it be offered them to sale, they may stop it, and give proper notice. This is much after the same manner as is practised here in London, with regard to any piece of plate that is lost, of which notice is given to all the silversmiths. But we generally advertise here in England, in the Gazette, or in any other of the printed news-papers. It is also customary in Holland to give notice by the public crier.

OBSERVATIONS.

Advertising in the news-papers, in regard to matters of trade and business, is now grown a pretty universal practice all over the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and it seems to be a very natural way for men of business of any kind to communicate what they have to propose to the public. It is the way, indeed, by which the very government impart their intentions to the kingdom in general, the Gazette, printed and published by authority, being nothing more than a kind of public advertiser, for the information of the whole community. The great trading and monied corporations practise the same, as being the best method of letting the public know their proceedings. And however mean and disgraceful it was looked on a few years since, by people of reputation in trade, to apply to the public by advertisements in the papers; at present, it seems to be esteemed quite otherwise; persons of great credit in trade experiencing it to be the best, the easiest, and the cheapest method of conveying whatever they have to offer to the knowledge of the whole kingdom. See **NEWS-PAPERS**, their general utility, &c.

ADVICE, advertisement, instruction given to a person concerning something, that he did not know. To give advice is used to signify, the communicating to another, by letter, what passes. My correspondent of Nantz has given me advice of such a bankruptcy, &c.

The merchants of Provence sometimes use the term *avviso*, which they have adopted from Italy.

A letter of advice is a letter missive, by which a merchant, or banker, informs his correspondents, that he has drawn a bill of exchange upon him; that his debtor's affairs are in a bad state, or that he has sent him a quantity of merchandize. To letters of advice concerning the sending of goods, the invoice is usually annexed. See **INVOICE**.

In regard to letters of advice for the payment of a bill of exchange, they ought to contain the name of the person for whose account it is drawn, the day, month, and year, the sum drawn for, and the name of him from whom the value is received. It ought also to mention the person's name to whom it is payable, and the time when due; and, when bills of exchange express the payment to order, that ought also to be specified in the letter of advice.

A person may refuse accepting a bill of exchange, when he has not had advice of it.

ADVICE, is also used for opinion, or counsel. This is my advice, or opinion. I have done nothing in this, but by the opinion and advice of the most skillful merchants.

To **ADVISE** (in trade) to advertise, acquaint, or give notice of any circumstance relating to a person's affairs; as I advise you, that such a banker does not appear upon our exchange; that such a ship is arrived in our port.

To **ADULTERATE**, to mingle something foreign to it's kind, with any substance, to debase any thing with bad ingredients; to adulterate or counterfeit the coin, is a capital crime in all nations.

AEM, or **AAM**, a liquid measure used at Amsterdam. See **AAM**.

AEM, AM, AME. This liquid measure, which is used almost all over Germany, is not the same as that of Amsterdam, though it has almost the same name; neither is it alike in all the cities of Germany. The ame commonly contains 20 vertels, or 80 maffes. At Heidelburgh it is 12 vertels, and the vertel 4 maffes, which reduces the ame to 48 maffes: and in Wirtemberg the ame is 16 yunes, and the yune 10 maffes; which makes the ame amount to 160 maffes.

ÆSTUARY, in geography, an arm of the sea, running up a good way into land.

ÆTHIOPS MINERAL, a composition of crude mercury, and common brimstone, made by rubbing together an equal quantity of each, till they are incorporated into a black powder.

AFFA, a weight used on the gold-coast of Guinea. It is equal to an ounce, and the half of it is called eggeba. Most of the Blacks on the gold-coast give these names to those weights.

AFFAIR, every kind of business and occupation, in which a person employs himself, or is concerned.

This term is much used in commerce, in which it has various significations. Sometimes it is taken for bargain, purchase, contract, &c. but equally in a good or bad sense, according to what is added by way of explanation. Thus they say: Such an one has made a fine affair of it; to signify, that he has gained much. And on the contrary: That he has a bad affair of it, when he has lost considerably by a bargain, purchase, contract, &c.

Sometimes affairs are taken for a merchant's fortune, and in this sense they say, he is very well in his affairs, when he is rich and at his ease, without debts, and possessed of a considerable fortune: and that he is ill in his affairs, when he has had great losses, and is much in debt.

AFFICHE, so the French call those bills or advertisements, which are pasted up in public places, to make any thing known.

The use of these public bills is very common in trade. They are put up for the sale of merchandizes and of ships, and to inform the public of ships setting out for voyages, as is done upon the Royal Exchange of London. These last contain the places to which they are bound, those where they are to touch on their voyage, of what burthen or number of tons they are. how many guns they carry, and their number of men. It is also by these bills, that the French trading companies inform the public, of the quality and quantity of the stuffs, linnens, metals, drugs, spices, and other effects, which arrive on the return of their ships. The place of their arrival is usually mentioned in them, with the day, and often the conditions of sale. In a word, there are few things in trade, for which the French merchants may not sometimes be obliged to have bills fixed up, though it were only to make known the new manufactures they are endeavouring to establish, or even the change of their place of abode, in order to keep their customers.

It is not allowed at Paris to cause bills to be pasted up, upon any pretence whatsoever, without having first obtained the lieutenant-general de Police's permission, or that of the superior judges, according to the nature of the case.

AFFIDAVIT, an oath written and signed, and properly sworn before some person legally authorized for that purpose. As traders are frequently called on to make affidavits of one kind or other, they should be made thoroughly sensible of the nature thereof.

It is defined by divines and moral philosophers, a religious assertion, or asseveration, wherein a person invokes the Almighty, renounces all claim to his mercy, or even calls for the divine vengeance upon himself, if he speaks falsely.—In a legal sense it is a solemn action, whereby God is called to witness the truth of an affirmation.

REMARKS on the hardship of the frequency of oaths by trade.

There is nothing that has been more complained of, nor with more reason, by wise and good men in all ages, than the multiplying of oaths, more especially among the trading part of mankind, in the ordinary course of their business. I speak particularly with regard to custom-house oaths, &c. which, I humbly apprehend, traders should by no means be liable to; for although traders, who support their reputation by their care, industry, and ability in business, are certainly as honest a class of men as any in the community; yet, as they are not impeccable, they have a natural right to be upon a level with the rest of their fellow-subjects, and not to be under the necessity of swearing to every thing they do, or transact; which they are daily obliged to do, in respect to the revenue.

There is no order of men in the community, who labour under the like restrictions. Was the lawyer, the physician, or even the divine, to be obliged to swear to do rigorous justice, in all cases where their interest is concerned, it is to be presumed, that they might not be free from evil any more than traders are, in cases where their interest is concerned:

such a law, it is to be feared, would tend rather to render oaths useless, than to support their solemnity.

I have heard, says Mr. Locke, very sober and observing persons complain, of the danger men's lives and properties are in, by the frequency and fashionableness of perjury amongst us. Faith and truth, especially in all occasions of attesting it upon the solemn appeal to heaven by an oath, is the great bond of society: this it becomes the wisdom of magistrates carefully to support, and render as sacred and awful in the minds of the people as they can.

But if ever frequency of oaths shall make them to be looked on only as formalities of law, or the custom of framing truth (which men's swearing in their own cases is apt to lead to) has once dipt men in perjury, and the guilt with the temptation has spread itself very wide, and made it fashionable in some cases, it will be impossible for the society, these bonds being dissolved, to subsist: all must break in pieces, and run to confusion.

That swearing in their own cases is apt, by degrees, to lead men into as little regard of such oaths, as they have of their ordinary talk, I think there is reason to suspect from what has been observed in something of that kind. Masters of ships are a sort of men generally industrious and sober, and I suppose may be thought, for their number and rank, to be equally honest to any other sort of men; and yet, by the discourse I have had with merchants in other countries, I find, that they think, in these parts, they take a great liberty in their custom-house oaths; to that degree, that I remember I was once told, in a trading town beyond sea, of a master of a vessel, there esteemed a sober and fair man, who yet could not hold saying, "God forbid that a custom-house oath should be a sin."

I say not this, to make any reflection upon a sort of men that I think as uncorrupt as any other; and whom I am sure ought in England to be cherished and esteemed, as the most industrious and most beneficial of any of its subjects. But I could not forbear to give this here as an instance, how dangerous a temptation it is, to bring men customarily to swear, where they may have any concernment of their own. And it will always be worthy the care and consideration of law-makers, to keep up the opinion of an oath high and sacred, as it ought to be in the minds of the people; which can never be done, where frequency of oaths, biased by interest, has established a neglect of them; and fashion (which it seldom fails to do) has given countenance to what profit rewards.

The Chinese administer justice with great rigour in all their tribunals. When any person commences a suit against another, he lays his claim in writing before the court of judicature, and the defendant gives in his defence in writing, which he signs, and which he is obliged publicly to hold up in court between his fingers.

These two writings are delivered in together; and, being examined, sentence is delivered in writing, and each party has his papers returned to him; but first they return the defendant his writing, that he may again acknowledge it.

When one party denies what the other affirms, he is ordered to return his writing; and if the defendant thinks he may do it safely, and accordingly delivers his papers a second time, they also call for those of the plaintiff, and then they say to him who denies what the other affirms, Make it appear that your antagonist has no right to demand of you what is in debate; but take notice, if he makes out what you deny, you shall undergo twenty strokes of the bamboo upon the back-side, and pay a fine of twenty fukuges, which make about two hundred dinars.

This bamboo punishment is such, as the criminal could not survive; it is so grievous, that no person in all China may, of his own authority, inflict it upon another, on pain of death, and confiscation of his goods; so that nobody is ever so hardy as to expose himself to such certain danger: wherefore justice is well administered to every one. They require no witness, nor do they put the parties upon oath; which is the chief reason for mentioning this custom in China.

To collect the public revenue, therefore, without compelling traders to swear perpetually, was one great motive to Sir Matthew Decker, as I heard him declare, for proposing his late scheme.

AFFINAGE, an action which purifies and refines any thing, to render it finer, neater, and better; as metals, sugar, &c. Affinage is sometimes used with us in law-books, for the refining of metals. See **REFINING**.

AFFIRMATION, is a positive allegation of any thing: the Quakers call giving their evidence, their affirmation, which they make upon the holy scriptures in courts of law. The French use affirmation to express the oath taken in court, and the assurance given of the truth of any fact: this passes in the presence of a judge, who makes the deponent hold up his hand, and swear, that the thing affirmed is true.

There is an article in the ordinance of 1673 in France, which requires an affirmation in certain cases relating to bills of exchange: it is the XXI. of Title V. Its terms are as follow: "That bills of exchange shall be deemed to be discharged, after a cessation of demand, or suit for five years,

to reckon from the next day after they became due, or were protested, or from the last time of suing. However, the pretended debtors shall be held, if required, to make affirmation, that they are not further indebted; and their widows, heirs, assigns, or representatives, that they actually believe, there is nothing due.

AFFREIGHTMENT. See **FREIGHT.**

AFIOUME (or **FIUME**) a kind of flax, which comes from Egypt, by the way of Marfeilles and Leghorn.

AFRICA, one of the four principal parts of the world. Africa, in its largest sense, lies south of Europe, and west of Asia, and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which parts it from the former; and on the east by the Red Sea, which separates it from the latter, to which it only joins by that small isthmus, or neck of land, which cuts off the communication between these two seas, and is commonly known by the name of Suez. On the south and west, it is surrounded with the main ocean, so that it may be properly stiled a vast over-grown peninsula, joined only to the continent of Asia by the isthmus above-mentioned, which, if cut off, would make it by far the largest island in the world. It extends itself a prodigious way, not only on each side of the equinox, but of the two tropics likewise, the southern verge of it reaching quite to the 35th degree of southern, and the northern almost to the 37th of north latitude; whereby its utmost extent from north to south, is almost 72 degrees, or about 4320 miles. From east to west it reaches still farther, viz. from 17 west to 60 east, or 77 degrees of longitude, that is, 4620 miles.

Its situation for commerce is certainly beyond either of the other quarters of the world. It stands, as it were, in the center between the other three, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any other quarter has with the rest. For (1.) It is opposite Europe in the Mediterranean, for almost 1000 miles in a line east and west, from beyond Tripoli to cape Spartel at the strait's mouth; the distance seldom 100 miles, no where 100 leagues, and often not 20 leagues. (2.) It is opposite to Asia for all the length of the Red Sea north and south; the distance sometimes being not above 5 leagues, seldom 50; and it fronts all the southern coast of Asia, viz. the coast of Cilicia, and that of India, though at a greater distance, yet much nearer than any other country. It is wonderfully accommodated for commerce, by the interposition of islands from Madagascar to Malabar; and more particularly by means of the alternate trade-winds, which render the navigation safe, easy, and constant. (3.) It also lies opposite to America, or about the distance of 500 to 700 leagues, including the islands, for a coast of above 2000 miles: whereas America no where joins Europe, except where it may be a terra incognita, under a distance of 1000 leagues, and not Asia under that of 2500.

It is furnished with the greatest and most convenient navigable rivers, and perhaps with as many of them, as any other of the chief parts of the world: such are the Nile and Nubia on the north shore, running into the Mediterranean sea; the Niger, or Rio Grand, running into the Atlantic ocean, on the west side of Africa; the Congo, the Zairi, and the Loango, three rivers of prodigious extent, south of the line, which empty themselves into the Ethiopic ocean on the same west side, but beyond the Gold-coast: also the Natal, the Prio St. Esprit, the Melinda, and the Mozambo, all rivers of a very great length and breadth, which empty themselves into the Indian ocean on the east side of Africa.

These are all rivers of the first magnitude; besides which, there are innumerable others, which, though not equal to the former, are yet very noble streams, fitted for navigation and commerce, and which by their long courses penetrate far inland: and, was this country blessed with a people qualified for trade and business, they might become the medium of an endless commercial correspondence.

The country is populous beyond credibility, the soil fruitful, the season, for the greatest part, mild and clement, and the air salubrious: and, if once a turn for industry and the arts was introduced among them, a greater quantity of the European produce and manufactures might be exported thither, than to any other country in the whole world. And, as the natives in general stand in great need of European commodities, so they have the most valuable returns to make for them. This the Europeans experience, from the share of traffic they carry on with them at present.

To what a great degree this country abounds in gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the French, as well as English, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but the vouchers of the most authentic historians.

There is no country in the world, says the historian Leo Africanus, richer in gold and silver, than the kingdoms in Africa; as those of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotopa, Casati, and Mehenemugi. By means of settlements of strength on the continent of Africa, adds he, the Europeans might, by the exchange of their commodities, draw into their hands all the gold of those countries. And here is a prodigious number of elephants,

which would not only facilitate the inland intercourses of commerce, but also afford a very beneficial branch of traffic, in the teeth of these notable animals. In the same historian are numberless passages relating to those rich mines, and shewing how easy it would be for the Europeans to carry on a very extensive traffic with that part of the globe.

This account of the great treasures of Africa is confirmed likewise by the Nubian geographer, who somewhere says, that the king of Guinea, the greatest city in all the countries of Negroland, has a mass of gold of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; which is completely pure, tough, and malleable, without having been smelted by the ordinary arts of refining that metal from its native ore. Father Labat, a modern French author, has descended to a very minute specification of great variety of rich mines; which, he says, are very shamefully worked by the Negroes, by reason of their being totally ignorant of the nature of mining: nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines.

The copper is the next valuable ore found in this part of the world. The quantity of this metal is not fully searched into, though there is great reason to believe it is exceeding great: so great, that it is commonly said amongst them, that the mountains which we call Atlas, are all copper. Thus much, however, is certain, that the quantity is extraordinary great, that is discovered in several countries distant and remote from each other; as in Fez, Tunis, and Abyssinia, or Ethiopia; and it is allowed to be the finest copper in the whole world. On the northern coasts they have such plenty of corn, that their fields, though but very meanly cultivated for want of a knowledge in agriculture, yield them an hundred-fold increase. Gums, ivory, wax, civet, ostrich-feathers, are in such quantities, that any expence of them can scarce ever be missed.

And, in these warm climates, the country, besides what nature has of herself disseminated, is, and must be, capable of improvement, in all the nicest and most estimable productions, which the well cultivated world supplies us with, from other places in the same latitude.

It cannot be doubted, but the fruitful rich lands, every-where to be found upon the coasts, and within the country, upon the banks of the rivers near the gold coast, and the slave-coast, would produce all the richest articles of the East and West-India commerce. Doubtless the spices of Banda, Ternate, and Amboyna, might be produced on the rich and fruitful shores of Melinda, on the east side, or of the slave-coast on the west side, of Africa; and that as easily, and to as great advantage, as where they are now produced; the latitude being the same, and the soil not unlike.

The cinnamon of Ceylon, the tea of China and Japan, and the coffee of Mocha would all there be produced, on the same coast, from the Rio de St Esprit, and southward to the river Natale; a temperate, fertile, healthy, and manageable soil.

It has been affirmed that the sugars of Barbadoes and Jamaica, as also the ginger, cotton, rice, pepper, or pimento, with the cocoa, the indigo, and every other plant which comes from these islands, would be as easily produced in Africa, and the crops be equally profitable and plentiful, if supported by the same industry as in America: and we are assured that the ginger, the cotton, and the indigo have been attempted by the English factories on the gold-coast of Africa; and have thriven to admiration.

Upon the foundation of these facts, nothing seems wanting to render Africa equal by nature, if not in many respects superior, to any of the three other parts of the world. For although the middle of it, lying between the tropics in the torrid zone, and under the line, is exceedingly hot; yet even in the hottest part it is habitable, and inhabited; and the people who dwell in these extreme hot climates, do abound in plenty, have cattle, corn, cooling fruits, shades, rivers, &c. and live very agreeably and healthy; as in the island of St. Thomas, under the very line, also on the gold-coast, and in the kingdom of Benin, and Angola on the west shore; and in Ethiopia, Melinda, the coast of Zanguebar, and several of the more intemperate places on the eastern shore.

But, making allowance for some of the inland countries remote from the sea, which we are told are without water, and therefore desert, yet they are not equal to the uninhabited wastes either of Europe, Asia, or America. Notwithstanding this, Africa, in one respect, has greater advantage than the other parts of the world, for it feels no cold, the most northerly latitude being about 37, and the most southerly about 35 degrees, so that infinitely the larger part enjoys the finest and most temperate climate.

It is melancholy to observe that a country, which has near 10,000 miles sea-coast, and noble, large, deep rivers, should yet have no navigation; streams penetrating into the very center of the country, but of no benefit to it; innumerable people, without knowledge of each other, correspondence, or commerce.

At the entrance of these rivers into the sea are the most excellent harbours, prodigious in number, deep, safe, and calm,

calm, covered from the wind, and capable of being made secure by fortifications; but no shipping, no trade, no merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandizes. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient within itself, seems utterly neglected by those who are civilized themselves, and its own inhabitants quite unfollicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them. What it affords in its present rude, unimproved state, is solely given up to the gain of others, as if not the people only were to be sold for slaves to their fellow-creatures, but the whole country was captive, and produced its treasures, merely for the use and benefit of the rest of the world, and not at all for their own.

Whether, instead of making slaves of these people, it would not rather become such nations that assume to themselves the name and character of Christians, to give them a relish for the blessings of life, by extending traffic into their country in the largest degree it will admit of, and introducing among them the more civilized arts and customs, may be submitted to consideration.

The Dutch, by recommending their dress, and introducing their customs among the natives, have prodigiously improved the commerce of the spice islands, and wonderfully humanized the inhabitants, who were as savage in their manners as the negroes.

But it is to be feared that, while the slaving trade with these people continues to be the great object of the Europeans, it will ever spirit up wars and hostilities among the negro princes and chiefs, for the sake of making captives of each other for sale. This, therefore, will ever obstruct the civilizing of these people, and extending of the trade into the bowels of Africa, which, by the contrary means, might be easily practicable.

The obtaining a competent number of servants to work, as the negroes at present do, in the colonies belonging to the several European potentates, who have settlements in America, does not seem at all impracticable. Europe in general affords numberless poor and distressed objects for that purpose, and if these were not over-worked, as the negroes particularly are in Martinico, and in other the French colonies, the Europeans would make as good servants for the American planters as the blacks do: and, if also all the Europeans were upon a level in regard to the price of labour in their colonies, we cannot but think they would all find their account in laying absolutely aside the slave-trade, and cultivating a fair, friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with the Africans.

Till this is done, it does not seem possible that the inland trade of this country should ever be extended to the degree it is capable of; for, while the spirit of butchery and making slaves of each other is promoted by the Europeans among these people, they will never be able to travel with safety into the heart of Africa, or to cement such commercial friendships and alliances with them as will effectually introduce our arts and manufactures amongst them.

We must, however, at present take the state of the trade as it stands, and men as they now are: these hints may possibly some time or other rouse some noble and benevolent Christian spirit to think of changing the whole system of the African trade, which, as things are now circumstanced, may not be so easily brought about.

This trade, in its present state, is of as great advantage as any we carry on, and is, as it were, all profit, the first cost being some things of our own manufactures, and others generally purchased with them, for which we have, in return, gold, teeth, wax, and negroes; the last whereof is a very beneficial traffic to the kingdom, as it occasionally gives so prodigious an employment to our people both by sea and land. These are the hands whereby our plantations are at present improved; and it is by their labours that such quantities of sugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, fustic, and indigo are raised which employ a great quantity of shipping for transporting them hither; and the greater number of ships employs the greater number of handicraft trades at home, spends more of our produce and manufactures, and breeds more sailors, who are maintained by a separate employment; for if every one raised the provisions he eat, or made the manufactures he wore, traffic would cease; which is promoted by a variety of employments men have engaged in, which constitutes a mutual dependence, without invading each other's province. Thus the husbandman raises corn, the miller grinds it, the baker makes it into bread, and the citizen eats it: thus the grazier fats cattle, and the butcher kills them for the market: thus the shepherd sheers his sheep, the spinifer turns the wool into yarn, the weaver makes it into cloth, and the merchant exports it; and every one lives by each other: thus the country supplies the city with provisions, and that the country with necessaries.

On the whole, the African trade, both for exports and imports, and also as it supplies our British plantations, and advances navigation, is certainly very beneficial to this kingdom; but whether the laying this trade absolutely open, while our rivals carry the same on, by the means of great trading companies

with joint stocks, will prove the most effectual means to promote our share therein, must be left to time and experience. In giving a particular account of the trade of Africa, we shall divide into the following general heads, viz. Upper Egypt, Lower Egypt, Middle Egypt, Nubia, Abyssinia, or Ethiopia, Barbary, Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Biledulgerid, Algier, Fez, Morocco, Zara deserts, Sanago, or Senagal river, Negroland, Gambia river, Meli, or Mendingo, Tombut, Guinea, Benin, Congo, Caffaria, Cape of Good Hope, Monomotapa, Zanguebar, Ajan, Madagascar island, Cape Verd, Canary, Azores, and other small islands, under the articles of AFRICAN ISLANDS, and also under the BRITISH, FRENCH, and DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANIES; to all which we refer alphabetically, for an account of their respective commerce.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

I. MADAGASCAR lies between the 12. 30. and 25 degrees 10 minutes of south latitude, and between the 44th and 51st of longitude east from London. It abounds with spacious plains, extraordinary good pastures, rivers, and lakes, well stocked with fish; agreeable springs, the water of which is, perhaps, the best in the world; and large forests, always green, where lemon and pomegranate-trees, agreeably mixed with odoriferous flowering trees, perfume the air with the most delightful scent. Here are great number of oxen and cows, great herds of sheep, and tame and wild hogs. They have a kind of nut, which smells of all sorts of spices; it is as big as a nutmeg, but browner and rounder. Pepper grows about fort Dauphin, but in small quantities, because it is not cultivated. Grapes and wheat do not come to maturity here; oats and barley succeed better. There is a great quantity of tobacco, but it is prodigiously strong. The soil produces two crops of every thing in a year, except sugar-canes, which must be left two years standing, that they may grow to a proper bigness.

Here are four sorts of honey, all which are very agreeable to the taste; and three sorts of wines; honey-wine, which they call sich, and tastes like Spanish wine; wine of sugar-canes, called touch, which is somewhat bitter; and the wine of bananas, which is tartish; together with several sorts of oil. Gum of tacamaca, frankincense, and benzoin are found in abundance in this island: ambergrease is gathered on the sea-coast. Here is also talc, with which they garnish their windows for want of glass; mines of coals, salt-petre, steel and iron, with which the negroes make razors, hassagayes, and instruments to cut wood.

It is confidently affirmed that they have also gold and silver mines, but it is not known in what province they lie. Nor does this island want for precious stones, as topazes, amethysts, agates, &c. The riches of the inhabitants consist in cattle, which the men look after, and in fields of rice and roots, which the women sow: gold and silver serve only for ornaments. They make paans and carpets of cotton, of divers colours; and, as they have no looms, but only sticks laid on the ground, which they raise by turns, to make the wool, they cannot work very fast. The island is not populous in proportion to its bigness, but the islanders are capable to learn the arts and sciences; and there are even few trades in Europe of which they have not some notion, and practise to a certain degree; and yet they are for the most part lazy enough, and, when they work, it is slowly.

As for the trade they have among themselves, it is managed only by barter, for they have not the use of money: the mercery-wares and glass beads, which they get from the Europeans, serve them instead of coin. When they go into remote provinces to buy oxen, cotton, silk, paans, iron hassagayes, hatchets, knives, and other such things, they exchange gold for copper, silver for iron, and carry on their trade after that manner. If they have any pieces of gold or silver coin, they melt them down to make bracelets.

They have not as yet any true knowledge of commerce, which is the reason why they neglect to gather up those things which their country produces. They value a plate of copper more than the most beautiful precious stone when rough, and laugh at foreigners who bid them any thing for them. In the greatest part of the country they eat the wax with the honey, and the flesh of oxen and sheep with their hides, or skins. They generally burn ambergrease in their sacrifices; and, towards the north, they throw away the silk and eat the worm, whilst in the chrysalis. He who wants cotton carries rice or cattle to the place where cotton is cultivated; and he who has cotton, and wants rice, carries his cotton to sell to those places where there is rice: for there is neither fair nor market here. The chief places in this island, or rather on the coast, are,

1. The bay of Antongil, in the bottom of which there is a small island, which abounds in all sorts of provisions, and very good water: it affords a safe harbour for shipping. This bay has been once much frequented by the Dutch, who used to buy slaves and rice here. They had a kind of factory consisting of 14 Dutchmen, some of whom died with sickness, the place being very unwholesome, and others have been murdered by the inhabitants, whom they used with too much haughtiness.

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2. The island of St. Mary, otherwise called Nossi Ibrahim, or the isle of Abraham, lying to the southward of the bay of Antongil, is surrounded with rocks, over which canoes may pass at high-water, but, at low water, there is not above half a foot depth. On these rocks is to be seen the finest white coral in the world. On the eastern coast of the island is also found ambergrease, and the island itself affords several sorts of gum. While the French were settled upon this island, it became much more populous than it was before; the lord of Antongil, who used formerly to make war against the inhabitants, dared no longer to attack them, since they were under the protection of the French; so that there are now here 10 or 12 villages.

3. Fort Dauphin, built by the French, stands near the south-east point of Madagascar; but, the French finding that the commerce would not bear the expence of the colony, they left it again.

4. The bay of St. Augustin lies on the west coast of Madagascar. The English formerly drove a trade for slaves on the west side of the island, particularly at St. Augustin's bay, and at new and old Messalige; but now they are afraid of the pirates; though some venture their necks in going to trade with them.

II. MASCARIN, called Mascareigne, or the isle of Bourbon, by the French, is about 370 miles distant from the coast of Madagascar to the east, under the 21st and 22d degrees of south latitude. It was discovered by a Portuguese of the house of Mascarenhas, who gave it his name. Afterwards Mr. de Flacourt, governor of fort Dauphin and of the French settlements in Madagascar, gave it the name of Bourbon in the year 1654, when he took possession of it in the name of his king. However, the French did not settle at first upon this island; but, finding afterwards how advantageous it might prove to their navigation, they made a considerable settlement there in 1672, after they had quitted those which they had on the island of Madagascar. They have now three pretty considerable towns there, with a governor, and several magistrates. There are many good roads for shipping about this island, but no safe ports to secure ships against the violent storms which often rage in these parts.

The first settlement the French made here is the town, or village, of St. Paul; the others are called St. Dennis and St. Sulanna. The governor resides generally at St. Dennis: this is at present the bathing-place of the French East-India ships, and the only one where they can conveniently get refreshments. The island is fruitful in plants, and abounds particularly with aloe, tobacco, white-pepper, ebony, palm, and other fruit-trees; a kind of trees which produce odoriferous gums, as benzoin, &c. and a great many trees proper for timber. The soil is well watered by several small rivers, rivulets, and springs of very good water; and the rivers abound with fish. On the sea-shore are gathered great quantities of ambergrease, coral, and fine shells. There are many more small islands about Madagascar, but not worth mentioning.

III. ST. HELENA is about the 14th degree of south latitude; its longitude is 5 degrees 30 minutes west from London. It is a settlement of the English East-India company, and there is a small English town within the bay, which is the common landing-place, where are about 20 or 30 small houses; but the houses in the town stand empty, save only when ships arrive: for the owners of those houses have all plantations farther in the island, where they constantly employ themselves; but, when ships arrive, they all flock to the town, where they live all the time that ships lie here; for then is the fair, or market, to buy such necessaries as they want, and to sell off the product of their plantations.

Their plantations afford potatoes, yams, and some plantains and bananas. Their flocks consist chiefly of hogs, bullocks, cocks and hens, ducks, geese, and turkeys, of which they have great plenty, and sell them at a low rate to the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of callico, silks, or muslins; arrack, sugar, and lime-juice are also much esteemed and coveted by them. But now they are in hopes to produce wine and brandy in a short time, for they already begin to plant vines for that end, there being a few Frenchmen there to manage that affair. The company's affairs here are conducted by a governor, deputy-governor, and storehouse-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well-furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and eminent passengers are welcome. The island produces here and there a drug like benzoin, and great plenty of wild tobacco on the hills, which the slaves use to smoke for want of the right sort. The inhabitants are supplied with necessaries twice a month out of the company's store, at six months credit. The chief commodities for sale here are cherry-brandy, malt, and cyder, spirits, beer, Madera and Canary wines, and Spanish brandy, which may be taken in at those islands; Batavia arrack, sugar, sugar-candy, tea, fans, china, lacquered ware, silks, China ribbons, coarse striped gingham, ordinary muslin, coarse chintz, blue and brown long-cloths, salamoles, and all sorts of coarse callicoes.

IV. ASCENSION ISLAND lies under the 7th degree of south latitude; its longitude is about 13 degrees 10 minutes west

from London. It is a mountainous and barren island, notwithstanding which it is generally used by our homeward bound East-India ships, as a place of refreshment. The soil is covered with cinders and ashes, which makes some think here was once a volcano. Yet in some parts it is fit for tillage, and it has a safe, convenient harbour, where the mariners sometimes hunt and feed upon turtles for 10 or 15 days together, which they reckon both a pleasant and wholesome food. There are a few goats, but they are lean: there are also several sorts of birds here, but so ill-tasted, that the mariners will not touch them.

V. ST. MATTHEW lies to the north of St. Helena, and to the north-east of Ascension, in the 2d degree of south latitude. It is desert, though there is a fine rivulet of fresh water that runs through it.

VI. ANNOBON lies in the latitude 2 degrees south, in the 5th degree 10 minutes longitude east from London. Here are two high mountains, which, being continually covered with clouds, occasion frequent rains. Here are several fertile vallies, which produce plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts. Besides which, the island abounds also in lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Turkish corn, and millet. Here are also oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pigeons, and other poultry, and especially plenty of fish. It produces also a vast deal of cotton. The governor is a Portuguese, who has very few white people with him; all the other inhabitants are blacks, who are nevertheless very submissive to the governor, and zealously attached to the Roman catholic religion. On the south-east of the island is a very good watering-place, the water running down from the mountains into a valley full of orange and other fruit-trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, because of the violent breakings of the sea; and the negroes have made an intrenchment of stone there, from which they can very much incommode those who go thither for water. The road for shipping is on the north-east side of the island, where is good anchoring in 7, 10, 13, or 16 fathoms water, on a sandy ground, close to the land. The revenues of this island consist chiefly in cotton. The negroes gather it, and, after they have cleaned it, they send it into Portugal. Here are also some civet-cats in the mountains, which yet afford but little profit.

VII. ST. THOMAS, or ST. THOME, lies directly under the equinoctial line, under the 6th and 7th degrees of longitude east of London. It never rains except in March and September, when the sun passes directly over this island, but a dew falls every night, which renders the soil very fruitful. It produced formerly forty ships load of sugar; but in Mandelstoe's time, from whom we borrow this account, scarce enough to lade six. Nevertheless, it produces wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parsnips, cabbages, French turneps, lettuce, radishes, sage, beet, parsley, and all sorts of roots, pulse, and pot-herbs. The Portuguese have planted olive, peach, and almond-trees here, which seem to thrive well enough, but bear little fruit, because of the excessive heat and moisture. The sea abounds with excellent fish and large whales. There is a mountain in the center of the island, covered on the top with a cloud, which moistens the trees, and makes them drop water enough for the sugar-canes. The Portuguese built a town here called Pavaosan, with a harbour towards the continent.

It was at first inhabited by all nations, who had a free trade here; but now all pay tribute except the French, who enjoy the same immunities as the Portuguese, because a French jeffuit was very laborious and successful in propagating the Roman faith here. The town is very pleasant, and the inhabitants exchange their sugar (which by the by will not easily dry) for wine, cheese, leather, and clothes.

VIII. CAPE VERD islands, are seated between the 13th and 50 minutes, and the 17th and 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 22d and 25th degree of longitude west from London. The Portuguese have a vice-roy here, who resides in the isle of Jago. These islands are inhabited by Europeans, or by families originally come from Europe, who profess the Roman catholic religion. Here are also some negroes. The most considerable of these islands are,

1. Mayo; the whole of which island is a very dry sort of soil, either a sort of sand, or loose crumbling stone, without any fresh-water ponds or streams to moisten it; but only showers in the wet season, which run off as fast as they fall. There is but one small spring in the middle of the isle, from which proceeds a little stream of water, that runs through a valley between the hills. On the west side of the island, where the road for ships is, there is a large sandy bay, and a sand-bank about 40 paces wide, which runs two or three miles along the shore, within which there is a large salina, or salt-pond, contained between the sand-bank and the hills beyond it. The whole salt-pond is about two miles in length, and half a mile wide, but above half of it is commonly dry: the north end only of the pond never wants water, producing salt from November till May, which is here the dry season of the year.

The waters which yield this salt, work out of the sea through a hole in the sand-bank above-mentioned, like a sluice, and that

that only in spring-tides, when it fills the pond more or less, according to the height of the tides. If there is any salt in the pond when the flux of water comes in, it presently dissolves: but then, in two or three days after, it begins to kern; and so continues kerning, till either all, or the greatest part, of the salt-water is congealed or kernal, or till a fresh supply of it comes in again from the sea.

This water is known to come in only at that one passage on the north-east part of the pond, where also it is deepest. They who come hither to lade salt, take it up as it kerns, and lay it up in heaps on the dry land, before the water breaks in again. And it is observable of this salt pond, that the salt kerns only in the dry season, contrary to the salt-ponds in the West-Indies, particularly those of the island of Salt-Tortuga, where the salts never kern till the rains come in about April, and continue so to do in May, June, July, &c. while the wet season lasts, and not without some great showers of rain first. Our nation drives a great trade here for salt, and has commonly a man of war here for the guard of our ships and barques, that come to take it in; of which, in some years, there have not been less than a hundred a year. It costs nothing but men's labour to rake it together, and wheel it out of the pond, except the carriage, and that also is very cheap; the inhabitants having plenty of asses, for which they have little to do, besides carrying the salt from the ponds to the sea-side, at the season when ships are here.

The inhabitants lade and drive their asses themselves, being very glad to be employed, for they have scarce any other trade but this to live by. The pond is not above half a mile from the landing-place, so that the asses make a great many trips in a day. The island of Mayo is generally barren, being dry, as observed above, and the best of it is but an indifferent soil. The sandy bank that pens in the salt-pond, has a sort of silk-cotton growing upon it. It may be of use for stuffing of pillows, and the like, but else is of no value.

The right cotton-thrub grows here also, but not on the sandy bank. There are some bushes of it near the shore, but the most of it is planted in the middle of the island, where the inhabitants live, cotton cloth being their chief manufacture; but they have not great store of that cotton.

The inhabitants of this island, even their governor and priests, are all negroes; though, being subject to the Portuguese, they have their religion and language. The negro governor has his patent from the Portuguese governor of St. Jago, and expects a small present from every commander that lades salt here, and is glad to be invited aboard their ships. He spends most of his time with the English in the salting season, which is his harvest; and, indeed, all the islanders are then employed in getting somewhat; for they have no vessels of their own to trade with; nor do any Portuguese ships come hither, so that they have scarce any but the English on whom they depend for trade: and, though they are subjects of Portugal, they have a particular value for our nation. Asses themselves are a commodity in some of these islands, several of our ships coming hither to freight with them, and carry them to Barbadoes, and our other plantations.

2. St. Jago, or St. James's island, is the chief, the most fruitful, and best inhabited of all the islands of Cape Verd; and yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it.

On the east side of the island is a town called Baya, with a good port, which, in peaceable times especially, is seldom without ships: for this has been long a place where ships outward bound to Guinea, or the East-Indies, English, French, and Dutch, have been wont to touch at for water and refreshments, but few ships call here on their return to Europe. When any ships are here, the country people bring down their commodities to sell to the seamen and passengers, viz. bullocks, hogs, goats, fowls, eggs, plantanes, and cocoa-nuts, which they exchange for shirts, drawers, handkerchiefs, hats, waistcoats, breeches, or in a manner for any sort of clothes, especially linnen; for woollen is not so much esteemed here. They do not willingly part with their cattle of any sort, but in exchange for money or linnen, or some other valuable commodity. The people are very thievish, and, if they see an opportunity, will snatch any thing from you, and run away. There is a fort here on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour.

St. Jago town, the capital of the island, lies on the south-west part of it, and is the seat of the general governor, and of the bishop of all the Cape Verd islands. This town stands scattering against the sides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley, and a run of water in the bottom, that empties itself into a fine small cove, or sandy bay, where the sea is commonly very smooth; so that here is good watering and safe landing at any time, though the road be rocky and bad for ships. The people here are pretty orderly, but they are generally poor, having but little trade. Besides chance ships from other nations, there come hither a Portuguese ship or two every year, in their way to Brazil. These vend among them a few European commodities, and take off their principal manufactures, namely, striped cotton cloth, which they carry with them to Brazil. Another ship also comes hither from Portugal for sugar, their other manufacture, and returns with it directly thither. For there are several

small sugar-works on this island, from which they send into Portugal near 100 tons every year: and they have plenty of cotton growing up in the country, wherewith they cloath themselves, and send also a great deal to Brazil. They have vines, of which they make some wine, but the European ships furnish them with better, though they drink but little of any. Their chief fruits, besides plantanes in abundance, are oranges, lemons, citrons, musk and water melons, limes, guavas, pomegranates, quinces, cuttard-apples, papahs, &c.

The other islands are, Buena Vista, Sall, or Salt island, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Anthony, Fuego, Brava; some of which have very good roads and harbours. The island Sall is full of large salt-ponds, where the water naturally congeals into salt; and, at St. Vincent, the Portuguese load hides.

IX. The CANARY ISLANDS, lie between 27 degrees 10 minutes, and 29 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 12th and 17th 50. of longitude west from London. The soil of these islands is fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet, and excellent wine, which is transported thence to most parts of Europe, but especially to England. There are also abundance of pomegranate, poplar, fig, citron, and orange-trees: they yield likewise sugar, dragon's blood, and some other sorts of gum. Most of the inhabitants are Spaniards. The Spanish fleet, returning from the West-Indies, often make these islands their place of rendezvous. The most considerable are the following.

1. Lauzarota, or Laucerota, is divided by a ridge of mountains, which afford nothing but pasture to the sheep and goats; but the vallies produce very good wheat and barley, though they seem sandy and dry. Here are asses, kine, camels, and very good horses.

2. The soil of Fuerte Ventura is partly mountainous, and partly champain, abounding in wheat and barley. There are several brooks of fresh water along the coasts, and soft crooked trees on their banks, that yield gum, of which they make white salt. There are palm-trees which bear dates; olive and mastic-trees, orchel for dyeing, and a sort of fig-tree, which yields balm as white as milk; that is of great virtue for several medicines. They make cheese of the milk of their goats, of which this island breeds above 50,000 a year. Besides that, their flesh is very good, and the inhabitants make great profits of their skins and fat, each beast weighing 30 or 40 pounds. The harbours are only fit for middling vessels. There is on this island a little town, which bears the same name.

3. Great Canaria, or Canary, is a fruitful island, noted chiefly for its excellent wines, which bears its name, and of which Heylin says, they used to send 3000 tons every year into England and the Netherlands. It abounds also in melons, apples, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantanes; as also with fir, dragon, and palm-trees.

4. Teneriff produces the true Malmsey wine, and that near Laguna is said to be the best in the world. Here is also Canary wine, and Verdona, or green wine. The Canary grows chiefly on the west side of the island, and therefore is commonly sent to Oratavia. Verdona is a green, strong-bodied wine, harsher and sharper than Canary. 'Tis not so much esteemed in Europe, but is exported to the West-Indies, and will keep best in hot countries. This sort of wine is made chiefly on the east side of the island, and shipped off at Santa Cruz. Besides these wines, here is also store of grain, as wheat, barley, and maiz, which they often transport to other places. They have also some beans, pease, and coches, a sort of grain much like maiz, sowed mostly to fatten land. Here are likewise papahs, apples, pears, plums, cherries, pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, limes, pumpkins, onions, the best in the world, &c. They are also well stocked with horses, cows, mules, sheep, goats, hogs, conies, and plenty of deer. Lastly, here are many fowls, as cocks, hens, ducks, pigeons, partridges, &c. with plenty of fish. All the Canary Islands have of these commodities and provisions, more or less. But as the Laucerota is most famed for horses, and Grand Canary, Teneriff, and Palma for wines, Teneriff especially for the best Malmsey, for which reason these three islands have the chief trade; so is Forteventura for dunghill fowls, and Gomera for deer. Fowls and other eatables are dear in the trading islands, but very plentiful and cheap on the others.

Oratavia lies on the west side of the island, and, being the chief sea-port for trade, the principal English merchants reside there with their consuls.

5. Gomera has a pretty good haven, and a town of the same name. The Spanish West-India fleet often comes into its harbour, and takes here corn, wine, sugar, fruit, &c. The country is high, feeds small cattle, and produces dragon-trees.

6. Palma has a town of its own name, and a safe harbour, well frequented for wines, which some reckon the best of the Canaries, and like Malmsey. They are transported thence to the West-Indies, and other places. The best comes from the neighbourhood of a place called Brenia, from whence

whence they export about 12000 pipes a year. Here are four sugar-engines.

X. **MADERA**, or **MADERA**, lies under the 32d degree of north latitude, and under the 17th and 18th of longitude west from London. The air is far more moderate than in the Canary islands, and the soil more fertile in corn, wine, sugar, and fruits, being much better watered by five or six little rivers; but it is alike stored with the same sort of cattle, birds, plants, and trees, from which is extracted the sanguis draconis, or dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. Here is a perpetual spring and warm water, which produces blossoms and fruit every month in the year: white onions are here so sweet, that they may be eaten like apples. Here are lemons of a monstrous size, with oranges of all sorts. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive here in perfection. They make here the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving large citrons and beautiful oranges, and in making marmalades and perfumed pastes, which infinitely exceed those of Genoa, whatever the Italians may pretend.

Here are several sugar-plantations: the sugar they make here is extremely beautiful; and smells naturally of violets. This is the first place in the west, where this manufacture was set on foot; and from hence it has been carried into America, where they make such vast quantities of sugar, that the Portuguese, finding that this trade was not so profitable to them here as it proved at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce excellent wine, and which foreigners come and buy up, and whereby the Portuguese make an immense profit. There are three or four sorts of these wines. One sort is of the colour of champagne, but is not much valued. The second sort is a white wine, much stronger than the former. The third is delicious, and is called Malmsey, being of the same nature with that in Teneriff. The fourth is of the same sort with Alicant wine, but much inferior to it in taste. It is never drank but mixed with the other sorts, to which it gives a colour, and strength to keep. It is observable of Madera wine, that the heat of the sun improves it much, when it is exposed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken off. They make in the whole island about 28,000 pipes of wine, 8000 of which are drank there, and the rest exported: the greatest part is sent to the West-Indies, especially to Barbadoes. All European nations trade hither, and receive in exchange for their commodities this wine (much used throughout all the American islands, as keeping best in hot countries) sugar, wax, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and citrons. In the year 1735, they reckoned in this island 6096 houses, the number of which is very much increased since. The chief town is Funchal, which is very populous. But the natural Portuguese do not make up the greatest number of the inhabitants; for there are a great many French and English Roman catholics settled here, who live after the Portuguese manner, besides a great number of Mulattoes, and of negroes, both freemen and slaves. The road here is very bad for ships to ride in.

XI. **PORTO SANTO** lies to the north-east of Madera, under 32 deg. 30 min. of north latitude, and under 15 deg. 30 min. of longitude west from London. This island wants harbours, and has only a bay, which is safe enough, except when the wind blows from the south-west. This bay affords a convenient retreat for ships that come from the Indies, or go to Africa: so that the merchant-men often stop there, which affords a considerable profit to the inhabitants. The island produces wheat and other corn, sufficient for the provision of the people. Here are plenty of oxen and wild boars, and a prodigious number of conies. Here is also dragon's blood, abundance of honey and wax, and the sea abounds with fish.

AGATE, and **ACHATES**, a precious stone, that has different names according to its different colours. There are transparent agates, and opaque ones, and some that are partly transparent and partly opaque.

The agates which are called fardian are red; the most valuable are of a kind of flesh-colour, mixed with brown; the least esteemed are those of which the red inclines to yellow.

The onyx is all opaque, of a whitish and black colour. The fardonix is a mixture of the onyx and fardoine. This last kind of agates is the most precious of all.

There is also a species called chalcidony, or calcidony agate, besides the agate of Egypt, the Roman agate, the sacred agate, or agate of Candia, which some ancient writers mention. This last, which is not now to be seen any where, was red like coral, and spotted with gold.

The agate is one of the precious stones to which the antients have ascribed the most occult and miraculous properties. Pliny has filled a whole chapter with them; and Aristotle, long before, had set him the example, and prepared the matter. The moderns, either less subtle or more knowing, content themselves with the mechanic use, and despise the virtues of it.

The agate is used in making cups, rings, seals, handles for knives and forks, hilts for swords and hangers, beads to pray

with, smelling-boxes, patch-boxes, snuff-boxes, salt-cells, little mortars, and abundance of toys. It is also used in the composition of some tabernacles to contain the host, and of cabinets and tables inlaid with precious stones; being a kind of stone that is cut, sawed, polished, and carved with no great difficulty. Much of it is brought from Strasburgh entirely manufactured; but this kind is far from being so hard, or of so fine a polish, as the right oriental.

None have a right to trade in that commodity at Paris but the wholesale mercers and the goldsmiths. The sword-cutlers are, however, allowed to sell it; but only when made into handles to couteaux de chasse, and ready set in. The cutlers have the same privilege for their knives and forks.

The antient river Achates in Sicily, near which were found the first quarries of these precious stones, which were called Achates, is not one of the least sources of the riches of that country. These stones are much harder than jasper, and polish infinitely better: though they are not entirely transparent, they are, however, very luminous. Their colours are various; white, grey, brown, red, and violet. In some are seen a surprising mixture of colours, which naturally represent trees, animals, houses, flowers, birds, and even bustoes well finished. These different stains, well managed by skilful and attentive workmen, have produced medals, which seem master-pieces of nature. For this stone bears the graver very well: and, as pieces of all magnitudes are found of it, they make all sorts of work of it. The high-altar of the cathedral at Messina is incrustated all over with it. The lapidaries pretend that the agates of the Indies are finer than those of Sicily. 'I own, says F. Labat, that one may meet with some that are finer than others, and also, that, to make them the dearer, the dealers never fail to pretend that they come from remote parts. It is their common rule; though one part of the same piece may be much finer than another. Their prudent avidity does not permit them to say that they are of the same country, the same quarry, the same block; but, in order to sell them the dearer, they make them come from the East-Indies; and, if you are desired to observe the difference between two parts, or pieces, they are far from telling you that they are of the same block; they make them grow at a 1000 leagues from each other, in order to enhance excessively the price of those to which nature has given most variety and beauty. In former times people set more value upon them than they do at present. Whether the cost has deterred the curious or these stones are no longer in fashion, as they once were, it is certain that so many of them are not used as formerly. I have seen cafes of considerable magnitude and extraordinary workmanship, in some cabinets and repositories of churches, in which the shades and variety of colours had been so dexterously managed, that the pencil could not have succeeded better.' *Voyage d'Italie du P. Labat, tom. v. p. 156.*

AGE, which is also called *ufance* of woods, in the French commerce, signifies, in the trade of that commodity, the time elapsed since the last cutting of a wood or coppice.

The ordinance of waters and forests in France appoints, 'That, in cutting of woods, 16 flanders shall be left on every acre of the age of the wood, to grow up into timber-trees.'

They stile the age of the consistence of a tree, that at which it ceases to grow: the age of the consistence of an oak is 100 years.

AGE is also said, in the stile of the manage, or riding-house, and among the dealers in horses, of the knowledge of the years those animals are old, by the inspection of their teeth, as long as the mark is in their mouths; or by their tushes, and outward, or corner teeth, when out of it.

AGE (in law) signifies a particular state, or time of life, at which a person is qualified for certain offices in civil society, and for lawfully transacting some affairs, which before he was not capable of, for want of years and a sufficient discretion.

By the common law here in England there are two principal ages in a man; at 14 he is at the age of discretion, and at 21 years at full age.

In a woman they distinguished formerly six ages. At seven years her father might distrain the tenants of his manor for aid to marry her, for at those years she may consent to matrimony: at nine years old she is dowable: at 12 years she is able finally to ratify and confirm her former consent to matrimony: at 14 she may take her lands into her own hands, and should be out of ward, if she were at this age at her ancestor's death: at 16 she should be out of ward, though at the death of her ancestor she was under 14: the reason is, that she might take a husband able to perform knight's service: at 21 years she may alienate lands and tenements, and transact all kinds of business.

For a man, the age of 12 years binds to appearance before the sheriff and coroner, for enquiry after robberies, 52 Henry III. 14. At the age of 14 he may chuse his own guardian, and claim his lands held in socage, though Bracton limits this to 15 years, with whom Glanville agrees. At 14 a man

may consent to marriage, as a woman at 12: at that same age he may be bound apprentice. At 21 a man is at full age, and capable to make contracts, and manage his own estate, which before that time he cannot do, with security to those who have dealings with him.

In France they stile majeur (major) a person who is of age to manage his own estate, to buy, truck, alienate; in a word, to dispose of it after any manner allowed by the laws and customs of the country.

REMARKS,

With respect to mercantile and other commercial DEALINGS.

The civil law and common law of Paris fix the age of majority at the age of 25 years; and the common law of Normandy at 20 years and a day. But there is no age fixed for the majority of those who apply themselves to commerce, merchants and traders being reputed to be of age; the moment they enter upon business. This is according to the ordinance of March 1673; in the sixth article of the first title of which it is declared, that "all merchants and traders, either wholesale or retail, shall be deemed of age in matters relating to their trade, nor shall be suffered to recede from any bargain, transaction, &c. under the pretence of their being minors." This mercantile regulation, concerning the majority of merchants and bankers, was established in France long before the abovementioned ordinance; and there are several decrees of the parliament of Paris, and of some other parliaments, by which it is decided that any minor, carrying on a trade, becomes of age with regard to his trade; and that children of good families, applying themselves to commerce, have no occasion for the consent of their parents, in order to bind or oblige themselves; which, however, must be understood only of what relates to commerce, for it is in that respect only they enjoy such kind of emancipation; continuing still, as before, in their age of minority, under paternal power and authority, with regard to all such other engagements and obligations as do not relate to trade.

As it might be asked, in order to explain that article of the ordinance, At what age it is lawful for a man to enter upon trade, and, consequently, at what years he may be reputed to be of age? Monsieur Savary observes (in his *Negotiant Parfait*) that this depends on their being, or not being, of free companies in the city, where a man would set up and carry on his trade. At Paris, for instance, where a man cannot take up his freedom before he is 20, he is reputed to be of age, the moment he enters upon his 22d year.

In those cities where by the statutes of the companies the time of taking up the freedom is fixed before or after the 20th year, the age of majority must follow the time fixed by those statutes; and, in those cities where there are no free companies, a minor is reputed to be of age, the moment he begins to trade for his own account, be it at 19, or even at 18, years of age.

AGENDA [things to be done] so merchants call a pocket or memorandum-book, in which they set down all the business they are to transact during the day; either at home or abroad.

The agenda is very necessary to merchants, and traders in general, particularly to those who have bad memories and much business; it being but too common, for want of such a remembrancer, to let slip good opportunities in trade, either of buying or selling, or of negotiating bills of exchange. It ought particularly to be a constant pocket memento to factors and agents for others, to avoid omissions prejudicial to the interests of their principals.

AGENDA is also a name by which many merchants and traders call a little pocket-almanack, which they carry about them for ascertaining the dates of their dispatches, bills, meetings, and the like.

AGENOIS, a province of France. It is bounded by Condomois on the south, Quercy on the east, Perigord on the north, and Bazadois on the west. It is the most fruitful country of all Guienne, is watered by some navigable rivers, and produces a great deal of corn, wine, oil, hemp, and tobacco, with which it furnishes other provinces. Its chief places are

AGEN, its capital, where tanned leather and the manufacture of stockings afford a pretty good trade. Its woollen trade likewise is very considerable, especially in goods brought hither from other places. These several sorts of merchandizes are carried to the fairs of Bourdeaux. The other principal articles of its trade are the vines which grow on its neighbourhood, and the brandy made from them.

CLERAC, or **CLAIRAC**, in this province, is inhabited by rich merchants, who carry on a considerable trade in corn, wine, and brandy.

AGENT, in matters of business, is a person entrusted, or appointed, with the conduct, management, and negotiation of the affairs of other people, or of a corporation. There are also agents to the several regiments belonging to the army, and agent-victuallers for the navy.

AGENCY-BUSINESS comprehends any sort of business which is undertaken on the behalf, or on the account, of other persons. To act in this capacity requires suitable natural and acquired talents and abilities; and, in particular, a good knowledge of men and the world.

REMARKS.

To be well qualified for such kind of business requires a faculty and expertness. Such an one should not only have the expeditious, mechanical use of his pen, but should be master of a plain, strong, and intelligible stile, in order to communicate his intentions with perspicuity. He should, in public business too, be as ready with his tongue as his pen.

In order to transact business to the best advantage of his principal, he should be a man of method, and be capable of digesting and representing the state of a case, in the clearest and most beneficial light, the more effectually to obtain his point. And to be a man of figures and accounts is as essentially necessary as any thing else; more especially if he is in any way concerned in matters of trade and money affairs. In a word, a person who undertakes any branch of agency-business, ought to be one of a good general education, a genteel, affable, and communicative disposition, and to have nothing of the pedant about him.

AGENT of the **BANK** and **EXCHANGE** in France, in England called a broker, is a public person, who, in cities and places of trade, acts between merchants, traders, bankers, and other persons of business, to facilitate the traffic of money, and the negotiation of bills of exchange.

For the nature of this office in England, see **BROKERS**.

In France, before the reign of Charles IX, every one that pleased made brokerage their business, either of money or merchandize, and there was no difference between brokers of goods and agents of exchange. Nothing more was necessary for a person's taking on him this office, than an established reputation, and a large acquaintance among merchants, bankers, and other ranks of men of business. The brokers usually (as is still the custom in some places) were chosen by the provost of the merchants, mayors, and sheriffs, or judges-consul of cities, to whom they took an oath for the faithful discharge of their employment.

Charles IX. by edict, in the year 1572, was the first that instituted a number of professed brokers, as well of exchange and money as of merchandize, who were to be admitted by the bailiffs, seneschals, or other judges royal, of the places of their residence.

The wars of the league prevented the execution of this edict. But Henry IV. refusing the design of his predecessor, by a decree of council in 1595, prohibited all persons from exercising the profession of a broker, without having first obtained a commission from him, on pain of being sentenced as guilty of fraud, and paying a fine of 500 crowns; and, at the same time, he fixed the number of brokers; eight for Paris, twelve for Lyons, four for Roan, and as many for Marfeilles; one for each of the cities of Amiens, Dieppe, and Calais; three for Rochelle, three for Bourdeaux, and in all other cities as many as should be deemed necessary; but with this intent, that none should be obliged to employ them in the negotiations of the exchange and bank, or in the sale of merchandize, who did not think proper.

The institution of these bank and exchange-agents in France having undergone various changes and alterations, which afford little matter of use or curiosity to be acquainted with, we shall not tire the reader with a tedious detail thereof, as is done in Savary, but give a succinct account of the suppression of the bank-agents, and the new creation of exchange-agents in 1723, wherein there is something deserving notice.

Suppression of the bank-agents in France, and new creation of exchange-agents in 1723.

The bank-agents by commission, created in 1720 for the city of Paris, were suppressed in their turn, and others established in their stead, with the title of office, by an edict of the month of January 1723.

In this edict his majesty observes first, that, being informed that the several alterations made in these offices, by the suppressions and re-establishments which had been ordered, had rendered their condition absolutely uncertain, he took the resolution to remedy it, by a new creation of these officers. He declares afterwards, that he annuls and suppresses all the offices of bank, exchange, and trade-agents, established till then in the city of Paris, in what number soever, with what title, and under what denomination, they may have been established; and that he creates and establishes, in their stead, 60 new offices, or employments, of counsellors, agents of exchange, bank, and commerce, to perform the same functions, and enjoy the same prerogatives, and the same perquisites, or brokerage, enjoyed formerly by the agents of exchange, bank, and commerce, created by the edicts of August 1708, and November 1714: but yet they shall not have a right to claim

claim an exemption from the poll-tax, lodging of soldiers, and other taxes, which was granted to the said officers; nor have any settled salary, nor enjoy the franc-salé, or exemption from the salt-duty.

And, in order to forward the redemption of the national debts, and also to the end that such persons as would purchase these offices might do it the more easily, his majesty permits, that the money to be paid for them, together with the two sols for every livre of it, be paid in rent, or annuity-contracts upon the city, in rents upon the provinces, or other government-securities, well and duly liquidated. Ordering, likewise, that the annual taxation of these offices shall be reduced to one half of what it was, to be paid by the officers, according to the sums which these employments cost them; and that the purchasers shall be admitted, after the same manner as the former proprietors were, by virtue of the grants which shall be sealed in the great chancery, they paying only one half of the usual perquisites of a gold mark, for the registering and the seal. His majesty further orders, that, whatever is regulated by the edicts of August 1708, and November 1714, and by the proclamations issued out in consequence of them, concerning the functions and brokerage of exchange-agents, be executed according to the form and tenor of them, in every thing that is not abrogated by this present edict. It was registered in the parliament the 12th of February 1723. For the execution of this edict, and the liquidation or clearing of the new offices of exchange-agents, commissioners were afterwards appointed by a decree of council, dated April the 5th; and another was also published the 4th of August following, for the reimbursement of the suppressed offices, the possessors of which were prohibited by the said decree to intermeddle with the functions of exchange agents, or to take or receive any brokerage annexed thereto, upon pain of a fine of 3000 livres.

His majesty having thought it proper to establish in 1724 a public exchange in the city of Paris, where all bills of exchange, and all other commercial affairs, relating both to inland and foreign trade, should be negotiated, and the offices of exchange-agents, created the foregoing year, not being taken up, his majesty judged it more agreeable to the new establishment of this exchange to put the exercise of those offices into commission, and to appoint sixty persons of capacity and honesty to perform the functions of them, in the form and under the conditions in the regulations which should be drawn up in council.

These regulations contain 25 articles, which are part of the 41, that compose the decree of council issued the 24th of September 1724, which orders the setting up of an exchange in the city of Paris. We shall mention here such of them only as relate to the exchange-agents, by commission.

The articles of the decree, which contain the regulation of the functions of the exchange-agents, begin with the 17th, and continue to the 41st and last of them, both inclusive; they are as follows, *viz.*

XVII. His majesty gives leave to all merchants, traders, bankers, and others, who shall be admitted upon change, to negotiate among themselves bills of exchange, notes payable to the bearer, or to order, as well as merchandizes, without the mediation of exchange-agents: and with regard to all other commercial effects and papers, in order to abolish those fictitious sales, which have hitherto brought them into discredit, they shall not be negotiated but by the mediation of the exchange-agents, after the manner as shall be hereafter explained, upon pain of imprisonment of those who shall trade in them, and a fine of a thousand livres to be levied by distress; half of which shall belong to the informer, and the other half to the general hospital; nor shall it be lawful either to remit or mitigate that fine.

XVIII. All negotiations of commercial papers and effects, transacted without the mediation of an exchange-agent, shall be declared null and void, in case of a dispute; his majesty forbidding all tipstaves and bailiffs to bring any summons, on account of such negotiations, upon pain of deprivation, and a fine of 300 livres; and forbidding likewise all judges to give any sentence in such cases, upon pain of nullity of those sentences.

XIX. The 60 offices of agents of exchange, bank and commerce, created by the edict of January 1723, not being taken up, his majesty orders that the said offices shall be put into commission, to be executed in the form prescribed by these present regulations.

XX. Ten considerable citizens and merchants of the city of Paris shall be chosen, to examine the capacity of those who shall present themselves, in order to be provided with the 60 commissions of agents of exchange, bank, and trade; and, upon the report of these ten considerable citizens and merchants, his majesty will cause letters in the great chancery to be delivered to them, for the executing of the said commissions.

XXI. The exchange-agents shall all be of the catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion, Frenchmen, or inhabitants of the kingdom, naturalized at least, of twenty-five years of age complete, and of an unblemished reputation. They who shall have obtained letters of respite, or made contracts for delay of payment, or been bankrupts, shall not be admitted exchange-agents.

XXII. The exchange-agents shall be sworn, that they will fulfil their commissions faithfully, before the lieutenant-general for civil matters at Paris, after inquiry made by him of their lives and morals; and they shall pay no perquisites for the oaths taken, nor for their admission.

XXIII. The commissions of exchange-agents may be performed, without derogating from the quality of noblemen, his majesty giving leave to those who shall be provided with them, to exercise them together, with the offices of counsellors-secretary to the king, both in the great court of Chancery, and in all the other courts of Chancery in the kingdom, without their having occasion for any other decree, nor for letters of compatibility, his majesty dispensing and discharging them from such letters and decree.

XXIV. Upon any alteration happening, either by death, or otherwise, in the number of the sixty exchange-agents, which shall have been appointed to exercise the said commissions; the examination of those who are to succeed, shall be referred to the syndic of the exchange-agents for the time being, upon whose advice new commissions shall be issued out.

XXV. The exchange-agents shall be obliged to appear upon change every day, from ten o'clock in the morning, till one in the afternoon, except on Sundays and holidays; nor shall they be allowed to be absent from it for any reason whatsoever, except in case of sickness.

XXVI. They shall every one of them keep a day-book, or register, which shall be numbered and marked with a flourish, by the judges and consuls of the city of Paris; and his majesty commands them to register exactly in that book, all the bills of exchange, notes, and other commercial papers, and all merchandizes and effects by them negotiated, without registering any name, but distinguishing each particular article by a series of numbers; and they must deliver, to those who shall employ them, a certificate signed by them of every negotiation they shall have transacted, which certificate must be marked with the same number, and the same stamp with the folio of the register, on which it is entered.

XXVII. The exchange-agents shall be admitted to give evidence and make oath before all judges, about the business they shall have transacted, before which judges, as also before the arbitrators who may be appointed, they shall be obliged, when required so to do, to exhibit and produce such article of their register, as may be disputed.

XXVIII. When negotiations of bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, and merchandizes, shall be transacted upon change by the mediation of an exchange-agent, the same agent may be employed by the drawer, the seller, and the buyer of merchandizes.

XXIX. As for the negotiations of commercial papers and other effects, they shall always be transacted by the mediation of two exchange-agents; for which purpose, such persons as may be desirous to buy or sell commercial papers and other effects, shall deliver the money or effects into the hands of the exchange-agents, before change time, upon their receipts, containing a promise to account for them within that day. However, it shall not be lawful to the said exchange-brokers to carry or receive any effects or money upon change, nor to transact their negotiations, otherwise than in the form hereafter exhibited, on pain of such, who shall transgress against the contents of this article, being removed from their employment, and paying a fine of 3000 livres, to be levied by distress; half of which shall belong to the informer, and the other half to the hospital general.

XXX. When two agents shall be agreed upon change, about any negotiation, they shall give each other their note, promising to furnish one another within the day, that is to say, one the effects negotiated, and the other the sum agreed upon for the said effects: and each of these notes shall not only be marked with the same number under which the negotiation shall be registered in the book of the exchange-agent, who delivers the note, but also counter-marked with the number of the note, delivered by the other exchange-agent, that they may serve as references and proofs to each other. These notes must be regularly discharged on both sides within the day, upon pain of being constrained to it by distress, and even prosecuted extraordinarily, in case of embezzlement of the money or effects.

XXXI. The exchange-agents shall also be obliged, in closing their negotiations with those who shall have employed them, to deliver to them the note, on the back of which shall be the name of the exchange-agent, with whom the negotiation was transacted; and to set down in the certificate they shall deliver of it, according to the 26th article, the name of the exchange-agent, and the two numbers of the note, as also the nature and quantity of the effects bought or sold, and the price of the same.

XXXII. His majesty does most expressly forbid the exchange-agents to enter into any society or partnership among themselves, under whatsoever pretence it might be, or with any merchant, or trader; or even to execute any commission for foreigners or strangers, unless they be actually at Paris at the time of the negotiation, upon the same penalty as mentioned in the 29th article.

XXXIII. His majesty further forbids them to make use, under any pretence whatsoever, of any clerk, factor, or manager, even of their own children, for the transaction of any business, of what nature soever, unless in case of sickness; and, even then, only to finish the negotiations already begun, but not to enter upon any new one, under the same penalties as mentioned in article 29.

XXXIV. Nor shall the exchange-agents, under the same penalty, carry on any trade in bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, commercial papers, or other effects, directly or indirectly, for their own proper account.

XXXV. No person shall be admitted an exchange-agent, if he be book or cash-keeper to any merchant, or other.

XXXVI. The exchange-agents shall, in no case whatsoever, name the persons for whom they are to transact business, but shall be obliged to keep an inviolable secrecy, and serve them faithfully in every circumstance of their negotiations; either with regard to the nature and quality of the effects, or their price: and those that shall be convicted of prevarication, shall be condemned to make amends for the damage done by them, and suffer the penalties mentioned in the 29th article.

XXXVII. His majesty forbids all exchange-agents to negotiate any bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, papers, and other effects, belonging to persons, whose failure shall be known, under the same penalties as above.

XXXVIII. They are also forbidden, under the same penalties, to endorse any bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, or to promise to pay them, in case they be not paid, when due. It shall only be lawful for them, when required, to certify the truth of the signature, or sign of the drawers, acceptors or endorsers, and of those who shall have made the bills.

XXXIX. The king forbids them also, under the same penalties, to negotiate any where, but upon change, bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, commercial papers, and other effects.

XL. The brokerage to be paid to the exchange-agents for their negotiations of ready money, bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, and other commercial papers, shall be 50 sols per 1000 livres, to be paid 25 sols by the buyer, and 25 by the seller, as is customary; and, with regard to the negotiations for merchandizes, they shall be paid upon the foot of one half per cent. of the value of those merchandizes, viz. one fourth per cent. by the buyer, and one fourth per cent. by the seller; nor shall they, under any pretence whatsoever, demand any other or greater brokerage, upon pain of punishment for extortion.

XLI. The names of the exchange-agents, who shall have transgressed against these rules and ordinances, or who shall have been deprived, shall be wrote upon a board, and posted up upon change, that the public may be warned not to employ them any more.

The decree of the 24th of September 1724, concerning the establishing an exchange in the city of Paris, and the creation of 60 exchange-agents by commission, was very soon put into execution, with regard to the appointing of these new officers; and, on the 14th of October following, a second decree of council was published, by which his majesty declared, that, having seen the certificates of the ten considerable citizens and merchants, appointed to examine those who should present themselves as candidates to fill up the said offices of exchange-agents by commission, the sixty persons named in his decree should be admitted accordingly; and as such transact the negotiations of all bills of exchange, drawn from one place upon another, and upon places in foreign countries, notes to the bearer, or order, commercial papers, and other merchandizes and effects, on condition that the said sixty exchange-agents be sworn before the lieutenant-general for civil matters in the city of Paris, whom his majesty appointed for that purpose.

Exchange-agents of Lyons, Marseilles, and Bourdeaux.

These three cities of France being, next to Paris, the places of the greatest trade in bank and exchange, Henry IV, as has been observed above, did not forget them in the creation of exchange-brokers, in the year 1595: twelve of them were designed for Lyons, four for Marseilles, and three for Bourdeaux. It does not appear, however, that these creations took place, or at least it is very likely that this establishment did not continue long: for in 1692 these three cities had exchange-agents erected, as it were, into municipal offices, and in some cities they were, in a manner, hereditary. Lyons had forty brokers for bills of exchange, cash, remittances of money, buying of merchandizes and estates. The persons, who acted as brokers, took no patents from the king, but acted only under the commission of the provost of the merchants and echevins, or aldermen, and had their brokerage and perquisites paid them, according to the tariffs drawn up by those officers of the city, and particularly by that of the 31st of December 1668.

The number of brokers for bills of exchange, merchandize, &c. was greater at Marseilles, and their functions were, in a

manner, more authorized. There were forty-six of them, who, by reason of a long possession, looked upon their commissions as real offices, and disposed of them as of hereditary employments, made them part of their children's fortune, and also mortgaged them like real estates.

Things were very near upon the same footing at Bourdeaux, and these commissions were looked upon there as city employments.

All these commissions were created and erected into settled and hereditary offices, by three edicts of the year 1692, but issued out in different months. They were not, however, fully executed, but with regard to Marseilles and Bourdeaux, the exchange-agents and brokers of these two cities being exempted from the general suppression made in 1705, within which those of Lyons were comprized, like all the others in the kingdom.

The edict, by which that suppression was ordered, having at the same time created 116 new offices of king's counsellors, exchange-agents, as has been observed above, there were 25 of them appointed for Paris, and 20 for Lyons. But, the edict of May 1707 having again suppressed them all, except those of Paris, that of 1692 continued in force for the city of Lyons, and was restored to its former authority; to which, however, an exception was made, with regard to the number of agents and brokers.

The brokerage fee of the exchange-agents in these three cities was continued upon the ancient footing, as it was paid to the commission-agents, except with regard to those of Lyons, whose brokerage fee was increased, and settled at one half per thousand, in the room of one third allowed by the tariff of that city, for money deposited, changing of the species, drafts and remittances for foreign places, which is practised at present.

Exchange-agents of the city of Amsterdam.

The city of Amsterdam is one of those, which carries on the greatest trade in the world, either with regard to the large sums of money which its merchants and bankers remit to all foreign countries, either for their own account or by commission, or with regard to the almost infinite quantity of merchandizes, with which its warehouses are stocked, and which are continually imported or exported, by the trade they carry on to the very extremities of the earth.

To render that immense circulation of commerce the easier, there are in that famous city two sorts of brokers, or agents for exchange and merchandize. They are called makelaers in Dutch. Some of them are sworn brokers, and others itinerant, or ambulatory brokers.

The sworn brokers are such by way of office, as it were, and being chosen by the magistrates, are sworn before them. Of these there are reckoned to be 375 Christians, and 20 Jews: and, when there happens a vacancy among them, it is supplied by the burgomaster, whose turn it is to take care of the trade of the city for six months.

The itinerant brokers are those, who without having any patent or commission from the magistrates, and without being sworn before them, perform the functions of agents and brokers, and act in negotiations, either for drafts and remittances of money, or for buying or selling merchandizes. Their number is greater than that of the sworn makelaers, or brokers; so that, taking them both together, there are above a thousand persons employed in brokerage, most of whom are overloaded with business and negotiations. The only difference there is between these two sorts of agents and brokers of exchange and merchandize is, that the sworn brokers are admitted to give evidence before courts of justice, in case any disputes happen with regard to their negotiations; whereas the itinerant brokers are not admitted to give evidence, and, in case of objection by one of the parties, bargains are rendered null and void.

The brokerage fees of agents and brokers of the bank and exchange are paid equally by those who give their money, and by those who receive it, or who furnish bills of exchange, unless they agree to the contrary.

Those brokerage-fees have been regulated for Amsterdam, by the ordinances of January 1613, and of the 22d of November 1624, at the rate of 18 stivers for 100 livres de gros, which amount to 600 guilders, or florins; that is to say, three stivers for every 100 guilders, to be paid, one half by the drawer, and the other half by him who gives his money. That the reader may easier understand this subject of the brokerage of Amsterdam, and of the fees paid to agents and brokers, we shall add here the following table.

A Table of the Brokerage Fees, paid at Amsterdam, at the Rate of 18 Stivers for every 100 Livres de Gros.

For 100 livres de gros	—	—	0 fl.	18 f.
For 1000 florins, or guilders	—	—	1 fl.	10 f.
For 1000 crowns, which are reckoned as 3000 florins	—	—	4 fl.	10 f.
For 100l. sterling, reckoned as 1000 florins	—	—	1 fl.	10 f.
For 1000 daelders, or 1666 2/3 florins	—	—	2 fl.	10 f.
For 1000 rixdollars upon Leipsic and Breslaw	—	—	3 fl.	10 f.
For 1000 ducats	—	—	5 fl.	00 f.
	8			For

For 1000 cruſadoes	—	—	2 fl.	10 f.
For 1000 florins bank money, againſt current money	}	1 fl.	00 f.	
For an action of 1000 livres de gros of the Eaſt-India company				

Brokerage Fees paid to Exchange-Brokers in ſeveral cities of Europe.

At London $\frac{1}{4}$ for every 100 l. ſterling, which makes $\frac{1}{8}$ for each of the parties.

At Venice $\frac{1}{2}$ per 1000.

At Genoa $\frac{1}{2}$ of a crown for 1000 crowns.

At Bologna one ſol for 100 crowns.

At Geneva $\frac{1}{2}$ for 1000.

AGIO, a bank term. (It is a Venetian word, which ſignifies aid or aſſiſtance.) In moſt of the trading cities, where there are public banks eſtabliſhed, the word agio expreſſes the exchange, or difference there is between bank money, and current money, or caſh. So that if a merchant, who ſells his merchandize ſtipulated to be paid, either 100 livres bank money, or 105 caſh, or current money, in ſuch a caſe the agio is ſaid to be 5 per cent.

The bank agio varies in almoſt every place: at Amſterdam it is uſually from 3 to 5 per cent.; at Rome near 25 per 1500; at Venice 20 per cent. fixed; at Genoa from 15 to 16 per cent.

AGIO is alſo uſed to expreſs the profit, which ariſes from money advanced for a perſon; ſo that, in this ſenſe, the words agio and advance are ſynonymous; they are uſed among merchants and traders, to ſignify that it is not an intereſt, but a profit for money advanced in trade. That profit is uſually reckoned at one half per cent. for a month, that is to ſay, the rate of fix per cent. per annum.

It is alſo ſometimes called exchange, though that word has no great affinity with it.

AGIO is alſo uſed; but improperly, to ſignify the exchange of a ſum negotiated, whether with loſs or with profit.

Some alſo give the name of agio of inſurance, in France, to what others call premium in England.

AGIOTAGE, a French word, hardly ever uſed but in a bad ſenſe: it ſignifies commonly an unlawful and uſurious trade.

AGIOTER is uſed, by the French, to ſignify the lending money at high intereſt, and carrying on an uſurious traffic in notes, bonds, government ſecurities, and other ſuch like papers; of which the debts and incumbrances of the ſtate conſiſt. See the next article.

AGIOTEUR, a term eſtabliſhed among the French merchants, traders, bankers, and other people in buſineſs: it ſignifies a perſon who puts out his money to high intereſt, by taking from the public, bills, promiſſory notes, aſſignations, or bonds, and other ſuch papers, at a very high price; to ſell them out again at a very high one. Agioteurs are looked upon, in France, as public nuſances, and profeſſed uſurers, who under a good government ſhould be exemplarily puniſhed.

AGITO, which is alſo called **GIRO**, a ſmall weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu: two agitos make a half biza, and the biza weighs a hundred teccalis, that is to ſay, 2 pounds 5 ounces heavy weight, or 3 pounds 9 ounces light weight, of Venice.

AGNUS-CASTUS, called alſo **VITEX** by ſome, a plant or ſhrub which ſometimes grows to the height of a middle-sized tree. The agnus-caſtus thrives beſt on the banks of rivers and brooks, and in rugged and ſtony places, though it may alſo be cultivated in gardens. Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the olive-tree; but they are longer and more limber. Its trunk and branches are woody: the latter end in many boughs, which are long, ſlim, pliable, and intermixed with leaves, bloſſoms, or ſeeds, according to the ſeaſon. The bloſſoms are of a purple colour, and ſometimes white. The ſeeds, which are properly the fruit of the plants, are white at firſt, and grow red by degrees. Many people call thoſe ſeeds ſmall or wild pepper; either on account of their figure, which is not unlike that of the true pepper, or becauſe of their taſte, which is ſomething ſharp and aromatic. The beſt ſeed of the agnus-caſtus is that which is new, large, plump, and comes from hot countries; thoſe of cold climates having much leſs virtue. It is uſed in phyſic for the cure of venereal maladies.

AGRA, the principal kingdom of the Mogul empire. It has Bando on the weſt, Dely on the north, Sambal on the eaſt, Gualear and part of Narvar on the ſouth.

AGRA, its capital, is a place of great traffic, being reſorted to by merchants from China, Perſia, all parts of India, and by the Engliſh and Dutch.

R E M A R K S.

Great-Britain once had a factory here, but the long diſtance to Surat, and the hazards and difficulties they underwent in paſſing thither, made them withdraw it, though they continue to trade here.

The Dutch, who have ſtill a factory in this city, trade chiefly in ſcarlet, looking glaſſes, ſilver, gold, and white lace, hardware, indigo, cloth of Jelapour, and ſpices. They have

houſes at ſeveral other towns, to which they ſend factors once a year; and have always ſome perſons near the court, to prevent being impoſed on by the covetous tyrannical vice-roys and governors near their other ſettlements.

The number of midjians, where the public markets are here kept for all ſorts of provisions; of covered bazars, where every merchant and artiſer have their quarters and their ſhops, ſome of which bazars are near half a quarter of a league long; and of caravanſeras, which they ſay amount to above 80: all of theſe are ſufficient to convince us, both of the prodigious extent, and of the immenſe trade that is carried on in this city.

This trade is kept up by ſeveral caravans, which ſet out from Amadabath, Surat, and other places, compoſed commonly of 400 or 500 camels, which the Engliſh, Dutch, Moors, Turks, Arabs, Perſians, and other nations, uſed to carry their merchandize to that capital, and to bring back from thence ſeveral others in return.

Besides the indigo of Agra, which is the beſt in the world, they get from thence a great many ſtuffs and linens; the latter of which are a fit commodity for the weſt and the north.

Thither likewise are carried the merchandize from Bantam and Tartary; and here alſo arrive, in other caravans, the merchants from the inland parts of Indoſtan, or the Mogul's dominions.

The charges on merchandize bought at Agra, for Surat, amount from 15 to 20 per cent. including the remitting of bills of exchange at 5 per cent. packing up, carriage, and the duties or toll for the roads, according to their ſeveral qualities.

It muſt alſo be obſerved, that, in all the dominions of the Grand Mogul, the penalty for defrauding the cuſtom-houſe of the duties of importation, or exportation, is not the forfeiting of the merchandize, but only paying double the duty, when the fraud is diſcovered.

The indigo that is cultivated and prepared in the dominions of the Grand Mogul, particularly that of Agra, is always 20 per cent dearer than that of the other parts of the Eaſt-Indies: it is in round cakes or balls.

FRAUDS IN THE INDIGO OF AGRA.

As there are three ſorts of indigo; namely, that of the firſt leaves, that of the ſecond, and that of the third: the Indians endeavour to ſell the one for the other, though that of the ſecond leaves be worth 12 per cent. leſs than that of the firſt, and the laſt 20 per cent. leſs than the ſecond.

The impoſition may be diſcovered by the colour, and by breaking ſome bits of the paſte; that of the firſt leaves being of a bluifh purple, more ſhining and bright than the two others, and the ſecond ſort of a deeper colour than the laſt.

Another method they have of deceiving in the ſale of indigo is this: when it is reduced into a paſte, they dry it upon ſand, ſome of which always ſticks to it, and encreaſes its weight; or, when it is dry, they keep the paſte in a damp place. The adulteration, made by ſand mixed with it, may be known by putting the indigo into the fire; the indigo will be conſumed, and there will remain nothing but the ſand.

AGRA, a drug, a kind of ſweet-scented wood, found in the iſland of Hainan, on the coaſt of China. The fineſt is bought generally in Hainan, at the rate of 80 taels per foot, and ſells at Canton for 90. The ſecond ſort is commonly bought for 70 taels, and ſells for 80; and the laſt is bought for 45 taels, and ſold for 60.

AGRA-CARAMBA, a drug, is another ſweet-scented wood, which alſo comes from the iſland of Hainan, where it coſts about 60 taels per cati, and ſells at Canton for 80 to 85.

This wood is proper to purge women: the Japaneſe ſet a great value upon it, and the Chineſe carry them a vaſt quantity of it.

AGREAGE, thus they call, at Bourdeaux, what is called courtage (brokerage) in other places.

To **AGREE**, in French commerce, is to approve, ratify, or confirm, a contract for delay of payment. They ſay, by way of proverb, that the debtor muſt either pay or ratify; that is, a debtor ought to ſatisfy his creditor, either with money, or with good words.

AGRICULTURE, the art of tilling and cultivating the earth, in order to render it fertile, and make it bear plants, trees, fruits, &c.

The principal operations in agriculture are manuring, plowing, fallowing, ſowing, harrowing, reaping, mowing, &c. And to theſe belong the management of the productions of particular places and countries; as hops, hemp, vines, tobacco, ſaffron, liquorice, woad, &c. To the ſame art belong alſo planting, tranſplanting, pruning, engrafting; the culture of foreſts, timber, coppices, &c.

R E M A R K S.

AGRICULTURE conſiſts either in feeding or tillage, whereby are raiſed ſtore of cattle, corn, and fruits, proper for food and traffic.

To begin with feeding: and here I might enumerate the various ſorts of cattle raiſed and bred by the care of the huſbandman;

bandman; but the most essential with respect to our trade are,
 1. The cattle for beef: Which, besides the excellency of it's flesh for nourishment, affords many necessaries for our trade, and is extremely serviceable in tillage: with this we both nourish our inhabitants at home, victual our ships for foreign voyages, and load them with the several manufactures where-with it doth supply us: from the milk we make butter and cheese; from the flesh, beef; from the skin, leather; from the fat, tallow; and of the horns several useful necessaries: the overplus whereof, above our own consumption, we export, and sell in foreign markets.

2. The sheep; whose golden fleece being the basis of our woollen manufactures, employ multitudes of our people; and the wool being of different lengths and fineness, makes them of various sorts; whereby those animals afford us a yearly crop, whilst living; and, at their deaths, we have their flesh and their skins for variety of uses.

3. Horses; whose labour is so necessary, that we can neither carry on our husbandry or trade without them: besides their fitness for war, being esteemed the most courageous in the whole world, and for these uses are also transported abroad, as a trafficable commodity. They are sent to our plantations in America; for the last to some of our neighbouring nations: but their flesh is of no use, their skins of little; the leather made of them being very ordinary, only the longest of their hair is used in weaving hats for the ladies, and some sorts are used in perriwigs for the men.

There are sundry other sorts of beasts, some whereof require no care in raising, others little; such as the stag, the deer, the rabbit, the hare, the badger, the goat, and divers others, whose skins are necessary for our trade, and useful in our manufactures.

Tillage is that whereby we raise our corn, by turning up and manuring the land; the several sorts whereof are wheat, rye, barley, pease, beans, vetches, oats, &c. all which not only afford nourishment to ourselves, and the beasts we use in labour, but serve for considerable articles in our commerce; as they give employment to our people at home, and are transported abroad according to the surplus of our domestic consumption, and the want of our neighbours, besides the large quantities used in our navigation.

These products are all clear profit to the nation, being raised from earth and labour: but their principal benefit to the community arises from their exportation by our merchants, either in their own kinds, or when wrought up, the remainder, which is spent at home, tending rather to supply our wants than to advance our wealth; which exports being, more or less, according to the price they bear in other countries, and these arising from the proportion their lands hold with ours in their yearly rents, are not so great in specie as when wrought up. Butter simply is the chief wherewith we supply several foreign markets; and did formerly more, till by making it bad, and using scandalous arts to increase it's weight, England lost most of that trade, and is now beaten out of it by Ireland, which every year makes theirs better: besides, they undersell England in the price, as they do also in beef, occasioned by the low rents of their lands.

It was the act of prohibition made formerly in England that first introduced them into a foreign traffic, their sole dependence before that time being on the English markets, and from hence they were supplied with what they stood in need of; but, being thereby prohibited from bringing their cattle, and other provisions to England, they endeavoured to find a vent for them in other markets, which they did with good success, and to more advantage: the sweetness whereof gave a spring to their industry, and put them on the woollen manufactures, which they vend also where they exported their provisions; till, in time, it became so great and flourishing as to give us apprehension it would endanger ours.

As for corn, foreign markets are frequently supplied therewith, both from thence, and from the islands of the Azores, cheaper than the rents of our lands will admit; but the British plantations have some dependence on England for our product; and, as the lands of Ireland rise in their yearly value, they will have more. We also raise, by agriculture, considerable quantities of hemp and flax, both which are useful in our trade.

Among the several trees that adorn our fields, the oak, the elm, and the ash are the chief; these not only serve for the buildings of our ships and houses, but also furnish us with materials, wherewith our artificers make great variety of things fit for our commerce; and it were to be wished, that better care was taken to preserve our timber, for the benefit of posterity.

This gives us a short idea of the effects of husbandry, which is apparently the original source of most of our treasures; the due cultivation of the earth being the great fountain of all materials for trade, and the arts of commerce render them the more valuable to their proprietors.

It is certain, therefore, that it will ever be good policy to ease the land, in order to promote trade; and to encourage the trading interest, in order to promote the landed.

Every object of traffic requisite to the sustenance of life being produced by the earth, the more our lands in general shall

be improved and cultivated, the greater plenty we shall have of vegetables and cattle of every kind, the more populous the nation in useful hands, and the more comfortably and happily will the people subsist. As those productions augment, so will the general consumption; the greater plenty, the cheaper will every thing be, whereby trade will flourish, and money also grow proportionably plentiful in general circulation: and in such case, less money will purchase every thing in proportion as the plenty of land productions shall reduce the price, with respect to the demand.

By the general improvement of the old, and cultivation of fresh lands to a degree requisite to render things in general cheap and plentiful, such plenty will soon be so magnified, as to reduce the price of the necessaries of life to one half, if not one third what it is at present. This will reduce the general price of labour, that being regulated by the price of necessaries of life. Will not this make all our fabrics and manufactures cheaper as well among ourselves as foreigners, since their value is constituted according to the rate, at which artificers and manufacturers can subsist? Will not this naturally extend our exportations, not only amongst our present foreign customers, but attract new ones? Such new customers who at present are incapable of purchasing our commodities, by reason of their excessive dearth? Will not this prevent our competitors in foreign commerce, who are now studiously promoting every art of agriculture, from rivalling and supplanting us in that which is the great support of the whole British empire?

In countries where the land cultivated does not afford an ample competency of it's productions to make the whole plentiful, and therefore cheap, will not the people in general be inevitably distressed and miserable? Can any chains restrain their transmigration, from country to country, till, with some degree of consolation, they shall be able to sustain the perpetual state of labour? Where this policy is disregarded, will it not tend to depopulation; where regarded, have the contrary effect?

If the rents of lands shall be raised above what the quantity of circulating money will enable tenants to pay, will not the money of a nation grow scarcer and scarcer? Where there is not a quantity of land effectually cultivated to reduce the rents, in proportion to the money, will not the scarcity of money at length grow so great, as to leave little in the kingdom? For, where the rents are kept up beyond the proportion of money to pay them, will not every thing rise in it's price and value, commerce grow worse and worse, it's general balance turn more to the disadvantage of the dearer nation, and at length the nation become stript of it's money as well as it's people?

Did not the demand for farms in greater proportion than they were to be had, first raise their rents? Did not this deter people from encreasing the cultivation of fresh land, as the demand shows they would, as they encreased in number? What could the surplus people do, but strike into trades and professions? Whilst the necessaries, the price of labour, rents of lands and manufactures have advanced amongst us, have not those engaged in trade and professions also found it difficult to live? Will not more and more be daily undone, if the monstrous dearth of things continues as it does? Can the gentleman flatter himself with escaping a proportionate injury with the rest of the people? If money becomes scarcer and scarcer, will not monopolizers, forestallers, and regraters, multiply, to enhance still more and more the prices of provisions, since the produce of the earth at a cheap rate will not bring sufficient support to the farmer, and pay all charges to which he is liable? Does not this increase, instead of lessen the evil?

To increase the money, to keep up the payment of rents, can this be otherwise effected than by the increase of such foreign commerce as will bring us in an increased balance? But how can this be expected, except by the decrease in the price of our commodities, which only will or can encourage and enable foreign states and empires to buy them? Can this be effectually done, till the price of rents is reduced in proportion to the quantity of money? This cannot be accomplished, till a due quantity of waste land is taken into cultivation. This measure will make farms abound, the only natural way to lower rents in general.

Nor does it appear that gentlemen would be sufferers by lowering of rents, by such means. Let it be supposed, that all our lands should be raised 20 per cent. per annum; since that land cultivated would bear no more corn, grass, nor cattle, &c. than it does at present, must not the corn and cattle be advanced in proportion? Will not the necessaries of life cost the labourer more, and his wages be raised accordingly? All things would certainly be raised, if money could be found to circulate trade at such an advance; and since gentlemen as well as the labourer would buy every thing at such an advanced price, how could they be advantaged by receiving 20 per cent. per annum more, and paying the same, or more, for what they stood in need of?

If it should be said, that although this might be the case with regard to their expence, yet it would not be so to their savings, they will be deceived. Suppose a gentleman of 1000 l. per annum, now spends 500 l. and lays by 500 l. per annum: if estates were raised 20 per cent. as supposed, he would then

spend 600 l. and lay by 660 l. per annum. But how would he be the richer, since the price of every thing is raised at least in the like proportion? The necessaries of life will cost the labourer more, and his wages must be raised accordingly. Timber for carriages, and other uses, will cost more to fell and hew; horses to draw the produce of the earth will be more expensive, and consequently carriage, and every manufacture will cost more. All things in general will certainly be raised, while money can be found to circulate trade at such an advance. Since then gentlemen themselves, as well as others, would buy every thing at such a raised price, how would they be benefited by receiving 20 per cent. per annum more, and paying that at least for all they wanted?

The purchase of estates being governed by the interest of money, will be valued at as many years as if rents had not fallen; and though the sum for which they sell will be annually less as the rent shall be lowered; yet the money will have, at least, all the same effect, apply the same as you please. If the lands were raised 20 per cent. per annum, this would not make them produce more, but perhaps less, than they now do, by putting it out of the farmer's power, in some degree, to use so much skill and expence in cultivation as before rents were so raised: as this advance of rent would not tend to increase the produce, all the produce must be sold, not only for all the 20 pounds more, but there must be profits likewise on all those 20 pounds to enable the farmers to purchase whatever they wanted at the higher prices, to which every thing will be enhanced from the general rise of things, as it passed through every hand, comprehending the manufacturing part also; this would still proportionably encrease the profits on the first raised prime costs, before they reached the consumer; and must not be in the end, not only pay the advanced 20 pounds rent, but the enhanced profits arising thereon, through all the several hands it passed? And since labour, which adds the greatest value to every thing, will in this case be enhanced too, it is apparent, that the same quantity of produce must be dearer by all the first advanced 20 pounds rent, and by suitable profits to all the several hands through which things pass, together with a greater charge of labour thereon. Whence it is evident that if the same quantity of produce must thus cost a great deal more than all the 20 pounds rent, by which it was enhanced, the several parts thereof must cost more likewise in such proportion; so that we may not scruple to assert, that 140 l. could not in this case purchase more than 100 l. did before the rise; whereby gentlemen, who are consumers in common with others, would become poorer for raising their estates: and therefore it should consequently seem manifest that they would be the richer for lowering their estates 20 or 30 per cent. per annum, by a due increase in the cultivation of more land, since it must be no less certain that 70 l. or 80 l. would purchase more in this case than 100 l. does at present, because it is evident that 120 l. in the other case, would not purchase so much as 100 l. doth now. So that if rents should fall 30 per cent. by a larger land cultivation, every thing would certainly fall in the same proportion, whereby gentlemen would lose nothing but the nominal sound of so much per annum.

This obvious reasoning evinces why gentlemen cannot live so well and hospitably on the same estates, as their ancestors did, who had considerably less nominal income than their successors. If, therefore, gentlemen find themselves frightened by raising rents, above what the circulating money amongst them will enable them to pay; must not this increase the freights and difficulties of the people on whom such heavy rents are raised and account for their arrears and badness of payments?

A J A N, a coast and country of Africa has the river Quilmanci on the south; the mountains from which that river springs on the west; Abyssinia, or Ethiopia, and the freight of Babelmandel on the north; and the eastern, or Indian, ocean, on the east. Going from south to north, along the coast, we find the republic of Brava, the kingdom of Magadoxo, and that of Adel, and some other more westward within the land. The coast abounds with all necessaries of life, and has plenty of very good horses. The kings of Ajan are often at war with the emperor of the Abyssins, and all the prisoners they take they sell to the merchants of Cambaya, those of Aden, and other Arabs, who come to trade in their harbours, and give them in exchange coloured cloths, glass-beads, raisins, and dates; for which they also take back, besides slaves, gold and ivory. The whole sea-coast, from Zanguebar to the freight of Babelmandel, is called the coast of Ajan; and a considerable part of it is filed the Desert-coast. It's kingdoms, or provinces, are as follow:

1. **BRAVA**, the capital of a republic of the same name, is situate between two arms of the river Quilmanci, where it has a pretty good harbour. It is a pretty large city, and is inhabited by rich merchants, who trade in gold, silver, silks, stuffs, &c. and pay an annual tribute to the Portuguese. There is a great deal of ambergrease on the coast of Brava.
2. **MAGADOXO**, or **MADOGAXO**, has the kingdom of Adel on the north; the kingdom of Alaba on the west; the territories of Brava on the north; and the eastern ocean on the

east. This country abounds with barley, and other fruit, and feeds great numbers of horses and other cattle.

To the capital city Magadoxo a great many merchants of Cambaya and Aden bring stuffs, drugs, and spices, which they exchange for gold, ivory, and wax.

3. **ADEL** has Magadoxo on the south; part of the eastern ocean, and that part of the coast of Ajan which is called the Desert-coast on the east; the freights of Babelmandel on the north, and the Galles, with the kingdoms of Dancari and Balli, on the west.

The town of Zeila, seated in a gulph to the south-east of the mouth of the freight of Babelmandel, is extremely populous. The soil about Zeila is nothing but a dry, barren sand, and they are obliged to fetch fresh water two days journey from the city: but, at that distance, the country abounds with corn and fruit to such a degree, that the inhabitants cannot use it all, and the Arabs of Aden, and other neighbouring countries, come and make their provisions here. The country abounds also with cattle; besides which, they have also here gold, ivory, frankincense, pepper, and great numbers of slaves, whom they buy, or steal, in Abyssinia, all which they exchange with the merchants of Arabia and Cambaya for cloths, amber, necklaces, glass-beads, raisins, dates, &c. The inhabitants of Quiloa, Melinda, Mombasa, and other parts, come and buy horses at Barbora, another sea-port town on this coast.

4. **DANCALI**, **DANCALE**, or **DANGALE**, lies to the west of the Red Sea, to east and south of Abyssinia, and to the north of Balli and Fatagar. It has a sea-port town called Bailar. There is a place called the Land of Salt, because it contains mines, out of which they dig vast quantities of salt, which is carried into other countries on camels, and affords a considerable trade. The soil here is almost every-where barren, and produces no corn at all.

AIDERBEITZAN, or as the Persians call it **AZERBEIAN**, or **ASAPAIKAN**, a province in Persia, borders on the east to the province of Ghilan and Tabristan; to the south on Persian Irak; to the west and north-west upon Upper Armenia and the river Aras; and to the north, on Schirwan. The soil of this province is fruitful, and the climate healthy, though cold. It contains,

1. **TAURIS**, a very large and potent city, being the second in Persia, for dignity, grandeur, riches, trade, and number of inhabitants. The city contains 15,000 houses, and as many shops; for the houses in Persia are not in the same place with their shops, which stand for the most part in long and large arched streets 40 or 50 feet high, which streets are called bazars, or markets, and make the heart of the city; the houses being in the out-parts, and having almost all gardens belonging to them.

These at Tauris are the finest bazars that are in any place of Asia; and it is a lovely sight to behold their vast extent, their largeness, their beautiful cupolas, and the arches over them, the number of people that are there all day long, and the vast quantity of merchandizes with which they are filled. The grandest of all, and where they sell their jewels and wares of greatest value, is octangular, and very spacious, being called kaiferie, or the royal market-place. Their other public buildings are no less sumptuous, nor less populous. The houses where they sell tobacco, coffee, and strong liquors, are answerable to the beauty of the rest. The inhabitants of this city amount to about 550,000 souls, though several persons there, say there are no less than 1,100,000. The number of strangers also, which are there at all times is very great; they resorting thither from all parts of Asia; nor is there, perhaps, any sort of merchandize of which there is not a magazine to be found at Tauris. The city is full of artists in cotton, in silk, and in gold; and several of the principal merchants there affirmed to Sir John Chardin, that there are above 6000 bales of silk wrought out in manufacture every year.

The trade of the city extends all over Persia and Turkey, into Muscovy, Tartary, the Indies, and over the Black Sea. Not far from the city, in the neighbouring parts, are to be seen great quarries of white marble, of which there is a fort that is transparent. The people of the country imagine it to be water of a mineral fountain, congealed and hardened by degrees: There are, indeed, not far from it, two considerable mines, the one of gold, the other of salt; but there has been no working in the gold mine for a long time, because they always found that the profit never answered, to the expences of the labour.

The bazars at **ARDEBIL**, or **ARDEVIL**, are fine and well covered; but here they deal very little in gold stuffs and jewels, as they are said to have done formerly, and as they do in other places. Here are but three or four large streets where the chief shops are; the rest are not worth speaking of: and, indeed, trade flags here very much. The meidan, or great square, is 300 paces long, and 150 broad, having shops all round it, which, when this city was in its flourishing condition, were well stocked with valuable commodities; but the richest goods, such as jewels, gold, silver, silk, &c. were

kept

kept in another market-house, or exchange, which is a square building, arched over, and opens, at three gates, into three long streets.

At **MIANA** there is a kind of custom-house, where the officers are said to be very tyrannical in their exactions upon the meaner sort of people who travel that way.

SOLTANAYA, or **SULTANIA**, has some bazars, but not considerable; nor, indeed, can it be reckoned a trading-place.

AIDS of affizes of wood, are petty officers of the city of Paris, appointed by the provost of the merchants, and the echevins, to measure the wood for fuel which is proper to be measured, and are landed on the keys. This they do in the presence, and under the orders, of the affizers of wood, whom they thus aid and assist in the exercise of these functions, which are the chief that belong to the office of affizers of wood.

AIDS, or **AIDES**, in French, is said in general of all subsidies levied by the prince's authority (and in England by the authority of the king and parliament) or of such as are voluntarily granted by the people, to aid and assist the state on urgent occasions. In France that word is particularly used to signify one of the king's general farms, which consist chiefly in the duties laid upon wine. They call ordonnance of aids an ordonnance of Lewis IV, issued at Fontainebleau in June 1680, which regulates the trade, sale, transportation, import, and export of wines, both within and without the kingdom.

AIGRIS, a stone which serves instead of current coin among the Iffinois, a nation of Africa, on the coast of Guinea, where the river Asbin runs, near the gold-coast. It is there looked upon as a precious stone, and yet it has nothing in it to make it very valuable. It is of a greenish-blue colour, without any lustre; pretty hard, indeed, but it does not take a good polish, or they have not skill enough to polish it better. And yet they are very fond of it; and, when they buy it, they give its weight in gold for it. They make little bits of it, called betiquets, which are bored through in the middle, that they may string them on small threads, made of the bark of trees. Considering the price of that stone, the betiquets must be extremely small, since two of them are worth but one penny French money. They cut some in the form of cylinders, an inch long, and they are bored through length-ways. They serve as ornaments for the beards of the kings and lords, making tresses of the hair, which they pass through those cylinders. Akæfisi, king of the Iffinois, had, in the 20 tresses of his beard, 60 of those cylinders, which were worth, at least, 20,000 crowns. But, for all that, this pretended precious stone is not so shining and bright as green safade, which is brought them from Europe. 'I am pretty much inclined to think, says the Chevalier de Marchais, in his Voyage de Guinée, tom. I. p. 261, that the aigris is the same as the stone called jade, or a kind that comes near it, but which is not well polished by the Iffinois, which is owing to their want of skill.'

AIRESHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north by the shire of Renfrew; on the south with Galloway; on the east with Clydfdale; and, on the west, with the frith of Clyde. This county is very populous, and the inhabitants are exceeding industrious. It is divided into Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham, which are reckoned the three great baileries of Scotland.

1. **CARRICK** is fruitful in pasture, and is abundantly furnished with commodities, both by sea and land. The chief rivers are Stincher and Girven, which abound with salmon and other good fish. The people towards the coast are great fishermen, though there is no considerable port in this part of the country, and are employed by the merchants of Glasgow, and elsewhere, to catch herrings for them. The chief town is Maybole, which has a pretty good market, by reason the coast near it is full of people; but, though it stands on the coast, it has no harbour.

2. **KYLE**, is separated from Carrick by the river Dun, and from Cunningham by the Irwin; both which, together with the river Aire, abound with salmon. It is more populous than Carrick, and the soil is better. Its chief town is Aire, which stands near the mouth of the river of its own name, has a very good harbour, and lies conveniently for trade; but it is now so declined, that the townsmen say, from having been the fifth best town in Scotland, it is now the fifth worst, which is owing to the loss of its trade. But what was the reason of the decay of trade in this place is not easy to determine.

3. **CUNNINGHAM**, is a country rich and fruitful, abounding with fine pastures and inclosures near its capital town, which is

Irwin. Here they have a port, which was formerly in much better condition than it has been for some years past, the harbour being so much decayed by length of time, and other accidents, that the trade of the town has declined; for the water not being confined to its proper channel, the harbour became so choaked up with sand, that it was of little use to what it had been; so that ships of very small burden were frequently shut up for several months in the river, before they could sail out to sea. At the same time, the church, town-house, bridge, and other public works, being in a rui-

nous condition, an act of parliament was passed, in 1736, the ninth of George II. for laying a duty of two pennies Scots upon every Scots pint of ale or beer sold in the town of Irwin, and its liberties; and a duty of a penny sterling upon every ton of coals shipped off for transportation. By which means the harbour is restored to its pristine goodness, and the town to its former flourishing condition. But thus much may be said, that, notwithstanding the declining state of its harbour before this act passed, it carried on a greater trade than most of the ports between Aire and Dumfries. Their chief trade is in Scots coal, which they export in great quantities to Ireland; the neighbouring hills abounding with this commodity.

AKOND, an officer of justice in Persia, before whom are brought all causes relating to orphans and widows, in regard to contracts, and other civil matters. He is the chief of the law-college, and reads lectures to all the inferior officers. He has his deputies in the several provinces of the kingdom, who, with the second sadra, conclude all bargains, agreements, and contracts.

ALABASTER, a kind of marble, which is soft and easy to cut. There are several sorts of it: the most common is white and shining, and was formerly the least esteemed: that which is of a horn-colour, and transparent, was not much more valued. The most precious was that which is yellowish, something like honey, and spotted with points, or small veins. The white alabaster seems to have the preference above all others at present. It is close, and very proper to make figures, statues, columns, ornaments, and vessels of several sizes. The antients used such vessels to put their most admired perfumes in. The countries in Europe, which abound most with alabaster, are Germany, towards Coblentz; the province of Maconnois, in the neighbourhood of Cluni, in France; Italy, towards Rome, where that of Montaiout is particularly remarkable; not only for its whiteness, but also for the bigness of its blocks, some of which are so large, that statues, as big as life, may easily be cut out of them. F. Labat, in his journey to Italy (Voyage d'Italie, tom. VI. p. 64.) observes, that there are quarries of alabaster in the neighbourhood of the village called de la Toffa, near Civita Vecchia: there is also alabaster to be found in some places of Lorrain; but it is not much esteemed.

Cornelius le Bruyn, in his voyage to the Levant (Voyage du Levant, tom. V. p. 284.) relates, that he has seen mountains of alabaster, which are about 150 leagues west distant from Archangel. The inhabitants of the country call them pifoertje, that is to say, ovens. They are subterraneous grottoes, formed by nature, after a very particular manner. The chief entry seems to be supported by pillars of rocks, in the form of pilasters; and there are several other by-ways, which lead into small grottoes. The stones are as white as common alabaster, but not so hard; and yet several pretty pieces of work are made of them. These mountains, which are half a league in extent, are seen for the space of two hours along the river Penda, and there are no grottoes beyond.

ALADULIA, a province of Anatolia, or Asia Minor, comprehends, in its largest sense, Cappadocia Magna, and the Lesser Armenia. It joins to the country, or Beglebergate of Trebizond on the south, and is, by the Turks, called the Beglebergate of Munit, or Marafch. This district is likewise called, by the Turks, Dulgadir, or Dulcadir. The territory of this province is unfit for tillage, but hath abundance of fine pasture-grounds, on which the inhabitants breed a prodigious number of cattle, especially horses and camels, besides great herds of sheep and goats.

1. **CAPPADOCIA**, besides the great pasture-grounds, produces wines and fruits in great quantities; and the mountains, with which it abounds, especially that long and high chain of them called Antitaurus, have mines of silver, copper, iron, alum. Its chief cities are, Marafch, which is large, and well-built, and drives a good traffic.

Cæsarea, now Caifar, a fair and populous city, the stage of all the caravans of the east, which here disperse themselves to their respective cities. The bazars are handsome and well stored, and the inhabitants, who are quite polite, drive a considerable trade in cotton.

2. **ARMENIA** the Lesser, the other province of Aladulia, so called to distinguish it from the Greater Armenia, which belongs to Persia, has little or no trade, and, therefore, no place of note.

ALAMODE, in commerce, a thin, light, glossy, black silk not quilled, or crossed, chiefly used for womens hoods and mens mourning scarfs.

The substance of the several acts of parliament now in force that relate to this article, is as follows.

Alamodes and lustrings may not be imported but into London only; and upon notice first given to the commissioners of the customs, of the quality, quantity, with the marks, numbers, and packages, the names of the importer, the ship, and her burden, the master, the place where to be laden, and into which they are intended to be imported; and taking a licence under the hands of the said commissioners, or any three of them. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. sect. 14. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 1.

If they are imported into any other port than London, or without notice, licence, and payment of duty, and not sealed or marked, are forfeited, or their full value. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. sect. 14. 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 20. sect. 45. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 2.

Upon importation they are to be marked and sealed, and registered in a particular book, by the officers of the customs, before delivered out of the custom-house warehouse. 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 20. sect. 45. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 2. If the seals, or marks, are altered, counterfeited, or misapplied, the offenders, and their aiders, &c. are each to forfeit 500 l. and to stand in the pillory for the space of two hours. 5 and 6 William and Mary, cap. 20. sect. 45. 6 and 7 William III. cap. 18. sect. 30. 9 and 10 William III. cap. 43. sect. 5.

If they are imported without payment of duty, or being prohibited, or, by way of insurance, delivered, or agreed to be delivered, the importer, contractor, or receiver, may be prosecuted, and a capias in the first process, specifying the sum of the penalty may be issued, and the offenders be obliged to give sufficient bail to appear in court, and, at such appearance, must give security to answer all forfeitures and penalties, or else go to gaol. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. sect. 1. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 8.

If they are fraudulently imported, knowingly received into custody, bartered, or sold, every person concerned is to forfeit 500 l. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 3.

If they are bought, sold, or harboured, being sealed, or marked, with a counterfeit seal, or mark, the offenders knowing thereof, and not discovering, are to forfeit the goods and 100 l. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 5.

They may be seized within the cities of London and Westminster, and the bills of mortality, only by officers of the customs, or persons deputed by the Lustring company, having writs of assistance from the court of Exchequer. 9 and 10 Will. 3. cap. 43. sect. 5. 5 Ann. cap. 20. sect. 3.

When seized, they are immediately to be carried to the custom-house warehouse in London; and, if forfeited, to be there sold by inch of candle, on condition to be exported, and not to be delivered but in order to be put on ship-board, and until security be given for the due exportation; which security may be discharged by certificate of the chief magistrate of the place where they were delivered, or by oath that they were lost at sea. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. sect. 4. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 2.

If seized and forfeited, they are not to be consumed in Great-Britain, but must be sold on condition only to be exported. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. sect. 4. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 2.

In disputes concerning their manufacture or importation, the proof is to lie on the importer, or claimer. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 5.

Officers conniving at the fraudulent importation of them, or collusively delaying prosecution, are to forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable of holding any office under his majesty. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 6.

If they offend a second, or more times, after conviction, they are to forfeit double for each offence. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 7.

Commanders of ships of war, importing, or knowingly permitting, such goods to be unshipped, besides all other penalties and forfeitures, are to be rendered incapable of serving his majesty. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 4.

Seamen belonging to such ships, discovering the importation, or unshipping, besides part of the forfeitures, are to be discharged from their service, if desired. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 4.

Before claim can be entered, the claimer is to give security to pay full costs of suit, if he be cast; otherwise, the goods to be forfeited. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 10. 5 Ann. cap. 10. sect. 4.

Information is to be commenced within two years after the offence. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 12.

Black alamodes and lustrings are not to be bought, sold, or dealt in, unless sealed, or marked, at the custom-house, or by the Lustring company, upon forfeiture thereof, and 100 l. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. sect. 28.

But, if the buyer discovers the seller within 12 months, he is discharged, and is intitled to half the forfeiture of the seller. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. sect. 29.

Black alamodes and lustrings, wheresoever manufactured, found without the proper marks, or seals, are forfeited; and the persons in whose custody they are found forfeit 100 l. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. sect. 28. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. sect. 3.

The distribution of all penalties and forfeitures is two thirds to the king, and one third to the seizer, or fuer; but the charges of suit and prosecution must be paid out of his majesty's part. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. sect. 9.

ALBANIA, a province of Turkey in Europe, lies between Macedonia on the east, and the gulph of Venice on the west, having on the north-east, and north, a chain of mountains, called Monte nigro, or the black mountains, which divide

it partly from Macedonia, and partly from Servia and Dalmatia. On the south it is bounded by Epirus, which is sometimes called Lower Albania, as the province we are speaking of is stiled Upper Albania. Its soil is fruitful, but more towards the north than towards the south, and produces flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as also wax in the woods, and salt dug out of the mountains. The inhabitants make tapestry, which, with the other commodities, they vend abroad. But this country has undergone the same fate of all under the Turkish dominion, being almost destitute of commerce, and its coast possessed by a kind of pirates, or rovers. Its chief places are,

1. **SCUTARI**, which is a considerable trading town.

2. **DULCIGNO**, situate on the gulph of Venice, may contain 7 or 8000 souls, says Mr. Spon, and is an indifferent good scale, that is to say, in the Levant language, a city of traffic. The Franks have here a consul.

3. **DURAZZO**, is a noted sea-port on the coast of the gulph of Venice. The harbour of Dyrrachium lies to the north-west of Brundisium, now Brindizzi, and the passage from the one to the other was easy, so that the former became one of the most considerable towns on the coast of the Adriatic sea. Two circumstances concurred to make it flourish; the one was, that the inhabitants gave every one a full liberty to settle there; whereas, the Apollonians, their neighbours, drove all strangers out of their city, after the example of the Lacedemonians. The other was, that most foreigners who sailed up and down the Adriatic sea, used, by the way, to put into this harbour: Messieurs Boudrand, Maty, and Corneille say, that this is still a pretty large town, well fortified, and that it has a good harbour: whereas Messieurs Spon and Wheeler assert, that it is now but a village, with a ruined fort. Thirty miles from la Valona, to the southward, there is a mountain, where rises a fountain of pitch, which, being mixed with tar and water, serves to careen vessels.

ALBERTUS, a gold coin struck in Flanders during the administration of Albertus, archduke of Austria. It weighs four pennyweights, of the fineness of 21 carats and $\frac{3}{4}$: It is worth about 14 French livres, and yet it is received only for a mark at the mint in France, to be melted and made into Louis d'ors.

ALBE, a small piece of money in Germany, worth eight deniers of that country, or two creutzers; that is to say, a sol and seven deniers French money.

ALBUS, a small coin, current in Cologne, and in the countries of the Lower Rhine. Four albuses make four and a half creutzers, or a simple blaffart, according to the regulations of the empire.

ALCANA, a drug used in Dying, which comes from Egypt, and from some other parts of the Levant. The botanists of the latter century called the plant which produces this dye, *Ligustrum Ægyptiacum*, or Egyptian privet; but they were mistaken: it is not a species of that kind.

The colour, which is extracted from its leaves, is red, or yellow, according as it is prepared. It is yellow if the leaves are put to soak in water; and red if put into vinegar, citron-juices, or alum-water.

The oil that is extracted from the berries of the alcana is of an agreeable scent, and of some use in physic, especially for softening of the nerves. It is called also oil of cyprus, and the plant sometimes cyprus.

ALCAVALA, a custom-house duty, paid in Spain, and in Spanish America. It is a duty of import, at the rate of five per cent. of the price of merchandizes.

ALE, a well known liquor in England, made of malt.

What chiefly distinguishes ale from beer, which is made from the same ingredients, is the quantity of malt and hops used in it, there being more put into beer than into ale; wherefore the former is stronger and more bitter, and will keep longer. The duties on ale and beer make a principal branch of the revenue in England. They were laid in the 12th year of Charles II. and have been continued by several subsequent acts of parliament to the present time.

By stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 23. sect. 1. There was to be paid to his majesty during life,

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, brewed by any person who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 1 s. 3 d.

For every barrel of 6 s. beer, or ale brewed as aforesaid, 3 d. Continued for the life of his present majesty, by 1 Geo. II. stat. 1. cap. 1.

By stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 24. sect. 15. There was to be paid unto the king, his heirs, and successors for ever, as a part of the recompence for the tenures and purveyance taken away,

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel; brewed by any person, who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 1 s. 3 d.

For every barrel of 6 s. beer or ale, or under, brewed as aforesaid, 3 d.

Confirmed 13 Car. II. cap. 7.

By stat. 4 Will. & Mar. cap. 3. sect. 2. There was to be paid unto their majesties, during ninety-nine years, for beer and ale, by way of excise, above all other duties,

For

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, exclusive of excise, brewed by any person who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.

For every barrel of beer or ale of 6 s. the barrel, or under, 3 d. For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond seas, to be paid by the importer before landing, 3 s.

Made perpetual 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. sect. 8. and the surplus, together with that of the duties on cyder, perry, brandy, spirits, and metheglin, as expressed in the same act, appropriated to the aggregate fund.

By stat. 5. Will. & Mar. cap. 20. sect. 10. There was to be paid unto their majesties, for beer and ale, one moiety of the duties of excise granted for four years, by 2 Will. & Mar. cap. 10. (*viz.*)

For every barrel of beer or ale, above 6 s. the barrel, exclusive of excise, brewed by any person who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.

For every barrel of beer or ale, of 6 s. the barrel, or under, 3 d. For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond sea, Guernsey, or Jersey, to be paid by the importers before landing, 3 s.

Five sevenths of this duty, and also of the duty on cyder, perry, brandy, &c. as is expressed in the same act, appropriated to make good a fund to the Bank, and two sevenths to pay annuities; and the surplus to the aggregate fund. 1 Geo. I. cap. 12.

By stat. 4 Ann. cap. 6. sect. 6. From the 17th of May 1713, there was to be paid unto her majesty during the term of ninety-five years for beer and ale, above all duties imposed by former acts.

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, exclusive of excise, brewed by any person, who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.

For every barrel of beer or ale of 6 s. the barrel, or under, 3 d.

For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond sea, or from Guernsey or Jersey, to be paid by the importers, before landing, 3 s.

These duties, together with those on cyder, perry, brandy, &c. as expressed in the same act, charged with annuities, and by 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. are made perpetual, and part of the aggregate fund. The South-Sea company are empowered to purchase the annuities, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

By stat. 8 Ann. cap. 7. sect. 1. From the feast of the Annunciation 1710, there was to be paid unto her majesty during the term of thirty-two years, for beer and ale, above all duties by former acts imposed.

For every barrel of beer or ale (above 6 s. the barrel, exclusive of excise) brewed by any person who shall sell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 3 d.

For every barrel of 6 s. beer, or ale, or under, 1 d.

By sect. 3. For the barrel of two-penny ale, described in the seventh article of the treaty of union, there was to be only paid, by virtue of this act, such a proportional part of 3 d. as 2 s. bears to 4 s. 9 d. above the other duties charged in the said articles.

Made perpetual by the South Sea act, 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

ALENTEJO, a province of Portugal, borders on the north on part of Estremadura, and of the river Tajo; eastward on the Spanish provinces of Andalusia and Estremadura; on the west it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portuguese Estremadura; and on the south by the little kingdom of Algarve. This country is reckoned the finest and most fertile of all Portugal; and its inhabitants, who are chiefly farmers, are very wealthy and industrious. It abounds not only with corn of all sorts, wine, oil, and fruits, sufficient for its own inhabitants, but likewise supplies some of the adjacent provinces; and this exportation is very much facilitated by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tajo, of Guadiana, which two last great ones run quite across this province.

At **ELVAS**, a city in this province, situate on the banks of the Guadiana, the Portuguese have of late erected a woollen manufactory; and the undertakers of that project imagine, that they shall be able to make a good progress, and to supply themselves with broad cloths, fine druggets, and other stuffs, such as they have principally from England; and that they should use all the oil of their own growth in this manufacture. But, as yet, they have only been capable of finishing some coarse and ordinary things, rather worse than the English kerseys, and which serve chiefly for the clothing of the poorest of the people.

The inhabitants of **PORTALEGRE**, another city of this province, have likewise made the same attempt as those of Elvas, and have succeeded no better hitherto. The country, about this place, produces a very great quantity of oil.

At **ESTREMOS** is a curious manufacture of red earthen ware, formerly much admired in England; and, though now out of fashion among us, is still in great vogue in Portugal. The potters that work it are very ingenious, and turn it into a vast variety of curious utensils; such as jars, bowls, tea-pots, and the like.

At **MONTENOVO** is another curious manufacture of a particular earthen ware, especially of cups, pitchers, and drinking-bowls, adorned with bright stones.

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ALFANDIGA, the name of the custom-house at Lisbon, the capital of Portugal. 'Tis here are paid the duties of import and export, as is practised in the custom-houses of other countries. All gold or silver lace, fringe, ribbons, and brocades, are there seized, as contraband goods; no person whatsoever in Portugal, being suffered to have gold or silver wore or spun upon his clothes or furniture.

ALGARVE, a little kingdom within that of Portugal. It is wedged in by the ocean on the west and south; on the east by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andalusia; on the north by the mountains called Serra de Algarve, or Coldeirao, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; so that it is but 90 miles in length, where longest; and but 28 in breadth, where broadest.

The country though very mountainous in most parts of it, is yet very fertile. It doth not indeed produce any great quantity of corn, but abundance of wine, oil, figs, raisins, dates, almonds, pomegranates, and other fruits, though not so exquisitely tasted as those of Spain; and, as the palm-trees are here in great abundance, the poor people employ themselves in working the leaves of them into a variety of knacks; but, in the main, the country is nothing populous or wealthy, nor their cities and towns very remarkable for any tolerable share of trade.

Lagos, one of the cities of Algarve, is about 110 miles south from Lisbon, and 25 east from cape St Vincent. It is seated on a large bay, that opens southward to the ocean, and where several fleets have anchored during our late war with Spain in queen Ann's time. Figs are one of the chief commodities of the kingdom of Algarve, and are shipped off at Faro and Figuera in this bay, or near it. This country is exceeding fruitful, and the figs in particular are not only the best, and the best cured for merchandize of any we find, either in Spain, or on the coast of Barbary, but there is the greatest quantity; for the English, Dutch, Flemings, and Hamburgers fetch them in great quantities; and 'tis said, that there are frequently 40 or 50 ships a year, which are laden with figs in this little country.

ALGIER, a kingdom of Africa, is bounded on the east by Tunis, from which it is divided by the river Suf-Gemar; on the west by the kingdom of Fez, from which it is parted by the rivers of Malvia and Zah, or Zes; on the north it is watered by the Mediterranean, and on the south are the deserts of Numidia. This country enjoys a constant verdure. In February the leaves begin to bud, in April they shew their fruit in full growth, which are mostly ripe by May. The grapes are fit to gather in June, and the figs, peaches, nectarines, olives, nuts, &c. in August.

The soil is various, many parts of it being dry, hot, and barren; others fertile in corn and fruit, especially the mountainous parts on the west of Tenez, Buggia, and Algier Proper. Others, as the northern part of Tremecen towards the sea, abound in excellent pasture grounds.

The towns in this kingdom, even along the sea-coasts, are but few and thinly peopled, except its metropolis. Those inland are still fewer and thinner, and inhabited by a stout and haughty people, who trade into Biledulgered, and the countries of the Blacks. The Algerines are very great pirates, and reckoned the most dangerous of all Africa. They are extremely avaritious, and cruel to those that fall into their hands, especially to the Christians.

As we shall speak of this trade once for all, and not descend to every minute province, which is not deserving our notice; so, we apprehend, that the following brief and connected account may be more acceptable to the reader.

ALGIER PROPER, which is bounded on the east by Bugia, on the west by Tenez, by the Atlas on the south, and by the Mediterranean from the mouth of the Chinelaf to the northern confines of Bugia. The territory of Algier is fertile in fruits, and the plane of Moligia produces corn, barley, and oats, two or three times a year, besides other grain. The melons are of an exquisite taste, some of which ripen in summer, and others in winter. Their vines are very large and thick, and the bunches of grapes commonly a foot and a half long. Its chief places are,

Algier, the capital of the whole kingdom. In this city are merchants of several nations: they are said to be so numerous, that they amount at least to three thousand foreign families, which have settled there on the account of trade, and keep about two thousand shops in the two bazars of the place.

The Jews, whose number amounts to eight thousand, dwell together in a particular quarter: almost the whole trade here passes through their hands. The manufactures of the silken kind are here carried on mostly by Andalusian and Granadan Spaniards.

The greatest commerce of the Algerines consists in the merchandize which they obtain by the piratical plunder of the Christians over the whole Mediterranean, and in part of the ocean. The corsairs are continually bringing in prizes, with great numbers of Christian slaves. Their marine is so strong, that they fit out every year twenty-two, or twenty three vessels, with three or four hundred men each.

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Every

Every Turkish vessel, of what nature or bigness it be, pays 20 piafters for anchoring in this harbour.

The Christian ships, large or small, pay each 40 piafters, when their princes are at peace with the republic. They whose sovereign is at war with Algier, may go thither, on paying 80 piafters: they have nothing to fear, as soon as they are in the harbour; but at sea, either going thither, or coming from thence, they are liable to be taken, as usual.

The produce of this duty for anchoring is divided between the dey, the grand writers, the aga-bachi, who is upon duty for searching or visiting the marine, the interpreter or linguist of the factory, under the protection of whom the vessel is, and the Spanish hospital; every one has a share as settled by the regulations. It is the interpreter's business to make the distribution, and give every one his proportion.

The duty of importation on all merchandize, belonging to Turks, Moors, or Jews, is 12½ per cent. and of exportation 2½.

The English, since the taking of Oran, have obtained a diminution of the duty of importation, and pay but 5 per cent. The French obtained the same favour, by an article inserted in the ratification of the treaty of peace, concluded the 27th of January, 1718, by the commodore count du Quesne.

Money pays always 5 per cent for importation, except that which is designed for the redemption of slaves, which pays but 3 per cent.

All brandies or spirituous liquors and wines pay, without any distinction, four current piafters per cask, for importation.

The company of the Bastion de France is allowed the cargo of two barques every year, without paying any duty. See BASTION OF FRANCE.

The coin, or species current at Algier, and struck there, are the gold sultanins and the aspers: and a small coin called burbas, fix of which make an asper; and the doublas, a silver coin, worth a little above 3 livres French money.

Foreign species current at Algier, are Venetian sequins, sultanins of Morocco, gold coin of Portugal, Spanish pistoles, and piafters.

The currency of the coin is not fixed, but varies according as the government requires it, yet the difference is but small. Foreigners reckon the value of those species, according to the price of bullion in Europe.

There is nothing fixed or settled, but the patack chique, or patack of aspers, which is an imaginary money, always worth 232 aspers. The third part of a current piafter, which is commonly called patack gourde, weighs about two piafters and a half; but its weight is sometimes increased or decreased, arbitrarily, as the dey pleases.

There are money-changers at every corner of the freets, who are Moors. They change other species of coin for aspers, without any profit but the base or counterfeit aspers, which they know how to slide amongst the good ones; and people do not take much notice of this, nor is it an easy matter for others to distinguish the good from the bad aspers. When a person receives a sum of money, he sends for one of these money-changers, to examine the species, in which they are very expert, by their daily practice and occupation.

The merchandize for importation, consists in gold and silver stuffs, or tissues, damasks, drapery goods, spices, tin, iron, copper, lead, quicksilver, small cordage, bullets, common linnens, sail-cloth, cochineal, tartar, alum, rice, sugar, soap, gall-nuts of Aleppo and Smyrna, cotton in the wool and spun, copperas, aloes, Brazil wood, Campeachy, or logwood, cummin, vermilion, arsenic, gum-lack, anise of Malta, sulphur, opium, mastic, sarsaparilla, oil of aspics, common incense, gall-nuts, honey, wool, paper, combs, cutler's ware by sets, old and new cards for carding, and dry fruit.

There is but a very small quantity of those merchandizes sold at Algier, though the country always wants them, because there are duties to be paid; and it is difficult to get one's money after the sales, the returns being uncertain, and insults and oppressions very frequent.

They who have occasion for any of these commodities, wait till the last extremity, being always in hope that some prize will soon arrive, laden with what they want, which happens very often.

There is less hazard in carrying piafters thither, because you may run them without much difficulty, and strike very good bargains with the dey, when there is a plenty of prizes.

Merchandize for exportation, consists of ostrich-feathers, wax, leather, copper, rough wool, woollen coverlids, embroidered handkerchiefs, silk girdles after the Turkish fashion, dates, and Christian slaves.

We meet sometimes with all sorts of commodities, brought in with the prizes.

The vessels whose flag is free, that is to say, whose states are at peace with those of Barbary, meet sometimes at Algier with a cargo for Tetuan, Tunis, Tripoli in Barbary, Alexandria, Smyrna, or Constantinople.

The trade, carried on for some years past at Algier, is but trifling. The French have had little; the company of the Bastion of France, who had the liberty to send two cargoes thither every year, having sent none these several years, be-

cause they could not procure payment of the last merchandize they had imported thither.

The Jews of Leghorn enrolled, for some years, the small remains of trade at Algier, by means of one of their nation called Solomon, and surnamed Jaquet, who lived a great while at Algier, where he died in the beginning of the year 1724. He was a very artful intriguing man, who, by many unlaudable practices, has gained the confidence of the reigning powers, under a pretence of being very zealous for the dey's interest. He fitted out ships for cruising, and was farmer of the wax; for it must be observed, that the Turks, and even the Moors in the cities look upon that employment as a disgrace, and upon all farmers of duties or taxes, as publicans, or uturers. He used to give notice of all that passed in Christendom, and had managed so well by his correspondence, that the Christian slaves could hardly be redeemed by any other person but himself. This was to obtain advantageous commissions, and secure to himself all the profit there was to be made, on the difference between the piafters of Algiers, and those that are current in Europe.

When he knew there was a bargain on foot for the redemption of slaves, he used to outbid the others till they were tired, and forced to apply to him. He was favoured therein, as in all other things, by the state, and was looked upon as one of the chief supports of the country.

The English consul, who is the only merchant of that nation at Algier, has the most profitable trade: he sells to the republic, powder, shot, bullets, grenades, hatchets, anchors, cordage, and other warlike stores, when she wants them; and the dey gives him, in return, oil, corn, and other provisions, the exportation of which is prohibited to all others.

There is a French consul, under whose protection the foreign Jews, the Greeks, the Armenians, and others, put themselves, and apply to him in their several disputes. This consul is forbidden to carry on any trade, either directly or indirectly.

There was formerly a factory and consul for the United Provinces, but he retired in the year 1716. The Algerine corsairs taking at that time hardly any prize, the militia caused the divan to meet, and represented there, that they no longer met at sea with any ships of the enemy; that all those they happened to see were either English, French, or Dutch; and that, the country not being able to subsist without prizes, it was necessary to declare war with one of these three nations by a majority of votes.

Accordingly it was declared against Holland; whereupon they immediately stopped a vessel of that nation, which was in the harbour, and the dey sent orders to do the same in all the ports of the kingdom. He allowed to the Dutch consul as much time as he pleased, to settle his affairs; and affected to pity and solace him. This consul was a great friend of the dey, and had a very fair reputation amongst the Christians, the Turks, and the Moors.

The principal provinces of trade in this kingdom are,
1. BONA province, bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Tunis, on the south by Constantina, and on the west by Labez. This country is fertile in corn and fruit, particularly in the jubub-tree, which covers a great part of it. They breed likewise quantities of cattle, large and small, but are so exposed to the continual incursions and rapines of the Arabs, that only a small part of the mountains is inhabited. Six miles east of the town of Bona, is a fort called the Bastion of France, and is kept by the French, who have their magazines of corn and other commodities, and apartments for those who are concerned in them. The road for ships is very bad before the town of Bona, but a little farther westward, where the Genoese fort stands, it is deep and safe. On the east side of the bay of Bona, the Genoese have a coral fishery.

2. CONSTANTINA province, borders on the east to part of Tunis and of Bona, having the kingdom of Labez on the west, on the south the Atlas, and the Mediterranean and part of Bona on the north. It hath a fruitful soil, the low lands abounding in corn, fruit, &c. and the mountains with pasture grounds.

3. GIGERI, or FIJEL province, reaches to the frontiers of Numidia, and upon the sea-coasts, having Bona on the east, Conquo and Algiers on the west, and Labez on the south. It is mostly dry, mountainous, and barren, producing nothing but some little barley, flax, hemp, and a few nuts. The inhabitants of this province are so like a great many of our coasters in Cornwall, Suffolk, &c. that they spare no wrecks at sea, let them be friends or foes; only, if the crew be Mahometans, they give them some small viaticum, to bring them on in their way home; and even if the ships belong to the Turks, or to the allies and friends of the dey of Algier, he can save nothing of it to the owners by any other means than a friendly composition: whereas, on any other coasts but those of Gigeri, both the dey, his agas, and officers will interpose their authority in favour of their friends, though it often happens even there, that their assistance comes too late to be of any service to the sufferers. The inhabitants of the town of Gigeri live chiefly on these wrecks.

4. BUGIA province, by the Africans called BUGGEYA, or

BUGGIA, lies also on the Mediterranean east of Algier, and has the mountains of Labez on the south, the Gigeri and part of Conflantina on the east. The soil is poor and dry, and bears but little wheat, but a good deal of excellent fruit and good pasture. The wealth of the inhabitants consists in fruit, cattle, hempen and flaxen cloth. The money they use is made of pieces of iron, weighing about half a pound, and small pieces of silver of about 4 grains.

5. **LABEZ** kingdom, lies on the south of Bugia, having Tunis on the east, Conquo on the west, and Mezezeb on the south. It is very mountainous and barren, having but little corn or fruit growing in it; and in most parts scarce any thing but a kind of sword-grass, with which they make their mats, called by the Arabs, Labez, from which the country hath got the name. It is stiled a kingdom, because, having been formerly such, it still retains its antient title, though now only a tributary province of Algier.
6. **CONCO**, or **CONQUO**, is adjoining on the west to that of Labez. It is inhabited mostly by the Bereberes and Azuages, who are so fond of liberty, and afraid of being reduced to a hard slavery, like most of their neighbours, that they chuse to lead a poor indigent life on their almost inaccessible mountains, rather than pay some small tribute to the government of Algier; and in all other cases, avoid all traffic or commerce with them. The country produces plenty of fruit, hemp, flax, honey, wax, cattle, and corn enough for their use. The higher mountains have also mines of salt-petre and iron, and the king's revenue is computed at 700,000 ducats.
7. The province of **BENI-ARAXID**, or **BENI-RAZID**, is one of the dependencies on Algier; the south of which is a plain champaign country, and the north very mountainous, but interlaced with fertile vallies, abounding with corn, honey, and pasture grounds, and the whole province producing plenty of jububs, figs, and other excellent fruits. One part of its inhabitants dwell in towns and villages upon the mountains, and cultivate their corn fields, vineyards, and fruits. The other which inhabit the plains, range about from place to place like the Arabs, and are richer in cattle, camels, horses, &c. The chief towns are, **Beni-Arax**, which hath a great number of persons of quality and wealth. **Calaa**, hath a good number of merchants and artificers, who live very comfortably. **El-Mohafcar**, hath a market every Thursday, to which the Bereberes, Aruages, and Arabs repair to sell their cattle, corn, barley, dried figs, and raisins, honey, wax, oil, &c. and the merchants of Tremecen their cloths, linnen, camblets, bridles, saddles, and other such commodities. The territory about **Batha** is covered with the finest fruit-trees, and very well cultivated.
8. **MILIANA**, or **MAGNANA** province, is situate on the south and east of Algier Proper, and joined on the west to Beni-Araxid; it is inhabited mostly by a rude people, whose chief business is weaving of linnen cloths, and making of saddles after the Morocco fashion.
9. **TENEZ** province, hath Algier Proper on the east; Tremecen on the west, of which kingdom it was formerly a part; the Mediterranean from the mouth of the river Chilef, or Cartena, to that of Affafran on the north; and on the south reaches quite to mount Atlas. The soil is generally very fruitful, producing plenty of corn, cattle, wax, honey, and variety of fine fruit; but the natives are uncivilized and morose, though they drive a great commerce with strangers; whereas the Arabs, though very ignorant, are of a contrary disposition. They are stout and brave, and very impatient under the Turkish yoke. There is over-against the city of Tenez a small island, under which the vessels that trade to it shelter themselves in tempestuous weather. The inhabitants have, in conjunction with the brave Arabs above-mentioned, made some noble efforts to shake off the Turkish yoke, but hitherto in vain.
10. **ORAN** province, stands on the Mediterranean coast, has Haresgol on the west, Tenez on the east, and is bounded on the south by Tremecen; and is as fruitful as most of the provinces. The town of Oran stands about a musket-shot from the sea, and is well fortified.
11. **TREMECEN** province, reaches, in length from east to west, from the confines of Anga to those of Fez, and, from north to south, from the sea to the desert of Atlas. The country is very well watered, and produces plenty of corn and variety of fruits and cattle, especially on the north side: the rest towards the south is more dry, barren, and sandy, and even the parts adjacent to the capital are mostly desert, which is the reason why there is so few towns in this province. But those that are in it, are generally well seated, built, and inhabited, and the people in good circumstances. Those who live in the more desert parts of this province, own no subjection to the deys of Algier, but ramble where they please, and will trade with the Christians in a friendly manner. The merchants of this province trade chiefly into the country of the Blacks, where they exchange their merchandize for Tibar

gold, ambergrease, musk, civet, African bezoar, elephant's teeth, negro slaves, &c. and this traffic is so advantageous to them, that two or three such journies are sufficient to enrich a man; and so it had need, considering the length and difficulty of it through such vast sandy deserts, and the danger they run from the sands, heat, and drought, and especially from the plundering Arabs. The inhabitants of the towns here are well bred and courteous. The chief town is,

Tremecen, situate about 35 miles from the Mediterranean, which grew to a considerable height of splendor and opulence under its kings, but is much decayed, since it hath been under the Turkish yoke. Within its circuit are still made great quantities of oil, and excellent grapes dried, and sent abroad. In the city are variety of manufactures, especially those of weaving cotton, silk, and linnen carpets, &c. in the neatness of which they excel to a great degree, insomuch that some of their mantles will scarcely weigh ten ounces. They are likewise famed for their fine saddles, stirrups, bridles, &c. which are made after the Morefco fashion.

ALIEN, is one born in a foreign country, under the obedience of a foreign prince and state, and, in regard to England, not subject to its sovereignty.

Though aliens, according to the laws of England, are not of capacity to buy, or inherit, lands, or freeholds, yet they may purchase houses, or warehouses, which are for accommodating them as merchant-strangers.

Yet, if they depart and relinquish the realm, the king shall have the same; and so it is if they have taken a lease of meadows, lands, woods, or pastures: for the law provides them nothing but a habitation to traffic in, as merchants.

But, though aliens can have no action for, or concerning lands, they may sue personal actions, as on a bond; so likewise for words: for the common law, according to the laws of nations, protects trade and traffic; and not to have the benefit of the law, in such cases, is to deny trade.

The sense of the statutes now in force in relation to aliens, as traders, is as follows:

Aliens born, made denizens, are to pay such duties as they did before they were made denizens. Stat. 22 Hen. VIII. cap. 8.

Aliens or merchant-strangers, are to be used in this realm as merchants-denizens are in other countries. Stat. 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. 5 Hen. IV. cap. 7.

Aliens and denizens, coming into this kingdom, are to be well and honestly intreated, with respect to the payment of the duties. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

Aliens, or merchant-strangers, bringing in goods, must give security to the king's customer and comptroller, to employ their money upon the commodities of this realm, or to put it in due payment here (their reasonable costs excepted) and not to export the money received for the same; upon forfeiture of all their goods, and to suffer a year's imprisonment. Stat. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 15. 5 Hen. IV. cap. 9. 27 Hen. VI. cap. 3. 17 Edw. IV. cap. 1. 3 Hen. VII. cap. 8.

A British man, sworn to be subject to a foreign prince, or state, is to pay stranger's customs: but, if he returns to Great-Britain, and there inhabits, he is to pay but British duties, and to have a writ out of Chancery for the same. Stat. 14 and 15 Hen. VIII. cap. 4.

An alien infant, under 21 years of age, cannot be a merchant-trader within this realm, nor can he enter any goods in his own name at the custom house. Stat. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2.

Aliens, or persons not born within his majesty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, must not be merchants, or factors, in the plantations, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattels, one third to the king, one third to the governor, and one third to the informer. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 18.

Aliens and their sons, not freemen, are to pay the duties of scavage, &c. in the port of London.

The merchant-strangers, who pay double subsidy for lead, tin, woollen cloths, shall also pay double custom for native manufactures of wool, or part wool; and the said strangers, are to pay for all other goods, as well inwards as outwards, rated to pay the subsidy of poundage, three-pence in the pound, or any other duty payable by Charta mercatoria, besides the subsidy. Rule the 12th for the advancement of trade, &c. annexed to the rates of merchandize, under the act of tonnage and poundage, passed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4. But, by 25 Car. II. cap. 6. sect. 1, 2, 3. and 9 Ann. cap. 6. sect. 3, 5. repealed, as to goods imported.

- * This is the duty called petty custom, payable by merchant-strangers on all goods imported liable to tonnage and poundage (unless where the original old subsidy has been entirely taken away) but not on those liable to the subsidy of tonnage, because an equivalent is included in the old subsidy.

Note, Charta mercatoria, which was first granted by 31 Ed. I. was confirmed by 27 Edw. III. cap. 26. and the duty of three-pence per pound thereby granted, directed to be computed by the contents of the goods, according to the oath of the

the importer, or letters of credence, without unsealing, or opening; upon penalty of imprisonment by the officers, and quadruple damages to the party grieved, and as much to the king.

Aliens duty outwards taken off. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. 25 Car. II. cap. 6. 5 Ann. cap. 27. 6 Ann. cap. 10. 7 Ann. cap. 7. 9 Ann. cap. 6. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29.

When aliens are to be deemed natural-born subjects, see NATURALIZATION.

ALIQUANT PART, a term of geometry and arithmetic. It is such a part of a whole which does not measure it exactly, but some remainder will still be left. Or, an aliquant part is that, which, being taken any number of times, will always be greater or lesser than the number, or quantity, of which it is an aliquant part. Thus 7 is an aliquant part of 30, because it does not divide it exactly, but there remains 2; or, 7 taken four times, is less than 30, viz. 28; and, taken five times, is greater, viz. 35.

ALIQUOT PARTS, also a term of geometry and arithmetic. An aliquot part is such a part of any quantity, or number, as measures it exactly, without any remainder. Thus 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 15, are aliquot parts of 30, because each of these smaller numbers measure the number 30 exactly, without any remainder.

ALLEVEURE, the smallest copper coin that is struck in Sweden; it is not worth quite two deniers tournois of France. Two alleveures make a rousing; eight roustings a mark of copper; and 24 marks the common rixdollar, which is at par with the French crown of 60 fols, or five livres. See SWEDEN.

ALLAY, or ALLOY, a mixture of several metals, or of diverse portions of the same metal, of different fineness. Minters never strike any gold or silver coin without allay, and always mix some copper with those two metals, according to a certain proportion, settled by the rules of the mint, which, in France, cannot be altered but by the king's edicts, proclamations, or ordonnances.

Brass coin is made of an allay of copper, mixed with a few parts of fine silver, regulated also by the prince.

The jewellers, gold wire-drawers, and gold-beaters, and gold and silversmiths, are obliged to use allay in the silver and gold they work; but it ought to be less than that of coin, to prevent their melting it, in order to use it in their works, which the French call billonnage, which is an unlawful melting of gold or silver coin.

The brass-founders, also, have their allay of copper, pewter, and tin. This allay differs according to what they design to cast, either statues, guns, or bells.

Finally, the pewterers, in the making of their several vessels, dishes, plates, &c. also make use of an allay of red copper, regulus of antimony, and some other minerals.

There are two sorts of allays practised in the coinage of money: the one, when gold and silver are used that have not yet been coined; the other, when several species of coins, or ingots of different fineness, are melted together, to coin new money.

The proportion of the allay with the finer metal is easy in the first case; since, when once the fineness of the gold or silver is known by refining, it is only adding to it the allay of copper required by law to bring it to the legal standard.

In England the standard of gold coin is 22 carats of fine gold, and 2 carats of allay, in the pound troy; and the French, Spanish, and Flemish gold are nearly of the same fineness. The pound weight is cut into 44 pieces and a half, each current for 21 shillings.

The standard of silver is 11 ounces 2 pennyweights of silver, and 18 pennyweights of allay of copper. The allay in gold coin is silver and copper; and, in silver coin, copper alone. Whether gold or silver be above or below standard, is found by assaying. See ASSAY.

When several species of coin, or ingots of different fineness, are to be melted together, the operation, requisite to find the due proportion of allay to the fine metal, is more difficult: and yet it is one of the most important articles a master of the mint ought to be acquainted with, and which all those also ought to know who work in gold and silver, that they may not be mistaken in the allay they are often obliged to make of gold or silver of different standards.

All the authors who have wrote upon coinage, have given tables for making that reduction; and the arithmeticians have their rule of alligation, which may also be used. But the anonymous author of a small treatise, printed at the end of Monsieur Boissard's edition of 1721, has given us the easiest method to practise that rule.

As that method will serve both for gold and silver coin, we shall give but one instance of it; but it must be first observed, that the calculation for the allay of gold is performed by the 32 parts, which are wanting in, or exceeding, the standard of those metals designed to be used; and that, with regard to silver, we reckon by grains of fine metal.

When any one would make that kind of allay, or rather evaluation of allay, in order to add, or diminish, what is wanting,

or too much in the fineness, you must draw up a table of the metals to be melted, containing their quality, weight, and fineness. This table is afterwards to be divided into two others, the one containing all the species which are below, and the other those that are above, the requisite degree of fineness.

Each of these tables being calculated separately, you may find, by the calculation of the first, how much metals that are above the standard, exceed it; and, by the second, how much is wanted in those that are below it; so that, by comparing these two products, or sums, together, we discover exactly, by means of a subtraction, how much, either of fine gold, or allay, must be added, in order to reduce all those metals to the standard required for the new melting. Here follows the instance, which the abovementioned anonymous author gives us:

Numbers.	Marks.	Ounces.	Carats.
1.	1.	4.	Jacobusses, at 21 $\frac{1}{2}$
2.	2.	6.	Ingots, at 20 $\frac{1}{2}$
3.	1.	4.	Ingots, at 18 $\frac{3}{4}$
4.	3.	6.	Ducats, at 23 $\frac{1}{2}$
5.	1.	4.	Nobles, at 23 $\frac{1}{4}$
6.	1.	4.	Ital. Pist. at 21 $\frac{1}{2}$
		12	4

I have therefore, 12 marks and 4 ounces of gold, of several degrees of fineness, which must be reduced to the fineness of 21 carats and $\frac{1}{2}$.

Among the six articles which compose the first table, there are three, viz. the first, the fourth, and the fifth, which are above the standard; and three, viz. the second, the third, and the sixth, which are below it. I separate them into two tables.

High Gold.			
Numb.	Marks.	Ounces.	Thirty-seconds.
1.	1.	4.	remains good 9. 32ds.
4.	3.	6.	ditto 210. 32ds.
5.	1.	4.	ditto 96. 32ds.
Sums remaining good upon these three articles —			315. 32ds.

Low Gold.			
Numb.	Marks.	Ounces.	Thirty-seconds.
2.	2.	6.	wanting 110. 32ds.
3.	1.	4.	ditto 144. 32ds.
6.	1.	4.	ditto 12. 32ds.
Sum of what is wanting in these three articles —			266. 32ds.

The two sums compared.

Remains good 315.
Wanting 266.

Remains good 49-32ds, for which must be put 4 drachms and $\frac{1}{2}$ of copper, and then the whole will be of the standard of 21 carats and $\frac{1}{2}$; the weights of the metals being consequently increased to 12 marks and 4 ounces exactly, because of the addition of the allay.

There remains only to know how you may calculate the proportion there is between 49-32ds of fine gold, and 4 drachms and a half of copper. But the operation is easy, to one who is acquainted with the first principles of arithmetic, and knows, also, that 696-32ds good are worth a mark of copper, or 64 drachms; and that, accordingly, 5-32ds, and 5-8ths, are worth a drachm.

This example, which relates to gold above the standard, may also serve for that which is below it; but, in that case, as many 32ds are to be added as were found wanting.

The chief reasons alledged for the allaying of coin, are, 1. The mixture of the metals, which, when smelted from the mine, are not perfectly pure. 2. The saving of the expence that it must otherwise cost, if they were to be refined. 3. The necessity of rendering them harder by mixing some parts of other metals with them, to prevent the diminution of weight; which pieces of money might suffer in time by being often handled and rubbed. 4. The melting of foreign gold, or coin, which is allayed. 5. The charges of coinage, which must be made good by the profit arising from the money coined. 6. and lastly, the duty belonging to the sovereign, on account of the power he has to cause money to be coined in his dominions. See GOLD and SILVER, and REFINING.

The allay of copper for statues, guns, or bells, has also its proportions; but, as they are arbitrary, and depend on the taste and experience of the founder, it is hardly possible to ascertain the rules of it.

Monsieur Felibien pretends that the good allay for statues,

67 brass figures, ought to be made of one half of rose copper, and half of yellow copper, or common brass. According to others, and to Monsieur de St. Remy in particular, there ought to be four pounds of brass, and eight of tin, in 100 weight of red, or rose-copper. Which of these opinions is best grounded, must be left to those who have experience in the casting and allaying of those metals for their various purposes.

To make the mixture fit for great guns, mortars, and other pieces of artillery, the best and softest tin of Cornwall is a necessary ingredient skilfully applied. There must be 6, 7, or 8 pounds of it to 100 weight of red copper, more or less, according as this last metal happens to be of a better or worse quality.

The alloy for bells is usually made of 20 pounds of the hardest tin to 100 weight of rose-copper.

The alloy, or mixture for the several sorts of pewter designed for dishes, plates, and other household utensils, is commonly made of red copper, regulus of antimony, and bismuth, or lead. The pewterers at Paris use the word alloyage instead of alliage (alloy) and have borrowed that word from their statutes, where it is said that the founding pewter must be (alloyé) allayed, with fine copper and bismuth. See the article TIN, where you will find the methods of allaying or mixing the several sorts of tin.

To ALLOY, or ALLOY, is to melt several metals together, in order to mix, or incorporate them with each other, that they may form afterwards but one and the same matter. Gold and iron cannot be allayed, or duly incorporated together by melting, nor even be foldered together, without the help of copper. Tin melted with gold becomes so closely united with it, that it is extremely difficult to separate them, a small quantity being even capable to spoil a whole casting. See ASSAY.

REMARKS.

Persons who purchase plate should be careful to deal with those of known honour and credit in their business, there being very great deceit and imposition therein, notwithstanding the laws, and the care of the goldsmiths company to prevent them. For the company have long complained that there are numbers who counterfeit the hall mark, because their metal is worse in point of quality, or has more alloy therein than the law directs; and yet the buyer pays the same price for it, as if the wrought plate was made according to the legal standard. This is a great evil, and should be guarded against.

ALLIGATION, is a rule in arithmetic, which may be called the Rule of Mixture, or of compounding ingredients, because it teaches how to mix several species of simples according to any intent, or design, proposed; on which account we shall take notice of it. It is either medial or alternate. Alligation medial shews what the mean price of a pound, ounce, &c. is worth, when several quantities of several values are mixed together, &c. as per the case following. Alligation alternate shews how much of various kinds of simples may be taken to make up any assigned quantity of a compound which will be worth a price proposed.

Of Medial Alligation.

Case 1. A refiner, or goldsmith, hath gold 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ at 4 l. per $\frac{3}{4}$; 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ at l. 4 s; 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ at l. 4 s 8; and 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ at l. 4 s 4 per $\frac{3}{4}$: what is an ounce worth, suppose these be all melted down together? Answer, l. 4 s 7 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Rule . . . Multiply each quantity given by the price; then by direct proportion say,

As the sum of the quantities given,
Is to the sum of the said products;
So is one ounce of the mixture,
To it's value.

See the work following:

$\frac{3}{4}$ of gold.	
12 \times by l. 4: —	the product is l. 48
8 by 4: 5: —	producteth 34
3 by 4: 6: 8	producteth 13
9 by 4: 13: 4	producteth 42
32 sum	l. 137 sum.

Then say, 32 $\frac{3}{4}$ l. 137 :: 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ l. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ or to l. 4 s 7 $\frac{1}{2}$; and, by the same rule, the value of any other quantity of that composition is found: as suppose 7 in the last example, which is worth 29 $\frac{1}{2}$.

For as 32 : 137 :: 7 : 29 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Case 2. To increase or diminish a compound proportionally, by knowing the several quantities of the simples in the composition.

Rule. As the sum of the particular quantities of the compound given,

Is to the whole quantity proposed to be augmented or lessened:

So is each particular quantity in the given compound,
To the due proportion required of that specie, fineness, &c.

Example. I would augment the compound in the last case to 48 $\frac{3}{4}$; that is, I would add 16 to the 32; how much must I take of each simple ingredient? See the operation.

12	Then, as 32 : 16 :: 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ 6 answer.
8	32 : 16 :: 8 4
3	32 : 16 :: 3 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
9	32 : 16 :: 9 4 $\frac{1}{2}$

Sum 32

Sum = 16

So that I must have 18 $\frac{3}{4}$ gold at l. 4: —: — per $\frac{3}{4}$.

12	at 4	5: —
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	at 4	6: 8
and 13 $\frac{1}{2}$	at 4	13: 4

48 sum for proof in the whole.

Case 3. Having the simples of any compound given, to find how much of each kind of simple ingredient is in any part of that composition.

Rule. As the total of the composition,
Is to the quantity of any simple in that composition:
So is the total quantity proposed to be proportionably compounded,
To the quantity of each simple to be in that proposed quantity.

Example. I would know how much of each ingredient (or price of gold mentioned in the first case) is in a pound, or 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ of the 32, being the compound given? The operation.

32 : 12 :: 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ of l. 4: —: — per $\frac{3}{4}$
32 : 12 :: 8 3 of 4: 5: —
32 : 12 :: 3 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4: 6: 8
32 : 12 :: 9 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4: 13: 4

$\frac{3}{4}$ 12 sum proof.

Case 4. The total of the compound of two simples, with the total value of that composition, and the value of an unit of each simple being given; to find the quantity of each simple ingredient in the composition.

Rule . . . Multiply the total quantity of the composition (here 20) by the lesser price of the unit (here 4) then deduct the product from the total value of the composition (here 82) and divide the remainder by the difference in value of an unit of the two simples given (as here 5 s. or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound) and the quotient is the quantity of the higher-priced simple (here 8) whose complement to 20 is 12; so that the answer is 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ of gold at 4 l. per $\frac{3}{4}$; and 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ at 4 l. 5 s. per $\frac{3}{4}$. This canon, or theorem, is discovered algebraically.

Gold at 4 l. per $\frac{3}{4}$.	
Ditto at 4 l. : 5 s.	
Total of the composition } = 20 $\frac{3}{4}$	Total value l. 82
4	80
80	l. 4) 2(8

Case 5. To find the quantities of each simple ingredient (when these simples are more than 2 in number) contained in a composition, by having the totals of the quantity compounded, and of the value; and also the value of an unit of each simple ingredient.

Simples	of gold, at l. 4 per $\frac{3}{4}$ =
	ditto, at 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ =
	ditto, at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ =
	ditto, at 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ =

Total of the comparison 32 $\frac{3}{4}$ Total value l. 137

Rule. To these kind of questions, as in those of alligation alternate, various answers may be given, and yet all true. You may best do them by 2 at a time, as in the last case. I suppose the 2 first 15 of the total mixture, and 63 of the total value, and so I find 3 at 4 l. and 12 at 4 l. $\frac{1}{4}$: then the rest of the total compound is 17, and of the value 74; which, according to the 2 latter prices, gives 16 at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 1 at 4 $\frac{3}{4}$. But note, That you must so discreetly divide the total quantity and value, that, when the product of the first in 1 of the 2 prices is taken from the latter, the remainder may not be so much as (when divided by the difference of the prices) which give a quotient so great as that part of the total quantity of the ingredient which you fixed upon, or supposed.

The operation.

First.	2 = 15	and = 63
	4	less 60 deduct
	Product = 60	3(12 at 4 $\frac{1}{4}$
Secondly.	15	63 deduct
	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	63 $\frac{3}{4}$
	Product = 63 $\frac{3}{4}$	3) 3) $\frac{1}{4}$ = 3 at 4

L

The

The second. $2=17$ | and 74
 $4\frac{1}{2}$ | $73\frac{1}{2}$ deduct
 Product $=73\frac{1}{2}$ | $1) \frac{1}{2}(1 \text{ at } 4\frac{1}{2}$
 Lastly. 17 | 74 deduct
 $4\frac{1}{2}$ | $79\frac{1}{2}$
 $79\frac{1}{2}$ | $1) 5\frac{1}{2}(4\frac{1}{2}, \text{ or } 16 \text{ at } 4\frac{1}{2}$

Alligation alternate.

Question 1. A farmer hath 4 sorts of wheat, viz. 5 s. 6 s. 7 s. and 7 s. 6 d. per bushel; and he is inclined to mix so much of each sort as will make 64 bushels worth 6 s. 6 d. per bushel: how much of each must he take?

Having placed the prices as below, and the mean price, take the difference between the mean price, 6 s. 6 d. and 5 s. (the first price) which is 1 s. 6 d. this you must put down (in the first way) against 7 s. 6 d. (because bigger than the mean price:) then put the difference between 6 s. 6 d. the mean price, and 6 s. (the second price) which is 6 d. against the price (7 s.) because bigger than the mean price. Then put the difference between 6 s. 6 d. and 7 s. (the third price) against 6 s. because that is less than the mean price. Lastly, the difference between 6 s. 6 d. and 7 s. 6 d. is 1 s. which put against 5 s. the first price. And thus having placed the differences between the mean price and those less than it against the prices bigger than the mean price; and the difference between the mean price and those greater than it, right against those that are lesser alternately.

2. Sum up the difference, which you see is 3 s. 6 d.

3. Say by the single rule of proportion direct,

As the sum of the differences is to the bushels of the whole mixture:

So is the differences to the bushels required.

The first way.

Prices.	Differences.
s.	s. d.
5	1 : 0
6	0 : 6
7	0 : 6
7 : 6	1 : 6
	3 : 6 = Sum.

The mean price 6 s. 6 d.

A second way.

s.	s. d.	s.	Sums.
5	0 : 6	5	0 : 6 ; 1 s. 1 : 6
6	1 : 0	6	0 : 6 ; 1 1 : 6
6 s. 6 d.	1 : 6	6 s. 6 d.	1 : 6 ; 6 d. 2 : 0
7	0 : 6	7	1 : 6 ; 6 d. 2 : 0
7 : 6		7 : 6	
Sum = 3 : 6		Sum total = 7 : 0	

Third way.

The Sum of the Differences.	Bushels the whole Mixture.	The Differences.	Bushels required.
s. d.	t.	s. d.	
As 3 : 6	- 64 ::	12	$18\frac{1}{2}$ of that of 5 s. per bushel.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	6	$9\frac{3}{4}$ of that of 6 s. per bushel.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	6	$9\frac{3}{4}$ of that of 7 s. per ditto.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	18	$27\frac{3}{4}$ of that of 7 s. 6 d. per do.

Sum, or Proof 64 the whole mixture.

For greater variety, see the best books wrote professedly on arithmetic.

ALLOCATION, the admitting or allowing an article in an account, and passing it as such. It is also an allowance made upon an account, and is a word used in the exchequer; hence allocatione facienda is a writ directed to the lord treasurer and barons of the Exchequer, upon the complaint of some accountant, commanding them to allow him such sums, as he has lawfully expended in the execution of his office.

ALLOTING, or ALLOTMENT of goods, is when a ship's cargo is divided into several parts, which are to be bought by divers persons, whose names are written on as many pieces of paper, which are applied by an indifferent person to the several lots or parcels, and by this means the goods are divided without partiality: for every man has the parcel of goods, that the lot which his name is upon, is appropriated to. See INCH of CANDLE.

ALLOWANCES at the custom-house, to goods rated by weight, are two, draught and tare.

Draught is to be first deducted, and then the tare, where there is any customary.

The manner of making the allowance for draught, is, for the weigher to call out the full and true gross weight in the scale; which is to be entered in the land-waiter's book, and an allowance made for each weigh or scale, according to the following table.

Gross weights.	Allowance for draughts.
Under 1 C. wt	— — — 1 lb.
From 1 C. to 2 C.	— — — 2 lb.
2 to 3 C.	— — — 3 lb.
3 to 10 C.	— — — 4 lb.

10 to 18 C. — — 7 lb.
 18 to 30 C. or upwards — — 9 lb.

Tare is the weight, or an allowance made in consideration of the casks, bags, or other kinds of packages. For the accommodation of trade, there are in many cases tares settled and established by custom and experience. See the article TARES, TRET, CUSTOM-HOUSE, BILLS of ENTRY.

Allowances on the delivery of these goods, which are chiefly linnens, are as follows.

If linnens are contented in Flemish or Dutch ells, two ells in 120 are to be allowed for shortness of measure.

But if linnens are contented in English ells, there is no allowance made to the importer.

Of French lockrams, two ells in every 120 are to be allowed. The following are the settled allowances for wrappers.

On Hamburg
 and } in packs and bales, 1 ell in 40, but not
 Bremen linnen; } to exceed 120 ells on any one pack,
 and also } let the pack be ever so large.

Hessens canvas
 Dantzick linnens, 4 ells in every 120.

Flanders linnens, 3 ells in every 100.
 Holland's duck, 4 ells in every 100; but, if brought loose, there is no allowance. See the article LINNENS.

Allowances on goods rated by measures of capacity liquid or dry. Article 1. Allowances upon delivery.

Olives imported in large casks are to be gauged, and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the contents allowed for liquor.

Every { Pipe } of wine, which shall be run out,
 { Hoghead }

And not above { 9 } inches left therein, shall be accounted
 { 7 } outs, and no subsidy paid for the same.

Article 2. If a merchant enters his wines filled, he pays duty only for the net wine contained in the cask, and has no allowance out of the duties for leakage: when wines are entered unfilled, duty is to be paid for the full contents of the cask, though it may want considerably of being full; but then the merchant is allowed 12 per cent. out of the duties for leakage. See WINES.

Therefore, if { Rhenish,
 { French,
 { Port, or Madera, } wines imported into
 all other }

The Out Ports want more than

66
625
106
1025
144
1425
6
59

 of being full,

The merchant loses by entering them unfilled. In general, if any casks of wine, imported into the out-ports, want much more than one tenth of being full, 'tis for the merchant's advantage to enter them filled, otherwise unfilled.

Five flasks, or 7 and 1 half bottles of Florence wine, are allowed to pass for a gallon. Five bottles of other wines, imported in bottles, are allowed to be reckoned to a gallon, unless the merchants or officers think proper to measure.

Jars of oil are allowed to pass at 22, 24, or 26 gallons. A chest of oil usually allowed at 8 gallons.

Barrels of mum, are allowed to pass at 48 gallons. Kegs of spruce beer, at 4 gallons.

In case of leakage, mum barrels and kegs of spruce beer may be filled up, before computation is made.

Tar barrels are allowed to contain 31 and 1 half gallons, and are to be filled up before computation is made for the duties. See the article TAR.

Awms of Rhenish wines are allowed generally to pass at 38 and 1 half gallons.

For merchandizes which are rated by superficial and solid measure, there are no allowances. See the article TIMBER.

ALLUM, or ALUM, a kind of fossil salt, or white mineral, which is often mixed with earth, from which it is separated, by washing it with water; and which impregnates itself with the entire quality of the salt, acquiring thereby a taste much like that of brine. This water is afterwards boiled to make it evaporate, as is done in the way of refining of falt-petre.

The principles which compose allum, are very closely united. The chief use of allum is in dying, because it renders the colours clear, bright, and lasting: it is, if I may say so, the tie of adhesion of the colours to the stuffs, as ink, or other colours, upon paper. Were it not for the medium of allum, the ink would soak through the paper, and the effort of the air would soon separate the dye from the stuffs, or tarnish their whole lustre. The effects of allum are to be ascribed to its styptic and astringent quality, and therefore it pre-

erves paper that has been dipped into allum, from sinking, when written on.

There are three principal sorts of allum; namely, the allum of Rome, or Civita Vecchia; the allum of England, otherwise called rock allum, white allum, or ice allum; and the allum of Liege, or Meziers; besides that which comes from the Levant.

The ALLUM of Rome, says F. Labat, is reddish, because the earth whence it is taken is of that colour. In order to have the best, you must chuse that which has but little dust, is reddish both within and without; and, above all, take care it be not counterfeit; for there are people, who know how to give a reddish colour to the allum of England and Liege. The surest sign by which you may know it to be counterfeit, is, when, by breaking it, it is not so red within as without.

The ALLUM of England, is in great pieces, or lumps, clear and transparent like crystal. It is more or less fine according as it has been well or ill purified. Sometimes there is allum found of a blackish colour, and something moist. In order to chuse it good, it must be white, clear, transparent, dry, with but little dust, or dirt.

F. Labat observes, that there is another kind of allum made in England, which is also called roch, or ice allum; it is the same as that we speak of in this article; but adds, that it is not by far so good as that of Civita Vecchia. Monf. Lemery ascribes the same qualities to it as to the former, but observes, that it is not of so great use in physic, because it is not so strong. The English rock, or roche allum, is made from a bluish mineral stone, which abounds in the hills of Yorkshire and Lancashire. They calcine it on a hearth or kiln, and then steep it successively in several pits of water. Afterwards they boil it for about twenty-four hours, and then let it stand for about two hours; the impurities subsiding, and leaving a clear liquor, which is put into a cooler, adding a due proportion of urine to it. In three or four days it begins to gather into a lump, which being taken out, washed, and purified over again, is fit for use.

The Manner of discovering and preparing Allum at Civita Vecchia.

The stone that produces allum is taken out of the open fields, and not out of quarries, as free-stone is in France, and other countries. The workmen, who are used to search and rake for those stones, know by certain tokens, and by a long experience, which are the places where they are to be found, without much raking or digging. In those places, which abound most with allum, there commonly grow small shrubs, called agrifolios, in the language of that country. They are ever-greens, and much like the holms that are seen in Provence and elsewhere: but the agrifolios have their bark green as well as the leaves, which are broad, thorny, and of a darker green than the bark. In meeting with those shrubs, either upon the mountains of Tolfa, or on the sides of them, or in the plane, it is a sure sign that there is allum-stone underneath; and the more there are of those shrubs, the more certain we may be of meeting therewith: There are sometimes met with allum-stones spread upon the surface of the earth. That sign cannot be equivocal; it shewing that you may dig without fear of being disappointed, and be certain that the bed or vein lies near, and is plentiful.

They employ commonly three sorts of workmen, for the finding and raking of those stones. The first may be stiled the discoverers. They are those, who, by a long experience, are become expert in the knowledge of the signs, which point out the places where the allum-stones lie. These direct the work, in order to trace the vein, and not to be misled, when any obstacle is in the way that may occasion a mistake. The second are those who break the rocks, which sometimes inclose the good stones, and cover or hide the veins. Besides pick-axes, iron wedges, and twi-bills, which they use, they are also often obliged to blast them with gunpowder, as in metallic mines. The third workmen are those who pick and chuse the stones; for those that are found in the same vein, are not all true allum-stones. 'Tis necessary to have a perfect knowledge of them, not to be mistaken, otherwise the farmers of them would be drawn into useless, and often very considerable, expences. The stones are commonly whitish, greyish, or blue, or even mixed with those three colours. Those marks, however, are less sure than the grain, which seldom misleads those who are used to that search, and to the picking of the stones.

When all those signs prove equivocal, they burn and calcine two or three wheel-barrows full of the stones; and, by the consequence, they judge of what may be expected from the vein that is opened.

When the stones prove good, they carry them to the kiln, and place a quantity round the sides of it, as when they design to make lime; and they give them more or less fire, according to the quality of the stone, and the nature of the place whence it was taken. That is to say, if the stone is soft and dry, and was taken from an open place on the top of the mountain, where it was exposed to the heat of the sun, it requires much less fire, than when it is soft but moist, being taken out of the bowels of the earth, where it had

nothing but moisture, and very little of the sun's heat. It is impossible to prescribe general rules upon this subject, because it depends very much from the circumstances, which must be left to the capacity and honesty of the workmen, who have the direction of the work; but yet the master ought to know as much, or more than they, to prevent imposition. For the expence of this manufacture is very large; besides which, there must be 30,000 crowns paid to the apostolic chamber, to whom all the ground of those allum mines and the neighbouring woods belong.

When the stones are baked, and the kiln uncovered, they pick out the stones a second time, and those which are sufficiently baked, are carried to the place where they are to be extinguished: they put into a separate place of the kiln those stones that are not enough, in order to bake them a second time with other fresh stones that are to be put into the kiln. They are called bis-cakes, because of their second baking. They throw away as useless those that were burnt, instead of being only baked; and these they call scales.

The stones that are sufficiently baked, are carried into a place surrounded with low walls, the soil or ground of which is well paved, and has little channels dug into it to gather the water. They make a heap of those stones between two channels, and make the heap commonly 15 or 18 feet long, and 5 or 6 broad at bottom; and 8 feet high, and narrow at the top; and they take care that the sides be very smooth and very close. Upon that heap of stones, they throw water with scopes in order to extinguish the fire hid within the stones, as is practised in the burning of lime-stones. This work is continued night and day, during 25 or 30 days, and till the water, thrown upon the heaps, runs off perfectly cold. For till that time the stones heat the water, that runs off after having penetrated them; and is so hot in the beginning, that it perfectly boils. The heat decreases by degrees, as the stones which have been set on fire, begin to cool. That water is carefully kept, not only to extinguish other stones, but also to put it into coppers with the stones that have been baked and extinguished: for that water could not pass through the pores of the stone, without being impregnated with a great quantity of alluminous particles: so that it helps to form the grains of allum in the moulds: they call that water lye.

When the stones are entirely extinguished, and reduced to a soft, and as it were, a liquid mass, they carry the whole into large coppers, wherein they pour a sufficient quantity of the water, which served to extinguish them; and they kindle a very great fire under it, that is continued for 16, 18, or even 20 hours: during this time they stir the boiling matter with iron shovels, to make the useless stones, earth, and other dross, come to the top, which they skim off, to purify the whole. They continue this work, till the matter, or, as they stile it, the alluminous lye, be clear, clean, and thoroughly liquid.

When in that condition, they pour it into wooden gutters, which convey it into square wooden frames, made after the manner of inverted pyramids, about 4 or 5 feet high, and 2 feet and a half broad. The point of the pyramid is bored through, but they stop the hole, when they pour the lye into it.

They leave it there to settle and cool, for 10 or 12 days; during which time the alluminous particles unite together, and stick to the sides of the frame, where they harden, and form an infinite number of various figures.

When they judge that the whole quantity of allum they can expect, is formed, they open the hole at the bottom of the frame, to let out what remains of the lye, that is not congealed; but, before they take the allum out, they pour more lye into the frame, to wash it and purify it from the dross and filth that may stick to it's outside: and, after having left the residue a day or two to dry, they take it out of the forms, and lay it up in the warehouses.

There are about 60 days required to perform that work, from the time the stone was taken out of the quarry or vein, till the allum be fit for sale.

The farmers of this manufacture make considerable profits by it, notwithstanding the high price they pay for their farms, and the expences they are at. They have warehouses at Civita Vecchia, where it is weighed, and from thence it is carried in bags into the vessels of the purchasers, which are generally barques from Marseilles.

ALLURE, or ALLEVEURE, a small brass coin struck in Sweden, worth about 4 French sols, or about 2½ English money. Two allures make a rouffing, and 8 rouffings a mark of copper.

ALMADY, a small canoe, four fathoms long, generally made of the bark of trees; it is used by the negroes on the coast of Africa, to trade among themselves, and with the Europeans, who lie off the shore for trade.

ALMADY, is also a vessel used in the East-Indies; it is made in the form of a weaver's shuttle, except that it is square at the stern. Some of them are 80 feet long, and 6 or 7 feet wide. They carry great store of merchandize, and with these vessels the richest Indian merchants drive their greatest trade; whether

they

they load them on their own account, or let them out upon freight to the European merchants.

ALMENE, a weight of two pounds, used to weigh saffron in several parts of the continent of the East-Indies.

ALMOND, a measure in Portugal for oil. The Portuguese sell their oil by almonds, 26 of which make a butt, or pipe. Each almond contains 12 canadors, and a canador is equal to a mangle of Amsterdam. See the article MINGLE.

ALMONDS, this kind of fruit, and the tree that bears it, are too much known to want a description.

The trade of almonds, which is carried on in France, is considerable, both on account of their oil, and the large quantity of them used in Lent, either shelled or unshelled; a great quantity of the sweet are used in sugar-plums, and of the bitter ones in biscuits, confections, &c.

The grocers and druggists of Paris have both sorts from the provinces of France, and the neighbouring countries, as Provence, Languedoc, Touraine, the county of Venaissin, Avignon, &c. They have also some from Barbary. The best are those of the county of Venaissin; those of Barbary and Chinon in Touraine are the worst.

Almonds in the shell come from the same places as those that are otherwise, even those which are called Florence almonds; to which they give that foreign name, with no other view but to make them more valued; for it would be more proper to call them almonds of Languedoc, or Touraine, from which provinces they are brought, than of Florence, from whence they do not come.

How to make a good choice of almonds, is pretty well known: nevertheless, merchants who buy them in casks, chests, or bales, ought to examine whether they be the same throughout: for, in this kind of merchandize, the best are often placed at the top, in order to sell the better.

Two sorts of oil are drawn from almonds, either sweet or bitter, the one by the help of fire, the other without. That which is extracted by fire is good for nothing except to burn; but the oil of sweet almonds, drawn without fire, is fit for several different uses, either in physic or perfuming.

ALMOXARIFARGO, is a duty of 2½ per cent. paid ad valorem upon all bull's hides, to the king of Spain, in Spanish America, upon the exportation of these hides, which are shipped on board European vessels. Besides this duty, there is also another duty called that of the quinto, but only at the rate of four rials per hide.

This is also an old duty paid upon the British woollen manufactures in old Spain.

All goods in Spain, if must be observed, are rated at the custom-house by maravedies, or rials; and the customs are paid by one or other of these denominations.

The customs called alcavalas [see ALCAVALAS] and some others, are paid in vellon, or copper money; the old duty called almozarifargo, and some others, are paid three quarters in vellon, and one quarter in plata, or silver money.

The plate money is 50 per cent. better than the vellon money of the same denomination. The merchants there always make up the accounts of their customs in their own books in vellon, and therefore, make an addition of 50 per cent. for such part of it as is paid in plata.

Fifteen rials vellon are a piece of eight, and 34 maravedies make a rial.

The duty called almozarifargo is 11 per cent. on some of our woollen manufactures, on others not above 5 per cent.

On those goods where the almozarifargo is 11 per cent. the old alcavalas is no more than 1 per cent. But where the almozarifargo is no more than 5 per cent. the old alcavala is 5½ per cent.

So that the duties in Spain upon an 100 maravedies only will arise thus, even to the 100th part of a maravedy, on the goods which pay the higher almozarifargo.—100 maravedies are supposed to be the value of the goods.

- 11 per cent. almozarifargo, quarto plata.
- 2 Dos per ciento—quarto plata.
- 1½ Uno y medio per ciento, with a premio, or addition of 5 per cent.
- 1 Uno per cent. noeva alcavala.
- 1 Uno per cent. donativo.
- 2 Dos per ciento—quarto plata.
- ½ Per ciento.
- 1 Per ciento.
- 2 Per ciento—quarto plata.
- 1 Old alcavala.
- 1½ Per ciento—quarto plata.

24½ in all; so that, by this account, the whole duties are 24½ of 100 maravedies.

But here the reader must observe, that a quarter part of some of these duties is paid in plata, which, as said before, is 50 per cent. better than vellon; and that there is also a premium, or addition, of 5 per cent. on one of the duties. The addition then of this 5 per cent. and also of the 50 per cent. will still swell the account, and add to the foresaid 24½ per cent. that is to say,

The quarter part of 11 per cent. almozarifargo is 2½ maravedies, which, being paid in plata, which is 50

per cent. better than vellon, the 100th part of a maravedy of 2½ maravedies must be added, viz.

1	37½
The quarter part of three times dos per ciento paid in plata for the same reason must be added	0 75
The premium of 5 per cent. on 1½ maravedies must amount to	0 7½
The last duty is 1½ maravedies; and, the quarter of this being 31¼ hundredth parts of a maravedy, the half of the sum should be added for it's being paid in plata; but to avoid so inconsiderable a fraction, the merchants in their accounts add only the half of 30	0 15
In all	2 35
The customs, without these additions, amount to 24½ per cent. maravedies	24 25
So that the whole custom is on every 100 maravedies	26 60

But, where the almozarifargo is no more than 5 per cent. the old alcavala is 5½ per cent. and the whole customs as follow, viz.

- 5 per cent. almozarifargo—quarto plata.
 - 2 dos per ciento—quarto plata.
 - 1½ per ciento, with a premio, or addition, of 50 per cent.
 - 1 per ciento nova alcavala.
 - 1 per ciento donativo.
 - 2 dos per ciento—quarto plata.
 - ½ per ciento.
 - 1 per ciento.
 - 2 dos per ciento—quarto plata.
 - 5½ old alcavala.
 - 1½ uno y quarto per ciento.—quarto plata.
- 22½—so that, according to this table, the whole duties are 22½ per cent. maravedies.

But in this, as well as in the former case, for the quarto plata and the premium additions must be made, viz.

For the quarto plata on 5 per cent. almozarifargo	0 62½
For the quarto plata on 3 times dos per ciento	0 75
For the premio of 5 per cent. on 1½ maravedies	0 7½
For the quarto plata on the last duty of 1½ per cent.	0 15
To which add the 22½ abovementioned, viz.	22 75

And the whole duty on goods, paying but 5 per cent. almozarifargo, amounts to

These duties of 26½ maravedies, and 24½ maravedies per cent. are reckoned in vellon, or copper money.

But, to shew how much this amounts to upon the real value of British goods, it will be necessary first to fix the value of our goods, and then to shew what gratias are allowed, or abatements made, to the merchants out of these customs.

To begin with a comparison of the custom-house valuation, and the real value, and particularly in the case of English bays. A piece of bays rated at 10,000 maravedies, pays 2,660 maravedies customs.

The same has been usually sold for 20 ducats, or 220 rials plate: to which add 50 per cent. for vellon, or copper money, and it will amount to 330 rials; and these, multiplied by 34 maravedies, will produce 11,220 maravedies; that is, 1,220 more than the custom-house valuation.

Now 2,663 maravedies on 10,000, is 26½, or 26½, per cent. but on 11,220 is not quite 23 per cent.

But, in the next place, 33 per cent. is abated for the farmer's gratia; that is, in 100 pieces of bays, the farmer of the revenue counts no more than 67, he receiving custom for no more; so that the whole 100 pieces pay only the custom of 67 pieces.

Upon the payment of these customs there is also a quarter part abated for the king's gratia. A quarter part of 67 is 16½: this reduced the customs on 67 pieces to no more than the custom on 50½.

But other allowances are also made to the merchants, which brought the customs on 100 pieces of bays down to 43, or thereabouts, which make an abatement of 57 per cent. on the customs, which has been shewn were not above 123 per cent. of the real value of the goods, and reduced the same to about 9 per cent. on our bays.

On other goods the deductions are greater. The farmer's gratia is 45 per cent. the king's gratia a quarter part of the remaining 55, which amounts to 13½ per cent. and reduced the goods to 41½ per cent. of the quantity whereon the customs were paid; which is the same thing as abating 58 per cent. out of the customs, and reduced the same, on all goods paying the 11 per cent. almozarifargo, to less than 9 per cent. on all

all others which paid but 5 per cent. *almoxarifargo*, to about 8³/₄ per cent.

ALNAGE, or **AULNAGE**, i. e. *ell-measure*; the measuring of woollen manufactures with an ell, and the other functions of the *alnager*.

R E M A R K S.

All the attempts which our forefathers made for regulating of manufactures, when left to the execution of any particular officer, in a short time, resolved but into a tax on the commodity, without respect to the goodness thereof.—As is most notorious in the case of *aulnage*, which was intended for a proof of the goodness of the commodity; and to that purpose a seal was invented, as a signal that the commodity was made according to the statute: which seals, it is said, may now be bought by thousands, and put on what the buyers please. Sir *Josiah Child* on Trade, p. 2. seq.

That impositions of this kind upon foreign nations, have proved highly injurious to our woollen manufactures, by giving our rivals an opportunity to supplant us therein, is well known to those who have any experience in the trade of Portugal and Spain.

ALNAGER, **ALNEGER**, **AULNEGER**, q. d. *measurer* by the ell; signifies a sworn public officer, who, by himself, or deputy, is to look to the affize of woollen cloth made throughout the land; i. e. the length, breadth, and work thereof, and to the seals for that purpose ordained.

There are now three officers relating to the *alnage*, or regulation of cloth; all which were antiently comprised in one person.—These bear the distinct names of *searcher*, *measurer*, and *alnager*.

R E M A R K S.

A duty being imposed on woollen cloths, for the maintenance of an office to look to that manufacture, and the loyalty, as they call it, of the stuffs produced therein; the *alnager*, who had the direction of the whole, is now become only the collector of that duty, or subsidy, granted to the king, though he still holds the ancient denomination, because the collection of that subsidy was committed to him.—Nor was he abridged of his measuring and searching, till, by his own neglect, it was thought proper to separate the two offices. So that there is now a peculiar *measurer*, distinct from the *alnager*, or collector, to allow the affize of the length and breadth of every cloth made in England and Wales.

ALOES. That name belongs to three different things. 1. To a very precious and scarce tree. 2. To a drug very useful in physic. 3. To a plant, from the roots and leaves of which that drug is extracted, which is their juice. Most authors mistake the plant and the tree for each other; because, no doubt, we have but little knowledge of the tree; and the drug, which the plant produces, is much better known, and of a much greater use.

We may judge of the value and scarcity of the *aloes-trees* by the fabulous origin which the Indians, and even some European authors, have not not blushed to ascribe to it, supposing it to grow in the terrestrial paradise, and not to be transmitted to us but by means of the waters which sometimes overflow that delicious place.

There was no occasion to wait for the arrival of ambassadors from Siam into France, in the year 1686, to be undeceived, and to explode those fables, to which no person of sense could give any credit, not even they who propagated them. But those ambassadors contributed very much towards giving us a true knowledge of those trees, of which hardly any thing but the name was known till then.

The *aloes tree* grows in China, in the kingdom of Lao, and in Cochinchina. It is about the same height and form as the olive-tree: its leaves are also much like those of that tree; and its fruit is red, and differs but little from a cherry. The trunk of the *aloes-tree* is of three colours, which make three sorts of different woods, names and properties. Immediately under the bark, it is black, compact, and heavy. The next wood is of a tanned colour, light, full of veins, and is like rotten wood. Finally, the heart is that precious wood of *tambac*, or *calembac*, which is dearer in the Indies than even gold itself; and which, in the opinion of the Siamese, was the most scarce and most valuable of all the magnificent presents they brought from their master to Lewis XIV.

The *calembac* has a strong, but agreeable smell. It serves to perfume cloaths and apartments, is a sovereign cordial in fainting fits, and against the palsy. It is also used to set the most precious jewels that are worked in the Indies.

Of the two other woods, that which is next to the bark is black, and, for that reason, the Portuguese have given it the name of *Pao d'aquila*, eagle-wood. It is no commodity for trade in France, where it is only to be found in the cabinets of some curious persons. The wood of a *tan-colour*, which lies between the eagle-wood, and the *tambac*, is nothing but the *calembac*, which is the only true *aloes-wood* that the druggists at Paris are able to sell, the other two sorts being too scarce; and all that quantity of wood to which the name of *aloes* is given being without any virtue, and of no worth at all.

V O L. I,

The wood of *calembac* must be chosen of a shining yellow, and well veined without. It should be porous, and of a yellowish-white within; light, of a refinny quality, and like rotten wood. It ought to be of a bitter taste, like that of the drug called *aloes*, which, on that account, has communicated its name to it: when thrown into the fire, it ought to burn like wax, and yield an agreeable scent. The true *calembac* is generally in flat bits; which, together with its lightness, easily distinguishes it from many other sorts of wood people pretend to sell instead of that.

The kingdom of Tonquin produces as much *aloes* as China and Cochinchina; and, after the silks, its greatest riches consist in that precious tree. The *aloes* of Tonquin is so good, that some of it is sold there 1000 crowns per pound, more or less, according as it has more or less grease, or fat in it, that which has none sells hardly for three crowns, being fit only for inlaid works, or for beads, such as are to be seen at Paris.

All the Eastern people, especially they who let their beards grow, make a very great account of this perfume, because of the custom which prevails in all the East, not to receive in their houses any persons of note without the ceremony of presenting them with perfumes; which is performed by covering their heads with a piece of cloth, or a large silk, or cotton, handkerchief, under which they put a small pan, wherein they burn *aloes*, or some other drug of an exquisite scent.

Tavernier, in his account of Tonquin (*Relation du Tonquin*) asserts, that he saw at Ispahan a log of *aloes-wood*, which was 6 feet long, and 2 in compass, which had cost 40,000 *pardos*, that is, 54,000 French livres.

Another account of the *aloes-wood* is as follows:

The *aloes* is an aromatic wood, which comes chiefly from the kingdom of Champaa, a country situated on the east of Cambodia, called by the Chinese, *Tsiamfiaa*, whose king is tributary to the king of Cochinchina. He is obliged not only to give the best pieces of the *aloes-wood*, which is called *calembac*, and comes from the heart of the tree, to the king of Cochinchina, by way of tribute, but also to sell him all the wood that is taken from it; of which he carries on a great trade, by sending most of it to Japan. No person whatsoever can take any of that wood upon the spot, under pain of death. The Chinese and other idolaters make a great use of it, consuming vast quantities thereof in their perfumes, and in their sacrifices.

It is a large tree, which shoots forth many branches. It grows here and there in the woods, and is most carefully watched. The older the tree is, the more precious its wood becomes. I take it to be a kind of fig-tree, of which there are several sorts in those countries, whose fruit is not good to eat; but there is only one sort which produces the true *calembac* (it must be called thus, and not *calembouc*.) The Arabs call it *agalocum*, and under that name it was known, and very much esteemed, by the ancients. The Greeks named it *aloes*, and *xulo-aloes*, that is to say, the wood of *aloes*. The Hebrews stiled it *ahalon*, and *ahalos*; see Psalm xlv. and Proverbs, ch. vii. The Arabs brought it antiently from Malaca, where they bought it to sell to the Egyptians, the Syrians, and the Greeks. Malaca was formerly the general mart, or staple, for all the nations of Asia, who used to repair thither for trading in the most costly merchandizes. Thither sailed Solomon's fleet, which brought from thence, gold, *aloes-wood*, and other aromatic drugs. That trade of Malaca is dwindled almost to nothing since the Portuguese, and after them, the Dutch, have engrossed almost all the trade of the East-Indies.

The worst of *aloes-wood* is called *eagle-wood*, a name which the Portuguese gave it. There are several sorts of it, which are of different degrees of goodness. All the trees which produce the *eagle aloes* are of the fig-tree kind. There are some of them in the neighbourhood of Siam and Malaca, and even in some of the Sundry islands, but they are much inferior to the *calembac-wood*. This latter is very much used in physic among the East-Indians. It is reckoned excellent for strengthening the heart and the stomach; for palpitations and fainting fits; for shortness of breath, pains in the stomach, wind in the bowels, and other sorts of cholics. The Indians rub a piece of that wood upon a rough stone, on which they pour a little water, in order to separate from the wood some small particles, a certain quantity of which is a dose, which they give to swallow with some water, or arrack. True *calembac* is seldom to be met with in Europe.

The Indians have many superstitious notions concerning this tree. The name of this tree is commonly mistaken for that of a medicinal plant, called the *aloe-plant*. The former should be wrote with an *s*, and the latter without an *s*, to distinguish them.

The **ALOE PLANT**, is that plant which is cultivated in the French king's gardens at Paris, and which several curious persons also cultivate among their exotic plants: the druggists also often adorn their shops with it.

It grows in many places of the East and West-Indies; some also grow naturally in Europe, particularly in Spain, in the

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mountains

mountains of Sierra-Morena, where it grows to an extraordinary bigness and height. Its leaves are green, thick, tough, and prickly: a kind of reddish silk is drawn from them, which is proper to make lace. Some bits of that lace have been seen in France, which Monsieur Tournefort had carried thither from Spain. From the midst of the leaves there shoots up a stalk, which bears the blossom and the fruit of the plant. It produces a kind of white seed, extremely light, and hemispherical.

The aloe plants which have blowed several times in the royal garden at Paris, and particularly in the year 1664, have undeceived the world of a popular error, which had almost prevailed, even among the learned; namely, that those plants blow only once in 100 years, and that the blossom made a prodigious noise, when it opened. We are now used to see it blow, and are assured that not only no terrible noise is heard at the opening of the blossoms, but even no noise at all. Many of these plants are now cultivated in England, and skilful gardeners can make them blow in a short time, by putting the pots, or boxes, wherein they grow, into a bed of tanners-bark.

The aloe which is used in physic, and which farriers also use to cure horses, is the juice extracted from the root, or the leaves, of this plant, by incisions made into it; which juice is thickened in the sun.

They distinguish three sorts of aloe. The focotrine, or lucid, which is also called succotrine, and ciccotrine; the citrine, and the cabaline; which yet are only the same juice, more or less refined. The focotrine aloe is the most beautiful, and the best of all, and comes from the island of Zocotora, at the mouth of the Red Sea, or freights of Babelmandel, and from thence it has its name. The cabaline is the coarsest, the most earthy, and the worst of all; it is only given to horses, whence, perhaps, it has its name, viz. from caballa, or cavalla. The citrine is a medium for goodness between both. They prepare focotrine aloe in Jamaica, and send it over into England in large gourds.

The focotrine comes in small bladders, extremely thin. It ought to be friable, refinous, pretty light, clear, transparent, and of a fine green colour; or black, or brown, shining without, and of a citron-colour within, of a disagreeable, bitter taste; and being reduced into powder, it must be of a yellowish colour, as though it were gill.

It is the focotrine aloe that is used in physic; but it must be used with great discretion, it being a very strong purge. It is made use of in the composition of those pills which are called pills of Frankfort, or pills good for the appetite, and is also the chief ingredient of those called angelic pills.

ALOSE, a sort of fish, pretty much like the sardine, or pilchard, in shape, but a great deal larger. Some will have it to be the shad, but it is quite another fish, and is very scarce in England. It is one of those fish which are called passage fishes, or fishes of a season, because it never swims out of the sea into rivers but in the spring.

The roes of aloses are as much valued in the East-Indies as those of sturgeon are in Russia; and the trade of them is not much less considerable, they spending every year many ship loads of them.

The alose grows to the bigness of a salmon. It is covered with large thin scales, which are easily rubbed off. Its head is, as it were, squeezed in towards the upper part of its body: its mouth is peaked, and it has no teeth. There is, on the top of its head, over its eyes, a bone, or scale, on each side, which is smooth and bright. Its tongue is blackish; its back white, inclining to yellow; its sides and belly are of a silver colour. This fish is fond of salt; and, therefore, they bait it by throwing handfuls of salt into the places where they perceive any. It is a delicious meat, and contains a great deal of oil and volatile salt. When this fish is not very fresh, it has a fourth taste, which hurts the gums of those that eat it. There is, in its head, a stony bone, good for the stone and gravel, and for absorbing the acids, for it is an alkali. The stomach of the alose, being dried and reduced into powder, is proper to strengthen the stomach, being swallowed.

ALPAGNA, an animal much like the llamas and the vigognas, except that its legs are shorter, and its muzzle thicker and flatter, so that it something resembles a human face. The inhabitants of Peru reckon this animal among the beasts of burden, and make it carry 100 weight. Of its wool they make stuffs, ropes, and bags; and, of its bones, tools for weavers. They even make an advantage of its excrements, using it for fuel, both in their chambers and in the kitchen. The wool of the alpagna easily passes for that of the vigogna; and that of the latter, which comes from Peru into Spain, is almost always mixed with the former.

ALPHABET, among merchants and traders, is a kind of index, with the 24 letters in their natural order, in which are set down the names and surnames of those with whom open accounts are kept, and which refers to the folios of the ledger where those accounts are written in the form of debtor and creditor, serving to find easily, and without any trouble, such accounts as are necessary to be turned to.

ALPHÆNIX, is only the white barley-sugar, or twisted su-

gar, to which they give an extraordinary name, in order to render it more valuable.

This sugar, which is thought good for colds, is made of common sugar, which is boiled till it becomes easy to crack, when they pour it upon a marble table, greased with oil of sweet almonds, and they mould it into various figures with a brass crotchet. It is easy to falsify it with starch.

ALQUIER; which is also called **CANTAR**, a liquid measure used in Portugal to measure oil: it contains 6 cavados, or canadors. Two alquiers make an almude, or almunde.

ALQUIER is also a dry measure for grain at Lisbon. It is very small; for no less than 240 alquiers are requisite to make 19 septiers of Paris, or one last of Amsterdam, or 38 bushels of Bourdeaux: 60 alquiers make a muid, or bushel of Lisbon. From 118 to 120 alquiers make a tun of Nantz and Rochelle, and 20 bushels or 10 septiers of Paris, the tun of Vannes, which is 125 alquiers: 60 alquiers is a moy, which contains about three English quarters, and 2½ alquiers is an English bushel.

The measure of Oporto in Portugal is also called alquier, but is 20 per cent. bigger than that of Lisbon; so that the tun yields but 87 alquiers of Oporto, which must be understood proportionably of the other measures, the evaluation of which has been given above.

It has been observed already, that 60 alquiers make a muid, or bushel, of Lisbon; but Monsieur Ricard, in his treatise of the commerce of Amsterdam, asserts that 54 only make that bushel.

The corn exported from the isle of St. Michael into that of Madeira affords 4 alquiers advantage, or profit, per 60; and 60 at St. Michael's produce 64 at Madeira, which is an advantage of 6½ per cent.

The alquiers are also in use in other places of the king of Portugal's dominions, particularly in the Azores islands, and in the isle of St. Michael; and in those two places, according to the same Monsieur Ricard, the muid, or bushel, contains 60 alquiers there, and 240 alquiers make a last of Amsterdam. **ALQUIFOU**, or **ARQUIFOU***, as the merchants spell it, is a sort of mineral lead ore, very heavy, easily reduced into powder, and hard to melt. When it is broke it parts into shining scales, of a whitish colour. The potters use it to give their works a green varnish: and in England it is commonly called potter's ore.

* The former way of spelling that word is used by Lemery (Traité des Drogues Simples) under the word Plumbum. The second by Monsieur Astruc, in his Memoires pour l'Histoire Naturelle de Languedoc, pag. 368.

The alquifous come from England in large lumps of various sizes and weights. It must be chosen in large lumps, very heavy, the scales bright, and resembling tin-glass.

The peasants of Durfoit, in the diocese of Alais in France, who work at the lead-mine which is near that place, give the name of archifou to the lead-ore they take out of it. The quantity they can get is not considerable; and, therefore, they work at it only when they have nothing else to do. It is used for a varnish in earthen ware. That varnish is in great request among the potters, as being much finer and clearer than that which is to be found in Vivarez, which Monsieur Astruc thinks appears plainly to the sight. As for the shining and crystalline stone with which the archifou is mixed, it is of no manner of use.

Though there is some archifou in Languedoc, as has been observed, yet they send a great deal thither from England. There is also a great quantity of it sent there from Leghorn, and some from Barbary and from Sardinia.

ALSACE, a province formerly belonging to Germany, but almost intirely yielded to France by the peace of Munster. It is separated from imperial Germany by the Rhine. It is bounded on the north by the palatinate of the Rhine; on the east the Rhine separates it from the marquisate of Baden, and from the countries of Ortnaw and Brisgaw; on the south it is bounded by Switzerland, and by the principalities of Montbelliard and Porentrai; and, on the west, the mountains of Vouge, or Vosge, part of it from Lorrain.

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There is not so great a trade in this province as one might expect from the fruitfulness of its soil, and from the abundance of commodities proper for trade which are there to be met with. It is very probable that the inhabitants neglect applying themselves to trade for no other reason, but because being naturally idle, and finding all the necessaries of life within their own country, there are but few of them who care to trouble themselves with the labour and cares which unavoidably attend an extensive commerce, particularly that which is carried on with foreigners. And, indeed, a gentleman well known for his integrity, and for the considerable employments he has filled in Alsace during thirty years, and by the military posts to which his merit has raised him by degrees, observes, in the memoirs he was pleased to communicate concerning the trade of this province, that the indolence

dolence of the people, or their love of rest and quietness, is so great, that, during the wars, which continued for near half a century, without hardly any interruption, between Germany and France, none of the inhabitants would enter upon any undertaking for the French armies, though the sums employed for provisions, artillery, magazines for soldiers upon the march, extraordinaries of war, fortifications, &c. amounted yearly to above 8 or 10,000,000 of livres. There were only a few bankers of Strasburg, the capital of this province, and these not very rich, who made some remittances of money for the troops. That gentleman adds, that it is from the same principle of their natural indolence, that the inhabitants of Upper and lower Alsace suffer the peasants of Switzerland, who come thither every year, to gather their corn, cut their hay, and manage their vintage; though by that means great sums of money are yearly carried out of their country, which they might save, had they but industry enough to do their work themselves.

Strangers, therefore, carry on the greatest part of the trade of Alsace, importing such commodities as the province wants, and exporting great quantities of its produce. This trade extends very far into Germany on one side, towards the Upper Rhine, and, on the other, into all the countries situate from Strasburg to the mouth of that river.

The trade of STRASBURG consists in tobacco, brandy, madder, for dyeing scarlet, saffron, leather, tallow, wood, and large cabbages.

Part of these commodities are carried to Mentz, and into Holland; and of cabbages only, which seems a very trifling article, there are sold in these two places to the value of above 30,000 crowns every year.

The manufactures are mockado and bergamo tapestries, small woollen cloths, blankets, fustians, and linnens of hemp and flax. There is likewise a copper-mill, and a mill for spices. At Strasburg the magistrates alone carry on the trade of wood for fuel, which they sell even to 8 livres per cord; nor will they suffer any private person to have a warehouse of such wood in the city, nor even in the neighbourhood.

It must be observed, with regard to this trade of wood, that, though the province of Alsace abounds with all sorts of wood, yet most of what is consumed at Strasburg comes from the other side of the Rhine, even in war time; by which means above the value of 200,000 livres is yearly sent out of the kingdom, without the least profit to the kings subjects.

The tanneries are also pretty considerable at Strasburg; but they scarce tan any other but what they call small leather, as shamois, goats, and sheep's skins; on which the city takes a duty of 4 sols per skin.

The trade of the rest of the province consists, first in timber, which Lower Alsace produces in abundance, most whereof is fit for ship-building, and is sent to Holland by the Rhine.

Secondly, In wine of Upper Alsace, which is likewise exported into Holland, whence it is sent into Sweden and Denmark, where the Dutch sell it for rhenish, or old hock.

Thirdly, In brandy and vinegar, which are made in those places whence they get the wine: these are designed partly again for Holland, and partly for Germany.

Fourthly, In wheat, rye, and oats, which grow both in Upper and Lower Alsace, and of which the Switzers buy up great quantities.

Fifthly, In hogs and other fattened cattle, which are almost all consumed within the country.

Sixthly, In tobacco, of which they sell above 50,000 quintals per annum, in Switzerland, Germany, Lorraine, and in the towns on the river Saar.

Seventhly, In saffron, turpentine, hemp, flax, tartar, tallow, gun-powder for fowling-pieces, chestnuts, prunes, and other fruits, and also in all other sorts of herbs and plants, as onions, cabbages, poppies, anise and fennel, and most other kind of seeds.

The trade of all these commodities, and particularly of feed, is very considerable, France, as well as Holland, taking off a great deal. As for chestnuts, prunes, and other fruit, the greatest demand they have for them is from Cologne, Frankfurt, and Basil.

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It must be observed, with regard to the trade which these two last cities have with Alsace, that it is almost entirely carried on by land-carriage, because of the danger there is in sending merchandizes by water, it being very difficult to draw vessels along the banks of the Rhine, and the rapidity of that river rendering the navigation of it very dangerous.

There are a great many manufactures in Alsace, but not of any very dear or very fine stuffs; the most considerable are of tiretaries, half of wool and half of thread, of buckram, of canvas, and some linnens.

The tiretaries and linnens are consumed in the province; the canvas and buckram are sent into England, Holland, and Germany.

There are in Alsace mines of silver, copper, iron, and lead; but none, except the iron mines, are plentiful: these lie to-

wards Befort. The silver, copper, and lead mines are at Giromani, St. Maria of the mines, Aftembarc, and Munfter.

The silver mine of Giromani produces yearly about sixteen hundred marks of fine metal: that of copper, or rather of silver, which affords also copper, above twenty-four thousand weight of this last metal. But the expence of working these mines is almost equal to the advantage; and the duke of Mazarine, who owns them, does not get from them above five or six thousand livres a year clear profit. For preparing and melting the iron ore of the mines of Befort, there are several forges and furnaces in the neighbouring forests, and for those of copper a great many furnaces and mills.

Monsieur Mackout of Hirschheim, knight of the military order of St. Lewis of the body of the nobility, and a magistrate of the city of Strasburg, set up, in the year 1730, a manufactory of cast steel. It is after a considerable labour, and great expences, that this worthy magistrate has carried that manufactory to a great degree of perfection: Nor was it without meeting with innumerable difficulties, and great opposition; but at last he has demonstrated, that it is possible to make iron in Alsace as good steel as that which they got from Germany, and which is made in Sweden, Stiria, Carinthia, Tyrol, or any where else. The court of France being informed of the success of this new manufactory, the king has honoured it with his royal protection, by granting to the Sieur Mackout an exclusive privilege for the whole province of Alsace.

A L T I N, a money of account in Muscovy. It is worth three copecks, 100 of which make a ruble, worth about four shillings and six-pence sterling. See **R U S S I A**.

AL TOM, a name given in several parts of the Grand Seigneur's dominions, particularly in Hungary, to what the Europeans commonly call a sequin. However that name is seldom given but to sequins stamped with the Turkish monarch's stamp.

ALUM. See **ALLUM**.

AMALGAMATION, a chemical operation, by which gold or silver is reduced into a kind of paste by incorporating it with mercury or quicksilver, according to certain proportions of weight or quantity.

TO AMALGAMATE, is to dissolve some metals by means of quicksilver.

All metals may be amalgamated with mercury, except copper and iron; which being sulphureous and earthy, are too different from mercury to be incorporated therewith.

TO AMALGAMATE gold is to reduce it into a paste, by uniting and incorporating it with mercury.

Amalgamated gold, is said, not only of gold reduced into a paste, but also of water, or painter's gold, or gold reduced into a calx, mixed with mercury, for gilding metals, and particularly silver. The proportion of painter's gold and mercury used by gilders of metal, is of an ounce of mercury to a drachm of gold.

Gold is amalgamated by putting the thinnest plates of that metal that can be made, into a crucible, with mercury; and, after they have been both set over a fire, the gold dissolves into small particles, like meal, and mercury being a moist substance, reduces it into a paste. When the crucible is taken from the fire, and sufficiently cooled, the gold and mercury are poured into a vessel full of common water, whence it is taken out in the form of a white paste. With this paste silver and other metals are commonly gilt.

Gold takes of mercury, by amalgamation, three times as much as it's own weight.

The minters, refiners, and silversmiths, also use the word amalgamate, to signify the operation which is performed in the mill where they put their sweeps, as they call them, to wash off the earth and filth; in order that the mercury which is poured into the tub being well ground, may attract the imperceptible silver or gold particles that are mixed with the filth, and make them into a paste.

AMAN, a sort of blue cotton cloth, which comes from the Levant by the way of Aleppo.

AMASIA, a province of Asia Minor, is bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea, on the east by Armenia, on the west by Anatolia Proper, and on the south by Caramania and Aladulia. It is divided into three districts, viz.

Pontus Galaticus, Pontus Polemoniacus, Pontus Cappadociae.

PONTUS GALATICUS is situate on the northern side of Galatia, having the Euxine on the north, and Pontus Polemoniacus on the east. The chief place is

AMASIA, called by the Turks **AMNASAN**, which, though advantageously situate on a navigable river, large enough to carry ships of the greatest burthen up to the town from the Euxine Sea, has no considerable commerce. The chief is a manufactory of red linnens, which are called Levantine cloths.

PONTUS POLEMONIACUS lies along the same Euxine coast, having the Galaticus on the west, and the Cappadocicus on the east. It's chief city is

NEOCÆSARIA, or **TOCAT**, which was burnt down about the beginning of the present century, to the ruin of a great number of merchants, who had considerable warehouses in it.

The excellent situation for trade is an effectual means to recover it from such a disaster. It is, indeed, rightly looked upon as the center of the Asiatic commerce. The caravans of Diarbeker come hither in 18 days (men on horseback perform the journey in 12). Those from Tocat to Sinope go it in 6, and to Prufa in 20; and those that go hence to Smyrna, without turning to Prufa or Angora, take up about 27 days with mules, and 40 with camels. Those caravans carry on a very considerable commerce into all these parts, as well as into Persia. One of the chief manufactures of this place is the silken, in which are used vast quantities, not only of the Turkish, but also of the Persian silk, in making light stuffs, buttons, frogs, &c. The next is that of leather, which is chiefly of the yellow colour, and is carried by land to Samsom, a small sea-port on the Euxine, and thence into all parts of Turkey and Europe. Some red linnens are likewise here manufactured, which, though inferior to those of Persia, are sent in great quantities into Muscovy, Tartary, and even into France. They are called Levantine cloths, but are chiefly made here and at Amasia. But the most considerable manufacture of Tocat, is that of copper, which they work here in great quantities, and in variety of utensils, such as pots, kettles, candlesticks, &c. which they send to Constantinople, Egypt, and other parts. They have their copper from the mines of Trebizond and Castamboul, the former about three, and the latter about 10 days journey from their city. About a mile out of Tocat is a large village, chiefly inhabited by christians, who are mostly employed in tanning of leather. The greatest part of the people about Tocat, even as far as 30 or 40 miles, are employed in the iron and copper manufactures.

PONTUS CAPPADOCICUS extends itself from the Polemoniacus eastward, quite to Colchis and the frontiers of Georgia; having the Lesser Armenia, and the river Euphrates, for it's southern, and the same Euxine Sea for it's northern, boundaries. It's chief place is

TREBIZOND, formerly one of the most flourishing cities of Asia, but now almost in ruins, and it's harbour capable only of receiving saics; which, however, carry some of the goods of Armenia and Persia to Constantinople from this port; so that it may be yet said to have the best trade of any in the Black Sea.

The AMAZONS RIVER in America, begins at the foot of the mountains called Cordillera, about 8 or 10 leagues east of Quito in Peru. It runs first from west to east, turns afterwards south, and then, after many windings and turnings, holds it's main course east, till it falls into the Atlantic Ocean. It's fountains and mouths are very near under the equator, and the main of it's stream is under the 4th and 5th degrees of south latitude. The rivers which fall into it on the north side, rise about one or two degrees north latitude, and those on the south side begin some of them in 10, some in 15, others in 20 degrees south latitude. It's channel from Junta de los Reyes, about 60 leagues from it's head, till it is joined by the river Marañon, is from one to two leagues in breadth. From thence it is from three to four, but grows broader, as it advances towards the Atlantic Ocean, into which it falls by a mouth 50 or 60 leagues broad, between Cape North on the coast of Guaiana, and Cape Zaparate, on the coast of Brazil. From the spring-head to it's mouth it is 8 or 900 leagues in a direct line, but the windings and turnings make it about 1200. The rivers which run into it on the right and left, have their course from 100 to 600 leagues in length, and their banks are well inhabited by multitudes of people. The nations who inhabit about this, and the other rivers that run into it, are reckoned one hundred and fifty; and their villages so thick in many places, that they are within call of one another. Among these people the Homagues, who live towards the head of this great river, are mostly noted for their manufactures of cotton; the corosipares for their earthen ware; the Surines, who live between latitude 5 and 10, for their joiners work. They make war upon one another, to purchase slaves for their drudgery, but otherwise they treat them kindly enough. Their forests afford materials for building the largest ships. They have many trees of 5 or 6 fathoms round in the trunk, and inexhaustible stores of ebony and Brazil-wood, cocoa, tobacco, sugar canes, cotton, a scarlet dye called rocou, besides gold and silver in their mines, and in the sand of their rivers. Among the rivers that fall into the great one, the Napo, Agarie, Puromaye, Janupape, Corupatube, and others, have gold in their sands. Below Corupatube, there are mines of several forts in the mountains. In those of Yaguare there are mines of gold; in Pieora there are mines of silver; on the river Paragoche there are precious stones of several forts, and mines of sulphur, &c. near other rivers. On the Amazons river, about 200 leagues from the sea, there is a bosphorus, or streight, one mile broad, where the tide comes up, so that it may serve as a key to all the trade of those countries. But the Portuguese being already possessed of Para, on the side of Brazil, Corupa, and Esthero, on the side of Guaiana, and Cogemina, an island at the

mouth of the river, they may, by fortifying the island of the Sun, or some other place in it's chief outlet, be masters of all the trade. The people know not the use of money but barter one thing for another, and will give 20 s. worth of provisions, &c. for a glass-bead, or jews-harp. See PERU.

AMBASSADOR, is a public minister, sent from one sovereign prince as a representative of his person, to another. It is not consistent with our work to take other notice of this article, than as the same may have affinity with commerce. Sir Thomas Challoner having been sent ambassador to Spain, by queen Elizabeth remitted a complaint to the queen, that his chests had been searched: upon which the queen demanded the opinion of her council in the point, who upon the whole matter resolved the action into this *Legato omnia æqui bonique ferendo dummodo principis honor non directè violetur*, the very words of Mr. Camden; an ambassador must bear all things patiently; provided that the honour of the prince whom he serves be not directly violated.

R E M A R K S .

The office of an ambassador does not include a protection private but public; for the king his master, not for any several subjects otherwise than as it concerns the king and his public ministers to protect them, and procure their protection in foreign countries, in the nature of an office and negotiation of state; therefore their quality is to mediate and prosecute for them, or any one of them, at the council-table, which is as it were a court of state; but when they come to settled courts, which do and must observe essential forms of proceedings, they must be governed by them: and therefore in the case of Don Diego Serviento de Acuna, ambassador leiger from the king of Spain, who libelled in the admiralty-court, as procurator-general for all his master's subjects, against one Jolliff and Tucker, and sir Richard Bingley, for two ships and their lading of divers kinds, of the goods of the subjects of the king of Spain generally, and not naming of them adduct. ad port. de Munster, in the preface of the libel generally against them all, and then proceeds and charges them severally thus: That Jolliff and Tucker, captain piratæ, in alto mari bellicè dictas naves aggressi sunt, & per vim & violentiam took them, and that they were adductæ in partes Hiberniæ, and that, coming into the hands of Sir Richard Bingley, he converted them to his own use (not saying where) and, refusing to render them, being required, it was there held that a prohibition should go, for the matter is triable merely at the common law, and that such a procurator was not good, though to an ambassador.

Don Alfonso de Valesco, ambassador from the Catholic king attached tobaccos at land here, with one Corvero, a subject of the king of Spain, brought hither, and the ambassador by the libel supposed to belong to his master, as goods confiscated, as all other his goods were. Sir John Watts, the plaintiff in the suggestion, prayed a prohibition, which was granted accordingly, for the property of goods here at land must be tried by the common law, however the property be guided.—See ADMIRALTY; and it was likewise ruled, that if any subject of a foreign prince bring goods into this kingdom, though they were confiscated before, the property shall not be questioned but at the common law of England. Don Alfonso vers. Corvero. Mich. 9 Jac. Hob. 212. Hill. 9 Jac. upon the like libel by Don Pedro Surega, ambassador for Spain.

By the civil law, the moveable goods of an ambassador, which are accounted an accession to his person, cannot be seized on, neither as a pledge, nor for payment of a debt, nor by order or execution of judgment; nor by the king or states leave where he resides (as some conceive), for all action ought to be far from an ambassador, as well that which toucheth his necessities as his person, that he may have full security; if therefore he hath contracted any debt, he is to be called upon kindly, and, if he refuses, then letters of request are to go to his master*; so that at last that course may be taken with him, as with debtors in another territory: to some this may seem hard, yet kings, who cannot be compelled, want not creditors. But the lord Coke seems to be of another opinion†, for, as to contracts and debts that be good *jure gentium*, he must answer here.

* Grotius, lib. ii. cap. 18.

† Coke 4 Instit. fol. 153. Certain it is, that none dareth presume to meddle either with their persons, goods, or servants without leave had, the contempt of which hath been punished with imprisonment. Lucas 4. Vide stat. 7 Ann. cap. 12. § 5.

AMBER (YELLOW) or KARABE, or YELLOW SUC-CINUM, in Latin SUCCINUM CITRINUM. It is a kind of gum, or rosin of a tree, which is commonly found in the Baltic, on the coast of Prussia. The wind blows it on shore, and the inhabitants, who are afraid lest the sea, which brought it hither, should carry it off again, go and gather it in the height of the storm.

Some authors pretend there is yellow amber that is a fossil; and

and that in Sweden, as well as in Prussia, there is some found in the sands, at a very great distance from the sea. And indeed, we read in the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1790, that some yellow amber has also been sometimes found in the clefts of some rocks in Provence, the most naked and the most barren; which would incline one to think, that this gum is a mineral, and not a vegetable, and that the sea-amber of Dantzick falls not into the sea from some tree, but is carried into it by some land-flood.

Agricola reckons it among the bitumens; some suppose it to be produced in the sands of a lake called Cephisick, in the neighbourhood of the Atlantic Ocean. There are many other opinions, but all so improbable, that we may as well keep to the first we have mentioned; since it is certain, that the greatest part of yellow amber comes from the Baltic and Prussia: unless it be said, that there are two sorts of yellow amber, the one a mineral, and the other a vegetable gum.

It is very probable that this gum, or resin, is formed at first upon poplar and fir-trees, of which there are whole forests on the coast of Sweden, which is very high; and that it is driven into the sea, after being separated from the coast of Prussia, which is very low. The flies, ants, and other insects, which are often inclosed within pieces of yellow amber, seem to prove that it is a production of the land, and not of the sea.

It is thought, that some Germans have the art of mollifying yellow amber; and, after what manner soever the thing is performed, it is probable that those little animals may be the agreeable impositions of art, rather than a work of nature.

Yellow amber has the property of attracting small particles of straw, paper, or other light things; the cause of which has not been so satisfactorily accounted for as could be wished.

Yellow amber is made use of in several precious and delicate pieces of workmanship: it seems, however, that it is not at present in so high an esteem in France or England as it was formerly, especially with regard to necklaces, which, from the court ladies, have passed to children and maid-servants. But it has kept up its price in Austria, and other parts of Germany, in Poland, in Hungary, and in some parts of Italy.

The best worked amber comes from Poland and Hungary, where it also sells dearest.

It is of some use in physic, provided it be the true karabe; many people having the art to counterfeit it with turpentine and cotton, or with yolks of eggs and gum arabic. Others sell gum of copal in the room of it.

From yellow amber is extracted a tincture, a spirit, volatile salt, and an oil: that oil serves to make a varnish with spirits of wine.

An abstract from a letter of Mr. Sendelius, M. D. at Elbing, to Mr. John Philip Breynius, M. D. at Dantzick, concerning the amber of the Indies, wrote in the year 1722. Extracted from the Bibliotheque Germanique, tom. v. p. 121.

It is but a few years since, that this amber is known in Europe; it was brought hither by the Dutch, from the kingdom of Benin, which is a part of Guinea. Mr. Breyn having received some of this amber; sent part of it to Mr. Sendelius, to examine it, and compare it with that of Prussia. Here follows what is most curious in the result of his observations.

This amber, which is found in abundance in the kingdom of Benin, is a proof that that country, as well as Prussia, is plentifully stocked with that bitumen, unless one would say that it is a vegetable production; which the author would not dispute, especially with those who have seen none. All the bits of this amber are not equally beautiful. There are some, whose brightness and transparency imitate that of crystal or diamonds, if one does but never so little take off the crust, or most coarse parts. Some others, on the contrary, are spread over, either in the whole, or in part, with small clouds, which darken them, and in which you may perceive little animals, some of which are like our insects, and others are peculiar to the country where that amber is found. There are other pieces which may be filed foul, because there are earthy particles mixed with them, though in a greater or lesser proportion; among the latter, there are some that have their laminæ, or thin plates, placed over one another; which would incline one to think, that this new amber, like that of Prussia, was liquid before it became hardened. This amber, when rubbed, but especially when burnt, exhales a smell, which shews that it contains a very subtle volatile salt. This smell, which is equal to that of the best mastic, not to say that it excels it, is not by far so agreeable as that of the amber of Prussia. But, if this new amber is inferior to that in this respect, it may vie with it with regard to its attractive quality, or electricity. As for hardness, which is one of the chief properties of amber, and gives it a place among jewels, it results from Mr. Sendelius's observations, that this amber of Benin is not of a very solid consistency. He adds, that water, into which the amber of Prussia is plunged, when it becomes hot by being worked, though it does not grow soft, has no efficacy upon this new amber.

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and will not prevent its breaking: it would therefore be requisite to give this amber a hardness, which it has not, in order to render it of a more general use. But all the methods which Mr. Sendelius tried for that purpose proved ineffectual; and he is apt to think, that this amber is nothing but a compound, or mixture, of gum and resin. His conjecture has even been confirmed by experience. For, having made a dissolution of this amber with spirits of wine tartarized, he found, after decantation, a mellenigenous gum, to which nothing could restore its former hardness, because the resinous part had been dissolved by the operation. All this, together with the small variety observed in its colours, in comparison to that of Prussia, does not seem very likely to bring it into any esteem. However, Mr. Sendelius is still in hopes of making burning glasses of this amber, because of its great transparency. He has even, by the dissolution he made of it, got a varnish, which, on account of its novelty, may perhaps serve as a paint to the fair sex.

We have mentioned hitherto several opinions concerning the nature of yellow amber: let us observe farther, that the author of the Spectacle de la Nature, tom. iii. p. 311, thinks it has the same original with jet, which seems to be nothing but a black bitumen, mixed with particles of iron, and hardened like a stone: yellow amber having the same smell, and the same electricity, after it is heated by rubbing.

Mr. Hartman, a Prussian, in his dissertation inserted in the Abridgement of the Philosophical Transactions, tom. iv. p. 473, tells us, that people not only dived to the bottom of the sea, in order to gather amber along the coast of Prussia, whither it is carried by the violence of storms, from the beds where it runs, but that it is also found in the very ground, in several places of Prussia, commonly lying among vitriolic and bituminous matters, which lie in beds, or lays, one over the other, like so many different thin leaves, which at the first view one would take for wood. That amber is one of the best revenues of the king of Prussia, who appropriated the possession of it to himself.

The most eastern nations of Asia, and particularly the Japanese, give a higher price for yellow amber than for amber-grease, and value it even more than precious stones, of which, except coral, they make but little or no use. But, among all the several sorts of amber, the yellow transparent amber, which is so common, and so little valued among the inhabitants of Europe, is that for which the Japanese give the highest price, because of its perfection, and the antiquity they ascribe to it. They despise all the other sorts of amber. This is what Kœmpfer acquaints us with.

Liquid AMBER, a kind of resin, that is clear, reddish, and very liquid when new, but becomes very thick as it grows old. It is also ranked among balms. It runs from incisions made in certain trees, which grow in New Spain, and which the natives there call *ocogol*. When it is new and still liquid, it is called oil of liquid amber; and, when old and thick, balm of liquid amber. It comes into England in barrels. See the article BALM towards the end.

AMBERGRIS, or AMBERGREASE, a kind of grey gum, of a sweet and agreeable smell. As much as this precious gum is known, by the great use that is made of it, and the high esteem it is in every where, as to its origin, it is but little known. What we are certain of is, that it is found on the sea-coast in several places, especially when, after some storm, the agitation of the waves have cast it on the shore.

REMARKS.

The places where there is commonly most of it, are that part of the African coast, and of the neighbouring islands, which extends from the Mosambic coast to the Red Sea; the isles of St. Maria and Diego Ruis, which lie near the island of Madagascar; the Manille islands, and the coast beyond the Cape of Good Hope.

The ambergrease of the West-Indies is generally thrown upon the coast of the Bermuda Islands, in the streight of Bahama; and upon the coast of those islands which lie very near the peninsula of Jucatan, between the gulph of Honduras and that of Mexico; some is also found in certain places upon the coast of the Mediterranean.

Kœmpfer asserts, that there is ambergrease found upon the coast of Saxuma (which he writes Satzuma) and in those of the islands of Riaku, as Kœmpfer calls them, which I take to be those of Liqueio, to the southward of Saxuma, in the kingdom of Japan. But there comes a greater quantity of ambergrease from Khumano, that is to say, from the southern coast of Kiinokuni, and Iga (spelt Isje by Kœmpfer) and some other neighbouring provinces of the same kingdom.

Mr. Neumann says, that there also comes ambergrease from the Molucca islands, from those to the west of Sumatra, from Borneo, and from Cape Comorin, near Malabar; as also from the coast of Æthiopia, which from Sofala to Brama abound with ambergrease.

The Indians, who inhabit the islands near the coast of Jucatan, have a pretty curious way of gathering ambergrease. When there has been a great storm, and it is probable that ambergrease shall have been cast upon the shore by the waves,

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those Indians, who are tributary to the Spaniards, run to the shore, to prevent certain birds, who are very fond of this gum, from eating it. They go against the wind, till they smell the ambergrease, which, being fresh, exhales a very strong scent. When they do not smell it any longer, they go back, and thus find it at last upon the sand. It also happens pretty often that the birds, being drawn thither by the scent, shew them where it lies.

There are several opinions concerning the original of ambergrease; but, though most of them are transmitted to us from the antients, we are not much the wiser.

Some assert that this precious gum is formed only of honeycombs and wax, which tumble down from the rocks*. Others say it is nothing but the excrements of some birds. Others again, that it is the spawn, or sperm of a certain kind of whales, or some amphibious sea-animal, but this is mere conjecture; for there have been some times such large heaps, or collections of this ambergrease found, that it is not natural to have recourse to that explication. There are some who maintain it is nothing but the skum of the sea. However, all agree that these several matters become solid, and acquire their scent, by the agitation of the waves, by the saltness of the sea, and by the heat of the sun, which purifies and bakes them.

* This is the famous Monsieur J. B. Denys's opinion, in the second conference of the Journal de Savans for the year 1672; but it is refuted at large by Kœmpfer, in his history of Japan, Supplement, pag. 46.

There is still another opinion concerning the original of ambergrease more modern than those already mentioned, and more probable. They pretend that this gum is nothing but a kind of bitumen, which, coming liquid out of the bowels of the earth, at the bottom of the sea, grows thick and condenses in proportion as it rises; and that this is the reason why such large pieces of it are seen, which cannot be accounted for by the other hypothesis.

Kœmpfer maintains the antient opinion, according to which it is a kind of bitumen, or greasy subterraneous substance, which acquires the like consistency. And yet we have seen, that Monsieur Savary looks upon this opinion as the most modern.

Its scent is thought to be natural, which is proved by several other odoriferous gums, of which nature herself has bestowed their perfume.

The largest piece of ambergrease, of which we have had hitherto any knowledge, is that which was carried into Holland towards the end of the seventeenth century. It is almost round, of above two feet diameter, and weighs 182 pounds. The duke of Tuscany had offered 50,000 crowns for it. It is still to be seen in the East-India house at Amsterdam, and is looked upon by Virtuoso's as an extraordinary production of nature.

This is undoubtedly the same piece of ambergrease mentioned by Kœmpfer, which weighed 185 pounds Dutch weight. It was sold by the king of Tidor to the Dutch East-India company, for 11,000 rix-dollars. It is of a greyish colour, and of a very good kind. Its figure is pretty much like that of a tortoise, whose head and tail had been cut off. See Valentini Musæum Musæor, lib. v. cap. 28. The biggest pieces of ambergrease which had been seen till then, and were looked upon as being of a prodigious size, did not exceed 40 pounds weight.

Several of our voyage-writers tell us that ambergrease is thrown up by the sea on the coast of India and China, but whence it comes is unknown: we only know that the best of it is thrown upon the Barbary coast, or upon the confines of the land of Negroes, towards Schar, and places thereabouts. It is of a bluish-white, in round lumps.

The inhabitants of this country have camels trained up to the business, which they mount, and go in search of it by moonshine, and ride for that purpose along-shore. The camels are broke to this; and, as soon as they perceive a piece of ambergrease, they bend their knees, and the rider picks it up.

There is another sort, which swims in great lumps upon the surface of the sea, almost like the body of an ox, or a little less, and are very weighty. When a certain fish of the whale-kind, called Tal, sees these floating lumps, he swallows the same, and is thereby killed. The whale being seen floating upon the surface, those who are accustomed to this kind of fishery, and know when these whales have swallowed ambergrease, instantly go out to him in their boats, and, darting him with iron harpoons, they tow him to shore, where they split him down the back, and take out the ambergrease. What they find about the belly of the creature is commonly spoiled, by contracting an unpleasant scent; but that which has not been infected by ordure in the belly of the whale is perfectly good.

Ambergrease ought to be chosen very clear, thoroughly dry, very light, in fine pieces, intirely grey without; of the same colour, but spotted with black spots, within; of a sweet and pleasant scent; and, above all, care must be taken that it be not adulterated, or mixed with gums, or other drugs, by which means it is easily counterfeited. You must beware of that which is moist, flabby, or softish, and foul.

Ambergrease is used by perfumers, by physicians and apothecaries in some prescriptions, and by confectioners in several sorts of sweet meats: it is also sometimes put into chocolate. There are likewise extracts, essences, and tinctures made of it. The best essence of ambergrease comes from Holland and Portugal.

The Commerce of Ambergrease at Amsterdam.

They sell at Amsterdam two sorts of amber, namely ambergrease and black amber.

Ambergrease sells from 8 to 16 guilders per ounce. The discount for prompt payment is 1 per cent.

The price of black amber is from 5 to 8 guilders per ounce, with the same discount, or deduction, for prompt payment.

AMBER-SEED, or MUSK-SEED, is the seed of a plant which grows in the Antilles islands in America, and in Egypt. Its smell is very much like that of true musk. The perfumers use it, and the pater-noster-makers make bead-strings, or chaplets, of it.

Father Labat, in his Voyage to Western Africa, observes, that the plant of amber-musk grows in plenty perfectly well, and without any culture, throughout the whole country of Galam; that the negroes make no use of it, not even the women, though they are very fond of sweet scents. When this seed meets with a fat and deep soil, it grows to the height of 6 or 7 feet, provided it be near some tree to support it, to which it clings, by surrounding it; when it wants that support, it falls down, and creeps on the ground, as soon as it is about 2 feet high. Its stalk is round, pretty tender, garnished with small, branched shoots; it is hairy and whitish. Its leaves are always coupled, but they are unequal, the uppermost being much larger than the undermost. They are dented; and though the dentings are not deep, yet they form very acute angles, which makes them look as if they were garnished with points. They are flabby, fleshy, of a bright green on the upper part, and of a paler green on the lowermost. It is pretended that these leaves, boiled in water, and made into a cataplasm, are excellent for the cure of tumors, or swellings.

The seed, which grows plentifully in the fruit of this plant, is hot to the first degree, and is used with success in some distempers. It is said that those who sell musk increase the quantity of it by an addition of these seeds.

AMBREADA. Thus, they call the false, or factitious amber, which the Europeans use in their trade with the negroes on the coast of Africa, and particularly on the river Senegal. There are some large and red pieces of it, 1000 of which, making 20 ropes, or strings, weigh three pounds. There are others small, and also red, which weigh but two pounds and a half.

AMBULANT, or AMBULATORY. They give in France the name of ambulant commissioners to those commissioners, or clerks, of the king's farms, who have no settled office, but visit all the offices within a certain district, to see that nothing be done in them against the king's right and the interest of the farm.

AMBULANT, is also said at Amsterdam of those brokers, or exchange-agents, who have not been sworn before the magistrates. They transact business like the former, but their testimony is not received in the courts of justice. See AGENTS of EXCHANGE.

AMEND. To amend a work, is to correct, or rectify the faults of it. In France the regulations made with regard to the woollen manufacturers order, that woollen cloths, and other stuffs, that cannot be amended, shall be cut into pieces two ells long, sometimes without a fine, and sometimes with. Among the artificers and handicraftsmen in France, those works that are seized by the juries, and cannot be amended, are liable to be confiscated.

AMENDABLE, what can be amended, corrected, or rectified. That word is very much used in the statutes of the companies, or corporations, of tradesmen in France, and is said of those works seized by the juries, because they are faulty, but which can be rectified, and, therefore, are not liable to be confiscated. At Paris it is the chamber, or court, of the police, that judges whether a piece of work is amendable or not.

AMENDABLE, from Amende, a fine, is also in France of those artificers, or workmen, who deserve to be fined for transgressing against the statutes and rules of their corporations.

AMERICA, the largest part of the four the world is divided into, lies to the west of Europe and Africa, from which it is parted by the Atlantic ocean; on the other side it has the Pacific, or South sea, which separates it from Asia. This vast continent continued unknown to the rest of the world for all the ages that passed from the Creation to the year of our Lord 1492, when it was first discovered by Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, employed for that purpose by Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain.

Yet this brave adventurer had not the honour of giving his own name to this new world, but was robbed of it by America Vesputius, a Florentine, who was sent in 1497, by Emanuel, king of Portugal, to continue the discoveries begun by Columbus.

It is pretended, indeed, by the French, who are unwilling their own nation should be without a share of the glory of the discovery, that Columbus had the first hint of this unknown world from one Betincourt, whom they make the first discoverer of the Azores, or Terceira islands.

The Spaniards lay a claim, likewise, to this honour, and say that one Captain Aldres, a countryman of theirs, who died at Madeira, had been, with two others, cast on the American coast by a tempest, and that he left behind him such directions and observations as quite convinced Columbus, into whose hands they had fallen, of the reality of such a continent, and the probability of finding it out.

We must not omit that the Welsh assert a much more ancient title to it than either of the former; for it is related that prince Madoc, the son of Owen Gwyneth, was, with his fleet, cast on the coast of Florida, as early as the year 1190, or according to some 1170; and that he sent for colonies from his native country, which settled there. Though this is by many looked on as fabulous, yet it evidently carries some marks of truth with it; for Meredith ap Rheife, who gives us the account, died several years, before Columbus set about his expedition. And it receives no small confirmation from the affinity that has been observed between the language of the Welsh and some of the Indian nations. Whether any of these ever returned, or whether they purposely concealed their new settlement from their own nation, it remained still unknown to the rest of the Europeans till the time of Columbus.

The Spaniards gave it the name of the New World, and not improperly, it being such an immense tract that it exceeds any of the other three parts of the old one, and, indeed, is little less in extent than all the three parts put together.

It was called also the West-Indies, as being near equal in wealth with the other Indies, and was distinguished by the name West in regard to its bearing that position from Europe, as the other do east.

As to the extent, it is so prodigious, that, in two centuries and a half from its first discovery, we have not been able to ascertain its boundaries.

What has been hitherto traced of it extends from 78 degrees north latitude, under which Sir Thomas Smith's bay lies, to 57 degrees south latitude, under which lies cape Horn, the most southern extremity of the American continent; which, taken in a direct line, amounts to 8,100 miles in length, with a breadth, in some parts, of 3,690 miles; though the isthmus that joins North and South America is not 60 miles over: yet from thence both parts of the continent stretch themselves out east and west, till they make the breadth before mentioned.

In such variety of climates there must necessarily be a great variety of soil. The most northern and southern parts are rendered more barren by the excessive cold, but the rest is an immense treasury of nature, producing most of the plants, grains, fruits, trees, metals, minerals, &c. known in the other parts of the world, and those in great plenty; besides an infinite variety of others, peculiar to itself, as not having yet been found in any other country. But the chief wealth consists in the inexhaustible mines of gold and silver, which, though the labour and art of man has been continually endeavouring to drain for above 200 years, are yet so far from being impoverished, that they seem rather to want fresh supplies of hands to bring the subterranean treasures to light.

Nor are gold and silver the only rich productions; there have been such great quantities of pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other precious stones found here, and brought into Europe, that the value of those commodities is considerably diminished to what it was before.

To these may be added a vast number of other commodities, which, though of a lesser price, are nevertheless still very valuable and useful. Of this sort are cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brasil, fustic, lignum vitæ, sugar, rum, ginger, pimento, cacao, vanilloes, cotton, red wood, tobacco, turpentine, train oil, naval stores, furs of various sorts, hides, ambergrease, bezoar, balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili; jesuits bark, méchoachan, saffras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, and a wonderful variety of other drugs, woods, and plants; to some of which, before the discovery of America, we were either utter strangers, or forced to buy others at an extravagant rate from Asia.

The prodigious variety of excellent fruits which grow here, such as pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatus, cherries, pears, apples, figs, with all the culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, &c. would be endless to enumerate. These are among the native productions of America; and its soil is so kindly and fruitful, that it nourishes many of an exotic growth in the greatest perfection; which is very remarkable in coffee, cultivated here of late with surprising success. And though the Europeans, upon their first landing, found no corn; yet all sorts of grain are now produced equal in quantity and goodness to any in the world. To which may be added sheep, hogs, oxen, goats, cows, &c. which have been transplanted from Europe, and have multiplied exceedingly.

Their seas abound with the greatest plenty and variety of fish,

as do likewise their rivers, which are the largest and longest in the universe; and, in comparison whereof, those of Europe are no more than small brooks. The river of Canada in North America is known to run more than 1,500 miles, and is 90 miles over at the mouth. That of the Amazons in South America, which rises in Peru, waters several large kingdoms in a course of 3,600 miles; and, falling into the sea between Brasil and Guiana, rolls with such rapidity, and with such a prodigious quantity of water, that they take it quite fresh out of the sea, at several leagues distance from the mouth of it: That of Rio de la Plata is computed at least 150 miles in breadth at the place where it discharges itself into the ocean: besides a great number of others, not much inferior to these.

Upon the discovery of America, the Spaniards possessed themselves of the largest and richest part of it. Hence they derive immense treasures yearly, and the kingdom of Old Spain may even be said to depend wholly on the New for the support of her finances, and to owe all her opulence and grandeur to her extensive colonies in these parts.

On the continent they have all South America, except Brasil, on the western ocean, which belongs to the Portuguese; and except some parts either of Chili, or in the Magellanic land, on the isthmus of Darien, whose inhabitants they have not yet been able to bring under their subjection; and whom, on that account, they stile Indios bravos, brave or courageous Indians: except, likewise, the vast country of the Amazons, and almost the whole country of Guiana, where the French and Dutch have some settlements, but the Spaniards very few, if any.

The Spaniards have an immense wealth from America; yet other nations partake thereof, as we shall see presently; for the king of Spain has at least TWO MILLIONS STERLING per annum revenue from thence, including the indulto on the goods brought back in return for the cargoes sent out by the other merchants of the several European powers who trade there, as well merchandize as money; the Spanish merchants have their commission for the returns, and have oftentimes the profits made in New Spain, paying the foreign merchants such a rate as they agree on for the goods at their going out; and this is very great, and enriches the merchants of Cadiz, Port St. Mary, Seville, and other places to a very great degree.

The produce of the several countries in Spanish America, are as follows: 1. gold and silver in Mexico. See MEXICO. Silver and no gold in Peru. See PERU.—Gold and no silver in Chili, and in the government of Veragna and New Granada.—The quantities of gold and silver in all these parts of Spanish America, are without measure, and without tale.

N. B. In the general accounts which we have of New Spain, travellers make mines of gold and silver in almost all the provinces of this great country: but we are assured that is a mistake; the gold comes chiefly as above: there may be some gold found in the rivers, in the country about Carthagena, and St. Martha, but not in any other parts, that we have yet seen duly confirmed.

2. Sugar is another article, whereof there is an exceeding quantity, chiefly on the side of the Bay of Mexico, Guaxaca, &c.—But by the multitude of the inhabitants, and their luxurious way of living, the sugar is chiefly consumed in Mexico, and in the religious houses, in chocolate, sweet-meats, preserves, and confectionary wares. The quantity, however, sent from Guaxaca and Guatimala, and other provinces to Mexico, and to Panama, is exceeding great; so that it is a considerable branch of home-trade.

3. Tobacco, this is a very fine sort, though different from that of the Brasils; 'tis generally made all into snuff; of which the galleons bring great quantities. 'Tis chiefly had at St. Martha, Carthagena, and that side of the gulph.

4. Cotton, which they manufacture at home, and drive a great home-trade in the goods made of it.

5. Indigo, esteemed the best in the world.

6. Cochineal, a very valuable merchandize, chiefly found in the government of Tobacco.

7. Valuable drugs of several sorts, as aloes, cortex peru, or jesuits bark, Paraguay tea, sarsaparilla, balsams of divers kinds, and balm, some of Carthagena, the other of Tolu, brimstone, pimento, green stone for the gravel, cantharides, or Spanish flies, cassia testula, olcacasam, an antidote against poison, manna, amber liquid and solid, soap-root, myrrh, &c. &c.

8. Hides and skins, brought from Buenos Ayres, and the Havannah.

9. Chocolate.

10. Jewels, as torquoises, pearl, emeralds, coral, topaz, jasper. The produce of these greatly extended dominions, with respect to trade, must be farther distinguished, as the several countries peculiarly distinguish them in their commerce. For here is a very considerable circulation of trade among themselves, as well as a RETURN to Europe; and perhaps more than in any other part of the world, out of Europe, China excepted. It is, therefore, necessary to distinguish between the produce of the country, which is sent to Europe as merchandize, and the produce carried from one part of America to another, for their home consumption. For example,

Wheat

Wheat and barley are sent in great quantities from Ncoya, Guaxaca, Venezuela, Honduras, Coquimbo, Isfalcalla from Chili, to Panama and Lima, and also from New Bifcay, to Mexico. The last town and country of Isfalcalla is called the granary of Mexico.—Guatemala also has good wheat.—Timber, pitch and tar, hemp and cordage sent from Guaiquil for ship-building, to Panama, Lima and Acapulco. Most of the great galleons for the South-Sea trade, are built at Guaiquil, where they have naval stores; also at Chiapa, Tabasco, Trinidad—Cotton spun and woven into several sorts of manufactures, in Jucuman, Niguaragua—Cotton unwoven, and for others to work into manufactures, but more generally wrought among themselves, at Vera Paz, Ciudad Real, Guaxaca, and Mexico.

They have black cattle in New Granada and Carthagen, Venezuela, Jucuman, Coquimbo, which three latter places supply the coast of the South-Seas.—Nicaragua, Campeachy and Guaxaca, send great quantities of black cattle to Mexico.—Chiapa, La Plata, have the best horses and mules.—Nicaragua, Chili and Chiopa have sheep, which carry burdens, and travel all over Chili and Peru.—The sheep carry the silver from Potosi to the sea-side.

They have a very great consumption of tobacco made into snuff among themselves; and it employs many ships to carry it from one place to another. The largest quantities of it are brought from the Havannah, on the isle of Cuba, which is carried to La Vera Cruz and Porto Bello; and sold to the merchants of Mexico at the first, and of Peru at the other.—At Venezuela is the finest tobacco in all New Spain.

Cocoa is also a very great article in their merchandize; it is produced chiefly at Guatemala, Vera Paz, Soconusca, Ciudad Real, and Guaxaca. The nuns have the chief trade of making it into chocolate: it is thought they drink more chocolate in the city of Mexico, than in all New Spain. Sugar is a general product in all the Spanish colonies in North America, at Mexico, Nicaragua, Guaxaca, Ciudad Real, Guatemala, Isfalcalla, &c. It is consumed in great quantities in Mexico, and the most populous cities; and large quantities are carried to Panama, from whence they carry it by sea to Lima, to Guaiquil in Peru, and to Baldivia in the remotest parts of Chili.—This is a considerable article of their home trade, as before noticed.

They have some manufactures among them too; for the people spin cotton with great application, and they make abundance of necessary things of it, which they could not have from Europe but at an extraordinary price; as particularly they make a coarse stuff for the poorer sort of people, called mestizas, with which they clothe themselves, and of which they make hammocks to lye in.

They make also a kind of Segovia cloth, of sheep's-wool, and cotton-wool, mixed together: and this is carried through the country on mules to be sold, like as the pedlars in Poland carry linnen from place to place. This cloth is generally bought to clothe the free Christian Indians, who live in great numbers in the villages, and even in the largest cities, and drive trades according as they are brought up and taught when they are young; particularly, they are carpenters, masons, husbandmen, vine-dressers, planters, &c. Some of these have great farms, and are well turned for making of sugar and indigo. There are above 120,000 families of them in the city of Nicaragua, and the country adjacent, generally employed in feeding black cattle, and planting corn: with both which they supply the greatest cities towards Isfalcalla and Mexico.

The several kingdoms of this country are so vastly large, that great numbers of people, and of cattle, are employed to carry by land the growth of one country to another. The people of Nicaragua, and of the Honduras, employ 30,000 mules and horses to carry corn, sugar, cocoa, and other goods into the inward provinces; they carry those things, as provisions, even to Mexico itself.

Every time the galleons arrive from Europe, there are an infinite number of people of all sorts, as well Peruvians and Chilians as Spaniards, who come from the remotest parts of the Spanish countries to Porto Bello, with servants, mules, guanicoes and other carriage, to trade for those European goods: and for the payment, they bring in the first place the bullion, which, as it is heavy, and must come at least overland from Panama, so it requires abundance of cattle for carriage; others bring it by land carriage from the countries whence they come, as from Cusco and Quitto in Peru, over the mountains, and more still from Lima; and some come even from Chili itself, which is a strange journey for length.

The latter of these, it is true, bring nothing but gold, and generally come from Baldivia and St. Jago by sea to Lima, and the rest by land: but then these convey the European goods, which are bulky rather than heavy, up the river to the lake of Nicaragua, and so to Panama.

As there is a vast flux of trade thus between Porto Bello and Panama on this occasion, so there is a very great trade from all the coast of Chili and Peru directly to Panama by sea; in-somuch that on these occasions there shall be seen in the bay and road of Panama, three or four hundred sail of ships at a time, against the approach of the fair at Porto Bello.

In like manner, for carrying the treasure for the galleons from Mexico, and the country of Paetneca, which is about 60 miles north from Mexico, to La Vera Cruz, when the galleons come from old Spain, the numbers of carriages, men, and horses, are incredible. The silver mines in and about that part of the empire of Mexico, are hardly to be reported, the account would be looked on as fabulous and impossible.

The number of slaves, Indians and natives employed in these mines, is proportionably great, besides above 100,000 Spanish Indians, and Creolian Indians or Mestizas, that is to say, begotten between a Spaniard and a Mexican; and besides 7 or 8000 families of real Spaniards, who live among, rule, and govern the rest. Add to these, the numbers of people, horses and mules, employed to carry all the treasure and merchandize between Mexico and La Vera Cruz.

The product of the country there is not sufficient to supply these, and the city of Mexico cannot supply them; therefore corn and cattle, and other provisions, are brought a long way for their support.

The carriage back again to other parts from La Vera Cruz, of the European goods which come by the galleons, is a very considerable article of trade; and particularly the carriage also of tobacco, sugar, and other produce of Guatemala; and the adjacent country of Guaxaca, which comes by sea to La Vera Cruz from the south coast.—All this is said to employ above 60,000 horses, mules, asses, and a proportioned number of men.

Cochineal is brought thus over the mountains from the country of Guadalaxara, north-west from Mexico about three hundred and twenty miles. It is brought on horses and mules, with which the country abound.

This account of the inland trade and land-carriage of New-Spain being so considerable an article of commerce, naturally brings me to speak of the trade of Acapulco on the South Seas, as it respects the land part chiefly: but for this see the article Acapulco.

In order to comprehend the whole of the trade of Spanish America, we should take some notice of the supplies of all the goods they call for from Europe: For this we refer to SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA for a more particular account; we here contenting ourselves.

We shall, however, here give a sketch of the great value of the RETURNS made to Europe for this trade, from whence some calculation may be made by it of the value also of the goods exported from Europe. That some rational conjecture may be made of the magnitude of this whole trade in general, and the wealth of the Spanish dominions in America in particular, we shall here exhibit the draught of a cargo of one of the least fleets or flotas from La Vera Cruz, that came some years ago, and which consisted but of five galleons, and a pelache or advice boat that arrived at Cadiz in July 1723. It is as follows:

PIECES OF EIGHT,	705,626 for the king	} duely register'd.
DITTO — — —	7,621,586 for the merch ^{ts} .	
OLD PLATE — — —	174,348	} also register'd.
GOLD — — —	403,277 in pistoles coin'd	
DITTO — — —	15,325 in dust.	

8,920,162

N. B. This is all what they called REGISTERED PLATE; the PLATE UNREGISTERED is sometimes equal to it, and always very considerable.

MERCHANDIZE BY THE SAME FLEET.

COCHINEAL —	1,425 bales	CORAL —	8 chests
INDIGO — —	1,931 ditto	OIL OF MERRH	6 flasks large
COCOA — —	920,000 lb. wt.	ONIMENT DITTO	57 ditto
VENELLOS —	70,000 lb. wt.	POWDER OF OXACA	22 ditto
JALLAP — —	458 bales	PRESENTS —	263 chests
CORTEX PERU —	67 ditto	CHOCOLATE	114 chests
LAPIS CONTRAYERVA	37 ditto	CHINA WARE	18 ditto
SARSAPARILLA —	37 ditto	LIQUID AMBER	11 boxes
PEARLS — — —	2 boxes	BEES-WAX	8,716 quintals
EMERALDS — — —	1 ditto	DRESS'D HIDES	1,527
GINGER — — —	27 casks		

After the arrival of the above FLOTA, came in the same season two ships from Buenos Ayres.

C A R G O.

PIECES OF EIGHT	498,326 for the king
DITTO — — —	2,753,842 for the merchants
GOLD — — —	326,790 in dust for the king.
HIDES — — —	37,726 dried
PARAGUA TEA — —	463 chests
CORTEX PERU — —	237 bags
AMBER — — —	38 boxes

Another Flota, which arrived in Spain in April 1727, being the same which, at that time, lay long blocked up at the Havannah for fear of a war with England, consisted of 7 gal-

leons and 4 merchant-ships, exclusive of one ship lost upon the Azores or westward islands: this fleet was exceeding rich, and brought, besides private sums unregistered, and besides merchandize,

14,316,794 Pieces of Eight in silver.
123,840 — — — in gold.

The ship lost had two boxes of coined gold, and 236,178 pieces of eight in silver. The merchants goods we had no estimate of.

At the same time the galleons blocked up in the harbour of Porto Bello, by Admiral Hofier, had on board no less than 26 millions of pieces of eight in specie, besides merchandize: at the same time also an English ship called the Royal George, laden there for the South Sea Company of London, had on board near a million of pieces of eight in treasure, besides merchandize; and another South Sea ship at La Vera Cruz had near as much.

These are sure testimonies of the immense wealth of SPANISH AMERICA, and of the great extent of the commerce from Europe to them, of which the above were the returns. After this, no question need be asked, to what height such a commerce may not be carried. It has advanced not inconsiderably since; for though the trade of particular European nations may have declined, yet others have advanced, which has been, and always will be owing to the encouragement given thereto in Old Spain.

The islands in America belonging to the Spaniards are St. Domingo, otherwise called Hispaniola, which the French share with them at present; Cuba, Porto Rico, Canary islands, St. Margaret, and some other less considerable, which the Spaniards visit sometimes, but where they have no colonies.—See SPAIN, SPANISH AMERICA, ACAPULCO, MEXICO, PERU. Before the last DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, France had on the continent of AMERICA, CANADA, where are QUEBEC, MONTREAL, PORT-ROYAL, RICHLIEU, and FRONTENAC, the MISSISSIPPI, and LOUISIANA: but since the said treaty these are annexed to the crown of England, and the privilege of navigating on the MISSISSIPPI is allowed to England as well as France.

Before the war, France had the islands of MARTINICO, GUADALOUPE, DESIRADA, MARIGALANTE, St. BARTHOLOMEW, SANTA CRUZ, GRANADA and the GRANADINES, and they pretended a right to St. VINCENT, St. LUCIA, DOMINICA and TOBAGO; but since the said treaty, GRANADA and the GRANADINES, St. VINCENT, DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, are annexed to the crown of England, and St. LUCIA is given to France; and the former are their ancient islands, of which we dispossessed them in the last war, and restored to them at the last peace.

Before the treaty of 1763, the French possessed the southern part of St. DOMINGO, CAPE-BRETON or LOUISBURGH, the island of St. JOHN's, the island of ANTICOSTE, the MADELINE ISLANDS, and others dependant on CANADA. Since the last peace, the French retain their part of St. DOMINGO; and CAPE BRETON, the island of St. John, the island of Anticoste, together with the island of Madalene, and all dependencies on CANADA are ceded to Great Britain, and the French have the islands of St. PETER's and MIQUELON ceded to them for the shelter of their fishermen, without the liberty of making any fortifications; and it is stipulated, that they are to keep a guard of 50 men only upon them for the police.

The Portuguese have in America the coast of Brazil only, which extends from the river of the Amazons to that of St. Gabriel, near the river Plate. That coast is divided into 14 captainships, or governments, of which those that are best known in Europe are Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, Santos or Baya da todos los santos, i. e. the Bay of all Saints, and Rio Janeiro. The rich gold and diamond mines of this country afford the Portuguese a constant supply of wealth; and the trade they carry on thither is the support of their kingdom. The Dutch, who have so large a share in the East-Indies, have but a very small one in those of the West. Their islands are Saba, St. Eustatia, and a part of the isle of St. Martin; all these are the smallest and most inconsiderable of the Antilles. But, to make the Dutch some amends, they are in possession of Bonaires, Aruba or Oruba, Curaffow, which is also spelt Curacao. These not lying any great distance from Carthage and Porto Bello, afford the Dutch frequent opportunity to carry on a very profitable contraband trade, which the Spanish governors are used to wink at.

They have also Surinam, at the mouth of the river of the same name, on the coast of Guiana; besides Bamron, Aprenvace, and Berbice; all these are on the continent, and are, as it were, separated by Cayenne, which belongs to the French. The Danes are settled on the small island of St. Thomas, where the Hamburgers also have a small factory. This island is not far from Porto Rico. They are also in possession of one of the small islands called the Virgins.

The duke of Courland, with his people formerly, as well as the Swedes, have also made some attempts to get a footing in this new world; the former in some of the Antilles,

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and the latter in North America. But their projects met with no success:

The same may be observed of the Scots, who in the beginning of the XVIIth. century; settled in the isthmus, and on the river of Darien, from whence they were driven by the Spaniards.

R E M A R K S:

By this survey of America, and of the territories belonging to the several European potentates, who share this part of the world among them in colonies, a good judgment may be made how greatly the general traffic and navigation of Europe depends on America. And, indeed, it is worth observation, that the trade from the several mother kingdoms interested in America, to their respective colonies there; may be looked on in the light of their own branches of foreign trade, as being under their own direction and regulation: and it must be allowed, that experience hath hitherto shewn, that those powers who most wisely cherish their plantation trade and navigation in America, in due subserviency to the prosperity of their particular mother-countries, are likely to have the greatest share of mercantile shipping; the best nursery for seamen; and in a word, to be the best capable of maintaining the dominion and sovereignty of the seas.

America, more especially its islands, depend greatly on Africa, which supplies the several powers therein concerned with negroes, to do their slavery in their respective plantations. To the Spaniards and Portuguese the Blacks are particularly useful in their gold and silver, and diamond mines; to the English and the French in the production of their sugars, tobacco, rice, indigo, &c. &c. And in their islands particularly, it has been said that the Europeans cannot sustain that labour and fatigue in those climates equal to what the negroes are experienced to do. This, however, has been looked on by many wise and good men as a pretext to subject that race of men to slavery; for, if the Europeans were obliged to live as soberly as the negroes, they would be as able to undergo the real slavery the negroes do in some plantations, especially in the French sugar colonies, where in order to raise their colonies as suddenly as possible, they regard no hardships they put on their negroe slaves: and by these means that rival nation first supplanted England in the sugar trade of most parts of Europe.

The communication between America and Asia, though far from being so large as the circumstances of each will admit of, has, however, of late years, been carried to a pretty considerable extent, and is productive of mutual advantages to both. The commerce of the Philippine islands depends in a great measure on the two large ships which arrive thither yearly from Acapulco, bringing to the value of 10,000,000 of pieces of eight, in goods and specie; and the returns they make in all the choice products of the East-Indies, are dispersed from Acapulco, some in smaller vessels to the sea-coasts of Peru and Chili; but the greater part to Mexico, by land carriage, which is 240 miles; whereby a great number of people, horses, mules, and carriages are employed. Add to this, that the exports from America to the Philippines come chiefly from Mexico to Acapulco, by the same land-carriage. See ACAPULCO.

For the trade of America, as the same relates to the interest of the powers under whose dominion the several colonies are, together with the peculiar laws and regulations made to render them more beneficial to those several powers; see BRITISH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, PORTUGUEZE AMERICA, DUTCH AMERICA.

THE DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, having made a great alteration in the affairs of America, we shall here insert the said treaty at large; to which we shall occasionally refer throughout this work.

THE DEFINITIVE TREATY of friendship and peace between his Britannic Majesty, the most Christian King, and the King of Spain, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February, 1763. To which the King of Portugal acceded on the same day.

In the name of the most Holy and Undivided Trinity, Father, Son and Holy Ghost. So be it.

Be it known to all those to whom it shall, or may, in any manner, belong.

It has pleased the Most High to diffuse the Spirit of union and concord among the princes, whose divisions had spread troubles in the four parts of the world, and to inspire them with the inclination to cause the comforts of peace to succeed to the misfortunes of a long and bloody war, which, having arisen between England and France, during the reign of the most serene and most potent prince George the Second, by the grace of God king of Great Britain, of glorious memory, continued under the reign of the most serene and most potent prince George the Third, his successor; and in its progress, communicated itself to Spain and Portugal: consequently, the most serene and most potent prince George the Third, by the grace of God king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, Duke of Brunswick and Lunenbourg, Arch-Treasurer, and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire; the most serene and most potent prince Lewis the Fifteenth, by the grace of God, Most Christian King; and the most se-

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rene and most potent prince Charles the Third, by the grace of God king of Spain and of the Indies; after having laid the foundation of peace in the preliminaries signed at Fountainebleau the third of November last; and the most serene and most potent prince, Don Joseph the First, by the grace of God king of Portugal and of the Algarves, after having acceded thereto, determined to compleat, without delay, this great and important work. For this purpose, the high contracting parties have named and appointed their respective ambassadors extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary, viz. His sacred majesty the king of Great-Britain, the most illustrious and most excellent lord, John, duke and earl of Bedford, marquis of Tavistock, &c. his minister of state, lieutenant general of his armies, keeper of his privy seal, knight of the most noble order of the garter, and his ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his Most Christian Majesty; his sacred majesty the Most Christian King, the most illustrious and most excellent lord Cæsar Gabriel de Choiseul, duke of Praslin, peer of France, knight of his orders, lieutenant general of his armies, and of the province of Britany, counsellor in all his council, and minister and secretary of state, and of his commands and finances; his sacred Majesty the Catholic King, the most illustrious and most excellent lord, Dom Jerome Grimaldi, marquis de Grimaldi, knight of the Most Christian King's orders, gentleman of his Catholic Majesty's bedchamber in employment, and his ambassador extraordinary to his Most Christian Majesty; his sacred majesty the Most Faithful King, the most illustrious and most excellent lord, Martin de Mello & Castro, knight professed of the order of Christ, of his Most Faithful Majesty's council, and his ambassador and minister plenipotentiary to his Most Christian Majesty.

Who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers, in good form, copies whereof are transcribed at the end of the present treaty of peace, have agreed upon the articles, the tenor of which is as follows.

ARTICLE I. There shall be a christian, universal, and perpetual peace, as well by sea as by land, and a sincere and constant friendship shall be re-established between their Britannic, Most Christian, Catholic, and Most Faithful Majesties, and between their heirs and successors, kingdoms, dominions, provinces, countries, subjects and vassals, of what quality or condition soever they be, without exception of places or of persons: so that the high contracting parties shall give the greatest attention to maintain between themselves and their said dominions and subjects, this reciprocal friendship and correspondence, without permitting on either side, any kind of hostilities by sea or by land, to be committed from henceforth, for any cause or under any pretence whatsoever, and every thing shall be carefully avoided which might hereafter, prejudice the union happily re-established, applying themselves, on the contrary, on every occasion, to procure for each other whatever may contribute to their mutual glory, interests and advantages without giving any assistance or protection, directly or indirectly, to those who would cause any prejudice to either of the high contracting parties; there shall be a general oblivion of every thing that may have been done or committed before or since the commencement of the war, which is just ended.

II. The treaties of Westphalia, of 1648; those of Madrid, between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, of 1667, and 1670; the treaties of peace of Nimeguen of 1678 and 1679; of Ryfwick, of 1697; those of peace and of commerce of Utrecht, of 1713; that of Baden, of 1714; the treaty of triple alliance of the Hague, of 1717; that of the quadruple alliance of London, of 1718; the treaty of peace of Vienna, of 1738; the definitive treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, of 1748; and that of Madrid between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain; of 1750; as well as the treaties between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, of the 13th of February, 1668; of the 6th of February, 1715; and of the 12th of February 1761; and that of the 11th of April, 1713, between France and Portugal, with the guarantees of Great Britain, serve as a basis and foundation to the peace, and the present treaty: and for this purpose they are all renewed and confirmed in the best form, as well as all the treaties in general, which subsisted between the high contracting parties before the war, as if they were inserted here word for word, so that they are to be exactly observed, for the future, in their whole tenor, and religiously executed on all sides, in all their points which shall not be derogated from by the present treaty, notwithstanding all that may have been stipulated to the contrary by any of the high contracting parties: and all the said parties declare, that they will not suffer any privilege, favour or indulgence to subsist, contrary to the treaties above confirmed, except what shall have been agreed and stipulated by the present treaty.

III. All the prisoners made on all sides, as well by land as by sea, and the hostages carried away, or given, during the war, and to this day, shall be restored without ransom, six weeks at latest, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the present treaty, each crown respectively paying the advances which shall have been made for the subsistence and maintenance of their prisoners, by the sovereign of the country where they shall have been detained,

according to the attested receipts and estimates, and other authentic vouchers, which shall be furnished on one side and the other: and securities shall be reciprocally given for the payment of the debts which the prisoners shall have contracted in the countries where they have been detained, until their entire liberty. And all the ships of war and merchant vessels which shall have been taken since the expiration of the terms agreed upon for the cessation of hostilities by sea, shall be likewise restored, bona fide, with all their crews and cargoes; and the execution of this article shall be proceeded upon immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

IV. His Most Christian Majesty renounces all pretensions which he has heretofore formed, or might form, in Nova Scotia, or Acadia, in all its parts, and guaranties the whole of it, and with all its dependencies to the king of Great-Britain: Moreover, his Most Christian Majesty cedes and guaranties to his said Britannick Majesty, in full right, Canada, with all its dependencies, as well as the island of Cape Breton, and all the other islands and coasts in the gulph and river of St. Lawrence, and in general, every thing that depends on the said countries, lands, islands, and coasts, with the sovereignty, property, possession, and all rights acquired by treaty or otherwise, which the Most Christian King, and the crown of France have had till now, over the said countries, islands, lands, places, coasts, and their inhabitants, so that the Most Christian King cedes and makes over the whole to the said king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the most ample manner and form, without restriction, and without any liberty to depart from the said cession, and guaranty under any pretence, or to disturb Great-Britain in the possessions above-mentioned. His Britannick Majesty, on his side, agrees to grant the liberty of the catholick religion to the inhabitants of Canada: he will consequently give the most precise and most effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholick subjects may profess the worship of their religion, according to the rites of the Romish church, as far as the laws of Great-Britain permit. His Britannick Majesty further agrees that the French inhabitants, or others, who had been subjects of the Most Christian King in Canada, may retire with all safety and freedom, wherever they shall think proper, and may sell their estates, provided it be to subjects of his Britannick Majesty, and bring away their effects, as well as their persons, without being restrained in their emigration, under any pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: the term limited for this emigration, shall be fixed to the space of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

V. The subjects of France shall have the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, such as is specified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the present treaty (except what relates to the island of Cape Breton, as well as to the other islands and coasts in the mouth and gulph of St. Lawrence) and his Britannick Majesty consents to leave to the subjects of the Most Christian King, the liberty of fishing in the gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that the subjects of France do not exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of three leagues from all the coasts belonging to Great Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the islands situated in the said gulph of St. Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fishery on the coast of the island of Cape Breton, out of the said gulph, the subjects of the Most Christian King shall not be permitted to exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of fifteen leagues from the coast of the island of Cape Breton; and the fishery on the coasts of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, and every where else out of the said gulph, shall remain on the foot of former treaties.

VI. The king of Great-Britain cedes the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his Most Christian Majesty, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; and his said Most Christian Majesty engages not to fortify the said islands, to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fishery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.

VII. In order to re-establish peace on solid and durable foundations, and to remove for ever, all subjects of dispute with regard to the limits of the British and French territories on the continent of America; it is agreed, that, for the future, the confines between the dominions of his Britannick Majesty, and those of his Most Christian Majesty, in that part of the world, shall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the river Mississippi, from its source to the river Iberville, and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the sea; and for this purpose, the Most Christian King cedes, in full right, and guaranties to his Britannick Majesty, the river and Port of the Mobile, and every thing which he possesses, or ought to possess, on the left side the river Mississippi, except the town of the New Orleans, and the island on which it is situated, which shall remain to France; provided that the river Mississippi shall be equally free, as well to the subjects of Great Britain, as to those of France, in its whole breadth

and length, from its source to the sea, and expressly that part, which is between the said island of New Orleans, and the right bank of that river, as well as the passage both in and out of its mouth. It is further stipulated, that the vessels belonging to the subjects of either nation, shall not be stopped, visited, or subjected to the payment of any duty whatsoever. The stipulations inserted in the 4th article in favour of the inhabitants of Canada, shall also take place, with regard to the inhabitants of the countries ceded by this article.

VIII. The king of Great-Britain shall restore to France the islands of Guadaloupe, of Marie Galante, of Desirade, of Martinico, and of Belleisle; and the fortresses of these islands shall be restored in the same condition they were in, when they were conquered by the British arms; provided that his Britannick Majesty's subjects, who shall have settled in the said islands, or those who shall have any commercial affairs, to settle there, or in the other places restored to France by the present treaty, shall have liberty to sell their lands and their estates, to settle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their persons, on board vessels which they shall be permitted to send to the said islands and other places restored as above, and which shall serve for their use only, without being restrained on account of their religion, or under any other pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: and for this purpose, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; but as the liberty granted to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to bring away their persons, and their effects, in vessels of their nation, may be liable to abuses, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expressly agreed between his Britannick Majesty and his Most Christian Majesty, that the number of English vessels, which shall have leave to go to the said islands and places restored to France, shall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one; that they shall go in ballast, shall set sail at a fixed time; and shall make one voyage only, all the effects belonging to the English being to be embarked at the same time. It has been further agreed, that his Most Christian Majesty shall cause the necessary passports to be given to the said vessels; that for the greater security, it shall be allowed to place two French clerks or guards, in each of the said vessels, which shall be visited in the landing-places and ports of the said islands, and places restored to France, and that the merchandize, which shall be found therein, shall be confiscated.

IX. The Most Christian King cedes and guaranties to his Britannick Majesty, in full right, the islands of Granada, and of the Granadines, with the same stipulations in favour of the inhabitants of this colony, inserted in the 4th article, for those of Canada; and the partition of the islands, called Neutral, is agreed and fixed, so that those of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, shall remain in full right to Great-Britain, and that of St. Lucia shall be delivered to France, to enjoy the same likewise, in full right; and the high contracting parties, guaranty the partitions so stipulated.

X. His Britannick Majesty shall restore to France the island of Goree, in the condition it was in when conquered; and his Most Christian Majesty cedes, in full right, and guaranties to the king of Great-Britain, the river Senegal, with the forts and factories of St. Lewis, Podor, and Galam; and with all the rights and dependencies of the said river Senegal.

XI. In the East Indies, Great-Britain shall restore to France, in the condition they are now in, the different factories, which that crown possessed, as well on the coast of Coromandel, and Orixá, as on that of Malabar, as also in Bengal, at the beginning of the year 1749. And his Most Christian Majesty renounces all pretention to the acquisitions which he had made on the coast of Coromandel and Orixá, since the said beginning of the year 1749. His Most Christian Majesty shall restore on his side, all that he may have conquered from Great-Britain, in the East Indies, during the present war; and will expressly cause Nattal and Tappanoully, in the island of Sumatra, to be restored; he engages further not to erect fortifications, or to keep troops in any part of the dominions of the Subah of Bengal. And in order to preserve future peace on the coast of Coromandel and Orixá, the English and French shall acknowledge Mahomer Ally Cawn for the lawful Nabob of the Carnatick, and Salabat Jing for lawful Subah of the Decan; and both parties shall renounce all demands and pretensions of satisfaction, with which they might charge each other, or their Indian allies, for the depredations, or pillage, committed on the one side, or on the other, during the war.

XII. The island of Minorca shall be restored to his Britannick Majesty, as well as Fort St. Philip, in the same condition they were in, when conquered by the arms of the Most Christian King; and with the artillery which was there, when the said island, and the said fort were taken.

XIII. The town and port of Dunkirk shall be put into the state fixed by the last treaty of Aix-la-Chappelle, and by former treaties. The cunette shall be destroyed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, as well as the forts and batteries which defend the entrance on the side of the sea; and provision shall be made, at the same

time, for the wholesomeness of the air, and for the health of the inhabitants, by some other means, to the satisfaction of the king of Great-Britain.

XIV. France shall restore all the countries belonging to the electorate of Hanover, to the landgrave of Hesse, to the duk of Brunswick, and to the count of La Lippe Buckebourg, which are, or shall be occupied by his Most Christian Majesty's arms: the fortresses of these different countries shall be restored in the same condition they were in, when conquered by the French arms; and the pieces of artillery, which shall have been carried elsewhere, shall be replaced by the same number, of the same bore, weight, and metal.

XV. In case the stipulations, contained in the 13th article of the preliminaries, should not be compleated at the time of the signature of the present treaty, as well with regard to the evacuations to be made by the armies of France, of the fortresses of Cleves, Wesel, Guelders, and of all the countries belonging to the King of Prussia, as with regard to the evacuations to be made by the British and French armies of the countries which they occupy in Westphalia, Lower Saxony, on the Lower Rhine, the Upper Rhine, and in all the empire, and to the retreat of the troops into the dominions of their respective sovereigns; their Britannick and Most Christian Majesty's promise to proceed, bona fide, with all the dispatch the case will permit of to the said evacuations, the entire completion whereof they stipulate before the nineteenth of March next, or sooner, if it can be done; and their Britannick and Most Christian Majesties further engage and promise to each other, not to furnish any succours, of any kind, to their respective allies, who shall continue engaged in the war in Germany.

XVI. The decision of the prizes made, in the time of peace, by the subjects of Great Britain, on the Spaniards, shall be referred to the courts of justice of the admiralty of Great-Britain, conformably to the rules established among all nations, so that the validity of the said prizes, between the British and Spanish nations, shall be decided and judged, according to the law of nations, and according to the treaties, in the courts of justice of the nation, who shall have made the capture.

XVII. His Britannick Majesty shall cause to be demolished all the fortifications which his subjects shall have erected in the bay of Honduras, and other places of the territory of Spain, in that part of the world, four months after the ratification of the present treaty: and his Catholick Majesty shall not permit his Britannick Majesty's subjects, or their workmen, to be disturbed or molested, under any pretence whatsoever, in the said places, in their occupation of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood. And for this purpose, they may build without hindrance, and occupy without interruption, the houses and magazines which are necessary for them, for their families, and for their effects: and his Catholick Majesty assures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of those advantages and powers on the Spanish coasts and territories, as above-stipulated, immediately after the ratifications of the present treaty.

XVIII. His Catholick Majesty desists, as well for himself as for his successors, from all pretensions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guispecoans, and other his subjects, to the right of fishing in the neighbourhood of the island of Newfoundland.

XIX. The king of Great-Britain shall restore to Spain all the territory which he has conquered in the island of Cuba, with the fortress of the Havanna; and this fortress, as well as all the other fortresses of the said island, shall be restored in the same condition they were in when conquered by his Britannick Majesty's arms, provided that his Britannick Majesty's subjects, who shall have settled in the said island, restored to Spain by the present treaty, or those who shall have any commercial affairs to settle there, shall have liberty to sell their lands and their estates, to settle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their persons on board vessels which they shall be permitted to send to the said island, restored as above, and which shall serve for that use only, without being restrained on account of their religion, or under any pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecution: and for this purpose, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty: but as the liberty granted to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, to bring away their persons and their effects, in vessels of their nation, may be liable to abuses, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expressly agreed, between his Britannick Majesty and his Catholick Majesty, that the number of English vessels, which shall have leave to go to the said island restored to Spain, shall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one: that they shall go in ballast; shall set sail at a fixed time; and shall make one voyage only: all the effects belonging to the English being to be embarked at the same time. It has been further agreed, that his Catholick Majesty shall cause the necessary passports to be given to the said vessels; that, for the greater security, it shall be allowed to place two Spanish clerks or guards, in each of the said vessels; which shall be visited in the landing-places and ports

of the said island, restored to Spain, and that the merchandise, which shall be found therein, shall be confiscated.

XX. In consequence of the restitution stipulated in the preceding article, his Catholick Majesty cedes and guaranties, in full right, to his Britannick Majesty, Florida, with fort St. Augustin, and the bay of Penfacola, as well as all that Spain possesses on the continent of North America, to the east, or to the south-east of the river Mississippi. And in general, every thing that depends on the said countries and lands, with the sovereignty, property, possession and all rights, acquired by treaties or otherwise, which the Catholick King, and the crown of Spain have had, till now, over the said countries, lands, places, and other inhabitants; so that the Catholick King cedes and makes over the whole to the said king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the most ample manner and form. His Britannick Majesty agrees on his side, to grant to the inhabitants of the countries above ceded, the liberty of the catholick religion: he will consequently give the most express and the most effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholick subjects may profess the worship of their religion, according to the rites of the Romish church, as far as the laws of Great-Britain permit: his Britannick Majesty further agrees, that the Spanish inhabitants or others, who had been subjects of the Catholick King in the said countries, may retire, with all safety and freedom, wherever they think proper; and may sell their estates provided it be to his Britannick Majesty's subjects, and bring away their effects, as well as their persons, without being restrained in their emigrations, under any pretence whatsoever, except that of debts, or of criminal prosecutions: the term limited for this emigration being fixed to the space of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty. It is moreover stipulated, that his Catholick Majesty shall have power to cause all the effects, that may belong to him to be brought away, whether it be artillery or other things.

XXI. The French and Spanish troops shall evacuate all the territories, lands, towns, places and castles of his Most Faithful Majesty, in Europe, without any reserve, which shall have been conquered by the armies of France and Spain, and shall restore them in the same condition they were in when conquered, with the same artillery and ammunition which were found there; and with regard to the Portuguese colonies in America, Africa, or in the East-Indies, if any change shall have happened there, all things shall be restored on the same footing they were in, and conformably to the preceding treaties, which subsisted between the courts of France, Spain, and Portugal before the present war.

XXII. All the papers, letters, documents and archives, which were found in the countries, territories, towns and places that are restored, and those belonging to the countries ceded, shall be respectively and bona fide, delivered or furnished at the same time, if possible, that possession is taken, or at latest four months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, in whatever places the said papers or documents may be found.

XXIII. All the countries and territories which may have been conquered, in whatsoever part of the world, by the arms of their Britannick and Most Faithful Majesties, as well as by those of their Most Christian and Catholick Majesties, which are not included in the present treaty, either under the title of cessions, or under the title of restitutions, shall be restored without difficulty, and without requiring any compensation.

XXIV. As it is necessary to assign a fixed epoch for the restitutions and the evacuations, to be made by each of the high contracting parties; it is agreed, that the British and French troops shall complete before the 15th of March next, all that shall remain to be executed of the 12th and 13th articles of the preliminaries, signed the 3d day of November last, with regard to the evacuation to be made in the empire or elsewhere. The island of Belleisle shall be evacuated six weeks after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. Guadaloupe, Desirade, Marie Galante, Martinico, and St. Lucia, three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. Great-Britain shall likewise, at the end of three months, after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done, enter into possession of the river and port of the Mobile, and of all that is to form the limits of the territory of Great-Britain, on the side of the river Mississippi, as they are specified in the 7th article. The island of Goree shall be evacuated by Great Britain three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; and the island of Minorca by France, at the same epoch, or sooner if it can be done: and according to the conditions of the 6th article, France shall likewise enter into possession of the islands of St. Peter, and of Miquelon, at the end of three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty. The factories in the East Indies shall be restored six months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. The fortress of the Havana, with all that has been conquered in the island of Cuba, shall be restored three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be

done: and at the same time, Great-Britain shall enter into possession of the country ceded by Spain, according to the 20th article. All the places and countries of his most Faithful Majesty, in Europe, shall be restored immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty; and the Portuguese colonies, which may have been conquered, shall be restored in the space of three months, in the West Indies, and of six months in the East Indies, after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, or sooner if it can be done. All the fortresses, the restitution whereof is stipulated above, shall be restored with the artillery and ammunition, which were found there at the time of the conquest. In consequence whereof, the necessary orders shall be sent by each of the high contracting parties, with reciprocal passports for the ships that shall carry them, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

XXV. His Britannick Majesty, as Elector of Brunswick Lunenbourg, as well for himself, as for his heirs and successors, and all the dominions and possessions of his said majesty, in Germany, are included and guarantied by the present treaty of peace.

XXVI. Their sacred Britannick, Most Christian, Catholick, and Most Faithful Majesties, promise to observe sincerely, and bona fide, all the articles contained and settled in the present treaty; and they will not suffer the same to be infringed, directly or indirectly, by their respective subjects; and the said high contracting parties, generally and reciprocally, guaranty to each other all the stipulations of the present treaty.

XXVII. The solemn ratifications of the present treaty, expedited in good and due form, shall be exchanged in this city of Paris, between the high contracting parties in the space of a month, or sooner, if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature of the present treaty.

(L. S.) Bedford C. P. S.

(L. S.) Choiseul duc de Praslin.

(L. S.) El. Marq. de Grimaldi.

AMMUNITION signifies all sorts of warlike stores and provisions, more especially powder and ball.

By the 1st of Jac. II. cap. 8. §. 2. ammunition, arms, utensils of war, or gunpowder, imported without licence from his majesty, are to be forfeited, and treble the value.

Sect. 2. Such licence obtained, except for the furnishing of his majesty's public stores, is to be void, and the offender to incur a præmunire, and be disabled to hold any office from the crown.

Ammunition or gunpowder may be prohibited to be exported at the king's pleasure, by 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 13.

AMOUNT, a term in arithmetic and book-keeping. It is said of the total, which several sums added together produce. Ex. See what is the amount of all those articles, or what those articles amount to. The first side of the expences amounts to 500 l. the fitting out the London privateer will amount to 5000 l.

AMPHISCII, in geography and astronomy, the people who inhabit the Torrid Zone.

They are thus denominated, as having their shadow turned sometimes one way, and sometimes another, i. e. at one time of the year to the north, and at another to the south.

AMPHORA, the largest measure used at Venice for liquors. It contains 4 bigorzas, the bigorza being 4 quarts, the quart 4 fachies, and each fachie 4 leras; but by wholesale the amphora is 14 quarts, and the bigorza 3½ quarts.

AMPLIATION, signifies, in French, the duplicate which is taken or given of a receipt, an acquittance, an account, or the like. Thus they say, to sign a copy by ampliation, that is to say, to sign a duplicate thereof. In this sense they also call ampliation a copy printed upon paper, of a contract of sale of annuities on the city of Paris, engrossed upon parchment. Notaries, when they deliver the engrossed contract to the annuitant, ought also to deliver him an ampliation upon paper, which he is obliged to produce to the paymaster, with his receipt annexed to it, the first time he has a mind to receive his annuity or rent.

AMPLITUDE of the sun or stars, in astronomy and navigation, is an arch of the horizon intercepted between the true east and west point of it, and the center of the sun or stars at their rising or setting.

Amplitude is of two kinds, eastern, or ortive, and western, or occasive. Eastern, or rising amplitude, is the distance between the point wherein the star rises, and the true point of east, wherein the equator and horizon intersect.

Western, or setting amplitude, is the distance between the point wherein the star sets, and the true point of west in the equinoctial. The eastern and western amplitude are also called northern and southern, as they fall in the northern or southern quarters of the horizon.

To find the sun's amplitude, either rising or setting, by the globe, bring the sun's place to the horizon either on the east or west side, and the degrees from the east point, either north or south, are the amplitude required.

To find the sun's amplitude trigonometrically, having the latitude and sun's declination given—Say,

As the co-fine of the latitude is to the radius, so is the fine of the present declination to the fine of the amplitude. Suppose, e. gr. the latitude to be 51 deg. 30 min. and the declination of the same 11 deg. 50 min.

Then, to the ar. co. of the co-fine of 50°. 30.	0,2058503
Add the fine of ————	0,2118926
Sum is the fine of ————	9,5177429
Which is the amplitude required.	

Magnetical amplitude, is an arch of the horizon contained between the sun at his rising or setting, and the east or west point of the compass; or, it is the difference of the rising or setting of the sun from the east or west point of the compass. It is found, by observing the sun at his rising or setting, by an amplitude compass.

AMYANTUS. See AMIANTUS.

ANA, a term of pharmacy and physic, very well known to physicians and apothecaries. The signification of it is as follows.

The physicians in their prescriptions, wherein several drugs are to be used, if it happens that the same quantity, weight, or measure, of one, two, or more of those drugs are to be mixed, set down only the names of those several drugs, but not the quantity that must be taken of them, till after the last, putting the word ana before that quantity. Thus for instance, R. Rhubarb, senna, cassia, ana four drachms, signifies that four drachms of each of these drugs must be taken; which the apothecary seeing, he understands it immediately.

The word ana has several other significations, but, as they do not relate to trade, so they are foreign to the purpose and design of this Dictionary.

ANACOSTE, or ANASCOTE, a sort of woollen diaper stuff, manufactured after the manner of serges of Caën, but not so woolly, and made of better wool. It is made at Leyden in Holland, at Bruges and Aerfchot in the Austrian Netherlands, at Ypres, and in its neighbourhood in French Flanders. This stuff is a French ell broad, like the serges of Caën, and about twenty ells long. It is generally sent white or black into Spain, where there is a great demand for it. They have lately began to manufacture some of them in France, especially at Bourges, where they imitate them perfectly well, and the merchants of that city send great quantities of them into Spain.

ANAGROS, a measure for grain, used in some cities of Spain, particularly at Seville. It contains something more than the mine of Paris: so that 46 anagros make 19 septiers, measure of Paris, and 19 septiers of corn are reckoned to be equal to about 10½ quarters of London.

ANANAS, vulgarly called by us the pine-apple, because of its resemblance with the cones of pines and firs, is a fruit which grows in the Antilles islands, and in several other places of the Indies, as well as in South Guinea, and other parts of the world. This fruit was for a long time no otherwise known in Europe, than by the agreeable descriptions which travellers, as it were, vying with each other, strove to give of it. A few years since they have brought us some preserved ananas, by which we may be able to judge, how far the descriptions of travellers are true or exaggerated. And they are now raised to good perfection in England, as well as in other parts of Europe.

All the authors who speak of the ananas, stile it the king of fruits: they say, that, besides its excellent taste, which makes it deserve that name, it carries on its top the ensigns of the royal dignity, in a kind of crown, composed of flowers, or blossoms, and indented leaves of a bright and shining red.

The fruit grows on a stem full a foot high, surrounded with 15 or 16 leaves, as long as those of cardoons, and in shape like those of the aloe-plant; being peaked at the end, somewhat hollow in the middle, and armed on both sides with very sharp thorns.

The fruit arises from the middle of those leaves, and is sometimes of the size of a melon. Its form is pretty much like that of the pine-cone, as has been already observed, its rind being raised in compartments made scale-fashion. Nothing can be more magnificent than the colours it is painted with. Its scales are green, bordered with a carnation colour; the ground is yellow, and, to adorn it the more, from each scale arises a small flower of a purple colour, which falls off as the fruit ripens: on the top is the crown, the ensign of its royal dignity.

The pulp of this fruit is so agreeable to the sight, and of so exquisite a taste, that, in order to give some notion of it, we should unite in our conception a compound of the flavour of the most exquisite fruits. It is said to have something of the peach, the strawberry, the muscadine grape, and of the rennet apple; which all together compose a taste of delicacy beyond expression. Its pulp is something fibrous, but yet it melts in the mouth.

The ananas is propagated neither by its roots, nor by a kind of small and almost imperceptible seed, that is mixed with its pulp, but only by its crown, which, being put into the ground, takes root, shoots out leaves, and a stalk, or stem, and presents a new king of plants and fruits.

V O L. I.

There are three sorts of ananas, distinguished by their colour, their figure, and their taste. 1. The white ananas: though this be both larger and more beautiful than the other sorts, yet it is not of so exquisite a taste; it sets the teeth on edge, and makes the gums bleed. 2. The peaked, or sugar-loaf ananas: this is of a more agreeable taste than the former, but makes the gums bleed. 3. The rennet apple: this, though the smallest, is the most excellent of all. It has the smell and taste of the rennet apple, whence it has its name. It does not set the teeth on edge. Professor Boerhaave reckons six kind of ananas. An excellent liquid confection, or sweet meat, is made of all these several sorts. Some are also preserved whole, and, being taken out of syrup, are iced over with sugar. This sort of sweet-meats is sent over into Europe from the Antilles islands.

The wine made of ananas is almost equal to malmsey. At the end of three weeks it turns. But, if it be kept as many weeks longer, it becomes better than ever, but is more heady. The ananas supplies also the physician with sovereign remedies. It exhilarates the mind, strengthens the heart and stomach, creates appetite, is good against the gravel and stranguary, and is even an admirable antidote against poison.

The water distilled from it has the same properties; but, as it works quicker, and is also very corrosive, it should not be used but by the prescription of the most prudent physicians.

The excellency of this fruit is not too highly extolled by travellers, notwithstanding what Mr. Savary says to the contrary, after having tasted it preserved at Paris. Father Labat is just in his observation, when he says, that the ananas preserved is a fine sight in Europe, at the top of a pyramid of sweet-meats, but that its natural taste and flavour are only to be found in America, they both lying in the juice; which cannot be altered by heat and sugar without its entire dissipation, and consequently the natural taste and flavour must be lost also. He adds, that he brought some into France, which he had caused to be prepared in Martinico with all imaginable care, but that they seemed to him no better than sweetened flax, in comparison to what they were in their natural state.

It is certain, that no one can well judge of the goodness of this fruit, if he has not often tasted it on the spot of its growth. With great difficulty they have been produced, by the means of hot-beds, in Holland, England, and in the French king's gardens; but they could never produce this fruit either of the like bulk or flavour, which it naturally has about 12 degrees distance from the equator.

The flavour of this fruit, when at its maturity, is so sweet, juicy, vinous, and refreshing, that it is eat with great pleasure in hot countries, notwithstanding the want of appetite.

It greatly helps digestion, by reason of its vinous and fermentative quality, which operates efficaciously in the dissolution of our food. It is esteemed, therefore, the best fruit that can be eat at the end of a meal. It strengthens a weak stomach, and creates an appetite. The sick are frequently cured with it, by using it with moderation, and according to the nature of their illness. It is, in a word, the most wholesome of all the fruits of the earth.

As they do not eat so much of it in the Indies as in Europe, by reason of the heat, and because few sit down to supper there, I eat it often of an evening, as many others did, with a pretty quantity of bread, without experiencing the least detriment. It is true, that there is in some sorts of the ananas a certain acidity, that is not very perceptible to the taste, but it makes the lips smart, especially of those whose lips are tender, and who are not used to this fruit; and, sometimes, it makes the gums of scorbutic people bleed.

This has made many European travellers unwilling to eat much of it, from an apprehension that its acrimonious quality is prejudicial. What has strengthened this suspicion is, their observing that the knife with which it is cut grows black, from the strength of its juice, which penetrates the iron, and dissolves a part of it into a matter as black as ink.

The same is related in Mr. de la Loubere's Voyage to Siam, and in that of Labat to the American islands. Notwithstanding this, as long experience has verified the goodness of this fruit, a mere suspicion of its being otherwise should not prevail, Labat himself declaring, that, although he had very often eat of it, yet he had never found the least injury thereby.

Those Europeans who scruple to eat this fruit crude, by reason of its concealed acidity, which affects the lips and gums, think to correct it, by steeping it sliced in wine and sugar, for an hour, in a covered plate. This preparation is very good, but is more agreeable to my taste when I eat it alone, tolerably ripe, says Labat, for then it does not affect the lips or gums; so that this acidity of the ananas seems to be owing only to its state of crudity, which is natural to other fruits, and not to any pernicious quality whatever, when nature has got the better by a due maturity.

The Javans give it a little green, in slices with sugar, to children, for the worms. To be the more efficacious, it must be a little green, but in that state it is injurious to women with child. Persons in a fever, or under any inflammation, should avoid it, by reason of the severity of its ferment, yet it is good to dissipate obstructions in chronic cafes. It is very proper also to prevent the generation of the stone in the bladder,

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bladder,

bladder, and perhaps to dissolve it in time. It is probable, that to the use of this fruit we may ascribe it, that the Indians are scarce ever troubled with the stone or gravel.

This excellent fruit makes part of the refreshment where-with the Indians, and Africans near the line, entertain the European mariners, and barter it for toys and baubles, which they are fond of. And the Europeans are very glad to have a fruit whose sight and taste are so very delightful to them, for trifles.

ANATTA, or **ANNOTTO**, a sort of red dye brought from the West-Indies. It is made of red flowers, which grow on bushes, or shrubs, 7 or 8 feet high. It is thrown, like indigo, into large tubs, or cisterns, full of water, with this difference, that nothing but the flower is used, the leaves of which are stripped off, as is done with regard to roses. These remain in the water till they are rotten; and when, by much stirring, they are reduced into a thick liquid substance, it is exposed to the sun to dry, and afterwards made into rolls, or cakes.

There are none but the Spaniards who now cultivate this plant, and prepare the dye in any quantity, the plantations thereof which the English of Jamaica had at St. Angel's being ruined. The English dyers make more account of this drug than of indigo; and accordingly the merchants of Jamaica, who have it from Porto-Rico, buy it 25 per cent. dearer; for they pay but three rials per pound for indigo, and 4 for anatta. The Europeans who trade in this drug have, at present, the greatest part of it from the bay of Honduras.

ANATOCISM. This word is but very little used in trade; however, as it sometimes occurs, it was thought proper to mention it. It signifies the taking of usurious interest for the loan of money. This is when the lender extorts compound interest, or joins and accumulates together the interests of several years, and requires a new interest to be paid for them, as for the first and true principal.

ANATOLIA, or **ASIA MINOR**, is bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea; on the north-west by the sea of Marmora; on the west by the Thracian Bosphorus, the Propontis, and Archipelago; on the south by the eastern part of the Mediterranean; and, on the east, by the Euphrates, which divides it from Turcomania and Diarbeck, or Diyarbeck. It is divided into four parts, viz. I. Anatolia, properly so called, on the western. II. Caramania, on the southern. III. Aladulla, on the eastern; and, IV. Amasia on the northern part. This whole country is naturally rich and fertile, though the Turkish tyranny hath almost reduced it into a desert. The few plains and dales that are cultivated, though after the Turkish method, in a careless, slovenly and artless manner, do yet yield excellent corn of several sorts, fruits of all kinds, exquisite grapes and wines, the fairest olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, &c. besides abundance of coffee, rhubarb, balsam, opium, galls, and other valuable drugs and gums. To which we may add their twisted cotton, silk, program, yarn, goats-hair, carpets and tapestries, calicuts, cordavans of several colours, and quilted coverlids, which are brought into Europe from thence.

I. **ANATOLIA**, properly so called, is divided into the following districts: 1. Bithynia. 2. Mysia. 3. Æolis. 4. Ionia. 5. Caria. 6. Doris. 7. Lydia. 8. Phrygia. 9. Galatia. 10. Paphlagonia.

1. **BITHYNIA**, the nearest province to Turkey in Europe, is parted from it by the small streight called the Thracian Bosphorus. Prusa, called by the Turks Bursa, still preserves a great share of its antient opulence, though some say that its traffic is much decayed, and the great concourse of merchants so much lessened, that the place is going to ruin; but this seems to be a mistake, since there is a caravan that goes every two months from thence into Persia; besides its being a stage for several others that go from Aleppo, Constantinople, &c. to Ispahan.

The bestine is a large edifice, well built, and filled with warehouses and shops, which exhibit to sale all kind of merchandizes, which are brought hither from the Levant, besides those which are manufactured in the city itself. It is well known that the Bithynian silk, which is by far the finest in all Turkey, is, for the most part, manufactured here, besides a great deal which is brought hither from Persia, which, though much inferior in fineness to theirs, is yet wrought in great quantities by the Prusan workmen, who are allowed to be the best in all Turkey for weaving of hangings, tapestry, carpets, &c. which are from thence carried into all parts of Europe, and are there in great request.

Nice, called by the Turks İsmich and Nichar, though much fallen from its ancient grandeur, hath a convenient haven on the sea of Marmora, over-against Mesampola. The country about it affords very good fruits, and excellent wines. It contains about 10,000 inhabitants, including Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, as well as Turks, who all drive a considerable commerce in corn, fruit, fine cloth, tapestry, and other Levantine manufactures.

Nicomedia, by the Turks named İsmia and İsmigimid, is a large and populous city, with rich and beautiful bazars, or warehouses, markets, halls, and other public edifices. It is situate on a fruitful and delicious hill, the corn, wine, and

fruits that grow thereon being reckoned inferior to none in Turkey. It is computed to contain about 30,000 inhabitants, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, all driving a considerable traffic in manufactures of silks, cottons, woollen and linnen cloths, earthen ware, and glass of all sorts, which make it one of the most trading cities in these parts. Besides all these, the greatest part of the saics, barques, and other trading vessels belonging not only to this city, but even to the merchants of Constantinople, are built here.

Chalcedon was once a city of great traffic and opulence, but it is now dwindled almost to nothing.

2. **MYRIA** and **LESSER PHRYGIA**, have the Propontis for their northern boundary; the Hellespont on the west; Phrygia Major on the east; and Lydia and the Archipelago on the south. The Marmora islands abound with corn, wine, fruits, cotton, and pasture grounds, whereon are bred great quantities of cattle. Præconessus, the largest of them, is famed for its marble quarries.

Lampascus, now Lampasco, was formerly celebrated for the excellent wines it produced; and the territory about it is still covered with fine vines and pomegranats, which the Turks cultivate under pretence of preserving the raisins, but, in fact, make good wine and brandy of them.

3. **ÆOLIS**, has Phrygia Minor on the north; the Ægean, or Æolian sea on the west; Ionia on the south; and Lydia on the east. Nothing occurs here under the article of trade.

4. **IONIA**, is the next province to Æolis, about the boundaries of which geographers differ. Its only considerable city is the following;

Smyrna, by the Turks called İsmyr, is one of the finest ports in the Levant, being situated at the bottom of a bay capable of containing the largest navy in the world; and, by its general and flourishing trade, being one of the greatest and richest cities in the Asiatic Turkey. The commodiousness of its harbour hath rendered it the common rendezvous of the greatest mercantile shipping in all the four parts of the world, and the staple of their merchandize.

It was very considerable in the time of the Romans, and hath been all along famed for its great commerce with all nations, especially the English, many of our considerable merchants residing in it, and having a consul to protect them.

This city is reckoned to contain 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, near 2000 Jews, besides Armenians, Franks, &c. The Persian caravans pour in their merchandizes all the winter months; that is, from the beginning of November to that of May, consisting, communibus annis, of about 2000 bales of silk, besides other cloths of linnen, cotton, &c. drugs, gums, &c. From England, France, Italy, and Holland, are imported cochineal, indigo, brasil-wood, campeachy-wood, copperas, spices of all sorts, tartar, vitriol, paper, tin, steel, enamel; all sorts of cloths, furs, Delft and Ancona ware, and a great quantity of other commodities. From thence, in return, is brought Persian silk, mohair, cotton, fine and coarse wool, wax, gall-nuts, rhubarb, opium, scammony, aloes, tutty, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacant, ammoniac, arabic, myrrh, frankincense, zedoar, cassiamunair, &c. besides great variety of tapestry.

The whole traffic is here, as well as in all Turkey, managed by the brokerage of the Jews, the Turks never transacting any bargain with Christians in any case, but leaving it to those subtle brokers, who make a great hand of it, and are all wealthy, and live very handsomely, and some of them splendidly, by it. The whole town is a continued bazar, or fair, where nothing that can be wished for is wanting, either for cloathing, sustenance, or pleasure; because all the best commodities of Asia and Europe are brought hither, and sold at cheap rates.

The territory about Smyrna is very fertile with fine olive-trees and vines; and the wine made here is excellent. The consuls of England, France, and Holland live here in a very stately manner.

5. **CARIA**, is bounded on the north by Ionia and the river Mæander: on the east by Great Phrygia and Lydia; and, on the south and west, by the Icarian sea.

6. **DORIS**, projects into the sea, and is surrounded by it on all three sides, and is only joined to Caria on the north. It hath the island of Scio, or Cos, and that of Rhodes, on the south and south-west.

7. **LYDIA**, alias **MÆONIA**, borders to Phrygia on the east, to Mysia on the north, and to Caria on the south, but its limits, strictly speaking, lie between Æolis on the south-west, Mysia on the north-west, Caria on the south, and Phrygia Major on the east. In this province is the river Pactolus, famed for its golden sands, and the mountain Tmolus, celebrated for its saffron and excellent wines.

The country round Thyatira, called by the Turks Akisher, is covered with cotton-trees and corn-fields, and a part of it, though uncultivated, with tamarisks. Here are some inferior workmen in the cotton-work, which is the chief manufacture of the place.

Magnesia ad Sipylum, called by the Turks Surlcteffar, is reduced from a once large and populous city to an ordinary trading town, and subsists chiefly on the manufacture of cotton-yarn.

Laodicea,

Laodicea, once one of the most considerable trading towns of Asia, especially for the exchange of money, is now nothing but a vast heap of ruins.

Dinghies is large, and well-peopled, and drives a considerable trade.

8. **PHRYGIA MAJOR**, has Pamphylia on the south; Mysia on the west; Bithynia on the north; and Galatia on the east. This country would be vastly fruitful, if well cultivated. Cotyæum, now Chiutaia, is a large, populous, and flourishing town.

Synada, was antiently much famed for its fine marble, which was of a beautiful white, spotted with red and purple, and of a great price.

9. **GALATIA**, by the Turks now called Chiagarc, hath Phrygia Major on the west; Paphlagonia on the north; Pamphylia on the south; and Cappadocia on the east. This country was antiently esteemed a rich, fertile one, and was famed for producing the amethyst stone in great quantities.

Ancyra, called by the Turks Angouri, formerly the capital of Galatia, and a noble city, is still a populous, trading place, chiefly in camblets, and such light stuffs.

The city of Aphion, or Aphium, has its name from the quantities of opium which are made in and about it, the whole territory producing great crops of poppy, from which that excellent drug, called by the Turks aphion, is extracted.

10. **PAPHLAGONIA**, by some made a part of Galatia, together with Pontus, lies on the north of Galatia, is divided on the east from Cappadocia by the river Halys; on the west by that of Parthenius. At present it is called, in the Turkish, the country of Pender, or Boli.

Heraclæa Ponti, now Penderachi, of Eregri, is quite sunk from its antient splendor and commerce.

Amastris, now Amastro, from being a famed sea-port under the Roman and Greek empires, is now dwindled to nothing by reason of the loss of its commerce.

Teuthranta, now Tripoli is still a good port-town.

Sinope, now Sinabe, is at present a place of good trade, and maintains a very profitable fishery. The country about it is fertile, if it was well cultivated; witness the many olive-trees of considerable bigness that grow in it. Strabo long since observed, that, in all the coasts from this city quite to Bithynia, there grew great numbers of trees, such as olive, maple, and walnut, with some of which the inhabitants used to build ships; and of others, such as the maple and walnut, they made fine tables, cup-boards, and other utensils. The same is done at present, except that, instead of tables, which the Turks do not use, they make sophas, and other sorts of flooring, wainscoting, and other household ornaments. Junapolis, now Cinopolis, formerly a good trading town, is now quite inconsiderable. See **AMASIA**, and **ALADULIA**.

ANATRUM, which is more commonly spelt **ANATRON**, the scum of glass, which swims in the crucible when the matter is in fusion. That scum which appears variegated with divers colours, especially with grey, white, brown, and blue, contains a kind of salt proper to fatten sheep, and which is also given to pigeons. When it is reduced to powder, and left exposed to a moist air, a part of it dissolves, and the remainder that is found coagulated at the bottom of the vessel differs but little from common salt.

ANCHOR, an essential material belonging to a ship. It is a very large and heavy iron instrument, with a double hook at one end, and a ring at the other, by which it is fastened to a cable. It is cast to the bottom of the sea, or rivers, where taking its hold, it keeps ships and vessels from being drove away by the wind, tide or currents.

The parts of an anchor are, 1. The ring to which the cable is fastened. 2. The beam, or shank, which is the longest part of the anchor. 3. The arm, which is that which runs into the ground. 4. The flouke, or fluke, by some called the palm, which is that broad and peaked part, with its barbs, like the head of an arrow, which fastens into the ground. 5. The stock, a piece of wood fastened to the beam near the ring, serving to guide the fluke, so that it may fall right, and fix in the ground.

There are several kinds of anchors. 1. The largest is called the sheet-anchor, and is never used but in violent storms, to hinder the ship from being drove ashore. 2. The two bow-anchors, or bowers, which are less, and are used for ships to ride in a road, or harbour. They are also called the first and second bower, or best and small bower. 3. When a vessel is to be brought up or down a river by the winds, though the tide be contrary to it, the seamen set their fore-fail, fore-top-fail, and mizen-fail, and let her drive with the tide. If she comes too near the shore, they have a little anchor ready, which is called the rodder, or redgo-anchor, with a hawser fastened to it from the ship; and this they drop in the middle of the current, by which means they wind her head about; after which they take up the anchor again. 4. The stream anchor, is a small anchor, made fast to the stream-cable, for a ship to ride by in gentle streams and in fair weather. 5. The grapnel, is an anchor for a small ship or boat.

Merchants, traders, and others, who fit out ships for sea, cannot be too careful with regard to the goodness of anchors, since upon them chiefly depends the preservation of ships and cargoes, and even the lives of all those who are on board.

They ought, therefore, to take care that the iron of which the anchors are made be neither too soft nor too brittle, both these defects being very dangerous. If the iron be brittle, the anchor is apt to break; and, if it be too soft the anchor will bend. In order to make anchors of a good quality, it is sometimes the practice to conjoin the brittle iron with soft and tough iron; and, for this reason, the Spanish or Swedish iron ought to be preferred, and united together, the former being soft, and the latter brittle.

Aubin, in his Marine Dictionary, observes, that the anchors of a large vessel are made smaller in proportion than those of a small vessel. The reason of which, says he, is, that though the sea exerts an equal force against a large ship as against a small one, supposing that they both have an equal extent of wood in the water, which gives room to the water to act equally against an equal extent; yet the small vessel, on account of its lightness, has not the same strength with the great one, to resist the force of the water, which must be supplied by the weight of the anchor.

From these, and other hydrostatic principles, which are not necessary to trouble the generality of traders with, the following table has been formed; wherein is shewn, by means of the ship's breadth within, how many feet the beam, or shank, ought to be long, giving it four tenths, or two fifths, of the ship's breadth within; by which proportion may be regulated the length of the other parts of the anchor. In this table is represented likewise the weight an anchor ought to be for a ship from 8 feet broad to 45, increasing by 1 foot's breadth.

Breadth of the vessel	Feet.	Length of the anchor	Feet.	Weight.
	8		3 $\frac{1}{2}$	33lb.
	9		3 $\frac{3}{4}$	47
	10		4	64
	11		4 $\frac{1}{4}$	84
	12		4 $\frac{1}{2}$	110
	13		5	140
	14		5 $\frac{1}{4}$	175
	15		6	216
	16		6 $\frac{1}{4}$	262
	17		6 $\frac{1}{2}$	314
	18		7	373
	19		7 $\frac{1}{4}$	439
	20		8	512
	21		8 $\frac{1}{4}$	592
	22		8 $\frac{1}{2}$	681
	23		9	778
	24		9 $\frac{1}{4}$	884
	25		10	1000
	26		10 $\frac{1}{4}$	1124
	27		10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1259
	28		11	1405
	29		11 $\frac{1}{4}$	1572
	30		11 $\frac{1}{2}$	1728
	31		12	1906
	32		12 $\frac{1}{4}$	2097
	33		13	2300
	34		13 $\frac{1}{4}$	2515
	35		14	2742
	36		14 $\frac{1}{4}$	2986
	37		14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3242
	38		15	3512
	39		15 $\frac{1}{4}$	3796
	40		16	4096
	41		16 $\frac{1}{4}$	4426
	42		16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4772
	43		17	5138
	44		17 $\frac{1}{4}$	5451
	45		18	5832

The inhabitants of the island of Ceylon use large round stones instead of anchors. And, in some other places of the Indies, the anchors are a kind of wooden machines, loaded with stones. Some pretend that vessels fastened with these sorts of machines keep steadier than those that have iron anchors, or only a stone*.

* They who are desirous of studying this subject more thoroughly may read the Discourse upon Anchors, wrote by Dr. John Bernouilli, LL. D. which, in the year 1737, carried the prize in the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

Anchors in France, pay duty on importation 50 sols per hundred weight.

ANCHORAGE, a sea-term, signifying in general a place where a ship may cast anchor.

It signifies also a duty which masters of merchant-men pay in several ports of France to the king, or the admiral, for the liberty of anchoring in those ports. This duty is not reckoned part of the average; and insurers of ships are not bound to make it good. It is due, and paid by the masters of ships, according to the ordonnance of the marine made in the year 1681.

Anchorage in England, also denotes a duty taken of ships for the pool of the haven, where they cast anchor. The ground in all ports and havens being the king's, no man can cast an anchor into any port, without paying for it to the king's officer

cer appointed by patent. It must be considered, that in whatever port, haven, or harbour, an anchor is cast, it should be commodiously situated, with a proper depth of water, and convenient bottom for anchorage.

ANCHOVY, a very small sea fish, which some take to be only a kind of sprat, and others mistake it for the sardine, or pilchard. But, if we are to judge of it by its figure and taste, it may be affirmed that it is a particular fish in its kind, which has but a small resemblance of the sprat and sardine, but nothing besides like them.

The anchovies are fished on the coast of Provence, in the months of May, June, and July, at which season shoals of this fish regularly come into the Mediterranean, through the straits of Gibraltar. They are sent to Paris from Nice, Cannes, Antibes, St. Tropez, and some other places in Provence. Vast quantities of them are also exported into foreign countries. They are likewise found in plenty in the river of Genoa, as also on the coast of the isle of Gorgone, which lies over against Leghorn; these are reckoned the best. There is, besides, a great quantity of them that comes from Sicily.

It is remarkable that anchovies are seldom fished but in the night-time. If a fire be kindled on the poop of the vessels used for this fishing, the anchovies will come in greater numbers into the nets; but then it is asserted, that it has been found by experience that anchovies taken thus by fire are neither so good, nor so firm, and will not keep so well, as those which are taken without fire.

When the fishery is over, they pull off the heads of all the anchovies, gut them, and afterwards range them in barrels of different weights, the largest of which do not weigh above 25 or 26 pounds, and they put a good deal of salt in them. Some also pickle anchovies in small Delft, or earthen, pots, made on purpose, of 2 or 3 pounds weight, more or less, which they cover with plaster, to keep them the better.

Anchovies should be chosen small, fresh pickled, white on the outside, and red within. They must have a round back; for those that are flat, or large, are often nothing but sardines. Besides these qualities, the pickle, on opening the pots, or barrels, must be of a good taste, and not have lost its flavour.

ANCONA, a marquisate in Italy, is bounded on the north and east by the Adriatic sea, and by the Abruzzo and Umbria, and the duchy of Urbino, on the west. Its soil is fertile, and its chief manufactures are flax and wax, which are whitened here to great perfection.

The city of **ANCONA**, standing on the Adriatic shore, over against Dalmatia, is very conveniently situated for carrying on a traffic into all the countries on the opposite shore. It was anciently very famous for it, and flourishing, but is very much decayed since Venice has ingrossed all the trade of this sea. However, pope Clement XII, by a decree, dated February 16, 1732, erecting it into a free port, has endeavoured its recovery. The harbour is a very good one, and, tho' built by the emperor Trajan, the marble of it looks as fresh as ever. The trade at present chiefly consists in silk stuffs and dressed leather. The Jews are almost the only people that carry on the business here, which greatly enriches them. They have built themselves a very stately synagogue.

There is no money coined in this city; but all foreign coin is received there upon the foot of the Spanish pistole, which is reckoned worth 31 julios; the julio, at the rate of 7 fols, 1 denier and $\frac{2}{3}$ French money (about 3 pence English) the pistole at the rate of 11 livres, and the crown at the rate of 60 fols.

Gold Coin.

The Spanish pistole	—	—	—	31 julios.
The pistole of Italy	—	—	—	30
The new sequin	—	—	—	19
The old sequin	—	—	—	18
The Hungarian sequin	—	—	—	17

Most of the ships bound for the ports of the Levant take off those last species at Ancona, for which they give the bankers, or money-changers, a profit of $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and even to $\frac{3}{4}$ julio, according to the scarcity of the species they want, or the greater or lesser occasion they have for them.

As to other coin, the evaluation is as follows:

Other Coin.

The Roman crown	—	—	—	10 julios.
The julio	—	—	—	10 bayoccos.
The bayocco	—	—	—	4 quadrens.

Of Weights and Measures.

The pound weight at Ancona is but 9 ounces and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the Paris pound; so that 100 pounds weight of the former make but 60 of the latter. Their gros weight is a quintal of an 100 lb. and makes about 73 lb. weight of London.

The length of the bracciata, or fathom, is 1 foot 11 inches and 6 lines of the royal foot at Paris: so that 100 fathoms of Ancona make about 54 ells of Paris, and 100 ells or auns of Paris make 128 yards $\frac{1}{4}$ of London.

Their measure for linnen and woollen is the brace, and is about 27 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches of London.

Their monies and exchanges in general being the same as at Rome, we refer to that general head for an ample account thereof.

R E M A R K S.

The erecting of the port of Ancona into a free port by a decree of pope Clement XII, dated February 16, 1732, extracted from the Supplement au Corps diplomatique du droit des gens, tom. ii. part 2. art. 154.

By that decree his holiness abolishes and suppresses all duties, imposts, and taxes, which used to be paid till then in the said port and city, and bestows upon them the following privileges:

1. Commanders and masters of ships, and merchants of all nations, shall freely enter the port of the city with their vessels and effects, to trade and dispose of them there as they shall think fit, either by wholesale or retail, and shall afterwards have liberty to depart from thence in perfect safety.
2. In order to remove all apprehensions merchants might be under of being detained too long, in case any dispute should arise concerning their merchandizes, his holiness consents that the consuls of merchants should take cognizance of the matter, and confirms all the privileges formerly granted to them, to enjoy them after the same manner as the consuls do in the Levant and in Portugal; and for the greater ease of the merchants of the Levant, or of Portugal, and that they may not lose their time or their money before other tribunals, in case they be not satisfied with the sentence of their own consuls, his holiness orders that they shall bring no appeal but to the consuls of merchants, to whose sentence they shall be obliged to submit.
3. The merchants and workmen who shall settle in the said city, shall be free, during 10 years, of all taxes called bene stante, (or taxes upon land, as is said in Savary; but it should rather be taxes upon people in good circumstances) and of all duties of importation of foreign wine and oil for their own use and consumption.
4. All ships laden with merchandizes that shall land in the port of Ancona, shall have liberty to sell and negotiate them to the best advantage; as also to unload their effects, and lodge them in the common warehouses of the city, and to send them out of town by water, without paying any duty or impost, except with regard to grain and mafferie, or household goods and furniture from foreign countries, which shall not be imported without a special licence.
5. To prevent all disorders with respect to merchandizes already prohibited, as woollen cloth, silk, brocades, laces of gold, silver, silk, or thread, &c. and others, the importation of which into the state of the Church might be prohibited hereafter, his holiness commands that it shall be free to export them out of the said city, and for that purpose a place shall be appointed, where they may be safely kept till the ships be ready to export them out of the dominions of the Church, or to such other places where they shall not be prohibited: and, for the said warehouse-room, there shall be paid only 5 bayoccos for a cart-load of the said merchandizes, which shall be freely carried out of the harbour, without paying any duty or impost.
6. The lazaretto, or pest-house, of Ancona, shall be thoroughly cleaned, and the inspectors of health shall take all possible care of the public security.
7. No person shall perform the office of a broker without being first examined, and procuring a certificate from the consuls, and the number of brokers shall be fixed.
8. For the encouragement of all traders, and preventing all disputes among them, his holiness orders that the effects that shall have been sold, or negotiated, in the free city and port of Ancona, shall be immediately subject to the usual and public duties, by paying the small tax abovementioned, without any alteration; which is to be understood, both with regard to the effects exported by water, and to those imported or exported by land.
9. There shall be people appointed on purpose to pack and unpack the merchandizes, whose salary shall be fixed.
10. The duty of anchorage for all vessels entering the free port of Ancona within the following district, namely, from the point di Falconara, in a strait line to the rock della Volpe, whether those vessels be loaded, or only in ballast, and from what place soever they come, shall be as follows:

For small vessels, sailing in the gulph of Venice, of the bulk of 50 migliaia, or 75 rubbia	}	crowns.	bayocc.
For larger vessels, in proportion to their bulk, to 200 migliaia, or 300 rubbia	}	2	0
For small vessels, sailing without the gulph, of 50 migliaia			
For larger, in proportion, to 200 migliaia	}	4	0
For all other large vessels sailing both within and without the gulph, namely, ships, patachias, flutes, brigantines, pinks, and other such vessels, of 200 migliaia, or 300 rubbia			

For those of 300 migliaia	—	—	10	o
For those of 450 migliaia	—	—	15	o
For all larger ships	—	—	20	o

11. The captains or masters shall on their arrival declare to the castorhallo (or register), or to his clerks, the quality and quantity of the effects they have on board, the persons to whom they are directed, for the sake of preventing all disorders, particularly with regard to prohibited goods.

12. All captains and masters are forbid to unload any ballast, or to throw any dirt in the harbour, under the penalty of 200 crowns, and a place is appointed where ballast may be cast.

13. According to the custom practised in all ports, the vessels which shall lie in that of Ancona, shall be obliged to provide themselves with biscuit, salt, flesh, wine, &c. as they shall have occasion for.

The erecting of Ancona into a free port was looked upon with an evil eye by the Venetians, because it draws thither the merchants from the Levant, and from the north, who were used to go to Venice.

The other principal places of trade in the marquisate of Ancona, are;

The city of **LORETTO**, whose whole traffic consists in pilgrims staffs and dresses, crucifixes, images, beads, medals, &c. and is very considerable, on account of the vast confluence of strangers hither.

RECANATI, is reckoned a good trading city, and has a fair in September which lasts 15 days.

The city of **TOLENTINO**, likewise is much resorted to by merchants of all sorts, on account of its fairs.

ANCONY, at the iron works, a bloom wrought into the form of a flat iron bar, about three feet long, with two square rough knobs, one at each end.

ANDALUSIA, a province in Spain, is divided on the north from Estremadura and New Castile by the chain of mountains called Sierra Morena; on the east from Portugal by the river Chauca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the south it hath the ocean, the mouth of the streights of Gibraltar, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the south-east it hath the kingdom of Granada.

R E M A R K S.

No part of Spain exceeds this in wealth and fertility, in commerce from without, and plenty of every thing within themselves; the former is owing to their maritime situation, and commodious harbours; the latter to the richness of their country, and the number of its inhabitants; the surprising quantities of wheat, wines, and oil it produces, is almost beyond credibility; and we have been well informed of one single town which hath been known to make 75,000 pipes of wine, and the same quantity of oil in a year. They abound also with numberless cattle throughout the whole province.

It is also needless to mention the so well known exquisite oranges, citrons of Seville, and fine raisins, almonds, figs, pomegranates, &c. that are the natural growth of this province. Here is likewise a great plenty of curious white salt, the best of sugar, fine scarlet berries for dying, and, in a word, every thing that can make a country wealthy and delightful.

They have also rich mines of gold, silver, and base metals, which have been wholly neglected since the discovery of America. Nor should we omit their most celebrated breed of horses, so famous in all ages and nations; for it is certain that those of the river Guadalquivir, or the famed Bætis of the ancients, have always exceeded all other parts of Spain for the finest and fleetest; and the city of Cordova still retains its ancient reputation, for being the best breeders of that noble and useful creature.

1. **SEVILLE**, or **SEVILE**, is the capital city in this province, and the greatest next to Madrid. It is seated in a most fruitful plain, on the river Guadalquivir, which is navigable for large vessels near 40 miles from the mouth of it, and over which it hath a stout bridge of seventeen boats, which joins the city to a large suburb on the other side, called Triana, which is well filled with inhabitants, and variety of tradesmen of all denominations.

R E M A R K S.

The Casa de Contratacion, or India House, was erected here in the year 1513, for the regulation of every thing that relates to the Spanish West India trade: and a royal court anno 1556, consisting of a regent and eight judges.

The exchange, which was built here for the accommodation of merchants, is said to have cost a million of ducats. The mint keeps here 180 officers in pay, and, when it works, can coin 700 marks, each containing eight ounces of gold and silver, in a day. The custom-house maintains 257 officers, whose salaries amount to 54,000 ducats per ann.

Here the great heat of the summer is fully recompensed by the pleasantness of the three other seasons, as well as by the abundance of all things for sustenance and delight; and more

particularly by the neighbouring wood, called the Ajarazet, or the farm of olives. This delightful place, which extends 27 miles in compass, doth produce several thousand tons of oil annually, whilst the adjacent plains and vallies do yield no less a plenty of corn and wine.

Among the manufactures that are carried on in this city, those of the silk and silver stuffs are the most considerable. In the suburb of Triana, on the other side of the river, there are 50 workhouses of several sorts of curious earthen ware, particularly of glazed tiles for chimnies, like those made in Holland.

Here is likewise made an excellent soap, of which 15,000 hundred weight is transported into other ports of Spain, or exported into foreign countries. Without the city are salt-pits, and rich quarries of the finest jasper marble, and other curious stones. But the most considerable branch of trade here has been that of the West Indies, which Roderigo Caro cast up out of the books of the India-House, taking the returns from those countries, as entered at Seville, from anno 1492 to anno 1592, that being the first century after their discovery, and found it to amount to the value of five thousand millions, in gold and silver, pearl, and other products of Spanish America. This was only what was entered, and what was not is reckoned still more; and, were the entries examined of the next century, from anno 1592 to 1692, there is little doubt but it would greatly exceed the other. But the trade of Spanish America is now carried on by the way of Cadiz, or Cales, in this same province.

All along the river are many curious and commodious keys, where vessels of good burthen may safely lie. The convenience of this navigable river, from the mouth of which, keys are distant about 36 miles, brings hither a vast concourse of merchants shipping, who have stately houses in the city and suburbs, and live in a splendid manner; which is always found to be the case wherever commerce flourishes in any tolerable degree.

2. **CORDOVA** is the next city in dignity to Seville in this province. It stands on a fertile and delicious plane, at the foot of one of the mountains of Sierra Morena, and in a pleasant wholesome air. Besides the extraordinary fruitfulness of its soil round about, which supplies it with plenty of the best wheat, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing that can render it delightful and opulent, it carries on a great variety of trades and manufactures, and particularly the woollen and silken of the finest kind, and in very great perfection; and also that of a curious gilt leather, in great request there as well as in foreign countries.

But, above all, it is famed for its fine breed of horses, which are reckoned the most fleet and mettlesome, as well as the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe.

3. **CADIZ** is the next in rank of the royal cities in this province. The advantageous situation of this city for maritime traffic, drew in formerly a series of other nations, such as the Phœnicians, Babylonians, Egyptians, Phocians, and other Greeks, and afterwards the Carthaginians and Romans, who were all possessed of it by turns, though the Romans longer than any other. The spaciousness of the harbour, its being surrounded by the sea, seated upon the ocean, so near the Mediterranean, and within so short a passage over to Africa, made it of such consequence, that whatever nation was possessed of it; did still endeavour to add something to its strength and grandeur.

What renders Cadiz the more considerable at present, is its convenient situation for the reception of all merchandises sent by the several European nations thither, in order to go by the galleons and flota to Spanish America afterwards; these Spanish bottoms being only authorized by his Catholic majesty for that purpose.

The council of the Spanish West-Indies at Madrid has the sole controul of this important affair; and they appoint the tribunal of contraction resident at Seville, for the due care and inspection of the galleons and flota at Cadiz, at their outset to, and return from, America, in order to prevent all frauds in the royal revenues of Spain. See the articles **GALLEONS** and **FLOTA**, and the trade of **SPANISH AMERICA**.

4. **XERES DE LA FRONTERA**, is another city in this province, seated on the banks of the little river Guadaletta, about 6 miles from the sea, and about 50 south from Seville. Its territory is so rich and fruitful, that, besides vast quantities of wheat, fruit, cattle, and provisions of all sorts, it yields annually 60,000 pipes of the wine we call sherry. It has likewise been reckoned to breed in those plains about 2000 horses every year, till of late.

5. **GIBALTAR**, a famed and well-known sea-port on the mouth of the Streights.

R E M A R K S.

Since the English have been masters of this town, it is become a place of considerable trade, which it was not before, especially between the coast of Barbary and this place: the English merchants here having great warehouses of all kinds of goods of the growth of Barbary; so that they furnish the merchants of London on as good terms as they usually had them in Barbary; and, by the convenience of shipping, can send them to England in smaller quantities than by loading

vessels wholly, as they were obliged to do before. They had a great trade here by barco longos, and open vessels, with the Barbary coast, when we had war with the emperor of Morocco; so that the trade is never shut up: and Gibraltar is now the market for the wax, copper, almonds, drugs, and other products of Barbary, which they sell to the Spaniards, especially wax, in very large quantities.

The city is reckoned impregnable on the land side, and is extremely strong to the sea also, and has proved of the last importance to Great-Britain, in wars with Spain or France. Nor is it of less importance to the English in case of a war with the Moors of Sallee, or with the Turks of Algiers; here being generally, on such occasions, men of war stationed to cruise upon those rovers, and to convoy our merchantmen in time of danger. See the article MEDITERRANEAN, for the importance of Gibraltar to Great-Britain.

6. **EZIZA**, or **ECIJA**, seated on the Xenil, a little above where that river falls into the Guadalquivir, and on a fertile and delightful plain, producing immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, silk, and especially cotton and fine horses.

7. **SAN LUCAR** is a city and port situate at the mouth of the Guadalquivir, 45 miles below Seville, and serves as a port to that celebrated city, and well known throughout Europe; but was much more considerable before the Spanish and West-India fleets were allowed to set out from, and return to, Cadiz.

8. **LUCENA** is as deliciously seated as any city in Europe, no spot of ground producing greater plenty of generous wine, fine oil, and choice provisions, than this territory doth.

These are the chief cities in this province of Spain, which are any thing remarkable for trade. And as the others abound in the like productions, it is needless to make repetitions.

ANDIRA, or **ANGELYN**, a tree of Brazil, the wood of which is hard and fit for building. Its bark is of an ash-colour, and its leaves are like those of laurels, but smaller: it produces blackish buds, from which arise a great many blossoms in a cluster, which are odoriferous, and of a fine purple and blue colour. Its fruit is of the size and figure of a hen's egg; it is green at first, but becomes black by degrees, and has a suture, or seam, on one side: it is extremely bitter, and has a very hard shell, and in the inside there is a yellowish seed, or kernel, of a bad taste, something bitter, and astringent.

That kernel, being pulverized, is given for killing worms, but the quantity taken must be less than a scruple; for they say it would be a poison if too much of it was taken.

The bark, the wood, and the fruit of this tree, are as bitter as aloes; and herein it differs from another andira, which is like it in all respects, excepting its taste, which is insipid. The wild beasts eat of its fruit, which makes them grow fat.

ANÉE, or **ASNÉE**, a measure for grain, used in some provinces of France, particularly in Languedoc and Maconnois. It is not, however, a real measure, such as the minot may be at Paris, but rather a collection of a certain number of other measures.

At Lyons, the anée contains 6 bichets, which make a septier, and 3 bushels (boisseaux) of Paris. At Mâcon the anée is of 20 measures, which amount to a septier and 8 bushels of Paris.

With regard to foreign measures, 4 anées of Lyons make 7 muids of Amsterdam, which contain but 3 anées of Mâcon.

ANÉE also signifies, at Lyons, a certain quantity of wine, which is the load an afs can carry at once; (from whence that name was taken; for ane, or afne, signifies an afs in French) that load is fixed at 80 pots (or English quarts, wine measure). The bichet of Lyons weighs 60 pounds, and the afné 360. The weight of Lyons is 16 per cent. lighter than that of Paris, by 16 marks per 100 pounds weight, the mark weight. An anée and a bichet make at Marseilles 17 fivadieries; 100 anées make 131 loads and a quarter; and one anée is one load and $\frac{1}{8}$.

The several measures from Lyons to Gray in Franche Comté, and their proportions to the anée of Lyons.

The measure from Neuville to St Genis, within a league in a strait line, is 2 per cent. smaller than that of Lyons.

At Trevoux, and as far as Montmerle, and across the country as far as St. Trivier, 100 neuvaines make 112 anées of Lyons.

From Montmerle to Brief de Davannon, and across the country to Thoissey, 100 anées make 136 of Lyons.

At Pont de Vesse, and Pont de Bage, to Pont de Vaux, 100 anées make 137 of Lyons.

At Mâcon as in the foregoing article.

At Tournus 100 bichets make 120 anées of Lyons.

At Châlons 100 bichets make 85 anées of Lyons.

At Verdun the bichet is equal to the anée of Lyons.

At Beaune 100 bichets make 114 anées of Lyons.

At Seurre 100 bichets make 107 anées of Lyons.

There must be 100 of them at Nuits.

100 b. mines of St Jean de Laune make 126 anées.

At Aulfone 222, and at Maxill 250.

At Marnaud 100 anées make 112 of Lyons.

At Lovaur 100 cartaux make 118 anées of Lyons.

At St. Trivier 100 bichets make 120 anées of Lyons.

At Belleville and at Montmerle, the anée is of 17 measures, which ought to make 17 bichets at Lyons.

The said anée weighs 140 pounds Lyons weight, and 380 pounds mark weight.

ANEGRAS, a measure for corn used at Seville and Cadiz in Spain. Four anegas make a cahis; 4 cahis make a fanega; and 50 fanegas the last of Amsterdam. See weights and measures, under the articles of SPAIN and HOLLAND, reduced to the English standard.

ANGEL, called in French **ANGELOT**, a gold coin struck in England, where some few are still to be seen in the cabinets of the curious. It had its name from the figure of an angel represented upon it. It was 23 carats $\frac{1}{2}$ fine, and weighed 4 pennyweights. Its value in 1 Hen. VI. was 6s. 4d. in 1 Hen. VIII. 7s. 6d. in 34 Hen. VIII. 8s. in 6 Edw. VI. it was 10s. in 2 Eliz. 10s. and in 38 Eliz. 10s. And the half angel, or, as it was sometimes called, the angelet, was worth one half of this, and the quarter angelet in proportion. There have also been angels of gold coined in France, on which was represented the figure of St Michael, holding a sword in one hand, and in the other an escutcheon with three fleurs-de-lis, and trampling a serpent under his feet.

The silver angels, or angelots, which the English, while they were in possession of Paris, under the reign of Charles VI. and in the beginning of that of Charles VII. caused to be struck, had also the figure of an angel, but holding in his hand an escutcheon with the arms of England and France, Henry VI. styling himself king of those kingdoms. These silver angels were worth 15 sols.

ANGELICA, called also **ARCHANGELICA**, or the **ROOT** of the **HOLY GHOST**, in Latin *angelica*, or *radix Syriaca*, a medicinal plant, highly esteemed, because it is thought to be an antidote against poison, for which reason it is used in the composition of Venice treacle.

This plant grows on the highest mountains, and is particularly found in great plenty in those of Bohemia. Its root forms a kind of knot of the bigness of a walnut, from which issue many small blackish threads, a foot long, pretty much like black hellebore. The root is white within, of a thin substance, a sharp taste, and an aromatic scent. The stalk which shoots out of it, grows about a cubit high, it is hollow, and has several knots. It is of a reddish black. Its leaves are of a dark green, long and indented, and its blossoms or flowers, which form a kind of umbrella, are white, and produce a flat seed, of a lenticular figure.

The roots of angelica should be chosen whole, thick, long, brown without, and white within: they must not be worm-eaten, which they seldom escape, when kept. Their smell and taste must be agreeable, aromatic, and something bitterish. They contain a great deal of exalted oil and volatile salt. This root is brought dry from several places. Those that come from Bohemia are better than those of England and Holland. Care must be taken, above all, not to be imposed upon by the roots of maon, a plant which comes from Burgundy: but the imposition may easily be discovered, for the root of angelica is like that of black hellebore, and the root of maon like that of common parsley.

ANGELOT, a sort of small cheese, very fat and excellent. It is made in the country of Bray in Normandy, whence it is called angelot of Bray. This sort of cheese is commonly presented upon table in little moulds, either square, or in the form of a heart.

ANGLESEY, an island and county in North Wales, encompassed by the Irish Sea on all sides, except on the south-east, towards the continent of Britain, where it is divided from Carnarvonshire by the narrow strait of Menen, which in some places, at low water, is fordable, from Beaumaris on the east, to Holyhead on the west.

The soil is more fruitful than could be imagined, it appearing stony, rocky, or mountainous. Giraldus extolled it for the most fruitful country for wheat in all Wales, inasmuch that, in his time, it was proverbially called the mother or nurse of Wales, by reason, when other countries failed, this had such plentiful harvests, that it used to supply all Wales.

It is at this time generally very rich in corn, particularly in wheat, said to be the best in Wales, as also in cattle, fish, and fowl: it produces likewise great plenty of mill-stones and grind-stones, and some allum.

1. **BEAUMARIS** is the chief town, and has a good harbour for shipping; their market is well supplied with provisions, and it is the usual town for the reception of passengers from London to Ireland, before they take shipping for Holyhead.

2. **HOLYHEAD** is the station for the packet-boat to Ireland; it lies opposite to Dublin, to which it is the shortest and the safest passage over St George's channel. The packet-boats from Dublin arrive here three times a week, if the wind permits, and are larger than those to Holland and France, as they ought to be, considering that St. George's channel is so boisterous, especially in the winter.

ANGOLA, a kingdom, which is reckoned part of that of Congo, on the coast of Africa. Angola, though it extends not above 25 or 30 leagues along the coast, furnishes, nevertheless, the Europeans with the greatest number of slaves, and these the best of all Africa. It is true that this kingdom extends

tends very much in length and breadth within land, so that it is not much less than 150 leagues broad, and as many long. Its capital is Loanda san Paolo.

R E M A R K S.

Though the Portuguese are extremely powerful in the inland parts of the kingdom of Angola, and though most of the negroes of this province, which they have subdued, are, as it were, vassals to the crown of Portugal, to which they pay every year a tribute in slaves; yet the trade of negroes, which is carried on at that coast, has always continued free and open to the other European nations; and the English, French, and Dutch, send thither yearly a pretty large number of ships, which carry off several thousands of those poor wretches, and convey them to their own colonies in America, or to those of the Spaniards.

The Portuguese, however, carry off the greatest number; and it is a wonder they have not yet dispeopled the country, considering that almost every year they buy there no less than 15,000 negroes, whom they send into the Brazils, to work in their gold and diamond mines.

The villages, or, as they are called in the kingdom of Angola, the libattes, of Cambamba, Embaco, and Muffingomo, are those which furnish the greatest number of slaves to the Portuguese merchants who carry on that trade.

The commodities which they give in exchange, are woollen cloths with broad lists, striped feather beds, crimson silk, fluffs, linnens, velvets, gold and silver lace, broad black ferges, Turkey carpets, thread of all colours, silk for sewing and quilting, Canary wine, brandy, oil of olives, seamen's knives, spices, refined sugar, large fishing-hooks, large pins an inch long, and others of several sizes, needles, &c.

The Portuguese have also a settlement in Benguela, a small kingdom under the dependency of Angola, where they have some trade; but that place is unwholesome, and more proper to be inhabited by the condemned criminals, whom the tribunal of Lisbon banishes thither, than the dwelling-place of free persons, who follow the profession of merchants.

Our author speaks, after this of LOANGO, MALIMBO, and CABINDO, as three places lying on the coast of Angola; but we find, according to the best maps, and the most accurate geographers, that Loango is a kingdom by itself, though part of Congo in general, and lies a great way to the north of Angola, Congo, properly so called, lying between those two kingdoms. As for Malimbo and Cabindo, [or Malemba and Cabenda, as we suppose our author meant,] we not finding them in the maps, nor in any of the geographical works we have been able to consult under his orthography. However that be, we shall make no alteration.

R E M A R K S.

The negro trade which is carried on in those three places (Loango, Malimbo, and Cabindo) on the coast of Angola, is none of the least considerable, which the English, French, and Dutch, drive on the coast of that part of Africa, with regard both to the number of slaves they meet with there, and to their goodness and strength. The Europeans prefer them before all others, and the inhabitants of the colonies in America always give a better price for them, as being more capable to undergo the labour and fatigue of cultivating and manufacturing sugar, tobacco, indigo, and the other hard work to which these poor wretches are commonly put.

At Loango de Boario they reckon by macoutes and hundreds; each macoute is worth 10, so that 10 macoutes make 100. In order to make that account, they agree with the sellers of slaves about the number of macoutes each sort of merchandize is to be valued at. For instance, 2 Dutch knives are reckoned worth one macoute; an annabasse, or coverlet, with broad stripes, three; a copper bason, weighing two pounds, and 12 inches in diameter, also three; a musquet 30; a barrel of gun-powder weighing 10 pounds, 30 likewise; a piece of blue salampouris (linnen cloth made on the coast of Coromandel) 120 macoutes, which the negroes reckon 1200, and so of the rest.

The price of the merchandizes being thus agreed upon, they afterwards agree about that of the slaves, which is reckoned by hundreds; so that, if you buy a negro, Piezas de India*, for 3,500, you must give 350 macoutes in merchandizes, according to the foregoing valuation, or estimation,

* See the article ASSIENTO TREATY.

Observe, that it seems slaves are paid for something cheaper to the king or queen, or the chiefs, than to private people; because the blue salampouris, which are valued at 1,200, to common merchants, are rated but 600 to the king and queen; which may also be said of some other merchandizes; but yet, upon the whole, it amounts almost to the same.

The price of negroes is settled otherwise at Malimbo and Cabindo. They reckon there by pieces, which is easier than the account by macoutes: but yet there is no difference upon the whole, each sort of merchandize being valued at so many pieces.

When the ships of the French Assiento company went thither for the first time, 10 annabasses were worth one negro, of Piezas de India; a musquet the same; a barrel of gun-powder the same; a piece of salampouris four negroes, or Piezas de India; ten copper basons, one; a piece of chintz, one; and so of the rest.

The long measure used at Loango is called pau. There are three sorts of it; the queen's pau which is 28 inches long, and valued at three macoutes: the pau of the fidalguos's, which is of 24 inches; and that of private persons, which is but 16 inches and $\frac{1}{2}$.

The duties paid at these three places for the liberty of trading are not the same, being something higher at Loango, than at Malimbo and Cabindo, or Malemba and Cabenda. As to the merchandizes, the same sorts are proper for these three places; We shall give hereafter an account of those duties.

Besides the duties agreed upon, there are also presents to be made to the negro kings or princes on that coast, in order to obtain an audience; for it is an established rule never to appear before them, without presenting them with something.

The presents which the French Assiento company made in 1703, to have an audience of the queen of Loango, consisted in ten annabasses, a barrel of brandy containing eighteen quarts, and a pau and a half of scarlet cloth.

Presents are also made to the fidalguos's, or lords; there were at that time three of them, and the present to all three consisted in fifteen annabasses, a barrel of brandy containing 18 quarts, and a pau and a half of scarlet cloth.

BOKE-NEALE, is a province of Africa, situate to the north of the kingdom of Loango, to which it is tributary.

It is reckoned that this province must be above 150 leagues distant from the coast, because the negroes who come from it to trade on the coast, are used to spend above three months in their journey.

Most of the ivory which the people of Loango sell to the Europeans, comes from Boke-neale: they barter it commonly for salt, which they send thither in baskets, and which their slaves carry on their heads. The Europeans also give in exchange large knives, small drinking-pots, palm-oil, and feather-beds, which they barter for pieces of stuff called libongos.

R E M A R K S.

The duties or fees, which were paid by the French Assiento company, were of five sorts, viz. 1. To the queen. 2. To the fidalguos. 3. To the king's mother and to the king's son. 4. To the captain of the coast. And, 5. To the interpreter. The duties for the queen were settled at 40 annabasses, 2 pieces of blue salampouris, or bastas; 2 barrels of gun-powder; 30 copper-basons; two small pewter pots to drink out of; as many earthen ones; 36 padlocks, 48 knives; 2 barrels of brandy, containing 18 quarts each; 3 paws of scarlet cloth; as many of blue cloth; 2 musquets; 24 small bells; 4 looking-glasses with black frames; 2 nicanees; 2 pewter dishes; 4 pounds of black glass beads; 2 fabres; 2 pieces of white salampouris; 2 pieces of coarse blue cotton cloths striped, and as many of painted linnens, and 2 trumpets: all which, according to the manner of reckoning of the negroes, amounted to 10,000 or 11,000, that is to say, 1000 or 1100 macoutes.

The duties to the three fidalguos amounted to about 22 or 23,000, which was 7500 for each of them, which, reduced into macoutes, made 750 macoutes.

The interpreter had about 3000, that is, 300 macoutes.

The king's mother and the king's son 2800, or 280 macoutes; and the captain Manabaza, commander of the coast, about half, which amounts to 1400, or 140 macoutes.

Besides these large duties, there is another small fee or present, consisting in one annabasse and two knives, which are given to each of the merchants who bring the slaves.

All these duties are paid in merchandizes, reduced into macoutes.

The price of the slaves is also rated in macoutes: and, in the year 1704. the price of negroes was settled as follows: the negroes of the queen, and of Macouda, her chief favourite, at 2500 per negro-man, Piezas de India; at 2230 per negro-woman, also Piezas de India; and the negro boys and girls in proportion; that is to say, the former at 250, and the latter at 230 macoutes.

As to the slaves you trade for with the private merchants, their price is not fixed; you give as few macoutes for them as you can*.

* But since the French Assiento, not only the price of slaves, but that of gold, ivory, &c. is advanced 2 or 300 per cent. more; the causes of which will appear under the head of the ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

ANGOUMOIS, a province of France, is bounded by Poitou on the north, Limosin and La Marche on the east, Perigord on the south, and Saintonge on the west.

This province produces abundance of corn, wine, and excellent fruit. The fruit and corn which grow here most plentifully, are wheat, rye, barley, oats, another sort of grain, which

which the French call baillorge, and is pretty much like barley, Spanish wheat, saffron, wine, walnuts.

Wines are the chief and most important branch of the trade of Angoumois. The wines in the greatest repute, and sold preferably to all others, are those of Cogniac and its district, and the next in quality are those of Angouleme.

The red wines are sold in Limosin and Poictou, and the white wines serve to make brandy.

The sale of brandies differs according to the times. During the wars they are bought up by the French commissioners of the stores, for the use of the armies in Flanders and Germany. They are first carried by land to Châtelleraud, where they are embarked on the Vienne, to go afterwards by the Loire to Orleans, from whence they are sent to the places for which they are designed.

In time of peace the sale is easier, quicker, and in greater quantity. They are then sent to Charente below Rochfort, where the English and Danish ships come and take off great quantities, especially of the Cogniac brandies. At Charente is a duty to be paid, which is thought to do some prejudice to the trade.

La Marche. Notwithstanding the great occasion they have for salt in those four provinces, yet the profits on that commodity are very inconsiderable, both on account of the duties that are to be paid at the office of Tonne-Charente, which swallow up the greatest part of them, and of the several tolls belonging to many lords, whose estates are situated upon that river; all which together leave hardly any profit to the trader.

As to the paper and brandy made at Angouleme, we shall speak of them presently.

We refer likewise to the same article, for what relates to the woollen manufactories of this city; we shall only observe that there are few other manufactories there of any note, except that of clock and watch making; which was formerly in great repute, but is at present hardly kept up, because the best workmen are gone to Saintes, Blois, or Poictiers.

We question, whether we ought to reckon, amongst the merchandizes made in this city, the water which from its excellency is called the water of Angouleme, and serves to beautify the complexion. The care which the ladies take of their beauty, occasioned for a long time a great demand for that water; but whether it be, that people have been at last undeceived with regard to its qualities, or disgusted by the high price, it is certain that the demand for it is greatly abated.

ANGOUMOIS and LIMOSIN. We shall join these two provinces under one article, as in the original, they being under the same generality.

Limosin, has Angoumois and Perigord on the west, La Marche on the north, Auvergne on the east, and Quercy on the south. Though Angoumois and Limosin border on each other, yet they are very little alike with regard to the fruitfulness of the soil, or the plenty of things necessary for the support of life, proper for trade.

Angoumois, as observed, produces abundance of corn, wine, and excellent fruit; Limosin, on the contrary, is barren and cold. It produces wine in some places only, and that very indifferent too; wheat hardly any where; rye, barley, and chefnuts are the materials which the inhabitants chiefly use to make their bread.

There are in both these provinces a great number of paper-mills, the manufactory of which is very much esteemed. The paper of Angoumois, that at least which is proper for printing, is chiefly designed for Holland, which is the reason why in most of their manufactories they put the arms of Amsterdam upon it; they likewise send some paper to Paris. That of Limosin is not less excellent for the printing of books; it is, above all, admirable for prints of copper-plates; but it is seldom used for writing, not being sufficiently gummed for that purpose.

The manufactories of woollen stuffs are not very considerable in this generality. At Limoges (the capital of Limosin) they hardly make any other stuffs except bays. At Angouleme they make serges and flamines: at St Jean d'Angeli, serges and broad-cloths: at Nerac, woollen cloths and serges: at la Rochefoucault, serges: at Santereune, cloths; at Cogniac, flamines: at St Leonard, very coarse woollen cloths: and, lastly, at Brioes and Tulle, bays.

All these stuffs are partly used in the places where they are made, and partly sent to Bourdeaux, Limoges, and Angouleme.

The saffron that is made in Angoumois is no inconsiderable object of trade for that country; and, though it be not quite so good as that of Gâtinois, yet they send great quantities of it to Bourdeaux, where the English, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and other northern nations, come and buy it; as they also do the brandies of Cogniac, which are in great esteem, particularly in England and Holland.

They have in Limosin studs of horses, which succeed pretty well; and the greatest part of them are sold at the fairs of Châlus. The barrenness of Limosin, and the inhabitants inclination for labour, are the reasons why several thousands of them leave it every year, and disperse themselves throughout the whole kingdom of France, wherever they can get work, and re-

turn home a little before the winter, bringing to their families such assistance as they could not meet with in their native place: this is to them instead of trade, and by which other provinces grow rich.

The chief income of Upper and Lower Limosin arises from the trade of cattle, chiefly of black-cattle, which are sold partly to the traders of the neighbouring provinces, and partly to those of Paris, who buy up great quantities of them every year. The latter are used to have the cattle fattened in Normandy, before they bring them to Paris; for they grow very lean on the road, because of the length of the journey.

As long as the French had armies in Italy, most of the oxen sent thither for the sustenance of the troops were bought in Limosin, which increased that trade very much.

They also feed flocks of sheep in Limosin; but, as their flesh is not very good, and their wool but indifferent, they bring up so many only as are sufficient for the demands of that province; and the little wool they afford is employed in the woollen manufactories mentioned hereafter.

The trade of horses is not less considerable than that of oxen, if it be not more so. Most of them are sold at the two fairs of Châlus, one of which is kept on St. George's day, and the other on Michaelmas-day; and at the three fairs of Limoges, which are kept in the months of May, July, and December.

Of these five fairs, that which is kept at Châlus on St. George's-day is the most considerable. Most of the horses sent thither are bought, when they are colts, to be afterwards brought up in that country, in Angoumois and in Perigord.

The horses of Limosin are very much esteemed; they last long, and work very hard. They reckon that one year with another they send out of that province between 1,500, and 2000, colts, since the studs, which had been neglected by Monsieur de Louvois's death, have been put again upon a good footing, and since they have brought thither stallions from Spain and Barbary; it appearing from experience that they succeed there better than any other.

The land in Limosin is almost every-where covered with chefnut trees, the fruit whereof serves for food to the country-people, but not, as has been asserted by some, reduced into flour proper to make bread; the flour, or meal, that could be made of chefnuts, being not good to make dough, as that of wheat is; but that fruit really serve them for food instead of bread. Their manner of preparing chefnuts for food is as follows: they take off the first peel, or rind, when they are dry: then they boil them a little, to take off the second peel; and afterwards they boil them intirely to reduce them into a kind of pap. It is a food to which people can easily use themselves; it gives strength and vigour even to those who use no other sustenance, which is the case of most of the peasants. Chefnuts will keep a great while, if they be dried in the shade; but, when they have been thus kept, they are more insipid and less nourishing than those which are fresh, or of the same year's growth.

The open fields of Limosin produce pretty good rye; but, though they be never so well manured and cultivated, they can never be brought to produce wheat. Besides rye, which none but the richest country-people feed upon, they also sow some buck-wheat, and a kind of thick turnip, which, together with the chefnuts, are all the food of the poorest sort.

The country of Angoumois differs very much from the former. Its soil is proper for all sorts of crops; and, though generally speaking, the crops be not very plentiful, and the produce be designed only for home-consumption, yet it is not so much owing to the barrenness of the soil as to the want of a proper cultivation.

The fruit and corn, which grow there most plentifully, are wheat, rye, barley, oats, and baillorge, which is pretty much like barley, as observed; also Spanish wheat, saffron, wines, walnuts, and all sorts of fruit.

Angoumois is not, indeed, at present quite so flourishing in regard to the wine trade, as it was formerly; for that commodity being cultivated in some other provinces of France, particularly in Orleanois and Gâtinois, this has considerably lessened the demand for it; the sale of it being reckoned to amount formerly to above 100,000*l.* per annum. Another reason of the decay of trade here is, that the saffron which grows here is not reckoned so good as that of the other provinces above-mentioned.

However, they send pretty large quantities of it into Germany, and to Lyons, whence it is carried into Hungary, Prussia, and other northern countries, where it is very much used.

Another considerable article of the trade of Angoumois is its forges, particularly those of Rancogne, Planche-Ménier, and Rouffines; the iron of which is very soft, very easy to melt for cast work, and very fit to be worked with the hammer. Most of it is used in making great guns, bombs, and bullets, for the king's arsenals of the marine, and particularly for that of Rochfort.

Lastly, the manufacture of paper, though it has lost very much of the reputation it formerly had in foreign countries, particularly at Amsterdam, yet they still furnish the Dutch with pretty large quantities of it in time of peace; the best printers in Holland always lamenting the want of the paper of Angouleme, which the Dutch have never been able to imitate per-

fectly, whatever pains they have taken, and whatever expence they have been at, for that purpose.

We have seen a memorial, wherein the author asserts, that the abovementioned decay of the paper-trade was not so much owing to the long wars, which took up almost the whole reign of Lewis XIV, as to the duties that were laid on that commodity, or on the materials of which it was made, since the year 1656: namely, the stamp-duty, at the rate of 6 sols per ream of fine paper, and 4 sols per ream of common paper; the duty of exportation at Tonne-Charente, on each bale of paper, which amounts to 4 sols per ream; another duty of importation, established likewise at Tonne-Charente, of 10 sols per 100 weight on all the rags, and on the gum that comes from Poictou, which again raises the price of paper a sol per ream. The author of that memorial is of opinion, that, if those duties were lessened by one half only, the manufactory and trade of paper would soon revive; and that we might see at present, as it was formerly, 60 paper-mills at work in Angoumois, instead of 16 only which remain, and even those are not always employed.

Manufactories of Stuffs.

At **ST JEAN D'ANGELI**, they make woollen cloth, a French ell wide, and flamines. They are sent to Bourdeaux and to Limoges.

At **NERAC**, they make woollen cloth and serges; they are sent to the same places as those of St Jean d'Angeli.

At **ANGOULESME**, they manufacture serges and flamines. They are all sold on the spot.

At **LA ROCHEFOUCAULT**, there is a manufactory of serges. They also make gloves there.

At **LIMOGES, TULLE, and BRINE**, they manufacture bays.

At **ST LEONARD**, they make coarse and thick cloths, proper for clothing the soldiers and peasants.

At **AUBETERRE**, there are no woollen manufactories; but they make there coarse linnens, and paper, which they send to Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Toulouse.

The particular Trade of Limoges and Angoulesme.

LIMOGES, is situated on the river Vienne, which runs along its suburbs on the east side: but that river affords it no great conveniency for trade, because it is hardly navigable, except for floats of timber, on account of the rocks which hinder its course.

This defect of the Vienne, and the great distance at which Limoges is from the sea, make it impossible for the inhabitants to carry on such a trade as the towns situated near the sea-coast have occasionally with foreigners; for which reason they have, by their industry and great labour, opened to themselves a pretty considerable trade with the inland parts of the kingdom, by the correspondence they keep up there, and by making their town a kind of staple for the merchandizes which are sent from Paris to Toulouse, or from Toulouse to Paris; as well as for those which go from Lyons to Bourdeaux, and from Bourdeaux to Lyons.

Limoges is, likewise, the staple for the salt of Brouage, which is used in Auvergne; and it is, also, by the merchants and factors of this city, that the trade is carried on from Auvergne and Lyons to Rochelle.

Beside this staple-trade, if we may call it so, there are a great many manufactories, either within the city of Limoges, or in its neighbourhood, which afford it a trade either within the country, or with the neighbouring provinces, and even as far as Paris.

These manufactories are woollen stuffs, mentioned above; hides, for which there are several tan-houses on the banks of the Vienne, the water of which is proper for dressing leather; gloves, of which great quantities are made at St. Junien, and in some other neighbouring places; paper, which is made in the mills of St. Leonard; nails, particularly for horse-shoes, a great quantity of which is sent to Paris, where they are in good esteem; pins, which employed formerly above 20 masters and 500 journeymen; iron-wire, very soft and malleable; lastly, a vast quantity of silk and thread-buttons, the manufactory of which suffered, indeed, a great deal, as long as the stuff-buttons were in fashion; but it has begun to revive again, since the wear of those buttons has been severely prohibited.

They also make at Limoges enamel of copper, the colours of which are extremely beautiful and lively, because the water of the Vienne is proper for diluting and mixing the colours; but the designs are so ill contrived, that skillful judges make no account of them; they sell, however, pretty well in the neighbouring provinces, and there are even some sent to Paris.

ANGOULESME, the capital city of Angoumois, stands on a high hill, at the foot of which runs the Charente; the neighbourhood of that river does very much contribute to the commerce of this city, and serves to carry abroad the commodities of Angoulesme, and to convey thither such as the people have occasion for. The commodities sent abroad, as observed above, are chiefly brandies and paper; and they import, amongst other things, salt, which is brought from Saintonge in boats to Angoulesme, whence it is carried in carts and on mules, into Auvergne, Limosin, Perigord, and la Marche.

VOL. I.

ANHALT, a principality of Germany, has Misnia on the south, the duchy of Magdeburg and the principality of Halberstadt on the north and north-west; the duchy of Saxony on the east, and Thuringia on the west. Its chief trade is in beer.

1. **DESSAU**. Its trade is in excellent beer, which is transported all over the country.

2. **ZERBST**, is remarkable for the same strong-beer-brewery as at Dessau, but it is said to excel it; insomuch that, in Franconia, it sells dearer than wine.

ANIL, a plant, or shrub, of whose stalk and leaves the indigo is made, which is so much used in dyeing. See **INDIGO**.

ANIMATED. The French give the name of animated gum to a sort of yellowish and transparent gum, which drops by incision from some trees in New Spain.

ANINGA, a root which grows in the Antilles islands, and is pretty much like the China plant. The root of the aninga is now used by sugar-bakers, for refining the sugar, and is more effectual and less dangerous than the sublimate of mercury and arsenic, that were used formerly, before it was found that the aninga-root was proper for that use.

ANJOU, a province of France, bounded on the north by Maine; on the west by Britany; on the south by Poictou; and, on the east, by Touraine.

The trade of this province consists almost intirely in wines, flax, and hemp, of which they make a great deal of thread and linnen; in slate from the quarries, and coals and iron from the mines; in blanching linnens and wax; in refining sugar and salt-petre; in the forges and glass-houses; and lastly, in flamines and druggets of all sorts.

Part of the wine is sent to Nantes, by the river Loire; the rest is distilled into brandy, of which the people of Nantes likewise buy up a great deal; but they send also a pretty considerable quantity of it to Paris, by the canal of Briare.

The chief slate quarries are in the neighbourhood of Angers, and in the parishes of Hotellerie, Flée, la Jaille, and Magné in the election, or district, of Chateau-Gontier.

The coal and iron mines are more plentifully found in the parishes of Courson, St. George, St. Aubin, Luigné, Chateaufons, Chalonne; and Montjean-sur-Loire, than any where else.

The forges, furnaces, and founderies for several iron-works, are at Chateau la-Calliere, and at Paonnée.

The glass-houses are at Chenu in the forest of Vefin, and in some other places; but that at Chenu is the most considerable.

There are two sugar-bakers houses in this province; the one at Angers, and the other at Saumur, in which last city there is also one for refining salt-petre.

There are 10 bleaching-grounds for wax, namely, 7 at Saumur, and 3 at Chateau-Gontier.

There are, also, in these two cities, bleaching-grounds for linnens, and some likewise in other places; but the former are by far the most famous, both with regard to the beauty of the bleaching, and to the great quantity of linnens that are bleached there.

At Angers, they make very fine flamines of wool upon silk, with gold stripes; fine camblets, razes, and other sorts of serges.

At Lude, they make druggets and flamines, which are very much esteemed; they are called after the name of the place where they are manufactured.

At Chateau-Gontier, besides the same sorts of stuffs as are made at Lude, they make also quilted serges.

Lastly, there are flamines, serges, and druggets made at la Flèche, Beaugé, Doué, Montreuil-Pelay, Beaufort, and Durtal.

All these stuffs, except those made at Angers and Lude, most of which are sent to Paris, are used within the province, and are sold at Lude, Lavat, Saumur, and Angers.

As for the linnens of Anjou and Touraine, the best manufactories, and where the greatest quantity of them is made, are at Chateau-Gontier, Beaufort, and Cholet.

The linnens of Chateau-Gontier are sent to St Malo for foreign countries; and those of Cholet are sold in Poictou, at Rochelle, and at Bourdeaux.

Those of Beaufort, which are commonly bleached at Doué in Anjou, are designed partly for the French islands in America, and partly, if they be coarse, for making small sails for ships, and for packing up merchandizes.

They also make at Cholet a great many fine striped linnens, for which they have a considerable demand; they are commonly made of raw flax, and serve to make waistcoats, and linings for men's cloaths, and summer night-gowns for women. They manufacture, likewise, at Cholet, those linnens called platilles.

The greatest trade of thread, of all sorts, either for sewing or for weaving, is carried on at the market of Craon.

The manufactories of cloth, and other woollen stuffs in the province of Anjou.

ANGERS, the capital city of Anjou. They make in this city flamines of several prices, and a sort of serges, all of the wool of the country. They make, one year with another, 11 or

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12,000

12,000 pieces of these stuffs; and there are above 1000 made in other places, marked at the hall. Three quarters of all these stuffs are used within the province: the rest are sent to Paris. This manufacture employs 90 looms and 4 fullers.

They make, also, in that city, a great quantity of hats, and tan a great deal of leather of all sorts. There are above 20 freemen of the hatters company, and 12 of the tanners.

CHATEAU-GONTIER. The stuffs manufactured here are flammies and druggets after the manner of Lude, and quilted serges. The druggets are sold to the merchants of Lude, and the other stuffs to those of Angers and Laval.

There are 23 masters, who have 50 looms at work, and make about 1,100 pieces a year of the three sorts of stuffs abovementioned. Three fullers are employed to clean and full those stuffs. There are here, also, 4 hatters, and 9 tanners.

LA FLECHE. The produce of this manufactory amounts only to 400 pieces of stuffs per annum; but, besides, there are about 300 pieces made in other places, marked at the hall here. The stuffs made in this town are flammies and serges, wherein they use no other wool but that of this province. These stuffs are sold at Saumur and at Angers.

There are 60 looms employed in this manufactory, and but one fuller. They also dress here some leather.

BEAUGE. The manufactory of this town is, in almost every thing, like that of the former, with regard to the kind of stuffs that are made, their number, the quantity of foreign pieces marked here, the number of looms, and the places where the stuffs are sold.

There are 4 hatters employed in the manufacture of hats. They have, likewise, here a pretty good trade in wine, corn, and cattle.

SAUMUR. There are marked yearly, at the hall of this city, 4 or 500 pieces of stuffs made in other places. Those which they manufacture here are flammies, serges, and druggets of thread and wool, wherein they use none but the wool of the country. They do not make much less than 200 pieces per annum, though there be but 32 looms in the town, under the direction of five masters. There is only one fuller to full and clean the stuffs.

They have a pretty considerable trade in hats, in which manufactory six master-hatters are employed.

There are seven tanners, who dress both large and small leather.

LUDE. They make, in the manufactories of this place, between 4 and 500 pieces of druggets and flammies yearly, which are sent throughout the whole kingdom, and particularly to Paris. There are 25 looms, under 10 masters only.

DOUÉ. The manufactures of this town consist in flammies, serges, and druggets, wherein they use only the wool of the country. They make yearly above 200 pieces, which employ 14 looms and 10 masters. These stuffs are sold in the province, and at Saumur.

The tanner's trade is considerable here; there are 15 master-tanners who carry it on. The leather they dress consists partly in strong hides, and partly in small leather, all which are sold in the neighbouring provinces, and sometimes they send some to Paris.

There are nine hatters: the hats they make are pretty much esteemed; they are most of them sold within the province.

MONTREUIL-BELLAY. They make here the same sorts, and the same number, of stuffs as at Doué. There are 13 masters, who employ 15 looms, and two fullers to clean the stuffs, which are all sold within the province.

BEAUFORT and DURTAL. In the former of these places they make 183 pieces of stuff yearly, and in the latter 200: they are flammies, serges, and druggets, all of the wool of the country. At Beaufort, there are nine master-weavers and 14 looms; and, at Durtal, 14 masters, 20 looms, and two fullers.

There are also tanners in these towns, six in the former, and 11 in the latter.

NISE, or ANIL, a greyish wood, that comes from the Indies in thick logs, or billets, and which is called anise because of its scent, which comes pretty near that of the plant which bears that name, and grows very commonly in the gardens in France, and elsewhere.

The anise-wood is used in inlaid-work, and turners ware. The druggists also sell the seed of it, disguised under different names, calling it sometimes anise of China, of Siberia, of the Philippine islands, and of the Indies; but, to give it more reputation, they call it most commonly the seed of Badian, or the seed of Zingi.

This seed, which is contained in a small pod, very hard and thick, in the form of a star, is perfectly like that of the coquintida, except only that it is of a tawny colour, and shining, and that it has a pretty good smell.

The Chinese use it with their tea, and the Dutch in the East-Indies, after their example, also put some into that liquor, and into their sherbet, pretending that it gives it a more pleasant flavour. The use of it is not introduced in France, nor in England, that we know of.

ANISE is also a kind of oblong seed, or grain, pretty much like that of smillage, and has an aromatic scent and taste. This seed comes from an umbelliferous plant, of the same name, too much known to need further description.

Anise-feed is part of the commodities in which the corporation of merchant-druggists trade at Paris. They import a great deal of it from Alicant and Malta, by the way of Marseilles. They get also a vast quantity from Tours and Chinon in France, which, though greener than that of Alicant and Malta, is nevertheless not so much esteemed.

The good qualities anise-feed ought to have are as follow: it must be fresh, large, plump, newly dried, of a good smell, and of a biting and aromatic taste, without any bitterness, which that of Chinon is apt to have.

Anise-feed is of a hot nature, good to expel wind out of the stomach and bowels. It is often used in medicines, and is judged proper to qualify fena. The confectioners use a great deal of anise-feed in sugar-plums, which they sell under divers denominations.

There is extracted from anise-feed, by distillation, a kind of white oil, called essence, or quintessence, of anise, of which that which comes from Holland is the most esteemed. That oil, to which the physicians and apothecaries ascribe great virtues, is of a very strong and penetrating scent; for which reason it is used with discretion. Perfumers mix some of it with their pastes and pomatums, to give them a sweet scent. They also put some of it in certain mixtures of aromatics.

Whilst anise-feed is distilling to extract the oil from it, there comes a clear water from it, which is called anise-water, the effects of which are much the same with those of anise-oil.

That oil must be chosen white, clear, transparent, of a strong scent, as easily liquified by the least heat as congealed by the least cold.

Anise-feed affords, likewise, another sort of oil, quite green, which is got by expression, to which the same virtues are ascribed as to the white oil, but the effects of it are neither so strong nor so quick. It is to Monsieur Charas that, in France, the discovery of this last sort of oil is owing.

ANKER, a liquid measure at Amsterdam. It is the fourth part of an aem, and contains two flekans. A flekan is 16 mingles, and a mingle two pints of Paris, or about two quarts wine-measure in England: so that an anker contains 64 pints of Paris, or about 32 gallons English measure. See **AEM**.

ANABASSES, ANNABASSES, a sort of covering made at Roan in France, and also in Holland; they are commonly $\frac{7}{8}$ in length, by $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth, and are striped with blue and white equal stripes, about an inch broad.

This is one of the best commodities for the Guinea trade, and, in particular, for that on the coast of Angola, a kingdom in Africa.

At Loango, or Boaria, the capital of the kingdom also called Loango, in Africa, they reckon by macoutes and by hundreds; and an anabasse is reckoned three macoutes, that is to say, 30, each macoute being worth 10. See **ANGOLA**.

ANNUITY, a yearly rent or income, paid either for the term of a person's life, or for a term of years only, or in fee, or for ever.

Annuities upon lives, being daily bought and sold, is now become, as it were, a kind of distinct branch of business, and therefore should not be wholly omitted in a work of this kind.

Dr. Halley was the first, who attempted to put this matter on its true basis for computation. There have been many other ingenious writers since who have built upon his foundation, and whose further observations are not to be disregarded, by those who would enter very deeply into this point.

Dr. Halley's calculations are drawn from the bills of mortality at Breslaw, the capital city of the province of Silesia. It is situate on the eastern bank of the river Oder, near the confines of Germany and Poland, and very nigh the latitude of London. It is very far from the sea, and as much a mediterranean place as can be desired; whence the confluence of strangers is but small, and the manufacture of linnen employs chiefly the poor people of the place, as well as of the country round about; whence comes that sort of linnen we usually call your Silesia linnen, which is the chief, if not the only, merchandize of the place. For these reasons the degrees of mortality in the city seem most proper for a standard, and the rather, for that the births do a small matter exceed the funerals: the only thing wanting is the number of the whole people, which in some measure I have endeavoured to supply, says the Doctor, by comparison of the mortality of the people of all ages; which is traced out from the curious tables of the births and funerals drawn up monthly by Dr. Newmann of that city.

It thence appears, that, in the five years from 87 to 91 inclusive, there were born 6193 persons, and buried 5869; that is born per annum 1238, and buried 1174, or of about a 20th part; which may perhaps be balanced by the levies for the emperor's service of his wars. But this being contingent, and the births certain, I will suppose the people of Breslaw to be increased by 1238 births annually. Of these it appears by the same tables, that 348 do die yearly in the first year of their

age, and that but 890 do arrive at a full year's age; and likewise, that 193 do die in the five years between 1 and 6 complete, taken at a medium; so that but 692 of the persons born do survive 6 whole years.

From this age the infants, being arrived at some degree of firmness, grow less and less mortal; and it appears that of the whole people of Breslaw there die yearly as in the following table; wherein the upper line shews the age, and the next under it the number of persons of that age dying yearly.

7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35																																	
11	11	6	5½	2	3½	5	6	4½	6½	9	8	7	7	36	42	45	49	54	55	56	63	8	9½	8	9	7	7	10	11	9	9	10	12	9½	70	71	72	77	81	84	90	91	98	99	14	9	11	9	6	7	3	4	2	1	1	1	1	0	½	100	¾

And, where no figure is placed over, it is to be understood of those that die between the ages of the preceding and consequent column.

From this table it is evident that, from the age of 9 to about 25, there do not die above 6 per annum of each age, which is much about one per cent. of those that are of those ages: and whereas in the 14, 15, 16, 17 years there appear to die much fewer, as 2, and 3½, yet that seems rather to be attributed to chance; as are the other irregularities in the series of ages, which would rectify themselves, were the number of years much more considerable, as 20 instead of 5.

And by our own in Christ-Church hospital I am informed,

there die, of the young lads, much about one per cent. per ann. they being of the forefaid ages. From 25 to 50, there seem to die from 7 or 8, and 9 per ann. of each age: and after that to 70, they growing more crazy, though the number be much diminished, yet the mortality increases, and there are found to die 10 or 11 of each age per annum. From thence the number of the living being very small, they gradually decline till there be none left to die: as these may be seen at one view in the table.

From these considerations the adjoined table is formed, whose uses are manifold, and give a more just idea of the state and condition of mankind, than any thing yet extant that I know of. It exhibits the number of people in the city of Breslaw of all ages, from the birth to extreme old age, and thereby shews the chances of mortality at all ages; and likewise how to make a certain estimate of the value of annuities for lives, which hitherto has been only done by an imaginary valuation: also the chances that there are, that a person of any age proposed does live to any age given; with many more, as I shall shew. This table does shew the number of persons that are living in the age current annexed thereto.

And although these tables are built upon five years observations only in the city of Breslaw, and have been now communicated to the public near fifty years; yet they have hitherto stood the test, and have proved the foundation of those divers curious rules, canons, and theorems, which the learned Doctor himself, and the ingenious Mons. de Moivre since, have investigated therefrom, according to an elegant algebraical and geometrical method of reasoning: and without which, indeed, it was not possible to discover those rules: nor, without some knowledge in these sciences, can any one comprehend the reason and demonstration of them.

Dr. HALLEY'S TABLE OF OBSERVATIONS, exhibiting the PROBABILITIES OF LIFE.

Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age.	Perfons.
1	1000	8	680	15	623	22	586	29	539	36	471	7	5547		
2	855	9	670	16	622	23	579	30	531	37	472	14	4584		
3	798	10	661	17	616	24	573	31	523	38	463	21	4270		
4	760	11	653	18	610	25	567	32	515	39	454	28	3964		
5	732	12	646	19	604	26	560	33	507	40	445	35	3604		
6	710	13	640	20	598	27	553	34	499	41	436	42	3178		
7	692	14	634	21	592	28	546	35	490	42	427	49	2709		
Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age cur.	Per-sons	Age.	Perfons.		
43	417	50	340	57	272	64	202	71	131	78	58	56	2194		
44	407	51	335	58	272	65	192	72	120	79	49	63	1694		
45	397	52	324	59	252	66	182	73	109	80	41	70	1204		
46	387	53	313	60	242	67	172	74	98	81	34	77	692		
47	377	54	302	61	232	68	162	75	88	82	28	84	253		
48	367	55	292	62	222	69	152	76	78	83	23	100	107		
49	357	56	282	63	212	70	142	77	68	84	20	Sum total	34000		

Thus it appears, that the whole people of Breslaw does consist of 34000 souls, being the sum total of the persons of all ages in the table:

The first use hereof is to shew the proportion of men able to bear arms in any multitude, which are those between 18 and 56, rather than 16 and 60; the one being generally too weak to bear the fatigues of war, and the weight of arms; and the other too crazy and infirm from age, notwithstanding particular instances to the contrary.

Under 18, from the table, are found in this city 11997 persons, and 2950 above 56, which together make 15947. So that the residue to 34000, being 18053, are persons between those ages. At least one half thereof are males, or 9027: so that the whole force this city can raise of fencible men, as the Scotch call them, is about 9000, or ¾, or somewhat more than a quarter of the number of souls; which may, perhaps, pass for a rule for all other places.

The second use of this table is, to shew the differing degrees of mortality, or rather vitality, in all ages: for if the number of persons of any age remaining after one year, be divided by the difference between that and the number of the age proposed, it shews the odds that there is, that a person of that age does not die in a year. As for instance, a person 25 years of age has the odds of 560 to 7, or 80 to 1, that he does not die in a year: because that, of 567 living of 25 years of age, there do die no more than 7 in a year, leaving 560 of 26 years old.

So likewise for the odds that any person does not die before he attain any proposed age, take the number of the remaining persons of the age proposed, and divide it by the difference between it and the number of those of the age of the party proposed; and that shews the odds there is between the chances of the parties living or dying. As for instance: what is the odds that a man of 40 lives 7 years? Take the number of persons of 47 years, which in the table is 377, and subtract it from the number of persons of 40 years, which is 445, and the difference is 68; which shews, that the persons dying in the 7 years are 68, and that it is 377 to 78, or 5½ to 1, that a man of 40 does live 7 years. And the like for any other number of years.

Use III. But if it be required at what number of years it is an even lay, that a person of any age shall die, this table readily performs it: for if the number of persons living, of the age proposed, be halved, it will be found by the table at what year the said number is reduced to half by mortality; and that is the age, to which it is an even wager that a person of the age proposed shall arrive, before he die. As for instance: a person of 30 years of age is proposed, the number of that age is 531, the half thereof is 275, which number I find to be between 57 and 58 years; so that a man of 30 may reasonably expect to live between 27 and 28 years.

Use IV. By what hath been said, the price of insurance upon lives ought to be regulated; and the difference is discovered between the price of insuring the life of a man of 20 and 50, for example: it being 100 to 1 that a man of 20 dies not in a year, and but 38 to 1 for a man of 50 years of age.

Use V. On this depends the valuation of annuities upon lives; for it is plain, that the purchaser ought to pay for only such a part of the value of the annuity as he has chance that he is living; and this ought to be computed yearly, and the sum of all those yearly values, being added together, will amount to the value of the annuity for the life of the person proposed.

Now the present value of money payable after a term of years, at any given rate of interest, either may be had from tables already computed, or, almost as compendiously, by the table of logarithms: for the arithmetical complement of the logarithm of unity, and its yearly interest (that is, of 1.06 for 6 per cent. being 9.974694) being multiplied by the number of years proposed, gives the present value of one pound payable after the end of so many years. Then, by the foregoing proposition, it will be, as the number of persons living after that term of years, to the number dead, so are the odds that any one person is alive or dead. And by consequence, as the sum of both, or the number of persons living of the age first proposed, to the number remaining after so many years (both given by the table) so the present value of the yearly sum, payable after the term proposed, to the sum which ought to be paid for the chance the person has to enjoy such an annuity

nity for many years. And, this being repeated for every year of the person's life, the sum of all the present values of those changes is the true value of the annuity. This will, without doubt, appear to be a most laborious calculation; but it is one of the principal uses of this speculation, from whence the learned Dr. Halley, after no ordinary number of arithmetical operations, has formed the following table, which shews the value of annuities for every fifth year of age, to the 70th, as follows:

Age.	Years Purchase.	Age.	Years Purchase.	Age.	Years Purchase.
1	10,28	25	12,27	50	9,21
5	13,40	30	11,72	55	8,51
10	13,44	35	11,12	60	7,60
15	13,33	40	10,57	65	6,54
20	12,78	45	9,91	70	5,32

Use VI. Two lives are likewise valuable by the same rule: for the number of chances of each single life, found in the table, being multiplied together, become the chances of the two lives. And, after any certain term of years, the product of the two remaining fums is the chances that both the persons are living; the product of the two differences, being the numbers of the dead of both ages, are the chances that both the persons are dead; and the two products of the remaining fums of the one age, multiplied by those dead of the other, shew the chances that there are that each party survives the other; whence is derived the rule to estimate the value of the remainder of one life after another.

Now, as the product of the two numbers in the table for the two ages proposed, is to the difference between that product, and the product of the two numbers of persons deceased in any space of time; so is the value of a sum of money to be paid after so much time, to the value thereof under the contingency of mortality; and, as the aforesaid product of the two numbers answering to the ages proposed, to the product of the deceased of one age multiplied by those remaining alive of the other; so the value of a sum of money to be paid after any time proposed, to the value of the chances that the one party has, that he survives the other whose number of deceased you made use of in the second term of the proportion. To such who are acquainted with the algebraic method of analysis, this perhaps may be better understood, by putting N for the number of the younger, and n for that of the elder, $Y y$ the deceased of both ages respectively, and $R r$ for the remainders; and $R + Y = N$, and $r + y = n$: then shall $N n$ be the whole number of chances, $N n - Y y$ the chances that one of the two persons is living, $Y y$ the chances that they are both dead, $R y$ the chances that the elder person is dead, and the younger living; and $r Y$ the chances that the elder is living, and the younger dead.

Thus two persons of 18 and 35 are proposed, and after 8 years these chances are required: the numbers for 18 and 35 are 610 and 490, and there are 50 of the first age dead in 8 years, and 73 of the elder age; there are in all 610×490 , or 298,900 chances; of these there are 50×73 , or 3,650, that they are both dead. And as 298,900, to 298,900, — 3,650, or 295,250, so is the present value of a sum of money to be paid after 8 years, to the present value of a sum to be paid, if either of the two live. And, as 560×73 , so are the chances that the elder is dead, leaving the younger; and, as 417×50 , so are the chances that the younger is dead, leaving the elder. Wherefore as 610×490 , to 560×73 , so is the present value of a sum to be paid at 8 years end, to the sum to be paid for the chance of the younger's surivance; and as 610×490 , to 417×50 , so is the same present value to the sum to be paid for the chance of the elder's surivance. This possibly may be yet better explained, by expounding these products by rectangular parallelograms; but those who do not understand the algebraic, will hardly understand the geometric demonstration. Wherefore we shall proceed to

Use VII. If three lives are proposed, to find the value of an annuity during the continuance of any of those three lives, the rule is, As the product of the continual multiplication of the three numbers in the table, answering to the ages proposed, is to the difference of that product, and of the product of the three numbers of the deceased of those ages in any given term of years; So is the present value of a sum of money to be paid certainly after so many years, to the present value of the same sum to be paid, provided one of those three persons be living at the expiration of that term. Which proportion being yearly repeated, the sum of all those present values will be the value of an annuity granted for three lives. But to explain this, together with all the cases of surivance in three lives, let N be the number in the table for the younger age; n for the second; and v for the elder age; let $Y y$ be those dead of the younger age in the term proposed; y those dead of the second age; and v those of the elder age; and let $R r$ be the remainder of the younger age; r that of the middle age; and the remainder of the elder age. Then shall $R + Y$ be equal to N ; $r + y$, to n ; and $v + v$, to v ; and the continual product of the three numbers $N n v$, shall be

equal to the continual product of $R + Y \times r + Y \times v + v$, which, being the whole number of changes for three lives, is compounded of the seven products following. (1.) $R r$, which is the number of chances that all three of the persons are living; (2.) r, Y , which is the number of chances that the two elder persons are living, and the younger dead; (3.) $R y$, the number of chances that the middle age is dead, and the younger and elder living; (4.) $R r v$, being the chances that the two younger are dead, and elder living; (5.) $r, Y v$, the chances that the younger and elder are dead, and the middle age living; (6.) $R y v$, which are the chances that the younger is living, and the two other dead; (7.) $Y y$, which are the chances that all three are dead; which latter, subtracted from the whole number of chances $N n v$, leaves $N n v$, the sum of all the other seven products, in all of which one or more of the three persons are surviving.

I shall not apply this in all the cases thereof, for brevity's sake; only to shew in one how all the rest may be performed, let it be demanded, what is the value of the reversion of the younger life after the two elder proposed? The proportion is, As the whole number of chances, or $N n v$, to the product $R y$, So is the certain present value of the sum payable after any term proposed, to the value due to such chance as the younger person has to bury both the elder, by the term proposed; which he therefore is to pay for. Here it is to be noted, that the first term of all these proportions is the same throughout; $N n v$. The second changing yearly according to the decrease of $R r$, and increase of $Y y$. And the third are successively the present value of money payable after one, two, three, &c. years, according to the rate of interest agreed on.

The present value of one pound per ann. for any number of years not exceeding 100, interest at four per cent.

Years.	Present Value.	Years.	Present Value.	Years.	Present Value.
1	0.9615,38	34	18.4111,97	67	23.1940,47
2	1.8860,94	35	18.6546,13	68	23.2635,07
3	2.7750,21	36	18.9082,81	69	23.3302,95
4	3.6298,95	37	19.1425,76	70	23.3945,14
5	4.4518,22	38	19.3678,54	71	23.4562,04
6	5.2421,74	39	19.5844,84	72	23.5153,38
7	6.0020,54	40	19.7927,73	73	23.5727,29
8	6.7327,44	41	19.9930,51	74	23.6270,24
9	7.4353,31	42	20.1856,26	75	23.6804,08
10	8.1108,95	43	20.3707,94	76	23.7311,61
11	8.7604,76	44	20.5488,41	77	23.7799,63
12	9.3850,73	45	20.7200,39	78	23.8268,87
13	9.9850,44	46	20.8846,53	79	23.8720,07
14	10.5631,22	47	21.0429,36	80	23.9153,91
15	11.1183,87	48	21.1951,30	81	23.9571,07
16	11.6522,95	49	21.3414,72	82	23.9972,18
17	12.1656,68	50	21.4821,84	83	24.0357,87
18	12.6592,06	51	21.6174,85	84	24.0728,73
19	13.1339,39	52	21.7475,81	85	24.1085,31
20	13.5903,26	53	21.8726,74	86	24.1428,18
21	14.0291,59	54	21.9929,56	87	24.1757,86
22	14.4511,15	55	22.1086,12	88	24.2074,37
23	14.8568,41	56	22.2198,19	89	24.2379,68
24	15.2469,63	57	22.3267,49	90	24.2672,77
25	15.6220,79	58	22.4295,60	91	24.2954,59
26	15.9827,09	59	22.5284,29	92	24.3225,56
27	16.3295,85	60	22.6234,89	93	24.3486,12
28	16.6497,59	61	22.7148,94	94	24.3736,65
29	16.9337,14	62	22.8027,82	95	24.3977,55
30	17.2020,33	63	22.8872,91	96	24.4209,18
31	17.5884,93	64	22.9685,41	97	24.4431,91
32	17.8735,51	65	23.0466,81	98	24.4646,06
33	18.1470,45	66	23.1218,09	99	24.4851,98
				100	24.5049,98

For all the variety of tables of this kind, and the reason and nature of their construction, see the article INTEREST SIMPLE and COMPOUND.

A further illustration of Dr. Halley's foregoing table, by the ingenious Mr. De Moivre.

Suppose that by this table we would know what the probabilities are for a man of 30 to live 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. years. Look for the number 30 in one of the columns of age, and under it you will find 31, 32, 33, &c. and opposite the number 30, in the next adjoining column on the right-hand, you find 531, under which are written 523, 515, 507, &c. corresponding in order to the numbers in the column of ages; the meaning whereof is that, out of 531 persons living of the 30 years old, there remain but 523, 515, 507, 499, &c. that attain the respective ages of 31, 32, 33, &c. and who consequently, from that term of 30, do live 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. years respectively.

In order to compute the value of an annuity upon a life of a given age, let the quantities A, B, C, D, E, F, &c. represent respectively the persons living at the age given, and the subsequent years.

Now it is obvious, that there being A persons of the age given, and one year after B persons remaining, the probability

bility which the person of the given age has to continue in life, for one year at least, is represented by the fraction $\frac{B}{A}$, and that the probability which it has to continue in life, for two years at least, is represented by the fraction $\frac{C}{A}$, &c. and that therefore, if money bore no interest, it would be only necessary to multiply those probabilities by the sum to be received annually, which is supposed here to be = 1, and the sum of the products would express the present value of the annuity. But, as money bears interest, let r represent the amount of 1 l. with its interest at the year's end, then the present values of the sums to be received annually would be respectively $\frac{1}{r}, \frac{1}{r^2}, \frac{1}{r^3}, \frac{1}{r^4}, \&c.$ And, therefore, multiplying these sums by the probabilities of obtaining them, we shall have the value of the annuity expressed by the series

$$\frac{A}{r} + \frac{B}{r^2} + \frac{C}{r^3} + \frac{D}{r^4} + \frac{E}{r^5} + \frac{F}{r^6} + \frac{G}{r^7} + \frac{H}{r^8}, \&c.$$

which must be continued to the end of the tables. But let us suppose, that, instead of an annuity upon a life whose age is given, there should be the expectation of a sum, which we will call (1) payable once for all whenever it happens, that the life ceases within a limited time. It is plain that the probability of the life's ceasing after one year is $\frac{A-B}{A}$, and that the probability of its continuing one year, and dropping the next, will be $\frac{B}{A} \times \frac{B-C}{B}$, or barely $\frac{B-C}{A}$, and that again the probability of its continuing two years, and dropping the third, will be $\frac{C-D}{A}$, and so on; and that

therefore the value of the expectation founded on the contingency of the life's falling within a limited time, would be $\frac{A-B}{Ar} + \frac{B-C}{Ar^2} + \frac{C-D}{Ar^3} + \frac{D-E}{Ar^4} + \frac{E-F}{Ar^5} + \frac{F-G}{Ar^6}, \&c.$

Let it now be supposed, for instance, that the party on whose life this expectation depends is 10 years of age, and that the age limited, as a condition of obtaining the sum (1), is 21; hence it is plain that, the difference between 21 and 10 being 11, we ought to limit ourselves to 11 terms of the foregoing series, and then, consulting Dr. Halley's table, we shall find the numbers A, B, C, D, E, &c. to be respectively 661, 653, 646, 640, 634, 628, &c. and that therefore A-B, B-C, C-D, D-E, E-F, &c. will respectively be 8, 7, 6, 6, 6, &c. and that consequently the present value of the expectation will be $\frac{8}{661r} + \frac{7}{661r^2} + \frac{6}{661r^3} + \frac{6}{661r^4} + \frac{6}{661r^5} + \frac{6}{661r^6} + \frac{6}{661r^7} + \frac{6}{661r^8} + \frac{6}{661r^9} + \frac{6}{661r^{10}} + \frac{6}{661r^{11}}$

Let it be further supposed, that this expectation is not given but sold to a purchaser, who intends to make 5 per cent of his money, then r stands for 1.05, and therefore the sum, which purchasers ought in justice to pay for their expectations, is the sum of the numbers here annexed, which is about $\frac{2}{35}$; and therefore if the sum, called (1) before, stands for an estate whose present real value is 20 years purchase, the adventurer ought to pay no more for the consideration of his chance than $1 \frac{2}{35}$ years purchase.

0.0115260	— 1
0.0090054	— 2
0.0078412	— 3
0.0074678	— 4
0.0071122	— 5
0.0067735	— 6
0.0064510	— 7
0.0061438	— 8
0.0058512	— 9
0.0055726	— 10
0.0053072	— 11
<hr/>	
0.0796599	

It is not intended here to calculate other intervening chances which might defeat this expectation, such as that of an heir male, which might live to the age of 21; for, there being not any tables* of observations concerning a man's marrying and getting an heir male between 16 and 21, what could be added on that subject would be barely conjectural, which would not be of a piece with what has been said; however, it is easy to conceive, that this must considerably diminish the value of the expectation.

* If any tables of that kind should be calculated, there cannot, perhaps, be a better foundation to proceed on than that of Dr. Arbuthnot, concerning the regularity in the births of both sexes, published in the Philosophical Transactions, No. 328.

PROBLEM II.

Supposing the probabilities of life to decrease in arithmetic progression, when considered from a term given, to find the value of an annuity on a life of a given age.

SOLUTION.

Let P represent the value of an annuity certain of 1 l. for as
V O L. I.

many years as are intercepted between the age given, and the extremity of old age, supposed at 86, and let that interval of life be called n , then the value of an annuity upon

such a life would be expressed by $1 - \frac{r^n P}{r - 1}$, supposing, as

before, that r stands for the amount of the principal and interest of 1 l. in one year.

Thus supposing an age of 50, and that the interest of money be estimated at 4 per cent. then n will represent 36, and r for 1.04, for which reason looking into tables of 4 per cent; which shew the worth of an annuity certain for 36 years, being 17.9083, this being multiplied by r , that is, by 1.04, the product will be 18.624632; and this being divided by n , that is, by 36, the quotient will be .517351. Then this being subtracted from unity, and the remainder, .482649, being divided by $r - 1$, that is, by 0.04, the quotient will be found 12.0661, which is very little more than 12 years purchase for the value of an annuity on a life of 50.

But, for the sake of those who are not so well versed in decimal fractions, it may be proper to express the rule as follows: Multiply the annuity certain, as found in the tables, by the amount of 100 l. joined with its interest in one year, that is, in this case by 104, and let the product be divided by 100, then let the quotient be subtracted from 25, which shews how many years purchase a perpetuity of 100 l. is worth, and the remainder will shew how many years purchase the annuity upon the age given is worth in ready money.

PROBLEM III.

Supposing a fictitious life, whose number of chances to continue yearly be constantly equal to a , and the number of chances to fail constantly equal to b , so that the odds of its continuing, during the space of any one year, be to its failing in that same interval of time constantly as a to b ; to find the value of an annuity upon such a life.

SOLUTION.

Let i be the annuity, r the amount of 1 l. joined to its interest in one year, make $a + b = s$.

It is plain from what has been said already, that the present value of the first year's rent is $\frac{a}{sr}$ of the second $\frac{a^2}{s^2 r^2}$, of the third $\frac{a^3}{s^3 r^3}$, &c. which terms constituting a geometrical pro-

gression, the sum of them all will be $\frac{a}{r s - a}$; thus if a represented 21, and b 1, then s would represent 22; supposing also that $r = 1.05$, then the denominator $r s - a$ would be $23.1 - 21$ or 2.1, and, dividing the numerator 21 by the denominator 2.1, the quotient will be 10, which shews that the life would be worth 10 years purchase.

COROLLARY I.

An annuity upon a fictitious life being given, the probability of its continuing one year is also given; for let the value of it be = M , then $\frac{a}{r s - a} = M$, therefore $\frac{a}{s} = \frac{M r}{M + 1}$.

COROLLARY II.

If a life whose value, as deduced from the tables of observation, or from the preceding problem, be worth 10 years purchase, then such a life is equivalent to a fictitious life whose chances for continuing one year are to the chances of its failing in that year as 21 to 1.

COROLLARY III.

Wherefore having calculated a life from the tables of observations, or from Problem the II, we may transfer the value of that life to that of a fictitious life, and find the number of chances it would have to continue or to fail yearly.

COROLLARY IV.

And the combination of two or more real lives will be very near the same as the combination of so many corresponding fictitious lives; and therefore an annuity granted upon so many corresponding fictitious lives, and the values of the reversions granted upon the real lives, will be very near the same as those granted upon the fictitious lives.

PROBLEM IV.

The values of two single fictitious lives being given, to find the value of an annuity granted for the time of their joint continuance.

SOLUTION.

Let the values be respectively M and P , r the rate of interest; then the value of an annuity upon the two joint lives will be

$$\text{expressed by } \frac{M P r}{M + 1 \times P + 1 - M P r}$$

DEMONSTRATION.

Let x and y represent the respective probabilities of the lives continuing one year together, then xy will express the probability of their joint continuance for that year; and x^2y^2 the probability of their joint continuance for two years; and x^3y^3 the probability of their joint continuance for three years, &c. wherefore the value of an annuity for all the time will be expressible by the following geometric progression, viz.

$$\frac{xy}{r} + \frac{x^2y^2}{r^2} + \frac{x^3y^3}{r^3} + \frac{x^4y^4}{r^4}, \text{ \&c. where the sum is } \frac{xy}{r-x-y};$$

but, by the first corollary of problem the third, $x = \frac{Mr}{M+I}$ and,

for the same reason, $y = \frac{Pr}{P+I}$ and, therefore, the value of

$$\text{the two joint lives is } \frac{MPPr}{M+I \times P+I - MPPr}.$$

PROBLEM V.

The values of two single lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon the longest of them; that is, to continue so long as either of them is in being.

SOLUTION.

From the sum of the values of the single lives, subtract the value of the two joint lives found by the foregoing problem, and the remainder will be the value of the annuity required.

DEMONSTRATION.

It will be sufficient to shew what will be the value of the first year, since the values of all the subsequent years is found in the same manner.

Let, therefore, x and y be the respective probabilities of the lives continuing one year together, then $1-x$ and $1-y$ are the respective probabilities of their dropping in that year, and, consequently, the product of $1-x$ by $1-y$, viz. $1-x-y+xy$ is the probability of their both dropping in that year; and, this being subtracted from unity, the remainder $x+y-xy$ will express the probability that either one or the other, or both, out-live the year; which is sufficient for the purchaser of the annuity to establish his right of receiving the first year's rent, whose present value is,

$$\text{therefore, } \frac{x}{r} + \frac{y}{r} - \frac{xy}{r}.$$

And, therefore, one may see at sight that, the expectation of the other years being founded on the same principle, the value of an annuity upon the longest of two lives will be the sum of the values of the single lives, wanting the value of the joint lives.

PROBLEM VI.

The value of three single lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon their joint lives.

SOLUTION.

Let x, y, z respectively represent the probabilities of the lives continuing one year, then the probabilities of their continuing all three together for one year will be xyz , and the probability of their continuing together for two years is $x^2y^2z^2$, &c. and, therefore, the value of an annuity upon the three

$$\text{joint lives will be } \frac{xyz}{r} + \frac{x^2y^2z^2}{r^2} + \frac{x^3y^3z^3}{r^3} + \frac{x^4y^4z^4}{r^4}, \text{ \&c.}$$

which constitutes a geometric progression, whose sum is $\frac{xyz}{r-xyz}$;

now in the room of x, y, z , writing their respective values, $\frac{M+I}{r}, \frac{P+I}{r}, \frac{Q+I}{r}$, the sum of the three joint lives will

$$\text{be expressed by } \frac{MPQrr}{M+I \times P+I \times Q+I - MPQrr},$$

supposing as we have done in the preceding problem, that M, P, Q , represent respectively the values of annuities upon each single life.

PROBLEM VII.

The value of three single lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon the longest of them.

SOLUTION.

Let x, y, z , represent the respective probabilities of the life's continuing one year; then the product of $1-x$ by $1-y$, and of that again by $1-z$, that is, $1-x+y-xy$, will express

the probability of their all failing the first year, and, this being subtracted from unity, the remainder will express the probability that either they will all subsist one year, or, at least, that they will not all fail in the year: which being the

foundation of receiving the first year's rent, and the other years following the same law, we may draw this conclusion; that, if from the sum of the values of the single lives we subtract the sum of the values of the joint lives taken two and two, and to the remainder add the value of the three joint lives, we shall have the value of the annuity upon the longest of the three joint lives.

PROBLEM VIII.

To find the value of one life after another.

By the value of one life after another, is meant what a man must pay in present money to purchase the expectation of an annuity for his life after the failing of another, with this restriction, that, if the expectant dies before the present possessor no consideration is to be given to the heirs of the said expectant.

SOLUTION.

Since the expectation of the purchaser is grounded on the failing of the life in possession, and of the continuation of his own life, it follows, that, if we suppose x and y to be the respective probabilities of the lives continuing one year, then $1-x$ or $y-xy$ will express the probability of the first life's dropping in the year, and of the second's out-living the year; from whence we may draw this consequence, that, if from the present value of the expectant's life be subtracted the value of the two joint lives, there will remain the value of the expectation.

This may be made plain another way: for, suppose I were the purchaser, I might begin to pay the proprietor of the annuity the full value of my life, but then I would expect back the value of the two joint lives of the present possessor and myself, since I am to receive nothing whilst we are both living. To this may be added, that, supposing that the proprietor is to be paid for the longest of the two lives of the present possessor and myself, my share of the purchase ought to be only that part of it which would remain if the life of the present possessor was deducted out of it, which will give the same conclusion as before.

But, if the expectant were to have the reversion absolute for himself and his heirs after the decease of the present possessor, it is plain that there being nothing interposed between his present circumstances and the possession of the estate, but the life of the present possessor, then from the value of the perpetuity ought barely to be subtracted the life of the possessor, and the remainder will be the value of the expectation.

PROBLEM IX.

To find the value of one life after two.

SOLUTION.

From the value of the longest of the three lives, subtract the value of the longest of the two first lives, and there will remain the value of the expectation of the third life.

But, if the expectation be above the absolute reversion, then from the perpetuity subtract the value of the longest of the two first lives, and there will remain the value of the third. And the same rule may be extended to as many lives as may be assigned.

Though these questions may, at first sight, seem to have a great degree of difficulty, yet there is reason to believe that the steps taken to come at their solution, will easily be followed by those who have a competent skill in algebra, and that the chief method of proceeding therein will be understood by those who are barely acquainted with the elements of that art.

For those, however, who may not be acquainted with this method of reasoning, I shall subjoin what may be more generally intelligible, and, therefore, more generally acceptable.

The common method of purchasing annuities is at a certain number of years purchase; for which reason, the following tables may be useful to shew how long the annuitant must live, to be reimbursed his principal money, with interest, at any given rate.

The table is very plain, as appears by this example.

Suppose 11 years purchase is given for an annuity,

	years.	days.			
Then, if the annuitant lives	12	200	he will be reimbursed his principal, with interest, at the rate of	$\left. \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 2\frac{1}{2} \\ 3 \\ 3\frac{1}{2} \\ 4 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{matrix} \right\}$	
	13	9			
	13	200			
	14	48			
	14	286			
	15	190			
	16	134			
	18	188			
	21	264			
	27	201			
	53	160			

The fractions of the year are made in days, for the greater exactness, though it is common for annuities to be paid either half yearly or quarterly.

A TABLE to calculate the value of ANNUITIES upon LIVES at 4 l. and 5 l. per cent. continuance of the lives to reimburse the annuitants their purchase-money.

Years purchase given for a life.	At 4 per cent.		At 5 per cent.	
	years.	days.	years.	days.
1	1	15	1	19
2	2	46	2	58
3	3	95	3	121
4	4	163	4	209
5	5	252	5	327
6	6	364	7	413
7	8	437	8	503
8	9	504	10	572
9	11	538	12	62
10	13	9	14	75
11	14	286	16	134
12	16	246	18	285
13	18	261	21	189
14	20	340	24	247
15	23	132	28	151
16	26	18	32	360
17	29	19	38	322
18	32	167	47	71

We have seen to what useful purposes the bills of births and burials at the city of Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, have been applied, by a very learned and sagacious member of the Royal Society of London; as it is well known, also, what curious observations have been made, both moral, physical, and political, by Sir William Petty, upon the same argument, several years before, and Dr Arbuthnot, and others, since. The learned Mr Kerseboom, likewise, has obliged the world with some very useful remarks upon the same topic. The industrious author has not only consulted those observations made by the beforementioned gentlemen, our countrymen, but has acquainted himself more particularly with those of Mr King, in Davenant's Essays, &c. in order to render himself more capable of making a just estimate on this delicate subject.

To which end, he begins with the number of inhabitants in the two provinces of Holland and West Friesland; these he makes, viz. 1738, to amount in all to 980,000 and obliges us with the following table of the particulars. It exhibits the number of people of all ages, living at the same time, from the birth to extreme old age; which, because it shews the chances of mortality within the ages mentioned, he calls the Table of Contingencies of Life and Death.

Of above 90 years old there are	500
of 90 86 inclusive	2,500
85 81	6,500
80 76	13,000
75 71	20,300
70 66	27,300
65 to 61	34,300
60 56	40,800
55 51	47,000
50 46	53,000
45 41	57,800
40 36	62,500
35 31	67,600
30 27	58,400
	491,500 the sum above 27 years.
of 26 21	94,300
20 16	83,400
15 to 11	87,200
10 6	91,800
5 to birth	131,800
	488,500 sum under 27 years old.
	491,500
	488,500
	980,000 sum of all the inhabitants.

This table is founded upon three principles, viz. correct observations upon the tables of assignable annuities in Holland, which have been kept there for above 125 years; wherein the ages of the persons dying are truly entered: upon a supposition that there are yearly born in the provinces 28,000 living children: and, lastly, that the intire number of inhabitants in any country is to the number of the births as 35 to 1.

From this table it appears, (1.) That about half the number of people in the two provinces are above 27 years old, and, consequently, that near the other half are under that age. (2.) Then, by following what hath been observed for more

than 100 years in England, and particularly in London, out of 35 children born, 18 of them are boys, and 17 girls, the people in these two provinces will consist of

504,000 males,
476,000 females.

980,000

He farther remarks, that it appears from the assignable annuities for lives, mentioned before, the females have, in all accidents of age, lived about 3 or 4 years longer than the same number of males; which he looks upon to be appointed as a compensation for the continual excess there is in the birth of the males above the females.

Having considered the quantity, he then comes to take notice of the quality of these 980,000 inhabitants; and finds no reason to differ from the proportion of Mr King, in Davenant's Essays, who hath divided the people of England in this manner:

The proportion for every 100,000 inhabitants is.		
Married men and women	—	34 500
Widowers	—	1,500
Unmarried young men and children	—	45,000
Servants	—	10,500
Travellers, strangers, &c.	—	4,000
		100,000

If this proportion be admitted, then the number of each sort in Holland and West Friesland will be as follows, viz. 418,000, that the said provinces can raise at this time 28,000 able-bodied men, deducting 1/4 for diseases, and other infirmities. But then he admits at 16 years of age, whereas Dr Miley admits none till 8, persons under that age being generally too weak to bear the fatigues of war, and the weight of arms. He then proceeds to rectify the mistakes of the learned Isaac Vossius, who makes but 500,000 in Holland and West Friesland, and disallows Sir William Petty's account of the number of people in London, because he makes them alone equal to the inhabitants of Holland and West Friesland together. He closes the whole with a table of the present value of annuities upon lives, in proportion to the ordinary, or common bonds, charged upon those provinces, and subject to the extraordinary taxes raised at this time, viz. 1738. You will find annexed the degrees of mortality, laid to be in the Hague and Haagambagt, as also the numbers and conditions of the inhabitants of Amsterdam, Harlem, Gouda, and the Hague, not omitting London at this present time.

The two provinces of Holland and West Friesland.	Amsterd.	Harlem.	Gouda.	Hague.	London.	
Married men and women	338,000	86,156	17,420	6,900	14,85	418,000
Widowers	14,700	4,218	760	30	720	13,100
Widows	44,100	13,858	2,280	900	2,300	45,700
Unmarried youth and children	441,000	93,990	22,700	9,000	16,19	315,700
Servants	102,900	28,318	5,300	2,100	4,870	85,600
Travellers, strangers, &c.	39,300	14,460	2,040	800	2,490	52,300
Total	980,000	241,000	50,500	20,000	41,500	980,000

The fatality of the quarters.

	dead.
Spring to summer	307
Summer to the autumnal equinox	286
Autumn to winter	287
Winter to spring	286

The fatality of the months for 31 years; one year with another.

	dead.
January	102
February	88
March	95
April	77
May	112
June	100
July	92
August	95
September	99
October	93
November	95
December	99

Hence it appears, that March is less fatal at the Hague and Haagambagt, than April, and April than May and June; that May is the most fatal month of all; that the remaining months are nearly equal. It appears further, that three parts, or seasons of the year, are very nearly equal; but that the other quarter, or season, beginning at the vernal equinox, is more fatal than any of the rest by the one fifteenth part.

A TABLE of ANNUITIES for LIFE.

Let the annuity be 100 guilders yearly, upon a life under a year old.

Its present value is	Guild.	Guild.	Stiv.	per cent.
	1667	that is	6	0
	1896		5	7
	1835		5	9
	1770		5	13
	1667		6	0
	1587		6	6
	1515		6	12
	1429		7	0
	1334		7	10
	1212		8	5
	1093		9	3
	971		10	6
	840		11	8
	709		14	2
	507		17	11

Upon a life of	5 years to	1 inclusive
10		6
15		11
20		16
25		21
30		26
35		31
40		36
45		41
50		46
55		51
60		56
65		61
70		66

The use of this table.

Question. Let it be desired to know the present value of an annuity for life, for instance, of 90 guilders a year, which was granted in the year 1703, upon a life then of three years old.

Answer. The life now (in 1738) is between 37 and 38 years old; hence the number between 40 and 36 gives 1334, for the present value of an annuity of 100 guilders; hence $\left(\frac{1334 \times 90}{100}\right)$ 1200 guilders is the present value of the annuity for that life.

Thus the reader has a connected summary of what some of the most able mathematicians have favoured the world with on the subject of annuities upon lives; and, if these principles and their application are understood, whatever else has been, or may be communicated to the public on this topic, will easily be understood too, without our dwelling longer on this matter.

To ANNUL, with book-keepers, and in regard to double entries, is to render an article void, so as that it may be reckoned for nothing. In order to annul an article which has been wrong entered in the books, either in the day-book or ledger, one or several 0 (cyphers) are wrote in the margin, by some, next to that article; or, as others do, the word *vanus* is wrote in the margin, which is a word corrupted from the Latin, and signifies vain, or null. When an article is posted in the ledger to the debit, which ought to have been to the credit, or to the latter instead of the former, it is commonly wrote off on the opposite side—as To or By an error wrote off per contra.

In books of account properly kept, all rasures should be most carefully avoided; and, if mistakes are committed, it looks with a better face of justice and honour to let the mistake remain, and to repeat the words I say, &c. and rectify the mistake in right words or figures, rather than to let any rasures appear in a set of books.

ANONYMOUS, that which has no name. Partnerships in trade in France are stiled anonymous, when they are not carried on under any particular name, but wherein each of the partners trades visibly on his own account, and in his own name; after which, all the partners give one another an account of their profit or loss in trade. These sorts of partnerships are concealed, and known only to the partners themselves.

ANONYMOUS partnerships in trade, in France, are such, also, wherein persons of fortune and quality deposit sums of money, in order to share of the profit and loss. To this end, those who furnish the capital have no trouble in the carrying on the trade, nor do their names appear to be any way interested therein.

The first foundation of these kind of partnerships in France, was grounded, says Mr Savary, in the Complete Trader, upon the following principles, viz.

1. That persons who were not of the mercantile profession might make use of these measures to employ their money, without being guilty of usury; for that, by their running the hazard both of traders and trade, they were justly and honour-

ably intitled to a share of the profits of the commerce, since they were to stand to their share of the losses.

2. That persons of great and plentiful fortunes might have an opportunity of employing their money to the advantage of the national traffic, which otherwise would lie dead in their coffers.

3. That the sons of persons of family, well qualified for trade, though not of competent fortunes wherewith to carry it on, might establish themselves in the world, and exert their talents and industry for the benefit of the community; which, for want of money, would remain useless to the state.

4. That princes might find their account by encouraging such policy, because, the more manufactures and commerce flourish in their states, the larger become their revenues, by duties on imports and exports on trade.

That these partnerships might not be deemed dishonourable to persons of condition, nor derogatory, even to the nobility, it is urged, that, since such only advanced their money, and had no personal concern in the commercial transactions, it could not possibly demean, or any way dishonour them; and more especially so, since those adventures were generally made with merchants, or wholesale dealers, and not with retailers.

That this practice might not be judged dishonourable in France, Lewis XIII. issued an ordinance in January 1627 to countenance and encourage it.

Besides this ordinance of Lewis XIII, it may not be amiss to observe those extraordinary letters patents, which were granted by Lewis XIV, for the establishment of several woollen manufactures, whereby the undertakers are ennobled, and upheld in their nobility, as well as those who were interested with them as partners.

The first is that of July 1646. It relates to the establishment of a manufacture of cloth in the city of Sedan, in imitation of that of Holland, in favour of Sieurs Nicholas Cadeau, Jean Binet, and Zuill de Marseilles, merchants of the city of Paris. The patent says, That, in consideration of this establishment, the French king ennobled those merchants, and their descendants, without imputing the least derogation to their nobility, or that of their posterity, by reason of their being concerned in trade or manufactures: they were even granted, likewise, all those privileges and immunities which were enjoyed by those of noble extraction, with the right of committimus.

Another instance is that in the month of October 1665. It concerns the establishment of a woollen manufacture in the city of Abbeville, in imitation of those of Spain and Holland, in favour of the Sieur Joshua Vanrobais, a Dutch merchant. He was permitted to take into partnership in the said manufacture whomsoever he pleased; the king expressly declaring, in his patent, that it should be no derogation to any of the nobility to be concerned with him therein, on pretence of their being interested partners in that commerce.

A third instance is that of December 1698, relating to a new cloth manufacture, and of cloth with silk and wool, of all colours, in the province of Champagne, in the cities of Chalons and Rheims, in favour of the Sieurs Sauvage and Champagne, and company; which patents were granted to the same effect as the former.

The French king, therefore, declaring it no dishonour whatsoever to persons of quality in France to be privately interested with traders in their enterprizes, has proved greatly instrumental to extend the commerce of that kingdom.

REMARKS.

Persons of fortune, who would thus hazard their money in traders hands, should cast their eye upon an honest, as well as a skilful man, and one of unblamable conduct and behaviour, it being upon his fidelity and industry that he grounds his hopes of advantage.

It should be well considered, also, by him that advances the money, whether the branch of trade proposed by the merchant, &c. to be carried on, has a good face, and a reasonable prospect of profit attending it; whether the capital proposed be competent to prosecute the same with every advantage: whether the trade designed to be carried on be domestic or foreign, and whether the trader has a suitable correspondence for the purpose, as well as a thorough knowledge in all the circumstances relating to such trade, in order to carry it on successfully.

The conditions of agreement are next to be weighed: as,

1. Whether he that advances the capital should have any certain interest for a part, or the whole, of his money, besides receiving a proportion of the profits, or bearing the like share of the loss.

2. Whether the trader is only to undertake the sole conduct of the business; or whether, besides, he should not advance a part of the capital, the better to engage him in the common interest; and what share of the profits he shall have for his skill and constant attendance on the business.

3. Whether the person who finds the money is likely to hazard more than the sum he adventures, and how he is to guard against accidents of this kind; by the ill conduct or misfortune of the trader.

This must be a matter of the greatest delicacy, and cannot

be too cautiously guarded against in England, lest the moneyed man should be drawn in as a partner in affairs which he has never consented to, or approved of. It is to be considered, therefore, whether it may not be more eligible to lend a trader money at legal interest, than to be deemed a partner with him, in case of the accidents of trade, and the secret negotiations he may carry on besides those which are known to one that is only an anonymous, and not an active, partner in the trade.

Nor should such an one, interested in the trade, omit to stipulate a free access to all letters, books, and accounts, at all times, in order to judge how the business goes on.

But, in this case, the advancer of the money will be as much at a loss as if he had not this toleration, unless he is perfectly well acquainted with mercantile accountantship; for nothing is more easy than to perplex and confound one who is ignorant thereof.

Upon the whole: there is great danger attending such kind of transactions, unless the moneyed man acts with the utmost circumspection, and, indeed, is full as knowing in the practical arts of commerce as the trader himself.

There are, also, different kinds of anonymous partnerships among traders, which may be well worthy some readers attentive consideration.

Suppose, for example, that a merchant of Marseilles understands that there is a ship, laden with various sorts of merchandise, coming from Smyrna, and he receives an invoice of the merchandize therein contained; suppose, likewise, that such merchant does not care to run the hazard of the whole, and writes to a correspondent at Paris, acquainting him that there is such a cargo, and sending him the invoice thereof, he desires to know whether he chuses to be interested with him in any part of the said cargo.

The merchant of Paris, having perused the invoice, and finding there is profit to be made, engages to take part, one half, a third, or a quarter, profit or loss, of the ship's cargo, and writes to his correspondent at Marseilles accordingly, that he may either draw upon him for such part of the prime cost and charge, or that he will remit him.

The merchant of Marseilles, having received this answer from him at Paris, purchases such merchandises that were contained in his correspondent's letter, which gives birth to this partnership, that is distinguished by anonymous, it taking place only pro tempore, by virtue of letters, and is unknown to the public. The merchant of Paris, by letter, obliges himself to be answerable to him at Marseilles for the part he has engaged for, and to abide by the profit or loss; and the merchant of Marseilles, by purchase of the merchandize, accepts the partnership, and obliges himself to render an account, and make good the profits which shall accrue on the sales thereof, and to sustain his share in the losses which may arise thereon.

But, in this case, the merchant of Paris is not answerable either to the master of the ship, or to the owners of the merchandises, for what the merchant of Marseilles shall have bought; so that, if the merchant of Marseilles fails before he has paid for such merchandise, no remedy can be had against him at Paris.

The reason thereof is, because the Marseilles merchant treats, in this case, in his own name only, with him who sells him the merchandise, and who acknowledges him alone for his debtor. In short, the seller can have no more remedy against the Paris merchant for what he sold to the Marseilles merchant, than the Paris merchant can against him, if he demanded, in his own name, the execution of what the Marseilles merchant was to have performed on his part towards him.

It is the same thing, likewise, in regard to the sale, as to the purchase, of merchandises; for, if this merchant of Marseilles sent the goods bought by him to be sold by the merchant of Paris, it is clear that he at Marseilles could maintain no action against the buyers at Paris, under pretence that he was a party interested in such goods, the debtors there acknowledging no body their creditor but the merchant at Paris, of whom they purchased these merchandises: so that, if the merchant at Paris fails, he at Marseilles can only come in as a creditor with the rest, for such proportion of the bankrupt's effects as shall be divided among the creditors. This is the universal law and custom of merchants; and, if duly considered, will be found to be well bottomed on the laws of nature and reason, for the support of universal commerce: for, in this case, the anonymous, or unknown partner, depends on the fidelity of him to whom he consigned the goods for sale; and, was not this the case, there would be no security in trade.

However, the custom and usage of merchants are different, if the two anonymous partners immediately divide the merchandise bought between them, according to the share and proportion of each, and that the merchant at Marseilles should send his part to him at Paris, to be disposed of with his mark, and for his proper account, by commission: in this case the bankruptcy of him at Paris happening, he at Marseilles may lay claim to the merchandise which shall be found intire, and in the same condition as sent, in the possession of the merchant at Paris; but, with regard to what shall be sold, he cannot claim that of the buyers, although they shall not

have paid for the same; because the merchandise, having changed hands, becomes the absolute property of the purchaser. Thus he at Marseilles can have no action against those buyers for payment, although they remain debtors to the bankrupt, and he can only act towards them as debtors to the merchant of Paris, who has debited them in his books to merchandise sold them in his proper and private name, and not under that of the merchant of Marseilles; so that the merchant at Paris only is the debtor to him at Marseilles. This is an established usage among merchants.

The second kind of anonymous partnerships is, when tradesmen and merchants resort to established fairs and markets, with intent to buy or sell merchandises. Those who have occasion for the same sort of goods, in order to prevent raising the price by the distinct number of buyers, agree, three or four, or more, together, to join in an anonymous partnership for that time, for the purchase of goods during the fair, &c. one of them only appears in the conduct; after which the goods are divided according to what each individual agreed for, and paid for to the seller by the visible purchaser only. As these sort of partnerships are only occasional and unforeseen, they are made upon the spot verbally only among the parties concerned, from which agreement they very rarely deviate. The Dutch factors who reside at Nantz in France, often make this kind of anonymous associations, in the purchase of wines and brandies, and by that means, as it were, put their own price upon them; for traders must act through them as their brokers; who having once offered a price, if they are not taken at a word, another will come afterwards, and offer less; which sometimes so greatly disappoints the sellers, that they decline coming to the public fairs and markets. On the other hand, when goods are scarce, the sellers, in their turn, will enter into these anonymous combinations. The most eminent traders will enter into the like agreements, and, having bought up all the goods of the petty dealers in the country, they carry them to the public fairs and markets, and set their own price thereon; for by this means all buyers must purchase of them, or return without what they came for. This sort of associations is a kind of monopoly, and of public detriment, and often destroys the economy, and restrains the freedom, of commerce. These things frequently happen at fairs and markets: the sellers combine to stick to a price, and the buyers will give only a middling price; so that all business shall be, as it were, at a stand, and disconcerted, and all of a sudden, on the last day of the fair, or market, both buyers and sellers come to a reasonable resolution; and sometimes, by these measures, the buyers, sometimes the sellers, become the dupes. These, and many others, are the fitnesses of commerce, which are hard to be prevented.

Another species of these anonymous, or unknown agreements in commerce, is between traders who observe, for example, that in France corn is extremely dear, by reason of the badness of the harvest for two or three years, which has occasioned a scarcity; and that at Dantzick, or in England, or some other part, there is a great plenty of corn: in consequence of these observations, three or four merchants of fortune shall unite together to buy, and import the same into France, and depute one only to be the visible and known purchaser.

Nor are these sorts of anonymous temporary partnerships practised only among merchants, and other traders, but there are persons of quality who in France will often take share in those occasional associations with traders eminent for their discernment and worth; they being wise enough not to think it the least disparagement or degradation to their honour and dignity to promote the commerce of their country, in concert with their private interest. And certainly there is no way of gain more honourable, or more lawful, than what is obtained in this manner, because they risk their money upon an uncertainty of profit or loss.

What renders this kind of partnerships the more eligible by persons of fortune is, that they run no hazard in France quatenus a partner.

Great estates may be acquired by merchants from this practice, judiciously managed, and that with a middling fortune; which shall be fully shewn under the article of PARTNERSHIPS foreign and domestic.

To ANSWER for another, signifies to be bound for him, to be his surety. It is a common saying among the French, that he who answers, pays. This happens but too often in trade, where such answering, or binding one's self for another, causes very rich and substantial merchants to break, whose failure is occasioned by nothing but their too great readiness in answering for others. This has been very fatal to many in England, in regard to the revenue in particular.

ANTARCTIC Pole, in geography, is the southern pole, or end of the earth's axis: so called, because opposite to the arctic, or north pole.

The stars near the antarctic pole never appear above our horizon. ANTARCTIC Circle, is one of the lesser circles of the sphere parallel to the equator, at the distance of 23 degrees 30 minutes from the south pole. It takes its name from being opposite to the arctic circle.

ANTEDATE, a falsified date, a date set down before the

true one. Antedat^{es} are of a very dangerous consequence in matters of trade.

To ANTEDATE, is to set down a false date, to date from a day prior to that on which the business is transacted, the note, or bill, drawn, or letters written, &c.

R E M A R K S.

In France it was formerly the ill custom to leave blank orders on the back of bills of exchange; that is to say, to indorse them by writing only one's name, so that they could easily be antedated, which might occasion very great abuses, especially from those who happened to break: for they who fell under that misfortune, and had bills of exchange drawn at two usances, or payable in the payment of Lyons, which were to order, in blank, might antedate the order, and make them thus be received under borrowed names, or give them in payment to such of their creditors as they wanted to favour, to the prejudice of others; by which means those bills could not be demanded to be added to the bankrupt's effects, because, the date of their order seeming to be prior to the time of the failure, it could not be urged that they were negotiated within the time wherein the person became a bankrupt.

The regulation for commerce in France, made in the year 1673, has provided, that it is not now so easy to antedate orders on the back of bills of exchange: for, in the 22d article of tit. 5. it is ordered, that the signature, or name signed, on the back of bills of exchange, shall serve only as an indorsement, and not as an order, unless it be dated, and contain the name of the person who shall have paid the value in money, merchandise, or otherwise: and, by the 26th article of the same title, it is ordered, that, whoever antedates orders, shall be punished as guilty of forgery.

To ANTICIPATE a payment, is to pay it before the time be expired, when it is to become due.

ANTILLES ISLANDS, lie in America, situate in the Atlantic ocean, between 59 and 63 degrees of west longitude from London, and between 11 and 18 degrees of north latitude. Some call these isles the Caribbees, from the first settlers, though this is a denomination that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual course of the European ships from Old Spain, or the Canary Islands to New Spain; in which course they must necessarily pass between some of those islands.

They are commonly distinguished by the Great and Little Antilles. Besides the original natives, they are inhabited by Spaniards, or English, French, or Dutch, as they have happened to be possessed by them. We shall take them as they are ranged on the north side of the north sea, from west to east, and on the south side of it from east to west, let them belong to whom they will.

The first that we come to from the Bahamas, are Cuba, Jamaica, Hispaniola, and Porto-Rico, which, with some small ones, as it were appendent to them, go all by the name of the Great Antilles.

I. CUBA. This island, which begins on the east side, at latitude 20. 20, touches on the north at the tropic of Cancer, and extends from longitude 74 to 85. 15, about 11 degrees from east to west, or 660 miles from Cape St Anthony on the west, to Cape Maize on the east; but is very narrow in proportion, being, in some parts, not above 12 or 14 leagues in breadth, and, at most, but 120 miles in length. It lies 60 miles to the west of Hispaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the east of Jucatan, and as many to the south of Cape Florida, and commands the entrance of both the gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Passage: so that the Spaniards, by their possession of this island, may, with a tolerable fleet, not only secure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

'Tis said to have generally the best lands, for so large a country, of any in America, and to produce most of the commodities known in the American islands, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices; cassia, fistula, mastic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, large vines, cotton-trees, and tobacco. They have fruit-trees of various sorts, large walks of cocoas, good sugar-works, and are said to make the best sugars in the West-Indies, though in no great quantity, for want of hands to cultivate the canes.

They have mines of copper, which furnish the Spaniards in America with metal for their brass founderies, for the making of cannon, &c. Gold dust also being found in the sands of the rivers, it is conjectured there are gold mines, if not of silver, in the mountains, of which there runs a ridge from the east to the west of the island.

But the Spaniards have not yet opened these mines; perhaps from not having yet discovered them, or from policy to prevent an invasion, as is said to be the case at Florida, where, though 'tis certain they have mines towards the north sea, they do not work them, but rather employ themselves in others farther up the country, though the carriage by land to Mexico is much more expensive.

This island has many very good ports and harbours of great advantage to shipping for the safe passing the gulph, and when the Spaniards keep Guarda Costa, plying off and on between

the west end of Cuba and Hispaniola, it is scarce possible for any English ships from Jamaica to escape them.

Here are great conveniences for making salt, and catching fish, which are chiefly barbel and shad. They have mules, plenty of horses, sheep, wild boars, hogs, and cattle of a larger and better breed than any other part of America; they have wild fowl, partridges, and large tortoises. They have quarries of flints and fountains of bitumen, which is used for ships instead of pitch, and also for medicinal uses.

Their black cattle are so numerous, that they run wild in the woods for want of people to consume their flesh: many fine fat beasts are left to rot upon the ground, though great numbers are killed, purely for the hides that are sent into Spain. The flesh being cut into pieces is dried in the sun, and serves as provisions for shipping.

Abundance of tobacco, both in leaf and snuff, is exported to New Spain, Costa Rica, the South Sea, and Europe in general. Another of its trading commodities is Campeachy wood for dyeing, which the merchants of this island import from the bay of that name, and the bay of Honduras, and put the same on board the flota for Spain, together with their hides and tobacco. Upon the whole, it is most advantageously situated for the general trade of the Spanish West-Indies, and may be deservedly called the Gibraltar of America, and therefore a place of as much importance to Spain, as the other is to Great-Britain.

But the Spaniards, by their shocking butchery of the natives, have depopulated the island, so that their improvements are not so general, nor so good, in their nature and tendency, as in our islands. Here are more churches than farms, more priests than planters, and more lazy and luxurious bigots than useful labourers. To which it is owing, that this large and well situated island, with a luxuriant soil, besides great plenty of food for its inhabitants, does not produce, for exportation, near the value of our little island of Antigua.

Its harbour for shipping is so large, as to admit a thousand fail of ships to ride there commodiously and safely, as it were without either anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them. It is so deep within, that the largest vessels anchor at a small distance from the shore, and there is commonly six fathom water. The entrance, which has no bar or shoals to obstruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but so narrow, that only one ship can go in at a time.

This island is of the greatest importance to the Spaniards of any of their settlements in America, the Havanna here being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain; and lying at the mouth of the gulph of Florida, through which they are all obliged to pass. The Spaniards therefore, not without reason, call it the Key of all the West Indies, to lock up or open the door or entrance to all America: and, in effect, no ships can pass this way, without leave from this port.

But, however impregnable this place may be thought at present, yet even the English Buccaneers, under Capt. Morgan, took it in 1669, and would have kept it, could they have had the king of England's protection. Had this been the case, our possessions in the West-Indies, as well as our trade thither, not only to and from our colonies, would have been duly secured, but our fair and honourable trade, by the way of Old Spain to New, would have been far more extended; for, while the key of the West-Indies was in British hands, the Spaniards would always have found themselves under the necessity of encouraging our trade thither, preferably to that of our rival nations.

Jamaica, lying between Cuba, Hispaniola, and the continent, is liable to be invaded from these three quarters at once; and, its security is the more precarious, as the French are possessed of the west part of Hispaniola. On the other hand, it is very plain, that if the English were possessed of the Havanna, our ships, both here and at Jamaica, would be always ready to pick up the straggling ships of the Spaniards, which they would not be able to keep in a body without the help of this port, it being as impossible for their unwieldy ships to turn up through the Windward Passage from the bay of Mexico, or Porto Bello, without separation, as it would be for them to pass the gulph of Florida, should they lose the Havanna, where they always rendezvous, victual, water, and provide all necessaries for their return to Spain.

II. JAMAICA, extends from longitude 75. 57 west of London, to longitude 78. 37, and from latitude 17. 48, to 18. 50. This island, reckoned bigger than all the other British sugar islands put together, Barbadoes excepted, is so far from being wholly cultivated as some of them are, that it has as much land uncultivated as would produce about three times what it does at present, were encouragement given for the cultivation of the rest.

The general produce of this island is sugar, rum, ginger, cocoa, coffee, cotton, pimento, or Jamaica pepper, several kinds of woods, some medicinal drugs and tobacco, but of so ordinary a sort, that it is only cultivated to serve the negroes, who could scarce live without it. Fruits grow here in great plenty, the Seville and China orange, the common and sweet lemon, shaddocks, citrons, pomegranates, mamees, four-lops,

papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, Alicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several sorts of berries, which are to be found in the woods every-where.

The sugar-cane is the glory and treasure of Jamaica, as well as of Barbadoes, Antigua, St Christopher's, Nevis, and all our new colonies annexed to the crown of England by the Definitive Treaty of 1763; and, as it is the principal article of the British commerce in our American islands, we shall give an ample account of that manufacture from the cane, under the article of SUGAR.

The consumption of sugars in Great-Britain, one year with another, has been computed at 70,000 hogheads, each containing twelve hundred weight; and, according to a computation we find in a treatise, said to be written by Mr Ahley, late deputy-auditor of Barbadoes, and well acquainted with this trade, intitled, *The importance of the Sugar-colonies to Great-Britain*, they all produce, on an average, 85,000 hogheads of sugar in a year; the neat profits of which the author supposes to be spent in England by the proprietors of estates in the West-Indies, who reside here, or are sent out annually in the British manufactures, either directly to the sugar-colonies, or to the Guiney coast, to purchase negroes for their use.

The author reckons, that there are three hundred sail of ships sent every year to our sugar-colonies from Great-Britain (not to mention those from other places) which are navigated by about 4500 seamen: that the freight for the sugars brought hither amounts to 170,000 l. a year, and the duty, commission, &c. to little less than 200,000 l. more.

As to the exports from hence to our sugar-colonies, it appeared by the custom-house books in 1726, that all the British manufactures exported to Barbados, all the Leeward-Islands, and Jamaica, put together, the latter of which generally takes as much for the Spanish trade, &c. as all those other islands, amounted to 234,785 l. 17 s.

The Jamaica sugar is said to be the best in all our plantations, and made with the greatest ease; for Dr. Stubbs says, it cures faster here in ten days, than it does in six months at Barbadoes, especially in those places where it rains for months together. There were about sixty mills in Jamaica in the year 1670, which were computed to make about two millions of pounds weight of sugar; and some writers say, they now make ten times as much as they did then.

Indigo was formerly produced in great quantities in this island. In the parish of Vere, where it was chiefly cultivated, the profits of the planters were so great, that 300 gentlemen's coaches were reckoned at its parish-church every Sunday. But whether it was owing to the want of seasons, or, as the planters themselves say, to the high taxes that were laid upon that commodity, there is not at present a stalk of indigo to be found there, nor any other vestiges of the former prosperity of that parish. The tax laid by the British legislature on that commodity was 3 s. 6d. a pound, which might have been borne, when a pound weight of it was worth 10 s. but upon its falling to 4 s. was insupportable.

We became sensible of this too late, and not only took off all duty upon indigo of our own growth, but have invited foreigners to bring it to us duty-free, and even in their own ships. There have been some attempts of late to revive this manufacture in Jamaica, but without success, the people there having quite forgot the art: however, in the year 1743, Mr Macfarlan made a small quantity of very good indigo in the parish of St Thomas in the Vale; whether he has prosecuted his design since we cannot learn, but are pretty sure that all, or most of the indigo imported from our sugar-colonies, is the produce of our neighbouring French and Spanish plantations. See the article INDIGO.

There are few colonies in America so well-stored with cattle as this: their horses, asses, and mules, are very cheap, and there would be much greater quantities of black cattle, only the English here, who mind planting more than grazing, have thereby so lessened the stock, that they are supplied with flesh from the northern colonies, as well as the Leeward Islands. Their sheep are generally large and fat, and the flesh good, but the wool, being long and full of hairs, is worth nothing. Their bays, roads, and rivers, abound with excellent fish of almost all the European and American kinds; but the tortoise is by much the most valuable, both for its shell and fish, the latter being counted the most delicious, and withal the most wholesome in the Indies, and esteemed as one of the nicest dainties at the table of our nobility and merchants, to whom they are often sent as presents from the governors and chief planters of this and the neighbouring islands.

The chief trade of Jamaica is with Great-Britain; for the islanders wear, eat, and drink, scarce any thing but what comes from thence, except Madeira wine, and rum punch.

The most saleable goods here are osnaburgs, check linnen, white linnen, both coarse and fine; laces, cambricks, hats, shoes, stockings, broad cloths, silks, platilloes; all sorts of iron ware, soap, candles, butter, cheese, salt beef, pork, herrings, dried cod-fish, biscuit, beer, ale, cyder, &c. all which bring at least 50 per cent. to the importer.

The general trade of this, and the island of Barbados, is much alike, but in some articles it differs; as in most of the

dyer's woods from the bay of Campeachy, which the Barbados people cannot so easily come at as the Jamaicans, who are only at the charge of cutting and carrying it off, though the Spaniards, even before the breaking out of the present war, did so much to hinder that trade, that the logwood-cutters were forced to have guards, and fight for their prize, the Spaniards reckoning this an illicit trade, and that the English have no right to trade in the bay of Campeachy, but the English have asserted the contrary. See the article LOG-WOOD TRADE. The Jamaica trade has, in the general, the advantage of that of Barbados, and particularly in bringing us bullion; so that some years, 'tis said, it has exported no less than 300,000 pieces of eight to Great-Britain.

Notwithstanding all the care that the courts of England and Spain have hitherto taken, to prevent a clandestine trade being carried on from Jamaica to the Spanish main, they have not been able to suppress it. For the Spaniards are as fond of it as the English, though they run no less hazard in buying the merchandize, than the English do in selling it to them, as appears by their way of managing it, which is thus: The ship, being furnished at Jamaica with negroes and dry goods, commonly makes to the coast near Porto Bello, and no sooner arrives, but a person who understands Spanish, is sent off to give notice of it to the dealers about Porto Bello, who appoint the time and place for the ship's canoe to attend them; when, having bargained for what part of the cargo they want, they return to the town for the money, which they bring aboard, and take the goods.

Sometimes the Spanish dealers come to trade over the Isthmus from Panama, travelling like peasants, with mules laden with jars of meal, in which they conceal their silver, for fear of meeting with the king of Spain's officers; and therefore they generally travel through woods and by-ways. The sloop trade from Jamaica to the Spanish West-Indies, under the protection of our men of war, has heretofore been reckoned at 200,000 l. a year, till 1702, that an order came to the governor of Jamaica to prevent it, on account of a treaty betwixt us and the Dutch, who afterwards went into it themselves at Curassau.

The importance of this island to Great-Britain, not only for its trade but situation, is very great. For, it lying in the very center of the Spanish acquisitions in America, no vessel can scarce come to, or go from; the continent of New Spain, but must necessarily sail within sight of Jamaica, or fall into the hands of such of our cruisers as are stationed there; for every fleet that comes from Carthagena puts into Hispaniola, from whence it cannot fail for the Havanna, the general rendezvous of the Spanish galleons and flota, without passing by one end or the other of Jamaica.

Here also are many fine bays which are convenient for shipping, some whereof might be improved to excellent purposes, and a fleet might lie in them with the greatest safety, and watch the motions of ships from the Havanna.

PORT ROYAL. The harbour, which is eleven miles by land from Spanish-town, and six by water both from thence and from Kingston, is about three leagues broad, very deep, and perhaps one of the best in the world. So that 1000 sail of the largest ships may ride in it safe (the hurricanes always excepted) from every wind.

KINGSTON is about 5 miles from Port-Royal by water, but not less than 15 by land. It is the residence of the most considerable merchants, whose ships load and unload here, which makes it a place of vast trade; and there are never less than two or three hundred vessels in the bay before it. The harbour is spacious, and the ships lie land-locked; but the peninsula that covers them from the sea, being low and narrow, they are not altogether safe from storms.

SPANISH-TOWN, the chief city of the island, being an inland place, its trade is inconsiderable, yet several wealthy merchants, and most of the gentlemen of estates, have houses in it, where they live after a very gay manner.

All ships bound to Jamaica from Great-Britain, or Ireland, or the plantations on the American continent, or from the coast of Africa, instead of attempting to pass through the gulph of Florida, where the current is strong against them, or through the freight called the Windward Passage, which would be altogether as impracticable and hazardous, always shape their course so as to fall down so far southward, till they arrive somewhat east of the Caribbee-islands, in a parallel latitude with Jamaica; and for this end they generally make the island of Antigua, or others in that neighbourhood, from whence they alter their course to due west, and bear away with the trade-wind to Jamaica.

But when such ships are homeward bound to Europe, or the northern colonies on the American continent, they have their choice of two courses, viz. either through the Windward Passage, or through the gulph of Florida.

The current of this gulph is an hindrance to the passage of ships from Europe to Jamaica, and, by consequence, it will drive them homewards, or towards Europe.

From clearing the west point of Jamaica to the west of Cape St Antonio, in the island of Cuba, the ship has the advantage of the trade wind upon her starboard quarter all the way, which

which from Port-Royal, the place she is supposed to set out from, is in all a run of about 200 leagues: but when she doubles cape St Antonio, and changes her course to bear away for the gulph of Florida, which is in the teeth of the trade-wind, she then loses much more time and way than she had gained in her quick passage from Jamaica to the leeward of Cuba: and, while she is thus beating against the wind, between the coast of Cuba and the gulph, she is in great danger from the Spanish guarda costa's from the Havanna; and supposing she escapes them, and is just entered the gulph, she is still in greater perils, from the current and coast of Florida.

This homeward passage through the gulph being so very precarious, there remains no other course but that of the Windward Passage.—Now the extent of this passage is about 160 leagues from cape Morant to the north side of Crooked Island; and, reckoning from Port Royal, 'tis above 180. The trade-winds blowing continually from east to west, the most difficult part of this passage is the course from Port-Royal Point to Morant, which is directly against the wind, and has very often detained ships for a month or six weeks together; and, indeed, after that, many have been forced to return to Port-Royal, after suffering great damage.

Some ships that set out betwixt December and May, have had the good fortune to turn that point in one night's time, by taking an advantage, which does not always offer, of the trade-winds, and currents slackening in that season towards the evening, and of the strong breezes then rising from the land; but this cannot be done from May to December, because then the trade-winds and currents are the strongest.

Besides, in the intervening months, they have such fiery sea breezes, especially in July, August, and September, that no ships stir out of port: therefore, the safest time for them to leave Jamaica, is observed to be betwixt December and May. And, even when ships have doubled the cape of Morant, they are exposed to the danger of meeting with the French and Spanish guarda costa's of Hispaniola, by being necessitated, for safety only, to steer as near as possible to that island, till they pass Crooked Island, for fear of being drove to the leeward between Jamaica and Cuba, where it is all a flat shallow bottom. Nor indeed are they safe from these enemies, when they are got to the north of Crooked Island; for the Spaniards have, in time of peace, frequently pretended to as great a right to visit our ships hereabouts, as if they were within musquet-shot of Cuba, or Hispaniola. But, was the island of Cuba once possessed by Great-Britain, it would prove not only the best security of our navigation from Jamaica, but of the whole island to the British nation.

III. HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO, is the greatest, next to Cuba, of all the Antilles Islands. It lies in the middle between Cuba and Jamaica, on the north-west and south-west; and Porto Rico on the east, and is separated from the last only by a narrow channel.

This island belongs partly to the Spaniards, and partly to the French. It is allowed to be the most fruitful, and by much the most pleasant in the West Indies, having vast forests of cabbage-trees, palm, elms, oaks, pines, the jempah, caramite, acajou, and other trees taller and larger, and the fruit more lovely to the eye, and better tasted than in the other islands; particularly ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots.

Here are all the fowl common to the West-Indies. In the savannahs, there are innumerable herds of black cattle; horses enough in the French part of it to supply all their neighbouring colonies, besides wild horses and wild hogs of the breed brought over by the Spaniards.

There is scarce a country in the world better watered either by brooks, or navigable rivers, which are all full of fish, as the coast is of crocodiles and tortoises. Gold dust is found in the sands of their rivers, and it has many mines of gold, silver, and copper.

The chief general commodities of this island are hides, sugar, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, salt, wax, honey, ambergrease, and various kinds of drugs, and dyeing woods.

The French here are said to equal, if not out-number, the Spaniards, though both together are very short of what the extent and fertility of the island is capable of maintaining.

Before the Spaniards here murdered, in cold blood, no less than three millions of the inhabitants, men, women, and children, the natives were innocent and happy in their own way. While the natives enjoyed their possessions, they cultivated their lands for them, supplied them with fish, and with some quantities of gold. By which the Spaniards lived much more happily, and in greater affluence than they have ever done since; whereas now the far greater part of what the Spaniards claim, rather than possess, is desert, and yields them little or nothing.

As this island was the first of the Spaniards discoveries, so it was the center of their commerce in America. After their conquests in Peru, they sighted this island; which encouraged the French, about the middle of the last century, to fix themselves on the west part of the island, where they have improved their settlements to such a degree, and are grown so

powerful, that they may make themselves masters of the whole island, whenever they please, and doubtless will, when the proper time presents; which will render our possession of Jamaica the more precarious.

Its principal trade consisted for many years in tobacco, in which there have been from 60 to 100 ships employed, but that sunk to nothing in the establishment of an exclusive farm of this commodity in France, and sugar afterwards became the staple commodity. Some think it is the best that is made in the West-Indies.

'Twas computed in 1726, that there were 200 sugar works here, that at an average they made annually 400 hogheads, each of 500 weight, which did not bring less than 200,000 l. sterling per ann. to the French. The indigo was reckoned to produce half as much. At present, 'tis thought, the trade is rather in a better than worse condition, in regard to these articles, to the great injury of the British colonies, and benefit of the French.

IV. PORTO RICO, belonging to the Spaniards, is the last of the Great Antilles Islands, whose trade remains to be described. This isle extends from long. 65 to 67. and from lat: 18 to 18, 40.

The soil is extremely fertile, abounding in fine meadows, and well stocked with wild cattle. Their pork is excellent, so is the flesh of the kids, but their mutton is poor dry food. They have good ship-timber, and variety of fruit-trees, cocoas, pine-apples, mameys, guavas, papays, bananas, plaintains, palms, musk-melons, oranges, limes, plums, figs, wild grapes, pomegranates, citrons, pimento, cassia, fitulter, the sensitive plant, and the bastard cinnamon, together with rice and Indian corn.

The principal commodities in which its traders deal, are sugar, ginger, hides, cotton thread, or raw cotton, cassia, mastic, &c. They have also great quantities of salt, and make a considerable profit of their oranges and lemons; as fruit, and in sweet-meats. They have many good vessels, in which they trade to various parts of America.

The genius of the people, and the convenient situation of the island, would render it the most flourishing of all the Spanish colonies, were it not for the mischiefs to which they are frequently liable, from great droughts, hurricanes, and the descents of privateers, whereby their sea-ports have been often ruined.

The other places of any note, which lie near Porto Rico, are a cluster of very small islands, called the Virgin Islands. The only one which deserves our notice, is that distinguished by the Danes island, St Thomas's. It is said by our voyage-writers, to abound with potatoes, millet, mendioca, and most sorts of fruit and herbage, particularly sugar and tobacco, oranges, citrons, lemons, guavas, bananas, and fig-trees. They have hares and black cattle, but are furnished with flesh enough from Porto Rico. They have excellent fish, and all sorts of wild fowl; yet such is the plenty both of people and money, that provisions are dear. Here is a safe commodious harbour, which is a free port, and sanctuary for privateers.

All the trade here is carried on by the Dutch in the name of the Danes, and is pretty considerable for so small a place, particularly in time of peace, where 'tis the staple for that traffic, which the French, English, Dutch, and Spaniards, dare not carry on publicly in their own islands. In time of war, privateers bring their prizes into this, as it were, always neutral island, for sale. Many vessels also trade from hence along the coast of Terra Firma, and always full of all sorts of goods.

The voyage between these islands, in which there is a plentiful fishery, is the most pleasant, says Father Labat, that can be made, and compares it to a passage through a large meadow, with groves of fine trees on each side.

ANTIMONY, a mineral substance, pretty much of a metallic nature, except that it is not ductile or malleable. It is found in mines of various sorts of metals, and particularly in those of silver and lead; which made some chymists imagine, that it contains all the principles of those metals.

As it is taken from the mine, it is in stones of several sizes, in figure pretty much like mineral lead, except that it is lighter and harder.

Hungary was formerly the only country where mines of antimony were found; but a great many of them have been since discovered in France, particularly in Poictou, Auvergne, and Britany.

The antimony of Britany and Poictou is the most valued, that of Auvergne being judged to abound more with sulphur. There has been antimony of Hungary in cakes of 3 or 4 pounds weight, made up, as it were, of small needles, interlaced together, of a yellow colour, inclining to gold, upon a white ground, as it were, of silver; it was of a quality surpassing all the other sorts of antimony; but it is become so scarce, that there is none of it to be seen at present.

There is crude antimony, and prepared antimony. Crude ANTIMONY, as it comes from the mine. But that, to which the druggists give that name, bears it but improperly; since it has been melted, and cast into cones or needles, which are larger or smaller, according to the provinces from whence it comes; those of the antimony of Poictou being beautiful,

long,

long, broad, white, and shining; those of Britany smaller, but very well purified.

Prepared ANTIMONY is that, which has passed through the hands of the chymists to be purified, who have invented many different preparations of it, and have also given it several names, either out of whim, or with regard to the different effects they ascribe to it: such are the following appellations. Regulus of antimony, glass of antimony, flowers, butter, saffron, oil, calx, golden sulphur of antimony, imperial powder, crocus metallorum, rubine of Antimony, polycrestes, emetic wine, diaphoretic antimony, powder of algarret, bezoar mineral, and many other names, which the curious may meet with in the dispensaries, and in the works of the chymists.

No remedy ever underwent a more inconstant fate than antimony has done with regard to physic. It was scarce got out of the darkness of its mines, towards the 12th century, by the assistance of the monk Valentine, but the ill success of the trial he made of it upon his own unfortunate brethren, the monks, (if the fact be not a fabulous story) threw that mineral again into its former obscurity. About 300 years after this, Paracelsus brought it a second time to light, and it begun to gain reputation; when, in the year 1566, it was thunderstruck by a decree of the parliament of Paris. In 1637, it was received by public authority, among the purgative drugs at least. In 1650, a new decree cancelled that of 1566, and antimony was restored to its former credit. Since that time, a full liberty was granted to the doctors of physic to prescribe it, with prohibition to all other persons to use it without their advice. This may be said to have completed the triumph of antimony, at least in France, where it meets no longer with any adversaries, and is become, as it were, the last resource in all distempers, which seem to have none left. Nicholas Lemery has published a Treatise of Antimony, which was printed at Paris in the year 1707, in 12mo. a commendation of which may be seen in the Acta Eruditorum Lipsienf. for the year 1708, p. 122.

In general, most of the preparations of antimony are either emetic or diaphoretic. The regulus consists chiefly, according to its physical mixture, 1. In a metallic vitrifiable earth. 2. In an arsenical substance. 3. In a phlogistic spirit. These three substances do particularly constitute the form of that metallic mixture. The metallic earth is the basis and principle of the diaphoretic virtue. The emetic and dangerous property, which the regulus, and other emetic preparations of antimony occasion, is produced by the arsenical substance; and the phlogistic principle, is the metallic and shining appearance, both of that regulus, and of copper, iron, tin, and lead. According to the different preparations and additions, may be composed either most excellent or most dangerous remedies. It is with respect to this, as with respect to mercury. The regulus of antimony is used by several tradesmen, as by pewterers, letter-founders, silver-smiths, minters, and assayers; as also to make burning-glasses, &c. As to the several chymical preparations, which are very numerous, for their process and manner of using them, the curious may consult Stahl, Hoffman, and the excellent public lecture on antimony by the late Mr. Newmann, printed at Berlin, in the German tongue, in the year 1730.

In France they send into the country, by the king's order, antimonial remedies, well prepared, but often different ways, and of which they who use them, cannot know the several virtues. Mr Geoffroy undertook to regulate this, as much as possible, as the curious may see, in the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1720 and 1734. Upon the whole, the various preparations of antimony should be used with the greatest precaution, according to the prescription of an able physician.

Crude Antimony pays a duty of 5 sols per hundred weight on importation in France, and of 60 sols prepared.

For the duty paid in England, see DRUGS.

Antimony is classed by that great physician and eminent chymist Dr Boerhaave, amongst the semi-metals. It is used in metallurgy, and in medicine as a drug.

The method of smelting antimony from its native ore is as follows, viz.

A P P A R A T U S.

1. Chuse a melting crucible, or an earthen-pot unglazed, that may contain some pounds of the ore of antimony, and let it be broken into small bits of the bigness of a hazel-nut: bore at the bottom of it a few small holes, two lines in diameter: this may be easily done with a common wimple, or, if this cannot do by reason of the hardness of the pot, with a small wedge, which must be moved circularly with the left hand, and mean while incessantly struck with a hammer in the right. Let the bottom of this vessel be received by the orifice of a smaller one, upon which it must be put, and, when the ore is put into it, let it be covered with a tile; and all the joints be stopt close with a proper luting.

2. Put these vessels upon the pavement of the hearth, and put stones all round them, at the distance of six inches: fill this intermediate space with ashes, so high as that the inferior pot be covered to the upper-brim. Then put fresh and burning coals upon it, and with a pair of hand-bellows excite the fire,

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till the upper vessel grows red-hot: take off the fire a quarter of an hour after, and, when the vessels are grown cold, open them. You will find that the antimony has run through the holes made at the bottom of the upper vessel, and makes in the inferior one a kind of regulus, from the proportion of the weight whereof with that of ore, you will be able to know how much may be got out of one hundred weight.

This may enable gentlemen who have estates in antimony, to judge of the yielding of the ore of matter fit for sale, and consequently to know what profit the working the same in large quantities will yield; provided the same method of operation is made use of in the assay, as in the great works. This is the way that is generally used to prepare antimony from the ore, either for the uses of metallurgy, or medicine. For the former, in some cases, it undergoes further methods of refining; and, in the latter, the processes in regard to this mineral are very different.

The pharmaceutical method of preparing the essential medicaments from antimony, after its being smelted from the ore, is, according to the sentiments of the ablest chymists, as follows, viz.

P R O C E S S I.

Antimony dissolved in aqua regia.

Take pure antimony, broke from the top of the cone; reduce it to fine powder; put a pound thereof into a low capacious glass vessel, with a wide mouth; set the vessel under a chimney, that carries up fumes well, and pour to it a pound and a half of aqua regia. A violent effervescence arises, a great heat, thick red fumes, and a hissing, all which soon after cease. There now remains at the bottom a matter of a grey and yellow colour, moist, thick, pappy, which is to be dried over a gentle fire, by keeping it sometimes stirred with a stick.

The U S E.

This is called the humid calcination of antimony, whereby the fossil, which before was neither emetic nor purgative, now acquires very violent virtues. The yellow matter incorporated amongst this calx is the true sulphur of antimony, which the acid not dissolving, it is separated from the other metallic part of the antimony, which dissolves in aqua regia; whence we have both a calcination, and separation in this process; which is subservient to the following operations.

P R O C E S S II.

The true sulphur of antimony.

Take the calx of the preceding process, wash and shake it with water, pour off the thick into another vessel; put on fresh, and continue thus, till the yellow lighter matter, dispersed in the water, is separated from the more ponderous metallic matter, which is to be kept apart; the sulphureous part, which falls to the bottom, being freed from the whitish water, floating above it, may be thrown away. Then dry the powder by a gentle fire, and it will be true sulphur. If somewhat larger pieces of antimony were put into aqua regia, and the solution thus performed, larger pieces of sulphur would be obtained; because the aqua regia seeks out and dissolves the larger metallic parts concealed in the sulphur, and so makes the masses of sulphur more visible.

The U S E.

Hence it appears, how secretly sulphur may lie concealed between metallic shoots; and how extraordinarily aqua regia can find out metal, through the body of sulphur; and again, how unchanged the nature of sulphur may remain. This is the sulphur of antimony, which Helmont orders to be extracted, and which he says scarce differs from the common, which, we presume to say, is a very great mistake in that learned chymist, we having discovered essential different properties, which we shall take particular notice of under the article of SULPHUR.

We shall for the present give one instance, which we do not remember to have met with in any of the chymical writers, either antient or modern.

To instance in regard to the making of the glass of antimony. The common methods thereof, as given us by the learned Boerhaave, Stahl, Homberg, and all the chymists of the highest reputation, are by a tedious calcination for many hours over a gentle fire: whereas what these great men perform in many hours, may be performed in near as many minutes, by virtue of its own antimonial sulphur. Thus:

P R O C E S S III.

Let a pound of crude antimony be melted in a common crucible, and put to it gradually the quantity of one quarter of a pound of its own sulphur per se. and stir it as put in with a tobacco-pipe, and the whole will, as it were, instantly become vitrified.

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The reason which led à priori to the trial of this process, was, from observing that the vitrifying quality lies only in its sulphur, when duly excited by the external heat. And by this means may be easily vitrified all the inferior metals, and divers minerals; and indeed, when properly applied, most metalline substances, excepting gold and silver. These are properties very different from common sulphur, in regard to metalurgy: and, with respect to medicine, the antimonial sulphur is an emetic and sudorific, whereas the common brimstone is chiefly laxative. So that not only Helmont, but other learned chymists, seem to have mistaken the qualities of this antimonial sulphur, and therefore, perhaps, may have misapplied the same in many cases, in medicine as well as metallurgy.

P R O C E S S I V.

The regulus of antimony.

Take half a pound of clean iron filings, heat them in a crucible, gradually put thereto a pound of antimony pulverized, being first well dried: keep it in a strong fire, so that it may flow thin: pour it into a cone, and, when quite cold, strike off the scoria at top of the cone, the regulus lying at the bottom. And, if the regulus is not sufficiently purified for the purpose intended, you must re-melt it, with a strong fire, with about four ounces of pure, dry, and hot pulverized nitre; then pour it again into a cone, as before. There will thus be obtained about seven ounces and a half of regulus as bright as silver; but this is more or less, according to the quality of the antimony*.

* This process may be performed at one operation, by throwing in the nitre gradually after the iron and antimony are well melted down. Or the regulus may be separated by a competent quantity of nitre alone.

P R O C E S S V.

If you would obtain the sulphur of antimony, boil the scoria of the preceding process in common water, till it is all dissolved; the solution will be almost scentless: drop vinegar into it; and there instantly rises a very fetid stercoraceous odour; and the liquor that before was thin, becomes very thick. Continue the addition of more vinegar, and stir the matter, till nothing more precipitates. Let the matter rest; the precipitate will gradually fall: pour off the liquor, wash the precipitate in several waters, till it becomes perfectly insipid; dry it gently; and this is called the golden sulphur of antimony. It has a mild emetic virtue, &c. and is called the golden sulphur, because, when rubbed upon silver, it gives a gold colour thereto.

P R O C E S S V I.

A diaphoretic antimony with nitre.

Take one part of antimony, and three of nitre reduced to powder; throw them by little at a time into an ignited crucible; they will deflagrate. Continue them till all the powder is put in; with care not to add fresh, till the former is perfectly deflagrated. Keep the matter for a quarter of an hour in the fire, that the crucible may remain ignited: let all cool; there will remain a white and hard mass, which being taken out, and reduced to powder, is the diaphoretic antimony with nitre.

This matter, thus rightly prepared, being taken in the quantity of half a drachm, scarce occasions any sensible change, excepting that it moderately opens on account of the fixing nitre adhering thereto; whence it may prove serviceable in acute cases. In this state the chymists call it diaphoretic, and judge, that the arsenical poison of the antimony is fixed by a large proportion of nitre; but there was nothing emetic in the antimony before, though taken in the quantity of several drachms crude, or without any nitre; whereas an equal proportion of nitre excites this vomitive virtue.

P R O C E S S V I I.

Common diaphoretic antimony.

Reduce the calcined antimony of the preceding process to fine powder; wash it with hot water; mix it with a flick; whereby the adhering fixing nitre will be dissolved, and a white calx subside by standing. Pour off the saline liquor, add fresh water, and edulcorate the calx, so that no sensible taste of the nitrous salt may remain; then dry the powder, and it will be white, insipid, and ponderous, or the common antimonium diaphoreticum.

This is an indolent, noxious calx, says the learned Dr Shaw upon Boerhaave, without any activity discoverable by observation; and loses all the virtue it had before. It only acts sensibly when mixed in a double proportion with purgatives, the virtues whereof it actually excites, as appears by sure examples in the pulvis Cornachini; but I recommend it for no other use.

I

P R O C E S S V I I I.

Nitrum antimoniacum.

Put the filtered waters of the preceding process into a glass-urinal; evaporate to driness, and keep continually stirring; at last there remains a white saline matter, of a particular taste, not ungrateful, nor nitrous, but mild; and this is called nitre of antimony.

Hence we see the nitre is changed into a new salt, by detonating with antimony. This salt is gently aperitive, and, in dense inflammatory blood, excellently resolves without violence: it successfully promotes perspiration, sweat, and urine; hence cools and becomes serviceable in the small-pox, measles, pleurisy, and peripneumony: it is therefore wrong to throw this water away as noxious; which is commonly done.

P R O C E S S I X.

The fixed sulphur of antimony.

To the filtered nitrous liquor of the preceding process, whilst it remains hot, and contained in an urinal, drop strong distilled vinegar; the liquor will presently turn milky, and a very white and fine powder precipitate. Shake the glass, continue to drop in vinegar, and stir the liquor till it appears no longer turbid; then let it rest till all the powder is fallen: afterwards pouring it off into another vessel, perfectly edulcorate the powder with water, dry it, and it will be exceedingly white and fine: this is called the fixed sulphur of antimony.

The acetous, nitrous liquor, that floats above the precipitate, has extraordinary virtues in all acute, feverish disorders, as well on account of the vinegar, as of the mild nitre, now set free from its sluggish sulphur; and thus the best things are often thrown away (as in this case says Dr Shaw) in chymistry. In these several processes, we see how wonderfully sulphur may be dissolved, lie concealed, and be raised again in various forms and colours.

These are some of the principal processes of antimony, as they have relation to practical medicine. Whoever would see all the variety of medicinal preparations proposed to be made from this mineral, may consult the several authors before-mentioned.

Of the application of antimony to metallurgy.

What the regulus of antimony is capable of performing in the way of improving metals, we may learn, says Dr Stahl, from Kern der Alchymie, who informs us, (1.) That the simple regulus being mixed or melted along with silver, and then evaporated, leaves the silver enriched with a few grains of gold; and, (2.) That the crocus metallorum, or the scoria, obtained in the preparation of the simple regulus, being edulcorated and cemented with silver, and lastly melted into it, by a continued fusion of several hours, renders the silver something of a golden nature.

This reguline substance of antimony may likewise be commodiously employed in the extraction of the metallic sulphurs, as they are called, and their purification from all terrestrial heterogeneous fæces; whence the compound metallic regulus's, viz. the martial, the venereal, and the jovial, arise.

There are some who question, whether these compound regulus's do actually participate of any thing from the metal where-with they are prepared; and suspect there is no more performed in this case, than a bare absorption of the sulphur abounding in the antimony, upon which the reguline part subsides alone. The meaning whereof is this, that the reguline substance, confusedly intermixed with a large proportion of adhering sulphur, is what makes antimony; and that, if this sulphur be taken away, the remainder becomes regulus again: whence, as the subjects which easily take away this sulphur from antimony, are alkalies, iron, copper, tin, and lead, any one or more of these, being added to antimony in fusion, ought, upon that supposition, only to receive or imbibe the sulphur, and leave the regulus pure and unmixed, collected in a metallic form at the bottom.

This opinion is overthrown, by numerous experiments and instances to the contrary. For example, if any such metallic regulus, though made ever so pure, be simply evaporated by the blow-pipe, upon a coal, it leaves a pure grain of metal behind it, which, upon the proof, is found to be gold or silver. So likewise the martial regulus in particular, being melted in a crucible, with the addition of coals, or common sulphur, and detained for some time in the fire, a ruddy powder or flowers evaporate or sublime from it, which nearly approach to the nature of cinnabar: and, if digested with a menstruum consisting of three parts distilled vinegar, and one of aqua fortis, it affords a green extraction: but nothing of this kind happens in any of the cases, when only the simple regulus is employed.

This extraction of the pure metallic sulphur deserves to be the more attentively considered, because Becher* expressly advises us to beware of using corrosive, saline menstrua for

* Miner. Arenar. p. 912.

this purpose, as they might easily, together with the useful part of the regulus, or rather of the iron or copper, corrode and extract also the useless, earthy, and styptic part; which, upon melting them together, would again accrete to the useful part, and conceal or disguise it under its former ignoble veil.

But this separation is excellently performed by the regulus of antimony itself; there being no danger that this should imbibe any of the terrestrial, styptic substances. But if there be any suspicion, that such a compound regulus should still contain something of the crude substance of the metal, as we usually find to be the case in the martial regulus, melted in a strong heat, and suddenly poured into the cone; or if the antimony employed contained but little sulphur, or only so small a proportion was used as could not totally corrode the metal; whence the regulus becomes porous, less leafy, and less bright and shining, but rather appears discoloured and grey, and of itself indisposed to flow, unless the fire be made very intense; and whence also the venereal regulus turns ruddy or livid in the space of a few days: in these cases the regulus is to be beat again, mixed with its own, or a half more than its own weight of crude antimony, and thrown into a well ignited crucible, and fused with a very good heat, so as to make the matter run very thin, in which state it is to be directly poured out; and, by this means, the antimony again imbibes all the crude metal that still adhered to the regulus, and thus at a single operation renders it highly pure and bright: an effect, which in the common way with nitre, is not obtained without a deal of trouble.

It must be further observed, that this reguline substance of antimony is convertible into various forms and shapes. Thus, for example, 'tis turned to a fixed, to a volatile, and to an intermediate substance, in the different preparations of diaphoretic ceruse, bezoar, mineral flowers, mercurius vitæ, glass of antimony, &c. from all which the regulus may not only be recovered again, but any one of them may likewise be converted into any other, or made to travel successively through all the various forms of the rest.

If the regulus of antimony be reduced to fine powder, and calcined in an open vessel, so as that the bottom may remain ignited for several hours, this is turned into a kind of grey powder.

And here there occurs a remarkable phenomenon, which has occasioned much speculation among the chymists, viz. that the regulus, notwithstanding its constant evaporation, or sublimation, in the form of a fine fume, is found to gain in weight; so that, for example, if an ounce of the powdered regulus were thus committed to calcination, it becomes, at the end of the operation, heavier by half a drachm, or a drachm, than it was at first; and this at the same time that it is contracted in its bulk. And, if the powder thus calcined be melted with a sufficient degree of heat, it turns to a kind of purple glass, somewhat purer than that prepared from common antimony.

If a quantity of charcoal, in gross powder, be added to this glass, and the method of reduction practised in a close vessel, with a fire of fusion continued about an hour, more or less, according to the quantity of the matter; when, after this, the vessel comes to be broken, the glass will be found reduced to metalline regulus again.

The use of antimony in regard to gold.

All the metals, except gold, are subject to an attenuated resolution by antimony; so that, if any thing of gold be contained in the other metals, it may by this means be separated from them.

The separation, thus procured by antimony, Becher considers barely as the effect of gravity; on account whereof he thinks the antimony comes to resolve and collect together all the metals, which, being lighter than gold, continue to float above it.

But this opinion is not without its difficulties. For, (1.) when nothing but pure gold is melted along with antimony, the antimony still lets go the gold in the same manner; though, by the supposition, it should only do this upon the mutual fusion of other metals along with the gold. (2.) But the principal objection is, that gold will subside in antimony, without mixing at all considerably therewith; whilst the same antimony remains most tenaciously interspersed in the bodies of all other metals, where it does not act by its bare gravity alone, as we evidently see in the case of lead: for, if lead be found along with antimony, and little plates of silver be thrown into the melted mass, the lead will not, by that means, be precipitated, but rather the silver freely subsides into the regulus, which is no way touched by the antimony; whilst the antimony detains the lead, a matter whereto it may adhere more firmly than to the silver.

It is however true in practice, that, when antimony is melted with iron, for instance, either alone, or according to the other methods beforementioned, the iron thus subtilly dissolved may be brought to enrich the body of the silver, or to deposit a grain or two of gold therein; as may be discovered by edulcorating the scoria, stratifying it with silver plate, and cementing them both together for some hours in a close vessel, the

fire at length being so far increased as to make the matter flow for some hours longer; after which it is to be taken out, beat from its scoria, refined, and proved by the depart.

The reason of which effect proceeds hence, that the latent gold naturally contained in iron, being now very subtilly divided and diffused therewith, comes, in the course of this long continued fusion and ebullition, to be a thousand times tossed and agitated every-where about therein, so as of necessity sometimes to impinge upon, and unite with, the particles of the silver, which now make part of the mixture; and, being once lodged among them, they cannot afterwards be touched either by the antimony or the iron; so that the gold, thus defended, wants only for its manifestation to be perfectly separated from the scoria, and collected together in its natural form, by the proper operations for that purpose. See the article REFINING.

But it is also apparent at the same time, that the scoriae here formed by the antimony corroded with the metal, whence they come to be joined together, are lighter than the rest of the metal which remains corroded, and floats above it in the nature of scum.

The theory of Becher, therefore, may very well be admitted in this sense, that all the metals, but gold, being corroded by antimony, that metal, on account of its superior specific gravity, falls to the lowest place.

This explanation may be further illustrated by the following experiment. To an ounce of melted silver throw two ounces of antimony; and, when they have flowed very thin together, pour them out; upon which the antimony will be found at top, together with about a dram of the silver it has corroded, in the form of a spongy scoria, whilst the rest of the silver that is not thus dissolved, remains close and heavy, like a regulus, at the bottom.

The ultimate refinement of gold is by fusing it thin with thrice its own weight of antimony; wherein the antimony tears away and imbibes the substance of all the other metals, but leaves the gold untouched; which, therefore, as the heavier body, falls like a regulus to the bottom of the melting cone. It is remarkable in this operation, that a very little portion of antimony, so little as can scarce alter the weight of the gold, adheres tenaciously to the surface thereof, and covers its native colour with a whiteness; whence it is commonly said, that the fume of the antimony here turns the gold white. The regulus is again to be purged from this accretion by the blast, which will drive the little additional matter off in scoria, or exhalation.

These are the chief uses wherein antimony is applied in metallurgy. In what cases it is further used we shall shew under their respective heads.

ANTIPODES, in geography, are such inhabitants of the earth as live diametrically opposite to one another, that is, in parallels of latitude equally distant from the equator, but one north, the other south, and under the same meridian, though 180°, or just half that meridian, distant from one another.

ANTISCII, in geography, are the people who live in two places opposite to one another, one on the north, the other on the south side of the equator, so that their shadows at noon fall different ways, one directly opposite to the other.

ANTOECI, in geography, are such inhabitants of the earth as dwell one against another in the same semicircle of the same meridian, and in the same degree of latitude, but one north, the other south. These have noon and midnight at the same time, but the seasons of the year are contrary; as, when the northern antoeci have their summer, the southern have winter, and vice versa. In a word, they live under the same meridian, but opposite parallels.

ANTWERP, a remarkable city in the Netherlands, on the river Schelde, and is the capital of the province, which is called the marquissate of the holy empire.

Though the trade of this city be still very considerable, yet it is certainly at present but the shadow of that which flourished there formerly. The stately and famous house of the Easterlings, or, as the natives call it, of the Oosterlingen, shews the extent of that trade. It was built in the year 1568, for the convenience of the merchants coming from the Baltic. It is a square stone building, 250 feet broad, with warehouses on the top for dry goods, and cellars below for wet. In the middle story, which has a gallery quite round the square, are 300 lodging rooms for merchants. But now this noble structure is turned into a horse-barrack; the cellars serve for stables, and the rooms above for hay-lofts. The vast warehouses in that building, which are perhaps the largest in the world, wherein each nation deposited their merchandizes, will be an everlasting testimony of that extensive commerce, which, though divided between Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and the other trading towns of the United Provinces, is yet sufficient to enrich them all, and give them the reputation of driving the greatest trade in Europe.

There are kept at Antwerp several free fairs, which draw thither merchants from all parts of the world. The most considerable of these fairs are, that which is kept at Whitsuntide, and that which they hold between the festivals of St Remigius and St Bavon.

The bleaching-grounds in the neighbourhood of this city are in very great repute; and the opinion people have, that the waters of the little river Schenith are more proper than any others for the bleaching of linnen, is the reason why they send linnens thither from the remotest parts of the Austrian Netherlands.

The manufactories of wrought tapestries are very famous. They also continue to excel here in the art of printing; and, though it be certain that this art is much decayed here since the famous Plantin, who had almost brought it to a degree of perfection, yet it is certain that the printers of Antwerp are not unworthy to be styled the successors of so great a man. The most considerable manufactory established at Antwerp, and which chiefly supports its trade, is that of thread-lace, so well known every where under the name of Mechlin-lace. It is hardly possible to imagine what vast quantities France and Holland buy yearly of this commodity, as well as of all sorts of thread, the spinning of which is excellent in this city, and in its neighbourhood.

The merchandizes which foreigners, and especially the French and the Dutch, send thither, and which sell best, are, All sorts of gold, silver, and silk stuffs; broad cloths, and other woollen stuff; spices; pot-ashes and lees; wines and brandies; salt from France, Spain, and Portugal; herrings and stock-fish; oil of olives, train oil, and feeds; painted linnens and muslins; sugars, either refined, or in powder.

There are two sorts of money, both at Antwerp and throughout all Brabant and Flanders; or rather it is the same under different denominations. The one is called money of exchange, and the other current money.

According to this distinction, the patagon, or rixdollar, is worth 8 schellings, or 48 stivers, exchange-money, and but 7 schellingen current money: and a pound gros of 6 guilders exchange-money, makes 7 guilders current money: so that you must pay 116 guilders and $\frac{2}{3}$ current money to make 100 guilders exchange money; and 116 pounds gros and $\frac{2}{3}$ current money to make 100 pounds gros exchange-money.

Merchants keep their accounts at Antwerp in pounds, schellings, and groots gros Flemish. The pound gros is of 20 schellings, and the schelling 12 groots; the groot is half a stiver.

The pound at Antwerp is about 5 per cent. lighter than that of Amsterdam and Paris: so that 100 pounds weight at Antwerp make but 95 and $\frac{1}{2}$ in those two cities; and 100 pounds of these two cities make 105 pounds at Antwerp.

As for long measure, 100 ells at Antwerp make 101 $\frac{1}{2}$ at Amsterdam; and 100 ells of Amsterdam make 98 $\frac{1}{2}$ at Antwerp, or very near 98 $\frac{1}{2}$.

They draw from Amsterdam upon Antwerp, and from Antwerp upon Amsterdam, in pounds gros, and in guilders, commonly at a few days date, and sometimes at one or two usances, or months. The exchange is often at par, and often still at 2 or 3 per cent. loss for Antwerp.

ANVIL, a large mass of iron, used by several handicrafts, who work and forge, or hammer metals, particularly by the silversmiths, blacksmiths, locksmiths, farriers, armourers, &c. There are two sorts of anvils: some are forged, and others cast; the former are made by the blacksmiths, and the latter are cast in the founderies. The best are those which are hammered, and the upper part of which is steel.

APHRONITRE, a kind of natural salt-petre, gathering, like an efflorescence, on old walls, now commonly called salt-petre of the rock. See **SALT-PETRE**.

APIARY, a place where bees are kept, furnished with all conveniences necessary for that purpose. It should be sheltered from high winds on every side, and well defended from poultry, &c. whose dung is offensive to bees.

APOCYNUM. See **BEID**.

APOTHECARY, one who practises the art of pharmacy, which is that part of physic consisting in the choice, the due preparation, and mixture of medicines.

This is a very genteel business, and has been in great vogue of late years, there being, as has been computed, upwards of 1000 in and about London. There are, in this profession, various degrees, as to employ and extent.

Some do little else but make up medicines, according to the prescription of the Dispensatory (compiled by the order of the College of Physicians, for their direction) and those of particular physicians, besides visiting their patients.

Others not only prepare almost all kinds of medicines, as well Galenical as chemical, but likewise deal in drugs; with all which they supply their brethren in trade, and so become a sort of wholesale dealers, as well as apothecaries.

Others, again, practise surgery, man-midwifery, and, many times, even officiate as physicians, especially in the country, and often become men of very large practice, and eminent in their way. There is another branch, also, many of them fall into, which is that of curing lunatics, &c.

R E M A R K S.

A youth intended for this profession should be a pretty good scholar, and have a tolerable knowledge in the Latin tongue at least, that he may be better able, in due time, to read

some of the best authors who have wrote upon the subjects of botany, pharmacy, anatomy, and medicine; though it must be owned there are, at present, almost innumerable helps in our mother-tongue.

In London they are one of the city companies, and were first incorporated with the grocers in the year 1606, in the reign of King James I. but not alone till 1617.

They have a hall, where there are two fine laboratories, out of which all the surgeons chests are supplied with medicines for the use of the royal British navy.

In the year 1712, the 10th of queen Anne, an act passed for reviving and continuing several acts therein mentioned, one whereof was for exempting the apothecaries from serving the offices of constables and scavengers, and other parish and ward-offices, and from serving upon juries: which act was made perpetual in the 9th year of George I.

The apothecaries in England are obliged to make up their medicines according to the formula's prescribed in the Dispensatory of the College of Physicians, and are under an obligation to have the medicines there enumerated always ready in their shops; and their shops are liable to be visited by the censors of the college, who have it in their power to destroy such medicines as they judge not to be good.

The apothecaries of Paris make but one corporation with the merchant-grocers, which is the second of the six corporations of merchants.

By a regulation of the 15th of October 1631, all the apothecaries of Paris are prohibited to give any medicine to patients, unless by the order, and with the advice, of a regular-bred physician, or of a person approved by the faculty; nor are they to make up any prescription, given, or drawn up, by any person styling himself an empiric physician, or operator.

Among the good regulations made in Denmark, that which the apothecaries are obliged to observe is reckoned one of the best: for no person can have leave to follow that profession unless he be approved by the college of physicians, and confirmed by the king himself. There are but two apothecaries allowed for the city of Copenhagen, and but one in every other considerable town. The magistrates, attended by the doctors of physic, visit their shops and drugs twice or thrice a year, and those drugs that are either stale or bad, are seized, and publicly thrown upon a dunghill without the city; and this is a stain upon the character of such apothecary, as is scarce ever wiped off. The price of all drugs is fixed, so that one may, without fear of being imposed upon, send even a child for any drug to an apothecary's shop, where nothing is sold but what is good, and at a reasonable price.

All drugs are sold for ready money, and yet the apothecaries are obliged to register in a book what they sell, to whom, and by what physician's prescription. So that there seldom happens any accident by poison, either accidentally, or with design: and, if any such thing happens, it is easily found out, and quickly punished. Present State of Denmark (in French) by Des Roche, 1730, tom. ix. p. 431.

In France they give, by way of contempt, the name of apothecary without sugar, to any apothecary, or merchant, whose shop, or warehouse, is not well furnished with drugs or merchandize.

They also stile such exorbitant bills, or accounts, of tradesmen, or others, upon which full one half must be deducted, apothecaries bills: but this is only a proverbial expression.

The custom of the Chinese on this occasion is well deserving our notice. They have a stone, which is ten cubits high, erected in the public squares of their cities, and on this stone are engraved the names of all sorts of medicines, with the price of each; and, when the poor stand in need of any relief from physic, they go to the treasury, where they receive the price each medicine is rated at.

APPEAL, a law term, also pretty much used in trade by merchants. It signifies to bring a cause before a superior and lawful court, or judge, when a person thinks himself aggrieved by the sentence of an inferior judge, or court. There is nothing more authorized than appeals, both by the civil and canon law. They say, in traders affairs, such a person has appealed from the sentence of the consuls to the parliament, if in France, or to some other proper court in other countries; as in England, for instance, there lies an appeal from the high court of chancery to the house of Lords. Appeals are often the resource of those whose cause is bad, when they would gain time. But then their appeal is often set aside, the former sentence confirmed, and they condemned to pay cost. There is a limited time, within which the appeal must be lodged, which time being elapsed, no appeal can be lodged. That time differs according to the several courts, or jurisdictions.

APPENZEL, one of the cantons of Switzerland, has the town and abbey of St Gall on the north, the county of Tockenburg on the west, part of that county, and the bailiwick of Gams in the Grisons country, on the south, and Rheinthal on the east. It is filled with cattle, which yield great quantities of butter and cheese, by the sale of which, and their linnen manufacture, the people chiefly subsist.

APPIOS, the seed of a plant that comes from the Levant, particularly

ticularly from the isle of Candia. Its stalks are very thin, and reddish: its blossoms are pretty much like those of rice. Its seed, which is very small, is one of the commodities sold by the wholesale grocers in France and Holland.

Appios pays in France 50 sols duty of importation per 200 weight.

To APPRAISE, is to rate, value, and set a price on goods. This is chiefly done, especially in France, when any merchandise, wares, or other goods, cannot be paid for, or produced in kind, in which last case the value, according as it is appraised, must be paid.

APPRAISER, one who rates, or sets, a value upon goods, &c. He must be a skilful and honest person. It is not a business of itself, but generally performed by brokers of household furniture, to which set of men the word was formerly, and I believe still is, chiefly applied; yet now also upholsters, and other brokers, are employed, or even any person or persons who are supposed to be skilled in the commodities they are to appraise, or set a value on.

They are employed in cases of death, executions brought in upon goods, or of stock to be turned over from one person to another, or divided between copartners; and have the name of sworn appraisers, from their taking an oath to do justice between party and party.

They sometimes appraise jointly, each party agreeing to have the same appraiser, or appraisers; sometimes in opposition, each party choosing one, or more, of a side; and sometimes by commission, or deputation, of trustees, masters in Chancery, &c.

Their manner is, each one for himself, to take an inventory of every article, and mark its value with his own private characters. When they have gone through the whole, they give their estimates in a gross sum, very rarely of particulars. When they value against one another, if they happen to differ much, they reconsider, and at length most commonly bring it to an average; and, in some cases, they are obliged to take the goods at their own valuation, if the parties shall think proper to relinquish them.

At Bourdeaux they call appraisers (appreciateurs in French) those clerks of the custom-house and of city duties, who appraise and rate the merchandizes which are imported or exported, in order to regulate upon what footing the duties of importation or exportation ought to be paid.

The custom-house at Bourdeaux is called the convoy, and the office of the city duties is called comptable. The city duties are such as were granted by the French king to certain cities, either to pay their debts, or for their particular occasions.

The office of those appraisers consists in the following particulars.

1. They are obliged to keep a register, or memorandum-book, marked and numbered by the director of the office, and to transcribe and enter into it all the declarations which are delivered from day to day at the office for receiving the city duties, without augmenting or diminishing any thing in them but by the express order of their superiors.

2. To deliver carefully as many receipts, or bills of entry, as there are articles in each declaration.

3. The merchandizes being entered and carried into the said custom-house, according to the order of those receipts, or bills of entries, the appraisers are obliged to open and visit them, when the merchants require it, in order to know the quality and quantity of them; which being found to agree both with the declarations and the bills of entries, the appraisers make a true estimate, or evaluation, of each merchandize in particular, according to the market price of them.

4. They must enter into their register their estimate both of the weight and of the quality and quantity of the merchandize, as they found them by their search, or visit. And, as to those merchandizes which are weighed in the custom-house, the appraisers expedite them upon the report of the warehouse-keeper.

5. They are obliged, after appraising the merchandizes, to deliver a second receipt, or bill of entry, which serves the merchants to clear their merchandizes, either at the custom-house, if any duty be owing there; or at the office of the city duties; as also what may be due for brokerage.

6. They ought to write the said bills of entry upon the register of importations by sea; and, if there be grocery, they must also register them in the register of receipts designed for that purpose, that the merchants may pay the duties owing for them at the custom-house, according to the printed tariff. And, with regard to the merchandizes that come from the western isles, the said appraisers are obliged to register them all indiscriminately, in a particular register, as well as in the register of importations, by sea, with their appraised price, except fuggars, which are not registered in the register of importations by sea, nor in that of the city duties, but only in a particular register kept by the receiver of the custom-house, as well as that of the western isles.

7. As for those merchandizes which are not carried to the custom-house, as deal-boards, and other timber coming by sea, the said appraisers expedite them upon the report, and after the examination, of the searchers of outward-bound ships.

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And, with regard to tar, gum, pitch, train-oil, herrings, pilchards, &c. they expedite them according to the bill of lading: and, as for green or dried fish, the appraisers expedite it according to the report of the clerks who were present at the unloading and landing of it.

8. At the end of every quarter they draw up an alphabetical list of all the merchandizes imported by sea, that have been cleared at the custom-house.

9. Finally, with regard to the merchandizes that come by land, the appraisers have several things to observe, viz. as to those that come from the inland country by the boats of Thoulouse, Agen, and other places, they follow the same rules and methods as with regard to those that come by sea, except that they do not deliver bills of entries for those merchandizes, which is done by the clerks of the office of the city duties, after receiving the declarations.

As for those that come by the stage-coaches, by carriers, by waggons, or other carriages, they clear them upon the certificates, or acquits, given by the clerks of the custom-house offices through which they passed.

APPRECIATION, the estimate made of things by expert people, when they declare the real value, or price of them. It is commonly said in France of corn, provisions, and moveables only. Debtors are obliged to pay the things they owe, either in kind or in money, according to the appreciation, or valuation, made by knowing and experienced persons.

APPRENTICE, a youth placed and bound with a merchant, tradesman, &c. for a certain time, in order to learn commerce, trade, merchandizing, &c. and all that relates to them, that he may, in time, become capable to follow the profession of a merchant, trader, &c.

Apprentices should observe the strictest fidelity and submission to their masters, and an inviolable secrecy in all their affairs. They should apply themselves diligently to obtain a knowledge in the several sorts of merchandize wherein their masters traffic, and to be able to judge of their several qualities, their goodness, and their defects; to learn whence they came, how they were manufactured; whether at home or abroad; how bought, and at what price; and whether at first hand, for ready money, or upon credit. And they are, also, perfectly to acquaint themselves with the several weights and measures of their own, and other countries, respecting their particular branch of trade; as also to perfect themselves in all accountantship requisite for their employment. Moreover, it especially concerns them to observe a civil and obliging deportment towards those with whom their masters are concerned.

REGULATIONS of Apprentices in France.

Apprentices are obliged to finish the time for which they were bound with their master. In France children of merchants and tradesmen are reputed to have finished their apprenticeship, when they have actually lived till the full age of 17 years with their father or their mother following that profession, art. 1. of tit. 1. of the ordinance of 1673.

By the statutes of the six corporations of merchants and traders at Paris, the time during which the apprentices are obliged to serve their masters is differently settled. With hosiery they are obliged to serve three years; with grocers, wax-chandlers, druggists, and confectioners, also three years: with apothecaries, who make but one corporation with the three last mentioned, four years: with trading jewellers three years: with skimmers and fell-mongers four years: with cap-makers and glovers five years; and with working-jewellers eight years.

In France all apprentices to traders of either of the six corporations must be bound before a notary-public, and none can take above one apprentice at a time.

When an apprentice is a candidate to be made free, of either of one of the six corporations of merchants, or of some one of the companies of arts and trades, he must be of proper age. No man can be a candidate to be admitted a merchant, unless he be full 20 years old, and produce his indenture and the certificates of his apprenticeship, and of the masters, or freemen, whom he served afterwards. If the contents of those certificates should not be true, the aspirant, or candidate for his freedom, is for ever excluded from being made free, and the master with whom he was bound, and who should have given such a certificate, would be condemned to pay a fine of 500 livres, and those who gave the other certificates, 300 livres.

He who aspires to the freedom must be examined upon the keeping of books and registers, with single or double entries, upon bills of exchange, the rules of arithmetic, the parts of the ell, the pound, the marks upon measures and weights, and upon the qualities of merchandizes, as much as is requisite for that branch of commerce which he designs to follow. Private persons and corporations are forbidden to take, or receive, from the aspirants any presents for their admission, or any other fees, but such as are ordered by the statutes, under any pretence whatsoever, upon pain of a fine, which must not be less than 100 livres. The aspirant is also forbidden to give any treat to any of the members, upon pain of having his admission made absolutely void.

X

Befides

Besides these general regulations, extracted from the third, fourth, and fifth articles of the first title of the ordonnance of the year 1673, each of the six corporations of merchants has particular statutes, or by-laws, for regulating the time of apprenticeships, and that of serving with masters, or freemen, as also with regard to their master-piece of workmanship; but few of them are subject to those by-laws; and, as they are not mentioned in the ordonnance, it was judged that the reader would not be displeas'd to meet with them in this place, that he may see, as it were with one view, all the obligations which those lie under who aspire to the freedom in every one of these corporations.

In the corporation of the draper-hosiery, which is the first of those six corporations, the aspirants, or candidates, for the freedom are not oblig'd to make a master-piece; it is sufficient that they have served a merchant-draper three years as apprentices, and two years after their time was up, which make but five years in all.

Though the apothecaries, grocers, druggists, confectioners, and wax-chandlers, make but one corporation, which is the second of the six, yet the aspirants are oblig'd to different things, according to the trade they design to follow in that body.

They who aspire to pharmacy, or the apothecary's trade, must serve four years as apprentices, and six as journeymen, with some master or freeman, 10 years in all: besides which, they must be examined, and perform a master-piece.

As for those who aspire to be admitted druggists, grocers, wax-chandlers, or confectioners, they need not serve above three years as apprentices, and as many as journeymen, six years in all; nor are they oblig'd to make a master-piece.

In the corporation of wholesale merchant mercers-jewellers, which is the third of the six, the aspirants are not bound to any master-piece; it is enough, in order to be made free of the company, that they served a merchant-mercier three years as apprentices, and three years more as journeymen.

Besides the apprentices belonging to the six companies of merchants, there are also apprentices to all the companies of arts and trades, viz. the several mechanics, in the city and suburbs of Paris. They must all, as well as the former, be bound before a notary-public; and they are oblig'd, after their time is expired, to serve their masters a little longer as journeymen. The time of their apprenticeship, as well as that of their serving as journeymen, differs according to the different statutes of those several companies. Nor is the number of apprentices a master may have at a time fix'd, some trades having more, others less.

No apprentice can obtain his freedom, unless he has required, and performed, his master-piece of workmanship.

The widow of a freeman may continue to keep the apprentices who began their time under her husband, but she cannot take a new one.

In several companies, a widow who marries an apprentice makes him free of her late husband's company.

The apprentices, in those cities where there are sworn masters of companies, can be made free of their company at Paris, by performing a master-piece, after they have worked some time with a freeman, more or less, according to the statutes of each company.

The reader may see, in the articles which treat of the several arts and trades of Paris, what difference there is among them with regard to apprentices.

REMARKS.

The custom of the French, in regard to apprentices, is worthy the imitation of other nations.

Their obliging them to serve as journeymen a number of years, after the expiration of the term of their apprenticeship, the more gradually qualifies them to become their own independent masters; whereas, when a young raw fellow, just out of his time, commences master at once, and takes full possession of his fortunes, we daily see them plunge themselves into inextricable calamities; which, in all probability, they would have avoided, had they been oblig'd by the law to have served as journeymen to their respective masters a few years first, and by that means have been insensibly habituated to liberty, under their care and controul.

Wherefore, for a young man to serve less time as an apprentice to particular employments, in order to serve a few years afterwards as a journeyman, seems to be policy better calculated to preserve youth from dangers, than the custom of England, of obliging them only to be apprentices, and not journeymen at all, unless at their own option.

One-and-twenty years of age seems to be too soon for a young man to have the uncontrollable management of an handsome fortune in trade, especially by immediately coming from a state of servitude to that of self-mastership.

The commerce of a nation depending on the excellency of its manufactures, and those again on the skill, ingenuity, and dexterity of its manufacturers and artificers of every kind; on these considerations we may presume, that the French have made such severe laws, to oblige their artists to make themselves thorough masters of their respective trades, and to ex-

clude them from the freedom of the several corporations of arts and trade, unless they are capable of performing with their own hands what they call a master-piece of workmanship; that is, such a piece of workmanship that will shew a young man master of his business; and this must not be done in a corner, but in the presence of those sworn for that purpose.

Nor is any kind of treat, or entertainment, to be made, that might in any shape influence or corrupt the heads of those corporations, to connive at want of skill, and to grant the honour of the freedom, except to those only who really merit it, both by their ingenuity in the business, and by their faithful and diligent servitude during the time of their apprenticeship: so that, to obtain the freedom in these companies, is not a matter of form and expence only, but a demonstration of true merit, and attended with great advantage to the arts and manufactures of the kingdom, as well as credit and reputation to the artists themselves. It is no wonder, therefore, that by these, and such like wise measures, the commerce of this neighbouring kingdom should grow to such a height within the compass of little more than half a century.

The national benefit of this policy will further appear, from considering the disadvantage Great-Britain must inevitably sustain in her commerce, were her manufacturers to degenerate in their ingenuity and dexterity.—This loss is not soon retrievable. This would prove no less injurious to the kingdom than transporting themselves out of it to other nations.

Notwithstanding the apparent advantages which attend the nation from the skill of its artificers and manufacturers, we have no kind of public encouragement for them, either to keep them from going abroad, or to reward them for excelling at home.

It is in every one's mouth, what advantages Scotland and Ireland have reaped of late years by their infant manufactures, in the donation of small premiums to rouse and excite their manufacturers to excel. But, in England, we are vain enough to imagine that we have no improvements to make; that we have arrived at our acme of perfection. 'Tis to be wish'd that this self-sufficiency may not make us degenerate. To prevent which, some small public premiums, bestow'd annually on our artists and manufacturers, might not a little conduce. Whatever advances in trade are made in England, must be done by private people, upon the strength of their own ability, or the nation must go without them.

Though these suggestions are chiefly relative to the rising generation of our manufacturers and artisans in general, yet every man of sense will naturally make the transition from those to ranks of young people bred to trade in a different and in a superior class: we mean such as are bred merchants, wholesale dealers, shop-keepers, warehousemen, &c. for the clerks and apprentices of those stand in as much need of being spurred up to excel, as those of the manufacturers and mechanics.

However slight some people may make of these considerations upon apprentices, yet the breeding up our young people properly to trade, in every branch of it, seems a matter of the last consequence to a trading nation; and may, one time or other, be found worthy some people's thinking of, when they are once convinc'd of this important truth, that traders alone are the great source of all their treasures, and consequently of all their splendor and magnificence.

Condition of a bond that an apprentice shall perform, &c.

Whereas by indentures of apprenticeship, bearing date the 20th day of May now last past, Adam Ash the younger, one of the sons of the above-bounden Adam Ash the elder, is become bound as an apprentice to the said Bryan Bush, in the trade, art, or employment of a hosier, for the term, or space, of seven years, from the day of the date thereof, as by the same indentures may appear. Now the condition of the above-written obligation is such, that, if the said Adam Ash the son shall and do, from time to time, and at all times during his said apprenticeship, well and truly observe, perform, fulfil, and keep, all and every the articles, covenants, clauses, and agreements whatsoever in the said recited indentures contained, and which, on his part, are to be observed, performed, fulfilled, and kept, and shall and do, from time to time, and at all times during the said term, be faithful and just to the said Bryan Bush, his executors, administrators, and assigns, in all his the said Adam Ash the son's buying, selling, accounts, reckonings, receipts, payments, and all other his doings and dealings in any wife relating to the said trade or employment, or the affairs or business of the same, and in all other matters and things wherein as an apprentice, or servant, he shall, or may, be employed by, or concern'd for, on the behalf of, the said Bryan Bush, his executors, administrators, or assigns; then this present obligation to be void, and of none effect, &c. Horsman's Precedents in Conveyancing, vol. i. p. 282.

APPRENTICESHIP, the time during which apprentices are oblig'd to continue with the merchants or tradesmen with whom they are bound. Their indentures ought to be recorded in the register of the company, or body, to which their

their masters belong; and their time does not begin but from the day on which the indenture is registered. No one, in France, can be admitted a tradesman, unless he produces his indenture, and the certificates of his apprenticeship. Art. 3. of tit. 1. of the ordonnance of the year 1673. The French give the name of apprentice to a maiden, or woman, who binds herself for a time with a mistress, before a notary-public, in order to learn her art, or trade, almost after the same manner as apprentice-boys.

BRITISH LAWS relating to apprentices.

And with us it is enacted, by stat. 8 Ann. cap. 9. sect. 32. that there shall be paid the duty of sixpence for every pound, of every sum of 50l. or under, and twelve-pence for every twenty shillings of every sum more than 50l. which for five years shall be paid, or agreed for, in the putting out any clerk, apprentice, or servant, to learn any profession, trade, or employment; and proportionably for greater or lesser sums, to be paid by the master or mistress.

Sect. 35. The full sum given, or agreed to be given, with an apprentice, &c. shall be written in words, at length, in the indenture, &c. which must bear date on the day it was executed, upon pain that every master or mistress, offending in these particulars, shall, for every offence, forfeit double the sum given, or agreed to be given; one moiety to the crown, the other, with costs, to him who will sue within one year after the time limited for such clerk, or apprentice, to serve his master, &c. is expired.

Sect. 37. All indentures, &c. of apprenticeships, which shall be executed in any other part of Great-Britain, shall, within two months after they are executed, be brought either to the head office, or to some collector of the stamp duties; and the duty shall be paid; and, in case the payment shall be made to the receiver-general, the indenture shall be stamped; and, in case the payment shall be made to a collector, he shall endorse in words, at length, a receipt of the money paid to him, and subscribe his name.

Sect. 38. Every indenture so indorsed, if it is executed within 50 miles of London, shall, within three months after date, but, if executed at a greater distance, then within six months after date, be brought to the said head office, where (the same being produced with a receipt indorsed) it shall be stamped.

Sect. 39. Indentures wherein the full sum agreed on shall not be inserted, or the duties not paid, or not stamped, or tendered to be stamped, shall be void, and the clerk, or apprentice, shall have no privilege of freedom, or using his trade.

Sect. 40. Money given to put out apprentices, either by parishes or public charities, shall not pay any duty.

Sect. 41. Forging the stamps, or any receipt for monies payable by this act, is felony, without benefit of clergy.

Sect. 43. No indenture, &c. shall be admitted in evidence in any suit to be brought by the parties thereunto, unless he for whom it shall be given in evidence first makes oath, that, to the best of his knowledge, the sum therein mentioned was all that was paid, &c. on the behalf of the apprentice, for the benefit of the master, &c.

Sect. 45. Where any thing shall be given to a master, not being money, the duty shall be paid for the full value thereof.

AQUA FORTIS, and the spirit of nitre, are the same, and differ only in the manner of making. The former is distilled with vitriol and colcothar, the other with clay, bole, oil of vitriol, brick-duft, &c.

The generality of assay-masters use aqua fortis, as being more easily prepared, by reason that a quantity of vitriol much less than the terrestrial mixture before-mentioned, and with less fire, separates the spirit out of the same quantity of nitre.

The distillation of aqua fortis is performed as follows, viz.

Put vitriol into an earthen, or iron pot: if you make a fire under it, the vitriol begins to melt and smok; by increasing the fire gradually, it thickens, and assumes an ash colour. Let it be stirred with a twig just before it becomes solid, till it be perfectly dry; but let it be taken as yet boiling out of the pot, for, if it grows cold therein, it will stick so fast that you will hardly be able to get it out. Pound to a subtile powder three pounds weight of this calcined vitriol, and mix them well with four pounds of nitre well dried, and pulverized very fine. Put these together in a cucurbit, or retort, or an iron pot, and then put it in a furnace.

At first let the fire be made not much greater than is necessary to boil water. When the recipient grows warm, continue the same degree of fire, till all the phlegm is expelled, which you will know from the diminution of the heat of the recipient: increase the fire gradually, till you see a few yellow vapours arise. Keep up the same fire for an hour or two, and make it so strong as to warm the vessels moderately. Continue this for some hours, and, letting the vessels cool, pour the liquor, now emitting reddish fumes, out of the recipient into a glass vessel, having a glass stopple: this liquor, thus prepared, is your aqua fortis.

REMARKS

On the use and application of aqua-fortis in divers cases.

1. In this operation you must always proportion the duration of the degrees of your fire to the quantity of the matter to be distilled.
2. For security's sake you must leave, in the closure of the recipient and vessel that contains the matter to be distilled, a hole, which may be stopped and opened with a wooden peg: for, if you happen to exceed the just degree of fire, especially in the beginning of the operation, the first and more subtle spirits, which are very elastic, come forth; the opening, therefore, of the hole may give them a passage, lest the vessels should burst, which would be very dangerous.
3. The better your nitre is refined, the better will the aqua fortis be. Avoid carefully the mixture of sea-salt therewith, for the reason we shall give, when we treat of aqua regia.
4. There are many other ingredients used in the making of aqua fortis, such as burnt allum, sand, and the like; the reason whereof is, to hinder the species, which may happen not to be sufficiently calcined, from foaming, and from breaking the vessel with great violence. But, when these species are duly calcined and dried, these additions are quite needless; and, indeed, by overfilling the mass to be distilled, require vessels of a size proportionable.
5. There are many other needless and noxious ingredients used by some in the making of aqua fortis. These are blood-stones, unslaked lime, plume allum, &c. all which should be avoided, they making a much worse, as well as a more expensive aqua fortis. Water thus made, therefore, should never be used in doctrinal operations, before it has been accurately tried: for, aqua fortis being tainted with these heterogeneous matters, the major part of it consumes away, and becomes frequently so fixed, that the strongest fire is hardly able to take off any of it. Nothing should be used besides calcined vitriol, intimately mixt with nitre, there being no need of any thing else.
6. However, bole, clay, and brick-duft do expel aqua fortis out of nitre, which then is called the spiritus nitri; but you must add four times as much of these, in proportion to the nitre: consequently, this method, requiring larger vessels and more fire, cannot be so profitable as without these ingredients.
7. As the extracted spirits of nitre are with difficulty condensed into drops, especially in sultry weather, it will be proper, by reason of the calcined ingredients, to pour into the recipient one quarter part of pure water, or rather of the phlegm, extracted out of the aqua fortis; by which means the spirits will be much easier received.
8. Aqua fortis dissolves and corrodes all gritty stones, and the several kinds of those that are vitrifiable, and not consumed by fire; but it has no power on flints nor sand.
9. It also dissolves iron, copper, lead, silver, mercury, regulus of antimony, bismuth, and zink; tin imperfectly; gold not at all.
10. Common aqua fortis, when poured on silver, generally grows troubled in the beginning of the dissolution; and, a little after it is perfect, a precipitation of a whitish powder is made. If this powder, taken by itself, melts in the fire with pot-ash, you will find a regulus of silver collected. This sometimes melts with difficulty in the fire, and has all the characteristics of calx of silver precipitated from aqua fortis, by oil of vitriol.
- This happens, because the aqua fortis has been extracted by too great and too long a fire, or because too great a quantity of calcined vitriol has been used, or because the mixture of the nitre and vitriol has not been rightly made: for, in these cases, there appear, when the distillation draws at an end, opaque, milky, vitriolic fumes in the recipient; which phenomena sufficiently manifest the cause of the aforesaid precipitation. The abovementioned calx very seldom proves fluid in the fire; it afterwards turns into horn-silver, and shews that the impure nitre, bought for the distillation of the aqua fortis, was intermixed with marine salt, which adulteration should be carefully guarded against.
11. As the dissolution of silver, especially that by which gold is separated from silver with aqua fortis, is considerably hindered, and made very uncertain, by this kind of precipitation before-mentioned; that part of the oil of vitriol, and of the spirit of salt, which spoils the aqua fortis, must be separated; which is done in the following manner.

Pour about one thirtieth, or one fortieth, part of the aqua fortis to be purified, into a small cucurbit, and over a gentle fire dissolve silver in it, to such a quantity as may fully saturate the aqua fortis. If in the beginning of the dissolution the troubled aqua fortis looks milky, it wants purification: then pass through a filtre the warm dissolution, which, being clear, pour drop by drop into the rest of the aqua fortis that is to be purified: this will become milky, as before; continue to infuse the aqua fortis till the dropping in of the smallest drop doth

not at all disturb it, or render it milky. Let it rest for some hours, that the precipitated calx may subside; which done, again let a drop fall, and repeat it constantly, till at last the milky cloud is no longer produced by the falling of the drop. Decant the pure and limpid aqua fortis from the calx which subsided at the bottom, or strain it gently through a four-folded filtering paper, which ought to be small, lest it should break, by being over-loaded with too much of the aqua fortis. The remaining calx is such as we have mentioned in remark 10, and the aqua fortis is perfectly purified for use.

12. Some are wont to employ common silver mixed with copper, or copper alone, for the precipitation of the spirit of marine, or vitriolic salt, from aqua fortis: but this does not succeed, when the spirit of marine salt is to be precipitated, because this being mixed with aqua fortis dissolves copper perfectly. The oil of vitriol is, indeed, expelled from the aqua fortis by means of the copper, in the form of a whitish dust, but not so perfectly as by silver; otherwise it appears in this operation that the precipitating body adheres to that to be precipitated, and sinks to the bottom together with it, and therefore cannot be a proper precipitator on this occasion.

13. The best aqua fortis is often tinged with a greenish colour, occasioned by being exposed for some days to the open air, and thus deprived of its fuming red spirit, by pouring upon it some fresh strong aqua fortis, still emitting its fumes; or by being diluted with water.

That you may be certain this colour does not proceed from copper, pour a little of the liquor into a small cucurbit, and add to it as much of an alkaline dissolution, or spirit, as is sufficient to saturate the acid: if there is ever so little copper, the colour becomes of a very dark azure, with a cloudy precipitation; because the nitre has been thereby regenerated, which does not dissolve copper so much as aqua fortis does: but, if there is no copper, the colour vanishes intirely.

14. Aqua fortis, prepared and corrected according to what has been said, must be concentrated to a certain degree: for, if it is too weak, it either retards the dissolution, or often does not even affect the silver.

If, on the contrary, it is too strong, it vanishes into fumes which rush violently out of the vessels, though sufficiently deep, hurrying part of the silver along with them; but, if there is any thing of gold in the silver, it is corroded into a dust, the perfect collection of which is afterwards very difficult. The first fault is remedied by pouring the aqua fortis into a deeper cucurbit, and by extracting the phlegm out of it, over a gentle fire, till you see yellowish fumes appear; but, to find out whether it is too strong, you are to use the following method:

Melt together one part of gold and four parts of silver, of which make a plate, which you are to cut into three, or more parts; roll up each part, that it may more conveniently be introduced into a small cucurbit: when rolled up, and slightly heated at the fire, put this small plate into the said cucurbit; pour upon it aqua fortis, about the triple of the weight of the metal, and put it on a gentle fire: if then the silver is eroded from the gold, so that the gold remaining retains the very same figure of the plate rolled up, and there appears no reddish dust at the bottom of the vessel, then the aqua fortis has the proper degree of strength: but, if the dissolution has been made with so much violence that the powder of the gold was eroded, or the plate almost broken, the aqua fortis is too strong. In this case, you must dilute it with one tenth or eighth part of pure water, or rather of weaker aqua fortis, or of the phlegm that was extracted from it: which done, you must repeat the trial of the dissolution of a like small plate several times over, till the silver be dissolved without the least diminution in the gold, whereby you may be sure of the requisite degree of strength in your aqua fortis.

15. Aqua fortis is excellent when it comes again after having been by fire expelled out of dissolved metal, because it may be almost intirely fetched out of it by distillation. In order to this, you introduce into a middle-sized glass cucurbit, adapted to an alembic, with an hole in it, one pound, or one half pound, of the same dissolution, and distil it into a large recipient, that the drops may fall one after the other, at the interval of some seconds: when the phlegm of what remains shall be drawn off to some ounces, let the like quantity of a fresh dissolution, gently warmed, be put anew into the cucurbit, and be drawn off again; and let the pouring on of the fresh dissolution be reiterated in the same manner, till it is all grown thick.

This must be done in a small cucurbit, several times over; lest a large vessel being overcharged with too great a quantity of the dissolution, should burst all of a sudden, and the aqua fortis and metal be lost at once. When, after the extracting of all the phlegm, yellowish fumes begin to appear by increasing the fire a little, let a drachm, or half a drachm, of suet be added, lest the remaining metal, being dried up, should so strongly adhere to the sides of the vessel as that it could not be taken off: when at last the mass shall be quite dry, let it be put on the fire till it becomes red hot. The calx of metal which remains at the bottom of the cucurbit must be collected, and melted with pot-ash, or borax.

16. When pure fine silver is dissolved in proof aqua fortis, the liquor will be pellucid: but, if any alloy, or copper, remain mixed with it, the solution will have a bluish, or greenish cast. If this solution of perfectly pure silver be diluted with fair water, it will still remain pellucid, without letting any thing precipitate. But, if any saline matter be contained in the water, the whole will now turn thick, or milky. The solution of pure silver, properly weakened with water occasionally, may be commodiously used for staining the skin, or other animal substances, black; and if white, grey, or red hair be moistened with it, the hair will soon become of a beautiful brown, or jet-black colour; for which purpose it may be used with safety, care being taken not to touch the skin therewith, for thus a blackness would be occasioned, that requires many days before it goes off again; but it disappears at length, by the scarf-skin scaling off, without causing pain, or leaving any sore behind.

17. The solution of pure silver has an intolerable bitter taste, though by the eye it be not distinguishable from fair water: whence we have an eminent instance how metals may be concealed from the sight, or remain lodged in unsuspected liquors, and thence be introduced invisibly into other substances; whence the greater caution should be used with all pretenders to the melioration and transmutation of metals.

18. This solution of silver is the foundation of several medicinal and chemical preparations, as the vitriol of silver, the lunar caustic, the silver pill, &c.

19. The silver is recoverable from this solution, barely by suspending a copper-plate therein: for, copper being more easily dissolved by aqua fortis than silver, the silver is therefore precipitated to the bottom, in the form of a powder, and, being washed and melted, comes into a metalline lump again.

20. Fafchius says, in treating of the sediments of depart-waters*, that if gold, by quartation, be mixed with silver, and again separated from it with aqua fortis, it will constantly be found to have increased its weight; which increase he attributes to the silver adhering to the gold; but it still remains for experiment to decide, whether this additional weight be truly owing to the silver, or whether it be an increase of real gold. For more matter hereon see the articles REFINING, and GOLD and SILVER.

* Probiar-Buchlein, page 64. ed. 1678.

21. Aqua fortis is also used as an instrument in gilding. See the article GILDING.

It is applicable to the art of dyeing likewise. See the article DYEING. The spirit of nitre is found to heighten and improve the rich colour of cochineal into the brightness of burning fire, but then its acrimony must be rectified with a proper application of tin, after which it neither hurts wool nor silk, yet retains all its brightness.

AQUA SECUNDA: it is aqua fortis which has lost part of its dissolving quality, after being used in the parting of metals.

AQUA REGIA, or AQUA REGALIS, or AQUA REGIS, as some call it, is a strong corrosive spirit, which dissolves gold. The method of making it is as follows, viz.

When the spirit of nitre is duly prepared, as under the head aqua fortis, the spirit of sea-salt must also be prepared. See that article under SALT.

When these two spirits are mixed together, the mixture is called aqua regia. Or, to have it excellent, put into a glass retort aqua fortis of the best kind, well proved, and of the requisite strength, according to what has been said under aqua fortis; add to it half the quantity of common salt, perfectly dry, and pulverized; in a sand-bath force up the spirits, first by a slow, and afterwards by a strong distillation. Or, if you put into aqua fortis one quarter part of salt-ammoniac, it immediately assumes a yellow colour, and emits abundantly the white vapours of the spirits of salt, which soon produces true aqua regia.

However, you are to take care, in this second method, that the vessel containing the mixture be not presently shut up close, for in that case it would burst. Besides, this mixture must be made under the chimney, lest the suffocating spirits should spread all over, and fill the laboratory, and prove injurious to the operators.

Aqua regia dissolves perfectly iron, copper, tin, gold, mercury, regulus of antimony, bismuth, and zink: it dissolves even lead more than spirit of salt does; it becomes, however, somewhat troubled in the operation.

If it has its requisite degree of strength, it does not dissolve silver; but, if you have put into the mixture a quantity of salt-ammoniac, or of marine salt, or of spirit of common salt, not sufficient, it then corrodes silver, nay, it even dissolves it in part, this aqua regia being imperfect.

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The reason is then self-evident why, in the separation of silver and gold by aqua regia, it is better to use a quantity of spirit of salt, or of marine salt, or of salt-ammoniac, exceeding, than

than one short, of the right measure: nor is it less evident thence, why an exact separation of silver and gold is better effected with aqua fortis than with aqua regia; as the former never corrodes gold, whereas the latter corrodes silver frequently.

The solution of gold by aqua regia is yellow, or gold-coloured, and tinges the skin purple, as we have observed, under the article aqua fortis, that the solution of silver stains it black. It may be further added, that, if the solution of gold be precipitated with salt of tartar, and the powder be carefully dried, it makes the aurum fulminans, so called from the violent explosion it goes off with, when heated beyond a certain degree. See the article GOLD.

If gold be dissolved in aqua regia, made by distillation from equal parts of salt-ammoniac and nitre, either with or without powdered brick, or calcined flints, and the solution be digested, and several times cohobated, with the addition of fresh liquor, Becher assures us*, the gold will thus become totally volatile.

* Roset. Chymic. exp. 2. page 192.

A similar, or still more potent menstruum, is given us by Cassius †; who, mixing pure nitre with oil of vitriol, thence distils a spirit, and, obtaining another in the same manner from common salt, he joins the two spirits together. In this species of aqua regia he dissolves gold, then draws off the menstruum, till a melaginous substance remains behind, to which he again adds as much of the aqua regia as makes up the former quantity; then again abstracts, and so repeats this cohobation thrice. Lastly, he mixes, along with the remaining melaginous matter, twice its weight of well-dephlegmed oil of vitriol, and, by distilling it in a strong heat of sand, there ascend, as he expresses it, most elegant rubies; which expression is not so extravagant as it may appear: for Kunkel ‡ also tells us, that, by pouring a little oil of vitriol into a solution of gold, and distilling it over with a strong fire at last, a portion of the gold will not only ascend in the form of red drops, but also sublime to the top of the cucurbit, in the appearance of feathers, or flowers, tinged of a most beautiful red: but, if these flowers are touched by the open air, they again run into a yellow-coloured liquor.

† And. Cass. Tractat. de Auro, pag. 101.

‡ Contra non entia Chymic. non-ens. 13. p. 105. See also Boyle's Abridgment, vol. i. p. 458, 459, &c.

The same Cassius § likewise advances a quicker method of volatilizing gold, by means of the smoaking spirit ||, which in the space of an hour, sublimes it into yellow flowers. In order to this, he evaporates a solution of gold made with aqua regia, till it leaves only a little purple cake behind; upon this he pours the smoaking spirit: then, clapping the head upon the cucurbit, he distils in hot sand; and, as soon as ever the matter comes to be agitated by the heat, the smoaking spirit very impetuously carries up the particles of the gold, and sublimes along with them into yellow round flowers.

§ Cass. de Auro, pag. 101, 102.

|| See pag. 218, 219.

There are certain other powders, or crocusses, prepared from gold, called croci folis, being principally of three different colours, and having four different uses.

The first is a black, or dusky powder, that serves for extemporaneous gilding. The second is of a saffron colour, being made with aqua regia by exhalation, commonly called the calx of gold, and serving for various purposes of amalgamations and extractions; but becomes the third, when made with aqua regia by precipitation: 'tis of a yellow colour, and called aurum fulminans, which is of use in medicine: and the fourth is a purple powder, made of the aurum fulminans.

The manner of preparing the first is this: having made a solution of gold in five or six times its quantity of common aqua regia, let clean linnen cloths be dipped therein, and dried, continuing, or repeating, the operation till all is soaked up. Then put the cloths into a little crucible, and burn them with a small and gentle ignition, and keep the remaining matter for use, under the form of a fine black powder; a little of which being taken up with a wet cork, and rubbed upon a plate of silver, will immediately gild over the metal; though it must be observed, that more gold is consumed in this way than in the common one of gilding by amalgam. See the article GILDING.

The second, or saffron-coloured calx of gold, is made by distilling, or evaporating to dryness, a solution of the metal made in aqua regia; the fire being at last increased so as gently to ignite the remaining matter.

The third, or yellow calx of gold, is prepared by gently pouring oil of tartar per deliquium into a solution of the metal made with such aqua regia as contains salt-ammoniac, by which means the gold is precipitated in the form of a yellow powder. After the liquor, therefore, has stood a proper time to subside, the clear part thereof that floats above the powder is decanted, and the sediment several timesedulcorated with hot water, and at last permitted to dry with a very soft and gentle heat.

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If a little of this powder be laid upon an iron, or any other metalline plate, placed over a candle, or a parcel of burning coals, it takes fire, and goes off with a very smart report, and so strong an impetus, as to strike a remarkable cavity in the plate. From which phenomenon some have imagined that this powder had a tendency, contrary to that of fire, downwards, though, in reality, the explosion is made quaquaversum, or in all dimensions alike*.

* See Boyle's Abridgment, vol. ii. page 519; and Memoires de l'Acad. de Scienc. an. 1719.

The fourth is made by mixing, or gently grinding, common sulphur, or the flowers of it, along with this aurum fulminans, and afterwards melting the mixture with a soft heat, which at last is to be so far increased, as to set on fire, and burn out the sulphur, whence a purple powder will be left behind.

AQUA SIMPLEX, or simple water, is aqua fortis that has been distilled, and has nothing left but phlegm. It is used in the mint and by silversmiths, in order to begin to soften the grains of silver.

AQUA EXTINGUA, or extinguished water, is aqua fortis into which some river water has been poured, in order to qualify it, and render it less corrosive. Its use is to get the silver from the aqua fortis that served to part gold from it.

AQUA MARINA, a precious stone found along some parts of the coast of the ocean. It is of a pretty beautiful sea-green, which it is thought to acquire by being tossed up and down on the sand by the tide's ebbing and flowing. It is almost as hard as the oriental amethyst. See AMETHYST.

AQUA VITÆ, is commonly understood of what is otherwise called brandy, or spirit of wine, either simple, or prepared with aromatics.

Some, however, distinguish between them, appropriating the term brandy to what is drawn from wine, or the grape, and aqua vitæ to that drawn after the same manner from malt, &c.

ARABIA, is bounded on the east by the Arabian, or Persian gulph, and part of the Arabian Sea; on the west by the Red Sea; on the north by Palestine and Syria Propria; and, on the south, by part of the main ocean.

The whole country is by the moderns, as it was by the ancients, divided into

I. ARABIA DESERTA, or DESERT.

II. ARABIA PETRÆA, or STONY.

III. ARABIA FœLIX, or HAPPY.

The product of Arabia is aloes, cassia, spikenard, frankincense, myrrh, manna, and other valuable gums, cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, dates, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty: and in their seas they have a great quantity of the best coral and pearls. The people here have no settled habitations, except on the sea-coasts, where their cities and towns are more regularly built and inhabited, and more given to traffic. Some of them, near to Syria, are a little more orderly than the rest, and get a living by making of pot-ash.

Though the far greater part of the nation live in a wild savage manner, and addit themselves to plunder, yet there are many of them, especially such as live in towns, that apply themselves to trades and commerce, and to arts and sciences, in which they generally excel. The Ishmaelites had formerly spread themselves over most part of Arabia, and had fallen very early into the way of trading into Egypt, and carrying thither spices, balm, frankincense, myrrh, opium, and other rich commodities; and these are likewise observed to have gone in troops, or caravans, and to have used camels for their carriage, as the merchants do at this time of day. But, as there was but a small number of them that carried on any such trade, so the rest lived, like some of the present Arabs, upon plunder and rapine, and were, like them, a vagabond race of men.

Having premised thus much of Arabia in general, we shall now speak of it more distinctly, with respect to its threefold division.

I. ARABIA DESERTA, according to the modern geography, is bounded on the east by the province of Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia, and the Persian territory of Hierak; on the west by Palestine, or Sowriac, Sourifan, and Arabia Petræa; on the north by the river Farat, or Euphrates, which parts it from Diarbeck, and by Palmyrene, or part of Syria; and, on the south, by Arabia Fœlix, from which it is divided by a long chain of mountains. This is properly enough called the Desert, it being almost every-where intersected by high barren mountains, many of its planes being nothing but great sands and heaths, through which those that travel must not only carry provisions, but steer by the stars and mariner's compass. Guiland Melchior, who had gone through some of them, tells us that there are neither men, beasts, birds, or trees, grass, or pasture to be seen, or any thing but vast rolling sands and craggy mountains: but that the lands that lie on the east side along the Euphrates afford both plants and food for the inhabitants of divers cities and towns seated in that part. There are, likewise, some planes and vallies, that feed a great number of sheep and goats, and other such small cattle which love to browse upon such dry lands.

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The whole Arabia Deserta is divided into three principalities, viz.

1. ANNA, whose chief cities are, Anna, on the Euphrates, the capital; Mescheid-Ursin, Sumiscabac, Thema, Anna on the Aftan, Balsora, and Tangia.
2. ARGIA, whose chief towns are, Argia, the capital, Faraa, Maaden, Thaalabah, Aladi Dhath-Aliantin.
3. CHAVABEDA, whose chief towns are, Chavabedah, Tangia, Merah, Megiarah.

Anna, was formerly a famed mart-town, but now not much frequented. It stands on the river Euphrates, in a fruitful and pleasant soil, and hath but two streets, which are divided thereby: that on the Mesopotamian side is about two miles long, but thinly peopled, and by none but tradesmen and journeymen; that of the opposite side is above six miles in length, and it is there that the principal inhabitants of the city dwell. Every house hath some ground belonging to it, and these grounds are loaded with noble fruit trees, as lemons, oranges, citrons, quinces, figs, dates, pomegranates, olives, &c. very large, and in great plenty. Some of the flat grounds are sown with corn, and other grain, which yield likewise a considerable crop. This city is one of the thoroughfares through which the caravans must pass that go to and from Aleppo, Tripoli, Damascus, Bagdad, &c. It is tributary to the Turk, and it is to him that all the merchants pay custom for the commodities they carry through it.

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Balsora, was once famed for a market-place, still standing, to which all the Arabian merchants for a good way about used to resort, as to an exchange, which made trade flourish. The prince of Balsora gives full liberty to all nations to come and trade to this capital, where they are so civilly used, and so good an order kept, that one may go safe through the streets at all hours of the night. The Dutch bring hither their spices, and the English some pepper and cloves; but the Portuguese trade is quite abolished, and the Augustine friars that were settled there have been obliged to go off. The Indians bring hither also several of their commodities, and one may meet here merchants from all parts of Turkey, Egypt, &c. to buy the Indian commodities that are brought to the place, and which they convey to their respective marts on young camels backs, which are also bought here. Some are carried up the Tigris, but they go but slowly, because towed by men against a rapid stream, who cannot go above 7 or 8 miles a day, nor move at all, when the wind is contrary. The customs paid at this place amount to almost 5 per cent. The prince of it, who is tributary to the Turk, hath his chief revenue from the exchange of money, for the horses and camels sold there, but chiefly from his palm-trees, of which he hath a plantation reaching almost 90 miles in length, and no soul dares touch a date of them till they have paid him a certain custom. The horses which are bred here are in great request, and sell at a vast rate. The income of the prince, from the forementioned branches of money, horses, camels, and dates, is so great, that he is able to lay up 3,000,000 of livres every year, all the other charges of his tribute and government defrayed.

Balsora, hath been under the Turks ever since ann. 1668. and, like all other cities tributary to that dominion, is governed by a *cadi*, who is appointed by the prince. There are in it three sorts of Christians established, viz. Jacobites, Nestorians, and Armenians: but others of all sorts are permitted to trade here. It swarms with vessels from all nations of Asia and Europe; the English and Dutch have their factories here, which are very considerable, and maintained by their East-India company to carry on their commerce with China, Japan, and other parts of India, and for the dispatch of their letters from all parts into England and Holland by the way of Damascus and Aleppo; and these are carried by Arabs hired for the purpose, who are very swift of foot. The Portuguese have likewise a factor here, but he hath but little to do, since their trade has dwindled away. Most of the commerce is carried on by Armenians, Indians, and Persians; and the caravan of it is one of those, which brings all the richest merchandizes from India as well as Europe. What still increases its trade and opulence is, that the Persians, in their caravans or pilgrimages to Mecca, take this city in their way, and not only pay considerable duties to the government, but exchange many rich commodities here, which they bring with them for others they carry off in their return. But there is among others one great abuse, which is yet winked at both by the Porte, and the *basha*, or prince, because it brings a considerable profit; and that is, the baseness of the money coined here, which, being loaded with greater alloy than that of other nations, is exchanged by the merchants at a great disadvantage.

The principality of ARGIA, and
The principality of CHAVABEDA, are in all respects unknown to us, but in the Arabian tables.

- II. ARABIA PETRÆA, the most western of all the three Arabias, is now called Das-lik Arabistan by the Turks, and Bar-raah Arabistan by the natives, and by others Bathalabah, but

most commonly the beglebergate of Bofra, so named from that capital. It is bounded on the north by Syria and Palestine, on the east by Arabia Deserta last described, and part of Arabia Fœlix, which likewise bounds it on the south, and on the west by the Red Sea and the isthmus of Suez or Egypt. The northern part is poorly inhabited and full of barren mountains, and is under the Turks in the beglebergate of Cairo; but the south is both fertile and well peopled, and governed by its own princes, except some places along the coast. It is also more frequented on account of trade. Though in most respects it much resembles the Deserta last described for its stony, sandy, and barren grounds, yet it yields in some parts sufficient nourishment for cattle, whose milk and camel's flesh is the chief food of its inhabitants: but there are some others which are quite uninhabited, and impassable. Shur, now called El Torre, hath a good harbour, and about 400 houses inhabited by some Christian merchants, Jews, and Moors. Goods are here unladen to be carried by land to Suez, on the isthmus, 120 miles north-west at the end of the west gulph, which is not navigable for large vessels any farther than Tor, by reason of the rocks. Near this place is the garden, which they say Moses calls Elim, which is planted with palm-trees, and the monks make some tolerable profit of the dates, which are the best in that country.

In the way from Tor, or Morah, to mount Sinai, the vallies abound with cassia-trees, which produce the frankincense. Among other trees that grow on these mountains, there is a fort which bears a kind of wool like cotton, though neither so fine nor so white.

- III. ARABIA FŒLIX, by far the largest and most considerable of the three provinces, is by the inhabitants called Yeman, Yaman, and Hayaman, from one of the largest districts in it, which hath given name to all the rest. It hath had the title of Fœlix, from its extraordinary fertility and constant verdure; but was anciently called Saba, Sabea, and Seba, from Seba the son of Cush, the grandson of Ham, who was properly the founder of a city of that name, anciently celebrated for its opulence, and especially its plenty of gold and silver. The antients were not content to give it the title of Happy, but added that of Sacred to it, on account of its fine aromatic gums and fragrant woods, which were used in sacrifices, such as frankincense, myrrh, aloes, nard, cinnamon, cassia, cedar, and other odoriferous woods, which are here in such plenty, that the natives use them for common fuel. And indeed, if we were to judge of this Arabia by what the antients have launched out in its praise, we should imagine it the richest and most delightful land in the whole world.

According to them, it produced not only all the fine gums and plants we have already mentioned, besides an infinite variety of precious drugs, medicinal shrubs, herbs, &c. but likewise abundance of gold and silver, besides baser metals and minerals; diamonds, rubies, sardonix, and a vast number of other precious stones, of exquisite beauty and variety of colours. (Pliny.)

The sea likewise furnished it with the greatest quantity of shells and richest pearls. It likewise exceeded all others in the fertility of its soil, and its vast produce of corn, wine, oil, and the most exquisite fruits and spices of all sorts. Corn was there sown twice a year, and yielded a prodigious increase (Strabo) and so did every thing else in proportion. It had a vast number of rich and opulent cities, besides towns and villages, and was reckoned the most populous province in all Asia. What is said of the trading-towns, might indeed be true then, but is quite altered since. The Red Sea was very much frequented by merchant-ships, before the Cape of Good Hope, and the passage by it to the Indies were found out; and Arabia was the market where all the commodities brought from India, China, and all the eastern islands, were sold to the merchants of Egypt and Barbary, and brought by the latter over land to Cairo, and other ports in the Mediterranean, whither the English, Italians, and other European nations came to take them off their hands.

But, now the goods from India and Persia are brought to us directly by sea, the commodities of Arabia are become less useful, and our commerce with it consequently is considerably decreased. If the account which the ancient writers give of it be true, it sufficiently shews how surprisingly it must have been altered, since they wrote; for, at this time, nothing like that so much exaggerated fecundity, much less in that great number of cities and inhabitants, appears, except in some few spots here and there, which bear but a very small proportion with the rest; the midland being either sandy or mountainous, all dry and barren; so that the sea-coasts, and the lands along the banks of the rivers, are the only places that deserve the name of fertile or happy, except where put into the scale with the desert and stony.

In this respect indeed, it may well enough deserve those titles, if it were but for its fine spices, and odoriferous plants, and more especially for its frankincense, which is peculiar to it, and found in great abundance almost every-where in it. To this we may add the coffee-trees, which we are told (Atlas Geograph.) are to be found only in three or four districts of the province of Yeman, properly so called, and which grow in the mountainous parts of it.

It likewise produces abundance of fine fruits, and enjoys a constant verdure all the year round; but, even in this noble province, some parts of it are almost as barren as the Petraea or Deserta; and produce nothing for 30 or 40 miles together, especially where it runs contiguous to the Red Sea:

Arabia Felix, is now by most modern geographers divided into 13 provinces or districts, some stiled kingdoms, others principalities, as follow:

The principalities of 1. Baharein, 2. Hagiaz, or Higiaz, and 3. Jemama, 4. The kingdoms of Adan or Mocha; 5. Of Seger or Alibinali, 6. Aman; Zirifden, or Oman, 7. Fartach, 8. Yemen, 9. Mafcalat, 10. Ormus, 11. Xael, or Hadramut, 12. Zibith, 13. Territory of Tchaman.

But we shall, for the greater conveniency of our readers; divide these territories into maritime and inland.

On the sea-coast are these that follow.

1. The kingdom or principality of Mecca.
2. The maritime Tehamah al Dhafar.
3. The principality of Zibith, Zebeth, Zaba, or Saba.
4. Of Mocha, or kingdom of Aden.
5. Of Xael, or kingdom of Hadramut;
6. Seger, or Alibanal.
7. Yemen principality.
8. Vodane.
9. Mafcalat.
10. Bahaim.

In the inland are the principalities or kingdoms of

1. Jemamam.
2. Haggiaz, or Hagiaz, or Higiaz.
3. Tehama.
4. Fartach.
5. Oman.

REMARKS.

To these we might add the kingdom of Ormus, which formerly had some large territories on the Terra Firma; but as it has been long since conquered by the Persians, the kingdom wholly destroyed, and the island now become quite inconsiderable, from which it took its name; we shall speak of this latter among the islands on this coast, according to its present state. But as we have made it a constant rule to range the conquered dominions under the heads to which they originally belonged, and the main part of the Ormian kingdom being in this Arabia, we shall now give a transient account thereof before we enter into the rest, that we may avoid breaking the thread and order in which we have marshalled them above; and we are the more induced to give a short description of that monarchy, as both our English and other European nations have formerly had some considerable interest in it.

Seyladin was the 26th monarch of it, when the Portuguese in 1507 seized on it, and made a settlement there. At this time we had the following account. The natural genius of the Ormians is a mixture of the Persian and Arabian. They are abundantly supplied with all kinds of necessaries by their neighbours, and by the merchants that come thither from Arabia, Turkey, Persia, and India, but the greatest part comes from Armenia, Persia, and Venice; these last being extremely fond of the precious stones which are brought thither from India, and which they convey from Ormus to Venice by land. Besides, there are commonly sold great quantities of carpets from Persia, Dias, Coracou, &c. Turkey camblets, Arabian herbs and medicinal drugs, particularly manna, myrrh, frankincense, sandragan, &c. fine horses from the province of Bahaim, pearls from that of Mafcalat, and several sorts of dried raisins; all which are brought to Ormus by two caslo's of caravans of merchants which come hither from Aleppo, and pass through Tripoli, which is about three days journey from this island, and who exchange them for others that are brought thither from other parts of the world; all which traffic brings an extraordinary gain to the governor of it. But the Portuguese were after driven out by Schach Abbas king of Persia, by the assistance of the English, who had some considerable immunities granted them as a reward, and among others one half of the customs of Gambroon, which yielded them about 40,000l. a year for 50 years. But, in the wars with the Great Mogul, the company sold it, reserving only 3000l. a year.

1. The principality of MECCA, is bounded on the north by Arabia Petraea, and Teham or Tabam on the south, its eastern extent unknown, and the Red Sea on the west.

The traffic in Mecca consists in religious relics, which the pilgrims buy at Easter, when there is likewise a great fair kept, in which the richest merchandizes of the Indies, Persia, &c. are exposed to sale. The vaults of the mosques, and the shops round them, are filled with a prodigious quantity of the richest commodities, particularly precious stones, and frented, and other aromatic powders; and, at all such seasons, even the caves in the adjacent mountains are turned into shops.

Jodda, Gioddah, Gidda, Guidda, Geda, and Zieden; is a noted sea-port, where the Turkish galleys, which are wont to winter at Suez, at the bottom of the Arabic gulph, come to disembark the goods which they bring from Egypt; Syria, &c. and

to take in new ones; such as leather, especially the Morocco; coffee, gums, and other drugs from Arabia. It is likewise the staple of the caravans, which go by sea from Gaid-hab, a city in Egypt, to Mecca. The Christians are not suffered to settle in it, by reason of its nearness to Mecca, but yet are permitted to drive a considerable commerce with it, it being the place where the ships that come from the East-Indies are wont to stop. The Porte keeps about 30 vessels on these seas, to transport the merchandises that come from thence, and which, though large enough to carry between 90 and 100 guns, are yet without any. The great resort of ships and other passengers to this place; make every thing very dear in it, even water, which is brought hither from a spring 12 miles off, and sells for three-pence per pint:

2. Maritime ТЕАМАН, or ДНАФАР. This territory hath the principality of Mecca on the north, the kingdom of Mocha on the south, the Red Sea on the west, and Yemen Proper on the east. The territory of Dhafar has several sorts of fruits, that are not elsewhere found; such as those especially; which are called the nargil and tambul; which are, according to d'Herbelot, the cocoa and betel. Besides these, we are told, that frankincense is peculiar to this territory and province.

3. The principality of ЗИБЕТ, ЗИВИТН, or ЗАБА, has the Red Sea on the west, Tehamah, or Dhafar on the north, Mocha on the south, and Yemen on the east. This country is remarkably rich in balm, which is reckoned some of the best in Arabia; as also in manna, myrrh, cassia, and other rich drugs, especially frankincense. It is gathered in spring and autumn, and is sold to all nations.

Zibet, is rich, populous, and the greatest mart in the world for frankincense, myrrh, aloes, and other precious drugs; gums, &c. of this country. The nearest port where the vessels, which come from other parts of Arabia, Ethiopia, and India, can come in either passage, is near the fortrefs of Galafca, or Chalafca, which is about 40 or 50 miles from Zibet: however; that hinders not its being a city of great commerce. At Galafca is one of the most considerable ports on the Red Sea, since we find in both of them, not only all the drugs, and other fine commodities from the Indies, but likewise some of the first china-ware brought from thence. Zibet was once the center of the trade of Ethiopia, Egypt, and China; and all agree, that it drives still a good trade in sugar, spice, and a variety of fruits.

4. The kingdom of MOCHA is bounded on the north by Tahamah, or Zibet; by the streights of Babel-mandel, which is the mouth of the Red-Sea, on the south; by the same sea on the west, and the principality of Hadramut on the east. This country abounds with manna, myrrh, frankincense, cassia, balm, and gums of several sorts, which are sold here very cheap. Mocha is a large and populous city, and a spacious and commodious port seated at the entrance of the Red Sea, and a very considerable trading place; of which we have this account from the merchants that trade annually between it and the East-Indies. Numerous caravans arrive here annually from Turkey and Egypt, as likewise the great ship Manfouri, sent hither by the Sultan, which arrives in September, and brings with it a vast cargo of the richest European merchandizes, and carries back the return in spices, callico, silk, and other India goods. The ships that used to unlade at Aden, do likewise come hither to meet the caravans; all which must needs render the place exceeding populous, as in fact it is; at least one half of the year, from March to September, which is the time of trade. The chief commodity our ships fetch from thence, is coffee, which grows in the neighbouring country, and is the best to be met with in these parts.

- Aden, is yet a considerable trading port, but its vast traffic hath been in a great measure removed to Mocha. 'Till then it was a place of great resort, and was esteemed one of the fairest and wealthiest cities of Arabia, being the center of commerce between the east and west, the Persian gulph and the Red Sea.
5. The principality of XAEL, has Mocha and Aden on the west, the Arabic sea on the south, the mountains of Yemen, or Gebel al Arad on the north, and the kingdom of Seger on the east. The sandy deserts here produce great quantities of aloes, which they there call fabr al Hadrd, to distinguish it from that of Succotori, which we stile Succotrine, and is much the better of the two. In the mountain of Schibbam in this principality, are produced some of the finest onyxes and agate stones.

6. The principality of SEGER, is contiguous on the west to Xael; has the Arabian sea on the south and east, and the country of Gader on the north. It produces a good deal of frankincense and aloes, but the latter is nothing near so good as that which grows at Succotora. The town of Dhofar, or Dhafar, is a considerable sea-port in this province.

7. The kingdom of JEMEN, or OMAN, under which name the Arabians comprehend the greatest part of Yemen, or Arabia Felix; from the city of Aden, quite to that of Mafcat on the gulph of Ormus; or, in other words, from the Persian to the Arabic gulph. We have followed the more recent geographers, who confine this kingdom within narrower bounds, since, according to the Arabian ones, it would have contained those of Xael and Seger already mentioned, as well as the

large territories of Gader and Mahre, which lie between them and the kingdom we are now speaking of. According to the modern boundaries, it extends itself from 48 to 58 degrees of east longitude, but from north to south only from 22½ to 26 of latitude, where it juts farthest into the Perfic gulph, but in other parts not above 1 degree at the most. But of the true limits, or foil, of these remote countries, we know very little. The isles of Zohar, north of cape Rofalgate, were the chief places of trade to the east, till the commerce was transferred to the city of Ormus.

OMAN, seems formerly to have been a place of no small traffic, but, as to its present state, we are altogether in the dark.

MASCAT, is a considerable sea-port town, which the Portuguese made choice of, after the loss of Ormus: whilst they held it, it was a place of great profit to them; but, being beaten out by the Arabian princes, both place and trade are gone to decay. At present, the inhabitants are a mixture of Moors, or native Arabians, some Indian Pagans, some Jews, and a few Portuguese, who carry on a trade with Ormus, and other places on the Arabian and Perfic coasts. The town is pretty much frequented by the Al Arabs, as they emphatically stile themselves, who come from the inlands, when they hear any ship is arrived at Mascat, whither they bring a great deal of poultry, dates, and horses, which they exchange for rice, drabs, and other commodities they want. Mascat is supposed to be the place where ships anciently set out from Arabia to China.

We are obliged to pass by several other kingdoms, principalities, and provinces in this part of Arabia, both maritime and inland, as there is nothing worth notice related, concerning them, or their traffic. All we know of Gader and Mahreh, or Mahrah, is, that the latter produces some frankincense, which is gathered here, and sent into other provinces. Sanaa, in the territory of Tehamah, is populous and wealthy, and traffics more in money than merchandizes. El-Katif, in the kingdom of inland Oman, is a place of trade, and the inhabitants fish for pearl about the neighbouring coast. On the mountain Shebah in the country of Naged, are dug several curious stones; such as the agate, cornelian, and especially that called, in Arabic, Gezz Allemani, which is the Arabian onyx, and much esteemed for its beauty.

ARAC, or ARAC, or RACK, a kind of spirituous liquor or brandy, made by the Tartars of Tungusia, who are subject to the czar of Muscovy.

This spirituous liquor is made of mare's milk, which is left to be sour, and is afterwards distilled twice or thrice, between two earthen pots closely stopp'd, whence the liquor runs through a small wooden pipe. This liquor is very strong, and intoxicates more than brandy distilled from wine.

Arac is likewise an excellent spirituous liquor, which the English get from Batavia or Malacca to make punch. The Chinese are those who make arac in the Indies by distillation. They make 3 sorts of it, extracted, the one from the cocoa-tree, the second from rice, and the third from sugar. The first is the best, and most in use. They make it of the liquor which issues from the blossom-bunch of the cocoa-tree. For which purpose they tie the bunch, whilst still wrapped up within its cod or membrane, with a piece of packthread, and then with a knife they make a cross-cut in that bunch, a little above the place where it is tied, and adapt a pitcher to it, to receive the liquor, which is vinous, palatable, and sweet. It is called touac, or fouri. Others use a bamboe-cane instead of a pitcher. Having thus drawn the liquor, they let it ferment, and afterwards distill it to make arac. They have a prodigious demand for it all over the East-Indies.

The Dutch also import some into Holland. It is something sweeter, and less intoxicating than common brandy; for which reason, the English think it more fit to make punch. The author of the Spectacle de la Nature was mistaken in asserting, that the liquor of the cocoa-tree was drawn by making an incision in the lower part of the trunk of the tree, for it is certain that none would come that way.

A further account of arac.

The nature and composition of this celebrated liquor has been much controverted. Mr Lockyer tells us, that the name of arac is an Indian word for strong waters of all kinds; for they call our spirits and brandy, English arac. But what we understand by the name arac, is really no other than a spirit procured by distillation from a vegetable juice called toddy, which flows by incision out of the cocoa-nut-tree, like the birch-juice procured among us.

The toddy, adds Mr Lockyer, is a pleasant drink by itself, when new, and purges those who are not used to it; and, when stale, it is heady, and makes good vinegar. The English at Madras use it as leaven to raise their bread with.

Goa and Batavia are the chief places for arac. At Goa there are divers kinds; single, double, and treble distilled. The double distilled, which is that commonly sent abroad, is but a weak spirit in comparison to Batavia arac: yet, on account of its peculiar and agreeable flavour, it is preferred to all other aracs of India. This is attributed to the earthen vessels, which

alone they use at Goa to draw the spirit: whereas at Batavia they use copper-stills.

The Parier arac made at Madras, and the Columbo and Quilone arac at other places, being fiery hot spirits, are but little valued by the Europeans, and therefore seldom imported, though highly prized among the natives.

BRITISH LAWS, relating to Arac.

By stat. 2 Geo. I. cap. 30. Arac on board a ship within the limits of any port of Great-Britain, or sound unshipping or unshipped before entry, may be searched for and seized, together with the package, by the officers of excise, in like manner as by the officers of the customs.

Upon an excise-officer's suspicion of concealment of arac, made before the commissioners or a justice of the peace, they may empower him to enter such suspected places, and seize the liquors, with the casks, &c.

If the officers are obstructed, the penalty is 100 l.

Arac is not to be sold but in warehouses, and entered as directly by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. upon forfeiture, and the casks, &c.

If permits are not returned which are granted for the removal of arac, or if the goods are not sent away within the time limited, the penalty is treble the value.

If the permits are not returned, and the decrease is not found to be sufficient, the like quantity is forfeited.

Permits are not to be taken out, but by direction in writing of the proprietor of the stock, or his known servant, upon forfeiture of 50 l. or three months imprisonment.

By stat. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. If arac is offered to sale without a permit, or by any hawker, pedlar, &c. with a permit, the person, to whom it is offered, may seize and carry it to the next warehouse belonging to the customs or excise, and bring the person offering the same before any justice of the peace, to be committed to prison, and prosecuted for the penalties incurred by such offence.

The person seizing such goods may prosecute in his own name; and, on recovery, is intitled to ½ part of the gross produce of the sale. And the commissioners are (if desired) upon a certificate from the justice of the offender's being committed to prison, to advance to the seizer 1 s. per gallon for the arac so seized.

Arac (except for the use of the seamen two gallons each) found in any ship or vessel arrived from foreign parts at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the shore, and not proceeding on her voyage (unless in case of unavoidable necessity and distress of weather, notice whereof must be given to the collector or chief officer of the port upon the ship's arrival) is forfeited, with the boxes, casks, and other package, or the value thereof.

ARAINS, striped or checked armorines or taffeties, which come from the Indies.

ARANEA, a silver ore found only in the mines of Potosi, or in the single mine there of Catamito. It owes its name to some resemblance it bears to a cob-web (a spider being called aranea in Latin, and aragnee in French) being composed of threads of pure silver, which to the sight appear like a silver lace, when burned to separate, the silk from it. It is the richest of all kinds of silver ore.

ARARES, a name given by the Indians to that kind of fruit which is called, in Europe, citrine mirobolans. This sort of mirobolans is thought proper to purge the gall.

ARATE, a weight in Portugal. See AROBE.

ARBITER *, or ARBITRATOR, an extraordinary judge, or commissioner, in one or more causes, between party and party, chosen by their mutual consent.

* The civilians make a difference between arbiter and arbitrator: though both ground their power on the compromise of the parties, yet their liberty is diverse: for an arbiter is tied to proceed and judge, according to the forms, customs, and usages in the law: an arbitrator is permitted wholly to use his own discretion in accommodating the controversy committed to him, according to what seems just and equitable agreeable to his own judgment.

The ordinances in France direct, that all differences among merchants in relation to their trade, and among partners in relation to their partnerships, be determined by arbitrators: which gives unto the arbitrators, who are named for all these sorts of differences, a right to terminate them with all possible diligence, in order to avoid the delays of judicial proceedings; and also a right to qualify the awards which they give on affairs of that kind, with such temperaments of equity, as they shall find that the facts and circumstances may deserve.

In England, although there is no particular obligation laid on parties to refer their differences to arbitration, as the custom is in France, in some cases; yet the statutes recommend these references to the subject, and more particularly to merchants and traders, as a useful expedient to end their differences with the greater ease and expedition. And, in order to give more weight and efficacy to the award of the arbitra-

tors,

tors, the parties are allowed to agree among themselves, that their submission of the suit to the award or umpirage of any person, or persons, may be made a rule of any of his majesty's courts of record, that the parties may be thereby finally concluded.

Stat. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 15. sect. 1. After the 11th of May 1698, all merchants and others, desiring to end any controversy (for which there is no remedy but by personal action, or suit in equity) by arbitration, may agree that their submission of the suit to the award or umpirage of any persons shall be made a rule of any of his majesty's courts of record, which the parties shall chuse, and may insert such their agreement, in their submission, or the condition of the bond or promise: and upon producing an affidavit of such agreement, and upon reading and filing such affidavit in the court so chosen, the same may be entered of record in such court, and a rule of court shall be thereupon made, that the parties shall submit to, and finally be concluded by, such arbitration or umpirage; and, in case of disobedience thereto, the party neglecting or refusing shall be subject to all the penalties of contemning a rule of court, and process shall issue accordingly; which shall not be stopped or delayed by any order, &c. of any other court, either of law or equity, unless it appear on oath, that the arbitrators or umpire misbehaved themselves, and that such award was corruptly or unduly procured.

Sect. 2. Any arbitration or umpirage procured by corruption or undue means shall be void, and set aside by any court of law or equity, so as such corruption or undue practice be complained of in the court where the rule is made for such arbitration, before the last day of the next term after such arbitration made and published to the parties.

The power of arbitrators is to be regulated by the compromise between the parties, as to what concerns the differences which they are to determine, and whatever they decree beyond that, is of no effect.

Arbitrators, in their proceedings, are to observe the five following points, *viz.*

1. That the award made be given up in writing within the time limited, by the bonds of compromise between the parties.

2. That there be appointed by the award some reciprocal act to be done by each party to other, which the law requireth to be quid pro quo, albeit never so small.

3. That they make a final end, and do determine upon all the points or differences produced before them by specification, if they be required so to do, and authorized thereunto.

4. That they do not award any of the parties to do or perform any unlawful act or thing prohibited, and against the law.

5. That they do not award any thing, whereby any matter already determined by decree in Chancery or judgment at the common law, or any sentence judicially given in the cause, be infringed or meddled withal.

After a definitive sentence is given, the function of arbitrators ceases, and they have not power to retract or alter it.

No matters wherein the public is concerned, or besides those of a private nature, which regard property between person and person, can be submitted to the decision of arbitrators.

Besides the differences among merchants relating to their trade, and among partners in relation to their partnerships, those touching the partition of inheritances among near relations, accounts of guardianships, and other administrations, the restitution of marriage portions, and of dowers, must in France be referred to arbitrators: and it is ordained that, in case any of the parties refuse to name arbitrators on their part, the judge shall name them.

Or, in case of death or long absence of one of the arbiters, the parties concerned must chuse another, or upon their refusal the judge is to name one. So if the arbitrators differ in opinion, and are not able to agree among themselves, the judge is to appoint a super-arbiter.

All articles of partnerships should contain a clause, by which the partners bind themselves to submit to arbitrators, in the disputes that may arise between them,

And the same should be observed in contracts or policies of assurance.

ARBITRARY, that which is left to the choice or determination of men, or not fixed or settled by any positive law or injunction. As arbitrary fines are mulcts usually called amercedments.

To **ARBITRATE**, to adjudge or act as an arbiter: to award or give sentence.

The French use the word arbiter in another sense also; it signifies to estimate a thing in general, without entering into particulars. In this sense they say, the judges-consuls have arbitrated (ont arbitré) the cost, damages, and interests, at such a sum: that is, they have calculated them so much. Arbiters, or common friends, have attributed to what sum the decay of such merchandizes may amount.

ARBITRATION, a jurisdiction chosen voluntarily, by parties at variance, to have their difference terminated and adjusted by persons impowered by them, and who are stiled arbiters, or arbitrators. It is also said of the sentence pronounced by the

arbiters. As for instance. These merchants have referred their dispute to an arbitration, i. e. to be decided by arbiters. These persons are very much employed in arbitration; that is, are often chosen arbiters. This cause has been determined by arbitration, i. e. by the sentence of arbiters.

ARBITRATION, in matters of the FOREIGN EXCHANGE, is the most beneficial, as well as the most delicate, branch of exchange to be thoroughly informed of.

Before any one applies himself to the study of this subject, it is necessary that he should be well skilled in all the practical operations, in regard to the reducing of the sterling money of England into the foreign monies of exchange, and of account, of all places throughout Europe, according to the direct courses of exchange, established for these purposes, and vice versa. Also,

2. That he should be acquainted with the methods of converting sterling money into the monies of exchange, and of account, of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct established courses of exchange, but is under the necessity of making use of the intermediate exchange of other places: together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of converting their bank monies into current, and the reverse.

3. The manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into those of every other distinct country, either according to the direct, or intermediate exchange; which makes a much greater variety of cases, than those, who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extensive subject, can imagine. See the article EXCHANGES.

4. It is previously necessary, also, to the entering upon a knowledge of the arbitration of exchange, to know the intrinsic value of foreign monies, according to the most accurate assays, which have been made for that purpose.

5. Lastly, it is requisite to understand the general natural causes of the rise and fall of the courses of exchange between nation and nation, or between one trading city and another in the same nation.

That I may communicate my meaning with the greater perspicuity, it may be proper, for the satisfaction of others, as well as practical merchants and remitters, to premise, That as the advantages to be made by understanding how to arbitrate the exchange at all times, and in respect to all places, depend on the general rise and fall of the prices of exchange between one nation and another; so that rise and fall depends on the ballance of trade being either in favour, or against a nation.

That the course of exchange is the criterion of the ballance of trade, has been allowed, not only by great statesmen and speculative politicians, but by the most skilful and sagacious practical traders.

As this matter is put in a very rational and familiar light by those able and distinguished merchants of the city of London, who were instrumental, in conjunction with the late ever memorable Earls of Halifax and Stanhope, in defeating the French treaty of commerce, in the year 1712; I shall quote their reasoning upon this point, from the British Merchant. In consequence of which, the practical application of what we shall communicate on the topic under consideration, will appear the more intelligible:

Suppose, say they, the tenant in Wiltshire is to pay for rent 100 l. to his landlord in London; and the woollen-draper in London is to pay the like sum to his clothier in Wiltshire: both these debts may be paid, without transmitting one farthing from one place to the other, by bills of exchange, or by exchanging one debtor for the other thus: That is, the tenant may receive the landlord's order to pay 100 l. to the clothier in the country; and the woollen-draper may receive his clothier's order to pay the like sum to the landlord in town.

These two orders are properly called bills of exchange; the debts are exchanged by them; that is, the woollen-draper in town, instead of the tenant in the country, is become debtor to the landlord; and the tenant in the country, instead of the woollen-draper in town, is become debtor to the clothier: and, when these orders are complied with, the two debts between London and the country are discharged, without sending one shilling in specie from the one to the other.

In like manner, the warehouse-man in London is indebted in 100 l. for stuffs to the weaver in Norwich; and the linen-draper in Norwich is indebted in the like sum to the Hamburgh merchant in London; both these debts may be paid by bills of exchange, or by the exchange of one debtor for the other, by placing one debtor in the other's stead: that is, the warehouse-man may receive the order of his weaver, to pay 100 l. to the Hamburgh merchant; and the linen-draper may receive the order of the Hamburgh merchant, to pay the like sum to the weaver.

These orders are bills of exchange; the debtor in one place is changed for the debtor in the other: and thus both debts may be paid, without sending one single shilling in specie, from the one city to the other.

But, if the debts due from both places are not equal, then only the same quantity of debts on both sides can be paid by bills of exchange. The ballance must be sent in money

from the city, from whence the greatest sums are due, For example :

If, by the trade between London and Norwich, the former owes 10,000 l. to the latter, and the latter no more than 9000 l. to the former; it is manifest, that only the debts of 9000 l. on each side can be discharged by bills of exchange; the balance of 1000 l. must be sent either from London, or some other place indebted to London, to even the account between both the cities.

Let us suppose then, that to send and insure 1000 l. in specie to Norwich would cost 5 l. or 10 s. per cent. which of the debtors in London would be willing to be at this charge? It is natural to believe, that every one, will endeavour to shift it off from himself, that every one will endeavour to pay his money by a bill of exchange; it is natural to believe that every one, rather than stand the cost and hazard of sending 100 l. in specie, would pay 100 l. 5 s. in London for a debtor in Norwich, upon condition that the Norwich debtor should pay an 100 l. for him in that city.

By which means the Norwich debtor would pay his debt of 100 l. in London with less than that sum, while the London debtor would be obliged to give more than that sum for the payment of 100 l. in Norwich. And, if such for years together were the course of exchange between London and Norwich, there could be no question to which of the two cities a sum must be sent in specie to pay the balance; that city undoubtedly pays the balance, that gives more than the par; that undoubtedly receives the balance, that gives less than the par for bills of exchange.

The course of exchange, in this case, would sufficiently decide that the balance of trade is on the side of that city, that procures bills of exchange upon the most easy terms.

I have taken examples from two English cities, where the money is of the same denomination; and the same quantities are equally at par in both. But the case is the very same between two cities, where the denominations of the money are different, as long as any certain quantity of money in the one can be reduced to a par or equality with any certain quantity of money in the other.

For example, the old French crown was just equal or par to 54¹/₂ pence English; and 444¹/₂ of these crowns were just par, or equal to an 100 l. sterling; every farthing given more or less than 54 d. for a crown, in a bill of exchange between London and Paris, amounts to 9 s. 3 d. upon 444 crowns, or upon so many times 54 d.

* This was in the year 1713. But what is the case at present, See the article COIN, where the assays, weights, and values of foreign silver and gold coins is given! by which it will appear, whether England or foreign countries have the advantage by exchange, according to the intrinsic value of such coins.

Suppose then the course of exchange between London and Paris stood thus heretofore. If a man in Paris, indebted to London, paid a farthing less than the par for a bill of exchange upon London to pay 54 d. there; the Parisian paid his debt to London of 100 l. by a bill of exchange that cost him in Paris 9 s. 3 d. less than that sum: and if a merchant in London gave a farthing more than the par for a bill of exchange upon Paris, to pay a French crown, the Londoner gave 9 s. 3 d. more than 100 l. for a bill of exchange to pay that sum in Paris.

If such was the course of exchange between London and Paris: if the first gave above the par, and the second less than par for bills of exchange to pay their respective debts, there can be no doubt that bills of exchange were more easily to be had in Paris than at London; and consequently, that greater sums were due from the latter than the former; and that we paid a balance upon our trade to that kingdom. And as the price rose here to a penny or two pence above the par, or fell there so much below it; it shewed so much the greater scarcity here, and the greater plenty there of bills of exchange; and that so much the greater ballance of bullion was going hence, by means of our trade to that country.

Here let the intelligent practical merchant and remitter, &c. make his observations on what we mean by the intrinsic arbitration of the exchanges, which need not be further enlarged upon, if he considers the due application of what has been said; this single case being as good as a multitude.

The foregoing reasoning may be further carried on thus: If the city of Bourdeaux owes 100,000 ounces of silver at Paris, and sends wines and brandies to Holland for 100,000 ounces: and if Holland sends specie to Paris for 100,000 ounces, due to the bankers at Bourdeaux; and with these the specie-merchants at Paris remit and pay the 100,000 ounces they owe to Holland: in this case the exchange between Bourdeaux and Paris, Bourdeaux and Holland, and Paris and Holland, will be at par; there will be no variation, but what proceeds from the commission of the negotiators concerned in the returns.

But in regard that the coin of France is reckoned by livres,

fol, and deniers; and in Holland, by florins, stivers, and groots; that the coin in use in Holland differs in the standard, bulk, and mark, from that used in France; the computation of the exchanges is made by the exchanging so many Dutch groots, for a French exchange crown; and, although this at first view does not seem to denote that the exchange is so much per cent over or under par, yet in reality it is so; and the banker, concerned in the Dutch exchange, knows how to calculate this par in the tale of French crowns, and Dutch groots.

So that the exchange between London and Paris, and Paris and Amsterdam, &c. is, in effect, carried on just as it is between London and Wiltshire, or London and Norwich; only with this difference, that the accounts are kept in another gibberish; and that the charge and risk of sending money from London to Paris, or from Paris to Amsterdam, is greater than that of sending it from London to Wiltshire, or Norwich; and when the ballance of trade with Amsterdam is against Paris, the exchange at Paris will be from 5 to 6 per cent. above the par by bills on Amsterdam; whereas it will seldom exceed an half per cent. above par between London and Norwich.

Whether France pays livres, fol, and deniers, for ryals of plate, and marvedees, new or old in Spain; for cruzadoes, or miltrees in Portugal; for guilders, rix-dollars, or marks-lubs, in the north; for pounds, shillings, and pence sterling; for marks, piasters, and ducats, in Italy; the par of the exchange is always ounce for ounce of silver, or rather of gold, that being of easier carriage, and most commonly is transported in the ballance of trade; and the computations and evaluations of the exchange will square every-where with our first examples.

If France owes a ballance in trade to Flanders of 100,000 ounces; Flanders to Holland of 100,000 ounces; Holland to England of 100,000 ounces; England to Spain of 100,000 ounces; Spain to Italy of 100,000 ounces; Italy to Germany of 100,000 ounces; Germany to France of 100,000 ounces; the exchange may be carried on at par between all these countries, without any transportation of gold or silver.

But as the ballance of trade grows due gradually from one country to any other, by an importation of commodities, the variation of exchanges follows the same proportion.

And it is the business of the judicious general merchant, and the sagacious remitter, to speculate where the ballance of trade lies, among the European nations at all points of time; for by that means he may embrace his opportunities of advantage, and these almost daily between some nation or other, provided his credit and correspondence are duly established to admit thereof.

From what has been said, the reader may observe the utility of knowing the intrinsic arbitration of exchange, by comparing the courses with the real value of money. For more matter relating to which, see the article EXCHANGE.

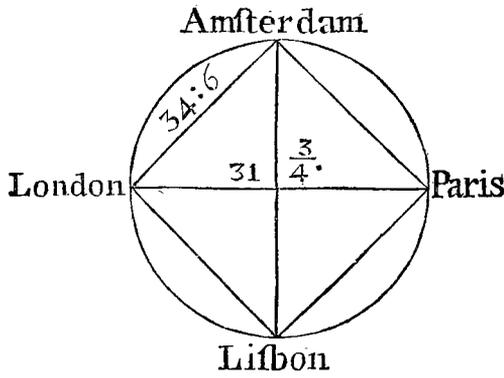
Another method of considering the arbitration of exchanges, is founded upon comparing the various occasional prices of exchange together between nation and nation; in order to discover at all times, whether certain courses continue in an equality of proportion, or how far they deviate therefrom: by which means the advantage to be made by such a comparison of exchanges may be exactly ascertained, for the government of the merchant or remitter to take his measures accordingly, and not to let the advantageous occasion escape his cognizance. And this must necessarily prove the case, provided a person is not accomplished in this branch of the exchanges.

Before I enter upon the illustration of this matter by examples, it will be proper to observe, that, in a comparison or combination of the courses of exchange of several places together, it is rare, very rare indeed, that they happen to ebb and flow in an exact equality of proportion; the reason whereof must be obvious to every one, who considers that the ballance of trade differs between different nations, and consequently, from what has been said, the courses of exchange will be in favour, or otherwise, of some nations, when compared with others. This is so plain, that it needs no further animadversion.

This being the case, the judgment of the exchange-negotiator consists in vigilantly observing, from a due comparison of the courses, where the greatest inequality of proportion lies; for there lies the greatest profit to be made by drawing and remitting to certain places preferably to others.

But the greatest profit to be made this way does not always happen to arise, from a comparison of these courses only where the general currency of a trader's business lies: on the contrary, from the circumstances and the nature of the trade of such countries, the rise and fall of the courses may generally continue in such an equality of proportion, as only occasionally, or seldom, to admit of any extra profit by the exchange. Whence it is, that those, who are unacquainted with the niceties of these computations, think there are little or no advantages to be made to other places, with which they do not happen to have any transactions. This is an egregious mistake: nay, if a merchant has dealings with two or three different nations, it is very rare, but considerable advantages are to be made, by

knowing how to arbitrate the exchanges with accuracy; and the more general his correspondence is with various nations, the greater opportunities he has of reaping benefit by his superior skill in this branch of mercantile science. To the end that my meaning may be the more readily comprehended, the following diagram may be necessary.



Let it be supposed, that the exchange between London and Amsterdam is at 34 : 6, and between London and Paris at 31 $\frac{3}{4}$. What is the proportional arbitrated price between Amsterdam and Paris? The most concise method of discovering the proportional arbitrated price is by a numerical equation, in the algebraic way of analysis: Thus,

\dagger Signifies addition
 $-$ ----- subtraction
 \times ----- multiplication
 \div ----- division
 \therefore ----- therefore
 $=$ ----- equality

Say 1 cr. Paris = 31d. $\frac{3}{4}$ sterling
 240 d. sterl. = 34 : 6 = 414

The right-hand side of the equation constitutes a general dividend, the left-hand side a general divisor. But as the fractional parts make it troublesome for most to \times and \div them, who are not well acquainted with fractions both vulgar and decimal; and as these are sometimes too tedious for men of business; the most easy and concise practical way is to reduce these equations, according to the following axioms, viz.

(1.) Equal quantities multiplied by equal quantities, their products are equal. And (2.) Equal quantities divided by equal quantities, their quotas are equal; that is to say, the numbers resulting therefrom remain proportionally equal.

Examples as above.

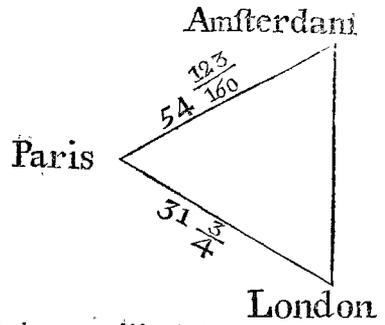
$$\begin{array}{l} x = 3x \frac{3}{4} \\ \cancel{140} = \cancel{414} \\ \hline 4 = 127 \\ 80 = 138 \\ 2 = 69 \\ \therefore 127 \times 69 \end{array}$$

80 \times 2 = to the answer. That is to say, that if you multiply 127 by 69, and divide the product thereof by that of 80 multiplied by 2, you have the true answer required, which you will find to be 54 $\frac{123}{160}$, the nearest practical fraction in common business being $\frac{3}{4}$. However, the calculation must be made with the utmost accuracy, or you will not so well know what you are about. This is only an abbreviation of the operation upon the preceding axioms. As 1. You \times the 31 $\frac{3}{4}$ by 4, which gives 127 placed under the line, and a 4 set on the other side to ballance it from the first axiom.

Then, as there don't happen to be more fractions, I proceed to abbreviate the work further by division.—Thus I find at one glance of the eye, that 240 and 414 will both divide by 3, which produce for quotas 80 and 138, which numbers, as they are done with, are cancelled. I next observe, that 4 and 138 will both divide by 2, which give 2 and 69. So that the result is, that 127 multiplied by 69, and that product divided by 80 multiplied by 2, which remain uncanceled, will give the answer required.

But if any other divisor could be found, which would measure both the dividend and the divisor, the abbreviation might be carried on still further, and vary often till we have the true answer without further trouble.

The foregoing example admits of three cases: thus,



Paris on Amsterdam at 54 $\frac{123}{160}$. And on London at 31 $\frac{3}{4}$: What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Amsterdam?

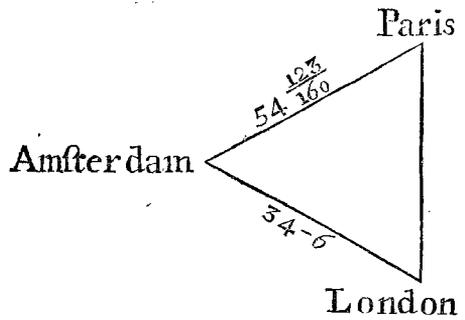
OPERATION.

$$1. \dots = 240 \text{ d. sterling.}$$

$$3x \frac{3}{4} \dots = 34 \frac{123}{160} = 8763$$

1. 54 \times by 160, and take in the numerator, gives 8763; to ballance which, place the 160 on the left hand side, and cancel 54 $\frac{123}{160}$.
2. Then \times 31 $\frac{3}{4}$ by 4, and take in the 3 the numerator, and that gives 127; to ballance which, place the 4 on the right-hand side, and cancel 31 $\frac{3}{4}$.
3. I find that 160 and 240 will divide by 10, which leaves 16 on the left-hand side, and 24 on the right.
4. I find that 16 will divide by 4, and 24 by 4, which leave 4 on the one side, and 6 on the other. And Lastly, Finding two 4's on each side, they cancel each other. —So that the consequence of the whole is, that 8763 \times 6, and the product divided by 127 gives the answer, 414 grots, or 34 : 6, the exchange between London and Amsterdam, as required.

The third case.



Amsterdam on Paris at 54 $\frac{123}{160}$. And on London at 31 $\frac{3}{4}$. What is the arbitrated price between London and Paris?

OPERATION.

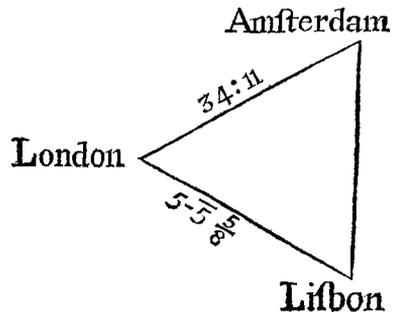
$$1 \text{ Crown Paris} = 34 \frac{123}{160} \text{ grots.}$$

$$414 \text{ grots} \dots = 240 \text{ d. sterling.}$$

$$\therefore \frac{2921}{46 \times 2} = \text{Answer, i. e. } 92 \mid 707x \mid 31 \frac{69}{92} = \frac{3}{4}$$

These three cases prove the truth of the method, in regard to each other.

Another example derived from the first diagram.



A R B

Suppose London exchanges on Amsterdam 34 : 11. And on Lisbon at 5 : 5 $\frac{3}{8}$. What is the arbitrated price between Amsterdam and Lisbon?

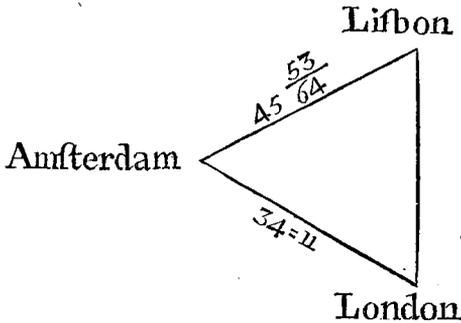
OPERATION.

1 Crufade of Lisbon = 400 rees Portugal.
 400 rees - - = 85 d. $\frac{8}{9}$ sterling.
 44 d. sterling - - = $34 : 11 = 419$ grots Amft.

8	878	419
x0	4	
48	x08	
x7	72	
2	7	
4		

So that, after all the abbreviations which can be made, the numbers which remain uncanceled, are $419 \times 7 = \frac{2933}{8 \times 2 \times 4 = 64} = 45$ grots $\frac{3}{8}$ of Amsterdam per crufade of Lisbon, which is the true answer.

This example also admits of three cafes: thus,



Cafe (2.) Amsterdam exchanges on Lisbon at 45 $\frac{3}{8}$. And on London at 34 : 11. What is the arbitrated price of exchange between London and Lisbon?

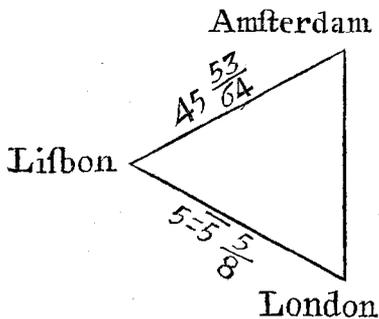
OPERATION.

1 milree - - - = 400 rees
 400 rees - - = 1 crufade
1 cruf. - - - = 48 $\frac{83}{9}$ grots Amsterdam.
 419 grots Amft. = 44 d. London.

64	2933
1	68
x0	15
8	5

Answer $\frac{2933 \times 15 \times 5}{419 \times 8} = 65$ d. $\frac{5}{8}$ sterling as above.

Cafe 3d of the 2d example.



Lifbon exchanges on Amsterdam at 45 $\frac{3}{8}$. And on London at 5 : 5 $\frac{5}{8}$. What is the arbitrated price of exchange between London and Amsterdam?

A R B

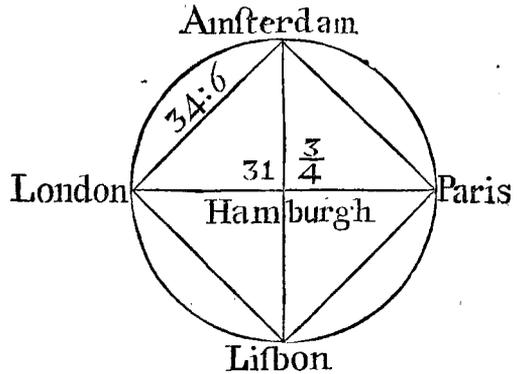
OPERATION.

1 l. sterl. = 44 d. sterling.
 68 $\frac{3}{8}$ sterl. = 1000 rees Portugal.
 400 rees Portugal - = 45 $\frac{88}{9}$ grots Amsterdam.

878	8
64	7033
8	68
x08	7
72	x7
7	4
x	419
4	2

So that, after all the abbreviations which can be made, the answer comes out exactly the 419 grots of Amsterdam, without any further division or multiplication; which is equal to 34 : 11.—This will frequently happen to be the case. So that the operation may this way be generally done upon the thumb nail, on the exchange, when people grow expert at it. If you suppose Hamburg to stand in the center of the first diagram, you may observe how the examples will multiply.

Thus:



The first additional example will be London, Hamburg, and Lisbon; the second will be Lisbon, Hamburg, and Paris; the third will be London, Hamburg, and Amsterdam; the fourth will be Hamburg, Paris, and Amsterdam; the fifth will be Hamburg, Paris, and London; the sixth will be Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Lisbon, &c. And the reader will observe, that each of these examples has three distinct cafes of operation: so that, if you multiply places in the circumference, it will be found that there is a surprising variety of changes to be rung upon the capital places of trade in Europe; all which ought to be equally well understood by the skilful general merchant, or he can never be capable of reaping these constant advantages, which are to be made by being able readily to arbitrate the exchanges.

And yet by this comparison of three places only, from the examples given, these are but simple arbitrations; but, when they come to be compounded in the combination and comparison with more places, the variety of distinct cafes will multiply extraordinarily, in order to become an universal matter of this most advantageous branch of the foreign exchange.

But how greatly the variety of questions in the arbitration will multiply, appears from another diagram, where London is supposed to be the central place of exchange to all those in the circumference of the circle; and where a triangle is formed from the center, London, to any other two places in the circumference, there arises a simple arbitrage question; which questions multiply in proportion to the number of places wherewith London has direct courses of exchange: and, each of these questions, as before observed, admitting of three distinct cafes of operation, the variety is very great; and, consequently, the opportunities of profit are great in proportion to the London merchant, or remitter, provided he is sufficiently skilled to embrace all those opportunities which, we will presume to say, almost daily offer.

But if, on the other hand, Amsterdam advises that the exchange between Hamburg and there is at $3\frac{1}{2}$, which is above the arbitral price, then

Draw on Amsterdam l. 100 sterling, at $3\frac{1}{2}$, debits you at Amsterdam guilders 1045 bank-money, and remit to Hamburg l. 97 : 7 : 10, at $33 : 5$, credits you at Hamburg marks lubs 1220 : 7 : 6; so that the profit which presents is $1.2 : 12 : 2$ per cent. and

The money you receive for your draught pays that for your remittance—Your debit at Amsterdam will be paid by your credit at Hamburg, exchange at $3\frac{1}{2}$: for, if 1 dollar of Hamburg will pay $3\frac{1}{2}$ flivers at Amsterdam, marks lubs 1220 : 7 : 6 will pay guilders 1045 bank-money at Amsterdam. These examples also prove again to demonstration, that, let the real or advised price of exchange be either below or above the arbitral price made by the speculator, there is always advantage to be made on draughts and remittances, provided the merchant, or remitter, is well skilled in the arbitrations of exchanges, and takes all his measures with due judgment and sagacity.

REMARKS.

Those who are well skilled in this matter generally agree to support their correspondence commission-free on all sides; wherefore, when it is considered what opportunities the merchant, or remitter, of a general credit and correspondence has, the benefits, by a judicious combination, or comparison of the exchange throughout Europe, are far more considerable than most; than 99 out of 100, nay, than 999, perhaps, out of 1000, are duly apprised of.

Those who are not thoroughly acquainted with the subject of exchanges, are apt to imagine that there is nothing more in it than the mere conversion of the monies of one country into those of another. This is taking a very superficial view of so nice and important a business; yet in this light, and this only, it is considered in all schools, and, indeed, in most counting-houses: but the complete knowledge of the business of exchange is no such contemptible matter. It is truly a science by itself, and has its principles and elements; whose proper application to the various occurrences, which naturally offer themselves in the course of merchandizing with foreign countries, affords no little benefit and advantage.

I have heard it said by some, whom I could wish knew better for their own sakes, that these things are rather points of curious speculation than beneficial in practical commerce. This is certainly a vulgar error, and I am sorry it is so universally prevalent.

In favour of this mistaken opinion it has been said, that the exchanges might, and do, frequently vary before orders can be duly executed. 'Tis true, the exchanges may vary from the time of orders to that of execution; so may the price of all other commodities, as well as that of bills of exchange, (for at present I consider them in the same light) in which case the orders given are not complied with, if they cannot be executed according to the intention of the principal.

But if the merchant who gives the orders is well acquainted with the state of the trade of those places which he has his eye upon, with intent to advantage himself by his skill in the arbitration, 'tis as likely that the courses may vary equally, if not more to his advantage, than he at first found them, and which induced him to give such orders at all: for prices equally proportionable to those from whence he made his computation, will answer the like degree of profit to him.

If a correspondent happens to be ignorant of your intentions, and of those secret calculations, which are the rudder of your conduct, 'tis no great difficulty to give him such variety of proportional prices as may direct him to the end aimed at. Yet for the knowing and skilful merchant to have to do with the mere mechanical or the unskilful, is disadvantageous to his interests, where knowledge and sagacity are required, though it may be otherwise upon other occasions; for merchants, as well as others, sometimes play upon the ignorance of correspondents less knowing than themselves.

Those, however, who are shrewd exchangers themselves, generally make choice, upon these negotiations, of correspondents not less so; and then they are certain of the gain designed, or that their orders shall remain unexecuted till the advantageous crisis happens to fall out.

But there is a risque in all this, say others, who are as wise as the former. Wherein, I ask, is the greater risque, in trusting a man with a thousand pounds worth of goods to sell for your account, or a thousand pounds in money, by ordering him to draw that sum on you by exchange? If the sales and returns of goods are made within the year, or two, or more, 'tis well; but, if A orders B to draw a 1000 l. on him at usance, or double usance, he may order C to draw on B by way of reimbursement, or might have been obliged, from the circumstances of his trade and affairs, to have suffered C to have drawn on him, or have been obliged to have remitted C.

Pasides, such is the shortness of time, which bills of exchange run, in comparison to the time before the returns for goods are made, that dealings in exchange with skill and precaution

are, in the general, far less hazardous than dealing in goods, shipping, or insurancing. There are, however, measures to be taken to render the hazard in traffic by exchange less than most people, who have not duly considered this subject, may be acquainted with. But it is not my business to instruct my superiors; these admonitions are chiefly intended for the rising generation of young merchants, whom, in particular, we shall always be ambitious to profit. The sanction and authority, also, that a bill of exchange carries with it, still lessen the hazard in dealing therein.—This may deserve attention.

Of all the reasons I have heard given by way of objection to the study and practice of this part of exchange, there is one; I think, very weak and contemptible: it is, that, if there are any extraordinary advantages to be made by this mystery of exchange, the Jews are the chief who have engrossed this business to themselves.

Whatever honour this may be to the sagacity and penetration of the Jew merchants and remitters, it is no great credit to the Christian ones, that the Jews should prove their superiors herein. Ah! but the Jews have a more general correspondence among one another, and better intelligence, and, therefore, can carry on this species of commerce with more ease and security. How so? Can't Christian merchants obtain as universal and beneficial a correspondence as Jews with Jews, if they are equally capable to support it? When a merchant has, by his skill and conduct, his integrity and fortune, duly established a reputation at home and abroad, there is no end of his correspondence, with Jews as well as Christians and Turks, &c. for foreigners, who are complete merchants and exchangers themselves, rejoice at meeting with a correspondent of the like stamp, by reason of his greater ability to promote their reciprocal interests.

These objections, and others of the like kind, I must presume to say, betray nought but downright ignorance in the subject of exchanges, if the people mean as they speak; and demonstrate that such persons are really unacquainted with the very elements of the profitable part of exchange.

The only excuse can be made for some people is, that they are not in earnest when they talk in this manner, but use these objections, as an artifice to keep others out of the like gainful way of traffic. If this be the case, I would only observe, that, the more knowing merchants and exchangers in general are in this branch, as well as all others relating to commerce, the more will they enrich themselves, as well as the nation; and the better able shall we be to give bread to the poor, and make the whole human species happy, by dint of a fair and honourable commerce. And this I seriously aver is the most prevalent motive to dedicate my life to the cultivation of arts, which have so desirable a tendency: and, as my endeavours have already stirred up others to the like applications, so I hope the number will daily encrease; to whom I shall gratefully acknowledge my obligations for any information they may please to communicate to me, or for their candid rectification of any mistakes which I may be liable to; desiring them to consider, that, as the subject I am engaged in is so universal, we are liable sometimes to be attended with misinformation.

Nor is this knowledge in the exchange necessary only to the pretty constant dealers in monies and bills; for, as I have observed lately upon another occasion, 'Whoever trades as a merchant, that is to say, as an exporter and importer, in Europe, must of necessity have to do with drawing and remitting; and, if so, he should by no means be unacquainted with those arts of making the best advantage by so doing: but this is not possible to be done without being thoroughly skilled in their arbitration to a demonstrative exactitude.

The more general the trade of a merchant is, the more universal should his knowledge in this particular be. And those who may have views in dealing largely by exchange, will certainly find their account beyond expectation in being fundamentally grounded in this extraordinary subject: for a trader of a good general foreign correspondence may, by this means, gain more by dint of credit and skill, than others unacquainted herewith can do by dint of hard money.*

* See The Merchant's Public Counting-house: Or, New Mercantile Institution, by Malachy Poillethwayt; printed for John and Paul Knapton, pages 12, 19.

This I have demonstrated to those who understand me; and it will appear more and more conspicuous throughout the whole scope of this work.

It does not always fall out, that the interest of private traders coincides with that of the nation in general; but, in the present case, it does: for while our merchants of ingenuity are gaining advantages to themselves by their skill in the exchanges, they necessarily contribute to rule and control the courses of exchange in general, more and more in the favour of our country than otherwise they could be, if these practices are pursued by merchants in foreign countries, and neglected, through want of skill, by those in our own.

and,

and, the more the exchanges are, by this means, kept in our favour, the greater will the general balance of trade turn in the favour of the nation, or the less to its disadvantage, in the balance of trade with particular nations. For, as I have observed in my before-cited treatise, in the case of Sir Thomas Gresham, 'When the exchange is against a nation, the goods exported from that nation are sold for so much less, and goods imported from the other dearer, as the exchange is above the par; so that the exchange, being once against a nation, contributes to keep itself so. The exchange with Holland, being generally against England in time of peace as well as war, affects this kingdom of Great-Britain more, perhaps, than has been so thoroughly weighed and considered as could be desired: for, as Amsterdam is made the center of commercial correspondence between the several parts of Europe, the rate of exchange between us and Holland must proportionally affect that between us and other countries with which we have dealings; more especially with those we negotiate bills with always through the medium of Holland.'

* See the Merchant's Public Counting-house: Or, New Mercantile Institution, p. 61. Or the article MERCANTILE-COLLEGE in this Dictionary.

From what has been said in regard to the practical business of our British merchants, and our foreign money-negotiators in general, it is apparent, that it is always in the power of those useful subjects of these kingdoms not only to secure the advantages of the exchanges to themselves, but greatly to contribute to make the London course of exchange influence those of all Europe, to the general benefit of the nation, as Amsterdam has done for near half a century, to the unspeakable emolument of that state.

For more matter on this head, see the article EXCHANGES, and the capital cities of trade and exchange throughout Europe, under their respective provinces, principalities, duchies, counties, &c. according to the general disposition of this work.

ARBITRATOR. See ARBITER.

ARCHETYPE, the name given at the mint to the original weight, or standard, which is kept there, and by which all other weights ought to be examined and adjusted.

ARCHIPOU. See ALQUIFOU.

ARCHIPELAGO, signifies a cluster of islands. The ancients knew hardly any other archipelago but that of the Ægean Sea, which is part of the Mediterranean. But the voyages which the moderns have taken to the East-Indies round the Cape of Good Hope, and the discovery of America, have acquainted us with a great many more archipelago's, as those of St. Lazarus, of the Maldives, of the Philippines, of the Moluccoes, of the Mariannas, or Ladrones, of Mexico, and some others.

We speak in their proper places of the trade that is carried on in all the islands of the Archipelago's of Asia and America; but, as to the trade of the Archipelago of the Ægean Sea, which it very much concerns the European merchants to be acquainted with, it being, as it were, in their neighbourhood, we presume the reader will not be displeas'd to meet with a particular account of it in this place. We refer, therefore, the reader to the particular articles of the LADRONES, MOLUCCOES, PHILIPPINES, and other islands, for an account of their trade, and we shall confine ourselves here to the islands which compose the Archipelago of the Ægean Sea; but we shall speak of such only as are considerable enough to be visited by the ships of the European nations, for there are some which are inhabited by a few fishermen only, and others which serve but as a sanctuary to some calovers, or Greek monks, more wretched still than the fishermen.

For the reader's conveniency we shall set down here these islands, not according to their geographical situation, but in an alphabetical order; but we shall observe first, that all these islands lie between the 35th and 40th degrees of north latitude. Some of them are called Cyclades, because they form as it were a crown, or circle, round the isle of Delos; the others are called Sporades, because they are dispersed here and there, and lie without any order between Asia and the isle of Candia.

The islands of the Archipelago in the Ægean Sea, and their trade.

AMORGOS.

ANDROS.

ANTIPAROS.

CANDIA, a large island in the Mediterranean, situated at the entrance of the Archipelago. It was anciently known by the name of Creta, and is about 1600 miles distant from Marseilles, 600 from Constantinople, 400 from Damietta in Egypt, 200 from Cyprus, 100 from Milo, and 40 from Cerigo.

The trade which is carried on in this island is considerable, and most of the Christian nations who traffic in the ports of the Levant have consuls here. The towns in this island which have the greatest trade are, Canea, Retimo, Candia, and

Girapetra. The French consul resides at Canea, and yet there are not above 10 or 12 merchants of that nation settled there.

The country about this town, as well as the rest of the island, is covered with olive-trees, which in a manner never die, because it never freezes here. The oil made of the fruit is very good, and the chief article of the trade of the island. When there is a good crop of olives, they can make about 300,000 measures of oil. In the year 1699 the people of Provence bought 200,000 measures for their share only; and in 1700, after the crop was gathered in, oil was worth but from 36 to 40 parats per measure, or, at most, 44, reckoning the parat at the rate of 6 lards French money (which at that time amounted to about 5 farthings English) and the measure, at the rate of 8 ocos and $\frac{1}{2}$, the oco weighing 3 pounds and a $\frac{1}{2}$. It rose, indeed, afterwards to 60 and 65 parats, by the eagerness of the French traders, who out-bid each other.

This oil is proper for the soap-makers of Marseilles, especially when the oil of Provence happens to fail. The best in the island is that of Canea and of Retimo; that of Girapetra is black and muddy, because the inhabitants of this last place are used to stir the oil and the lees together with a stick, before they pour it out of the jars, in order to sell all together. There is also bought in Candia a great deal of wine and malmsey. The malmsey of Retimo is reckoned the best. The French keep a vice-consul in the last-mentioned town.

The other commodities of this island are gum adraganth, laudanum, wool, silk, honey, wax, cheese, cotton, and sesamum. One might also buy wheat there, which is excellent, particularly about the town of Candia; but the exportation of it is often prohibited.

CHIO, or SCIO. This island, the Turks, who are at present in possession of it, call Salzizadaki, or Sachedzade, that is to say, the isle of mastic, is one of the largest and best-peopled in the Archipelago.

Its commerce is very considerable, but yet much less so than might be reasonably expected from the great number of its inhabitants, and the several merchandizes which grow, or are manufactured there.

Wine, butter, silk, cotton, turpentine and mastic, from whence it took its new name, are the chief productions, which make the Europeans go thither, especially the English and French, who have consuls here, as being one of the most important ports of the Levant.

It is reckoned that there is above 100 crowns worth of spun silk bought here every year, besides a great many stuffs made in the island, and amongst others, damasks, satins, and tafsaties, or lustrings, which are carried to Cairo, as well as to all the other towns on the coasts of Barbary and Anatolia, and particularly to Constantinople.

The cotton is either in the wool, or spun; a great deal of it is also used in manufacturing fustians and dimities, which are reckoned pretty good, and designed for the same places as the silk-stuffs.

As for the mastic, wherein consists the chief trade of this island, it being hardly to be met with any-where else, the best of it is designed for the Grand Seigneur, or rather for the ladies of his seraglio; so that what the Europeans buy there can be nothing but the refuse, which the officer, sent thither by the Porte to watch the gathering of this precious gum, did not judge fine enough to be sent to Constantinople. We mention in another place the plant which produces the mastic, its use and its trade.

We shall add to this the account which Mr Tournefort gives us of this island, in the second volume of his voyage into the Levant, letter 2.

The wine of Chio is pleasant and stomachical. There are three sorts of it: the one has something of that tartness which afterwards turns into strength: the next is luscious, or sweet; and the third has something of both.

The grapes of which they make these three sorts of wine are cut in August. After they have let them dry 7 or 8 days, they press them, and then let them stand in tubs to work, the cellar being all the while close shut. In order to make the best wine, they mix with the black grapes a kind of white grapes, which are of the form of a peach-stone: but, in making nectar, which still goes under that name in Chio, they use another sort of grapes, somewhat styptic, which makes it difficult to swallow them when one eats them: but that styptic taste turns afterwards into sweetness, when mixed with common grapes.

They do not gather much above 200 muids, or half-hundreds, of oil at Chio, each muid weighing 400 ocos, at the rate of 2 pounds 2 ounces per oco.

The French export also honey and wax from this island: but the most considerable commodity of the country is silk, of which they make yearly 60,000 masses, which, at half a pound per mass, amounts to 30,000 pounds French weight (or to 32,700 pounds avoirdupois, 109 pounds in France making 109 pounds English weight). That silk is almost all used in the island, in the manufacturing of velvets, damasks, and other stuffs, designed for Asia, Egypt, and Barbary: they sometimes mix gold and silver with silk in these stuffs. Each pound of silk pays at the custom-house a duty of four tomines, that is to say, 20 sols French money. It is sold

sometimes for 35 tomin per pound; besides which the buyer is obliged to pay the duty.

The other commodities of this island are wool, cheese, figs, and mastic: these figs they rear by caprifigation.

The Turks and the French (I suppose it should be Franks, i. e. Europeans) pay 3 per cent. on all the merchandizes of the island; the Jews and Armenians pay 5 per cent.

METELIN. This is the celebrated Lesbos of the ancients. It produces good wheat, excellent oil, and the best figs in the Archipelago. It affords also a great deal of wine, which has lost nothing of its former reputation. Here grow, likewise, abundance of fir-trees, of which they make masts and boards, for which there is a large demand throughout all the Levant.

MILO. Before the king of France had forbidden his subjects to cruise against the Turks in those seas, the isle of Milo was the most common retreat of these honest corsairs, and, as it were, a continual fair, where they came and sold their prizes: and, as this made the isle abound with all sorts of commodities, it had almost banished all other trade from it.

But, at present, they have a pretty considerable commerce in wine, oil, salt, sulphur, allum, cotton, sesamum, coloquintida, and all sorts of pulse.

Salt is sold there for a trifle.

The sulphur of Milo is extremely fine, and has a greenish and shining cast. It is to be found in large pieces, by digging the ground, and in deep veins in the quarries, whence mill-stones are taken.

Cotton is very fine here, and sells well: one may buy it, however, for a sequin per 100 weight, when it is still in the pod, that is to say, wrapped up within the fruit; and for 10 or 11 florins, when it is picked, and without the pod.

There is also at Milo a kind of chalk, fit to be used instead of soap. It is as good as the Cimolean earth, that comes from Argentiere.

They have also here a prodigious sale of mill-stones, and furnish not only all the other islands of the Archipelago with them, but even Constantinople, the kingdom of Cyprus, and a great part of Egypt. The quarries are so plentiful, that they afford, one year with another, a revenue of above 50,000 livres to the Grand Seigneur.

This island furnishes almost all the ships that sail in the Mediterranean with pilots, none being better acquainted with that sea than they are.

MICONE, and, in the Franc language, or lingua Franca, **MICONTI.** Its harbour is very good, and its soil produces abundance of commodities proper for trade. The seamen of Micone are reckoned the best of all those of the Archipelago, and seem to vie with those of Milo; and, indeed, the island of Micone alone can furnish 500 mariners, and above 100 vessels, for the trade of those islands, and 40 or 50 large ketches for that of Turkey and the Morea.

The trade to Turkey consists in leather, particularly in Morocco and Cordovan leather, which they go and lade at Siagi, near Smyrna, and at Scalanova. The trade to Morea consists chiefly of wine: the people of Micone make, one year with another, from 25 to 30,000 barrels, each barrel weighing 50 ocos, that is to say, 150 pounds French weight. Every ketch can carry 7 or 800 barrels.

Besides the French consul, there are also in this island an English and a Dutch consul, though the two last-mentioned nations send few ships thither, but the Greeks who trade there, put themselves under their protection.

The French ships, designed for Smyrna and for Constantinople, always pass through the canal of Tine and Micone. Besides these vessels, which touch at Micone, there come often hither barques of Provence, that lade corn, silk, cotton, and other merchandises of the neighbouring islands.

NAXIA. Though there be hardly any harbour in this island, yet they have a pretty good trade. The chief commodities bought here are barley, wines, figs, cotton, silk, flax, cheese, salt, oxen, sheep, mules, emery and oil.

There is also laudanum to be met with here, but it is full of filth, goat's-hair and wool, the inhabitants not taking care to gather it with whips as they do in Candia, cutting only off the hair, or wool, of the animals which have rubbed themselves against the shrubs that produce it.

Olive-oil is very cheap in Naxia; salt is cheaper still.

Emery is found in several parts of the island by the husbandmen, whence it is carried to the sea-side to be embarked at St John Triangata. The English often take it in for ballast; and it costs them commonly but a crown the 20 quintals, each quintal weighing 140 pounds.

The marble of Naxia is very much valued. The French keep a consul in this island.

PAROS. This island was formerly very famous for its white marble, which the sculptors, for their business, preferred before all other sorts of marble; and some pretend that most of the ancient statues which have been preserved till this time were made of the marble of Paros.

The modern sculptors are not of the same opinion with the ancients; and the most skilful agree, that the marble of Italy is preferable to that of Greece, the latter being of too coarse a grain, and apt to split, or fly, when it is working;

whereas the former is soft, and seems to yield to the chisel.

It is thought that the quarry of marble in Provence, between Marseilles and Pehnes, is of the same grain with that Grecian marble.

The trade of Paros consists in wheat, barley, wines, sesamum, and cotton-cloth. It produced also formerly abundance of oil; but, during the war of Candia, the Venetian army burnt almost all the olive-trees in this island.

PATINO, or **PATHMOS.** This island is very small; but it is become very famous by being the dwelling-place of St John the Evangelist, who is commonly thought to have written his Revelation here.

This island produces hardly any thing proper for trade, the wheat, barley, and figs which grow there being hardly sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. But then they have ketches, and a great many other smaller vessels, which they use to fetch corn from the main land, and even from the coast of the Black Sea, wherewith to lade the French ships.

There is in this island a vice-consul from France.

POLICANDRO. This is a small, parched, stony island. Its inhabitants are very poor, and have but little trade, all the corn, wine, and oil they gather being for their own use.

Their only trade, which is any thing considerable, consists in cotton-cloth, fit for napkins, which is extremely cheap.

SAMOS. They drive in this island a pretty considerable trade. The custom-house duties, indeed, are farmed out but for 10,000 crowns; but then the aga who demands them gets as much more, which he does not account for.

The muscadine grapes are the finest and best fruit in the island; but the wine made with them is none of the most excellent, which is thought to be owing to the bad method of making it: that which is made for the use of the Europeans settled at Smyrna, is commonly pretty good, because they are more careful in making it, and mix no water with it, as most of the Greeks are used to do.

The Greeks who buy the wine in the island pay 4 or 5 per cent. duty on exportation according to the custom-house officer's fancy: the French pay but half of that duty. Most of the wine is carried to Chio, Rhodes, and Napoli de Romaniaa.

The oil of Samos is pretty good, but the island does not produce plenty of it, the best crops hardly amounting to 8 or 900 barrels. The Greeks pay 4 per cent. duty of exportation on this commodity, and the French but two.

They dry figs at Samos, for the use of the inhabitants only; they are very white, and three or four times bigger than those of Marseilles, but not so delicate. They make no use of caprifigation here, as they do in most of the other islands of the Archipelago.

This island can also afford yearly 400 quintals of pitch, which sells for a crown per quintal, and pays 4 per cent. duty of exportation.

Another commodity of this island is velami, called velamda by the modern Greeks (it is the shell of a sort of acorn) which is used to tan leather. They lade a great quantity of it for Venice and Ancona.

Lastly, they export from thence silk, honey, wax, scammony, wool, several sorts of bole, and emery.

The scammony of Samos is not very good; it is reddish, hard, and tough, and consequently not easily reduced into powder: it is also found to purge too violently. This drug is used in Anatolia, and not sent into Europe. It pays no duty.

Amongst the boles, that of the neighbourhood of Bavonda is reckoned the best; it is of a deep red; very fine, and very dry. It is a kind of natural saffron of Mars, or crocus Martis.

Oker is very common here; it becomes of a pretty fine yellow, when slightly exposed to the fire, and of a reddish-brown, when left longer exposed to it. This kind of earth is insipid, and gives naturally a fillmot colour.

There is to be found near Carlovassi another bole very black, and much finer; they use it to dye black with.

SANTORINI. This island is properly nothing but a large rock intirely of pumice-stone. The French consul resides at Scario, a small town built in the bottom of the harbour. The inhabitants are extremely laborious, and very fond of trade. The commodities which they afford their neighbours are barley, wine, cotton, and lemons.

The wine is of the colour of Rhenish, but very strong.

They prune the cotton-bushes there, as they do the vine.

These bushes or shrubs grow pretty much to the size and shape of our currant-bushes, and yet the cotton they produce is of the same kind with that which the botanists call herb-cotton, and which they distinguish from the shrub-cotton.

As for the calicoes, the finest are made by nuns, either of the Latin or Greek rite. Those that are quilted are chiefly valued, great quantities of which are exported to Candia, to Morea, and throughout the whole Archipelago.

SKIKINO. The trade of this island consists chiefly in wheat, which is reckoned the best in the Archipelago. The tartanes of Provence lade large quantities of it, and have almost engrossed

grossed this whole trade, since that of Cape Negro on the coast of Barbary has been discontinued. The Turks, indeed, are not very well pleased to see their corn carried away, and often reckon it amongst the commodities, of which the exportation is prohibited; but it is easy to corrupt their custom-house officers.

The other commodities of Sikino, are wine, some cotton, and figs; the latter are excellent here, when fresh; but it is otherwise, when they are dried, because they put them into an oven to preserve them from worms.

There is a consul of the French nation in Sikino.

SIPHANTO. This island is but six miles distant from Milo. The commodities exported from hence are oil, capers, silk, calicoes, figs, wax, honey, and sesamum.

There are two sorts of calicoes; that called escamite, which is plain; and the other dimitty, which is quilted; the latter is much the finest, and there is a large demand for it.

This island produces also plenty of cotton, but it is all used on the spot for the manufactory of these calicoes, and they are even obliged to import a great deal from the neighbouring islands.

The silk is pretty fine, but there is but little of it.

SKYROS. Its whole trade consists in wheat, barley, wine, and wax. The French lade here some barques with wheat and barley; the wine is carried to the neighbouring islands, and is sold at Skyros but for a crown per barrel. As for wax, they seldom gather above a hundred quintals per ann. here is also excellent cheese.

SYRA. The commodities it produces, which are proper for trade, are excellent cheese, but in small quantities, a great deal of barley and wine, figs, olives, and cotton.

THERMIA. This is one of the islands of the Archipelago, where the French keep a consul. The chief trade of the inhabitants consists in silk, which is reckoned full as good as that of Tinos, another island of the Archipelago.

The other commodities exported from Thermia, are wine, honey, wax, wool, and cotton, of which they make several sorts of linnens, and particularly a kind of very pretty yellow gauze, of which the women in this island make veils.

TINOS. This small island lies pretty near that of Andros.

The chief commerce of Tinos consists in silk.

This silk is the best prepared of all that is sold in the Archipelago, and, except that it is not proper for making stuffs, it may be used in all other sorts of works, as knit stockings and gloves, ribbons, and sewing silk.

The French buy up almost all the silk of this island: they must give security, and their sureties are obliged to pay the duty, if it be found that the silk was carried to any other place.

This island belongs to the Venetians, and the French have a consul there.

Tinos produces wine, figs, olives, wheat, and barley. But, except barley, of which they have a pretty good trade, the rest is hardly sufficient for the occasions of the inhabitants.

ZIA. Its commodities are wheat, barley, wine, figs, silk, and a great deal of velani, a sort of acorn.

The silk of Zia is pretty good; when the inhabitants would spin it, they commonly meet several together, and sit on the edge of their terraces, to let the spindle run down into the street, which they afterwards draw up again by winding the silk.

Pliny and some other authors assert, that the making of silk stuffs was invented in this island. But M. de Tournefort, in his Voyage into the Levant, pretends that it can be easily proved this invention is owing to the inhabitants of the isle of Cos.

They make at Zia cloaks or riding-coats of goat's hair, which are very good against the rain, and can hardly be wet through; the stuff of which they are made is very thin, and flabby, when it comes from the loom; but, after it has been wetted and filled on the sand and with sea-water, the threads become so close and tight, that it is, as it were, impenetrable to rain. That the threads may close uniformly, and that the stuffs may not shrink, they stretch them in the sun upon poles, with weights of stone at the bottom.

There are two sorts of figs at Zia, which are cultivated as in most of the other islands of the Archipelago, by giving them that kind of dressing which the ancients did, and the moderns do still, call caprifiration.

SALONICHI, anciently **THESSALONICA,** is a sea-port, situated in the cod of a gulph of the same name in the Archipelago. This port is pretty much frequented since the beginning of this century. There are a French and a Dutch consul here. There come higher a great many ships of all nations, particularly from Marseilles, Leghorn, Genoa, and even directly from Holland; but chiefly from the three former places, especially when corn is scarce or dear in France or Italy, provided the Grand Seignior does not prohibit the admission of those ships. However, there is a great deal of corn exported by stealth, not indeed from Salonichi, but from its neighbourhood, as Vollo, &c. It is paid for in Spanish piasters, in rose-piasters, in sequins, or any other coin that is current at

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Salonichi; and the merchants, to whom the ships are consigned, change those pieces for current money of the country, which are solette-piasters. These merchants send a clerk, or any other trusty person on board the vessel, to assist the captain or supercargo to get in his lading, at some of those places, of wheat or barley, according as he has occasion for either.

The other commodities exported from Salonichi, are tobacco, either common, or that sort which they call carada, of which ships or barques do frequently take their entire lading: cotton in the wool, more valued than that of Smyrna; yellow wax, a great quantity of which is brought thither from Turkish Walakhia; undressed sheep's wool, of several qualities. Salonicas, otherwise called abats, both broad and small: these are very coarse stuffs of white wool, proper to cloath peasants and soldiers; these they send sometimes into Piedmont, and great coats for seamen.

The commodities sent thither are indigo, cochineal, ginger, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, brazil wood, logwood, and Japan wood; sugars, lead, tin, tinned iron, double or single; English broad cloth, other cloth after the manner of England, narrow and broad; Dutch coloured cloths, sorted, French paper, almonds, verdigrease, and sometimes coffee from the American islands.

The Sevillane piaster is worth at Salonichi 212 aspers, and the Rouspi sequin 412.

The quilot makes about half a sac of Leghorn, the ocos three pounds and a half of the same town, and the pic about one Dutch ell.

N. B. It may be observed here, that the French are so careful of their trade, as to keep consuls even at several of these small islands, where no other power does.

ARCHITECT, he who draws plans and designs of edifices, directs the works, and commands the masons, carpenters, tilers, and other workmen, who work under him.

Though there is a great difference between an architect, and a master-builder, the one professing a liberal art, and the other exercising a trade; yet in France they are often taken the one for the other, because they can both be equally admitted among the experienced and sworn architects of the king, created by the edicts of May and December 1690, and by the declaration of August 1691.

These architect officers are of two sorts. The one are stiled sworn expert citizens or burghers, and the other sworn expert undertakers. There are thirty of each.

The functions, attributed to them by the above-mentioned edicts and declaration, are, that they alone, and no others, shall, within the city, provostships, and viscounty of Paris, and in all other towns and places within the kingdom of France, make all visitations, evaluations, and estimates, both amicably, and by order of a court of justice, in all matters relating to partitions, adjudications of buildings, either by auction or by law, houses or other buildings, standing out of the proper row, imminent danger of buildings coming down; and to works of masonry, carpenters, joiners, tilers, smiths, sculpture, gilding, painting, surveying, and measuring of land, and generally all things in which skill and experience are required.

ARCHITECTURE, the art of erecting buildings of every kind, consistent with the principles of geometry.

The plan or projection of an edifice is commonly laid down on three several draughts.

The first is a plan, which exhibits the extent, division, and distribution of the ground into the various apartments and other conveniences proposed.

The second represents the stories, their heights, and the external beauties and appearances of the whole building: this is usually termed, by surveyors, the design or elevation.

The third is commonly distinguished by the section, and shews the internal parts of the fabric.

From these three distinct plans, the surveyor forms a computation of the charges of the whole erection, and also of the time, wherein the same may be completed.

Our work being intended for the practical, rather than the mere speculative life, it is not consistent with the tenour of our design to enter deeply into the theories of arts, there being variety of performances of this kind already.

However, where we cannot so satisfactorily communicate our intention, we hope to be excused from touching upon the rational principles, on which some arts are founded, and referring only to the best authors, who have excelled in their peculiar province. This method of conducting our work, we presume, may have its uses, more especially with novists, who would be gladly informed of the best authors, who have expressly written upon any particular branch of art or science, that they might neither lose their time in reading what may be useless and give them a wrong turn, nor spend their money to no purpose.

In architectural compositions, the column, being the principal figure, should be perfect in its proportions, as they are taught by the ancients, who founded the art on natural and geometrical principles. Accordingly they instruct us, that the height of the column should be measured by its diameter

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without

without any fraction or remainder, according to the different proportions of each order.

Of these orders there are five, none exceeding ten diameters in height, nor less than seven: those of eight and ten are esteemed perfect, the rest are inferior.

Their names and proportions are as follow, including base and capital:

The Tuscan is in height	7 diameters.
The Doric — — —	8 diameters.
The Ionic — — —	9 diameters.
The Corinthian — — —	10 diameters.
The Roman, or Composite	10 diameters.

The rules for the proportion of columns being settled, the entablatures must bear a proportion to them in each order. For this Palladio has given a rule, which cannot undergo any great change, without altering the unalterable proportion of columns. He makes the entablatures of the Tuscan and Doric to be to their columns as one to four, and the Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite, as one to five. The proportion of the entablature in each order is explained as followeth:

One diameter and $\frac{1}{4}$, is the height of the entablature of the Tuscan order; which is $\frac{1}{2}$ of seven diameters. Two diameters form the height of the entablature of the Doric; that being $\frac{1}{2}$ of eight diameters. One diameter and $\frac{2}{3}$ is the height of the entablature of the Ionic; which is $\frac{1}{3}$ of nine diameters. Two diameters make the height of the entablature of the Corinthian order; that being $\frac{1}{2}$ of ten diameters. The entablature of the Composite has the same proportion with that of the Corinthian.

The entablature being a part proportionable to its column, and the pedestal an addition to both, it should be considered as a part of the column and entablature taken together; therefore, the height of the column and entablature being divided into four equal parts, one of them shall be the height of the pedestal. This rule is to be observed through all the five orders, by which the pedestal will have an agreeable effect with the whole and all its parts.

The pedestal may be made lower when necessity requires, but not otherwise.

Those who would be practically informed in the principles of this art, may consult the works of the ingenious Mr James Gibbs, in his rules for drawing the several parts of architecture, in a more exact manner than has been heretofore practised, by which all fractions, in dividing the principal members and their parts, are avoided.

Therein they will find the general proportions of the several orders geometrically delineated. Also the several pedestals, entablatures, cornices, and architraves, &c.

In that useful work, the learned author has explained the arcades and intercolumnations of each order, and laid down a familiar rule for placing orders above orders.—Likewise rules for drawing doors, gates, windows, and chimney-pieces of different kinds, cornices and their profiles, architraves, bases, imposts, surbases, frames for pannels or pictures in rooms, and other sorts of mouldings, and the proportions of ballusters; as also scrolls, frets, or guilochis, and panneling for cielings, both flat and circular.

In dividing and adjusting his orders, Palladio has, doubtless, excelled the rest who have wrote upon this subject; and therefore Mr Gibbs has followed that celebrated architect. Palladio has divided the diameter of his column, which he calls his module, into sixty minutes, and subdivided them into seconds, thirds, and fourths.

This is supposed to be the method of the ancients in composing their designs; but it is very difficult to tyroes, and such who are but meanly skilled in arithmetic: and certainly the parts, consisting of so many fractions, may occasion mistakes in those who copy the orders of Palladio; besides the difficulty of dividing these small parts with compasses, for practical business. But, according to Mr Gibbs's method of dividing the orders mechanically into equal parts, fractions are entirely avoided; which will be found to be so beneficial to workmen in drawing any part at large, that, when they are once accustomed to it, they will never follow any other: which is the reason for our recommendation of the works of this modern architect.

The rules of architecture require, That, in a fabric judiciously and elegantly erected, there should be solidity, convenience, and beauty; to which, according to the taste of some of our most refined masters, are added, order, disposition, proportion, decorum, and oeconomy. And these eight are esteemed, by the best judges, to constitute the necessary parts of architecture.

Solidity, implies the choice of a good foundation, and good materials to work with. Convenience, consists in so disposing the various parts of a structure, that they may not crowd and embarrass each other, or appear disagreeable to the inspector. Beauty, is that engaging form and pleasing appearance, which captivate at one glance, as it were, the sight of the spectator.

Order, gives each part of the building a proportionate extent, adapted to the magnitude of the whole.

Disposition, is the due ranging and agreeable union of all the parts, in order to render the whole agreeable at all times.

Proportion, is the relation that the whole work has to its constituent parts, and which each part hath to the complex idea of the whole: for, among buildings that are perfect of their kind, from any particular part, we may make a good judgment of the goodness of the whole: for example, the diameter of a pillar, or the length of a triglyph, gives us a right idea of the whole with which they have connexion. To express the relation that many things have to one another, as to their magnitude, and the variety of their parts, Vitruvius, the great architect, indifferently uses the words proportion, eurythmy, and symmetry; the two last whereof are pretty synonymous with the first.

Decorum, or decency, consists in making the whole aspect of the fabric so correct, that nothing shall appear but what is founded upon the principles of geometry, and delicacy of judgment. These have regard to design, custom, and nature. Design induces to chuse other dispositions for a church than a palace. The regard we pay to custom, inclines us to decorate without the entrance of such houses, which are sumptuous and magnificent within. The regard we have to the nature of places, from an inherent taste, perhaps, natural to mankind, makes us pitch upon different prospects for different parts of an edifice; thus we chuse to expose bed-chambers and libraries to the morning sun; winter apartments to the west, and closets of paintings to the north, they requiring a pretty equal light.

Oeconomy, instructs the architect, to have regard to the expense to be made of his design, the quality of the materials, near the places where he builds, and take his whole measures judiciously, for the order and disposition.

Architecture is commonly divided into civil, or military, and naval, or marine.

Civil ARCHITECTURE, is the art of designing edifices of every kind, for the uses of civil life in every capacity, as habitations for dwelling, churches, meetings, synagogues, colleges, halls, palaces, &c.

Military ARCHITECTURE, is properly the art of fortification, or that of raising of forts and castles, to screen and protect from the hostilities or invasion of enemies; and depends, as the other does, upon the principles of geometry.

The design hereof is to shew, how a place may be fortified with ramparts, parapets, moats, and other bulwarks and defensible contrivances, with an intent that a small number of men, within such a place, may be capable to defend themselves against the assaults of a more numerous army.

This part of architecture is either regular or irregular, and either of a durable or of a temporary nature.

The regular, is that which is built on a regular polygon, the sides and angles being equal, and equi-distant from each other.

The irregular, is that where the sides and angles are not all uniform, nor equi-distant, nor equal to each other.

The durable, are those works which are raised for continuance.

The temporary, is that which is erected occasionally on particular emergencies: such are those works, which are raised for the seizing or maintaining of a port or passage, circumvallations, contravallations, redoubts, batteries, trenches, &c.

Those who have excelled in the military architecture, are Coehorn, Pagan, Vauban, Scheiter, Blondel, from whom all who have wrote since, have chiefly derived what they have communicated to the world.

Though this part of architecture, as well as the others, should by all means be duly cultivated in these kingdoms; yet the wisest men have allowed, that the safety and defence of Great-Britain principally depends upon her

Marine, or Naval ARCHITECTURE, or the art of ship-building, which is not only founded upon the due application of geometrical principles with great judgment and delicacy, but on those of hydrostatics, as the honourable Mr Boyle observes. So that to be thoroughly skilled in this useful art requires a person to be well informed in all the curious problems, theorems, and paradoxes, with which that great man, and others, have favoured the world upon that subject.

In order to complete the art of ship-building, it has been observed by some ingenious practical artists in this branch, that hydrostatical experiments, in regard thereunto, should be made upon salt-water, and not fresh, as the chief of them have been.

It has been said by others also, that the shipwright should be as good a mariner, as marine architect, and know as well how to sail, as build a ship: the reason given for this is, that, in practical navigation, the ingenious shipwright, skilled therein, will remark variety of particulars, which will guide him in his architecture, which the mere shipwright can form no idea of.

It is not for want of genius in shipwrights, that the practical part of ship-building is not carried to a greater perfection: but for want, I am afraid, of their not being so regularly bred in these kingdoms, as could be desired; considering that

our whole commerce and navigation so greatly depends upon that art: for the qualifications, requisite to render a person a complete master of this art, are really so many, as well in regard to the theoretic as practical part, that it is very rare, indeed, that such qualifications are concentrated in one man. It has been observed therefore by some wise and great men, that our successes by sea have been more owing to the strength of natural genius in our mere practical shipwrights, or rather to chance, than to any competent knowledge in those parts of the mathematics and philosophy, which are indispensably necessary to excel in that art.

From the year 1617 to 1656, ships of three decks were from 38 to 40 feet broad; the *St Michael* by Sir John Tippets, but 41 feet 8 inches; the *London* by Jonas Shiff but 44 feet, and carried 100 guns: since that, several ships, of 48 feet broad, have been obliged to be girdled.

The *Monk* by Sir John Tippets, the *Rupert* by Sir Anthony Deane, the *Mary* by Mr Pett, the *Dreadnought* by Sir Henry Johnson, all third rate men of war, belonging to the royal navy of England, and but 36 feet 6 inches broad; the *Cambridge* by Mr Shiff but 38 feet, and the *Royal Oak* no more than 40, and each of them carrying 70 guns; and, since them, two deck ships of 42 feet broad have miscarried.

The *Royal Catharine* was contrived by the Royal Society, and yet was girdled; the double-keeled experiment was also made by that society.

Since miscarriages in our ship building are often attended with very injurious, and may be with very fatal consequences to the nation, this art cannot be too judiciously cultivated, nor too zealously promoted.

It has been observed by some, that a ship ought to be considered three principal ways. (1.) By trying her body below the deepest draught of water, whether the shape be truly circular or not, according to the course of the water, and not by horizontal parallels, which will enable us to form a true judgment, whether she will sail swift, or not. (2.) By observing the shape or frame of the ribs, which will inform us, whether she's well contrived to bear the sail you design; which is to know, according to the phrase of the shipwright, whether she be stiff, or tender-sided. (3.) By considering the due connexion of such a machine. Which three observations being skillfully made, it is said, by some, will form the hull of any ship perfect and complete.

Others have been of opinion, that the resistance in the water is according to that cross section, which is made by the mid-ship, or the largest part of the ship, only considering the angle of incidence; and that every ship principally resists the medium at her broadest part; also that the mass of water which resists a ship, is not resisted by her until it is passed by her biggest part; and that, if two ships were formed ever so various, the one ever so acute, and the other as obtuse as possible, yet, if their cubic inches under the surface of the water, and the power that drove them was equal, the trim indifferently considered, their velocities would be equal.

For a more minute and satisfactory account of this art, we refer the reader to Sutherland's *Ship-builders Assistant*, and to Britain's *Glory*, or *Ship-building unveiled*, by the same ingenious artist.

R E M A R K S.

In regard to civil architecture, it is certain, that those nations which have no stately and magnificent buildings in general, are always poor and uncivilized. As land structures and edifices of every kind give employment to prodigious numbers of people, whatever has a tendency to improve in the art of building, should be duly encouraged by those whose fortunes and distinction will admit of it; and that not only for the splendor and magnificence of the state, but for the promotion of useful arts, as well as the benefit of their landed estates: for this art gives birth to the immense consumption of timber, bricks, stone, and mortar, iron-work, &c. all which tend to the private advantage of the landed interest; as does likewise the well furnishing of those sumptuous edifices, when they are erected; which also gives daily bread to an infinite number of other mechanics and artificers. These mechanic arts give strength, wealth, and grandeur to a nation, and gradually train up and support a constant race of practical artists and manufacturers, who thereby become the great instruments of bringing treasures into the state, by the vent of our native commodities to foreign nations.

Nor is it politic for the great and opulent to contemn mechanics in general, as too many, perhaps, are wont to do. It is said, that, when the great Heraclitus's scholars found him in a mechanic's shop, into which they were ashamed to enter, he told them that the gods were as conversant in such places as in others; intimating, that a divine power and wisdom might be discerned in such common arts, although they mistakenly overlooked and despised them.

We know how the late Czar Peter esteemed and cared for artificers and mechanics of every rank and degree, and behold the extraordinary effects of such policy in that wise prince; who, by those measures, has converted a generation of savages into men.

There are some who are too great encouragers of buildings, they ruining themselves, as well as the workmen they employ, by gratifying that itch beyond the limits of their fortunes. In consequence of this boundless profusion, we too frequently see, before the expiration of half a century, very stately and magnificent seats, which have cost immense sums, run to decay for want of being inhabited, or, according to a modern custom, levelled to the ground for sale by piece-meal: thus structures that have cost some hundred thousand pounds sterling, have not produced one twentieth part of the prime cost to executors. So that with the money sunk in the erection of those superb edifices, and the expence which attends the support of them with splendor equal to their stateliness, some great families have been reduced to great indignity. This is a melancholy consideration to the proprietor, though this practice gives employment to workmen, to whom it sometimes has proved ruinous, as well as to the families of such who have had an ungovernable taste for building.

The French have an academy for the due cultivation of architecture, established by Monf. Colbert.

And, while other nations are assiduous in the improvement of the art of fortification, it may not be for the interest of England wholly to neglect it, as we have experienced upon some late occasions.

And it will be thought needless, by every true friend to the interest of the trade and navigation of Great-Britain, to urge a word in favour of the study and improvement of an art, upon which our all seems to depend, both as a free and a trading people: I mean that of marine architecture, or the admirable art of SHIP-BUILDING, more of which see under that article.

ARCTIC, in astronomy, a name given to the north pole.

ARCTIC circle, (in astronomy) is a lesser circle of the sphere drawn on the globe, parallel to the equator, and at 23 deg. 30 min. distant from the north pole of the world, from whence it takes its name. This, and its opposite the Antarctic, are called the two polar circles. They may be conceived to be described by the motion of the poles of the ecliptic round the poles of the equator, or the world.

AREB, a money of account used in the dominions of the Grand Mogul, particularly at Amadabat. Four arebs make a crow. A crow is worth a hundred lacs, and a lac 100,000 rupees.

ARECA, or ARECK, a famous fruit of the East-Indies, wherein they drive an incredible trade, and make a prodigious consumption thereof, there being scarce any person, even from the richest to the poorest, who does not make use of it.

The tree which bears the areck is tall, straight, thin, and round. It is of the palm kind, and has no branches: but its leaves are charming to the sight: they form a round tuft at the top of the trunk, which is as straight as an arrow. It grows to the height of 25, or 35 feet, and is a great ornament in gardens. The shell which contains the fruit is smooth without, but rough and hairy within, in which it pretty much resembles the shell of the cocoa-nut. Its size is equal to that of a pretty large walnut. Its kernel is as big as a nutmeg, to which it bears a great resemblance without, and has also the same whitish veins within, when cut in two.

In the center of the fruit, when it is soft, is contained a greyish and almost liquid substance, which grows hard in proportion as it ripens. The fruit, when ripe, is astringent, but not unpalatable, and the shell is yellowish.

The chief use that is made of areck is to chew it with the leaves of betle, mixing with it a chalk in a red paste, made of sea-shells*. In order to chew it they cut the areck into four quarters, and take one quarter of it, which they wrap up in a leaf of betle, over which they lay a little of that chalk: afterwards they tie it, by twisting it round. This bit prepared for chewing, or mastication, is called pinang, which is a Malayan word, used all over the East-Indies. The pinang provokes spitting very much, whether it be made with dried or fresh areck: the spittle is red, which colour the areck gives it. This mastication cools the mouth, and fastens the teeth and gums. When they have done chewing the pinang, they spit out the gross substance that remains in the mouth. They are under a mistake who imagine that fresh areck melts intirely in the mouth. Nor is it less a mistake to think that the teeth always continue of a red hue. As soon as they have done chewing the pinang, they wash their mouth with fresh water, and then their teeth are white again. The Europeans who live at Batavia, at Malacca, and in the Sunda and Molucca islands, use pinang as much as the Indians do; and, by washing their teeth, they preserve them white.

* Cornelius le Bruyn asserts that they rub the leaves of betle with a red drug of Siam, or with white chalk.

Some pretend that areck strengthens the stomach, when the juice of it is swallowed, as most of the Indians do. Another property, ascribed to it, is its curing, or carrying off, all that might be unwholesome or corrupt in the gums.

The

The Siamefe call areck plou in their language. The best areck of the Indies comes from the island of Ceylon. The Dutch East-India company send a great deal of it in their ships into the kingdom of Bengal. There grows in Malabar a fort of red areck, which is very proper for dyeing in that colour. The same company send some of it from time to time to Surat and Amadabat, for the use of the dyers in the dominions of the Grand Mogul. Under the species of areck are comprehended six different forts, two of which are the best for maffication.

ARGYLESHERE, in Scotland, has the Irish Sea, and the frith of Clyde on the south, Perthshire on the east, Lochabar on the north-east, and several isles on the north-west.

'Tis mountainous, and the inhabitants live mostly by hunting and fishing; for its seven great loughs, with other lesser ones, abound with all sorts of fish. The coast is full of high rocks, and black mountains, covered with heath, which feed great numbers of black cattle, deer, and wild beasts. Their cattle generally run wild, but are excellent meat, and their fat boiled continues some days like oil.

1. CANTYRE, or KINTIRE, or the LAND'S-HEAD, the most southern division of this shire, is a peninsula, according to Pont's map, 37 miles from north to south, and 7 in breadth. 'Tis a very fruitful, populous tract, inhabited both by lowlanders and highlanders, though for most part by the former, brought hither by the Argyle family, who have taken more than ordinary care to civilize their highlands.

2. KNAPDALE is divided on the east from Cowol, by Lochfyn; is bounded with Cantyre on the south, Lornè on the north, Braidalbin on the north-east, and the western islands on the west. This part is full of lakes, and, in general, is fitter for pasture than corn; but that part of it toward Lochew is fruitful both in corn and pasture.

3. LORNE, is a plain country, the pleafantest and fruitfulest part of Argyleshire, especially in barley.

ARGYLE PROPER has a great herring-fishery.

There is a river called Aw, which falls into the west sea, overagaint the isle of Mull, and abounds with salmon.

For more matter relating to this shire, see SCOTLAND.

ARISH, a Persian long measure, containing 3197 English feet.

ARITHMETIC, the art of computation by numbers.

We shall not trouble our reader with a prolix account of its origin and progress, but endeavour to give him the fundamental principles of the whole art, both in theory and practice, in few words, and a familiar manner.

The principal rules of arithmetic are addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

Before any progress is attempted herein, the reader should become ready and expert in these several operations; which can only be obtained by the repeated practice and exercise of these rules.

Those who have been neglected in their youth in this highly necessary and useful part of education, or may have forgot what they have once learnt, which is easy to do for want of a little continued practice, need only spend an hour, or half an hour, a day, for three weeks, or a month, in the reiterated practice of the fundamental rules; and they will soon, by any good book of arithmetic, grow expert in the application of these rules to the reduction of things, either ascending or descending: that is to say, either to reduce pounds into pence by multiplication, or pence into pounds by division; and so of weights and measures, or the like.

From hence they may with great facility advance to the rule of proportion, or that which is commonly distinguished by the direct rule of three:

Which is no more than to discover, that, as 4 is to 8, how is 8 to a fourth number, or what proportion will 8 bear to such unknown number.

Now 'tis obvious at first glance of the eye, that 4 is the half of 8; and, therefore, 8 will be the half of the number required, which is 16.

The common rule given for this operation is to x the second and third terms together, and ÷ the product thereof by the first:

$$\text{As } 4 : 8 :: 8 \text{ to } 8 \times 8 = \frac{64}{4} = 16 :$$

That is to say, to read the same in words at length (which we would use our readers to avoid for brevity's sake); as 4 is to 8, so is 8 to 8, multiplied by 8, and that product divided by 4, the first number.

The reason and demonstration of this common rule depend on this proposition; that, if 4 numbers are geometrically proportional, the rectangle, or product made of the means, will be equal to that of the two extremes, according to the elements of Euclid, lib. vi. prop. 16. from whence it will be easy to deduce the reason of the rule given. For grant that 4 is in proportion to 8 as 8 is to a number unknown, for which substitute x, then the proposition will stand thus:

$$4 : 8 :: 8 : x ;$$

That is, to be read in plain words, as 4 is to 8, so is 8 to the unknown number: therefore, from the foregoing proposition of Euclid, the product of the two extremes is equal to the product of the means. Or,

$$4 \times x = 8 \times 8 ;$$

That is, the number 4, one extreme of the proportionals, multiplied by x, the other extreme, is equal to the product of 8, one mean, multiplied by 8, the other. Or,

$$\begin{aligned} 4x &= 64 \\ \therefore x &= \frac{64}{4} = 16 \end{aligned}$$

If then the product of the first number multiplied by the fourth number, or that which is proposed to be found, be equal to the product of the second and third, it is very obvious that the product of the second and third, divided by the first, must necessarily give the fourth, or that which is proposed to be found; because it is axiomatically obvious that the produce of the quotient, multiplied by the divisor, must give the dividend, the quotient shewing how often the divisor is contained in the dividend.

Or, the demonstration of this rule may be deduced from the following self-evident truth, viz.

That the fourth number, or that proposed to be found, containeth the third so often as the second does the first.

$$\therefore \frac{8}{4} = \frac{x}{8}, \text{ that is, } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 8 \text{ is equal to one eighth of } x, \text{ or}$$

$\frac{1}{2}$ of 16, which is 8.

From this clear and simple demonstration, it is further easy to conceive the reason why, according to another part of the common rule, the first and third numbers should be of the same denomination; and consequently, if they are not so, that they should be so reduced till they are.

Of the single rule of indirect proportion.

From what has been said, 'tis apparent by the nature of direct proportion, that, as the fourth number required must always turn out greater than the third, as the second is greater than the first; so, on the contrary, in this rule of indirect proportion, the greater the third number is, the less is the fourth; and, the less the third is, the greater is the fourth; for which reason it is very properly distinguished by the name of indirect, or reverse proportion.

And, whereas in direct proportion the product of the first and fourth, or the extremes, is equal to that of the second and third, or of that of the means; in this indirect, or reverse, rule of proportion, the product of the third and fourth is equal to that of the first and second numbers.

The stating questions in this proportion is the same with direct; but, to find the answer required, the rule is different. Thus:

Multiply the first and second numbers together, and divide the product by the third, and the quote is your answer.

A familiar rule to judge whether a question which occurs is to be answered either by the direct, or indirect, rule of proportion.

State naturally your numbers, according to the direct rule; then consider, from the plain nature of the question, whether the third number requires more or less than the second number: if more, the lesser extreme must be your divisor; but, if less, the greater extreme must be the divisor.—And so often as this lesser and the great extreme happen to be the third number, or that next the right hand, so often is the proportion indirect: but, when they are the first number, the proportion is direct.

A short example will make this matter plain, with little attention.

If a board be 9 inches broad, how much in length will make a foot square?

Say, if 12 inches broad require 12 inches in length to make a foot square, what length will 9 inches broad require to make a foot square?

Certain it is to every capacity that it will require more length, because there is less breadth.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, as } & \text{in. br. long. in. br.} \\ & 12 : 12 : 9 \\ & \frac{12}{9)144} \\ & \frac{126}{18} \\ & \text{16 inches in length.} \end{aligned}$$

From the definition of this rule before given, the product of the first and second numbers is equal to that of the third and fourth: from whence the demonstration of the reason of the rule will appear. For

$$12 : 12 : 9 : x$$

Therefore, according to the definition,

$$12 \times 12 = 9 \times x, \text{ or} \\ 144 = 9x$$

that is, the rectangle of the two first numbers, 12 by 12, is equal to that of x by 9.

If then $144 = 9x$, $x = \frac{144}{9} = 16$: that is, if 144 is equal to $9x$, it follows that x is equal to one ninth part of $144 = 16$. According to the same rules, and the same simple demonstrations, the reason of the double rule of proportion may be explained, so as to be intelligible to any understanding. And these rules are the basis of all vulgar arithmetic in whole numbers; for all the others are natural derivations from them, they all depending on the application of the plain principles of proportion.

I shall now, with the like brevity, shew the reason and foundation of fractions, both vulgar and decimal. A fraction is one, or more, parts of an integer, according as the same is divided.

Every fraction consists of two parts, a numerator and denominator; the latter shews into how many parts the integer is divided, the former how many of those parts are signified by the fraction:

Thus $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{9}{10}, \frac{5}{16}, \frac{11}{12}, \frac{21}{37}$, &c.

The number above the line is the numerator, that below the denominator.

Fractions are distinguished by arithmeticians into

1. Proper; which is, when the numerator is less than the denominator, and expresses less than an integer, as the examples before given.

2. Improper; which is when the numerator is greater than the denominator, as $\frac{11}{5}, \frac{21}{9}, \frac{16}{3}, \frac{176}{12}$, &c.

3. Simple or compound.—Simple is when the fraction is immediately that of an integer.

4. A compound fraction, is a fraction of a fraction, as $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$ of a pound sterling, of an hundred weight, or the like:

or $\frac{1}{7}$ of $\frac{1}{9}$ of $\frac{1}{12}$ of $\frac{5}{21}$, &c.

As the addition, subtraction, and the other rules of fractions, cannot be understood without a knowledge of their reduction, it is necessary that should precede them.

Reduction of vulgar fractions.

1. When a mixt number, or that compounded of integers, and a fraction annexed thereto: to reduce the same to an improper fraction, the

Rule is, multiply the integers by the denominator of such annexed fraction, and take in, or conjoin therewith, its numerator, and the product is a numerator to the denominator of such fraction.

Example. Reduce $185 \frac{7}{8}$ into an improper fraction.

$$\frac{1487}{8} \text{ is the answer; for, if you}$$

divide the numerator 1487 by 8, the product will be $185 \frac{7}{8}$; the one being fractionally expressed, the other not.

Consequently, when it is necessary that an improper fraction should be reduced to a whole, or mixt number, the rule is, divide the numerator by the denominator, and the quote gives the whole number: if any thing remains, that is a numerator to the divisor, as is plain from the preceding example.

When fractions differ in their denominators, in order to be added or subtracted, &c. they must first be reduced to the like denominator, and the work is easy.

The rule for this is, multiply the numerator of every fraction into the denominators of all the rest, and the product is a new numerator to such fraction; and, by multiplying all the denominators of such fractions together, the product gives you a new denominator, common to them all.

Example. Reduce the $\frac{5}{8}$ and the $\frac{2}{3}$ of a pound sterling, or of any thing else, into two fractions, whose denominators shall be one and the same.

$5 \times 3 = 15$, for a new numerator to the fraction $\frac{5}{8}$, and $8 \times 3 = 24$, for a new denominator to the same fraction: so that $\frac{15}{24}$ of a pound, &c. $= \frac{5}{8}$. And, with regard to the

$\frac{2}{3} \times$ the 2 by $8 = 16$, for a new numerator, and the 8×3

$= 24$, for a new denominator: so that $\frac{16}{24} = \frac{2}{3}$.

The reason of this rule.

The design of this rule being to make the denominators the same, and the numerators proportioned thereunto, if both the numerator and denominator are multiplied by one and the same number, the fraction resulting therefrom will be exactly equal to that so multiplied, because the same proportion subsists between the numerator and denominator as did before.

If you would express fractionally $\frac{1}{2}$ by any number of fractions equal to it, it is self-evident, that, if you \times the 1 by 2, and the 2 by the same, $\frac{2}{4}$ of any thing, will be equal to the $\frac{1}{2}$ of that thing, because 2 bears the same proportion to 4 as 1 to 2.

In like manner if you \times the same by 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c. $\frac{3}{6}, \frac{4}{8}, \frac{5}{10}, \frac{7}{14}, \frac{8}{16}, \frac{9}{18}$, are all equal to one $\frac{1}{2}$, because the numerators of each of these fractions bear the same proportion to their respective denominators as 1 to 2.

Now the rule before given, to reduce any number of fractions of different denominations into one and the same, is founded upon the same plain axiom, or self-evident truth. For, By multiplying all the denominators together, it is clear that you multiply them all by one and the same number; and, by multiplying the numerator of each fraction by all the other denominators, excepting its own, it is clear that you multiply every distinct fraction by one and the same number; and consequently, the fractions resulting must be equal to those so multiplied.

From the same principles, also, it is equally easy to conceive the reason for reducing of fractions into their lowest terms wherein they can be expressed. For,

If you divide both the numerator and denominator by one and the same number, without any remainder, the fraction resulting from such division will be equal to the fraction so divided; because the numerator and denominator of the resulting fraction are in the same proportion to each other as those divided.

Example. Reduce the above-mentioned fractions of $\frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{6},$

$\frac{4}{8}, \frac{5}{10}, \frac{7}{14}, \frac{8}{16}, \frac{9}{18}$, into their lowest terms.

'Tis plain, at first sight, $\frac{2}{4}$ will divide by 2, and produce $\frac{1}{2}$, which cannot be expressed in lower terms.

In like manner the $\frac{3}{6}$ will divide by 3, and produce $\frac{1}{2}$, and so the rest by 4, 5, 6, 7, &c.

From hence you will naturally observe, that, let your fraction be ever so large, if you can find any numbers that will divide both the numerator and denominator of them, without a remainder, you may oftentimes carry on such division till you express very large fractions by two figures.

Example. Reduce $\frac{7695}{15390}$ into its lowest terms.

To do this expertly, you need never consider any divisor above 12, because that you may easily carry in your head: Therefore place your fraction thus:

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} 5 & 3 & 3 & 9 & 19 & \\ \hline \frac{7695}{15390} & \frac{1539}{3078} & \frac{513}{1026} & \frac{171}{342} & \frac{19}{38} & \frac{1}{2} \end{array}$$

1. I observe that both numerator and denominator will divide by 5, the resulting fraction by 3, 3, or by 9, and 9, and afterwards observing that the numerator is exactly the half of the denominator, they will both divide by 19, and produce one half, which is the lowest terms to which it can be reduced.

And, from what has been said before, you will easily discover that all these fractions are equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, because their respective numerators bear one and the same proportion to their denominators.

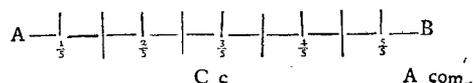
To reduce compound fractions to their simples.

The rule. Multiply the numerators together for a numerator, and the denominators for a denominator.

Example. Reduce $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{2}{5}$ into a simple fraction.

The answer is $\frac{2}{10}$, or, reduced to its lowest terms, $\frac{1}{5}$.

The reason of the rule.



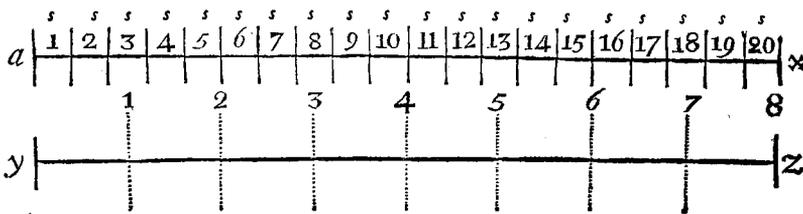
A compound fraction is nothing but the subdivision of the parts of an integer. Let the line A B, as above, be supposed the integer, and divided into 5 equal parts, which represents the denominator of the fractions towards the right-hand in the expressing thereof; each of these 5 parts being again divided into two parts, according to the denominator of the fraction towards the left-hand; each of which parts being $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$ the whole line, or integer, becomes divided into 10 of these parts; which is the reason why the denominators are multiplied together, as 2 and 5, in order to reduce the fraction of a fraction into the fraction of an integer, or a compound to a simple, which is the same thing. And the reason of multiplying the numerators together is because that shews the proportional number of those parts expressed by the denominator, and signified by the compound fraction. So that if an integer be divided into any number of parts, and those subdivided again and again, the same general rule will hold good.

Example. Reduce $\frac{1}{9}$ of $\frac{7}{8}$ of $\frac{11}{12}$ into a simple fraction.

$1 \times 7 \times 11 = 77$, and $9 \times 8 \times 12 = 864$, answer $\frac{77}{864}$.

How to find the value of fractions, whether of coin, weight, or measure.

Rule. Multiply the numerator of the fraction by such a number of the units of the next inferior denomination, which is equal to an unit of the denomination, whereof the fraction is



Addition of vulgar fractions.

Case 1. When simple fractions are to be added to simple fractions.

Rule. If such fractions are not of the same denomination, you must reduce them to the same, according to what has been before shewn, and add the numerators together for the sum total to the common denominator.

Example. Add $\frac{3}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10} = \frac{10}{10}$, or one integer, and so of all others of the like denomination.

Example. Add $\frac{5}{8} + \frac{3}{5}$.

It is plain that you cannot say the sum of $\frac{5}{8}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ makes either $\frac{8}{8}$ or $\frac{8}{5}$; and, therefore, till they are reduced into the like denomination, you cannot add them.

Proceed thus, therefore, $5 \times 5 = 25$, and $8 \times 5 = 40$. $\frac{25}{40} = \frac{5}{8}$; and $3 \times 8 = 24$, and $5 \times 8 = 40$. $\frac{24}{40} = \frac{3}{5}$. $\frac{25}{40} + \frac{24}{40} = \frac{49}{40} = 1$ integer $\frac{9}{40}$, the answer.

The reason of this rule being demonstrable from what has been said, it is needless to enlarge upon it.

Case 2. When compound fractions are to be added to simple. Rule. Reduce the compound to a simple, and follow the foregoing rule.

Case 3. When mixt numbers are to be added.

Rule. Work with the fractional parts, according to what has been said, and add the sum of the fractions to that of the integers, if they amount to an integer, and you have the answer.

Subtraction of vulgar fractions.

Case 1. When a simple fraction is to be subtracted from a simple fraction.

Rule. If they are of the same denomination, it is only subtracting one numerator from the other.

Case 2. If they are of different denominators, reduce them to one, and deduct the numerator of the subtrahend from the other, and place the remainder for a numerator to the common denominator, and you have the difference. The reason of which is evident, from what has been said in regard to addition.

Multiplication of vulgar fractions.

Case 1. When you are to multiply a simple fraction by a simple.

Rule. Multiply the numerators into each other, for the numerator of the product, and also the denominators for the denominator of the product.

part, and divide the product by the denominator, and the quote will answer the question; but, if there is any remainder, reduce that to the next inferior denomination, and divide as before.

Example. What is the $\frac{7}{8}$ of a pound sterling?

$20s. = 1$ pound

$\frac{7}{8} \times 20 = 17\frac{1}{2}$

17—4—i. e. 4 shillings, which is 48 pence, which, divided by 8, gives 6 pence. Answer, 17 s. 6 d.

The reason of this rule is plain: for, suppose a line divided into 20 parts, as (a x) below, which will represent 1 pound, and the 20 parts 20 shillings: suppose also that there is a fraction

whose value is required, as $\frac{7}{8}$ of a pound sterling. — Draw another right line, of equal length with the line (a x), as (y z), parallel thereto, which divide into 8 equal parts, representing your denominator, and, right against 7 of those parts, in this line will stand 17 and $\frac{1}{2}$; which shews that $\frac{7}{8}$

of a pound sterling are equal to 17 shillings and six-pence; for as 8, the whole line (a x), or denominator of the fraction given, is in proportion to 20s. (the whole line y z): so is 7 the numerator, or number of parts given in the fraction (as

in the lower line) to 17 $\frac{1}{2}$, the value of the said fraction: and, therefore, you multiply and divide according to the rule before given.

Example. Multiply $\frac{1}{3}$ by $\frac{2}{5}$. Answer, $= \frac{2}{15}$.

The reason of this rule.

The effect of the multiplication of fractions deserves peculiar attention, it being different from that of whole numbers; for the product in the fraction is always less than the multiplicand, though more in whole numbers: the reason is, that of fractions is the multiplying of the parts into which the integer is divided, which must needs make the parts less than those given: whereas the multiplication of integers, or whole numbers, must necessarily increase the number; for the former decreases the parts of an integer to infinite littleness; the latter augments the number of integers ad infinitum.

Now the reason of the rule is, that, if a fraction be multiplied by a single integer, or 1, it can produce no more than itself, for once itself can neither add to, nor diminish from,

it; and, therefore, if it be multiplied by $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of

1, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1, the product can be no more than $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$,

or $\frac{1}{8}$ of such fraction: wherefore it is plain, that the multi-

plication of fractions must be considered in the same light as fractions of fractions, or compound fractions: and, if so, the same rule that holds good for the reduction of compound fractions into simple, will hold good for that of their multiplication. For the reason thereof, we refer to what has been already said upon that head.

Case 2. When you multiply a whole number by a fraction.

Rule. Multiply the integer by the numerator of the fraction, and the product placed over the denominator is the answer; which is nothing different from the first case, if you place an unit under the integral part, putting it into a fractional form.

Example. Multiply 1751 by $\frac{7}{9}$ or $\frac{1751}{1}$ by $\frac{7}{9}$. The answer

is $\frac{12257}{9}$ or 1361 $\frac{8}{9}$, from what has been shewn; for if

1751 be multiplied by 1, it can produce no more than itself;

and, consequently, if it be multiplied by $\frac{7}{9}$ of 1, it can only

produce $\frac{7}{9}$ of itself, &c.

Division of vulgar fractions.

Case 1st. When you would divide a simple fraction by a simple.

Rule. Multiply the numerator of the dividend into the denominator of the divisor, for a new numerator; and multiply

ply the other numerator and denominator together for a new denominator.

Example. Divide $\frac{11}{12}$ by $\frac{3}{5}$. The answer is $\frac{55}{36}$ for the quotient; for, if you $\times \frac{55}{36}$ by $\frac{3}{5}$, the product will be $\frac{165}{180} = \frac{11}{12}$; for as 165 is to 180; so is 11 to 12: or the product of the extremes is equal to that of the means, from what has been demonstrated from the rule of proportion.—Or, by abbrevi-

ation, $\frac{165}{180} = \frac{11}{12}$. Thus, $\frac{165}{180} | \frac{33}{12}$
 The reason of this rule appears from hence.—Reduce the foregoing fractions into one denomination, they will be $\frac{55}{60} = \frac{11}{12}$ and $\frac{36}{60} = \frac{3}{5}$. Expunge the denominators, as

being the same, and the answer will be $\frac{55}{36}$, or 55 divided by 36, which is the same thing, by a different mode of expression.

Case 2. When you divide a whole number by a fraction.

Rule. Place an unit under the whole number, to put it into the fractional form, and proceed as before.

Case 3. When you divide a simple fraction by a compound.

Rule. Reduce the compound to a simple, and work as in the first case.
 The reduction, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of vulgar fractions being explained, it is quite needless to say any thing of the rule of three, or the other rules of proportion in fractions, since it is only to be observed, to multiply and divide in the fractional manner, instead of that of whole numbers.

Of decimal fractions.

When, or by whom, this admirable invention of decimal arithmetic was first introduced, is uncertain; but doubtless the improvements thereto made, and the perfection to which it has arrived, are owing to latter times.

A decimal fraction differs only from a vulgar in this: that, whereas the denominators of vulgar fractions are various, those of decimals are always either 10, or some power of 10, as 100, 1000, 10000, 100000, &c. so that the denominator need never be expressed, it being always understood to increase in a decuple, or tenfold proportion, ad infinitum.

Thus, $\frac{5}{10}$, $\frac{7}{100}$, $\frac{9}{1000}$, $\frac{56}{10000}$, $\frac{769}{100000}$, &c.

Now these denominators being known, need not be set down, but only the numerators; and these are distinguished, or separated from whole numbers, by a point, or a comma.

Thus 8,4 is $8 \frac{4}{10}$, and 0.9 is $\frac{9}{10}$; 76.07 is $76 \frac{7}{100}$; 985.009 is $985 \frac{9}{1000}$.

Whence it may be observed, that, as in whole numbers, every degree from the place of unity increases towards the left-hand by a ten-fold proportion: so in decimal parts, every degree is decreased towards the right-hand, by the same proportion. Wherefore whole numbers, being divided into decimal parts, are more homogeneous with whole numbers than vulgar fractions; for all plain numbers are in effect but decimal parts one to another.

That is, suppose any series of whole numbers, as 777, &c. The first 7 towards the left-hand is ten times the value of the 7 in the middle, and the 7 in the middle is ten times the value of the last 7 to the right of it, and but the tenth part of that 7 on the left, &c.

Therefore all, or any of them, may be taken either as whole numbers, or parts thereof: if whole numbers, then they must be set down without any comma, or separating point between them, 777. But if whole numbers, and one a part or fraction, put a comma betwixt them thus, 77,7; which signifies 77 whole numbers, and 7 tenths of an unit: if two places of fractional parts be required, separate them with a comma, thus, 7,77; which signifies 7 whole numbers, and 77 hundredth parts of an unit, &c.

From hence it will be easy to conceive, that decimal parts take their denomination from the place of their last figure.

That is, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} .7 = \frac{7}{10} \\ .98 = \frac{98}{100} \\ .098 = \frac{98}{1000} \end{array} \right\}$ parts of an unit, &c.

Cyphers annexed to decimal parts do not alter their values. As .90, .900, .9000, .90000, &c. are each but 9 tenths of an unit; for $\frac{90}{100} = \frac{9}{10}$. And $\frac{900}{1000} = \frac{9}{10}$. Or $\frac{9000}{10000} = \frac{9}{10}$,

according to what has been demonstrated in regard to vulgar fractions.

But cyphers prefixed to decimal parts decrease their value, by removing them further from the comma.

Thus $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} .9 = 9 \text{ tenths.} \\ .09 = 9 \text{ parts of a hundred.} \\ .009 = 9 \text{ parts of a thousand.} \\ .0009 = 9 \text{ parts of ten thousand, \&c.} \end{array} \right.$

Consequently, the true value of all decimal parts is known by their distance from the unit's place; which being rightly understood, the rest will be very easy.

Addition and subtraction of decimals.

In setting down the proposed numbers to be added, or subtracted, care must be taken to place every figure directly under those of the same value (as is done in whole numbers) whether they be mixed, or decimal parts only. To do which due regard must be had to the place of the comma, or separating points, which must stand in a direct line, the one under the other; and to their right-hand carefully place the decimal parts, according to their respective values, or distances from unit. Then,

Rule. Add, or subtract them, as if they were all whole numbers; and from their sum, or difference, cut off so many decimal parts as are the most in any of the given numbers.

Examples in addition.

Suppose it be required to find the sum of the following numbers, viz. 78,5 + 96,7 + 976,9 + 6754,8 + 5,5 + 63, which, being properly placed, will stand thus:

78,5
 96,7
 976,9
 6754,8
 5,5
 63,0

The sum required 7975,4

Suppose also the sum total of 29,768 + 97,527 + 256,0976 + 125,0007.

29,768
 97,527
 256,0976
 125,0007

The sum required 508,3933

Examples of subtraction.

Suppose the difference be required between 97,698 and 25,976. That is,

Example 1.	Example 2.	Example 3.
From 97,698	From 592,5	From 1597,69075
Subtr. 25,976	Subtr. 97,964	Subtr. 919,52
Rem. 71,722	Rem. 494,536	Rem. 678,17075

Multiplication of decimals.

Whether the numbers to be multiplied be pure decimals, or mixed, multiply them as if they were all whole numbers, and, for the true value of their product, observe the following Rule. Cut off, or separate with a comma, so many places of decimal parts in the product, as there are in both the multiplier and the multiplicand taken together.

Example 1.	Example 2:
76,906	92,48769
5,824	5,00097
307624	64741383
153812	83238921
615248	46243845000
384530	462,5281630593
447,900544	

The reason why such a number of decimal parts must be separated in the product is plain, it differing nothing from that given in the multiplication of vulgar fractions; for, by multiplying the sums given together, you multiply the numerators; and, by separating as many decimal places as both the multiplicand and the multiplier contain, you multiply the denominators, and divide that of the numerators by the product of the denominators. Thus to multiply $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ is the same as .75 by .75, and 100 by 10; viz. $\frac{75}{100}$ by $\frac{5}{10}$, for 5 times 75 is 375; and 10 times 100 is 1000: so the product is $\frac{375}{1000}$, or .375 decimally expressed.

Division of decimals

Is performed in the same manner as in whole numbers: all the difficulty therein is to know what number of decimal places

places to separate towards the right-hand of the quotient : for which observe what follows. The quotient of a division shewing how often the divisor is contained in the dividend, the divisor multiplied by the quotient gives the dividend : now, as you know how many places of decimals the dividend and divisor contain, it is easy to know how many the quotient must contain, because therein the divisor and quotient must be equal to those in the dividend.

Therefore when the work is finished, separate as many decimal parts in the quotient to the right-hand, as the dividend exceeds the divisor in : but, if so many places be not in the quotient as that difference is, supply that deficiency, by prefixing cyphers towards the left hand.

Take the foregoing example in multiplication :

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Divide } 447,900544 \text{ by } 5,824 \\ 5,824 \overline{)447,900544(76,906} \\ \underline{402269,0} \\ 5274 \cdot \\ \cdot 3 \end{array}$$

As the dividend contains 6 decimal places, and the divisor three, the quotient must contain 3 separated to the right-hand. All the cases which can happen in the division of decimals, are reducible to the following, viz.

Case 1. When the decimal parts in the divisor and dividend are equal, the quotient will be whole numbers. The reason is, because, from what has been said, it can contain no decimal parts.

Case 2. When the decimal places in the dividend exceed those in the divisor, separate the excess for decimal parts, as before shewn.

Case 3. When there are not so many decimal places in the dividend as are in the divisor, annex cyphers to the dividend, to make them equal. Then will the quotient be whole numbers, as in the first case.

Case 4. If after the division is finished, there are not so many figures in the quotient, as there ought to be places of decimals by the general rule, prefix a competent number of cyphers to supply the deficiency.

Reduction of decimal fractions.

To reduce a vulgar fraction into a decimal.

Rule. As the denominator of the vulgar fraction is in proportion to its numerator : so is the denominator of the decimal, 100, 1000, 10000, &c. to the numerator of the decimal required, whose denominator is 100, 1000, 10000, &c. Therefore, according to the common rule of proportion, \times the second and third numbers, and divide by the first, the quotient is the decimal required. Or, which is the same thing, and more concisely expressed,

Annex cyphers to the numerator of the vulgar fraction, and divide by the denominator, the quotient will be the decimal parts equal to the given fraction ; or at least to approximate so near as is requisite for all business.

Note. When the last figure of the divisor (that is, the denominator of the proposed vulgar fraction) happens to be one of these figures, viz. 1, 3, 7, or 9, then the decimal parts can never be precisely equal to the given fraction ; yet, by continuing on the division, you may approach very near the truth. As in this example : Suppose it be required to reduce $\frac{1}{3}$ into decimal parts.

$$\begin{array}{r} 7)1,000 \\ \underline{142857142857142, \&c. \text{ ad infinitum.}} \end{array}$$

From hence it may be observed, that, in these imperfect quotients, the figures return again, and circulate in the same order as before.

These things being understood, there will be no difficulty to find the decimal parts equivalent to any known part, or parts, of coin, weights, or measures, &c. if you first reduce the given parts of the coin, &c. into a vulgar fraction, whose denominator is the number of these known parts contained in the integer, and the given parts its numerator.

Let it be required to find the decimal of 8 s. 6 d.

There are 102 pence in 8 s. 6 d. therefore $\frac{102}{240}$ of a pound is the vulgar fraction which expresses 8 s. 6 d. which convert into a decimal, thus : $240 \overline{)102,000} (.425 = 8 \text{ s. } 6 \text{ d.}$

Or thus : To the 6 d. add cyphers, and divide by 12, and then prefix the 8 s. and divide by 20.

$$\begin{array}{r} 12 \overline{)6,000} \\ 2 \overline{)08,5} \\ \cdot 425 \end{array}$$

This is a much more concise method, and will hold good for weights and measures, &c. without reducing them into vulgar fractions.

All the various rules of proportion being performed the same decimally as in whole numbers, it is quite needless to multiply examples of them ; nor is it necessary to enlarge more on arithmetic ; since, if what has been said in so narrow a com-

pass, is thoroughly understood, as it may easily be, with little attention, the reader will be duly prepared to comprehend any of the books of arithmetic with pleasure ; because he here has the rational principles and foundation of numbers in the fewest words, and in as familiar a manner as could be well conveyed.

Political ARITHMETIC, is made use of by statesmen and politicians, in order to judge of the strength, the wealth, and the power of states and empires. To which end, nothing more naturally and more certainly conduces, than a thorough knowledge in the trade and navigation of states and empires, by reason that the landed and monied interests of countries is governed by the state of their trading interests ; for, if that flourishes, the others necessarily must. This Dictionary of Commerce furnishing a great variety of materials to enable us to pass a good judgment of the trade of all nations, it cannot but be very useful in the study of political arithmetic.

Those who are esteemed to have wrote the best upon this subject, are Sir William Petty, Dr Davenant, Mr King, Erasmus Philips, Esq; and the anonymous author of a tract wrote in French, intitled, *Essai politique sur le commerce*, 12mo, published in 1736.

ARITHMETICIAN, a person well skilled in arithmetic, or whose profession is to teach it others.

ARMADA, a Spanish word, which formerly signified a number of ships of war, as appears by a law in the book called *Las Partidos* ; but of late years it not only comprehends a navy composed of ships of war, but a flota of merchant-men under their convoy.

There is a royal armada, or navy, to secure the navigation of the galleons from Old Spain to the Spanish West-Indies.

There used to be armadas, or convoys to the fleet, for the Firm-land, which there is not at present ; and there was an armada for Honduras.

In the year 1521, on account of the pirates that infested the coasts of Andalusia and Algarve, lying in wait for the ships homeward bound from the Spanish Indies, it was resolved that an armada, or convoy, consisting of four or five ships, should be fitted out ; the charge whereof should be defrayed out of the gold, silver, and merchandize, brought to the ports of Andalusia, from the Indies and Canary-Islands ; whether belonging to the king or private persons, at the rate of a shilling per pound, which was accordingly put in execution.

In the year 1522, the seas being still infested with pirates, it was resolved that another squadron should be fitted out, the expence whereof was to have been defrayed as that of the former ; and to cruise, not only on the coast, but as far as the islands Azores. This was the origin, not only of the armada appointed to secure the navigation of the West-Indies, but of the haberia, or duty for convoys, and other things thereunto relating : the first imposition towards defraying this charge was one per cent. but, that not being adequate to the expence, it came at length to five per cent.

One of the principal duties of the committee of war, which is constituted of the council of the Indies in Spain, is, to give the necessary orders, for fitting out of armadas and flotas ; and, as the dangers increase, so to make the more effectual provisions against them.

The laws of trade in Spain direct, that, provided there be no special order to the contrary, two flotas be set out ; the one for the Firm-land, the other for New-Spain, and the armada to convoy them ; but this name of armada was meant of the admiral and vice-admiral only, which were fighting ships ; and, at first, there was one man of war to convoy the rest ; her burden being 300 tons, and carrying eight brass cannon, and four iron guns : and till that time, the merchant-men carried 100 tons less than their burden, and thirty soldiers each, because they had no convoy of men of war.

The times appointed for these flotas to sail, were, for that of New Spain in May, and that of the Firm-land in August, both of them being ordered to sail with the first spring tides.

The galleons were appointed to be out in January, that they might coast along the Firm-land, and arrive about April at Porto-bello, where the fair would be over, that they might take aboard the plate, and be at the Havanna about mid June, where the New Spain fleet would soon join them, and they might come together safer to Spain. To which end, the vice-roy of Peru is to take care, that the plate should be at Panama by the middle of March. The plate is fifteen days in carrying from Potofi to Arica ; eight days generally from thence by sea to Callao, and twenty from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Païta and Truxillo.

To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has sometimes been the case, it was proposed by the court of Spain to fit out the galleons, in the river of Seville, in August and September, and then send them away to Cadiz, where they might go out with any wind, and need not wait for any spring tides.

The reasons why it was judged absolutely necessary, that the flota from the Firm-land should sail in September, were, because that was a safe season to ship off the goods ; for, they coming to Porto-bello at a healthy season of the year, the merchandize was conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate,

and

and with less danger of receiving damage. Moreover, by this means the merchants had leisure to sell their goods; the buyers had a fit season to travel to Peru with safety, and the armadas and flotas to return to Carthage and the Havanna, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the best month for the sea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is, all circumstances being duly weighed and considered, the fittest for the fleets to sail; and, although several accidents retard them till October or November, yet that season is fitter than March.

ARMADILLA, thus they call, in Spanish America, a small squadron, consisting commonly of 6 or 8 men of war, from 24 to 50 guns, which the king of Spain keeps, for preventing foreigners from trading with the Spaniards or Indians, both in time of peace, and in time of war. This squadron has even power and orders to take all the Spanish trading vessels, which it meets on the coast, and which have no licence from the king of Spain. There is an armadilla both for the South Sea and for the North Sea. The latter keeps commonly at Carthage, and the former at Callao, which is the port of Lima, the capital of Peru.

ARMAGNAC, a province in France, is bounded by Languedoc on the east; by Agenois and Condomois on the north; by Gascony, properly so called, on the west; and by Comminges on the south. In this province they make brandy, which they send to Bayonne and Bourdeaux. They trade also in wool and flax. There is a mine of salt in the town of Laverdan; and, at Auch and Mauvesin, they make about four-score or 100 quintals of salt. The country besides is very fruitful in corn and wine.

ARMENIA, a large kingdom in Asia. After several revolutions, the history of which is foreign to the purpose of this Dictionary, it is fallen partly under the dominion of the Turk, and partly under that of the king of Persia.

For the trade of that part of Armenia which belongs to the latter, see the article **PERSIA**.

As for that part of the country which is under the Grand Seignior's dominion, we shall here present the reader with such particulars of its trade, as we could collect together, or, at least, of its two chief cities, which seem to have engrossed and divided between themselves the trade of all the rest of the kingdom.

ERZERUM, the capital of that part of Armenia, which belongs to the Grand Seignior.

The trade of this city is very considerable, and consists chiefly in brass and copper ware, furr, gall-nuts, caviary or caveer, and madder.

The brass and copper wares are made by the Jews of Sinope, who use the copper that is brought from the neighbouring mountains. As most of them are braziers, and their business is very noisy, they are, as it were, confined to the suburbs; for the Turks are too great lovers of rest, to suffer such traders amongst them. Those wares are carried into Turkey, Persia, and even into the Great Mogul's dominions.

The furs are the skins of a kind of marten, which are very common in that country, where they are called *yardava*, or *zerdava*. The brownest are reckoned the finest, especially the tails, which are almost black: and, with that part of the animal, are made the most precious furs, which makes them come very dear, because a great number of tails are required to line a vest therewith.

The gall-nuts are brought to Erzerum, from a place distant five or six days journey from it, where there are a great many oaks: the balsa gives very strict orders to preserve them, that a commodity, so useful for dyeing, may not be lost. Caviary, or caveer, as it is more ordinarily called, is nothing but the pickled hard roes of sturgeon, which are prepared in several places, situated near the Caspian sea. That which is sold at Erzerum, is abominable.

Lastly, madder, of which great quantities are sold here, where it is called *boya*, is brought hither from Persia: the inhabitants use it in dyeing leather and linnens.

Besides all these merchandizes, most of which are to be met with in the neighbourhood of Erzerum, there are also in that town all the commodities which come from the East-Indies; as silk, cotten, drugs, and printed calicoes; Erzerum being, as it were, a staple town for them; but they only pass through it, few of them being sold by retail.

The commodities imported into this province, or exported out of it, pay three per cent. and sometimes double that sum; but gold and silver species, especially, are subject to heavy duties. The silk of Persia, whether it be fine or not, pays a duty of 80 crowns per camel's load, which is from eight hundred to a thousand pounds weight.

The caravans, which set out from Erzerum for Tefis and Tocat, do commonly keep themselves ready during the whole month of June.

At such times when the Arabs are seized of the countries about Aleppo (in Syria) and Bagdat, all the caravans of the Levant, even those which are bound for the East-Indies, pass through Erzerum.

The English drive a considerable trade in that city, and keep a consul there, who is in great credit and esteem, if his conduct is deserving.

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TOCAT, is the second trading town in Turkish Armenia.

This place is to be considered as the center of the whole trade of Lesser Asia, there being continually caravans, either arriving thither, or setting out from thence. Those from Diarbekir come here in eighteen days, and those from Erzerum in fifteen. The caravans which set out from Tocat for Sinope, are six days on their march, and those for Buisa twenty days. The caravans which go directly to Smyrna, without passing through Angora or Bursa, spend twenty days in their journey, when they consist of mules only, and fifty when they use camels. Lastly, there are also caravans, which go only from Tocat to Angora.

The greatest trade of Tocat consists in copper or brass ware, such as coppers, mugs, candlesticks, lanterns, &c. which are made very neatly by the workmen of this town. These commodities are sent to Constantinople and Egypt. The copper they use comes from the mines of Gumicana, three days journey distant from Trebifond, and from those of Castamboul, ten days journey distant from Tocat, towards Angora. They dress at Tocat a great deal of yellow leather, which is sent to Samson on the Black Sea, and from thence to Cala, a port of Walachia. They also send thither red leather but this the merchants of Tocat have from Diarbekir and Carmania. The yellow leather is dyed with a sort of sumach, and the red with madder.

The printed calicoes are also a great branch of the trade of Tocat. They are not indeed so beautiful as those of Persia, but the Muscovites and the Crim Tartars, for whom they are designed, like them well enough. Some of these calicoes are also sent into France, where they go under the name of printed linnens of the Levant.

Lastly, they have at Tocat a considerable trade in silk; but none of that which is gathered in the neighbourhood of this town, is sold to foreigners, it being all employed in the manufactures of the country; wherein, besides their own silk, they use every year eight or ten loads of Persian silk; which is all used in making slight stuffs, sewing silk, and buttons.

ARMENIANS, nations who inhabit Armenia. But that name is also given to those who were transported into several parts of Persia by Shah Abas; and more particularly to that celebrated colony of Armenians who dwell at Zulfa, one of the suburbs of Ispahan.

The Armenians are civil and polite, and have a great deal of good sense and honesty: they apply themselves very much to trade, which they make their chief business, or rather, their only occupation. They are not only masters of the whole trade of the Levant, but have also a great share in that of the most considerable towns in Europe; for it is very common to meet with some Armenians at Leghorn, at Venice, in England, and in Holland; whilst on the other side they travel into the dominions of the Grand Mogul, Siam, Java, the Philippine islands, and over all the east, except China. And it is not long since several of them were settled at Marfeilles. It is not agreed among the learned, under what Abas, king of Persia, the colony of Zulfa was transported to Ispahan, and settled where it now is. But it is very certain that Shah Abas the Great, contemporary with Henry IV, king of France, in order to secure the conquest of Armenia, which he had taken from the Turks, removed into Persia the first Armenians, who ever settled there; and about thirty thousand families of them were transported into the province of Ghilan only, from whence the finest Persian silks come: he also caused all the inhabitants of Zulfa, a large city of Armenia, to settle at Ispahan, whence the new Zulfa of Persia took its name.

This last Zulfa is now the center of all the commerce of the Armenians; and it is to the same Shah Abas these people owe, if we may say so, their genius and capacity for trade, which did but very little appear, till their transmigration into Persia. As Abas the Great had no other view but to enrich his country, and was sensible he could not compass that design but by the means of trade, he cast his eyes upon silks, as the most precious commodity, and upon the Armenians, as the most proper people to dispose of it: in a word, the Armenians, who were but husbandmen, were by him turned into merchants, and these merchants are become very able and skilful traders in the world.

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In order to begin that trade, this wise prince trusted the most understanding men among the inhabitants of Zulfa, with a certain quantity of bales of silk, to transport them in caravans into foreign countries, and especially into Europe; on condition that they themselves should go with them, and that on their return, they should pay for those bales such a price as they should have been rated at before their departure by judicious persons, giving up to them all the profits they could make upon them above the settled price.

The success answered the expectations both of the prince and of the merchants. Shah Abas did, in a manner, change the nature of trade throughout the whole earth; and the Armenians by their rich returns, after having carried into the west the most beautiful commodities of the east, shewed also in the east whatever the west afforded most costly and curious.

When the trade of the Armenians was sufficiently established, the kings of Persia did no longer meddle with it. The citi-

zens of Zulfa alone continued to support it, and by the assistance of their brokers or agents, who are of the same nation with themselves, they distribute through the whole world the finest and richest commodities of Asia.

These agents undertake, for a very moderate profit, to conduct the merchandizes to the very places they are designed for, to take care of them during the march of the caravans, to dispose of them to the best advantage they can, and to give afterwards a faithful account to those by whom they are intrusted. We cannot sufficiently express how faithful those agents are, what care they take to preserve the merchandizes they conduct, not fearing even to run the danger of perishing themselves, in order to succour the camels, and other beasts of burden that carry them, at the crossing of rivers, or at the difficult passes of mountains.

Their charity for each other is unspeakable; and, when those who are settled in some town are acquainted with the coming of a caravan, they do not scruple to undertake a journey of a day or two, in order to go and meet them, and carry refreshments to their brethren.

When the caravans make any stay in towns, the Armenians who attend them join several together, that they may live cheaper. In Asia, they sell upon the road hard wares of Venice, France, and Germany, in order to get provisions. In Europe, they get them for musk and some spice. In a word, there is no nation comparable to them with regard to sobriety, good husbandry, and honesty.

It is true, indeed, that, when their affairs prove unprosperous in those foreign countries where they trade, they seldom return home, not daring, say they, to appear before creditors, whose confidence they have abused. But it must be owned, that this happens very seldom: it being extremely uncommon to see an Armenian become a bankrupt.

There is nothing more extraordinary, and at the same time more pleasant, than the manner of striking bargains among the Armenians. They begin with putting money upon the table; after which, they cavil or dispute as much as they can about the price, the buyer and the seller presenting and repulsing alternately the pieces of money, which they add to the price offered, or which they abate from the price demanded; which is always done with so much noise and ill humour, that one would think they are going to devour each other: all this, however, is nothing but grimace and affectation: and, when the broker, who is always present at this comedy, judges that things are pretty near the value, he squeezes the seller's hand with so much violence, that he makes him cry out, but he does not leave him till he accepts the buyer's offer. The farce ends with reciprocal jokes, each laughing on his side, thinking that he has the best of the bargain.

ARMOISIN, a silk stuff, or kind of taffety, of an indifferent goodness. It is made at Lyons, and in several places in Italy. There are half-armoisons (demi-armoisons) made at Avignon, which are of an inferior quality, and less price than the others. They manufacture also armoisons with three threads. Armoisons of all colours are imported from the East-Indies, and particularly from Cafembasar, by the way of Bengal. See the next article. Some pretend that the word armoisin comes from the Italian *armefino*; or that those silks were thus called, because there were coats of arms delineated upon the cloth in which they were wrapped up.

ARMOISIN of the Indies. It is a taffety manufactured in the East-Indies, but slighter than those that are made in Europe, and of an inferior quality. Their colours, and particularly the crimson and red, are commonly false, and they have but little gloss, and no brightness at all.

There are two sorts of them, the arains, which are taffeties, either striped or checkered; and the damaras, or flowered taffeties. Their length is from 7 French ells to 24, and their breadth from $\frac{7}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell.

The Indian armoisons have sold at Amsterdam from 18 to 20 guilders per piece. When you do not buy them of the company, that is to say, at second hand, you may stipulate to pay for them either in current or bank-money, or to deduct the difference.

The armoisons of Lucca have sold at Amsterdam from 7 to 9 sols de gros per ell. They who sell them again, buy them by deducting the interest of the money for 18 months, they not being obliged to pay for them but after those months are elapsed: they also deduct 1 per cent. for prompt payment.

But, when they sell them to retailers, they deduct but 2 per cent. upon the whole for prompt payment; that is, they are allowed so much discount for the payment of ready money.

It must be observed that all the silks of Italy are sold after the same manner.

ARMONICAC, or AMMONIAC, a kind of salt, or salt alkali, volatile, urinous, and penetrated with an acid. There is a great consumption of it in most countries.

There are two sorts of salt armoniac, the natural and the artificial, which differ very much in figure, though their properties are pretty much the same.

The natural salt-armoniac is again subdivided, as it were, into two species. The one, which is the true sort, and was known to the antients, was nothing, as they say, but the

urine of camels chrySTALLIFIED, and reduced to a white mass by the heat of the sun, and to which the burning sand of Arabia, and of many other dry and desert places in Asia and Africa, where those animals live during the long journies of the caravans, served as a matrix to bring that salt to perfection. It is called ammoniac (according to the opinion of the antients) from the temple of Jupiter Ammon, or Hammon, in the road to which it was found in abundance.

This salt is white, and tastes pretty much like common salt. One may observe in it small crystallised needles, like refined salt-petre; and, when it is the true sort, you may still perceive among it part of the sand in which it was sublimated by the heat of the sun. This salt-armoniac is so scarce, that it is no commodity for trade, the curious only having it in their cabinets.

The other natural salt-armoniac is not much more common than the true one. It is a kind of salt earth, or scum, which is worked like salt-petre. It is found in some places of the East-Indies, particularly in old caverns, and the clefts of rocks, between Lahor, Tenaifar, and Trebint (it should be perhaps, Sirina, instead of Trebint).

Monsieur d'Herbelot, in his *Bibliothèque Orientale*, observes, that there is a grotto in the little country of Botam in Asia, where the true salt-armoniac is to be found. There arises continually in that grotto a kind of vapour, which looks like smoke in the day-time, and like a flame in the night. It is from this vapour condensed the salt-armoniac is produced, which, in the language of that country, is called *nuschader*. That vapour is of so malignant a nature, that, if those that work in it do not use the utmost precautions, and make not all the haste they can to gather the salt, they are in danger of their lives. For which reason those workmen are dressed in a very thick stuff, to prevent the impression of the vapour; but, without the grotto, the condensed vapour has no longer any malignant quality.

The scarcity of those two sorts of salt-armoniac, and the necessity there is of using that drug in several operations and works which cannot be performed without it, have obliged the chemists to imitate it; and it is this artificial salt-armoniac of which so great a consumption is made.

It is extracted, by means of sublimatory vessels, from all sorts of urine, of men and beasts, mixed with common salt and foot. Some pretend that it may also be extracted from all sorts of blood. Whatever it may be made of, it comes commonly from the East-Indies by Venice, or rather by the ships of the Dutch East-India company. It is brought in masses, or lumps of divers colours, made in the form of the cover of a pot, and weighing 14 or 15 pounds. It was formerly in the shape of a sugar-loaf, and of a quality much superior to what it is at present.

This is, doubtless, meant of the salt-armoniac that came from Egypt, the loaves of which weighed 4 or 5 pounds; and, whatever Monsieur Savary may say, Monsieur Geoffroy, in the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences* for the year 1723, observes, that their consistency is very near the same, which shews that they are produced by a sublimation almost equal. A great deal of it is imported from Egypt to Marseilles and Leghorn.

Salt-armoniac must be chosen white, clear, transparent, dry, and without filth, and, when broke, it must appear as if full of needles.

The use of this salt is very considerable in medicine: and several artificers use it, who could hardly finish their works without it: such are, among others, the dyers, silversmiths, pin-makers, farriers, &c. The latter use it, after it is reduced to an impalpable powder, to eat up, or cure, the pearls or webs that grow in the eyes of horses; and, as for the dyers, they reckon it among their not-colouring drugs, that is to say, such as by themselves produce no colour, but prepare the silk, thread, or woollen stuffs, to receive the colour they design to dye them with.

Its spirit is so sharp, that, when mixed with aqua fortis, or spirit of nitre, it compleats the dissolution of gold, which those two powerful dissolvents could not effect without it. See *AQUA FORTIS* and *AQUA REGIA*.

This salt, being purified by fire and filtered, is reduced into a very white salt, which is used to provoke urine and sweating, &c. It is also reduced into flowers, by means of common salt decrepitated, or calcined, or by steel-filings. They also extract several spirits, and a kind of oil, from it. Finally, they fix it with egg-shells, or live-chalk and fire.

Salt armoniac pays duty of importation in France 10 sols per 100 weight, according to the tariff of the year 1664: and, by a decree of the council of state, of the 15th of August 1685, it pays 20 per 100 of its value, if it be not imported directly into France, but was landed any-where in foreign countries.

ARMONICAC. There is a gum also called by some Gum Armoniac.

ARMOR, or ARMOUR, a defensive habit, commonly of iron or steel, which warriors and soldiers used formerly, to defend and secure the body against the offensive arms of the enemies. The complete armour was composed of a helmet, or head-piece, a neck-piece, or gorget, a cuirasse, tassets, bracers, gantlets, cuisses, and covers for the legs and feet, to which

were

were also fastened the spurs. This was called armor cap-à-pee; and thus the horsemen, or knights and men of arms, were dressed.

The infantry wore but part of this armor. The murrion was to them instead of a helmet: they had also a cuirasse and tasses, but all this very light, and such as the pikemen in the regiment of guards, and in some other regiments in France, still wore towards the end of the seventeenth century. Lastly, the horses themselves had their armor, wherewith to cover the head and breast. The curious may see all those kinds of armor in the tower of London.

Of all this warlike furniture, scarce any thing is now used except the cuirasse; the gorget, which the officers still wear, being at present nothing but a mark of honour, or distinction, by which the soldiers know them, but which is of no defence. Instead of a helmet, or murrion, they use sometimes an iron or steel bonnet, or cap, under the hat; and none but the regiments called cuirassiers still use the simple casq, or helmet.

The folly, or, if you like the word better, the gallantry, or going to the battle naked, as it were, that is, without any defensive arms, had prevailed to such a degree among the French nobility, that it was thought proper to restrain it by ordonnances; and during the wars, which were almost continual under the long reign of Lewis XIV, the general officers, and all the officers of the horse, were commanded to use the cuirasse again; which, though still but indifferently obeyed, has kept up in France the manufacture of that part of ancient armor, of which in the next article.

ARMOURER, he that makes arms.

The armourer-heaumiers (or helmet-makers) were formerly a numerous corporation at Paris. They were called armourers from the armour they made, and heaumiers from heume, or helmet, which is the chief and most honourable piece of the whole armour. Some vocabularies confound them with the gun-smiths (in French arquebusers) who are also stiled armourers, though that name was never given to the gun-smiths in their statutes, and belongs only to the helmet-makers, who are a body intirely distinct from the gun-smiths, of whom an account will be given in their proper article.

The first statutes of the armourers-heaumiers were given them by Charles VI. who, in the year 1409, erected them into a body-corporate. These ancient statutes being neglected and almost demolished, new statutes were made for them in the year 1562, which being examined and approved by Marshal de Brissac, then governor of Paris, and afterwards by the lieutenant-civil, and by the king's attorney at the court of the Chatelet, who gave their opinions upon them the 23d of July, they were at last approved, confirmed, and authorized by letters-patents of Charles IX, issued at Houdan that same year, in the month of September, and registered in the parliament in March following.

These last statutes contain, in 22 articles, the whole discipline, or form of government, of that corporation. Four jurats, or wardens, two of whom are chosen yearly, watch over the preservation of their privileges, and take care that their statutes be observed.

Every freeman of that company can have but one apprentice at a time, who must be bound before a notary-public, and admitted by the wardens.

The apprenticeship, without which no man can be made free of the company, is of 5 years, and even freemen's sons are not exempted from it; but they may serve their time either with their father, or with others; with this difference, however, that, if they be bound with a stranger, they are looked upon as apprentices, and so prevent the taking any other; but, if a freeman's sons serve their father, whatever be their number, he may take another apprentice beside them.

The master piece is given by the masters, to whom but 8 livres Parisis are due for his right of assistance: but freemen's sons are not obliged to make their master-piece, nor even to undergo a trial.

Widows, who continue such, enjoy the same privileges their husbands had, except that they cannot take a new apprentice, but only continue to keep him who was bound to the husband, and has not finished his time.

The works and merchandises of foreigners are liable to be visited, or examined; which must be done by the jurats, as soon as it is required, under a penalty of 20 livres Parisis, to be paid by them, besides an indemnification to the merchants for staying beyond their time.

The materials proper for the manufacture of armour, that is to say, iron, steel, &c. are also to be visited, and must be divided into lots among the merchants who have occasion for them.

No freeman can keep above one work-shop.

Every piece of armour is to be marked with a puncheon, which is delivered by the jurats, and the impression of which upon lead ought to be kept in the chamber of the king's attorney. Journeymen, who have been apprentices at Paris, ought to be preferred before strangers, provided they be satisfied with the same wages.

The works that can be manufactured by the freemen of the armourer-helmet-maker's company, according to their statutes, are all sorts of armour for men, and especially corslets,

cuirasses, gorgets, tasses, brasslets, gantlets, cuisses, and all covers for the legs; head-pieces, burganets for horsemen, burganets and murrions for the infantry, both slight, and shot-proof; and all kinds of armour for juffs and tournaments.

The armourers-helmet-makers company in France have St George for their patron, the fraternity or brotherhood of which is established in the parish of St. James's, where that saint is represented at full length, armed cap-à-pee, with an armour of polished steel, and mounted on a horse caparisoned after the ancient manner, with its harness also of steel.

This company, formerly one of the most numerous in Paris, was, towards the end of the sixteenth century, already dwindled to 60 freemen only, and, at present, it consists of 2 freemen only, who are brothers, and sons to the famous Drouart, the last jurat of that company, whose ancestors for above 200 years, had the reputation of making the best and richest armour in Europe, not excepting that of Milan, which was always very much esteemed.

The manufacture of cuirasses used by the French cavalry is at present established at Besançon; some, however, are imported from Switzerland.

As to the two freemen of the company of armourers-helmet-makers who are still left at Paris, they continue to stile themselves the only armourers-helmet-makers to the king, the princes, and the great lords; and they do accordingly furnish them with the cuirasses they want, keeping up with honour their father's reputation.

ARMOURER, is also said of a trader who sells armour, though he does not manufacture it. That name is also given to those who trade in all sorts of arms.

ARMOURERS company in London. The arms and crest of the brothers and sisters of the fraternity, or guild, of St George, of the mystery of the armourers of the city of London (as they were stiled in their charter) were anciently borne by the said corporation, but afterwards declared and confirmed to them by Thomas Hawley, Clarencieux, by patent under the seal of his arms and office, 3 and 4 Philip and Mary, 1556.

Their arms are argent on a chevron, gules; a gantlet, between four swords in saltier, on a chief, sable; a buckler, argent, charged with a cross, gules, between two helmets of the first.

Their crest is a man demi-armed at all points, surmounting a torse and a helmet. Their motto, Make all sure. Their hall is in Coleman-street.

ARMS, all weapons that serve to attack an enemy, or defend one's self.

Of all contraband merchandises, there are none the exportation of which, without licence or passport, is more strictly prohibited, and more severely punished, than that of arms, by the ordonnances of the kings of France. The penalty mentioned in the ordonnance relating to the five large farms published in February 1687, is, the forfeiting of such arms, together with all the horses, carts, carriages, and equipages, which served to carry them; as also of all other merchandises which may be found with those arms, or were hid under them, besides a fine of 500 livres, to be paid by the merchants and carriers, or carmen; without prejudice to the corporal punishment mentioned in the ordonnances, according to the nature of the offence, and as the case shall require.

Under the general name of arms the tariffs comprehend, besides defensive and offensive arms, all sorts of ammunition, instruments, and other warlike stores, mentioned in the following list:

A list of the merchandises, the exportation of which is prohibited throughout the whole extent of the kingdom, territories, and dominions of the king of France, in an alphabetical order.

Balls,	Granadoes,	Petards,
Bandaliers,	Gun-powder,	Pikes,
Belts of all sorts,	Guns,	Pistols, and pisto-
Bomb-shells,	Halberds,	cafes,
Carcasses,	Helmets,	Puddings for mines,
Carriages for guns,	Javelins,	Saddles,
Cuirasses,	Matches for guns,	Salt-petre,
Falcines,	Mortars,	Swords.
Fusees,	Musquets,	

Arms, arquebusses, pistols, harnesses, brasslets, musquets, barrels for fire-arms, and other arms of iron, pay duties of importation in France, at the rate of 40 sols per 100 weight.

In England arms and ammunition, and all utensils of war, or gun-powder, imported without licence from his majesty, are forfeited, and treble the value, 1 Jac. II. cap. 8. sect 2.—Such licence being obtained, except for the furnishing of his majesty's public stores, is void, and the offender incurs a præmunire, and is disabled to hold any office from the crown, 1 Jac. II. cap. 8. sect. 3.

ARROBE, which some spell and pronounce ARROBE, in Spanish arroba, and, in the language of Peru, arrouc, a weight used in Spain, in Portugal, at Goa, and throughout all Spanish America. The Portuguese use it also in Brazil, where, as well as at Goa, it is sometimes called arate. All these robes are scarce any other ways like each other but in name, being very different

different in weight, and in their proportion to the weights of other countries.

The robe of Madrid, and almost over all Spain, except Seville and Cadiz, weighs 25 Spanish pounds, which do not make quite 23 pounds and $\frac{1}{4}$ Paris weight: so that the common quintal, which is of 4 robes, makes but 93 pounds Paris weight.

The robe of Seville and Cadiz is also of 25 pounds, but these make 26 pounds and $\frac{1}{2}$ at Paris, Amsterdam, Strasburgh, and Belançon, where the pound is equal; 4 robes make the common quintal, that is to say, 100 pounds; but there must be 6 robes to make the quintal of Macho, which amounts to 150 pounds Seville and Cadiz weights, which may be reduced to the Paris weight upon the foot of the reduction of the robe of those two cities, made above.

The robe, or robe, of Peru, weighs 25 pounds French weight. It is chiefly used to weigh the herb of Paraguay, of which the Spaniards and the Indians, who use it like tea, make so great a consumption, that there is wanted for Peru alone above 75,000 robes yearly. See PARAGUAY.

The arate, or Portuguese robe, weighs much more than the Spanish robe; it being 32 pounds of Lisbon, which amounts to near 29 pounds Paris weight.

ARQUE, a-weight used in Spain and in Spanish America. See **ARQUE**.

AROUGHCAIN, an animal found in Virginia, which intirely resembles the beaver, except that it feeds and leaps upon trees like the squirrel.

The English value its furr pretty much, which makes a branch of their trade with the Indians who live near their colony.

ARPENT, a certain measure of land, which is greater or lesser, according to different countries and provinces. But, as to the surveying, or measuring, of forests and coppices fold in France, the arpent must be the same throughout the whole kingdom, according to the king's ordonnance of August the 13th, 1669, article 14 of the title which relates to the policy and preservation of forests, of which here follows an extract. No measure shall be admitted, nor used, in the king's woods and forests, nor in those held in coparcenary, in eyre, in appennage, mortgage, usucaption, or held by ecclesiastical community, or private persons, without exception, but that of 12 lines per inch, 12 inches per foot, 22 feet per perch, and 100 perches per arpent, upon pain of a fine of 1000 livres, notwithstanding all customs and possessions to the contrary. It must be observed that the ordonnance, mentioning 100 perches per arpent, must be understood of 100 square perches. The arpent is commonly divided two ways; the one into an half, a quarter, and half a quarter; and the other into a third, half a third, &c. of an arpent.

ARQUEBUSE, or **HARQUEBUSE**, a fire-arm, of the same length with a fusée, or musquet, which is commonly cocked with a spring-lock. This kind of arms was formerly very much used both in war and for hunting; but, at present, it is hardly any otherwise used than for the defence of besieged places; but it has given name to a considerable company of tradesmen at Paris, called arquebusiers, that is, gun-smiths.

ARQUIFOUX. See **ALQUIFOUX**.

ARRACAN, or **ARRACKAN**, a small kingdom in the East-Indies, has the country of Ava, best known by the merchants under the name of Pegu, on the east, and south-east; Tipra on the north; and the bay and country of Bengal on the west and north-west. There are many cities, towns, and villages in this kingdom; some whereof are extremely populous, which is ascribed to their polygamy, and to their avoiding, as much as in their power, war and sea voyages. Their longest voyages are, when they make war with their ships against their neighbours of Bengal or Pegu.

The country has woods, and is full of orchards and gardens that are verdant all the year, and produce all the usual fruits of the Indies. It has timber for building, some lead, tin, sticklack, and elephants teeth; with all sorts of corn, except wheat and rye. Their ordinary money is shells, or little stones, 80 of which they value at about 9d. sterling, and they have a silver coin worth about 2s. apiece, for which they have 1660 shells in exchange; so that, when they carry this sort of money to market, it is a porter's load. The Moors here are the greatest traders. Many of their rivers have tides, which rise from 12 to 20 feet high, so that they perform great voyages in a little time. The chief towns are,

ARRACAN, the capital, which, Schouten says, is as large as Amsterdam, but much more populous; and its suburbs are some leagues in extent. On the ridges of the rocks are many streets, full of shops; where may be had the richest goods of all Asia, which are brought and carried away on the backs of elephants, so tame, that they are commonly governed by boys, who ride on their necks. The Dutch have a factory in the neighbourhood. Here are several spacious bazars and piazzas; and some of the Mogul's subjects trade hither, and meet sometimes with good bargains of diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones, and gold roupes. The mouth of its noble spacious river is large, and deep enough to accommodate ships of the greatest burthen into a harbour, large enough to hold all the ships in Europe.

ORIENTAN, is frequented by merchants from most parts of the east.

DOBARI, has a good harbour and trade on a stream, that runs south from Arracan.

CHEDABE, or **CABUBEL**, is also a town of trade, with a good harbour.

DIANGA, is another noted town on the coast, 120 miles north of Arracan, which some place in Bengal, but Father Toff makes it one of the chief cities of Arracan: most of the inhabitants are fugitive Portuguese, who have great privileges. Moll places a Dutch factory on the river of Arracan, 60 miles north-east of that city; but we have no other account of it.

PEROEM, or **PROM**, is another town of great trade, and has a good capacious harbour.

RAMA, is another city of the same rank. The sea on this part of the coast is dangerous, being subject to sudden tempests.

The sea-coast of this kingdom extends from Cape Negrais to Xatigam in Bengal, about 400 miles; but is not much inhabited, because of the vast numbers of wild elephants, buffaloes, and tygers: only some islands in the sea are peopled with poor fishermen.

ARRAGON, in Spain, is the next kingdom in dignity to that of Navarre. It is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, which divide it from France; on the west it has Navarre, and New and Old Castile; on the south the kingdom of Valentia; and, on the east, part of Valentia, and the principality of Catalonia.

The country is mountainous, but full of delightful vales, and extraordinary fertile, which produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, saffron, and fruits of the most delicious kind. They breed also great quantities of cattle, and abound with all sorts of fowl, both wild and tame.

The mountains are said to have mines of gold, silver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewise very considerable rivers, and plenty of good fish; the most remarkable river is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its slow and gentle course, which gives opportunity to the husbandman and gardener to cut channels from it to water their lands; inasmuch that we are told, their trees will bear fruit three, and often four, times in a year; and not only in great plenty, but in such variety, that they reckon no less than 400 sorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and pasture grounds, are likewise much admired for their continual verdure and fertility.

ZARAGOZA, alias **SARAGOSSA**, is the metropolis of this kingdom, and is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, and a considerable number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls.

TERRAZANA, is another city in this kingdom, which carries on a considerable trade much in the same way as Saragozza does.

VAL DE TENA, or **SALLENT**, is a remarkable town in the very heart of the Pyrenees. Here is a large traffic carried on in the produce of the country all the summer, though the great quantities of snow which cover these mountains, make the country impassable near six months in the year. Their trade is occasioned by two passes leading into France, the one on the west, over the river Gallego, towards Beam in Gascony, and the other on the east over a cleft of the mountain Forqueta.

ARREAR-CHARGE, thus, the French stile interest upon interest, or compound interest, according to Furetiere; but that expression is little used in trade.

ARREARS, the remainder of a sum due, or money remaining in the hands of an accountant.

It signifies also, more generally, the money, that is due for rent, unpaid for land or houses; as likewise what remains unpaid of pensions, taxes, or any other money payable yearly, or at a fixed term. The French call it arrearages.

A merchant is also said to be in arrears, or behind-hand, when he does not regularly pay his bills of exchange, promissory notes, bonds, or any other debts, when due, and leaves them, as it were, behind-hand. Monsieur Savary sets it down as a maxim, in his Complete Merchant, that when a trader is once in arrears, or behind-hand, he is almost irretrievably lost, and does seldom recover his credit, unless by a very great chance, and an extraordinary good luck.

To leave a payment in arrears (ARRIERER UN PAYERMENT, as the French say) is not to pay it when due, to delay it and put it off.

ARSCHIN, a long measure, used in China, to measure stuffs.

It is of the same length with the Dutch ell, which is of 2 feet 11 lines, which amounts to $\frac{7}{8}$ of a French ell. So that 7 arschins of China make 4 ells of France.

The ell of Amsterdam makes $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard of London, so that four ells of Amsterdam, or four arschins of China, make three yards of London. So that, to reduce the arschins to the yard of London, you must say, If four arschins make three yards, so many arschins (thirty for instance) how many yards will they make? Answ. 22 $\frac{1}{2}$. And, in order to reduce the

yards

yards into arshins, say, if three yards make four arshins, so many yards (as 35 for instance) how many arshins will they make? Anf. 46 $\frac{2}{3}$.

ART, the rule and method of doing a thing well, and as it should be.

ART signifies also a profession, or trade. And in this sense there are two sorts of arts, the one called liberal arts, such as painting, architecture, &c. the other called mechanic arts, such as the trades of turners, carpenters, &c.

ARTS and **TRADES**. In France they thus stile the companies of tradesmen or artificers, erected into bodies corporate, which have wardens, masters or freemen, apprentices, and jurats, or examiners. They are distinct from what they call the six bodies of merchants.

ARTICLE, a small part of an account contained in the journal, invoice, &c. Thus it is said such an account contains so many articles of debtor, and so many of creditor. The memorial, the invoice of the merchandizes I have sent you, contains so many articles, which amount to so much. In my inventory, the article of the serges of Aumale amounts to such a sum.

An able book-keeper ought to be very exact in posting into the ledger, to every one's account, either as debtor or creditor, every article that has been set down in the journals and cash-book, &c.

ARTICLE is also said of the clauses, terms, and conditions agreed upon in partnerships, bargains, and treaties, and also of the things adjudged, or determined, by arbitrators. In this sense, they say, it is agreed by such an article of our partnership that the house-rent shall be paid out of the common stock. In the bargain we have made together there is an article, by which you are bound to such a thing. This is according to an article of our treaty. Our arbitrators have determined such an article in my favour.

ARTICLE signifies, likewise, the several heads contained in the ordonnances and regulations, particularly when they are quoted. This agrees with such an article of the ordonnance in France, of the year 1673, or with such an article of the regulations concerning the dyers, &c.

ARTIFICER, or **ARTISAN**, or **MECHANIC**, is a person who carries on any handicraft, or mechanical trade. This class of people is not only very numerous in all great trading states and empires, but is of more real importance to such communities, than, perhaps, is generally considered by those in more exalted conditions of life.

REMARKS.

As things are constituted at present, amongst the trading countries of the world, those which subsist themselves upon their natural productions, or merely by bartering and exchanging those productions against the commodities of other countries, make no figure themselves as a trading people.

The Indians in North America, as well as the Negroes in Africa, are plain instances of the truth hereof.

Were the Chinese, and the East-Indians, in general, to be deprived of their ingenious artificers, or, if you please, manufacturers (for they may be as reasonably called the one as the other, perhaps, though custom among us has made a distinction) they would, very probably, degenerate into the like savage dispositions with the wildest Africans, or American Indians. And this, we may presume, would prove the case also among the Europeans, For,

These are the arts which keep the mass of the people in useful action, and their minds engaged upon inventions beneficial to the whole community: and this is the grand preservative against that barbarism and brutality which ever attend an indolent and inactive stupidity.

The due cultivation, therefore, of practical manual arts in a nation, has a greater tendency to polish and humanize mankind, than the mere speculative science, however refined and sublime it may be: and these practical arts are not only the most naturally adapted to the bulk of the people, but, by giving real existence to their ideas, by their practical inventions, improve their minds more sensibly and feelingly than any ideal contemplation could do, which may have no other being but in the mind of the speculator.

Moreover, it is observable that persons who excel by their new inventions and discoveries in the practical mechanic arts, are commonly men of general good understandings. Whether this may not be attributed to the constant exercise of the intellectual faculties in matters which they SEE and FEEL, may deserve the consideration of such who shall think of the more natural way of improving the understanding. The delicate mechanism of a watch by those great artists a Graham, or an Ellicot, demonstrates the utility of such artificers to a trading country, when their workmanship is admired amongst all the civilized world. It is the same by other artificers, who excel in their peculiar branch. This not only brings credit and honour, but treasures, into a nation, in proportion as they are stocked with such celebrated mechanics, or artificers.

Nothing is more obvious than that the commerce and navigation of this nation principally depends on the daily improvements made by our artificers, in that infinite and amazing variety in our mechanic and manufactural arts. Wherefore

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artificers of this kind, who strike out new inventions, or who improve the old mechanics and manufactures, are deserving of some public regard and encouragement more than what they acquire to themselves by dint of their peculiar profession only.

Daily experience manifests the extraordinary effects of those small rewards which have been given in Scotland and Ireland, for the improvement of their manufactures; nor do the premiums, perhaps, operate so powerfully as the motive of emulation; for that credit and reputation which attends a man's excelling in his employment, has, sometimes, a far greater influence upon the industrious and ingenious mind, than pecuniary rewards only.

Yet these are not to be neglected in trading nations; such being the case, that new inventions, or new improvements, made by one, for the benefit of trade, are soon enjoyed equally by all, the inventors very rarely being able to preserve the benefit of their inventions any time to themselves; scarce ever long enough to recompense them for the time and expence they have generally been obliged to bestow upon them. How the ingenious British artificer might be rewarded by the public, we have taken the liberty to suggest elsewhere, in our REMARKS under the article ASPHALTUM, which were occasioned by the encouragement given by the French king to the Sieur de la Sabloniere upon that occasion. See also the article PATENTS granted in this nation for the encouragement of new inventions and discoveries.

But, besides the public rewards and encouragement which might be given to our artists in the shape therein humbly proposed, there is another way of promoting our artificers, and thereby the commerce of the kingdom in general; and which, though it is not attended to, may not prove less beneficial to the community, if it once becomes fashionable amongst us.

What I am about to intimate, is derived from considering the necessity under which our nobility and gentry constantly lie, to use some corporal exercise and recreation for the benefit and preservation of their healths: whence it is that they are obliged to ride, hunt, shoot, play at tennis, cricket, &c. But it is to be earnestly wished and desired, that, at the same time when these noble and honourable persons were exercising themselves for their health's sake, they would so contrive their exercises as even to render them serviceable to the public interests: and this, I humbly apprehend, might be easily done, could these personages be prevailed on to entertain themselves with the perusal of those celebrated works of the inimitable lord Bacon, and that excellent tract by the honourable Mr Boyle, on the Usefulness of Experimental Philosophy; as also that admirable performance written afterwards by the learned bishop Spratt, intitled The History of the Royal Society of London, for the improving of natural knowledge.

Was it fashionable once for persons of distinction to devote a proportion of their rural retirement to practical or experimental philosophy, it might not only prove a salubrious bodily exercise to individuals, but a great benefit and advantage to our artificers in general, and, consequently, to the general traffic of the kingdom. For,

As the learned author of the history before-mentioned observes, 'The mechanic inventions are improveable by others besides the common artificers themselves. This will appear undeniable, says he, if we will be convinced by instances; for it is evident, that divers sorts of manufactures have been given us by men who were not bred up in trades that resembled those which they discovered. I shall mention three, that of printing, powder, and bow-dye. The admirable art of composing letters was so far from being started by a man of learning, that it was the device of a soldier: and powder, to make recompence, was invented by a monk, whose course of life was most averse from handling the materials of war. The ancient Tyrian purple was brought to light by a fisher; and, if ever it shall be recovered, it is likely to be done by some such accident. The scarlet of the moderns is a very beautiful colour, and it was the production of a chemist, and not of a dyer.'

One principal help, says that great man in another place, that the English nobility and gentry enjoy for the promotion of these studies of peace, is the present constitution of our government. The chief design of the ancient English was the glory of spreading their victories on the continent: but this was a magnanimous mistake; for by their very conquests, if they had maintained them, this island had been ruined, and had only become a province to a greater empire. But now it is rightly understood that the English greatness will never be supported or increased in this age by any other wars but those by sea; and for these the service of the multitude is fitter than of gentlemen. This we have beheld practised these last 20 years, wherein our naval strength has more than trebled itself; for, though some few gentlemen have still mingled themselves in these gallant actions, yet the gros of our fleets have consisted of common men, and of mariners, who are bred up in the rude toils of such a life. As this observation may raise us to the greater admiration of their valour, that such magnanimity should be found amongst the meanest of the people, so it should also suggest to our gentlemen, who by this means are at liberty

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from the employments of the greatest danger, that they ought to undertake these, which will give them as great, though a securer honour.

Nor will it be a disgrace to them, that the fighting for their country is cast on men of lower ranks; if, in the mean time, they shall strive to enlighten and adorn, while the other defend it: for the same is ordained by nature itself, in the order and offices of her works; the heavenly bodies appear to move quietly above, to give light, and to cherish the world with a gentle influence; while instruments of war and offence are taken out of the bowels of the earth.

For the improvement of these arts of peaceable fame, they have, indeed, another privilege, which can scarce be equalled by any kingdom in Europe; and that is the convenience and benefit of being scattered in the country; and, in truth, the usual course of life of the English gentlemen is so well placed between the troublesome noise of pompous magnificence and the baseness of avaricious foridness, that the true happiness of living, according to the rules and pleasures of uncorrupt nature, is more in their power than any others.

To them, in this way of life, there can nothing offer itself which may not be turned to a philosophical use. Their country-seats, being removed from the tumult of cities, give them the best opportunity and freedom of observation. Their hospitality, and familiar way of conversing with their neighbourhood, will always supply them with intelligence. The leisure which these retirements afford them is so great, that either they must spend their thoughts about such attempts, or in more chargeable, or less innocent, diversions, &c.

When a general turn for the useful inventions, in regard to trade, has once taken root among our nobility and gentry, let them go on to the other kinds, which purpose the striking out of new mechanics. The warmth and vigour which attend new discoveries, is seldom wont to confine itself to its own sphere, but is commonly extended farther, to the ornament of its neighbours. The ordinary method where-in this happens, is the introduction of new arts.

It is true, indeed, the increase of tradesmen is an injury to others, that are bred up in particular trades, where there is no greater employment than they can master: but there can never be an overcharge of trades themselves. That country is still the richest and most powerful which entertains most artificers and manufacturers.

The hands of men employed are true riches: the saving of these hands by inventions of arts, and applying them to other works, will increase those riches. Where this is done, there will never a sufficient matter for profit be wanting; for, if there be not vent for their productions at home, we shall have it abroad; but, where the ways of life are few, the fountains of profit will be possessed by few; and so all the rest must live in idleness, on which inevitably ensues beggary: whence it is manifest, that poverty is caused by the fewness of different trades, and not by the multitude.

Nor is it enough to overthrow this, to tell us, that, by this addition [of new artificers and manufacturers] all things will become dearer, because more must be maintained: for the high rate of things is an argument of the flourishing, and the cheapness of the scarcity of money, and ill-peopling of all countries. The first is a sign of many inhabitants, which are true greatness; the second is only a fit subject for poets to describe, and to compare to their golden age; for, where all things are without price or value, they will be without arts, or empire, or strength.

I will explain all this by a familiar and domestic instance. It is probable that there are in England a hundred times more [or different species of] trades, than the Saxons, or the Danes, found here in their invasions; and, withal, the particular trades live more plentifully, and the whole nation is wonderfully stronger, than before. This also may be seen in every particular city: the greater it is, the more kinds of artificers it contains; whose neighbourhood and number is so far from being a hindrance to each other's gain, that still the tradesmen of most populous towns are wealthier than those who profess the same crafts in country markets.

In England it has of late been a universal murmur, that trade decays; but the contrary is evident, from the perpetual advancement of the customs. Whence then arises the complaint? From hence, that traders HAVE MULTIPLIED ABOVE THE PROPORTIONABLE INCREASE OF TRADES: BY WHICH MEANS ALL THE OLD WAYS OF GAIN ARE OVERSTOCKED, WHICH WOULD SOON BE PREVENTED BY A CONSTANT ADDITION OF NEW.

The want of a right apprehending this has always made the English averse from admitting of new inventions, and shorter ways of labour, and from naturalizing of new people: both which are the fatal mistakes that have made the Hollanders exceed us in riches and traffic*: they receive all projects, and all people; we have kept them out, and suppressed them, for the sake of the poor, whom we thereby do certainly make the poorer.

* It must be observed that the bishop wrote in the reign of king Charles II.

And indeed those persons, says the judicious prelate elsewhere, who are not peculiarly conversant about any one sort of arts, may often find out their rarities and curiosities sooner than those who have their minds wholly confined to them. If we weigh the reason why this is probable, it will not be found so much a paradox as perhaps it may seem at the first reading. For

The artificers themselves, having had their hands directed from their youth in the same methods of working, cannot, when they please, so easily alter their custom, and turn themselves into new roads of practice. Besides this, they chiefly labour for present livelihood, and, therefore, cannot defer their expectations so long as is commonly requisite for the ripening of a new contrivance.

But especially having long handled their instruments in the same fashion, and regarded their materials with the same thoughts, they are not apt to be surprized much with them, nor to have any extraordinary fancies or raptures about them.

These are the usual defects of the artificers themselves: whereas men of freer lives have all the contrary advantages. They do not approach these trades as their dull, and unavoidable, and perpetual employments, but as their diversions. They try those operations, in which they are not very exact, and so will be more frequently subject to commit errors in their proceeding; which very faults and wanderings will often guide them into new light, and new conceptions. And, lastly, there is also some privilege to be allowed to the generosity of the spirits of gentlemen, which have not been subdued, clogged, and shackled, by any constant toil, as the mere artificers.

Invention is an heroic thing, and generally placed above the reach of a low and vulgar genius. It requires an active, a bold, a nimble, a restless mind: a thousand difficulties must be contemned, with which a mean heart would be broken; many attempts must be made to no purpose; much treasure must sometimes be squandered, without any return; much violence and vigour of thoughts must attend it, that would hardly be pardoned by the severe rules of prudence. All which may persuade us, that a large and unbounded mind is likely to be the author of greater productions than the calm, obscure, and the fettered endeavours of the artificers and mechanics themselves: and that, as in the generation of children, those are usually found to be most sprightly that are the stolen fruits of an unlawful bed, so, in the generations of the brain, those are often the most vigorous and witty which men beget on other arts, and not on their own.

Whence it follows, that the surest increase, remaining to be made in manual arts, is to be performed by the conduct of experimental philosophy. This will appear undeniably, when it shall be considered that all other causes of inventions are defective; and that for this very reason, because the trials of art have been so little united with the plain labours of men's hands.

And this was the origin of that most useful and glorious institution the Royal Society of London, from whence all others of the like kind in Europe have taken their rise, to the wonderful improvement of the mechanic arts and manufactures, and, indeed, of universal commerce.

It is shameful that the greatest part of our arts and inventions, before these noble institutions, should have been produced either by luxury, or chance, or necessity; all which must be confessed to have been mean and ignoble causes of the rational mechanics.

The first of these has been that vanity and intemperance of life which the delights of peace, and greatness of empire, have always introduced. This has been the original of very many extravagant inventions of pleasure, to whose promotion it is not requisite that we should give any help, seeing they are already too excessive. And, indeed, if we consider the vast number of the arts of luxury, compared to the sound and the substantial ones of use, we shall find that the wit of men has been as much defective in the one, as redundant in the other.

It has been, continues the bishop, the constant errors of men's labours in all ages, that they have still directed them to improve those of pleasure, more than those of profit. How many, and how extravagant, have been the ornaments about coaches? And how few inventions about new frames for coaches, or about carts and ploughs? What prodigious expence has been thrown away about the fashions of cloaths? But how little endeavours have there been to invent new materials for cloathing, or to perfect those we have? The furniture and magnificence of houses is risen to a wonderful beauty within our memory, but few or none have thoroughly studied the well-ordering of timber, the hardening of stone, the improvement of mortar, and the making of better bricks, &c.

The like may be shewn in all the rest: wherein the solid inventions are wont to be overwhelmed by gaudiness and superfluity; which vanity has been caused by this, that the artists have chiefly been guided by the fancies of the rich, or

the young, or of vain humourists, and not by the rules and judgments of men of knowledge.

The second occasion that has given help to the increase of mechanics, has been chance: for in all ages, by some casual accidents, those things have been revealed which either men did not think of, or else sought for in vain. But of this the benevolence is irregular, and most uncertain: this, indeed, can scarce be stiled the work of a man. The hart deserves as much praise of invention for lighting on the herb that cures it, as the man who blindly stumbles on any profitable work, without foresight or consideration.

As to necessity, that has given rise to many great enterprises, and, like the cruel step-mother of Hercules, has driven men upon heroic actions, not out of any tender affection, but hard usage. Nor has it only been an excellent mistress to particular men, but even to whole states and kingdoms; for which reason some have preferred a barren soil for the seat of an imperial city, before a fruitful, because thereby the inhabitants being compelled to take pains, and to live industriously, will be secure from the dangerous incursions of plenty and ease, which are fatal to the beginnings of all commonwealths. Yet the defects of this severe author of great works are very many.

From the sentiments of this zealous promoter of the useful arts, for the benefit of commerce, it is manifest that he makes the prosperity of a trading nation to consist in the multiplying of the number of new trades; that is to say, in the multiplying of the different species of mechanics, artificers, and manufacturers: for want of this it is, that all the old ways of gain become overstocked, as has been observed, and then people complain for want of trade, when the true cause is owing to the want of art, or to the want of the invention of a number of new trades and new arts, in proportion to the increase of people among ourselves, and in proportion as other rival states strike into the like trades and arts which we have been long used to.

And, whoever has dipped any thing into the philosophical transactions of the learned amongst the several nations in Europe, for near a century past, will find, that the greatest improvements, in manufactural and mechanical arts, have been more owing to the real inventions of the learned, or to such hints which they have, from time to time, communicated, than to the mechanics, manufacturers, and artificers themselves.

But, although the commerce of Great-Britain so apparently depends upon the increase of new useful arts and inventions, yet, as an ingenious French writer observes, 'When our reason first begins to open, we are talked to for six years together about the future in *rus*, and the supine in *um*, without hearing one word of the perfection and usefulness of the arts, or the industry of people that follow employments, by which our lives are supported.'

When our reason begins to acquire more strength, it is put under the direction of masters, who, after great preparation, demonstrate that we have a body, and that there are other bodies round us: or spend whole days in proving, that, of two propositions, contradictorily laid down, concerning a possible future, which may never happen, the one is determinately true, and the other determinately false. The learning to distinguish rightly the productions of the globe which we inhabit, the ties whereby all the people dwelling on it are united, and the various labours that are therein employed, are things the most neglected.

We daily see the sails of a wind-mill, and the wheel of a water-mill in action: we know that these machines grind corn, and reduce the bark of trees to powder; but we know nothing of the structure of them, and can hardly avoid confounding a carpenter with an hewer of wood. We all carry watches in our pockets, but do we know the mechanism of the fuzee, round which the chain is wound? Do we understand the use of the spiral line, which accompanies the ballance?

It is the same with regard to the most common trades: we know the names of them, and no more. Instead of endeavouring to gain a reasonable knowledge of commerce and mechanics, which are the delight and ornament of the society wherein we are to spend our lives, we pique ourselves on attaining all the niceties of quadrille, or busy ourselves in useles, and too often in enthusiastic speculations.

The sentiments of this French author bring to my remembrance also what our learned countryman, Dr Spratt, says in favour of an experimental education: 'I will venture to propose, says he, to the consideration of wise men, whether the way of teaching by practice and experiments would not at least be as beneficial as the other by universal rules; whether it were not as profitable to apply the eyes and hands of children, to see and to touch all the several kinds of sensible things, as to oblige them to learn and remember the difficult doctrines of general arts? In a word, whether a mechanical education would not excel the methodical?'

This certainly, continues his lordship, is no new device: for it was that which Plato intended, when he enjoined his scholars to begin with geometry; whereby, without question, he designed, that his disciples should first handle material things, and grow familiar to visible objects; before

they entered on the refined speculations of other more abstracted sciences.

The principal thing that ought to be improved in Great-Britain is their industry. This, it is true, has of late years been marvelously advanced, as may be shewn by the enlarging of traffic, the spreading of many fruits, the plantation of trees, and the great improvement of manual arts. But it is evident, that it may still admit of farther warmth and activity, as we may conclude, by the want of employment for younger brothers, and many other conditions of men, and by the number of our poor, whom idleness, and not infirmities do impoverish.

The way to compass this, is not alone by acts of parliament, and good laws, whose force will soon be evaded by present craft and interpretation, or else will be antiquated by time.

This, perhaps, our country has found above all others: if our labourers had been as diligent as our law-givers, we had proved the most laborious nation under heaven. But the true method of increasing industry is by that course which the Royal Society of London has begun in philosophy, by works and endeavours, and not by the prescriptions of words, or paper commands. This, and this only, is the way to increase our inventions and improvements in the manual arts, and thereby to increase the number of new trades, new manufactures, mechanics, and artificers, in an infinitely greater variety than we at present have.

By the sixth article of the first title of the ordonnance published in France in the year 1673, it is ordered, that all artificers, as masons, carpenters, tilers, smiths, glaziers, plumbers, paviours, and others of the like quality, shall be obliged to demand payment within the year after performing, or delivering, their work.

In England, artificers in wool, iron, steel, brass, &c. contracting to go out of the kingdom into a foreign country, shall be fined, not exceeding 100 l. and suffer three months imprisonment. And artificers going abroad, not returning on warning given by our ambassadors, &c. shall be disabled to hold lands by descent, or devise, be incapable of receiving any legacy, &c. and be deemed aliens. Stat. 5 Geo. I. c. 27.

ARTILLERY, comprehends all forts of large fire-arms, as mortars, cannons, bombs, petards, carbines, musquets, as well for the naval as military service.

Since the art of war has been improved, by the means of those fatal inventions of gunpowder and artillery, the manufactory of artillery is become an extensive branch of business, and employs no small number of hands; though, where the art has given support to one, it has, perhaps, taken away life from thousands.

The larger pieces of artillery depend upon the business of foundry, the other upon smithery. The former is commonly called ordnance, the other small arms, &c.

To carry on manufactures of ordnance with success, there are various circumstances which are requisite to be well weighed and considered, or the undertakers may be soon undone.

1. The situation of the place for casting of ordnance of iron should be very near ore and fuel, and water, not only for sale and carriage, but for the conveniency of working of bellows for their casting part, and forging hammers for the working up the heads of their cannon, and other superfluous cast iron, which is separated therefrom.

2. The price of labour, as well as that of fuel, ore, and carriage, should also be calculated, in order to be able to judge of the profits of the manufactory, according to the views and expectations of vent for the same.

3. These things considered, the next is that of hiring, or erecting furnaces, forges, and water-mills, and all other conveniencies necessary for the purpose.

If hiring, or building, be the intention, due regard should be had to the structure of furnaces, not only that they may be properly built for the occasion, but adapted to the quantity of ore designed to be smelted at a time; and that the bellows be so hung as to give the necessary continued blast. These things depend on the care and skill of able and experienced workmen, or rather upon the master-founder himself, who has the conduct of the whole.

4. But, let his judgment and experience be ever so great, yet if the several workmen, the operators in the various classes, are not equal to their respective parts, the undertakers may soon be ruined; for there is such a delicacy in the casting of large pieces of ordnance, that I have known 17 pieces out of 30 not stand proof upon trial, though cast at one of the best foundries in the kingdom; which proved a great loss to the proprietors.

5. There is much in this art that depends upon a careful and ingenious mould-maker; and more on the method of preparing the ore, and smelting it with such fluxes as will render the metal constantly so tough as is necessary to stand all proof. When this is skilfully done, those accidents beforementioned can very rarely happen; as no little defect in the moulds could change the general texture, compactness, and toughness of the metal; little exuberances in the moulds could never have that effect as to prevent such metal standing proof, if that itself was as good as it ought to be.

These accidents, to which our iron foundries are liable in the casting of ordnance, seem to indicate that this art is not yet brought to its last perfection.

Under the articles IRON and FOUNDRY, we shall shew the methods of smelting the various species of ores for ordnance, and other matters, which are made of cast iron; and endeavour to point out the causes of those miscarriages, which may, in some measure, possibly, contribute to prevent their frequency.

And, in regard to the making of brass ordnance, that will be represented under the articles BRASS and FOUNDRY.

The art of war, at present, depending so much upon the goodness of destructive artillery, and other nations pluming themselves on the superior excellency of theirs, it seems prudential from the principles of self-defence only, that we should not be behind them in what so nearly concerns us.

That other nations are making all the advances they can in this art; we had an account about two years ago from the Austrian camp at Boxtell, that proof was made there of 8 pieces of cannon, made of hammered or forged iron, of a new invention; each piece firing 100 times in 15 minutes, without requiring to be cleaned once. Besides the advantages of quickness in firing, the touch-holes, it was said, suffered not in the least by the number of discharges that were made. Within a few months after this, it shew that the French would not be behind hand with the Austrians in that point, we had the following repeated account from Paris in all the foreign papers.

We learn from Paris, that certificates have been produced there from the officers of the marine in several parts of Normandy, in relation to the excellence of the new-invented artillery, made of forged iron; by which it appears that one of these pieces, carrying a ball of 12 pounds, proved equal in every respect to one of brass, and another of cast iron of double the weight; and that these new-invented cannon may be managed by half the number of hands.

As the officers of the French marine made this report, we may presume this new-invented cannon was chiefly intended for the royal navy; and, if the French should ever be capable of doing the same execution at sea, with one half the weight of metal, that we are, it does not require the gift of prophecy to judge of the consequences.

Another account we had from Paris, July 4, 1750.

The Sieur Dedoëan, master of the iron works in Picardy, has found the secret of completing a fort of cannon, by the help of which very extraordinary execution may be done, far superior to any thing of the like kind. It is composed of hammered iron plates, foldered together, which make the piece lighter than ordinary, without being subject to burst; or, if by accident it should fly, it may be immediately repaired on the spot, with the help only of the hammer and folder.

Monsieur de la Valiere, lieutenant-general of the artillery, very much commends this invention, a proof of which is to be made in the arsenal. The inventor flatters himself that he shall be able, with the assistance of one man only, to forge and complete 50 of those guns in a year.

Were other nations agreed to lay aside those instruments of violence, so horribly destructive of the human species, we might then, with equal safety, lay them aside also; but, as self-defence and preservation render it necessary to be upon a level with enemies, improvements of the like kind should not be neglected on our part.

As artillery comes under the articles of arms and utensils of war, &c. it is proper to observe, that it cannot be imported without licence from his majesty; and, if otherwise, the whole is not only forfeited, but treble the value. 1 Jac. II. chap. 8. sec. 2.

Such licence being obtained, except for the furnishing of his majesty's public stores, is void, and the offender incurs a præmunire, and is disabled to hold any office from the crown.

ARTOIS, a country in France, is bounded by Flanders on the north, and partly on the east, on which side it borders also on Hainault and Cambresis; and it is bounded by Picardy on the south and on the west. The chief trade of this country consists in grains, flax, hops, wool, oil of cabbage and turnip-seed, and linnen cloths made at Bethune, Aire, St Venant, La Gorgue, Bapaume, and in their neighbourhood, which is the only manufacture they have in Artois.

The revenue of the states of Artois arises from the taxes, or duty laid upon cattle, and all sorts of liquors, as beer, wine, and brandy; these taxes amount to 400,000 livres per ann. The extraordinary funds are levied by a general imposition, or tax, laid upon all real estates, and called the hundredth penny; which, when it is fully paid, amounts to 215,000 livres a year. The Spaniards laid this tax in the year 1569. All real estates, of what kind soever, as arable lands, pastures, woods, houses, both in cities and the country, were then valued by commissaries appointed for that purpose, who drew up rolls of all the estates, with an exact account of their value; these rolls have been since re-examined, collated, and verified, with the utmost accuracy, so that there is not one single piece of land omitted.

Every proprietor is obliged to pay yearly one hundredth part of the value of his estate, as it is set down in those rolls, which are the fixed and constant rule of that kind of tax. However, when any estate comes to be less valuable, by some accident, to which the proprietor has not in the least contributed, the states take it into consideration, and make some allowance for it: but if the diminution of the value of any estate happens through the negligence, ill conduct, or bad management of the proprietor, the states pay no regard to it.

This tax is increased according to the necessity the states are under to raise more money; so that the subjects have paid twice, three times, or even six times, in a year, the hundredth penny, or the hundredth part of the value of their estates: with this difference, however, that the houses and lands which the clergy and nobility occupy, or cultivate with their own hands, pay the hundredth penny but once a year, whereas they are obliged to pay every hundredth penny that is laid, for all the lands they farm out to others.

The city of ARRAS is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make sails and tapestry-hangings, especially the latter, which art was invented here.

The people of ST OMARS have some trade, several small vessels coming up here from the sea, through Gravelines, by the river Aa.

At BETHUNE, is made an excellent sort of cheese, and sold in all the neighbouring countries. It is a place of some trade, and has two annual fairs.

As, signifies at Amsterdam the division of the pound, mark weight; 32 as's make an engel, 10 engels a loot, and 32 loots a pound.

ASBESTOS, or ASBESTUS, thus the Greeks call their incombustible cloth, mentioned by Pliny, whom Monsieur Mahudel criticises upon, as he does upon Pomet, in his dissertation quoted in the article AMIANTUS. He observes, that it is no longer necessary to look for it in the Indies, in Japan, in China, or in Egypt, whence it was got formerly, that mineral being now so common that it is to be met with in several islands of the Archipelago, and in those of Cyprus, Negropont, and Corfica. It is likewise found in several parts of Italy, especially on the mountains of Volterra, near Sestro, in Liguria, in Bavaria, in the island of Anglesey in Wales, in Spain, on the Pyrenean mountains, in France in the county of Foix, and near Montauban. All these several countries afford asbestos, wherein are observed remarkable differences. Monsieur Mahudel teaches the manner of spinning it; but, as the cloth made of it would be of very little use, we shall only refer the reader to that learned man's curious dissertation.

Naturalists and philosophers generally reckon the asbestos among the stones, whence its appellation of lapis asbestos. But Dr Plot rather judges it a terra lapidosa, or a middle substance between stone and earth. As to its generation, the same author takes it to be a mixture of some salt, and a pure earth, without sulphur, coagulated in the winter, and hardened by the heats in summer. The salt, J. Hesselius says, is a liquid allum, of a milky substance, inclining to yellow, that sweats out of the earth, and smells like rotten cheese.

The lapis asbestos is really a sort of native fossil stone, which may be split into threads, or filaments, very fine, brittle, yet somewhat tractable, silky, of a greyish silver-colour, not unlike talc of Venice. It is almost insipid to the taste, indissoluble in water, and, when exposed to the fire, it neither consumes nor calcines. A large burning glass, indeed, reduces it into little glass globules, in proportion as the filaments separate; but common fire only whitens it.

The filaments, or threads, are of different lengths, from one inch to 10. The stone is usually found inclosed within other very hard stones, though sometimes growing to the surface of the earth, and sometimes detached and separated from any.

Notwithstanding the common opinion, that fire has no effect on the asbestos, yet, in two trials made before the royal society, a piece of incombustible cloth made of this stone, a foot long, and half a foot broad, weighing about an ounce and a half, was found to lose above a dram of its weight each time.

The asbestos, applied to any part of the body, excites an itching; and yet we read that it was anciently prescribed for diseases of the skin, and particularly for the itch, unless it were rather the alumen plumosum, or plume allum, that was meant thereby; for even at this day they are frequently confounded. The industry of mankind has found a method of working this untoward mineral, and employing it in divers manufactures, particularly in cloth and paper. This manufacture is certainly difficult enough. Pliny calls the asbestos, inventurum, textu difficillimum, not easily found, and most difficult to weave.

Wormius asserts that the method of making cloth of asbestos is now intirely lost. And, indeed, one would scarce think it possible, without a mixture of some other pliant substance, as wool, hemp, or flax, the threads of the asbestos being, as it seems, too coarse and brittle to make any work tolerably fine.

However this be, Bapt. Porta assures us, that, in his time, the spinning of asbestos was a thing commonly known at Venice. Signior Castagnatta is said to have carried that manufacture to

such a degree of perfection, that his asbestos was soft and tractable, much resembling lamb-skins dressed white. He could make it thicker or thinner, as he pleased, and thus produce either a very white skin, or a very white paper.

Marco Paolo, the Venetian, gives us the method of manufacturing the incombustible cloth, or linnen, from the asbestos found in the province of Chinchintelas in Tartary, from one Curficar, a Turk, superintendent of the mines in that country, as follows:

The lanuginous mineral, being first dried in the sun, is then pounded in a brass mortar, and the earthy part separated from the woolly, which is afterwards well washed from filth. Being thus cleaned, it is spun into thread, like other wool, and afterwards wove into cloth, which, if foul or spotted, they cleanse, he says, by throwing it into the fire for an hour's time, whence it comes out unhurt, and as white as snow. This very method, according to the account given us by Strabo, seems to have been used in manufacturing the Cretan amiantus, or asbestos, with this addition, that, after it was pounded, and the woolly part separated from the earthy, the wool was combed; and Agricola says the same.

Signior Campani describes four sorts of the incombustible cloth, whereof he had specimens in his museum; the first sent him from Corfu, the second from Seftri di Ponente, the third coarser and darker than the rest, and the fourth from the Pyrenean hills; and observes, that, though he kept it three weeks in a glass-house-fire, yet he found it unaltered, though he could not preserve a stick, wrapped in it from the fire. He proceeds afterwards to explain the manner of spinning it, and weaving it into cloth, which is thus: he first laid the stone in water (if warm the better) to soak for some time; then he opened and divided it with his hands, that the earthy parts might fall out of it, which are whitish, like chalk, and serve to bind the thready parts together; this makes the water thick and milky. This operation he repeated six or seven times, with fresh water, opening and squeezing it again and again, till all the heterogeneous parts were washed out, and then the flax-like parts were collected, and laid in a sieve to dry.

As to the spinning, he first shews a method discovered to him, which is as follows: lay the asbestos, cleaned as above, between two cards, such as they use to card wool with, where let it be gently carded, and then clapped in between the cards, so that some of it may hang out of the sides; then lay the cards fast on a table, or bench; take a small reel, made with a little hook at the end, and a part to turn it by, so that it may be easily turned round. This reel must be wound over with white thread; then having a small vessel of oil ready, with which the fore-finger and thumb are constantly to be kept wet, both to preserve the skin from the corrosive quality of the stone, and to render the filaments thereof more soft and pliant, by continuing to twist about the thread on the reel, in the asbestos hanging out of the cards, some of the latter will be worked up together in it, and by little and little the thread may, with care, be woven into a coarse sort of cloth; and, by putting it into the fire, the thread and oil will be burned away, and the incombustible cloth remain.

But, finding this way of uniting the stone with the thread very tedious, instead of the thread, he put some flax on a distaff; and, by taking three or four filaments of the asbestos, and mixing them with the flax, he found they might be easily twisted together, and the thread thus made much more durable and strong. So that there is no need of carding, which rather breaks the filaments, than does any good; only open and separate the filaments, after washing on a table, and take them up with the flax, which is sufficient.

As to the making of paper he observes, that, in the washing of the stone, there will remain several short pieces at the bottom of the water, of which paper may be made in the common method.

He concludes with the best way of preserving the cloth, or any thing made of the asbestos, which, by reason of its excessive dryness, is very apt to break and twist. It consists in keeping it always well oiled, which is the only preservative.

When the cloth is put into the fire, the oil burns off, and the cloth comes out white and purified.

ASCI, in geography, are those inhabitants of the globe, which, at certain times of the year, have no shadow. Such are the inhabitants of the torrid zone, to whom the sun is sometimes vertical.

ASEM, or **AZEM**, or **ACHEM**, or **ACHAM**, a kingdom in the East-Indies, has independent Tartary and Boutan on the north; Tipra on the south; part of China on the east, and of Mogul on the west, from which it is divided, according to some maps, by the river Arracan. This is one of the best countries of Asia, producing all the necessaries for life, besides mines of gold and silver, steel, lead, iron, the best of gum-lacque, and store of coarse silk, spun by worms that live all the year on their trees; but, though it has a good lustre, it soon frets. Though it has plenty of provisions, dog-flesh is sold in their monthly markets as the greatest dainty. They have very good grapes, of which when dried, they make aqua vitæ, but no wine. They make good salt of the

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green scum at the top of their standing waters, after being dried and burnt, and the ashes boiled in a cloth. They make another sort from the ashes of the leaves of Adam's fig-tree, which is so tart, that they stir it twelve days together in water, strain it through a cloth, and then boil it. Of the same ashes they make a lee, which renders their silk as white as snow; but they have not leaves enough to blanch half their silk. The king requires no subsidies of his people; and, though he is proprietor of all the mines, employs none to work in them but slaves, so that the rest of his subjects live at ease. They suffer no gold to be exported, but make it up in ingots, which pass in trade. Their silver is coined into pieces about 2 s. value. They export great quantities of their lacque to China and Japan, to varnish cabinets, &c.

ASIA, one of the four parts of the world, is divided from Europe by the Archipelago, the Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line from the river Tanais, or Don, almost to the river Oby in Muscovy; from Africa it is separated by the Red Sea; and from America, by the great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It is bounded on the west by the Black Sea and the Mediterranean; on the south and east by the Arabic, Persian, Indian, and Chinese Ocean; and on the north by the Frozen Ocean: but how far it reaches that way is not known. Asia is, next to America, the largest quarter of the four. It extends itself quite from the equator to the polar circle, or perhaps to the pole itself: so that the climates are very various, as well as the peculiar productions of each. Of these we shall give a particular detail in speaking of the several parts in their proper places, and observe only in general, that it comprehends all the temperate, the bigger half of the torrid, and great part of the frigid zone: yet if we except some parts of Arabia and Tartary, and some of the more northern tracts, the whole country is rich and fruitful, and some parts of it exceedingly so. Its length from east to west may be computed at 4800 miles, and its breadth, as far as it is known, from north to south 4300.

In the general consideration of the trade of Asia, we shall throw it under two grand divisions. 1. That which is carried on chiefly under the dominion of the Turks, viz. in Asia Minor, and its islands, Syria, Palestine, Diarbeck, Turcomania, Georgia, &c. as also in some parts of Arabia and Persia; and which, with respect to Europe, is called the Turkey trade. 2. That which is included under the general term of the East-India, viz. the trade of the coasts of Arabia and Persia, the kingdoms of Mogul, China, Japan, the Indian islands, &c.

The soil of that part of Asia which is under the dominion of the Turks, is naturally the most fertile, though the tyranny of its present possessors has rendered it almost a wilderness. The greater part of the fields are every-where over-run with weeds and brambles, whilst the few that are cultivated, though in a most shameful and slovenly manner, do yet yield excellent corn and fruits, grapes, olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, besides coffee, rhubarb, balsam, opium, galls, and other valuable drugs and gums; and are a sufficient proof of the richness of those countries, if they were in the hands of such as would improve, rather than injure and destroy them.

The Turks have no less aversion to the arts of commerce, than to those of agriculture, being the greatest discouragers of trade, by their indolence and haughtiness, despising manufactures, and utterly neglecting the conveniencies which their happy situation might afford them: so that the whole trade of this part of the world is carried on by merchants from other nations, who are continually pouring in to settle among them. From the eastern parts are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; from the western are chiefly Venetians, English, French, and Dutch, with Jews also, mostly Italian.

The principal articles of commerce, in this part of Asia, are, raw silk, cotton, wool, and yarn, program, goats hair, carpets, tapestries, calcuts, cordavans, and several other rich manufactures of silk, &c. besides a vast variety of drugs, gums, dye stuffs, earths, fruits, &c.

All these are transported to Europe, and constitute a great part of what is called the Levant trade; which, as observed above, is carried on by foreign merchants settled at the ports on the coasts of Syria and Asia Minor. Hence they have an inland communication by means of caravans over the whole Asiatic Turkey, into Arabia, Persia, and even into the Indies; whence they convey many of the rich commodities of those countries to England, Holland, France, and Italy.

The merchants who carry on this inland traffic, are chiefly Armenians, a very skilful and honest people, and by whom the products of all these parts are spread likewise, over the Black Sea and the Caspian, into the European Turkey and Muscovy. So that this part of Asia is the center of a prodigious commerce, though greatly declined, since the European ships have discovered the way to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope: for, before that time, all the commodities of the Indies were transmitted to Europe through this channel.

The trade of the other grand division of Asia may be comprehended under the general term of the East-Indies, in which are included all the countries and dominions, from the gulph

of Mocha quite to China, and all the islands from Madagascar to the Philippines: this general term is more reconcilable to us, at least in England, as the charter of the East-India company takes in the whole under the same denomination; and the trade from Europe to all or any of those countries, as well as from those countries to Europe, is called the East-India trade.

In giving a circumstantial account of the trade of the Indies, when we confine ourselves to the peculiar products and growth of the several countries, as well in regard to their particular branches of home trade with one another, as to their exportations to other parts of the world; those several countries will be spoken of separately. At present, we shall only give a general and promiscuous view of the productions of this part of Asia, and just point out the great channels of its commerce.

Nature has been surprisingly bountiful, in storing this quarter of the world, not only with all those inestimable commodities which she has imparted in common to others, but has added abundance besides, which have been either sparingly communicated, or utterly denied to the rest of the world.

Among the vast variety of choice productions, are diamonds, pearl, coral, gold, silver, copper, iron; sulphur, red earth, salt-petre, allum, quick-silver, potter's earth (of which is made the porcelain) raw silk, cotton, tea, sago, coffee, nutmegs, mace, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, indigo, china-root, aquila-wood, rhubarb, musk, vermilion, sticklack, borax, lapis lazuli, dragon's-blood, cubebs, frankincense, saffron, myrrh, manna, ambergrease, and many other of the valuable drugs and gums. And, as the inhabitants of this part of the world are furnished with the richest materials for manufactures, so have they infinitely surpassed all others in the excellency of their performances, which their inimitable wrought silks, rich calicoes, muslins, and other stuffs, their admirable works in gold and silver, china, and lacquered ware, do sufficiently testify.

These several commodities, produced in the various parts of the Indies, afford an infinite fund, both for their home and their foreign commerce.

The coasting trade carried on partly by the nations of India one among another, and partly by the Europeans, English, Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Spaniards, with them separately and apart, is in itself very great, and consists of the several branches following.

The Turks carry on trade from Aden into the gulph to Mocha, and all along the Red Sea to Suez, from whence their coffee and other goods are carried to Egypt, to Alexandria, and thence by sea, or land, or both, to Constantinople, Aleppo, Smyrna, and other places.

The trade of the Arabians and Persians up the gulph of Ormus, now called the gulph of Persia, to Bassora, by which they supply the great caravans with Persian and Indian goods of all sorts, to be carried by the Euphrates and Tigris to Bagdat, and thence to Trepizond on the Black Sea, one way, and over the deserts upon camels to Aleppo, another way.

The coasting trade of the European merchants and Indians promiscuously, upon the west side of the coast of India, viz. that of Guzuratte, India, and Malabar, and the like coasting trade of the same European nations, upon the other side of India, viz. the coast of Coromandel, Golconda, and Bengal. The trade into, and a great way up, the river Ganges, in which there are several factories and settlements of the European nations, besides the trade of the natives, who bring goods down the stream of that mighty river from very remote countries.

The next trade, on this side of India, is that of Achin, on the north point of the island of Sumatra, and from thence two ways south. (1.) Along the west shore of that great island to Bencouli, and to the straits of Sunda, which is the south point of the same island; and thence on the west shore of the island of Java, whither the European ships generally go for provision, especially black cattle, and where there is a very great plenty; and from thence still south to the straits of Baily, and the islands of Timor and the Moluccas. (2.) In the inside, or east shore of the island of Sumatra, and the coast of Malacca, and to the port and city of Malacca, now in the hands of the Dutch, and from thence, through the straits of Singapore, to the north side of the island of Borneo.

Here the course of trade divides itself two ways, and in direct contrary channels, in both very considerable; and a third way also, though not of so great extent as the two other.

The first is north, to the eastern coast of Asia, the utmost extent of the known world on that side, viz. to the great gulph of Siam: the coast of Cambodja: to Cochin China and Tonqueen: and lastly, to the empire of China, and even to Japan. Upon all these long extended shores, there is a very great coasting trade carried on by the Chinese and Malayans.

The second course of trade is south from Borneo to the Dutch settlement of Batavia, on the island of Java, as also to the whole coast of that great island; where the Javans, and other nations, drive a considerable trade from port to port, and from island to island, particularly to the island of Borneo.

This trade takes yet another course from Borneo, and that is

farther east, namely, to the innumerable islands of those seas, called the Indian Archipelague; and this reaches not only to Ternate, Tydore, Celebes, Gillolo, and all the islands where the Dutch are not too powerful, and will admit them, but even to the Philippines.

These are in general the coasts and countries which the Europeans are more particularly acquainted with, the knowledge of which is chiefly owing to their commerce among the people of the several nations inhabiting those countries. But there are yet other inland branches of commerce among them, and those very considerable, which we cannot come at a particular description of. We are assured, that the Chinese in particular have an immense inland traffic, by its many canals and navigable rivers, and especially by that inimitable canal near 1000 miles in length, which traverses the whole Chinese empire from Canton to Peking.

Having thus given a summary account of their home trade, as it is carried on coast-wise, we are to consider the trade between the East-Indies and the rest of the world, taken in its largest extent.

The trade of the Red Sea to Suez, and from the coast of India and Malabar, into the gulph of Persia and up to Bassora, has been already mentioned. It is necessary to observe, that the former was anciently the only way of commerce, whereby the spices and rich goods of India were conveyed to Alexandria, and thence into the several parts of Europe; but it has been entirely cut off, since the Portuguese made the passage by long-sea. By the latter, a large quantity of the fine calicoes, rich wrought silks, spices, drugs, diamonds, and particularly pearl, are still conveyed to Aieppo, and thence to England, France, Holland, &c. as well as to Trepizond on the Black Sea, and so to Constantinople.

Another branch of the northern commerce from India, is by land from the upper part of the Mogul empire to Armenia and Georgia, and thence over the Caspian Sea. This course of trade is very improveable; and the late Czar of Muscovy intended to establish a communication this way, between his own dominions and those of the Great Mogul. And, at present, the goods of the provinces of Upper India are to be found in many of the provinces that border upon the Caspian. There is also a third intercourse of trade by land between India and Europe, viz. the passage by land from China to Muscovy. This has not only been performed, but is still practised, and the tea, wrought silks, and other goods that are not too bulky, are carried yearly this way from China to Europe, in pretty great quantities.

But the grand channel of commerce between Europe and the Indies, is by sea from England, Holland, France, and Denmark, round the Cape of Good Hope, and so to all the several parts of India and China. This is managed by exclusive companies, and free merchants tolerated by those companies, to carry on the coasting trade, no nation admitting private adventurers to be otherwise concerned therein. The several settlements these have in the Indies, together with their powers and privileges, will come under the heads of the respective companies, viz. the English-East-India company, the Dutch, the French, &c.

Asia is certainly extremely rich and fertile in its natural productions, but it is rendered still infinitely richer by the prodigious numbers, and inimitable diligence and application of its inhabitants, who are so happily circumstanced as to stand in need of nothing from the other parts of the world; and their industry and unwearied labour is so great, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce. By this means, the state of trade between Europe and Asia stands thus, viz.

Europe calls for a vast variety of goods from Asia.

Asia calls for more money than any thing else from Europe. Yet there seems to be a kind of peculiarity in this trade, to the infinite advantage of the Indian and Chinese commerce, and the great disadvantage of most, if not all, the nations in Europe. For the trade of Asia drains the whole western world of their ready money, in return for their mere products and manufactures.

Whether this is such disadvantage to Europe, as some are inclined to think, will be considered under the article of the EAST-INDIA TRADE. See AMERICA.

In the interim, we would only observe, that some great politicians have looked upon gold and silver in no other light than as commodities; and ought to be as freely exported and imported, except in our own coin, as any other whatsoever. And, if Europe at present contained all the gold and silver that Africa and America have ever produced, it is to be questioned, whether she might be said to be e'er the richer, by reason that gold and silver would then be, as was said of Solomon's time, as plenty as the stones in the streets, and therefore of little or no value. So that a commerce which takes off from the Europeans some proportion of its silver, may be as necessary as any other, to keep up its value equally with that of gold, the latter always finding its value, according to the quantity of the former.

For a particular and distinct view of the trade of Asia, in all its capital branches, we shall represent it, under those particular and distinct heads, which will be enumerated in our in-

dex of reference for that purpose, under the ENGLISH, FRENCH, and DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANIES, &c. &c.

ASIA MINOR ISLANDS: These islands, in the flourishing times of Greece and Rome, were very considerable for their fertility, opulence, and the number of inhabitants, trade, product, and many other advantages, most of which they have in a great measure lost, since they have unhappily fallen into the hands of the Turks. The most considerable on the western coasts are, 1. Tenedos. 2. Lesbos. 3. Chios. 4. Samos. 5. Nicaria. 6. Patmos. 7. Claros. 8. Leria. 9. Coos. 10. Astypata. 11. Carpathus; besides a great number of small ones. On the south coast, 1. Rhodes. 2. Cyprus, and some small ones about them.

1. TENEDOS, is famed for the most excellent Muscadine wines it produces.

2. LESBOS, since called MYTILENE, from its capital town, and now METELIN, and METELINO, is in many parts of it fruitful, producing plenty of corn, wine, fruit, &c. The sea likewise affords plenty of fish, especially large quantities of oysters, which are conveyed hence to Smyrna. The fruits here, especially the figs, are the best in the Archipelago, and the wines very rich; the mountains are covered with trees, especially pines; and many of them have quarries of jasper, and several sorts of marble.

The chief trade of the island consists in grain, wine, fruits, butter, cheese, black-pitch, which is gathered from the pines above-named, whilst the boards that are sawed from them, are made use of to build small vessels. The tribute that is paid to the Grand Seignior, is computed at above 18,000 piafters.

Mytilene, the capital, now Caffro, hath a very good port; as likewise Petra. Other harbours for ships are Caloni, Siguri, Jero; besides several other ports and creeks, which are mostly haunted by pirates. The city of Mytilene made formerly a much more considerable figure, with respect to its trade and opulence; but it hath been reduced so low, since it hath been under the Turkish yoke, that its inhabitants are mostly poor. However, here is a good magazine for stores for the galleys, which are continually employed in cruising against the pirates that infest those seas.

3. CHIOS, CHIOS, now SCIO, and by the Turks SAKISACUDI, is mostly mountainous, stony, and in great want of water, having but few springs and little rain, which is no small check to its fertility; however, the ground is naturally so rich and good, that it produces plenty of corn, fine wine, oil, honey, fruits of all sorts, variety of gums, especially that of mastich, out of the lentisk-tree in great abundance, and yields a vast profit to the inhabitants. The people are generally very rich and numerous, and carry on the silken and some other manufactures; and the Greeks, who swarm here, have much larger privileges than in any of the Grand Seignior's dominions. The island is so very conveniently situated for commerce, that its sea-port, though none of the best, is the rendezvous of all the ships that sail either to Constantinople, or go from thence to Syria, Egypt, &c.

Here is generally kept a squadron of Turkish galleys, to scour the coasts from pirates; notwithstanding which, and the vast resort of other ships, the mole is suffered to run to decay.

The time for gathering the gum mastich is in August, and September. The chief custom-house officer is received at that season, at Scio, the capital, with music and feasting, and receives all that is gathered for the use of the Grand Seignior, part of which he sends to Constantinople, and the rest he sells to the merchants; they call it sackes, and some chew it, and others mix it with their bread; but it is very dangerous for any Christians here to keep it by them. This island is said to pay to the Grand Seignior double what any other in the Archipelago doth. All the Turks in this island are computed to amount to about 10,000, the Latins to 2000, but the Greeks are thought to come up to near 100,000. Besides Scio, the capital places, are

Callimachia, their principal mastich town, which is large and populous.

Cardamita, famed for the richness of its territory, which produces 170 tons of good wine, one year with another.

Cambia, noted for its pines, with which the Turks build their galleys.

The neighbourhood of Volisto produces 5000 weight of silk every year, with which the people pay their tribute.

Armolia, one of the mastich villages.

Mefta, celebrated for its Arvifian fields, which produce the vine that yields nectar.

4. SAMOS, is so naturally rich and fertile, that nothing can be planted in it but will grow, and yield a plentiful crop. It was, during the time that Greece was in its glory, so well peopled and cultivated, that it vied with all its neighbouring islands in every thing but bigness. Vines, in particular, seem generally more natural to its soil, than to the rest; and it is famed especially for its excellent muscadine, which is no way inferior to that of Tenedos. This, together with a fine sort of onions and garlic, and also an ordinary kind of earthen ware (which however used formerly to be finer and more famed) great quantities of raw silk of a good price, oil, fruits, honey,

saffron, some minerals, drugs, a fine red bole, emery, oker, and a black insipid earth, of great use for dyeing blacks, are the chief products of the island, and what they commonly vent abroad to Scio, Smyrna, &c. But the inhabitants are so much oppressed by the Turks, and so often infested by pirates, that they are very thin and poor, and the greater part of that fine land lies uncultivated. The chief misfortune both of the island, and its capital Samo, is, that they have two straits, one on the west, the other on the east, perpetually haunted by corsairs, which, by cruising on the ships that pass on either way between Constantinople and Syria, Egypt, &c. have quite obstructed its antient commerce, whilst the Turks suffer those free-booters to rove about, without taking such proper means to suppress them, as the Venetians did.

Vati, once a considerable and spacious sea-port, is dwindled into a poor town, though it has still the most commodious harbour in the island, and is the residence of the French vice-consul.

5. ICARIA, now NICARIA, for want of harbours for shipping, is altogether incapable of commerce. Here are the finest winter grapes that can be found in the Levant. The inhabitants live by felling of planks of pine and oak, for building and fuel. They are so poor, that neither pirates think them worth plundering, nor can the Turks make them pay any considerable tribute.

6. PATMOS, now PATMOSA, or PATINO, hath many and convenient ports, from which it has formerly drawn great advantages, by the whole Venetian fleets lying there to-winter. But it has fared much worse, since it has fallen under the Turkish yoke, and is now as low and poor as any of the rest. The port of de la Scala is reckoned the best in the Archipelago. But that, with the rest, has been so infested with corsairs, that the inhabitants have been forced to retire from it to the monastery of St John, two miles up a hill, which is a kind of a citadel. There are neither Turks nor Latins in this island, but the administration of civil affairs is entrusted to one or two Greek officers; whose chief business is to see after the capitation, which amounts to 8000 crowns, and the land-tax at 2000 more per ann.

7. CLAROS, has nothing worth notice.

8. LERIA, is well inhabited both by Turks and Greeks, and furnishes the neighbouring country with aloes.

9. COOS, or COS, by the Italians LANGO, or ISOLA LONGA, and by the Turks and Greeks STANCHIO, hath a pleasant and fruitful soil, and rises on the east part with grateful mountains, which yield a noble prospect, as well as good pasture, rich wines, fruit, and other trees, particularly the turpentine and cyprus, besides a great variety of medicinal, as well as other useful plants. From these mountains flow likewise a number of rivers and springs, which water the flat grounds, and make them fertile in corn, wine, olives, and every necessary of life. The Turks are here very careful of their cyprus-trees, and will not suffer them to be cut down.

Cos, or Stanchio, the chief town of this island, hath a good convenient haven, secured by a mole, and well guarded against pirates by galleys, as well as by a good stout castle, which commands both it and the port, and all kept in good repair by the Turks. The ships that go to and from Constantinople, to Syria, Egypt, &c. do generally touch here.

10. ASTYPATA, now STAMPALIA, not worth notice.

11. CARPATHUS, now SCARPANTO, yields nothing considerable but marble. It is poorly inhabited, being mountainous and barren, and the island is so infested with pirates, that few care to live in it. Scarpanto has a pretty good harbour; and the town was formerly well fortified, when under the knights of Rhodes and the Venetians, who both used it as a curb on the trade between Constantinople and Egypt, which made the Turks eager to get it into their hands.

On the south coasts of Asia Minor, are, 1. Rhodes. 2. Cyprus.

1. RHODES, formerly an island of great fame, made an early figure at sea in the times of the Romans, and their power and government was so great, that they commanded the neighbouring seas, and their laws used to decide maritime causes and differences, till succeeded by those of Oleron: it is now well inhabited, and makes as considerable a figure as the Turkish tyranny permits any place to do, that is fallen under its yoke. It was no less famed for the richness and fertility of its soil, producing the best wines, and all sorts of delicious fruits. The city of Rhodes, though much decayed from its ancient lustre, yet continues still to be a very handsome city, and a convenient sea-port. It hath two harbours, the smaller whereof is for the galleys, of which there is always a squadron kept here, to cruise on the ships of Malta. Most of the inhabitants in this island are Greeks, but miserably oppressed and poor. The Jews who live here, came originally from Spain, and fare somewhat better, being allowed to dwell in the city, and even in the castle, whilst the Christians are only permitted to live in the suburbs.

The country in general, especially that about the city of Rhodes, abounds with wheat, honey, wax, olives, citrons, figs, oranges, &c. and the mountains with iron, copper, and

other

other minerals. The chief manufactures are soap, camblets, and tapestry, for which the town is a common mart, as well as for all other merchandizes of the Archipelago; such as corn, wine, fruits, raisins, wax, cordevants, cotton, with yarn and stuffs of it, damask and other silk stuffs, vermilion, &c. See OLERON and RHODIAN LAWS.

The island is governed by a basha, who hath the revenue of it for his maintenance, and that of the galleys.

2. **CYPRUS**, was formerly a rich, fruitful, and flourishing island. Its soil produced plenty and variety of corn and other grain, excellent wines, oil, sugar, honey, saffron, cotton, wool, several metals and minerals, and abundance of other useful commodities; though its climate is none of the most temperate, being excessive hot and sultry in summer, insomuch that it sometimes dries up all the springs. The country likewise is much infested with locusts, which hover in the air like clouds during the hot season, and sometimes devour all their corn and fruit; but are often driven into the sea by the northerly winds.

On these accounts, as well as the severity of the Turkish government, the country is thinly peopled, and poorly cultivated in most parts; though, where it is near the cities, it not only produces every thing necessary and delightful, but seems to enjoy a perpetual spring. The chiefest manufactures are those of cotton and wool, which are here the best in all the east; they have likewise some silk, but nothing so good in proportion. They had formerly great quantities of sugar, till one of their bashas caused all the canes to be burnt up. The common people make a good livelihood in catching great quantities of a kind of bird, of the size of our larks, which they pickle with vinegar and salt, especially in the months of September and October; and these they send to Venice, where they fetch a good price. They send some thousand barrels of them in a year thither, and are paid ready money for them. Famagusta, a fair city and sea-port here, was very rich and flourishing before the Turks took it, and a great check to their power both by sea and land.

Nicosia, now the metropolis of the island, when in the hands of the Venetians, was compared to Florence for beauty and opulence, and is still a handsome town, though much reduced.

Larneza, Larneça, is a commodious sea-port, and the course to it is great from other parts of the island; insomuch that the French and Venetians have a consular residing in it. The inhabitants are three parts Christians, Europeans, and Greeks, and the rest Turks; and it hath a good many English, Dutch, and other merchants, that reside in a neighbouring village. The chief commodities laden here are cotton and cotton-yarn, and coarse wool for quilts and mattresses. Ceremes, is the place where people take ship to sail to the continent, but a small half ruined city.

ASLANI, which is also, but somewhat improperly, called **ASSELANI**, is the Dutch dollar or piafter, which is very current in all the ports of the Levant. The Turks, who call a lion aslani, have given that name to this coin, because there is the figure of a lion struck on both sides of it.

There are two sorts of aslani, that of Holland, and that which is struck at Inspruck, in the county of Tyrol. The Dutch dollar is not only of a lesser degree of fineness than that of Inspruck, but, if we may believe Sir John Chardin, so famous by his travels, and by the agreeable and accurate account he has given of them, the money or coin, which the Dutch carry to the Levant, is very much mixed with false pieces; the quarter piafters, chiefly, are either entirely counterfeit, or have at most but one half of fine silver. The Arabs, who mistake the lion for a dog, call them abukefbi. The aslani is worth from 115 to 120 aspers, and sometimes but 80 aspers, or 24 sjains. The leewendaelder, or lion piafter of Holland, is sometimes equal to the current piafter, and is sometime worth 33½ per cent more, as it was towards the end of December 1729, when the agio of the piafters of 8 reals was 65 per cent.

ASPEE, a measure of corn in Lyonnois and Mâconois. It is also said about Lyons of a certain quantity of wine, which is an as's load.

ASPER, a small silver coin, struck in the dominions of the Grand Seigneur, throughout which it is current. It is worth something more than 6 deniers Tournois of France. When it is good, they give 120 of them for a French crown of 60 sols (worth about 32 d. English) but as there are a great many false aspers, which the bashas and the Jews cause to be struck in the remote provinces, they are seldom received but at the rate of 4 deniers per asper, so that 160 make a French crown. The parats, or meidins, are worth 3 aspers.

An evaluation of the several coins that are current in the Grand Seigneur's dominions, according to the asper, reckoning the alper at the rate of 6 deniers French.

120 aspers are worth 60 sols of France.

A sequin of Venice and Turkey, 414 aspers, or liv. 10. 10 s. French.

The piafters of Peru and Mexico, of 506 grains French weight, go for 208 to 210 aspers.

A ryal, or six-dollar of the empire, 82 aspers. In proportion to the sequin, this ought to be about 130 aspers.

The Dutch six-dollar, 70 aspers, ditto 200 aspers.

ASPER is also a money of account, and the books are kept at Constantinople, and in all the ports of the Levant, in piafters or Abouqueb, medins, and aspers.

ASPHALTUM, or **BITUMEN OF JUDEA**, otherwise Jew's Pitch. This bitumen, or pitch, is taken from the Asphaltite lake, or Dead Sea, in Judea.

That lake, so famous in the Holy Scriptures, and which is still a dreadful monument of the just punishment of Sodom, Gomorrah, and the other cities that were destroyed by fire from heaven, does nourish no kind of fish, and, even by the stench of its exhalations, kills the birds that fly over it. But, on the surface of its waters, swims a kind of blackish grease, which the Arabs gather, and use to pitch their ships with, instead of tar and pitch, which are used in Europe.

This grease is the true asphaltum, which the Jews employed formerly to embalm their dead bodies, and is still pretty much used in France, and in other countries, either in medicine, where it enters into the composition of Venice treacle, or to make that fine black varnish which so well imitates that of China.

The asphaltum is of a shining black, heavy, and of a very strong smell, so much like the black tar of Sweden, that nothing but the bad smell, and the hardness of the asphaltum, can make any difference between them.

It is sometimes adulterated by a mixture of pitch, and this is called artificial pissasphaltum; and it is also by the fetid smell, and the nasty black colour of this drug, that the cheat is discovered.

Asphaltum pays duty of importation in France at the rate of 5 livres per 100 weight.

ASPHALTUM, is also a kind of stone, or mineral water, found in the valley of Lydim in Asia, near ancient Babylon; a mine of which was found, since the beginning of the eighteenth century, in the county of Neufchatel in Switzerland.

This mineral asphaltum has several properties.

1. Being prepared with other matters, it makes an excellent cement, which neither the air can corrupt, nor water penetrate.

2. With the oil of it, which is easy to extract, is made a sort of pitch, proper to caulk ships and vessels with, both for the sea and rivers, and which preserves them better from worms, and more effectually resists the impressions of salt or fresh water than any other caulking commonly used. And with this it seems of late, the French caulk much of their shipping, to their great advantage.

3. Finally, its oil used alone, or mixed with some topical remedies, has several particular properties, which make it to be used with success in several medicinal and chirurgical cases, for the cure of several external distempers, especially ulcers, and all cutaneous diseases.

The asphaltum of Switzerland differs from that of Judea, in that it is of a dark colour, like roasted coffee, more mixed with earth, and less shining. By its smell and weight it resembles very much the pissasphaltum of the ancients, which is a fossil pitch. See *Bibliothique Italique*, tom. i. p. 120.

It is very probable that the bitumen, with which Herodotus, and all the ancients after him, thought they had made the cement of the stones of the celebrated walls of ancient Babylon, which were reckoned among the seven wonders of the world, was nothing but the asphaltum of Lydim, which was simply called bitumen, on account of the bituminous and oleaginous quality of the cement which they made with it. This Asiatic, or Babylonian asphaltum, is pretty scarce in Europe, especially in France, where that which is imported pays the same duty as the asphaltum of Syria, otherwise bitumen of Judea, mentioned in the foregoing article.

With regard to the asphaltum lately discovered in Switzerland, if it really has all the properties expressed in the petition presented to the king's council in France, by the Sieur de la Sablonniere, for obtaining a privilege to carry on an exclusive trade of that commodity throughout the whole kingdom, which properties have been mentioned above, it is very probable that they will no longer have any occasion in France for foreign asphaltum, to which that of Switzerland may be substituted, and even with considerable advantages.

In the decree of the council of state, issued February 21, 1720, upon that request of the Sieur de la Sablonniere, it is observed, that, 'his majesty taking into consideration the advantages that may accrue from that asphaltic mine, several experiments of which were made before him, gave permission to the said petitioner to import into the kingdom, during the term of 10 years, beginning the 1st of May following, upon certificates signed by him, such quantities as he shall think proper of the mine of the asphaltic stone, burnt or unburnt, prepared or unprepared, as also the oil extracted from that stone, without paying any duties at the custom house offices on the borders, or within the kingdom. His majesty likewise gives him leave to cause the said stones, cement, pitch and oil of asphaltum, to be sold by such persons as he shall think fit, who shall not be molested by any merchants, or other persons, on account of such a sale.'

The place in the county of Neufchatel, from whence this bitumen is taken, is called Val-Travers, and is 4 leagues distant from the city of Neufchatel. It is a mountain, which is full of that mineral. Monsieur de la Sablonniere, who has still the exclusive privilege to import it into France without paying any duty, gets large quantities of it every year from the mine.

They make a great use of asphaltum throughout the whole sovereignty of Neufchatel and Valengia. They make particularly a perfume of it, by throwing some of this mineral upon live coals. This perfume is excellent for the cure of rheumatic pains, and for purifying stalls of stables, from bad air, occasioned by the distempers of cattle. Several trials have been made of this, which saved the lives of many cattle during the contagious distemper that had begun to rage in that country.

In order to reduce the stone asphaltum into powder, it must be calcined. The stone, being broke into small bits, must be put into a pan of iron, or some other metal, and, being placed over the fire, it must be stirred with a spatula, till the whole be reduced into a kind of earth, which it will be easy to grind in a mortar, when still hot.

They make an ointment of it, which is excellent for the cure of all the diseases of the skin, chilblains, &c. as also for all sorts of wounds, burnings, scaldings, strains, bruises, imposthumes, and rheumatic pains. This asphaltum, and all that is extracted from it, is sold by Mr James Faverger, a free citizen, at Neufchatel, who gives with it printed directions, in which is explained how it is to be used, the method of making a cement of it, &c.

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These encouragements, given in France to whatever has the aspect of promoting any kind of commerce, will naturally account for the extraordinary rise and prosperity of the trade of that great and flourishing kingdom. And throughout this work it will appear, from facts incontestable, that the measures which they have taken, and still continue to take, upon the plan of that able statesman Colbert, must inevitably advance the trade and navigation of that nation to the height they aim at.

Their policy, in regard to the promotion of trade, when it comes to be fully displayed, will be found worthy the imitation of all other states, which are well circumstanced for general traffic.

It is certainly a great truth that no person, foreigner or native, who has any abilities truly useful for the advancement of their trade, goes unencouraged, or unrewarded for his ingenuity and industry: this naturally draws numbers from other nations in Europe, who are able to do that kingdom great and important services; and this will appear to have been one great and principal source of their power and grandeur. I know not from what cause it happens, but true certainly it is, that general complaints are made in this nation that there is not due encouragement given to men of abilities to serve their country, by the advancing of arts and commerce. On this account, it is to be feared, that numbers of our most ingenious artists and manufacturers, and those who are happily turned for new important inventions and discoveries for the interest of trade, daily withdraw from this nation into France, and elsewhere, where they are cared for and encouraged suitably to their merit.

If this is really matter of fact, it is certainly very bad policy in Great-Britain. People, indeed, who meet with disappointments, are apt to complain, however justly they may deserve them: Rumor, res, sine teste, sine iudice, maligna, fallax. There are, doubtless, many idle, roguish, and enthusiastical projectors, who have no other foundation for their pretensions than whim and knavery. But, although ignorance and roguery do too often shew themselves under the mask of wisdom and integrity, yet, where the latter are real, the former having happened should by no means prevent due regard and encouragement from being given to true merit. When this proves the case, the really honest and modest inventor of new arts and discoveries for the benefit of trade is discouraged, and he either declines his pursuits, or withdraws with them to other countries.

The constant support of trade depends on a constant succession of new arts, on the improvement of the old manufactures, and the discovery of new (as I have fully observed under the article of artificers); as well as of whatever else has a tendency to lessen the price of labour. Yet so weak or wicked are many, that whoever attempts any thing of this kind, is immediately branded with the name of a projector; and, instead of encouraging him, he is by calumny and maltreatment forced out of the nation; his native country loses the benefit of his industry and ingenuity, and rival states enjoy the advantage of them.

It was a saying of the great statesman Colbert, that his friends could displease him in nothing more than by concealing from him one person of true merit, who was able to promote the trade of his country; by reason, in that case, he

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was deprived of the opportunity of rewarding him suitably to his deserts.

There is a just occasion of lamenting, says the learned bishop Spratt, the ill treatment which has been most commonly given to inventors. Nor do they only meet with rough usage from those that envy their honour; but even from the artificers themselves, for whose sakes they labour: while those that add some small matters to things begun, are usually enriched thereby; the discoverers themselves have seldom found any other entertainment than contempt and impoverishment. The effects of their industry are wont to be decried, while they live: the fruits of their studies are frequently alienated from their children; the little tradesmen conspire against them, and endeavour to stop the springs from whence they themselves receive nourishment. The common titles with which they are wont to be defamed are those of cheats and projectors. I cannot deny but many such do mingle themselves in the noble throng of great inquirers: as of old there were some that imitated philosophers only in beard and austerity: so I grant at this time there may false experimenters and inventors arise, who will strive to make themselves amends by their loud babbling and boasting, &c.—But, though the folly of such pretenders cannot be avoided, we must not therefore reject the sober and judicious observers. It is better sometimes to endure vanities, than, out of too much niceness, to lose any real invention. We ought to do with philosophical works as ministers of state with intelligence. It is the wisest course to give encouragement to all, lest, by shewing ourselves too scrupulous of being imposed on by falsehoods, we chance to be deprived of the knowledge of some important truths.

It cannot be supposed that men in power should sacrifice their time in listening to every idle scheme and invention that they may hear of, or that may be thrown in their way; but, when any thing comes to their knowledge which is nationally useful, it is then their duty to order proper inquiry to be made into its merits, that nothing estimable might be transported to other countries, for want of due regard to our own.

I have often thought, therefore, that it would be to the eternal glory of any minister of state in this kingdom, who should be instrumental in making suitable parliamentary provision for all new useful inventions and discoveries, to be duly inquired into by those who are judges of them.

And, with all humble submission, I think no body of gentlemen so proper to be appointed for that purpose as that most learned and illustrious corporation the Royal Society of London: for, as they are, or ought to be, constituted of a number of the most learned experimental philosophers in the nation, proper committees might be always chosen from among them, to examine into the merits of whatever should be referred to them by the Lords Commissioners of Trade, or by any other authority appointed for that purpose.

But this examination should be effectual, by giving whatever is offered, that has a reasonable foundation for it, a fair and an equitable trial. And, as this would be attended with a constant expence, that honourable society should be allowed a parliamentary fund, to enable them to carry into execution a design so much for the interest of the commerce and navigation of these kingdoms.

Although this might be attended, for the first few years, with an expence to the public, yet the public might soon be exonerated therefrom, by a very natural expedient, which is no more than this:—That, since these new inventions and discoveries would be fairly and effectually tried by the society, at the public expence, if they proved successful, the proposer, or the inventor, should be obliged to reimburse the society double the sum which they may have expended upon such trial: Against this no one, it is apprehended, could reasonably object; for, as, if the design proved abortive, the society would be at the expence; so, if it succeeded, the proposer ought to be at it; and the reason why such proposer should contribute double the sum expended, is gradually to raise a fund for the making of such trials as should miscarry; which would free the public from the expence, and fix it upon those who were the private gainers by the institution.

Moreover, it is little to be doubted but such a design would meet with large donations from other quarters: As its foundation was the improvement of useful arts and inventions, for the emolument of trade and navigation, the opulent merchants and tradesmen would not be wanting in their liberality on such occasions; and other persons of distinction, who were zealous friends to trade, would not be backward to give testimony of their regard to a design which would prove an inexhaustible fund of treasure to Great-Britain.

In regard to charitable institutions of every kind, there seems no want of the spirit of benevolence amongst us: and, as this would be a charitable institution not only for the benefit of men of ingenuity and industry, but so apparently beneficial to the community in general, it would the better enable us to support those numerous charities, which are so laudably set on foot.

And, perhaps, this would be the most effectual way not only

to keep our inventors at home, but our artificers and manufacturers of every kind; because these new arts would always furnish them with full employment, as well as our merchants and trademen, in the vending and exporting what they invented.

ASPIC, a plant which grows in plenty in Languedoc in Provence, and especially on the mountain of St Baume in France. It is a kind of lavender, pretty much like that which grows in our gardens, both with regard to its flowers, which are blue, and to the figure and green colour of its leaves. The botanists call it male lavender, *lavendula mas*, in Latin. They also give it other names, as *spica nardi*, *pseudo-nardus*, &c. The oil of aspic, that painters, farriers, and other artificers use, and which is likewise of some use in medicine, being employed in several Galenical compositions, is extracted from the flowers and small leaves of this plant. That oil is very inflammable, and, when once on fire, it is almost impossible to extinguish it.

The true oil of aspic is white, and of an aromatic scent. It is the only dissolvent of sandarac, by which means it may be easily distinguished from that which is counterfeited, and which is nothing but oil of turpentine, mixed with a little oil of petroleum.

Mr Savary is mistaken in asserting that the oil of aspic is the only dissolvent of sandarac; that gum is perfectly, and very easily, dissolved in spirits of wine; and they even make a very pretty varnish with 12 ounces of spirits of wine, 4 ounces of sandarac, $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ounce of gum elemi, and the same quantity of camphire; the whole put into a bottle, and only exposed to the sun, or put over hot ashes.

The author meant, perhaps, that nothing was more proper than the true oil of aspic to dissolve karabe, or yellow amber; and it is even after that manner that the varnish of one Martin, who has a great reputation in Paris, is composed. We may, in some cases, dissolve yellow amber, or karabe, in spirits of wine; but, for that purpose it must be tartarified, which is performed by rectifying that spirit with tartar, which takes all the phlegm that the spirit of wine may contain, provided it be done with a very slow fire, and according to the rules of art: there is even an excellent balm against rheumatism composed after that manner.

ASS, a domestic animal, which is slow, lazy, and dull, but patient, proper to work hard, and to carry or drag heavy weights. The largest and strongest of those animals are chosen for falcons, to leap mares, which are designed in studs for the breeding mules: and some of those mules are so highly valued, that they are sold even dearer than the finest horses.

ASSA, or **ASA-FCETIDA**, a gum extracted from a plant called in Latin *laserpitium*, whose leaves are like those of smallage, and whose stalk resembles that of the ferulaceous plant: it bears a broad feed.

This gum, which the French apothecaries for shortness sake call only *aser*, is seldom to be met with pure, and without adulteration.

Pliny, Theophrastus, and the other ancient writers, unanimously assert, that it was in high esteem in their time, and sold for its weight in silver, and that the emperors themselves reckoned it among the most precious things which they kept in their closets. But it does not appear that this description, which Monsieur Furetiere has borrowed from Pliny, chap. iii. of the sixth book of his Natural History, and which he has very much embellished, belongs, or can be applied, to the *assa-foetida* sold at present by our druggists; or some of its virtues at least must be now unknown.

The present *assa-foetida* is a gum, which, during the greatest heat of the summer, runs from a little shrub, whose leaves are like those of rue; it comes from the East-Indies, Persia, Media, Assyria, and Arabia. Some authors assert, that that which is brought from Persia runs from a tree, the leaves of which resemble those of radishes.

This gum is of a whitish colour, inclining first to yellow, then to red, and finally to purple. Its smell is so strong and so offensive, that the Germans have given it the name of *stercus diaboli*, or the devil's dung: the French druggists give it the same name, and call it also Syriac juice, liquor of Syria, and juice of Media.

Most of the *assa-foetida* they have in France is sent thither from London. The English send it in large barrels with iron hoops, which distinguishes the *assa-foetida* that comes from England from that of Marseilles, which is in baskets, made of palm-tree leaves.

This gum is either in lumps, or in drops; but there is little of the latter sold; the merchants, being used to buy it in lumps, hardly know it again, when it is in drops.

It has already been observed that it is easy to adulterate it; and there have been people bold enough to sell the gum that comes from the pine-tree, or common incense, instead of *assa-foetida*.

The goodness of the *assa-foetida* is known by its colour and smell: a tolerable scent and a clear colour are the signs of its good quality; a black colour and a great stench are proofs of the contrary. The strong scent of this gum is much like that of garlic. The English and Dutch import it from Surat.

Assa-foetida is of use in medicine, it being a sovereign remedy for the cure of hysteric fits and disorders in women; but its bad or rather nauseous smell, is the reason why it is not so often prescribed as it otherwise would be.

ASSAY, **ESSAY**, or **SAY**, in metallurgical operations, is the proof, or trial, by small quantities, of the goodness and value of metals, ores, and metalline substances; a matter no one should be unacquainted with who deals in bullion, gold, and silver, or in foreign coins, or the smelting and refining of any of the metals from their native ores.

The smelting of metals from their native ores being the first operation that takes place in obtaining the quantity of metal therein contained, we shall first treat of the methods of making assays upon various sorts of ores.

Of the manner of assaying gold ore.

In order to which it must be observed, that the method varies according to the nature and disposition of the mineral matters along with which the metal happens to be mixed, whether it be stony, earthy, sulphureous, arsenical, &c. for sometimes gold is found in small fragments, either square or round, black or shining, among the sands of some rivers; probably as being washed down by the torrents, or course of the river, from some mine. Sometimes it is found in large grains, or a mere powdery substance, amidst a greasy clay, or soapy earth; and, in those cases, it generally contains a volatile part, or a part that will not fuse in the fire, but turn to an obstinate, dry, powdery calx; or else it is found interspersed among other metals, and their ores: whence little sparks of it frequently adhere to irony flints, and little blood-stones: or, lastly, it is found, sometimes more, sometimes less, intimately mixed along with other minerals in the mines; and the golden ores of sulphur and yellow marcasites, by some called yellow, and by others golden zink, &c. are found to afford gold by extraction in aqua regia, and this sometimes to profit. Gold is chiefly found in three different manners, or forms, (1.) In pure glebes, or clods, consisting of gold alone; in which form it is sometimes said to be met with in Hungary: accordingly, in the emperor's collection are preserved several lumps of pure gold, so found in the mines. (2.) It is found in a powdery form, and then called gold-dust, or sand-gold, in the sands of some rivers, brooks, &c. particularly in Guinea.

(3.) It is also found, and that usually, in whitish clods, dug out of mines 150, or 160 fathoms deep, intermixed with other fossils, as antimony, vitriol, sulphur, earths, stones and other metals.

It is rare that gold is found otherwise than under this last form: few places in the habitable globe afford it tolerably pure, except the coast of Guinea; though the greatest part brought from thence contains some impure heterogeneous parts, the Negroes being apt clandestinely to mix filings of brass, or copper therewith.

Laz. Ercker, assay-master to three emperors of Germany, under whose directions were all the mines of Germany, Hungary, Transilvania, and Bohemia, assures us, 'That it is rare any earth produces pure gold, but one metal or other still grows with it; and, even where it appears finest of all, it has its share of silver.' He adds, as an universal rule, 'That, where gold appears the purest, there is silver mixed along with it; and, where it is the hardest, there is both copper and silver.'

The mountains of Chili sometimes afford pure gold. In the clefts, or drains, between the ridges, is found a fine, ruddy earth, beneath which is a lay of blue stony matter, streaked here and there with yellow; and under this there are pure grains of gold, frequently of a considerable size.

To procure the gold, they direct the current of some rivulet hither, to carry off the incumbent earth, and lay the bed of gold bare. This done, they dig up the precious earth, and carry it to the *lavadero's*, where, by repeated lotions, the earthy lighter part is separated, and the gold left alone.

There is also a place in Scotland, where, over a lead mine, near the surface of the ground, they often find large grains of native gold, free from spar.

'I have, says Mr Boyle*, still a piece of native metal by me, which came from the same place, in weight above 40 grains, wherein gold is the predominant metal.'

* See Boyle's Abridg. vol. II. p. 322.

'They have worked in the gold mine at Crennitz, says Dr Brown, now upwards of 900 years. The mine is several English miles in length, and about 160 fathoms deep.—Of the ore, some is white, some black, red, and yellow. It is not rich enough to admit of any proof, or assay, in a small parcel, to find the proportion of metal it contains; but they pound a very large quantity of it, and wash it in a little river running nigh the place. The whole river, being divided into several cuts, runs over the ore continually, and so washes the earthy parts from the metalline. The common yellow earth of the country all about, though not esteemed ore, affords some gold: and in one place I saw the side of a hill dug away, which had been cast into the works, washed,

‘ washed, and wrought in the same manner as pounded ore, with considerable profit*.’

* Philosophical Transactions, no. 38.

It may be added, that gold is sometimes also obtained from copper ore, from tin ore, from common marcasites, from a red earth, from sand, from German talc †, and many other bodies, wherein it may not be suspected by persons who have no knowledge in matters of this nature.

† Boyle's Abridg. vol. i. p. 59, 157, 158; and vol. ii. p. 324, 325.

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My reason for dwelling a little upon the nature and aspect of the various sorts of gold ore, is with a view to put the reader on judging what kind of process is necessary to be made use of, in order to prove, or assay, the true value of those ores; for, if such a process be tried as is not adapted to throw off those heterogeneous mixtures, without loss of the pure metal, with which the ore may be clothed by nature, the true value thereof can never be justly ascertained: This, therefore, will be thought an essential consideration with those who would gladly obtain more than a superficial knowledge of matters of this kind.

The art of making assays with dispatch upon gold and silver ores, in small quantities, depends upon the fusion, or vitrification, of those heterogeneous fossil substances, which may be incorporated therewith.

Lead, and the glass of lead, and antimony and its glass, being great scorificators, or vitrifiers, they become the natural agents upon such occasion.

The method of assaying gold and silver ores, therefore, with stony and sandy mixtures, in small quantities, is commonly thus:

1. Take an ounce of gold or silver ore, and pulverize it finely; and having put 8 ounces of lead, cleared first of its silver, into an assay crucible, under a muffle, in the testing furnace, continue to use a gentle heat, till the lead has imbibed the powdered ore, and separated the more stony, earthy, or sandy matter, in the form of a glassy scoria, at the surface. (2.) Take out the lump of lead, impregnated with the gold, or silver, of the ore, and place it upon a test, well nealed for the purpose, and work with a proper degree of heat, till all the lead is either evaporated or vitrified, or imbibed by the bone-ash test; and what gold or silver the ore contains will remain upon the test in a bead, or grain, according to the yield of the ore; which being exactly weighed, and compared with the original weight of the ore, shews the proportion of gold or silver contained in the ore, and determines its richness.

If the metal produced be visible gold; and if what Ercker says be true, that there is no gold without some degree of silver therein; it may be necessary to go a step further, to make your assay accurate.

In order to separate the silver as effectually as may be, they melt, for the assay, three or four times its own weight of pure silver with the gold; then with a small hammer and anvil bring it into a little thin plate, and put it into such a quantity of purified aqua fortis as may serve to dissolve it. See the article AQUA FORTIS.

Upon this the menstruum takes up only the silver, but lets the gold sink to the bottom, in the form of a black powder; which beingedulcorated, and gently ignited in a little vessel, or 'saw-cup, made for this purpose, is afterwards weighed: and from the proportion hereof is learnt what quantity of pure gold, and consequently what quantity of silver, is contained in the quantity produced by the first operation.

The reason of adding three or four parts of silver is, that all the gold contained in the first production may be every-where mixed, diffused, and spread abroad in the little mass to be dissolved, lest it should otherwise, as it were, wrap up some particles of the silver, and so defend them from the action of the aqua fortis: whence the proof would be rendered fallacious, and the weight of the gold powder prove too large upon the balance: for that gold added to its own, or a greater weight of silver, may keep a large part of it from being touched by aqua fortis, appears from daily experience.

Ercker, from considering that AQUA REGIA [see that article] does not dissolve silver, is of opinion that gold may be refined to the greatest perfection by being dissolved in this menstruum. What led him to this opinion was doubtless the common persuasion, that all the kinds of aqua fortis, however prepared, did still leave some silver along with the gold; as antimony, on the other hand, when used in the refining of gold, commonly steals away, as they suppose, a small quantity thereof. As something of moment seems to be concealed in this affair, it deserves to be carefully examined.

The fundamental questions of the inquiry are these, (1.) Does the aqua fortis in reality leave any silver yet mixed with the gold? (2.) Would it not prove too expensive thus to refine gold with aqua regia? (3.) In what sense can antimony be said to steal away gold?

The first question is resolved in the affirmative by Faschius*, in treating of the sediments of depart-waters; where he says, That if gold, by quartation, be mixed with silver, as before said, and again separated from it by aqua fortis, it will constantly be found to have increased its weight; which increase he attributes to the silver adhering to the gold: but it still remains for experiment to decide whether this additional weight be truly owing to the silver, or whether it be an increase of real gold †.

* Prober-Buchlein, pag. 64. ed. 1678.

† Beecher maintains, that the earth of sulphur, which constitutes the tinging principle thereof, with regard to metals, lies concealed, and is to be found in nitre. For, though it be an old tradition that the red colour, which spirit of nitre manifests in its distillation, proceeds from the sulphur of the nitre; yet in reality, this favours of no more, on one side, than a bare verbal presumption; and, on the other, of a general supposition that all colours arise from sulphur: which taken absolutely is false, since we have no instance of any such actual separation of sulphur from nitre; though Beecher endeavours to exhibit this substance to the eye (a), where he treats of the-soul of nitre.

This substance Beecher still further attempts to render profitable, and demonstrates its metallic increment: where he recommends the digestion of a solution of silver, made with spirit of nitre, from whence a small portion of the contained silver will daily be deposited, in the form of a black calx, or almost golden substance (b). But, as a particular prepared spirit of nitre is required for this purpose, and also a particular purification thereof, it is proper to consult the several places of the author, where these things are mentioned (c): and to them may likewise be added what Faschius, in his little treatise of Assaying, has under the head of the sediments of depart-waters.

(a) Phycic. subterr. sect. 5. cap. 2. sect. 118, 119, &c. (b) See Miner. Arenar. pag. 877. (c) See Concord. Chym. p. 418, 723, 726, 736, 737, 739, 742.

With regard to the second question, 'tis to be observed, that such a method of refining gold by aqua regia is not practicable in the large works, by reason of the unnecessary expence which would attend it; nor is so rigorous a proof of gold, perhaps, at any time required, as not to admit of the least particle of silver. But, in the business of assaying, it cannot be admitted, for two reasons, viz. (1) Because so much of the gold is easily dissipated by the aqua regia, or so much of the substance of this menstruum remains fixed to the calx, even after ignition, as may cause errors in both cases. (2) Because aqua regia, on account of the great sharpness and violence wherewith it grossly dissolves the gold, at the same time tears away more particles of the silver, than the aqua fortis leaves among the gold. A proper experiment or proof might however, after this manner, be made with care, in order to determine whether the above-mentioned increase of weight proceeds from the aqua fortis, or not.

The solution of the third question is principally to be derived from an examination of the fused antimony, upon its cooling; because it is easy for antimony, in its ebullition, to tear away a few grains of the substance of the gold, whilst detained in thin fusion, and lodge them in the form of bubbles. The ultimate refinement of gold is thought to be, that procured by fusing it thin, along with thrice its own weight of antimony; wherein the antimony tears away and imbibes the substance of all the other metals, but leaves the gold untouched; which, therefore, as the heavier body, falls like a regulus to the bottom of the melting-cone.

In case you have a small or fine gold-sand to assay, or a very rich and delicate fluid [see the articles GOLD and SILVER for their smelting in the large works] both the proof, by a small assay and the extraction in the large way, are sometimes affected by amalgamation*. Thus a certain parcel of it being weighed out, 'tis mixed with a determinate proportion of mercury, eight or ten times its quantity, and a quantity either of simple or salt water, poured warm to them in a stone mortar: let them be ground together for some time with a wooden pestle; then the sand is diluted by the addition of a little more water, that the mercurial particles may first subside, which being now concentered into one mass, the sand, in a little basin, is easily washed off: then the mercury being squeezed through leather, the particles of gold that were collected and imbibed by it remain behind; mixed with about one third part of the mercury, in the form of a soft mass, or amalgam; which when exposed in a little glazed dish to a gentle fire, the mercury is thus evaporated, and leaves the gold in powder, which may now be weighed, to shew in what proportion the sandy or stony ore contains it.

* Amalgamation, in chymistry, is the dissolution, or mixture, of any metal, especially gold, with common mercury, or quick-silver. All metals, except iron and copper, easily unite and incorporate with mercury, but gold with the greatest facility; silver the next; then lead and tin; copper with some difficulty, and iron scarce at all.

The like method of management will serve for the assaying of silver ores.

The method of separating gold and silver was unknown to the ancients, who therefore separated silver from gold by calcination,

tion, and so lost all the silver that was mixed with the gold. And, indeed, the before-mentioned method, by adding of silver, which is called the method by quartation, is expensive and laborious, so as not to be very beneficially practised in the large way of business; but for an assay it may do very well. Indeed, when the whole has been divided into such a number of hands as to make the several parts come cheap, it may be practised to some advantage: as some operators being wholly employed in the making aqua fortis; others in purifying it, or bringing it to proof; others in laminating the silver, and dissolving it; others in separating and reducing the calx of the gold; others in precipitating the silver with copper; and others again in separating the copper from the aqua fortis; which, at present, turns to better account by being sold for verd, as they call it, to the painters, or for more delicate purposes, perhaps; large quantities thereof being continually exported from England to France, for some uses not generally known. Hence the whole operation has been found to answer the trouble, so long as they can recover about a drachm of gold from a pound of silver.

There are certain workmen who have, or pretend to have, the method of separating gold from silver to much greater profit, without the use of aqua fortis or aqua regia, and barely by a dexterous application of the fire; at least without any costly addition.—This method is kept as a secret; but may be no other, perhaps, than that of Homberg*; which consists in fluxing the mixed mass of gold and silver with equal parts of rough nitre and decrepitated salt, placed at the bottom of the melting-pot; the gold thus falling to the bottom, and leaving the silver suspended, or detained, in the salts. Another way of effecting this may depend upon a dexterous use of sulphur, which has the power of making silver melt away from a metalline mixture, almost as easy as lead.

* See the French Memoirs.

Although the refining of gold by melting, and testing it with antimony, or the glass of antimony, as before observed, is generally by the metallurgical chymists thought a perfect way; yet M. Homberg † has shewn, that even this criterion, as also quartation, cupelling with lead, fluxing with borax, &c. may fail, in case the gold be mixed with emery, or possibly some other things.

† See the French Memoirs.

When the gold is eager, as the workmen call it, that is, brittle, they hold it a secret to melt it with mercury sublimate. But, after all, no gold, perhaps, can be proved to be perfectly pure, till it has gone through all the trials hitherto known, or even some of a more curious nature, particularly melting with crude antimony and afterwards cupelling the regulus with lead; and, at last, fusing it with borax: which process is recommended to those who require gold in absolute purity for any standard, or curious operations.

The methods of obtaining silver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the silver is mixed, or alloyed. If copper be the alloy, the best and cheapest way to purify the silver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common sulphur; then melt the whole together, and throw into the pot, at several times, a due quantity of clean iron filings, which will immediately make the sulphur quit the silver, and form a scoria a-top, leaving the silver free from copper, iron, or sulphur, at the bottom.

The method of assaying the ores of the inferior metals, as lead, tin, copper, and iron.

Accurate assays upon these ores require proper furnaces, the due application of fire, and suitable fluxes, adapted to the respective ores; and, indeed, ores of the same kind frequently require different methods of assaying, as well as smelting, in the large works.

The most general flux made use of upon those occasions is what the metallurgists call the black flux, which is thus prepared, viz.

Take one part of nitre, and two parts of common tartar, and reduce each to powder, and then mix them well together, and deflagrate the whole in a crucible, by lighting the mixture a-top, which will turn to a kind of alkaline coal: pulverize the same, and keep it in a close glass, to prevent its dissolving, as it would do in a moist air.

This flux is of general use; and, to have it ready at hand, shortens the business of making assays, and renders the operation more exact than when crude tartar and nitre are employed, because the deflagration might thus carry off some part of the ore, and defraud the account. For that reason the mixture is here directed to be fired at the top; otherwise a considerable part might be lost in the deflagration, which would prove much more tumultuous and violent, if the matter was thrown into a red-hot crucible.

In assaying of lead ore, take four ounces, and reduce it to powder, and mix the same with one ounce of the clean filings of pure iron, and half an ounce of the said black flux: melt them altogether in a clean crucible, set in a proper wind-furnace; and you will find the lead clearly separated, in a lump,

at the bottom of the crucible, which will shew you what quantity of pure lead such ore will yield, and consequently will enable you to judge of the true value of such ore.

Assays upon tin ore may be made in much the same manner, after due calcination, but without the iron filings, and only intermixing with the black flux a quantity of common charcoal-dust, by way of precipitator of the pure metal.

Copper ore is assayed in this manner, viz. first calcine or roast it well, then take two ounces thereof, and reduce it to a pretty fine powder, and mix it in a mortar with twice its quantity of the black flux, intermixed with charcoal-dust; after which, fuse it briskly in a wind-furnace, that it may flow thin for about half an hour or more, and the quantity of pure copper will be precipitated at the bottom of the crucible.

The cause of the effect depends upon a separation of the terrestrial, sulphureous, or other heterogeneous parts of the ore, which are either here vitrified, or otherwise detained by the flux, at the same time that it does not alter the metal; whence, by its superior gravity, it sinks pure to the bottom of the crucible, as being set free, by thin fusion, from its terrestrial and sulphureous parts.

The process for the assaying of iron ore is far more difficult and tedious than for any of the other.

1. Roast, burn, or calcine the ore with charcoal in the open air, in order to dissipate, by that means, as much of the sulphureous and arsenic quality as you can, and to render the stony and terrestrial matters, incorporated therewith, the more easily vitrifiable. When grown cold, pulverize it pretty fine, and roast it a second time in contact with charcoal fuel, but in a much stronger fire than you did the first time, till it no longer emits any sulphureous smell.

2. Compose a flux of three parts of the black flux, with one part of fusible pulverized glass, or of the like sterile unfulphureous scoria's; and add glass-gall and coal-dust, of each one half-part. Add to this flux three times the quantity of your calcined ore, and mix the whole well together. Then choose a very good crucible, well luted within with winds or loam finely prepared for adhesion, to prevent the melting of the crucible; put into it your ore mixed with the flux; cover it over with common salt; and shut it close with a tile that will stand the fire, and with good luting applied to the joints.

3. Elevate your pot upon a proper stand, four or five inches above the bars of your wind-furnace, to prevent a cold bottom. Surround the whole with strong charcoal, not very large, and light them a-top. Bring up your fire gradually, keeping it well supplied with fuel, that the vessel may never be naked a-top. Having thus continued your fire to its full strength*, for about three quarters of an hour, or an hour, then take out your vessel and strike several times the pavement, upon which it is set, that the small grains of iron which happen to be dispersed, may be collected into a regulus, which you will find, after having broken the vessel.

* Your wind-furnace must be well built, have a high chimney, and a large cave, to increase the blast of air to such a degree, if needful, that the flame shall come out of the top of a chimney three stories high. The best form of a wind-furnace, for this purpose, is that resembling the form of a jar, to cover with a tile.

4. When the regulus is weighed, try its degree of malleability; to which end make it red-hot, and, when so, strike it with a hammer; if it bears the strokes of the hammer, both when cold and when red-hot, and extends a little, you may pronounce your iron very good: but if, when either cold or hot, or in both states, it proves brittle; you may judge it not to be quite pure, but still in a semi-mineral condition. The worse the characteristics of your iron are, the greater the furrows will be found in it, when broken, which is called by the workmen, coarse-grained, or coarse-fibred. By this process, however, you may judge nearly of the quantity and quality of the iron, which such ore will produce.

5. To restore malleability to iron, the bodies which render it brittle must be separated, and the particles more juxtaposed, that all heterogeneous matter concealed, in its interstices, may be expelled. This may be conveniently done on a hearth, like that of a smith's forge, having a bed made with charcoal dust; put into this bed the coals and the iron to be melted; heaped up in good quantity in strata; then with the bellows blow the fire pretty strongly, and the iron may be brought to a fusion; and, if it does not melt soon of itself, and emit scoria, it is necessary to help on the melting with fusible scoria's. During this operation, a great many fiery sparkles will be thrown out from the iron, which diminish, as the iron approximates more and more to purity. Then let the burning coals be removed, and the scoria's be conveyed out of the fire, through a channel made for that purpose; but, when the iron grows solid, let it be taken red-hot out of the fire, and tried, by striking it with a hammer, suitable to its bulk: if it proves crude still, let the operation be repeated: and, when at last sufficiently purified, let it be hammered, and extended several ways, by making it red-hot several times over: this done, it will no longer be brittle, even when cold.

Of assaying mercurial ores.

Mercury, or quicksilver, is either found under an actual running form in the mines, and thence called virgin mercury; or else 'tis forced out from mineral bodies, by means of distillation.

The greatest part of these mineral bodies are of the nature of cinnabar, though mixed along with a deal of gross earthy matter: others again are merely stony.

When the former, 'tis usual to mix such substances as will imbibe sulphur, viz. quick-lime, filings or scales of iron, and sometimes salt of tartar; and throw the mixture into an iron cucurbit, the mouth whereof is covered with an iron-plate, struck full of little holes; and thus inverted into the mouth of another strong one, made either of earth, or iron, that is above half full of common water, and lies buried in the ground. Then the fire being gradually applied, the sulphur that hitherto tied up the mercury, and therewith formed a concrete like that of cinnabar, sinks into the lime, or iron-filings, and forsakes the quick-silver; which therefore by the fire acting above, is now forced down through the rest of the mass, and collected in the water below.

But the stony mineral is first reduced to powder, then washed and separated from its superfluous earthy fluid; and lastly, with a more sparing addition of lime, distilled in the same manner as that above-mentioned.

This distillation of the mercury may likewise be performed with an oblique situation of the vessels, or even in a retort; but in larger quantities, the perpendicular descent is the most facile and commodious.

Of assaying mundics.

If of a sulphureous nature, they may be generally fluxed with about half their weight of clean iron filings, which will precipitate the quantity of metallic matter; if of a stony nature they should be treated as ores, to discover their value. For, perhaps, all the pyrites, brass lumps, marcasites, and mundics are but cruder kinds of ore; and, if they could be brought to full maturity, they would prove real ores.

Of assaying marcasites.

These being a species of metallic minerals, that may sometimes be worth assaying, in order to know whether they are valuable, either for their metal or otherwise.

Many skilful metallists have been imposed upon, by the specious external appearance of these marcasites; for they usually have a great specific gravity, and some of them a greater than real ores; whence they may possibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, and unfixed state. But, whether they contain any valuable metal, the preceding experiment, given in regard to mundics, will generally determine. They should, however, be treated in all respects as ores; for small proportions of silver have been frequently obtained, as well from marcasites as mundics after fluxing them with iron-filings, and thereby bringing them to a regulus, and after dealing properly therewith by cupellation.

But, if they should be of no real value, in regard to metal, they possibly may be so, in regard to other uses. For 'tis observable, that these marcasites, upon lying in the open air, attract the humidity thereof; and hence grow hot, and go into a kind of fermentation, and in some measure dissolve, and by degrees turn into a vitriol, of the same kind with the metal they contain. Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green or martial; if copper, blue, or cupereous. And on this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, now practised in several parts of England.

In regard to the methods of extraction of metals of every kind from their respective ore, in the great works, to the best advantage, we shall refer to the names of these several metals; as to the articles GOLD, SILVER, COPPER, TIN, LEAD, &c. &c.

REMARKS.

The usefulness of the knowledge of assaying to the landed gentleman.

The bowels of the earth often affording as great treasures as the surface, it is for the interest of those who have estates in land, not only to cultivate the study of Natural History, in regard to the mineral kingdom, and, indeed, the knowledge of fossils in general, but also the arts of philosophical chymistry. For the one will enable them to pass a good judgment, at first sight, on whatever their estates may produce in its subterranean parts: and the other will qualify them to judge, at an inconsiderable expence, of the value of any mineral production.

For want of a little taste this way, it is not to be doubted but many a good estate under-ground has been lost, by not being discovered by the possessor. Whence we may judge, both of the private and public utility of those studies, which tend to the improvement of our knowledge in natural things, and in those arts which enable us to make a right judgment of their qualities and worth.

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Although the art of assaying is generally refrained to minerals and metals, and these methods of trying their value with fluxes, and spirits of salts, &c. yet there are other fusible substances which may be estimable on person's estates, and which may require quite different methods of treatment, in order to discover their uses and values. And these methods may, with no less propriety, be deemed a part of the art of assaying. Such are alluminous bodies, boles, mineral waters for bathing or drinking, minerals for dyeing, stones of various kinds, bituminous matters for the melioration of mortars, &c. sands for glass-making, clays and loams for pottery, marles for the improvement of land, talcs and spars for stucco, and other works, and vitriolic substances, &c. These things may sometimes turn to as good account as mines. But these subjects require methods different from those of ores, and other minerals, in order to discover their qualities and worth.—We have only hinted things here, but shall speak more to them under their respective heads.

REMARKS.

The use of assaying metals with accuracy, to merchants as well as to refiners, plate-workers, goldsmiths, &c.

Though this art more particularly concerns those tradesmen and artificers, who purchase those metals for sale, and refine them to the proper standard, for their working up into utensils; yet, as our silver and gold is imported by merchants from foreign countries, it is requisite that they should know something of the nature of assaying; for in their dealings in bullion gold or silver, or in foreign coins, they may not always have justice done them, unless they deal with our refiners in Foster-lane; whom, I will presume to say, are gentlemen behind none in the kingdom, for distinguished honour and integrity in their way of business.

Nor is this matter of assaying any way troublesome, expensive, or mysterious: a small apparatus will perform the whole; and for its curiosity, might prove an agreeable amusement, was there no private advantage likely to attend it.

Though I have not only perused most of the best books in esteem upon this subject, and seen the whole business of assaying often performed by some of the most dextrous artists in their way, I cannot think that the art is yet brought to its last perfection, any more than those of smelting and refining in the great way.

The reasons for this my opinion are grounded on the following observation, which I have made upon the sentiments of those, who have been reckoned the most skilful experimenters in the art of metallurgy; which may not be disagreeable to such, who are interested in a subject of this nature.

In respect to the methods of assaying gold and silver ores: There are two difficulties, at least one or other of them, always found in this affair. For (1.) Howsoever fluxible the mineral earths and sulphurs may be, which are conjoined with the ores of gold and silver, yet it scarce comes up to the fusibility of the pure metal itself; but rather flows thick and sluggish, unless the fire be very intense indeed: but it is plain, that, if this substance remains viscous, the molecules of the metal cannot sink through it, in order to precipitate the metalline mass at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only a very small quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vast body of its adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matters of other metals; whence one of these two inconveniences must arise, viz. either that the small quantity of metal cannot well, under so great a load of recrement, come into a little mass; or else, if it could, it must of necessity be so violently agitated about by the strong fire required to keep so large a bulk of slag in fusion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles, among the pappy mass of the scoria.

These two inconveniences, indeed, have their tolerable remedies. (1.) The first is to add such substances as promote vitrification, and, at the same time, cause a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such substances for the assay are glass of lead, a little borax, or any compound flux salt; the basis whereof are commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The second is to add metal itself: and this way seems greatly improveable. In this case, as a larger quantity of metal cannot, by the same fire, be agitated so much as a less, or, if it could be so, yet all its particles would cohere more firmly in a large than a small quantity; hence, by such an addition of metal, the little mass that otherwise would be with difficulty collected, is artificially enlarged, so as to cover the whole bottom of the melting-pot: in consequence whereof, all the single metallic particles that fall afterwards, are easily caught and detained below, by the large metalline mass, which there lies ready to receive them.

The metal, usually employed to increase the mass in this manner, is lead: but Becher, with great probability of much greater success, recommends the use of silver in its stead, where the perfect metals are expected. For silver, in this case, does not only remain unaltered by the fire and flux; but also, by a specific efficacy, collects together and fixes the scattered

H h potential

potential atoms of the metal, and actually reduces them to perfect metal.

Upon which property of silver it is, that Becher has built his minera aenaria, sand-mine, or inexhaustible method of extracting the perfect metals out of sand; where, by using silver instead of lead, he undertakes to produce a ten times greater increase: which is to rational and philosophical, as to merit attention.

But, as this latter method can principally be used to profit in the separation of gold from its ore by fusion, so lead remains a very convenient addition for the reception of silver, as performing a double use in the operation, viz. by imbibing the metal pure, and at the same time promoting the vitrification of the earth mixed along with the gold.

Copper, being of itself difficult fusion, requires such a fire as is able to melt its glassy scoria sufficiently thin, at the same time that it is melted itself; and this it does, unless the flints should prove very obstinate indeed. Hence, bare fusion sometimes, without any other assistance, will bring out this metal from its ore, and precipitate it in a mass; the scoria here flowing so thin, as ready to suffer the metalline particles to sink through it. But, when the ore is more stubborn, its separation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as above-mentioned.

In short, the difficulty of thus separating the metal from its proper earth is principally found in the ores of silver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin, being very fusible bodies, are much easier melted from their adhering mineral matter.

In order to the due separation of metals from metals, or of a confused mixture of metals, such as are commonly called electrum, or such as the Corinthian brass of old was supposed to be; we must observe, that experience has taught us a certain effect of lead, which could not be well conceived à priori*: viz. that by fusion upon the cupel, it resolves all the imperfect metals, without exception, into their smallest atoms, and partly throws them up to its surface in the form of a half vitrified powdery substance, in part sinks along with them into the cupel, and in part converts them into glass, so as to leave nothing behind but pure gold and silver.

* This is more effectually and sooner done by a proper glass of antimony.

Great care must be taken, both in the smaller and larger work, with respect to the assay by cupellation. It is incumbent on the assay-master solicitously to prevent the least dissipation or loss of his powdered ore upon the test and cupel; heedfully to procure a total decoction thereof into the lead, and a sufficient degree of fluidity to the scoria.

The greater accuracy is required in all these respects, because, in the smelting of ores, the matter is examined by the proportion it bears to assay-weights, which being exceeding small, the greatest caution should be used to prevent a loss upon the assay in the produce of the pure metal; for thus the proprietors, especially in the case of gold, might come to be greatly injured in the large weight, if the smelter, misguided by the report of the assay-master, either neglects to procure the full yield of the ore, or secretes the overplus. And thus likewise the dealers in silver ore might come to be great sufferers.

The methods employed for the purposes of assaying are now all over Europe pretty much the same; but should never be trusted, unless, at least, two or three experiments, made at the same time, by the same, or different persons, agree in the same report.

And, perhaps, in all natural philosophy, chymistry, and metallurgy, there is not an experiment which requires greater skill and accuracy than these experiments, in the art of assaying, so as to be depended upon: nor, indeed, can such precision as is here required, be well expected, but from those who are acquainted with the rapacious nature of many volatile mineral fumes; and the methods of so retaining them, to prevent their carrying off the nobler metals upon the test.

To assay in perfection requires also a knowledge of the relations and differences of all the metals with regard to each other, and particularly to lead and antimony. As this art therefore requires so much judgment and delicacy, in order to practise it with success; hence doubtless proceeds the difficulty we find, in procuring a true assay to be made upon any uncommon ore, or mineral substance: for the art of assaying is extremely backward in admitting of improvements, as if it were to descend unaltered from one generation to another.

Was the due use and importance of this art more generally attended to, the proprietors of all kinds of mines and mineral matters, and all who are any way concerned in metals, would assuredly reap their advantage by it. For this is certain; that if, by the repeated assay, the ore promiscuously taken yields such a quantity of metal, the same quantity in proportion may be got out of the same ore, in the large way of working: so that the accurate assay is a criterion to the private gentleman, to know whether his workmen are skilful in their operation, or whether they defraud him in the produce of his metal.

It is however true, that if the same method of operation is not made use of in the large way of smelting ores, as is practised in making of the small assay, the yield of the ore in the large way may not come up in quantity in the proportion to what the assay indicated: this is a known maxim to those who have been concerned in large works. But, if the same method of working is practised in the large way as is done in the assay, the produce of metal in the one will be equal to that in the other. Nay, where there is a great body of ore as a ton smelted together, it is rather reasonable to think, from what has been intimated before, that a greater quantity of metal, especially of gold or silver, will be produced in the larger way, than in proportion to the small assay: for, if the identical method of operation is practised in the one way as in the other; that is to say, if the same degree of strength in the application of fuel be duly administered, in proportion to the quantity of matter, &c. the same fluxes used, and the same art exerted in all respects in the great way as in the assay, the yield of metal in the large way cannot be less than what the assay, made in the same way, exhibited.

To judge otherwise, seems to subvert one of the fundamental and immutable principles of nature: for that is saying, that the same cause will not eternally produce the same effect.

It is rare, indeed, that the same way of working is practised in the great way as is done in the assay, it being too expensive; and, therefore, from the effect being different, some are led into an egregious mistake, in regard to those operations. It is an advantage to the sellers of ore to dispose of them according to the most accurate assay that can be made, but it is the reverse to the purchaser, if he buys them by such assays, and works them in great works by a different process, which will not yield him near the like quantity of metal.

When gold and silver are in their full purity, they are rather too soft and flexible either to be wrought into utensils or coin, without being hardened with an alloy of some baser metal.

To prevent the abuses which some might commit in the making of such alloys, the government, in most countries, have ordained that there shall be no more than a certain proportion of baser metal added to a certain quantity of pure gold or pure silver, to make them of the fineness of what is called their respective standards.

In England a pound weight of standard silver is 11 ounces 2 penny-weights of fine silver, and 18 penny-weights of fine copper, which together make 12 ounces, or one pound troy weight.

Of the troy weights.

14 ounces 8 penny-weights	=	1 lb. avoirdupoise weight,
12 ounces	=	1 lb. troy weight,
20 dwts, or penny-weights	=	1 ounce,
24 grains	=	1 penny-weight,
20 mites	=	1 grain,
24 droits	=	1 mite,
20 periots	=	1 droit,
24 blanks	=	1 periot.

Of the gold standard.

One pound, or one ounce of gold, must contain 22 carats of fine gold, one carat of fine silver, and one carat of fine copper, which together make 24 carats, or one pound, or one ounce of troy weight.

The carat is a term used by refiners, whereby they certify a certain composition of weights used in assaying and computing of standard gold; and this carat contains either the twenty-fourth part of a pound, or the twenty-fourth part of an ounce, troy.

A pound carat is thus divided:

12 ounces	=	24 carats,
4 grains	=	1 carat,
4 quarters	=	1 grain,
10 dwts troy	=	1 carat,
2 dwts 12 grains troy	=	1 grain,
15 grains troy	=	1 quarter-grain:

An ounce carat is thus divided:

1 ounce troy	=	24 carats,
4 grains	=	1 carat,
4 quarters	=	1 grain,
20 grains troy	=	1 carat,
5 grains troy	=	1 carat grain.

And, according to the laws of England, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made to the said standards of gold and silver: and the current price of such standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to value bullion, whether it be in mass, bars, dust, or in foreign coin: but the true value of bullion gold, or silver, cannot be known without being assayed; for the use of an assay is to discover how much alloy there is in any bullion, more or less than there is in the standard. If there be less alloy in it than there is in the standard, so much as there is less, makes the bullion so much finer, better, and more valuable than standard. If,

on the other hand, there be more alloy in the bullion than there is in the standard, such bullion will be coarser, or worse, and, consequently, will be so much less valuable than standard.

The method of getting bullion assayed is thus: You take a slip of paper, about 5 or six inches long, and about 4 or 5 inches broad, and put into it a few grains (the usual quantity) cut off the bullion which is to be assayed, and fold it up, turning in the sides and corners, to prevent its dropping out, and underneath you write down the owner's name.

This paper is carried to his majesty's assay-office in the Tower*, or to the company's office in Goldsmiths-hall, or to some noted experienced assay-master. After the same is assayed, if you ask for it in the owner's name, it will be returned to you again, with the gold or silver in it; for which you pay the customary fee.

- * Though I am not acquainted either with the person or the name of the assay-master at the Tower, yet I have been well informed, by those who are judges, that there is not a more capable gentleman in all Europe for his business; which is a great advantage to our dealers in bullion gold and silver, &c.

When you come to open the paper, you will find the assay-master's name and report, wrote by him, much after the following form, viz.

A ——— B ———
Silver for an assay, January 5th, 1751,
W. 12 dwts. ob.

A ——— B ———
Gold for an assay, March 10th, 1751,
B. 2 gra. 4.

The assay-master always makes his reports of silver in ounces, penny-weights, and half penny-weights; and of gold in carats, carat-grains, and the fractions of a carat-grain; and they commonly write down the quantities, with the numerical letters of the secretary hand-writing. It must be observed, also, that

B stands for better than standard,
W ——— for worse,
Ob. ——— for half penny-weight,
Sta. ——— for standard.

When the report of the assay-master is made, and the price of standard gold and silver is known, it will be easy to judge of the price of that which is better or worse than standard, and to call up any quantity accordingly. See the articles GOLD and SILVER, where I shall give the concise practical methods of doing this.

ASSELANI. The true name by which the Turks call the Dutch dollar is **ASLANI**. See that word.

ASSIENTO, a Spanish word, which properly signifies a farm. In France, where that word was first introduced in the beginning of the war about the succession to the crown of Spain, they understood by the word **assiento** a trading company, established for importing negroes into the dominions of the king of Spain in America, and particularly to Buenos-Ayres. It was the old French Guinea company, which, after having made a treaty with the Spanish ministers for that importation of negroes, took the name of the company of the assentists, because of the duty they bound themselves to pay to the king of Spain's farms, for every negro between 15 and 25, or 30 years old, sound, well-shaped, and without any blemish, they should import into Spanish America.

That treaty of the French company, which contained 34 articles, was signed the first of September 1702, to continue in force 10 years, and determine the 1st of September, 1712; granting, however, to the company, two years longer to import the remainder of the negroes they had left, if they were not all imported at the expiration of the treaty.

The two chief articles among these 34 related, the one to the number of negroes the company was to furnish the Spaniards with yearly, and the other to the duty that was to be paid for them to the king of Spain, during the time of the farm or **assiento**.

As to the number of negroes, it was fixed at 38,000, as long as the war, which was begun the year before, should continue; and at 48,000 in case a peace was concluded. And, with regard to the duty that was to be paid to the king of Spain, it was settled at 33 piasters and $\frac{1}{2}$ for every negro between 15 and 25, or 30 years old; the greatest part of which duty the company paid before-hand.

The peace of Utrecht, by which Philip V. was acknowledged king of Spain by queen Anne, and by all her allies, except the emperor, having put an end to the war, and one of the articles of the treaty between England and France being, that the latter should give up the **assiento**, or farm of negroes, in favour of the former, the Spaniards entered into a treaty with the English, for the importation of negroes into Spanish America.

This treaty, which, in several articles, is like that which was made with the French company, but, in many others, much

more to the advantage of the English, was to commence the 1st of May, 1713, and to continue for 30 years; so that it was to end the 1st of May, 1743.

The South-Sea company, which was established in England in the beginning of the abovementioned war, but had much difficulty to keep their head above water, undertook to furnish Spanish America with negroes. The company was obliged to import 4,800 negroes a year, for which they were to pay per head at the rate settled with the French company; but was obliged to pay only half that duty, during the 25 first years, for every negro they should import above the number 4,800 stipulated by the treaty.

The 42d article of that treaty, which is the last, and, perhaps, the most considerable of all, was not in the treaty made with the French. By that article leave is given to the English assentists, or contractors, to send yearly into Spanish America, during the whole time the treaty was to continue, a ship of 500 tons, laden with the same sorts of merchandizes which the Spaniards used to carry thither, with liberty to sell and dispose of them, with the concurrence of the Spaniards, at the fairs of Porto Bello and Vera-Cruz.

One may safely assert, that neither the furnishing the Spaniards with negroes, which is the main subject of that treaty, nor the several other articles, by which many privileges were granted to the South-Sea company, did not all together prove so profitable to it, as that liberty alone granted to the English, against the ancient policy, and the usual jealousy, of the Spaniards, with regard to their American trade. See **REGISTER-SHIP**.

There have been five more articles added since to that treaty of **assiento** with the English, in order to explain some of the old ones.

By the first it is agreed that the treaty shall be reckoned to commence but in the year 1714. By the second, that the English shall be suffered to send their merchant-ship, though the Spanish fleet, or galleons, should not fail to America. By the third, that, during the first 10 years, that ship might be of 650 tons. Finally, by the two last articles it is agreed, that the merchandizes which should remain, after the sale of the negroes, should be sent back into Europe, after the negroes had been landed at Buenos-Ayres; and that, if the negroes were designed for Porto-Bello, Vera-Cruz, Carthagena, or some other part of Spanish-America, they should be carried into some of the Antilles islands belonging to the English, and that it should not be lawful to send any into the South-Sea.

The method of rating and paying the **assiento**-duty for every negro, when the ship arrives in the American dominions of the king of Spain, is the same with regard to the English, as was practised with the French; that is to say, that, when the negroes are landed, the Spanish officers, in concert with the company's factor, separate them into four classes as follow: In the first place, they put together all those negroes, of both sexes, who are in perfect health, and from 15 to 30 years old. Afterwards they separate the old men, the old women, and the sick, and make a second lot of them. Next follow the children of both sexes, from 10 to 15 years old; and finally, those from 5 to 10.

The separation being thus made, they proceed to the valuation of the negroes; that is to say, they reckon every negro of the first class, being in perfect health, as a head, for which the full duty of 33 piasters and $\frac{1}{2}$ must be paid. The old and sick, who make up the second class, are rated at $\frac{2}{3}$ of a head, and the duty must be paid accordingly. The children of the third class are reckoned at 3 for 2 heads, and those of the fourth at 2 for one head; and, according to that estimation, the king's duty is paid.

So that of a cargo of 610 heads of negroes, among whom there are 250 in health, and of the proper age, 60 sick or old, 150 children from 10 to 15 years old, and 150 from 5 to 10, the king receives duty but for 470.

250 healthy ones pay duty for as many heads, viz. 250 heads.	
60 old or sick, at $\frac{2}{3}$ a head, pay duty for	45
150 children, from 10 to 15 years, at $\frac{3}{2}$, pay duty for 100	
150 ——— from 5 to 10 years, at $\frac{3}{2}$, pay duty for	75
610	470

The **assiento** adjusted between their Britannic and Catholic majesties, for the English company's obliging itself to supply the Spanish West-Indies with black slaves, for the term of thirty years, to commence on the first day of May, 1713, and to end the same day in the year 1743.

I. Her British majesty does offer and undertake, for the persons whom she shall name and appoint, that they shall oblige and charge themselves with the bringing into the West-Indies of America, belonging to his Catholic majesty, in the space of the said 30 years, to commence on the 1st day of May, 1713, and determine on the like day, which will be in the year 1743, viz. 144,000 negroes, piezas de India, of both sexes, and of all ages, at the rate of 4,800 negroes, piezas de India, in each of the said 30 years; with this condition, that the persons who shall go to the West-Indies to take care of the concerns of the **assiento**, shall avoid giving any

any offence; for, in such case, they shall be prosecuted and punished in the same manner as they would have been in Spain, if the like misdemeanors had been committed there.

II. That for each negroe, piezas de India, of the regular standard of seven quarters, not being old or defective, according to what has been practised and established hitherto in the Indies, the assentists shall pay 33 pieces of eight (escudos) and one third of a piece of eight; in which sum shall be accounted, and shall be comprehended, all and all manner of duties of alcavala, sisa, amin de armas, boqueron, or any other duty whatsoever, of importation or regalia, that now are, or hereafter shall be imposed, belonging to his Catholic majesty, so that nothing more shall be demanded: and, if any should be taken by the governors, royal officers, or other ministers, they shall be made good to the assentists, on account of the duties which they are to pay his Catholic majesty of $33\frac{1}{3}$ pieces of eight, as aforesaid, the same being made appear by an authentic certificate, which shall not be denied by any public notary, thereunto required on the part of the assentists: for which purpose a general order (cedula) shall be issued, in the most ample form.

III. That the said assentists shall advance to his Catholic majesty, to supply the urgent occasions of the crown, 200,000 pieces of eight (escudos) in two even payments of 100,000 pieces of eight each; the first to be made two months after his majesty shall have approved and signed this assiento, and the second at the end of two other months next after the first payment: which sum, so advanced, is not to be reimbursed before the first end of the 20 years of this assiento, and then it may be deducted, by equal portions, in the 10 last remaining years, after the rate of 20,000 pieces of eight yearly, out of the produce of the duty upon negroes which they are to pay in those years.

IV. That the assentists shall be obliged to pay the aforesaid advance of 200,000 pieces of eight in this court; as also, from six months to six months, the half of the amount of the duties payable for the piezas of slaves, which they have agreed to import yearly.

V. That the assentists shall not be obliged to pay the duties for more than 4000 negroes (piezas de India) yearly, and not for the remaining 800, in consideration of the risques and interest that ought to be made good to the assentists, for the money advanced, and payment in this court of the duties for the said 4000 piezas.

VI. That the said assentists, after they shall have imported the 4,800 negroes yearly, according to their contract, if they find it necessary for his Catholic majesty's service, and that of his subjects, to import a greater number, they shall have liberty to do it, during the first 25 years of this contract (as in the five last years they shall import no more than the 4,800 agreed upon;) with condition, that they shall pay no more than 16 pieces of eight, and two thirds of a piece of eight, for all duties on each negro (pieza de India) which they shall import over and above the said 4,800; and this payment also shall be made in this court.

VII. That the said assentists shall be at liberty to employ in this commerce, for the carrying of their cargoes, her majesty of Great-Britain's own ships, or those of her subjects, or any belonging to his Catholic majesty's subjects (paying them their freight, and with the consent of their owners) navigated with English or Spanish mariners, at their choice; care being taken that neither the commanders of those ships employed by the assentists, nor the mariners, do give any offence, or cause any scandal to the exercise of the Roman catholic religion, under the penalties, and pursuant to the regulations, established by the first article of this assiento. And also it shall be lawful for the said assentists, and they shall have power to introduce their black slaves contracted for into all the ports of the North Sea, and of Buenos-Ayres, in any of the aforementioned ships, in like manner as has been granted to any former assentists.

VIII. And it is provided, at the same time, that the negroes which are carried to the ports of the windward coast, Sancta Martha, Cumana, and Maracaybo, shall not be sold by the said assentists for more than the rate of 300 pieces of eight each; but as to the other ports of New Spain, its islands, and Terra Firma, it shall be lawful for the said assentists to sell them at the best prices they shall be able to get.

IX. That the said assentists being allowed, for the reasons mentioned in the foregoing article, to import their negroes into all the ports of the North Sea, it is also agreed that they shall have power to do it in the river of Plata, his Catholic majesty allowing them out of the 4,800 negroes, which, pursuant to this assiento, they are to import yearly, to bring into the said river of Plata or Buenos-Ayres, in each of the said 30 years of this assiento, to the number of 1200 of these piezas de India of both sexes, to sell them there at such prices as they shall be able, shipping the same in four vessels, large enough to carry them; 800 of them to be disposed of at Buenos-Ayres, and the remaining 400 may be carried into, and serve for the provinces above, and kingdom of Chili; selling them to the inhabitants, if they will come to buy them, in the said port of Buenos-Ayres. It being hereby declared, that her Britannic majesty, and the assentists, in her name,

may hold in the said river of Plata some parcels of land, which his Catholic majesty shall appoint, or assign, pursuant to what is stipulated in the preliminaries of peace, from the time of the commencing of this assiento, sufficient to plant, to cultivate, and breed cattle therein, for the subsistence of the persons belonging to the assiento, and their negroes; and they shall be allowed to build houses there of timber, and not of any other materials; and they shall not throw up the earth, nor make any the least (or slightest) fortification. And his Catholic majesty shall also appoint an officer to his satisfaction, one of his own subjects, who shall reside upon the aforementioned lands, under whose command are to be all such things as relate to the said land: and all other matters that concern the assiento, shall be under that of the governor and royal officers of Buenos-Ayres: and the assentists shall not, on account of the said lands, be obliged to pay any duties during the time of the said assiento.

X. In order to the carrying and introducing of black slaves into the provinces of the South-Sea, liberty is to be granted, as it is hereby granted, to the assentists, to freight either at Panama, or in any other dock or port of the South-Sea, ships, or frigates of about 400 tons, little more or less, on board which they may ship them at Panama, and carry them to all the other ports of Peru, and no others on that side; and to man those ships with such seamen, and appoint such officers, both military and for sea, as they shall think fit; and may bring back the produce of the sale thereof to the said port of Panama, as well in fruits of the country, as in money, bars of silver, or ingots of gold, and so as they may not be obliged to pay any duties for the silver or gold which they shall bring, either upon importation or exportation, it being stamped, and without fraud, and appearing to be the produce of the negroes. And likewise leave is granted to the said assentists to send from Europe to Porto-Bello, and from Porto-Bello to Panama, by the river Chagre, or by land-carriage, cables, sails, iron, timber, and likewise all other stores and provisions, necessary for the said ships, frigates, or barcolongo's, and for the maintaining the same; provided that they shall not be allowed to sell or trade in the said stores, in the whole nor in part, under any pretence whatsoever; unless it shall appear that they had obtained leave for the sale thereof from his Catholic majesty. And it is farther provided, that, when the term of this assiento is ended, the said assentists shall not be allowed to make use of the said ships, frigates, or barks, to carry them to Europe, because of the inconveniences that might ensue.

XI. The said assentists may make use of English or Spaniards, at their choice, for the management and direction of this assiento as well in the ports of America as in the inland places; declaring and commanding, that the English, during the whole time of this assiento, shall be regarded and treated as if they were subjects of the crown of Spain: with this restriction, that there shall not reside in any one of the said ports of the Indies more than 4 or 6 Englishmen; out of which number the said assentists may chuse such as they shall think fit and shall have occasion to send up into the country, where negroes are allowed to be carried, for the management and recovery of their effects; which they shall perform in the most convenient manner, and that which they shall think best, under the regulation mentioned in the first article, without any hindrance from any ministers, civil or military, under any pretence, unless they can be charged with acting contrary to the established laws, or to the contents of this assiento.

XII. That, for the better management of this assiento, his Catholic majesty will be pleased to grant, that, as soon as the peace is proclaimed, her Britannic majesty may send two ships of war with the said factors, officers, and others, who are to be employed in this service, giving first a list of the names both of the one and the others, that are to go ashore in all the ports, where they shall be allowed to settle and regulate their factories, as well that they may go with the greater convenience and security, as that they may provide all things necessary for the receiving the vessels that shall go with negroes; which being obliged to go to take the blacks in upon the coast of Africa, and thence transport them to the port of the Spanish America, it would be very inconvenient, as well as unprofitable, for the factors and others employed, to go on board the ships made use of in those voyages; and yet it is indispensibly necessary that houses be prepared before hand for them to dwell in, and all other provisions made which they shall want; and for the transporting of the factors, and others, belonging to the company, to Buenos-Ayres, a vessel of a middling burden shall be allowed. And it is hereby declared, that as well this vessel, as the two ships of war, are to be visited and searched in the several ports by the royal officers, who may seize their merchandize, if they carry any. And farther, the said ships shall be furnished with necessary provisions for their return, at a reasonable rate.

XIII. The said assentists may nominate, in all the ports and chief places of America, judges conservators of this assiento, whom they may remove and displace, and appoint others at pleasure, in the manner allowed to the Portuguese in the eighth article of their assiento.

XIV. It shall not be lawful for the viceroys, &c. or other tribunal or minister whatever, of his Catholic majesty, to lay an embargo on, or detain the ships belonging to this assiento, nor to hinder them in their voyages, under any pretence whatever; but, on the contrary, they shall be obliged to afford them all the favour, assistance, and succour, that the said assientists, or their factors, shall desire, for the more speedy fitting out, dispatching, and lading of their said ships; and likewise the victuals, and all other things they shall stand in need of for forwarding their voyages, at the current prices; with this warning and under this penalty, that those who do otherwise shall be obliged, at their own proper costs; to make good and satisfy all the damages and losses which the assientists may sustain by such impediment or detention.

XV. Neither shall the viceroys, &c. or any other tribunal or office whatsoever, take, seize, detain, or lay an embargo by violence, or in any other manner, under any pretence, or for any cause or motive whatsoever, on any of the stock, goods, and effects, that are the produce of this assiento, or belonging to the assientists: nor shall the said ministers search the houses or warehouses of the factors, or others belonging to this assiento; unless in case it shall have been proved that there has been some fraudulent and prohibited importation.

XVI. That the said assientists, their factors, &c. may employ in their service such mariners, carriers, and workmen, as they shall have occasion for, to load and unload their ships and vessels, upon a voluntary agreement made with them, and paying them such salaries and stipends as they shall have agreed for.

XVII. That the said assientists shall have liberty to load, at their choice, the effects they may have in the Indies, upon the ships of the flota or the galleons, to bring them into Europe, agreeing for the freight with the captains and owners of the said ships, or upon the vessels belonging to the assiento; which, if they think it convenient, may come under convoy with the said flotas and galleons, or other ships of war belonging to his Catholic majesty; and that the effects which shall come in them, and shall appear, by an authentic writing, to belong to the assientists, shall be free of all duties whatsoever, on their importation in Spain, but they are not to bring on board them any Spanish passenger, or any effects of any subject of his Catholic majesty.

XVIII. That from the first day of May of this present year 1713, till they shall have taken possession of this assiento, nor after their taking such possession, it shall not be lawful for the French Guinea company, or any other person whatsoever, to introduce any negro slave into India; it is agreed, that when the said assientists shall have notice that any ship with negroes (not belonging to them) is come upon the coast, or entered into any port, they may fit out, arm, and send out immediately such vessels as they shall have of their own, or any others belonging to his Catholic majesty, or his subjects, with whom they shall agree, to take, seize, and confiscate such ships and their negroes, of whatever nation they be, or to whomsoever the same shall belong; first having leave from the governors, to whom they shall communicate what occurs, and desire them to interpose their authority.

XIX. That the said assientists, their factors and agents, shall have power to navigate and import their negro slaves, according to their contract, to all the southern ports of his Catholic majesty's West-Indies, including the river of Plata, with prohibition to all others, whether subjects of the crown or strangers, to carry and introduce thither any negroes, under the penalties established by the laws that relate to this contract of trade.

XX. That in case the said assientists be molested in the execution and performance of this assiento, and that their proceedings and rights be disturbed by way of suits at law, or in any other manner whatsoever, his Catholic majesty declares, that he will reserve to himself alone the cognizance thereof, and of all causes that may be moved thereupon, with an inhibition to all judges and justices, to take to themselves the examination and cognizance of the said causes, or of the suits, omissions, or defects, that may happen in the performance of this assiento.

XXI. That, whenever the ships of the said assientists shall arrive in the ports of the Indies with their cargoes of negroes, the captains thereof shall be obliged to certify, that there is not any contagious distemper amongst them, that the governor and royal officers may permit them to enter into the said ports; without which certificates they shall not be admitted.

XXII. When the said ships shall have entered into any of the ports, they are to be visited by the governor and royal officers, and searched to the bottom, even to the ballast; and, having landed their negroes in whole or in part, they may at the same time land the provisions, which they shall bring for their subsistence, laying them up in particular houses or magazines. But they shall not land, import, or vend any goods or merchandize, under any pretence or motive whatsoever: and, if there should be any on board the ships, they shall be seized, as if they were found on shore; excepting only the said negro slaves, and the magazines of provisions for their subsistence, under the penalty, that those who are guilty

shall be severely punished, and their merchandize and effects confiscated or burned, and they shall be declared for ever incapable of having any employment in the said assiento. And it is declared, that the ships on board which the negroes shall be, or any of the provisions brought for their subsistence, shall not be liable to the said forfeiture and confiscation, they being declared to remain free, as not being in fault; and the person or persons, who have charge of them, may go on with their traffic; and, if the merchandize or goods seized do not exceed the value of 100 pieces of eight (escudos) they shall be burned without any remission (being first appraised) and the captain shall be condemned to pay the sum at which they were appraised, as a punishment for his neglect and omission; and, if he does not pay down the value of what shall have been so seized, he shall be suspended and imprisoned till payment made; but, if it be proved that he was not an accomplice, he shall be obliged to deliver up the person guilty, and in that case he shall be free.

XXIII. That the victuals and other provisions which shall be put on shore for the subsistence of the negroes, shall not pay any duties of importation or exportation; but, if the assientists buy or export them from the ports, then shall they be obliged to pay the duties established, in the same manner as his Catholic majesty's subjects ought to do.

XXIV. That the duties upon the negroes imported are to be due from the day of their landing in any of the ports of the Indies, after the search made, and all matters regulated by the royal officers; that, if any of the said negroes die within the space of fifteen days, from the time of their being put on shore, the assientists shall not be obliged to pay any duties, in regard they were not landed for sale; which being expired, if they shall be yet alive, then they shall become indebted for the duties for them, pursuant to what is agreed in the fifth article.

XXV. That after the assientists, or their factors, shall have settled the duties, and sold part of their loading of blacks, which they had brought to that port, they shall be allowed to carry the remainder to any other port, carrying certificates from the royal officers, of having there accounted for the duties, that so the same may not be demanded of them again in any other port; and they may receive, in payment for those they shall sell, money, bars of silver, and ingots of gold, which shall have paid the king's quinto without fraud, as also the produce of the country; which they may carry away, and embark freely, as being the produce of the sale of the said negroes, without being obliged to pay any duties; except only those that shall be established in the places from whence those fruits and effects are brought.

XXVI. That the ships which shall be employed by this assiento, may sail from the ports of Great-Britain or Spain, at the choice of the assientists, who shall give an account to his Catholic majesty of what ships they shall dispatch yearly for the negro trade, and the ports for which they are designed, and may return to either, with the money, &c. being the produce of the sale of the negroes; and they shall be under this obligation, that, if the returns come into the ports of Spain, the captains and commanders shall give to his Catholic majesty's ministers an authentic register, by which it may appear what they have on board; and, if they come back to Great-Britain, they shall send over an exact account of their lading, that his majesty may be fully informed thereof.

XXVII. If it should happen that the ships of this assiento should be fitted out as ships of war, and should take any prizes from enemies of either crown, or from the pirates that usually cruise and plunder in the seas of America, they may bring them into any port belonging to his Catholic majesty, where they are to be admitted; and, the said prizes being declared good and lawful, the captors shall not be obliged to pay greater duties upon the entry of their prizes, than what are established and payable by the natural subjects of his majesty; deducting a fourth part of the produce of the sale thereof, which is to belong to his Catholic majesty.

And, for the preventing all manner of doubt and cavil, his majesty declares, that the ships, ketches, and other vessels (thus made prize of) of whatever sort they be, with their arms, guns, ammunition, and all the furniture and tackle on board them, shall belong to the captors.

XXVIII. It is agreed, that both their majesties shall be concerned for one half of this trade, each of them a quarter part, which is to belong to them, pursuant to this agreement. And whereas it is necessary that his Catholic majesty (in order to have and enjoy the benefit and gain that may be obtained by this trade) should advance to the said assientists 1,000,000 of pieces of eight (escudos) or a quarter of the sum, which they shall judge necessary for the putting of this commerce into a good order and method, it is agreed, that, if his Catholic majesty shall not think it convenient to advance the said sum, the aforementioned assientists do offer to do it out of their own money, upon condition, that his Catholic majesty shall make good the interest out of what they shall be accountable for to him, after the rate of eight per cent. yearly. And his Catholic majesty is to name two directors or factors, who are to reside at London, two more in the Indies, and one at Cadiz, that they may be concerned on his part (together

with those of her Britannic majesty and those that shall be interred) in all the directions, purchases, and accounts of this assiento, to whom his catholic majesty is to give proper instructions by which to govern themselves.

XXIX. That the said assientists are to give an account of their profits and gain at the end of the first five years of this assiento; which accounts, as well of the charge as the produce, are first to be examined and settled by her Britannic majesty's ministers employed in this service, in regard to the share she is to have in this assiento, and then to be examined in like manner in this court: and his catholic majesty's share of the profits may be adjusted and recovered from the assientists, who are to be obliged to pay the same most regularly and punctually, in pursuance of this article, which is to be of the same force and vigour, as if it were a public instrument, and under the regulation mentioned in the twenty-eighth article, concerning the factors whom his catholic majesty is to appoint.

XXX. That if the amount of the gain made, during the first five years, does exceed the sum which the assientists are to advance, and shall advance, for his catholic majesty, together with the interest of eight per cent. which is to be included and made good in the manner above-mentioned, the assientists are to reimburse themselves in the first place what they shall have advanced, with all the interest, and then to pay to his catholic majesty the remainder of the profit that shall come to his share, together with the duties upon negroes annually imported, without any delay or impediment; which practice is likewise to be observed and continued every five years successively, during the term of this assiento.

XXXI. That whereas the said assientists have offered, by the third article of this contract, to advance 200,000 pieces of eight in the manner therein expressed, they shall not be reimbursed the same, till the end of the first 20 years of this assiento, as is mentioned in the said third article.

XXXII. That, from and after the determination and fulfilling of this assiento, his catholic majesty does grant to the assientists the space of three years to adjust their accounts, and gather in all their effects in the Indies, and make up a balance of the whole; during which term of three years, the said assientists, their factors, agents, and others employed by them, shall enjoy the same privileges and immunities, as are granted to them for the term of this contract.

XXXIII. That all the debtors to the assientists shall be compelled and forced to pay their debts, by taking them and their goods in execution, these debts being considered upon the same foot as those due to his catholic majesty himself; who declares them as such, that they may be the more effectually recovered.

XXXIV. That it being requisite for the support and subsistence of the negro slaves, who shall be set on shore in the ports of the West-Indies, as likewise of all the persons employed in this commerce, to keep constantly magazines filled with cloathing, medicines, provisions, and other necessaries; in all the factories that shall be established, for the more easy and better management of this assiento; as also with all naval stores, for the repairing of, and furnishing the ships and vessels employed in its service; his catholic majesty will please to allow them, from time to time, to bring from Europe, or her Britannic majesty's colonies in North America, directly to the ports and coasts of the northern sea of the Spanish West-Indies, where there shall be royal officers, or their deputies, and likewise to the river of Plata or Buenos-Ayres, cloathing, medicines, provisions, and naval stores, for the use only of the assientists, their negroes, factors, servants, mariners, and ships; and that they may import the same in small vessels, of about 150 tons.

XXXV. For the refreshing and preserving in health the negro slaves, which they shall import into the West-Indies, after so long and painful a voyage, and to prevent any contagious illness or distemper amongst them, the factors of this assiento shall be allowed to hire such parcels of land as they shall think fit, in the neighbourhood of the places where the factories shall be established, in order to cultivate the said lands and make plantations, in which they may raise fresh provisions for their relief and subsistence; which cultivating and improvement is to be performed by the inhabitants of the country and the negro slaves, and not by any others; nor may any ministers of his catholic majesty hinder them, provided they keep to this rule.

XXXVI. That leave shall be granted to the assientists to send a ship of 300 tons to the Canary islands, and to carry from thence such fruits as are customarily taken on board there for America, pursuant to what was allowed to Don Bernardo Francisco Marin, by the 26th article of his assiento, and by the 21st article of the assiento of the Guinea company of Portugal, for one time only, during the continuance of this assiento.

XXXVII. That orders shall be dispatched for the publication, in all the ports of America, of an indulto for the negroes unduly imported, from the day that this assiento is to take place; with free liberty to the factors to lay an indulto on them, at what time and price they shall think fit; and that the produce of this indulto shall be applied to the benefit of the assientists,

who shall be obliged to pay to his catholic majesty the regular duties of 33 pieces of eight, and one third of a piece of eight, for each negro, at the time that the indulto is laid.

XXXVIII. That for the more expeditious dispatch of this affair his majesty will establish a junta of three ministers, such as he shall think most proper, who, with the assistance of the fiscal and secretary of the council of the Indies, shall hear and take cognizance (exclusive of all others) of all matters and causes relating thereunto, and that the said junta shall lay before his majesty what shall occur to them, in the same manner as was practised for the French company.

XXXIX. That all the concessions in former assientos, to Don Domingo Grillo, the consulado of Seville, Don Nicolas Porcio, Don Bernardo Marin y Gusman, the companies of Portugal and France, not being contrary to the contract, shall be understood and declared to be in its favour, as if they were herein literally inserted; and that all the orders that have, at any time, been dispatched in favour of those fore-mentioned assientists shall be granted to these, whenever they shall ask them, without any doubt or difficulty.

XL. That, in case of a declaration of war (which God forbid) of the crown of Great-Britain against that of Spain, or of Spain against Great-Britain, this assiento is to be suspended; however, the assientists are to be suffered to remove with all security (during the space of one year and a half, from the time of the declaration of such rupture) all their effects, and to bring them home freely, in such of their ships as shall then happen to be in the ports of the Indies, or in those belonging to Spaniards; with this condition, that, if they should bring them to the ports of Spain, they may freely carry them away again, as if the assiento was yet in force; it being first made to appear, that they are the produce of the negro trade. And it is farther declared, that if it should happen that the crowns of Spain and England, or either of them, jointly or separately, shall enter upon a war with other nations, in such case the ships employed in this assiento are to have passes, and carry flags with different arms from what are usually borne by the English or Spaniards, such as his catholic majesty shall please to make choice of; in order to the securing of which, her Britannic majesty will take upon her to solicit and obtain, that in the ensuing general treaty of peace an express article may be inserted, that all the princes may take notice of it.

XLI. That all the contents of this present contract shall be fully, and sincerely, and punctually executed, for the term of 30 years, during which this assiento is to continue, and the three years farther, which are allowed to the assientists for the getting in their effects, and balancing their accounts, as has been already mentioned.

XLII. And finally, his majesty grants to the said assientists, their agents, factors, ministers, officers civil and military, as well at sea as at land, all the favours, freedoms, privileges, and exemptions, that have ever been granted to any former assientists, without any restriction or limitation, so far as they are not contrary to what is agreed and expressed in the foregoing articles; which the assientists do likewise oblige themselves to accomplish, and execute entirely and punctually.

Besides the foregoing articles, stipulated on behalf of the English company, his catholic majesty considering the losses which former assientists have sustained, and upon this express condition, that the said company shall not carry on nor attempt any unlawful trade, directly nor indirectly, under any pretence whatsoever; and to manifest to her Britannic majesty how much he desires to please her, and to confirm more and more a strict and good correspondence, he has been pleased, by his royal decree of the 12th of March, in this present year, to allow, to the company of this assiento, a ship of 500 tons yearly, during the 30 years of its continuance, to trade therewith to the Indies; in which his catholic majesty is to partake a fourth part of the gain, as in the assiento; besides which fourth, his catholic majesty is to receive 5 per cent. out of the neat gain of the other three parts which belong to England: upon this express condition, that they may not sell the goods and merchandizes, which each of these ships shall carry, but only at the time of the fair. And, if any of these ships shall arrive in the Indies before the flota's and galleons, the factors of the assiento shall be obliged to land the goods and merchandize (with which they shall be laden) and put them into warehouses that shall be locked with two keys; one of which to remain with the royal officers, and the other with the factors of the company; to the end the said goods and merchandize may be sold, during the continuance of the said fair only; and they are to be free of all duties in the Indies.

Given at Madrid, the 26th of March, 1713.

I, The King,

R E M A R K S .

We having promised to incorporate throughout this work our treaties of commerce, we judged that it might be expected this of the assiento should not be omitted, notwithstanding its cessation with Spain, according to the tenour of the treaty

of Aix-la-Chapelle. For, as this contract has shifted hands from time to time, it may one day be brought about in the like manner again; and, therefore, the treaty, and the nature of it, should be recorded, we apprehend, in a work of this kind, in order to have recourse to upon any future occasion.

A short history of the assiento, with remarks on its nature and tendency.

Although I have already declared my disapprobation of the slave trade in general, yet, from the nature of this work, I am under the necessity of describing the state of this trade, as well as of others, and to shew what was, as well as what is, its present situation and circumstances, in regard both to the Spaniards and ourselves.

The Spaniards having in a manner destroyed the natural inhabitants of Spanish America, they have been many years, and still are, obliged to perform the work of their mines, and other laborious business, by negroes, of which they could scarce ever obtain the number they have wanted; and it is certain, if they were fully supplied, they would get yearly above twice the silver, perhaps, they now do, or have done, for many years past.

It must be confessed they have used variety of measures to obtain them. The Genoese undertook to supply them at a concerted price between them; for which end they formed a company called the assiento, who had their factors at Jamaica, Curasoa, and Brazil.

By carrying on the negro trade in this manner with Spain, it was a prodigious tour before the negroes got to the Spanish mines; as first from Guinea to Jamaica; from thence to Porto-Bello, and then to Panama, where they were re-shipped on board the fleet, when returning to Callao; which was a voyage of four months at least, for they have the wind in their teeth every league of this voyage. After staying some little time at this last-mentioned port, the negroes were put on ship-board again, and sent to Arica, which is a voyage of about a month more; and, when landed there, they could not have less than 150 miles to the mines: so that there was not above one negro in three that arrived at Potozi, or the adjacent mines, of those that were originally bought by the Genoese factors for that end. Whereas the negroes that might be sent from Buenos-Ayres, would be liable to none of the inconveniences that these poor wretches suffered; as passing through so many different unhealthy climates, and so many tedious voyages by sea, enough to wear out bodies of steel, especially considering how the miserable creatures are accommodated all the time, both with lodging and diet. But the natural way to carry on this trade with the Spaniards, to the most advantage of the assientists, is certainly directly from the coast of Guinea to Buenos-Ayres, from whence they sail four parts in five before the wind; and, when the negroes are landed, pass through one of the most plentiful and healthiest countries in the world, even in a manner to the mines mouth: so that one may venture to affirm, that, with careful management, they would not lose one in 10*.

* Although, according to the foregoing assiento, the assientists had the liberty to send 1,200 negroes annually to Buenos Ayres, out of the 4,800 wherewith they were allowed to supply the Spaniards; yet, if they had been tolerated to have sold double or treble that number there, it might have proved not only more to the benefit of the negro, but of the other parts of the contract.

The Genoese, by their ill method of management, made nothing of this contract; nor did their successors, the Portuguese. After them, it fell into the hands of the French, who made so much of it, that they were enabled, by a computation made from the registers in Spain, to import into the French dominions no less than 204,000,000 of pieces of eight. Yet they at length overglutted the market, and became sufferers, towards the conclusion thereof.

Upon the assiento's falling into English hands, we have not been able to make any great advantage by it, on account of the unsettled affairs of Europe for many years past, and our misunderstanding with the court of Spain, during the long Walpolean administration. See the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, in regard to the assiento, &c.

Buenos-Ayres is situated upon the river of Plata, the mouth of which lies in 35° south latitude; and the town of Buenos-Ayres is situated on the south side of the river, upon an angle of land, formed by a small rivulet called Rio Chuelco.

The fertility of this country exceeds belief, says Monsieur Acarete du Biscay, for their plains, which are the largest in the world, as being 50, and some 80 leagues in circumference, are so covered with all sorts of cattle, that 'tis credible to none but those who see them. To give an idea of this matter, I will only mention a device the Spaniards have there to hinder the landing of an enemy; which is, to drive so prodigious a number of bulls, cows, and horses, to the shore-side, that they suppose it would be an impossible matter to force a way through them. This Monsieur Acarete

du Biscay affirms the inhabitants told him, when he was there.

The soil affords all that France and Italy can boast of, as tea fruit or garden-ware; and for grains, wheat, barley, millet, &c. thrives no where better, Partridges, the same author says, are a penny a-piece; and beef, veal, mutton, venison, hares, rabbits, pullets, wild-fowl, &c. proportionably: and for health, which crowns all the other blessings, 'tis exceeded by no place upon the face of the earth, and for that reason was called Buenos-Ayres, or good air.

That this is the best way for Great-Britain to carry on the negro and any other trade to the Spanish West-Indies, may be made appear by the plainest observations. For

There runs a noble highway from Buenos-Ayres to the province of Los Charcos, in which Potozi and the most considerable mines are found; and, as this province is the southermost of the whole kingdom of Peru, so consequently all South America may be supplied with goods or merchandizes of all kind they want this way, infinitely cheaper than any other now in use.

Further REMARKS.

Some have thought that the assiento for negroes being carried on by an exclusive company, either by a considerable corporation, or by any united company of merchants, who should obtain that privilege from the court of Spain, is injurious to the other trading parts of the kingdom. But this seems to be a mistaken opinion; and, therefore, it may be useful to set people right upon this occasion.

All nations have a natural right to regulate the trade and navigation of their distant colonies, by enacting such laws within themselves, and by making such treaties with foreign nations, as they shall judge the most conducive to the general interest of their mother-countries.

From this principle it is that Great-Britain does not admit either of its own, or the subjects of any foreign nation, to carry on trade with the British colonies, but under the peculiar restriction and limitation of British law, and national treaties. The Spaniards, also, having an equal right to regulate the trade of their colonies in America, the subjects of no nation whatever can carry on a trade with those colonies, but under the peculiar restriction and limitation of Spanish laws, and national treaties. To do otherwise is violating those laws, or treaties; carrying on contraband commerce, and breaking friendship with that kingdom.

The Spaniards, as before observed, standing in need of a constant supply of negroes to work their gold and silver mines in Peru and Mexico, and for other servile and laborious purposes, have been under the necessity of contracting with such nations who were circumstanced to supply their wants; they having no settlements of their own upon the coast of Africa.

The English having forts and settlements in Africa, which give them a right to carry on that trade, the South-Sea company, at the peace of Utrecht, obtained of the court of Spain an exclusive privilege to supply the Spanish colonies in America with negroes.

But, according to that contract, not only all the other subjects of Great-Britain were excluded from that trade, but the subjects of all other nations; no other traders being admitted either to carry negroes, or any other species of merchandize, to Spanish America, except in a way consistent with treaties which subsist between Spain and other powers for that purpose: and those other treaties oblige all, except the assientists for negroes, to carry their merchandize by the way of Old Spain to New, and there pay considerable duties on their outset, and on their return; from which the reader may observe, by the assiento treaty, that the assientists were exempted.

From this state of the case, we cannot be at a loss to make a right judgment of the nature of the late British assiento, or of any future one that Spain may grant to the subjects of any particular nation, who are able to supply them; it being a peculiar contract made between Spain and such assientists, to furnish them with negroes, under certain terms and conditions; and, at the same time, to exclude all others whatsoever, as well all other the subjects of the same nation, who may obtain that contract, as the subjects of any other nation.

It is extraordinary that any one should treat such contract in the light of a monopoly, and injurious to the other traders of that nation who have no share therein: for a monopoly implies nothing less than that the general interests of trade are thereby sacrificed to the particular interest of a few. But this was neither the case of the late, nor is it that of the present, British assientists; because the trading interest of Great-Britain in general never did, nor ever will, legally enjoy the privilege of supplying the Spanish West-Indies with negroes. For, in the grant of such a contract, Spain will never allow it but to certain particulars, exclusive of all other the subjects of that, or any other, nation; by reason that would prove the means of depriving the court of Spain of its royal revenues, which arise from the duties paid by other nations in carrying on their trade to the Spanish Indies, according to those treaties, which are different in their nature from that of the assiento.

Since then, from the nature and circumstances of this con-

tract, none but the particular contractors can enjoy it, and no nation in general ever did, or will; it is weak and absurd to consider it as monopolizing from others of the same nation what they have no right to: it is, indeed, taking such a proportion of trade out of the scale of France, who possessed it before us, and throwing it into our own. That the assiento is a monopoly in this sense is true: but such a one that excludes foreign nations from trade, can never be judged detrimental to British subjects in general.

The Dutch enjoy a very lucrative monopoly of the spice trade of the East-Indies; a monopoly that excludes all other nations, as well as Dutchmen in general, from that valuable branch of trade. Let it be supposed this trade was to change hands, and to fall into those of the English, on condition of being united to the trade of our East-India company, with their exclusive privileges and immunities: was this the case, I would ask, Whether such British monopoly would be detrimental to the British trading interest in general, by reason that a particular British company only possessed that trade? Would not this be a new acquisition of trade to the kingdom, by taking such a proportion out of the hands of the Dutch, and throwing it into our own? Could the trading interest of Great-Britain in general complain of the India company, as being any way prejudicial to their common interest, in depriving them of what they never before enjoyed? And, if the exclusive right in the spice trade was in the power of the Mogul, or any other prince, to grant to our India company, and it could not, consistent with his interest, be granted to the subjects of Great-Britain in general, there could be no reason to complain that particulars should possess it, exclusive of the whole.

To make this point more unexceptionably apparent. Our American plantations, at present, depend upon the labour of negroes for their various productions. If ever Great-Britain, by the wiles and machinations of her rivals, be rendered incapable of supplying her own plantations with negroes; should we not be under the necessity of contracting with some other nation, who could supply them? Suppose a contract for this purpose was made either with the French or the Dutch, who, having settlements in Africa, might be capable of it; would not this be throwing such an additional proportion of trade into the scale of the Dutch or the French, and taking the same out of our own, we having hitherto supplied ourselves with negroes? If our necessity for negroes was ever so great, and our whole dependance for them was upon another nation; should we not avoid, if possible, the granting such contract to the subjects in general of such nation, lest, while they were exercising that contract, they should ruin the whole trade of England to her own plantations?

Was this the case, can we suppose that such nation would not be thoroughly sensible of this new acquisition of commerce to their country, and that it was lessening that of Great-Britain in the like proportion? Can we suppose that the trading subjects in general of such nation would be so unwise as to grudge, or endeavour to deprive their country of, so valuable an addition of trade, because such were the peculiar circumstances thereof, that they could not in general reap the benefit of it? England's giving such a power to any other nation would be as ruinous and destructive of her trade, navigation, and revenues arising from her plantations, as it would be to the Spaniards, was that nation to leave the negro-contract free and open to the subjects in general of any nation who supplied it.

ASSIENTOIST: thus the French call a person who is concerned, or has stock, in an assiento company. See the foregoing article.

ASSURANCE, or INSURANCE, a term in commerce, particularly foreign. It signifies a security, or assurance, given, in consideration of a sum of money paid, in hand, of so much per cent. to an insurer, or assurer, to indemnify the insured from such losses as shall be specified in the policy of assurance, subscribed by the insurer, or insurers, for that purpose.

The rate given for such insurance is called the premio, or premium.

The policy is commonly printed, and must be upon stamped paper.

The form thereof is generally as follows:

In the name of God, Amen, A. B. of London, as well in his own name, as for and in the name and names of all and every other person or persons, to whom the same doth, may, or shall appertain, in part or in all, doth make assurance, and causeth himself, and them, and every of them, to be insured, lost or not lost, from St Peterburg in Russia, to London,

upon any kind of goods and merchandizes whatsoever, loaden, or to be loaden, aboard the good ship called the William and Mary burden
 tons, or thereabouts, whereof is master, under God, for this present voyage, C. D. or whoever else shall go for master in the said ship, or by whatsoever other name, or names, the same ship, or the master thereof is, or shall be, named, or called; beginning the adventure upon the said goods and mer-

chandizes; from immediately following the loading thereof aboard the said ship at St Peterburg*.

and so shall continue and endure, until the said ship, with the said goods and merchandizes whatsoever, shall be arrived at London,

and the same there safely landed. And it shall be lawful for the said ship, in this voyage, to stop and stay at any ports or places whatsoever

without prejudice to this insurance. The said goods and merchandizes by agreement are, and shall be valued at

without further account to be given by the assurers for the same. Touching the adventures and perils which we the assurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this voyage: they are of the seas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons †, letters of mart and counter-mart, surprisals, taking at sea, arrests, restraints and detentions of all kings, princes, and people of what nation, condition, or quality soever, barratry § of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes that have, or shall, come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the said goods and merchandizes, &c. or any part thereof. And, in case of any loss or misfortune, it shall be lawful to the assurers, their factors, servants, and assigns, to sue, labour, and travel for, in and about the defence, safeguard and recovery of the said goods and merchandizes, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to this insurance; to the charges whereof we the assurers will contribute each one according to the rate and quantity of his sum herein assured. And it is agreed by us the insurers, that this writing, or policy, of assurance, shall be of as much force and effect as the surest writing, or policy of assurance, heretofore made in Lombard-street, or elsewhere, in London. And so we the assurers are contented, and do hereby promise and bind ourselves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods, for the true performance of the premises, confessing ourselves paid the consideration due unto us for this assurance, by A. B. of London, at and after the rate of _____ per cent.

In case of loss, to abate _____ per cent. [and, in time of war, they add, warranted to depart with convoy.]

In witness whereof we the assurers have subscribed our names and sums. Assured in London the

l. 100 I. G. H, for one hundred pounds per me received.

l. 200 E. K, for two hundred pounds, ditto.

To which is added to the policies for merchandize at present the following:

N. B. Corn and fish are warranted free from all average, unless general, or the ship be stranded. Sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from all average under five pounds per cent. all other goods, the ship and freight free from all average under three pounds per cent. unless general, or the ship be stranded.

* If the insurance be made on a ship, the words in the policy are—Upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture in the good ship or vessel, called, &c.—And N. B. is added—The ship and freight are warranted free from average under three pounds per cent. unless general, or the ship be stranded.

† Jettison, jetson, or jetsan (from the French jetter, i. e. ejicere, to cast away) a term signifying any thing thrown out of a ship, being in danger of a wreck, and by the waves drove on shore.

§ Barratry, or barrety, in a marine sense, is when the master of a ship defrauds the owners or insurers, whether by carrying the ship a different course to their orders, or by sinking her, deserting her, or embazzling the cargo.—The same is applicable to the mariners also, when they breed dissensions, and are guilty of any thing injurious to the ship or cargo, &c. Some derive it from the Latin baratro, a rogue, a gallows; others from the Italian barrataria, corruption, or bribery; and others from the old French word barat, a trick.

This is the form when the assurance is made by a number of private or unincorporated underwriters, who resort to private offices for that purpose; and these policies are duly entered, or registered, in these offices, as remaining testimonies and vouchers of such transaction.

There are, besides these private offices, two corporations established by act of parliament in the city of London, for this purpose.—The one called the Royal Exchange Assurance, and the other the London Assurance; the nature and cause of whose institution I shall give an account of presently.

In the 43d of Elizabeth it was lawful for the lord chancellor to award under the great seal one standing commission, to be renewed yearly at least, for the decision of differences arising upon policies of assurance in London; which commission was directed to the judge of the admiralty, the recorder of London, two doctors of the civil law, two common lawyers, and

eight merchants; which commissioners were to meet weekly, and to have power to summon and examine witnesses, and hear and determine all causes in a summary way, subject to appeal to the lord Chancellor, &c. And, in the 13th and 14th of Charles II, several additional privileges were granted to this court, which was a court of equity as well as of law; but, at present, there is no such court in being, and causes of this nature are tried in the ordinary courts of law.

The Origin of the LONDON and the ROYAL EXCHANGE Assurance Companies, for Shipping and Merchandizes.

In the year 1720, the two companies of assurance, that of the Royal Assurance, headed by the Lord Onslow, and that of the London Assurance by the Lord Chetwynd, first had their establishments.

Those who projected them, had been very industrious to bespeak the countenance of the House of Commons, for which they had caused two letters to be printed and given to the members. But, these and all other solicitations having proved ineffectual, the managers for the two companies had recourse to other expedients; and, understanding that the civil list was considerably in arrears (for which no provision had been, or could conveniently be made by the parliament, because the grand committee of supply had been inadvertently dismissed) they offered to the ministry 600,000*l.* towards the discharge of that debt, in case they might obtain the king's charter, with the parliamentary sanction for the establishment of their respective companies.

The ministry, being at a loss for means to pay the civil list debt, readily embraced the offer, and, Mr Craggs having the day before prepared the leading members of the House of Commons, Mr Aislabie presented, May the 4th, to the house, the following message:

His majesty having received several petitions from great numbers of the most eminent merchants of the city of London, humbly praying that he would be graciously pleased to grant them letters patent, for erecting corporations to assure ships and merchandize; and the said merchants having offered to advance and pay a considerable sum of money for his majesty's use, in case they may obtain letters patents accordingly: his majesty being of opinion, that erecting two such corporations, exclusive only of all other corporations and societies for assuring of ships and merchandizes, under proper restrictions and regulations, may be of great advantage and security to the trade and commerce of the kingdom, is willing and desirous to be strengthened by the advice and assistance of this house, in matters of this nature and importance. He therefore hopes for their ready concurrence, to secure and confirm the privileges his majesty shall grant to such corporations, and to enable him to discharge the debts of his civil government, without burdening his people with any new aid or supply.

Pursuant to the message, a bill was brought in to enable his majesty to grant letters of incorporation to the two companies, which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

THE ORIGIN OF THE TWO ASSURANCES COMPANIES, ESTABLISHED IN THE CITY OF LONDON.

By 6 Geo. I. c. 18. His majesty was impowered to grant two charters for assurance of ships and merchandize, &c. and to incorporate the adventurers, in consideration of the before-mentioned sum of money, by them to be advanced. The statute runs:

Sect. 1. It shall be lawful for his majesty, by two charters, to grant such persons, who shall be named therein, and admitted as members into the said corporations, shall be each a separate body politic and corporate, for the assurance of ships and merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, or for lending money upon bottomry. And the said corporation shall have power to chuse their governors, directors, and other officers; and the governors and directors shall continue in their office for three years; and, in case of death or removal, be supplied as shall be preferred in the charters; and each of the said corporations shall be capable by law to purchase lands, not exceeding 1000*l.* per ann.

Sect. 4. Each of the two corporations shall be obliged to cause such stock of ready money to be provided, as shall be sufficient to answer all just demands for losses, and shall satisfy all such demands; and, in case of refusal or neglect, the parties assured may bring action of debt, &c. in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, in which the plaintiffs may declare, that the same corporation is indebted to them in the monies demanded, and have not paid the same according to this act.

Sect. 6. The corporations, in general courts, may raise such capital stocks, either by taking subscriptions of particular persons, or by calls of money from their members, or by such other ways, as to such general courts shall seem expedient; and all subscribers shall have a share in the capital

stock, and shall be admitted members, but no person shall be intitled to any greater share in the stock, than the money which they shall have paid.

Sect. 7. The corporations shall have power, in their general courts, to call in from their members any farther sums as shall be adjudged necessary; and, in case any member shall refuse to pay his share at the times appointed, by notice in the Gazette, and upon the Royal Exchange, the corporation may not only stop the dividends payable to such member, but also stop the transfers of the shares of such defaulter, and charge him with interest at 8 per cent. per ann. and, if the principal and interest shall be unpaid three months, the corporations, or their courts of directors, may authorize persons to sell so much of the stock of such defaulter, as will satisfy the same; and the money so called in shall be deemed capital stock. Nevertheless, the corporations in a general court may cause any sums called in to be divided amongst the then members, and the shares in the capital shall be proportionably abated.

Sect. 8. For enabling the corporation to lend money on parliamentary securities, they shall have power to borrow money upon bonds, under their common seal, at such interest, for any time not less than six months, as they shall think fit, so as the principal shall not exceed the principal monies then owing to them on such parliamentary securities; and such bonds shall not be chargeable with stamp duties.

Sect. 9. The shares in the capital stock shall be transferrable and devisable; and their bonds shall be assignable and recoverable, as his majesty by the charters shall prescribe; and the capital stock shall be adjudged a personal, and not a real estate, and shall go to the executors, and not to the heir.

Sect. 10. The stock shall be exempted from taxes, and no governor, director, or other officer of the corporations, shall for that cause be disabled from being a member of parliament, nor in respect of such share be liable to be a bankrupt; and no stock in the corporations shall be subject to foreign attachment by the custom of London, or otherwise.

Sect. 11. His majesty, by the said charters, may grant to each of the corporations power to make by-laws, and such farther powers relating to the assurance of ships, &c. or lending money upon bottomry, as to him shall seem meet.

Sect. 12. All other corporations, and all partnerships for assuring ships or merchandizes at sea, or for lending money upon bottomry, shall be restrained from underwriting any policies, or making any contracts for assurance of ships or merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, and from lending money by way of bottomry; and if any corporation, or persons acting in such partnership (other than one of the two corporations to be established) shall underwrite any such policy, or make such contract for assurance of ships, &c. or agree to take any premium for such policies, every such policy shall be void, and every sum so underwritten shall be forfeited, and may be recovered; one moiety to the use of the crown, the other to the person who shall sue for the same in any court of record at Westminster. And if any corporation; or persons acting in such partnership, agree to lend money by way of bottomry contrary to this act, the security shall be void, and such agreement shall be adjudged an usurious contract; nevertheless, any particular person shall be at liberty to underwrite policies, or may lend money by way of bottomry, so as the same be not on the account or risque of a corporation, or of persons acting in partnership.

Sect. 13. If any person shall forge the common seal of either of the corporations, or counterfeit or alter any policy or obligation under the common seal, or shall offer to dispose of, or pay away, any such counterfeited or altered policy, &c. knowing the same to be such, or shall demand the money therein contained of either of the corporations, knowing such policy, &c. to be counterfeited, &c. with intent to defraud the corporation, or any other person, such offender being convicted, shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

Sect. 14. No person shall be capable of being elected governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, or director, of either of the said corporations, during the time he shall be governor, &c. of the other corporation; and, if any governor, &c. or member of either of the said corporations, having any share in the capital stock of that corporation, shall in his own name, or in the name of any other, purchase any share in the stock of the other corporation, the share so purchased shall be forfeited; one moiety to the use of his majesty, the other to the prosecutor, to be recovered as before-mentioned.

Sect. 15. Upon three years notice to be printed in the Gazette, and affixed upon the Royal Exchange, by authority of parliament, at any time within 31 years, to be reckoned from the dates of the two charters, and upon payment by parliament to the corporations of the sums of 300,000*l.* which the corporations were to pay to his majesty without interest, the corporations shall cease; and any vote of the House of Commons, signified by the Speaker in writing, to be inserted in the Gazette, and affixed on the Royal Exchange, shall be deemed sufficient notice.

Sect. 16. If, after the expiration of 31 years, his majesty shall judge the farther continuance of the said corporations

to be hurtful to the public, it shall be lawful, by letters patents under the great seal, to make void the same corporations; that the same shall become void accordingly without any inquisition, *scire facias*, &c.

Sec^t. 17. In case the corporations shall be redeemed within 31 years, or be revoked by letters patents after 31 years, the same corporations, or any corporation with like powers, &c. shall not be grantable again.

Sec^t. 16. It shall be lawful for the South-Sea company, and for the East-India company, to lend on the bottom of any ship, and on the goods on board any ship, in the service of the said companies respectively, to any captains, or other persons employed in the service of the companies, any money by way of bottomry, this act notwithstanding.

Sec^t. 29. If any governor, or member of either of the corporations, shall, on account of the said corporations, lend to his majesty money by way of loan, or anticipation on any part of the revenues, other than such funds on which a credit of loan shall be granted by parliament, the said governor, &c. or other members consenting to such loan, being convicted thereof, shall forfeit treble the value of the sums so lent; one fifth part to the informer, to be recovered in any court of record at Westminster, by action of debt, &c. and the residue to be disposed of to public uses, as shall be directed by parliament.

Stat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 27. sec^t. 26. The corporation, called the London Assurance, having paid into the Exchequer 111,250 l. in part of 300,000 l. and having covenanted to pay 38,750 l. the farther part thereof in three months, and the corporation, called the Royal Exchange Assurance, having done the like, the residue of the said sums, amounting together to 300,000 l. shall be released.

By stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. sec^t. 25. Where the Royal Exchange Assurance and the London Assurance are subjected to pay double damages besides costs, the plaintiffs shall recover against them only single damages and costs.

By stat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. sec^t. 43. On all actions of debt against either of the corporations, called the Royal Exchange Assurance and the London Assurance, upon any policies under the common seal, for the assuring of any ship or merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, it shall be lawful for the said corporations to plead generally, that they owe nothing to the plaintiff; and in all actions of covenant against either of the said corporations upon any policy under the common seal, for the assuring any ship or merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, it shall be lawful for each of the corporations to plead generally, that they have not broke the covenant in such policy contained; and, if thereupon issue be joined, it shall be lawful for the jury to give such part only of the sum demanded, if it be an action of debt, or so much in damage, if it be an action of covenant, as it shall appear upon the evidence, that the plaintiff ought in justice to have.

Sec^t. 44. When any vessel or merchandizes shall be insured, a policy duly stamped shall be issued or made out, within three days at farthest; and the insurer, neglecting to make out such policy, shall forfeit 100 l. to be recovered and divided as other penalties may be, by the laws relating to the stamp duties; and all promissory notes for assurances of ships or merchandizes at sea, or going to sea, are declared void.

The policies of assurance are now a-days so general, that almost all those curious questions that former ages, and the civilians according to the marine law, and the common lawyers too, have controverted, are now out of debate; scarce any misfortune that can happen, or provision to be made, but the same is taken care for in the policies that are used at present; for they insure against heaven and earth, storms, enemies, pirates, rovers, &c. or whatsoever detriment shall happen, or come to the thing insured, is provided for.

Assurances are of various sorts, some being to places certain, others general: those that are made to places certain, are commonly upon goods laden, or to be laden aboard outward, and until the same adventure shall be laid ashore at such a port.

Or upon goods laden, or to be laden, homeward, in such a ship, till the adventure shall likewise be landed.

Or else upon goods out and in, with liberty to touch at all ports as are mentioned in the policy.

So likewise on ships that go trading voyages, as round to Cadiz, and that it shall be lawful, after the ship's delivery of the goods there, to take in at the same port another cargo, and with that proceed to the West-Indies, or other ports and back again to Cadiz, and from thence to London; this policy, being general and dangerous, seldom procures subscriptions, or at least very chargeable ones.

As goods and merchandizes are commonly insured, so likewise are the ships, their tackle and furniture: but, in regard there seldom happens a voyage but somewhat is missing or lost, the premium commonly runs higher than for merchandize.

Assurances may be made on goods sent by land, so likewise on hoys and the like, and may be made on the heads of men; as if a man is going for the Streights, and perhaps is in some fear that he may be taken by the Moors or Turkish pirates, and so made a slave, for the redemption of whom a

ransom must be paid, he may advance a premium accordingly upon a policy of assurance; and, if there be a caption, the assurer must answer the ransom, that is secured to be paid on the policy.

R E M A R K S.

Here follow some observations in regard to assurances on shipping and merchandizes, and some of the principal cases relating thereto, as they have been adjudged in our courts of law.

If the person whose name is used in the assurance, be in time of war taken to be no friend to the state, there is danger to pay the assurance, if, after the subscription of the assurer, the goods should be arrested and made forfeited, to answer the same to the prince, as it often happens*. *Lex Mercat. by Malines, and Molloy de jure marit.*

* If this be law, how does it consist with the insurance of the shipping and merchandize of enemies in times of war?

If goods are stolen or embezzled on shipboard, the master, not the assurer, is responsible. So if the goods be lost in default of the pilot†. *Lex Mercat. Malines.*

† Here we see, that an indemnification from theft, in the policy, is liable to exception.

Those assurances are most dangerous, when there are these words inserted, lost or not lost; which is commonly done, when a ship hath been long missing, and no tidings can be had; the premio (especially in time of war) will run very high, sometimes 30 or 40 per cent. and though it happens, at the time that the subscription is made, the ship is cast away, yet the assurers must answer.

But, if the party that caused the assurance to be made, saw the ship wrecked, or had certain intelligence thereof, such subscription will not oblige, the same being accounted a mere fraud‡. *Locinius, lib. 2. cap. 5. § 9, 10.*

‡ This shews, that insurers ought to cast about for the best intelligence.

So likewise if the assured, having a rotten vessel, shall assure upon the same more than she is worth, and afterwards give order that, going out of the port, she should be sunk or wrecked, this will be fraudulent, and not oblige the assurers to answer. *Arthur Stockden's case. Mich. 26. Car. II. in B. R. Afterwards convicted by information for the fraud.*

One having a doubtful account of his ship that was at sea, viz. that a ship, described like his, was taken, insured her, without giving any information to the insurers of what he had heard, either as to the hazard, or circumstances, which might induce him to believe that his ship was in great danger, if not actually lost.

The insurers bring a bill for an injunction, and to be relieved against the insurance as fraudulent.

Lord chancellor declared, That the insured had not dealt fairly with the insurers in this case; he ought to have disclosed to them what intelligence he had of the ship's being in danger, and which might induce him, at least, to fear that it was lost, though he had no certain account of it, for, if this had been discovered, it is impossible to think, that the insurers would have insured the ship at so small a premium, so that the concealing of this intelligence is a fraud.

Wherefore decreed the policy be delivered up with costs, but the premium to be paid back, and allowed out of the costs. This was in the case of *Da Costa versus Scandret*. The same point was determined by Lord Macclesfield in the following term, in the case of *Weaver versus Fowler*. 2 P. Williams, 170.

In the year 1678, one Newnham, Perkins, and Stoakes were owners of a vessel called the *May-flower-ketch*, the vessel coming laden with wines, on the account of *Fierbraffe* and *Stone*, to the *Ile of Wight*; Perkins, being then in the same place, contrives with one *Ivy*, the master, to sell the freighters goods privately; and, that being effected, to go out to sea some small distance from the *isle*, and there privately sink the vessel, and pretend she struck, and then foundered by the extremity of weather. The plot being laid, Perkins hastens up to London, and makes a policy of assurance on the vessel; which being done, he remits his orders to *Ivy*, to put in execution his contrivance, who accordingly did; and, the goods, or the best of them, being disposed of, stands out to sea, and then with his own hands, by the force of an iron crow, makes a hole in the hold, and then in his long-boat, (the crew perceiving the vessel to be sinking) conveys himself and mariners ashore; *Ivy* remits up advice of the loss, and Perkins, (as if he had never known any thing of the matter) demands the monies assured, and thereupon brings an action for the same; but, before the cause came to a trial, *Fierbraffe* and *Stone* bring trover against Perkins, and thereupon the whole practice came out, and a verdict was had against the defendant, with this further. That, if Perkins would proceed on his action on the assurance, he must expect that this practice and fraud of his would totally poison his as-

furance; and thereupon, being well advised, never proceeded. Hill. 32 Car. II. B. R.

Thomas Knight, Esq; against Richard Cambridge.

Cambridge, an insurer, brought a writ of error upon a judgment given against him in the Common Pleas, in an action brought by the plaintiff upon a policy of insurance of the ship Riga Merchant, at and from Port Mahon to London. And serjeant Brandthwaite for the plaintiff in error insisted, that the judgment was erroneous, because the breach was ill assigned: because the policy was, that the defendant Cambridge should insure the said ship, among other things, against the barrety of the master, and all other dangers, damages, and misfortunes, which should happen to the prejudice and damage of the said ship; and the breach assigned was, that the ship in the said voyage, per fraudem et negligentiam nāgistrī navis prædictæ depressa et submersa fuit, et totaliter perita et amissa fuit, et nullius valoris devenit. This he insisted was not within the word, the meaning of the word barrety; but the breach should have been expressed, that that the ship was lost by the barrety of the master. Besides, the owner of the goods has a remedy against the owners of the ship, for any prejudice he receives by the fraud, or neglect of the master; and therefore there is the less reason the insurer should be liable. Besides, if the word barrety should import fraud, yet it does not import neglect; and the fact here alledged is, that the ship was lost by the fraud and neglect of the master. But the court was unanimously of opinion, that there was no occasion to aver the fact in the very words of the policy, but, if the fact alledged came within the meaning of the words in the policy, it is sufficient. Now barrety imports fraud, *Du Fresne Glossar. verbo baratria, fraus, dolus*. And he that commits a fraud, may properly be said to be guilty of a neglect, viz. of his duty. Barrety of a master is not to be confined to the master's running away with the ship; and the general words in the policy ought to be construed to extend to losses of the like nature as those mentioned before: now losses arising from the fraud of the master are of the same nature, as if he had run away with the ship, supposing barrety was to be confined to that, which it is not, because it imports any fraud. And judgment was affirmed, April 27, 1724. Lord Raymond 1349. So that, if the assurance is against the barrety of the master, and the breach assigned is, that the ship was lost by the fraud and neglect of the master, this is proper; it is the meaning of the words of the policy, and it is not necessary to use the very words. See the article BARRETRY.

Green versus Young.

In evidence upon the trial in an action upon a policy of insurance, the case appeared to be, That the insurers agreed to insure the ship from her arrival at in Jamaica, during her voyage to London; and an embargo was laid upon the ship by the government; and afterwards they seized the ship, and converted it into a fire-ship, and offered to pay the owners. And the question was, if this would excuse the insurers? and Holt, chief justice, seemed to incline, that it would not, and that it was within the words, detention of princes, &c. but he gave no absolute opinion, because the cause was referred to three foremen of the jury. In the same case he said, that if a policy of assurance be made to begin from the departure of the ship from England, until, &c. and after the departure damage happens, &c. and then the ship deviates; though the policy is discharged from the time of the deviation, yet, for the damages sustained before the deviation, the insurers shall make satisfaction to the insured. Lord Raymond 840. So that, if the government lay an embargo upon a ship, and afterwards seize her, and convert her into a fire-ship, the insurers are liable.

A policy against restraint of princes will not extend to practices against the laws of countries, to a seizure for not paying custom, and the like. 2 Vern. 176.

Goddard versus Garrett.

The defendant had lent money on a bottomry bond, but had no interest in the ship or cargo; the money lent was 300 l. and he insured 450 l. on the ship; the plaintiff's bill was to have the policy delivered up, by reason the defendant was not concerned in point of interest, as to the ship or cargo. Cur. Take it that the law is settled, that, if a man has no interest, and insures, the insurance is void, although it be expressed in the policy, interested or not interested; and the reason the law goes upon is, that these insurances are made for the encouragement of trade, and not that persons unconcerned in trade, nor interested in the ship, should profit by it; and, where one would have benefit of the insurance, he must renounce all interest in the ship. And the reason why the law allows that a man, having some interest in the ship or cargo, may insure more, or five times as much, is, that a merchant cannot tell how much, or how little, his factor may have in readiness to lade on board his ship. And it was said, that the usual interest allowed on bottomry was 3 l. per cent. per men-

tem, and you may insure at 6 or 7. per cent. for the voyage: so, if this practice might be allowed, a man might be sure to gain 30, or more, per cent. Per cur. Decree the policy of insurance to be delivered up, to be cancelled.

Note, that, in this case, notice was taken in the policy, that it was to insure money on bottomry.

Note also, that in this case, the ship survived the time limited in the bottomry bond, and was lost within the time limited in the policy. So, if insurance good, the defendant might be intitled to the money on the bond, and also on the policy. 2 Vern. 269, 270.

The case of Le Pytre against Farr, on a policy of insurance on goods by agreement valued at 600 l. and the insured not to be obliged to prove any interest.

Lord chancellor ordered the defendant to discover what goods he put on board; for, although the defendant offered to renounce all interest to the insurers, yet he referred it to a master to examine the value of the goods saved, and to deduct it out of the value, or sum, of 600 l. at which the goods were valued by the agreement. 2 Vern. 716.

Harman against Vanhatton.

The defendant lent the plaintiff 250 l. on a bottomry bond, and afterwards insured on the same ship; but the insurance was larger, as to the voyage, there being liberty to go to other ports and places, than what were contained in the condition of the bottomry bond. The ship being lost, the defendant recovered the money on the policy of insurance, and also put the bottomry bond in suit: the ship, though lost, had deviated from the voyage mentioned in the bond, in going to Virgin Gardo to buy salt.

The plaintiff brought his bill, pretending the defendant ought not to have a double satisfaction to recover both on the insurance, and also on the bond, he having insured only in respect of the money he had lent on bottomry, and had no other interest in the ship or cargo; and therefore the plaintiff would have had the benefit of the insurance, paying the premium. Sed non allocatur. So that, if one lends money on a bottomry bond, and afterwards insures on the same ship, and the ship is lost, he shall have both the benefit of the insurance, and the money due on the bond too.

The defendant having paid the premium, was intitled to the benefit of the policy, and run the risque, whether the ship was lost or not; and the insurers might as well pretend to have aid of the bottomry bond, and to discount the money recovered thereon, as the plaintiff to have the money recovered on the policy, to ease the bottomry bond. So that paying the premium intitles the party to the benefit of the insurance.

The plaintiff also charged, that the defendant had promised and agreed to deliver up the bond, on the plaintiff's making up the money recovered on the policy, as much as he lent on the bond, with interest and costs, and proved such offer and promise. Sed non allocatur. It was but nudum pactum, a voluntary offer, and on condition that the money was then paid, and it was not complied with. So that an offer to deliver up a bond upon terms not complied with is not binding, and, if made without consideration, is nudum pactum. 2 Vern. 717, 718.

If a merchant insures such a ship generally, and in the policy it is expressed of such a burthen, the ship happens then to be laden, and after miscarries, the insurer shall not answer for the goods, but only for the ship. *Locinius, lib. ii. cap. 5. §. 7, 9, 10.*

It matters not in the policy, whether the particular wares and goods are named, but generally the principal wares, and all other commodities laden or to be laden, for the insured, or for his account, or for any other.

If a ship be insured from the port of London to Cadiz, and, before the ship breaks ground, takes fire, and is burned, the insurers in such case shall not answer, for the adventure begins not till the ship is gone from the port of London; but, if the words had been, At, and from the port of London, there they would upon such a misfortune have been made liable. *Mol. de Jure Marit.*

If such an assurance had been from London to Cadiz, and the ship had broke ground, and afterwards been driven by storm to the port * of London, and there had took fire, the insurers must have answered; for the very breaking of ground from the port of London was an exception of the voyage. *Mol. de Jure Marit.*

* The port of London extends from the North Foreland in the isle of Thanet, over in a line to the Naze in Essex, and from thence to London Bridge.

On the other hand, if a man at Cadiz insures a ship from thence to London, if a loss happens, the insurer, if he comes into England, shall answer by the common law; for though the place where the subscription was made, and the premium given, was in a foreign country, yet that is not material; for the action that is brought, is grounded on the promise, which is transitory, and not local; and so it was adjudged, where

the

The defendant, in consideration of 100 l. had insured, that, if the plaintiff's ship and goods did not come safe to London, he would pay 100 l. afterwards the ship was robbed on the sea; and in an action brought for the 100 l. the plaintiff had judgment, notwithstanding the robbery, or loss, was on the main sea, and the subscription out of the realm. Mol.

If, after a policy of assurance, a damage happens, and afterwards in the same voyage a deviation, yet the insured shall recover for what happened before the deviation, for the policy is discharged from the time of the deviation only. Salk. 444—Strauche cited in Shower, 325.

If goods are insured in such a ship, and afterwards in the voyage it happens she becomes leaky and crazy, and the supercargo and master, by consent, become freighters of another vessel for the safe-delivery of the goods; and then, after her relading, the second vessel miscarries*; the insurers are discharged: but, if there be these words, The goods laden to be transported and delivered at such a place by the said ship, or by any other ship, or vessel, until they be safely landed, then the insurers must answer the misfortune.

* This has much been doubted, and opinions of the court have generally inclined against the insurers. Leg. ult. ad Rhod. Digest. Paulus, lib. xiv. tit. 2. §. 10.

If a man insures 5000 l. worth of goods, and he hath but 2000 l. remitted; now, he having insured a real adventure, by the law marine all the insurers must answer pro rata, if a loss. But, by the opinion of some only, those first subscribers, who underwrit so much as the real adventure amounted to, are to be made liable, and the rest remitting their premium (10s. per cent. deducted out of the same for their subscriptions) are to be discharged*. Vide Grot. Introd. Jur. Holl. 212, 213.

* This is more the custom of merchants than law.

Debts upon obligation with condition to pay so much money, if a ship returned within six months from Ostend in Flanders to London, (which was more by a third part than the legal interest of the money) and, if she do not return, then the obligation to be void. The defendant pleaded that there was a corrupt agreement between him and the plaintiff, and that, at the time of making of the obligation, that he should have no more for interest than the law permits, in case the ship should ever return; and avers that the bond was entered into by covin, to avoid the statute of usury. Per Hale, Clearly this bond is not within the statute, for this is the common way of assurance; and, if this were void by the statute of usury, trade would be destroyed, for it is a casualty whether ever such a ship shall return or not; but he agreed the averment was well taken, because it disclosed the manner of the agreement. Hardres, 418. Joy against Kent.

Action upon the case, upon a policy of assurance of goods from London to Naples; the adventure was to begin in time of the lading at London (dangers of the sea only excepted) with this clause, Warranted to depart with convoy; the ship departed with convoy, but was separated from the convoy by stress of weather, and put into Torbay, and was there detained by contrary winds; afterwards the master of the ship, expecting to meet with convoy, departed out of the harbour, but could not meet the convoy, being hindered by stress of weather, and was taken by the French. 1 Show. 320. 4 Mod. 58. 3 Lev. 320. Salk. 443.—Judgment pro Quer. Case upon a policy, which was to insure the William galley, in a voyage from Bremen to the port of London, warranted to depart with convoy. The galley set sail from Bremen, under convoy of a Dutch man of war, to the Elb, where they were joined with two other Dutch men of war, and several Dutch and English merchant-ships, whence they sailed to the Texel, where they found a squadron of English men of war, and an admiral. After a stay of nine weeks, they set out from the Texel, and the galley was separated in a storm, and taken by a French privateer, taken again by a Dutch privateer, and paid 80 l. salvage. And it was ruled by Holt, chief justice, that the voyage ought to be according to usage, and that their going to the Elb, though in fact out of the way, was no deviation; for, till after the year 1703, there was no convoy for ships directly from Bremen to London. And the plaintiff had a verdict. Bond vers. Gonfale, February 14, 1704, coram Holt, chief justice, at nisi prius at Guildhall. Salk. 445.

Warranted to depart with convoy, has been resolved to import, by the usage of merchants, a continuance with that convoy as long as may be. Lucas's Reports, 287.

A merchant insures his goods from London to Sallee, and there to be landed. The factor, after arrival, having opportunity, sells the cargo aboard the same ship, without ever unlading her; and the buyer agrees for the freight of those goods to the port of Venice. Before she breaks ground, the ship takes fire: the assured and buyer are absolutely without remedy*; for the property of the goods becoming changed, and freight being contracted de novo, the same was as much as if the goods had been landed. Locin. l. ii. c. 5. §. 9.

* By the laws of Antwerp there is a time allotted, after the ship arrives at her port, how long the adventure is to be borne by the insurers, which is about 15 days. Art. 13.

And so it is if the factor, after her arrival, had contracted for freight to another port, and the ship had happened to take fire, the insurers are hereby absolutely discharged for ever.

If a ship be insured from London to _____ and blank being left by the lader, to prevent her surprize by the enemy, in her voyage she happens to be cast away; though there be private instructions for her port, yet the insured sit down by the loss, by reason of the uncertainty. So if a blank is left in the policy for the value of the ship, or lading, if a loss, and there be not words that may supply, the insured may indanger the policy.

The taking of a ship, that is insured, by pirates, is to be understood the perils of the sea. Stiles, 132. 2 Roll's Abr. 248. Where goods are redeemed from a pirate, contribution must be paid by all, because the redemption is made for the safety of all; but, if the pirate be once master of all, and yet take but some special goods, whether from ship or merchant, and not as a consideration for sparing the rest, in this case, because the remainder is not assured thereby, but freely spared, no contribution is to be made for the taken goods to charge any insurer with any part thereof. So contribution shall be made for goods spoiled by wet, or other accident: or, if it be needful to lighten a ship for her easier entry into harbour or channel, two parts of the loss fall upon the goods, and the third upon the ship; unless the ship is more worth than the lading, and the charge of the goods be not the cause of her inability to enter, but some bad quality proceeding from the ship itself; or that otherwise it be provided in the charter-party. Lex Mercat. by Malines, p. 109. See the article AVERAGE.

* Indebitat. assumpsit pro præmio; upon a policy of assurance upon such a ship, the defendant demurred specially, because he did not shew the consideration certainly what the premium was, or how it became due, sed non allocat*, for it is as good as indebted. pro quodam salario, which hath been adjudged good, 2 Levinz, 153. Fowlk v. Pinfacho.

* Indebitatus assumpsit is used in declarations and law proceedings, where one is indebted unto another in any certain sum; and the law creates it: it is also an action thereupon.

Policy of assurance to warrant a ship for 12 months; the ship did not perish within the time of 12 months, being accounted according to the months of January, February, &c. but within 12 months, reckoning 28 days to the month; resolved that the policy was not forfeited. Cited in Sir Woolaston Dixey's case, 1 Leon. 96.

After notice of loss, the insured, if he thinks fit, for that he hath insured the most of his adventure, or that he would have the assistance of the insurers, when there is hope of recovery of the adventure, he may then make a renunciation of the lading to the insurers, and come in himself, in the nature of an insurer, for so much as shall appear he hath borne of the adventure beyond the value insured. Locinius, l. 2. c. 5. §. 8. But, if the merchant shall not renounce, yet there is a power given in the policy for him to travel, pursue, and endeavour a recovery, if possible, of the adventure, after a misfortune, to which the insurers are to contribute; the same being but a trouble to give ease to the insurers.

If prohibited goods are laden aboard, and the merchant insures upon the general policy, which always contains these words: Of the seas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and counter-mart, arrests, restraints, and detentions of kings and princes, and of all other persons, barrety of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes whatsoever they be, and howsoever they shall happen to come, to the hurt and detriment of the goods and merchandize, or any part or parcel thereof; whether, if such goods be lawfully seized as prohibited goods, the insurers ought to answer? It is conceived they ought not, and the difference hath been taken, where the goods are lawful, at the time of lading, to be imported into that country for which they are consigned; but by matter ex post facto, after the lading, they become unlawful, and after arrival are seized, there the insurers must answer, by virtue of the clause, And all other perils, &c. But if the goods were, at the time of lading, unlawful, and the lader knew of the same, such assurance will not oblige the insurers to answer the loss; for the same is not such an assurance as the law supports, but is a fraudulent one. Molloy de Jure Maritim.

A policy was made from Cadiz to Vera-Cruz in New Spain, upon monies lent upon bottomry, and upon any kind of goods and merchandize whatsoever, laden aboard the good ship called the Nostra Signora del Carmen and Mary Magdalen, the adventure beginning immediately from the lading before a day to come, and the monies from the time they were to be lent, and so to continue from Cadiz to Vera-Cruz, and after delivery, with proviso to stay at any port or place in her voyage, and likewise to touch at Porto-Rico, and there to lade and unlade, without any prejudice to the assurance, the cargo being valued at 1700 l. sterling, without account, &c. against seas, men of war, fires, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and counter-mart, surprizals at sea, arrests, restraints, and detentions of all kings, princes, and people, of what nature, condition, or quality whatsoever. The ship,

ship, being laden at Cadiz, did depart towards Vera-Cruz; and, before arrival there, touching at Porto-Rico, the goods were there seized and arrested. In an action brought upon the policy, the defendant came in and pleaded, That the ship, at her arrival in her voyage to the port of Rico, was laden with goods and merchandizes prohibited, and the same, and also the ship, did there become forfeited, by default of the proprietors, and was there seized and taken. The question was, If the owners should insure, and then order prohibited goods to be laden, whether that an arrest upon the same should intitle them to a recovery? The second objection was, If (as the defendant had pleaded his plea) the same was good? As, to the first, the court did all incline, That the insurance ought to be bona fide, i. e. the refraint ought to be of such goods as by law were not refraintable; but surely that cannot be, for the intention of policies are to warrant the perils of all manner of goods, in all manner of cafes: so that, if there be a lading bona fide, be it prohibited, or not, the same, in case of loss, ought to be answered, unless it were a fraudulent contrivance: but to the second it was resolved, that the plea was insufficient; for, admitting the same should not oblige the insurer, yet, because the defendant did not shew that the goods were laden either by the insured, or by their factor, or order, otherwise the same should not conclude them; for, perhaps, the master, or his mariners, or a stranger, might load them on board, without order; so that, upon the mere insufficiency of the manner of pleading, and not of the matter, the court gave judgment for the plaintiff. *Houband verf. Harrison. Hill. 31, 32 Car. II. B. R. Judg. in Pasch. seq.* Like judgment was given against *Lethicullier advers. Houbland, Trin. 32 Car. II. in B. R. Rot. 168, in the second case.* But if a merchant will freight out wool, leather *, and the like, or send out goods in a foreign bottom †, and then make a policy, the ship happens afterwards to be taken, by reason of which there becomes a forfeiture of ship and lading, the insurers are not made subject to answer the damage; for the very foundation was illegal and fraudulent, and the law supports only those assurances that are made bona fide; for, if otherwise, and men could be insured against such actions, they would destroy trade, which is directly to thwart the institution and true intent of all policies.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 32. 14 Car. II. cap. 7.
† 12 Car. II. cap. 18.

But, if goods should happen to be lawfully insured, and afterwards the vessel becomes disabled, by reason of which they relate, by consent of the supercargo, or merchant, into another vessel, and that vessel, after arrival, proves the ship of an enemy, by reason of which the ship becomes subject to seizure; yet, in this case, insurers shall answer, for that this is such an accident as is within the intention of the policy. *Ritterhus. ad Leg. Contract. 23. de Reg. Jur. cap. 18. p. 236, 237. Stypman dicto loco num. 335.* Several men lade aboard salt, without distinction, not putting them in sacks, and the like. The ship arrives, the master delivers to their principals according to their bills of lading, as they come one by one. It falls out that some of the salt is washed, or lost, by reason of the dampness of the ship, and that the two last men cannot receive their proportion. There are in this case these things to be considered:
1. Whether the master is bound to deliver the exact quantity?
2. Whether those that have received this loss can charge the insurers?
3. Whether the insurers can bring in the first men for a contribution, they having their salt delivered to them completely? Certainly the master is not bound to deliver the exact quantity, nor is he obliged to redeliver the very specifical salt, but only as men are to repay money, or corn, by distinction, in a bag, or sack, and out of them; but, if the fault was in not pumping, keeping dry his deck, and the like, then *è contra*: though, perhaps, there may be a special agreement. *Hill. 11 Jac. in C. B. Lathow and Tomlinson's case, Hobart, fol. 88.* Besides, this is a peril of the sea, which the master could not prevent, and of necessity he must deliver to one first before another. As to the second, it is no question but the insurers shall answer; but whether they shall bring in the first men for contribution may be some doubt. It has been conceived by some, that they ought not; for they

delivered their salt to the master *tanquam in creditum*, and were not to expect the redelivery of the same specifical salt. But, by others, it has been conceived they ought to contribute *pro ratione*; for, as goods of necessity, some must be flowed in the hold, and that such goods seldom escape the peril of the sea; so the rest must of necessity contribute to the misfortune, and so make no distinction. See the article *AVERAGES*. The bills of lading are very useful to settle the differences between the assurer and the assured, of which there are three parts; one sent over sea, the other left with the master, and the last remaining with the lader. See the article *BILLS OF LADING*.

REMARKS.

For a more comprehensive view of this subject, the nature of other points, which have affinity therewith, must also be well understood: such as barrattries, bottomries, averages, bills of lading, charter-parties, &c. and, indeed, the sense of the marine law, as well as the established customs and usages of traders, as they concern owners, freighters, masters of ships, and mariners, &c. For there being frequently so necessary a dependency and connection between these points, and such an involution of circumstances, that the evidence, in regard to cafes of insuring, cannot be come at, nor a right judgment made, without taking many, and sometimes, perhaps, all of these things into due consideration. Insuring is a great encouragement to foreign commerce, seeing it takes the weight of the hazard off from individuals, and lays it upon numbers: yet these numbers are, upon the whole, gainers by undertaking the hazard, although *assecuratiois lucrum & damnum dependant à mera sorte & fortuna, as Roccus says, de assecuratioibus.* In case of a loss, 'tis customary for the insurer to pay but 98 l. for every 100 l. insured, or to have 2 per cent. abated, when he settles with the insured, according to agreement in the policy. As the insurer has a right to the premium, when the agreement is made, that premium, whatever it is, makes a part of the money paid, in case of loss: therefore,

At 10 per cent. premium, the insured receives but 88 l.	
15	83
20	78
25	73
30	68
40	58

And so in proportion in the case of any other premium.

In order to shew the sum necessary to be insured, if the adventurer would cover, or make good his outlet, or first adventure, in case of a loss, let 10 per cent. be the supposed premium on an 100 l. adventure. Then, As 88 l. is to 100 l. so is 100 l. to 1. 113 : 12 : 8, the sum necessary to be insured to make good 100 l. As 88 l. is to 100 l. so is 10 l. to 1. 11 : 7 : 3, the amount of insurance. All which is proved by the following example, viz.
The sum to be insured — — — 1. 113 : 12 : 8
Deduct 2 per cent. or reckon 98 l. for 100 l. — — — 2 : 5 : 5
The insurer pays, in case of a loss, — — — 1. 111 : 7 : 3
Deduct insurance on 1. 113 : 12 : 8, at 10 per cent. — — — 11 : 7 : 3
Remains the first cost of the adventure — 1. 100 : 0 : 0
And so as to the rest of the articles, or any other adventure, or premium, on a single voyage. According to this example, the six articles of premium beforementioned, will be shewn by the following table *.

* In these tables there is no regard had to commissions, office-charges, interest of money, or risque of insurers, as they often vary according to circumstances: for some people insure themselves, and pay no commission; others employ their factors, and pay them ½ per cent. on the sum insured, and 1 or 2 per cent. on recovering losses.—The office receives 4s. 6d. for the policy, and ½ per cent. from the insured upon settling losses; interest is seldom chargeable but in the case of long voyages.—Whatever these charges shall happen to be, they may be deducted, upon any computations, together with the 2 per cent. abated by the insurer. The office-keeper keeps an account with the insured and insurer, and, with the consent of the insurer, retains in his hands one shilling in the pound, or five per cent. on such premiums as he receives from the insured.

Premiums.	Sums to be insured to make good 100 l. on a single voyage.	Abate 2 per cent.	Remains.	Deduct the insurance, or premium, on the sum insured.	Remains.
At 10 l. per cent.	1. 113 : 12 : 8	1. 2 : 5 : 5	1. 111 : 7 : 3	1. 11 : 7 : 3	1. 100
15	120 : 9 : 7	2 : 8 : 2	118 : 1 : 5	18 : 1 : 5	100
20	128 : 4 : 1	2 : 11 : 3	125 : 12 : 10	25 : 12 : 10	100
25	136 : 19 : 8	2 : 14 : 9	134 : 4 : 11	34 : 4 : 11	100
30	147 : 1 : 2	2 : 18 : 10	144 : 2 : 4	44 : 2 : 4	100
40	172 : 8 : 3	3 : 9 : 0	168 : 19 : 3	68 : 19 : 3	100

The foregoing computation shews the amount of insurance on one single voyage; in the next place will be shewn how it will stand with a voyage out and home, or a double voyage &c. The voyage out is considered as one single voyage, which is already explained in the article of 10 per cent. premium: and, as to the voyage home, deduct the premium from 98, as aforesaid: then say, As the remainder is to the premium, so is the amount of the first insurance together with 100 l. to the insurance on the voyage home.—This insurance home added to the insurance out, makes up the total insurance.—As for instance:—The premium of 10 per cent. on 100 l. outset makes the insurance out l. 11 : 7 : 3; that added to 100 l. makes l. 111 : 7 : 3.—Then, to find the insurance home at 10 per cent. premium, say, As 88 l. is to 100, so is l. 111 : 7 : 3 to l. 12 : 13 : 1.—Then add the l. 12 : 13 : 1 insurance home, to the l. 111 : 7 : 3 insurance out, it makes l. 24 : 0 : 4 * total insurance, to make good 100 l. out and home; and the sum necessary to be insured home will, according to the foregoing example, amount to l. 126 : 10 : 11.

* See the following table.

The premium of 40 per cent. which is the highest premium mentioned, makes the insurance out l. 68 : 19 : 3 on 100 l. outset, and the like premium of 40 per cent. home makes the insurance home l. 116 : 10 : 6, and is demonstrable from the same principles: for, As 58 l. is to 40 l. so is l. 168 : 19 : 3 to l. 116 : 10 : 6.—Then add the insurance out and home, it will make l. 185 : 9 : 9 * total insurance, to make good 100 l. in case of a loss, which is proved from the following example.

* See the following table.

As 58 l. is to 100 l. so is l. 168 : 19 : 3 to }
 the sum necessary to be insured home to } l. 291 : 6 : 4
 make good 100 l. first outset - - - }
 Deduct 2 per cent. abatement - - - 5 : 16 : 7

 The insurer pays in case of a loss, - - - 285 : 9 : 9
 Deduct insurance home on l. 291 : 6 : 4, } 116 : 10 : 6
 at 40 per cent. - - - - - }

 Deduct also insurance out - - - - - 168 : 19 : 3

 Remains the cost of the first outset - - - 100 : - : -

And so as to any other adventure, or premium, on a double voyage, as may be seen from the following table, viz.

The amount of insurance to make good 100 l. out and home.

Premiums out and the same home.	Out.	Home.	Total.
At 10 per cent.	l. 11 : 7 : 3	l. 12 : 13 : 1	l. 24 : 0 : 4
15	18 : 1 : 5	21 : 6 : 9	39 : 8 : 2
20	25 : 12 : 10	32 : 4 : 4	57 : 17 : 2
25	34 : 4 : 11	45 : 19 : 5	80 : 4 : 4
30	44 : 2 : 4	63 : 11 : 7	107 : 13 : 11
40	68 : 19 : 3	116 : 10 : 6	185 : 9 : 9

By this table, the difference between high and low insurance will plainly appear, and consequently the advantage the British nation may reap from the superiority of her naval force, in time of war, by a prudent regulation of convoys and cruizers, in order to protect our own trade in the first place, and then to annoy the trade of the enemy; as the one will lower the insurance on our trade, in proportion to the care that shall be taken of it; and the other will raise the insurance on our enemy's trade, in proportion to the force that shall be properly stationed to annoy it.

As for instance, suppose our premiums should fall from 20 to 10 per cent. out, and the same home, by means of regular and sufficient convoys and cruizers on our part, the difference in our favour would be l. 33 : 16 : 10 per cent. out and home, which is a difference of no less than 1,015,200l. on 3,000,000l. only out and home.

On the other hand, suppose such premiums should advance upon the enemy from 10 to 15 per cent. on a voyage out, and the same home, the difference would be l. 15 : 7 : 10 per cent. out and home: and, suppose such premiums should advance from 30 to 40 per cent. the difference would be 77 : 15 : 10 to make good 100 l. thus insured out and home.

As the insurance paid to make good 100 l. outset, at 40 per cent. premium out, and 40 per cent. home, is l. 185 : 9 : 9; and, at 30 per cent. l. 107 : 13 : 11.

So the insurance at 40 per cent. as above, }
 to make good, or cover, 2,000,000 out } * l. 3,709,700
 and home, amounts to }
 And, at 30 per cent. to - - - - - 2,153,900

Difference on 2,000,000 only, out and home l. 1,555,800

* Insurance at 3 per cent. out, and 5 per cent. home, amounts to l. 8 : 14 : 1 to cover 100 l. out and home, and to 174,078 l. to cover 2,000,000 l. out and home.

And, in like manner, the difference of any other premiums, or any other outset, on a double voyage, may be computed; and, if the computation is made on the greater part of our trade, and that of our enemies, at various premiums, it will amount to an immense sum; and those nations that pay the lowest premiums of insurance, can afford their merchandize cheapest at foreign markets, which will naturally extend their trade, by giving a larger vent.

From hence it plainly appears of what prodigious consequence the proper or improper direction of our naval force is in the article of insurance only,—not to mention the national gain by captures, the property, lives, and liberties of multitudes of his majesty's subjects that may be thereby saved, as well as a great share of the revenues, besides putting our enemies at the same time to the greatest distress.

Here follows the difference between convoys and no convoys, in an instance of a treble voyage, the rotation being from England to Africa, from thence to America, and then home.

Insurance from England to Africa may be done, in time of war, at about 7 per cent. with good convoy, and not under 15 per cent. without convoy; and the voyage may be performed in 40 or 50 days.—Insurance from Africa to America will be about 6 per cent. with such convoy, and 18 per cent. without convoy; and this voyage may be performed in 40 or 50 days.—The insurance from America to Great-Britain, with good convoy, will be at about 10 per cent. and, without convoy, at about 25 per cent. and this voyage may be performed in 40 or 60 days.

To shew the amount of insurance at the abovementioned rates, to make good 100 l. outset throughout the whole rotation, deduct the several premiums from 98, as aforesaid; then add the premium, or premiums, on the first and second voyages, to 100 l.—Then,

For the first voyage, say,
 As 91 l. is to 7 l. so is 100 l. to l. 7 : 13 : 10
 83 l. is to 15 l. so is 100 l. to l. 18 : 1 : 5

For the second voyage.
 As 92 l. is to 6 l. so is l. 107 : 13 : 10 to l. 7 : 0 : 6
 80 l. is to 18 l. so is l. 118 : 1 : 5 to l. 26 : 11 : 4

For the third voyage:
 As 88 l. is to 10 l. so is l. 114 : 14 : 4 to l. 13 : 0 : 8
 73 l. is to 25 l. so is l. 144 : 12 : 9 to l. 49 : 10 : 8

The amount of the whole, and the difference between good convoys and no convoys, will appear from the following table, viz.

	The amount of insurance with good convoy per cent.	The amount of insurance without convoy per cent.	Difference in the insurance per cent.
From England to Africa	l. 7 : 13 : 10	l. 18 : 1 : 5	l. 10 : 7 : 7
From Africa to America	7 : - : 6	26 : 11 : 4	19 : 10 : 10
From America to Great-Britain	13 : - : 8	49 : 10 : 8	36 : 10 : -
Total	l. 27 : 15 : -	94 : 3 : 5	66 : 8 : 5

To find the sum necessary to be insured to make good, or cover 100 l. outset, on a treble voyage, in the case of 25 per cent. premium, from America to Great-Britain, and the other premiums without convoy, as abovementioned, say,

As 25 l. is to 100 l. so is l. 49 : 10 : 8 to l. 198 : 2 : 8—Or,
 As 73 l. is to 100 l. so is l. 144 : 12 : 9 to l. 198 : 2 : 8.

The sum necessary to be insured without convoy; and, by the same rule, l. 130 : 7 : 2 will be sufficient with convoy.

This will appear from the following example:

The sum to be insured - - - - - l. 198 : 2 : 8
 Deduct 2 per cent. abatement - - - 3 : 19 : 3

The insured receives, in case of a loss, - - - 194 : 3 : 5
 Deduct insurance on l. 198 : 2 : 8, at 25 per cent. 49 : 10 : 8

 144 : 12 : 9
 Deduct insurance on the outset l. 18 : 1 : 5
 on the second voyage 26 : 11 : 4 - - - 44 : 12 : 9

Remains the cost of the first outset - - - l. 100 : - : -
 And

And so as to any other adventure, or premiums, or any other treble voyage.

Suppose the outset to Africa from Great-Britain to be 320,000 l. per ann. to go this treble voyage, or that it may be so much upon proper encouragement being given to that trade, the abovementioned difference of insurance of 1. 66 : 8 : 5 per cent. on that sum amounts to upwards of 1. 212,500 per annum, which may be saved by proper convoys in this single article of insurance on this particular branch of trade, besides what may be thereby saved in other branches.

The security of our trade, and, in consequence thereof, lessening our own insuring, and raising that of our enemies, are of such important concernment to the nation, that it may not be unacceptable to observe how, in time of war with France, a few ships of war may be employed to answer those purposes.

Suppose a convoy should go from England every four or six months, for Africa, America, and then home to Great-Britain, besides the convoys that shall go at proper times directly to America.

Such convoy may see all the trade that are ready to fail to the south-west at a proper distance, and particularly the trade to Portugal, as far as their respective ports; the Straights trade as far as Gibraltar, or Cape St Vincent; and then to proceed to Africa, and relieve such ships of war as shall be before stationed there; which relieved ships may proceed with the trade from Africa to America, and relieve such ships of war as shall be before stationed there; which relieved ships may convoy the trade that shall be ready to fail from their respective colonies for Europe and North America, as far as their respective tracts, or latitudes.

The ships of war that may be thus appointed convoys, will fail in such tracts, as will give them frequent opportunities to annoy the enemy, and gain great advantages to themselves, as they may be from four to six months cruising on the coast of Africa, and as long, or longer, in America.

The ships bound from Africa to our western ports may rendezvous at Plymouth, Falmouth, Cork, or Kingfale.

The advantage of such a rotation of convoys will be very great, with regard to easing freights and insurance, two sensible articles in trade in time of war; and the markets on all sides will be more regularly supplied.

Freights, by means of frequent and certain convoys, and quick voyages, will be lower at least one quarter, as there will be great savings in seamen's wages, victualling, demurrage, and the preservation of the ships, by means of quick dispatch. Since this rotation may, by means of thus exchanging stations, be performed in five or six months, it is apprehended a few ships of war, over-and-above what are necessary to be stationed in Africa and America, will answer all these advantages: and, moreover, this will, in a great measure, prevent the decay of his majesty's ships, by keeping them too long in Africa and America.

The practice in queen Anne's war was to let the convoys to the trade to America go out one year, and return home the next, after being relieved by other convoys, whereby they usually remained in America about 14 months; but, of late years, most of our ships of war have remained in America, and particularly in the West-Indies, about three or four years: wherefore it is submitted, whether the first method, abovementioned, is not to be preferred to the last? since his majesty's ships will then cross the western ocean oftener, which will afford much stronger, and more frequent, certain, and regular convoys, and our trade would be much better protected, than it was in the late war with France, and that with the same number of ships as was then employed in that service, and the ships would be fitted for the sea with more expedition, and at less expence, after their arrival in England.

The first design of insurance, says the ingenious Mr Cary †, was to encourage the merchants to export more of our produce and manufactures, when they knew how to ease themselves in their adventures, and to bear only such a proportion thereof as they were willing and able to do: but, by the irregular practices of some men, this first intention has been wholly defeated, who, without any interest, have put in early policies, and gotten large subscriptions on ships, only to make advantage by selling them to others; and, therefore, have industriously promoted false reports, and spread rumours, to the prejudice of the ships and masters, filling men's minds with doubts, whereby the fair trading merchant, when he comes to insure his interest, either can get no one to underwrite, or at such rates, that he finds it better to buy the other policies at advance: by which means these stock-jobbers of assurance have frequently, as it were, turned it into a wager, to the great prejudice of trade.

† Vide A Discourse on Trade, by John Cary, Esq; merchant of Brittol.

Likewise many ill-designing men, their policies being overvalued, have (to the abhorrence of honest traders, and to the scandal of trade itself) contrived the loss of their own ships. On the other side, the underwriters, when a loss is

ever so fairly proved, boggle in their payments, and force the insured to be content with less than their agreements, for fear of engaging themselves in long and chargeable suits.

Now, if the parliament would please to take these things into consideration, they may reduce insurance to its first intention, by obliging the insured to bear such a proportionable part of his adventure (the premium included) as to them shall seem fit; and also the insurers, when a loss is fully made out, to pay their subscriptions without abatement, which will prevent both; and, if any differences should arise, to direct easy ways for adjusting them, without attending long issues at law, or being bound up to such nice rules in their proof, as the affairs of foreign trade will not admit.

I know, that by a clause in a statute, made primo Annæ, the wilful casting away, burning, or otherwise destroying a ship, by any captain, master, mariner, or other officer belonging to it, is made felony, without benefit of clergy; but that statute is so qualified, that it is difficult to convict the offender, because the fact must be done, to the prejudice of the owner, or owners, or of any merchant or merchants, that shall load goods thereon, else he doth not come within it's penalty; so it doth not reach the evil I here mention, viz. the abominable contrivance of the owners to have their own ships destroyed, in order to make an advantage by their insurances; a crime so black in itself, that it cannot be mentioned without horror.

These men, when they frame their dark designs, will take care, for the security of those they employ, that none, besides themselves, shall load goods on the ships they intend shall be thus destroyed; and it cannot be supposed that they receive prejudice thereby themselves, so the prosecution on that statute is evaded: but, if the insured were bound to make out their interests, and to bear a proportionable part of the loss themselves, this would, as it were, naturally prevent such scandalous practices.—These are the sentiments of Mr Cary, who was esteemed a very judicious and worthy merchant.

Further REMARKS.

In France, the insured are always obliged to run the risk of one tenth part of the value of the effects insured, unless there is an express stipulation in the policy, that he means to insure the whole. And, when the insured goes in the vessel, or is the owner thereof, he is obliged to run the risk of one tenth part, notwithstanding he has insured the whole. Neither owners of ships, nor captains, can insure the freight to be made by their vessels; nor can merchants insure the profit they expect to make by their merchandizing. Ordonnance of the marine in France, of 1681*.

* Quere, Whether these regulations are not more for the security of the insurer, and more to the advantage of a trading nation in general, both in time of peace and war, than the custom which has been of insuring interest or no interest.

Nor in Holland do they insure interest or no interest.

In 1741, a bill was brought into parliament, to prevent some inconveniencies arising from insurances of ships, which was as follows:

Whereas it has been found by experience, that the making assurances, interest or no interest, hath been productive of many pernicious practices, whereby great numbers of ships, with their cargoes, have been fraudulently lost and destroyed; and a great encouragement to the exportation of wool, and the carrying many other prohibited and clandestine trades, which are thereby secreted, and the parties concerned secured from loss, as well to the diminution of the public revenue, as to the great detriment and loss of the fair trader; and by introducing an illegal and mischievous kind of gaming or wagering, under the pretence of assuring the risk on shipping and fair trade, the institution and laudable design of making assurances hath been perverted; and that which was intended for the encouragement of trade and navigation, become hurtful of, and destructive to, the same.

For remedy whereof, and for effectually putting a stop to, and for preventing the like unwarrantable practices for the future: Be it enacted, &c. That all policies, instruments, contracts, or promises of assurance, made from and after ——— interest or no interest, and policies valued at the sum assured, or without further proof of interest, than the policy, or in any other words or manner, to that or the same effect; or upon ships, or other vessels or goods, laden or to be laden thereon, not made bona fide upon interest; shall be, and are hereby declared (void) ——— any law, statute, or custom to the contrary, in any wise, notwithstanding.

Provided always, that nothing in this act contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to vacate, or avoid any assurances made without fraud, upon interest of the whole, or any part, of the sum for which the assured shall appear to be concerned in the vessel, or goods, so assured.

Provided always, that nothing in this act contained shall vacate or make void any assurance made upon account of money

money lent upon respondentia, or bottomry bonds, in which the benefit of salvage is allowed the lender; nor any assurance made *bonâ fide*, to re-assure any sum before assured, or any ships or vessels, or their cargoes; provided the same be mentioned in the policy to be re-assured, or on money so lent on respondentia, or bottomry bonds.

And whereas, by several acts of parliament, the subjects of this kingdom in general are restrained from trading to the East-Indies, and the sole right to trading thereto is by law vested in the united company of merchants of England trading to the East-Indies; notwithstanding which, assurances are often made in Great-Britain, upon ships and effects belonging to the subjects of foreign nations or powers trading to the East-Indies: Be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all assurances, made after the — — — day of — — — upon any ships or effects belonging to any foreign kingdom, nation, or power, or to the subjects thereof, trading to and from the East-Indies, or from any part thereof to another, shall be deemed and taken to be (void) to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever. And whereas assurances on the ships or effects of persons, alien enemies to this kingdom, are greatly prejudicial to the true interest thereof, and, upon the capture of such ships or effects, the real loss sustained often falls upon the subjects of Great-Britain, who have made such assurances: Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that no assurance — — — to be made directly or indirectly, on any the ships or effects of the subjects of any prince or state, not in amity with the crown of Great-Britain, at the time such assurance is made, shall be of any force or validity in law, but shall be (void) to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever. Provided always, that if his majesty shall at any time, during the present war, think fit, in pursuance of a proviso contained in an act made in the last session of parliament, intitled, An act for prohibiting commerce with Spain, to take off the prohibitions and restrictions of commerce, or any part thereof; then, and in such case, it shall and may be lawful to make assurance on such commerce, or any part thereof, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

As the sentiments of men of business, well acquainted with the nature and consequence of this important point, may contribute to give the reader still a more comprehensive view thereof, we judge, that the substance of their arguments pro and con upon this bill, as near as we could collect them from conversation, will be acceptable. This I was induced to at that time, as having a work of this kind then in view.

It was urged by those who opposed this bill, that the fundamental error of its patrons seemed to be an opinion, that the practice of insuring is not known to other nations, nor can be carried on in any other places; and from this principle they deduce consequences, which, if they were inevitably certain, might easily influence us to an immediate approbation of the bill, as necessary to secure our commerce, and distress our enemies.—That few merchants would hazard their fortunes in long voyages, or expose themselves to the dangers of war, without the security which insurance affords them, and persuading themselves that such security is to be obtained from no other nation, they imagine that we might, by prohibiting it, confine all the foreign vessels in their ports, and destroy by one resolution the trade both of our rivals, and our enemies.

That our East-India company may desire the passing of this bill, is, because they might receive some temporary advantage, by the short inconvenience which those whom they consider as the enemies of their commerce, would feel from it.—That, if the experiment failed, it cannot injure them; if it succeeded, it may produce great advantages to them.—Several other nations can plead a claim to the East-India trade, of equal validity with our own.—That the Danes have their settlements there, and the Portuguese discovered the way to these regions of wealth, from which some, perhaps, are inclined to exclude them.—That nothing is more vain than to attempt this, by refusing to insure their ships, the opinion that they can be insured by no other nation being groundless.—That there are, at this time, offices of insurance along the whole coast of the Mediterranean sea, among the Dutch, and even among the French.—That nothing can debar any nation from the trade of insurance, but the want of money; that money is not wanted by foreigners for this purpose, is manifest, from the millions they have in our funds.—That this trade is now carried on chiefly by Great-Britain, and that we ought not to obstruct our own gain, by making a law to deprive ourselves of that advantage, of which either accident, or our own fagacity, have put us in possession.—That debarring us from insuring the ships, even of those with whom we are at war, would not contribute to the wealth of the public, but only oblige them to transfer to other nations, the profit which we receive from them.—That the trade of insurance is really advantageous to the nation, it being diligently followed after many years experience, and a law was never necessary to prohibit the pursuit of a business, by which nothing was to be gained.—That, could the gain of the in-

surers be a doubtful point, there is a certain advantage to the nation, by the money paid for commissions, brokerages, stamp, and the credit of the premium deposited here.—That the loss of these profits, and the gain of insuring, must ensue upon the passing of this bill; nor will this loss be counterbalanced by any advantage, that will be obtained over our rivals or our enemies.

With regard to the practice of insuring, interest or no interest, when an imaginary value is put on a ship or cargo, often much above its real worth, it gives opportunities for wicked practices.—There will always be circumstances, in which there can be no security against frauds, but common faith; nor is there possibility to secure the insurers against being defrauded, nor can the value of a cargo be estimated, which is to be collected in a long voyage, at different ports, and where the success of the adventurers often depends upon lucky accidents, which are always hoped for, though they seldom happen. An imaginary value therefore must always be fixed upon, when the ship leaves the port, the success of the voyage not being foreknown; and the contracting parties may be safely trusted to set that value, without any law to direct or restrain them.—If the merchants are oppressed by any peculiar inconveniences, and can find means to redress them without injury to the public commerce, any proposal for that purpose ought to be favourably received; but, as the bill proposes general restraints, and proposes to remove grievances, which are not felt, by remedies, which those upon whom they are to operate do not approve, the bill ought to be rejected.

In answer to this it was said, That the grievance the bill proposed to remedy is so generally known, and so universally lamented, that there is not any thing more worthy of the attention of the legislature, than an enquiry into the cause of it, and the proper method of redressing it. In our enquiry into the causes of this obstruction of trade, I am of opinion, that the practice of insuring, interest, or no interest, will appear to be the foundation of this general uneasiness; it will be found a practice of so natural a tendency to fraud, and so easily susceptible of dishonest artifices, that, I believe, every friend to the trading interest will desire its suppression. To confirm my assertion, and illustrate the question before us, I shall mention some particular instances of fraud, to which this custom has given occasion, of fraud so evident and so detestable, that it cannot be related without indignation.

The Royal George was a large ship belonging to the South Sea company, which, having been a voyage to Vera Cruz, put in at Jamaica in her return; and, being there refitted to proceed on her voyage homewards, set sail, and came within a week's sailing of the port, when, upon a sudden, the officers entered into a consultation, and determined to go back a month's voyage to Antigua, for what reasons may be easily guessed; when it was told, that the ship was insured upon a supposed value of sixty thousand pounds. This resolution was no sooner formed, than orders were given to change the course, and steer to Antigua, in opposition to all the remonstrances of the carpenter, who is the proper judge of the condition of a vessel, and who declared with honesty and resolution against their whole procedure. But they pursued their new scheme, without any regard to his murmurs or assertions; and, when they arrived at Antigua, found some method of influencing the officers of that island, to declare the ship unfit for the prosecution of the voyage. Their design was now happily completed. To confirm the determination which had been pronounced in their favour, they stranded the ship upon a bank of sand, forced out the iron that grapples the timbers together, and, having first taken away the masts and rigging, and whatever else could be used or sold, threw the ballast to each end, and so broke the vessel in the middle.

By this well contrived shipwreck, having, as they imagined raised their fortunes, they came home triumphantly from their prosperous voyage, and claimed the money for which the ship was insured. The insurers, startled at a demand so unexpected, enquired into the affair with all the industry which its importance naturally excited, and, after some consultation, determined to try whether the ship might not be refitted and brought to England. In pursuance of this resolution, they sent workmen and materials, and without much expence, or any difficulty, brought her hither.

This relation is sufficient at once to prove the practice, and explain the nature of the frauds to which this method of insurance gives occasion; but, as the frequency of them is such, that many instances may be produced, I shall offer another short narrative of the same kind: a ship that belonged to the East-India company, insured after this method, was run ashore by the captain in such a manner, that he imagined none but himself able to recover it; and therefore, though it cost 5000 l. sold it for 500 l. but the purchaser, no less expert than the captain, found means very speedily to disengage it, to restore it to a proper condition with little expence, and was enriched by his fortunate bargain.

This kind of fraud is the more formidable, as it may be practised without a possibility of detection. Had the captain, instead of stranding, destroyed his vessel, how could his wickedness ever have been discovered, or how could the South Sea company's ship have been brought home, had it been sunk in some distant corner of the world? This practice, and the frauds which it has occasioned*, and the suspicions which the easy practice of frauds always creates, have produced so many trials, and filled the courts of justice with such intricate contentions, that the judges, who knew perhaps nothing of this practice, but from its effects, have often declared it to be so pregnant with contests and cheats, that it ought not to be suffered, and that a law for suppressing it would much contribute to the establishment of peace, and the security of property. The assertion of the impossibility of estimating the real value of a ship, or of foreknowing the success of a voyage, is incontestable: but, perhaps, it will follow from thence, not that an imaginary value ought to be admitted, but that no insurance ought to be allowed, where there is no rational method of ascertaining it; or, at least, that all such insurance ought to be rather below the probable value, than above it.

* That this practice occasioned great frauds, is apparent from those cases before enumerated, which have been detected in our courts of judicature.

That great frauds are the natural consequence of estimating ships at an imaginary value in the offices of insurance, is to the highest degree evident. For, when a ship is estimated above its real value, how will the commander suffer by a wreck, or what shall restrain him from destroying his vessel, when it may be done with security to himself, except that integrity, which ought to be generally diffused, but which is not always to be found, and to which few men care to trust upon occasions of far less importance. That I do not magnify the possibility of fraud into reality, or propose laws against wickedness that has not yet existed, it may be proper to mention some, in which I have been informed by my correspondent at Leghorn, of the state of the ships which have arrived there, ships so weakly manned, and so penuriously and negligently stowed; so much decayed in the bottoms, and so ill fitted with rigging; that he declares his astonishment at their arrival.

It may deserve consideration, whether the success of the Spanish privateers may not be in great part attributed to this pernicious practice; whether captains, when their vessels are insured for more than their value, do not rashly venture into known danger? Whether they do not wilfully mislead the security of convoys? Whether they do not direct their courses, where privateers may most securely cruise to intercept them? Whether they do not surrender with less resistance than interest would excite? And whether they do not raise clamours against the government for their ill success, to avoid the suspicion of negligence or fraud.

That other kind of frauds are committed in the practice of insuring, is well known: it is a common practice to take money upon bottomry, by way of pledge for the captain's fidelity, and to destroy this security by insuring above the real value, so that the captain may gain by neglecting the care of his vessel, or at least secure himself from loss, and indulge his ease or his pleasure, without apprehension of diminishing his fortune. The whole practice of insurance, in its present state, is so perplexed with frauds, and of such manifest tendency to the obstruction of fair commerce, that it absolutely requires some legal regulations.

To what was said in favour of the bill it was replied, That, with regard to single acts of fraud, committed by particular men, it is not to be supposed but that they have been detected in this, as in all other branches of traffic, nor do I conceive that any argument can be drawn from them against the practice; for, if every part of commerce is to be prohibited, which has furnished villains with opportunities of deceit, we shall contract trade into a narrow compass.—With regard to the instance of the Royal George, though the proceedings of the officers are not wholly to be vindicated, yet part of their conduct is less exceptionable than it has been represented. Their return to Antigua, when they were bound for England, and were within a week's sailing of their port, is easily to be defended, if the wind was contrary to their intended course; for it is not difficult to conceive, that they might reach a distant port with a favourable wind, much sooner than one much nearer, with the wind against them.

To this it was answered—That, in the discussion of this question, it was to be considered, that we are engaged in a war against a nation, from which insults, depredations, oppressions, and cruelties, have been long complained of, and against which we are therefore to act with a resolution proportioned to the injuries which we have suffered, and to our desire of vengeance.—We are to practise every method of distressing them, and to promote the success of our arms, at the expence of present gain, and the interest of private men. 'Tis well known, that the Spaniards are a people who live in carelessness and indolence, neglect the natural advantages of

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their own country, despite the gain of foreign commerce; and depend wholly on their American settlements, for all the conveniences of life. This is the particular circumstance, that makes a war with England so much to be dreaded by them. A nation superior to them by sea holds them besieged, like a garrison surrounded by an army; precludes them from supplies, intercepts their succours, and, if it cannot force their walls by attack, can at least by a blockade starve them to a capitulation.

† The case with the Spaniards seems now to be altered; they being not only solicitous to establish new manufactures in Old Spain, but having begun to export their own product in their own shipping; for we have an instance in the foreign papers of a Spanish ship being arrived even at Copenhagen, with the product of Spain.

Thus, by a naval war with an enemy of superior strength, they must at length be subdued, and subdued, perhaps, without a battle, and without the possibility of resistance; against such an enemy, their courage or their discipline is of no use; they may form armies indeed, but which can only stand upon the shore, to defend what their enemies have no intention of invading, and see those ships seized in which their pay is treasured, or their provisions are stored.—Such is our natural superiority over the Spaniards, a species of superiority that must inevitably prevail, if it be not defeated by our own folly; and surely a more effectual method of defeating it the Spaniards themselves could not have discovered, than that of insuring their ships among our merchants. When a ship thus insured is taken, we examine the cargo, find it extremely valuable, and triumph in our success; we not only count the gain to ourselves, but the loss to our enemies, and determine that a small number of such captures will reduce them to offer us peace upon our own terms.

Such are the conclusions which are made, and made with reason, by men unacquainted with the secret practices amongst ourselves, and who do not suspect us to be stupid enough to secure our enemies against ourselves; but it is often found, upon a more close examination, that our ships of war have only plundered our own merchants, and that our privateers may indeed have enriched themselves, but impoverished their country: it is discovered, that the loss of the Spaniards is to be repaid, and perhaps sometimes with interest, by our British insurers.—If it be urged, that we ought not to enact any laws which may obstruct the gain of our fellow-subjects, may it not be asked, why all trade with Spain in time of war with them is prohibited? May not the trade be equally gainful with the insurance, and may not the gain be more generally distributed, and therefore be more properly national? But the trade with Spain at such times is prohibited, because it was more necessary to our enemies than to ourselves; because the laws of war require, that a less evil should be suffered to inflict a greater: it is upon this principle that every battle is fought, and that we fire our own ships to consume the navies of our enemy. For this reason it appears to be evident beyond contradiction, that the insurance of Spanish ships ought to be prohibited in time of war with that nation; we shall indeed lose the profit of the insurance, but we shall be reimbursed by the captures, which is an argument that cannot be produced for the prohibition of commerce.

It is urged, that our enemies may insure their ships in other countries*, an assertion of which, whether it be true or not, I am not able to decide; but this would lay them under the necessity of establishing a new correspondence, and this would prove at least a temporary obstruction of their trade, which, though of short continuance, may lay them at our mercy. But let us reflect upon the weakness of this argument.—'They must be allowed to insure here, because they may insure in other places.'—Will it not be equally just to urge, that they must trade with us, because they may trade with other nations? And may it not be answered, that, though we cannot wholly suspend their commerce, it is yet our interest to obstruct it, as far as we are able? May it not be farther affirmed, that, by insuring in other nations, they may injure their allies by falling into our hands, but do not the less benefit us? That, if they do not grow weaker, we at least are strengthened; but that, by insuring among us, whatever steps are taken to put a speedy end to the war, the equilibrium of it is still preserved the same?

* This was never made to appear satisfactorily; and 'tis much to be doubted, whether it will ever be experienced, notwithstanding it was roundly asserted, and taken for granted, throughout this debate.

It is asserted, that we insure at a lower* rate than other nations do; and it will therefore follow, that the Spaniards, whenever their ships shall escape us, will suffer more by having insured amongst foreigners, than if they had contracted with

* Quere, Is this matter of fact in time of war? Where the interest of money is lower, it seems more natural to believe, the price of insurance also may be so in the general.

our merchants. Thus it appears, that there are stronger reasons for prohibiting the insurance of Spanish ships, than for putting a stop to our commerce with them; and that, whether their ships are taken by us, or escape us, it is the general interest of the nation, that they shall be insured by foreign merchants, and not by our own.

With respect to the East-India company it was said, that, as they have the grant of an exclusive trade to the East-Indies, to insure the ships that are sent thither, without their permission, is to invade their rights, and to infringe their charter; and that practice, if the validity of their charter be admitted, is illegal, and ought to be discountenanced.

The practice of insuring, interest or no interest, or of assigning to ships an imaginary value, is nothing more than a particular game, a more solemn species of hazard, and ought therefore to be prohibited, for every reason that can be urged against games at chance.

In reply hereunto it was said, That there is no absurdity by enriching ourselves at the expence of other nations, whether enemies or allies.—If our insurers gain by securing the ships of our enemies, the nation is benefited; for all national gain must circulate through the hands of individuals.—No man will assert, that we ought to assist our enemies; nor will any man imagine, that we assist them by impoverishing them; and, if our insurers gain by their practice, the Spaniards must undoubtedly be losers.

The practice of insuring an imaginary value may give opportunity for greater frauds than can be practised in common dealings; but such frauds do not require the interposition of the legislature. If they are practised only by those of our own nation, the public does not suffer; for property is only transferred from one subject to another; the fraud ought to be severely punished in the courts of criminal justice, but the custom which gave the opportunity of practising it, ought not to be restrained, any more than any other profession not criminal in itself, but liable to accidental abuses.

If our insurers are defrauded by foreigners, the nation is then, indeed, more nearly affected; but, even in that case, it is to be remembered, that the private interest of the insurers, who must be immediately ruined*, is a sufficient security for the public. For it cannot be conceived, that any man will obstinately carry on a business, by which he becomes every day poorer; or that, when he desists, he will be succeeded by another, who cannot but know that he engages in that traffic to his certain ruin.

- * Although our insurers may be gainers upon the whole, by the credit side of their premiums exceeding the debit side of their losses; yet the question is, out of whose pockets do such premiums arise, in time of war? If they wholly arose from our enemies who insured, then our enemies would pay more for the price of insurance than they lost; which cannot be the case.—From whom then does this surplussage of premiums arise, which makes our insurers gainers, but from our own British merchants? And, if so, when an enemy's ship is taken that has been insured by our insurers, the loss does not fall either upon the insurers (if they are gainers on the whole) or upon the enemy, but it falls upon our own British merchants, whose premiums must pay it.

Besides, as our enemies do not feel the loss, are they not enabled the better to fit out more ships of war and privateers to annoy our own merchants? Does not this necessarily tend to raise the price of insurance still higher and higher upon them; and does not this still the better enable our insurers to insure the ships of our enemies, and to be instrumental to the prolongation of the war? Does not these high insurances clog our whole trade at such times, lessen the public revenue, and add to the evil of war? I cannot but think, therefore, this practice of insuring the shipping and merchandise of our enemies was highly destructive to the nation, and ought never to have been suffered in these kingdoms.

The state of this affair is, that frauds are, indeed, often committed, and are for that reason always suspected; and that the insurers, when they insure the ship and cargo against accidents, reckon, among other chances, the probability of being cheated, and proportion their demands not only to the length and danger of the voyage, but to the character likewise of the man with whom they contract.

This is always the practice of those whom experience hath made acquainted with the danger of implicit confidence, and unsuspecting credulity; nor do any but the young and unskilful suffer themselves to be so exposed to frauds, as that their fortunes should be injured, or the general gain of their business overbalanced, by a few deceptions. Thus it appears, that, notwithstanding the ease and safety with which the present methods of insurance admit fraud to be practised, the insurers, by a proportionate degree of caution, secure themselves from being injured, and by consequence the nation.

We insure, as has been observed, at lower rates than other nations, because we have more business of this kind, and the smallness of our profit is compensated by the frequency; the cheapness of insurances, and eagerness of foreigners to insure here, reciprocally contribute to each other; we are often applied to, because we insure at an easy rate; and we can insure at an easy rate, because we are often applied to.

Nor is the cheapness of insurance in England the only motive to the preference which it preserves among foreigners, who are induced to apply to this nation, by the reputation which our merchants have deservedly gained, for probity and punctuality, superior to that of any other traders. Our merchants bargain without artifice, pay without subtrefuges, and are ready, on all occasions, to preserve their character at the hazard of their profit. If foreigners are once disappointed in their applications to us, our business will in a great part cease; and, as we shall not then be able to insure at lower rates than other nations, we shall never recover that branch of our trade.—And, as the character of the English merchants exempts them from from any suspicion of practices pernicious to the public, why should they be restrained? Why should they appear to be suspected by their own country, whom foreigners trust without hesitation?

It has been objected to them, that they assist the enemies of their country, that they prolong the war, and defeat those advantages which our situation and commerce have given us. Imputations sufficiently atrocious, if they were founded upon truth. Let us examine the arguments by which this accusation is supported. It is urged, that we have already prohibited commerce with the Spaniards, and that therefore we ought likewise to prohibit the insurance of their ships. In opposition to which it may be urged, that this kind of commerce is of a peculiar nature, that it subsists upon opinion, and is preserved by the reputation of our insurers. Other commodities are the peculiar product of different countries, and that there is no danger of losing our trade by suspending it, because it depends upon the excellence of our manufactures; but insurance may be the commodity of any country, where money and common honesty are to be found. This argument may be the more effectually invalidated, by denying the expediency of that prohibition, which is produced as a precedent for another restraint. Nor indeed does it appear, why we should preclude ourselves from a gainful trade, because the money is drawn by it out of the hands of our enemies; or why the product of our lands should lie unconsumed, or our manufacturers stand unemployed, rather than we should sell to our enemies what they will purchase at another place, or by the intervention of a neutral power.

To sell to an enemy that which may enable him to injure us, that which he must necessarily obtain, and which he could buy from no other, would indeed be, to the last degree, absurd; but that may surely be sold them without any breach of morality or policy, which they can want with less inconvenience than we can keep. If we were besieging a town, I should not advise our soldiers to sell to the inhabitants ammunition or provisions, but cannot discover the folly of admitting them to purchase ornaments for their houses, or brocades for their ladies.

I am never willing to load trade with restraints; it is in its own nature so fugitive and variable, that no constant course can be prescribed to it; and those regulations which were proper when they were made, may, in a few months, become difficulties and obstructions. We well know, that many of the measures which our ancestors pursued for the encouragement of commerce, have been found of pernicious consequence; and even in this age, which experience, perhaps, more than wisdom, has enlightened, I have known few attempts of that kind which have not defeated the end for which they were made.—It is more prudent to leave the merchants at liberty to pursue those measures which experience shall dictate upon every occasion, and suffer them to snatch the present opportunity of honest gain, whenever it shall happen.—They will never injure their own interest by the use of this liberty, and, by preserving themselves, they will preserve the nation from detriment.

To this it was answered—That the interest of our country very evidently requires that we should give no assistance whatever to our enemies—that our merchants should zealously co-operate with our navies, and that we should endeavour to withhold every thing that may make the war less burdensome to them, and consequently of longer continuance.

It has been said, through the course of this debate, that insurance was practised by many nations; but the gentleman did not inform us whether they allowed the method of insuring, interest or no interest, and rating ships at an imaginary value. This is, I know, absolutely prohibited by the Dutch, a nation whose authority on commercial questions will not be disputed, nor do they allow their East-India ships to be insured at all.

The difficulty of estimating the value of any cargo has been urged in defence of this practice; nor is the defence wholly without weight, because the cargo in many voyages cannot be ascertained. Yet it is necessary that some of our exported cargoes should be exactly specified. I have been informed, that six ships laden with British wool have entered at one time into a port of France; nor do I know how this practice, which is justly complained of as pernicious to our trade, and threatening the ruin of our country, can be prevented, but by a constant and regular particularization of every cargo carried to France. I admit, that some cargoes which are imported cannot be particularly registered; such is the gold with which we are daily supplied.

supplied by our commerce with the Portuguese, in opposition to their laws, and which our merchants are therefore under the necessity of concealing.

The interest of the merchants ought always to be duly considered in this nation; but then it ought to be regarded only in subordination to that of the whole community, a subordination which seems to have been quite forgotten throughout this argument.

Thus have we given a succinct detail of this controversy; which being compared with the nature of assurances, as they have been most infamously practised, as appears by those various cases which have come before our courts of judicature, any man that reads with attention, may easily discover the reasonableness and necessity of the following act of parliament (and, perhaps, of some more effectual measures requisite to be taken in future) made in 19 Geo. II. which is entitled, An act to regulate the insurance on ships belonging to Great-Britain, and on merchandizes or effects laden thereon.

The preamble to which observes, That the making assurances, interest or no interest, or without further proof of interest than the policy, hath been productive of many pernicious practices, whereby great numbers of ships, with their cargoes, have either been fraudulently lost and destroyed, or taken by the enemy, in time of war; and such assurances have encouraged the exportation of wool, and the carrying on many other prohibited and clandestine trades, which, by means of such assurances, have been concealed, and the parties concerned secured from loss, as well as the diminution of the public revenue, as to the great detriment of fair traders; and, by introducing a mischievous kind of gaming or wagering, under the pretence of assuring the risk on shipping and fair trade, the institution and laudable design of making assurances hath been perverted; and that which was intended for the encouragement of trade and navigation has, in many instances, become hurtful of, and destructive to, the same: for remedy whereof, it is enacted, That, from and after the first day of August 1746, no assurance or assurances shall be made, by any person or persons, bodies corporate or politic, on any ship or ships belonging to his majesty, or any of his subjects, or on any goods, merchandizes, or effects, laden or to be laden, on board of any such ship or ships, interest or no interest, or without further proof of interest than the policy, or by way of gaming or wagering, or without benefit of salvage to the assurer; and that every such assurance shall be null and void to all intents and purposes.

Assurances on private ships of war, fitted out by any of his majesty's subjects, solely to cruise against his majesty's enemies, may be made by or for the owners thereof, interest or no interest, free of average, and without benefit of salvage to the assurer.

Merchandizes or effects from any ports or places in Europe or America, in the possession of the crown of Spain, or Portugal, may be assured in such way and manner, as if this act had not been made.

It shall not be lawful to make re-assurance, unless the assurer shall be insolvent, become a bankrupt, or die; in either of which cases, such assurer, his executors, administrators, or assigns, may make re-assurance, to the amount of the sum before assured, provided it shall be expressed in the policy to be a re-assurance.

After the said first day of August, all and every sum and sums of money to be lent on bottomry, or at respondentia, upon any ship or ships belonging to any of his majesty's subjects, bound to or from the East-Indies, shall be lent only on the ship, or on the merchandize or effects laden, or to be laden on board of such ship, and shall be so expressed in the condition of the bond; and the benefit of salvage shall be allowed to the lender, his agents, or assigns, who alone shall have a right to make assurance on the money so lent; and no borrower of money on bottomry, or at respondentia, as aforesaid, shall recover more on any assurance than the value of his interest on his ship, or in the merchandizes or effects laden on board of such ship, exclusive of the money so borrowed; and in case it shall appear that the value of his share in the ship, or in the merchandizes or effects laden on board, doth not amount to the full sum or sums he hath borrowed, as aforesaid, such borrower shall be responsible to the lender for so much of the money borrowed, as he hath not laid out on the ship or merchandizes laden thereon, with lawful interest for the same, together with the assurance, and all other charges thereon, to the proportion the money not laid out shall bear to the whole money lent, notwithstanding the ship and merchandize be totally lost.

In all actions or suits brought or commenced after the said first of August by the assured, upon any policy of assurance, the plaintiff in such action or suit, or his attorney, &c. shall, within fifteen days after he or they shall be required so to do in writing by the defendant, or his attorney, &c. declare in writing the sums he hath assured in the whole, and what sums he hath borrowed at respondentia, or bottomry, for the voyage, or any part of the voyage in question, in such suit or action.

After the said first of August, any person, &c. sued in any action of debt or covenant, &c. on any policy of assurance,

may bring into court any sums of money; and if the plaintiff shall refuse such sum of money, with costs to be taxed, in full discharge of such action, and shall afterwards proceed to trial, and the jury shall not assess damage to such plaintiff, exceeding the sum so brought into court, such plaintiff shall pay to such defendant costs to be taxed.

This act shall not extend to, or be in force against, any persons residing in any parts in Europe out of his majesty's dominions, for whose account assurance shall be made before the 29th of September 1746; nor against persons residing in any parts of Turkey, Asia, Africa, or America, from whom assurances shall be made before the 29th of March 1747.

By the 21 Geo. II. insurance on ships or goods appertaining to the crown and subjects of France, or lending them money on bottomry, is prohibited. though, as the duration of this act was restrained to the time of the late war, it is now become void.

FURTHER REMARKS.

Since the passing of this act of parliament, there have been various peculiar cases adjudged in our courts of judicature; which as yet have not been formally reported. However, we have endeavoured to obtain divers of those cases, together with the pleadings thereon, which may contribute to render this work still the more complete.

Lewen versus Swaffo. Hil. 16 Geo. II. 1742.

The plaintiff, being sued at law upon a policy of insurance of a ship, and against the barrety of the master, which was assigned in the declaration, brought his bill in Chancery to be relieved, and for an injunction; charging that one Matthews the master, and also owner of the ship, had, before the voyage, entered into a bottomry bond to the defendant for 200 l. and that after, by bill of sale, he assigned over his interest in the ship to the defendant, as a security for this 200 l. and insisted that Matthews was, nevertheless, in equity to be considered as owner of the ship, though, in law, the ownership and property would be looked upon to be in the defendant; and insisted, that the owner of a ship could not, either in law or equity, be guilty of a barrety concerning the ship, and therefore prayed an injunction, and that the policy might be delivered up.

The voyage insured was from London to Marfeilles, and from thence to some port in Holland. The case was, that the master sailed with the ship to Marfeilles, and then, instead of pursuing the voyage, failed to the West-Indies, and there sold the ship, and died insolvent. These matters being confessed by the answer, an injunction was moved for on the principle, that a mortgagor is to be considered in equity as owner of the thing mortgaged, and that Matthews the master, being owner, could not be guilty of a barrety. To shew which, a case was cited of Stamma and Brown, where it was determined the preceding term in King's-Bench.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor. Barrety is an act of wrong done by the master against the ship and goods; and, this being in the case of a ship, the question will be, who is to be considered as the owner? There are several cases that might be put, where barrety may be assigned as the breach of an assurance, and barrety, or not, is a question properly determinable at law; but here it is not so, for the courts of law will not consider a mortgagor as having any right or interest in the thing mortgaged; and there are many cases where a man may come into a court of equity for relief, in respect of a part only of his case. It might indeed be considered at law, whether what the master hath done, supposing owner or not, was not a breach of the contract, as master of the ship, and so a barrety, and this may be considered likewise in this court. But, at law, a defendant cannot read part of the plaintiff's answer to a bill brought against him here; the whole answer must be read, which hath been often a reason for this court interposing by injunction upon a point at law; and, considering the mixt nature of this case, I think an injunction ought to be granted. Ordered accordingly.

Curling versus Brand, at Nisi Prius at Guildhall, in B. R. before Lee chief justice.

In an action upon a policy of insurance by several persons, as part owners of the ship insured, it was held, that the plaintiffs are obliged to prove their respective interests in the ship, and that a proof of interest in some of the plaintiffs is not sufficient as a ground to recover upon, though the interest proved be more in value than the amount of the insurance.—And a nonsuit recorded. But it seemed agreed in this case, that the plaintiffs are not to be put upon the producing of their respective bills of sale of their several interests in the ship, for that such sale may be by parole: but it was held, that they must produce some evidence of property, as acts of ownership, which the plaintiffs could not make out; and it was held that the reputation of being the owners, without shewing their title, or proving acts of ownership, is not sufficient.

Sadlers

Sadlers company versus Badcock. In Chancery, East, 16
Gep II.

One Mary Strood, having an interest in some houses in London, for the remainder of a term of which about five years was to come, insured the same from fire, by a policy of insurance entered into by the Hand-in-Hand company for insurance of houses from fire; which insurance was made for a term of seven years, and a premium paid accordingly. It happened, that after the end of the five years, and before the end of the seven years, the houses were burnt down. After which, Mary Strood assigned the policy to the Sadlers company, who were entitled to the houses after the determination of the term of Mary Strood. This bill was brought by the plaintiffs against the insurance company, to have this insurance made good, insisting thereon, by reason that a premium was paid to the company for the whole seven years, within which space of time this accident hath happened.—And, as this insurance is expressly to Mary Strood, her executors, administrators, and assigns, that the plaintiffs, as her assigns, are well entitled to have the policy made good.

It was urged, that this insurance company being an amicable society, who insure each other with a joint stock, and the plaintiffs, being as assignees of Mary Strood, members of the society, was the reason for seeking relief by bill in equity, and not pursuing a remedy at law, in regard that no action would lie; for that the plaintiffs, by standing in the place of Mary Strood, might be said to be part of the society, and therefore could not prosecute an action against themselves.

For the defendant it was insisted, that the intent of these policies is only to insure some certain interest in the party insured from loss or damages, and that, when such interest ceases, the insurance is at an end. It was also insisted to be an ancient rule of the society, that no person should be permitted to insure for a less term than seven years; and that, subsequent to the plaintiffs insurance, an order of the company was made, reciting, that whereas all insurances, by the rules of the company, were to cease with the interest of the assured, yet that the assurers might assign their policies: this order was insisted upon as evidence, to shew that, by the rules of the company, they are answerable for no loss or damage happening by fire to the houses insured, after the interest of the assured is determined.

In this company, as in all other insurance companies, there is a rule, that the policy should be of no effect, if assigned, unless brought to be allowed by the company, within such a time; but it was admitted, that the plaintiffs had tendered the assignment to the company, within the time for such allowance, but they had refused it.

In regard to the order made, that all assurances were to cease with the interest of the assured, lord chancellor Hardwicke said, The assured were to be considered in a double capacity, as members of the company, and as persons contracting with them; and that, if the case depended upon this order, he should not think the company, in their general capacity, could vary or alter any contract made by them to their individual members; but that he was of opinion, from the nature of all insurances, that the insurance must cease with the interest of the assured, for it is only to save from damage in the thing insured; and, where it is to insure damages from fire, how can the insurers enter upon the premises to rebuild or repair, when the estate of the assured is determined?—An insurance implies an interest in the assured, in the thing insured: if it were otherwise, many ill consequences might follow; men might insure houses of strangers, and, in hopes of getting the money insured, set the houses on fire.

And though, in cases of commerce, policies of insurance are allowed to be made, interest or no interest; yet it was long before this could prevail, and was allowed only in respect that goods might be insured, in a commerce which is prohibited in a foreign country, and to prevent, (in regard to the advantage of the trade to this kingdom) a discovery of the nature of the goods, and thereby laying open the owners, in such foreign country, to the penalty for trading in such goods.—That, although such policies are now allowed, yet he remembers them much questioned, and called fraudulent. But no such reason holds in the cases of insurances of houses from fire; and in which insurances all suppose an interest in the assured.

In the case of Lynch and Dalzel, which was before the house of lords, in March 1729, one Ireland, being entitled to the remainder of a long term of years in a house at Gravesend, caused the same to be insured from fire in the Sun-fire-office, and the insurance was to him, his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns. Ireland dying, his son and executor agreed with the appellant to sell, and assign to him, this house, together with the benefit of the policy for the insurance of the house. The lease of the house was accordingly assigned, but, there being no assignment of the policy prepared, that was only delivered up, and, in fact, not assigned, but Ireland promised to execute an assignment of it to the appellant at any time after.

But, before the policy was assigned, the house was burnt down, and a bill was brought in this court by the appellant to compel the company to pay the money insured by the policy, and the bill was dismissed by lord chancellor King, and his order affirmed by the lords.—Lord chancellor said, that he was counsel in the cause, and that the reasons, upon which lord chancellor King dismissed the bill, appear in the reasons mentioned in the respondent's case. That these policies are not insurances of the things themselves mentioned to be insured, for no body can warrant against accidents.—Nor do such insurances attach on the thing, or in any manner go with it as incident thereto, by any conveyance or assignment of the thing insured.—But the insurances are only special agreements with the persons insuring against such loss and damage as they shall sustain, and the party insuring must have a property at the time of the loss, or he can sustain no loss, and consequently be entitled to no satisfaction.—Lord chancellor observed, that this case was rather stronger than the present, but dismissed the bill only without costs.

Rooke versus Thurmond. At the sittings at Guildhall, for
B. R. 16 December 1743.

This was an action upon the case brought upon a policy of insurance, in which the plaintiff declared as follows:—London, Giles Rooke complains of John Thurmond, being in the custody of the marshal of the Marshalsea of our lord the king, before the king himself, for that, whereas the said Giles Rooke, on the 5th day of October, in the year of our lord 1741, at London aforesaid, to wit, in the parish of St Mary le Bow, &c. according to the custom of merchants, from time immemorial, used and approved of, caused to be made a certain writing or policy of assurance, purporting thereby, and containing therein, that one Caleb Smith, as well in his own name; as for and in the name and names of all, and every other person and persons, to whom the same did, might, or should appertain in part or in all, did make assurance, and caused himself and them, and every of them, to be insured, lost or not lost, at and from South Carolina to Cowes, upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture of and in the good ship or vessel called the Polly, whereof was master under God, for that then present voyage, Capt. William Henry, or who-soever else should go for master in the said ship, or by whatsoever other name or names the same ship, or the master thereof, was or should be named or called, beginning the adventure upon the said ship, &c. from and immediately following her first arrival there, and so should continue and endure until the said ship, with the said tackle, apparel, &c. should be arrived at Cowes, and there had moored at anchor 24 hours in good safety; and it should be lawful for the said ship in the voyage to proceed and sail to, and touch and stay at, any port or places whatsoever, without prejudice to that insurance.—The said ship, &c. for so much as concerned the assureds, was and should be valued, at interest or no interest, free from average, and without benefit of salvage, without further account to be given for the assureds for the same, touching the adventures and perils which the assurers were contented to bear, and did take upon them in that voyage, were of the seas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrests, restraints and detentions of all kings, princes and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever, barrety of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that had, or should come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the said ship, &c. or any part thereof; and in case of loss or misfortune, it should be lawful to the assureds, their servants, factors, and assigns, to sue, labour, and travel for, in and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the said ship, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to that insurance, to the charges whereof they the assurers would contribute each one, according to the rate and quantity of his sum therein assured.—And it was agreed by them the assurers, that the said writing, or policy of assurance, should be of as much force and effect, as the surest writing or policy of assurance heretofore made in Lombard-street, or on the Royal Exchange, or elsewhere in London.—And so they the assurers were contented, and did thereby promise and bind themselves each for his own part, their heirs, executors, and goods to the assured, their executors, administrators, and assigns, for the true performance of the premises, confessing themselves paid the consideration due unto them for that assurance by the assured, at and after the rate of 5 l. 15 s. per cent. and in case of loss, which God forbid, the assured to abate 2 l. per cent.—And the said Giles avers, that the said policy of assurance was so made as aforesaid, in the name of the said Caleb Smith, on the account and risk of the said Giles, and that the said Giles, at the time of making thereof, was solely interested therein.—Of all which premises, the said John afterwards, to wit, on the day and year aforesaid, at London, &c. had notice, and thereupon afterwards, to wit, on the day and year aforesaid, at London aforesaid, and in

the parish and ward aforesaid, in consideration that the said Giles, at the special instance and request of the said John, had, then and there, paid to the said John the sum of 5 l. 15 s. as a premium and reward for the insurance of 100 l. of and upon the premises in the said policy mentioned, and had undertaken and faithfully promised to perform and fulfil every thing in the said policy of assurance contained, on the part and behalf of the assured, to be performed and fulfilled, he the said John undertook, and, then and there, faithfully promised the said Giles, that he would become an assurer to the said Giles, for the said 100 l. of and upon the premises in the said policy mentioned. And that he would perform and fulfil every thing in the said policy contained on his part and behalf, as such assurer, as to the said 100 l. to be performed and fulfilled, and then and there subscribed to the said policy as such assurer for the said 100 l.—And the said Giles in fact saith, that, before the making of the said policy, to wit, on the first day of May, in the year of our Lord 1741, the said ship or vessel, with all her apparel and other furniture, first arrived at South Carolina aforesaid, and afterwards, to wit, on the 12th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1741 aforesaid, the said ship or vessel, with all her apparel, and other furniture, departed and sailed from South Carolina aforesaid, towards Cowes aforesaid, and proceeded on her said voyage to the port of Cowes aforesaid, and afterwards, to wit, on the 18th day of July, in the year last aforesaid, the said ship or vessel, with all her tackle, boat, and other furniture, fo proceeding in her said voyage, towards the port of Cowes aforesaid, before her arrival at the port of Cowes aforesaid, on the high seas was, with force and arms, in an hostile manner, attacked, conquered, and taken as a prize by certain enemies of our lord the king, and his crown of England, to wit, by certain Spaniards, and subjects of the king of Spain.—And the said ship or vessel, with all her tackle, and other her furniture, were thereby, then and there, wholly lost, and never did arrive at the port of Cowes aforesaid.—Of all which said premises, the said John afterwards, to wit, on the first day of December, in the year of our Lord 1741 aforesaid, at London aforesaid, in the parish and ward aforesaid, had notice, and was, then and there, requested by the said Giles to pay him 98 l. parcel of the said 100 l. 2 l. residue of the said 100 l. being to be abated to the said John, on account of the loss aforesaid; which 98 l. the said John ought to have paid to the said Giles, according to the said promise and undertaking.—Yet the said John, not regarding his said promise and undertaking, but contriving, and fraudulently intending, craftily and subtly to deceive and defraud the said Giles in this particular, hath not yet paid the said sum of money, or any part thereof, to the said Giles (although so to do the said John by the said Giles was requested afterwards, on the day and year last aforesaid, at London aforesaid, in the parish and ward aforesaid) but he to pay the same to him hath hitherto wholly refused, and still refuses. There was another count for 5 l. 15 s. for money had and received by the defendant, for the use of the plaintiff.—Damages laid 100 l.

The defendant pleaded the general issue, non assumpsit, and issue was thereon joined.

Upon this case, it was clearly taken at the trial before Lee, chief justice, without any objection or question made upon it, that the plaintiff was well entitled to maintain this action, upon the policy of insurance made in the name of Caleb Smith, who was the policy-broker employed to procure the insurance, he having, by endorsement upon the policy, acknowledged and declared, that the policy was made in his name upon the account and for the sole risk and benefit of the plaintiff; and Smith was allowed, without any objection, to prove the underwriting by the defendant, and his own endorsement.

In this case, the defence, insisted on for the defendant underwriting this policy, had been informed by a letter wrote from Carolina, by a ship called the Collet, to one Mr Crockatt, that the Polly, the ship insured, had sailed ten days or a fortnight from Carolina, before the ship Collet, and that the ship Collet had arrived in England about seven days before the insurance made, and that the plaintiff had not informed the defendant of this, which was insisted on to be a fraud in the plaintiff, sufficient to discharge the defendant of this insurance; it being, as was insisted, a settled and established rule, that, on making an insurance, all material circumstances, relating to the adventure, ought to be disclosed to the insurer, for him to judge upon; and the chief justice allowed this rule, and declared his opinion, that the concealment insisted on was a sufficient circumstance to discharge the defendant from the policy; for he said, that these contracts are made upon a mutual faith and credit; and that to conceal such circumstances which may make any difference in the adventure is fraudulent; for the insurer ought to have the advantage of judgment upon them, and that, where there is such concealment, the insurance ought not to bind.—But, the defendant not being able to make out this fact to the satisfaction of the jury, the plaintiff had a verdict.

N. B. In this case, the insurance was a re-insurance, and it was said by several policy-brokers, that where policies are

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made, interest or no interest, it is generally in such cases of re-insurances.

Prendle versus Hartley. Mich. 18 Geo. II.

A bill in Chancery was brought for relief against a verdict and judgment given in the court of Common Pleas, upon a policy of insurance, and to have an injunction to stay execution upon the judgment. The case appeared to be, that the ship insured was taken by a Spanish privateer; and that, after it had been carried *infra hostium præsidia*, it was re-taken by an English privateer.—It was argued for the now plaintiff, who was the defendant at law, that although, by the law of nations, the first capture of the ship, and it's being *infra hostium præsidia*, had absolutely diverted the right of the original proprietors; yet that now by the statute made in the year 1740 it is otherwise, being thereby provided, That if the ships of our English merchants should be taken by the enemy, and afterwards re-taken by any of his majesty's subjects, that the right of the original proprietors in such ships should be reserved, on their paying one moiety of the value of such ships to the re-captors for re-salvage.—Upon this it was argued, that the verdict and judgment are unjust, in regard that the whole insurance money is given in damages, when it appears, that the plaintiff at law, upon payment of one half of the value of the ship, might recover it back, and therefore that one half of the insurance money ought only to have been given in damages; upon which the injunction prayed by the bill was moved for.

On the other side it was insisted, that this was a right verdict, and that the insured were not to be put to the delay, expence, and trouble of ascertaining the value of the ship, in order to recover it back, upon payment of one moiety of the value to the captors.—That for recovery thereof, the insurers might stand in the place of the insured, and make use of their names, which had been offered.—That, they did not pretend to oppose so much of the bill as sought this, but insisted, that this could be no ground for granting the injunction prayed.—That this point had been debated before lord chief justice Willes, upon trial of the issue at Nisi Prius, who had declared his opinion, that this right of salvage ought not to preclude the insured from their recovery upon the insurance, till the salvage should be settled.—That the defendants, the insurers, would be entitled to stand in the place of the insured, to make what advantage they could of the salvage.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor, being of the same opinion, refused to grant the injunction; and said, that the damage, in recovering the salvage, is as much a part of the insurance as the ship itself.

Sparrow versus Caruthers, at Guildhall, 19 July, at the fittings for B. R. before Lee chief justice.

Action on a policy of insurance of goods, on board a ship called the Three brothers, at and from Petersburg in Russia to London, and till the goods should be safely landed.—It appeared, in evidence, that the ship arrived safe at London, and came as nigh to the wharf as she could, and then the merchant insured sent a lighter for the goods, and they were sunk in the lighter.—The court held the insurer not liable.—Verdict for the plaintiff for 40 s. for return of the ship with convoy, such deduction being agreed to by the policy, and the 40 s. not being returned or brought into court.—This verdict was on a count for the 40 s. as money had and received to the plaintiff's use.

Pond versus King. Hil. 21 Geo. II.

Upon a special verdict in an action brought on a policy of insurance, and the general issue of non assumpsit pleaded, it appeared, that the defendant had underwrote the policy in question, as an insurer upon a ship called the Salamander, being a privateer ship for a coasting voyage for three months. It appeared that this ship was taken by a French man of war, but was afterwards re-taken; and, upon payment of the proper salvage, was restored to the owners.—The breach assigned in the declaration was on the capture within the three months, and the general question appeared to be, whether the plaintiff could be entitled to judgment upon such a case? Lee, chief justice, said, that though this special verdict was found with a view to determine, whether there was any change or alteration in the property of the ship; yet the court were all of opinion, that they ought not to determine the merits of this case by that question, but upon the policy itself, as the contract of the parties, and upon the intention of the parties appearing therein. For though, by the civil law, there must be a loss of property, to entitle a person insured to recover against the insurer; yet, that it is not so in our law, which judges upon the contract itself, and the intention of the parties appearing therein. He cited a case of De Paiba and Ludlow, Comyns 360. a. one in point, but said, he had a manuscript note of the case, and the judgment of the court, by which it appears, that that case is but im-

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perfectly

perfectly reported in Comyns:—That the court were all of opinion, the plaintiff had assigned a breach, upon which he is entitled to recover. For, though the loss in this case is such as does not entirely deprive the insured of the ship, yet he has sustained a loss by the capture and detention of the ship; which is within that part of the policy, which insures against all captures and detentions.—And, to shew that it is not necessary there should be an entire loss to entitle the plaintiff to recover, he cited the case of Bond and Gonsales. 2 Salk. 445; and another case in Salk. 444. Judgment for the plaintiff.

N. B. The insurance was interest or no interest, but no weight was laid upon this, in giving the judgment of the court. Though the following case is prior in time to the preceding; yet, as it has occurred, while drawing up this matter, we judged it better to be placed here than omitted, seeing it gives great light into this useful subject.

IN DOMO PROCERUM. February 1, 1730.

De Ghettoff & al. versus London Assurance company.

This case came before the house of lords upon an appeal from an order made by lord chancellor King.—The case appeared to be, that the appellant Ghettoff and others, having fitted out a ship for a voyage from Ostend to China, sent a commission to one Deconick, their agent in London, to procure an insurance made by the respondents, the London Assurance company, upon the said ship, for the voyage aforesaid, for 5000 l. which insurance was accordingly made and entered into by the respondents in the common form.—The ship being lost in her voyage, the appellants brought their bill in the court of Chancery against the respondents, and also against the said Deconick, setting out the insurance, and suggesting, that the ship was lost; which loss amounted in value to the whole of the said 5000 l. and that the plaintiffs were, in shares, entitled to recover the same. And having set forth, that the said Deconick was only their trustee, they further charged, that he refused to let them make use of his name at law, and that they lived abroad in several distant and remote places, whereby, and by reason of the great difficulty of producing witnesses viva voce, they were disabled from bringing an action at law, and therefore prayed a decree for the 5000 l. according to their several proportions.

The respondents put in an answer to so much of the bill as related to a discovery; but as to the demand of the 5000 l. or any less money, they demurred. For cause of which demurrer shewed, that, if the policy was forfeited, a proper action at law lay to recover the money so lost, and that the appellants, if they had any just demand, might have their complete and adequate remedy, by such action at law, where matters of this nature are properly cognizable, and where the appellants ought to prove their interest, and loss, and not in a court of equity.

This demurrer was argued before lord chancellor King, upon the 15th of June 1728, and the appellants counsel insisting very much on the allegation in the bill, of Deconick the trustee's refusing to permit his name to be made use of in an action at law, his lordship was pleased to respite the consideration of the demurrer, till the coming in of the defendant Deconick's answer.—But, if the appellants did not procure his answer within two months, it was ordered, that the demurrer should be allowed.

Deconick put in his answer within the two months, and thereby admitted, that he made the assurance in his own name, in trust, and for the benefit of the appellants; but said, he did not care to permit the appellants to bring any action against the company, on the said policy in his name, he being advised, that if he did, and they failed therein, he should be personally liable to pay the costs.

Upon which, on the 21st of November 1729, the demurrer came on to be further argued, when it was ordered, that it should stand, and be allowed.—From which order an appeal was preferred to the house of lords, upon the two following reasons:

First, For that the Appellants cannot maintain an action at law upon the said policy in their own names, and it is in the power of their trustee, whether he will permit his name to be made use of or not.—And that, in case the appellants were able to bring an action in their own names, it would be to no purpose, in regard that all their witnesses, who can prove the loss of the ship, and the respective interest of the appellants therein, live at distant places beyond the seas, and are not in the power of the appellants; nor can the appellants compel them to come over here to be examined, on any trial at law.

Secondly, for that the appellants can have no manner of remedy against the respondents upon the said policy, but in a court of equity, where they may have an opportunity, by virtue of a commission, to examine their witnesses beyond the seas, and thereby be enabled to prove the loss of the said ship.—And that, in case the appellants are deprived of this remedy, they will not only lose the said 5000 l. but also the sum of 600 l. which they paid, as a premium to the respon-

dents, upon making the insurance. And the respondents, though they are debtors to the appellants in 5000 l. and interest, will, instead of paying such debt, go away with 600 l. of the appellants money.

On behalf of the respondents it was insisted, that the order for allowing this demurrer was agreeable to equity.

First, that the appellants demand is plainly a demand at law, they having nothing to prove, but their interest and the loss of the ship, which are facts proper to be tried by a jury.

Secondly, That there is no equity suggested in the bill, but a pretended difficulty to produce witnesses, and that their trustee refused them to bring an action in his name.—The former of which may, with equal reason, be suggested, in almost every case of a policy of insurance; and the latter appears manifestly to be thrown into the bill, merely to change the jurisdiction, and is in a great measure falsified, by their trustee's answer. For he does not say he ever refused, but that (at the time of swearing his answer) he did not care to let his name be made use of.

Thirdly, That, if bills of this kind are encouraged, it will be very easy to bring all kinds of property to be tried in a court of equity.

The lords were pleased to affirm the order. This being a point of very great importance to our trading interests, is the reason of dwelling so long upon it; for which we hope rather to have the approbation than censure of our readers.

We have also various offices of assurance from fire, some for houses, others for goods, and some for both, which are very useful institutions; but the nature of them, in that respect, is so generally understood, that it will be thought needless to dwell thereon.

We have likewise assurances for life, in virtue whereof, when the person assured dies, a sum of money becomes payable to the person in whose behalf the policy of assurance was granted.

LIFE POLICY. By the Governor and Company of the London Assurance of Houses and Goods from Fire.

In the name of God, Amen.
Do make assurance, and cause to be assured upon natural life

aged for and during the term and space of calendar months, to commence this day of in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and fully to be complete and ended. And it is declared, that this assurance is made to and for the use, benefit, and security of the said executors, administrators, and assigns, in case of the death of the said within the time aforesaid,

which the above governor and company do allow to be a good and sufficient ground and inducement for the making this assurance, and do agree that the life of h the said is and shall be rated and valued at the

sum assured, without any farther account to be given to them for the same: the said governor and company therefore, for and in consideration of per cent to them paid, do assure, assume, and promise, that h the said shall, by the permission of almighty God,

live, and continue in this natural life, for and during the said term and space of calendar months, to commence as aforesaid; or in default thereof, that is to say, in case h the said shall, in or during the said time, and before the full end and expiration thereof, happen to die or decease out of this world by any ways or means whatsoever, That then the above said governor and company will well and truly satisfy, content, and pay unto the said h executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum or sums of money by them assured, and here underwritten, abating two pounds per cent. Hereby promising and binding themselves and their successors to the assured, h executors, administrators, and assigns, for the true performance of the premises, confessing themselves paid the consideration due unto them for this assurance by the assured.

Provided always, And it is hereby declared to be the true intent and meaning of this assurance, and this policy is accepted by the said upon condition that the same shall be utterly void and of no effect, in case the said shall exceed the age of or shall voluntarily go to sea, or into the wars, by sea or land, without licence in writing first had or obtained for h so doing, any thing in these presents, to the contrary hereof, in any wise notwithstanding. In witness whereof, the said governor and company have caused their common seal to be hereunto affixed, and the sum or sums by them assured to be here under-written, at their office in London, this day of in the year of the reign of our sovereign lord by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the

the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and

The said governor and company are content with this assurance for

There is likewise an office for the insurance of lives at Serjeants-Inn, in Fleet-Street, London, the nature of which is as follows:

Terms, methods, and advantages of insuring lives, in the office of The Amicable Society for a perpetual Assurance, kept in Serjeants-Inn Fleet-Street, London.

On the 25th of July, 1706, the then lord bishop of Oxford, Sir Thomas Aleyne, Bt. and others, obtained from the late queen Anne a charter for incorporating them and their successors, by the name of The Amicable Society for a perpetual Assurance-Office, whereby they might provide for their wives, children, and other relations, after an easy, certain, and advantageous manner; with power to purchase lands, sue and be sued, and to have a common seal, &c. The number of persons to be incorporated not to exceed 2000, but may be less; each person to receive a policy, under the seal of the corporation, intitling his nominee to a dividend, on his or her decease, in the manner mentioned in the charter. After paying the charges of the policy, and 10 s. entrance money, each person was to pay 6 l. 4 s. per ann. which payments have since, by the raising a joint-stock, been reduced to 5 l. payable quarterly. From these payments the dividends to claimants are to arise: for which reason, if the same shall be at any time a year and a quarter in arrear, such defaulters are excluded from all benefit of their policies. The affairs of the corporation are managed by a court of directors, according to the powers granted by the charter, and the directions of the by-laws. The directors are 12, chosen yearly, within 40 days after every 25th day of March. The majority of members, assembled at a general court (which is never to consist of less than 20) are empowered to make by-laws and ordinances, for the good government of the corporation. The charter directs one of the members of the society to be elected their register, who is also their receiver and accomptant, and therefore the by-laws require him to give good security, in the sum of 2000 l. at least. All persons to be admitted are to be between the ages of 12 and 45, and appearing in a good state of health. Persons living in the country may be admitted by certificates and affidavits, forms of which may be had at the office. Every claimant is empowered to put in a new life, in the room of the deceased, within 12 calendar months next after the end of the current year, for which his or her claim shall be allowed, as often as the same shall happen, upon payment of 10 s. entrance; any person is allowed to have two or three several insurances (or numbers) on one and the same life, whereby such person will be intitled to a claim on each number so insured. Five members of the society are annually elected auditors, who are by their office to inspect every transaction of the society, to examine all vouchers for receipts and payments; and upon oath to lay before the quarterly and annual general courts the quarterly and annual accounts of the society: and, on the day before the holding each court of directors, to state and enter, in the directors minute-book, a balance of the cash of the society. That the good end intended by the charter has been pursued, and the society found to be a common benefit to mankind, will evidently appear from a state of their yearly dividends, from Lady-Day 1710, to Lady-Day 1749 (the preceding years having been particularly provided for by the charter) being 39 dividends successively, amounting to the sum of 277,104 l. and upwards, on 2,967 claims, so that upon an average, the amount of each claim has not been less than 93 l. 3 s. 7 d. But they have been considerably more for these 15 years last past, a general court having, in 1734, appropriated a part of their yearly income for augmenting the claims, whenever they shall happen to be under 100 l. the quantum of such claims being as follows, viz.

l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Anno 1734	100	—	Anno 1742	94	16 4
1735	121	11 8½	1743	88	15 4
1736	101	13 4	1744	126	6 8
1737	100	—	1745	97	13 11½
1738	110	—	1746	128	6 8
1739	101	10 2	1747	100	—
1740	100	—	1748	125	—
1741	98	9 10			

which, one year with another, makes the amount of each claim 106 l. 5 s. 7 d.

The advantages proposed from becoming members of this society are principally as follow:

To clergymen, physicians, surgeons, lawyers, tradesmen, and particularly persons possessed of places or employments for life; to masters of families, and others whose income is subject to be determined, or lessened, at their respective deaths, who, by insuring their lives, may, in all probability, leave to their families a claim not less than 100 l. for every 5 l. annually paid in.

To married persons, where a jointure, pension, or annuity, depends on both or either of their lives, by insuring the life of the persons intitled to such annuity, pension, or jointure.

To dependents upon any other person, and thereby intitled to salary or benefaction during the life of such person, whose life being insured in this society, either by themselves or by their dependents respectively; in either case, such dependents may become entitl'd to a claim, or claims, upon the death of the persons on whom they are dependent, in proportion to the numbers insured.

To persons wanting to borrow money, who, by insuring their lives, are enabled to give a security for the money borrowed.

To creditors intitled to demands larger than their debtors are able to discharge; such debtors may, by a like insurance, secure to their creditors the principal sums at their deaths.

The abovementioned advantages are offered chiefly with respect to insurances for life; but temporary insurers may find no less advantage from this society, as may plainly appear from the following instances, viz. A. B. has agreed for the purchase of an office, or employment, but wants 300 l. to make up the purchase-money: he is willing to assign a share of the profits, or income, of his office, as a security or pledge, for the repayment of the principal, with interest; but cannot obtain a loan of that sum without insuring his life, till the whole be cleared; which he is enabled to do, by the help of this society: e. g. he purchases three blank (or vacant) numbers on each of which he insures his life, and thereby his affairs become intitled to three several claims at his death; which claims, by the abovementioned provision, will not probably be less than 100 l. each, and may amount to more. He assigns and deposits his policies with the lender: he pays to the society, for the yearly contributions on the three numbers, no more than 15 l. which is 5 l. per cent. under which rate no other office will insure, and that for one year only; at the end of which, such offices are at liberty to refuse any further insurance: whereas in this society the insurance continues till exclusion for non-payment of the quarterly contributions. And as to the money laid out in the purchase of the blank (or vacant numbers) the insurer may, at the end of his insurance, dispose of them at a market-price.

To ASSURE, or INSURE, is to give a premium of so much per cent. to an underwriter, or insurer, to indemnify such who insure from losses by sea or by fire, &c.

ASSURER, or INSURER, one who insures, or underwrites policies of assurance. See ASSURANCE.

ASTRABAD, or ESTARABAD, in Persia, together with Khæmus, or Coumas, are seated in the north-west part of Persia, having Corasan on the east; part of Tartary on the north; the Caspian Sea on the west, and also a little on the north; Tabristan on the west; and a branch of mount Taurus, with the desert of Segeftan, on the south. It is a mountainous country; and, except near the banks of the two rivers, Margab and Arias, which run through it, the soil is sandy and barren; but, in that part, it is champaign land, pleasant and fruitful, producing grapes of wonderful bigness. The inhabitants are a mixture of Persians and Tartars. The chief city here is that which gives name to the province; namely,

ASTRABAD. Here they make a great many brown druggets, and other light stuffs, which is the chief of their trade within themselves.

ASTRACAN, a kingdom in the empire of Muscovy, is bounded on the north by Bulgaria and Barkiria; on the south by the Caspian Sea; on the west by the Wolga, which parts it from the Nagayan Tartars and Don Cossacks; and, on the east, by a chain of hills, which divide it from Great Tartary. On a vast heath, on the west side of the Wolga, are produced immense quantities of fine transparent salt, which the sun bakes, and incrustates about an inch thick, and looks like fine rock-crystal on the surface of the water. Those pits especially called Cainkowa, Gwoftolski, and Mozanofski, which are at 30, 25, and 10 miles from Astracan, yield such quantities of it, that, for the value of a half-penny for every pood, or 40 pound weight, any body may carry off as much as he pleases. It hath a fine perfume, like that of a violet; and the Russians, who make a considerable traffick of it, have it carried and laid in great heaps on the banks of the Wolga, where it lies ready to be shipped off.

Along the banks of the Wolga grow great quantities of liquorice.

The city of ASTRACAN is so conveniently situated for commerce, that it is greatly resorted to by Persians, Armenians, and other merchants, insomuch that the customs for the imports and exports of it, though they are reckoned very low and moderate, were computed to bring in to the late Czar, Peter the Great, 250,000 crowns per ann. besides the convenience of vending all the native commodities of Russia, and receiving in exchange the silks, cotton, and other valuable merchandizes of Persia, India, &c. Here grows the animal plant called bonnaretz, in great quantities, and is sold to very great advantage. Here is likewise a fish called bilogec, which is caught in the Wolga, nearer the Caspian Sea, in great abundance; of the roes of which they make what we call

call caver, in which the Ruffians drive a very advantageous traffic.

ASTRINGENT, a term of medicine and dyeing. The physicians give the name of astringent drugs, and the dyers that of astringent materials, or ingredients, to the bark of alder, of the pomegranate, crab, and walnut-tree, when the sap rises, as also to the saw-dust of oaks, walnut-shells and roots, gall-nuts, and fumach. See **DYEING**.

ASTURIAS, a principality in Spain, lies on the north side, along the bay of Biscay, borders on the west on Galicia; and on the south it is divided by Castile and Leon, by a ridge of mountains, which is nameless. On the coast it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow slip of land belonging to Old Castile, which runs into the sea between Asturias and Biscay.

Places of most note in this principality are, Oviedo, Santillana, Gijon, and the little province of Liebana.

1. **OVIEDO** is about 20 miles distant from the bay of Biscay. The country about it is very mountainous, abounds in cattle, Indian wheat, chestnuts, corn, and all sorts of grain. The mountains, especially those which divide this principality from Leon and Castile, besides their natural fertility, were formerly rich in mines of all sorts of metals and minerals.

2. **LIEBANA**, is about 27 miles long, and 12 broad. It is one of the most craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, excessive high, and almost inaccessible. These mountains are called Europæ, and in full front of the sea; and produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game.

ATCHE, the smallest coin that is struck and current in the Grand Seignior's dominions. It is of silver, and worth about 4 deniers French, or $\frac{3}{4}$ of a farthing English money. As there is no copper coin in the whole Ottoman empire, except in the province of Babylon, where there are liards, or farthings of Lyons and Dombes, the poor are well pleased when one gives them an atche for alms, which is the smallest piece you can give them. The atches, or small aspers, as some call them, are pretty much like those spangles of tinsel with which they used formerly to set off gold and silver embroidery, except that they are something stronger and longer. They are marked, like the para, with Arabian characters: you give commonly three or four atches for one para.

ATIBAR. Thus the inhabitants of the kingdom of Gâgo in Africa call gold-dust; and from that word the Europeans, and especially the French, have composed the word Tibir, which also signifies gold-dust among those who trade in that commodity.

ATLAS, a silk-fattin, manufactured in the East-Indies. There are some plain, some striped, some flowered, the flowers of which are either gold, or only silk. There are Atlases of all colours, but most of them false, especially the red and the crimson.

It must be owned that the manufacture of them is wonderful and singular; and that, especially in the flowered atlases, the gold and silk are worked together after such a manner as no workmen in Europe can imitate; but yet they are very far from having that fine gloss and lustre which the French know how to give to their silk stuffs*.

* In the Chinese manufactures of this sort, they gild paper on one side with leaf-gold, then cut it in long slips, and weave it into their silks, which makes them, with very little cost, look very rich and fine. The same long slips are twisted or turned about silk threads, so artificially, as to look finer than gold thread, though it be of no great value. This may afford a good hint to our British weavers, for the like kind of improvements.

Among the several sorts of atlases, the most considerable are, the cotonis, the caucanias, the cotonis-bouilles, and the bouilles-charmay, or charmay. The atlases cotonis are thus called, because the ground of them is cotton, and the rest silk. The caucanias are striped fattins, and those of them which seem most silky are stiled quenkas. The calquiers are fattins made after the Turkish manner, or like Hungary point. The bouilles-cotonis and bouilles-charmay are thick silks, like those strong taffeties made at Tours in France.

There are atlases from 4 French ells and $\frac{1}{2}$ in length, by $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth, to 14 ells in length, by $\frac{3}{8}$ in breadth. Those that come near to half the usual length are called half-pieces.

ATTACHMENT, a custom in some places, particularly in the city of London, whereby a creditor may attach the goods of his debtor, in any hands where he findeth them, privileged persons and places only excepted. For example: if A owes B 100 l. and C owes A 100 l. B may attach the sum in the hands of C. By the custom of London, one may attach money or goods of the defendant, either in the plaintiff's own hands, or in the custody of a third person, and that either in the mayor's court or sheriff's court.

And the custom is, that, if any plaint be affirmed in London, in those courts, against any man, and he is returned nihil; if the plaintiff will surmise any other man within the city who is debtor to the defendant in any sum, he shall have his garnishment against him to come and answer, if he be indebted in the form the other hath alledged; and, if he comes

and does not deny it, then his debt shall be attached in his hands.

But debts upon record, statute, or recognizance; debt recovered, or which is in suit in the King's-Bench or Common Pleas, after issue joined, imparlance to the action, or writ purchased returnable in banco; and if money be in the sheriff's hands by execution, &c. these are not attachable in London; nor shall attachment lie for rent. 1 Roll. Abr. 552.

A legacy may not be attached in the hands of an executor, for it is uncertain whether the executor shall have effects to pay debts; but, for the debt of an intestate, if a debt be due only upon simple contract, a foreign attachment may be made; for the executor, or administrator, is chargeable for a debt due by the testator, or intestate, upon a simple contract as well as upon a specialty. If a suit be commenced against the executor of any person, any debt which was due to the testator, at the time of his death, may be attached by the executor; but not where the executor himself takes bond for a debt due to the testator; and, if he sells the goods, the money for which they were sold, &c. cannot be attached. A debt due may be attached by the administrator, an administrator being within the custom. 1 Ventr. 111.

Debt may be attached in the hands of an attorney of the King's-Bench, and he shall not be privileged; because, if such privilege were allowed, the defendant might put his estate into his attorney's hands, and the creditor will be barred of his remedy. If a man be indebted to another by bills, note, or verbal agreement, in any sum payable at a time to come, an attachment may be made for the money before the time agreed for payment thereof, even immediately, and judgment shall be presently had; but the execution shall not be awarded for this money, until it becomes due according to the time mentioned in the agreement. Goods or money at any time coming to the garnisher's hands (viz. the third person) after the attachment, though it be six months after, shall be liable to the attachment. 1 Roll. Abr. 553. Sid. 362.

Part of a debt may be attached, by the custom of London. Money due upon account, after promise to pay it, and the day of payment past, may be attached; but no action may be afterwards maintained for the breach of promise. Where an account is made upon debts by simple contract, or where executors give time for payment of a bond due to the testator, these shall be still attached. If a man dies intestate, an attachment may be made of money or goods, in a third person's hands, before administration, &c. being entered against the bishop of London: but, when there is a will proved, or letters of administration granted, the attachment dies, and must be again made by the executor, or administrator, against the party, unless it be condemned fully in the mean time. If a third person be condemned on attachment, and judgment is given; if no execution be sued against him, the plaintiff in the action may have judgment and execution against his principal debtor; and such debtor may sue the third person for his debts, notwithstanding the judgment. 1 Roll. 551. Dy. 822. Merchants should be well advised, before they make attachments, because both the civil law and customs of merchants do impose great damages upon the party, if he hath made his attachment without just cause, to the overthrow of the other party's credit.

There should be great caution not to admit any attachment to be made in London, or any other city or town corporate, according to the custom of London, unless it be upon special instances, and also with putting in good sureties for the costs. For it is a very dangerous thing for merchants living beyond the seas, or in remote places of the kingdom, to be liable to have their goods secretly attached by their own factors, upon pretence of debt, and so have judgment passed thereon, before they can be present to remove the attachment; which fraud has been often practised.

ATTORNEY at law, is an employment worthy of a scholar and a gentleman, their time being wholly taken up in officiating in that learned and laudable profession; to discharge the duty of which with reputation requires knowledge and experience, obtained through a good deal of practice, integrity, and the hand of a ready writer.

Their business, in general, consists not only in drawing, ingrossing, seeing executed, and registered, when required, all instruments, or deeds, in writing, of what kind soever, relating to the security of private property; but also preparing all proceedings in law and equity, and attending them through the several offices, while before the different masters, prothonotaries, &c. when in the respective courts, or before the chancellor, judges, or master of the Rolls; and, lastly, the happy conclusion, and, sometimes, reconciliation of the parties that have been in suit.

Those who chiefly attend affairs in Chancery are commonly called sollicitors in Chancery; and others are distinguished according to the courts they are sworn into; and of course are admitted attorneys of the court of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, or Exchequer; and, if any one transacts matters in a different court from his own, he must do it in the name of an attorney in that court, each court taking particular cognizance of the conduct of its own attorneys. Some principally

usually follow conveyancing, a very advantageous, as well as most useful, branch of the law, but requires much reading, practice, and judgment. There are two other denominations that seem to belong to this profession, a scrivener and a notary-public: but of these in their proper place.

R E M A R K S.

The gentlemen of this profession are very numerous, and they employ a great number of hands; yet there is room enough still for some thorough proficient, both in the courts and at the desk.

Therefore a youth designed for a clerkship (for so it is termed, and is articulated but for five years) in this profession, ought not to be too young, 16 at least; should understand Latin, and some French; especially the old; write a good hand, and be a thorough-paced accountant, in order to adjust, unravel, and liquidate such accounts as may come before him.

He should also know so much of the old court hands as to be able to read them; and, with this, the old law French, and law Latin abbreviations; if he is diligent, with these he may make himself familiar during his clerkship. And these improvements, though the present use of them seems to be laid aside, the young clerks will find of great service to them, in case they should have occasion to search court-rolls, or examine ancient deeds, &c.

I have heard it remarked by some very ingenious gentlemen of this profession, that, if a young man officiated for three or four years as clerk, after the expiration of the usual time, of his clerkship, he would not only find himself better qualified in business for his own account, but would more effectually recommend himself to the world, people being diffident of trusting the care of their properties in unexperienced, juvenile hands. As the trader, from the multiplicity and variety of his transactions, is more liable than any other person to be drawn into broils and law-suits; so nothing is more advisable, when that is unavoidable, than to make choice of an able and experienced, as well as an honest, attorney; ignorance in his profession proving no less injurious than knavery; and integrity, without suitable abilities, may be equally detrimental to a client.

Let the trader's cause, however, be ever so good, and the skill as well as the justice of his attorney unexceptionable, yet, if he does not keep the state of his accounts in a regular and methodical manner, and preserve all his vouchers, to verify the truth of his books, the best lawyer can be of little service to him; so that it may be truly said, it depends in a great measure upon every trader to be his own lawyer, by being capable, at all times, to furnish his attorney or solicitor with proper evidence, in justification of his conduct.

An ATTORNEY, also, is any private person legally authorized by another to pay or receive monies, sue, or transact any other kind of business, in the name of such person who shall appoint him or her their lawful attorney.

This power or authority is transferred to another by virtue of what is called a letter of attorney; which must always be drawn up in a legal manner, suitable to the peculiar nature and circumstances of the case. It is necessary, therefore, that a skilful person should be made choice of, especially in cases of consequence, to draw up such like instruments with judgment and legality; for, by trusting to common general forms, which any blockhead may collect, when suitable variations therefrom are required, is too often the cause of involving traders in great perplexities and expensive law-suits.

In regard to merchants constituting or appointing other persons to transact business in foreign countries, by the way of attorney or procurator, such instruments of authority should always be drawn up by notary-publics, and not by those of as little knowledge as credit, but by Exchange notaries, who are presumed to be persons of judgment, as well as reputation in their profession, and whose names and signatures are well known in foreign nations.

The form of a general letter of attorney from A B to C D.

Know all men by these presents, that I, A B, of London, merchant, have named and constituted, and by these presents do name, appoint, and make my trusty friend C D, of Liverpool, merchant, my true and lawful attorney, for me, and in my name, and to my use, to demand, sue for, recover, and receive of J. W, of Liverpool, merchant, the sum of _____ to me due and owing, by and from the said J. W; giving and hereby granting unto my said attorney my full power and authority to use and exercise all such arts, things, and devices in the law, as shall be necessary for recovering of the said debt; and acquittances, or other discharges, in my name to make and give; and generally to do and execute in the premises as fully as I myself might, or could do, being personally present; rectifying, confirming, and allowing all, and whatever my said attorney shall lawfully do, or cause to be done therein, by these presents.

VOL. I.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this _____ day of _____ in the 25th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George II, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c.

Sealed and delivered (being first duly stamped) in the presence of A B.

An attorney at law being a person who is invested with the care of people's property, the law has made good provision to prevent their imposing on their clients; which, being a matter of consequence to the man of business, it may be necessary for him to be briefly informed of in his Commercial Dictionary.

An attorney, solicitor, or servant to any, shall not be allowed any fees given to counsel, or for copies, unless he have tickets thereof, signed by the hands of them that receive such fees; and he shall also give unto his client true bills of all the charges of suit under his own hand, before he can charge his client with the payment thereof: and, if he delay his client's suit for gain, or demand by his bill allowance for money which he hath not disbursed, the client shall recover against him his costs and treble damages, and he shall be for ever after disabled from being an attorney or solicitor. Stat. 3. Jac. I. cap. 7. Sect. 1.

By sect. 2. of the same statute, none shall be admitted attorneys in courts of record, but such as have been brought up in the same courts, or otherwise well practised in soliciting of causes, and found skilful, and of honest disposition; and none but such shall be hereafter suffered to solicit causes in the courts aforesaid. And an attorney shall not admit any other to follow a suit in his name, on pain that each of them shall forfeit 20 l. to be divided between the king and party grieved, and the attorney shall be excluded.

If any person convicted of forgery, or of wilful and corrupt perjury, shall practise as an attorney, solicitor, or agent, in any suit or action, in any court of law or equity within England, the judges of the courts, where such suit or action is brought, shall, on complaint, or information thereof, examine the matter in a summary way, in open court; and, if it shall appear to their satisfaction that the person complained of hath offended contrary to this act, the judges shall cause such offender to be transported for seven years. Stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 29. sect. 4.

No person shall be permitted to act as an attorney, or to sue out process, &c. in the name of any other person, unless he shall have taken the following oath, and shall have been duly admitted and enrolled, in such of the said courts where he shall act as an attorney. Stat. 2. Geo. II. cap. 23. sect. 1.

The oath is as followeth:

I A B do swear, that I will truly and honestly demean myself in the practice of an attorney, according to the best of my knowledge and ability.

So help me God.

The same oath also must be taken by a solicitor.

Before any person is admitted to take the said oath, the master of the Rolls, two of the masters in Chancery, the barons of the Exchequer, the chancellor of the duchy, and the judges of the other courts of equity, shall examine touching his capacity. Sect. 4. of the said stat.

No attorney or solicitor shall commence an action for fees, till the expiration of one month after he shall have delivered to the party a bill of such fees, &c. written in plain English (except law-terms and names of writs) and, upon application of the party, chargeable by such bill, to the chancellor or the master of the Rolls, or to any of the courts wherein the business contained in the said bill, or the greatest part thereof in value, shall have been transacted; and, upon submission of the said party to pay the sum that, upon taxation, shall appear to be due, it shall be lawful for the lord chancellor, &c. to refer the said bill to be taxed by the proper officer, without any money being brought into court; and, if the attorney or solicitor, or client, neglect to attend such taxation, the officer may proceed to tax the bill; which sum so taxed, being paid, shall be a discharge of the bill; and, in default of non-payment, the party shall be liable to an attachment, or process of contempt, or such other proceeding, at the election of the attorney or solicitor, as such party was liable to; and if, on such taxation, it shall be found that the attorney or solicitor shall have been overpaid, he shall refund to the party intitled, or to any person by him authorized, if present at the settling thereof, or otherwise as the court shall direct, all the money that the officer shall certify to have been overpaid; and, in default thereof, the attorney or solicitor shall in like manner be liable to an attachment, or process of contempt, or such other proceeding, at the election of the party; and the courts are required to award the costs of such taxation, to be paid by the parties according to the event of the taxation, viz. if the bill taxed be less by a sixth part than the bill delivered

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delivered, then the attorney or solicitor is to pay the costs; but, if it be not less, then the court, in their discretion, shall charge the attorney, or client, in regard to the reasonableness, or unreasonableness, of such a bill.

AVA. The empire of Ava, including the kingdom of Pegu, lies between independent Tartary on the north; the Indian Sea on the south; Siam on the south-east; part of Bengal and it's gulph, on the west; and part of China, Tonquin, and the kingdom of Laos, on the east. The most southern country, that used to be called the kingdom of Pegu, is very fruitful in corn, fruits, roots, and excellent pulle of several sorts, and produces timber for building, elephants-teeth, bees-wax, flick-lack, iron, said to be of so hard a quality that it is almost a natural steel; tin, oil of earth, wood-oil, the best rubies in the world, small diamonds, sapphires, amethysts, and other precious stones. They have abundance of salt-petre, but 'tis death to export it; and plenty of lead, which passes here for money. About 20 sail of ships find their account in trade for the limited commodities, but the Armenians have got the monopoly of the rubies, which turns to a good account in their trade.

The people wear none of our European manufactures but hats and ribbands; so that the gentry will give extravagant prices for fine beaver hats, and rich ribbands, flowered with silver and gold. Cotton-cloths from Bengal and Coromandel, with some striped silks, are best for their market; and silver of any sort is welcome to them. It pays the king $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. custom; but, in lieu thereof, he indulges the merchants to melt it down, and put what alloy they please in it, and then to pass it off in payment as high as they can. Rupee silver, without alloy, will bear 20 per cent. of copper alloy, and keeps the Pegu touch, which they call flowered silver; and, if it flowers, it passes current. They make flowered silver thus: when the silver and copper are mixed and melted together, they put it, while liquid, into a shallow mould, and blow on it through a small wooden pipe, which makes the part blown up appear with the figures of flowers, or stars; but, if there is too great a mixture of alloy, no figures will appear. The king generally adds 10 per cent. on all silver that comes into his treasury, besides what was put on at first; and, though it be not flowered, it must go off in all his payments; but, from any body else, it may be refused, if it is not flowered. The chief towns are,

1. **SYRIAM**, which is the only port now open for trade in all the Pegu dominions, and is capable of receiving a ship of 600 tons. The Portuguese, who had this port given them by the king of Arracan, to reward their services to him in his wars, held it many years; but, through their pride and insolence, were obliged, in 1614, to quit it, and the trade was restored to the Moors. It drives a good trade with Armenians, Portuguese, Moors, Gentaws, and some English. Their import is several sorts of Indian goods, as betellas, mulmuls, tanjubs, and European hats, and silver; and the customs here, which are about $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. amount, with other charges, to about 12 in the hundred. As soon as foreign ships arrive here, the number of people on board, with their age and sex, is sent to the king, to acquaint him, that so many of his slaves are arrived, to partake of the glory and happiness of his reign and favour.
2. **PEGU**, according to Moll, is divided by the river of the same name into two towns, the old and the new. The latter was the seat of it's kings; the former is still the residence of it's merchants and artificers, and it lies 20 miles up the river; according to others, it lies 80 miles up the river.
3. The city of **AVA** is said to be a place of trade for jewels and musk.

The country of Ava Proper abounds with mines of silver, copper, and lead, and has store of elephants and horses.

The places of chief note on the coast, which, from Syriam to Cape Negrais, is in the Pegu dominions, are,

1. **DOLA**, or **DELA**, which Moll represents to be an island. Tytch says it has a good harbour, from whence ships trade to Malacca, the Red Sea, &c.
2. **COSMIN**, or **COSMI**, whose neighbourhood produces great figs, oranges, cocoas, and other fruit. The inhabitants go from hence to Pegu in their boats, wherein they live all the year with their families.
3. **MEDEN**, is another pretty town, where there is abundance of boats, in which they keep their markets upon the water, and shade their commodities from the sun by large umbrellas.
4. **NEGRAIS**, is a cape and town on the coast, which has a good harbour, but there is a bar, which makes it's entrance difficult.

The next kingdom in the empire of AVA is **TIPRA**, or **TIPOURA**, in the most northern part of it, between the rivers Cosmin and Caypumo, having Independent Tartary on the north; part of China and Ava on the east and south; the Mogul's country on the west; and Arracan on the south-west. Here they have coarse gold and silk, which all belongs to the king, who requires nothing else of his subjects, but that all, who are not of the prime nobility, should give him one week's work in a year in his mines, or silk-works. He sends

his gold and silk into China; from whence he has silver in return, which he coins into pieces of 20 d. and 22 d. value, as he does gold into aspers of two sorts, four of the one, and 12 of the other, amounting to a crown.

BOUTAN, or **LASSA**, is a kingdom in this peninsula, which some think rather belongs to Tartary. It has Tartary on the north, China on the east, Afem on the south; and Great Tibet, and part of the Mogul's dominions, on the west. The country abounds with rice, corn, pulle, and wine; and it's other commodities are coral, the best rhubarb, musk, furs, and martens. It is not doubted but there are silver mines here, because there are pieces of money coined here by the king's order, to the value of half a crown, which have eight angles, with certain characters, but they are neither Indian nor Chinese. As for what little gold they have, 'tis brought hither by merchants from the East.

AUDITOR of ACCOUNTS, is an officer of the king, or some other great person, who examines yearly the accounts of all under officers, and makes up a general book, which shews the difference between their receipts and charge, and their several allowances, commonly called allocations: as the Auditors of the Exchequer take the accounts of those receivers who collect the revenues, 4 Inst. 106. receivers general of fee-farms rents, &c. are also termed Auditors, and hold their audits for adjusting the accounts of the said rents at certain times and places appointed. And there are auditors assigned by the court, to audit and settle accounts in actions of accounts, and other cases, who are proper judges of the cause, and pleas are made before them, &c. Brownl. 24.

AUDITORS of the Exchequer, are officers appointed in England, under the crown, to take the accounts from other public officers, who collect the national revenue.

AUDITORS of the imprest, are such officers under the crown, in the Exchequer, who receive and make up the great accounts of Ireland, Berwick, the mint, wardrobe, first-fruits, and of all monies impressed to any person for the king's service.

AUDITOR of the receipts, is an officer of the Exchequer, who files the tellers bills, and duly enters them, and gives the lords of the treasury a certificate of the money received from the several branches of the revenue the week before; and who gives in the state of those accounts from year to year to the parliament. He also makes out debentures to the respective tellers of the Exchequer, before they receive any money, and takes their accounts, and sees the tellers money locked up in the royal treasury.

AVERAGE, or **AVERIDGE**, a term of commerce by sea, which signifies the accidents and misfortunes which happen to ships and their cargoes, from the time of their loading and sailing to their return and unloading.

There are three sorts of averages, the simple, or particular, averages, the large, or common, and the small ones.

The simple averages consist in the extraordinary expences incurred for the ship alone, or for the merchandizes alone; in which case, the damages that happen to them in particular, ought to be borne and paid by the thing which suffered the damage, or occasioned the expence.

Among the simple averages is reckoned the loss of cables, anchors, sails, masts, and rigging, occasioned by storms or some other accidents, common at sea; as also the damages which happen to the merchandizes, either by the master or the crew's fault, or through neglect in shutting the hatches close, or in well anchoring the ship, or for want of good cordage, for hoisting up the merchandizes, &c. All these averages must be borne by the master, the ship, and the freight.

The damages which happen to merchandizes, through some defects in them, or by storm, prize, or shipwreck, or running a-ground; the expences incurred for the saving of them, and the duties, taxes, and customs, ought to be placed to the account of the proprietors. By some defect in the merchandizes must be understood their decay, or growing worse, rotting, being wet, running, &c.

The provisions and hire of the seamen, when the ship happens to be stopped in her voyage, by the order of some sovereign, are also reckoned among the simple averages, and must be borne by the ship alone, provided she was hired for the whole voyage, and not by the month.

The large or common averages are those expences incurred, and damages sustained, for the common good and security both of the merchandizes and the vessels. Of that number are,

The things or money given to pirates for the ransom of the ship and cargo; things thrown overboard, cables and masts, broke or cut anchors, and other things left behind, in order to save the vessel and merchandizes.

The damage sustained by the merchandizes left in the ship, when the others were thrown overboard; the dressing the wounds, and maintaining of such sailors as were wounded in defending the ship, and the expences of unlading for entering into some harbour, or into a river, or for putting the vessel a-float again.

The provisions and hire of the sailors of a ship stopped in her voyage

voyage by the order of a sovereign, when the ship was hired by the month, and not for the voyage.

All these large and common averages ought to be borne by the ship and cargo, and to be regulated, upon the whole, in France, at the rate of a sol per livre, or 5 per cent.

The small averages are the loadmanages, towing, and piloting of ships, for entering into, or coming out of, harbours or rivers; one third of these expences must be borne by the ship, and two thirds by the cargo.

They do not reckon among averages in France, the fees paid for the liberty of departing, visiting the ship, reports, tuns, buoys, or sea-marks, and anchorage. All these must be borne and paid by the master of the ship.

The damages, sustained by ships falling foul of one another, ought to be borne and paid in equal proportions by the masters of both ships, this not being reckoned any part of the other averages. But yet, if the falling foul of one ship upon another is occasioned through the fault of one of the masters, the damage must be made good by him alone.

All these averages may be seen in the ordonnance of the marine in France, issued in August 1681, title 7, of the third book.

AVERAGE, signifies also a duty paid for the maintaining of a harbour, by every ship that enters in it.

AVERAGE, according to the merchant's law in England, is used or taken for a certain contribution that merchants, and other traders do proportionably make towards their losses, who have their goods cast into the sea for the safeguard of the ship, or of the goods and lives of them in the ship, in the time of a tempest; and this contribution seems to be so called, because it is proportioned after the rate of every man's average, or goods carried. Ships being freighted, and at sea, are often subject to storms, and other accidents, in which, by the ancient laws and customs of the sea, in extreme necessity, the goods, wares, guns, or whatsoever else shall be thought fit, may, in such extremity, be flung overboard; but then the master ought to consult with his mariners, who, if they consent not, and yet the storm and danger continues, the master may command, notwithstanding, the casting overboard what he shall judge most fitting for the common safety of the rest. So likewise goods coming from infected towns, or places, may be cast overboard; and, if an action be brought at common law, the defendant may justify the same, by pleading the special matter.

If there be a supercargo, a request ought to be made to him to begin first; but, if he refuses, the mariners may proceed.

If the ship so fortunes as to out-weather the storm, and arrives in safety at her port of discharge, the master, and most of the crew, must swear that the goods were cast over for no other cause but purely for the safety of the ship and lading. The custom of clearing that point varies according to the several countries or places they arrive at.

Where goods are laden above the overlope, or forbidden goods be transported; if such goods happen to be the cause of any danger or damage, the master shall bear the loss; also he may be prosecuted criminally.

King William the Conqueror, and Henry I. made and ratified this law concerning goods cast overboard by mariners in a storm, in imitation of the Rhodian law, *de jact.*

The ship arriving in safety, the remainder must come into the average, not only those goods which pay freight, but all those that have obtained safety and preservation by such ejection, even money, jewels, and clothes, and such like are not exempted.

But those things which are borne upon a man's body, victuals, and the like, put on ship-board to be spent, are totally excluded from the contribution.

The master ought to be careful, that only those things of the least value, and greatest weight, be flung overboard.

In the rating of goods by way of contribution, this order is observed: if they chance to be cast overboard, before half the voyage be performed, then they are to be esteemed at the price they cost; if after, then at the price as the rest, or the like, shall be sold at the place of discharge.

The person, whose goods have been cast, is to be careful to have the same estimated before the ship do discharge, wherein the master ought to be assitant.

Goods are shipped in England, and a tempest arising, the passengers, for saving their lives, cast them overboard, and another English ship takes them; the owners bring trover, it lies, because delivered upon the land. 2. Rolle's Rep. 498. *Cafes v. Tooker.*

It is lawful for passengers to cast goods overboard out of a ferry-boat, in case of a tempest, for preservation of their lives: so, if the ferryman surcharge the boat with goods, the owners of the goods shall have their remedy against the ferryman in this case of a surcharge, but not in the other case. 12 Coke 63. 2 Bullstr. 280.

As this law doth take care that this common calamity should be borne by all the parties interested, by a general contribution; so the common law takes notice of the misfortune, and makes provision to indemnify the master; and, therefore, if the party owner of such ejected goods shall bring an action against the master, or owners of the vessel, the defendant may

plead the special matter, and the same shall bar the plaintiff; 12 Coke 63. 2 Bullstr. 280. Bird *vers.* Astoot.

But, if the ship's gear, or apparel, be lost by storm, the same is not within the average, but is accounted like unto a workman breaking or spoiling his tools; except in the avoiding of a danger, as the flinging the mast overboard, or the slipping the tow-anchor or boat.

Goods brought secretly into the ship, against the master's or purser's knowledge, if ejected, no contribution is to be had. As the common law looks upon the goods and cargo as a pawn, or pledge, for the freight; so the marine law looks upon them, likewise, as a security for the answering the average and contribution, and that the master ought not to deliver the goods till the contribution is settled, the same being tacitly obliged for the one as well as the other.

If, through the rifting of the ship, or the casting or unlightening the ship, any of the remaining goods are spoiled, either with wet, or otherwise, the same must come into the contribution for so much as they are made worse.

If it falls out that a ship, entering into a port or channel, cannot make way, and there be a lightening or disburdening of the ship, then the contribution falls two parts to the lading, and one third part to the ship, except the ship surpasses in value the lading, or that there is some bad quality in the ship itself.

But, to prevent that ambiguous question, if the party covenants that the goods shall be delivered at the port covenanted and appointed, then condition makes law.

So for the pilot's fee, and rising of the ship off ground, when there is no fault in the master.

If two ships happen to encounter and cross each other, and the crew swear their innocency, contribution must be made by a just equality; but, if one perishes, as there can be no proportion of the loss, so no contribution. The reason given is, for that, otherwise, a skipper might, on purpose, set an old weak ship against a strong ship, and, by that means, hedge himself into a contribution and recompence. However, this bars not the owners from bringing their action against the negligent master, by which means he may recoup himself in damage; if it happens at sea, the action, by the civil law is called *legis aquilæ*. Goodwin *vers.* Tompkins. Noy. Rep. 148.

If such a misfortune happens in the night at sea, the party, if he will completely arm himself for his recovery, ought to prove that he made out light, or fire, or otherwise gave notice, by crying or calling out.

If it falls out in the ship, or vessel, by the indiscreet stowing or lading thereof above the birth-mark, that such ejection happened, in that case it has been used by the marine laws that no contribution be made, but satisfaction is to be answered by the ship, master, or owners.

If salt, or corn, be laid loose, or in an heap, by divers persons in one ship, without distinction, and the master delivers to any of them their due share, or quantity; but, before the rest receive their share, or measure, the remaining salt, or corn, washes, or loses; those that had the good fortune to have their shares, shall enjoy it, without any contribution to the other partners.

If, to avoid the danger of a storm, the master cuts down the masts and sails, and they, falling into the sea, are lost, this damage is to be made good by the ship and lading, *pro rata*: otherwise, if the case happens by storm, or other casualties.

No contribution is to be paid, in case one ship strike against another, whereby damage happens; but full satisfaction is to be answered the merchant, in case of fault, or miscarriage, in either, or an equal division of the damage, in case it happens by a casualty, as above.

If a lighter, or skiff, or the ship's boat, into which part of the cargo is unladen, for the lightening of the ship, perish, and the ship be preserved, in that case contribution is to be made; but, if the ship be cast away, and the lighter, boat, or skiff be preserved, then no contribution, or average, is to be had, it being a rule, No contribution but where the ship arrives in safety.

If a ship happens to be taken, and the master, to redeem the ship and lading out of the enemies or pirates hands, promises them a certain sum of money, for performance whereof himself becomes a pledge, or captive, in the custody of the captor; in this case he is to be redeemed at the costs and charges of the ship and lading, and money, if there be any in her, to be contributed, according to each man's interest, for his ransom.

So, where a pirate takes part of the goods to spare the rest, contribution must be paid.

But, if a pirate takes by violence part of the goods, the rest are not subject to average, unless the merchant hath made an express agreement to pay it after the ship is robbed.

But, if part of the goods are taken by an enemy, or by letters of mart and reprisal, *e contra*.

So likewise in storm, if the same is done for preservation of the remainder.

The master may hypothecate the ship for his own redemption. Lord Raym. Rep. 22.

A ship was taken by a French privateer, and the master of her ransomed her for 1,800 l. (the master having a share in the ship, the mate was carried into France as a hostage for this money. Lord chancellor said the ransom-money must be raised out of the first profits, notwithstanding any former mortgage of the ship; for, if there was a precedent mortgage, what would have become of the security, if the ship had not been redeemed? After the ship was redeemed, she performed her intended voyage, and the freight-money, earned after her redemption, was the first profits arising, and out of these the ransom-money is to be satisfied. This was upon motion. The lord chancellor said, the insurers always paid part of the ransom-money. Hil. 7 Annæ, in Chancery, Lopes and Winter. In ejection the master, or purser of the ship, shall contribute for the preservation of the ship, and also the passengers, for such wares as they have in the ship, be it pearls, precious stones, and such like; and passengers that have no wares or goods in the ship, yet in regard they are a burden to the ship, estimate is to be made of his and their apparel, rings, and jewels, towards a contribution of the loss; and generally all things in the ship, except the victualling and provisions of the ship, and the bodies of men (unless servants) must bear a proportionable share in the contribution.

The estimate being made of the goods lost and saved, the price is to be set down, not for how much they were bought, but how much they might be sold for, at the time when the ejection was made; and, if any thing be flung into the sea, and endamaged, and afterwards is recovered again, yet contribution is to be made only for the damage.

Contribution is to be paid for the pilot's fee that hath brought a ship into a port, or haven, for her safeguard, it not being the place she was designed for, so to raise her off the ground, when there is no fault in the master.

If a master of a ship lets out his ship to freight, and then receives his complement, and afterwards takes in goods, without leave of the freighters, and a storm arises at sea, and part of the freighters goods are cast overboard, the remaining goods are not subject to the average, but the master must make good the loss out of his own purse.

The goods which are lost are to be valued, and the goods saved are to be estimated; which being known, a proportionable value is to be contributed by the goods saved, towards reparation of the goods ejected.

In which, regard is always had, not to what might be got by the goods lost, but what the intrinsic damage is by the loss of the same; the which are not so much to be estimated what they might have been sold for, as what they might cost, or were bought for.

But now the custom is general, that goods saved and lost are estimated according as the goods saved were sold for, freight and other necessary charges being first deducted*.

* The custom of places varies this modus of estimating; the which is done by merchants and mariners, indifferently nominated by the court.

If there were plate, jewels, or the like, in a trunk, chest, pack, or bale, at the time of their ejection, if there be a supercargo, he ought to give notice, by discovering of the same to the master or mariners, otherwise he shall be answered in the contribution no more than the bare extrinsic value appeared to be: but the assurers will hardly fare so well.

If contribution shall be settled, and the merchant will not agree, the master may detain the lading, for the same is as tacitly obliged to answer that, as the freight; and if, at the common law, the merchant should bring an action, the defendant shall bar him, by pleading the special matter.

If goods are cast overboard, and afterwards are recovered, contribution ceases, saving for so much as they are damaged, and made worse, by reason of such ejection.

Note, Goods cast overboard, to lighten the ship, make no derelict.

And, though necessity seems to subject the lading to ejection, to prevent the ruin and destruction of the persons, yet some lading seems expected; and, therefore, cannon, and other instruments or provisions, consigned to relieve a city, ought not to be flung overboard; for, in such case, the law imposeth on every subject, that he prefer the urgent service of his prince, before the safety of his life.

The French stile those effects or merchandizes *AVERAGED* (*avariées*) which have been damaged, during the voyage, by a storm, shipwreck, running a-ground, or otherwise. Thus they say, *du café avariée, de la cochenille avariée*; that is, damaged coffee, or cochineal.

AUGUST, the eighth month in the year, reckoning from January. That month is esteemed one of the richest in the whole year, because of the harvest of wheat, and several other sorts of corn, which is produced in that season; which gave rise to this French proverb, *A man has made his August*; which proverb is very much used among merchants, to signify that a man has been successful in trade, and got an estate.

AVIGNON BERRY, the fruit of a shrub, produced in great plenty near Avignon in France, somewhat less than a pea, of

an astringent and bitter taste, its colour green, inclining towards a yellow. It is much used by dyers and painters.

AUNIS, the smallest province in France, is bounded on the west by the ocean; on the north by Poitou, from which it is separated by the river Sevre; and, on the east and south, by Saintonge. This province is very fruitful, and well peopled.

LA ROCHELLE, has been always a very considerable port and trading town. Without the leave of the governor of the Tower of the Chain, no vessel can enter into the harbour. They drive here a considerable trade into the islands of America; and the English, the Dutch, the Swedes, and the Danes, send here yearly a vast number of ships, to load wine, brandy, salt, paper, and linnen cloths. The merchants here send all the necessaries of life into America, and bring back from it the product of those countries. Their chief manufacture here is the refining of sugar; they have also set up of late a manufacture of earthen-ware, which succeeds very well. Here is a sovereign court for the salt-marshes in the west, and a court of the mint.

MARANS, is a very rich town, and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in corn. They keep here a market once every week, and furnish the whole province with wheat and meal.

At **SURGERES**, they keep several markets, and drive a considerable trade in horses.

AVOIRDUPOIS-WEIGHT, a kind of weight used in England, the pound of which is made up of 16 ounces.

This is the weight for the larger and coarser commodities, viz. groceries, cheese, wool, lead, hops, &c. Bakers who live not in corporation towns are to make their bread by avoirdupois-weight; those in corporations by troy-weight.—Apothecaries buy their drugs by avoirdupois-weight, but sell by troy.

AURICHALCHUM, among the modern writers, signifies a factitious metal, commonly called brass. It is a mixture of copper and calamine-stone, melted together by a very fierce fire.

AURIPIGMENTUM, or **ORPIMENT**, is a scaly mineral substance, or glebe. It is extremely flaky, like talc, though its little scales easily separate from each other. With regard to colour it is of three kinds, viz. (1.) Gold-coloured, or yellow. (2.) Red, or cinnabarine, mixed with yellow; and, (3.) Greenish, or yellowish, mixed with a large proportion of earth, and; therefore, the coarsest. All the species are found in the mines of gold, silver, and copper. But the auripigmentum we commonly meet with is the yellow sort. Its taste is very little, if at all, acrimonious; it dissolves in oil; it flames in the fire, and then yields a garlic odour. By sublimation it yields flowers like those of sulphur, having a hard red mass, or kind of regulus, at the bottom of the subliming vessel; but, if urged with a strong fire, this mass also seems to rise, and concretes, on the upper part of the vessel, into a beautiful, red, transparent substance, like a ruby, leaving only a small proportion of a metalline earth behind. Its fumes in burning, being received by copper, render the metal white and brittle, which may give suspicion of an arsenical quality; and, perhaps, it is of a mixed nature, between common sulphur and antimony, or between sulphur and the milder arsenical substances: but its real nature is not hitherto sufficiently determined; though Dr Hoffman has bestowed some pains in examining it, and produces arguments to prove it innocent, not only from chemical experiments, but also trials made upon dogs; but both these kinds of trials we know may deceive, or sometimes be fatally transferred from one subject to another. Under this uncertainty it cannot be advisable to give it internally; though it is suspected to be frequently given by certain people, sometimes with good, but often with bad, effects.

It is commonly used by painters for a gold colour, and as a depilator, with quick-lime, at the bagnios; it is also an ingredient in the making of shot, and in the sympathetic inks, which, by their fumes, render certain invisible inks conspicuous. We have seen it in stalks of a most vivid, beautiful red, green, and yellow transparent colours, brought from abroad, in hopes of obtaining gold from it; but the experiment did not answer*.—It has been called, both by the ancients and moderns, *realger*, red arsenic, and *sandaraca*: which confusion of names has given occasion to several errors.

* See Hoffman's *Observat. Phys. Chym.* p. 259; 267.

AURUM FULMINANS, or **CROCUS OF GOLD**, is gold in fine dust, dissolved in aqua regia, and precipitated into a brown powder, by oil of tartar per deliquium, poured upon the dissolution. This powder, dried, has much more force, and takes fire sooner than gun-powder. This preparation of gold is esteemed, by the ablest chymists, as a sudorific, very proper in the small-pox, given from two grains to six. It is likewise good to stop vomiting, and suppress the too vigorous operation of mercurial medicines.

AUSTRIA, an archduchy in Germany, has Hungary on the east, Bavaria on the west, Bohemia on the north, and Styria

on the south. It is a plentiful country, and produces a great quantity of corn and pasture, and of better saffron than what comes from the Indies, besides all other necessaries. Though here is wine enough both for consumption and export, yet 'tis supplied with other rich wines both from Hungary and Italy; so that at Vienna there are no less than thirty several forts. They, not having plenty of black cattle, are supplied with great part of their beef from Hungary.

'Tis commonly distinguished by geographers into Upper and Lower Austria, and indeed is naturally so divided by the river Enns, which falls into the Danube.

LINTZ, is the capital city of Upper Austria, has an excellent manufacture of gun-barrels, a good trade in linnen cloth, and two fairs at Easter and Bartholomew-tide, much frequented by foreigners. From this place to Munich, are many plantations of hops.

GEMUND, is a town at the mouth of the Draun, where it falls into the Gemunder-lake. It has a considerable trade in salt, which is made at Halstadt in the neighbourhood, brought hither by the lake, and exported as far as Vienna, which is 118 miles from thence.

STEYER, is a town 20 miles south of Lintz, chiefly inhabited by smiths, cutlers, and other manufacturers in iron; who, by the Danube, send their wares in great quantities to the neighbouring parts.

FREYSTAT, is a town 25 miles north of Lintz, famous for a palatable beer, which is carried to the neighbouring country; and for a fortnight's annual fair, beginning on St Paul's day, which is much frequented.

KREMS, a city 40 miles west of Vienna, has a great trade, especially at it's two yearly fairs, which begin on St James's and St Simon and St Jude's days, hold each a fortnight, and are frequented by merchants and tradesmen from all parts of Germany, Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, and Poland.

BADEN, is a place of great resort, because of it's natural baths. **HAIMBURG**, was one of the greatest mart-towns in these parts, till the year 1200, when Leopold VI, duke of Austria, transferred it's staple and commerce to Vienna.

The duchy of **STYRIA**, lying between Austria and the Save, abounds with wine, fruit, mines of iron, salt, and such plenty of corn, that they want vent for it. But the Upper Styria has no wine, so that they barter wool, butter, cheese, &c. for it, with Lower Styria.

JUDENBURG, on the river Mur, 50 miles west of Gratz, and 90 south of Vienna, has two great yearly fairs, for cattle and other merchandizes, on Ascension and St Ursula's days.

BRUCK, on the river Mur, is noted for a great cattle fair.

EISENARTZ, 40 miles north-west of Gratz, is famous for it's mines and forges of iron, from whence it has it's name. The mines were discovered anno 712, and have been worked ever since, without any sensible decay. They employ 19 mills on two small rivers in the neighbourhood, with a vast number of labourers, who live here, and supply the neighbouring parts with this metal, and all Germany with steel. Here is a yearly fair, where hemp, leather, tallow, and all necessaries, are bartered for their iron and steel. Their works were formerly managed by 19 officers; but the emperor Ferdinand II. incorporated these mines of Styria and those of Austria, under a lieutenant.

GRATZ, lying on the river Mur, has two fairs a year, one in the Midlent, the other the first of September, which hold each a fortnight.

At **RAKELSBURG**, on the river Mur, the burghers have the sole privilege of purchasing all the new wines, from Michaelmas to Catharine-tide. Customs are here paid for goods that come from, and are sent to Hungary.

The duchy of **CARINTHIA**, is supplied with wine from its neighbours.

At **FRIESACH** were formerly mines of gold, that have been exhausted.

LAAS, near the famous lake of Kirchnitz, is noted for a breed of well-shaped horses.

UPPER LAUBACH, on the river Boick, is considerable, by being a mart for Italian goods, which are brought hither in great quantities over the mountains from Goritz, and sent to all parts of Germany.

The province of **WINDISCHMARK**, though a mountainous barren country, especially towards the southward, produces corn and excellent white wine.

RUDOLFSWORTH, on the river Gurck, is famous for the best wine in these parts, and at four miles distance are hot baths, much frequented by foreigners.

The province of **KARSTIA**, is remarkable for a breed of good horses, which are bought up by most of the Italian nobility.

R E M A R K S.

At **TRIESTE**, on the Adriatic sea, a sea-port belonging to the imperial hereditary dominions, are made great quantities of salt, and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine, that the Germans call reinfal, which the Venetians buy cheap, and sell for exportation. Here is a large harbour, but 'tis only frequented by small vessels just to cross

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over to Venice; though the late emperor Charles VI, who had no other sea-port in all his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Rastadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spanish Netherlands into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ships and merchants of all nations to come to it, designing to make it the center of the Austrian commerce in these parts of the world. But, the merchants of Trieste not having a flock, the Venetians themselves came among them, and carried on that very trade for them, by which they were so sanguine at one time, as to think of supplanting even Venice itself: for from this port the Venetian merchants struck into a new commerce, by the river Save to Belgrade, and thence to Sinope in the Black Sea, and likewise to Constantinople: and the most that it appears the Germans have yet done here is, to send some ships among the Archipelago islands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton-yarn, fruits, and some silk, grogam-yarn, camel's hair, and such goods. But the great misfortune which the Austrians laboured under for carrying on the great trade proposed from this port was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either of their produce or manufacture; the chief they could export, of any value, being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Styria, and the adjacent countries; which indeed is of great service to the Venetians, because they have no iron works near them.

The Venetians also have a navigation through Styria, by the river Mur, to the Danube, and so to Vienna; and they have the like in Carniola, by the great river Save, which runs into Croatia and Hungary. By these countries the Venetians receive a great quantity of large black cattle, which are bought lean, or not above half fed, from Croatia, and then brought down to the salt marshes of Venice, and fed there till they are fat. Some also are bought at the several fairs on the frontiers of Styria and Carinthia; and they are the best beef, when fed in the rich lands of Lombardy, that is to be found in those parts of the world. Upon the whole therefore, the trade of this new free port is not likely to answer the end proposed; yet the merchants here keep up their expectations of trade, and lately talked of erecting some manufactures of wool and silk, that they might have something more to export besides iron.

The house of Austria have a noble revenue from the rich wine made and sold at Proseg, which is about 7 miles north-west of Trieste.

WIPACK, standing on the river of the same name, is also famous for it's strong wine and horse-fairs, which yield the house of Austria great profit. The wine goes by horse carriage over the mountains to Carniola, and is from thence conveyed into the empire.

The Bishoprick of **BRIXEN**, though lying among the Alps, abounds with excellent wine. The city of Brixen is the station of some merchants between Germany and Italy. Here their best shops are kept in vaults, which run from one side of the street to the other.

TIROL, has Swabia and Bavaria on the north, the Grisons and Trent on the south, Carinthia on the east, and Switzerland on the west. Here are mines of silver, iron, and copper, but the latter much short of what they were formerly, when they constantly employed 30,000 people, but now not 2000. From these mines of metal, and others of salt, the emperor has a considerable revenue; and they fill the country with greater numbers of people than it would be able to bear, without the importation of corn from foreign parts.

At **WAHRINGEN**, all their substance and trade is in cattle. They have no corn but what comes from Bavaria.

SCHWATZ, three leagues from Inspruck, is noted for mines of silver.

HALLE, the second city of Tirol, is famous for it's salt works, where several hundred men are constantly employed, either in the works, or cutting fuel for them. The chief of them are in the mountains, four miles from the town; but the water 'tis made of, after having stood a month in the trenches there, is brought to the town by troughs, to be boiled in great pans or cisterns, each 48 feet long, 34 broad, and three deep. Three of them are continually boiling, and one of them rests a week alternately. Mr. Addison, who was here above 40 years ago, says, they then made after the rate of 800 loaves a week, each loaf 400 weight; and that the emperor, after having defrayed all the charges of working it, cleared but 200,000 crowns a-year.

These salt-works, and a mint established here, have rendered this town, though so near to Inspruck, almost as populous as that capital. Here they coin a great quantity of specie from the silver and copper taken out of the mines of Tirol, in which, 'tis said, 7000 men, women, and children are constantly employed, and the water is brought to it by wooden pipes. They drive also a great trade in copper and tin, as well as salt; the vent whereof is much promoted by the river Inn, which here becomes navigable.

At **INSBRUCK**, the capital of Tirol, was formerly made great store of salt, but for some years past the pits have been dry, which is reckoned a loss to the city, of no less than 200,000 florins a year.

MERAN, 30 miles south of Inspruck, is a place of good trade.

BOLZANO, as it is called by the Italians, or **POZEN** by the Germans, 12 German miles from Inspruck, is a place of good trade, especially at it's four yearly fairs, which hold each a fortnight, and to which great numbers of merchants resort from Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, for whose sake great privileges have been granted to the city. During these fairs, merchants are allowed magistrates and judges of their own, distinct from those of the town; and none are permitted to trade, without being entered in the judge's books, and a certificate of the entry under the seal of the corporation.

At **ROVEREDO**, on the east side of Adige, 11 miles south of Trent, and 29 north of Verona, the most remarkable thing, and what they call the great wonder at Roveredo, is it's spinning house for the manufacture of silk, in which they have a great trade here; a fabric being erected to carry it on upon the banks of a little brook, which turns a large wheel that communicates motion to a machine within the house, that spins raw-silk without any body's touching it, farther than to set it a-going: and it is remarkable, that it throws or winds off, a least 600 pounds weight of silk at once, so that it makes a prodigious quantity in a day. When this silk is dyed, it is manufactured into satins, damasks, velvets, and other stuffs, which are sold at the fairs of Bolzano, and from thence transported to Germany.

The AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

They contain the following ten provinces, viz.

The earldom of Artois.

The earldom of Cambresis.

The duchy of Luxemburg.

The duchy of Limburg.

The earldom of Namur.

The earldom of Hainault.

The earldom of Flanders.

The marquisate of the Holy Empire.

The lordship of Mechlin.

The duchy of Brabant.

To which may be added the bishoprick and principality of Liege.

As the provinces of Artois and Cambresis belong entirely to France, we shall only touch them here occasionally, in the following account of the Austrian Netherlands, and refer to the particular provinces which belong to France, under their names.

The Austrian Netherlands are bounded by the United Provinces on the north, by Germany on the east, by French Flanders, and by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy on the south, and by another part of Picardy and the English sea on the west.

This spot was once the center of the woollen manufactures, which we have now the satisfaction to call the English manufactures, originally derived from the Flemings; whose country was thereby immensely populous and enriched.

The materials for these manufactures, particularly the wool and the fuller's earth, they had from England. As the wool of the English by this means brought them in considerable wealth, they did not see their error till about the year 1450, when they began to think, that these manufactures might as well be made in England as in Flanders, or the Low-Countries; and their own people be employed in this prodigious scene of traffic, to the enriching of themselves rather than their neighbours.

On these motives, they wisely put a stop to the exportation of wool; the clothing was gradually encouraged in England, by the means of manufacturers obtained from the Netherlands, to instruct our people in making the cloth, as well as duly managing of the wool for that purpose.

Though the people of England made a great progress in the manufacture, yet 'twas many years before they were able absolutely to supply their own consumption. The Flemings had still the whole woollen trade to all the rest of the world; and these manufactures made at Ghent, Bruges, Brussels, Lisle, and all the great cities of Flanders, Hainault, Artois, and other provinces on that side, were vented in France and Spain; and those made in Brabant, Utrecht, Holland, Gueldre, and all the provinces on that side, were sent to Germany, Lorrain, Switzerland, &c. by the navigation of the Rhine and the Elbe.

By the advantageous war England had with Spain, under the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who exerted the utmost pitch of policy for the encouragement of commerce, they not only supplied their own country amply with the woollen manufactures, but began to supply others; great quantities of fine cloths being exported in her reign, to Turkey and Persia, Venice and Naples.

To complete the ruin of the Flemings, in this important manufacture, the exportation of our wool was absolutely prohibited, and the principal artists came to England, and set up their manufactures here. And the Spaniards, at that critical time, being seized with a religious frenzy, persecuted this people, who fled to England by thousands, as an asylum; and, from that period, we may date the effectual establishment of this glorious manufacture in England, and it's destruction to our predecessors.

As these refugee Flemings were protestants, and generally manufacturers; so, in order to carry on their trade here, according to the great encouragement given them by the queen, they settled in several parts of the kingdom, as were the most convenient for their purpose, and established such manufactures in these places, as they were bred to in their own country; as the stuff-makers, at Norwich; the coarse cloth and kersey-makers, at Leeds, Hallifax, and Wakefield; the serge-makers at Exeter; the haize-makers at Colchester: and there were Dutch churches established in all those places, by Queen Elizabeth's patents for their encouragement.

But, as this antient manufacture could not be suddenly extirpated absolutely from among the Flemings in their own country, those ingenious and industrious people kept on such manufactures as they were able; as particularly that of coarse-tapestry, made at the city of Arras, in Artois, as also at Doway, St Omers, and the parts adjacent; of which they continue to make pretty large quantities to this day, as also of some coarse druggert-stuffs made at Ypres, and other parts; some whereof are used in England for beds, hangings of rooms, &c. Thus they struggled as long as they could.

But, these being deprived of their fund of wool, the people were gradually obliged to turn their hands to other things; which brought them to the making of lace and linnen, to silk weaving, and to other business of various kinds. For the Flemings and Walloons are so industrious a people, that, notwithstanding the loss of this great trade, which was the life of their whole country, yet they have retained many valuable manufactures.

The manufactures, carried on in these provinces at present, are as follow:

1. Lace, known by the name of bone-lace, of which the finest and best of the kind, in Europe, is said to be made at Brussels. The variety hereof is very great: and they tell us of lace made in that part of the country, from 30 to 50 l. sterling per yard: by which extraordinary improvement they have so far out-done the French and Italians, and even the Venetians themselves, that these last have very little trade for their lace, though they were once justly famed for the finest in the world.

The principal places for this manufacture are, Mechlin, or Malines, Brussels, Louvain, Valenciennes, Antwerp, and all the adjacent towns; and it employs a great number of people, especially women and children.

2. Fine thread, is another of their manufactures; the great quantity of fine lace requiring a great quantity of fine thread, as their linnens require a proportionable quantity of linnen-yarn; and both these together constitute another manufacture of no little concern to these people.

3. Their manufacture of linnen is very considerable. Their linnen consists of two sorts chiefly, viz. Cambricks and lawns. Their cambricks have been made so fine, as to have been sold from 20 to 30 s. per yard in London. They were formerly made only in the provinces of Artois* and Cambresis †, from which last they had their name of cambricks; but, the demand for them being so great of late years, the whole country has been little enough to carry on this manufacture, especially that part of it bordering on France, together with the great cities of Doway §, Lisle ||, Mons ‡, Ypres †, Ghent **, and Bruges ††. Besides these cambricks, there is a great manufacture of linnen at Ghent and Bruges, and all the cities upon the Lower Schelde; which manufacture also is of a magnitude greater than can easily be represented.

* Artois is a principality of the French Netherlands, situate between Flanders and Picardy.

† Cambresis also is in the French Netherlands, situate on the river Schelde, near it's source, near Valenciennes and Doway.

§ Doway, a city of the French Netherlands, in the principality of Flanders, situate on the river Scharpe, about 14 miles south of Lisle.

|| Lisle, in the French Netherlands, is situate on the river Dente, about 25 miles north of Arras, and 12 miles west of Tournay; a large populous city, which has not only large manufactures of fine cambricks and linnens, but of silk, in great perfection, and their camblets also are much admired.

‡ Mons, a city of the Austrian Netherlands, capital of the principality of Hainault, situate 26 miles south-west of Brussels, and 22 miles south-east of Tournay.

† Ypres, or Ypres, a city of the Austrian Netherlands. It has a pretty good trade, chiefly in the silk and woollen manufactures.

** Ghent, a city of the Austrian Netherlands, capital of the principality of Flanders. Not only the linnen, but the silk and woollen manufactures flourish here at present. They have also a great trade for corn, and it is exceedingly well situated for a foreign commerce, by the numerous rivers and canals.

†† Bruges, a city and port town in Austrian Flanders, situate 11 miles east of Ostend, and 24 north-west of Ghent. This was formerly the great staple for English wool, and has still the best foreign trade of any town in Flanders.

Where so great manufactures are carried on, the yarn and thread which must be spun, bleached, twined, and otherwise manufactured

manufactured for every sort of these goods, must employ a vast multitude of hands; and those hands, being thus in full employ, must consume a prodigious quantity of provisions, and that of course must afford a great trade.

4. The fourth manufacture the Flemings are employed in, is that of the woollen, which includes the tapestry made at Arras, Dourlens, Doway, and the adjacent country: also some druggets, and fine stuffs made at Lille, and in the country near it: most of which are however consumed among themselves, though some go into France.

5. Another manufacture, wherein the Flemings have of late years very much improved, is that of silk; for they not only make, at present, sufficient for their own use, but for exportation. These they make now chiefly at Lille, Brussels, and Antwerp: and this manufacture was greatly encouraged by the public, inasmuch that the Flemings, in the year 1725, began to direct the New East-India company, then attempted to be established at Ostend, to bring no more silks into the country, lest it should prove the means to supplant and destroy their own manufacture of silk, which employed so many thousands of their people.

R E M A R K S.

It was about the year 1717, when some persons who had been in the service of the East India company of England, having had a misunderstanding with the company, in relation to private trade, and resenting the treatment they received upon that occasion, made vigorous attempts to establish an East-India company in Flanders, under the protection of the imperial government there, and so to trade as interlopers, but in the form of an established company.

After having conferred with some eminent merchants in London, it was resolved to try the practicability of this undertaking; and accordingly two captains, and some merchants, were appointed to go over to Flanders; and, in conjunction with some other merchants there, to see what could be done in the affair.

The marquis du Prie was then governor of the Austrian Netherlands for the emperor; and the merchants who went over, soon found means to acquaint him with the design: it seems the first proposals were very specious, promising a great advantage to the country, and a great revenue to the emperor himself, on condition of obtaining a charter from his imperial majesty for an exclusive trade, as in England and Holland.

By this application, they obtained of the marquis a licence for one ship to go to the Indies, carrying the emperor's colours, and with privilege to call themselves the emperor's subjects.

Having gained their point thus far, and got some considerable merchants in Flanders to join with them, a subscription of 200,000 l. was raised among them, to be enlarged as they should find encouragement, and to serve for the outfit of one ship first, resolving to send away another soon after, and then to enlarge the trade, as they saw fit.

Having made this advance, the merchants and captains returned to England, bought a new ship upon the stocks, which was almost ready to launch, and fitted her out in the river; at one time it was pretended that she was to go to Cadiz, and thence to America, with the Spanish galleons, and that she was fitting for the account of some merchants in Spain: at other times it was given out that she was to go to the Mississippi, for account of the French; then, that she was bought for the French East-India company, and was to go immediately over to Dunkirk, and there take in goods, or at St Malo's and the like.

But, whatever the pretences were, the thing was carried so privately, that the ship, taking in her provisions and stores of all kinds, and being victualled for a long voyage, sailed for Ostend; the captain and most of the men being English. She made no stay at Ostend, but to take in the rest of her cargo, and a quantity of money, with orders to touch at Cadiz, and take in the rest there; which was accordingly done.

The second ship was bought, fitted, stored, and manned, in the same manner, in the river Thames, and sailed some months after; no umbrage being as yet taken in England at the design, at least not so as to obstruct it: though it was not possible to keep it so secret, but that it was known to our East-India company, who obtained a prohibition against them, in common with others, who pretended to build or buy ships in England, for the service of the French East-India company.

These two ships returned in the usual time, richly laden, and made prosperous voyages: and the goods, being publicly sold, found a very good market, being most of them bought by the merchants of England and Holland: so that the new adventurers were enabled to fit out more ships, and make handsome presents to their government; and even such as encouraged the emperor, upon farther application, to grant them a charter in form, under his sign manual first, and afterwards under the great seal of the Austrian government, with all the accustomed privileges of a trading company.

But, before this was obtained, they fitted out three ships more, having also enlarged their capital to six millions of guilders, though not all paid in. These ships also came home safe, and richly laden: and now it began to be published in the world, as well what considerable advantages they had made, as also what powers and privileges they had obtained from his imperial majesty; and even their stock began to sell, and be transferred as the stock of other companies in England:

also more ships being yearly fitted out, it appeared that the trade so increased, as gave the other East-India companies, both in England and Holland, no little uneasiness.

At length the Dutch made strong remonstrances, as well at Brussels as at Vienna, in order to obtain from the emperor a revocation of this charter, as did likewise the king of Great-Britain, by his ambassador at Vienna, but all to no purpose; and it was easy to find by the answers at Vienna, that nothing was to be expected there, the emperor resenting the making such an application; and insinuating, that he had as much right to empower his subjects to trade to the East-Indies, as the states of Holland, or the king of England, had theirs: taking it ill, that any power or prince should pretend to question his right, and particularly menacing the Dutch, if they should offer any interruption to the commerce of his subjects. During those applications, the new alliance between the emperor and the king of Spain, distinguished by the name of the remarkable Vienna treaty, took place, which gave so much disturbance in Europe; the consequence whereof was the forming a counter-alliance between Great-Britain, France, and Prussia, concluded at Hanover, and called the Hanover treaty.

These new alliances proved very unhappy to this new company: for the Dutch, according after some time to the Hanover treaty, made the dissolution of this new company one of the essential points, without which, they absolutely refused so much as to treat of any accommodation with the emperor.

The company, however, having received three ships very rich, and whose cargoes, public and private, sold for more than three millions of guilders, dispatched seven more to India, where they had five before; so that they then had twelve ships actually abroad.

Nor did this new company aim only at securing to the Flemings a share in the commerce of the East Indies; they pushed at various other branches of trade: to which end, they undertook the making of salt by some new application. 'Twas said also, that they resolved to erect a fishery, as well the great as the small fishery, as the Dutch distinguish them; that is to say, the whale fishing at Greenland, and the herring-fishery at Shetland.

But the Hanover allies, particularly the English and the Dutch, continuing inflexible with regard to the dissolving of this new company, the emperor was, at length, under the necessity of complying; which put an end to the erection of another new East-India company in Europe, which would certainly have proved highly detrimental to all the others.

Further R E M A R K S.

As these manufactures are so considerable in Flanders, and employ such infinite numbers of people, especially in the spinning and weaving part (for the making of fine bone-lace is a kind of weaving, and is called so by the makers) so it has two particular consequences attending it.

1. It keeps the people together in a body; so that the great multitude of people, which the woollen manufacture first brought together in these provinces, are not separated or lessened, but the country continues still populous to a prodigy; nor do you see any idle, or out of business, and none very poor, or at least very few. These are the happy effects of industry and commerce.

2. This domestic trade necessarily creates a great foreign trade, where the situation will admit of it, which is the case here; for, although the country is exceeding fruitful, as well in corn as cattle, yet they receive great quantities of provisions from other countries: thus, by the river Schelde, they receive supplies of corn from Holland, as by the Maese they also do from France, from Germany, and from Lorraine.

By the sea likewise they receive supplies of flesh, butter, leather, tallow, and other provisions, and that in such quantities, that they have not less frequently than 200 ships a year laden with butter, chiefly from Ireland; and sometimes a far greater number, including other provisions. They have also no inconsiderable importation of brandy, and of wine, prunes, oranges, and lemons, and other fruits; the first from France, the other from Portugal and Spain.

It is by means of their exports, that they are enabled to pay for these imports.

For these they have a considerable trade to France, to Germany, and to Holland, for their lace; for, although in all those countries there are greater quantities of lace made, yet, the Flemings so greatly exceeding them in fineness and beauty of workmanship, the French court itself and all the principal nobility and gentry, are from thence supplied, and nothing is to be seen but Brussels lace; and the like at all the courts in Germany, that of Vienna not excepted.

As most of these countries make fine linnens themselves, and especially France, the chief vent for the fine lawns and cambricks made in those provinces, is into Great-Britain and Ireland, Spain and Portugal: and the Dutch too, since the mode of wearing cambricks instead of muslins has so shamefully prevailed in England, begin to run into the same folly, and buy their fine lawns from the Flemings.

So considerable are the exports of these manufactures, that very good judges have estimated them at no less, in fine sifter thread, bone-lace, and linnen, including their lawns and cambricks, than to the value of two millions sterling a year, from

from those provinces we now call the Aultrian Netherlands, including part of the conquered provinces, as that which we call Walloon Flanders, and the province of Artois. Nor in this account is there included their export of tapestry, or woollen stuffs, nor of cotton or silk; of all which they export large quantities into France and Germany.

They carry on no inconsiderable trade with England, for leather, malt-spirits, hats, cutlery, and all manner of wrought iron and brass, the manufactures of Sheffield and Birmingham. They import, also, a good deal of cotton, cotton-yarn, grom, and goat's hair, and goods of the Turkey and Venetian merchants, imported from the Levant; by means of which they have large manufactures in cloths of cotton, something like our fustians and dimitties of Manchester.

The situation of this country, interspersed throughout with navigable rivers, and these rivers passing through innumerable cities and populous towns, implies that there must be a great inland traffic; and this, indeed, in proportion to the extent of territory, is a prodigious business.

They have, 'tis true, but one port of consequence, and that is Ostend; as for Newport, it has little trade belonging to it, except that of fishing, which, in the season, is very considerable of it's kind. But this port of Ostend is the principal harbour of Flanders; for the Schelde is so intirely blocked up at Lillo, that the city of Antwerp hardly merits the name of a port, though otherwise one of the finest rivers and harbours in the world.

From Ostend is a large canal to the city of Bruges, which is able to carry vessels of 200 tons up to the city; so that ships pass directly to Bruges, without stopping at Ostend, only passing through it as a port: whence it follows, that there are abundance of merchants at Bruges, as well as at Ostend, and some tell us more.

From hence the imported merchandizes are dispersed over the whole country, and into others also; for smaller canals pass from Bruges to the Schelde, at the city of Ghent; and from thence canals lie again to several other cities; and the river Schelde, the Scarpe, and the Lys transport their merchandizes up to Tournay, to Menin, Lisle, and Doway, and again by the north to Antwerp, Louvain, Mechlin, and Brussels.

From Ostend they have canals likewise within land, and parallel with the sea, to Newport; thence to Ypres one way, and to France and Dunkirk another, and I need not say whither afterwards, Dunkirk having an easy communication, by water, or by land, with all French Flanders, Artois, and even into France itself.

In stating of the commerce of the Netherlands, we ought not to regard what has been done in matters of war and government; what has been yielded to one prince, what to another; 'tis the trade of the place, not the government, or possession thereof which we are so strictly to regard; and, therefore, Dunkirk ought to be looked on as a part of the Netherlands; and it's trade, considered as a free port, is indeed the trade of Flanders; that is, as we take Flanders to be a common name, by which we understand the whole Netherlands, whether French, Flemish, or Walloon.

Nor is this improper, seeing that, as Dunkirk is a free port, where goods from all parts may be entered and landed duty-free, the entrance of goods into the Flemish or the Aultrian division of Flanders, by the canal of Furnes, or by any other conveyance, from Dunkirk, is all one as an entrance from the sea: so that, whenever ships unload at Dunkirk any goods to be sent into the Aultrian Flanders, it is to the Flemish trade all one as if imported at Ostend; and the customs to the emperor are payable in the place where the goods first enter his dominions.

It is the same with the trade between the provinces of the States-General and the Aultrian Netherlands, the Dutch, by the navigation of the Schelde, carrying on a great commerce with the Aultrian Netherlands. These rivers, which empty themselves into the Schelde, are blocked up, as the Schelde is also, by the Dutch, who have forts at the entrance of all passages, and, in particular, command the grand channel of the Schelde, which goes up to Antwerp, by the strong fort of Lillo, as they do the canal up to Ghent, by the fort called the Sas van Ghent, as also the canal to Bruges, by the town of Sluyce.

But, as these forts shut out the Flemings from a free commerce that way by sea, which, if they did not, Antwerp would again rival the city of Amsterdam; yet these forts do not hinder the Flemings from having a great trade with the Dutch, by these rivers, and the Dutch with them; and it is by this method that the Dutch carry on a trade between Great-Britain and France, in time of war.

Thus the Schelde is an open port to Flanders, for it's trade to Holland, and with the Dutch, because they can bring nothing in that way but what comes through the hands of the Dutch; but at Dunkirk it is otherwise; for a ship entering at Dunkirk, suppose from Spain or Italy, whose loading belongs to a Flemish merchant at Ypres or Bruges, the cargo is put on board the bylanders, and carried directly to these towns, in the same manner as, and paying no other customs or duties than, if they had been unladen at Ostend: and, therefore, Dunkirk is still as much a port to Flanders, in effect, as Ostend is, and ought, in our account of trade, to be taken in that light.

Hence it appears, that those are greatly mistaken who think, as most that speak of this part of the world do, that the Flemings have but a trifling foreign trade, and but one sea-port, that of Ostend. It is evident they have, in effect, many ports, but especially Ostend and Dunkirk are, as to all the uses and purposes of trade, equally their ports.

It is true, Dunkirk, since the ruin of it's harbour and piers, is not so good a port for the bringing great ships into as it was, and as Ostend is, and is likely to be: and this proves what has been often said, that the demolishing the harbour of Dunkirk was a greater blow to the Flemish commerce than to the French.

However, the merchants, though with some difficulty, do find means to unload the large ships at Dunkirk still, by sending hoys and bylanders out into the road to them; so that the Flemings have yet a considerable trade by that port, and bring in many goods, especially by their coasting trade, as wines, brandies, and other goods from France, by that channel.

Here also they carry on a considerable trade with Spain and Italy, and also with Ireland, and some with England too: which commerce, especially that with Ireland, is very advantageous to them; as Ireland, notwithstanding all the encouragement given to the linnen manufacture there from England, yet takes off a great quantity of the fine manufactures of Flanders, such as lace, lawns, and cambricks; also tapestry, and fine carpets and carpet work; in return for which, they receive butter, hides, leather, tallow, beef, and fish; and, which is very much to our loss, wool, and worsted-yarn, spun in Ireland; which is to be feared is at present carried to this country in large quantities: nor can the truth of this be much questioned, considering how gainful a trade it is to the Irish to export, as well as the Flemings to import.

Besides what has been said at first, it must be observed, that the Flemings have a very considerable product of fine flax, the growth of their own soil, improved from the industry of their own people, and of the finest kind that is to be found any where; so that, although it is a prodigious quantity that they use in their manufactures, yet they do not send to Riga and Dantzick, as the Dutch do, much less do they buy their fine linnen-yarn from Silesia, as the Dutch do, for the wool, or flout, of all their fine hollands, and which, therefore, they say is the cause that the Dutch hollands are not so serviceable and lasting as those made in Flanders.

This product of flax employs abundance of their land, as well as a great many hands in gathering, curing, dressing, and managing it, before it comes to the hands of the fine spinners, who are so curious in the spinning, as to make those threads from which the fine lawns and fine bone-lace are wrought. Nor can the quantity of flax but be exceeding great, because there must be a vast deal of coarse and ordinary stuff in a manner thrown away, in order to dress the rest to such a degree of fineness as is necessary.

Of the coarser flax, they make a kind of sail-cloth, for the use of their bylanders, hoys, and other vessels and boats, upon their inland waters, of which they have a prodigious number.

Besides all these manufactures, they have been some years since creeping into the woollen manufacture, by the means of Irish wool, and what other they certainly procure from England. At Vianden in the duchy of Luxemburg, they have a considerable trade in woollen cloth, with which they furnish the whole duchy. At Limburg and Mons they have no inconsiderable manufactures for woollen stuffs. At Ghent, in Aultrian Flanders, they have large manufactures of cloths and stuffs; of which it is said there is so great a quantity made here, together with silks, that, among the 50 companies of tradesmen, those relating to commodities of this nature make one third. Nor are Bruges and Courtray, and Diert and Boldne in Brabant, without a great trade in woollen cloths.

These are the effects of suffering our neighbours to come at our wool at any rate; and, if what has been said be true, that they have for some years past found a way to bring wool and yarn from England and Ireland, the Flemings, who are a most industrious and ingenious people, and the most addicted to the woollen manufactures of any nation in the whole world, may do us some injury, as well as other nations, in our staple manufactures: but, if we deprive them of materials, we may effectually prevent it.

There are two things which employ many hands in these provinces, and which, though not very considerable in themselves, are deserving of some notice.

The one is painting.

It is scarce credible what a number of people are employed in this single article: and, as the spinning and making bone-lace is chiefly the employment of the women, so this, and the weaving, is a great part of the employment of the men.

The principal places for this are Antwerp, Mechlin, and Louvain, though some is done at Brussels. The Flemings, indeed, have a particular genius for painting; and they have now, as well as they had formerly, some of the best masters. They are remarkable for excelling at designing, and that there is more humour and fancy in some of their drawings, than is to be met with either among the French or the Dutch; nay, that some of them come up to the Italians themselves.

Where they dispose of them need not be said, all Christendom sending to Antwerp for pictures; and some of the finest altar-pieces in Spain, where they are extremely curious in their church-paintings, are performed by Flemish masters, and generally bought at Antwerp.

The Flemings are not only good painters, but the people are universally lovers of pictures, and, consequently, their houses are filled with curious pieces; nay, 'tis ordinary to see good paintings in the meanest cottages; even the boors will have them, and tell you such a piece is done by such a hand, and such a master, and pride themselves in their knowledge in that art, and it's professors.

And, if the poorer houses are thus set off, how may we presume are the houses of the rich burghers and merchants adorned? and still more those of the gentry and nobility? It is not to be described, or the value of their paintings to be estimated.

The other article is that of shipwrights: not that the Flemings, who have but two ports, can be supposed to build abundance of ships; nor, indeed, can they do it, having no place proper for it, or materials for the work; but, by ships here, is meant only galliots, hoys, lighters, bylanders, and such like vessels, all which they call ships.

Of these they have such great numbers, that there must be abundance of hands employed in building them, and especially in the constant repairing and refitting, which they are always wanting.

It would be very difficult to make a probable guess, or to calculate the number, of these vessels. In time of war it is frequent to have 7 or 800 of them brought together, for the carrying of provisions, military stores, ammunition, and the like; and 'tis likely they have not less than 20,000 of these sort of vessels in all the provinces.

And these are all built within themselves; and it is no little trade that they are obliged to carry on for the supply of deals, timber, planks, masts, yards, anchors, iron-works, and other materials for this work, besides pitch, tar, oil, hemp, &c. For this purpose, indeed, they do not carry on any considerable trade to Norway, Sweden, or the Baltic, but are generally supplied by the Dutch, or by ships directly from Norway and Sweden, the Flemings having very few ships proper for these trades.

When these things are considered, we need not wonder how all this great multitude of people, who inhabit these provinces, are employed and maintained. The carrying on such valuable manufactures must employ innumerable hands; and the quantity of goods they export must bring great returns home, as well in goods as money; by which the Flemings are far from being poor. On the contrary, they are generally well-circumstanced, there being very few hands among them but can get their bread; the very children, even from five years old, are ordinarily employed, and earn their maintenance.

In regard to industry, they are an example to the whole world; there is nothing can live where they starve: nothing is idle among them that can sustain any degree of labour; the women plow and sow, reap and bind; the men thresh, and not only the horses carry, but the very dogs do the same, for they are harnessed, and draw their cars like our horses, and that not in jest, or for trifles, but draw, in proportion to their strength, very heavy loads; particularly the dogs draw little carts with fowls, fish, provisions, and especially all sorts of greens and roots, and garden-stuff, to the markets. This brings me to speak of their provisions, which are in exceeding great plenty, and extremely cheap. This makes labour cheap, and the manufacturers work low; by which means, considering the firmness of the goods they make, no nation can under-work them.

The universal navigation of the rivers, and the multitude of canals in this country, is a mighty advantage to their trade, and does not a little contribute to render every thing cheap among them: travelling from place to place, and carriage of goods to the several markets, costs so little, that it is scarce worth naming.

The plenty of provisions being so great, is a token of the general fertility of the soil; and this is not only exerted in the product of corn and flax, but the pasturage is also very rich, and they feed abundance of very good cattle, especially horses, very large and useful, as well for country service as for the mounting their cavalry, only with two exceptions,

1. That they are rather too large, and, consequently, heavy; otherwise, they are very strong, and of good spirit.

2. That they are generally grey, as being more easily discerned by an enemy in sieges, and other occasions, in the dark. The largest of this breed are used as coach horses, and have been much esteemed by persons of the first rank, as well for their beauty as for their extraordinary size; in both which we see no country excel them. They are not of late so much valued as formerly, the fashions and fancies of courts varying. Another product of their land, especially of the lower and marshy grounds, is turf for fuel; for, as the climate is cold, and sometimes severely so, and having no coals but what comes from England, so the country is not able to supply wood sufficient for such multitudes of people. They have, indeed,

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large woods in Brabant, Hainault, and the countries upon the Maëse, but not equal to the multitudes of families which must be supplied for their ordinary fuel, if they burned wood. This is abundantly made up by the turf, which is chiefly made in the Lower Flanders, and the countries bordering upon the frontiers, and is brought by water to Bruges, Ghent, and all the great cities upon the Schelde and the Scarpe, the Dender, the Rypel, the Lys, and even to Lille and Douay.

This article is an exceeding great branch of business, as it employs not only a great number of people in digging and curing the turf, but also abundance of vessels, boats, barges, and bylanders, in the carriage of it from one town to another.

AUVERGNE, a province in France, is bounded on the north by Bourbonnais; on the east by Forez; on the south by Rouergue and the Cevennes; and, on the west, by Upper Limosin, Quercy, and la Marche. Lower Auvergne, which is also called Limagne, is one of the most fruitful countries in the world. Upper Auvergne is not so fruitful; however, there are here good pastures, where they feed a prodigious quantity of black cattle, which enrich this country, because they send their oxen and cows, when fattened, to Lyons and Paris; they sell a so a great many of them to the people of Nivernois, Berry, and Guienne, who make use of them to till the ground. Besides this, they make in Upper Auvergne a great deal of cheese, which they sell at Paris, in Brittany, Guienne, and Languedoc, and even abroad. And, as they have a great many iron mines in this country, so it abounds with forge, where they make all sorts of the iron manufacture. Lower Auvergne produces corn, wine, and other fruits.

At ST FLOUR is kept a fair, where they sell a great number of mules, which are sent into Languedoc, Spain, and other countries. This is also a considerable mart for rye, the country about it abounding with that sort of corn.

At AURILLAC is a considerable trade of thread-laces.

Most of the inhabitants of MURAT are braisers; they make also here a great many thread laces.

At MAURIAU they have a pretty good trade, and they keep several fairs, in which they sell all sorts of cattle, and especially horses, which are reckoned the best in France.

The city of CLERMONT is rich and well peopled.

At RIEM is an office for the finances, and a court of the mint.

THIERS is one of the most populous cities of Auvergne, and most considerable for its trade, which consists chiefly in iron and steel wares, paper, cards, paste-boards, and thread, which they send all over Europe, and even into the Indies. There is here a consularship for the merchants.

AMBERT is considerable by its trade, and especially by its manufactory of paper.

The harbour of VIALE, being but a quarter of a league distant from the city of Maringue, makes it have a pretty good trade, the merchants of the neighbouring country keeping their warehouses here.

As PONT-DU-CHAËTEL is nearer Clermont than Maringue is, and consequently more convenient for the trade that is carried on by water from Auvergne to Paris, it becomes daily more considerable than Maringue.

ISSOIRE is noted for a good breed of horses, and is a town of good trade in corn and wine.

ARDES, being situate on the borders of Upper and Lower Auvergne, in a very fruitful country, is in a manner the staple town for the trade that is carried on between these two parts of the province.

AWARD, is the decision given by arbitrators, or by an umpire; chosen by them, in cases referred to be determined by arbitrators. See ARBITER, or ARBITRATOR.

1. The arbitrators ought to give their award within the time limited by the compromise, and it will be null, if it were given after the said time is expired; for their power is then at an end, and they are no longer arbitrators.

2. The parties may give power to the arbitrators to prolong the time; and, in this case, their power lasts during the time of their prorogation.

3. If the compromise regulates a certain time for instructing the cause which the arbitrators are to decide, they cannot give their award, till the said time is expired.

4. The arbitrators having once given their award, they cannot retract it, nor change any thing in it: for the compromise was only to give them power to give an inward, and, when that is done, their power is at an end; but their power is not at an end by an interlocutory sentence*, or an incident in the cause, and they may give different interlocutory sentences on such incidents, as often as occasion requires.

* An interlocutory sentence is not that which decides the cause, but only settles some intervening or preliminary matter, relating to the matter in dispute.

5. If there are several arbitrators named by the compromise, they cannot give their award, unless they all see the process, and give judgment of it together: and, although the greater part had given the award in the absence of one who was named with the others, yet the award would be null, because the absent person ought to have been one of the judges; and, had he been present, he might have been able, by his reasoning, to bring the other arbitrators over to his opinion.

6. The arbitrators can judge of nothing else besides that which is submitted to their judgment by the compromise, and they must observe the conditions which are there prescribed; and, if they judge otherwise, their award is null.

Where there appears a manifest error in the body of an award, in some cases there may be relief against it in equity: but where the error does not appear without unravelling of it, and examining into matters of account, not relievable. 1 Vern. 158.

If A and B of the one part, and C of the other part, submit to arbitration, the arbitrators may make an award, not only of matters in difference between A and B jointly, or A and B separately, and C, but also of matters between A and B only. 1 Vern. 259.

An award made, pursuant to an order of court, must be confirmed, as in the case of a master's report; and either side has a liberty to except to it, and, when so confirmed, the cause may be set down for hearing upon the award. Vern. 470. An award set aside, it appearing the arbitrators were interested in the cargo, touching which the award was made. 2 Vern. 251.

Arbitrators promise to hear witnesses, but make their award without doing so. Award set aside. 1b.

Arbitrators, if they could not agree, were to chuse an umpire. They make no award, and, not agreeing about the person to be umpire, they throw crofs and pile who should chuse him. The umpire made his award, and it was set aside, by reason of his being chosen in that manner. 2 Vern. 485.

Suppose the submission is to three, or any two of them. After all the arbitrators had had several meetings, and heard the parties, two of them make an award privately, without notice to the other arbitrator. Award set aside. 2 Vern. 514. If a submission is to three, or any two of them, and two by fraud or force exclude the other; that alone, is sufficient to vitiate the award. 1b. 515.

Private meetings of the arbitrators with one of the parties, and admitting him to be heard to induce an alteration in the intended award is partiality. 1b. 515.

If arbitrators go upon a plain mistake, either as to law or fact, equity will relieve against the award. 1b. 705.

A party submitting to an award, desired the arbitrator to defer making his award, until he should satisfy him as to some things which the arbitrator took to be against him; though this was within two or three days before the time for making the award was out, yet, the request not being complied with, the award was held ill. 3 Peer Will. 361. See ARBITER and ARBITRATION.

AWME, or **AUME**, a Dutch liquid measure, containing eight steckans, or 20 verges, or vertels: equal to the tierce in England, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of a ton of France.

AZIMUTH COMPASS, an instrument made in a large box, with jambols, and a broad limb, having 90 deg. diagonally divided with an index and thread, to take the sun's amplitude or azimuth, in order to find the difference between the magnetical meridian, and the sun's meridian, which shews the variation of the compass.

AZOGA SHIPS, are those Spanish ships, commonly called the quicksilver ships, from their carrying quicksilver or mercury from them to the Spanish West-Indies, in order to extract the silver out of the mines in Peru and Mexico. But it is a great mistake to imagine, that these ships are absolutely laden with quicksilver only, that being too ponderous a body.

They are not, strictly speaking, to carry any goods, unless for the king of Spain's account; but they are generally full laden, notwithstanding this regulation; by reason that the merchants procure special licences of the king to load, upon paying a consideration for such licences.

Besides quicksilver, these ships carry also fruit and spice for the king's account, and sometimes military stores for the forces in New Spain; as also iron, which is called the king's merchandize.

Of the use and application of mercury in working of the silver mines in Spanish America, we shall give an ample account under the province of Charcas, in the south part of Peru in South America, wherein is a silver mine at the bottom of the mountain of Potosi, which is esteemed the richest mine that ever was discovered; and from whence the Spaniards have extracted many hundred ship-loads of treasure.

AZORES ISLANDS. These islands, which are seven in number, besides the two small ones of Flores and Corvo, lie in a kind of cluster, on the western or Atlantic Ocean, between 37 and 40 degrees of latitude, and 21 and 26 of longitude, west from London. These islands are all allowed to be very fertile in corn, wine, variety of fruits, and to breed great quantities of cattle.

I. **ST. MICHAEL'S ISLAND**, or, as the Portuguese stile it, **SAN MIGUEL**, hath several good towns, and large villages, well filled with inhabitants, who drive a considerable commerce, but hath neither harbours nor rivers, nor any good shelter for ships. The chief town of this island is called **Punta del Gado**, or **Gada**, and is considerable for it's trade.

II. **ST. MARY'S ISLAND**, is well supplied with all kinds of necessaries, well cultivated and inhabited. The chief manufactory here is a kind of earthen ware, in which they traffic with the other islands.

III. **TERCERA ISLAND**, hath in it no port or haven, where ships can safely come in, but that of Angra, which is the capital of the island, and hath a convenient harbour. The island is very fertile, pleasant, and healthy; the very rocks, which elsewhere are generally dry and barren, produce here a good sort of wine, though not comparable to that of Madeira or the Canaries. The land yields plenty of good wheat, and other corn; oranges, lemons, and other sorts of fruits; and their pasture-grounds such numbers of large oxen, sheep, and other cattle, that here is no want of any necessaries of life, except oil and salt. They have an extraordinary root, which grows here as big as a man's two fists, covered with long and small fibres, of a gold colour, not unlike silk in softness and fineness, and which they only use to stuff their beds; but by an ingenious hand 'tis thought might be woven into good stuffs. The country produces some excellent timber, particularly cedar, which is here in such plenty, that they make their carts and waggons of it. The number of inhabitants in the whole island is computed to be 20,000 souls.

ANGRA, a city, which is the metropolis of the Azores, is well built and peopled. It is the only station for ships in all the seven islands: so that it is chiefly for the sake of this port that the Portuguese have been so careful of these islands, and are so shy of letting strangers approach it; it's situation being so exceedingly convenient to refresh the ships that sail to, and from Brazil, and other long voyages. In this city are kept the royal magazines for anchors, sails, cables, and other naval stores in general, for the men of war. The maritime affairs are under the inspection of a proper judge, called **desembargador**, who hath other officers under him, and entertains a number of pilots, some to conduct the ships into the harbour, and others to direct them to springs of fresh water, &c. The English, Dutch, and French nations have likewise a consul residing in this city, though their commerce with this, or any other of these islands, be but inconsiderable. The chief commerce of the inhabitants is that of wood, which grows in great plenty in most of these islands, and corn, and other refreshments, which merchant-ships come to take in at this port.

PRAYA is a pretty considerable town; and, though it deserves not the name of a sea-port, is yet a kind of road for ships, and the only one in the island next to Angra where they can come to anchor. It is besides a place of trade, and well peopled.

IV. **GRACIOSA**, though not above five or six leagues in circuit, is stored with all kinds of grain, fruits, pasture, cattle, &c. with which it supplies the island of Tercera. It is well peopled, but hath no town of any note or bigness.

V. **ST. GEORGE'S ISLAND**, is chiefly famed for it's stately cedars, which grow in great plenty in it.

VI. **PICO**, or **IL-PICO**, breeds a great quantity of cattle. It's wine is the best of all the Azores; and, besides cedar and other timber, they have here a kind of wood, which they call **teixo**, which is reckoned as hard as iron, and, when polished, is veined like a tabby, and is red as scarlet; and with this additional quality, that it grows finer by age: upon all these accounts it is so highly esteemed, that no one is allowed to sell it, unless for the king, or with particular leave from his ministers.

VII. **FAYAL ISLAND**, produces great plenty of wood, and is frequented by the English on that account. It also breeds great numbers of large cattle, and abounds with variety of good fish.

FLORES and **CORVO** have nothing worth notice.

OF THE PRACTICAL BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, which is placed at the end of every Letter in this Work, in order the better to conform the whole to the portable Book of Rates; That being alphabetically ranged and methodized, the more familiarly to turn to the various species of merchandize imported and exported.

Of the ORIGIN of the CUSTOM-HOUSE DUTIES.

IN England the most ancient and principal tribute, or duties, that were paid to our kings, seem to have been those upon the exportation and importation of merchandizes crossing the ocean. These were of two kinds, and distinguished by customs and prizes, or prizage.

Customs were the duty payable for native commodities exported, particularly wool, wool-fells, and leather, after certain rates, the which were raised or lowered at the pleasure of the king, or as occasion required: and, having been payable probably from the origin of the British monarchy, has been distinguished by the great and ancient customs.—But, according to the present acceptation of the word customs, it signifies the several duties which are payable on the importation, as well as exportation, of all goods and merchandizes whatsoever.

Prizes or prizage, was the old duty payable on the importation of foreign goods, not limited to any certain sum of money, but by taking such a part thereof in specie as the kings thought sufficient for their use; paying for the same such a price as they thought reasonable, which was called the king's price. For wines it was customary to take one ton in ten, upon paying twenty shillings per ton; and we may reasonably enough suppose the price for the prizage of other goods was in proportion.

But king Edward I. by the charter called *charta mercatoria*, remitted this duty of prizage to all merchant-strangers; who, in lieu thereof, granted him a duty of three-pence in the pound, called petty custom, upon all native commodities, exported, besides the great custom paid before, and also upon all merchandizes imported, except wines; and upon all wines imported, two shillings for every ton, being the duty that has been since called butlerage. And, besides the aforesaid duties, there were, in the reigns of king Edward I., Edward II., Edward III., queen Mary, queen Elizabeth, king James I., and king Charles I., collected by virtue of their prerogatives only, several occasional or temporary impositions, after different rates, upon wines, and several other goods, imported; wool, cloths, and several other goods, exported; which they caused to be levied by only sending their writs to the collectors of the customs in every port*. But these impositions were sometimes remitted, upon petition of their subjects in parliament, especially when they would grant other aids or subsidies of greater value; yet when those aids, granted in recompence of the occasional impositions, were spent, they have been oftentimes again renewed, or others of the like nature imposed.

* This shews the difference of times, in regard to the liberties of the people of England, before and since the revolution; before, we find the prince had the command of their purses without controul, as it were; but since, the parliament has controuled the purse of our princes.

In process of time, this unlimited prerogative of the crown, of imposing those duties, came to be restrained, and, in some measure, yielded up by the crown to the parliament: for, upon the frequent petitions of the subjects for the remission thereof, and their free offers of sufficient supplies by parliament for all necessary occasions, Edward III., and the several succeeding kings and queens, by his example, were contented to suspend their hereditary duties, and, in lieu thereof, to accept of such temporary aids of parliament as should be judged sufficient for the support of the honour and dignity of the crown, the defence of the realm, and the safeguard of the seas, during their respective lives: and these parliamentary aids were composed of two several and distinct parts, viz. a tonnage and a poundage.

Tonnage was payable on all wines imported, after the particular rates, and according to the particular methods, prescribed by the several laws which granted this duty to the respective kings and queens; being at first no more than two shillings per ton, though, in succeeding reigns, it was very much increased.

Poundage was payable on all other merchandizes imported and exported, according to the particular rates and values prescribed by the several laws which granted this duty to the respective kings and queens; being at first no more than six-pence in the pound of the particular rates or values, though, in succeeding reigns, it was advanced to twelve-pence in the pound. And to this subsidy of tonnage and poundage there was, also, in the later reigns, annexed

A subsidy of woollen cloth, or old drapery, which was payable upon all woollen cloths exported, after the particular rates, and

in the particular proportions, prescribed in the respective books of rates.

After the restoration of king Charles II., the aforesaid subsidies, which had underwent several different regulations, were established upon the foundation whereon they now stand, and granted to his majesty during his life, for the defraying of his necessary expences in guarding and defending the seas against persons intending the disturbance of his subjects in the intercourse of trade, and the invading of his realm; by an act passed in the 12th year of his reign, intitled, A subsidy granted to the king of tonnage and poundage, and other sums of money, payable upon merchandize exported and imported, referring to, and enforcing, a book of rates of merchandize, &c. according to which the said duties were to be levied and collected.

And upon the model of, and with reference to, this subsidy of tonnage and poundage granted to king Charles I., there have been granted by subsequent acts of parliament, for the defraying the public expences ordinary and extraordinary, several additional subsidies, impositions, and new duties; which being to be levied and collected after the manner of the aforesaid subsidy, upon the importation and exportation of several sorts of goods and merchandizes, are usually comprehended under the general title of customs: and, indeed, those duties of customs are now really become a perfect science, there having been no less than about forty additional branches, or particular duties, imposed since the restoration of Charles II.: and the laws prescribing the manner of levying and collecting of these duties have so increased the number, that the body of custom laws is now swelled to an enormous size. As they are so numerous, and many of them made with an eye only to some temporary purposes, without regard to the circumstances and regulations prescribed in prior acts, it too often happens that they frequently clash and interfere, so that, in many cases, it is difficult to fix a particular point: and, as the repeals, expirations and revivals of several acts, are so frequent, that it is often difficult to know whether a law is in force or not; it is no wonder that they are no better understood by too many, whose business it is to execute them; and much less by merchants, whose business it is to know the privileges to which they are legally intitled, and the penalties to which they are subject, that they might reap the benefit of the one, and avoid the injury of the other.

These considerations evince the necessity of reducing the laws relating to the customs, into as narrow a compass as possible, and as plain and intelligible as can be. This also would not only prevent those tedious computations which the duties often require, but might prove instrumental in putting a stop to that frequency of custom-house oaths, which are at present required in every step that is taken; a practice which some very wise and good men have lamented. See what I have said on that head under the article AFFIDAVIT.

Besides, this multiplicity of laws renders the complete knowledge of the revenue so difficult and mysterious, that few, perhaps, of our very representatives themselves take the trouble necessary to become masters thereof, and, consequently, must be at a loss to know what measures to fall in with, when any alteration in this branch of the revenue may be necessary.

Indeed, the several duties of customs are appropriated as a security to the national creditors; which, it has been said by some, makes the continuance of these identical laws and forms of appropriation in the king's books necessary. But this does not seem to be an objection of any real weight. The national debts themselves have undergone various changes, in point of denomination; and, if the revenues appropriated for their interest and redemption underwent a change also, by uniting various duties into one, for the ease of the merchant, as well as the officer, this, we humbly conceive, would be no violation of the public faith and credit of the nation. For, although certain duties were imposed as a security to the public creditors; yet, if the authority of the parliament is pleased to grant that in one total, which is now granted in various particular sums, the distribution or appropriation of the net produce of those revenues may easily be duly appropriated to the payment of interest to the national creditors.

However, that our design may prove consistent with things as they at present stand, and be of immediate use, we shall enter upon an explanation of the manner of computing the duties of customs, pursuant to the laws enacted for that purpose; and, according to our present plan, shall fix upon several of the chief cases that arise in their alphabetical order in the portable Book of rates, under the letter A, for the port of London; the most judicious

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judicious and accurate of that kind, being that wrote by Mr. Saxby of the custom house, 1757.

But since the publication of Mr. Saxby's Book of Rates, there has been a NEW SUBSIDY act of parliament in 1759, of 5 per cent. laid on certain merchandize, which has rendered the TOTALS of such TABULAR DUTIES useless to the importer and exporter in that respect. Which hath made it necessary to take notice of this subsequent act in this new edition of the Dictionary, and to explain therefrom how Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates may, notwithstanding, be useful to the merchant.

Also in the year 1762, another act took place, for granting several additional duties upon WINES imported into this kingdom, &c. which has likewise rendered the TOTALS of the said tabular duties useless to merchants, with relation to the importation of WINES in general. It has, therefore, become necessary to apprise the reader of these material alterations in the duties of customs, since Mr Saxby's book was published. And as the requisite brevity of a Portable Book of Rates will not admit of the said new acts being given therein at large, we shall here give an ample abstract of the said two acts, and then explain Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates so intelligibly, that it may be applied to other cases.

The first of these acts laying the subsidy of 5 per cent. on certain merchandize contains as follows.—“That from and after the 5th day of April, 1759, there shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto and for the use of his majesty, his heirs, &c. for and upon all TOBACCO, FOREIGN LINNENS, SUGAR, and OTHER GROCERY, as the same is charged in the BOOKS OF RATES, except CURRANTS; East India goods, except COFFEE and raw silks; FOREIGN BRANDY and SPIRITS, except RUM, of the produce of the BRITISH SUGAR PLANTATIONS; and PAPER, which shall be imported or brought into the kingdom of GREAT BRITAIN; a further SUBSIDY of POUNDAGE of TWELVE PENCE IN THE POUND, according to the VALUE OR RATE respectively set upon each of the said COMMODITIES by the several BOOKS OF RATES, or any act or acts of parliament relating thereunto; which SUBSIDY shall be paid by the importer of such goods and merchandizes, before the landing thereof, over and above all other duties, charged or chargeable thereupon.”

Then the said act declares, that the said subsidy shall be levied and collected in like form and manner, and with such allowances, discounts, drawbacks, &c. as are prescribed for raising, and collecting the subsidy of 5 pence per centum, granted in the 21st year of the reign of Geo. II. intitled, “An act for granting to his majesty a subsidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom, &c. &c.”

Prize goods charged only with the duties payable by act 30th Geo. II. unless taken out of the warehouses for home consumption.—Allowance to be made to the importer of tobacco, on paying down the DUTY as usual; if the duty shall not be paid down, the importer shall give bond for payment thereof, and the importer to be intitled to the usual allowances and discounts.—DRAWBACK of said duty allowed upon exportation of goods within THREE YEARS.—Except for such goods, or by any former act or acts, it is declared no DRAWBACK shall be paid or allowed on EXPORTATION.

DRAWBACK of the duty allowed on PAPER used in printing books in the learned languages in both universities, as is prescribed by act 10 of queen Anne. The like drawback allowed on paper used in printing books in the learned languages in the universities of Scotland.

DRAWBACK of 3 shillings per hundred weight allowed on sugar refined in Great-Britain, and exported, &c.

AN ADDITIONAL INLAND DUTY to be paid of 1 SHILLING per pound on COFFEE, and NINE-PENCE per pound on CHOCOLATE.—Said duties on COFFEE and CHOCOLATE to be paid as the former INLAND DUTIES paid thereon into the OFFICE OF EXCISE.

PENALTY of counterfeiting the stamps provided on the occasion, or being guilty of any fraud therein, 500l. and one year's imprisonment.—PENALTY of vending chocolate without being duly stamped 20 shillings per pound, and forfeiture of the chocolate.

The other act that has made an alteration in the duties of customs, in the Portable Book of Rates, is that made in the year 1762, entituled, An act for granting to his majesty several additional duties upon WINES imported into this kingdom, and certain duties on cyder and perry, &c. which declares, that from and after the 31st day of March, 1763, over and above all other subsidies, additional duties, and impositions, whatsoever payable for wines and vinegar imported into Great-Britain, by any act or acts now in force, there shall be raised and levied, (before landing thereof) the additional impositions, rates and duties following, without any discount or deduction inwards, or drawback on re-exportation afterwards; that is to say,

For every ton of French wine and French vinegar, imported, the sum of 8 l.; and so after that rate, for any greater or lesser quantity.

Also for every ton of all other wines and vinegar imported, the sum of 4 l.; and so after that rate for any greater or lesser quantity.—The same to be raised in such manner and form, and under such penalties and forfeitures (except as to discounts

and drawbacks aforesaid) as are mentioned and expressed in the act made in the first year of the reign of Jac. II. entituled, An act for granting his majesty an imposition upon all wines and vinegar imported, &c.

Damaged and unmerchantable wines exempted from those additional duties.

And whereas, by the eighth rule annexed to the Book of Rates, referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage passed the 12th of Charles the Second, every merchant bringing in any sort of wines into this kingdom by way of merchandize, and making due entries thereof, is allowed 12 per cent. for LEAKAGE: and whereas it is of late years become a practice for several merchants to lodge Spanish, Portugal, and other wines, at the islands of Guernsey and Jersey, and after they have filled up the casks there, to import such wines into this kingdom, and demand the before-mentioned allowance for leakage, notwithstanding the casks are quite full, to the lessening of his majesty's reveaue, and the prejudice of other merchants who import wines directly from the place of their growth: for remedy whereof, and in order to put all merchants upon a more equal footing; be it enacted, that no merchant shall, in respect to the duties imposed by this act, be allowed 12 per cent. or have any allowance for leakage, upon any wine imported into this kingdom, unless such wine be imported directly from the country or place of the growth of the said wine, or the usual port or place of it's first shipping, except Madeira wines imported into this kingdom from any of his majesty's plantations in America; any thing in the said recited rule to the contrary notwithstanding.

And from and after the 5th of July, 1763, there shall be raised an additional rate or new duty of excise upon cyder and perry as follows:

For every ton of cyder or perry imported into Great-Britain from beyond sea, and so proportionably for a greater or lesser quantity, to be paid by the importer before landing, over and above all other duties payable for the same, two pounds.

The other part of this act being relative to an inland or excise duty laid on the makers of cyder, we refer to the article cyder, since the act in that respect too has undergone alterations since the same took place, by the act here quoted.

OF THE COMPUTATION OF THE DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, ACCORDING TO THE PRESENT BOOK OF RATES.

Understanding there will soon be published a Portable Book of Rates by Mr. Saxby, wherein the alterations before made in the duties of custom by the said acts of parliament will be duly noticed; we judge it will only be necessary for us to explain the methods of computation therein made use of, in such a manner as may be understood and applied by merchants, provided any subsequent alterations respecting these duties should take place. This, we apprehend, will be more acceptable to traders than the swelling this work with a new set of tables, ready computed, which they will soon have in a Portable Book for that purpose; and it is to be hoped complete. For it is certainly of more utility and satisfaction to traders, to be duly informed in the manner of calculation, than to depend on that of others: yet such calculations have their use; since, if those made by the trader agree therewith, it is a satisfaction; if not, the trader will be entituled to point out any mistakes that may be made by the officers of the customs to his disadvantage. This is the more necessary, as the total duties in such books are so liable to vary every few years.

And, indeed, what renders this the more necessary, is, that a Portable Book of Rates will hardly admit of such an explanation of the methods of computing those duties as could be desired, by reason of it's requisite brevity; though the method taken therein, is perhaps, as good as any other that might be devised, in relation to it's conciseness. Yet certain it is, that great complaints have been made by traders, with respect to it's abstruseness and unintelligibility: but I am rather inclined to ascribe that to want of due attention and application in the reader. However, we shall endeavour to put this matter in the best light we can, for the satisfaction of our reader, and thereby enable him to understand all future Books of Rates.

Previous to which, we desire it may be observed, that consistent with the plan of this work, the business of the customs will be treated of at the end of every letter, in the same alphabetical order as the Portable Book of Rates is obliged to be ranged, for the speedy reference to every species of goods therein contained.

2. That we shall select various examples of the duties, whereby to illustrate the manner of their calculation.

OF THE TABULAR METHOD OF RANGING THE DUTIES IN THE PORTABLE BOOK OF RATES.

The reader is desired to observe, that the first column in the Portable Book of Rates, towards the right-hand of the goods or merchandize, represents the RATES, in pounds, shillings, and pence, and parts thereof, to which such goods or merchandize are subject inwards, or on their importation, pursuant to the acts of Parliament of the 12th of Car. II. cap. 4. &c. and that also of the 11th of Geo. I. cap. 7. which are the ground-

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ground-work of the subsequent acts that have been since made, for settling of the duties of customs: over which columns is the word **RATES**.

4. The next column, following to the right-hand of those of the **RATES**, shews, or should shew, the total net duties paid on such goods or merchandizes by British persons; the next column to the right-hand, shews, or should shew, what duties are to be paid on the same goods by strangers; and the next right-hand column shews, or should shew, how much is to be repaid, or drawn back, on the re-exportation of such merchandize by any person, if done in time, according to act of parliament.

5. In the last column in Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates, which is marked with the great letters **A, D 25, A d 1, C 3, C 1**, &c. as in the first page of the tables of duties, and methodized as before represented, is contained the references to the tables, &c. p. 74, 5, 6, as is placed at the top of the said last column.

6. In order for the reader to understand the use of the said **REFERENCE LETTERS** and **FIGURES** annexed thereto, it is necessary to observe,

That the first part of the said Portable Book of Rates contains a concise account of the **SEVERAL BRANCHES OF CUSTOMS, SUBSIDIES, IMPOSITIONS, AND DUTIES PAYABLE IN GOODS AND MERCHANDIZES IMPORTED INTO, BROUGHT COASTWISE AND EXPORTED OUT OF GREAT-BRITAIN**, from the 12th Car. II. cap. 4. § 3. 7. to the time when Mr Saxby's Book of Rates was published, which commences from the beginning of his book, and ends at page 72.

To render Saxby's Book of Rates the more intelligible to our reader, we shall, in the following page, present him with the **TABLE** and **LIST**, therein made use of; and afterwards give an explanation of them both; these two considered connectively, being the master-key, to unlock the whole mystery of every portable Book of Rates, ever since the time of Mr Edgar, who judiciously first invented, in the Year 1714, the said **TABLE** and **LIST** of branches, and printed the same in his **VECTIGALUM SYSTEMA**; and ever since that time the same **TABLE** and **LIST** have been made use of by those officers of the customs, who have wrote upon the computation of the duties of customs; as the late Mr Crouch and the present Mr Saxby.

A T A B L E, whereby the referring letters, which are affixed on the right-hand margin of the Rates and Duties, express the particular Branches to which any article of goods is liable, by correspondent numbers respectively distinguishing the several Branches, as they stand in the following List, in the portable Book of Rates.

Referring marginal letters.	Correspondent numbers, distinguishing the several branches.										Referring marginal letters.	Correspondent numbers, distinguishing the several branches.													
A	I	2	3	4	5						I a	26													
A a	I	2	3	5							I b	16													
A b	I	2	3	5	9						I c	42													
A c	I	2	3	5	10						K	1	2	3	4	5	9	14							
A d	I	5	9								K a	I	2	3	4	5	9	10	14						
B	I	2	3	4	5	9					K b	I	II	2	3	4	5	9							
B a	I										K c	I	2	3	4	5	13	14	18						
B b	I	5									L	I	2	3	4	5	10	14							
B c	I	2	3	4	5	33					L a	I	II	2	3	4	5								
B d	I	5	10								L b	I	II	2	3	5	9								
C	I	2	3	4	5	10					L c	I	2	3	4	5	9	18							
C a	I	III	2	3	5						L d	I	2	3	4	5	9	18							
C b	I	III	2	3	5	9					M	I													
C c	I	III	2	3	5	10					M a	I	2	3	4	5	9	25							
C d	I	III	2	3	4	5	9				M b	III	2	3	5	8									
D	9										N	I	2	3	4	5	9	10	26	27					
D a	5	6	17								N a	I	7	34											
D b	41										N b	7													
D c	26	27									O	I	2	3	4	5	10	26	27						
E	10										O a	I	2	3	4										
E a	28	29									O b	II													
E b	I	2	3	4	5	10	16				P	12													
F	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				P a	40													
F a	I	5	10	15							P b	2	3	4											
F b	10	15									Q	14													
F c	37										Q a	I	2	3	4	5	10	28	29						
F d	I	2	3	4	5	10	14	15			Q b	I	2	3	4	5	28	29							
F e	I	III	2	3	5	10	15				R	I	III	2	3	5	9	31							
F f	I	III	2	3	5	10	15	31			R a	I	III	2	3	4	5	9	10						
F g	I	2	3	4	5	10	15	32			R b	27													
F h	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				S	30													
F i	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				S a	I	2	3	4	5	10	27							
F j	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				S b	9	10												
F k	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				T	2	3	4	5										
F l	I	III	2	3	4	5	10	15			T a	I	2	3	4	5	9	27	29						
F m	I	2	3	4	5	10	15	26	27		T b	19													
F n	I	III	2	3	4	5	10				V	31													
F o	I	2	3	4	5	10					V a	8													
F p	I	2	3	4	5	10	15	16			V b	24													
F q	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				W	I	2	3	4	5	9	28	29						
F r	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				W a	36													
F s	I	2	3	4	5	10	15				Z	I	2	3	4	5	9	10	32						
F t	I	III	2	3	4	5	10	15			Z a	I	2	3	4	5	10	32							
F u	I	2	3	4	5	10	15	26	27		Z b	I	III	2	3	4	7	16	34						
F v	I	III	2	3	4	5	10				Z c	I	III	IV	2	3	4	7	16	34					
F w	I	III	2	3	4	5	10				Z d	2	3	4	7	34									
F x	15										Z e	35													
F y	I	III	2	3	4	7	10	15	16	34															
F z	I	2	3	4	7	10	15	34																	
G	I	2	3	4	5	9	10																		
G a	I	2	3	4	5	9	20	21																	
G b	I	2	3	4	5	16																			
H	20	21																							
H a	22	23																							
H b	I	7	15	34																					
I	I	2	3	4	5	16																			

See Saxby, page (74.)

The following LIST of the several Branches of the Revenue of CUSTOMS, as the same are contained in Saxby's Portable Book, from Page 3 to Page 71.

The LIST.

- | | |
|--|---|
| No. | No. |
| I. Old subsidy. | 17. Coinage on spirits. |
| II. Petty custom. | 18. Pepper, raisins, &c. |
| III. Additional duty. | 19. Subsidy, and one per cent. outwards, &c. |
| IV. One per cent. inwards. | 20. Candles. |
| 2. New subsidy. | 21. Additional candles. |
| 3. One-third subsidy. | 22. Coals imported, and coals, &c. brought coastwise. |
| 4. Two-thirds subsidy. | 23. Additional coals imported, &c. |
| 5. Subsidy, 1747. | 24. Coals and culm for churches. |
| 6. Subsidies on Spirits. | 25. Hops. |
| 7. Impost on wines and vinegar. | 26. Hides, skins, &c. |
| 8. Impost on tobacco. | 27. Additional hides, skins, &c. |
| 9. Impost, 1690. | 28. Soap, paper, &c. |
| 10. Impost, 1692. | 29. Additional soap, paper, &c. |
| 11. Whale-fins. | 30. Coals exported. |
| 12. Fifteen per cent on mullins. | 31. Sailcloth. |
| 13. Spice and pictures, &c. | 32. Wrought plate. |
| 14. Additional spice and pictures. | 33. Apples. |
| 15. Second 25 per cent. on French goods. | |
| 16. Coinage on wine and beer, &c. | |

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| No. | No. |
| 34. Wine, 1745. | 39. Prifage and butlerage. |
| 35. Glafs. | 40. Salt. |
| 36. Linnen-yarn. | 41. Excise on liquors. |
| 37. Gum-Senega. | 42. Inland duties on tea, &c. |
| 38. Unrated goods imported, undervalued. | |
- See Saxby, page (75.)

To which must be added the last subsidy branch of 1759; and also the late duties on wines, and cyder and perry, before set forth by the act of parliament in the year 1762.

Notwithstanding, that in every one of the foregoing BRANCHES, it is fully explained in the said Book of Rates, what species of goods and merchandize are their immediate objects; nevertheless, as the BRANCHES are become very numerous, and as the several species are variously subject to more or less of these BRANCHES, it seems hardly possible by memory, without daily practice, to be expert in an exact application of the proper BRANCHES to the several articles of goods and merchandize under their various circumstances of importation, &c. neither was it possible, in a book of a portable size, or much larger, to have provided columns sufficient to arrange all the respective BRANCHES against each article, as was done in the former edition of my Dictionary. Therefore the following method is made use of in the Portable Book of Rates, whereby the BRANCHES due on every article pursuant to the RATES are expressed by LETTERS and FIGURES affixed in the right-hand margin of the columns of RATES and Duties.

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Before we enter into the explanation of the foregoing LIST of branches, and the TABLE, it is to be noted,

That all goods liable to the OLD SUBSIDY of poundage on a RATE or VALUE, when imported by STRANGERS; and all goods enumerated in branch II. of the foregoing LIST, when IMPORTED IN SHIPS NOT BELONGING TO GREAT-BRITAIN OR IRELAND, OR FOREIGN BUILT, are liable to the said LIST, branch II.

GOODS IMPORTED FROM, OR EXPORTED TO THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, IN SHIPS UNQUALIFIED, are liable to branch IV.

GOODS OF THE MANUFACTURE OF INDIA OR CHINA, unless expressly charged higher in the branch N^o. 9. are liable to art. 30. of branch 9.

GOODS OF THE PRODUCT OF FRANCE, OR ANY FRENCH DOMINIONS, unless expressly charged higher in branches N^o. 9. or 10. or particularly exempted, are liable to art. 36. of branch 10.

GOODS OF THE PRODUCT OF FRANCE, unless particularly exempted, are liable to branch 15.

AN EXPLANATION OF THE PRECEDING TABLE AND LIST in Saxby.

The MARGINAL LETTER or letters affixed to any species of goods, (without regarding the figure of any) must be sought for in the first column of the table.

The letter being found in the table, opposite thereto in columns following stand certain numbers, these numbers denote their respective branches in the list which immediately follows.

As for EXAMPLE.

1. Suppose the particular branches chargeable on alpisti, or Canary-feed, were desired to be known.

Upon recourse to alpisti in the rates, it will be found, that the marginal referring letter affixed thereto, is A.

Opposite to which letter, in the foregoing table, are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

And by the LIST of the several branches it will be found, that

N ^o . 1. denotes the old subsidy,	} being the particular branches to which that commodity is liable by Saxby.
2. - - - new ditto,	
3. - - - one-third ditto,	
4. - - - two-thirds ditto,	
5. - - - subsidy 1747.	

But as the impost 1690, and 1692, contain each a great variety of merchandize, it might from thence be difficult to discover, under what particular head therein specified, many sorts of goods are chargeable: that difficulty is therefore obviated by a figure or figures annexed to the marginal letters of any goods liable to either of those branches, which figures distinguish the particular articles, in that order in which they stand in the respective branch.

2. Suppose the several branches chargeable on brimstone were desired to be known.

Upon recourse to brimstone, it will be found, that the marginal letter and figure are B 5.

Opposite to the letter B (without regarding the figure 5) in the foregoing table are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9.

Which, by the LIST of the several branches, as before directed for alpisti, will point out the particular branches to which brimstone is liable; and by the addition of the figure 5 to the letter, it will appear, by consulting the branch N^o. 9, that brimstone is chargeable with the 5th article of impost 1690.

And where there are two numbers annexed to the letter or letters, the first has respect to the impost 1690, and the latter to the impost 1692, as in the case of wrought silks, &c.

The method of computing the custom-house duties will appear from the following examples more intelligibly.

The first thing therein to be considered is, what proportion the rate bears to the duty.

The old subsidy is generally 5 per cent. of the rate, with a discount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment: there are, however, exceptions to this general rule; but, with respect to all those species of merchandize which fall under the letter A in the table in the book of rates, the old subsidy is 5 per cent. of the rate, with a discount of 5 per cent.; so that wherever you find, by the REFERENCE COLUMN, any sort of goods subject to the old subsidy, compute 5 per cent. upon the rate, and you have the gross old subsidy; from which deduct 5 per cent. for the discount thereon, and you have the net old subsidy. When you have found this, if the new subsidy, one third subsidy, and two-thirds subsidy follow, those will be easily found: for, the new subsidy is the same as the net old subsidy; the one-third subsidy is the one-third of that; and the two-thirds is the two-thirds of the same.

The duties on foreign goods imported consisting of a POUNDAGE and a TONNAGE, which are under different regulations, it is necessary to treat of their computations separately.

POUNDAGE is understood to comprehend the customs and other duties payable on all goods imported (except those free of duty, or liable to TONNAGE) being, in most cases, levied and collected at so much in the pound, or per cent. on the respective RATES or VALUES, as is fully explained under the several branches in the book of rates.

In order to discover the several branches to which any sort of poundage goods are liable, it must be observed,

That the said goods are to be sought for amongst the RATES OF MERCHANDIZES INWARDS, in the book of rates, under their proper initial letters, or the general head wherein such goods are comprehended, or DRUGS, GROCERY, LINNEN, &c.

That if the goods are not found to be any where RATED, the VALUES thereof (except goods from India and China) must be ascertained, as is directed under such respective branch.

That after the amount of the goods at their respective RATES; or according to their VALUES upon oath, is thus discovered, you may then proceed to the computation of the several branches of the duties to which such goods are liable, by the assistance of the REFERRING LETTERS, which stand in the right hand margin against each species of goods, in the portable book of rates, as explained in the following example:

Suppose, as before observed, you would know the duties on ALPISTI, or CANARY-SEED; the use of the reference letter A in the table has been already explained, and by casting an eye upon that article, in the table of Merchandize in the book of rates, you find written, The hundred weight, containing 112 lb. and in the next right hand column immediately following, that 1. 3 : 15, under the act of Car. II. cap. 4, &c. which denotes, that the RATE settled by that act upon ALPISTI is 1. 3 : 15 per 112 lb.; and the reference letter A, in the furthest right hand column, shews that ALPISTI is liable to the foregoing branches of duties, as exhibited in the preceding table, by the said letter A, viz. OLD SUBSIDY, NEW SUBSIDY, $\frac{1}{3}$ SUBSIDY, $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDY, and SUBSIDY 1747.

The branch of the OLD SUBSIDY being on this article, 5 per cent. of the RATE, with a discount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment, the net OLD SUBSIDY is first found, and all the rest will be easy, as before shewn: as for the subsidy of 1747, that is 5 per cent. more, without any discount, as has been the practice at the custom-house.

Now 5 per cent. upon 1. 3 : 15, is 3 s. 9 d. the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY: and 5 per cent. discount upon that, is 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. This being deducted from the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, leaves for remainder the NET OLD SUBSIDY, which is 3 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. The NEW SUBSIDY being the same, and the $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDIES equal thereto, the NET OLD SUBSIDY, multiplied by three, gives 10 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. To this must be added the SUBSIDY of 1747, which being 5 per cent. on the rate, gives the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, and this added to the foregoing branches of duties, makes 14 s. 5 d. $\frac{5}{8}$, or $\frac{7}{8}$ of a penny, to be paid by BRITISH, as appears according to Saxby.—If these computations are rightly understood, and the proper use of the foregoing TABLE, and branches of duties relative to the REFERENCE LETTERS IN SAXBY, no one can be at a loss to compute any SUBSEQUENT DUTIES in any future acts of parliament; and for the reasons before given, it is needless to give fresh ready computed tables of total duties, every time there may be any additional custom-duties laid on our imports, if the computation of those to 1747 are well understood.

The next step to be taken, is to find the NET DUTY to be paid on importation by STRANGERS. To which end, there must be added to the DUTIES paid by BRITISH, ONE QUARTER OF THE GROSS OLD SUBSIDY.—This being 11 d. $\frac{1}{4}$, gives for answer 15 s. 4 d. $\frac{3}{8}$, or $\frac{7}{8}$, and agrees with SAXBY'S present Book of Rates.

And to know what is drawn back on RE-EXPORTATION, if within three years from the IMPORTATION, accounting from the time of the master's reporting the ship, it must be observed, that the DRAWBACK IS IN THE GENERAL ALL THAT HAS BEEN PAID ON IMPORTATION, EXCEPT A MOIETY OF THE NET OLD SUBSIDY.

In the example before us, the NET OLD SUBSIDY is 3 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; one moiety whereof is 1 s. 9 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{3}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a penny; which being deducted from the net duty of 14 s. 5 d. $\frac{5}{8}$, or $\frac{7}{8}$, paid by the British, the remainder is 12 s. 7 d. $\frac{1}{8}$, that is to be drawn back on re-exportation. This also agrees with SAXBY.

Another EXAMPLE. Suppose it is required to know the duties upon the importation of the article ANDIRONS, the PAIR.

By turning to that species of goods in Saxby, 'tis found, by his tables to the right hand, that they are rated at 10 s. per PAIR, and that by consulting the REFERENCE LETTER column, we find A, which, by the TABLE and LIST, they pay the same duties as ALPISTI; and besides that they pay, for every hundred weight of iron, by the affixed REFERENCE LETTER D 25 in Saxby, according to the foregoing TABLE and LIST, the IMPOST DUTY of 1690; which GROSS DUTY is 5 s. per 112 lb. or hundred weight of iron, an allowance of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ being made to the importer for prompt payment, which is 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ = $\frac{7}{8}$: this being deducted from the 5 s. leaves the NET DUTY OF THE IMPOST 1690 to be 4 s. 8 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ = $\frac{7}{8}$.

After knowing the various duties, according to the REFERENCE LETTER, compared with the TABLE and LIST, and the condition of payment, to which these goods are liable, you begin their computation thus:

Five per cent. on the rate 10 s. is 6 d. GROSS OLD SUBSIDY. — 5 per cent. discount thereon is $\frac{3}{4}$ of a penny; which being deducted therefrom, leaves NET OLD SUBSIDY 5 d. $\frac{1}{4}$; this \times by 3 for the $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDIES = 1 s. 5 d. $\frac{3}{8}$, with $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

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cent. GROSS SUBSIDY of 1747—5 per cent. on the rate, being 6d. in the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, which added = 1s. 11d. $\frac{2}{3}$, the TOTAL NET DUTY paid by BRITISH.—To which add $\frac{1}{2}$ part of GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ = 2 s. 0 d. $\frac{1}{3}$, the TOTAL NET DUTY paid by STRANGERS.—And by deducting $\frac{1}{2}$ the NET OLD SUBSIDY, as in the preceding example, there will remain to be drawn back, in the time limited, as before observed, by any person, 1 s. 8 d. $\frac{2}{3}$, as you will find, by the inspection of Saxby's tables of TOTAL DUTIES, against ANDIRONS.

Another example in letter A of the TOTAL DUTIES. What are the duties on ANDIRONS, or CREEPERS OF LATTEN, the pound?

By inspection of Saxby's TOTAL DUTY TABLES on the right hand of the merchandize, the RATE appears to be 1 s. per pound, and according to the REFERENCE LETTER COLUMN, C 13 compared with TABLE and LIST, this article pays the FOUR SUBSIDIES, as before, and that of 1747: and also the impost (1692-3) which is 1 s. on every 20 s. of the RATE, with a discount of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent for prompt payment.

Five per cent. on 1 s. = $\frac{1}{20}$ of a penny GROSS OLD SUBSIDY—and 5 per cent. thereon = $\frac{1}{40}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$ of a penny; which deducted leaves the NET OLD SUBSIDY, $\frac{19}{40}$ of a penny; and $\frac{1}{20}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$ X by 3 = 1 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$ —to which add the net impost (1692-3) which is found thus.—The GROSS impost being for every 20 s. of the RATE 1 s. proceed as follows.—First, find the NET IMPOST on the RATE—discount being 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ on 1 s. = $\frac{19}{40}$ of a penny—this deducted, leaves for the NET IMPOST (1692-3) 11 d. $\frac{1}{20}$.—Then, as 20 s. RATE is to 11 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ NET IMPOST (1692-3): so is 1 s. THE RATE to $\frac{11}{20}$ of a penny $\frac{1}{20}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$; which added to the NET DUTIES above, viz. 1 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$ = 2 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$.—Lastly, add the 5 per cent. on the RATE for the GROSS SUBSIDY (1747),—this is 1 s. = $\frac{1}{20}$ of a penny; which added to 2 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$, as above = 2 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$, the total NET DUTIES paid by BRITISH.

Then to know what is paid by STRANGERS, add thereto $\frac{1}{2}$ of the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, which is $\frac{1}{40}$ of a penny, and you have the answer, being 3 d. $\frac{1}{20}$. And,

To find what is drawn back, deduct $\frac{1}{2}$ of the NET OLD SUBSIDY. The NET OLD SUBSIDY being $\frac{19}{40}$ of a penny as before, $\frac{1}{2}$ thereof is $\frac{19}{80}$; which deducted from 2 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{3}{20}$, as above, the remainder will be 2 d. $\frac{19}{80}$ $\frac{3}{20}$ = $\frac{1}{2}$, the answer, according to Saxby.

N. B. It is hardly necessary to observe, that when the TOTAL NET DUTIES are computed for one pound weight, or one hundred weight, &c. there is no difficulty to compute them for any given quantity, &c. &c.

Example 4. Let the NET DUTIES on Wood or Soap ASHES be required.

By inspection of Saxby's DUTY TABLES to the right-hand of the merchandizes, the RATE is found to be 6 l. per last, containing 12 barrels. By the REFERENCE LETTER column C 5, and TABLE and LIST this article pays the FOUR SUBSIDIES, and IMPOST 1692-3, with a discount of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$, and SUBSIDY (1747) by Saxby.

Five per cent. on 6 l. is 6 s. GROSS OLD SUBSIDY,—5 per cent. discount thereon is 3 d. $\frac{1}{20}$.—Therefore the NET OLD SUBSIDY is 5 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{20}$; this X 3 = 17 s. 1 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ —GROSS IMPOST (1692-3).—This + 17 s. 1 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ = 1 l. 2 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{20}$; this + 5 per cent. SUBSIDY (1747) on the RATE = 6 s. makes the NET DUTY, by Saxby, per BRITISH 1 l. 8 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{20}$.

To find what is paid by STRANGERS, add $\frac{1}{2}$ of the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, viz. (= 1 s. 6 d.) to what is paid by BRITISH, and the sum will be what is paid by STRANGERS, viz. 1 l. 10 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{20}$, which agrees with Saxby.—And,

To find what is drawn back, deduct $\frac{1}{2}$ the NET OLD SUBSIDY therefrom, viz. 2 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{20}$, which leaves 1 l. 5 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{20}$ for the remainder, as per Saxby.

These examples containing the principal cases of computation that relate to these species of goods and merchandize which fall in their alphabetical order in Saxby's book of rates, under the letter A, it is not necessary to multiply more, to explain the USE of the constant portable book of rates at the custom-house. For if these are duly understood and attended to, the computation of any alterations that have been made since, or that ever shall be made hereafter, may be easily computed from the acts of parliament made for that purpose.

Those who are not well grounded in these computations will be little the better for tables of the total duties ready computed to their hands; nay, they may, as I shall shew they have done, prove more detrimental.

OF THE DUTIES OF TONNAGE.

TONNAGE comprehends the DUTIES payable on wines imported (and the old subsidy on perry, rape of grapes, cyder, cyder-eager, and vinegar, the imposts on vinegar, and the coinage duties) being by a sum certain on the ton measure.

All the several duties on wines are fully explained under each respective branch in chap. I. Saxby, wherein are shewn the gross duties, the discounts thereon, and the net duties to be paid or secured (for one ton or one gallon) according to the several circumstances of entry and importation; therefore when the branches, to which any sort of wines are liable, are desired to be known, that sort (observing the particular circum-

stances of entry and importation) must be sought for between page 267 and page 275, Saxby; and opposite thereto will be found a REFERRING LETTER, representing the particular branches, as is explained in the following example.

One ton of Spanish wine, unfilled, for sale, imported into the port of London, by British, in British ships legally qualified, all duties paid down.

Upon recourse had to page 269 of Saxby, in the last column thereof, opposite to the sort of WINE above described, will be found the REFERENCE LETTERS Z b, which letters being found in the TABLE with the LIST aforesaid, page 74, Saxby, they refer to the BRANCHES OF DUTIES contained in the LIST N^o 1. III. 2. 3. 4. 7. 16. 34, each of which BRANCHES OF DUTIES must be consulted, that the respective sums due thereon may be exactly charged; which for the above example will be found to stand thus,

N ^o I. Old subsidy	—	—	£ 3 : 10 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
N ^o III. Additional duty	—	—	2 : 17 : 1 8
N ^o 2. New subsidy	—	—	3 : 10 : 2 8
N ^o 3. One-third subsidy	—	—	1 : 3 : 4 16
N ^o 4. Two-thirds subsidy	—	—	2 : 6 : 9 12
N ^o 7. Impost on wine	—	—	8 : 0 : 7 1
N ^o 16. Coinage on wine	—	—	0 : 10 : —
N ^o 34. Duty on wine, 1745.	—	—	4 : 0 : —
Total duty to be paid before the last act of parliament of 1763, on wine and cyder			25 : 18 : 3 13
And so for any additional duties.			4
			29 : 18 : 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

And so for any additional duties.

But for the greater ease and dispatch in computing the duties on WINE, it is the practice to work by TABLES, wherein EACH BRANCH is computed net, according to all the respective circumstances of importation, discount, &c. from a gallon to a ton.

After what has been said, there is no one but may easily understand the use of the TABLE and LIST in Saxby, by means of the REFERENCE LETTERS and FIGURES thereto annexed, and thereby can never be at a loss, to compute any of the duties, according to any sort of alterations that have occurred, or may hereafter, by having recourse to such acts of parliament as may enact the same. We shall say no more on this subject, at present, but represent some other parts of the custom-house business, by way of familiar initiation thereto.

OF THE METHODS of entering GOODS at the CUSTOM-HOUSE on IMPORTATION, with the various FORMS of writings requisite on those occasions, particularly at the out-ports.

When foreign goods are imported, the master of the vessel, upon his arrival, must go to the custom-house, and must report his cargo upon oath*. The merchant may enter and land his goods any time within 20 days, from the day of the master's report: to do which in the most advantageous manner, he must write and sign five bills of entry; one whereof must be in words at length, and is called the warrant; the other four may be in figures †.

* The form of a REPORT INWARDS is thus:

[Fee, 1 s. for the deputies, whether the report be made by English or foreigners; nothing more due to the collector, or any other officer.]

Inwards,
 PORT of } In the ship of
 } built, property all about || tons, with
 } men, of which men, of which || men and
 } besides a man master
 for this present voyage, from in
 I do swear that the entry above-written, now tendered and subscribed by me, is a just report of the name of my ship, it's burden, built, property, number and country of mariners, the present master and voyage; and that it doth further contain a true account of my lading, with the particular marks, numbers, quantity, quality, and consignment of all the goods and merchandizes in my said ship, to the best of my knowledge: and that I have not broken bulk, or delivered any goods out of my said ship, since her lading in.
 So help me God.

Sworn before us the } Collector.
 day of } Comptroller.

† AN INWARD ENTRY.

Fee, 8d. [For writing these entries there is charged at some of the out-ports, for the collector, sometimes 6d. sometimes 2s. which the merchant saves, if he writes them himself.]
 March 6, 1751.

In the Dolphin, B. B. John Carr, master, from Rotterdam,
 JAMES HILL, British.

8000 pantilles.
 10 matts, containing 30 C. wt. of rough flax.
 These

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

These five bills the merchant delivers to the collector, or his clerk, who will compute the duties, which must be paid, before the goods are landed. The duties being paid, the warrant is duly perfected, signed, and delivered to the land-waiters, appointed to attend the delivery, together with blue books, wherein an account of the delivery is to be entered. The goods are then landed, examined, and the quantities taken; the manner of doing which will be explained presently. If the merchant is found to have entered short, he must pass post-entries, and pay the duties for the quantities short entered, in the same manner as was observed in passing the prime entries: but if, upon delivery, an over-entry appears, the merchant may apply to the collector, to have his entries altered, and the overplus duly repaid; which may be done, if he applies, before the collector and comptroller have posted the entry in the king's books, upon his making satisfactory proof that no fraud was committed: but, if the entry be posted, before he applies, then the duty must be repaid by certificate of over-entry, in the manner hereafter explained.

It sometimes happens that goods are sent by merchants to sell by commission, and arrive before the invoice. In this, and such like cases, when the merchant cannot make any tolerable conjecture at the quantities, and perhaps knows not the species, or proper denomination of the goods, the law permits the goods to be landed by bills of sight or view*. The merchant makes a deposit, in the hands of the collector, of as much money as the duties are imagined to amount to, or rather more: then the bill of sight is made out, and given to the proper officers; who must examine and take the quantity of the goods, and make their report to the collector the next day, or render themselves liable to the penalty of 100 l. in case of failure. According to the report the entries are passed, and the duties paid, in the same manner as they would have been, had there been no occasion for a bill of sight. If the officers cannot go through the examination in one day, they must report their day's work to the collector, as being in part of the sight; for which the merchant must pass entries, and pay duty, and so proceed till the whole bill of sight is completed.

* A BILL of SIGHT.

[One shilling or two shillings.]

March 6, 1751.

In the Nereid, B. B. James Wood, from Bremen.

RICHARD FONNEREAU, British.

Two bales of merchandize, quantity and quality unknown. Richard FonnerEAU maketh oath, that he hath received no invoice, or other account, whereby to ascertain the quantity and quality of the above merchandize.

R. F.

Sworn before collector,

Forty pounds being deposited in our hands for the duties of the above merchandize, you may permit the bales to be landed to your view and examination, endorsing the contents thereon and returning this warrant in due time to us.

To the surveyor and land-waiters. Collector. Comptroller.

Goods not rated in the book of rates are often imported; in which case, the duties are to be charged according to the value of the goods upon oath, by which value is to be understood the value at the port of importation at that time, exclusive of the duty. The merchant is to observe, that, if he undervalues his goods, the law impowers the officers to take them and sell them; and, after repaying him the duties, according to the value he set upon them, together with the said value, and also 10 per cent. thereof, the surplus, if any, is to be applied to the sinking fund: so that merchants are to govern themselves accordingly, to avoid the consequences of an undervaluation.

Having thus explained the manner of proceeding within doors, the business without doors comes next under consideration: let us therefore take a view of what passes on board the ship and at the keys, in delivering the goods. The tide-men on board the ship keep a tally-account of the delivery, in blue books; the land-waiters upon the keys, under the inspection of the land-surveyors, enter in their blue books not only the number and quality, but also the quantity, of the goods delivered.

The design of the delivery is to ascertain the quality and quantity of the goods, which is chiefly incumbent upon the land-waiters: who are to take care, that the quantities and qualities of the goods delivered agree with the quantities and qualities entered. The qualities of goods are always known to the merchants; the officers, in determining them, must rely upon experience, and the descriptions in the books of rates.

The quantities are to be determined, either by number, weight, or measure, according as the goods are rated in the book of rates.

To enable either merchants or officers to do this, they should be well skilled in arithmetic, gauging, and mensuration; qualifications so indispensably necessary, that none should be admitted, either into a counting-house, or custom-house, without them.

VOL. I.

OF GOODS rated by NUMBER, or TALE.

ART. I. The ALLOWANCES upon DELIVERY.

When stockfish are imported, they are all passed as tiling; which is the least sort of that fish; and liable to the least duty: this is in lieu of allowance for damaged or defective fish.

When paper is imported in reams of 20 quires, each quire containing 24 sheets, 6 sheets per ream are allowed for outfiles. If paper be imported in quires of 25 sheets, as printing paper is, 12 sheets per ream to be allowed for outfiles.

No other allowances on delivery of goods by tale.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

Of oranges and lemons, 500 are to be reckoned to the cheft, and 250 to the half cheft, or box, though the chefts and boxes may hold more; and they are to be passed and entered accordingly, because no allowance is made for damage: but, if the merchant refuses to comply with this practice, the found ones are to be told, and to pay by the thousand.

Stockfish — { Tiling, 18 inches long.
Cropling, 18 to 24 inches.
Lubfish, above 24 inches.

But all passed as tiling. [See allowances above.]

Dagstones — { Over, from 3 to four feet.
Thick, above 6, under 12 inches.

Quernstones { large { Over, 3 and not exceeding four feet.
Thick, not exceeding 6 inches.

{ small { Over, under 3 feet.
Thick, not exceeding 6 inches.

Millstones { Over, above 4 feet.
Thick, 12, 14, or 15 inches.

For other descriptions of goods delivered by tale, see the article TALE.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for QUANTITIES.

A nest — — { Of pill-boxes, contains 4 boxes.
Of nest-boxes, contains 8 boxes.

A groce — — { Great, is 12 times 12 doz. or 1728.
Small, is 12 doz. or 144.
Of bracelets, is 10 doz. or 120.

A flock is 60.

A dicker is 10.

A timber, of furs, is 40.

A laft { Of stones, is 3 pair.
Of Stockfish, is 1000

{ Of herrings { Red, is 20 cades, each cade 500.
White, is 12 barrels.

OF GOODS rated by WEIGHT.

ART. I. The allowances proper to this head are two, draught and tare. Draught is to be deducted, and then the tare, where there is any.

The manner of making the allowance for draught, is, for the weigher to call out the full and true gross weight in the scale; which is to be entered in the land-waiter's book, and an allowance made for each weigh or scale, according to the following table.

Gross weight.	Allowance for draught:
Under 1 C. wt.	— — — 1 lb.
From 1 to 2 C.	— — — 2 lb.
2 to 3 C.	— — — 3 lb.
3 to 10 C.	— — — 4 lb.
10 to 18 C.	— — — 7 lb.
18 to 30 C. or upwards	— — — 9 lb.

Tare, is the weight, or an allowance for the weight of casks, bags, or other packages. For the accommodation of trade, there are in many cases tares settled and established by custom and experience, as you will see in the following table: however, these tares are not to bind the merchant, or officer; if either of them be dissatisfied therewith, they may insist on the goods being shipped and weighed net: and, indeed, in all cases where it can be conveniently done, it is by much the best way.

A TABLE of TARES.

A.	
Allum in casks	— — — 12 lb. per C. wt.
Argol in casks	— — — 14 lb. per C.
Alhes, pot, or pearl, in casks	— — — 10 lb. per C.

B.	
Battery, in fats	— — — 8 per cent.
Beads of coral	{ covered with rags — 3 per cent.
	{ uncovered — 2 per cent.
Brimstone, in casks	— — — 8 per cent.
Bristles, in fats	— — — 17 per cent.
Bugle, great, for frings and rags	— — — 3 per cent.

C.	
Capers, in casks	— — — 1 3d part
Copperas, ditto	— — — 10 per cent.
Cork, in bundles	— — — 1 lb. the bundle.

S f

D

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

D DRUGS.

Aloes hepaticæ, from British plantations,	in goods	1 5th part
Antimony, in casks	—	6 per cent.
Green ginger, in jars of 100 lb.	—	28 lb. per jar
Isinglass, in fats of 4 C. wt.	—	84 lb. per fat
Prunelloes, in boxes about 14 lb.	—	3 lb. per box

F

Feathers, in bags	—	4 per cent
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G

Galls	{ in bags	—	4 lb. per bag
	{ in single bags	—	4 lb. per bag

GROCERY.

Almonds	{ in casks	—	14 lb. per cask
	{ in bags	—	4 lb. per bag
Cinnamon,	{ in bags about 200 lb.	—	18 lb. per bag
	{ in gunny, about 1 C. wt.	—	12 lb.
	{ in skins, about 1 C. wt.	—	14 lb.
Currants	{ in skins and bags	—	16 lb.
	{ in batts and caroteels	—	16 per cent.
	{ in quarter roll	—	20 per cent.
Figs, in barrels	—	—	14 lb. per cent
	—	—	14 lb. per cent
Pepper, in bags, about 3 C. wt.	—	—	4 lb. per bag.
Prunes, in uncertain casks	—	—	20 per cent.
Raisins,	{ in frails	—	6 lb. per frail
	{ Lipra in barrels, about 1 C. wt.	—	14 lb.
	{ Solis, in casks	—	12 per cent.
	{ Smyrna. { in oak casks	—	14 per cent.
	{ in fir casks	—	12 per cent.
Sugar,	{ all small casks under 8 C. wt.	—	14 per cent.
	{ casks from 8 to 12 C.	—	100 C. wt.
	{ — 12 to 15 C.	—	110
	{ — 15 to 17 C.	—	120
	{ — 17 and upwards	—	130
Goats-hair,	{ in canvas	—	4 per cent.
	{ in hair-cloth	—	7 per cent.

H

Hops, in bags	—	4 per cent.
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I

Incle,	{ wrought in papers	—	2 per cent.
	{ unwrought in bales	{ under 2 C.	6 lb.
		{ above 2 C.	8 lb.

L

Latten, in fats	—	8 per cent
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M

Madder,	{ in bales, or bags	—	28 lb.
	{ in fats	—	10 per cent.
Metal prepared, in fats	—	8 per cent.	

O

Oil,	{ in uncertain casks	—	18 per cent.
	{ in candy barrels	—	29 lb. per bar.
Train-oil, of British plantations, in barrels	—	50 lb. per bar.	

S

Saffore,	{ in bales, about 6 C. wt.	—	84 lb. per bale
	{ in bags, from 2 to 3 C.	—	16 lb. per bag
Salt-petre,	{ in casks,	—	12 per cent.
	{ in gunny, about 1 1/4 qr. C.	—	16 lb.
Shumac	{ in bags, about 3 1/2 half C.	—	10 lb.
	{ — 2 to 3 C.	—	8 lb.
	{ — 7 C.	—	14 lb.

Silk thrown, or orgazine,	Of Bologna and Piedmont,	{ Short bales with	fear-cloth and cotton-wool,	14 per cent.
		{ Long bales, about		
	Of Naples,	{ in bales with fear-	cloth,	9 per 100 lb.
		{ in fangots with		
	Of Messina,	{ in bales, double	canvas, thrown	and raw, about
		{ — 2 C. wt.		
		{ in bales with fear-	cloth and cotton	wool, about 2
		{ — C. wt		

Silk raw,	Of Aleppo,	{ in long bales, with cotton wool, from	3 1/4 qr. to 3 qrs. C. wt.	32 lb.
		{ with cotton wool, about		
		{ in fangots	{ about 1 1/4 qr. to 1 1/2	20 lb.
			{ about 1 1/4 qr. to 1 1/2	18 lb.
		{ Ardas silk, in short bales with cot-	ton wool, from 3 1/4 qr. to 2 3/4 qrs.	30 lb.
		{ C. wt.		
	Of Smyrna and Cyprus,	{ About 3 C. wt. and upwards	16 lb.	
		{ From 3 to 2 C. wt.	14 lb.	
		{ Under 2 C. wt.	12 lb.	
Smalts, or powder blue, in casks	—	10 per cent.		
Soap, Caf- tile,	{ in double ferns, about 3 C. wt.	30 lb.		
	{ in single ferns, about 3 C. wt.	16 lb.		
	{ in chests, about 2 1/2 half, or 3 C.	40 lb.		

T

Tallow, in casks,	—	12 per cent.
Threads,	{ black and brown, or bridges	6 per cent.
	{ Outnal,	—
	{ Whited brown,	—
		for want of weight
Sifters thread	{ in uncertain papers,	12 per cent. for papers.
	{ in certain papers,	no allowance.
Tobacco, is stripped and weighed net, but the merchants have an allowance of 2 lb. per hoghead for samples.	—	—
Turpentine, in casks	—	13 d. tare.

Y

Cable-yarn, in winch, from Ruffia	—	28 lb.
Linnen-yarn in fats	—	12 per cent.

ART. II. PARTICULAR REGULATIONS proper to this head.

Oil in casks pays duty by measure, but is delivered by weight; the net weight is reduced to gallons, by allowing 7 1/2 half lb. to a gallon.

To distinguish packthread from twine, take notice, that twine is twice, packthread thrice, twitted.

Twelve pounds of honey make a gallon, and forty-two gallons a barrel.

Two hundred pounds are generally reckoned a barrel, in weight; but that weight of steel is only esteemed half a barrel.

When almonds are imported in shells, 2 3ds to be allowed for shells.

When unpolished coral is imported, 1 3d is reckoned fragments, and the remaining 2 3ds whole coral; there being a difference, in the duty, between whole and fragments.

Bristles, though distinguished, in the book of rates, into drest and undrest, are all passed as undrest, because none are imported perfectly drest.

Sixty-three bundles of bulrushes are reckoned to a load.

Backs for chimnies weighing above 1 1/2 half C. are large; ditto, weighing 1 1/2 half C. and under, are small.

Iron chests, in the book of rates, are distinguished into large, middle, and small.

Large, are 1 1/4 qr. yard long.

Middle, 1 yard long.

Small, 3 qrs. yard long.

Old bushel broken iron, is such as cannot be used without new forging; if there be any new spikes, &c. intermixed, they must be separated, and pay duty, as manufactured iron.

Weights less than 2 lb. are not to be used in weighing tobacco, fugar, and other graff-goods.

Merchants are to be at no charge in opening and weighing goods duly entered.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS, denoting the quantities by which goods proper to this head are rated.

Wey of falt, is 40 bushels, each bushel 84 lb.

Mount of plaister of Paris, is 3000 lb. wt.

A maft of amber, is 2 1/2 half lb.

Little barrel of anchovies, is to weigh 16 lb. of fish.

GOODS rated by MEASURE.

Measures may be distinguished into measures of length, measures of capacity, superficial measure, and solid measure; of which in their order. And, first, of goods rated by measure of length.

ART I. If linnens are contented in Flemish or Dutch ells, two ells in 120 are to be allowed for shortness of measure.

But, if linnens are contented in English ells, no allowance. Of French lockrams, two ells in every 120 to be allowed.

The following are the settled allowances for wrappers.

On Hamburg and Bremen linnen, in packs and bales, 1 ell in 40, but not to exceed 120 ells on any one pack, let the pack be ever so large.

Hessens canvas, Dantzick linnens, 4 ells in every 120.

Flanders linnens, 3 ells in every 100.

Hollands duck, 4 ells in every 100; but, if brought loose, no allowance.

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ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

Linnens are either contented or not contented; contented is that sort of linnen, the particular length of each piece whereof is inserted in the merchant's invoice, and also marked upon the piece itself, or upon a label or ticket affixed to the piece; linnen not contented, is that sort of the particular length of each piece whereof the merchants have no account, nor is the length of each piece marked upon, or affixed to it.

When linnens are contented, the merchant is to insert the true and exact contents, or number of ells, in each bale, or other package, in the bill of entry. When they are not contented, the merchant is to insert in the bill of entry the number of pieces in each bale, or other package; and likewise the total quantity for which duty is paid.

Contented linnens short entered, or different in sort or species from the entry, are to be seized; and, if the number of pieces of not contented linnens, in any bale or other package, exceeds the number inserted in the warrant, the supernumerary pieces are to be seized: if the difference between the total quantity of not contented linnens delivered, and the total quantity entered, be above one ell for every piece, the excess is to be stopped and sent to the king's warehouse for the board's directions; but, if the said difference be under one ell in every piece, then a post-entry may be admitted.

The land-waiters are to open and examine every parcel of Flemish and Holland linnens, and Silesia lawns and cambricks; and at least one third part of the number of bales, or packs, of all other linnens.

If the contents of any package differ from the contents in the warrant, all the other packages are to be opened and carefully examined.

In examining contented linnens, care is to be taken to measure some pieces in every package opened, to see that the measure agrees with the number of ells marked on the piece, or on the label.

Three or four pieces, at least, in every bale, or other package, of not contented linnens, are to be measured; one or two to be chosen by the officer, and the like number by the merchant, by which the contents of the whole bale are to be computed. In case of dispute, as many more as are necessary to decide it, are to be chosen and measured by the officer and merchant, in the manner above-mentioned.

No wrappers are to be allowed upon linnens in chests, casks, or fats, nor upon Russia linnens.

The number of archeens of Russia linnen in every bale, wrappers included, is to be inserted in the warrant by the importer, who is to make oath of the truth thereof: after examination of the bales, to prevent concealment, the archeens are to be reduced to English ells, by multiplying them by 57, and cutting off the two last figures in the product. On suspicion of fraud, the officers are to measure.

The contents of the wrappers of all sorts of linnen are to be charged to account in the land-waiter's books; and duty is to be paid for them, because proper allowances are made in another manner as before mentioned.

If any linnens are used as wrappers, which pay a higher duty than the linnens wrapped, and are not particularly distinguished in the warrant, they are to be seized.

The pieces of buckrams, not to exceed 15 yards.

The pieces of bermillions, not to exceed 40 yards.

The half piece of ditto, not to exceed 15 yards.

The piece or knot of bandstrung twist, is 32 yards.

The piece $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of caddas,} \\ \text{of check,} \\ \text{of Silesia lawn,} \\ \text{of cambrick and other} \\ \text{lawns,} \end{array} \right\}$ is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 36 \text{ yards.} \\ 10 \text{ yards.} \\ \text{from 4 to 8 yards.} \\ 13 \text{ yards.} \end{array} \right.$

Of Flemish, or } about 2 yards wide, 6 yards are a tick.

Dutch ticks, } 1 yard wide, 12 are a tick.

No post-entry is to pass for contented linnens, or linnens rated by the piece, without special order from the board.

When English and Dutch ells are both inserted in the merchant's invoice, the English only are to be regarded.

The duties on several sorts of linnens differ according to the breadth; the following limitations of breadth are, therefore, to be particularly noted, both by the officer and merchant.

Germany and east } narrow, is not above 7 8ths of a yard.

country linnen, } broad, above 7 8ths of a yard.

Russia linnen, } narrow, not above half an English ell.

} broad, above half an English ell.

The breadths of Flemish and Dutch linnens are thus limited for the different duties, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{not exceeding 1 and 1 8th.} \\ \text{English ells.} \\ \text{above 1 and 1 8th, and under 2 English} \\ \text{ells.} \\ \text{2 ells, and under 3 English ells.} \\ \text{3 English ells, and upwards.} \end{array} \right.$

Looking-glasses in the book of rates are distinguished by certain numbers, which signify the number of inches in the breadth of each glass.

The following Table may be of some use to distinguish linnens.

Contented linnens.			Not contented linnens.	
Names.	Usual lengths, and in what measure contented.		Names of pieces.	Usual lengths.
	English ells.	Dutch ells.		English ells
Ifingham - - - whole piece -	38 to 40		Crocus - - - -	23
Gentish - - - Do.	42 to 47		Dutch barras - - -	22
Hollands, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Bag Do. -} \\ \text{Gulix Do. -} \\ \text{Alcumore Do. -} \end{array} \right.$	28 to 30 34 to 38	50 to 53	Hessens canvas	28
Borelaps - - - Do.		40 to 65	Drillings - - -	17
Headen rolls - - - -		40 to 120	Dowlais, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{single -} \\ \text{double -} \end{array} \right.$	26 52
Hinderlinds - - - -		40	Garlix, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{3 qrs. wide -} \\ \text{and upwards} \end{array} \right.$	26 19
Ofnaburgs, distinguished by a catharine wheel, and the word Ofnaburg stamped round it	30 to 120		Lubeck duck - - -	28
Hammels - - - -		70	Blue paper Silesia's	7
Hartfords, the word Hartford stamped thereon with ink - - - -	30 to 100 and upwards.		Holland's duck, a bolt always passed at	28
			Russia failcloth	28
			Bolts usually computed at	28½

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS proper to this head, - none.

Of GOODS rated by MEASURES of capacity, liquid, or dry.

ART. I. ALLOWANCES upon DELIVERY.

Olives improper in large casks are to be gauged, and 1 3d of the contents allowed for liquor.

Every $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pipe} \\ \text{Hoghead} \end{array} \right\}$ of wine, which shall be run out, and not above 9 inches left therein, shall be accounted out, and no subsidy paid for the same.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

If a merchant enters his wines filled, he pays duty only for the net wine contained in the cask, and has no allowance out of the duties for leakage: when wines are entered unfilled, duty is to be paid for the full contents of the cask, though it may want considerably of being full; but then the merchant is allowed 12 per cent. out of the duties for leakage.

Therefore, if casks of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Rhenish} \\ \text{French} \\ \text{Port, or Madeira,} \\ \text{all other} \end{array} \right\}$ wines imported into

66	}	of being full,
62½		
106		
102½		
144		
142½		
6		
59		
The out-ports want more than		

The merchant loses by entering them unfilled. In general, if any casks of wine, imported into the out-ports, want much more than 1 tenth of being full, 'tis for the merchant's advantage to enter them filled; otherwise unfilled.

Five flasks, or 7 and 1 half bottles of Florence wine, are to be esteemed a gallon. Five bottles of other wines, imported in bottles, to be reckoned to a gallon, unless the officers or merchants think proper to measure.

Jars of oil, usually passed at 22, 24, or 26 gallons.

A chest of oil, usually passed at 8 gallons.

Barrels of mum, passed at 48 gallons.

Kegs of spruce beer, at 4 gallons.

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In case of leakage, mum barrels and kegs of spruce beer may be filled up, before computation is made.

Tar barrels are to contain 31 and 1 half gallons, and are to be filled up before computation is made for the duties.

Awms of Rhenish wines are generally paffed at 38 and 1 half gallons.

Note. To meafure all forts of casks, fee the article GAUGING.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for quantities.

A ton 252 gallons.

A pipe 126 gallons.

An hoghead 63 gallons.

An awm 42 gallons.

A barrel of spruce } for customs, 42 wine gallons.

beer and mum, } for excise, 32 wine gallons.

Of apples, tarras, onions, &c. 3 bushels.

Note. There is no contradiction in faying here, that an awm is 42 gallons, and observing before that awms of Rhenish are paffed at 38 and 1 half gallons: for the exact awm is 42 gallons, or 1 sixth of a ton; but the awms imported generally contain 38 and 1 half gallons, and must be reduced to awms of 42 gallons for the duties. Thus, the exact butt or pipe is 126 gallons; but the butts and pipes imported contain sometimes considerably more, and sometimes a good deal less, than that quantity. Observe the same distinction with respect to barrels of mum.

Of GOODS rated by superficial and solid measure.

ART. I. Allowances,—none.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

If balks are above 8 inches square, they are to be accounted timber, and meafured.

Five gally-tiles, of 5 inches square, are esteemed a foot.

Four gally-tiles, of 6 inches square, make a foot.

In computing the contents of round cylindrical timber, one-fourth of the girt is taken for the side of a square, and then you proceed as if it was square timber.

Round conical timber, as mafts, &c. is reduced to square timber by adding the girt, at the large end, and the girt at the lesser end together, and taking one eighth of the sum for the side of a square.

Unequal-sided timber is reduced to square timber, by taking one-fourth of the girt in the middle for the side of a square.

In meafuring pyramidal timber, where ends are parallelograms, the practice is, to take half the sum of the breadths of the two ends for the mean breadth, and half the sum of the thicknesses, for the mean thickness; and then to multiply the product of the mean breadth and mean thickness by the length.

These customary methods of meafuring timber deviate from the true; but our business is to give an account of practice. Yet we shall not be wanting to give the complete theory of mensuration, under it's proper article.

Basket rods pay duty by the bundle, which is to be three feet about the band; if the band, or circumference of the bundle, exceeds three feet, duty must be paid according to the proportion which the area of a circle, where the circumference is three feet, bears to the area of a circle of any other circumference; and circles are in proportion to one another as the square of their circumferences, or, which is the same thing, as the squares of their diameters.

The inches of waincoat boards are computed, in proportion to their lengths and thicknesses, according to the following table.

Lengths in feet.	1 qr. of an inch	Half an inch.	3 qrs. of an in.	1 inch.
12	4 boards make an inch.	2 to an inch.	4 to 3 inches.	1 to an inch.
9	6 to 3 inches.	2 to 3 inches.	16 to 9 inches.	4 to 3 inches.
6	8 to an inch.	4 to an inch.	8 to 3 inches.	2 to an inch.

Square feet of PLANK are reduced to solid feet, or loads, by the following table.

Thickness of plank in inches.	Square feet in a solid foot.	Square feet in a load.
4	3	150
3	4	200
2½	4,8	240
2	6	300
1½	8	400
1	12	600
¾	16	800

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for quantities.

A load of timber, or plank, is 50 solid or cubic feet.

A ton of ditto is 40 cubic feet.

By an inch of waincoat-board is meant a waincoat-board 12 feet long and one inch thick.

Every thing material being thus collected in a narrow compass, with respect to the ascertaining the species and quantity of foreign goods imported, we shall proceed to other things, not less necessary to the merchant.

It sometimes happens that goods upon delivery are found to have received damage. In this case the surveyor and land-waiters are to make their report on the back of the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers, who are then to chuse two indifferent and experienced merchants, to view the goods, and upon oath to determine the quantum of the damage. Then the surveyor and land-waiters certify that the goods viewed by the merchants are the same for which duty was paid: whereupon a certificate of the whole proceeding * is made out, and a proportional abatement of duty is made, and repaid to the merchant, upon his signing the receipt.

* The form of a CERTIFICATE OF DAMAGE.

Port of } We hereby certify, that, on the day of
 1751, A B did enter and pay all his majesty's subsidies, customs, and duties, inwards, for tons of
 in the } of C D master, from
 and the proper officers, appointed to attend the delivery, having reported the same to be much damaged by salt water we, thereupon chose E F and G H, two indifferent merchants, to view the said and ascertain the damage they have received. And the said E F and G H, having this day made oath before us, that the said by reason of the said damage, are diminished in value one third part; which being also verified by the certificate of the delivering officers, we have, therefore, this day repaid to the said A B one third part of the duties by him first paid. Dated at the Custom-house, this

Collector,
Comptroller.

E F, G H, merchants and dealers in
make oath, that they have viewed and carefully examined imported by A B, and found them to be so much damaged by salt water, that, to the best of their skill and judgment, the value of the said goods appeared to be diminished one third part.

E F.
G H.

Sworn before } Collector,
} Comptroller.

If, upon delivery of foreign goods, it appears that the merchant, through inadvertency or mistake, hath entered and paid duty for a greater quantity than is really imported and delivered, the surveyor and land-waiters must certify the case on the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers; who thereupon call on the merchant, or his known agent, to make oath to the quantity received, and also of the reason of the over-entry; the truth whereof being confirmed by the certificate of the delivering officers, the duty for the quantity over-entered is repaid, and the merchant gives a receipt for it †. But, if due proof be made before the entry is posted into the king's books, the duty may be repaid without all this trouble, as hath been before observed.

† The form of a CERTIFICATE OF OVER-ENTRY.

Port of } We do hereby certify, that, on the day of
 1751, G H did here enter and pay his majesty's duties, inwards, for in the
 C D master, from and it appearing to us, as well by the certificate of the proper officers who attended the delivery, as by the affidavit of the said G H, that no more than was imported in and delivered out of the said vessel; and that, consequently, the said G H hath over entered We have, therefore, this day repaid the duties for the said quantity over-entered. Dated at the Custom-House.

Collector.
Comptroller.

G H maketh oath, that no more than was imported in the vessel above-mentioned, and that the reason of the over-entry was

G H.

Sworn before us } Collector,
} Comptroller.

J K, land-surveyor, and J H, J W, land-waiters, do hereby certify, that no more than appears to us to have been delivered out of the said vessel; and that we have no reason to suspect any fraud.

J K, Land-surveyor.
J H, } Land-waiters.
J W, }

Custom-House, the day of
Received of the collector of his majesty's customs, at this port the sum of in full of this over-entry.

Branches repaid }

If the goods imported be entitled to a premium after entry and delivery, the officers will examine them carefully, and see that they be cleaned and garbled from all dirt, dross, &c. and are

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are in good merchantable condition, and have all the other qualifications required by law. Then the true quantities, qualities circumstances of importation, &c. are certified at large, by the proper officers †. This certificate is delivered to the importer; who, upon producing the same to the commissioners, or officers appointed by law to pay the premium, will have it put in due course of payment accordingly.

† The Form.

Custom-House. 1751.
These are to certify whom it may concern, that the goods undermentioned were imported in the ship whereof of is master, from the con- signed to, and entered by the the day of viz.

which goods are of the growth and produce of as appears to us by a certificate under the hands and seals of dated and the affidavit of the said master, dated

These are to certify, that, in pursuance of an act of parliament passed in second year of his present majesty, intitled An Act for the better preservation of his majesty's woods in America, and for the encouragement of the importation of naval stores from thence, &c. We have viewed

and we find the said goods duly qualified, and intitled to the reward and premium appointed by the above-said act.

Portage is an allowance, or premium, paid to masters of ships, for making a true report of their cargoes. To obtain it, as soon as the cargo is delivered, and the duties all paid, the master must apply to the land-surveyor, who will give him a certificate that he has made a true report, and is duly intitled to portage; wherein will be also expressed the amount of the branches of duty for the whole cargo, out of which portage is payable. This certificate the master carries to the collector and comptroller, who examine it, and compute the amount of the portage: then a portage bill * is made out and signed, and the money is paid, according to the following rates, viz.

* A PORTAGE BILL.

Port of } C D, master of the from Genoa, who reported the day of hath made a true report, as appears upon comparing the accounts of the delivery with his report, and is duly intitled to portage. The total amount of the upon his cargo, being the branches out of which portage is due, is pounds shillings pence

The old subsidy, &c. upon the cargo above-mentioned, amounts to and the portage for the same, after the rate of per cent is

Comptroller.

Custom-House, the day of Received, of the collector of his majesty's customs at this port, the sum of in full of the above

Portage Bill. C D.

RATES of PORTAGE, allowed to such masters of ships who make a true report of their cargoes, without fraud or reserve.

Wines 6 s. 8 d. } On the amount of the old subsidy, 1 per cent. additional duty, and imposts on all the wine imported in the vessel.
Currants, 6 s. 8 d. } On the old subsidy, 1 per cent. and petty custom.
Norway goods, 2 l. } On the old subsidy and petty custom.
Other goods, 10 s. } On the old subsidy, 1 per cent. additional duty, and petty custom on the whole cargo.
Note, that no portage bill is to be paid, unless it amounts to ten shillings.

Of RE-EXPORTATION.

If foreign goods and merchandizes be exported within three years from the importation, reckoning from the time of the master's report, the greatest part of the duties first paid are drawback.

The general rule for the drawback, as has been shewn by the examples of computation, is all but the moiety of the old subsidy; but there are several exceptions to this, which shall be fully explained under the article DRAWBACKS.

The manner of proceeding at the custom-house in this case is, that a certificate must be obtained of the payment of the du-

ties inwards, from the collector and comptroller †, and proof is to be made, that the goods to be exported are the very same goods mentioned in the certificate, by the oaths of the exporter, and the merchants through whose hands they have passed. The exporter then enters the goods outwards, as in the common way of exportation; which see under the article EXPORTATION, where whatever is essential to the practical business of a merchant will be found. The cocket granted upon this occasion is called a certificate cocket *, and differs a little in form from common over-sea cockets. Notice of the time of shipping is to be given to the searcher, who attends the shipping, examines and ascertains the quantity, and returns the cocket endorsed, to the officers who granted it: all other proceedings at clearing the vessel are the same as have been before explained.

† The form of a CERTIFICATE of Payment of DUTY INWARDS.

Custom-House, the day of In the of the master, for A H, merchant.

Fifteen hundred weight of German steel; the old subsidy, new subsidy, one-third and two-thirds subsidies, and subsidy (1747) and impost 1690, whereof were paid here, inwards, per se, in the master, from on the day of 1751.

Collector.

A H maketh oath, that the contents } of the above certificate are true, }

A H.

Note, it sometimes happens, that, before the goods are exported, they pass through two or three hands; for instance, suppose A H the importer, had sold the above goods to C D, who sold them again to W K, who reported them; in this case, the oaths at the foot of the certificate would stand thus:

A H maketh oath, that the 15 C. wt. of German steel, imported by him in the and for which he paid duty on the as is abovementioned, was by him sold and delivered to C D, on the A H.

C D maketh oath, that he delivered to W K, on the the 15 C. wt. of German steel, which he bought of A H, on the C D.

W K maketh oath, that the 15 C. wt. of German steel, mentioned in the above certificate, is the very same steel, and no other, which he bought of C D, on the W K.

* The form of a CERTIFICATE COCKET.

[Three shillings and six-pence.]

Port of } Know ye that Robert Dewick hath regularly Sunderland. } entered, in the Falcon of this place, himself master for Amsterdam, 1500 pipe-staves, imported December 1, 1748, and all duties inwards then paid per se, in the same ship from Dantzick, as by certificate appears.

Dated at the Custom-House, March 7, 1749.

Some time after the departure of the vessel, the merchant exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the drawback, who will thereupon make out a debenture †, upon an eighteen-penny stamp, containing a clear and distinct narrative of the whole proceeding, with the merchant's oath, that the goods are really and truly exported to parts beyond the seas, and not relanded, nor intended to be relanded, or brought on shore again; and also the searcher's certificate of the quality and quantity of the goods, and the time of shipping, underwrote. The debenture being thus duly made out, and sworn to, the branches of duty to be repaid are endorsed, the merchant's receipt taken below, and the money due paid.

† The form of a DEBENTURE for FOREIGN GOODS.

Port of } These are to certify that A H did enter with us, on the day of 1751, in the master, for fifteen hundred weight of German steel; the old subsidy, new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and two-thirds subsidies, subsidy 1747, and impost 1690, were paid here, inwards, per se, in the master, from on the day of 1751, as appears by certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, the said A H hath this day made oath of the same before us. Dated at the Custom-House.

Collector.
Comptroller.

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Of EXPORTATION.

When you intend to export goods to foreign parts, write four bills of entry, in the form below †. Go to the custom-house, and deliver them to the collector, or his clerk. The duties if any due, will be computed, and demanded; upon payment, a cocket [see the form †] certifying the payment of duty, or the regular entry of the goods, if not liable to duty, will be delivered to you, which keep till you intend to ship the goods. Before shipping, deliver the cocket to the searcher, and give him notice of the time when you intend to ship them; for no goods are to be landed or shipped but in the presence of a proper officer. The searcher will attend and examine, and count, weigh, or measure the goods; which done, they are put on board, and the searcher certifies the quantity shipped on the back of the cocket, which is then returned to the principal officers with whom it remains till the master comes to clear. When the master comes, the cockets for all the goods on board are collected, and entered in what is called a report outwards [see the form below *] upon the master's declaring the said cockets to contain a true account of his whole cargo. To this report the master makes oath before the collector and comptroller, pays his clearing charge, his cockets are delivered, and he is at liberty to proceed on his voyage.

† The form of an OUTWARD ENTRY.

[Sometimes 6 d. sometimes 1 s. is charged for the collector, for writing these entries, which the merchant saves by writing them himself.]

March 10, 1751.

In the Swift B. B. Thomas Hall master, for Dort,

I L. No 1, to 3.	80 Chalders of coals, 400 Pieces, containing 380 C. wt. of lead, 3 Bales, containing 50 pieces of baiz.	John Long.
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‡ The form of an OVER-SEA COCKET.

[Three shillings and six-pence]

Port of } Know ye, that John Long, Br. hath here paid
Sunderland. } his majesty's over-sea duty for 80 chalders of
coals, and 400 pieces, containing 380 C. wt. of lead; and
hath also entered tree three bales, containing 50 pieces of baiz,
in the Swift of Stockton, Thomas Hall, master, for Dort.

Dated at the Custom-House,
this 10th of March, 1751.

Collector.
Comptroller.

* The form of a REPORT OUTWARDS.

[Deputies fees 2 s. 6 d. for a British man, and 3 s. 4 d. for a foreigner; nothing more due to the collector, or any other officer.]

OUTWARDS. Port of with and present voyage to	} In the ship built, property all men of which besides a man master for this in	of about men	 tons
--	---	--------------------------	----------

I do swear, that the entry above-written, now tendered and subscribed by me, is a just report of the name of my ship, it's burden, built, property, number and country of mariners, the present master, and voyage: and that it further contains a true account of my lading, with the particular marks, numbers, quantity, quality, and property of all the goods and merchandizes in my said ship, to the best of my knowledge or belief: and that I will not suffer to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain, any certificate goods which I have on board, nor take in any more goods for this present voyage, without duly entering, and adding the same to this report.

Sworn before us the } Collector,
day of } Comptroller.

So help me God.

The articles of goods exported, which are liable to duty, or intitled to bounty, are but few; and the quantities are determined either by number, weight, or dry measure: as, therefore, the manner of ascertaining the quantities must be very plain and evident, it is needless to say any thing on that subject; only let it be noted, that, when merchants make just entries of their goods, they are to be at no charge, in the opening, examining, weighing, measuring, or repacking the goods; all which are to be done at the officers charge.

What has been said contains the regular method of entering goods outwards, as prescribed by law; but the practice at Sunderland, with respect to coals, is somewhat different.

Before any coals are shipped, you must go to the custom-house, and make a deposit in the collector's hands of the duty of so many chalders as you intend to ship: whereupon a war-

rant [see the form below †] is made out, and delivered to the surveyor, who places a tidesman on board, to take an account of the chalders shipped. The intended number of chalders being shipped, the tidesman returns the warrant to the surveyor, who examines, certifies, and returns it to the officers who grant it, with whom it remains till the master comes to clear; and then the entries, cocket, and report are made out, in the same form and manner as is before explained.

† The form of a WARRANT of SUFFERANCE for shipping COALS intended for EXPORTATION.

[Fee included in the report outwards.]

March 7, 1751.

In the Mermaid, B. B. Robert Say, master, for Amsterdam,
the master
50 chalders of coals,
(duties deposited) to be shipped, but not exported till further order.

To the surveyor.

Comptroller
Collector.

Masters who clear over-sea with coals, sometimes find themselves obliged to deliver their cargoes in England; in which case they post the coal-duty at the port of delivery; the over-sea duty, therefore, is to be repaid; and, to obtain an order for repayment, they must first apply to the collector and comptroller of the lading-port for a certificate of the payment of the over-sea duty. [See the form below †.] Then, before the collector, comptroller, or other person properly authorized, they must make an affidavit according to the form *. This affidavit, together with the return or certificate of delivery upon the coast, and also the certificate of the payment of the over-sea duty are to be put into the hands of any person who has a correspondent at London, in order to be laid before the board of customs; who, if the proof appears to be clear and satisfactory, will send orders to the collector and comptroller of the port where the over-sea duty was paid, to permit the like quantity of coals to be exported duty free; upon the receipt of which orders, and the application of the proper person, they generally repay the duty.

† The form of a CERTIFICATE of payment of the OVER-SEA DUTY, necessary to obtain repayment, when coals have been delivered coast-wise.

[One shilling was usually taken for the collector, who may give the certificate gratis.]

Port of } We hereby certify, that Richard Gray did, on
Sunderland. } the 8th of March, 1751, pay his majesty's over-
sea duty at this port, for 60 chalders of coals, Newcastle mea-
sure, in the Sea-Horse of this place, himself master, for Sche-
dam.

Dated at the Custom-House,

Collector,
Comptroller.

Goods exported, 900 l.
Coals exported, 900 l.

1800 l.

* AFFIDAVIT of the identity of the COALS entered over-sea, but delivered in England.

[This business is not restrained to officers; masters may apply to such persons, properly authorized, as they find to work the cheapest.]

Richard Gray maketh oath, That the 60 Chalders of coals, Newcastle measure, delivered at Lynn, out of the Sea-Horse of Sunderland, himself master, and which made out these 130 Chalders Winchester measure, are the very same coals for which he paid his majesty's over-sea duties at Sunderland, the 8th day of March, 1751, in the same ship, himself master, for Schendam, as appears by certificate of the proper officer, annexed; and that no part thereof was, directly or indirectly, landed, or discharged in foreign parts. And this deponent further maketh oath, that he is a natural-born subject of Great-Britain; that he never yet received any allowance for the duties of the above coals; and that he hath no bonds, become forfeited to the crown, standing out undischarged.

Sworn before, &c.

R. G.

When goods intitled to bounty are exported, the merchant (after entering them, and taking out a cocket as before directed) is to give bond for the exportation; and the officers ought to be more than ordinarily careful and exact in taking the quantities, and examining whether the goods have all the legal requisites to intitle them to bounty. When the ship is sailed, and clear of the coast, the exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the debenture; which being duly signed, the bounty will be paid him immediately at the port, if there be money on the proper branches: but if there be not, the debenture will be delivered to him, and he must apply for payment at London [see forms of debentures both for bounties and

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drawbacks*.] The tenour of all debentures is much the same; so that, though there be several articles of goods intitled to bounties and drawbacks, the specimens given may suffice, both to give merchants a general notion of the manner of proceeding, and to enable officers to make out proper debentures in all other cases.

* A CORN DEBENTURE.

[No fee.]
 Port of } These are to certify, that I
 } shipped for in the a
 British ship, whereof the master, and
 two-thirds of the mariners, are his majesty's subjects,
 Winchester measure, and that
 the price of of the measure aforesaid,
 in the port of the last market-day, did not
 exceed

Witness my hand the

maketh oath, that the corn herein mentioned is not reloaded, or intended to be reloaded, in Great-Britain; or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

maketh oath, the contents of the certificate abovementioned are true.

Bond is taken in penalty of that the corn abovementioned (the danger of the seas excepted) shall be exported into parts beyond the seas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

The corn abovementioned, viz.
 was shipped in the said ship, the
 day of

Landwaiter,
 Searcher.

The vessel abovementioned is
 master, and two thirds of the mariners his majesty's subjects.

The money to be paid for the corn within
 mentioned, pursuant to an act of parliament for encouraging the exportation
 of corn, amounts to

Collector,
 Comptroller.

When there is not money at the port, the collector certifies accordingly, and then delivers the debenture to the exporter, who applies to the commissioners of the customs for payment, and their secretary thereupon endorses an order to the receiver-general to pay it in a limited time.

As the bounties on corn exported are very considerable, that article has been thought worthy of some particular regulations, with respect to the shipping it; which it will not be amiss to note.

When a merchant signifies his intention to ship corn, intitled to bounty, entries are not posted immediately, and a cocket granted, as is usually done for other goods; but the collector and comptroller grant a sufferance to ship the intended quantity, directed to the patent-searcher, surveyor, and landwaiter, who are to attend the measuring and shipping thereof. A round strike is to be made use of in measuring the corn, the middle whereof is to be entered upon the edge of the bushel or measure, and it is to be passed over the top of the bushel with a swift circular motion: and, for expedition's sake, a tub, containing four Winchester bushels, may also be used in the admeasurement. When the corn is measured and shipped, the quantity and quality are to be indorsed on the sufferance, which is to be returned to the collector. The exporter is then to certify the quantity and quality of the corn shipped, in writing, under his hand; which certificate is to be verified by the oath of one or more credible persons; whereupon bond is to be given for exporting the corn, and for bringing a certificate of the landing thereof beyond seas: then entries are to be passed, and a cocket in due form delivered to the merchant, who is to endorse the quantity of corn shipped thereon, before the ship is cleared.

The regulations for malt are somewhat different. Malt may be entered at once, without a previous sufferance, and bond may be given at the time of entry. It is then to be measured and shipped, as it comes to hand. If the quantity to be shipped be greater than the quantity entered, the merchant must make a fresh entry, and give a fresh bond; if less, the quantity short-shipped is to be indorsed by the merchant in the bond, a proper exception being made in the condition of such bonds for that purpose.

The barley to be made into malt for exportation is entered with the excise officers, and their certificates of the quantity are to be annexed to the debenture. The bounty is to be allowed for half as much more barley as was steeped; or, which is the same thing, the bounty is 3 s. 9 d. per quarter upon the barley steeped.

No fees are to be taken for debentures, dispatches, or any other matters relating to the exportation of corn.

When the price of wheat is from 46 s. to 50 s. a quarter, no bounty is to be allowed.

When wheat and rye mixed are exported, bounty is to be paid as if the whole quantity was rye.

Flour exported is to be weighed, and not measured; 448 lb. is to be allowed to a quarter. It may be weighed and shipped, as it comes from the mill; or the bran may be separated, and the fine flour only weighed and shipped, as the merchant chuses. Weighing porters are to assist in shipping flour, without charge to the merchants.

No bounty is to be allowed on corn exported for the use of his majesty's garrisons, nor on corn shipped on board ships for Newfoundland, or any other place, for brewing beer, baking bread, for the voyage.

Ships trading to the Mediterranean must be provided with Mediterranean passes from the admiralty. The steps necessary to be taken for obtaining them are these: the surveyor of the port where the ship lies must go on board, and examine and survey her, and muster the seamen; then he is obliged to certify, under his hand in writing, to the collector of the port, the burden and built of the vessel, the number of men, distinguishing natives and foreigners, the number of guns, what sort of vessel she is, &c. The collector, having received this, proposes an affidavit, to be signed and sworn to by the master, which contains all the foregoing particulars, and likewise the name of the vessel, master, and port bound to, the time when, and place where, she was built; to which is added, that she is of British property: that her last pass was delivered up; and that the master has delivered up all the passes he ever had before. This affidavit is transmitted to the secretary of the admiralty, who thereupon sends down a pass, and a bond for delivering it up, after the voyage is performed. The bond, being duly executed, is returned to the admiralty, and the pass is delivered to the master.

Ships are not permitted to trade to the British plantations, or colonies, until proof be made upon oath, by one or more of the owners, that the ship is British built, and British property, and the master, and at least three-fourths of the mariners, British; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any interest therein.

After which the ship is to be registered, and a certificate thereof delivered to the master. Bond is also to be given, with one sufficient security, in the penalty of 1000 l. if the vessel be under 100 tons, or in 2000 l. if the vessel be above that burden; that, if any of the goods of the produce of the said plantations, enumerated in several acts of parliament, be taken on board, they shall be brought by the said ship to Great-Britain, and there landed.

This bond may be given either in Great-Britain, or in the plantations, and a certificate of the delivery must be produced in 18 months from the date of the bond.

Rice and sugar may be carried directly from the plantations to any foreign ports southward of Cape Finisterre, upon obtaining proper licences, and under certain regulations: for the knowledge whereof there is no greater occasion in the out-ports: and, therefore, we shall refer that matter to the business of the port of London, which we shall treat of under the article CUSTOM-HOUSE.

According to this order of proceeding, we shall, in regard to the out-ports, give the forms, precedents, and instructions for the execution of every branch of the business of that revenue; and fully shew the method of granting, making out, entering, and executing the proper dispatches, and other instruments; also of keeping and making out the several books of accounts relating to this branch of his majesty's revenue; and the manner how every other part of each branch is to be performed by the respective officers.—In a word, the whole upon this part of our design will fully explain and illustrate the nature of the office of a collector, custom, comptroller, searcher, surveyor, land-waiter, coast-waiter, tide-surveyor, tide-waiter, &c. directing how each of them are, in their respective stations, to execute the several laws of the customs, and neither to suffer the crown to be injured, nor the trading subject to be oppressed.

These points will appear, at the conclusion of every letter, after the duties; and also under the general heads of customs, importation, exportation, drawbacks, bounties, subsidies, and all such articles as are a proper analysis of this branch of the public revenue; which articles will be duly referred to from time to time.

What we have hitherto said, in regard to the methods of transacting business at the Custom-House, relates, as observed, chiefly to the out-ports, though there ought to be no variation from that of London. And, to the end that the whole business of these ports, together with that of the coasting part, may be thoroughly entered into, we shall, at the end of every letter, where we represent the duties, continue to give a connected system of the practice of the customs, as well in respect to what regards the port of London as the other ports.

Wherefore, at present, we shall only further observe upon this subject, that, although the laws direct what duties shall be paid, what penalties inflicted, and some particular requisites that must be performed; yet they are almost entirely silent as to the manner and method of levying and accounting for the duties, and of performing and executing of all other requisites and regulations which are necessary to be observed, for the greater security

of

of the merchant, and the better to ascertain and secure his majesty's revenue.

And as form and method are essential to the due execution of all business in general; so uniformity is absolutely necessary in that of the customs, because it is to be performed at different places, and by different persons; who being only so many transactors of the same kind of business, ought not only to execute it, but render an account of all their proceedings, in the same manner and form; and therefore we shall, through the course of this design, intersperse such instructions and examples, as, it is humbly apprehended, will fully shew the method of executing the business of each respective officer with uniformity throughout the whole: which, together with all the other matter we shall incorporate, will make a complete system of the whole business of the British customs, and that in a method more familiar and intelligible to officers, merchants, and gentlemen, who are desirous to become masters of this great branch of the revenue, than was ever done before.

Certain RULES, ORDERS, DIRECTIONS, and ALLOWANCES, for the advancement of trade, and encouragement of the merchant; as also for the regulating as well of the merchants in making of due entries and just payments of their customs, as of the officers in all the ports of this kingdom, in the faithful discharge of their duty: annexed to the Book of Rates referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage, passed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

I.

Every merchant shall have free liberty to break bulk in any port allowed by the law, and to pay custom and subsidy for no more than he shall enter and land; provided that the master or purser of every such ship shall first make declaration upon oath, before any two principal officers of the port, of the true contents of his ship's lading; and shall likewise after declare, upon his oath, before the customer, collector, comptroller, or surveyor, or two of them, at the next port of this kingdom, where his ship shall arrive, the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the other port, where bulk was first broken, and to whom they did belong.

II.

All foreign goods and merchandizes (except wines, currants, and wrought silks) first imported, shall be again exported by any merchant, within three years (as by the 7th Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.) and such merchant or merchants as shall export any such foreign goods or merchandizes (except as before excepted) shall have allowance, and be repaid by the officer which received the same, the one moiety of the subsidy which was paid at the first importation of such foreign goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof, so as due proof be first made, by certificate from the officers, of the due entry and payment of the custom and subsidy of all such foreign goods and merchandizes inwards, together with the oath of the merchant's importing and exporting the same, affirming the truth thereof, and the name of his majesty's searcher, or under-searcher, in the port of London, and of the searcher of any other the out-ports, testifying the shipping thereof to be exported. After all which duly performed, in manner before expressed, the moiety of the subsidy, first paid inwards, shall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto such merchant or merchants who do export such goods and merchandizes, within one month after demand thereof: as also the whole additional duty of silks, linnen, and tobacco, in manner as before is directed.

The like regulations for repayment of the new subsidy, 9 and 10 Wil. III. cap. 23. §. 13.

III.

And, if there be any agreement now in force, which was formerly made by the late commissioners of the customs and subsidies, with the merchant-strangers, or their factors, or shall hereafter be made by any commissioners or farmers of the customs and subsidies, or any other power (except by consent of parliament) with any merchant or merchant-strangers, or their factors, for any foreign goods or merchandizes to be brought into the port of London, or any other port or haven of this kingdom of Great-Britain, and to be exported again by way of composition; all other merchants, being his majesty's subjects, shall be admitted into the same composition, and not to be excluded from any other privilege whatsoever, granted to the stranger by any private agreement, or composition under the same conditions, and with the same restriction, as shall be made with the merchant-stranger.

IV.

Every merchant, as well British as stranger, that shall ship and export any kind of wines, which formerly have paid all the duties of tonnage inwards, shall have repaid, or allowed unto them, all the duties of tonnage paid inwards: except to the British man 20 s. the ton, and except to the stranger 25 s. the ton, upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the tonnage inwards, and of the shipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the second article is mentioned and expressed.

V.

If any merchant, denizen or stranger, shall export any Spanish or foreign wools, he shall have liberty so to do, with this further condition, that such Spanish, or other foreign wools whatsoever, be not exported in any other ship or vessel whatsoever,

with intent to be carried beyond the seas, out of the kingdom of Great-Britain, than only in British shipping, upon pain of confiscation.

VI.

Every merchant, as well British as stranger, which shall ship or export any currants, which formerly were duly entered, and paid the subsidy and custom inwards, shall have allowed or repaid unto them, respectively, all the custom and subsidies paid inwards for the same (except eighteen pence for every hundred weight to the stranger) upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the custom and subsidy thereof inwards, and of the shipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the second article is declared.

VII.

If any merchant, having duly paid all duties inwards for foreign goods, in regard of bad sales, shall be enforced to keep the same, or any part thereof, in his hands, after the space of three years (as by 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.) shall be elapsed; in this case, he, or any other person, is to be permitted to ship the same out for the parts beyond the seas (if they think fit), without payment of any subsidy for the same outwards, upon due proof that the same was duly entered, and subsidy paid inwards.

VIII.

Every merchant bringing in any sort of wines into this kingdom, by way of merchandize, who shall make due entries of the same in the Custom-House, shall be allowed 12 per cent. for leakage.

IX.

Every hoghead of wine which shall be run out, and not full seven inches, or above, left therein; and every butt, or pipe, not above nine inches; shall be accounted for outs, and the merchant to pay no subsidy for the same.

X.

If any wines should prove corrupt and unmerchantable, and fit for nothing but to distil into hot-waters, or to make vinegar, then every owner of such wines shall be abated in the subsidy, according to such his damage in these wines, by the discretion of the collectors of the customs, and one of the principal officers: but, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. repealed.

XI.

If any tobacco, or other goods or merchandize, brought into this kingdom, shall receive any damage by salt-water, or otherwise, so that the owner thereof shall be prejudiced in the sale of such goods, the principal officers of the Custom-House, or any two of them, whereof the collector for the time being to be one, shall have power to chuse two indifferent merchants, experienced in the value of such goods, who, upon visiting the said goods, shall certify and declare, upon their corporal oaths first administered by the said officers, what damage such goods have received, and are lessened in their true value, and, according to such damage in relation to the rates set on them in this book, the said officers are to make a proportionable abatement unto the merchant, or owner, of the subsidy due for the same. But, by 12 Ann. cap. 8, §. 8, 10, and 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4, repealed as to tobacco.

XII.

The merchant-strangers, who, according to the rates and values in the Book of Rates contained, do pay double subsidy for lead, tin, and woollen cloths, shall also pay double custom for native manufactures of wool, or part wool; and the said strangers are to pay for all other goods, as well inwards as outwards, rated to pay the subsidy of poundage, three-pence in the pound, or any other duty payable by charta mercatoria, besides the subsidy.

* This is the duty called petty customs.

But, by 25 Car. II. cap. 6. §. 1, 2, 3. and 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 3, 5. repealed as to goods imported.

Note, Charta mercatoria, which was first granted by 31 Edw. I. was confirmed by 27 Edw. III. cap. 26. and the duty of three-pence per pound thereby granted, directed to be computed by the contents of the goods, according to the oath of the importer, or letters of credence, without unsealing, or opening: upon penalty of imprisonment by the officers, and quadruple damages to the party grieved, and as much to the king.

XIII.

That the merchants trading in the port of London have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any the lawful keys and places of shipping and lading of goods, between the Tower of London and London-Bridge, and between sun-rising and sun-setting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March; and between the hours of six of the clock in the morning, and six of the clock in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice thereof to the respective officers appointed to attend the lading and unlading goods: and such officer as shall refuse, upon due calling, to be present, he shall forfeit for every default five pounds, one moiety to the king, and the other moiety to the party grieved, and suing for the same. For the lawful keys, see the article KEYS.

XIV.

The merchants of York, Kingston upon Hull, Newcastle upon Tyne, and the members thereof shall be allowed, free of custom and subsidy, two of the northern cloths and kerseys in ten, to

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be shipped in these ports in the names of double wrappers, as formerly hath been there allowed them. But, by the 11th and 12th Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XV.

The merchants of Exeter, and other western ports, shall be allowed, free of subsidy, one perpetua in ten for a wrapper, and three Devon dozens in twenty for wrappers, the same to be shipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnstaple, Lyme Regis, or the members thereof. But, by the 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XVI.

All merchants transporting any sorts of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as also baiz and cottons, shall be allowed one in ten for a wrapper, free of custom and subsidy. But, by 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XVII.

Every merchant shall be allowed upon all goods and merchandizes appointed to pay to any the subsidies of poundage, according to the rule of the Book of Rates, to be imported, five in the hundred of all the said subsidies of poundage so appointed to be paid.

XVIII.

The officers who sit above in the Custom-House of the port of London, shall attend the service of their several places from nine to twelve of the clock in the forenoon; and one officer, or one able clerk, shall attend with the book in the afternoon, during such time as the officers are appointed to wait at the water-side, for the better deciding of all controversies that may happen concerning merchants warrants: all other the officers of the out-ports shall attend every day in the custom-house of every respective port, for dispatch of merchants and shippers, between the hours of nine of the clock and twelve in the morning, and two and four of the clock in the afternoon.

XIX.

Every merchant making an entry of goods, either inwards or outwards, shall be dispatched in such order as he cometh; and if any officer, or his clerk, shall, either by favour or rewards, put any merchant, or his servant duly attending, by his turn, or otherwise delay any person so duly attending, and making his entries aforesaid, to draw any other rewards or gratuity from him, than is limited in the act of tonnage and poundage [see TONNAGE and POUNDAGE] and the Book of Rates, passed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4. if the master-officer be found faulty herein, he shall, upon complaint to the chief officer of the custom-house, be strictly admonished of his duty; but, if the clerk be found faulty therein, he shall, upon complaint to the said officers, be presently discharged of his service, and not be permitted to fit any more in the Custom-House.

XX.

The lord mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city of London, their officers, or deputies for, and touching the offices of package, scavage, baleage, or portage of any goods or merchandize of aliens, or their sons born within this kingdom, or unfreemen, imported or exported into or out of the city of London, or the liberties or ports thereof, unto or from the parts beyond the seas, for, or concerning, the receiving or taking of any fees or rates heretofore usually taken for, or in respect of the said offices, or any of them, might and may receive and take the same, any thing in the act of tonnage and poundage, or the aforesaid Book of rates, or any former act, to the contrary, notwithstanding.

XXI.

All antient duties heretofore lawfully taken by any city, or town corporate, their farmers, deputies, or officers, under the name of town-custom, or the like, for the maintenance of bridges, keys, harbours, wharfs, or the like, shall and may be received and enjoyed as formerly, any thing in the said act, or any other act or book, to the contrary, notwithstanding.

XXII.

The under-searcher, or other officers of Gravesend, having power to visit and search any ship outward-bound, shall not, without just and reasonable cause, detain any such ship, under colour of searching the goods therein laden, above three tides after her arrival at Gravesend, under pain of loss of their office, and rendering damage to the merchant or owner of the ship. And the searcher, or other officer of the custom-house in any of the out-ports, having power to search and visit any ship outward-bound, shall not, without just and reasonable cause, detain any such ship under colour of searching the goods therein laden, above one tide after the said ship is fully laden and ready to set sail, under pain of loss of the office of such offender, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner of the ship.

XXIII.

Note, The tall timber in balks, which shall be of eight inches square, or upwards, that shall be imported, or brought from any part beyond the seas into the realm of Great-Britain, shall be rated according to the measure of timber, the foot square three-pence for the value thereof, and according to that rule shall pay for subsidy twelve-pence in the pound according to all poundage; and all under eight inches square, and above five inches square, shall pay for subsidy according to the rates mentioned in the Book of Rates aforesaid for middle balks, and

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all of five inches square, or under, shall pay according to the rate of small balks.

XXIV.

For avoiding of all oppression by any of the officers of the customs, in any port of this kingdom, in exacting unreasonable fees from the merchant, by reason of any entries, or otherwise touching the shipping and unshipping of any goods, wares, and merchandize: it is ordered, that no officer, clerk, or other belonging to any custom-house whatsoever, shall exact, require, or receive any other, or a greater fee, of any merchant, or other whatsoever, than such as are, or shall be, established by the commons in parliament assembled: if any officer, or other, shall offend contrary to this order, he shall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after incapable of any office in the custom-house.

XXV.

All fees appointed to be paid unto the customer, comptroller, surveyor, or surveyor general in the port of London, for any cocket or certificate outwards, shall be paid all together in one sum to that officer from whom the merchant is to have the cocket or certificate above, in the custom house; and after the merchant hath duly paid his custom and subsidy, and other duties above, in the custom-house, as is appointed by the said Book of Rates, he is to be master of, and keep his own cocket or certificate, until he shall ship out his goods so entered; when he is to deliver the same to the head-searcher, or his majesty's under-searcher in the port of London, or other ports, together with the mark and number of his goods.

XXVI.

The officers of the custom-house for the time being shall allow and make good unto all persons all such monies as are, or shall be, due unto them for the half subsidy; and also the Alger duty of foreign goods formerly exported, now due and unpaid.

XXVII.

The duties and sums of money appointed to be paid by the act of subsidy of tonnage and poundage passed this parliament, and by the Book of Rates therein mentioned, and no other, shall be paid to his majesty's officers, during the continuance of the said act upon goods imported or exported, any law, statute, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding. Nevertheless it is declared, that prizage of wines, the duty called butlerage, and the duty of twelve-pence upon every chaldor of sea-coal exported from Newcastle upon Tyne to any other port or ports of this realm, shall be continued.

HARBOTLE GRIMSTONE, Baronet,
Speaker of the House of Commons.

RULES, ORDERS, and REGULATIONS, annexed to the additional Book of Rates, referred to in an act passed anno 11 Georgii primi, cap. 7.

I.

Any of the rates aforesaid, or any thing contained in this additional Book of Rates, is not to extend to alter the methods prescribed by law for ascertaining the values upon such unrated goods, wares, and merchandizes imported, as are of the growth, product, or manufacture of the East-Indies, China, or others the parts within the limits of the charters granted to the united company of merchants of England trading to the East-Indies.

II.

To the charging any duty upon such sorts of wood, plank, or timber, wrought, or unwrought, or any of the goods called lumber, which are to be imported duty free, by virtue of the act made in the eighth year of his present majesty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned, during the continuance of the said act.

III.

To charge any duty upon such drugs or other goods used in dyeing, which are to be imported duty free, by virtue of another made in the eighth year of his present majesty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned.

IV.

And whereas it may happen that several goods and merchandizes may be imported which are omitted to be rated in the Book of Rates, made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. or in the additional Book of Rates, or in some particular acts of parliament, in such case, the value and price of such goods and merchandizes for the old subsidy (other than of those of India, Persia, or China) shall be ascertained by the oath or affirmation of merchants, in the presence of the customer, collector, comptroller, and surveyor, or any two of them; and the better to prevent frauds, and that all merchants may be upon an equal foot in trade, the collector and comptroller, or other proper officers of the customs, may open, view, and examine such goods and merchandizes, paying duty ad valorem, and compare the same with the value and price thereof so sworn to or affirmed; and if, upon such view and examination, it shall appear that such goods or merchandizes are not valued by such oath or affirmation according to the true value and price thereof, according to the true intent and meaning thereof; that then, and in such case, the importer and proprietor shall, on demand made in writing by the customer or collector and comptroller of the port where such goods or merchandizes are entered, deliver, or cause to be

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be delivered, all such goods and merchandizes into his majesty's warehouse at the port of importation, for the use and benefit of the crown; and, upon such delivery, the collector and collector of such ports, with the privity of the comptroller, shall, out of any money in the hands of such collector or collector, arising by customs, or other duties belonging to the crown, pay to such importer or proprietor the value of such goods and merchandizes so sworn to, or affirmed, for the said old subsidy, as aforesaid, together with an addition of the custom and other duties, paid for such goods, and of ten pounds per centum to such value, taking a receipt for the same from such importer or proprietor, in full satisfaction for the said goods, as if they had been regularly sold; and the respective commissioners of the customs shall cause the said goods to be fairly and publickly sold for the best advantage, and, out of the produce thereof, the money so paid, or advanced as aforesaid, shall be repaid to such collector or collector, with the privity of the comptroller, to be repaid to such funds from whence the same was borrowed, and the overplus (if any) shall be paid into his majesty's Exchequer, towards the sinking fund, by the title of unrated goods, imported, and undervalued.

SPENCER COMPTON,
Speaker of the House of Commons.

REMARKS.

A short ENQUIRY, whether the MERCHANTS of Great-Britain are not intitled to a DISCOUNT of 5 per cent. upon the payment of the subsidy of 5 per cent. at the Custom-house, given to the king, by act of parliament made in the year 1747: which DISCOUNT the merchants have never received from the year 1747 to the present time? and whether also the merchants are not intitled to discount in consequence of the last Subsidy in 1759. — Likewise, some observations on other interesting matters relative to the duties of customs.

The Subsidy act of 1747 is intitled,

“AN act for granting to his majesty a subsidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and for raising a certain sum of money by annuities and a lottery, to be charged on the said subsidy, &c.”
The clause in the said act that grants this additional subsidy of twelve-pence in the pound, or 5 per cent. runs as follows, viz. “And be it enacted, &c. That, over and above all subsidies of tonnage and poundage, and over and above all additional duties, impositions, and other duties whatsoever, by any other act or acts of parliament, or otherwise howsoever already due and payable, or which ought to be paid to his majesty, his heirs or successors, for or upon any goods or merchandizes, which from and after the first day of March, which shall be in the year of our Lord 1747, shall be imported or brought into the kingdom of Great Britain, one further subsidy of poundage, of twelve-pence in the pound, shall be paid to his majesty, his heirs, or successors, upon all manner of goods or merchandizes to be imported, or brought into this realm, or any of his majesty's dominions to the same belonging, at any time or times after the said first day of March 1747, by the importer of such goods or merchandize as the same are now particularly and respectively rated and valued, in the respective Books of Rates referred to by the acts of the 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. and the 11th year of his late majesty, or by any other act or acts of parliament, and so after that rate or value, or which do now pay any duty ad valorem.”

Then follows the clause in the said act, signifying how, and in what manner, the aforesaid duty of 5 per cent. is to be levied.

“And be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the subsidy of poundage hereby granted, shall be raised, levied, and collected by the respective officers of his majesty's customs in this kingdom, under the management and direction of the respective commissioners of the customs for the time being; and shall be brought and paid, or answered into the receipt of his majesty's exchequer, for the purposes in this act mentioned (such additional charge as shall be necessary for the management of this revenue only excepted) and that all and every the clauses, powers, DIRECTIONS, penalties, forfeitures, matters and things whatsoever, contained in the said act of the 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. or any other laws or statutes whatsoever now in force for raising, levying, collecting, answering and paying, the subsidy of tonnage and poundage thereby granted, shall be PRACTISED, and put in execution, for the raising, levying, securing, collecting, answering and paying the subsidy of poundage by this act granted, as FULLY AND EFFECTUALLY, to all intents and purposes, as if and every the said clauses, powers, DIRECTIONS,

penalties and forfeitures were particularly repeated, and again enacted in the body of this present act.”

The observations that I would crave leave to make upon this levying clause, as well as that preceding the same, are as follow, viz.

I. That the act of parliament made in the 12th year of king Charles II. and also in the 11th year of king George I. are made the clear and express basis and foundation of this latter subsidy-act of the year 1747: and that as the merchant-importers are liable to all the penalties and forfeitures therein contained, for the raising, levying, securing, collecting and answering and paying the said subsidy of 1747: so likewise are they entitled to every advantage, privilege, and allowance granted by the prior acts, “as fully, and effectually (according to the words of the act of 1747), to all intents and purposes, as if all and every the said clauses, powers, and DIRECTIONS were particularly repeated, and again enacted in the body of this present act granting the subsidy of 1747.” In a word; there being no exception in this latter act to any of the rights and privileges granted for the benefit of trade, and the advantage of our merchants, in the two former acts; the mercantile interest should seem to be entitled to the very same under the latter, as under the two former acts.

II. The next point of enquiry is into those clauses, powers, and directions, which relate to the carrying the said act of 1747 into execution, as well in regard to the rights and privileges of our merchants, as to the penalties and forfeitures to which they are liable, with respect to the said acts of Charles II. and George I. as before observed.

III. Now, according to the act of Charles II. aforesaid, the sixth section of chapter the 4th of the said act, according to the Statutes at large, explains what are those express and particular clauses, powers, and directions, which relate to the carrying the said act into execution, as well for the government of merchants therein, as of the officers of the customs.

The sixth section of the aforesaid act, which explains this matter, runs in the following words: “And because no rates can be imposed upon merchandize, imported or exported by subjects or aliens, but by common consent in parliament, Be it further enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the rates intended by this present act, shall be the rates mentioned and expressed in one Book of Rates, intituled, “The rates of merchandize:” That is to say, The subsidy of tonnage, the subsidy of poundage, and the subsidy of woolen cloths, or old draperies, as they are rated and agreed on by the commons house of parliament, set down and expressed in this book; to be paid according to the tenor of the act of tonnage and poundage, from the 24th day of June inclusively, in the 12th year of his majesty's reign, during his majesty's life, and subscribed with the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimstone, baronet, speaker of the house of commons: which said Book of Rates, composed and agreed on by your majesty's said commons, and also every article, rule, and clause therein contained, shall be and remain, during your majesty's life, as effectual to all intents and purposes, as if the same were included particularly in the body of this present act.” — This act was continued afterwards from time to time, until the 6th of queen Anne, and by that act, cap. 2. sect. 2. continued for ninety-six years, and afterwards is continued for ever by 1 George I. cap. 12.

The rules to direct the merchants and the officers of the customs, in relation to the said act of Charles II. cap. 4. sect. 6. and which rules are signed by the said Sir Harbottle Grimstone, Bar. speaker of the house of commons, are entitled in the said Book of Rates, as follow; viz. “Certain rules, orders, directions, and ALLOWANCES, for the advancement of trade and encouragement of the merchant, as also for the regulating as well of the merchants in making of due entries and just payments of their customs, as of the officers in all the ports of this kingdom, in the faithful discharge of their duty.” — And as the act of Charles II. has continued in force, and is made to do so for ever, as before observed, the aforesaid certain rules, &c. signed by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, baronet, and before given at large, continue in full force also.

But these certain rules are well known to every merchant as being contained, or ought to be contained in every Book of Rates that has been ever since printed by his majesty's printer, or by others, as was the case, 1. of the Old Book of Rates, and of every book of reputation printed since: as, 2. that printed in 1702, Mr Carease in 1725. and Crouch's several editions ever since, and Mr Saxby's Book of Rates.

By the seventeenth article of the rules aforesaid, signed by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, it is declared, “That every merchant shall be allowed upon all other goods and merchandizes appointed to pay to any the subsidy of poundage, according to the rule of this book, to be imported, five in the hundred of all the said subsidies of poundage so appointed to be paid.

And as the said act of 1747 hath made no exception whatever to the seventeenth article of the said rules of the Book of Rates; but that act is grounded absolutely upon the same rules, orders, directions, and allowances in this respect as that of Charles II. aforesaid is, it seems to be plain, that the merchant-importers are no less intitled to 5 per cent. discount upon the subsidy of 1747, than upon the old subsidy of Charles II. and the other subsequent subsidy acts.

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But the said subsidy act of the year 1747, is grounded also upon that of the 11th of George I. And that act of the 11th of George I. being grounded upon that of Charles II. with respect to the seventeenth article of the rules aforesaid (there being no exception thereto, in the words of the act;) this is a further confirmation, that the last subsidy-act intitles the merchant-importer to the said discount of 5 per cent. as well as that act of the 11th of George I. does.

The clause in the act of the 11th of George I. that grounds the same upon the said act of Charles II. is as follows, viz.

‘ And be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that in lieu of the said former rates and duties ad valorem, repeated by this act; there shall from and after the said 25th day March, 1725, be payable, and paid for the said old-subsidy, the several rates and duties mentioned and expressed in one Book of Rates, intituled, an Additional Book of Rates of goods and merchandizes usually imported, and not particularly rated in the Book of Rates referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage, made in the 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. with rules, orders, and regulations, signed by the right honourable Spencer Compton, esq; speaker of the honourable House of Commons. The said rates and duties to be paid upon importation of the said goods and merchandizes respectively, into any port or place within this kingdom, and so in proportion for any greater or lesser quantity; which said last mentioned Book of rates, composed and agreed on by your Majesty’s said Commons, and every article, rule and clause therein contained, shall be and remain, during the continuance of the said first recited act of tonnage and poundage, of full force, and shall be put in execution, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purposes, as if the same was particularly inserted in the body of this present act.”

The last words of the act of the 11th of George I. shew, That the act of Charles was the foundation thereof, as well with respect to all the privileges, and advantages made to the merchant-importers, as every thing else therein contained that is not expressly excepted: and that particular advantage of the 5 per cent. discount not being excepted in the said act of George I. the merchants have enjoyed the same ever since with regard to the Additional Book of Rates.—And consequently, as the subsidy-act of 1747 declares, that the said two acts of Charles II. and George I. are the foundation of that last act; and there is no exception whatever made to the discount of 5 per cent. allowed; the merchants should seem to be as legally entitled to the same under the one as under the other.

And what appears further to confirm the same is, that the subsidy, commonly called the New Subsidy, granted the 9th and 10th of William and Mary; and also the one-third subsidy-act, granted the 2d and 3d of queen Anne; and the two-thirds subsidy-act, granted the 3d and 4th of queen Anne, being all of them grounded on the act of the 12th of king Charles II. and no exception therein made, to the seventeenth article of the GENERAL RULE aforesaid, that grants the merchant-importer the discount of 5 per cent. they have according, uninterruptedly enjoyed the same, under all these SUBSIDY-ACTS from Charles II.’s time, to the year 1747: and why they are not intitled to the same legal allowance, does not appear from this subsidy act of 1747.

With respect to unrated East-India goods, there is a clause in the act of 1747, which declares, “ That the 5 per cent. paid on the gross price, as sold at the candle, shall be without any allowance or deduction whatsoever.”—But with respect to the general payment of the 5 per cent. upon all other goods, there is no exception in the act, that the same shall be paid without any allowance or deduction; but the act expressly declares, “ That all and every the clauses, powers, directions, penalties, forfeitures, matters, and things whatsoever contained in the said act of the 12th of Charles II. shall be applied, practised, and put in execution for the collecting the said duty, as if all and every the said clauses, powers, directions, &c. were particularly repeated, and again enacted in the body of this present act.”—And if a point to materially inter-fering to the merchant-importers as the allowance of 5 per cent. discount upon payment of this subsidy of 1747, before the landing of the goods, was to have been excepted; it certainly would have been expressly so.

What still further corroborates this is, that, in the allowance of the drawback, upon goods exported by certificate, the officers of the customs have allowed the merchants no more than one-half-part of that net subsidy, as if they had been actually allowed the discount of 5 per cent. upon the subsidy of 1747: whereas the second article in the rules, orders, and directions, and allowances made to the merchants in the Book of Rates, declares, “ That all foreign goods and merchandizes (except wines, currants and wrought silks) first imported, shall be again exported by any merchant within three years (as by the 7th of George I. cap. 21. § 10.) and such merchant or merchants as shall export any such foreign goods or merchandizes (except as before excepted) “ shall have allowance and be repaid by the officer that received the same, the one moiety of the subsidy which was paid at the first importation of such foreign goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof, so as due proof be first made by certificate from the officers of the

‘ due entry and payment of the custom and subsidy of all such foreign goods and merchandizes inwards, &c.—After all which duly performed, “ the moiety of the subsidy first paid inwards, shall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto such merchant or merchants, who do export such goods and merchandizes within one month, after demand thereof:” as also the whole additional duty of silks, linnens, and tobacco, in manner as before is directed.’

Now, such having been the practice of the Custom-house ever since the subsidy of 1747 was granted, as to allow the drawback of no more than one moiety of the net duty, after deducting the discount of 5 per cent. on the said subsidy of 5 per cent. and not one moiety of the gross subsidy, which the merchant actually paid; this confirms, that it is a mistake at the Custom-house, not to allow the discount, since they deduct it by the drawback, as if it had been allowed.

There seems likewise to be another great mistake made in the execution of this act to the disadvantage of the merchant; which is, that the act expressly declares, That the whole duty of 5 per cent. shall be drawn back upon exportation of the goods within three years; which is an exception to the second article of the rules before quoted.

On this point the words of the act run as follow, viz.

‘ Provided always, and it is hereby enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid, That in all cases where any goods or merchandizes, that have paid the subsidy hereby granted, shall at any time or times be again exported, by any merchant or merchants, within three years from the importation thereof, the subsidy by this act granted, and which shall have been actually paid for such goods, wares, or merchandizes, shall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto such merchant or merchants, who shall export the same, or the security vated; except for such goods or merchandizes, as by any former act or acts of parliament it is declared no drawback shall be paid or allowed upon exportation, and except, as is herein after excepted, in relation to prize goods.’

Hence it appears obvious, it is apprehended, that the whole, and not a moiety only of the subsidy paid, is to be drawn back; and this being an exception from the second article of the general rules for the government of merchants and the officers of the customs; we find it is expressly mentioned: and if the merchants had not been intitled to the drawback of the whole subsidy paid, that matter would have been left to the direction of the second general rule aforesaid: and if likewise the merchants had not been intitled to the discount of 5 per cent. this would certainly have been also mentioned expressly in the act, that the seventeenth article of the general rules, which allows the discount, might not have remained in full force.

If these suggestions are right, the merchants will take the proper measures to right themselves; if not, the Writer will be obliged to those, who will explain the matter, because it not only nearly concerns the interest of the merchants of the kingdom in general, in these particular cases, but in many others, that more considerably affect the interest of this respectable body of the community: and therefore, if it is an oversight, it ought at least to be rectified as soon as may be, for reasons that shall be communicated, when it appears to be so: And if it is not, the mistake of the observer hereof will be excused, since it proceeds from a regard to justice, that the merchants may have their legal due, according to act of parliament, as they are subject to its penalties, whenever they violate the same.

If what has been represented should prove true, the evil to the mercantile interest will not terminate in the subsidy of 1747 only; but like a fault in the first concoction, will run thro’ every subsequent subsidy act; for it affects every future subsidy that shall be enacted upon the foundation of that of 1747. As the subsidy act of 1747 is grounded upon that of the 12th of Charles II. and that of the 11th of George I. so likewise is the later subsidy act of 1759, grounded upon that of 1747: and therefore as the mistakes committed at the Custom-house, in carrying the said act of 1747 into execution, have not been rectified, the same is continued in the act of 1759. This being the case, the like mistakes will probably be perpetuated in all future subsidy acts that shall be grounded upon that of 1759, unless the merchants should take the proper measures to contest the point before the barons of the Exchequer. For the last additional subsidy of 5 per cent. for the year 1759, granted upon certain goods and merchandize imported, specified in the act, is to be levied and paid into the Exchequer, in the same manner as the subsidy of 5 per cent. granted by the 21st of George II. in the year 1747.

The words of the subsidy act of 1759 are, “ That the said subsidy of poundage, by this act imposed, shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid into his majesty’s exchequer, for the purposes in this act expressed, IN SUCH LIKE FORM AND MANNER, AND WITH SUCH ALLOWANCES, DISCOUNTS, DRAWBACKS, AND EXEMPTIONS, AND UNDER SUCH PENALTIES AND FORFEITURES, AND ACCORDING TO SUCH RULES, METHODS AND DIRECTIONS as are prescribed or appointed for raising, levying, collecting, and paying the subsidy of 5 pounds per centum, granted by an act made in the 21st year of the reign of his present majesty, or the subsidy act of 1747, &c. And all and every the POWERS, AUTHORITIES, RULES, DIRECTIONS, PENALTIES, FOR-

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FEITURES, CLAUSES, MATTERS AND THINGS NOW IN FORCE, contained in the said act, made in the year 1747, or any other act or acts of parliament, in the said act REFERRED UNTO, OR ANY OF THEM, for the raising, levying, collecting, and paying the SUBSIDIES thereby granted, shall be in FULL FORCE, and be duly observed and practised, and put in execution, throughout this kingdom, for raising, levying, collecting, and paying the SUBSIDY of 5 per cent. by this act granted, as fully and effectually to all intents and purposes, as if the same or the like powers and authorities, RULES, DIRECTIONS, PENALTIES, AND FORFEITURES, CLAUSES, MATTERS, AND THINGS, were particularly repeated, and re-enacted in the body of this present act.—— Then the exceptions that are made in this act of 1759 expressly follow.

As such is the nature of those subsidy acts for the payment of duties upon foreign goods and merchandizes imported into this kingdom, that the one act depends on the other, with regard to the GENERAL RULES AND DIRECTIONS, or the payment thereof, at the CUSTOM-HOUSE, and referred to in the former parts of this enquiry; and when exceptions are made to those GENERAL CUSTOM-HOUSE RULES AND DIRECTIONS, they are, or ought to be always expressly mentioned in distinct CLAUSES of the Act; it became requisite to quote the ORIGINAL SUBSIDY ACT of the 12th of Charles II. and that of George I. whereon all SUBSEQUENT SUBSIDY ACTS have been founded, to the end that they may be borne in mind, on this occasion. For otherwise the subject can never know the RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES to which he is legally intitled, or guard against those penalties to which he is liable.

Let it be supposed, that in carrying the subsidy act of 1759 into execution, the officers of the customs should exact the SAME DUTIES upon all goods imported, as was done by the act of 1747, this would certainly prove an egregious imposition upon all the MERCHANT-IMPORTERS OF GREAT-BRITAIN, because the act restrains the ADDITIONAL subsidy of 1759 to TOBACCO, FOREIGN LINNEN, SUGAR, AND OTHER GROCERY, as the same is UNDERSTOOD IN THE BOOK OF RATES, except CURRANTS; EAST-INDIA GOODS, except COFFEE and RAW SILKS; FOREIGN BRANDIES and SPIRITS, except RUM of the produce of the BRITISH SUGAR PLANTATIONS; and PAPER, which shall be imported, and brought into the kingdom of GREAT-BRITAIN, &c.—If, I say, the officers of his majesty's customs should exact DUTIES upon all other goods that are plainly understood to be excepted, and not liable to the said subsidy of 1759, it would certainly be a violation of the act, and an imposition upon the subject: and most certainly it is a violation of the SUBSIDY ACTS OF PARLIAMENT of 1747, and of that 1759, to deprive the merchant-importers of any of their PRIVILEGES and ALLOWANCES upon importation of merchandize, to which the GENERAL RULES of the

BOOK of RATES legally entitle them. For if the merchants of Great-Britain are thus deprived of so material an ALLOWANCE upon all DRY GOODS as 5 per CENT. DISCOUNT on the RATES, by the act of 1747, may they not, by the same CUSTOM-HOUSE AUTHORITY, be also deprived of every other DISCOUNT and PRIVILEGE to which they have a legal right, and which is granted them by virtue of the GENERAL RULES and ALLOWANCES, contained in the Book of RATES, and authorized by parliament, as well as any thing else therein expressed? May not merchant-importers be deprived, (1.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the OLD SUBSIDY RATES? (2.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the NEW SUBSIDY: (3.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the ONE-THIRD SUBSIDY: and (4.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the TWO-THIRDS SUBSIDY: may not the merchant-importers, I say, with as much reason, be deprived of the FOUR PRECEDING DISCOUNT ALLOWANCES on the rates, made to them by parliamentary authority, as be deprived of their RIGHTS and DISCOUNTS on the SUBSIDY of 1747, and that also on the SUBSIDY of 1759? Nay, may not our merchant-importers also be deprived of their DISCOUNTS allowed them by parliamentary authority upon the several Imposts of 1690, and 1692? And would not this, in effect, be abrogating all those clauses given in favour of our merchants by PARLIAMENTARY AUTHORITY, by that of the Custom-house, in direct opposition thereto? And if what has been represented, with respect to the DRAWBACKS allowed to our merchants on the re-exportation of certificate goods, shall appear to be true likewise; the losses our merchants have already sustained, will amount to a very considerable sum; and if these practices are perpetuated, the evil will daily increase.

Till these matters are rectified, all BOOKS OF RATES used at the Custom-house, and calculated without due regard had to acts of parliament, are wrong, and are a great injury to our merchants in general; and therefore, I have judged it more equitable to desist from giving any computed TABLES of DUTIES, according to the practice of the Custom-house, lest the same should be a sanction to what the Author, for the reasons before given, thinks is not right.—Of this, the Author declared his opinion some years ago, when this matter ought to have been duly enquired into, and he publicly suggested his doubts upon this point soon after the year 1747; and repeated them again after the year 1759. And if proper notice has not been taken of what has been urged by those whose immediate interest it is so to do, he has the satisfaction to have done right in his own eyes, and is very indifferent about what others may think of it; unless it be shewn to be groundless; and that not having been done in so many years, there seems but too much reason to presume that his observations are not unjustifiable. See our article SUBSIDY.

B.

B A D

B A A T, in the language of the Siamese, and Tical in that of the Chinese, is a weight in those kingdoms. The baat weighs about half an ounce.

BACALIAU, or **BACCALAO**. See **BARCÁLLAO**.
BACHELOR, in French **BACHELIER**, a name, which, in some of the six corporations of traders at Paris, is given to the elders of them, and to those who have served the several offices, and have a right to be called by the masters and wardens, to assist them in the affairs of the corporation, particularly in what relates to the master-piece of workmanship of such who are candidates for the freedom of the company.

In the company of the merchant-fellmongers and furriers, the master-piece must be performed in the presence of four wardens, who are obliged to call to their assistance four bachelors of that corporation, namely, two bachelors merchant-fellmongers and furriers, and two bachelors of the master-piece, as they are called.

In the hosiery, cap and glove-makers companies, the master-piece of workmanship must be performed in the presence of four wardens and bachelors of the corporation.

The word bachelor is used also in the same sense in most of the other companies of arts and trades, in the city and suburbs of Paris.

BACK-MAKER, is one who makes liquor backs, underbacks, coolers, mash-tuns, working-tuns, &c. for the brewers. The workmanship is partly carpentry, in a particular manner, for it must be tight enough to hold liquor; and partly cooperage, viz. the mash-tun, or vat, which is hooped.

There are not many of this trade, and it requires chiefly strength, with a little art. A small stock of stuff, besides tools, will set a man up tolerably well; but, with 200 or 300 l. he will make a good figure in business.

BADEN, a county in Switzerland, situated between the northern extremities of the cantons of Bern and Zurich, and extends on one side where the Aar falls into the Rhine, and on the other side to some villages beyond the Rhine. For extent, it is as large as some of the small cantons, and has a more fruitful soil. 'Tis watered with three navigable rivers, the Limmat, Rufs, and Aar; bears corn and other fruits, and produces wine in many places along the Limmat. In the mountains from Cappelshof to Endengen are mines of iron.

BADEN, it's chief town, called Upper Baden, is famous for it's baths, for which it was celebrated so long since as our Saviour's time, according to Tacitus. The waters are hot in a third degree, being impregnated with much sulphur, with a mixture of allum and nitre. They are good for drinking, as well as bathing, in fevers, phthisics, vertigoes, and particularly for disorders peculiar to the fair sex, and even sterility. Their baths bring a concourse of people, which is the chief livelihood and business of the town.

ZURZACH, about nine miles north of Baden, is a fine, ancient, spacious burrough, on the banks of the Rhine, which is remarkable principally for its fairs, on the Monday after Trinity-Sunday, and on the first of September, where very considerable quantities of goods are sold by the merchants of Germany, France, and Italy, in a very short time.

BADGER, a wild four-footed beast, a little bigger than a fox, to which it bears some resemblance; it has also something of the hog and the dog.

The badger, dwells in burrows, and lives upon insects, carrion, and fruit. It stinks very much, and grows fat by sleeping, like the dormouse. It's age is known, by the number of holes it has under it's tail, there appearing a new hole every year.

Though this animal seems not to be of much use in trade, yet it affords three sorts of merchandize. It's skin is of the common peltry, called wild. It's fat is sold by the druggists, and is reckoned good for pains in the loins, and for the sciatica, or hip-gout: and it's hair serves to make pencils or brushes for limners and gilders.

BADIANE, or **BADIAN**. It is the seed which the anise-tree bears, that grows in China. The tree is thus called, because it's wood smells like anise-feed. The Chinese sometimes give their tea an aromatic taste with that seed. Some of the Dutch do the same in the Indies, in imitation of them. In the year 1722, it was sold at Peking from 12 to 15 fun per gin, which was reckoned extremely dear, according to the journal of Mons. Lange, who resided at the court of China.

Ver. I.

B A H

BAETAS; thus the Spaniards and Portuguese call that sort of woollen stuff; which is not crossed, and which in France is called baguette, or bagette.

BAFFETAS, or **BAFTAS**, a cloth made entirely of coarse white cotton-thread, which comes from the East-Indies: Those of Surat are the best. They are from 13 French ells and $\frac{3}{4}$ to 14 long, and $\frac{7}{8}$ broad. There are also some which measure but $\frac{5}{8}$ of an ell, or even but $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell in breadth. These narrow baffetas are called Orgagis, Gaudivis, Nerindes, and Dabouis, according to the names of the places where they are manufactured.

There are also narrow-white baffetas, which measure 13 ells and a half in length, by half an ell in breadth.

Broad-white baffetas, 14 ells by $\frac{1}{2}$.

Broad-brown and narrow-brown baffetas. These two last sorts are made of raw thread, that is, which was never wetted or blanched. The former are 14 ells long, by $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell broad; the latter are of the same length, and $\frac{3}{8}$ in breadth.

BAGS, are used in most countries, to put several sorts of coin in, either of gold, silver, brass, or copper. They make in France bags of pistoles, of louis-d'ors, bags of a thousand livres, or crowns, bags of small pieces of silver coin, &c.

Bankers and others, who deal much in current cash, should be very exact in labelling their bags of money; that is to say, in tying a ticket or note at the mouth of the bag, signifying the coin therein contained, the sum total, it's weight, and of whom it was received. Taré is allowed for the bag: The French always allow 5 sols per bag of 1000 livres:

Bags of silver coin in France are generally given and received, without counting their contents, people referring commonly to their weight: but, if there should be found any deficiency in the bags, he who received them, has a right to return them, within eight days after the payment was made, according to an ancient custom established among the traders in money, provided the name of the person who gave the bag in payment be set down upon the ticket, and the weight be answerable to that which was wrote upon it, by the person who paid it.

BAG is also used, to signify different quantities of certain commodities. A bag of almonds, for instance, is about three hundred weight, of aniseed from 3 to 4 hundred, of pepper from 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 hundred, of goats-hair from 2 to 4 hundred; of cotton-yarn, from 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$; &c.

BAGAUZ. Thus they call, in the Antilles islands, the sugar-canes, after they have passed through the mill; they keep them under cover in small huts, in order to use them, when dry, for boiling the sugar. These huts are called the bagauz huts.

As soon as these bagauz are taken from between the first and third roller, two or three negro women bind them up in bundles, which they pile up under the covers. In case the bagauz be not long enough to be made up into bundles, as being too much broken, they carry them in large baskets to a corner of the mill, where the horses, oxen, and hogs, come and eat them.

Sometimes when they are straitned for fuel, they only dry them in the sun for three or four hours, which is sufficient to make them fit for burning. In some places, where they have plenty of wood, they serve only to burn under the first boilers; but, where wood is scarce, they keep them for the two last, and under the first they burn straw, and the dry leaves of the canes.

BAHAMA, or **LUCAYA ISLANDS**. These islands lie most easterly of all the Antilles in America, and to the north of the isle of Cuba, and east and south-east from the Spanish Florida, stretching from north-east to south-west, between the 21st and 28th degrees of north latitude, and between 72 and 81 of western longitude; so that they lie so much out of the course of ships bound for the American continent, that they were not taken notice of by our English till anno 1667.

The island of **BAHAMA**, from which the rest take their general name, is situated in latitude 26, 45, north, and at the distance of between 15 and 20 leagues east from the peninsula of Florida, and about 8 or 10 west from the island of Lucaya, or Lucayonequa, from which it is divided by a channel, notwithstanding its breadth, is very dangerous, and full of rocks and sands.

The island is computed, by some, about 13 leagues long and 8 broad; by others 50 miles in length and about 16 in breadth, and in several places not half that width. It is

esteemed extremely pleasant and fruitful, the air serene and temperate, and the soil remarkably rich, being watered with a multitude of springs and brooks. Formerly it produced plenty of guaiacum, sassafras, sarsaparilla, and red-wood, which were all destroyed by the Spaniards; so that its chief production at present is Indian wheat, fowl, and a particular sort of rabbit; the rest of their provisions, and other necessaries, they are obliged to have from Carolina, whence they are enabled, both here and in the island of Providence, to assist the shipping that are driven upon their coasts by the tempestuous weather, and the impetuosity of currents, with what they want, which is the greatest branch of their trade.

On the north of Bahama and Lucayonequa, lies the great Bahama bank of sand, which extends itself northward up to the 27th degree 30 minutes, and is surrounded with rocks. That which is called the great sand-bank of Bahama lies on the north of the isle of Cuba, and is terminated by the Long-Island; on the north-east by the freight of Exuma and the island of Cigateo; on the north by that of Providence, or Abacoa, and that of Andros is quite surrounded with it.

It is bounded on the west by the isles of Mimbres and Bimini, the former of which is rather a prodigious rock, much dreaded by sailors; and therewith some other rocks, equally dangerous, bound it in a line parallel to the north-west coast of Cuba, from which it is separated by the old canal of Bahama, or arm of the sea, between the last-named island and the bank of Bahama.

Besides this old canal, there is another called the Streight of Bahama, lying between the coast of Florida and the Lucayonequa island. This hath one of the most impetuous currents northwards of any in these seas. Its waves run with such violent rapidity, that neither wind nor oars can stem it; so that though the wind be fair, and the ship in full sail, yet they cannot enter it till a certain season: and, if it be contrary, they are carried away by the current. By reason of which the Spanish ships are compelled to wait their opportunity to pass this streight from the Havannah homewards, which is computed 16 leagues in breadth, and its length, from the Cape of Florida northwards, 45; which shews of what extraordinary importance the Bahama Islands might be rendered to England by the advantage which might be made of them by us against the Spaniards, provided they were put in a due offensive and defensive condition, to answer so good a purpose, when occasion requires.

The next island of extent, and in all other respects the most considerable, is that of ABACOA, now PROVIDENCE, which is the residence of the governor, and lies in the center of some hundreds of others. Several authors reckon them between 4 and 500, some of which are very large, even 160 miles in length, and others no bigger than knolls or rocks, rising above water; which shews how dangerous and dreadful it is to be forced amongst them by tempestuous weather. This island lies in latitude 24, 30, north, and is about 28 miles long, and 11 broad, where it is widest. (Harris's Collections.) Some, however, make it 18 leagues in length, and about 7 in breadth. (De L'Isle.) It hath the small one of Lucayonequa on the north; that of Alebafres on the east; the northern point of that of Andros on the west; and the great bank of Bahama on the south. Its chief commerce, like that of Bahama, arose from the misfortunes of those ships that were driven on its coasts, or in a winter voyage for the continent of America were forced to put in for provisions. They likewise made some advantage by the wrecks which were thrown upon their coast. The provisions, wherewith they supply shipping, they have from Carolina; so that, at present, they are a great relief to distressed mariners. The island produces little else but salt and Brasiletto wood, which they carry to Carolina in about eight days, but are ten at least in returning from thence, by reason of the strong current in the gulph of Florida: they sow pease and Indian wheat, the former of which is fit to gather in six weeks, the other in twelve. This island abounds with variety of fish, fowl, trees, and vegetables, before unknown to us; and our Philosophical Transactions (Vol. II.) add, that whales have been found dead on the shore, incompass'd with sperm, and that one of these whales is worth some hundreds of pounds.

This, and the other Bahama, on account of their useful situation, were judged to be so necessary for the security of our trade in the West-Indies, that the parliament of England have not thought it unworthy of their care, as well to have it cleared of pirates, as to defend it against both the Spaniards and the French, who know its situation extremely convenient either to annoy or assist their commerce. In queen Anne's war, both the Spaniards and French overran and plundered the Bahama islands twice; whereupon, in March 1714, when the administration of England had as little the interest of commerce at heart as any thing else but their own, the house of lords addressed her majesty that the island of Providence might be put into a posture of defence. Their lordships observing, It would be of fatal consequence,

if the Bahama Islands should fall into the hands of an enemy: they therefore humbly prayed her majesty to take those islands into her own hands, and give such orders for their security as in her royal wisdom she should think fit. But nothing was done: and for the future regard of such who may have it in their power to promote the welfare of our British plantations in America, it is not improper to remember, that their lordships, four years after, took notice of that neglect, in an address to his late majesty king George: There were not any the least means used in compliance with that advice for securing the Bahama Islands; and that then the pirates had a lodgment, with a battery, on Harbour Island, and that the usual retreat and general receptacle for the pirates are at Providence. Hereupon his majesty was pleased to give directions for dislodging those pirates, and making settlements and a fortification for its security and defence.

The other islands, though very many in number, are hardly worth describing: we shall only name the most considerable of them. Besides those of Bahama, Providence, Eleuthera, and Harbour Island, are those of Lucayonequa, Andros, and Cigateo, which may be termed of the second magnitude. Those of the third are Guanahani, Yumeta, Samana, Mayagnana, Yuma or Exuma, Ynagua, Caicos, and Triangulo. The rest are rather barren rocks than islands. But, of those of the second and third ranks, Herrera affirms, that some of them are still inhabited; and Baudrand affirms, that they are still possessed by their ancient inhabitants. Be that how it will, whenever occasion offers, our possession of them will easily put it in the power of England to lay hold on the rest; and they certainly deserve our attention. For,

R E M A R K S.

The Bahama Islands lying near to Hispaniola, and to that port of so great importance to the Spaniards, the Havannah, in the island of Cuba, where the Spanish galleons and fleta always rendezvous, with all their treasure, before they return to Europe, having the gulph of Florida to the west, and the Windward-Passage to the east, of them; their situation, in time of peace, is capable of great improvement in trade, and has always been a good retreat for disabled ships, blown from various parts of the continent of America.

But in time of war with any power in these parts, especially with Spain, the Bahama Islands are of the highest concernment to this kingdom, cruizers and privateers from thence being more capable to obstruct and annoy the Spanish trade homeward-bound, than all that are stationed at the rest of the British colonies in America; and indeed since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has annexed FLORIDA to the crown of Great Britain, and this nation is become masters of the port of St. Augustine, in the gulph of FLORIDA, these islands will prove of more utility to us than before; for these, together with our other new acquisitions of PENSACOLA, MOBILE, and our right of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, will most certainly, in case of any future rupture with Spain, render the whole trade and navigation of the Spaniards far more precarious than ever the same was before in the great gulphs of MEXICO as well as FLORIDA, and thereby proportionally diminish the importance of the HAVANNAH itself to Spain. The Spanish navigation in this part of the world seems surrounded now in such a manner, as to render all our British possessions that are any thing contiguous to each other near these gulphs mutually aiding and assisting to each other in case of need.

As the Bahama islands are very proper for the reception of small cruizers, not exceeding 40 guns; so, if the public service should require larger vessels to be employed in those parts, the harbour of Port-Royal in South-Carolina, on the other side of the gulph of Florida, would be capable of receiving ships of any size or number; and, in concert with those cruizers from the Bahama's, would prove of greater advantage to this nation than has ever yet been experienced.

Port-Royal, being the southernmost frontier of our possessions on the continent, is likewise so advantageously situated, that ships stationed there, at St. Augustine and at the Bahama's, would lie very conveniently, not only to guard our northern colonies, but to assemble a force, if occasion should be, to attack any power in those parts. From hence, also, our sugar islands may be more conveniently relieved, and in a much shorter time, than they could by any naval force stationed at Jamaica. And, if the American colonies were put on a proper footing to assist and support each other, a squadron, at this South-Carolina Port-Royal, will always be a check to our neighbouring rivals, and give us the superiority in this part of the world.

The galleons for the Havannah, in their passage through the gulph of Florida, may very easily be intercepted by a squadron stationed at the said port and St. Augustine, assisted by such private advices as the same vessels belonging to Providence may constantly be able to furnish them with; but there is no instance that the king's ships, stationed at

Jamaica, have ever intercepted the galleons or flota in their return home; for they have either had notice from Jamaica before our squadron appeared, or, when they have seen our ships cruising for them, they have lain safe and quiet at the Havannah till the English have been tired out, and retreated through sickness, or for want of provisions, or else carried with the stream through the gulph, and then the Spanish fleets have soon followed, and escaped us.

The Bahama islands were for many years a nest of pirates, and were never in any condition of defence till Captain Rogers was sent thither in 1718, with the late king's commission, as governor, with a small force, at the crown's expence; before which they had been plundered above 30 times by the Spaniards, who well knowing that there is no place can give them so much disturbance in their trade, is the true reason why the Catholic king demanded them in 1728. But Capt. Rogers had the good fortune to recover the islands from the pirates who had settled there, and also to defeat the Spaniards, who, after three several preparations, at more than 100,000 l. expence, attacked him with 2000 men; which force he repulsed, and burned two of their ships of war in their retreat, though he had no support from any other colony but what he engaged on his own personal credit.

From what has been said it appears, that the Bahama Islands are of far greater consequence to this nation than ever they were before the DEFINITIVE TREATY; and, should they ever become a prey to any other power, they would prove a dangerous annoyance to our trade, and an irreparable loss to the British plantations, as our affairs are at present circumstanced in America.

BAHAR, BAHAIRE, or BARRE, weights used in Ternate, Malaca, Achem, and in several other places of the East-Indies.

There are two of these weights; the one called the great, and the other the little bahar. With the great bahar they weigh pepper, cloves, nutmegs, ginger, cinnamon, and other spice. It contains 100 catis; the catis 26 taels, or 38 ounces and an half, Portugal weight; each tael being reckoned an ounce and a half of that weight. So that the great bahar is reckoned to weigh 550 pounds of Portugal, which amount to 481 pounds and 4 ounces of Paris, Strasbourg, Amsterdam, Besançon, &c. or 524 pounds, 9 ounces, Averdupois weight.

With the little bahar they weigh quicksilver, vermilion, ivory, silk, musk, and other valuable merchandizes. This bahar contains also 200 catis, but each catis is but of 22 taels, or 32 ½ ounces Portugal weight; so that the bahar amounts only to 458 pounds 13 ounces of Portugal; which make 4017 ounces of Paris weight, or about 437 pounds, 9 ounces, Averdupois weight.

The bahar of China is of 300 catis, which make only 200 of Malaca, each catis of China containing but 16 taels. The tael, weighing a riac and an half of eight, is of 10 mas, or mafes, and each mas of 10 condorins.

The bahar of Mocha, a city of Arabia, weighs 420 pounds. Fifteen traffels make a bahar. By that weight coffee is sold.

BAILE. Thus they stile, at Constantinople, the ambassador of the republic of Venice, who resides at the Porte.

Besides the political state of affairs with which the Venetian minister is charged, he acts the part of a consul for that republic at Constantinople, and they who are denominated consuls, established in the ports of the Levant, are properly speaking under him, and act as vice-consuls.

BAILLOQUE, or BAYOQUE. Thus the French call those ostrich-feathers, which are naturally of a dark brown colour, mixed with white. These kind of feathers are seldom dyed, but are generally used by the feather-dealers just as they are plucked from the bird; they only wash them with soap, to give them some gloss, and make them brighter. These bailloque feathers are the least valued.

BAIOCO, a copper coin current at Rome, and throughout the whole state of the church. Ten baiocos make a julio, and a hundred a Roman crown.

BAKERS. This is a very ancient as well as useful trade; and the most general and extensive branch of it is that of making, as well as baking, household or family bread; though there are several others, as, Biscuits-baking, which is chiefly to prepare in a particular manner for long-keeping what is commonly called sea-biscuit, or bread.

Of French bread, so called for it's peculiar delicacy; who also make various sorts of the nicer sweet, as well as insipid, biscuits, &c.

Of ginger-bread, or sweet-spiced bread, and cakes of several kinds.

Of these three last there are but few of each, there not being such a general call for their produce, as for the common bread; the bakers of which, indeed, are many in number, yet not so numerous, but that most of them get a decent maintenance, if careful, and some acquire handsome estates. The principal expence they are at, when they set up, is that of building their ovens, one of which will cost 20 l. and upwards, according to the size; next to this, is their stock

of flour* and faggots: so that 2 or 300 l. will serve very well to begin with.

Their employment is even mentioned by Moses (Gen. xi. 2.), therefore, in all probability, had it's first rise in the east: and they were a brotherhood in England before the year 1155, in the reign of king Henry II, though the white bakers were not incorporated till 1307, by king Edward the III, and the brown bakers not till 1621, in king James the 1st's time. Their hall is in Harp-lane, Thames-street; and their court-day on the first Monday of the month.

Arms. Gules, a ballance between three garbs, Or; on a chief Barry wavy of six, argent and azure, the hand of justice glorified, and issuing out of clouds proper (holding the said ballance) between two anchors of the second.

Motto. Praise God for all.

King Henry IV. granted, by charter, to the mayor and commonalty of London, the assize of bread, beer, ale, &c. victuals, and things saleable in the said city; which is likewise granted by several other charters of our kings.

The stat. 51 Hen. III. was made for regulating the assize of bread, and bakers, not observing the assize, were to be set in the pillory.

By a late statute, the assize of bread is limited, in proportion to the price of wheat, and mayors, &c. may, in the day time, enter any house, shop, or bake-house, of any baker or seller of bread, to search for, view, weigh, and try, all or any of the bread, there found; and, if the bread be wanting in the goodness, deficient in baking, under weight, or shall consist of any sort than what is allowed, the same bread shall be seized and given to the poor: also a penalty of 40 s. is inflicted for want of weight, &c. Stat. 8 Ann. c. 18.

But by 1 Geo. I. c. 25. bakers are to pay 5 s. for every ounce deficient in weight, and 2 s. 6 d. if under an ounce. Bakers selling bread in peck, half-peck, or quartern loaves, at a higher price than set by the lord mayor of London, &c. shall forfeit 10 s. Stat. 3 Geo. II. c. 29.

There is at Paris a corporation of bakers who stile themselves master-bakers.

This corporation, is one of the most ancient, which was established in that city, with the right of having sworn wardens and masters, and long enjoyed the privilege of having a jurisdiction peculiar; before which, all affairs relating to it's government, and the execution of it's statutes, or by-laws, were brought, which was before the chatelet, and the lieutenant of the police, who have the cognizance of the affairs of all the other corporations.

That court, of which the great pantler of France was the head, consisted of a lieutenant-general, a king's attorney, a recorder, and several ushers. It was in the name of that high officer of the crown, that all their statutes and regulations were issued, apprentices and masters, or freemen, admitted, and all oaths administered. To him also belonged all the fines paid by those who are admitted into the corporation: which rendered the office of the high pantler as profitable as it was honourable, it being one of the most antient offices of the monarchy.

The jurisdiction of the high pantler being suppressed under the reign of Lewis XIV, by an edict issued in August 1711, the corporation of the bakers in the city and suburbs of Paris was reduced to the same state with the other bodies corporate, and, like them, it is subject to the jurisdiction of the provost of Paris, and of the lieutenant-general of the police.

The master-bakers of Paris boast, that they had their statutes under the reign of queen Blanche, mother of St. Lewis, Hugh d'Athies being then high pantler: and yet the statutes they followed, when the employments of lieutenant-general and other officers of the king's pantry were suppressed, were not more antient than the year 1560, the first of king Charles IX, though indeed it appears, that they had statutes as early as the reign of Charles VI.

The new statutes, which were promised to them in the edict of August 1711, for uniting the master-bakers of the suburbs with those of the city into one corporation, meeting with opposition from time to time, both from the duke of Brissac, high pantler, with regard to the indemnification that was granted him, and from several particular masters, and other persons concerned in that re-union, and not being yet (in 1719) quite completed; that corporation of united masters continued to be governed, partly according to it's antient usage, and partly according to it's new letters patents.

That regulation which is but interlocutory, as it were, relates chiefly to the number of jurats, the years of apprenticeship and journeymanship, and the fines, regulated by the last letters patents, for the admission of apprentices and masters, and for the visitations.

There are six jurats, three of whom are chosen every year, which was not done in the years 1718 and 1719, the lieutenant-general of the police having ordered, that there should be no new election, till the contest was determined.

The apprentices are bound to serve five years following, and, after their time is out, they are obliged to live four years more with the masters as journeymen, before they can be admitted to make their master-piece of workmanship, from which however, the masters, or freemens sons are exempted.

The antient master-piece of the French baker was a kind of small loaf, which they called chapter-bread: it was made of the finest flour, not only well kneaded, but also beaten for some time with two sticks, whence it was also called beaten bread, *pain broyé*. Their new master-piece is light or spungy bread, and white bread.

As for the fines, which have been greatly increased, because this new united company of master-bakers was obliged to have all the officers appointed for the companies of arts and trades, since the year 1691, to the year 1709, which could not be entirely effected till the year 1711, on account of the objections and representations of the lord high pantler; those fines, I say, are not to continue upon the same foot they are at present, but till the sums borrowed for the payment of those offices be entirely reimbursed.

The union of the master-bakers of the city of Paris, with those of the suburbs into one corporation, was attempted in the year 1678, by virtue of an edict of Lewis XIV, issued in December that same year, for uniting the several companies of the suburbs with those of the city, professing the same arts and trades; but the union of the master-bakers could not yet be effected, as has been observed above.

The edict for that union is to this effect. Namely: That all the bakers settled in the suburbs of Paris, except that of St Anthony, and other privileged places, should be united with those of the city, so as to make up, for the future, but one and the same corporation, under the jurisdiction of the lieutenant-general of the police, according to the statutes to be made for that purpose, if needful.

That, in consequence of this union, the bakers settled in the suburbs of St Germain, St Michael, St James, St Marcellus, St Victor, &c. who could prove their freedom in the suburbs, should pay 220 livres; that the journeymen and apprentices, who could also prove their indentures, and the time of their serving, either with masters in the city, or with those in the suburbs, should pay 330 livres; and that those who would take up their freedom, without a proper qualification, should pay 440 livres; without being exempted from the fines, which by the edicts of 1691, 1694, 1702, 1704, 1706, and 1709, were to be paid to the offices of jurats, auditors of accounts, treasurers, comptrollers of weights and measures, recorders of enrollments, comptrollers of the signatures of the registers, and keepers of the records. These are the offices, which we observed above to have been since incorporated with the united company of bakers.

The same edict suppresses and abolishes the offices of lieutenant-general, king's attorney, recorder, and ushers of the pantry, giving leave to the ushers, who were actually in office, to continue to act for the remainder of their lives; and ordering, that for the future, all master-bakers, either in the city or in the suburbs, should be admitted by the king's attorney of the chatelet, as is practised with regard to admission of masters or freemen of all the other companies.

Finally, in the same edict, there is a provision made to indemnify the duke of Brissac, high pantler of France, who by the suppression of his jurisdiction lost the fines, which time out of mind belonged to him, for the admission of masters and apprentices.

It is this indemnification granted to the high pantler, that amounts to above 100,000 livres, whereof the company has already paid above two thirds, which long delayed the registering and execution of the letters patents granted to the two united companies.

By the antient and new statutes of the master-bakers of the city and suburbs of Paris, they alone have a right to settle there, to keep shop, and to sell bread, either light, white, household, &c. and that no other shall attempt to do the same, upon pain of having all his bread seized, and paying a fine, of 600 livres; without prejudice, however, to the liberty granted at all times, to the country-bakers; such as those of Gousselle, Corbeil, Charenton, &c. to bring bread, either by land or by water, for the provision of the city, on market days, and to expose it to sale in public places.

The days, called market-days at Paris, are Wednesdays and Saturdays: and, as for those places where country-bakers are at liberty to sell bread, there were, till the year 1709, but seven or eight of them, and these the most celebrated markets at Paris. But in that year, more remarkable for a scarcity of wheat and other grain, than the kingdom of France ever experienced, the officers of the police thought proper to appoint several other places for the sale of country bread; so that there are now at Paris almost as many places, where country bread is sold on market-days, as

there are places fit for the purpose, in all parts of this great city.

The several sorts of bread, which the bakers at Paris are allowed to make and sell, are light and spungy bread, household and white bread, and what they call chapter-bread, which is a delicate sort, chiefly designed for the canons. Under the title of light or spungy are reckoned all those nice loaves and rolls made with milk, butter, cream, yeast, &c. to which the French give several odd or humorous names, which cannot be well rendered in English, without long circumlocutions.

It has, however, happened, now and then, especially in times of dearth, that the parliament, or the officers of the police, have reduced the bakers bread to two sorts only. We meet with instances of it in the years 1436 and 1437; and since again, in the remarkable year 1709, upon the petition of the attorney-general, the court of parliament revived that regulation, for which, by good providence, the city of Paris had had no occasion during near three centuries. The arret, or decree, by which bread was reduced to two sorts only, bears date the 7th of June of that same year 1709. It is thereby ordered, that the bakers of the city and suburbs, as well as of other places within the provostship, vicounts, and presidial of the chatelet of Paris, shall not bake nor expose to sale in their shops, or in the markets, but two sorts of bread only; namely, white and household bread. That the white bread should be made of the finest flour of wheat-meal, of half of white-meal after the flour, and half of fine oatmeal; and that the household bread should be made one half of white meal after the flour, and half of coarse meal; that is to say, part of that which is got after the first bolting; and part of that which comes from the last bolting; the whole under the penalty of having the bread seized, of a fine of 1000 livres, and being deprived of freedom and profession, and even of a greater punishment, if the nature of the crime required it.

By the 10th article of the 6th chapter of the ordonnance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1672, concerning the sale of corn, all bakers of large and small loaves are forbidden to take every day from the keys above two muids (or 10 quarters) of wheat, and one muid (or five quarters) of meal. And, by the French king's declaration of the 1st of September 1699, they are also forbidden to buy either corn or meal, within the distance of eight leagues from Paris, except on the keys, and in the markets of that capital city; with liberty, however, to buy both beyond the limits of eight leagues; but then they are obliged to produce certificates of the measures established in those places, where they bought them, containing an account of the quantity of corn and meal they bought; under the penalty of forfeiting both, and paying a fine of 300 livres. The bakers are by their statutes obliged to mark upon each loaf the number of pounds it weighs, and the weight must answer that number, upon pain of forfeiture and fine.

BALASTRI. Thus they call, at Smyrna, the finest gold cloths that are manufactured at Venice, and which the Venetians carry into the ports of the Levant.

BALAUSTINES (in French *BALAUSTES*) are the flowers and blossoms of the wild pomegranate-tree. There are two sorts of them, the fine and the common. The latter have but little virtue, and are therefore unused in medicine, where the former are of use, being reckoned astringent. Both sorts are brought from the east, and are properly one and the same drug. But the fine balaustines are adorned with their blossoms; whereas the common sort have only their pecou, pod or bud, in the form of a pretty thick rind, which contains the blossom, before it grows, or supports it, when opened.

The balaustines must be chosen fine, fresh, broad, of a fine velvety red, and, if possible, without pecou, and without dust.

BALAZEES, or *SAUVAGAZEES* of Surat, are white cotton cloths, manufactured in that city of the Grand Mogul's empire, and in it's neighbourhood. They are 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ French ells in length, by 3 in breadth.

BALE. It is said of merchandizes wrapped up, or packed up in cloth, and corded round very tight, after they have been well garnished with straw or hay, to keep them from breaking, or to preserve them from the weather.

Most of the merchandizes capable of this kind of package, that are sent to fairs, or designed to be exported into foreign countries, ought to be in bales, and too much care cannot be taken in packing them up, to prevent their being spoiled, or any way damaged.

The bales are always marked and numbered, that the merchants to whom they belong, may easily know them.

When they say, to sell merchandizes in bales corded, it signifies to sell them in the gros, upon a shew or sample, without unpacking them, or taking off the cords.

The French give the name of bale goods to certain hard wares, and other sorts of merchandize, which come to Paris from divers countries, and particularly from Forez, a province

province of France, and are commonly made by bad workmen, and of indifferent materials. They give them that name, to distinguish them from those that are bespoke, and made by good workmen. Whereas, in English, we call bale goods, all such as are imported or exported in bales. The French also give the name of bale-carriers to those hawkers and pedlars, who travel up and down the country, selling wares, which they carry in small bales or packs, upon their backs.

A bale of Paper is said of several reams together, in a kind of small bale. The number of reams is not equal in all. The bales designed for Constantinople, do not contain commonly above twelve reams. There is hardly any other paper that is sold in bales, but that with three crescents, which is manufactured at Marseilles, and sent to Constantinople. That with a crown, and that with a small cross or crozier, which are also sent into the Levant, are sold by what the French call ballon.

A bale of dice, with the French, is a small bundle or parcel, made of paper, and containing one or more dozens of dice.

A small bale (in French ballot) is a parcel of merchandizes, though the French do also sometimes give the name of ballot to large bales.

The ballots, or small bales of some sorts of goods, consist commonly of a certain number of parcels, skins, or pieces. The bale of yarn, in France, contains from 15 to 18 parcels, each parcel weighing three or four pounds.

The word ballot, or bale, is also used in the trade of buccaned flesh, which trade is carried on by the buccaneers of St Domingo. Each parcel of that flesh, or meat, most commonly is of 60 pounds neat meat, exclusive of the package.

BALLANCE, or **BALANCE**, is one of the simple powers in mechanics, which discover the equality or difference of weights in heavy bodies.

BALLANCE of a watch, or clock, is that part of it which regulates the beats. The circular part of it is called the rim, it's spindle the verge, to which belong the two pallets, or lever, which play in the teeth of the crown-wheel in pocket-watches; that strong stud in which the lower pivot of the verge plays, and in the middle of which one pivot of the balance-wheel plays, is called the pottance vulgarly, I suppose for potence (it being strong) or portance, as Dr Hook calls it in his Heliocope. The bottom of this is called the foot; the middle part, in which the pivot of the balance-wheel turns, is called the nose; the upper part, the shoulder of the portance. The piece which covers the ballance, and in which the upper pivot of the ballance plays, is the cock. The shell-spring, in the new pocket-watches, under the ballance, is the regulator, or pendulum-spring.

BALLANCE [in the accounts of merchants] is, when the debtor and creditor sides of any distinct account are equal. When that is the case, such account is said to be ballanced.

BALLANCE of a merchant's or trader's books. This is a branch of the art of accountantship. In the method of keeping the books of traders, according to that admirable art of charge and discharge, by double entry, such books, if kept as they ought to be, will be always fit for a general ballance. For such is the excellency of that method, that the books of themselves must be necessarily upon a ballance on the whole, though not in every distinct account, throughout the ledger. But the nature here of will be shewn under the article of **MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTS**.

BALLANCE of trade. That which is commonly meant by the ballance of trade, is the equal importing of foreign commodities, with the exporting of the native. And it is reckoned that nation has the advantage in the ballance of trade, that exports more of the native commodities, and imports less of the foreign. The reason of this is, that, if the native commodities be of a greater value that are exported, the ballance of that account must be made up in bullion or money; and the nation grows so much richer, as the ballance of that account amounts to.

R E M A R K S.

It hath been a great debate, how the ballance of our foreign trade shall be computed, and what methods we should take whereby to know it. It has been thought by some, that the most proper way to make a true judgment therein is, by taking an account from the custom-house books of our exports and imports; but this is a very uncertain way of reckoning: for all foreign goods that are imported, paying a considerably greater duty than the native goods exported, there can be no computation of the ballance of trade from the difference of the sum of money that is paid, at the custom-house, for the foreign goods imported, and the native exported.

But, suppose there should be an allowance made, in casting up the account, for the greatness of the duties that the foreign goods pay more than the native; yet that can be no advantage in discovering the ballance of trade; because they cannot discover by the custom-house books, what the native goods that are exported are sold for in foreign countries: for the ballance of trade must arise from the value of the goods that are sold, and not from the quantity that are exported or

imported. And that is known only to the merchant that sells the goods, and it is not for his interest to acquaint others with it, and thereby discover the profits of his trade.

Besides, as to our imports, the bullion, and such things of value, are not entered at the custom-house; and, with respect to our exports, as many of them go out custom free, the entries there made of them cannot be depended on: but, if by that means a more exact account of our exports and imports could be had, yet, since so great a part of the trade of this kingdom is driven by exchange, and such vast quantities of commodities are imported from our plantations for account of the inhabitants there, the produce whereof they leave here as a stock at home, and that they are supplied hence with so many things for their own consumption, I cannot see how any computation can be this way made of our general trade, much less of that we drive with any particular nation, the commodities, which we receive at one place, being often carried to another: and, as to the profits we make by the freight of our ships, that does not at all appear from the custom-house books.

Besides, it is well known, that merchants to save themselves the trouble and fee of taking out another cocket, frequently enter much larger quantities of goods than they actually export; and other fictitious entries are often made of certain commodities, in order to raise the value of them, from the appearance of the great quantities exported, and the less remaining to be sold.

These fictitious entries are often increased by the practice of owners and masters of ships, to encourage the merchants to load goods on a ship, put up on a general freight, with the hopes that she will be very soon dispatched; and, I believe, it is not unusual for merchants themselves to put this in practice sometimes, to support their declining credit; or to give them the reputation of being greater dealers than they really are: so that the largest entries may be, when the fewest goods are exported.

To these uncertainties of making any judgment of the quantities of goods so exported, from the entries, we must add the impossibility of making any reasonable estimate of the value of the goods so exported, because of the variety of different kinds and pieces of them. For instance, no man can make an estimate of the value of perrets, stuffs, long and short cloths, from the quantities only, when they differ in their price more or less, as one is to four, or five; so that he may be very easily mistaken some hundred thousand pounds every year.

In order, therefore, to know whether a nation gains or loses by it's trade, the course of exchange has been judged the surest criterion. We having had occasion to treat something of this matter, under the article of the arbitration of the foreign exchanges, 'tis necessary that the reader should be referred thither, the principles, upon which that notion is founded, being there represented. In addition to which, the following animadversions may be further useful.

If the ladies of quality of Paris, for instance, are fond of Brussels lace, and consume of it yearly to the value of 100,000 oz. of silver, about 150 pounds weight of flax, which grew upon a quarter of an acre of land, will answer this value: this will require the yearly labour of 2000 women, for the several parts of the work. The undertaker, or principal lace-manufacturer at Brussels, will set these women to work, and pay them their daily wages. They will buy of the butcher, baker, brewer, &c. their necessaries, and these will pay the value to the farmer, and he will pay his rent to the land proprietor in Brabant, whose land is applied to produce the necessary maintenance for these women: and, if they consume in their maintenance the produce of three acres per head, here will be 6000 acres in Brabant, employed for the use and maintenance of the lace-women.

The families at Paris, where the lace is worn, must pay their money at Brussels; to answer this expence; and also enough to answer the lace-merchant's maintenance, with his family and servants, and the interest and risque of the advance of his money; all which will be found in the price they give for the lace: and this money must be sent in specie from Paris to Brussels, if France sends no commodity to Brabant to answer and compensate this debt.

But, if on the other hand, the land-proprietors and nobility in Brabant, and others, are fond of Champagne wine, and consume thereof annually the value of 100,000 ounces of silver; if the muid of Champagne wine, being transported to Brussels, costs there 60 oz. of silver; if an acre of vine-land produces in Champagne four muids, this quantity of wines, which sells for 100,000 oz. will require 4166 $\frac{2}{3}$ acres for it's production; besides, about 1000 carriage horses for the transportation to Brussels; which at two acres of land for the maintenance of each horse, makes 2000 acres more. And so there will be 6166 $\frac{2}{3}$ acres of land in Champagne, applied to the production of these wines, and the transport horses; and consequently, so much taken from the maintenance of the French inhabitants.

These wines will pay and compensate the value of the lace, by bills of exchange between the wine-merchants in Cham-

pagne, and the lace-merchants at Brussels, or between the bankers, who are the brokers and mediators of payments of this kind.

The wines which are drank in Brabant, will save the produce of about 4000 acres of land in Brabant, which otherwise would have been employed to produce beer, &c. and so France not only loses the produce of 6166 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land, in this commerce or exchange, but saves to Brabant 4000 acres; and, upon the whole, the loss is no less to France than 10,166 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres; for which it receives the produce of no more than one quarter of an acre.

If the circulation of money in Brabant be equal to that in France, the land and labour employed about the lace will be equal to the land and labour employed about the wine; and the produce of the land given in payment to the undertaker, or lace-merchant in Brussels, and to the lace-women, &c. will be equal to the land given in payment to the wine-merchants in Champagne, to the labourers employed in the production of the wine, to the carriers, &c. and to the land that goes to the production of the wines, the maintenance of horses, &c.

But, if the quantity of money circulating in Brabant be treble to that circulating in France, as the exchange is made by the evaluation in money, one third part of the land and labour in Brabant will answer, and correspond in value to the whole land and labour in France; and the product of one acre in Brabant will exchange for that of three acres in France of equal goodness. Besides this disadvantage in the present example, the $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the land in Brabant will be applied to the maintenance of the inhabitants of that country; whereas the 4166 $\frac{1}{2}$ acres, which produced the wine in Champagne, are also applied to the maintenance of the French inhabitants.

By this example we see a branch of luxury carried on in France, which indeed supports a commerce, maintains vintners, wine-merchants, horses for carriages, wheelwrights, &c. circulates the farmer's rent in Champagne, with that of the proprietor in Paris: and yet, upon the whole, this trade is disadvantageous to France, diminishes it's inhabitants to the number of at least 1500 souls, and is of no use or emolument to that kingdom. But, on the other hand, it turns to very good account to Brabant, where the land is by this means applied to the maintenance of its own inhabitants; and where they have the produce of 4000 acres of ground in France, brought to them without any charge or disadvantage.

From the method of enquiry followed in this example, we may examine the advantages or disadvantages of every particular branch of trade with any foreign country, when the balance appears equal.

When contests arise concerning the national advantage or disadvantage of any branch of foreign trade, it would be easy to put the truth in a clear light, by examining the series of facts, according to the method herein suggested.

It will always appear by such enquiries, that the exportation of minerals and manufactures, &c. are advantageous; since the land and labour which produce them are applied to the support of the inhabitants at home; but that the exports of the fruits and products of the earth are disadvantageous for the contrary reasons, except where a good year has produced a great surplusage of them, beyond the yearly consumption of the inhabitants: and, when the returns for mines and manufactures exported, consist in other mines and manufactures imported, by examining which maintain more inhabitants, or more useful ones to the state, there will be no difficulty in determining on which side the advantage lies.

In general, whenever there arises a doubt or difficulty about trade, the method to decide the controversy effectually, will be to compute the land and labour, as in the preceding example, instead of being hurried away with general maxims and received notions of trade.

To know when the nation really prospers by its general commerce, being a matter of great concernment to the community, it may be useful to pursue this point a step further.

Various characteristics hereof may be assigned; but there are but two, perhaps, which can be depended on; and those are the courses of exchange and the price of bullion.

To the end that our meaning may be conveyed with perspicuity, let it be supposed that the city of Chalons sur Marne in Champagne pays yearly, to the king's receiver there, 10,000 ounces of silver; and that the Chalons wine-merchants sell at Paris, by their correspondents, wines to the value of 10,000 ounces of silver, supposing the ounces of silver of the same value in livres at Chalons as at Paris.

The livres at Paris are to be sent in specie to Chalons, and the livres at Chalons are to be sent to Paris; but the trouble may be saved on both sides, by exchange. The wine-merchants correspondents will carry their livres to the custom-house, and take there in exchange a prescription, order, bill, or bills of exchange, upon the receiver at Chalons; which bills they will endorse to the wine-merchants, and they will receive upon them the like quantity of livres,

Or, the receiver of Chalons will pay his livres to the wine-merchants, and take their bills of exchange, on their corre-

spondent at Paris, which he will endorse to the treasurer of the customs, who will receive the sum of livres on the said bills.

The same method may be practised between the wine-merchants at Chalons and the stewards of the Paris land-proprietors, who have estates near Chalons; and, if the returns be considerable, bankers will set up at Paris and at Chalons, to make the remittances, and supply the necessary bills of exchange between those two cities: and as, on this supposition, the same sum of livres at Chalons is exchanged by the like sum at Paris, the exchange of money will be said to be at par.

But, if the quantity of wines, and other commodities sent from Chalons to Paris, and sold there, exceed in their value the king's revenue at Chalons, and the commodities sent from Paris to Chalons, which are consumed and sold there, by the sum of 5000 ounces of silver, the Paris bankers will send this sum to Chalons in specie; and the expence of the carriage of this money will fall upon the wine-merchants, and others, at Chalons, who have this sum in cash in the hands of their correspondents at Paris, and want to have it at Chalons: they, therefore, will order their correspondents to remit it to them; but the banker at Paris, who has no money at Chalons, will refuse to give his bills on his correspondent banker there at par, and demand 102 livres for his bill on Chalons for 100 livres: if they will give him that price, he will draw for it upon his correspondent, and send him the money in specie, to answer the payment; and as he must pay a livre for the carriage of every 100 livres, or 1 per cent: he will still have 1 per cent. for his own and his corresponding banker's commission: and, in this case, the exchange at Paris for Chalons will be 2 per cent. above par, as the exchange of Chalons for Paris will be 2 per cent. under par: and, if Chalons be indebted to Paris, the exchange will be the reverse.

From this example, which may be applied to any two cities in the same state, it appears that the variation of exchanges between two places, where the same coin is used, is known by so much per cent. over, or under par; that the place where the exchange is above par has the balance of trade against it, and that the place where the exchange is under par has the balance in its favour, or due to it. In this there is no mystery.

If the city of Bourdeaux owes 100,000 ounces of silver at Paris, and sends wines and brandies to Holland for 100,000: and, if Holland sends specie to Paris for 100,000 ounces, the bankers at Bourdeaux send their bills on Holland to Paris, for 100,000 ounces due to Bourdeaux; and with these the specie-merchants at Paris remit and pay the 100,000 ounces they owe to Holland; in these cases, the exchange between Bourdeaux and Paris, Bourdeaux and Holland, and Paris and Holland, will be all at par; there will be no variation but what proceeds from the commission of the negociators concerned in the returns.

But, in regard that the coin in France is reckoned by livres, sols, and deniers, and in Holland by florins, stivers, and groots; that the coin in use in Holland differs in the standard, bulk, and mark, from that used in France, the computation of the exchange is made by the exchanging so many Dutch groots for a French exchange crown; which, at first view, does not seem to denote that the exchange is so much per cent. over or under par, but in reality it is so; and the banker concerned in the Dutch exchange knows how to evaluate this par in the sale of French crowns and Dutch groots.

So that the exchange between Paris and Amsterdam is, in effect, carried on just as it is between Paris and Chalons; only with this difference, that the accounts are kept in another gibberish, and that the charge and risque of sending money from Paris to Amsterdam, is greater than that of sending money from Paris to Chalons. When the balance of trade with Amsterdam is against Paris, the exchange at Paris will be from 5 to 6 per cent. above par by bills on Amsterdam; whereas it will seldom exceed 2 per cent. above par for Chalons.

Whether France pays livres, sols, and deniers, for rials of plate and marvadees, new or old, of Spain; for crusadoes or millrees of Portugal; for guilders, rixdollars, or mark-lubs, in the north; for pounds, shillings, and pence sterling; for marks, piafters, and ducats of Italy; the par of the exchange is always ounce for ounce of silver, or rather of gold, that being of easier carriage, and most commonly transported in the payment of the balance of trade; and the computations and evaluations of the exchange will square every where with our first example.

If France owes a balance in trade to Flanders of 100,000 ounces; Flanders to Holland of 100,000 ounces; Holland to England of 100,000 ounces; England to Spain of 100,000 ounces; Spain to Italy of 100,000 ounces; Italy to Germany of 100,000 ounces; Germany to France of 100,000 ounces; the exchange may be carried on at par between all those countries, without any transportation of gold or silver.

But, as the balance of trade grows due gradually from one country to another, by an importation of commodities, the variation of exchanges follows the same proportion.

For example: if Holland sends into England in January, the value of 100,000 ounces in merchandize, and receives from England,

England, in that month, but the value of 50,000 ounces, the merchants of London, who owe this sum at Amsterdam, will offer the negotiator money for his bills on Amsterdam; and he having no money due to him there, and refusing to draw, the merchant will offer him 1, 2, to 3 per cent. above par, in the language of exchange: then the negotiator will draw on his correspondents on those terms, and send over the money to him to answer the payment, and get the 3 per cent. for the charge of sending the money, the risque, and for his commission: and when this balance is paid, by sending the money, the exchange will fall again to par.

From these examples and reflections it is plain, that the course of exchange indicates where the balance of trade lies, since their variation is proportionable to the balance with any country differently. But, as the Spanish exchange may be in favour of France, and the Dutch exchange at the same time against France, the course of exchange will not shew whether France receives more money from Spain than it sends to Holland; and, consequently, it will be but conjecture to judge, from the course of exchange, whether France gains or loses in the general balance of trade.

But, as France keeps up the current specie at a higher price in the mint than bullion, if the negotiators of money are forced to send out the current specie in payments to foreigners, this will shew most of the bullion is already gone, and that the general balance is against France: and in England, if bullion, which is allowed to be exported, grows dearer than standard, it is also a plain sign that the general balance is against England. So that the only rule, whereby we can make a judgment of the balance of general trade, seems to be from the course of exchange and the price of bullion.

Though the courses of exchange commonly follow the proportion of goods exported and imported, which form the balance of trade; yet, if particular people send their money from one country to another to lay out at interest, it will have the same effect in exchange as a balance of trade; with this difference only, that it brings home an annual interest, and the principal may be called back: whereas the money acquired in the balance of trade is clear gain to the nation. The sums also sent for the payment of armies and alliances, and for the maintenance of foreign ambassadors and travellers, have also the same effect upon exchanges as a balance of trade; but the natural and constant course of the valuation of exchanges is the balance of trade. Exchange, at some times, may rise and fall every week, and, at particular times of the year, run high against a nation, and at other times, run as high on the contrary: as against a vintage, a great mart, or public sale; the exchange may run higher to Bourdeaux, Franckfort, or Holland, upon an East-India sale; at other times, the exchange may have run to the same places as much on the contrary: and no exchange can run high constantly against a nation; for then merchants who trade to that country must always be losers; and it cannot be supposed that persons will always trade to a country where they must always lose.

That the price of exchange is a criterion of the balance of trade, I have shewed to be the sentiments of those eminent merchants of London, who had a share in writing of the British Merchant, against the treaty of commerce made with France at Utrecht; [see the article ARBITRATIONS OF EXCHANGES.] and lately the same has been cited to the like purpose in a tract said to be wrote by the late Sir Mathew Decker*; which we mention to shew, that the opinion of those, who have been esteemed good judges of trade, coincides with what has been suggested upon this head.

* An Essay on the Causes of the Decline of the foreign Trade, consequently of the Value of the Lands of Britain, &c.

By Caspary's Paper of February 3, 1740.

	d.
London gave to Genoa, for a dollar -	54 $\frac{1}{2}$
to Venice, for the ducat banco	51 $\frac{1}{4}$
to Leghorn, for the dollar - - -	50 $\frac{3}{8}$

By Sir Isaac Newton's Tables.

Genoa, the par is 54 d.
 Loss to England, about 1 per cent.
 Venice, the par is 49 d. 492 decim.
 Loss to England, about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
 Leghorn, the par is 51 d. 69 decim.
 Gain to England, about 2 per cent.
 To Genoa and Venice the balance is against us, and favourable only a small matter to Leghorn.

February 3, 1740.

London gave to Lisbon for the millree 65 d.
 The par is 67 d. 166 decim. Gain to England about 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.
 London gave the pound sterling to Antwerp for 35 s. 10 d. the par is 35 s. 17 decim.
 Gain to England about 2 per cent.

London gave the pound sterling to Amsterdam for 34 s. 11 d. the par is 36 s. 59 decim.

Loss to England about 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
 London gave the pound sterling to Hamburg for 33 s. 11 d. the par is 35 s. 17 decim.

Loss to England about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
 From hence it appears, that, according to the courses of exchange between England and other countries, the national loss or gain may be determined as clearly as a matter of this delicacy will admit. To which end, see the article STANDARD of foreign coins, or their intrinsic values: and, if to these observations we add that of the price of bullion, a good judgment may be made how the general balance of trade may stand from time to time.

Mr Mun, the merchant, on trade, says, the exchange being against a nation is of advantage to that nation; and supposes, if 100 l. at London is worth no more than 90 l. of the same money at Amsterdam, the Dutch to send 500,000 l. of goods to England, and the English 400,000 of goods to Holland, it follows, that the money due to the English at Amsterdam will balance 440,000 l. due to the Dutch at London: so 60,000 l. sterling pays the balance.

Mr Mun did not consider, that the Dutch goods worth 500,000 l. when exchange was at the par, are worth at London 555,555 l. when 90 l. at Amsterdam is worth 100 l. at London; and the 400,000 l. of English goods in Holland are only worth 360,000 l. that sum being equal by exchange to 400,000 l. in England. So, in place of England's having an advantage of 40,000 l. as he alleges, by the exchange being against her, she pays 95,555 l. more than if exchange had been at the par.

When exchange is above the par, it is not only paid for the sum due on balance, but affects the whole exchange to the place where the balance is due. If the balance is 20,000 l. and the sum exchanged by merchants who have money abroad, with others who are owing, or have occasion for money there, be 60,000 l. the bills for the 60,000 l. are sold at, or near, the same price with the 20,000 l. for balance. It likewise affects the exchange to countries where no balance is due. (Ex.) If the exchange between Scotland and Holland is 3 per cent. above the par against Scotland, between England and Holland at the par, though no balance is due by Scotland to England, yet the exchange with England will rise; for 100 l. in England, remitted to Scotland by Holland, will yield 103 l. so between Scotland and England it may be supposed to be had at 2 per cent. being less trouble than to remit by Holland.

Goods are sold to foreigners according to the first cost. (Ex.) If goods worth 100 l. in Scotland, are worth 130 l. in England, those goods will be exported, 30 per cent. being supposed enough for the charges and profit. If the price of these goods lower in Scotland from 100 l. to 80 l. the price in England will not continue at 130; it will lower proportionably, for either Scots merchants will undersell one another, or English merchants will export these goods themselves. So if they rise in Scotland from 100 l. to 120 l. they will rise proportionably in England, unless the English can be served with those goods cheaper from other places, or can supply the use of them with goods of another kind. This being supposed, it follows that,

By so much as exchange is above the par, so much all goods exported are sold cheaper, and all goods imported are sold dearer, than before. (Ex.) If a merchant sends goods yearly to England first cost, charges, and profit 6000 l. money in England of the same standard with money in Scotland, and no balance due; but a balance due to Holland, raising the exchange 3 per cent. above the par to Holland, and affecting the exchange to England 2 per cent. 5882 l. 7 s. in England pays for the goods, that sum, by exchange, being equal to 6000 l. in Scotland: so that a balance due to Holland, by raising the exchange to other countries, occasions a loss to Scotland of 117 l. 13 s. on the value of 6000 l. of goods sent to England.

English goods are sold so much dearer. (Ex.) If an English merchant sends goods yearly to Scotland, first cost, charges and profit, 6000 l. 6120 l. must be paid for these goods in Scotland, that being only equal to 6000 l. in England. If the exchange had been at par, the Scots goods sent to England would have sold for 117 l. 13 s. more, and the English goods sent to Scotland for 120 l. less.

Thus to all places with which exchange is above the par, goods sent out are sold for so much less, and goods brought from thence are sold so much dearer, as the exchange is above the par, whether sent out, or brought in, by Scots or foreign merchants.

The merchant who deals in English goods gains no more than when exchange was at the par, though he sells dearer; nor the merchant who deals in Scots goods less, though he sells cheaper; they have both the same profit as when exchange was at the par. Scotland pays 2 per cent more for English goods, and England 2 per cent. less for Scots goods: all, or a great part of the loss, falls at last on the landed-man, in Scotland, and it is the landed-man in England, has all, or a great part of the benefit.

Nations, finding the export of money, or bullion, to pay the ballance due by trade, a loss of so much riches, and very detrimental to commerce, should discourage the import of such goods as the people could best want, by prohibition of their consumption; industry should be encouraged, and all measures used to lower the price of labour, and, in proportion, the necessaries of life, whereby the native product and manufactures will be improved and increased, and the overplus exported will be greater.—These methods will make trade and exchange equal, and turn the ballance in favour of a nation. But, instead of these means, some nations prohibit bullion and money to be exported, which can have no other effect than to raise the exchange equal to the hazard such laws occasion, which added to the export of money or bullion, may be supposed at 3 per cent. more: and as these laws by the effect are hurtful, making all goods exported sell yet 3 per cent. cheaper, and all goods imported 3 per cent. dearer; the stricter they are executed, the higher will the exchange still rise, and prove the more nationally injurious. The ballance must nevertheless be sent out in money or bullion, by the merchants who owe it.

Suppose the money of England, Scotland, and Holland, of the same weight and fineness; Scotland to trade with no other places; the exchange at the par: the yearly export from Scotland first cost 300,000 l. charges and profit 30 per cent. goods imported 280,000 l. charges and profit 30 per cent. one half of the trade to be carried on by Scots merchants, the other half by English and Dutch.

Due to Scotland for one half of the exports carried out by their own merchants	} 1. 195,000	
Due for the other half carried out by the English and Dutch	} 1. 150,000	} 1. 345,000
Due by Scotland to England and Holland, for goods imported by English and Dutch	} 1. 182,000	
Due for goods imported by Scots merchants	} 1. 140,000	} 1. 322,000
The expence of Scotsmen abroad, more than of foreigners in Scotland	} 1. 40,000	

If this is supposed the yearly state of the trade and expence of Scotland, there will be a ballance due of 17,000 l. and, unless the Scots retrench the consumption of foreign goods, so as to import less, or retrench the consumption of their own goods, so as to export more, or increase and improve their product, so as the export be greater or more valuable; or retrench in their expences abroad; since that ballance must be paid, it will go out in money or bullion, and occasion the exchange to rise 3 per cent. the prohibition on the export of money 3 more, if Scotsmen export it; the nation saves the 1020 l. exchange on the 17,000 l. of ballance due, which is lost, if English merchants export it; but the loss such a rise in exchange occasions on the goods, is more considerable. The 195,000 l. due abroad for goods sent out of Scotland by Scots merchants, will be paid with 183,962 l. English or Dutch money, that sum being equal by exchange at 6 per cent. to 195,000 l. in Scotland. The 150,000 l. due for first cost of goods carried out by English or Dutch merchants will be paid with 141,510 l. English or Dutch money, that sum being equal to 150,000 l. in Scotland. The 182,000 l. due by Scotland for goods imported by English and Dutch merchants, will come to 192,900 l. in Scotland; and the 140,000 l. first cost of goods brought home by Scots merchants, will come to 148,400 l. in Scotland. So the account will run thus:

Due to Scotland for goods exported	- - - - -	1. 183,962
Brought from abroad, first cost	- - - - -	140,000
Ballance of expence abroad	- - - - -	40,000
Due to Scotland abroad	- - - - -	3,962
Due by Scotland for goods imported by English and Dutch	} 1. 192,920	
English and Dutch take back in goods	- - - - -	150,000
Due to English and Dutch in Scotland	- - - - -	42,920
3,962 l. due abroad to Scotland in Scots money	- - - - -	4,199
Remains due by Scotland	- - - - -	1. 38,721

So the rise in the exchange of 3 per cent. by the ballance due of 17,000 l. and 3 more by the prohibition on the export of money, occasions a loss to Scotland of 21,721 l. and makes the next year's ballance 38,721 l. though the trade be the same as before: of which 21,721 l. lost by exchange, one half would be saved, if money were allowed to be exported. Since the exchange being 6 per cent. above the par, occasions the loss of 21,721 l. then raising the money 8 and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. having raised the exchange with England to 14 per cent. and with Holland to 30, makes the loss proportionably greater. Scots goods being supposed to continue at the same prices they

were sold for, before the money was raised, or not to rise in the same proportion with the money; for, when exchange was at par, 100 l. of Scots goods were sold abroad for 130 l. English money; but 114 l. English money, being now equal by exchange to 130 l. in Scotland, the Scots merchant can afford to sell the same quantity of goods for 114 l. that he sold before at 130 l. and have the same profit: so foreign goods worth abroad 100 l. and sold in Scotland for 130 l. when exchange was at the par, cannot be sold now for less than 150 l. in Scotland, that sum being equal only to 130 l. English money, and the merchant's profit is no greater than when he sold the same quantity of goods for 130 l.

It may not be improper to consider what consequences would attend the lowering the money to the English standard, and allowing it to be exported.

The former state of trade is supposed to be carried on one half by Scots merchants, the other half by English and Dutch; but, as most of the trade is carried on by Scots merchants, let this state of trade be considered accordingly: the one or the other will clear the main question.

The state of trade and exchange supposed at 15 per cent. to England, and 30 to Holland; the whole export of Scotland to be 300,000 l. of which 50,000 l. carried out by Scots merchants, sold at 30 per cent profit and charges 325,000 l.

In English money	- - - - -	1. 282,608
Exported by foreigners for 50,000 in English money	- - - - -	43,478

The whole export	326,086
Goods imported	306,086
Spent abroad	40,000
Due for ballance by Scotland	20,000

Money being lowered to the English standard, and allowed by law to be exported, will bring the exchange with England to 2 or 3 per cent. and with Holland to 17 or 18, notwithstanding the ballance due; for as 100 l. in Edinburgh would then be equal to 100 l. at London, and, being allowed to be exported, none would give above 102 l. or 103 l. for 100 l. at London, because the trouble and charges of sending it to London would be valued no higher: the export, import, and expence abroad supposed to continue the same, a ballance would then be due to Scotland.

The state of trade, exchange at 3 per cent. to England, and so proportionably to other places.

Due in English money, 325,000 l. first cost, charges, and profit of goods, sent out by Scots merchants	} 1. 315,534
Due in English money for 50,000 l. of goods exported by foreigners	} 48,544
The whole exports	364,078

Of this deduct the value of goods imported	- - - - -	306,086
And the expence abroad	- - - - -	40,000
There will be a ballance due to Scotland of	- - - - -	17,992

As this ballance due to Scotland would bring exchange to the par, and 3 per cent. on the Scots side, 3 more, because money in England, supposed to be prohibited exportation, 100 l. in Scotland would be worth 106 l. in England, and proportionably in other places: so the state of trade would then be thus:

Due in English money for 325,000 l. first cost, charges and profit of Scots goods, sent out by Scots merchants, and 50,000 l. exported by foreigners	} 1. 397,500	
Of this spent abroad	- - - - -	40,000
Imported from abroad	- - - - -	306,086
Ballance then due to Scotland	51,414	

If the yearly export be as great as supposed, and the ballance only 20,000 l. then lowering the money to the English standard will make a ballance due of 51,414 l. though the money is not allowed to be exported.

From hence it will be easy to conceive how highly detrimental to our trading interest the exchange being against us must inevitably prove; and, when once it is so, it is easy to conceive that it contributes to keep itself so.

The exchange with Holland being generally against England in time of peace, and more so in time of war, affects this kingdom more disadvantageously, perhaps, than has been thoroughly weighed and considered: for as Amsterdam is made the center of negotiations by bills between Great-Britain and many other parts of Europe, with which we carry on a large commerce (viz. with Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and most parts of Germany) the rate of exchange between us and Holland being to our disadvantage, must virtually, in the like proportion, affect those money-negotiations between us and those countries; and how really prejudicial

that proves is not easy to say: for, if the Dutch exchange being against us has a tendency to influence those exchanges between Holland and Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and many parts of Germany to our disfavour also (we having no direct exchange to those places ourselves): if this is the state of the case, and in consequence thereof, as has been shewed, we receive less for our exports to those places, and pay the dearer for what we import from thence, the injury must be considerable. Besides, if the Dutch exchange has these injurious effects on our trade to those countries, whatever other business we negotiate by exchange, by the way of Holland, must prove to our far greater disadvantage than if that exchange was in our favour, as has been shewn. As we allow bullion and foreign gold and silver to be openly exported in England, the course of exchange between London and Holland, or Hamburgh, cannot rise, perhaps, above 5 or 6 per cent. as long as we have any bullion, or foreign gold and silver to export; for the course of exchange between two countries can scarce ever rise much above the value of the risk and charges of sending gold and silver from the place where the bill is drawn to that where it is to be paid.

But, as at first view many may not discern the certainty of this observation, it should be considered that, if the remitter be a person who thoroughly understands trade, he will not allow, for any bill, an exchange much above the value of the risk and charges of sending his money over in bullion or foreign gold and silver; because, if he finds he must pay an exchange above this value, he will, in common prudence, chuse to remit in specie, rather than by bills of exchange. But as some remitters may not care to deal in the exportation of gold and silver, and are therefore willing to allow a profit over and above the value of the risk and charges, to those who do, whenever this profit rises so high as to be sufficient to answer the merchant's trouble in drawing, and their risk and charges in letting their money lie in foreign correspondents hands, till they find an opportunity to draw for it; we may depend on it, that those who deal this way, will export gold and silver in specie, in order to get a profit by drawing and selling bills of exchange.

Now the value of the risk and charges of exporting bullion, or foreign gold and silver, from Britain to Holland, Hamburgh, or Flanders, may, I reckon, be about two or three per cent. and the profit of it suffice for answering the merchant's trouble in drawing; and his risk and charges in letting his money lie in a foreign correspondent's hand, till he finds an opportunity to draw for it, may, I believe, be about 2 or 3 per cent. more; therefore the exchange between London and either of these countries can scarce ever be above 5 or 6 per cent. This is confirmed by experience; for we find the exchange between London and either of these places seldom rises above 5 or 6 per cent.

With respect to France, indeed, the value of the risk and charges of sending gold or silver to Paris, which is the chief staple of France for bills of exchange, is much greater, because of the land carriage from any of the ports of that kingdom to Paris, and because of the uncertainty of sending it when there is the greatest occasion for it. These are the true reasons for the course of exchange between London and Paris being frequently about 10 per cent. to our disadvantage; but since a weekly correspondence by shipping or sloops has been opened between London and Dunkirk, Calais, or Boulogne, we find several quantities of gold and silver have been entered for exportation to France, which may lower the course of exchange in our favour, or at least prevent it from rising so much to our disadvantage, without diminishing in the least our loss upon the balance of our trade with France.

From these considerations it seems evident, that the course of exchange can rarely rise much above the value of the risk and charges of sending gold or silver to the place where the bill is to be paid: wherefore, if the course of exchange between this country and any other be against us, it may be allowed to be almost a certain indication that the balance of trade is against us; but it cannot be allowed to be a certain indication of the quantum of that balance, because, as I have shewn, whenever the course of exchange rises much above the value of the risk and charges of exporting gold and silver, such quantities of these two metals will be exported as must soon bring the exchange back to its natural course. To determine the exact quantum of this balance is, I believe, impossible, unless our accounts of import and export were much more truly and regularly kept at every one of our ports than they can be by the laws now in being.

The obvious causes which conspire to keep the Dutch exchange in our disfavour are, (1.) The interest-money we pay them for the millions they have in our funds, exclusive of our commission for transacting their business therein, as public creditors. (2.) By reason of the commission we pay them for negotiating the money transactions between us and those countries before intimated. (3.) By their having the exchange in their favour, and, in consequence thereof, paying less for the merchandize they take of us, and we more for those which we take from them, and from those countries with which we transact business by the means of the Hollanders:

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and, while these causes subsist, the effect must be the same. From such view of the matter it appears, that one of the greatest evils to the trade of this nation is that of being indebted to foreigners; and the greatest advantage to their trade is to be our national creditors. Although this evil cannot be removed till those debts in particular are discharged, yet 'tis time for us to think of saving the commission we pay them for being our brokers.

To which end, I would humbly submit it to the consideration of our most skilful and experienced merchants, whether it is not practicable to establish more direct courses of exchange than we have, especially to those places we now do business with through the medium of the Dutch exchange. For, if this should be practicable, our traders will not only save the commission which they pay, but they and their correspondents will do the like also for transacting their businesses.

And these savings on our side may be attended with the following consequences: (1.) They will enable us to afford our native commodities cheaper at foreign markets, thereby increase their vent, and contribute to prevent rivals from supplanting us. (2.) The saving, also, on the side of our foreign correspondents, will enable them to afford their merchandizes cheaper to us. (3.) This parsimony on both sides will prevent the Dutch exchange being the medium of disadvantage to both.

Of what benefit it may prove to the British merchant to speculate where the balance of trade lies, as well between one foreign nation and another as between his own and others, has been shewed, under the head of the ARBITRATION of the foreign exchange; to which we refer. But this will be further exemplified and illustrated throughout the course of our design.

Further REMARKS.

How advantageous this knowledge in the balance of trade and exchange between nations may prove to the state in general, is manifest from the discernment and sagacity of Sir Thomas Gresham, an eminent merchant and citizen of London. This gentleman lived in the time of King Edward VI. who was considerably indebted to the merchants of Antwerp, for money borrowed at interest, to supply the exigencies of the state. Payment of interest, at that time, being an incumbrance to the nation it could but very ill sustain, various expedients had been consulted by the king and his council to discharge those debts; which, being due to foreigners, brought great contempt upon the crown, and the public credit of England. The measures which had been suggested for repayment were, either to transport so much treasure out of the realm, or to remit the same by way of exchange.

The kingdom being already greatly exhausted of its gold and silver, the former was impracticable, without being ruinous to trade, by depriving the nation of a due quantity of money necessary for circulation; and, the exchange between England and Antwerp being at no more than 16 schillings per pound of our currency, negotiating the debt by foreign bills would have sunk the exchange still more to our disadvantage: in consequence whereof the exportation of our gold and silver in general, in the way of trade, would have been equally augmented as if we had exported the same in that shape at first: yet, for the nation to continue in debt, was still increasing the evil; more especially so, as the creditors were foreigners, and the interest therefore sent out of the kingdom. Besides, the creditors insisted on their money, or a compliance with such usurious measures, for a prolongation of the time of payment, as would have brought so high indignity upon the nation, as to have disabled them from borrowing more money but upon the most scandalous terms.

And yet more money the government wanted, instead of being in a capacity to discharge the old debts. Under these circumstances the nation was greatly perplexed, and no measures could be thought of whereby to extricate the kingdom from those embarrassments, till Sir Thomas undertook the affair; by whose great knowledge in the trade of nations; in the exchanges, and where the balance between country and country lay, he exonerated this kingdom from its weighty incumbrances, without sending any money out of it. And, although the exchange was then at sixteen schillings, he so wisely conducted this negotiation, that he paid off the king's debts as they fell due, at an exchange of twenty and twenty-two schillings per pound; whereby the king saved no less than an hundred thousand marks clear, by this great merchant's knowledge in the balance of trade between nation and nation.

By thus raising the exchange so much in favour of England, at that critical conjuncture, the price of all foreign commodities fell proportionably, which experimentally confirmed what had been said before. These measures saved the kingdom in general, and that in a very little time, no less than between three and four hundred thousand pounds sterling more; a round sum at this time of day, but would now be near four times the amount, in proportion to the different values of money.

Nor did the advantages to the nation, from the skill and abilities of this great English merchant, terminate here only. For, as when the exchange was so greatly to the disadvantage of England, gold and silver were daily exported out of the kingdom in great plenty; so by wisely raising it, in the course of his money-negotiations for the service of the state, he caused the same to be brought back again, to the great emolument of the whole trading interest.

Nor did the wisdom of Sir Thomas's counsels, from his profound knowledge in commercial affairs, prove only of the highest honour and advantage to king Edward's reign, but to those of his successors, queen Mary and queen Elizabeth, both of those princesses having made choice of him for the management of their affairs of trade and money. With queen Elizabeth he was in so high esteem, that she not only knighted him, a matter of very high dignity in those days, but honoured him in every respect, and came in person to the exchange of London, which he had erected for the convenience of the merchants, and honour of that splendid metropolis, and caused the same to be proclaimed by heralds and a trumpet **THE ROYAL EXCHANGE**: and Sir Thomas was afterwards honoured with the character of **THE ROYAL MERCHANT**.

The reason for taking notice of this matter is, with a view to observe, that the practical arts of trade have not only been attended with as great estates as were ever acquired by any other means, but that the studies of commerce, and the money-affairs of the nation, in a political light, have been attended frequently with as great honour and glory as any other; which might be shewn in a multitude of instances. And, indeed, the studies of the liberal arts, and all other branches of literature, are of little benefit to the state, unless they tend to promote honest industry, and such arts as are useful to commerce in some shape or other. 'Tis that alone which can make every individual Britain happy, and the kingdom respectable throughout the world: for the balance of trade will ever enable Great-Britain to hold the balance of power. And how the one may be always preserved in our favour, in order to maintain the other, is the great end and design of this British Dictionary of Commerce, and the earnest desire of the author.

And now it may not be altogether useless to conclude this point with the observations of the ingenious author of a treatise, intitled *Britannia Languens*, which says, 'That the passages to other preferments are made so open and easy, at present; I mean all those that depend upon literature, in which our youth are led from step to step, by all manner of encouragements: first, by the multitude of our late endowed free-schools, where every ordinary man's son is taught Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, for a small matter, and then is above manufacture; then we have two mighty-endowed universities, where there will, at least, be hope of preferment, let the throng be never so thick, and thence they have farther and more comfortable prospects; and, in the mean time, live easy, and at little or no charge, as servants, or on small stipends, till they become scholars of houses, &c. Others of these free-school boys grow pen-men of all sorts; and all these are a sort of gentlemen-like ways of living, which intitles them to be called masters, which gives a main temptation both to parents and children, who, on the other hand, see the contemptible, and too often miserable, condition of our poor clothworkers, and other ordinary artificers, who, at the best, are called mechanic fellows: and, what is yet further mischievous is, that our youth thus educated, never reading any thing of manufacture, exportation, or importation, in Homer and Virgil, or their college notes, and being from thence carried to other studies, which have no cognation with trade, can ordinarily have no sensation of the advantages of it; like bowls which have a rub at hand, the farther they go the more they are divided from the mark: whence it hath unfortunately ensued, that our men of learning are either generally silent in this matter, or else, being inclined to think it the sole concern of the dirty and servile part of the people, speak of it with contempt, and some with reflection; by whom most others being influenced, we are still pretending to be more accurate in logic and metaphysical philosophy (which, howsoever otherwise useful, do not add two-pence a year to the riches of the nation), we continue to squeeze all the Staple's papers and fragments of antiquity; we grow mighty well acquainted with the old heathen gods, towns, and people; we prize ourselves in fruitless curiosities; we turn our lice and fleas into bulls and pigs, by our magnifying glasses; we are searching for the world in the moon with our telescopes; we send to weigh the air on the top of Teneriffe; we invent pacing saddles, and gimcracks of all sorts; all which are voted ingenuities, whilst the notions of trade are turned into ridicule, or much out of fashion.'

Of the application of this knowledge to the use of the merchant, and the foreign banker or remitter by exchange.

From the nature of the trade and circumstances of particular nations, comparatively considered, 'tis obvious enough

that the balance of trade must be in favour of some, and consequently to the disadvantage of others: 'tis the business therefore, of the merchant of good credit and correspondence to speculate on his advices, how the exchanges may stand with regard to the balance of trade, between certain nations wherewith he may hold correspondence. And the reason hereof is grounded on the same principle as speculations on commodities; for it being one of the great articles of foreign commerce to purchase, at proper seasons, the produce and manufactures of foreign countries, when they are cheap, to supply other countries, when and where the same will sell dear; in like manner the dealer in exchange takes his occasion to purchase bills, when and where they are cheapest, and dispose of them, where dearest: for, exchange being the representative of money, such transactions are no more, in effect, than dealing in money, or gold and silver, or other commodities; and where bills, their substitutes, can be bought cheapest, and sold dearest, it is the same thing as buying gold or silver, or other commodities, cheap, and selling them so dear as to yield a profit sufficiently inducing to trade in them. There are two lights wherein this matter may be considered: as, (1.) The intrinsic values of foreign monies, when compared with each other, and with the courses of exchange. (2.) By comparing the extrinsic values together, according to the currency of the exchange. Of the former we have just given instances, by comparing the par of foreign monies with the courses of exchanges. To the other we have spoken under the article of the **ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES**, to which we refer for the further explanation of what we would intend to communicate, in regard to practical commerce, by merchants or foreign bankers. See also the articles **EXCHANGE**, **COIN**, and such other heads as we shall from thence refer to.

Of the use of this knowledge to the national commerce.

The national use to be made of studying where the balance of trade lies, with regard to our own nation, is to know with what countries the balance is to our disadvantage; that is, to what countries we pay more for their commodities which we import, than we receive of them for our native commodities which we export: the end of this enquiry, with respect to the publick interest, is to lessen our imports, and increase our exports; or to sell to such country at least as much as we buy of them, and so increase our sales, if practicable. The measures proper to be taken for this purpose must be different according to the different circumstances of nations; and the nature and consequences of the trade carried on with them, considered in every view that it will admit of. These measures must be particular, and well-timed.

There are, also, general principles, which are certain to prevent the balance being so much in our disfavour as it is with some countries, and which may have a tendency to turn that to our advantage which is at present against us. By what measures this end may be answered, will appear throughout the course of this work.

BALLAST, a quantity of stones, gravel, or sand, laid in a ship's hold, to make her sink to a certain depth into the water, and sail upright, by making her to be of a proper weight. The ballast is sometimes one quarter, one third, or an half, according to the difference of the cargo, and the bulk of the ship.

The ordonnance of the marine (in France) made in August 1681, art. 1 and 6, of the 4th title of book 4, orders all captains or masters of ships, as soon as they get into harbour, to make their declaration to the admiralty of the quantity of ballast they have on board; they being forbidden to cast it out in ports, canals, basons, or roads; nor can it be carried by the unballasters, but to such places as are appointed for that purpose.

BALLIAGE, a duty payable to the city of London, for all goods and merchandizes of aliens or denizens, born within the allegiance of the British-crown, being the sons of aliens, born under foreign allegiance, granted, together with the duties of scavage, package, and portage, to the mayor and commonalty, and citizens, by their charter, dated the 5th day of September, in the 16th year of the reign of king Charles II, confirmed by the 20th rule of the book of rates, and by 2 W. and M. c. 8.

		s.	d.
Beer, the ton	_____	0	4
Canvas, the 100 ells, containing six score	_____	0	2
Cloths, vide Drapery.			
Coals, the chaldron	_____	0	1
Cochineal, vide Dyeing commodities.			
Drapery of wool- len or worsted.	Broad cloth, the piece	0	1½
	Kerseys, of all sorts, the piece	0	0½
	Perpetuanoes, the piece	0	0½
	Stuffs, woollen or worsted, the single piece	0	0½
	Stuffs, woollen or worsted, the double piece	0	1
Dyeing commo- dities.	Cochineal, the hundred, containing five	1	0
	score pound	_____	_____
	Indico, the hundred, containing five score	0	4
	Wood of all sorts, for dyers, the hundred	0	1
	weight, containing 112 lb.	_____	_____

Furrs,

	s.	d.
Furrs, vide Skins.		
Fustians, British making, each fifteen yards	—	0 ½
Flax, or hemp, the hundr. weight, containing 112 lb.	0	1
Grocery.	{ Cloves, mace, nutmegs, or cinnamon, } { the hundred, containing five score } { Raisins, the piece or frail — — — } { Raisins, folis, the hundred weight, con- } { taining 112 lb. — — — }	0 2
		0 ½
		0 1
		0 1
Hemp, vide Flax.		
Indico, vide Dyeing commodities.		
Iron	{ The ton unwrought — — — } { Wrought, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb. }	0 6
		0 1
Lamprens, the thousand.	—	0 ½
Lead, the fother	—	0 6
Linnen, vide Canvas.		
Pewter, vide Tin.		
Saffron, the pound	—	0 ½
Salt, the wey	—	0 2
Salt-petre, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0	1
Silk raw, or thrown silk, the pound cont. 16 ounces	0	¼
Skins	{ Beaver-skins, the 100 containing five score } { Badger-skins, the 100 containing five score } { Coney-skins, black, the 100 cont. six score } { Cat-skins, the 100 containing five score } { Calve-skins, the 100 containing five score } { Fox-skins, the 100 containing five score }	1 6
		0 6
		0 2
		0 2
		0 6
		0 6
Furrs.	{ Fitches, the timber — — — } { Merkins, the 100 containing six score — } { Otter-skins, the 100 containing five score } { Sheep, or lamb-skins, the 100 cont. six score } { Squirrel-skins, the 1000 — — — }	0 1
		0 2
		0 6
		0 1
Stuffs, vide Drapery.		
Tin or pewter, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Wax, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	—	0 2
Wood for dyers, vide Dyeing commodities.		
Wool of all sorts, the hundr. weight cont. 112 lb.	0	2
Other merchandizes, liquid or dry, that are not particularly rated in this table, shall pay balliage duties outwards, by their bulk, as followeth, viz.		
A great pacquet, or fardle, containing between 15 } or 20 cloths, or other goods to that proportion }	1	6
An ordinary pack, truss, or fardle, containing in } bigness about 10 or 12 cloths, 12 or 14 baiz, or } to the like proportion in frizes, cottons, or other } goods }	1	0
A bale containing three or four cloths, four or five } baiz, or the like proportion in other goods }	0	6
For a great maund, or great basket	—	0 8
For a small maund, or basket, three hundred weight } or under }	0	4
For a hamper, or offer, weighing 2 hundred weight } or under }	0	3
For a butt, or pipe	—	0 1
For a hoghead, or puncheon	—	0 4
For a barrel	—	0 2
For a firkin	—	0 1
For a dry-fat	—	0 8
For a drum-fat	—	0 4
For a bale	—	0 6
For a great chest, or case	—	0 8
For a small chest or case, containing three hundred } weight, or under }	0	4
For a small box	—	0 2
For a great trunk	—	0 6
For a small trunk, not above two hundred weight	—	0 3
For a bag or sack	—	0 4
For a feron	—	0 3

BALLIN; thus they call, at Bourdeaux, at Bayonne, and in other trading towns of the province of Guienne in France, what at Paris, and elsewhere, they call emballage, or packing, &c.

In the wool trade at Bayonne they deduct so much for packing upon every bale, which amounts from 11 to 14 pounds weight, according as the packing-cloth is more or less coarse, or the bale larger or smaller.

BALLON, or **BALON**, a sort of brigantine used in the kingdom of Siam, to navigate up and down the rivers, and carry on the inland trade. It is made of the trunk of one single tree, in an hollow manner, and is managed with oars. These vessels are of several sizes, according to the use they are designed for. The king has some to take his pleasure upon the water, and these are not less than 100 or 120 feet long, and 6 or 7 broad, and have 100 rowers on each side. Nothing can be more stately than those ballons in which the kings of Siam shew themselves now and then to their subjects, with such pomp as inspires them with a religious awe, not to say downright adoration.

BALLON, which is also called **BALLOT**, in the glass trade of Lorrain, signifies a certain quantity of glass-plates, smaller or greater, according to their quality. The ballon of white glass contains 25 bundles, of six plates per bundle; but the

ballon of coloured glass is only of 12 bundles and 1, and of 3 plates to a bundle.

BALLON, is also a term used in the paper trade.

The paper of Marseilles, called paper with the little cross (à la croizette) of which large quantities are sent to Constantinople, is sold by the ballon, containing 24 reams. The ballon of paper with the crown, which is manufactured in some places of Provence, and is also very proper for the Levant trade, where it is sold for Venice paper, contains but 14 reams.

BALM, or **BALSAM**, a kind of gum, of great repute in physic and surgery, which is liquefied, or dissolved, by means of spirit of wine, or with oil. It is reckoned a sovereign remedy for the cure of wounds, and of several distempers. The ladies also make a very great account of it, because, by mixing it with the yolk of an egg and spirit of wine, they make an excellent paint.

There are many sorts of balm, if we will reckon in that class all the remedies and drugs to which empirics or quacks, or even physicians and surgeons, pretend to give that name. Such are the apoplectic balm, the stomachic, the bezoardic, the hysterick, the vulnerary, the magistrac, and many more: but, the natural balsms for excellency are properly but two sorts; namely, the balm of the Levant, and the balm of Peru; though under the general name of balm are reckoned several other gums.

The **BALM** of the Levant, which is accounted the most excellent, though that of Peru be not, perhaps, less efficacious, issues from an incision made in a tree that bears the same name, and grows in Egypt and in Judæa. It is so precious as to be part of the particular property belonging to the Grand Seignior himself.

That tree, which is as tall as the pomegranate tree, shoots forth a great many branches. Its leaves are like those of rue, but always green: its blossoms are white, formed like stars, and produce small pointed berries, each of which contains a small almond, or kernel.

The incision, from which this admirable gum issues, is made in the dog-days. The juice, which at first is liquid, thickens afterwards, and becomes such as it is seen in Europe. Few persons can boast to have it pure; for, on account of the high price it bears, it is adulterated almost as soon as it comes from the tree.

The signs of its being unmixed and excellent are pretended to be as follow; viz. that its scent be strong and penetrating; that the gum be fresh; that it be not four; that it be easily dissolved; astringent and sharp to the taste, and that it leave not the least spot on woollen cloth. Its true colour is yellow, inclining to gold, and its scent has something of the citron.

Balsamum is the Latin name of the tree whence the balm issues; opo-balsamum is the juice which distils from the tree, that is to say, the balm; carpo-balsamum is the fruit, and xylo-balsamum the wood. All these words, though of a foreign language, have been introduced into the French tongue, and the merchant druggists use them in the trade of those commodities.

The carpo-balsamum is also used in the composition of Venice treacle, but is of no other use in physic. It must be chosen fresh, of an aromatic taste, and a pleasant scent.

The xylo-balsamum, as well as all the other merchandizes that come from the tree which produces balm, is imported into France from Cairo, by the way of Marseilles, in small fagots, or bundles; it is nothing but the cuttings of that precious tree, or the wood of such as die by some accident. It is used in the troches of hedycreum. It ought to be in small knotty rods; the rind must be red, the wood white, resinous, and aromatic.

There is also the **BALM** of Mecca, which is a dry and white gum. It is pretty much like white copperas, especially when it is stale. That balm is brought from the famous city of Mecca, on the return of the caravans of the Mahometan pilgrims and merchants, who go to pay their devotions at the native place of their false prophet. It has all the properties of the balm of Judæa, and it is, very probably, the same, which is become hard, and has altered its colour.

It seems to be a mistake to make two sorts of balm of the Levant and of Mecca, for they appear to be the same, as being gathered after the same manner, and from the same tree. If that of Mecca proves harder or drier, it is, because it is older, and more hardened by heat; for it grows very hard in hot climates, accordingly as it is left open, or well preserved. It may be kept fresher in cellars, or more moist subterraneous places. That of the Levant and of Judæa, which is commonly the newest or freshest, and consequently the most liquid, seems to those, who are not well acquainted with it, of a different kind, because it is whiter, and softer. That which is old and thick is more yellow. Perhaps the Turkey merchants are glad that it should then be thought to come from Mecca, that they may sell it the dearer on that account.

R E M A R K S.

It may be imagined, from this account of Monsieur Savary, that there still comes balm from Egypt; but it is an error that ought to be exploded, according to Monsieur Maillet's account,

account, in his description of Egypt. It was, says he, in the garden of Matarca, a large village near Cairo, that the famous balm grew, which entered into the composition of the chrism which the Coptic Christians used in the baptism of their children, the kind of which is now intirely lost. It is not, however, quite 200 years since stems of it were still to be seen, in a little close of that garden, wherein a balna of Egypt had caused them to be locked up, being persuaded that this precious shrub deserved a most particular care. Those stems were not then above a foot high, and about an inch thick; and, indeed, it is said that every where else the balm-trees are never thicker, and that they do not grow above two or three cubits high. From that weak stem shoooted several small twigs, very thin, garnished with leaves of a most beautiful green, which grow always in odd numbers upon every branch. The trunk, or stem, was encompassed with a double rind, or bark. The first or outward rind was of a reddish colour, covered another, much thinner, and perfectly green. These two rinds tasted greatly of frankincense and turpentine, being bruised between the fingers, and smelled almost like cardamum. The wood, which those two rinds covered, was white, and had no more taste or smell than that of common trees. One particular remarkable in this shrub was, that it must be pruned or cut every year like the vine. It was, perhaps, in that season that they gathered the precious juice, so much celebrated of old. Monsieur Maillet does not think that this balm was like that of Mecca; for the latter runs from the trees like all other resinous matters, whereas the balm of Egypt was gathered after another manner.

As there is a private gentleman who has favoured the public with an account of the nature, use, and virtues of this balm, we presume that the reader will not be displeas'd to meet with an extract of it in this place.

The method of preparing the balm of Mecca, commonly called White Balm, it's use and virtues.

The white balm distills and drops from a tree which grows between Medina and Mecca. The tree from which it drops is very scarce, which is the reason of the high price that this balm bears in Europe. That tree is something like the turpentine-tree, and the liquor which issues from it smells like turpentine, but is more sweet and pleasant. That which drops from old trees is thicker than that which comes from young ones, but their effects are the same. When the liquor is not clear and transparent, it is often owing to the vessels in which it was gathered and brought over; but it is never the worse in point of quality.

This balm may be adulterated several ways; but then there are likewise several methods to find it out: we shall mention but one, which is plainest and safest.

In order to make that trial, you should cause a drop or two of the liquid balm to fall into a glass full of clear water: if the drop goes to the bottom without rising again to the surface of the water, or, if it continues in a drop, like oil, it is a proof that the balm is adulterated: if, on the contrary, it spreads upon the surface of the water like a very thin cobweb, scarce visible to the eye, and, being congealed, it may be taken up with a pin, or small straw, the balm is pure and natural.

When the balm is too thick to be taken out of the bottle, you need only put it near the fire, the least heat in the world easily liquefying it: care must be taken that the bottles be not quite full, lest they should break; for that liquor is very apt to rarify, and consequently to increase it's volume, and so press hard against the glass.

The two chief uses of white balm are, the one for health, and the other for beauty. It is the latter which properly raises the price of that liquor, because of the pomatums and virginal milk that are made with it, for preserving and beautifying the ladies complexion. However, we shall speak here only of its medicinal use, and of the method of preparing the balm, either to apply it outwardly for the cure of wounds, or for taking it inwardly in potions or pills for several distempers: for the cure of which it is judged proper by eminent physicians.

This balm being taken inwardly, is esteem'd by many physicians, good in pains of the stomach, in the reins, the cholic, weakness in the lungs, and want of appetite. For all these ailments it is taken in pills; these pills are made, by pouring a few drops of balm into pulverized sugar, more or less, according to the violence of the distemper, but never above four: they are rolled in the powder, till they be quite covered with it; in that condition, the patient swallows them, after which he must drink half a glass of red or white wine, some tea or coffee, or a basin of broth. You may also put the balm into any liquor which you drink, but, as it is very clammy, is apt to stick to the teeth or the palate.

As for the cure of wounds, it is applied upon them, after they have been well washed with wine, taking care to bring the lips of the wound close together, to prevent scars. It's effect is almost infallible, and succeeds commonly in less than 24 hours.

This balm is reckon'd a sure remedy for deafness, and is

thought to cure it, by making a drop or two of it fall into the ear.

It has been found by experience to be good for the cure of ulcers, they being washed with warm wine, before the balm be applied to them.

Care must be taken always to use this balm, without putting it over the fire.

BALM of Peru. There are three sorts of it, or, rather, they are but one and the same sort under three different names.

These names are, the balm of incision, the dry balm, and the balm of lotion. They are all produced by the same tree, which does not grow very tall, and whose leaves are indented like those of the nettle.

The balm of incision is a whitish and clammy rosin, which drops from the tree by an incision made into it, and afterwards thickens and becomes hard.

The dry balm is reddish, and distills from the end of the branches, the top of which is cut off, and to which they fasten little vessels, called, in Peru, cochines and maracas; into these vessels the liquor drops, which at first is as white as milk, and grows reddish only, because it is exposed to the sun.

Finally, the balm of lotion is black. It is made of the bark, small twigs, and leaves of the tree, cut, bruised, and boiled together.

The white balm of Peru is a sovereign remedy for fresh wounds; for the cure of which no other salve has yet been used. It must be chosen very white, and, approaching near to the opo-balsamum, is often mistaken for that.

The balm of Peru is sold at Amsterdam, in pots or in bottles; it costs generally there from 7 to 8 guilders per pound. The deduction for prompt payment is one per cent. and tare is allowed for the pots and the bottles.

The dry balm, in order to be of the best sort, ought to be red, odoriferous, and very dry, as is hinted by it's name. It is chiefly used for making virginal milk, which is much better than that which they make of benzoin and storax.

The balm of lotion is also used for the cure of wounds, like the white balm; and is pretty much valued by the perfumers, on account of it's excellent smell. It ought to be thick blackish, of a pleasant scent, and not adulterated with oil of sweet almonds.

Some authors would make us believe, that on the banks of the river of the Amazons there grows a plant called copayba, which produces a balm much superior to that of the Levant and Peru.

It is the same with the copaii mentioned hereafter; for to make two sorts of balm of them is a mistake, arising only from the different manner of spelling that word in different languages.

Besides these two sorts of balm of the Levant and of Peru, which must be looked upon as the only true sorts, the druggists sell also balm of copaii, balm of Tolu, balm stiled liquid amber, and a fourth sort, which they call new balm.

The balm of copaii, otherwise copaiif, and campaiif or copahu, comes from Brasil and Guiana. It is sent from Portugal into France, in earthen bottles, pointed at one end. It is to be met with in plenty at the druggists in Holland, where it is called copaiva. It is in the form of oil, either clear or thick. The former sort is clear and white, and of a resinous scent. The latter inclines a little more to the yellow, or gold colour. It is an excellent remedy for the cure of wounds.

This balm is a great deal better than that which comes from the coast of Carraccas. It is the same in effect, though less liable to be mixed with other sorts of oil, which increase it's quantity, and consequently lessen its virtues. The Indians of Guiana and Peru are probably more honest than those of Carraccas. For it is observed, that the balm of the latter is clearer, not of so deep a colour, and less odoriferous; which perhaps is owing to it's being mixed with some other oil, or to it's being extracted by many incisions made in the trees at the time the sap was rising; whereas that of Guiana (when not yet stale, which makes it grow yellow and thick) is naturally of a deeper and higher colour; it's scent is more aromatic, and it's effects are quicker and more certain and efficacious. This is extracted from the Chevalier des Marchais's voyages to Guiana, (in French) Tom. III. page 24.

This same balm was at first in very great repute, but it is far from being so excellent as that of the Levant. It was thought a specific medicine for the gonorrhœa; but it is certain, according to a great many physicians, that in those cases it did more harm than good, by it's etherial and heating quality. The English and Dutch begin also to be undeceived, as to the ill use they have made of it. The plant which produces this balm, may grow on the banks of the Amazon river, as well as in Brazil, since those two countries are very near each other. This observation, with that on the error of the different names of this balm, and that on the balm of the Levant and of Mecca, were made by Monsieur Garcin.

The balm of Tolu is a liquid rosin, which, as it grows old, becomes, both in consistency and colour, like Flanders glue newly made. It drops also by incision from some trees, which grow in New Spain, where the inhabitants receive it in small vessels made of black wax. This balm is very

scarce in France, but they may have it imported thither from England. In order to be good, it ought to be fresh, of an agreeable and penetrating scent, pretty much like the balm of Judæa. As it grows old, it becomes of the consistency of the dry balm.

The balm, stiled liquid amber, is a clear and reddish rosin, which comes from certain trees in New Spain, which are called *oçogol* by the natives. The bark of those trees is very thick, and their leaves like those of ivy.

This balm is called liquid amber also, because it very much resembles ambergrease, and the best ought to have the same scent: besides which, it ought to be clear, and of a yellowish colour inclining to gold, when new, but reddish, when old.

The new balm is liquid, and is called oil of liquid amber; that which is old is thick, and is stiled balm of liquid amber. They both come from Spain in barrels. It is at present as scarce in France, as it was common formerly. This balm is an excellent remedy for the cure of wounds, and especially of a fistula in ano.

They sometimes sell oil of St John's wort, or of chamomile, instead of oil of liquid amber. We mention the oil of chamomile under the article of OIL. As for that of St John's wort, which may be stiled a true balm, after it has been made for some time, it is composed of the flowers of St John's wort, and olive-oil exposed to the sun during the great heat of the dog-days. The best is that, to which fine turpentine and saffron is added.

The new balm, which is so scarce in France, that hardly any thing of it is known there but its name, and which is not to be met with, but in the shops of some curious druggists, comes pretty near the balm of Tolu, both in smell and colour. It is squeezed after the same manner as oil of laurel, and is extracted from small red berries, which are found common enough in the isle of St Domingo. They grow in clusters or bunches upon trees, the leaves of which are very broad and long, extremely green on the outside, but only a little greenish in the inside. They tell wonders of that balm, but its reputation is, perhaps, owing to its scarcity only.

There is a mineral balm found in a mine in Italy, upon which F. Castagna, a jesuit, published his observations and experiments in the Philosophical Transactions, for the year 1697, No. 79. art. 3. The reader may also see in the same Transactions, for the year 1666, No. 8. art. 4, an observation upon the mineral balm, found in Alsace.

Monsieur Geoffroy, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, having set fire to some natural balsms, such as those of Capai and Mecca, observed, that, being burned, they spread into the air a perfume, which, being weakened to a certain degree, becomes very sweet, extends very far, and continues a pretty long while. It is chiefly the balm of Capai, that has that agreeable property. See the Memoirs of that academy for the year 1726.

White balm is reckoned one of those merchandizes that come from the Levant, from Barbary, and other countries and territories under the dominion of the Grand Seignior, the king of Persia, and Italy; upon which it is ordered in France to raise a duty of twenty per cent. of their value, according to a decree of the council of the 15th of August 1685.

BAMBOE, or **BAMBOU**, as they spell that word in the Indies, and not bamboue. It is a plant which multiplies very much by its root, from which springs a ramous or branchy tuft, after the manner of some gramina, or, to speak more naturally, after the manner of the European reeds; for the bamboe is of the kind of reeds, as well as the sugar-cane. The Indian bamboe is the largest kind of cane that is known. It is of an extraordinary height and bigness, when it bears its blossom: each shoot or cane is often, towards the bottom, of the bigness of a man's thigh, and decreases gradually to the top, where it bears a blossom or flower, like our reeds, in their proper season. The bamboe grows in all the maritime countries of the East-Indies. Monsieur Lemeroy calls it a tree, whose leaves resemble those of the olive-tree. But John Bauhin, from whom he has extracted his description, has mislaid him: for it is not a tree, though it grows very high, even to 20 or 25 feet, and sometimes to 30. Its leaves are like those of other canes or reeds, except that they are not so long nor so broad at their base, as those of the other kinds: they are but half a foot long, and their breadth, towards the middle, is an inch, or something more. With these canes of bamboe the Indians build their houses, and make all sorts of furniture, in a very ingenious manner. The wood of these canes is so hard and strong, that they serve very well to make piles for supporting their little houses, built over rivers, which have a gentle course, as if it were over slanting waters. They also make with this wood all sorts of utensils for their kitchens and tables. The thickest bamboes serve to make the sticks or poles, with which the slaves or other persons carry those sorts of litters, which are called palanquins, and are of so common a use, and so convenient in all the east. They likewise make of that wood a kind of pails, in which the water keeps extremely cool. The walking-canes which we see in Europe, are the first and smallest shoots of the bamboes. The Malays and those Chinese, who are dis-

perfed in the Moluccoes and Sunda isles, use the young small shoots of the bamboes preserved in vinegar after their manner, with very strong or peppered ingredients. This they call *achior-bamboe*: For they give the name of *achior* to all that is preserved in vinegar; and, to distinguish it, they add to that name of *achior* that of the thing preserved. See *ACHIA*. Two pieces of bamboe of a certain bigness, being rubbed hard against each other after a certain manner, will produce fire; and, when the Indians cannot get any by other means, they obtain it that way.

BAMFFSHIRE, in Scotland, is separated on the south from that part of Buchan, which belongs to Aberdeenshire, by the water of Ugie; on the east it has the water of Dovern, and the German ocean; on the west the water of Spey, and the county of Murray; on the south-west it has Badenoch, and the Brae of Mar; and on the north, Murray Frith. The climate and soil are much the same, as in Aberdeenshire. The chief places here, are,

1. **CULLEN**, a good market-town and ancient royal burgh, on the coast of the Frith of Murray, and the capital of that little district called Boyne, which is fruitful on the coast, but elsewhere mountainous, with large quarries of spotted marble.
2. **BAMFF**, on the same coast, at the mouth of the Dovern, is a county-town, and royal burgh, but has little trade, except from its corn and salmon-fishing, the townsmen being fonder of tillage than of commerce.
3. **FRAZERBURG**, a sea-port on the coast of Murray Frith, reckoned the chief town of the district of Buchan. It has an excellent pier and bulwark, which renders it as safe and commodious as any on the east coast; so that 30 sail of shipping may securely winter here at a time. The water, at full sea, is 18 or 20 feet.
4. **BALVENY**, is a mountainous district, on the west-side of the shire, upon the river Spey, abounding with pasture and wood, and particularly noted for a rock that is productive of hones, and whetstones enough to serve the whole island; so that the people here cover their houses with them instead of slate. Here are also found veins of that stone, of which they make allum, and here are springs of allum-water.
5. **STRATHYLA**, to the north-east of Balveny, is fruitful in corn and grass, and has such plenty of lime-stone, that they build their houses with it. The inhabitants are considerable gainers by selling their lime for cattle and fine linnen-yarn, at a weekly market, in the village of Keith, on the river Dovern.
6. **STRATHAVIN**, is on the river Avin, falls into the Spey; which is more inclined to pasture than corn.

BAN, a sort of smooth and fine muslin, which the English import from the East-Indies. The piece is almost a yard broad, and runs about 20 yards and a half.

BAN, or **BANN**, is, according to Mr. Savary, an old Saxon word, which signifies to banish, proscribe, or outlaw a person, to interdict him of water and fire, a punishment formerly in use among the Romans; to condemn a man for contumacy, that is, for default or want of appearance, if his person cannot be come at. In this sense they say, to put a man or a prince to the ban of the empire; that is to say, to banish him, or cut him off from being a member of the empire. At Paris, a rogue whose crime is not capital, is condemned to go out of the city, county, and provostship, for a certain number of years, and he is commanded to keep his ban, or banishment, under such and such penalties.

Others are of opinion, that ban is a British word, which signifies noise and clamour. Others derive it from the Saxon *pan*, which signifies any thing that is spread; and hence the words ban and band are taken for a flag.

BAN, in general, is said of a public cry or proclamation. Hence the notice given publicly of the sale of some merchandizes, is called ban in French, especially when the notice is given by beat of drum. They also use the same word for the public cry of lost goods, with a reward offered for the recovery of them. We have kept the word ban, or banns, in our language, to signify a proclamation made at the head of a body or troop, by the sound of trumpet, or beat of drum, for the observing of martial discipline; as also to give a solemn notice of marriage contracts, made in the parish churches of the contracting parties.

BANCO, an Italian word which signifies bank. It is commonly used to signify the bank of Venice.

BAND, a small weight of about two ounces, used in some parts of the coast of Guinea, to weigh gold-dust.

BANIANS, the Dutch write **BENJANS**, a kind of Indians dispersed over all Asia, through whose hands passes almost the whole trade which the Europeans carry on in those parts. They are the third sect of the heathens who dwell in the East-Indies. The Banians and the Chinese are the greatest traders in the Indies, to whom must also be added the Jews and the Armenians, who are greatly dispersed over those parts. But the most considerable trade is carried on by the Banians, in the whole peninsula on this side the Ganges. They are extremely skilful and cunning in commerce. What Furetiere tells us of the Banians, relates to almost all the sects of the Indians, or heathens in those parts. He has extracted it from an inaccurate history, written by Henry Lloyd,

an Englishman. The Banians may be ranked with the Armenians and the Jews, for their experience and skill in all kinds of commerce.

There are a great many Banians in Persia, and especially at Ispahan and Bender-Abassi; the chief of them are very rich, but their riches do not hinder them from applying themselves to trades, even the meanest, if any thing is to be got by them. Most of them follow brokerage; and most of the brokers of the English, Dutch, and French companies, are of that nation. For the rest, they are very honest, and have almost constantly in their hands the stock and cash of those companies.

They are likewise bankers, and there are few places in the East-Indies, for which they cannot furnish bills of exchange. They have also a sort of standing cash or bank, where persons may deposit their money, and take it out again whenever they please.

BANKING, (according to Savary) is a traffic or commerce in money, which is remitted from place to place, from one city to another, by correspondents, and by means of bills of exchange.

The word bank is said by some to be derived from the Italian banca, which comes from banco, a bench, because formerly, in all the trading cities of Italy, banking was publicly exercised in open places or exchanges, where all those who carried on that trade, had seats or benches, on which they used to sit down to reckon their money, and write their bills of exchange.

Some authors add, that, when a merchant happened to fail, they used to break his bench, either as a mark of infamy, or to put another in its stead: and they pretend, that, from the breaking of the bench, come the words of bankrupt and bankruptcy.

In France, it is not requisite that a man be a merchant, in order to carry on banking: for that trade is permitted to all sorts of persons, and even to foreigners. Hereby is meant foreign banking, or dealing by exchange.

In Italy, the trade of banking does not derogate from nobility, especially in the republics; which is the reason, why most of the younger sons of the quality apply themselves to that employment, in order to support their families. And, indeed, it is certain, that the noblemen of that country, and particularly of Venice and Genoa, are those, who for many ages past have been the chief bankers in France, as well as in the other countries of Europe.

REMARKS ON BANKS and BANKING.

It cannot be doubted but that the beginning of traffic was by exchanging one commodity for another, as men could best suit each other's occasions.

But the necessities of men being so various and different, in respect of the quantity and quality of requisites, money was instituted as the most convenient medium for commerce, whereby people might procure whatsoever they stood in need of in quantities, according to their exigencies.

This changed the term of bartering into that of buying and selling; yet all trading, at length, results into nothing but a general barter. For, he that sells any thing to receive money for it, purchases again such things as he requires with the same money.

Money then becoming the principal engine for circulating the bulk of commerce, it's application to trade is proper to be considered.

Money is used in the minuter kinds of dealings, as retailing, &c. when it is commuted for all kinds of labour, and to furnish the necessary provisions for daily use. This requires it's being divided into the smallest denominations of the species, as into shillings and pence: so that this way of dealing is not capable of being transacted by bills and assignments.

Money is also employed in the more extensive and wholesale way of trading, wherein large sums are negotiated; and this occasions frequent payments from one trader to another.

In which payments, although, strictly speaking, ready cash be required, as often as contracts are made; yet, as commerce in general consists in the mutual dealings and transactions of many traders, it may often so fall out, by means of interchangeable debts and credits, that divers traders may satisfy each other's occasions without making any payments in specie, by transferring their debts to each other: whence came that useful accommodation in traffic, of giving bills and assignments, which is commonly called paper credit. For the clearer understanding whereof, we may give the following instance of the mutual dependencies of trade.

The Turkey merchant, we'll suppose, buys cloth of the clothier; the clothier buys wool of the Spanish merchant; the Spanish merchant buys sugar and ginger, &c. of the West-India merchant; the West-India merchant buys stuffs and silks of the mercer; the mercer buys wrought silks of the silk-weaver; and the silk-weaver buys silk of the Turkey merchant; and each of these deal to the value of 200 l. or upwards. In this case, all these transactions may be carried on without money. The Turkey merchant gives the clothier a bill for 200 l. on the silk-weaver; the clothier gives the same

bill in payment to the Spanish merchant; he gives it to the West-India merchant; he again gives it to the mercer; and lastly, the mercer delivers up the bill to the silk-weaver, in discharge of so much of his debt to him: and thus six traders are all satisfied their respective debts, without the actual payment of any money: which likewise illustrates, that trade is but a general barter.

But, when such mutual conveniencies do not occur, traders usually receive their money in specie, and so pay it from one to another.

Yet this way of payment is attended with many inconveniencies, as the trouble in counting of the money, hazard in securing it from the attempts of robbers, and loss from trusting it with unfaithful servants: for the prevention of all which, cities of large commerce have very naturally introduced the use of banks.

A bank then may be properly defined a common repository, where many persons agree to keep their cash, to be always ready at their call or direction.

We are farther to consider, that there are banks of various kinds, and different in the nature of their constitutions and establishments.

Some are instituted wholly on the public account, and put under the direction of the magistrates, who are obliged to take such care of the management, that the money or bullion deposited therein, shall always be kept for the use of the proprietors, and shall never be let out for profit or advantage; of this kind is the famous bank of Amsterdam, which is administered with so great a strictness and fidelity, that it is said, a magistrate, who was one of the directors of it, was sentenced to death, for making use of a sum of money but for one day, though he paid it in the next. Wherefore, from an opinion the proprietors entertain of the equity of it's administration, they judge themselves so secure, that their money lies always ready to answer their demands, that they seldom draw out large sums, but make their mutual payments, by transferring the sums from one man's account to another: and from this great ease and convenience it is come to pass, that payments made by assignments on this bank are valued from 3 to 5 and 6 per cent. above the payment of money in specie, which difference, between the bank and current money, is called the agio.

A second sort of banks is such as consist of a company of monied men, who, being duly established and incorporated by the laws of their country, agree to deposit a considerable fund or joint stock, to be employed for the profit and advantage of the whole society, in all those ways of dealing, which are compatible with the nature of such an undertaking; as borrowing upon their own credit, and lending money upon good securities; buying and selling bullion gold and silver, and foreign specie; discounting bills of exchange, or other secure debts; receiving and paying the cash of other traders; of which kind is the bank of England.

A third sort is the banks of private men, or partnerships, who deal in the same way as the former, upon their own single stock or credit; and such are the Lombard-street, or other bankers, as they are called.

As to the first kind, 'tis certain, that nothing can be so infallibly safe, as where the value is always kept ready in specie; and here also the ease and security of traders are effectually provided for, in the receipts and payments of their money: but yet this kind of bank is so much the less useful to the public, as it can neither be helpful to the government on emergencies, nor to traders, in accommodating them with money.

The security of the second kind consists in the certain knowledge of it's fund, or stock, the solidity of it's institution, and the incorruptible fidelity of it's management; wherein it is always the interest of the concerned to give the public the utmost satisfaction: and, in this respect, the bank of England must be secure beyond all apprehension to the contrary, as well by reason of the great sums they have lent the government upon the faith of a British parliament, which is sufficient always to keep them above all suspicion of failure, as from the known skillful and profitable management of those who have been successively concerned in the direction. Besides, as an incorporated body, they are not, like private men, subject to death. And, as this kind of bank has all the conveniencies of the former, it has also this beyond it, that it's capacity of lending money is an invaluable accommodation to the community, since it will always have a tendency to the keeping low the interest of money, and being an effectual and permanent check to usury, which is the greatest bane to our trade and navigation.

The nature of the third kind is, in all respects, the same with the second, but much short of it in point of security, because the ability and integrity of private men in trade, are things whereof the public can have no certain assurance, being only founded upon opinion, and the appearance that men make in the world: and, as it is very natural for private men to be tempted with specious views of profit and advantage, so they are frequently induced to launch out beyond the power of their own stock, and to hazard the estates of their creditors: whereby, when they come to sustain loss

and disappointments in their dealings, they not only bring ruin upon themselves, but involve many others in the like calamity, who have entrusted them with the keeping of their money: of this we have seen but too many examples.

It must, however, be acknowledged, that the man of judgment and sagacity, as well as steady honour and honesty, may as securely be trusted in this capacity with the greatest treasure as any body of people whatsoever; and that there are such gentlemen among those who are concerned in this way of banking, we have had large experience; and especially in that great time of famine (if we may so call it) whilst the money was recoining in King William's reign, when several of the private bankers, and to their eternal honour be it remembered, managed their affairs with such penetration and integrity, that they continued to make their payments, and maintained their credit, even beyond the bank of England at that time. Whence 'tis apparent, that private banking also is of great utility and convenience in trading cities; and, indeed, is as necessary a check upon the bank, as the latter is upon them, to prevent high interest, and exorbitant premiums of any kind, as well to the government as the public.

By what has been said, it may sufficiently appear, that nothing but ready money can be a proper foundation for a bank; that the second kind is the most useful and extensive, to all the conveniences of the public, and of commerce; and that it's business is to keep the cash of traders, or others, to deal in bullion, exchanges, and discounts, and to lend upon securities, but upon none but such as are morally certain, and for short time of payment; or which, upon occasion, may be readily exchanged again for money: on the contrary, that such a bank ought never to purchase or lend money upon lands, as well because of the hazards of titles, as of the tediousness and uncertainty of repayments: least of all should a bank deal in merchandize, because of the risque of adventuring, the dubiousness of profits, and the length of time for returns: it ought, indeed, to be always strictly restrained from the buying and selling merchantable commodities, by reason of the great injury which might thereby arise to trade in general, from an uncontrollable monopoly.

It may be here requisite to take notice of that erroneous notion entertained by some, that banks and bankers engross the money, hoard it up, and hinder it's circulation in trade; but, if such will consider this matter in it's true light, they will easily be convinced, that the money lodged in banks, and in the hands of bankers, is the most constantly employed of any; for, though the specie should lie still 'till called for, yet the notes given out for it's value, are continually circulating; whereby is done abundantly more service to trade, than if the same lay dormant in private hands; and yet the necessities of the depositors are effectually answered.

Nor should we omit observing the mistake of those, who have imagined, that lands settled to a competent value, might be erected into a bank, and would become so certain and reputable a fund, that, if bills were issued to the value of above three times the usual purchase of the lands, they might obtain a currency, upon the assurance, that, two thirds of the clear rents of the lands paying off yearly such a proportion of the bills, the whole number of them would be paid off and sunk in 100 years. Or, to render this more intelligible; that lands of 150l. per ann. being settled upon a land-bank for the payment of 100l. clear every year, bills for 10,000l. might be issued thereupon, whereof 100l. being discharged yearly, the whole would be cleared, and the land revert to the proprietor, at the end of 100 years; and it has been supposed practicable, with the help of a little circulating money, to give these bills such a currency at the first, as to induce the public, in a little time, to esteem them as money, because they would all certainly be paid in time.

We might well suppose, that the absurdity of this project was at first sight too evident to deceive mankind, had we not experienced, that many people were once drawn in to squander away their money, upon an attempt to put this imaginary scheme into practice: it may not, therefore, be time mispent, if, while we are on this subject, we detect the fallacy of this notion, in order to guard the public from being again imposed on by such chimeras.

Let it then be considered, that all things bought and sold are valued at a certain price, standard, or measure, in respect to the current money of the country.

Those commodities, which are called staple, have a pretty certain established price; from which, they rarely vary much for a series of years, unless on extraordinary occasions: such as lead about 1d. $\frac{1}{4}$ a pound, or gold, reckoned, about 4l. per ounce, and the lands of England valued, on an average, at about 20 years purchase; which makes 150l. per ann. worth 3000l. and an annuity of 100l. per ann. for 100 years, secured to be paid by lands of a competent value, may be esteemed at about 1900l.

The first principle, in dealing, is to know the worth and value of commodities; and no man will give more for a thing than he esteems it worth.

As money then is the medium of commerce, and as bills, of whatsoever kind, are always to be taken as so much money, (being only intended, as has been already shown, to excuse

the frequent receiving and paying it) any person not interested in such a bank, who takes 10,000l. value in their bills, either buys them or receives them in payment for so much due to him, and is sure, that neither he nor his assignees can ever receive more for them, than 100l. per ann. for 100 years successively; and he that will give 10,000l. for such an annuity, which might have been purchased for about 1900l. would have been accounted as wife, as he that would have given 5s. per lb. for lead, or 20l. per ounce for gold, or 166 years purchase of lands.

The mistake of this project seems to arise from an imagination, that because 'tis common for trading banks to obtain so great a credit, that their bills may pass through many hands, before they come to be paid; whereby a great running credit in their bills may be circulated with a far less sum in money; that therefore this land-bank also would in time arrive to the same reputation.

This confidence may seem to be confirmed, from the further observation, that young tradesmen are frequently trusted with goods to two or three times the value of their own proper stock or worth; wherefore, it may be necessary to consider the difference of these two kinds of credit.

He that sells goods upon credit, always makes such a price as shall sufficiently compensate for the time of the trust, and from thence arises a principal part of his gain; but then he so orders his affairs, that the money constantly coming in from his debtors, may be sufficient to answer all demands of his creditors, whereupon his own reputation depends. Now, if this tradesman, for saving the trouble of receiving and paying money, lodges his money in a bank, expecting no interest or profit thereon; 'tis in confidence, that it lies always as ready there to answer his note at demands, as if it lay at home in his own coffers in cash: and he is very sensible, that, if he meets with any disappointment in this, he hazards his own credit.

But banks gain their credit from their exactness and punctuality, in being ever ready to pay off all their bills, as fast as they are demanded; from whence people entertain an opinion, that either they keep the greatest part of their money always by them, or at least that they deal so warily, as to be able to command it all upon short warning. But the tradesman gives large credit to his debtor, because he gains by it; and though he trusts his money to the keeping of the bank, yet it may not be said that he gives credit to it in the same sense as he does to the former, because he always depends upon having his money, every moment, to answer his emergencies.

And thus, though traders will ever esteem the bills of those banks equal with ready money, when they believe the stock is always sufficient to pay them off on demand; yet they will never be persuaded to accept bills, as current payment, from such a bank as this we are speaking of, where they are sure before-hand, that the fund proposed is so far deficient, as not to be worth one fifth part of the value which is to be issued out in bills.

There are some, however, that have proposed a much more rational scheme for the constituting of what they would call a land-bank, which is by settling a competent value in lands, to remain as a fixed fund of credit for the undertaking, and to raise thereon a considerable sum of money, to lie always ready for the circulating of their bills: but, if we shall strictly examine this also, it will be found, perhaps, that lands can neither be fitly applied in this way. For,

We are to observe, that trading banks may make use of their credit in a twofold manner: the one is, as they borrow for a certain time, on condition to pay interest for it: the other is, when they take upon them the trust of keeping other people's money, for which they give their bills payable at demand. For the latter, a middling fund or stock may be sufficient, as we see by the large credit frequently given to young bankers, from an opinion of the prudence and honour of the men: for the former there ought always to be a visible fund, amply competent for the lender to ground his security upon.

But, as no one will say that land alone is a practicable fund for a bank, without a proportionate sum of money conjoined with it, we shall obtain a clearer view of this point, if we consider the reason why land alone can never be a competent security for a bank.

Land and money are the two mighty sources from whence property increases, and improvements of property flow; and, though they both fall into the ocean of wealth or riches, yet they glide through different channels. Land produces it's increase by cultivation, but always remains fixed and immoveable: money, on the contrary, gains nothing by lying still, but makes it's increase and improvement by being continually employed in trade, and tossed from hand to hand. Land, for the most part, takes up the whole year for the bringing about it's return, but money may be returned ten or twenty times in the year: whence it may naturally be inferred, that the profits arising from the employment of money, must be much greater than from the produce of land.

Those who are busy in trade, and know how to employ their whole stock, have often occasion to borrow money, but

but never think of purchasing lands, or letting out their money at interest; and 'tis such who usually keep their cash in banks, where it may be ready at their call: but, when men grow rich, and weary of business, they incline to lay out their money in lands, and to lend it upon proper securities; they seldom deal with banks, unless they buy stock, because, as they have no sudden occasions for their money, they chuse to let it lie out long upon good security, aiming at higher interest than banks usually give.

Suppose a trader takes the bill of this kind of land-bank, and wants the money to divide into lesser payments, but, when he comes to receive it, is told by the manager of the bank, that, at present, they can only pay him the interest; and for the principal he may be confident that it is secured by as good lands, and as safe a title, as any in England; the trader may well answer, that his dealing is not in usury, and that, if he cannot have the money, when he wants it, to supply his daily occasions in trade, he is not able to carry on his business, which is much more profitable to him than the interest of money, or rents of lands; and, therefore, that he will return the bill, and never meddle with any more of the like. Thus 'tis plain that a bank of lands can never prove effectual, without a sufficient fund of money to support it.

Let us see in what light this matter will appear, when it is furnished with a stock of money; and suppose that lands to the value of one million are settled for the fund of a bank, upon the credit whereof bills bearing interest are given out to voluntary lenders, for 750,000*l.* which is to the utmost usual extent of the security; and this shall be the money-stock, provided for the circulation of the bills.

And if the managers shall act so equitably as to extend their credit no further in dealing than is adequate to their capital, does not such a bank become as perfect a money-bank as any other, and the lands no otherwise concerned than as if so much money were borrowed in the common way of mortgage? for it is manifest that the lands would have no manner of operation in such like negotiations.

But, if they shall adventure to extend their credit beyond the power of this money-capital, and that to such a degree as to have any dependence on the remaining value of the lands, this will be effectually the same thing as mortgaging the lands twice over; and, as the man who should do this would incur the censure of being a knave, people would avoid dealing with him; so, if the bank should be discovered in this practice, all people would soon withdraw their credit; and, though it should not be discovered, the action is nevertheless dishonest, because there is a possibility that a general demand may fall upon the bank, and then such traders who happen to come toward the latter end, must at best content themselves with land security, when such a disappointment of the ready money happens as they had provided for the making of their own payments: this may prove of that fatal consequence to some as to destroy their credit, and ruin their families.

Upon the whole, men may, if they think fit, mortgage their landed estates for the raising of money to be employed in banking; and with that money they may establish a competent fund for a reputable bank; but 'till they can find a way to take lands from hand to hand, and divide them into as many particles as they can do a bag of money, lands cannot honestly be brought to bear any share of the banking trade, in the light we have been considering the matter: whence we may with some confidence conclude, that nothing else ought to be understood of a bank but that it is a repository of cash, or other staple moveable treasure; and that therefore, no other fund can fitly be applied to banking except real ready money, or what is always capable readily to produce it.

Although it may appear, at first view of this subject, that lands and money might be united in the constitution of a bank, yet, from the consideration of the different natures, qualities; and accidents of those two subjects, it is apparent that their improvements are made by such different ways as are peculiar to each, and that, therefore, they can never be capable of being blended and consolidated into one and the same application, with regard to commerce; and yet it must be acknowledged, that, when the rest of this nation shall grow so wise as to imitate the West Riding of the county of York, by instituting a general registry for the securing of titles, the lands of England will be brought to the nearest capacity of resembling ready money, that the nature of the subject can admit: and, if ever such a national land-bank as we have been speaking of should take place, this is the preparatory step which alone could establish it.

FURTHER REMARKS ON BANKING.

Let us suppose a goldsmith, or a banker, sets up for keeping people's cash for them upon notes, payable on demand; if an hundred gentlemen, or land-proprietors, who keep a provision by them of money, lodge it in such bankers hands, and take out such part of it as they occasionally require, but replace it when their rents come in: if these sums amount to 100,000 ounces of silver, it may happen that not above

10,000 ounces of the whole money shall be wanted, or called for out of the goldsmith's hands during the whole year; and, if he has credit enough to raise money upon exigencies, he may commonly venture to lend out at interest 90,000 ounces all the year round, and not keep above one tenth part of the sums he gave his notes for, in his hands, to answer the calls upon him: by which means 90,000 ounces, which would otherwise have been kept up during the year, will circulate in traffic.

If an hundred gentlemen put all their rents, as they receive them, into a goldsmith's hand, and only draw weekly for the common expences of their families; and if the sums amount to 100,000 ounces of silver per quarter; the goldsmith will be able to lend out more money for a short time in the beginning of the quarter, than towards the end of it; and he can only afford to lend out for the whole year so much as he finds by experience is left in his hands at the end of every quarter.

If the persons who keep money in the goldsmith's hands are undertakers, or dealers in business, who commonly put in large sums, and as commonly draw them soon out of his hands, to answer the demands of their business; such goldsmith will often find, that, if he lends two-thirds of his cash, the demands upon him will exceed the one-third he has in his hands; and so he must hastily re-borrow money at disadvantage, to answer those calls; and, therefore, experience will shew him, that he cannot prudently venture to lend out above one half of the cash, for which he has given his notes.

From these examples it is apparent, that the quantity of money a goldsmith may be able to lend out of his cash, is proportionable to the methods of acting of those who deposit their money in his hands. Whence it follows, that one goldsmith may be able to lend out $\frac{2}{3}$, when another cannot afford to lend out $\frac{1}{2}$; and this may be the case, though we suppose the credit of both equally good.

A well-constituted national bank having a better reputation than a private goldsmith, the largest sums, and such as are not soon called for, are commonly lodged there. If the national bank makes payments, and keeps money upon transfers, as that of Amsterdam, Venice, &c. it is safer than bank-bills because these may be falsified; but it is not so generally convenient, because the attendance on the transfer-books is troublesome, and many will take bank-bills in payment who would not be at the trouble of going to the bank for a transfer: besides, payments in bank-notes may be made in the country, but the transfers require being on the spot. Money is only necessary in barter, where men of business are so concerned that payments by evaluation may answer, in most cases, and in those of minute payments, as for eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. The building of a house also requires ready money for the weekly payment of the workmen employed in it.

Let us suppose that 10,000 ounces of silver have been laid out in building of the said house: if the undertaker who built it, and laid out that money, lets it for 500 ounces a year, he shall, in 20 years, get in his original money, in small payments, which he laid out for the common sustentance of his family; but, if he sells the house for 10,000 ounces, may be paid in bank-bills, and in bank-transfers, but need not be paid any part in money, till it is wanted for eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. for himself and family, or for those to whom he assigns it. If he lays it out in a mortgage, the payment may be made in bank-bills, or transfers, and no part is required in money till it is turned somewhere to minute payments, for family necessities.

The gentleman who borrows money on his estate, if it be to pay great debts, will also make payment in bank-bills; but, if he applies it to building, the money must be taken out gradually for the maintenance of his workmen; as, if he owes it to undertakers of any branches of business, they will apply the money to their employments: and, let this enquiry be carried on never so far, it will be found, that no money in specie is absolutely required till you come to eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. or to minute payments, and therein specie must necessarily be applied. And the use of banks is to keep hand-money circulating in the channels of minute payments, and to hinder it from stagnating, or being kept up in large parcels, for any considerable time.

'Tis pretty difficult to judge what proportion of celerity in circulation a national bank, or banks, may give the money of a state; but, if I have been rightly informed in regard to the circumstances of the bank of Venice, it may give some useful light into this matter.

The revenues of the state of Venice, which amount to about 4,000,000 ounces of silver per annum, are payable in bank-money, or in transfers at the bank of Venice; and the state-revenue, collected even at Bergamo, remote from Venice, when it is brought into that capital, is to answer in bank. All bargains and negotiations between dealers above a certain sum are invalid, if not paid in bank: and the money constantly paid and repaid, in these transfers, keeps up naturally a circulation of transfers of 800,000 ounces of silver. If a man, who has credit on the transfer-books, wants specie for minute payments, he will find another who has gathered specie

specie from minute payments, and wants a transfer, wherewith to make a large payment: and, so far as that sum of 800,000 ounces, the money and transfers are found to keep up an equilibrium. Time and experience brought this to light.

The money was first lodged in the bank of Venice, for the credit given in the transfer-books: the government, in their wars, spent the money deposited, and their further necessities obliged them to give new transfers in the bank, for the service of the war, without any money being deposited. These transfers were enlarged to about 1,600,000 ounces of silver; and then it proved that there were more transfers than money, and the price of transfers against money fell above 20 per cent. of the original value, and, consequently, the yearly revenues of the state diminished in proportion as they were payable in bank.

To remedy this disorder, the state borrowed money on the revenue, and contracted the transfers gradually, by paying them off, till they came to answer the original price at market; and this equilibrium was not discovered till the transfers were reduced to about 800,000 ounces.

If we suppose the proprietors rents in the state of Venice amount to 21 millions of ounces of silver per annum, and the circulating money from 7 to 8 millions, the advantage of circulation gained by the bank of Venice will not exceed the eighth part of the circulating money in the state; and the service they receive by the bank is reduced to this, that from 7 to 8 millions of money, with the help of the bank, answer as well as 7 to 8 millions, added to the 800,000 ounces in money, without any bank; and the benefit which the government have obtained by the bank of Venice has been this, that they have borrowed 800,000 ounces, for which they never pay any interest.

From this example it appears, that the advantage gained in the circulation of the money of a nation by banks, and goldsmiths or bankers, is not so great in proportion as is commonly believed; and the proportion of such advantage seems to be less in a great kingdom than in so small a state as that of Venice. For, as banks and goldsmiths give a circulation to a small part only of the real money of the nation, which would otherwise be locked up in particular people's hands, the quickness they give to circulation cannot bear a great proportion to the whole circulating money of a nation. To judge farther to what greater degree banks may be useful for the support of the public and private credit of a nation, and to the reduction of the interest of public funds, and the national rate of interest, see the articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT], MONEY, INTEREST, FUNDS.

From what has been said, the general nature of banking must, by this time, be pretty well understood, both with regard to particular banks, as well as private bankers. And, although credit in this way of dealing will go great lengths, yet there must always be kept a proportion of cash sufficient to give every one his money on demand, who comes for it; and that bank or banker that begins a foundation of credit in this way, ought not to extend it above $\frac{1}{2}$ part beyond his hard money; every one must be afraid to trust that bank, or banker, who would venture so far as to referre but a fourth part in ready cash for the circulating notes payable at sight; but it is plain, that some proportion must be always reserved; and, whatever that shall be, so much will the real advantage of this kind of credit fall short of so much ready money.

It is true, that this is one of the principal branches from which the profit of banking arises; nevertheless, it must be used tenderly, and with great discretion, it being ever precarious and uncertain; and we may observe that all the wary and judicious undertakers in this way preserve their credit so far within compass, as to be always prepared against a run (as it is called); so we may be confident, that as a body of people are generally more circumspect, and less apt to be tempted by every view of advantage, than private men, the bank of England is the least likely of any to hazard their credit beyond their reach; and it is certain this corporation always keep themselves so well provided with ready cash to answer all demands, as that but a moderate proportion of that large credit, which they have deservedly obtained, can be made use of by them to their real advantage. For no body of men, any more than a private man, will dare to deal so freely with the

best credit in the world as they might do with the like sum in money; and, consequently, those must be egregiously mistaken who think that the one can be as much relied on as the other, or stretched beyond a reasonable limitation.

There are other ways whereby bankers may be useful to commerce, than those which are ordinarily practised. Having shewn, under the articles of ARTIFICERS, ANONYMOUS Partnership, and ASPHALTUM, by what natural measures our mechanics and manufactures may be improved, and what encouragement should be given to the inventors of new discoveries for the advancement of our commerce, as also how beneficial to this end the Royal Society of London may be rendered; it may not be useless to observe here, that such who are happily formed for inventions of this kind, frequently stand in need of a suitable fund of money to carry their designs into execution.

Bankers dealing in money may be instrumental to forward many new inventions, after, as has been shewn under the article ASPHALTUM, the certainty and utility of such discoveries shall be duly ascertained by the Royal Society: for, after the deliberate approbation of that learned body, we may presume that no fraud or imposition could be intended.

The monied man, seeking proper opportunities for the improvement of his money, he can very rarely meet with so beneficial occasions as by encouraging such undertakings, let them be either improvements upon old inventions, or quite new discoveries. But then this is not proposed to be done at the rate of the national interest, but that those who advance the money shall be intitled to a certain share in the profits; and, according to the nature and extent to which such art or manufacture may be carried on, one, two, three or more bankers, or monied men, who could act in concert, and confide in each other, might set these new inventions a-foot; and in cases where, for the risk of a few hundred pounds, at the commencement, designs can be set on foot for the public emolument, which may produce to the first encouragers many thousands, and, in their consequences, many millions to the state, it is impolitic that there should be any obstruction to a practice of this nature. For nothing can be more reasonable than that those who hazard their money should be intitled to a share of the profits, without incurring the censure of usury, or any other injurious imputation from the eye of the law, though their advantages should turn out at the rate of 10 or 20 per cent. per annum, or more, which is deemed otherwise in case of bottomries, &c. Nor should it be deemed dishonourable, in persons even of the first rank, thus to engage in such undertakings; yet engagements of this kind may be more suitable to men of business than to others, who, for want of due knowledge and experience in the conduct of affairs of this nature, may render them abortive, notwithstanding the goodness and benefit of the design wherein they might embark.

From what has been said it appears, that the business of domestic banking is a traffic in money, in bullion gold or silver, or foreign specie, discounting bills of exchange, promissory notes, and in dealing in the funds, in drawing or remitting money from one inland trading city or town to another, for the accommodation of traders, and keeping cash for other people, &c.

Besides this kind of bankers, which are common with us in England, Scotland, and Ireland, there is another species, which may be properly distinguished by the name of foreign bankers, as not dealing in the way of those domestic ones before described, but trafficking largely in the negotiation of foreign bills of exchange; and that not only in the natural course of their other mercantile concerns, in commodities and in shipping, &c. but who make a kind of a distinct branch of business this way, in dealing considerably by exchange with many countries of Europe. These, with us, generally are called remitters, though in France and Italy they are named bankers; and, in those countries, some of them deal a little in the domestic, as well as foreign way of banking.

The foundation of this foreign way of banking depends upon a thorough skill in the exchanges; and this consists in knowing when to draw, or remit, to the best advantage, amidst all the trading cities of Europe. See the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGE.

DELINEATED AT ONE VIEW.

E. F.	DR.	PER CONTRA (8) By cash, received as a deposit	CR. 3000	
GOLD cash, bought in bars, at l. 3 : 17 : 8 per oz. cash, bought in coin, at l. 3 : 17 : 11 per oz.	GOLD COIN. OZ. 500 BAR-GOLD. OZ. 1000	DR. 3891 13 4 1947 18 4	PER CONTRA (10) By cash, sold at l. 3 : 17 : 11 1/2	BAR-GOLD. OZ. 500 CR. 1948 9 2
SILVER cash, bought at 5 s. 5 d. per oz.	PILLAR Ps. 3/8 1200	DR. 325	PER CONTRA (13) By cash, sold at 5 : 5 1/2	PILLAR Ps. 3/8 OZ. 1200 CR. 327 10
BILLS OF EXCHANGE cash, discounted, drawn by Clifford and sons, Amsterdam, payable to N. O. at 2 usance, f. 60. 0. : 10 at 35. 4. 1 month } 0 days, to run at 4 1/2	DR. 563 5 1	PER CONTRA (15) By cash, received for 6000 : 10, at 35. 4. 1 month 10 } days, to run done at 4 1/2	CR. 566 1 8	
LOTTERY TICKETS cash, purchased at l. 10 No. &c. &c. ditto, lent upon lottery tickets, No. &c. &c. at } per cent, for 3 months	TICK. 1000 250	DR. 10000 2000	PER CONTRA (17) By cash, received at l. 10 : 15 for fold (18) By ditto, received at l. 11 : 2 : 6 fold (20) By ditto, received of — for principal and inte- } rest, on the loan of per 3 months	TICK. 560 340 250 CR. 6020 3782 10 2025
JEWELS cash, lent on a box of jewels marked F.G. at 5 per cent. per ann.	DR. 2000	PER CONTRA (22) By cash, received for the principal and interest of box F.G. } per ann. at 5 per cent.	CR. 2100	
BOTTOMRY cash, lent to Capt. — of — Indiaman, at 40 per cent.	DR. 1000	PER CONTRA (24) By cash, received of Capt. — of — Indiaman, princi- } pal and interest at 40 per cent.	CR. 1400	
PROMISSARY NOTES cash, discounted a note of C. N. payable to F. P. at 3 } onths, of 500 l. 2 months to run at 5 per cent.	DR. 495 16 8	PER CONTRA (26) By cash, received C. N.'s note payable to F. P.	CR. 500	
L. M. and N. O. cash, lent on their joint bond for 3 months, at 5 per cent. } per ann.	DR. 1000	PER CONTRA (28) By cash, received interest and principal	CR. 1012 10	
The DUKE and PRINCE FREDERIC PRIVATEER, in company } with, &c. cash, expended for 1/2 part of all charges, &c.	DR. 5690	PER CONTRA (30) By cash, received our proportion of the prizes	CR. 30000	

For the sake of exhibiting the nature of Banking d'un coup d'oeil, and the accountanthip requisite to that business, as also the immediate references from one to another, I have been under the necessity, according to the compass of the sheet, of making use of two lines frequently in this ledger account; the reader will observe, it is usual to make use of no more than one line in a large ledger.

Whoever is tolerably acquainted with the nature of accountantship, by debtor and creditor, according to the true principles of double entry, will easily perceive, from the ledger account, thus exhibited in miniature, how the profits of banking arise. I have chosen this manner of representation, with a view to answer a treble end: (1.) To give a lively idea of the nature of the business to those who are not acquainted therewith. (2.) To give a sketch of the fundamental principles whereby the accounts of all bankers, and trading banks, ought to be regulated and adjusted. (3.) To habituate gentlemen, as well as people of business, whose affairs require accurate account-keeping, to the more ready and facile way of keeping their accounts themselves, or directing their clerks to do it, according to the principles of reason and art.

The explanation of the foregoing sheet.

1. The reader is desired to observe, that those distinct accounts represent both a debit side and a credit, in order to be duly charged on one side, and discharged on the other, according as the nature and reason of the transaction shall require.

2. That the figures annexed at the beginning of each line, written under any distinct account, are placed to signify the dates, when such business was transacted.

3. That no sum of money is to be posted, or placed to the debit of any account, but the same sum must be placed to the credit of some other account of the same date, with which it has an equitable conformity. And, these dates being represented by the annexed figures, the eye will be easily cast from the debits to their corresponding credits.

4. The column prefixed next to the money column, on the debit side, shews, in all ledgers kept according to the method of double entry, upon what folio the proper credit stands, in order to expedite reference from the one to the other.

The reason of the first, second, and fourth particulars require no explanation, but the third may, which shall be done in a familiar and rational manner: and, indeed, this is the only method of accountantship that is founded on reason; for, although that of single entry may, with care, answer some purposes well enough, yet it is generally founded in confusion, and, therefore, is to be avoided by all, who deal largely, if they would keep the full view of their income and out-go before them.

Now the method of double-entry-accountantship is bottomed on the plainest reason, and upon the principles of keeping accounts always in an exact balance; for if, according to the third observation, there is always as much money placed on the debit side of your accounts in general, as there is on the credit of them in general, it is certain that such accounts will always remain in a balance upon the whole; and, consequently, every distinct account will be fit for the like balance; since, if the whole is constantly in a balance, the several parts whereof the whole consists cannot be otherwise.

Such is the nature of commerce of any kind, that something must be dealt in, and somebody must be dealt with: whence it is, that there can no debit arise in the nature of business, but reason will instantly point out its corresponding credit, in order to maintain the balance.

If you receive money of a person, it must proceed from one or other of the following causes:

1. Either because he owed it you, for some property before received. Or,

2. That he presents it by way of gift or donation.—Or,

3. That it falls to you in a legal way.

If the first be the case, and you would keep your money right, you charge, or debit, your money, or cash account, as it is now called, for all you receive; and, if the person of whom you received that money owed it you, and stood debtor for it in your accounts, as he ought, then, upon payment thereof, it is reasonable that he should be discharged, or have credit for the sum you have received: by doing of which you keep both your money and personal accounts in a right state: but, if you only credit or discharge the person for what you receive, and do not charge or debit your money account for what you have received, your money, or cash account, can never balance. This is too frequently the beginning of destruction to many people's affairs; for they weakly imagine, that, if they keep right with the accounts of the persons with whom they have dealings, that is sufficient, their account of cash relating only to themselves, and, therefore, their whole income and out-go of money need not be duly stated. By this neglect many good fortunes have been squandered away, and the persons themselves have not known how, when their affairs have been brought to the test of a commission of bankruptcy.—But the method we recommend, keeping a trader's or a gentleman's affairs always in a balance, these evils may be guarded against.

If the money received be by way of free gift, here is an increase of your estate, and that must appear upon your books, or your books will not rightly represent your affairs at that point

of time, nor, consequently, the subsequent changes they may undergo.

For this increase of estate, if it be in money, you debit your cash, and credit your capital stock. If it consists in the public stocks, you debit those distinct stocks, for their value at that time, and credit your capital stock. If it consists in a part money, and a part stock, you debit each for their respective values, and credit your capital stock by both. By this means it is obvious, that your accounts all the way continue in a balance, and are a faithful mirror, wherein to behold the state of your affairs; and all changes and alterations that your affairs can possibly undergo, will, in the like manner, admit of proper debits and credits, in conformity to each other. To apply these plain principles to the business of banking, and the explication of the accounts before us.

Numbers (1), (2), (3), (4), on the credit side of capital stock, shew that the supposed banker had, at the commencement of his business, in cash 20,000 l., in South-Sea stock, which cost him 2302 l. 10 s. in East-India stock, which cost him 5617 l. 10 s., in bank-stock, 4177 l. 10 s. Thus these divers distinct accounts are debited for their respective sums, and capital stock is credited by them for the total; which might have been done in one single line, by divers accounts; but I have posted them separately, to render what I would say the more intelligible to those who are unacquainted with this method of account keeping. Whence it is plain, that there is the same total placed to the debit of these several accounts, as there is to the credit side of capital stock, and, therefore, these accounts are in a balance, and so far shew the true state of affairs at one view. And, if a banker's stock consisted in a hundred particulars, they might all be exhibited at one glance of the eye, by proper debits and credits, in the same manner.

Numbers (5) and (6) on the debit side of cash shew, that such banker has received of A B 1000 l. in money, as a deposit in his hands for his account, to be drawn out at pleasure; for which he debits his cash, and credits A B, whereby his money account is right, the person's account is right, and his books are in a balance.

Number (7) on the debit of A B's account, and on the credit side of cash, shews that A B has drawn out of his banker's hands 50 l. for which A B being debited, and cash credited, both A B's account, and the account of cash, are right, and the books are still in a balance.

Number (8) is an instance of the same kind with those of (5) and (6). These instances are sufficient for all of the same nature.

Number (9), on the debit of gold, and on the credit of cash, shews, that such banker has purchased, at l. 3 : 17 : 10 per ounce, 1000 ounces of gold in bars, and paid for it 3891 l. 13 s. 4 d.; so that the account of gold being debited for the same, and cash credited, the accounts of gold and money are right, and the books in a balance.

Number (10) on the debit side of cash, and on the credit side of gold, shews that 500 ounces of bar-gold have been sold at l. 3 : 17 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce for ready money. This keeps the account of money right, as also that of gold.—The inner columns of the gold account shew the quantity bought on the debit, and the quantity sold on the credit, and, consequently, will always shew the quantity remaining, and the profit or loss arising by such dealings.

Number (11) on the debit of gold, and on the credit of cash, shews, that 500 ounces of gold in coin has been bought and paid for at l. 3 : 17 : 11 per ounce, amounting to 1947 l. 18 s. 4 d.

Number (12) against the debit of silver, and the credit of cash, shews that 1200 ounces of pillar pieces of eight have been bought for ready money, at 5 s. 5 d. per ounce, which amount to 325 l.—And number (13) on the debit side of cash, and the credit side of silver, shews that the same 1200 ounces of silver have been sold at 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, amounting to 327 l. 10 s.; so that the account of silver being balanced in quantity, by subtracting the debit from the credit, you will easily see the profit.

Number (14), on account of bills of exchange, and the credit of cash, shews that such banker has discounted a bill of exchange of 6000 florins, drawn from Amsterdam, payable to one in London, at 35 s. 4 d. per £. sterl. being l. 566 : 1 : 8 sterling, discounting at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for one month 10 days, makes the money advanced l. 563 : 5 : 1.—And number (15) on the debit of cash account, and on the credit of the bills of exchange, shews that such was paid when due l. 566 : 1 : 8 whereby the account of money is kept right; and that of bills of exchange shews the profit obtained by discounting this article, which would be the same in method in a thousand examples of the like nature.

Number (16) on the debit side of lottery tickets, and credit of cash, shews that 1000 of them were bought at 10 l.—And numbers (17) and (18) on the debit of cash, and the credit of lottery tickets, shew, that 500 of them were sold at 10 l. 15 s. and 340 at l. 11 : 2 : 6; whereby the number of which the drawing was stood, appears, and that the profit or loss on the whole will be apparent upon that account, and the books all the way on a balance.

Number (19), on the debit of lottery tickets, and the credit side of cash, shews that 2000 l. has been borrowed of the banker, at the rate of 5 per cent for three months, on the pledge of 250 tickets. And number (20), on the debit of cash and credit of lottery tickets, shews that the said 2000 l. with interest, has been paid; whereby the accounts are all the way rightly kept, and shews the advantage, or otherwise, on those adventures.

Number (21), on the debit of jewels, and on the credit of cash, shews that such banker has lent 2000 l. on a box of jewels, marked F G, at 5 per cent. per annum.

Number (22), on the debit of cash, and the credit of jewels, shews that 2100 l. has been received for the principal and interest of the sum for one year. The surplusage on the credit, being gain, may be passed to the credit of the account of interest, if it is thought proper to keep such a distinct account, or to the account of profit and loss, as an intermediate account to that of capital stock, into which it ultimately falls, at the general balance of the accounts.

Number (23), on the debit side of the account of bottomry, and the credit of cash, shews that 1000 l. has been lent to J C, captain of the ——— Indianman; at 40 l. per cent. on that account.

Number (24), on the debit of cash, and the credit of bottomry accounts, shews that the principal and profit have been received, 1400 l.—This account will always shew the profit or loss that arises upon such-like occasions.

By number (25), on the debit of promissory notes, and the credit of cash, it appears that a note of hand, drawn by C N, payable to F P, three months after date, has been discounted, having two months to run, at 5 per cent. per ann. The sum advanced on the note being 1.495 : 16 : 8.

Number (26), on the debit of cash, and the credit of promissory notes, shews that the 500 l. has been received, and, consequently, so far as the credit of all accounts of this nature exceeds their debits, is the net profit upon these respective articles of business in the banking way.

Number (27), on the debit of L M and N O, and the credit side of cash, shews that 1000 l. at 5 per cent. per ann. has been lent them, upon their joint bond, for three months. When this bond was taken up, is shewn by number (28), where cash is charged with the receipt of the principal and interest, and the joint bondsmen discharged in conformity. The difference between the debit and credit of their personal account shews the interest made.—And, if any extra-premiums are made by these, and the like kind of occurrences, they are generally passed to the debit of cash, and the credit of capital stock, that they need not appear by explicit accounts, to clerks, but only as a secret negotiation between the transactors.

Number (29), on the debit of the Duke and Prince Frederic privateers, in comp. and on the credit of cash, shews that 5000 l. has been expended on those vessels, by way of adventure for a quarter part of the banker's advance. And number (30), on the debit of cash, and the credit of Duke and Prince Frederic privateers, is contained 30,000 l. the sum received as one quarter part of the prize-money. By deducting the debit from the credit of such accounts, shews the net profit on these enterprizes, or the credit from the debit, if losses attend them.—The loss or gain is passed to the account of profit and loss, and the balance thereof terminates in the increase or diminution of the article of capital stock.

Number (31), on the debit of bank stock, and the credit of cash, shews that 1000 l. has been lent upon the pledge of 800 l. bank stock, at 5 per cent.

Number (32), on the debit of cash, and the credit of South-sea stock, shews that 2000 l. of that stock has been sold at 116, which, on the debit of that account, appears to have been bought at 115;—whereby the profit is clear on that account.

Number (33), on the debit of cash, and the credit of India stock, shews that 3000 l. stock has been sold at 187½, which was purchased at 187½, as is seen by the debit, so that the profit is plain.

Number (34), on the debit of cash, and the credit of bank stock, shews that 3000 l. stock has been disposed of, at 139½, which, by the debit, was bought at 139½: so that profits on these accounts are apparent. Which instances are as sufficient as numberless others, to shew the nature of the business, as well as the method of accounts proper for the purpose. By this method of accountship all desirable satisfaction is obtained, in the most concise manner that is possible.

If you would know the state of your cash, 'tis only adding up the debit and the credit, and subtracting the credit side of payments from the debit side of receipts, and the remainder shews the money in hand.

If you would know whether your dealings in the funds have turned to account, 'tis only throwing your eye on the debit and credit of those distinct accounts, and if the whole, which was purchased, is disposed of, the gain or the loss will be evident, by subtracting the sum total of that side which is least from that which is greatest.

In regard to those persons who keep cash with the bankers, the credit of those personal accounts shews, what money was

from time to time deposited, the debit, what was occasionally drawn out, and, consequently, the difference shews how the accounts stand.

In the same easy manner, are found the profits or losses attending the trafficking in gold and silver, in the discounting of bills of exchange, or dealing in lottery-tickets, jewels by purchase or pledge, bottomries, promissory notes, loans on personal securities, in privateering, pledges of stock, or whatever else may be prudent for the banker to be concerned in.

From what has been said, nothing can be more plain, than that accounts kept in this manner, according to the double entry method, are always in a balance, by reason there is, upon the whole, always as much posted to the debit as to the credit: so that the sum total of the debit and credit sides of the whole ledger must be equal: and, if so, 'tis easy to conceive, that the differences between the distinct accounts will terminate in a general balance also: that is to say, if the debit sides be the greatest sums, and the credit be deducted therefrom, and the difference placed to the account of balance, the sum total of these differences will be equal to the sum total of the differences of these account, whose credits shall exceed their debits. From which plain principles of reason, the most confused and perplexed accounts may be always balanced.

But here it may be useful to observe, that although the accounts must necessarily balance, by reason of the equality of debits and credit; yet it does not from thence follow, that such accounts are justly stated, and truly represent the condition of people's affairs. For there may be very great fallacy and imposition, by the stating of accounts artfully, under false and deceitful heads; yet those accounts shall as duly balance, as those which are fairly and honestly stated, by reason of their being kept according to the method of double entry; but this argues no imperfection in the art: for fictitious entries may be as regularly stated and balanced as real ones. And, if people will keep double sets of books, the one to shew the real state of their affairs, and the other the fraudulent and fictitious, there is no judging; by the latter, in what condition a man's affairs are. And I wish that there may not have been egregious impositions put upon the public by fictitious and sophistical accounts, notwithstanding their appearing with the specious face of a balance.

But how, and in what manner these impositions are to be detected, I shall shew under the head of MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP. At present I shall only observe on this article, that, if persons are thoroughly skilled in this method of account-keeping, they may suit the number as well as the manner of keeping all those books, which may be proper auxiliaries to the grand and essential book, which I have been describing, the ledger. For, suitably to the nature of a person's transactions, the elegant accountant will accommodate these books. The merchant requires more auxiliary books than the bankers; and one merchant more than another, according to the circumstances of his negotiations; but they must all terminate in an accurate ledger, that is always fit for a genuine balance. This is the reason wherefore I have chose to illustrate the business of banking by this book only, rather than at present to perplex the reader with a tedious description of a multitude of books, which might have prevented his having so thorough an idea of what we intended to communicate in a familiar manner.

Notwithstanding, as it may be necessary for many readers to know the nature and use of the various auxiliary books practiced in accounts, I shall describe them under the article of BOOK-KEEPING; but he is the best accountant that makes use of the fewest.

From what has been said in regard to the nature and accounts of private bankers, a very good idea may be obtained of the nature of the business of the bank of England; of what use they make of people's money, and consequently in what manner their profits arise.

And as, in a bank so constituted, it is requisite that the method of keeping their accounts should be as accurate as possible; so, in the economy and management of that corporation, their accounts are exquisitely well kept, and the variety of checks render it extremely difficult, if not almost impossible, to defraud them by any machinations among their servants. And had those worthy and honest gentlemen, the late Mess. Woodwards, bankers in Exchange-Alley, London, been thoroughly masters of accounts themselves, and regulated their books in that concise manner, which this admirable art will admit of, the catastrophe which unhappily befel them could never have happened, notwithstanding the extensiveness of their transactions; nothing being a more efficacious preservative against misfortunes.

For the state of the respective banks in Europe, see them under the particular names wherein they are established: as that of London, Amsterdam, Genoa, Venice, Hamburg, Paris, &c.; our reason for which is, that, when we come to describe the commerce of those places, the utility and importance of their peculiar banks, considered connectively therewith, will appear in their proper light: and, from this previous account of the nature of banking, the constitution of all kinds of banks throughout Europe may be the better judged of.

BANKRUPT, is said, by some, to be derived from the French word *banque*, which signifies *mensa* in Latin, and route is the same as *vestigium*; and this term is said to be taken originally from the Roman *mensarii*, which were set in public places, and, when a tradesman slipped away, with an intention to deceive his creditors, he left only some vestigia, or signs, of his table, or shop behind. But a bankrupt, with us, signifieth generally either man or woman, that, living by buying and selling, hath gotten other persons goods into his or her hands, and concealeth himself from his creditors, or commits other acts, which make him a bankrupt, according to the statutes in that case made and provided.

Stat. 1 Jac. I. c. 15. a bankrupt is thus described, *viz.* all and every person who shall use the trade or merchandize, by way of bargaining, exchange, bartering, or otherwise, in gross, or by seeking his or her living by buying and selling, who shall depart his house, or absent himself, or suffer himself to be arrested for any debt, either for money delivered, wares sold, or other good consideration, or shall suffer himself to be outlawed, or go to prison, or fraudulently procure himself to be arrested, or his money or goods attached, or make any fraudulent conveyance of his lands, goods, or chattels, whereby his creditors may be defeated in the recovery of their just debts, or, being arrested for debt, shall lie in prison six months, or more, upon such arrest or detention, shall be adjudged a bankrupt.

It is not buying and selling of land, but of personal things, that will make a man liable to be a bankrupt; nor is it buying only, or selling only, but both. Every one that gets his living by buying and selling in trade and merchandize, may fall under a state of bankruptcy, upon his falling. But adventurers in the East-India company, members of the bank of England, or of the South-Sea company, shall not be adjudged bankrupts in respect of their stock, &c. Also no person concerned as receiver-general of taxes, &c. shall be a bankrupt.

If a merchant gives over his trade, and some years after becomes not solvent for money owed while a merchant, he is a bankrupt: but if it be for new debts, or old debts continued on new security, it is otherwise. 1 Vent. 5, 29. A banker, who has many people's money in his hands, refuses payment, yet keeps his shop open, and, as often as he is arrested, gives bail; by this means he may give preference of payment to his friends; and if, when he has done, he runs away, such payment shall stand against a commission of bankruptcy. Farrell. Rep. 139.

If, after a plain act of bankruptcy, one goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet this will not purge the first act of bankruptcy; though, if he pays off, or compounds with, his creditors, he is become a new man. 1 Salk. 110.

Where there are two partners in trade, and one breaks, you shall not charge the other with the whole, but the estate belonging to the joint trade ought to be divided, &c. Mod. Rep. 45.

Acts discharging bankrupts, shall not discharge any partner in trade, or one jointly bound with the bankrupt. 1 Danv. Abr. 686.

A merchant-trader indebted keeps in another man's house, or on ship-board, is adjudged a keeper in his house: but a withdrawing must be on purpose to defraud creditors; and, if a man goes sometimes at large, so as he may be met with one time or other, it will excuse him.

The commissioners of bankrupts have a power to adjudge a man a bankrupt; yet, in an action, the jury must find whether he was so or not. 1 Danv. 687.

He that is a bankrupt to one creditor, is accounted in law a bankrupt to all the creditors; and, being once adjudged so, is always so to the rest of the creditors. 22 Car. I. B. R.

Commissioners may commit a bankrupt refusing to be examined, &c. till he submit himself to be examined. 1 Salk. 151.

But the commissioners are not to commit a bankrupt for not discovering his estate, without examining him on interrogatories. 1 Lill. Abr. 202. They are to examine the bankrupt upon interrogatories; and they have power to examine others, as to what they know of any persons carrying away any part of the bankrupt's estate. 5 Mod. 309. Commissioners of bankrupts have power to sell, grant, and assign, but they cannot bring an action; for their assignees must generally bring all actions. 1 Mod. 30.

The creditors have a right to the bankrupt's goods, by the act of bankruptcy, and thereby they are bound; though, till assignment by the commissioners, the property is not transferred out of the bankrupt. 1 Salk. 108. The commissioners are to sell all the bankrupt's lands in fee, for life, or years, &c. and it will be binding against the bankrupt and his issue. 1 Lill. Abr. 204. They may sell all entailed lands in possession, reversion, or remainder, except entailed in the crown, of the gift of the king; and this shall bind the issue in tail, and all others, which a common recovery might cut off. Ibid. 205. But sales of the bankrupt's lands by commissioners are to be by deed inrolled. If a bankrupt grants his lands or goods in the names of other persons, the commissioners, notwithstanding, may make sale of them: but not lands, &c. conveyed bona fide, before the party became a bankrupt. Wood's Inst. 310. And no purchase of lands shall be

impeached, unless the commission of bankrupt be sued out within five years after a man becomes bankrupt. Lands held by a bankrupt in jointtenancy; may be sold as to the moiety: also lands which a man hath in right of his wife (but not her dower) lands devised to a bankrupt the commissioners may sell. The commissioners have power to sell lands mortgaged, on tender and payment of the mortgage-money. 2 Rep. 25. And assignees of the commissioners have the benefit of covenants of re-entry, &c. on lands.

All the goods and chattels of the bankrupt, which he was possessed of at the time of his becoming bankrupt, may be sold by the commissioners, and notwithstanding the bankrupt sell them in market overt. Sale of goods by a bankrupt, after an act of bankruptcy, may be avoided by the commissioners of bankruptcy; and they may, in this case, bring trover for the goods, or debt, or assumpsit for the value, &c. 3 Salk. 60.

Offices of inheritance may be sold, but not offices of trust, annexed to the person for life. Assignees may bring actions for debt due to the bankrupt, in their own name, &c. But if the commission be not taken out within six years, directed by law for suing of debts, and the assignment made within that time, a defendant in an action may plead the statute of limitations: if the commission be taken out in six years, the statute preserves the debt, being to relieve creditors against fraud, &c. 1 Saund. 37.

When money is obtained by judgment in an action of debt, and the plaintiff becomes bankrupt, and a commission of bankruptcy is taken out against him, though the sheriff may bring the money into court, it shall be delivered to the plaintiff, and not the assignee of the commission, unless he takes out a scire facias against the defendant, in order to try the bankruptcy. 1 Vent. 193. A plaintiff that hath a defendant's body in execution, who becomes bankrupt, shall not come in to be relieved by the statutes: but, if the plaintiff recover damages, &c. against the defendant, and hath judgment, and then the defendant becomes bankrupt, the plaintiff is a creditor; for it is a debt due to him, and action of debt lies on the judgment. 1 Cro. 166.

If a debtor to a bankrupt pays him his debt voluntarily, he must pay it over again; but it is otherwise in case of payment by compulsion of law. 2 Vent. 258. Where one trusts a bankrupt after he becomes such, he shall not be relieved as a creditor. Sureties or bail, when they have paid the debt, may come in as creditors; but mortgagees, or persons that have a pledge of the bankrupt's goods, having security for their debts in their hands, are not creditors within the statutes. Those who attach goods of the bankrupt, are to come in as creditors. If an executor becomes bankrupt, a legatee is to be creditor. And aliens, as well as denizens, may come in as creditors; for all statutes concerning bankrupts extend to aliens, who shall be subject to the laws against bankrupts, &c. Hob. 287. stat. 21 Jac. I.

The commissioners, after sale of the bankrupt's estate, are to make distribution among the creditors contributing to the commission, first making the bankrupt his allowance, &c. And, in the distribution of the bankrupt's estate, no respect is to be had to debts upon judgment, recognizances, or specialities, beyond other debts. After four months, and distribution made, no creditor can come in to disturb it; but he may come in for the residue, of which no distribution is made. 1 Danv. 693. And the court of chancery hath sometimes allowed creditors to come in after distribution, upon particular circumstances which have happened; and the lord chancellor ordered the execution of the commission to be suspended. Chan. Rep. 307.

If the commissioners refuse to pay a creditor his proportionable part, he may bring an action of debt, or be more properly relieved in Chancery: where the commissioners do not pursue the acts of their commission, the party injured must bring his action, and set forth the finding of the commissioners, that the debtor is a bankrupt. But, if a commission is not duly obtained against a person, he may traverse, by saying that he is not a bankrupt. 8 Rep. 121.

An innkeeper being also part owner of a ship, and having 5/1. stock in the ship, absconded: Eyre justice held, as to the share of the ship, that was nothing; for that is not a stock in potentia to trade with, that will make a bankrupt; but there must be a trading therewith in fact. And he held that an innkeeper could not be bankrupt, for he is not like a trader; he must receive all comers, and feed them and lodge them, taking a reasonable rate; which if he do not, he is indictable. Holt C. J. concurred, and that he is not taken notice of in law, as a trader, but as a host, hospitator; and he is paid not merely for his provisions, but also for his care, pains, protection, and security; and he buys meat and drink, not for sale or trading, but for accommodation. And an innkeeper cannot make a contract ad libitum; nor does he buy or sell at large, but to guests only; and the chief-justice held, that wherever a man buys or sells under a particular restraint and limitation, he is not a seller within the statute, as a commissioner of the navy, and so of a farmer. Salk. 110. Vide Shower 3 Mod. 326.

A gentleman of the Temple went from hence to Lisbon, where he turned factor, and traded to England, and broke. Blencoe argued that the statutes about bankrupts did not extend to persons out of the realm; the subject of them is cases of arrest, outlawries, and departing out of the realm; and the 21st Jac. I. which extends to aliens, is only aliens resident here; yet the court held him a bankrupt, by reason of his trading hither and back again, which gained him a credit here. Per cur. on a trial at bar. Salk. 110.

Upon an issue directed out of Chancery, whether bankrupt or not at such a time, it was held per Holt C. J. that, if H. commits a plain act of bankruptcy, as keeping house, &c. though he after goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet that will not purge the first act of bankruptcy, but he will still remain a bankrupt: but, if the act was not plain, but doubtful, then going abroad and dealing, &c. will be an evidence to explain the intent of the first act: for, if it was not done to defraud creditors, and keep out of the way, it will not be an act of bankruptcy within the statute: Also, if after a plain act of bankruptcy he pays off, or compounds with, all his creditors, he is become a new man, Salk. 110.

Equity will not compel a man to discover what goods he really bought of a bankrupt after the bankruptcy, and before the commission sued, where the party has no notice of the bankruptcy. Vernon, case 23.

If a man voluntarily pays money to a bankrupt after he becomes such, it is in his own wrong, and he may be forced to pay it again; but it is otherwise, if a bankrupt recover it against him by a course of law. Vern. case 80. p. 94.

Some of alderman Backwell's creditors, having upon a petition to the lord keeper, obtained a commission of bankruptcy against him, the commissioners found him a bankrupt, and made an assignment, and the alderman dies in Holland. His son and heir agrees with all the creditors, who had petitioned for this commission, and thereupon obtains a superseas; afterwards the other creditors hearing of it, they petition the lord keeper to grant a procedendo, because a commission being once granted, and an assignment made, that was a trust for all the creditors of alderman Backwell, that should come in within the four months, which they intended to do, and insisted that the commission could not be regularly discharged till after the four months were past; and, though it had been sometimes done in other cases, yet that was where the creditors might have the same benefit by a new commission; but, in this case, the bankrupt being dead, if this commission should stand superseas, the creditors were without remedy; and insisted this was a fraud and contrivance between the heir and the other creditors, to defeat them of their just debts, and ought not to be countenanced in equity: and that they relied upon it, that they might at any time, within the four months, have come in, and have had the benefit of the commission, otherwise they would themselves have petitioned for a commission against him.

But the lord keeper declared, that in any case where all the creditors that petition'd for a commission, would afterwards agree to have it discharged, he would never scruple to discharge that commission; and in this case mentioned how inconvenient it would be to revive the commission; for alderman Backwell had traded considerably, since such time as the commissioners had found him a bankrupt, and that all the composition-money that his son had paid to his father's creditors must be refunded, and that many other inconveniences would ensue; and that he had all along determined with himself not to revoke this superseas, but had deliberated upon it, that the other creditors might make the best terms they could with the heir, and when they have been fairly offered, if they stood in their own light, they must blame themselves for it: and declared he would not revoke the superseas, nor grant a procedendo. Vern. case 205.

A bankrupt before he became such, having made a mortgage of his estate, the assignees of the statute bring an ejectment for recovery of the lands comprized in the mortgage. The mortgagee refuses to enter, but suffers the bankrupt to take the profits, and to fence against the assignees with this mortgage.

Lord keeper. The mortgagee shall be charged with the profits from the time of the ejectment delivered.

Another point in this case was, that that bankrupt having bought land, and all the purchase-money not being paid, the assignees would have had the vendor come in as a creditor under the statute, for the remainder of his purchase money.

Per cur. In this case there is a natural equity, that the land should stand charged with so much of the purchase money as was not paid, and that without any special agreement for that purpose. Vern. case 262.

In an indebtedness assumpsit the defendant pleaded, that the plaintiff was bankrupt, and therefore the defendant could not pay, for fear a commission should be sued, &c. Upon demurrer, judgment for the plaintiff. Lord Raymond, p. 469.

It was ruled by Treby, chief-justice of the Common-Pleas, at Nisi Prius at Guildhall, upon evidence in trover, brought by the plaintiff against the defendant, after argument of the counsel on both sides, (1.) That it is not necessary to prove that the person, upon the petition of whom the commission

of bankruptcy was granted, was a creditor of the bankrupt; because, upon view of the statutes, they do not require that. (2.) That it is not necessary to prove that the bankrupt was indebted in 100 l. though the practice has been so to do; because, though the chancellor frequently, before he grants a commission of bankruptcy, requires such proof, yet it is only matter of discretion in him. Lord Raym. 724.

It was ruled by Holt, chief-justice of the King's-Bench, at Nisi Prius, at Guildhall, upon evidence in a trial, 1. That, if the goods of A be seized upon a fieri facias issued upon a judgment obtained against A, and after the seizure, A becomes bankrupt; this act of bankruptcy, cannot affect the goods levied in execution, as aforesaid; but, if A was a bankrupt before the seizure, and after the bankruptcy the sheriff, upon a writ of fieri facias to him directed, upon a judgment obtained against A, seizes the goods, and sells them, and a commission of bankruptcy is granted, and the said goods assigned by the commissioners, the assignee of the commissioners may maintain trover against the vendor of the good; but no action will lie against the sheriff, because he obeyed the writ. 2. If a trader hearing that a writ of fieri facias was issued against him, to the intent to preserve his goods from being levied in execution, clandestinely conveys them out of his house, and conceals them privately, that does not amount to an act of bankruptcy. 3. That a seizure of part of the goods in a house, by virtue of a fieri facias in the name of the whole, is a good seizure of all. 4. It was resolved in this case, that if the goods of A are seized upon a fieri facias, and sold to B bona fide upon a valuable consideration, though B permits A to have the goods in his possession, upon condition that A shall pay to B the money as he shall raise it by the sale of the goods, this will not make the execution fraudulent; and in such case, a subsequent act of bankruptcy by A will not defeat the sale. But, though the original debt was just, yet, if the execution was fraudulent, viz. upon any trust a subsequent act of bankruptcy will defeat it. Lord Raym. 724, 5.

A plea of bankruptcy at large must set forth the petition, and the debts owing to the petitioning creditors. Lord Raym. 1548.

A bond given by a bankrupt to leave his wife a sum of money, in case of survivorship, is not discharged by the certificate. Lord Raym. 1549.

Lord Lanesborough & al' versus Jones.

Samuel Jones, Esq; borrowed 1500 l. of Coggs the goldsmith, on mortgage, and Coggs owed about 1400 l. to Jones, upon his said Coggs's notes; the notes were payable to the bishop of London, Hatton Compton, and the said Samuel Jones, or order, but this was in trust for the said Samuel Jones; and the bishop, Hatton Compton, and Samuel Jones had all indorsed the notes which were in the custody or power of Jones; and Jones went to demand the money of Coggs, who agreed to allow Jones 5 l. per cent. for the money on the notes, till payment.

Coggs failed afterwards; and an act of parliament was made for the vesting the effects and estate of Coggs in trustees (the plaintiff, lord Lanesborough, and others) who were to act in nature of commissioners and trustees for the creditors of Coggs, and they insisted that Jones, the mortgagor, should pay all the mortgage-money, but that, as to the money due on Coggs's notes, Jones should come in, under the commission, only pro rata with the rest of the creditors.

But decreed by lord Chancellor Cowper, with great clearness, that in regard by the statute of 4 Ann. cap. 17. sect. 11. it is enacted, that, where there is mutual credit between a bankrupt and another, only the balance shall be paid: so, in this case, here was a plain mutual credit, viz. Coggs gave credit to Jones on the mortgage, and Jones gave credit to Coggs on his notes, and, therefore, the balance only should be paid; and this clause in the statute was not to be construed of dealings in trade only, or in case of mutual running accounts, but that it was natural justice and equity, that, in all cases of mutual credit, only the balance should be paid, and that the commissioners or trustees, in this act of parliament, should not be in a better condition than Coggs himself would have been in; that if, instead of the present bill which was to foreclose the mortgage, Coggs himself, before his bankruptcy, had brought such a bill, surely no more than the balance should have been allowed him; and there was no reason that Jones should suffer by the accident of Coggs's bankruptcy; neither could the commissioners, or, if Coggs had been in the case of a common bankrupt, could the assignees, be in a better condition than Coggs himself would have been in.

But if A and B are joint-traders, and J S owes A and B, on their joint account, 100 l. and A owes the said J S 100 l. on his separate account, J S cannot deduct so much as A's proportion of the 100 l. comes to, out of the joint debt; for that the copartnership debts of A and B are to be first paid (2 Vern. 203. 706.) before any of the separate debts; but, if there be a surplus beyond what will pay the partnership-debts, then out of A's share of the surplus, J S may deduct the separate debt of A. 1 Peer Will. case 84.

The wife dum sola enters into a bond and then marries, after which the husband becomes a bankrupt; this debt by virtue of the stat. of 4 and 5 Ann. cap. 17, is discharged by such bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. case 57.
In like manner debts due to the wife dum sola, though unrecovered, are, on the husband's bankruptcy, assignable by the commissioners. Ibid.

Ex parte Mackernels. On petition.

J S, a weaver, sold Mackernels, a mercer, some silk for 103l. and, at the same time, took two notes from Mackernels for payment thereof (scil.) one note for 50l. payable at a day since past, and another note for 53l. at a day yet to come.

Before the last day of payment incurred, J S, took out a commission of bankruptcy against Mackernels, who was really a bankrupt, but petitioned to set the commission aside, as irregularly taken out, it being taken out at the single petition of J S, to whom only 50l. and not 103l. was then due; and the statute 5 Ann. cap. 22. requires, that, if a single creditor sues out a commission, a debt of 100l. must be due to him; if two creditors sue it out, there must be 150l. due to them; if three, or more, there must be 200l. or more, due them.

Whereupon the lord Chancellor superdeded the commission, as irregular. 1 Peer Will. case 58*.

* See the statute of 7 Geo. I. cap. 31. whereby such creditors by note, or bond, payable at a future day, are admitted to prove their notes, &c. and are intitled to a proportionable part of the bankrupt's estate, though they must not join in suing forth the commission till such their debts become payable. However by the 5th of his late majesty, persons having bills, bonds, or notes, payable at a future day, may join in petitioning for commissions.

So creditors by bond, before day of payment cannot take out a commission of bankruptcy, nor ought any proceeding to be had upon such commission. Peer Will. case 178.

A bankrupt, though in possession, yet, if impowered to dispose of goods in trust for another, they are not liable to the bankruptcy, either in law or equity. Copeman ver. Gallant. 1 Peer Will. case 81.

An husband, before he has received the wife's fortune, becomes a bankrupt, the assignees shall not receive it without making some provision for the wife. 1 Peer Will. case 100. Jacobson & al' versus Williams.

Though a creditor comes into a commission of bankruptcy, and proves his debt, and is prevailed on to be an assignee (being informed that otherwise he should lose his debt); yet, if the bankrupt has no estate, the creditor may take the bankrupt in execution, if he will wave any benefit of the statute. 1 Peer Will. case 163.

The reason of a creditor's coming in under a commission of bankruptcy, and proving his debts, may be to oppose the bankrupt's being discharged. Ibid.

No election, in case of a creditor's coming in under the commission, to be paid out of the bankrupt's effects, if no effects. Ibid.

Argument of fraud, if the commission be sued out by the bankrupt's father, in order to discharge the bankrupt. Ibid. A bankrupt's wife cannot be examined against her husband, to prove his bankruptcy; though by the statute of 21 Jac. I. she be made examinable touching the discovery of her husband's effects. 1 Peer Will. case 178.

A bankrupt himself, by stat. 5 Geo. I. may be examined touching his own bankruptcy. Ibid.

If one of the reasons for the commitment be illegal, and the party to continue in custody till the thing so illegally required of him be done, the whole commitment is naught. Ibid.

The creditors of a bankrupt who come into the commission, shall not imprison the bankrupt for not paying the debt. Ibid. A creditor petitions against the allowance of a bankrupt's certificate, upon which the bankrupt gives him a bond for payment of his whole debt, in consideration of withdrawing his petition; equity will not relieve against this bond. 1 Peer Will. case 181. Lewes versus Chafe.

A trader seized of lands in fee gives judgment to B, and then sells the land to C, and afterwards becomes a bankrupt; though the judgment-creditor cannot come in for more than his proportion with the bankrupt's creditors, whether he may not extend the lands in C, the purchaser's hand, C having purchased before the bankruptcy, and this not prejudicing the creditors. So if A, the trader, gives judgment to B, and articles for a valuable consideration to sell to C, and then becomes a bankrupt, it seems the judgment shall bind the lands in the hands of C, who articted to buy them; but, whatever money the purchaser was to pay the bankrupt, the same shall be liable to the bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. case 212. Olebar versus Fletcher and the duke of Kent.

A bankrupt, before his bankruptcy, gave a note to A for 100l. payable to order. B buys in the note for 50l. yet B is a legal creditor for 100l. and may sue out a commission a-

gainst the bankrupt; fecus of an assignee of a bond, he not being the legal creditor, or if the indorser were after the bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. case 229. Ex parte Lee.

Where a bankrupt, after a certificate allowed, is sued for a debt due before his bankruptcy, the court, on the circumstances of the case, will relieve, though it will not relieve on a matter purely of mis-pleading. 2 Peer Will. case 13. Blackhall versus Combs, upon an appeal from a decree at the Rolls. A draws a bill payable to B on C in Holland, for 100l. C accepts the same; afterwards A and C become bankrupts, and B receives 40l. of the bill out of C's effects; after which he would come in as a creditor for the whole 100l. out of A's effects: B permitted to come in as a creditor for 60l. and the matter directed to see whether the other 40l. was paid out of A's effects in C's hands, or out of C's own effects; if the latter, then C is a creditor for this 40l. also; but, if out of A's effects, then 40l. of the 100l. is paid off. 2 Peer Will. case 21. Ex parte Ryfwicke.

Buying and selling stock will not make one a bankrupt. 2 Peer Will. case 86, pleadings. Colt versus Netterville.

One devises lands in fee to his daughter, being a feme covert, for her separate use, without appointing any trustees; the husband is a tradesman, and becomes a bankrupt, yet the devised premises are not subject to the bankruptcy. 2 Peer Will. case 91. Bennet versus Davis.

A creditor coming in under a commission of bankruptcy, though only to prove his debt, and oppose the bankrupt's obtaining his certificate, yet he shall not sue the bankrupt at law, unless he will wave all benefit of the commission; not only as to the dividends, but as to his voting against the bankrupt's gaining his certificate. 2 Peer Will. case 123. Anonymous.

A trader contracted with the East-India company, at one of their sales, for the purchase of a parcel of East-India goods, to be paid for at a future day, and, before the day of payment, became a bankrupt.

Lord Chancellor: Formerly, in case a trader contracted a debt payable at a future day, and afterwards (but before the day of payment) became a bankrupt, this not being a debt until after the bankruptcy, at which time the bankrupt could not do any act to alien or lessen his estate, to the prejudice of his creditors, such contract was held void, and the creditor not allowed to come in for a satisfaction under the commission.

And in some cases it was thought hard, that if one, on the buying of goods, or for other valuable considerations, should give a note under his hand, payable at a future day, and actually had the goods delivered to him, or the money lent him, and, before the day of payment, the debtor should become a bankrupt, that in this case the creditor could not come in under the commission with the rest of the creditors; wherefore, for the remedying of this, the statute of 7 Geo. I. cap. 31. was made. But the present case is not within that statute, because the goods were not delivered, nor was the contract signed by the party*.

* See the statute, in which there are no express words to this purpose.

At this day, if a bond or note be given by a trader upon a contingency, and before it happens, the trader becomes a bankrupt, and then the contingency happens, this is not within the act, neither shall the debt arising † after the bankruptcy be satisfied under the commission.

† But, if the contingency happens before the bankrupt's estate be fully distributed, such creditors shall come in pro rata.

A gives a promissory note for 200l. payable to B, or order. B indorses it to C, who indorses it to D. A, B, and C become bankrupts, and D receives five shillings in the pound, on a dividend made by the assignees against A. D shall come in as creditor for 150l. only, out of B's effects, and, if D paid contribution-money for more than 150l. it shall be returned. 2 Peer Will. case 129. Ex parte L'fevre.

A goldsmith, after shutting up his shop, being greatly in debt, consigned his stock in the wine trade, in which he was concerned, to J S, being a particular creditor, and, to secure his debt, without the knowledge of J S, becomes a bankrupt the very next day; J S brings a bill, to have the benefit of this assignment, and decreed for him. 2 Peer Will. case 137. Small versus Oudley & al'.

No such thing as an equitable bankrupt, but it must be a legal one. Ibid.

There may be reason to prefer one creditor to another. Ibid. The time when the assignment was made is not material, so as it be before the bankruptcy, but the justness of the debt is material. Ibid.

No objection, that the assignment was made by the trader without notice to the party, for this shews it was done without the creditor's importunity. Ibid.

But, if the assignment be of the bankrupt's whole estate to prefer any creditor, this seems to be void. Ibid.

A trader, on marriage, gives a bond to a trustee to secure 1000l. to the wife, if she survive him; the trader becomes

a bankrupt; this debt shall not be allowed, nor any reservation made for it, nor shall it stop the distribution, in regard it may never be a debt; with the same reason an obligee in a bottomry-bond shall not, before the return of the ship, come in under a commission of bankruptcy; but, in either of these cases, if the contingency happens before the bankrupt's estate be justly distributed, such creditor shall come in for his proportion. 2 Peer Will. case 159. Ex parte Caswell, ex parte Cazalet, ex parte Bateman.

But, in the case abovementioned of the bond, the obligee, if he declares upon his bond only, will be barred; secus, if he sets forth in the declaration as well the condition as the bond. Ibid. Two joint traders becoming bankrupts, first there is a joint commission taken out, and commissioners assign, afterwards separate commissions and assignments made under them; the court held, that the assignment of the commissioners under the first commission conveyed away all the bankrupts estate, both joint and several; and, consequently, that the conveyance under the separate commission was void. 2 Peer Will. case 160. Ex parte Cook.

It is a resolution of convenience, that, in case of joint traders becoming bankrupts, the joint-creditors shall be first paid out of the partnership-effects, and the separate creditors out of the separate effects; and if any surplus of the partnership-effects, after all the partnership-debts are paid, the separate creditors to come in, and so vice versa, the partnership-creditors to come in on a surplus of the separate estate. Ibid.

Two joint traders becoming bankrupts, first there was a joint commission, and the commissioners assign; afterwards separate commissions and assignments under them: the court held that the assignment under the first commission conveyed all the bankrupts estate, both joint and several, and, consequently, that the conveyance under the separate commission was void. Ibid.

One sues out a commission of bankruptcy, and for six months, keeps it, without doing any thing upon it; the court, for this reason only, superseded the commission, though it was executed, and the trader found a bankrupt before any application to supersede it. 2 Peer Will. case 177. Ex parte Puleston. An assignee under a commission of bankruptcy dies very much indebted by bond, &c. and the creditors of the bankrupt petitioned that the administrator of the assignee might account before the commissioners, he having some of the bankrupt's effects in specie in his hands; but the administrator denying it upon oath, and swearing that these were debts by specialty beyond the assets, the court thought this proper for a bill, and not for a summary way of accounting before commissioners. 2 Peer Will. case 178. Ex parte Markland.

On a joint commission against two partners bankrupts, the separate creditors, though they have taken out separate commissions, shall yet be at liberty to come in to oppose the allowing of the certificate. 3 Peer Will. case 7. Horsley's Case. Where two partners are bankrupts, and a joint commission is taken out against them, if they obtain an allowance of their certificate; this will bar as well their separate as their joint creditors. Ibid.

So on the other hand, if there be two partners, and one of them becomes a bankrupt, and on a separate commission being sued out against him, his certificate is allowed, this does not only discharge the bankrupt of what he owed separately, but also of what he owed jointly, and on the partnership account: because, by the act of parliament, the bankrupt, upon making a full discovery, and obtaining his certificate, is to be discharged of all his debts. Now the debts he owes jointly with another, are equally his debts as what he owes on his separate account; consequently he is to be discharged of both his joint and separate debts; and so it has been determined by the judges of B. R. by the lord chancellor Parker, ex parte Yale, 3 July, 1721. Ibid.

On a joint commission, the joint creditors are first to come in on the partnership effects, and, if there remains a surplus, then the separate creditors are admitted. Ibid.

A contingent interest, or possibility in a bankrupt, is assignable by the commissioners. Devise to such of the children of A as shall be living at his death; A has issue B, who, becoming a bankrupt, gets his certificate allowed; after which A dies; this contingent interest is liable to the bankruptcy, so far as the son, in the father's life-time, might have released it. 3 Peer Will. case 30. Higden & al' versus Williamson.

Though the assignee of the effects of a bankrupt claims under the act of parliament, yet, as the statute of limitations might be pleaded against the bankrupt, by the same reason it is pleadable against such assignee. 3 Peer Will. case 33. South-Sea company versus Weymondfield.

One not in debt, nor then a trader, makes a voluntary settlement on a child, and afterwards becomes a trader and a bankrupt; this settlement not liable to the bankruptcy, 3 Peer Will. case 75, Lilly versus Osborn.

If A and B are bound in a bond jointly and severally to J S, he may elect to sue them jointly or severally; but, if he sues them jointly, he cannot sue them severally, for the pendency of the one suit may be pleaded in abatement of the other:

by the same reason, if A and B, joint traders, become bankrupts, and there are joint and separate commissions taken out against them, and A and B, before the bankruptcy, become jointly and severally bound to J S; J S may chuse under which commission he will come, but shall not come under both. 3 Peer Will. case 113. Ex parte Rowlandson.

If three are bound jointly and severally, the obligee cannot sue two of them jointly, for this is suing them neither jointly nor severally. Roll. Abr. 148.

If two joint traders owe a partnership-debt, and one of the partners gives a bond as a collateral security, for payment of this debt; here the joint debt may be sued for by the partnership creditors, who may likewise sue the bond given by one of the traders. 3 Peer Will. case 113. Ex parte Rowlandson. A shoemaker is allowed to be within 13 Eliz. cap. 7. he living by his credit, in buying leather, and selling it wrought, Cro. Eliz. 268. Cro. Jac. 584. Cro. Car. 31. 3 Mod. 330. A weaver and dyer are within the statute, for they get their living by buying and selling. Cro. Jac. 584.

If one covenant with the king to victual the fleet at a certain rate, and for that use buys a great quantity of provision, &c. though with the surplus he victuals merchants, this will not make him a trader within the act, it being one act only, and not a continued trading. 1 Vent. 270. 2 Show. 270. Sir Thomas Littleton's case.

A carpenter that sells wrought timber seems to be within the statute. 3 Mod. 155.

The buying part of a ship makes no trading, it being no buying or selling within the statute, but the party's in carriage for himself is an evidence of trade and merchandizing.—If a man repairs a ship, on the credit of the bottom, and takes a share therein for debt, and employs the ship in carriage, it has been held, as this is compulsory, only to obtain his debt, and not the way the party hath put himself in to get his livelihood, that this shall not be taken as an evidence of trading. 1 Sid. 411. 1 Vent. 29. 2 Show. 268. 2 Keb. 487.

A man's buying and selling do not bring a man within the statutes, they intending such as gain the greatest part of their living thereby.—A farmer bought and sold cattle; it was adjudged that he was not a bankrupt, because he only sells the profits raised from the land. March 35. Cro. Jac. 549. 1 Danv. Abr. 687.

If a man contract a debt, while a trader, and leaves off, and lives on his estate, and afterwards absconds for this debt, he is a bankrupt, he living by his trade, when the debt was contracted.—But, if a merchant leaves off his trade, and after contracts debts, and then sells off the surplussage of his goods, but hath no trading correspondence, he is no bankrupt. Palm. 325. 1 Vent. 5. 3 Lev. 17. 1 Sid. 411. Sir Robert Cotton's case. But, where the same case comes on again, the court held that he was a bankrupt, otherwise the mischief would be great; for men cannot take notice, when another withdraws his trade. 1 Vent. 166.

The trader gives over trade, and then contracts debts, and goes into trade again on a new stock, on the petition of such intermediate creditors he cannot be made a bankrupt, he not being trusted on the credit of his trade. 1 Sid. 411. 2 Show. 268. 1 Vent. 5.—But, if such a person leaves goods in the hands of another, to be disposed of, and is partner with him in the loss or gain, he may be a bankrupt, he carrying on trade by proxy. Palm. 325.—But having a joint stock does not make a bankrupt, without proof of disposal thereof; for otherwise no commerce is driven. 13 Keb. 487.

The trader becomes security for another; he is a bankrupt within the statute, because he is trusted on the reputation of his stock and dealing, as well where he is security, as where he contracts for his own debts. Palm. 325.

If a man keeps his house for a long time, this does not make him a bankrupt; but, if he conceal himself within his house but for a day or hour, to delay or defraud his creditors, he is a bankrupt. Palm. 325.

If there be a process out against a merchant, and he keeps house to prevent arrest, and after goes out to market, and other places, but, hearing of a new process, keeps house again, and after goes out again at large, he is no bankrupt; the act of bankruptcy being purged by his going abroad. Cro. Eliz. 13. Godb. 25. 1 Lev. 13. 2 Sid. 177.

If A commits a plain act of bankruptcy, as keeping house, &c. though he after goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet that will not purge the first act of bankruptcy; but, if the act was doubtful, then going abroad and dealing explains the intent of the first act, and that it was not done to defraud creditors, and keep out of the way.—If, after an act of bankruptcy, he pays off or compounds with his creditors, he is become a new man.

If a man permit himself to be outlawed, to defraud his creditors, it is a cause of bankruptcy: so that, on a special verdict, if a jury find that he was outlawed, and do not find that it was to defraud creditors, that will not make him a bankrupt. 1 Keb. 11. Bradford's case.

A commission of bankruptcy must be granted by my lord-chancellor, lord-keeper, or commissioner of the great seal, on application of creditors. 2 Chan. Ca. 190.

The power of commissioners of bankrupts is, by virtue of the several acts of parliament, which ought to be pursued, as they are subject to the action of the party grieved, for he hath no other remedy. 4 Inst. 277.—But if, in their proceedings, they commit some mistake, which appears to be only an error of their judgment, they shall not be liable to an action. Comb. 391.

Though on examining of persons according to 13 Eliz. cap. 7. by commissioners, yet a bill for the discovery of the same matters may be filed against them in Chancery. 2 Chan. Ca. 73.—They must disclose and answer directly to the questions put. 1 Vent. 374.

A was summoned before commissioners of bankrupts, and the questions asked him were, (1.) To give an account of all matters which he knew concerning the bankrupt's estate. (2.) When, and in what manner, did he aid the bankrupt in carrying away his effects, or in embezzling or concealing the same, to which he refused to answer, because the first was too general, and the second tended to accuse himself, and bring him within the 13 Eliz. cap. 7. which gave a penalty of double the value of the goods, against him who conceals them; for which refusal the commissioners committed him; and their warrant of commitment concluded, that he should be committed until he conform to the authority of the commissioners. On habeas corpus brought by A against B. R. the court inclined that a witness was not to pay universal obedience to all questions asked him by the commissioners; nor was he to answer any thing which tended to accuse himself; but for the conclusion of the warrant of commitment, they held clearly that he should be discharged; for the act directs, that he shall remain without bail until he submit to the commissioners to be examined; which being a particular authority, and in restraint of liberty, ought to be construed strictly, and the very words of the statute pursued. 5 Mod. 390. Bray's case. Com. 308, 309. S. C. 1 Salk. 390, 391. S. C. Creditors, upon what security soever they be, come in all equal, unless such as have obtained actual execution before the bankruptcy, or had taken pledges for their just debts; and the reason is, because from the act of bankruptcy all the bankrupt's estate is vested in the commissioners, who are established as courts of justice touching the bankrupt's estate, and before whom the creditors must authenticate their debts, in order to receive their dividends; and, therefore, they must equally admit all persons to make proof of their debts; but such as have pawns or mortgages have a property in the thing so pledged, precedent to the translation of the property to the commissioners; in which case they have only an equity of redemption, and are in no better condition than the bankrupt himself; that the bankrupt, before the assignment of the commissioners, has such a property as will maintain an action for the recovery of the goods. 1 Salk. 108.

If a man commits an act of bankruptcy, and after continues in possession of his lands for four years, and then sells, and after commits another act of bankruptcy, and two years after a commission is taken out, &c. this sale shall stand, for the act of bankruptcy by which the sale is to be avoided must be done within five years before the commission sued out. 3 Lev. 13, 14. 1 Keb. 11, 12, 722. 2 Sid. 69, 114, 176.

If A, having committed an act of bankruptcy, keeps on his trade, and four years after binds his son apprentice with a goldsmith, and pays with him 120 l. and two years after a commission is taken out against A, this money is not assignable by the commissioners, being paid so long before the commission, and without fraud. 3 Lev. 50. Skin. 22.

If a man purchases a copyhold to himself and wife for life, remainder to his son and his heirs, and two years after he becomes a trader, and four years after a bankrupt, there being no fraud in this case, nor any intent to deceive creditors, the interest of the wife and heir of the bankrupt cannot be defeated by this act of bankruptcy. Cro. Car. 550. Grisp. & Part. 1 Jones 438, 439. March 37.

If the father conveys to his children, to secure them money given by their grandfather, if it can be proved the father had effects of the grandfather's in his hands at the time of the execution of the deed, it shall not be avoided. 1 Mod. 76. But, if there be no consideration, a settlement on his wife and children shall be construed a settlement on himself; and such an interest vests in the assignees. Style 289. An obligation taken in the name of another, to the use of a bankrupt, is such an interest in the bankrupt, that the commissioners may assign it, and after such assignment the obligee cannot release it. Palm. 505.

A man devises his lands, which were in mortgage, to be sold, and the surplus of the money to be paid his daughter, who married one that soon became a bankrupt, and the commissioners assigned this interest of his wife's; the husband died, and the assignees brought their bill against the wife and trustees, to have the land sold, and the surplus of the money paid them; but the court would not assist in stripping the wife (who was wholly unprovided for) of this interest, but dismissed the bill. Abr. Eq. 54.

A puts out 1000 l. at interest to the East-India company, and takes bond for it in the name of J S, his wife's rela-

tion; A becomes a bankrupt; J S is summoned before the commissioners, but, before examination, he tells us the East-India company that the money was not his, but that they should pay it to the person who brought the bond; A's wife brings the bond, and has the money paid her; equity will not relieve against it. Preced. Chan. 18.

A legacy of 1000 l. was given to one after the death of her mother, when she should attain the age of 21 years, and the defendant was appointed trustee for the raising and payment thereof out of certain lands; the legatee was drawn to marry one who soon proved a bankrupt, and the commissioners assigned his effects, and gave him a certificate of his conformity.—The assignees brought a bill against the trustees for 1000 l. who insisted that the assignees could be in no better condition than the husband; and that, if he were plaintiff, he could not prevail without making a suitable provision on his wife; that this legacy being a double contingency, viz. of the death of the mother, and the legatee's arriving at the age of 21 years, at the time of the bankruptcy, was not such an interest as could be assigned; and the court held that, though both contingencies have since happened, yet these being since the assignment of the bankrupt's estate, and, since obtaining his certificate, he was now discharged as a bankrupt; and this portion could not pass without a new assignment, which the commissioners could not make, their commission being determined; and so dismissed the bill. Ca. in Eq. Abr. 54.

If a fieri facias is taken out, and indorsed according to the statute, and delivered to the sheriff, and after, the same day, the defendant becomes a bankrupt, and the sheriff levies 400 l. of the goods of the defendant, and pays it to the plaintiff, yet the commissioners may assign these goods notwithstanding, &c. for, by the delivery of the writ to the sheriff, the goods are bound in no other manner than before the statute they were bound from the teste of the writ; and by the delivery of the writ the execution is not served or executed. 1 Lev. 67, 191, 192. 1 Keb. 930, 932. 1 Sid. 271. Cro. Eliz. 174.

Though the bankrupt's estate is transferred to the assignees, yet must they pursue the same remedies for the recovery of it as the bankrupt himself; therefore, if a debt upon a simple contract due to the bankrupt is assigned, an action of debt will not lie against the executor of the debtor, but the assignee must bring his action on the case. Cro. Car. 187. 1 Jones 223.

The plaintiff declares upon an assumpsit for 43 l. 1 s. and sets forth an assignment of the debts of the bankrupt, mentioned in quadam schedula continen' prædict' summam 43 l. 1 s. and the jury find he was indebted only 41 l. 1 s. which he promised, &c. and that the commissioners assigned debita præd' in quadam schedula continen' præd' summam 43 l. 1 s. and, if this is the same promise, concludes for the plaintiff. Allen 28, 29. Style 62. S. C. Raym. S. C. cited.

If there be a joint bond to A and B, and A becomes a bankrupt, &c. the assignee cannot bring an action alone; but if assigned to B, he alone may bring an action, being intitled to one moiety in his own right, and to the other for the benefit of creditors, by virtue of the assignment. 1 Lev. 17. 1 Keb. 167. Raym. 6, 7.

In assumpsit the plaintiff declared, as assignee under a commission of bankruptcy awarded against J S, who became a bankrupt, &c. and that the defendant was indebted to J S, &c.—On demurrer to the declaration it was objected, that it was uncertain, it not being shewn how J S became a bankrupt, viz. and that impleading simony, the particular act must be set forth; but it was held well enough in this case, the statutes mentioning the word bankrupt, but in the statute against simony no mention is made of the word; besides, in this case, the plaintiff is a stranger to the bankrupt, and it cannot be presumed that it lies in his knowledge how he became a bankrupt. Carth. 29. Peyps & Low. Comb. 108. S. C. That the assignee must lay the promise to be made to the bankrupt. Vide 6 Mod. 131.

If the commissioners make a fraudulent distribution, it may be set aside in Chancery. 2 Vern. 158, 162. For the cases, which have been on the statute relating thereto, 13 Eliz. cap. 7. Vide 2 Co. 26. 8 Co. 98. B. 1 Jones 203. 2 Sid. 177. Godb. 195. How distribution is to be under a joint commission taken out against partners, vide 1 Chan. Ca. 193. 2 Vern. 293, 706.

Higden versus Watkinson. Michael. 6 Geo. II. in Chancery.

W R, by his will, gave to his wife for life all his lands, &c. and after her decease to his daughter, Elizabeth Watkinson, for her life, remainder to B S and J S, and their heirs, in trust, to sell the premises, and to pay the money arising by such sale to the children of his said daughter Elizabeth, that should be living at her death.

The testator died in 1720.—The wife entered and enjoyed till 1726.—Elizabeth, the daughter, entered and enjoyed till 1729, and then died.—In 1726 a commission of bankruptcy issued against William Watkinson, the defendant's only son of Elizabeth, and the commissioners assigned his estate, and, in 1728, he had his certificate.—The question was, whether the reverfionary interest of William Watkinson was sufficient

to intitle the assignees to it, when it should come in possession.—York, attorney-general, insisted, that, as it was such an interest as the bankrupt himself might dispose of, the assignees were intitled to it, under the statutes of Henry VIII. and queen Elizabeth, which give the commissioners power to assign all such interest as the bankrupt could have lawfully disposed of: and the statute of 21 James I. says the statutes already made shall be construed largely for the benefit of the creditors.—That the assignees have the same liberty, right, and benefit of performing any covenants as the bankrupt himself had; and that there were several cases in serjeant Goodwin's book to that purpose.—That the word lawfully shall include equitable as well as legal interests.—That there was a case to this purpose determined by the master of the Rolls, lord chancellor, and house of lords, which was that of Theobald and Dufay, 1 Vern. 7. where A, possessed of a term, devised it to his wife for life, remainder to his two daughters, and their assigns, for the residue.—The husband of one of the daughters assigned his interest to Theobald, during the life of the wife of the testator, which was held to be good against his wife.—That assignees are intitled to a bond due to the wife, while she was sole, because the husband might have disposed of it by release, and therefore, as the bankrupt might well have disposed of this interest, he hoped the assignees were well intitled to it.

Note, This cause came to be reheard before the lord chancellor, from a decree of the master of the Rolls for the assignees, which was affirmed.

Degols versus Ward, 10 Feb. 1733, Chancery.

Lord chancellor said, that an original will cannot be made use of here as evidence in relation to the personal estate, but the probate of the will in the spiritual court must be read for that purpose.—This cause came on to be reheard from a decree of the late lord chancellor.—The first objection to the decree was, that Mr. Ward was a bankrupt, and, therefore, those creditors ought to have come in under the commission, and were not proper here, as it appeared the commission was taken out by covin, and lord chancellor said that should not hinder the honest creditors from having their remedy.—As to the rest, the decree directed an estate, which John Ward had conveyed to Ralph Ward, to be sold for payment, in the first place, of what should appear to have been really advanced by Ralph Ward, and then of the plaintiff's debts.—The case was thus upon an account stated between John Ward and Ralph Ward.—There was a balance of 6000 l. due to Ralph, and 5452 l. due from him to John.—John took a note for the sum due to him payable to his son Knox Ward, and, in satisfaction of the balance due to Ralph, he conveys to him and heirs an estate of 200 l. a year, and very considerable allum-works, the possession whereof had been in Ralph, as a trustee for John.—Lord King was of opinion this conveyance was fraudulent, and within the intention of the statute of king James, against fraudulent conveyances.—It was objected to the decree, that this matter was properly triable at law, and not in this court.—Lord chancellor thought it might be proper to be examined at law; yet this court might take notice of such a fraud, and therefore affirmed the decree, and ordered the plaintiff the deposit.—Mr. Verney prayed a receiver might be appointed, as Mr. Ralph Ward had been so long in possession; but, as great part consisted in works, which could not be well managed by a receiver, and it appearing that the estate was decreed to stand as a security for what should be due to Ralph Ward on a note for 1200 l. as well as the balance, it was refused.

Bracey versus Dorson. Michael. 7 Geo. II. K. B. Nov. 16, 1733.

A B becomes a bankrupt, but, before any assignment made, the commissioners of the land-tax seized his goods, according to the summary way directed by the act of parliament.—The commissioners of bankruptcy sent their warrant, and attached the goods in the bailiff's custody.—The questions here were, first, whether, as the act of bankruptcy was committed before the seizure of the goods, the assignment should by relation vest the goods in the assignees, as if this had been the case of a common person?—The next question was, whether, as this was a case in which the crown was concerned, it differed from that of a common person?

Lord Hardwicke delivered the opinion of the whole court on the 28th of June following.—That, if this had been the case of a common person, the assignment would bind the goods by relation, although taken in execution, unless after sale and the delivery of the money to the plaintiff.—But, as this was a case of the crown, it differed much from that of a common person: for the king cannot come in under a commission for a distributive share of a bankrupt's estate.—And, unless an act of parliament particularly mentions the king, he shall not be bound by it.—That it is agreed on all hands, that an extent shall bind the goods, even from the teste, and why shall not the commissioners warrant, from the time of seizing the goods under it? for, by the act of parliament, the commissioners have this power of seizing the collector's

estates given them (the collector being considered as the officer of the parish, for that the parish is answerable, if he make default; and the receiver-general is the officer of the crown) wherefore the court is of opinion, that the king, by the seizure under the warrant of the commissioners of the land-tax, gained such a lien upon the goods, that thereby they became bound, as against all other persons.—That the crown is not bound by the acts made concerning bankrupts.—That it hath been determined, as in the case of Hanbury, 2 Show. 432, that, where an extent comes before the assignment, it would be good against the assignees.—But that the crown is bound from the time of assignment; for by the assignment the property of the goods is altered, and they are vested in other persons, i. e. the assignees.—That an extent, at the suit of a common person, shall not bind the crown till it is actually executed.—That in the case of Payne and Pitt, 1 Salk. 180, the king shall have preference to a common creditor.—And when he has seized goods, no person shall take them in execution, without first satisfying the king's debt; and cited the case in Cro. where it is said a liberate, shall bind in the case of a common person, from the time of taking the goods under the extent, and that the goods, when taken by the crown, were in pawn, as it were—so that no person could have them without first paying the money they were charged with.—The court was of opinion with the defendant, and ordered the plaintiff to pay the costs of a nonsuit, this being an action of trover, brought by the assignees against the receiver-general, for the goods taken by the warrant of the commissioners of the land-tax.

Biddlecome versus Marlow. Hill. 16 Geo. II. 28 February.

A man having bequeathed the residuum of his personal estate to the wife of J S, who did not appear to have been then indebted to any person whatsoever.—Soon after, J S agreed to settle, and did settle and assign this residuum to trustees, for the separate use of his wife, but with a proviso that the trustees might, in their discretion, at any time after, lend any part of the money to J S, to employ in trade.—Before the making the settlement, J S received 100 l. part of the residuum, and, after making the settlement, the trustees lent him 400 l.—After this, J S contracted several debts, and became a bankrupt.—The bill was brought by the trustees against the bankrupt, and his assignees, that they might be admitted creditors for the 500 l. under the commission.—Per lord Hardwicke chancellor. This settlement, being made before the bankrupt was indebted to any person, appears to be a fair settlement, and not to be avoided as fraudulent by the statute of 13 Elizabeth, and held, as to the 400 l. that the plaintiffs ought to be admitted creditors under the commission, but that the 100 l. ought to be considered as a payment to the husband, and decreed accordingly.—N. B. The trustees had applied to the commissioners, &c. under the commission, to be admitted creditors, but were rejected.

Bromley versus Child. Michael. 17 Geo. II.

A commission of bankruptcy had issued against Sir Stephen Evans, about 30 years ago, and some time since it was discovered that the bankrupt had a much better estate than what was sufficient to pay all his debts; and now the question was, whether the creditors should be allowed interest for their debts, out of the surplus?—It was argued for the representatives of the bankrupt, that the debt claimed, being approved and allowed, is after like a judgment, which shall never carry interest for the money adjudged, and that, the bankrupt in this case having obtained his certificate, the surplus, after payment of the debts proved, ought to be paid over to the representatives of the bankrupt, without any deduction being made for the interest of the debts proved.

For the creditors it was argued, that the surplus estate, now in question, is not an estate acquired by the bankrupt, after the obtaining his certificate, but is part of the estate originally assigned over by the commissioners to the assignees.—That the creditors have as much right to be paid interest for their debts, as they have to be paid their principal.—That interest-money is the common damages for detaining of money, and is but as the fruit of the branch.—That the bankrupt's certificate in the present case was only obtained, by the bankrupt from the commissioners, and was not confirmed by the chancellor till after the bankrupt's death.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor observed, that this question had come before him upon a petition: but that he had directed a bill to be brought in respect that, if he had determined it then, no appeal would have laid from his determination, as it now does, being brought in question in a cause in court.—As to the certificate, he declared that he thought the same valid, though not confirmed, till after the bankrupt's death.—For that the privileges arising from it are of such a nature, that the representatives of the bankrupt may take advantage of them as well as the bankrupt himself.—That the certificate is to be considered in the nature of a release, its force arising from the consent of the creditors.

It has been objected on the side of the representatives, that they ought not to be bound by the proof made by the creditor, before

before the commissioners, which is a proof only upon their own oaths; but, I think, that after this great length of time, they ought to be bound by that.—The oath of the party is always, in cases of this kind, allowed in the first instance, as sufficient to prove the debt claimed; and though they may be controverted before the commissioners, and the great seal may be applied to, to have an enquiry directed, yet such application or objections are to be made in a reasonable time.

The commission may be proceeded in, or renewed, notwithstanding the death of the bankrupt.

Then as to the main question decreed, That the several creditors should be paid interest for their debts, before the surplus is paid over by the assignees to the representatives of the bankrupt, but that the bond creditors should not be paid interest added to their debt beyond the specialties of their bonds. 1 Vern. 350.—The commissioners have a mixed right of jurisdiction, legal and equitable, to be exercised by a sound discretion, and all the statutes plainly imply this, and particularly the statute of the 13th of Elizabeth.—The commissioners, at first, always presume a failing fund, but, when the contrary happens, interest is to be considered as part of the debt; it is a kind of penalty for the non-payment.—The whole estate of the bankrupt is vested in the assignees for payment of the debts.—To say interest ought not to be paid, would be to discharge the fund before the debt paid.—It has been argued, that, as the estate ceases to carry interest, no interest ought to be charged on it; but this argument is fallacious.—Suppose the estate does produce interest, shall such interest be paid over to the bankrupt, before the creditors are fully paid? The words vesting the bankrupt's estate in the commissioners, viz. all that the bankrupt may lawfully part with, includes estates tail, which the bankrupt may part with by recovery, and that the statute enabling the commissioners to dispose of estates tail in the bankrupt, is to be understood of estates tail in him where there is a precedent estate for life, which estates tail, by reason of the precedent estate for life, the bankrupt could not part with, nor the commissioners, or the assignees before the statute.

Jones versus Brown. Mich. 18 Geo. II. 1744.

The bill in this case was by the plaintiff, as assignee under a commission of bankruptcy, to have the benefit of an estate charged to belong to the bankrupt, which the bankrupt, before any act of bankruptcy, in consideration of 600 l. paid to him by his wife's brother, and of 400 l. promised by the brother to be further paid, had conveyed to trustees, to the use of himself for life, remainder to his wife for her life for her jointure, remainder to other trustees for a term of 99 years, remainder to the first and other sons, &c. of the bankrupt by his wife, and, this settlement being made after marriage, it was insisted not to be good, as against the creditors.—And, if it was good, yet that, there being no trust declared of the 99 years term, it resulted back to the use of the bankrupt, the grantor, and consequently that the assignees had a right to dispose of this term subject to the estate for life to the wife.

Lord Hardwicke, chancellor, held the settlement to be upon a valuable consideration, and good, and that the term should not result back to the bankrupt, as a beneficial term, but that it ought to attend the inheritance, according to the limitations in the settlement.

In this case, where the settlement was produced on the side of the defendants, it appeared to be an indenture of release, and thereupon the counsel for the plaintiffs called for the lease for a year, and, the defendants not being able to shew any, it was insisted for the plaintiffs, that this was no conveyance.—But, Lord Hardwicke, chancellor, without suffering it to be argued, declared, that the want of the lease for a year would not in equity, whatever it might at law, vitiate the conveyance, for that, if no lease for a year at all had been made, it is a defect that a court of equity ought to supply, where the conveyance appears to have been made, as in this case, upon a valuable consideration.

Pattinden versus Micho, 20 June 1735, Chancery.

The sum of 900 l. being a legacy left Rodbear's wife, was, upon his marriage, vested in trustees, to pay the interest to Rodbear for life, then to his wife for her life, and, after both their deaths, to their children.—Rodbear borrowed of the trustees 300 l. and, after some time, paid them 206 l. and afterwards became a bankrupt.—The assignees bring their bill to have the interest of this 206 l. paid to them by the trustees for the use of the creditors.—The defendants insisted, that the assignees ought to pay them the whole 94 l. remaining in the bankrupt's hands, before they could be intitled to receive any part of the interest.—And it was agreed on all hands, that, if the bankrupt himself had brought the bill, he could not have the interest without first paying the 94 l.—The defendants insisted, that, as the assignees stood in the place of the bankrupt, they could have no other relief than he himself might have had.

Lord chancellor said the clause in the act of parliament for setting one debt against another, when there was an account

depending, extended only to such as were due at the time of the bankruptcy.—That assignees did not always stand exactly in the same place as the bankrupt, though they did in several cases.—As where a legacy is given to the bankrupt's wife, there the assignees cannot receive that legacy without doing what the bankrupt himself must be obliged to do; that is, to make a settlement upon the wife of it.—In some cases, they stand on different footings, as where, under the commission, all debts come in equally, though they affect the bankrupt himself one before another; and was of opinion, that the assignees were intitled to receive the interest of the 206 l. without first paying the 94 l.

In this case there was a joint commission taken out against Rodbear and his partner, and lord chancellor said, that, if this 94 l. was a separate debt, the trustees would be intitled to retain the interest, unless the 94 l. was paid; and gave directions, that, if the assignment was of the separate estate, the interest was to be paid; but, if it was an assignment of the joint estate, the bill to be dismissed with costs on either side.—But, if the assignees brought a new bill, with liberty to apply for their costs of this suit.

Stephens versus Sole, 5 July 1736, Chancery.

William Tappenden, son-in-law to the plaintiff, made a mortgage for securing to the plaintiff 1400 l. and interest, dated 1729, of a leasehold estate, and three hoys; and afterwards, in 1733, became a bankrupt.—Plaintiff brought his bill against the assignees to have satisfaction for this money, or that the defendants might be foreclosed.—Tappenden continued in possession of the leasehold estate, and navigated the hoys, and appeared as the visible owner to the time of his bankruptcy, and during that time made an absolute bill of sale of one of the hoys to one of his servants, to protect him from being pressed.—Sollicitor general, Verney, and Melmouth insisted, that this mortgage was void, as against the creditors, by the statute of king James, the bankrupt continuing in possession of the hoys, and appearing as visible owner of them, to the time of the bankruptcy.—The statute of 21 Jac. I. chap. 19. § 11. says,—Be it enacted, That if at any time hereafter any person or persons shall become bankrupt, and, at such time as they shall become bankrupt, shall, by the consent or permission of the true owner, or proprietary, have in their possession, order, and disposition, any goods or chattels, whereof they shall be reputed owners, and take upon them the sale, alteration, or disposition, as owners, that in every such case the commissioners are to dispose thereof as fully as any other part of the bankrupt's estate; and, in §. 13, the commissioners have a power to dispose of the bankrupt's estate, goods, &c. in mortgage, upon tender of the money before the condition broken.—They insisted that this case was within the inconvenience provided against by the act of parliament, seeing it gives the bankrupt a false credit, in order to the defrauding of his creditors.—Melmouth cited Twine's case, in the third report of Fazakerly for the plaintiff, urging that it would be very inconvenient to trademen if they were obliged to dispose of their goods, whenever they wanted to raise a sum of money.—As to the false credit, it is true the bankrupt has a credit by continuing in possession, but, at the same time, his estate is increased as much as by the money he received; and it would be very hard if the creditors should have the benefit of the plaintiff's money, and yet at the same time take his security from him.—He insisted that the section before cited intended only such goods, the property of which was absolute in another person, and not such goods as were mortgaged, because in the 13th section it is said in what manner the commissioners are to dispose of lands or goods in mortgage.

Lord chancellor said, that as this was not a fraudulent transaction, as to the leasehold estate, it cannot be said that the mortgage of the hoys is to be considered as fraudulent, and therefore Twine's case is different from this, as there was the appearance of fraud in that case.—As to the hoys, the single question is, whether this transaction is within the statute of king James.—The bankrupt continued in possession, and made an absolute bill of sale to one of his servants, and appeared the visible owner, but paid the interest for the 1400 l. pretty regularly. If this had been an absolute bill of sale to the plaintiff of these hoys, and the bankrupt had continued in possession of them afterwards, there could have been no doubt but that would have been within the act of parliament; but, in the present case, the bill of sale is subject to a redemption, and the absolute property is certainly not in the mortgagee.—Yet in law the mortgagee is considered as absolute owner.—Therefore the safest way, said his lordship, is to consider this as within the meaning of the act of parliament, though he said, at the first view of the case, his opinion was otherwise.—In this view of the case it appearing that the leasehold estate and hoys were not worth the money they are charged with by the mortgagee, what reason could there be that the plaintiff should let the possession continue in the bankrupt, when his interest became absolute?—'Tis true it was kind to the bankrupt; but why should other persons suffer by his kindness? And, since somebody must suffer, it is most reasonable he who by his laches occasions this question, should

should be the person.—This clause is not built so much upon the fraud, as the inconvenience that would arise, if persons were to appear as visible owners of things which do not belong to them.—The other section, in relation to mortgages, does not alter the construction of this clause, defendants submitting to be foreclosed of the leasehold estate.—Ordered the master to set a value upon it, and the plaintiff to come in for the residue under the commission, and no costs on either side.

The substance of the statutes in England relating to bankrupts, is as follows.

According to the statute of 13 Eliz. cap. 7. persons liable to bankruptcy are those, who having exercised trades by buying and selling wares, depart the realm, conceal themselves, or permit themselves to be falsely arrested, to defraud creditors.—The lord chancellor, upon a complaint in writing against a bankrupt, appoints commissioners to sell the bankrupt's lands, as well copy as free, annuities, goods, chattels, debts, &c.—Commissioners have power to convene persons suspected to have any of the bankrupt's effects.—Persons refusing to disclose, or detaining lands, &c. to forfeit double the value.—If the person indebted absent himself after five proclamations by commissioners, to be out of the king's protection, and persons concealing him to be imprisoned and fined.—The creditor not satisfied, may afterwards take his course at law.

Stat. 1 Jac. c. 15. By this statute a creditor shall be received, if he comes in, in four months.—Grants of lands, &c. of a bankrupt, in other men's names, except to children upon marriage, or for a valuable consideration, void.—If, upon warning left at the usual place of residence three times, the bankrupt does not appear, five proclamations to be made, &c.—Refusing to be examined, shall be committed.—Committing perjury to 10 l. prejudice of creditors, to stand in the pillory.—Persons suspected to detain any of the estate, not appearing, to be arrested; and still refusing, to be committed.—Commissioners may assign debts, &c. to the creditors; and proceed to execution, though the bankrupt dies.—Commissioners to render the bankrupt an account, and pay overplus, &c.

Stat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 19.—Trading persons and scriveners getting protection, except of members of parliament; persons endeavouring to compel creditors to take less than their due, or to gain time beyond six months, and escaping, &c. adjudged bankrupts.—Bankrupt's wife to be examined on oath.—Bankrupt fraudulently concealing to stand in the pillory.—Commissioners may break open a bankrupt's house, chests, &c.—Another man's goods in the bankrupt's possession to be distributed.—No respect to be had to debts upon judgment, recognizances, or specialties, beyond other debts. Stat. 12 and 14 Car. II. cap. 24, 9, &c.—10 W. III. cap. 44. Adventurers in the East-India or Guinea company; and no member of any society or company to be adjudged a bankrupt, in respect of his stock; and the stock not liable to foreign attachment.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts not submitting to be examined thirty days after notice, and not discovering how they have disposed of their goods, and all books, papers, &c. and delivering up to the commissioners all such estate, &c. except their wives and children's necessary wearing apparel; to suffer as felons.—Lord chancellor may enlarge the time for surrendering to sixty days.—Commissioners to send for persons, &c. not appearing, or refusing to be sworn, to be committed.—On certificate of the commissioners, the bankrupt to be apprehended.—Persons conforming, to be allowed 5 l. per cent.—No advantage to bankrupts giving above 100 l. in marriage with children, unless at the time they could satisfy their debts.

Bankrupts removing, concealing, or embezzling any monies or effects to the value of 20 l. guilty of felony.—Commissioners to assign to such as shall be chosen by the major part of the creditors.—Assignees before appointed refusing to assign over to them, to forfeit 100 l.—Assignees or the major part of them, to compound with debtors.—No commission of bankruptcy to be issued out, unless the debt of one creditor petitioning amounts to 150 l. or of three amount to 200 l.—And bond to be given in 200 l. penalty, to prove the party a bankrupt.—Receivers-general of taxes, &c. to have no benefit of these acts.

Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 15. The descriptions of a bankrupt in the act 21 Jac. I. being prejudicial to trade, this statute makes all descriptions of bankrupts void.—But no sale of estates to be impeached.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts, within thirty days after notice, shall surrender themselves to commissioners, and conform to the statutes.—The commissioners to call before them persons, who can give account of acts of bankruptcy, &c.—Trustees for the bankrupt and others, are to discover trusts, &c. or forfeit 100 l.—Three several meetings shall be appointed by the commissioners; who are to certify to the lord chancellor, that the bankrupt hath conformed; and four parts in five, in number and value of creditors, to sign the certificate.—Commissioners, &c. to be inrolled, at an of-

fice erected for that purpose; and the commissioners to have 20 s. per diem, &c.

Stat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. and 7 Geo. I. cap. 31. A bankrupt in prison, on execution for debt, to be discharged producing his certificate.—And persons having bills or notes on bankrupts, due at a day to come, are intitled to dividends, allowing discount, at 5 l. per cent.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts not surrendering in forty-two days, and not discovering estates, adjudged guilty of felony; but the lord chancellor may enlarge this time fifty days further.—They are to deliver all books of accounts; writings, &c. to assignees on oath; and be allowed 5 l. per cent. not above 200 l. if pay 10 s. in the pound, and 7 l. 10 s. per cent. not above 250 l. if pay 12 s. 6 d. in the pound, &c.—And the body of the bankrupt only, not his future estate, to be discharged, except he pays 15 s. per pound.—Four parts in five, in number and value of creditors, are to sign certificates, &c.—Bonds or notes given to consent to any certificates, to be void; and, if any creditor suing out any commission, has privately more than others; the commission shall be surperfected.—Bankrupts to be apprehended on a commission issued, &c.—Persons that discover their estates, allowed 5 l. per cent.—And concealing trusts, shall forfeit 100 l. and double value.—Notice must be given to creditors to meet and chuse assignees, prove debts, &c. but none to vote where a debt is under 10 l.—New assignees may be chosen by the creditors; and assignees after the end of four months, and within twelve, to account, and dividend to be made; and there may be a second final dividend in eighteen months, &c.—Commissioners to take an oath, allowed 20 s. a day, and nothing for expences; and attorneys bills to be adjusted by a master in chancery, &c.

Bankers, brokers, and factors, are subject to statutes of bankruptcy; but no farmer, grazier, or receiver-general of taxes, shall be deemed a bankrupt. Stat. 5 Geo. II. c. 30. continued by stat. 16 Geo. II. c. 17. until 29 Sept. 1750, &c.

No person who is bona fide a creditor of any bankrupt for, or in respect of, goods bona fide sold to such bankrupt, or of any bill of exchange bona fide drawn, negotiated, or accepted by such bankrupt, in the usual ordinary course of trade, shall be liable to repay to the assignee any money which before the suing forth of such commission was bona fide, and in the usual course of trade, received by such person of such bankrupt, before the person receiving the same shall have notice that he is become bankrupt, or is in insolvent circumstances.

The obligee in any bottomry or respondentia bond, and the assured in any policy of insurance made and entered into upon a valuable consideration bona fide, shall be admitted to claim, and after loss to prove his debt, as if the loss had happened before the date of the commission against the obligor or insurer; and the bankrupt shall be discharged from such bond and policy, and have the benefit of the several statutes against bankrupts, as if the loss had happened, or the money had become payable, before the date of the commencement. Upon these statutes, the preceding, and all other adjudications in our courts of law and equity are founded, the judges being the proper expositors of all acts of parliament. The variety of cases, which have occurred upon this subject, is so great, as to fill a large volume alone. Wherefore, we have only selected the more essential; and added some new cases, which have not yet been authentically reported, and which we have been favoured with from those, whose judgment in taking them may be depended on. More, we apprehend, will not be expected of us in a work of this nature.

The last act of parliament made in regard to bankrupts.

Whereas merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, scriveners, and traders, within the description of the statutes relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, are not compellable to pay their just debts, or to become bankrupts, by reason of the freedom of their persons from arrests upon civil process; and some doubts have also arisen, whether in cases of bankruptcy, a commission can be sued out during the continuance of such privilege; to remedy which inconveniencies, and to support the honour and dignity of parliament, and good faith and credit in commercial dealings, which require, that in such cases, the laws should have their due course, and that no such merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, scriveners, or traders, in case of actual insolvency, should by any privilege whatever, be exempted from doing equal justice to all their creditors: be it enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual, and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same, that from and after the eleventh day of May, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, it shall be lawful for any single creditor, or two or more creditors, being partners, whose debt or debts shall amount to one hundred pounds or upwards, and for any two creditors, whose debts shall amount to one hundred and fifty pounds or upwards, or any three or more creditors, whose debts shall amount to two hundred pounds or upwards, of any person or persons deemed a merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader or traders, within the description of the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts, having privilege

of parliament at any time, upon affidavit or affidavits being made and filed on record in any of his majesty's courts at Westminster, by such creditor or creditors, that such debt or debts is or are justly due to him or them respectively, and that every such debtor, as he or they verily believe, is a merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader, within the description of the statutes relating to bankrupts, to sue out of the same court summons, or an original bill and fummons, against such merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader, and serve him with a copy thereof; and if such merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader, shall not, two months after personal service of such summons, (affidavits of the debt or debts having been duly made and filed as aforesaid) pay, secure, or compound for such debt or debts, to the satisfaction of such creditor or creditors, or enter into a bond in such sum, and with two such sufficient sureties, as any of the judges of that court, out of which such summons shall issue, shall approve of, to pay such sum as shall be recovered in such action or actions, together with such costs as shall be given in the same, he shall be accounted and adjudged a bankrupt from the time of the service of such summons; and any creditor or creditors may sue out a commission against any such person, and proceed therein in like manner as against other bankrupts.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, that this act shall not extend, or be deemed or construed to extend, to any such debt or debts as aforesaid, contracted before the eighth day of March, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four; any thing herein before contained to the contrary thereof, in any wise notwithstanding. And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that if any merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader, shall after the last day of this session of parliament, commit any act of bankruptcy, that then, and in such case, any creditor or creditors as aforesaid, may sue out a commission of bankrupt against such merchant, banker, broker, factor, scrivener, or trader; and the commissioners in such commission, and other persons, may proceed thereon in like manner, as against other bankrupts; any privilege of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding. Provided nevertheless, and be it enacted, that nothing in this act shall subject any person intitled to privilege of parliament to be arrested, or imprisoned, during the time of such privilege, except in cases made felony by the acts relating to bankrupts, or any of them.

R E M A R K S.

The light wherein bankruptcies are considered in FRANCE.

The French make a distinction between a bankruptcy and a failure, they judging the former designed and fraudulent, a merchant thereby wickedly intending to wrong his creditors, by not surrendering his effects, till he had secreted or embezzled the best part of them: whereas a failure is deemed involuntary and inevitable, and always occasioned by real misfortunes.

They reckon that a man has failed from the moment he does not pay, when due, the bills of exchange, which he has accepted, or does not return the money to those whom he may have furnished with bills, which are returned protested; or does not discharge his promissory notes, when payable; either by reason of misfortunes in trade, or that he cannot get in his effects in time to comply with his obligations.

Such a failure (or stoppage of payment, as we frequently term it in England) though it greatly staggers and impairs a trader's credit and reputation, yet it does not brand him with that infamy fixed on a fraudulent bankrupt, provided he pays his creditors to the full, according to the time and terms of agreement his creditors shall grant him.

There is another kind of failure, which differs from a fraudulent bankruptcy, and yet is reckoned more infamous than that which we have been mentioning. This is, when a merchant having lost the greatest part of his estate, either by shipwreck and the capture of his vessels, or by the bankruptcy and failure of others, or by the villainy of partners, or any other accidents, is obliged to cause his creditors to lose part of what he owes them, and to require time for payment of the residue.

When a merchant disappears, without any lawful or apparent cause, and is not seen upon the Exchange, this is said to be a failing of presence and credit; whence the word failure is derived.

The bankruptcy or failure, in France, is reckoned to commence from the day on which the debtor withdraws or absconds, or on which his effects are seized.

Those who have made a failure, are obliged to give to their creditors a state of the account signed of whatever they possess, of all they owe, and of all that is due to them, and to represent before them all their books of accounts in due form; otherwise they will be deemed fraudulent bankrupts.

If any one has in any manner aided or assisted a fraudulent bankrupt, he incurs the penalty of a fine of 1500 livres, and pays double the amount of all he has been instrumental to secrete, or demand beyond what is due to him; all which shall be applied to the advantage of the creditors, according to the ordonnance of the month of March 1673.

There is a declaration of the king of the 18th of November 1702, which requires that all conveyances of transfers upon the effects of merchants, who have failed, provided they were not executed ten days, at least, before the failure is publicly known; and likewise all deeds and obligations as they shall execute before a notary, to the advantage of any one of their creditors, or to contract new debts, shall be null and void. Moreover, all sentences given against them, shall not procure to such creditors any right or preference before other creditors, who have only notes, or bills of exchange, or such like papers, to produce as vouchers of their respective debts; unless the said deeds and bonds were made, or the said sentences given, ten days, at least, before the failure was publicly known.

By another declaration of June the 13th, 1716, all merchants, traders, bankers, and others, who break, are obliged to deposit a particular account, the truth of which must be duly attested, of all their effects moveable and immoveable, as also of all their debts, together with all their books of accounts and vouchers, into the rolls-office of the consular jurisdiction of their dwelling-place, or of the next place; in default of which they shall not be admitted to make any contract, agreement, composition, &c. with their creditors, nor to make an advantage of any safe-conduct granted them by their creditors; but shall be liable to be extraordinarily prosecuted as fraudulent bankrupts, by the attornies-general, or their deputies, and even by any one of their creditors, without the consent of the rest. His majesty declaring, however, that he does not pretend hereby to infringe, in the least, the privileges of the consular jurisdiction of Lyons, which shall be preserved and kept as usual.

The ordonnance of Henry IV. published in the year 1609, and that of Lewis XIV. issued in 1673, require such bankrupts to be proceeded against extraordinarily, and punished with death, who wilfully and wickedly secrete their effects, or secure them under borrowed names, by false sales, and fictitious transfers.

How bankrupts are considered in HOLLAND.

The Dutch have the same idea of the word bankrupt, as the French, they understanding thereby a trader who breaks to grow rich, by defrauding of his creditors: they likewise make the same distinction between a failure and a bankruptcy, as the French. In the former case they are without mercy, in the other they are very merciful and benevolent, when accompanied with the circumstances of real misfortunes, and not with want of integrity or oeconomy.

In order to make due inquiry into the affairs of those who fail in any shape, they have established, at Amsterdam, a court which they call de Kamer van de Desolate Boedels, or the Chamber of Desolate Funds; the ordonnance in regard thereto is as follows.

I. This court consists of five capable persons, who are chosen annually, by the lords justices, two of whom must be elected from the elder aldermen of the city, and the rest must be well experienced in commerce.

II. Two of these commissioners, at least, are continued for three years successively, and no longer, and the election of the rest is made as the commissioners of other courts are.

III. These commissioners meet daily to attend the affairs of insolvents.

IV. When there happens any insolvent in the city of Amsterdam, or under its jurisdiction, either by death, or failure, the commissioners immediately go with their secretary, and take an exact inventory of all the effects, and secure them for the benefit of the creditors: they also take possession of the books and papers belonging to the party.

V. After which they appoint two or more trustees, to get in all the effects and debts belonging to the insolvent, either within or without the jurisdiction of the city or country.

VI. Before they proceed to the sale of the insolvent's effects, they commonly stay about six weeks, or longer, if the insolvent, or relations of the deceased, desire it, that time may be had to accommodate things with the creditors; during which notwithstanding, the trustees use the utmost diligence to get in all debts due to the insolvent, and to procure every advantage to the creditors.

VII. And, to the end that affairs of this kind may be proceeded in with regularity, all merchants or others, who have failed heretofore, or are insolvable, or who shall happen to fail hereafter, and their heirs, may summon all the creditors before this court, and in the presence of the said commissioners, or the greatest part of them, after a true declaration of the state of their affairs, and their active as well as passive debts, they may endeavour to agree for the payment of a part or the whole, or to give security for payment at such time as the parties shall think reasonable.

VIII. The minority of the creditors shall herein be governed by the majority, which shall be three quarters of the creditors, and two thirds of the debt; or two thirds of the creditors, and three quarters of the debt.

IX. But those for whom securities are given, shall not be admitted to the agreement, but only the securities themselves,

which shall have a personal act for their indemnity, and even the same right as the personal creditors.

X. All who declare themselves creditors of an insolvent, shall be obliged to make appear what is due to them, before the commissioners.

XI. No agreement begun between an insolvent, or any one in his behalf, and his creditors, shall be concluded without the consent of the commissioners.

XII. An agreement between insolvents, or their heirs, on the one part, and their creditors on the other, being made under sufficient security, and signed by the creditors, or the greatest part of them, they and their effects shall be discharged by the court, and be at liberty to trade, receive and pay, the same as before the failure, on paying the commissioners the expences they have been at, according to their discretion: notwithstanding which, if it be afterwards discovered that one creditor has been gratified to the detriment of the rest, these agreements are disannulled.

XIII. The persons failing and their securities shall be bound to deposit such agreement with the commissioners, for the security and advantage of the creditors who have not yet signed it, and also the money they have agreed to pay, that the creditors may receive the same of the commissioners, when they come to sign the agreement on their part.

XIV. However, if it be found that an insolvent or his heirs have acted fraudulently in making the agreement, or after such agreement shall be known to have concealed any books or papers, or conveyed away their effects, or made any underhand agreement with any one of the creditors, such discharge given by the commissioners shall not only be set aside, but the parties shall be punished according to the nature of the case.

XV. And those who shall combine with the insolvent, and pretend to be creditors, when they are not so, or those who make demand of a greater sum than is really due to them, with design to wrong the just creditors, and give advantage to the insolvent, shall be punished as deceivers, and also condemned to pay, as their own debt, all the true creditors.

XVI. After the expiration of the six weeks aforesaid, or longer, according to the discretion of the commissioners, and no agreement having been made between the insolvent and his creditors, the trustees shall, without further delay, proceed to the sale of the effects, both moveable and immoveable; the latter being to be disposed of only by the aldermen, within the first of November and the second of February. But the merchandize, furniture, and other effects, must be sold publicly by auction, at the pleasure of the commissioners. But in case there is any merchandize which may be judged necessary to be kept unfold, by reason of an appearance of a rise in the price thereof, or for any other good cause, which the trustees shall represent to the commissioners, the sale of such merchandize shall be postponed for some time, but not otherwise.

XVII. These things being done, the commissioners shall fix a day for all the creditors to meet, who live in the city, and elsewhere, that they may give in their names, and their demands.

XVIII. On the day appointed for the purposes aforesaid, the commissioners shall proceed first to enquire into the debt, and of the preference to be given to each creditor present, whom the commissioners shall endeavour to bring to an agreement upon that head. If that cannot be effected, the creditors who disagree, shall be obliged to put into the hands of the commissioners, within fourteen days, their demand, article by article, with the necessary vouchers, on pain, that if, within the said time, every one has not given in such account, he shall be regarded as having desisted from his pretensions, and shall have justice only according to their demand, and according to the particulars delivered in by others. Those who within the said time of fourteen days shall have furnished their particulars, may demand, in fourteen days afterwards, the same of every one, who has given them in; to the end that, within fourteen days following, they may give in writing their objections, without having any longer term granted for that purpose. But, after these fourteen days, the affair shall be determined by the commissioners.

XIX. The preference to be given to the respective creditors being finally settled, those who shall think themselves injured, may within ten days after, or within ten days after they have heard of such determination, appeal to the court of aldermen, who shall judge the matter within ten days of such appeal, unless it be dropped.

XX. Afterwards the commissioners shall proceed to a dividend, or distribution. Those who shall have had the preference, shall receive their debt, upon giving a proper discharge to the commissioners, according to the amount of the insolvent's effects; and the money remaining shall be distributed among the other creditors, at the rate of a shilling in the pound, upon giving a proper discharge.

XXI. If a tenant of any house, or other kind of dwelling, fails between the months of May and the first of December, the landlord shall take such house or dwelling-place to himself, for the remaining term of the lease, and shall discharge the insolvent fund thereof; so that he shall only have the right of preference upon the effects which he shall find upon the premises, for the rent of the current and preceding years, and

for no longer time. And, for what shall appear due before, he shall come in as a creditor with the rest.

XXII. But, if the failure happens between the first of December and the month of May following, the rent shall be charged on the insolvent fund for one year, beginning from the month of May, unless the landlord thinks proper to take the house into his own hands for the same year.

XXIII. And, as the benefit of the creditors consists in finishing their affairs as soon as may be, those creditors who would prove their debts, shall henceforth proceed in the first instance, against the trustees, who, in that case, will be defendants; and on the other hand shall be plaintiffs against those who shall be debtors to the insolvent.

XXIV. The creditors who would prove their debts, and all others who lay claim to part of those effects, shall be obliged to enter their action against the trustees in due time, before the said preference and agreement among the creditors are settled, and before the sale and distribution of the insolvent's effects. And to this end they shall summon the trustees three days before-hand, and send them their resolution with the summons; as likewise a copy of the particulars, whereon their demands are grounded; and in case, upon the day appointed, those who made such demand do appear before the commissioners, the trustees shall be acquitted, and the expence thereof paid by those who cited them, before fresh measures can be taken against them.

XXV. But if any one has attached the effects, which he pretends to have claim to, he shall be obliged to summon the trustee the third day after such attachment, and to bring his action under the penalty of being nonsuited.

XXVI. The trustees being summoned as above, and not appearing, there will be a default for non-appearance, and thereupon a second summon issued, and on no appearance to that, the commissioners will pass judgment upon the matter, according to the vouchers laid before them by the party alone who does appear, and the trustees shall only be condemned to pay the costs of the process, proper contumaciam.

XXVII. When the trustees appear upon such summon, the cause shall be argued and determined directly, without giving or taking any further day to answer, unless for very good cause the commissioners shall think the same necessary.

XXVIII. Provided the trustees summon any one, as before represented, and they do not appear, the trustees shall have the same advantage as was before given against them, and the parties shall be obliged to pay the expence.

XXIX. But, the persons summoned not appearing, a second summon is granted for the week following, and not appearing the second time, the summon having been duly executed, they must give provisional security, and have a third summon; which terminates in a definitive condemnation of the security, or justice is done in some other manner.

XXX. But, if the parties summoned appear, the point is either concluded then, or some day the next week following, unless the commissioners find good cause to do otherwise.

XXXI. The trustees, having arrested any person or effects, shall be obliged, at the requisition of the party so arrested or interested, within three days, to carry on the prosecution before the commissioners, in order to make their demand, and bring the matter to a conclusion; upon which the person arrested then answers, or takes another day without deviating from the provisional security, provided the case is so circumstanced: but the person arrested, or interested, making no prosecution, the arrest shall be referred, and prosecuted at the next court, according to custom.

XXXII. The cause being pleaded, the commissioners shall dispose of the principal, according to the nature of the case; and, if either of the parties shall appeal, the cause shall be brought and prosecuted before the court of aldermen, who shall finally determine the same.

XXXIII. The creditors of any insolvent being dissatisfied with the proceedings, and the ill conduct of the trustees, may remonstrate the matter before the commissioners, who shall cause the trustees to come before them, hear them, and set the affair in a just light, according as the case shall require.

XXXIV. The persons, whom the said commissioners appoint trustees in regard to the effects of the insolvent, shall be obliged to give good security for their conduct, at the discretion of the commissioners, in order to have recourse to such security, in case of male-administration, unless the trustees were chosen from among the creditors.

XXXV. The trustees or assignees among the creditors having received any money belonging to the insolvent fund, shall not keep it in their hands, but the same shall be immediately delivered to the said commissioners.

XXXVI. And those trustees who shall be called upon, shall be obliged to appear before the commissioners, not only at the end of their administration, but at all times before, to render an account of, and justify their proceedings; and, being summoned for this purpose, they shall be obliged at the first order, under the penalty of a fine of three guilders; and, if they are called upon a second time, the like; and the third is a fine of six guilders; and if notwithstanding they fail to appear, and do not render up their accounts, they shall be called upon

upon a fourth time upon pain of imprisonment; afterwards the commissioners shall lay the matter before the court of aldermen.

XXXVII. At the end of the administration of the trustees, when the said commissioners shall discharge them of their trust, they shall grant them, for their trouble, what they judge proper.

XXXVIII. Any one of this city, or under its jurisdiction, desiring to give up his effects, the said commissioners shall take measures to secure them, by appointing proper persons for that purpose, as soon as warrants of such cession shall be granted to the creditors, and they shall be informed of the validity thereof, in order to lay the affair before the court of aldermen.

XXXIX. In order to prevent all abuses and villainies which are daily practised by many, in the requiring and prosecuting the warrants granted by the burgomasters of this city, &c. with intent to obtain the security of the body, and the continuation thereof, the said commissioners shall give true information of the state of the suspected persons, in order to do the same duly before the burgomasters.

XL. Any one being summoned, he shall be obliged to appear before the commissioners, in default of which he shall pay a fine of six shillings for the first time, twelve for the second, and twenty-four for the third; afterwards the commissioners shall communicate the matter to the court of aldermen, and shall send one of their officers in search of the person.

How bankrupts are looked on in CHINA.

When any man becomes a bankrupt in this country, they throw him into prison in the governor's palace, and he is immediately put upon the declaration of his effects. After he has been a month in prison, he is released by the governor's order, and proclamation is made, that such a one, the son of such a one, has consumed the substance of such a one; and that if he has any effects in the hands of any person, in any shape whatsoever, it must be made known in the term of a month. In the mean time the bankrupt is bamboo'd * on the backside, if discovery is made of any effects of his; and at the same time is upbraided with having been a month in prison eating and drinking, though he had wherewithal to satisfy his creditors. He is chastised in the same manner, whether he makes any declaration of his effects, or not. They reproach him, that he has made it his study to get by fraud the substance of private persons into his hands, and embezzle it; and that he ought not to defraud those he had dealings with, by stripping them of their property. But after all, if they cannot discover him to have been guilty of any fraud, and if it is proved to the magistrate, that the man has nothing in the world, the creditors are called in, and receive a part of their debt out of the emperor's treasury. After this, it is publicly prohibited to buy of, or sell to, this man, upon pain of death, that he may not defraud any of his creditors by concealing their money. If discovery be made that he hath any sums in the hands of another, and if the person he intrusts makes no declaration within the time limited, he is bamboo'd to death, and nothing is said to the proprietor or bankrupt. The sums that they discover are divided among the creditors, and the debtor or bankrupt must never more concern himself with trade.

* This punishment is such, as none scarce ever survive; it is so grievous, that no person in all China may, of his own authority, inflict it upon another, upon pain of death, and confiscation of his goods.

R E M A R K S.

There are three things which all men of judgment and experience in trade allow to be the great preservatives against bankruptcy. As,

1. A thorough skill and discernment in the whole of the employment wherein a person may be engaged. In regard to the mercatorial profession, the knowledge and judgment requisite are not so narrow, mean, and confined, as some are wont to think. For,

According to what I have represented in my New Mercantile Institution, without acquaintance in the produce and manufactures of the commercial world, and in the laws of our own and foreign countries relative to general trade; without abilities to obtain the best intelligence, in order to strike the critical time when, and where, exportation or importation from nation to nation, drawing, remitting, and negotiating foreign bills, invite to the best advantage: without knowledge of the duties, imposts, subsidies, drawbacks, bounties, and all other charges and allowances at home and abroad, to which trade is subject, it is impossible that any previous calculation can be made, whether an adventure will turn to account or not. If the merchant be not thoroughly skilled in foreign monies and exchanges, as also in foreign weights and measures, and the methods of reducing those of one nation reciprocally into those of others, how shall he be able to judge of foreign invoices and accounts of sales? and, if he be not perfectly acquainted with the arts of arbitrating the foreign exchanges with accuracy, he cannot embrace those benefits

which their perpetual fluctuation affords. Nor is a knowledge of the intrinsic value of foreign specie less necessary than of the extrinsic par, or the arbitrational prices of exchange, in order to deal occasionally in the export or import of foreign coins, and bullion gold and silver, to the best advantage. In fine, the merchant destitute of this series of information, and talents to apply it to the most beneficial purposes in every shape, can never hope to reap any considerable profit from his profession, or sustain the character he bears with any sort of dignity. He must owe his success, if he has any, to fortunate hits, and unexpected advantages; things which no prudent man will chuse to depend upon for the whole prosperity of his life.

To the ignorant in these matters, commerce is but a game at chance, where the odds are against the player. But, to the accomplished merchant, it is a science, where skill can scarce fail of its reward; and, while the one is wandering about in a pathless ocean, without a compass, and depends on the winds and tides to carry him into his port, the other goes steadily forward, in a beaten track, which leads him directly, if no extraordinary accident intervenes, to wealth and honour.

Whoever turns his thoughts on the stupendous circulation of paper property throughout the world, by inland and foreign bills; on the various customs and usages established among traders in their money-negotiations, for the support of universal credit; on the numberless different transactions which diversify the business of the merchant; as buying and selling, exporting and importing, for proper company, or commission account; drawing on, remitting to, and freighting, or hiring out, ships for various parts of the world at the same time: whoever duly considers the skill in figures and accountanship, requisite to adjust and methodize this great variety of transactions, whereby such trader may always have the true representation of his affairs before him; together with the judgment to conduct such a complication of occurrences, and address to maintain a general correspondence in our own, or the more universal languages; cannot but see the extent of a course of education proper to form so distinguished a character.—Notwithstanding this, nothing is more certain than that no gentlemen in the general labour under greater disadvantages in point of erudition; which, I am afraid, is one principal cause of the frequent bankruptcies amongst those who are, perhaps, the most useful subjects in the community; they being the great instruments who give constant bread and employment to the mass of the people, and draw treasures into the nation from the remote parts of the world.

Whether, therefore, the establishment of a mercantile college, or a well-regulated seminary, proper for the breeding up our British merchants with every desirable advantage, may not be worthy the consideration of some public-spirited persons, is humbly submitted. That an institution something of this kind is greatly wanted in England, I have endeavoured to shew at large in the before-mentioned tract; and I heartily wish, that my poor endeavours in the public service may, one day, stimulate others of far superior abilities and advantages to attempt what every body has been pleased to approve; notwithstanding the mean and base artifices which have been used to deprive my country, in that shape, of the benefit of my labours, and myself of the advantages of twenty years study and application, with a view principally to the establishment of that mercantile design. See the article MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

By the plan of institution in the before-mentioned treatise will be seen the qualifications necessary, absolutely necessary, to form the accomplished British merchant: and, if those qualifications therein enumerated were communicated to young persons, in the manner proposed, there is no doubt to be made but the art of merchandizing would, by that means, have been greatly advanced, the general commerce of the kingdom proportionably extended, and much fewer bankrupts. 2. However, the best accomplishments for trade avail little without œconomy; for, although a person of penetration and address may be occasionally extremely successful, yet the man of prudence should make allowances for such losses as the keenest foresight and discernment cannot always prevent: it should, therefore, be always considered that the debit, as well as the credit side of the account of profit and loss, is liable to swell.

3. But nothing, perhaps, can be a more effectual preservative against failure than a thorough knowledge in figures and accountanship. It is not necessary, indeed, that a merchant engaged in large concerns should keep his own books, as he may probably employ his time to far greater advantage; but it is indispensably necessary that he should be capable of doing so. How is it possible, otherwise, that he should be able to judge when they are kept as they ought to be? Nor can he be capable of so inspecting them, as to be duly acquainted with the state of his own affairs.

It is an unbecoming meanness, not to say a consummate folly, in any man, whose fortune is daily at stake, to depend upon others to give him what they please for the state of his affairs. It is justly proverbial among the Dutch, that the man who fails did not understand to keep his accounts: and it may be truly said, a merchant without that skill is in as bad a situation

situation as the mariner on the wide ocean, without chart, compass, or observation, whereby to direct his course.

Both the French and the Dutch always entertain an opinion of a fraudulent bankruptcy, when there are no just and methodical accounts kept by traders; for, let their losses be what they will, they ought fairly and uprightly to appear through their books, and from the testimony of authentic vouchers. So that regular and upright accounts are an effectual justification of the trader's conduct, as demonstrating, whether skill and oeconomy have been wanting, or whether only success: if the latter is the case, he is, notwithstanding, carested and supported; whereby he may become as prosperous afterwards, as he was otherwise before. This also is the case in Britain, and indeed in all nations where commerce is cultivated.

Among all the laws relating to bankrupts in England, I do not remember to have met with any that enjoined such traders who are within the statutes to keep just and regular accounts of their transactions, and of their whole income and expence, be the same in whatsoever shape it shall happen; yet this seems to be as necessary a law as any relating to bankrupts; for, if an omission hereof was, among other things, made a sufficient cause of obstruction to the obtaining of their certificates, it might have a happy tendency to prevent that frequency of bankrupts among traders; seeing, while a person had the true state of his affairs always before him, that might prove a safe and steady rudder to steer him clear of those rocks and shoals whereon he might otherwise split.

Another safeguard against those misfortunes in traffic is honour and integrity in dealing, honesty being the best policy among traders, as well as the rest of mankind. However great the temptation to act otherwise may often be in the way of traffic, yet, in the long-run, the trading trickster is frequently caught in his own toils: for, as it requires more art to be roguish than otherwise, so that art is daily liable to detection, and loss of reputation; whereas so extraordinary is the power of justice and honour in commerce, especially when united to prudence and skill, that it proves the source of a boundless credit to a trader; and, credit in traffic answering the end of money, such trader may be said to be rich, in proportion as he is just and upright; for an extensive credit, wisely managed, cannot fail to be productive of extensive riches.

It does not seem to be that refined policy, that some flatter themselves with, for a rich, overgrown trader to engage in combinations and ingrossings, and other unfair and illegal practices, in order to oppress and ruin young beginners. Persons of this unnatural stamp have frequently undone themselves by attempting the destruction of others; for the mean art of underselling, in view to monopolize, is not less hazardous than dishonourable; and, when such a one comes to misfortunes, he is as little pitied as the cruel ruffian going to the gallows. As people in trade are never too low to rise, so they are never too high to fall. A man in trade, though standing himself secure, should have a benevolent concern for those who miscarry, and, instead of scheming at the destruction of others, should stretch out the arm of assistance to those who would follow his wife and industrious example.

I have known a merchant as much distinguished for his generosity and humanity as for his equity and prosperity in his negotiations. Instead of studying the low craft of oppression, in order to injure the young beginner, his greatest joy consisted in raising young people of good behaviour and promising talents. He took few apprentices with large fortunes, or large premiums, because he was wont to say, That those who had great fortunes wherewith to begin, needed not that help to throw them into business like people of small ones. It was his maxim, therefore, to breed abundance of such young people in his counting-house, and, after three or four years accomplishment under his judicious eye, to transplant them to foreign counting-houses, among his correspondents: and, if their conduct was approved, he some-how made it for the interest of those houses to take such young people into the partnership. By which means, he not only exercised his natural principle of good-will to mankind, but so attached those objects of his benevolence to his interest, that he found his account in dealing with these foreign houses. So that he experienced it to prove the more beneficial policy to raise, rather than destroy, the fortunes of young people who merited his regard.

Nor was this his practice abroad only. In order to be well served by his manufacturers, and indeed by all with whom he had dealings, he ever studied their interest in conjunction with his own. Thus any poor man's son who fell in his way, and had any thing of a promising turn; or any skilful, honest manufacturer, &c. was sure to have support from him: he would offer them money on easy terms; and, if they proved industrious and deserving, his purse was always open to them. By which singular management, both gratitude and interest proved motives to his being well served in the qualities of the goods he exported, they being as well sold abroad as well bought at home.

His conduct, in regard to imports, was equally peculiar. His buyers were tradesmen of his own choice, rather remarkable for industry than fortune: those never failed of what

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credit and reasonable indulgence they stood in need of. Such behaviour saved many from bankruptcy, but had no tendency to occasion it; yet there are many traders who are as distinguishable for their cruelty, as this worthy gentleman was for a disposition diametrically the reverse. This honest policy so warmly attached all whom he dealt with to his interest at home, as well as abroad, that it is little to be admired that so wise, and so good, a man accumulated what riches and honour he pleased. This example shews the true use of money and sagacity in the arts of commerce; and, it is to be hoped, will be followed by many, which will certainly make the rich still richer, and the poor happy. This is a species of charity which brings its present reward with it: but, as the poet says,

Such who in life oppress, and then bequeath
Their goods to pious uses at their death;
Are like those drunkards being laid to sleep,
Who belch and vomit what they cannot keep.

There is nothing has a greater tendency to failure in trade, than a tradesman's being obstinate and self-sufficient in his own opinion, and quarrelsome and litigious among his neighbours, and those with whom he has concerns in trade. That trader must be in the road to ruin of whom it is said, that he catches at every advantage from those he deals with, wrangles without reason, quarrels without provocation, disputes trifles, and goes to law without justice.

He that will seek justice in the law, ought to be first certain that he can obtain the same in no amicable way. The law was not designed to promote broils and confusion among mankind, but to prevent them.

Tradesmen who have these squabbles generally upon their hands, are as discontented within themselves as they are contemptible in the eyes of others. A man that is always paying lawyers bills, reading over bills in Chancery exhibited against him, is of a disposition very unfit for commerce, which requires the man to be calm and unirritated; otherwise his business must suffer, and all prudent men will as solicitously avoid dealing with a litigious trader, as with one who has got the plague:

Law-suits avoid, with as much studious care
As you would dens where hungry lions are;
And rather put up injuries, than be
A plague to him who'd be a plague to thee.

Law-suits and contentions in trade are sometimes unavoidable: unless the defendant will suffer deprivations upon his property, he is under the necessity of defending himself, and seeking protection from the law. For a man to defend himself against the strife, contention, and villainy of others, is not to be litigious; that character is due to the aggressor; for it is the duty of the most quiet and inoffensive man to defend himself, when offensively attacked. The querulous lawing trader is the contempt of the rich, and the aversion of his poorer neighbours; the scandal of his trade, and the terror of his customers. The prudent trader will not reject the following maxims.

1. Not to decline or delay paying a just debt, if able, but to pay it, without giving any man cause, or putting him to the charge of suing for his own.
2. Nor to give any man trouble, though for a just debt, where there is any probability of obtaining it without, nor till all reasonable, quiet, and friendly methods are tried to avoid it.
3. When necessitated to use the violence of a legal prosecution, yet to do it with tenderness, without exposing the debtor more than needs must; and above all, without putting him to more than necessary charges. This shews a just reluctance to the thing; in which case the defendant is justly answerable for all the evil which he brings upon himself. The discreet trader will, as far as in him lies, prevent a decision at law; if it be possible, he will bring all differences to a friendly accommodation, by expostulation, by applications, by arbitration, and even by abating sometimes much of his demands for peace-fake.

For men to make a dispute at law become a formal quarrel, engage their passions in the difference, and turn their trade-breaches into breaches of charity and breaches of temper, is to put off the Christian and the man of sense together.

This way of going to law had a terrible event a few years ago in this nation, and left a bloody precedent, viz. in the late duke Hamilton and the lord Mohun: they had contended many years at law about an estate; but meeting occasionally, while the suit was depending, the heat of the legal process broke out in an illegal flame; they differ in words, give and return disobliging expressions; this kindles their passion; both hot, both brave; they quarrel, a challenge ensues; they both meet, both fight, and are both killed. This is the case, tho' not carried to so fatal a length, with all who go to law about trifles, and carry on their suits with animosity: they go to law, like Hamilton and Mohun, and, if they had courage to engage, would put it to the like issue. Nothing has a greater tendency to the ruin of traders, and all others, than this un-

happy disposition; and nothing is more contemned among the wife and honest part of mankind.—In fine, a litigious trader lives in a kind of warfare among his fraternity; whereas commerce should be the general bond of good will, as it is the grand source of their temporal welfare.

BAPTISM, a ceremony practised at sea in long voyages, on those persons who pass the tropic for the first time, as also on the merchant-ships that have not passed it before.

The baptism of ships is a very plain ceremony, and is performed by washing it all over only with sea-water; but that of persons is more formal and mysterious, as shall be related hereafter; but neither is performed without giving the ship's company something to drink and carouse. With regard to the baptizing of the ship, the seamen think they have a right to cut off the ship's beak-head, unless the captain or master redeems it, by giving them several bottles of brandy, and money. This present, which the master makes them, is not reckoned an average, nor are the freighters accountable for it, but only the proprietors or owners of the ship.

As for the baptism of persons, it is performed after the following manner:

The most ancient of the seamen, who have already crossed the line, or the tropic, being oddly dressed, with his face blackened, a comical cap on his head, the journal, or some other sea-book, in his hand, and followed by several other sailors, each with some kitchen utensil instead of a weapon, comes by beat of drum, and places himself gravely on a seat prepared for that purpose upon deck, at the foot of the main-mast.

Before this drole magistrate every person, not yet initiated into those mysteries, comes and swears that he will cause the same ceremony to be observed, whenever opportunity offers. If such a person pays down, or promises, some gratification, he gets off clear for his present, and has only a few drops of water sprinkled over him. But the others, as well as the common sailors, are in a manner drowned with pails full of water, kept ready for that purpose, in casks or buckets. The ship and cabin-boys, are put under a basket, where they are soaked with water at pleasure; and, in memory of so curious a ceremony, are compelled to whip one another, which they do soundly. The money paid is either shared among the ship's company, or kept to buy some refreshment at the first convenient place they come to.

BARATRY, or **BARRETRY**, according to the common law of England, signifies the moving and maintaining of suits in disturbance of the peace, and the taking and detaining of houses, lands, &c. by false inventions. The word *baraterie* in French, signifies misdemeanor, fraud, deceit. It is derived from the old word *barat*, which signified any imposition: whence they also said *baratter*, to impose upon one.

In marine commerce, *baratry* signifies the stealing, imbezzling, or any ways altering of merchandizes, by the master or company of a ship; and, in general, all the tricks, frauds, or male practices, which they pretty often use, in order to defraud the owner of the ship's cargo, or other persons concerned in it.

By the 28th article of the sixth title of the third book of the ordinance of the marine in France, published in August 1681, it is ordered, that the insurers shall not be obliged to make good the losses and damages which ships or merchandizes shall have suffered through the fault of the master and crew, unless by the policy they were made answerable for the master or captain's *baratry*.

The penalties of *baratry* are mentioned in the same ordinance, in the first title of the second book, in the following articles.

Article 20. The master who, without any necessity, took money upon the body, victualling or fitting out of his ship, or who sold merchandizes, engaged the rigging, or set down in his accounts or memorandums fictitious averages or expenses, is obliged to pay them in his own name, declared unworthy of the mastership, and banished from the harbour where he used to dwell.

Article 32. All masters of ships are prohibited to sell again the victuals of their ships, and to imbezzle or conceal them, upon pain of corporal punishment.

Article 35. If a master sails a wrong course, commits any theft, or suffers any to be committed on board his ship, or fraudulently gives occasion to the alteration or seizing of the merchandizes, or of the ship, he is to suffer corporal punishment.

Article 36. A master who is convicted of delivering a ship to the enemy, or to have wilfully caused it to be shipwrecked or lost, is to be punished with death.

BARATRY, in a marine sense, is in England, when the master of a ship, or the mariners, cheat the owners or insurers, whether by running away with the ship, sinking her, deserting her, or imbezzling the cargo.

If goods delivered on shipboard are imbezzled, all the mariners ought to contribute to the satisfaction of the party that lost his goods, by the maritime law, and the cause is to be tried in the admiralty. 1 Lill. 368.

A master of a ship, if a minor, undertaking to bring goods from any place abroad to England, if he wastes and consumes

them, he may be prosecuted in the court of admiralty, though he be an infant. Roll's Abr. 53c.

And, where a ship was insured against the *baratry* of the master, &c. in an action brought thereupon, the jury found that the ship was lost by the fraud and negligence of the master: the court held, that, if the master run away with the ship, or imbezzle the goods, the merchant may have the action against him; for it is reasonable that merchants, who hazard their stocks in the foreign traffic, should secure themselves in what manner they think proper against *baratry* of the master, and all other frauds; and this must be intended fraud in the master, not a bare neglect: and they all agreed that fraud is *baratry*, though not named in the covenant; but negligence might not. Mod. case 20 231.

Baratry of the mariners is a disease so epidemical on shipboard, that it is very rare for a master, be his industry never so great, to prevent it; a span of villainy on shipboard soon spreads out to a cloud, for no other cause but of that circular encouragement that one knavish mariner gives another. However, the law does in such cases impute offences and faults committed by them to be negligence in the master; and, were it otherwise, the merchant would be in a very dangerous condition. Molloy.

The reasons why they ought to be responsible are, for that the mariners are of their own chusing, and under his correction and government, and know no other superior on shipboard but himself; and, if they are faulty, he may correct and punish them, and justify the same by law: and likewise, if the fact is apparently proved against them, may reimburse himself out of their wages. Roll's Abridg. 533.

And therefore, in all cases, whereforever the merchant loads aboard any goods or merchandizes, if they be lost, imbezzled, or any other ways damaged, he must be responsible for them; for the very lading them aboard makes them liable, and that as well by the common law as the law marine. 1 Ven. 190, 238. Raym. 220. 1 Mod. 85.

Nay, if his mariners go with the ship-boat to the key or wharf, to fetch goods on shipboard, if once they have taken charge of them, the master becomes immediately responsible, if they steal, lose, damnify, or imbezzle them.

A master of a ship is more than one, who, for his knowledge in navigation, fidelity, and discretion, hath the government of the ship committed to his care and management; and, by the common law (by which properties are to be guided) he hath no property, either general or special, by the constituting of him a master; yet the law looks upon him as an officer, who must render and give an account for the whole charge, when once committed to his care and custody; and, upon failure, to render satisfaction: and, therefore, if misfortunes happen, either through negligence, wilfulness, or ignorance of himself, or his mariners, he must be responsible.

In Chancery.

A, master of a ship, so appointed by B, owner, treats with the plaintiff to take the ship to freight for 80 tons, to sail from London to Falmouth, and so from thence to Barcelona, without altering the voyage; and there to unlade, at a certain rate per ton: and, to perform this, the master obliges the ship, and what was therein, valued at 300l.; and, accordingly, a charter-party was made and sealed, between the master and the merchant; but the owners of the ship were no parties thereunto. The master deviates, and commits *baratry*, and the merchant, in effect, loses his voyage and goods; for the merchandize being fish, came not till Lent was past, and were rotten. The merchant's factor thereupon sueth the master in the court of admiralty at Barcelona, and, upon appeal to a higher court in Spain, hath sentence against the master and the ship; which coming to his hands (viz. the merchant's hands) the owner brings an action of *trover* for the ship: the master sues in Chancery to stop this suit, and another suit brought for the owner for freight, claiming deductions out of both, for his damages sustained by the master, for the breach of the articles by the master; for, if the owner gives authority to the master to contract, he shall bear the loss; but, in case of bottomry, after a voyage begun, the master cannot oblige the owner beyond the value of the ship: but this case is on contract.

Lord chancellor. The charter-party values the ship at a certain rate, and you shall not oblige the owners farther, and that only with relation to the freight, not to the value of the ship; the master is liable to the deviation and *baratry*, but not the owners; else masters should be owners of all men's ships and estates. Mich. 29 Car. II.

But, where the master of the ship took beef, sails, &c. on credit, and failed, the owners were obliged to pay, and not allowed to defend themselves by insisting that the master was liable only, and that they had given him money to pay the plaintiff. He is but their servant, and, where he buys, they are liable, and continue so, if he has not paid the creditors, though they gave him money for that purpose. 2 Vern. 643. If any fault in the master or mariners be committed in any port, haven, river, or creek, or any other place which is *infra corpus comitatus* the common law shall have jurisdiction

tion to answer the party damaged, and not the admiralty [see ADMIRALTY] but, if the same be committed super altum mare, the admiralty shall have jurisdiction of the same; yet, if it be on a place where there is divisum imperium, then, according to the flux or reflux, the admiralty may challenge; the other of common right belonging to the common law. 5 Co. 1707. Mod. 891. 916.

The common law is the over-ruling jurisdiction in this realm; and they are to intitle themselves well who would draw a thing out of it. Lord Raym. 272.

And, therefore, as soon as merchandizes and other commodities are put aboard the ship, whether she be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the seas, he that is exercitor navis is chargeable therewith; and if the same be there lost or purloined, or sustain any damage, hurt, or loss, whether in the haven or port before, or upon the seas, after she is in her voyage; whether it be by mariners, or by any other through their permission; he that is exercitor navis must answer the damage, for that the very lading of the goods aboard the ship does subject the master to answer the same. F. Naut. cap. stab. leg. 1. sec. 2, 3, 6, 7. And with this agrees the common law, where it was adjudged, that goods being sent aboard a ship, and the master having signed the bills of lading for the same, the goods were stowed, and, in the night, divers persons, under the pretence that they were pres-masters, entered the ship, and robbed her of these goods; the merchant brought an action at the common law against the master; and the question was, whether he should answer for the same? It was alledged, on his part, that there was no default or negligence in him, for he had a sufficient guard; the goods were all locked up under hatches; the thieves came as pres-masters, and by force robbed the ship; and that the same was vis major, and that he could not have prevented the same: and, lastly, that though he was called master, or exercitor navis, yet he had no share in the ship, and was but in the nature of a servant, acting for a salary.—But, notwithstanding, it was adjudged for the plaintiff; for at his peril he must see that all things be forth-coming that are delivered to him, let what accident soever happen (the act of God, or an enemy, perils and dangers of the sea, only excepted) he being looked upon by the law as a common carrier; and that, though he receives a salary, yet he is a known and public officer, and the plaintiff hath his election to charge either master or owner, or both, at his pleasure, but can have but one satisfaction. Molloy.

Thomas Knight, Esq; against Richard Cambridge.

This case shewing the nature of baratry, I shall give it at large, as delivered by lord Raymond.

Cambridge brought a writ of error, upon a judgment given against him in the Common-Pleas, in an action brought by the plaintiff upon a policy of insurance of the ship Riga Merchant, at and from Port Mahone to London. And serjeant Braithwaite for the plaintiff in error insisted, that the judgment was erroneous, because the breach was ill assigned: because the policy was, that the defendant Cambridge should insure the said ship, among other things, against the baratry of the master, and all other dangers, damages, and misfortunes, which should happen to the prejudice and damage of the said ship; and the breach assigned was, that the ship, in the said voyage, per fraudem & negligentiam magistris navis prædictæ depressa & submersa fuit, & totaliter perditæ & amissa fuit, & nullius valoris devenit. This, he insisted, was not within the meaning of the word baratry, but the breach should have been expressed, that the ship was lost by the baratry of the master. Besides, the owner of the goods has a remedy against the owners of the ship, for any prejudice he receives by the fraud or neglect of the master; and, therefore, there is the less reason the insurer should be liable. Besides, if the word baratry should import fraud, yet it does not import neglect; and the fact here alledged is, that the ship was lost by the fraud and neglect of the master. But the court was unanimously of opinion, that there was no occasion to aver the fact in the very words of the policy, but, if the fact alledged came within the meaning of the words in the policy, it is sufficient. Now baratry imports fraud, Du Fresne Glossar. verbo barataria, fraus, dolus: and he that commits a fraud, may properly be said to be guilty of a neglect, viz. of his duty. Baratry of a master is not to be confined to the master's running away with the ship; and the general words of the policy ought to be construed to extend to losses of the like nature as those mentioned before: now losses arising from the fraud of the master, are of the same nature as if he had run away with the ship, supposing baratry was to be confined to that, which it is not, because it imports any fraud. And judgment was affirmed; April 27, 1724. Lord Raym. 1349.

BARB, a Barbary horse. Barbs are very much esteemed for their strength and their swiftness, and more skill, perhaps, on account of their scarcity. They are commonly of a slim shape, and have very thin legs. They are used both for the saddle and for coaches; and they make exceeding good stallions for studs. In order to distinguish them, they use in France to hang under the horse's throat, especially to coach-

horses, a kind of beard made of horse-hair, commonly dyed red.

The French consuls, who reside in the towns of Barbary, do pretty often ship off barbs, either for the use of persons of quality who desire them, or which they send into France for their own account. But skilful judges do not much value the horses that are thus sent over, there being always many bad ones among them; because the consuls, whatever good intentions they may have, are commonly much better skilled in other trades than that of horse-flesh.

When the French king would have barbs for his studs or stables, he commits the care of buying them to one of his grooms, or equerries, who commonly passes for an envoy to the African princes, notwithstanding which title he is obliged to pay duty for the horses he buys.

That duty is not the same in all places, and there are often great extortions practised, before the horse be on shipboard, those barbarians having no other view but to impose upon the Europeans who trade with them. At the Bastion of France 13 piafters are paid for duty of exportation for every horse, namely, 10 to the governor, two to the captain, and one to the interpreter.

BARBARY in general. This vast tract of ground is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which divides it from Europe; on the east by Egypt, on the south, by Sara or the desert, and on the west by the Atlantic, or western ocean. It's utmost extent from east to west, that is, from cape Non, on the most western coast of Morocco, to the confines of Egypt, is almost 37 degrees, that is, from 10 degrees western to 26½ degrees eastern longitude, or about 2200 miles: as for it's breadth from north to south, it is very unequal; in some parts not above 6 or 7 degrees; and where widest, as from cape Non, above-mentioned, to Tangier, not above 10 degrees, or 600 miles; but, we must observe, that most geographers have given it a much greater extent both ways; some of them as far as 4000 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth; which can only be meant, including the creeks and windings, which are too precarious and unknown to be depended upon.

Barbary is, next to Egypt, the most fruitful, trading, and populous part of Afric. The soil abounds with plenty and variety of grain and fruits, especially citrons, oranges, dates, figs, olives, grapes, pomegranates, almonds, &c. in all which the inhabitants drive a considerable traffic, as well as in coral, Morocco leather, Barbary horses, and other commodities, as we shall have occasion to mention in the trade of each particular kingdom. The air is temperate, though hot, being refreshed by constant breezes from the Mediterranean.

The kingdom of **BARCA**, under the government or bashawship of Tripoli, being for the most part a barren desert, and having no commerce of any consequence; it will not be expected to have any place in this work.

The kingdom of **TRIPOLI**.

Tripoli Proper, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Barca, on the south by the Sara, or Great Desert, and on the west, partly by Tunis, and partly by B'edulgerid. It is variously divided, as first, into maritime and inland, or into five principal provinces or districts, viz. 1. Tripoli, properly so called. 2. Eflab. 3. Messellata. 4. Mzerata, or Mezerata, or the antient Cyrenaca; and 5. Barca, or antient Marmorica, now part of this bashawship. It hath a great number of cities in each of the four former provinces, and some of them very large, trading, and populous, as well in the inland, as on the coasts; but chiefly in the latter, where, besides their several manufactures and commerce, they carry on the piratical business to great advantage to themselves, though to the great hazard and loss of the European nations trading on the Mediterranean. According to this distinction of maritime and inland, the principal cities in the former are, 1. In Tripoli Proper, Copez, Bibana, Znora, Zavia, Cgarbia, tower of Arzaria, Zouaga, or Old Tripoli; the New Tripoli, Lebeda Tagara, and some few of less note.

2. In the province of Mozarat, or Mzerata, the capital Tuchia Ziliten, &c.

3. On the gulph or bay of Sidra, Colbene, Smeida, Sbica, Arcadia Serte, Naim, Tini, Porto de Sabi, Stagno, Zoara, Zamera, Corcaura, Mirelle, alias Millic, Bernich, Bengasi, and Tolometta; the three last on the coast of Derna.

In the inland part of Tripoli Proper, the chief places are mount Riaina, mount Fissato, mount Gefren, or Gueson; the towns of Taronia, or Taorbona; the other parts in Ibai Valid, Mefda, and mount Guibet or Atlas; which last divides it from the kingdom of Faifan, the country of Haicha, the desert of Ezzab, the territory of Benofetta, so called from it's capital, a small town; and the desert of Ouguila, or Auguila; in which are Auquela the capital, Siv-ab, or St. Rio, and the mount Muyes.

TRIPOLI PROPER, which we begin with, not as being the next in course to Barca, but on account of its being the most considerable province in this state; it hath Tunis on the west, from which it is parted by the river Capuz, or Caps, which rises out of a sandy desert on the south, near mount Vallalat, and falls into the Mediterranean.

There is a very hot spring near the town of Albiamma, which is conveyed thither by an aqueduct; but the water is so hot and sulphureous, that it is hardly drinkable, till after it hath been exposed twenty-four hours to the air. Near the spring is a pool called the Leper's-lake, because it cures that distemper. This city did once vie with Tunis, and is affirmed to have excelled it in the quantity of gold, silver, pearls, and precious stones, besides other sorts of rich commodities. It had also, we are told, near one hundred and fifty different trades belonging to the silk-manufactures, besides a great number of others belonging to that of the camblets, cotton, and other stuffs. At present, all these branches of traffic are much decayed; it now chiefly consists in the great quantities of asses brought thither by the Arabians, and mostly bought up by the French, for making glass and soap.

CAPES, or CAPS, CABEZ, CAPEZ, supposed the antient **TACAPE**, is a good large town, well walled and fortified, and situate on a bay of it's name, defended by a stout fort, at the mouth of the hot river before-mentioned. It made a very great figure in the time of the Romans, but underwent so many strange vicissitudes from the Goths, and other barbarous nations, and is at present so much exposed to the excursions of the Arabs, that it is only inhabited by a parcel of poor fishermen and husbandmen; but the soil about it is very sandy and barren, and produces but a little corn, and some dates.

The gulph of **SIDRA**. This large bay, antiently called **Syrts Magna**, lies on the same coast, between the country of **Mfarata** on the west, and the kingdom of **Barca** on the east, and hath the desert of **Serte** on the south.

They scarcely carry on any trade, but that of fishing and piracy. Yet some few there are, both here and at **Mfarata**, who trade in European commodities, which they send into the country of the blacks, and exchange them for negro-slaves, civet, and musk, which yield them a considerable profit in Turkey.

The country of **FAISAN, or FASSAN.**

South of Tripoli, and between it and Sara, or the desert, is the country of **Faisan, or Fassan**, a district under it's own particular government, and containing twenty-eight cities or towns, one the capital of it's name, and about one hundred villages. The country abounds in dates, and the inhabitants are esteemed rich, especially by the trade they drive in negro-slaves.

Just westward of **Faisan**, is the small territory of **GADAMIS, or GUEDEMIS**, on the confines of **Biledulgerid**, and **Vhergela** on the west. It is a very rich district, under a government of it's own, and drives a considerable trade in slaves and dates.

The kingdom of **TUNIS.**

This is the country, which formerly was the once celebrated republic of Carthage; and which, in the utmost extent of it's conquests, contained a much larger territory than it hath since, or doth now, it antiently possessing the provinces of **Constantina**, **Bugia**, **Tripoli**, **Tunis**, and **Ezzab**, and stretching along the coasts, above 120 leagues. It hath since lost them all, except that of it's own name, and is reduced now within a very little compass, being bound on the east by **Tripoli**, on the west by the river **Gualdibarbar**, which parts it from **Constantina**, and on the south by **Biledulgerid**. So that it's utmost extent, from east to west, is only from the 7 min. 30 deg. to 11 min. 30 deg. of east longitude, or at most 60 leagues, and about 135 from north to south.

The soil and climate is much the same with that of **Tripoli**, except that it is a little more fertile towards the west, being watered by some good rivers.

The Moorish kings, whilst in possession of this country, used to coin several sorts of money; as particularly those called **sultanians**, which were of gold, and weighed about twenty-four carats; the **rosaras**, which were of silver, and of a square figure. They use likewise the **aspers**, **dubbes**, and **barbas**, which bear the same price here that they do at **Algier**. The greatest commerce consists in oil, olives, dates, soap, kali or ashes, ostrich-feathers, camels, and horses. Olives they have in such plenty, that they can send vast quantities of oil abroad, and make their charcoal of the wood; which is almost the only one they have for that, or any other use. Their many vallies, between those high mountains, afford plenty of corn, fruit, and pasture; and they breed great quantities of horses and camels, which sell here very cheap.

They abound likewise with variety of game, as well as of wild beasts. Their rivers afford them plenty of fish; as for other provision, such as rice, pulse, &c. they are forced to have them from abroad.

Tunis is said to owe most of it's strength and beauty to the Arabs, who came hither from Carthage, where they did not think themselves so safe, and raised it to that degree of grandeur and strength it hath since appeared in; for the many revolutions it hath undergone from the **Vandals**, **Arabs**, **Spaniards**, **Turks**, &c. had reduced it to a very low and mean condition. It is now so populous, that it is computed to contain ten thousand families, and three thousand shops, where they sell linnen and woollen; and the **Venetians** and **Genoese** are the two European nations that drive the greatest commerce with them. A great part of the inhabitants, both

within the city and suburbs, are employed in the linnen manufacture, which is here the finest in all Africa; their thread being the most delicate and best twilled; and it is of this that they weave that superfine cloth, of which they make those turbans called **tunecis**, so highly esteemed by the **Turks** and **Moors**. But their most advantageous business is piracy, in which they excel their neighbours, especially in the number of christian slaves they make, and of which here is no inconsiderable number.

The province of **Sousa, or Susa**, is so called from it's capital, an ancient Roman city; built upon a rock near the seaside, over-against the island of **Pentileria**, and one of the nearest to **Sicily**, of any African cities. It hath a commodious large haven, where the pirates revel in safety, and the inhabitants, though mostly seamen, are reckoned a civil and trading people. Some of the meaner sort about the city follow the business of weaving, others of making earthen ware, and breeding of cattle. The territory is fertile in barley, figs, olives, dates, and pasture grounds.

The city of **Soufa** is strong, well walled, and is defended by a good stout castle and garrison. It drives a pretty good trade in oil, honey, wax, and especially in the tunny fish, which is here caught and pickled, and in great request.

ALGIER PROPER. This province is so called from it's capital, the present metropolis of the kingdom. It is one of the four parts of the antient kingdom of **Tremecen**, or **Tremizan**, alias **Telenfine**. It is bounded on the east by **Bugia**, on the west by **Tenez**, by the **Atlas** on the south, and by the **Mediterranean**, from the mouth of the **Chinelaf** to the northern confines of **Bugia**. The territory of **Algier** is fertile in fruits, and the plain of **Moligia** produces corn, barley, and oats, two or three times a year, besides other grain. The melons are of exquisite taste, some of which ripen in summer, and others in winter. Their vines are very large and thick, and the bunches of grapes commonly a foot and half long. There are several sorts of manufactures carried on here, especially of the silken kind, and mostly by the **Andalusian** and **Granadan Spaniards**; the commerce of the city is still more considerable; but that which enriches it most, is their piracy. The coin used here is mostly foreign, as the **Turkish sultanians** of gold, worth about a ducat; the **moticales** of **Fez**, worth about two shillings; **Spanish royals**, **French crowns**, **Hungarian ducats**, &c. That which is coined here is the **barbas** worth half an asper, a small square piece of silver, fifteen whereof make a **Spanish royal**, and a **doblas** worth about a crown.—At **Tremecen** they coin pieces of gold, called **rubios**, and worth about 35 aspers, **medians** worth 501, and **zians** worth 100.

The province of **BENI-ARAXID, or BENI-RAZID**, so called from it's inhabitants, who are **Bereberes**; it is one of the dependencies on **Algier**, situate on very high ground, and about 17 leagues in length, and 9 in breadth. All the south part of it is a plain champaign country, and the north very mountainous, but interlaced with fertile vallies, abounding with corn, honey, and pasture-grounds; and the whole province producing plenty of jujubes, figs, and other excellent fruit. It's four chief towns are **Beni-Arax**, the capital, **Calaa**, **El Mohascar**, and **Batha**.

BENI-ARAX, is the most ancient and considerable, and hath above two thousand houses, and a great number of persons of quality and wealth.

CALAA, is the next town of note; it hath a good number of merchants and artificers, who live very comfortably.

EL MOHASCAR, is a large open town: it hath a market every Thursday, to which the **Bereberes**, **Azuagues**, and **Arabs**, repair to sell their cattle, corn, barley, dried figs, and raisins, honey, wax, oil, &c. and the merchants of **Tremecen**, their cloths, linnen, camblets, bridles, saddles, and other such-like commodities.

The province of **MILIANA, or MAGNANA**, so called from it's capital, and situate on the south and east of **Algier Proper**, and joined on the west to **Beni-Araxid**, is chiefly inhabited by a rude people, whose principal business is weaving of linnen cloths, and making of saddles, after the **Morisco** fashion. It was formerly part of the kingdom of **Tremecen**, but was subdued to **Algier**, by the pirate **Barbarossa**.

The capital, antiently called **Magnana**, and **Manliana**, was built by the **Romans** on a high and craggy hill, with a deep valley at the bottom, about 57 miles south-west of **Algier**.

The territory about it is so covered with walnut-trees, that they are obliged to leave one half of the nuts to rot on the ground. Besides the two manufactures above-mentioned, the people here are very curious in turning a sort of wooden ware, chiefly for drinking, which is in great request. They have the finest citrons and oranges in all **Barbary**, which they send to **Tenez**, **Algiers**, and other places.

The province of **SARGEL**, is so called from it's capital, and is one of those governments that have been dismembered from that of **Tenez Proper**, and situate between that and **Algier**. It is a maritime country, very fruitful, and well peopled. It yields plenty of corn, flax, hemp, fruits, and especially mulberries, with which the inhabitants of **Sargel** breed great quantities of silk-worms, which is their chief manufacture. On the coast, about six miles from that city, is the famed

mountain of it's name, called by the Turks Carapula, and by the Moors Girafumar, which is of such prodigious height, that a ship may be discovered 12, some say 20, leagues off at sea. Between that mountain and the city, runs a river, on which are a great many corn and other mills. The two chief towns in this district, are Sargal and Brekar. Sargal is an ancient city, supposed the Chanuceit of Ptolemy, situate between Tenez and Algier, and about fifteen leagues from either by sea, though not above ten by land. The town hath above fifty thousand houses, chiefly employed in the silken trade, and can, upon an emergency, furnish some thousands of dexterous archers; and, indeed, it's chief strength consists in the riches, number, and stoutness of it's inhabitants.

The province of HUMANBAR, is the most western maritime province of the Algerine kingdom. The country is partly hilly, and partly champaign, but both are fertile in corn, flax, cotton, fruit, &c. Here are two high mountains, the one called Tarara, the other Gnathafus; the latter inhabited by a savage, distressed, yet industrious, people, called the tribe of the Bereberes: they sow some corn, breed quantities of cattle, and work at the iron mines, which are on this mountain; and which employ numbers to make charcoal for the purpose of smelting and refining their iron.

PTOLEMY, is situate on a plane, three miles from the sea. It hath a river that runs by it, whose banks are covered with variety of fruit-trees, and the adjacent mountains bear a sort of tree called carrabers, the fruit of which is so sweet, that the people make a kind of honey of it, which they eat all the year round. The inhabitants sow great quantities of wheat and barley, breed great herds of cattle, weave the finest cotton cloths in all Barbary, and drive a great trade with them; but they are forced to pay such taxes to the dey of Algier for that liberty, that it runs away with the profit.

The province of ANGA, or ANGUED.

Guagida, an ancient city built by the natives, in a fertile and delightful plain. Here are some of the finest mules in all Africa, which are sent and sold at Tremecen, and thence into all parts of Asia and Europe.

The province of TREMECEN, is a small province of the Algerine kingdom, reaching only in length from east to west, from the confines of Anga to those of Fez, and from north to south, from the sea to the desert of Atlas. However the country is well watered, and produces plenty of corn, and variety of fruits and cattle.

The merchants chiefly trade into the country of the blacks, where they exchange their merchandizes for Tiber gold, ambergrace, musk, civet, African bezoar, elephants teeth, negro slaves, &c. and this traffic is so advantageous to them, that two or three such journeys are sufficient to enrich a man; and so it should, considering the length and difficulty of it, through such vast sandy deserts, and the danger they run from the sands, heat, drought, and especially from the plundering Arabs.

The city of Tremecen, has a considerable number of corn and other mills, on the river Ceffia. Great quantities of oil are made within this circuit, as well as excellent grapes dried and sent abroad. They have likewise variety of manufactures, especially those of weaving, both silk and cotton, and linnen carpets, &c. in the neatness of which they excel to a great degree; inasmuch that some of their mantles will scarce weigh ten ounces. They are likewise famed for their fine saddles, stirrups, bridles, &c. which are made after the Morisco fashion. Tefzara is a large town; most of it's inhabitants are employed in the neighbouring iron mines, or in the manufacture of that commodity, which is it's chief commerce, and is hence carried to Tremecen, and elsewhere.

The province of ZEB, or ZAB, joins on the north to the mountains of Bugia and Constantina, on the east to Biledulgerid, on the west to the desert of Mazila, and on the south to the desert, through which the caravans go from Tocart to Guargela and Quefkelen.—The country is hot and sandy, full of poisonous creatures, but is plentiful in dates and water, which makes it be so populous.—It's commerce is chiefly with the blacks, by which they enrich themselves.

The province of TEGORARIN, or TAGURINI, is bounded on the east by Biledulgerid and Zeb, on the west by Segelmessa, on the north by Algiers, and on the south by Zara, or the Great Desert. The inhabitants daily increase in wealth by their traffic with the blacks; and it is in this territory that the merchants meet to form themselves into caravans, in order to cross the vast deserts of Lybia. The land here is so dry and barren, that it requires a great deal of watering and manure before it can be made to bear either corn, barley, or hardly any thing but dates, which do, indeed, grow in great plenty. Flesh is scarce and dear amongst them, for want of pasture; a few goats they have, and feed upon their milk; they eat horse and camel's flesh, but do not kill them till they are old and past labour; and these they purchase of the Arabs, who bring them to their markets.

The province of SEGELMESSA, or SUGULMESSA, is bounded on the west by Dara, by Zeb and Mazzeb on the east, by part of the Great Atlas on the north, and on the south extends itself to the desert of Lybia, and is chiefly inhabited by

the Bereberes. It is a large territory, extending itself above 230 miles, Moll says 500 in length, and 300 in breadth. They have little commerce, and therefore are uncivilized and savage among themselves. They sow no great quantity of corn, and feed chiefly on dates, figs, raisins, peaches, olives, flags, and such flesh as the Arabs drive thither for sale. The people are chiefly employed, either in the culture of lands, or in the tanning trade, but are poor and miserable, as well as brutal, for want of commerce, which renders all nations otherwise, wherein it is duly cultivated.

The province of TAFLET, was formerly the seat of the kings thereof, but now subject to the king of Morocco. It is a long tract of land, running almost north-west and south-east, bounded on the north by Fez and Tremecen, on the east by Segelmessa; on the south by Sara, or the desert; on the west by Morocco and Sus. The country is mountainous, yet bears some corn and other fruits, plenty of dates and some indigo, and hath good pasture grounds, both on the hills and vallies, especially along the sides of the river; but for the most part is so dry and barren, that only the chiefs and alcaids, who are the nobles, can afford themselves corn, whilst the common sort live only on dates and camel's flesh. Water is likewise so scarce, where they are at a distance from rivers, that they are obliged to save, in winter, what rain-water falls, to serve them in summer.

The principal commerce of this country is a sort of fine leather, and of indigo; which latter, though made of that plant which grows wild, and in great quantities, doth yet give a deeper, more lively, and permanent dye, than that which is cultivated with so much pains in America, according to Labat. They deal considerably in striped silks and linnen, after the Morisco fashion. But their most considerable export is that of dates, and of a species of leather they make of a peculiar beast among them, called lanto.

Tafilet, a town which stands by the river of it's name, in the kingdom of Tafilet. It contains about 2000 houses, inhabited mostly by Bereberes, called Filelis, who are ingenious, industrious, and rich. Their chief manufactures, besides the silks and leather above mentioned, are a kind of fine coffees, carpets, and other coverings, of a very fine texture. They make good indigo and Morocco leather; and this town is the great rendezvous for the European and Barbary merchants. There are various other provinces, which may be said to come within the boundaries of Barbary; but, as they afford us no matter for commercial consideration, we shall pass them over, and touch only upon the

NIGER, or SANAGO river, the one being esteemed, by the most accurate geographers, a part of the other. The Europeans have been able to trace this but part of the way, beyond which they know nothing of its course, but what is learnt from the Mandingo negroes, who, among all the blacks, are the most addicted to travelling and traffic, but are neither expert enough in their observations, nor have gone far enough to know any thing of its real source, since they place it no higher, according to Labat, than the lake Maberia, in the kingdom of Tombut, which is little more than half way to that of the Nile.

Others, with Labat, have stretched it's course back eastward, to the lake Bournow, which lies under the 18th degree of latitude, and 19th of east longitude, and fix it's spring-head there, it being difficult to trace it further, on account of the dangers of such an attempt from the supposed barrenness of the country, but rather from the savage disposition of the inhabitants, who live beyond it; and who can never be rendered humane and civilized, till the Europeans take wise and honest measures to make them so.

'Tis certain, however, that the Sanaga is a very large and considerable river, and of very great extent in it's course, even though we should trace it's spring-head no farther than the lake Bournow. But, if we suppose it to spring from the same head with the Nile, it will then cross almost the whole country of Africa where it is widest, and will have a course of near 50 degrees from east to west, exclusive of it's windings. The entrance into it is narrow and somewhat difficult, by reason of it's immovable bar and sandy shoals, as well as the several islands that are at the mouth of it, and the several canals and marshes that clog it; of which we shall give a more distinct account, when we come to speak of Negroland, and of the several settlements of the Europeans on these islands. But, after sailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep, and fit to carry large vessels; and except about five or six leagues on each side above the mouth, which is a sandy and barren ground, all the rest, as far as the lake Maberia, the banks are covered with stately fruit-trees and villages, and the country well watered, and very fertile for a great way; for like the Nile it overflows it for many leagues, and enriches the land to a great degree, and would do so still more, if the inhabitants were as expert and industrious in making all the advantages they can of it; but that is not the case, though the people on both sides live as near to it as they can, and feed great herds of cattle, and sow large and small millet, the former whereof is what we call the Turkey wheat, in great quantities, and with great increase. As the Senaga receives many considerable rivers in its course,

which swell it high enough to be able at all times to carry vessels of 40 or 50 tons, so it splits itself into several branches, which, re-uniting again, do form very large and fertile islands, well filled with towns, villages, and inhabitants.

The most noted towns for largeness and number, are Bequio, or Bifeche, situate between the great stream, and the branch of its name, otherwise called Corow river, and is about 35 leagues in length, and in some parts 12 or 15 in breadth, and intersected with a great number of smaller streams and canals, which makes it resemble a group of small isles, covered with palm and other fruit-trees, and other verdure, as well as towns and villages. This island reaches almost to the mouth of the great river.

Above that is another called the island Morphil, from the stream that incloses it on the other side, and is no less than 80 leagues in length, and 8 or 10 in breadth, where widest; hath a considerable number of large villages, well peopled, and who drive a great trade in elephants teeth, which the negroes call Morphil. Adjoining to that, and parted only by a canal, is another called by the inhabitants Bilbas, and is about 30 leagues long, and 5 or 6 broad. It is populous, and the negroes, who inhabit it, drive a good commerce in ivory, gold-dust, and some little plates of that metal flatted with the hammer of different shapes and sizes, chiefly used by the women, wherewith to adorn their hair.

These islands of Morphil and Bilbas belong to the kingdom of Firatic, or Fullis, whose prince and inhabitants are extremely obliging to strangers; and, besides their populousness and fertility, abound with great variety of peculiar trees, herbs, and roots. They breed likewise divers sorts of cattle, and other animals, fowls in great abundance, and have plenty of cotton which they manufacture.

About four or five leagues east of the island Bilbas, is a small one called Sadel, belonging now to the French African company, to whose director-general, Mr. Brue, the king of Siatric gave it, anno 1701. But, as that prince's kingdom extends itself a prodigious way on the other side of the Senaga, we shall refer the fuller account thereof to the article of NEGROLAND.

The province of ZANHAGA, or ZENEGA.

This large territory extends itself from the river Suz, which parts it from Morocco on the north, to that of Sanago on the south; that is, from the 17th to the 28th degree of latitude, and is bounded on the east by the territory of Serem, Sunda, and Zuenziga, and on the west by the Atlantic ocean. It is inhabited by several nations, such as the Berviches, Ludays, Duleynes, and Zenegui, besides some tribes of Arabs, which latter live for the most part upon the former, and carry off whole droves of their cattle, which they exchange at Dara. In this province are the two deserts of Azoa and Taguzza, or Tagooft, the last of which produces a vast quantity of rock-salt, which is conveyed hence into all parts of the desert, and Negroland.—This country is so flat and sandy, without either trees, mountains, towns, woods, or rivers, for a traveller to steer his way by, that it is next to impossible not to miss his road in so long a tract. The traders who travel into these parts, guide themselves by the stars, as they mostly travel in the night, by reason of the excessive heat. Here are neither cities nor towns of note. The people subsist mostly on dates, and the milk of their flocks, except they chance to kill some wild goats and other game, which are very scarce.

The kingdom of GUALATA is south of Zanhaga (though geographers disagree about its situation and boundaries) whose inhabitants are called Benais; they are rude and unpolished, though courteous enough to those with whom they traffic. Zanhaga lies on the north, the river of that name on the south, the ocean on the west, and the Zunda and Zuenziga on the east. It is poor and barren, corn and flesh of all sorts are very dear; they have neither learning nor judges among them, though, in their commerce, they make use of the Arabic characters. They are subject to the kings of Zanhaga, and Tombut; while they had sovereigns of their own, they had a considerable commerce.

The province or desert of ZUENZIGA, is still more barren and desert than the two last. It hath these two countries on the west, Sunda and the desert of Cogden on the north, Twarges and Zanfara on the east, and the desert of Ghiri, or the river of Sanago, on the south.—The limits and situation of these desert provinces are not agreed on by the African geographers: according to some of the more accurate, it is said to be the common thoroughfare of the merchants and caravans that go from Tremecen to the kingdoms of Tombut, Agades, Yzza, &c. though extremely hazardous for want of water. The inhabitants are partly native Africans, and partly Arabs; the latter are exceeding rich in cattle, with which they wander for fresh pasture as far as the kingdom of Yguid.

The province or desert of TARGA, or HAIR, and TWARGES, hath its first name from the desert, and the second from the people that inhabit it, whom some geographers have stiled Twarges, or Terges. Some of them have taken Hair for the chief city in the province, though Leo Africanus rather calls it a desert; but neither Targa nor Hair are mentioned by him as cities, neither doth it appear to have any. The truth is, we know but little of those deserts. We are, however,

pretty well assured, that it is neither so dry and barren as those we have gone through, nor so sultry and unwholesome. It hath many good wells of water, though generally deep; the lands produce grass, and several sorts of herbage. Great quantities of manna are found here, especially towards the frontiers of Agades. The inhabitants gather it in calabasses, and export it for sale. The negroes dissolve it in the water wherein they dress their meat, and esteem it very cooling and salubrious, and think it owing to that, that the people are more healthy here than in Tombut, though the air be not so good. The Arabs and Barbars, which are here very numerous, make a great trade of catching of negroes, and selling them for slaves.

South of Targa is the desert of Agades. And farther south the kingdom of Zanfara, or Janfara, which begins to assume the face of a fertile country, producing corn, rice, Turkey wheat, and cotton in abundance.

The province or desert of IGUIDI, or YGUIDI, and LEMPTA. The former, Yguidi, or, as Mr. De L'Isle writes it, Iguidi, is the name of the country, and Lempta, or Lemptunes, that of the inhabitants. This country is still more unknown to us, as it draws farther from the sea-coast, and is more barren and miserable than any we have seen yet in the whole tract of this long desert. It is besides very dangerous for travellers, not only on account of its excessive heat and drought, but likewise on account of the brutish fierceness of its inhabitants, who are a wild breed of native Africans, that rob all that come in their way, and kill all that resist them. It is the thoroughfare for the merchants and caravans that travel from Constantina and other towns of Algiers, Tunis, &c. into Negroland.

Farther east of Yguidi and Targa, lies the kingdom of Agades, or, as others write it, Agdes and Egdes, which hath the Sanago on the south, and Bordoia and Bournow on the east. It hath so much better a soil, as it produces much grass for the numerous herds they feed on it, especially on the south side, that it is divided into two districts, viz. the northern stiled desert, and the southern, or fertile. Mr. De L'Isle mentions three principal towns in this kingdom, viz. Agades the capital, Deghir, and Secmara, and takes notice of great quantities of good fenna that is gathered in this country.

The province of BERDOIA, which hath Faifan and Barca on the north, Bournow on the south, Nubia on the east, and extends itself from the 16th to the 22d degree of east longitude, and from the 20th to the 23d of north latitude, and farther; but is all a frightful desert beyond it. It is said to be so called from its capital, which lies directly under the tropic of Cancer; but De L'Isle says, on the contrary, that that is the name of its inhabitants, who live together in tents, and upon the plunder of the merchants and passengers. On the northern confines, near the mountains which part this country from the kingdom of Tripoli, stands the town of Zalla, where are kept some considerable fairs. The country in general is very dry and barren. South of Berdoia lies

The province of BORNO, or BOURNOW, situate between Gaoga on the east, the Sanago on the south, Cano and Agades on the west. It is a despotick kingdom, and extends itself from 13 to 22 degrees of longitude east, and from 17 to 21 of latitude, but is far from deserving to be ranked among the deserts of Zahara, except towards the northern parts of it; but all the rest is well watered by springs and rivers, descending from the mountains, and produces corn, and several sorts of fruits. On the north-west stands the mountain of Tanton, which hath some good iron mines, which they know not how to work to advantage; and, on the north-east, runs the most desert part of all. On the South flows the Niger, or Sanago.

The eastern and western parts, which are partly flat, and partly mountainous, are inhabited by a people that live in tents, have their women and children in common. The mountains are covered with herds of cattle, and some of them produce also millet and cotton. But the people here, though they bear the aspect of the human species, yet seem to be but a small remove from the brute creation.—Those who reside in towns, indeed, are more tractable and polite, by reason of their being merchants, manufacturers, and artificers, of all countries and complexions. The king, who is here absolute, is said to be so rich, according to Baudrand and Dapper, that all his household furniture, even down to his spurs and stirrups, &c. are all of pure gold.

The chief places in this kingdom are, Borno, the capital, Amazen, Sagra, Semegonda, which lie northward of the first; and, eastward of it, are those of Nebrina and Sama. We know but little of them, except that the capital is situate upon the northern bank of the Sanago, near the frontiers of Cano, and drives a good commerce with all the neighbouring countries.

The province, or kingdom, of GAOGA, or KAUGHA. This is the most eastern, and last province, of this extensive desert of Zahara, it being contiguous on the north-east to Egypt, and on the east to Nubia. On the west it hath the kingdoms of Bardoa and Bournow; on the north, part of Bardoa, and, on the south, according to some, by the Niger, and, according to others, by the Bar-el-Abrad, which falls into the Nile. The country is mostly mountainous, and the people

very rude and illiterate, and go almost naked. Leo Africanus tells us that they live in poor slight huts, made of such combustible stuff, that they are frequently set on fire, and spread flames through their scattered hamlets. The breeding of great herds of cattle, both small and great, is their chief care and wealth.

R E M A R K S.

From a consideration of the trifling trade which there is in this large territory, it is no wonder that the people are savage, even to brutality: for it is certain that commerce with other nations, as well as within themselves, has a natural tendency to polish and humanize mankind in general: and, in consequence thereof, government has been established: so that it may be said with great truth, that mutual intercourses of home and foreign traffic have given birth to all those blessings which the whole human species enjoy, beyond the most brutal and barbarous nations; there being reason to believe, from what we experience amidst those nations which are destitute of commerce, that the whole race of men would have appeared but a small remove above the brute creation, had they contented themselves to live without the pursuits of commerce. If we contemplate the state our own nation, when our commerce was in its infancy, and compare ourselves then with what we are at present, there will appear to be almost as much difference as there is at present between some of the barbarian countries and our own. This consideration should give us just notions of the invaluable blessings of traffic, it being that which was the original parent of our arts and sciences, our literature and our government; for the inducement to cultivate letters arose from the influential motives of profit and honour; and, trade being necessarily productive thereof, that may be justly said to be the parent of all that we enjoy beyond the Hottentot.

And, if we were to trace the origin and progress of the commerce and navigation of all countries, from the history of the world, we shall find that they, as well as ourselves, are indebted to trade for the like enjoyments.

Since it is a true maxim, that by what means any thing is acquired, by the same it is preserved, it must ever be for the interest and glory of this nation to cherish and encourage to the utmost the commercial arts, which have been productive of all our felicity and grandeur. Whence it follows, that these studies cannot be too warmly and zealously promoted by those who wish well to mankind, and have any real regard to their country. What would our gentry, our nobility, or our sovereigns, be better than those of Barbary, was it not for commerce? Since this is indisputably the case, it is extraordinary that, hitherto, we have had no well-established institutions for the regular study and cultivation of those arts, which are so dear to our country, and so inestimable to our posterity!

We are behind no nation whatever in our charitable institutions; and why should there not be institutions to enable us the better to maintain those charities? Why should a trading nation be destitute of trading colleges? 'Tis trade that has given bread to the physician, the lawyer, and the divine: and why should not equal care be taken to breed up British merchants, as any of the other professions? A mercantile college, or a college for merchants, does not sound less agreeable, than a college for any other order of men whatever. We have one for the support of decayed merchants, and why not many to prevent their decay?

The commerce and the money affairs of the nation are the grand points of consideration which come before the legislature. But what do our young nobility and gentry, who are to represent a trading nation in parliament, ever hear of these matters at their colleges, either at home or abroad? Why also should not this kingdom have seminaries properly established and endowed, to bring up those to a perfect knowledge of trade who are to be the guardians of our trade? Is it, because trade is too well understood, by those who have the care and protection of it, that it needs no such establishments? Or, is this branch of knowledge to be obtained without any application, or regular course of study? This will not be said by those which are judges of the matter. Is a knowledge of trade, in a trading nation, an accomplishment unbecoming the gentleman? This will hardly be said either, since it is a frequent topic of conversation among some of the politest companies, and the standing subject of the capital debates of our parliament itself. If any gentleman can be weak enough to imagine that trade has no connection with his private interest, as a landed man, or as a monied man, he may then as well live among those barbarians where there is no trade, as in Great-Britain. When an acre of land is worth no more in England than it is in the deserts of Barbary, then gentlemen may have reason to contemn trade as beneath their regard. But, while trade is the chief cause of their wealth, their splendor, and dignity, it will ever be their interest, and that of their posterity, to study it in earnest, and promote and encourage it with zeal and alacrity.

As the knowledge of trade and money is the best accomplishment that the representative of a trading people can have, so it will hardly be thought any dishonour to him who shall re-

present his sovereign at foreign courts. Treaties of commerce with other nations are the most essential points that concern our national interests; and, for an ambassador to excel in the knowledge of commerce, is certainly no way repugnant to that high character.

When any extraordinary regulations with regard to trade are to take place in a trading country, we then more sensibly discern the utility and necessity of this knowledge. This is the case, at present, in Holland. His late royal highness the prince of Orange, it is said, took unspeakable pains to inform himself in this important subject; and it is plain enough, from his proposals to the States-General, that he found a knowledge in the practical, as well as the political nature of trade, absolutely necessary in those weighty considerations.

Here it may not be amiss to observe, that the great point under consideration at present, in Holland, is, the regulation of the duties upon merchandizes inwards and outwards, that being the most essential point to be settled in a nation whose dependence is upon foreign traffic. To which end, we find, in the prince's proposals, that it was necessary to inquire into the nature of every distinct species of goods, in order to know it's distinct and peculiar use and application in all their mechanical and manufactural arts; without which it being impossible to make a true judgment what commodities ought to pay duties, and what not, and how those duties should be wisely rated, effectually to promote, and not to injure, their commerce and navigation. Whence it may be observed of what use the present work wherein I am engaged may be of to the statesman, with respect to the forming of a right judgment upon what principles the custom house duties ought to be regulated. As this must depend upon a thorough knowledge in the nature, use, and application of every species of merchandizes imported and exported, our Dictionary, I humbly apprehend, must be of great utility upon such important considerations; it containing a more minute and ample description of these things than any work ever before published. And this was one great motive for being so explicit upon those articles, but not the only one; for, by this means, our mechanical and manufactural arts may be greatly advanced by the artists themselves, when they are well informed of the application of these materials to variety of purposes.

BARBATINA, or **SEMEN CONTRA**, a seed which is efficacious in extirpating worms from the human body, to which children are chiefly liable.

The plant which produces this seed, is a kind of wormwood, and has such small leaves, that they can hardly be distinguished from the seed itself. It is pretended that some of it grows in the province of Xaintonge in France; but that which the druggists sell, comes from Persia, and from the borders of Muscovy. The English, French, and Dutch, get it from Aleppo, by the way of Alexandretta, Scanderoon, and Smyrna.

This seed, to be good, ought to be plump, of an agreeable scent, and very green: especial care must be taken that it be not dyed green, and that the seed of southernwood be not sold instead of that.

The English and Dutch make sugar-plums of this seed, as is done with amie-seed.

The barbatina, or semen contra, pays duty of importation in France 5 livres per 100 weight, according to the tariff of 1664, and 20 per cent. of it's value besides, by a decree of council of the 15th August 1685, as a merchandize coming from Persia and the Levant.

BARCALAO, a Spanish word, which the French pronounce baccala, or baccaliau. By this last name the Basques most commonly call the fish which we stile cod; and those people also call the isle of Newfoundland, the isle of Baccaliau (Cod Island) because of the great plenty of cod that is caught there. There is, however, a league to the west of that large island, another small one, which is more particularly called Baccaliau. The barcalao is a kind of cod, perfectly like that of Newfoundland, and is to be met with in several parts of the South-Sea; but the greatest quantity is caught on the coast of the isle of Juan Fernandez, 80 leagues to the west of Valparaiso, on the coast of Chili.

One d'Apremont, a Frenchman by birth, who had been life-guard-man to Lewis XIV, was the first who taught the Spaniards of Peru to catch, cure, and dry this cod, about the year 1713.

BARGAIN, a contract, or agreement, in buying and selling. Hence, to buy a good bargain, is to buy cheap. The French have the word barguigner, which signifies to debate about the price of any merchandize, to dispute every penny; as also, to be uncertain what to choose, or how much to pay. With the Italians, that word is used to signify selling for a time, and upon trust.

BARGAIN is also a contract, or agreement, to give a certain merchandize for a certain price; whence the French call it contract de vente, a contract of sale. So that there are three things chiefly requisite to make a bargain complete, or perfect.

1. The merchandize sold. 2. The price. 3. The mutual agreement, or consent.

R E M A R K S.

The merchandize sold ought to be certain; which is easy enough when you sell a determined body; as for instance, a horse,

horse, or such other thing. But, when the question is about a quantity of wine, corn, tin, iron, &c. which are sold by the measure, tale, or weight, the sale is not perfect till the merchandize be measured, sold, or weighed, because of the uncertainty, unless the seller sold all his wine, all his faggots, all his tin, &c. in a lump and together, without selling them by the measure, tale, or weight.

It is not lawful in some Roman catholic countries to sell things that are out of trade; such as are esteemed sacred things: but yet, if the buyer acted fairly, the bargain ought to stand so far as to intitle him to damages and interest from the seller.

There are other things, the trade of which is absolutely prohibited in France, as that of salt, in some provinces; or with foreigners, as that of gold, silver, jewels, warlike stores, arms, corn, and other such merchandizes, the exportation of which is prohibited, and which are reckoned contraband goods. But, these being excepted, all other things may be sold, even a man's right or claim, and even his hope or expectation of an uncertain event, as the future produce of a vineyard, the selling of timber in a forest, the success of a voyage by sea, &c. because it is not the thing uncertain that is sold, but only the hope or expectation, which is certain.

According to the nature of trade, the price of the thing sold should be paid in current coin, otherwise it would be only an exchange, nor could there be any difference made between the price and the thing sold. However, it is customary in France that when an estate is exchanged for moveable things, which can be easily valued and appraised, such as wine, corn, wood for fuel, timber, iron, lead, tin, gold and silver in ore, &c. it produces the same effect as a true sale, either with regard to the rights of the lordship or manor, or to the power of redemption. Consent being the material condition of a sale, it ought to be equally free from error and violence; that is to say, with regard to error, if there happens to be one in the very substance of the thing bought, it makes the bargain void: but it is otherwise, if the error be only in the qualities of the thing sold; for, in that case, it does not dissolve the bargain, provided there be no voluntary fraud on the side of the seller. Thus, if I design to buy pewter, and nothing but lead is sold to me, the sale cannot stand good, because I was imposed upon in the very substance of the thing I wanted to buy. But, if I designed to buy a clock that went true, and it does not prove so, the bargain ought to stand, because I was deceived in the qualities only of the thing that was sold to me.

A bargain, or sale, may be made purely and simply, or with condition. If it be made purely and simply, it is perfect, and ought to take effect, though there be no contract or agreement in writing; because writing, in such a case, is not essential to the bargain, and ought to serve only as a proof of it, unless the parties were resolved to make a bargain in writing; in which case the sale is not perfect till the contract be signed: so that, from the moment the parties have agreed to have sold and bought, there is no further occasion of any contract between them.

The sale with condition remains suspended, till the condition happens: but then it becomes complete or perfect, the moment the condition exists, without any new consent of the parties: the happening of the condition has even a retroactive effect; that is to say, that, when the condition has happened, the sale is presumed to have been as perfect, from the moment the bargain was concluded, as if it had been made purely and simply, and without a condition.

It must be observed, that there is a great difference between a sale, and a promise to sell.

A sale, among the Romans, obliged the seller to deliver the goods sold: in France, it makes over the property of it to the buyer, in case the seller was the proprietor. But a promise to sell obliges the promiser to pay only damages and interest, in case he does not perform his promise.

Although the seller stipulated, that, if the price were not paid within a certain time, the sale should be void, yet he may, after the time is elapsed, bring his action in order to be paid; and that clause is always understood thus; viz. that the sale shall be void, if the seller thinks fit, because the clause was put in, in his favour only; otherwise the buyer would be at liberty to make the bargain stand, or to annul it at his pleasure; which ought not to be at the discretion of one only of the contracting parties.

When the seller has fixed no time for the payment of the price of the thing sold, the buyer cannot have the property of it, till he has paid the price.

When, in any bargain or contract of sale, there are dark clauses, they must always be interpreted against the seller, who ought to bear the blame of not expressing himself more clearly. A sale is a bargain, wherein honesty and plain-dealing are so necessary, that if the seller concealed from the buyer the defects of the thing sold, which, in all likelihood, would have prevented him from buying it, the buyer is obliged to pay him damages and interest.

The seller may bring his action against the buyer, to oblige him to pay for the thing sold: but there is a distinction to be made between moveables and immoveables. For, with regard to moveables, there is no interest due for them, but from the day the demand was made in a lawful manner; yet, as to

immoveables, the interest of the price is due from the day of the delivery of the thing sold, or from the day it was offered. With regard to immoveables, the buyer is not reputed to have paid the price of them, unless he produces the receipts. Whereas, with respect to moveables, the payment is presumed to have been made, at the time when the goods were delivered, unless the seller can prove the contrary.

This, however, suffers an exception with regard to wholesale traders and retailers, to bakers, pastry-cooks, and apothecaries, who have a right to demand the payment of the merchandizes by them delivered, some at the end of six months, reckoning from the day of the delivery; and the others at the year's end, though there be no account settled, nor any promise in writing.

The seller of an immoveable has a special privilege or claim on the thing sold; but it is not so with moveables: for, as the latter cannot be mortgaged, the seller cannot claim the thing sold, but as long as it is actually in the hands or possession of his debtor; but, the moment it is passed into the hands of a third person, he has no longer any right to it, unless he sold it without fixing a day or term for the payment of it, in hopes of being paid immediately; in which case he may trace and claim it, into what place soever it has been removed, in order to be paid the price he sold it for.

There are some things that are so much privileged, as wine, wheat, and other necessaries of life, that, by the common law in France, the seller may seize the body of the buyer, for the payment of the price, after a bare order from the judge.

When the sale is entirely complete, the seller ought to be discharged from any danger which the thing sold may run, though it still continue in his possession; because it seems it is the buyer's fault not to take the thing away, by paying the price, as soon as the sale is completed. But, if there be still something wanted to complete the sale; if, for instance, it be made under a condition, that is not yet fulfilled; if a merchandize sold by the measure or the weight, be not yet measured or weighed: even with regard to wine, if the vessels be not yet filled and marked; the seller is to bear the danger of any accident, even though it should not happen through his fault: for if it were through his fault or neglect, though never so little, he would be answerable for it, even after the sale was complete.

The buyer of moveables has only a personal action against the seller, to oblige him to deliver the thing sold; for a bare bargain does not invest the buyer with the property of the thing bought, till it be actually delivered to him. Whence it follows, that if, after I have sold my horse to such an one, without delivering it to him, I sell and deliver the same horse to a third person, that third person is the true proprietor, and the first buyer has only an action of damages and interest against me, for not delivering to him the horse I sold him. The same is to be observed, according to the principles of nature and equity, with regard to all other sales which may be thus circumstanced.

A defect in the thing sold, which does not appear, and cannot be perceived by the buyer, is a lawful cause to make void some sorts of sales; as of horses, which the seller is to warrant free from being foundered, short-winded, and the glanders.

BARK, properly a small boat, with one deck only; and in general any little vessel, which serves to transport merchandizes, either by sea or by rivers.

At Paris, they give the name of bark, or boat-oysters, to such as are brought thither in boats that come up the river, to distinguish them from those that are brought on horses by the rapiers, and to which they give a name that answers to horse-oysters (huîtres de classe) much after the same manner as we distinguish at London the boat-mackarel from the horse-mackarel. The oysters that are brought upon horses, making more haste, and being kept but a little while on the road, are always the freshest, and consequently the most esteemed and the best.

BARK, the outward covering of trees, which serves them instead of a skin.

There are several sorts of barks that are traded in, some of which are used in physic, as the quinquina, or jesuit's bark, and mace: others serve for dyeing, as those of the alder and walnut-trees: others are used as spice, as cinnamon and cassia lignea: some for dyers uses, as the bark of the cork-tree, the oak, the linden-tree. All those several sorts of bark are described in their proper places.

The barks of tamarind pay duty of importation in France, at the rate of 25 sols per hundred weight. Those of caper-trees 2 livres and 10 sols. Those of mandrakes 40 sols, according to the tariff of the year 1664; excepting those drugs that may come from the Levant, which pay a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem, according to the decree of August the 15th, 1685.

BARK of trees, a stuff manufactured in the East-Indies, with the bark of a tree, which is spun like hemp. After it has been beat, and steeped in water, they extract long threads from it, which are something between silk and common thread; being neither so soft nor so glossy as silk, nor so rough and hard as hemp.

They mix silk with it in some stuffs, and these are called nil-lacs, and cherquemolles. The fotalongees are also partly of bark,

bark, and partly of silk, and do not differ from the former but in their being striped.

The pinafics and biambonnes are all of bark. The stuffs are between seven and eight (French) ells long, and $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{5}{8}$ of an ell broad: except the cherquemolles, which measure but four ells in length by $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

BARLEY, a sort of grain very well known. The plant that produces it, has a stalk smaller and more brittle than that of rye, and its leaves are broader and rougher than those of wheat. Its blossom is succeeded by a grain pointed at the two extremities, especially at the outermost, which renders it's ear brittle, with a long and sharp beard, proper to defend it from birds.

There are two sorts of barley; the one, which the French call square barley, or barley of autumn, because they sow it in that season; it requires a rich soil, well plowed. The other is called spring-barley, which is the common sort; they begin to sow it in France towards the middle of April; it delights in a light dry soil, being apt to change into oats, if sowed in a strong moist soil. There is also white barley, red barley, and of some other colours, according to the soil and land where it is sowed.

Mr. Miller gives us a better account of this grain. It has, says he (Gardener's Dictionary) a thin spike; the calix, husk, awn, and flower, are like those of wheat or rye, but the awns are rough; the seed is swelling in the middle, and, for the most part, ends in a sharp point, to which the husks are closely united. The chief kinds are, 1. The common, long eared barley. 2. Winter, or square barley, or beer barley, by some called big. 3. And the sprat barley, or battledore barley. The first and third sort are commonly cultivated in England; but the second sort is seldom to be met with near London, though Mr. Miller thinks it much preferable to the other two, as producing a larger seed, and very full thick spikes.

The meal of barley is very white, and good to make bread, especially being mixed with that of some other corn. There are some provinces in France where it is the people's common food; and even in the other provinces of France, when there is a scarcity of corn, they have recourse to barley-meal, for want of that of wheat or rye; as it happened in 1709, when most of all the people in the country, and many of the inhabitants of the cities, and even those of Paris, owed the preservation of their lives to the meal of barley.

Besides this use that is made of barley, the brewers of beer consume vast quantities of it; for, after they have made it sprout, ferment, and boil, they make that liquor of it called beer, which has some of the properties of wine, and is used instead of it in those places where the soil does not suffer the vine to be cultivated.

The corn-merchants and the country farmers are those who sell by wholesale all the barley that is used at Paris, and the corn-chandlers retail it.

By an ordinance of the city of Paris, of the year 1672, all brewers, master corn-chandlers, and retailers, are forbidden to go and meet the merchants and husbandmen, in order to buy their barley, nor are they to buy any but upon the keys: and the keys must never be unfurnished with barley. The corn-chandlers and retailers are not only forbidden to buy any but on market-days, and on those days in the afternoon only, but they are even forbidden to buy above two septiers, or 24 bushels, at once, and to keep above 8 septiers or 96 bushels, in their houses at a time.

Barley is measured and examined on the keys, and in the markets at Paris, by the sworn corn-meters.

Barley pays duty of importation in France at the rate of 24 sols the muid, Paris measure, containing two tuns, and each tun six septiers, which, however, must be understood of that barley which is entered by the province of Anjou. The duty of exportation is of 13 livres per muid, also Paris measure; namely, 20 sols for the ancient duty, and 12 livres for the new custom; the whole agreeably to the tariff of the year 1664.

At Amsterdam barley is sold by the last; and there is no other deduction made but of 1 per cent. for prompt payment. Its common price is from 50 to 70 golden florins per last. That florin is of 28 stivers, about 29 pence half-penny English money.

Peeled **BARLEY**, is that barley which has been stripped of its first coat. The best in France comes with Vitry le François; they have some at Charenton, near Paris, which is pretty good. There is some very white, and others less so. It ought to be chosen fresh, dry, large, plump, not rank, nor musty. Peeled barley is sold at Paris by the druggists and the corn-chandlers. It is used in the composition of several diet-drinks, which are prescribed to sick persons, as also to persons in health, to cool them. However, those drinks made with peeled barley are reckoned a little too nourishing. Peeled barley pays a duty of importation at Paris at the rate of 10 sols per 100 weight. For the use and consumption of barley in England, see **MALT**.

BARRA, called also sometimes **BARRO**, a long measure used in Portugal, to measure woollen or linnen cloth, serges, &c.

Six barras make 10 cabidos, or cavidos each cavidos answering to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the Paris ell.

BARRA is also a long measure used in some parts of Spain. It is the same with the yard of Seville.

There are three sorts of barras, that of Valentia, that of Castile, and that of Arragon.

The barra of Valentia is of 2 feet 9 inches and $\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch, which make $\frac{1}{4}$ of an ell Paris measure: so that 13 barras of Valentia make 10 ells of Paris, or 12 yards, and $\frac{1}{2}$ English measure.

The barra of Castile contains 2 feet 7 inches $\frac{1}{2}$, and something more, which answer to $\frac{1}{3}$ of the ell of Paris; so that 7 barras of Castile make 5 ells of Paris, or 6 yards and $\frac{2}{3}$ English measure.

The barra of Arragon differs but a few lines from those of Valentia and Castile: so that 3 barras of Arragon make 2 ells of Paris, or 2 yards and $\frac{1}{3}$ English measure.

The reduction of these the one into the other is performed by the common rule of proportion.

BARRACAN, which the French also call **BOURACAN**, a sort of stuff, not diapered, which is a kind of cambler, of a coarser grain than the common. It is used to make cloaks, sur-touts, and such other garments, to keep off the rain.

Barracans are wove on a loom with two treddles, with the shuttle, like camblets and linnen cloths. The thread of the woof is single, twisted, and spun very fine, and that of the warp is double or triple; that is to say, it is composed of two or three threads, well twisted together. The most common material used in the manufacture of these stuffs, is wool; sometimes they mix it with hemp.

There are some barracans the wool of which is dyed before it is worked upon the loom. These are called barracans dyed in the wool. Others are manufactured white, and afterwards dyed black, red, blue, brown, &c. These are named barracans dyed in the piece, because they were not dyed till the pieces were taken from the loom.

They do not full barracans; they only boil them two or three times after they are taken from the loom, to prevent their fraying. Afterwards they put them into the calender, to make them smooth: and, finally, they make them up into a kind of flattened roll, sewed at both ends with small pack-thread. These rolls they call pieces of barracan.

The good qualities of a barracan are, that it be very smooth, of a round grain, and so close, that water may run off from it without soaking through it.

The cities where the most barracans are made in France are, Valenciennes, Lille, Abbeville, Amiens, and Roan. Those of Valenciennes are the most valued; they are all of wool, both the warp and the woof. Their breadth is commonly $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and the piece measures 23 ells Paris measure.

Those of Lille are also intirely of wool, and of the same length and breadth with those of Valenciennes, but of an inferior quality.

Those of Abbeville are pretty much like those of Valenciennes, both with regard to the materials they are made of, and with regard to their length and breadth; whence they are called barracans, after the manner of Valenciennes, though they be neither so fine nor so good.

Those that are manufactured at Amiens are also intirely of wool; but there are two sorts of them, with regard to their length and breadth. Those that are called narrow barracans are but $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell broad, and 21 ells long: they bear some resemblance to the coarse camblets, whence they are sometimes called camblets with twisted threads, or camblets with a coarse grain.

The other are called broad barracans, being $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell in breadth, and the piece measures 23 ells. Most of the barracans of Amiens are manufactured with white wool, and afterwards dyed of several colours. Those of half an ell are commonly cleaned in water with the feet, before they are boiled and dyed.

The barracans of the manufactory of Roan are the worst of all. There are two sorts of them; some intirely of wool, and of the other the warp is of hemp, and the woof of wool; the breadth of both is two-thirds of an ell, and their length 23 ells, Paris measure.

BARRACANS dyed in the wool, are those barracans: the wool of which was dyed before it was put upon the loom.

BARRACANS dyed in the piece, are those that are not dyed till they be taken from the loom.

A roll of **BARRACAN** is a piece of barracan intirely finished, rolled up, and sewed at both ends of the roll.

BARRAGE, a sort of worked linnen, manufactured at Caen, and in the neighbourhood of that capital city of Lower Normandy. There is the fine barrage, the common barrage, and the small barrage.

BARRAGE is also a duty, or toll, paid in France for the repairing of bridges, passages, and particularly the pavement of roads. That duty is thus called because of the bars, gates, or turnpikes, which shut up the roads at the entrance of towns, or at other places, where such tolls are to be paid. It is seldom paid but by carriers, for their waggons, carts, or pack-horses. There are, however, some places where all

carriages in general, and even foot passengers, are obliged to pay toll. It is not the same every-where, the toll being more or less according to the places. The coachmen and waggons who carry persons, baggage, or merchandizes, do generally undertake to pay those tolls, without demanding any thing more for it.

BARRIERS, or BARRIERES. Thus they call, in the chief cities of France, and particularly at Paris, the places where the custom-houses are established, and where the officers receive the duties of importations, according to the tariffs settled by the king's council. They are called barriers, because the passages through which the carriages and merchandizes liable to pay duties are to pass, are shut up with a wooden bar, which turns upon a hinge, and is opened or shut according to the will of the custom-house officer.

There are at Paris 60 of those barriers, all placed at the entrance of the suburbs. At 22 of these barriers, besides the receivers of the barrage, or toll, there are custom-house officers, who examine the bills, or letters of carriage, receive the chief duties, and take care of the interest of the king's general farmers (the taxes and duties in France being generally farmed out). The other barriers are only, as it were, for ease and conveniency, that the former may be more free; for otherwise they would always be crowded, if they alone were open for admitting into that capital of the kingdom the almost infinite number of traders, carriages, and merchandizes, which are incessantly arriving thither.

At those 60 barriers all carriages and persons who bring provisions, are to stop, to be visited, and to pay duties, according to the tariffs. The custom-house officers have even the liberty to examine all coaches, berlins, and chaises, especially those of private persons, in order to see whether they have any contraband goods, or any provisions liable to pay duty. They also examine portmanteaus, cloak-bags, and trunks, of which the owners are obliged to deliver them the keys; and they stop and seize every thing that was not declared; which, according to the ordonnances, is forfeited, together with the carriages on which they happen to be loaded, and all the other provisions, wearing apparel, and merchandizes, with which they were mixed.

For the better administration of all the barriers where there are custom-house officers, there is an ambulatory or walking officer, who goes continually from one office to another, and examines and comports the registers of the other officers, of which he afterwards gives an account at the office of the general farm.

As there are several goods that might be run, as wine, brandy, printed linnen, and other things, which are either contraband, or liable to pay duty, and which might be hid in carts or waggons, that bring hay or straw, or in such as are loaded with bales of cotton, wool, flax, or other such merchandizes that are soft and bulky, the officers keep, at the door of their office, iron instruments, with a wooden handle, which they call tucks (fondes) and with which they probe all such goods in which they suspect that some other merchandizes may be hid, which people have a mind to run.

It is at those barriers that are paid the duties of importation, or entry, for wine, cattle, &c., wood, timber, coals, fruit, meat ready cut up, and almost all provisions designed for the use of the city of Paris.

R E M A R K S.

As it is of very great importance for all carriers, who arrive at that great metropolis, as also for all citizens and merchants who own, or to whom are directed, the merchandizes that are brought thither, to know through what barrier they are to enter, that they may send their clerks, or servants, in order to receive, and pay the duties for them. Mr. Savary has inserted in this place a list of all those barriers: but, this being of no manner of use to an English reader, we thought proper to omit it.

Of that great number of barriers there are but a few through which the merchants and carriers may enter wine, and other liquors, as also cattle. The ordonnance of aids, made in the year 1680, appoints but 23 barriers, and declares all the others to be false, or unlawful passages, for those sorts of merchandizes, giving leave for all other goods to pass through such offices, gates, and barriers, as the carriers or drivers shall think proper.

That liberty of passage for all merchandizes and provisions coming to Paris was continued till the year 1723, when his majesty, being informed that those who brought to Paris and the suburbs such merchandizes and provisions as were liable to pay duty and toll, made an ill use of that liberty, and went out of the high roads and common ways, in order to pass, several together in company, through those barriers where there is no custom-house office, in order to save the duties; the king, to remedy a disorder so detrimental to the farmers of his revenue, did, by a decree of his council, authorized by his letters patents, dated January 28, 1723, and registered in parliament the 12th of February following, direct through what barriers the merchandizes and provisions, liable to pay duty and toll, were to pass for the future. By the same decree all officers of the gates and barriers are forbidden to open

them at unseasonable hours, and to wink at the said merchandizes either by day or by night, under the penalty of answering for the damages and interest, of paying a fine of 500 livres, and being declared incapable of holding any office, and even suffering corporal punishment, if the case required it.

BARTER, signifies the exchanging of one commodity for another, or the trucking wares for wares, among merchants.—So it is mentioned in the statute 1 Ric. III. cap. 9. And thus bartering was the original and natural way of commerce, precedent to buying; there being no buying till money was invented, though in exchanging both parties are buyers and sellers.

R E M A R K S.

Let us suppose the butchers in their stalls at market, on one side, and the customers, or buyers, on the other; the price of the meat will be determined, and a pound of beef shall be to the price of silver, as all the beef at market to all the silver (if silver be made use of as money) that is intended to buy it.

This proportion is come at by bargaining; the feller keeps up his price, according as he conceives there is a demand; the buyer stands out, according as he judges there is plenty of beef. And this altercation continues till either of them comes to the other's terms, and so determines the price. These altercations are, at first, carried on at an uncertainty, but gradually the quantity of the commodities, and of the money there is to buy them, comes pretty nearly to an equilibrium, and the prices of the things are determined.

If several maîtres d'hôtel at Paris have limited orders to buy green pease, and 10 measures of pease are limited by the said orders to 60 livres the measure, 10 to 50 livres, 10 to 40, and 10 to 30. On this supposition, the money corresponds to 40 measures of green pease; but, if there be but 20 measures at market, the sellers, seeing a great demand in proportion to the quantity of pease, will keep up the price. The altercations will begin by the maîtres d'hôtel, limited to 60 livres; and, when they are supplied, the 10 measures there limited to 50 livres will be supplied, and the price of the pease will fall to 50 livres, and the maîtres d'hôtel, who are limited to 40 and 30, will go without pease; but, if 20 measures more are brought to market, those last will be also supplied, and the price of pease will fall to 30 livres the measure.

But if, instead of 20 measures, 200 measures are brought to market, the price of green pease will fall considerably; and this fall of the price will be proportionable to the quantity of pease, with regard to the quantity of money intended to be laid out; and it may so happen in the altercations, that the 200 measures shall sell for no more money than 20 measures would have sold for. And, when the green pease fall so low as to answer the price of several others besides the maîtres d'hôtel we have mentioned, there will probably be buyers enough.

Let us suppose another example:—That in a market-town containing 500 inhabitants, the bakers expose to sale 1000 pounds weight of bread, for the buying of which the said inhabitants intend 10 ounces of silver, at 100 d. per ounce.—According to this supposition, the 500 inhabitants will have two pounds of bread each, at 1 d. per pound.

Now, if a detachment of 500 soldiers come to this town at the beginning of the market, and determine to buy bread, the bakers, seeing this increase of the demand, will raise the price of their bread. The inhabitants, who used to buy the bread at 1 d. per pound, and who know there is corn enough to make more, will buy no more than what is absolutely necessary, and they will be contented with roots, flour, or any thing they can meet with. But, if the soldiers must have bread, and the price of it comes out at three half-pence per pound in the altercations, and they buy 750 pounds of it, at 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound each, there will remain 250 pounds for the inhabitants; and, if they still refuse to give more than a penny a pound for it, the bakers will, at the close of the market, let them have it at that price, or else this 250 pounds of bread will remain unsold; and, perhaps, the next day, when the soldiers are gone, or when a greater quantity of bread is made it will fall to a penny a pound.

It often happens that the sellers, in keeping up the price, miss the opportunity of selling. And it also happens that they may sell higher another day. All that depends on the plenty or scarcity of money, or of the buyers, and of the plenty or scarcity of the commodity, and the knowledge which the buyers or sellers have of it. Though most of the undertakers buy and sell at an uncertainty, yet the altercations readily find out the proportion of equilibrium. And it commonly happens in commodities whereof the consumption is constant and uniform, as bread, that the magistrate is able to fix and determine the price for it, when there is no sudden plenty or scarcity of the said commodity, or of money.

I have dwelt upon this example, in order to make the reasons of the variations of the prices of the things at market more feeling and sensible. The plenty or scarcity of commodities, or of money, in every place, cause those variations immediately; and the mediate or remote causes of them

are fancy, or fashion of living of the prince, and the landholders, &c.

Further considerations upon **BARTER**.

If the money which carries on the barter of a city (which, at present, we will consider as if there was no other in the world) be 100,000 ounces of silver, that is to say, if all the proportions of the values of all goods and commodities in the said city, be measured by the 100,000 ounces; or, what still comes to the same thing, if these 100,000 ounces pass for pledges, and keep the accounts of the pretensions of all barterers in the said city. And if, in these circumstances, the said city receives 100,000 ounces more, so distributed that every one who has had an ounce of silver, has now two ounces, and that the quantity of money in circulation becomes 200,000 ounces of silver; this city, considered in itself, is not in any respect richer or happier than before: it will only happen that all goods and commodities will grow twice as dear as they were.—Though this consequence seems mighty plain, yet I shall endeavour to set it in a clearer light under the article **MONEY**, when I come to consider particularly the effects of the increase and decrease of the real quantity of money in a state.

When Augustus returned to Rome, after the defeat of Mark Anthony and Cleopatra, he brought with him so great a quantity of money, that all goods and commodities sold immediately for double the value they sold for before, as Dion Cassius tells us. If all the money he brought to Rome had been laid up in the treasury, it would not have had this effect; for it would have entered but slowly into circulation and barter: but he distributed it among his soldiers, whom he was not able to pay after the battle of Actium, by which means it came quickly into circulation.

It is true that the 200,000 ounces of silver are intrinsically worth double the value of 100,000 ounces: that it will make double the quantity of plate, and that it corresponds to double the quantity of land and labour; but, if 200,000 ounces are applied precisely to circulate and barter, instead of 100,000 ounces, they will produce no real advantage or disadvantage to the city in question, considered in itself: whether one ounce of silver, or two ounces, be given in pledge, or barter for any commodity, a small price, or a large one, it is all one.

But, if we compute the circulation of one city with another, or of one nation with another, it will appear hereafter that those nations which have most money in circulation, and, consequently, where commodities are dearest, have a great advantage over these which have less money, and where commodities are cheapest, all other circumstances being equal; and that the principal advantage of foreign commerce consists in bringing home a yearly balance of trade. See **MONEY**, and its circulation; **SILVER**, and its value; and **BALANCE** of trade.

BARUTH, an Indian measure, containing 17 gantans, which amount to between 54 and 58 pounds of pepper, avoirdupois English weight. At that rate a gantan ought to weigh about 3 pounds and a half of pepper.

BARUTINE SILKS, are those which come from Persia by the way of Seyde, or Said. They are weighed by the damasquin, which contains about 600 drachms, or very near 4 pounds avoirdupois.

BASALTES, a kind of black marble; or very hard touchstone, which resists the file. It is heavy, smooth, soft to the touch, and takes a very fine polish, of an iron colour. It is to be found in Ethiopia, and in several places of Germany. It is used, like other touchstones, for trying gold and silver.

BASARUCO, a small coin of the East-Indies, very base, being made only of very bad tin. There are two sorts of this coin; the one called good, the other bad. The latter is one sixth part in value lower than the former. Three basarucos make two rees of Portugal, and 375 make a pardao-xeraphin, which is to be understood of the good basarucos; the bad ones must be increased by a sixth part proportionably.

BASIL, one of the cantons in Switzerland, is bounded on the south by the canton of Solothurn; on the east by the Frischgaw, which belongs to the empire; and by the territory of Rhinfelden, one of the forest-towns; on the west it is bounded with Alsace; and, on the north, it advances on the territories of Germany, beyond the Rhine, and is bounded by the Brisgaw. It is a rich and fruitful country in all necessaries for life, and produces even for exportation excellent corn and wine, especially about the city of Basil. Their revenues arise chiefly from secularized abbeys, from their bailiwicks, and from imposts on goods carried through their country, to and from France, Italy, and Germany.

The government of the city of **BASIL** is in the hands of the trading companies. Though this city has admitted a great many French refugees, who have set up manufactures here, yet several parts both of the city and suburbs are still empty. This Dr. Burnet imputes to the maxims of this city, one whereof is, the advantages of the burghership, which are so great, that citizens will not admit strangers to a share of them. Here are 31 mills, whereof 21 are for grinding corn,

and 6 for making paper; of which the ordinary sort is said to have been first made here by Andrew and Michael Galician.

LIECHSTAL, lying in the main road from France and Italy, to Germany, has always company.

BASON, a sale by the bafon. Thus they call at Amsterdam the public sales made by authority, and over which presides an officer appointed by the magistrates, who is styled venduemeester, that is to say, master of the sale. Such a sale is called a sale by the bafon, because, before the lots are delivered to the highest bidder, they commonly strike on a copper bafon, to give notice that the lot is going to be adjudged.

BASTION of France, a settlement of the French on the coast of Barbary, near the place where coral is fished up. They also drive there a considerable trade in leather, wax, and corn. The coral-fishers, or, as Willughby calls them, urinators, come, a little before the season begins, to the Bastion of France, without either tackle or tools, without vessels, and without money. The first thing they do is to separate into crews. The crew of a coral fishing-boat may consist of seven, but it is generally composed of eight. The patron, or master of the boat, the man that throws the cross, and six seamen that manage the boat, and assist in dragging the machine aboard. Upon applying to the company, they are furnished with a proper vessel, which the French stile sarteau, that is, a long sharp boat, with very large sails, so that they go at a great rate, and are not easily taken. They are likewise furnished with all kinds of tackle and provisions upon credit. Then they enter into articles for the price of the coral, which is generally fixed at a French crown a pound, or thereabouts. They likewise engage to sell all that they take at that rate, upon pain of corporal punishment, if they are detected in a clandestine commerce.

Thus equipped, they proceed to sea; but they are not obliged to deliver their coral till the season is over. Then each boat's crew brings their stock on shore, where it is divided into 13 equal parts; of which the master of the vessel has four; he that manages the machine two; and each of the crew one; the thirteenth part belongs to the company, and goes in discharge of the equipment. In a good season a boat will bring 25,100 weight of coral, from whence the reader may judge of the profit which attends this fishery; and, if he desires to be informed of the total value, it is enough to say, that, in a very flourishing season, there are 200 of these vessels employed. The business of coral-fishing is both laborious and dangerous; it requires great skill and dexterity to heave the cross, and no small labour and diligence to get it on board again, besides the great risk they run from storms and accidents in their fishing, and pirates; all which, taken together, keep the coral-fishers so poor, that the company never want servants.

BATE, or **BATZ**, a small copper coin, mixed with a little silver, which is current in several cities in Germany, particularly at Nuremberg. It is worth four creutzers, at the rate of four French deniers, or eight phenings, per creutzer.

BATZ. This is also a coin of Switzerland. It is of copper, mixed with some silver. This coin is current at different rates, according to the greater or smaller quantity of alloy it has. At Zurich the rixdollar is about 5 livres, or 100 sols, French money, and is worth 28 batz $\frac{1}{2}$, which are higher than the batz of Switzerland (thus those of Berne, Lucerne, and Friburgh are called) so that a batz of Zurich is worth about 3 sols and $\frac{1}{2}$ French money.

The batz of Basil, Schafhouse, of Constance, and St. Gall, are the best of all; and those of Berne, Lucerne, and Friburgh, the worst. They give but 9 of the former for 10 of the latter. They give but 27 batz of the first for the rixdollar or crown, and 30 of the other, which make them be called short batz.

The good batz are worth 10 rapes at Basil; the bad, or short batz, are worth one rape less than the other.

BAVARIA, one of the circles of the German empire, is bounded on the east by Austria and Bohemia; on the south by Carinthia and Tirol; on the west by Swabia and Franconia; and it lessens almost to a point towards Upper Saxony, on the north. In this country are many mountains, in which are mines of copper, and some silver, as also quarries of marble. Here are likewise salt-works, and baths.

This circle is divided into the three capital provinces of it, viz. 1. The electorate, divided into Upper and Lower Bavaria. 2. The Upper Palatinate, so called to distinguish it from the Lower, or the Palatinate of the Rhine. 3. The archbishopric of Saltzburg.

Describing this circle from north to south, we begin with the Palatinate.

The chief riches of the **UPPER PALATINATE** proceed from the mines of silver, copper, and iron; and they export great quantities of the latter to the neighbouring countries.

AMBERG has great privileges, which were granted to it by the emperor Robert, and lies conveniently for traffic, being almost in the center, betwixt Ratibon, Ingolstat, and Nuremberg. Its greatest trade is from the iron-mines, and the manufactures thereof, which are sent down the Nabe to Ratibon, and other cities.

The chief commodity of the territory of **NEWMARK**, is iron, and their rivers are covered with iron mills. **Allersberg**, on the west side of this district, is said to be a trading town; and **Hollenfern**, on the confines of the bishopric of **Aichstat**, is famous for iron mines in its neighbourhood.

The duchy of **BAVARIA**, properly so called, consists of the Upper and the Lower. The former lies under the Alps, and is cold and barren, having but little corn, and no wine; the latter is on the Danube, and is fruitful and pleasant.

The revenues of the elector, said to amount to 7,000,000 of florins, arises chiefly from his monopolizing the three principal commodities of his country, viz. salt, corn, and strong, or white beer; which is so famed, that it is exported to other countries. The people of **Tirol** and **Saltzburg** have almost all the corn they spend from **Bavaria**; and the elector has a penny for every sack that is exported. Their beer alone, said to be as good as any in the world, has been computed to bring him in between 80 and 100,000 florins per ann. Those three commodities, besides the tobacco trade, which he also engrosses to himself, with several other things, are only allowed to be sold by his agents and servants. These, with his own domain, and the tolls on all the vessels that go up and down the Danube, and other navigable rivers, of which there are several in this country, bring in a yearly revenue of above half a million sterling. A modern German writer makes it amount to between 8 and 900,000 l. and says the last elector but one, viz. **Maximilian**, had some years above a million. Mean while, the subject is so miserably impoverished by these monopolies of trade, that the peasants chief subsistence is from the great herds of swine fed in their woods by acorns and crabs. The fir-trees of this country are a treasure to it, since the timber serves for every purpose that can be imagined, whether for building or household-stuff; and there is not a province in the empire where provisions are cheaper, though there is a vast home consumption, the **Bavarians** being very fond of good eating and drinking.

RATISBON has a great trade by the Danube, the **Nabe**, and the **Regen**, which join near the city.

STRAUBING, is a town of good trade.

PASSAW, is a rich, populous and trading city.

The duchy of **NEWBURG** is famous for its wine; and at the town there is a good trade therein, which is sold weekly in the markets; and the duke has a good revenue arising therefrom.

At **MUNICH**, most of the mechanics are glassiers and silk-weavers. Great quantities of salt, wine, &c. are sold at their two annual fairs, viz. **St. James's-tide**, and the week after **Twelfth-tide**.

At **OBERNBERG** is a custom-house, where toll is demanded for all vessels that pass the river **Inn**, on which it stands.

The archbishopric of **SALTZBURG** is dry, rocky, and barren, except in some vallies, yet abounds with salt, mines of copper, iron, and some silver, with excellent quarries, from some of which is dug a stone, little inferior to **jasper**. The revenues of the archbishop amount to near 80,000 crowns. The very salt which is carried into **Bavaria** and **Swabia** brings him in 30,000 crowns per annum.

BERCHTOLSGADEN furnishes its neighbourhood with store of salt.

The salt of **HALLEIN** is carried in great quantities through **Bavaria**, and a corner of **Tirol**, into **Switzerland**, where it is paid for in French money, which is one reason that there is scarce any coin current in **Bavaria**, but that of **France**. There is a great high mountain on the west side of the town, the earth of which being mixed with a sort of allum, or salt-petre, they throw it into larger trenches, which they fill with fresh water, and let it stand three or four weeks, till the earthy part is sunk to the bottom; then they let out and boil the saline part in iron pans, three feet deep, and ten or twelve in diameter; and, when the water is evaporated from the salt, which it leaves at the bottom, they take it up and put it to dry and harden, in some deal casks, without any head or bottom.

LAUFFEN has a good trade between **Saltzburg** and **Titmoning**.

BAY, one of the colours of the hair of horses, inclining to red, and coming pretty near the colour of a chestnut. There are, if we may say so, five different shades, or gradations, of the bay colour; viz. the chestnut-bay, the light-bay, the yellow-bay, or dun-bay, the bloody-bay, which is also called scarlet bay, and the brown-bay.

BAYS, called in French **BAYETTE**, and sometimes **BAGUETTE**, a sort of open woolen stuff, having a long nap, sometimes frized, and sometimes not. This stuff is without wale, and is wrought on a loom, with two treddles, like flannel. It is chiefly manufactured at **Colchester** and **Bocking** in **Essex**, in **England**, where there is a hall, called the **Dutch Bay-Hall**, or **Raw-Hall**. By the statute 12 Car. II. cap. 22. no person shall weave at **Colchester** any bay, known by the names of four-and-fifties, sixty-eighths, eighties, or hundred bays, but, within two days after weaving any such, shall carry it to the **Dutch Bay-Hall**, to be viewed and examined, that it may appear whether it be well and substantially wrought, before it be carried to be scoured and thickened. No scourer or thickener shall receive any such bay, before it has been

marked or stamped at the said hall. This manufacture, which is very considerable, was first introduced into **England** with that of says, ferges, &c. by the **Flemings**; who, being persecuted by the duke of **Alva** for the sake of their religion, fled hither, about the fifth year of queen **Elizabeth's** reign. See **ESSEX**.

R E M A R K S.

The exportation of bays was formerly much more considerable than it is at present, the **English** then furnishing the **French** and **Italians** with those stuffs: but, of late years, the **French** have attempted to imitate them, and have admirably well succeeded, particularly at **Beauvais**, **Castres**, **Montpelier**, and **Nismes**. They also manufacture vast quantities of bays in **Flanders**, and especially at **Tournay**, **Lille**, and **Neuff-Eglises**. The people of that country call them **baiques**. However, the export of **English** bays is still very considerable to **Spain** and **Portugal**, where they are called **bactas**, and even **Italy**. Their chief use is for dressing the monks and nuns, and for linings, especially in the army. The looking-glass-makers also use them behind their glasses, to preserve the tin, or quicksilver, and the case-makers to line their cases.

The breadth of bays is commonly a yard and a half, a yard and three quarters, or two yards, by 42 to 48 in length. Those of a yard and three-quarters are most proper for the **Spanish** trade.

They make at **Alby** in **Languedoc**, and in the neighbourhood of that city, a kind of woolen stuffs, which they call **bayette**, or bays, and which are exceeding cheap. They are but two spans and a half broad, of that country's measure, which answer to half an ell, wanting a sixteenth, **Paris** measure; about half a yard **English**. That breadth was thus regulated by a decree of the council, dated July the 15th, 1673, notwithstanding the 30th article of the general regulations of the manufactures, made in August 1669, which orders that no weavers of cloths or ferges, nor any other person, shall make any stuff, of how small a price soever they be, less than half an ell broad **Paris** measure.

Bays pay duties of exportation out of the kingdom of **France**, and the provinces reputed foreign, at the rate of three livres per 100 weight. The **English** bays pay duties of importation at the rate of 20 livres per piece of 25 **French** ells, and 60 livres per piece of 50 ells, according to the decree of the 20th of December 1687; nor can they be imported but by the ports of **Calais** and **St Valery**.

The bays of **Flanders**, and others of the same sort, pay but 4 livres per piece of 20 ells, according to the tariff of 1664. **BAZAR**, **BAZARI**, or **BAZAARD**. A place designed for trade among the eastern nations, and particularly the **Persians**. Some are open or uncovered, like the market-places in **Europe**, and serve for the same purposes, but only to sell the less precious and most bulky merchandizes. Others are covered with high vaulted ceilings, and adorned with domes to give them light. In these are the shops of those merchants who sell jewels, rich stuffs, wrought plate, and such other merchandizes.

Sometimes they sell even slaves in those covered bazars, though that unhuman trade be also carried on in the open bazars. **Furetiere** observes, that it is an **Arabic** word, which signifies a sale or exchange of merchandizes; whence it is said, by extension, of the places where the trade is carried on.

That word is in use among all the nations of the **East-Indies**, as well as among those of the **Levant**. It signifies in all those countries a common or public place, where the market is kept, both for the sale of provisions, and of other merchandizes. The place is so called, whether it be a market, or a pretty broad street, whether it be covered or not. **Malaca** was anciently the general bazar, or staple-town for all the trade of the **Indies**; that is to say, before the **Portuguese** undertook to sail to those countries.

The bazar, or maidan of **Isaphan**, is one of the finest places in all **Persia**, and even excels all those that are to be seen in **Europe**; but, notwithstanding its great magnificence, it must be confessed, that the bazar of **Tauris** is the most spacious square that we know of. They have several times drawn up 3000 men in order of battle, in that square: it contains above 15,000 shops, and is reckoned, without dispute, the most magnificent in **Persia**. At **Tauris** they call the jewel-market *raiserie*, that is to say, the royal market.

BAZAT, or **BAZA**. The baza cotton comes from **Seyde**, **Said**, or **Sidon**, by the way of **Marseilles**. They distinguish three sorts of it; namely, the baza of the first sort, the common baza, and the middling baza. The first sort and the middling are often sold in **France** for 99 livres and 4 sols, and the middling only 73 livres and 12 sols.

BAZGENDGE, a kind of gall-nut, which the **Turks** use to make the scarlet colour.

BDELLIUM, **BONDELEON**, or **BEDELIIUM**, a kind of gum.

That name is very well known among the learned, though they do not agree about its signification. It is mentioned in the holy scripture (**Gen. ii. 12.**) and **Josephus**, who pretends

to explain what it is, asserts, that it is the gum of a tree, which resembles the olive-tree, and whose leaves are like those of the oak; and that the manna, with which God fed his people during so many years in the desert, was very much like that drug. Yet there are a great many learned men who do not admit that explication; and Scaliger, who is followed herein by several others, owns, that it is not well known what the bdellium mentioned in the scripture is.

The bdellium sold by the grocers and druggists is not much better known than that of the ancients.

Some say that it runs from a thorny tree, whose leaves resemble those of the oak, and whose fruit is like that of the wild-fig-tree, but yet of a pretty good taste. Some pretend, that the tree from which the bdellium comes, is like the myrtle-tree. Others suppose that those trees grow in Bactriana: others again in Arabia Felix, near a city named Saraca: some say it grows in Africa, near the banks of the river Senega; and others place it in the East-Indies.

However that be, this gum comes by the way of Marfeilles, or by the ships of the French African company. That which comes by the way of Marfeilles, is, according to skilful judges, nothing but the gum called alouchi, and they pretend that the true bdellium is that of Senega.

It must be chosen in clear transparent bits, of a reddish grey on the outside, and within of the same colour with the English glue, and it ought to become yellow, when you wet it with the tip of your tongue. This gum is used in the composition of mithridate, and some other compounds. Authors being so much divided in their opinions about this matter, 'tis endless and needless to quote all their sentiments: those who would gratify a curiosity, attended only with great uncertainty, may consult Dioscorides, Galen, Dale, Pomet. By the tariff of 1664, the bdellium pays in France duty of importation 4 livres per 100 weight: but, by the decree of the 15th of August 1685, it pays 20 per cent. of its value when it comes from the Levant, Barbary, and other lands or territories within the dominions of the Grand Seignior, of the king of Persia, or of Italy.

BEAM, a large piece of timber used in building, which, being laid across the walls, serves to support the principal rafters of the roof. The proportions of beams, in the neighbourhood of London, have been settled by statute, as follow: a beam 15 feet long ought to be seven inches in breadth on one side of it's square, and five on the other: one of 16 feet in length must be on one side eight inches broad, and six on the other: one of seventeen feet in length must be on one side eight inches broad, and six on the other: one of seventeen feet must be ten inches on one side, and six on the other: but they make them stronger in the country.

BEAMS of a ship, are the large main cross timbers, which prevent the sides of a ship from falling together, and which also support the decks and orlops: the main beam is next the main-mast, and from it they are reckoned by the first, second, and third beam. The greatest beam of all is called the mid-ship beam.

BEAN, a pulse of the large sort, commonly cultivated in the fields. People of fashion seldom eat them, but green; but, in several places, the country people dry them to eat them in the winter; they also often feed cattle with them: the meal of beans is used in physic, being prescribed both to be taken inwardly, and in the composition of some cataplasms. And perfumers also use it to make powder for the hair. Beans pay duty of importation in France, like other sorts of pulse.

This plant, which is a kind of the xth class of Monf. Tournefort, has a papilionaceous flower, which is succeeded by a long pod filled with large kidney-shaped seeds; the stalks are firm and hollow; the leaves grow by pairs, and are fastened to a mid-rib. Monf. Tournefort observes, that there are eight sorts of these beans known, which are distinguished by the difference of their flowers and fruit.

Mr. Miller observes, that there are four sorts of beans cultivated in England, which are the small Lisbon, the Spanish, the Sandwich, and the Windsor. The first and second sorts are usually planted in October and November, under warm walls or hedges, to have them early; which if they abide through the winter, they will produce beans early in the spring: or they may be planted close in beds, in some piece of ground that is well defended from the north and east winds; and, being arched over with hoops or withies, may be covered in very hard frosts with mats and straw; and, in the spring, these plants may be transplanted into warm borders, by which means your crop will be secured from the injuries of frost; and, if care be taken in transplanting them, not to break their roots, and also to water them, if the season proves dry, until they have taken fresh root, they will bear as plentiful a crop, as those which remained where they were at first planted, with this difference, that they will be a fortnight later. The Lisbon bean is chiefly preferred to the Spanish, and the best way is to procure fresh seeds from abroad, at least every other year; for in England they are subject to degenerate, not in goodness, but only in earliness.

The Sandwich and Windsor beans are seldom planted before Christmas, but especially the Windsor, which is most subject

to be hurt by cold, of any of those kinds. These beans should have an open exposure, and require to be planted at a greater distance than the two early kinds: for, if they are planted in shady places, or too close, they will grow to a great height; but seldom produce many beans. The usual distance for these (if in an open situation) is two feet and a half, row by row, and four inches in the rows. But, if the place is closely surrounded by hedges, walls, or tall trees, the distance must be greater; the rows should then be three feet apart, and the beans six inches distant in the rows. The Sandwich beans, being hardier than the Windsor, are usually planted about Christmas, to succeed the forward crops; and those, although at present in little request, are yet very serviceable, being plentiful bearers, and very little inferior either in size or goodness to the Windsor.

In the middle of January, if the weather is open and good, you may plant the first crop of Windsor beans, which will succeed the Sandwich, and every three or four weeks make a new plantation, till the middle of May, in order to preserve a succession through the season. Indeed, there are some people, who plant beans even in June; but unless the soil be very strong and moist, or the season prove wet or cold, they seldom succeed well; for in hot and dry weather, which commonly happens in July, the insects infest these plants very much, and often destroy them quite. There are others who advise the cutting down of beans, in order to cause them to produce fresh shoots from the bottom for a late crop; but this seldom answers the purpose, for they are liable to the above-mentioned inconveniences, much more than a fresh planted crop.

Beans for horses, are sold at Amsterdam at about 15 livres de gros per last. The deduction or discount, for prompt payment, one per cent.

Beans grow admirably well in Egypt, where there are large fields entirely covered with them. Their blossoms are a thousand times more odoriferous, than those of the beans in Europe. As vast quantities of them are planted in the lands about Cairo, towards the west, nothing can be more charming, than the perfumed air one breathes in an evening on the terraces, when the westerly wind blows; nor is it without good reason, that they endeavour to have plenty of beans in that country, since it is the common food of the mules, asses, and camels, who consume vast quantities of them.

In order to make them eat them, they beat them and reduce them into a coarse meal, whereof they make balls which they afterwards give to those animals. They do the same with the kernels of dates. This observation is extracted from Monf. Maillet's Description of Egypt.

The French have a sort of beans, which they call feves de marais, i. e. beans of the marsh, which they eat only, when green and fresh. They also dry them, but then they serve only to feed cattle. However, some persons make a kind of provision of them, to eat in Lent. They buy them green, and, peeling the white skin off, they split them in two, and dry them in the open air. They afford a pretty good and pleasant food.

BEAN of St Ignatius. It is a small solid fruit, which grows upon a tree in some of the Philippine islands, and in which the Chinese trade in those places of the East-Indies, where they dwell, or which they frequent, as Malacca, the Sunda isles, and the Moluccos: those beans are also very much used in physic. The figure of this fruit is irregular, and it is of the bigness of a green almond, when still wrapped up in all it's coats, or of the fruit called hermodactyl. It's outward colour is grey, or rather blackish, when it is well stripped of a little thin skin, the colour of which is sometimes of a whitish-grey, and sometimes reddish.

That skin, sticking very close to the fruit, cannot be taken off but by little bits, like scales, and, in process of time, by rubbing: so that most of those beans are commonly variegated with those two colours, when part of their skin has been rubbed off.

The inside of the fruit resembles a brown or blackish jelly, but it's consistency is almost as hard as that of horn, so that it is a difficult matter to break or cut it. If you grate it, which is much easier, in order to have it so as to make use of it, it appears whitish in those places which the points of the grater have touched, which deceived those who saw it of that colour. In order, therefore, to see it in it's natural colour, you must cut it in the middle with a knife, which you drive into it with a hammer or mallet. Finally, it is of a bitterish taste, and weighs commonly a little above a drachm, more or less, according to it's bigness.

R E M A R K S.

This drug, though of excellent use in physic, is still very scarce in Europe, for want of being sufficiently known. This seems, therefore, a very proper occasion to expatiate a little upon it's virtues, in order to give the public a more particular and distinct notion of them, either for use or for trade, than Monf. Lemery has done in his Dictionary of drugs.

First, it ought not properly to be reckoned a purging medicine, as that learned gentleman asserted, doubtless, from some

erroneous memoirs. It is by no means used for purging; and, though you should use it for that purpose, it would be a difficult matter to succeed, though the dose were never so large. One would run the danger of doing a great deal of harm, by causing convulsions, pains, sweat, &c. rather than producing evacuations by stools. In a word, if a large dose of it were given, its effects would be very odd, or dangerous, according to the constitution of the patient. But, being given in small quantities, by degrees, at several times, it will always be found a wonderful remedy, without causing any voiding upwards or downwards.

Secondly, it must be used as a bitter, and a rectifier of the nervous system: because its property is to alter and rectify the tone of the nerves, either of the stomach, or of the conduits through which the fluids pass, or of the glands where the filtrations are performed: by which it much better restores the functions of the viscera, which happen to be put out of order by too sedentary a life, or by too much indulging the body.

If we were better acquainted, by good observations, with the mechanism of the body, and with the effects of those things which enter into it daily, and are designed for its preservation, one would more accurately chuse those which are proper for each constitution, and for every stage of life, in order the better to prevent diseases, or to preserve health, so as to have no occasion for a physician. Finally, when the body laboured under any indisposition, we should be better able to chuse what is most naturally proper to cure it, and not commit too many blunders, as are daily committed by persons, who pretend to meddle with physic, often to their own detriment; or who would cure themselves by some pretended family secrets, which seems, indeed, a good saving method, but by which they often make their distempers worse than they were before, and render them sometimes incurable. They always commit a great many errors in all their proceedings relating to physic. Wherefore I do not propose this new remedy but to all physicians who are capable of knowing the nature of it by observations, and making a proper use of it.

The Indians, who are so well acquainted with it, are apt nevertheless to commit many blunders in the practice of it, and in making too universal a use of it, as they also do of the boati, mentioned hereafter in its proper place. Here follow therefore the properties which the Indians ascribe to the bean of St Ignatius, a name which the jesuits of the Manilles have given it, because of the goodness of those qualities; the Malays call it thivalonga.

1. They reckon it a specific remedy against all sorts of poison, and even use it as an amulet. But to this I give no credit.
2. They use it particularly to cure the diseases of the nerves, as the cramp, vapours, shakings, and convulsions, either taken inwardly, or in the form of an amulet. I have seen good effects of it in this respect, when taken inwardly.
3. For pains in the stomach and cholics, they give a little of it in cold water, which gives immediate ease. Its effects are excellent for those ills, as I have experienced.
4. In a miserere mei, or twisting of the guts, they give a little of it in cold water, which often procures a voiding upwards and downwards, and by that evacuation delivers the patient from that dangerous ailment. I have not seen any instance of this.
5. They esteem it excellent against bad air, and contagious or pestilential distempers. In times of the plague, they take a small dose of it every day, to keep themselves from the infection.
6. They reckon it a true specific against fainting fits, risings of the stomach, palpitations of the heart, swimings of the head, and suffocations, in which cases they give some of it with wine or arac, which soon cures the patient; and they prevent the return of those distempers, by making him take the same remedy for several days. I have found it very good in those cases.
7. They use it after the same manner against the bite or sting of venomous animals; and at the same time they put upon the wound some of that same drug, in the form of pap, made after their manner, by rubbing one of those beans with some water upon a rough stone.
8. Being applied in powder, it is a very powerful remedy to stop very soon all sorts of hæmorrhages or bleedings; in a bleeding of the nose they take it like snuff, and it stops it immediately.
9. They use it very particularly against worms.
10. They employ it most successfully in all sorts of fevers, making the patient take some of it twice a day in a little wine. It cures by sweating. I know it to be excellent in intermitting fevers, because it cures the stomach.
11. It produces, according to them, very good effects in a cold upon the lungs, in a cough, the asthma, and a fitch or pain in the side, if the patient do continually chew a little bit, or a small quantity of it, and swallow his spittle; for it cuts those viscid humours which stop the bronchia and the wind-pipe. I have seen some persons receive great benefit from it.
12. They likewise judge it very good for giving ease in nephritic pains, the gravel, the strangury, and the dropy, if it be taken every day.

13. They give it to women who have a difficult labour, thinking that it procures them an easy delivery.

14. It also cures the looseness and tenesmus, being taken twice a day in water.

15. Finally, they make an oil of it by infusion, or even by a little ebullition over the fire: that oil impregnates itself with all the strength and virtue of the fruit. They give a few drops of this oil inwardly, in a proper liquor, for the same disease, and particularly for the apoplexy.

The same oil serves also outwardly for all sorts of scabs, tetters, tumours, cramps, pains, gouty humours, shrunk members, &c. by anointing the distempered part. They use it for curing wounds and ulcers; and it is certain, that this remedy produces very good effects, being given in small doses, and with prudence.

The quantity they give is measured by the sight only and by custom, without weighing it, and is generally from 5 or 6 grains, to 8, 10, or 12. Their method of dividing this bean or fruit into very small parts, or very minute particles, is by rubbing it upon a flat stone, of a rough superficies, somewhat hollowed in the middle, and moistening it by little and little with water; which, together with what is separated from the bean, forms a substance of the consistency of pap or paste, of which they take up the requisite quantity with the point of a knife, and dissolve it in a proper liquor to make a drink of it.

This method of thus preparing all their remedies taken from wood, or other hard substances, is very well; but remedies of this kind more minutely divided by alcohol, or alkool, by the chymists, produce their effect much sooner, than when given in a coarser manner: yet, perhaps, many remedies, which are taken in a plain manner, and such as nature affords them, without the use of fire, produce their effects much more efficaciously: this ought to be enquired into very carefully, and by repeated trials.

As I have a certain quantity of these beans by me, and can get more by the correspondence I have with persons in the service of the East-India company at Batavia, I propose to furnish those with them, who may have occasion for them, as well as with the remedies that are made of the beans under different terms, and which I hope to acquaint the public with, which will be more convenient for use.

The name of bean which has been given to this fruit is very improper, since it is not leguminous: it grows just as it is brought from the Indies, without any coat or shell, each piece by itself, upon a pedicle, at the top of the shoots or branches of the tree that bears it: but it is of no consequence to alter that name, which use has pretty well established at present. Memoirs of Monf. Garcin, of Neufchatel, M. D.

French beans pay duty of importation in France like other pulse.

B E A R, a wild beast, too well known to require a particular description in this place.

We may distinguish two sorts of bears; the land-bears and the sea bears, which might more properly be called ice-bears.

The former commonly retire into the mountains, and the latter come over the ice of the north sea: of these there are some of a monstrous, and almost incredible, size, in Nova Zembla.

Bear-skins are a sort of furs very much esteemed, and there is a very large trade of them, whether they be the skins of young bears, or of old ones. The latter are commonly used to make housings, or horse-cloths, or in the more northern climes, for bags to keep the feet warm in the sharpest cold of the winter. The skins of young bears serve to make muffs, and other such things for warmth or ornament.

Besides the great quantity of bear-skins which the sellmongers sell, the druggists sell also bears fat, or grease, which they commonly get from Switzerland, Savoy, and Canada.

That grease is a powerful remedy for the cure of the king's evil and the rheumatism. It is used with success for curing the gout, and it is also employed in several Galenic compositions. Bear's grease, in order to be of a good quality, must be chosen newly melted, greyish, clammy, of a strong and pretty bad smell, and of middling consistence or thickness. That which is too white is adulterated, and mixed with common tallow.

BEARER of a bill, is the person in whose hands the bill is, and in favour of whom the last order, or endorsement, was made.

When a bill is made payable to bearer, it is understood to be payable to him in whose hands it is after it becomes due; and though, in the payment of a bill of this kind, there needs no order or transfer, yet it is good to know to whom it is paid.

BEARING, (in geography and navigation) the situation of one place from another, with regard to the points of the compass, or the angle which a line drawn through the two places makes with the meridians of each.

BEARING (in the sea language). When a ship sails towards the shore, she is said to bear in with the land.—When a ship that was to windward comes under another ship's stern, and so gives her the wind, she is said to bear under her lee.—If a ship sails into an harbour with the wind large, or before the wind, she is said to bear in with the harbour, &c.

In crowding they say, bear up the helm, that is, let the ship

go more large before the wind.—Bear up round, that is, let the ship go between her two fleets, directly before the wind.

BEAST, is said in general of all animals, that are not endued with reason.

BEAST of burden, in the commercial stile, is said of all four-footed animals which serve to carry burdens and merchandizes on their backs. Those that are most commonly used are elephants, dromedaries, camels, horses, mules, asses, the sheep of Mexico and Peru, and the vicuña. There are also some places on the coast of Africa where they use oxen: nay, even large dogs are sometimes employed for that purpose, as may be seen in Flanders, and in some other countries.

BEAUCAIRE. A fair famous throughout all Europe, and the most celebrated of all those that are kept in France. It was formerly kept within the city of Beaucaire in Languedoc, from whence it took its name, and where there are still to be seen several piazzas, or arches, which cross the streets, and under which the traders did probably expose their wares to sell: but it is a long time since the reputation of this fair, and the concourse of people resorting thither increased to such a degree, that they have been obliged to keep it partly in the open country, under tents, which they pitch up in a meadow near the city.

R E M A R K S.

This fair begins the 22d of July, or St Magdalen's festival, and continues but three days. People resort thither from all parts of the world, and there is no merchandize, how scarce or curious soever it be, but may be met with there. So that, notwithstanding the short time it lasts, there is such a prodigious trade, that it amounts to above six millions of livres. The inspector of the manufactures of Nismes, assisted sometimes by his brethren of the neighbouring districts, together with the judges of the police of manufactures, and the masters, wardens, and jurats, visit and mark all foreign stuffs. The directors of the five great farms of some neighbouring districts are also used to go thither, to take care of the concerns of their respective farms.

The freedom of the fair of Beaucaire is a privilege granted to the inhabitants of that city, in the year 1217, by Raymond count of Toulouse, both on account of their constant loyalty to him, and because of that city's most happy situation for trade. Since the province of Languedoc has been united to the crown of France, that privilege has been often renewed by several kings, particularly in the year 1483, by Charles VIII, and again under the reign of Lewis XII, and under that of Lewis XIII.

The conveniency of the river Rhone, on which the city of Beaucaire stands, draws to its fair the merchandizes of Burgundy, Lyonnais, Switzerland, and Germany. The sea, from which it is but seven leagues distant, brings thither those of the Levant, Italy, and Spain, and by the royal canal it receives all that can come from Upper Languedoc, Bourdeaux, Britany, and the ocean.

The merchants who chiefly resort to that fair, are those of almost all France, either by themselves, or by their factors. Those of Spain, Italy, and Germany, come also thither in great numbers; and there are few nations in Europe, whose traders are not concerned in this fair. There are always Armenians, often Persians, and sometimes merchants from oriental countries still more remote.

The chief merchandizes sold there, are spice, drugs, hard wares, woolen and silk stuffs, Spanish and Barbary wool, besides that of the growth of the country: in a word, all that is either produced or manufactured in France, or imported from abroad; and pretty often even jewels are sold at this fair.

There is likewise a great trade in money by exchange, and remittances to all parts of the world.

As this is the only fair in all Languedoc which is really free, it is properly with a design to enjoy the freedom, that the merchants resort to the other fairs in that province, in order to buy up there those merchandizes which they have a mind to carry to the fair of Beaucaire: and, how famous soever the fairs of Pezenaz and Montagnac be, we may truly say that they are kept only to prepare matters for that of Beaucaire.

Before the year 1632, the freedom of this fair was full and intire; but, since that time, it has suffered some diminution, by the establishment of the duty of re-appraising, which was laid on all merchandizes in the province of Languedoc, of which duty the merchandizes brought to the fair were not free. That duty, indeed, is not very considerable, since, one year with another, it does not bring in to the king above 2500 livres per annum. They pay also another small duty of 12 sols per bale of merchandizes which are not unpacked, the farmer pretending that they ought all to be unpacked. That duty is called *abonnement*, and does not produce above 5000 livres. If the intire freedom was restored, it would, perhaps, encourage merchants to improve their trade there.

BEAUCE, the northern division of the principality of Orleans, in France, is situated between Orleansois, Blaifois, Perche, and the Ile of France.

At **CHARTRES** the chief trade is that of corn, this country be-

ing so fruitful that it can furnish several provinces with corn. They have also some manufactures, for which the water of the Eure, on which this city is situate, is reckoned very proper.

PLUVIERS is a small, but trading town, on the rivulet Oeuf, where they keep a market every Saturday, and drive a considerable trade in corn, which the neighbouring fields produce. The soil produces also wine and saffron.

BEAVER, or **CASTOR**, an amphibious, four-footed animal, which lives sometimes upon land, and sometimes in the water. There are some which do not at all live in the water, but go to it only to drink, like other land animals: these dig holes in the ground to dwell in, like rabbits and foxes. They are called lazy beavers, or land beavers.

As the beavers feed only on fish, they keep commonly on the banks of such rivers as abound with fish, in unfrequented places, where boats cannot pass. In the spring, all those of the same district, or quarter, gather together, and, walking two and two, they go in a body to hunt for animals of their own species; and all those they can catch they lead into their dens, where they make them work like slaves. With their teeth they cut down whole trees, and these again into small pieces, each of a certain length, and carry those materials into their habitations, where they build with them apartments for themselves, and rooms, or lodges, to lay up the provisions which they gather in the summer. This we learn from the Travels from Moscow to China, by Mr Ever. Ibrantz Ides, ambassador from Muscovy in the year 1692; which travels are inserted in the eighth volume of The collection of voyages to the north (*Recueil des voyages au nord*).

The Russians, and the people of Oustiodg, add that travellers, who go a hunting for those animals, never carry off all those they find in the same den, but always leave there a male and a female, that they may find others in the same place the following year.

R E M A R K S.

Since the French have made settlements in Canada, the public has been very much undeceived, with regard to the fabulous stories which the ancients believed and related concerning beavers; and it has been found, by an infinite number of experiments, not only that this animal, like most others, can be tamed, which is contrary to the opinion of several moderns, but also that it has not that natural instinct to bite off a part of its body, in order to escape the hunters: which instinct almost all the ancient authors ascribe to it; except, however, Pliny, who asserts the contrary, though Monsieur Furetiere quoted him as being of that opinion.

The largest beavers are three or four feet long, and 12 or 16 inches broad in the middle of the breast, and from one hip to the other. They weigh commonly from 40 to 60 pounds.

The head of a beaver resembles that of a mountain rat: its snout is long; its jaws are almost equal, very strong, furnished each with 10 large and sharp teeth, two of which are incisive, and eight molar; they are deeply rooted, and follow the curvature, or bending of the jaws, which gives them a prodigious strength, so that the castor can cut down large trees with its teeth. It is to be observed that they are not directly opposite to each other, but pass over one another, being designed to work like scissars. The beaver has very small eyes. Its ears are short, round, hairy on the outside, but bare within. Its body is short and thick, covered with two sorts of hair, commonly brown, and shining, sometimes black, but seldom white. The hair on the back is from an inch and a half to two inches long: it grows shorter towards the head and the tail; it is the roughest, and the most shining; it is fine like a man's hair. The hair on the belly is a kind of down, very fine and very close, about an inch long: it preserves the animal from cold, and serves to make hats, and other manufactures: the workmen call it, improperly, Muscovy wool. Its tail has no resemblance to that of any land animal; it comes much nearer to that of a fish. It is about a foot long, without hair, being covered with a scaly skin, under which is found a firm fat, pretty much like the flesh of a porpoise, or sea hog; the scales are as thick as parchment.

The beaver uses its tail not only to swim, with the help of its hind legs, but it serves also as a beater, a trowel, and a hod, to prepare and carry the mortar, when the animal wants to build its mansion, which is sometimes two or three stories high. Its legs are short, and covered with very short hair. Its fore-feet resemble those of the badger, and the beaver uses them like hands, to hold its prey. Its hind feet are like those of water-fowls: so that the beaver can walk on dry land, and swim in the water.

This animal, both the male and female, has inwardly, at the bottom of the os pubis, four large pouches, or bags; the two first, which are higher than the other two, are of the figure of a pear, and open the one into the other: they are commonly three inches long, by an inch and a half in breadth at the bottom, and contain a resinous and foetid matter, called *castoreum*, of which we shall give an account in its proper place. The two other pouches, which hang lower, are contained

tained in the inferior cavities; they appear round at the bottom, after one has taken off the common membrane in which they are both wrapped up. Sometimes there are three of those bags, as it were in parcels, which are filled with an oily, yellowish, and ill-scented substance: each of these pouches is commonly two inches and a half long, by about 19 or 25 lines diameter: a line is the twelfth part of an inch.

The beaver is good to eat, and is reckoned half flesh and half fish. Its upper part, as far as the legs, is real flesh; but its inferior, or lower part, towards the tail, which is moist in the water, is of the nature and taste of fish.

The savages hunt the beavers from the beginning of November to the month of April, because at that time those animals are very well furnished with hair. These people run along the little rivers, and, as soon as they perceive a caufey, they may be sure that the beaver's hut is not far off, and approach it as near as they can. These savages are so skilful in laying snares for them, that not one of them escapes.

This account and description of the beaver cannot but be true, being extracted from that which Monsieur Sarazin, the French king's physician in Canada, sent to Monsieur Fournefort, and is to be met with in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1704. However, we shall add here a few more particulars, which Arthur Dobbs, Esq; acquaints us with, from an unquestionable authority. The beavers, says he, are of three colours, the brown-reddish, the black, and the white. The first is the cheapest; the black is the most valued by the Hudson Bay company in England, and the white the most valued in Canada, where they sell for 18 s. sterling, whilst the others sell only for five or six. These skins are extremely white, and have a fine lustre, no snow being brighter, and they have a long fur, or hair. The beaver's chiefest food is the poplar, or tremble; but they also eat fallows, alders, and most other trees not having a resinous juice: the middle bark is their food. In May, when the wood is not plenty, they live upon a large root, which grows in the marshes, a fathom long, and is as thick as a man's leg; the French call it volet: but the beavers are not so good then as when they feed upon trees. They are excellent food, but the tongue and the tail are the most delicious parts of the whole. They are very fat from November till the end of March. They breed once in a year, and have from 10 to 15 at a litter; so that they multiply very fast.

This, it seems, should be a proper place to mention the ingenious works of these animals; the wonderful banks, or moles, which they build with no other help but their paws and their tails; their republics, which are so well governed; and many other particulars, so surprizing, that, when one reads them in the accounts of voyagers, and particularly in those of Baron de la Hontan, we can hardly believe but there must be in such excellent animals something more than a bare mechanism, or even instinct. But, as these curiosities have more connexion with speculative philosophy than commerce, we shall not dwell any longer upon them; and, in the remaining part of this article, we shall speak only of the trade that is carried on in their rich furs, and of the uses to which they can be applied.

Though there are beavers to be found in several parts of Europe, as in France, along the rivers Rhone, Isere, and Ouse, yet they are more frequently to be met with in Germany and in Poland, along the Elbe, and other rivers. The French, and other merchants, trade chiefly in beavers of Canada, from whence they get almost all those they use; and under that denomination are comprehended those that come from Acadia, from Hudson's-Bay, and from all parts of North-America. The merchants distinguish three sorts of beavers, though they are all the skins of the same animal. The new beaver, the dry beaver, and the fat beaver.

The new beaver, which is also called white beaver, or Muscovy beaver, because it is commonly kept to be sent into Muscovy, is that which the savages catch in their winter hunting. It is the best, and the most proper for making fine furs, because it has lost none of its hair by shedding.

The dry beaver, which is sometimes called lean beaver, comes from the summer hunting, which is the time when these animals lose part of their hair.

Though this sort of beaver be much inferior to the former, yet it may also be employed in furs; but it is chiefly used in the manufacture of hats. The French call it summer castor, or beaver.

The fat beaver is that which has contracted a certain gross and oily humour, from the sweat which exhales from the bodies of the savages, who wear it for some time. Though this sort be better than the dry beaver, yet it is used only in the making of hats.

Besides hats and furs, in which the beaver's hair is commonly used, they attempted in France, in the year 1699, to make other manufactures of it: and, accordingly, they made cloths, flannels, stockings, &c. partly of beaver's hair, and partly of Segovia wool. This manufactory, which was set up at Paris, in St. Anthony's suburb, succeeded at first pretty well; and, according to the genius of the French, the novelty of the thing brought into some repute the stuffs, stockings,

gloves, and cloth, made of beaver's hair. But they went out of fashion on a sudden, because it was found, by experience, that they were of a very bad wear, and, besides, that the colours faded very much: when they had been wet, they became dry and hard, like felt, which occasioned the miscarriage of the manufactory for that time.

When the hair has been cut off from the beaver's skins, to be used in the manufacturing of hats, those skins are still employed by several workmen; namely, by the trunk-makers, to cover trunks and boxes; by the shoe-makers, to put into flippers; and by turners, to make sieves for sifting grain and seeds.

The French king had granted, to the East-India company of that nation, an exclusive privilege for the sale of beaver, by a decree of his council, dated the 30th of May 1721: but judging, almost immediately afterwards, that it was more proper to suspend the execution of it for a time, he re-ordered it, by a decree of the 20th of July following: finally, having, since that time, caused the memoirs sent from Canada to be examined, as well as those which were presented by the directors of the company, with regard to those two decrees, his majesty, by a new decree of the 28th of January, 1722, ordered,

1. That the decree of the 30th of May, 1721, should be executed, according to its tenor and purport, and that the company should accordingly enjoy the sole privilege of selling tobacco, agreeably to the letters patents of August 1717, and to the decrees of July 11, 1718, and June 4, 1719, on condition that the said company, according to their offers, shall pay, for the future, in Canada, 4 livres for the fat beaver, and 40 sols for the dry beaver.

2. That all private persons, except such manufacturers of hats who had beavers skins remaining of those which they imported, in consequence of the liberty granted by the decree of the 16th of May, 1720, shall be obliged to sell them before the 1st of May of the then present year 1722, without sending them out of the kingdom, under the penalty of forfeiting the merchandize, and paying a fine of 10,000 livres; after which time they shall be obliged to deliver to the company what they shall have left, at the price abovementioned, deducting tare, as is usual at the delivery of this merchandize.

3. Finally, as to the beaver imported from Canada since October 1721, which lies in the warehouses of the staple-towns of Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and other ports, and which has been bought contrary to the decree of the 30th of May, 1721, it shall also, without delay, be delivered to the same company, at the prices abovementioned, and a sol per pound besides for freight.

Beaver-skins, including the robes and bits, which are not in whole skins, pay duty of importation in France at the rate of 8 livres and 4 sols per pound; which amount to 820 livres per 100 weight, according to the decree of May 17, 1693, and cannot be imported but by Roan, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, and la Rochelle.

By the same decree, beaver and otter hair cannot be imported but by the same ports as the beavers skins, and pay duty of importation at the rate of 15 livres, 7 sols, and 2 deniers per pound, which amounts to 1536 livres per 100 weight.

BEAVER, signifies also a hat made entirely of beaver's hair.

A half beaver is a hat in which other hair has been mixed with beaver's hair. For more on this head, see CANADA, and HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY.

BEDFORDSHIRE, a county in England, bounded on the south and south-east by Hertfordshire; on the north and north-east by Huntington and Cambridgeshires; on the north-west by Northamptonshire; and on the west by Buckinghamshire. The air is mild and healthy; the soil a deep clay, and fruitful both in tillage and pasture, in the north parts, but sandy in the middle. Its rivers are the Ouse and the Iwell.

The navigation of the former is of great service to the corn-trade, whereof great quantities are sent down by it to Lynn, a port-town in Norfolk, where it is shipped for Holland. This river divides the county into two parts: the northern, which is the less, is the most woody; the southern has spacious fields, yielding plentiful crops of plump, white, and strong barley, which, made into malt, is frequently sold in London, and other parts, for that of Hertfordshire. It has forests and parks, well stored with deer, fat pasture for cattle, produces great quantities of butter and cheese, with fuller's-earth, and woad for dyeing.

Its chief manufactures are bone-lace and straw-hats. It is a county well inhabited, and full of gentry.

BEDFORD, which is the county town, is a clean, well-built, populous place, and stands north of the Ouse. The neighbouring soil is exceeding fruitful, especially of the best wheat in England, which is carried by waggons from hence and the north part of the county, 20 miles beyond it, to the markets of Hitchin and Hertford, where it is bought again, ground, and carried in the meal to London. As it stands on such a navigable river, it drives a great corn trade, especially in the exportation of barley to Holland, by way of Lynn.

LEIGHTON-BEAUDERART, by contraction called BUZZARD, is on the borders of Buckinghamshire. Its market is generally well stored with cattle, and its Whitfuntide fair with coach

and cart-horses, brought out of Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, &c. and bought up here by jockies from London, Surrey, Suffolk, and other parts.

WOODBURN, noted for plenty of fuller's-earth near it; and likewise another kind of earth, which petrifies wood into stone. This town is also famous for the manufacture of jockey-caps.

DUNSTABLE and the **LUTONS**, and the south parts of this county, as far as the borders of Buckinghamshire and Hertfordshire; the people are taken up with the manufacture of bone-lace, wherein they are wonderfully increased and improved.—Also the manufactures of straw-work, especially straw-hats, spreads itself from Hertfordshire into this county, and is very greatly increased within these twenty years past.

The woad, for which this county is famous, is said to be the plant with which the ancient Britons used to dye their bodies, that they might appear the more terrible to their enemies; but rather, as some think, to preserve them from the inclemency of the weather. It is cultivated here after this manner: they sow it every year, and the old woad, except what they save for seed, is plucked up. The beginning of March is the season for sowing it, and the middle of May for cropping it. It is best in a dry year, but far more plentiful in a wet one. It is cropped commonly four or five times a year, as it comes up; but the first crop is best, and every one after it gradually worse. When gathered, it is immediately ground small in a mill, till it becomes fit to ball; and, when balled, it is laid upon hurdles to dry, and then ground into powder. After this it is spread on a floor, and watered, which is called couching; and then it is turned every day, till it is perfectly dry and mouldy, which is called silvering. After silvering it is weighed, and put into a bag, containing 200 weight, and then sent to the dyers, to fry it, who set a price on it, according to its goodness; the best is valued at about 18 l. a tun. See **WOAD**.

BEE, a kind of fly, or insect, which produces honey, that sweet and useful juice, of which there is so large a trade carried on in Europe, and especially in France. The bee also produces wax.

The bees, or honey-flies, are little insects, the nature and conduct of which is no less wonderful than their labour is beneficial to mankind, since they furnish us with honey and wax, both which are very considerable commodities in the way of traffic.

Of the generation of bees.

The production of bees, at first, is, that they breed from a kind of little white germen, or sperm, that is posited at the bottom of the small holes, or sockets, that make up the honey-comb, which the bees make in their hives. This sperm, assisted by the natural heat of the bees, increases, and becomes a knot of white maggots, which, at the beginning of its formation, has no resemblance of the bee, but, in a month's time, it comes out of the socket. The bees generate from February to the end of October, if the hive be in good condition: they swarm in May and June; but the May swarms are more valued, because they are stronger than those that are later.

How the bees prepare for their preservation.

Towards the end of the winter, as soon as the weather becomes a little mild, as in the month of February, the bees venture out of their hives, range the fields, and bring home wax of different colours, as white, yellow, or red, which sticks, like little lentils, on the hinder part of their thighs, and which, when entered into the hives, they industriously quit themselves of, and form with it their lodgments. It is observable, that the same sockets are the places wherein they deposit their sperm, whence are generated the other bees, and which are filled with honey, as they become empty, by the production of the young bees which they inclose. They collect their honey-comb, or wax, from all sorts of flowers, as the rose, the orange, the pease-bloom, and the daisy-flowers. They bring, besides the common wax, a purplish kind, firmer than the yellow, and serving them to stop the cracks about their hives. This wax is of a strong smell, and very different from the common kind.

How the bees gather their honey.

The best season of the year for the bees to gather their honey, is towards the latter end of April, and in May, at which time they go out by break of day, when the air is gentle and serene, and gather the dew, which is more plentiful and common at that time than any other of the year. They return as quick as they can into their hives, to discharge, into the holes assigned them, the honey-dew they have gathered from the simples of the field, and which they have sucked into their bodies, and throw it up again, as pigeons do their food wherewith they feed their young; and, when they have filled a socket with this honey, they close and seal it up with a small piece of wax, to prevent it from flowing out again.

Towards the end of June and July, when the dews are not so plentiful as during the months of April and May, it happens still there are some dewy mornings, in which the bees

are not less industrious than at other times to make their harvest.

When they swarm, and the young ones which compose the swarm are come out of the hive, they make, as it were, a cloud of flies in the air, that looks black, and is formed; as they march out, into seeming squadrons and battalions, like an army. They follow close their leader, who is much larger than the rest, and whose wings are much shorter, and who is of a reddish colour. When they lose their leader, they become vagabonds, and this is a certain loss to the proprietor. When the swarm are got out, they usually assemble together, and lodge upon some shady branch; and, being there closely knit, it is then proper to hive them, lest they should desert; for, should they stand long, till the sun shines upon them, they will then separate and fly away. When they are hived, it is proper to set them in the shade, from the heat of the sun, which might melt their new wax.

It is also to be observed, that the bees wax, for three years together, is very plentifully productive in breeding of the bees, and that the age of the honeycomb is very easy to be known by its colour; for the first year it is whitish, the second it is yellow, and the third brown; but, when older, it turns black, is barren, and without production; and then the bees cease to make honey, or breed more swarms.

I have hives, says a gentleman who was a curious observer of these animals, made of two pieces, in form of a barrel, or sugar-loaf, cut in the middle; so that I need not destroy the bees; and I take the honey of the hives from year to year, by lifting up one year one part, and the following the other, according as they are found full, and, instead of those that are full of honey, I put empty ones. It is remarkable that bees delight much near water, and watery places, using a great deal of it in assisting them to make honey.

* Dr. Warder confirms the same, and directs small troughs of water, with thin boards swimming therein, for the bees to drink at, and to prevent their drowning.

It is further observable, that amongst the bees there are drones, which will not go into the fields at all; or if they do, which is but from noon till about four o'clock; they bring nothing home with them, but, on the contrary, eat the honey made by others; and the industrious bees kill the drones †, which are much larger and blacker than the others, and have no stings; but, when you press their tails, there appear two small horns, like transparent skins, which are yellow at the end. In Poland and Mulcovy the bees make their hives in the trunks of old trees, and afford plenty of honey, on which the peasants almost subsist, without any assistance, which is contrary to the nature of ours.

† The drones, according to some, are judged to be stallions to the queen-bee, who peoples this little commonwealth.

In some countries, where the bees have not all the year round a competency of agreeable matter whereon to feed, a method has been found to remove the hives, with their inhabitants, elsewhere, and afterwards bring them back again. According to the curious description of Egypt by Monsieur Maillet, this is done in the following manner:

The inundation of the Nile rendering the countries very fertile, the inhabitants send their bees annually into distant countries, in order to get sustenance, at a time when they could not find any at home, and afterwards bring them back. The people of Lower Egypt observed anciently that all the fruits of the earth ripened sooner in Upper Egypt than in their parts, which made a difference of above six weeks between the two countries: hence they gave their bees the advantage. The expedient which they made use of then is employed at present. About the end of October, all who possess hives embark them on the Nile; and convey them up that river, quite to Upper Egypt; they observing to arrive thither at the time when, the inundation withdrawing, the lands have been sowed, and the flowers begin to bud.

The hives being come to this part of Egypt, are there placed pyramidally, in boats prepared for that purpose, after being marked and numbered by the several owners who sent them there. In this place the bees feed, in the fields, during some days. Afterwards, when it is supposed that they have got in all the honey and wax that could be met with within two or three leagues round, their conductors convey them in the same boats, two or three leagues lower, and there leave the laborious insects so long time as is necessary for them to collect all the riches of the spot in question. Thus the nearer they come to the place of their abode, the earth forwards its productions, and the plants flourish in proportion.—In fine, about the beginning of February, after having travelled through the whole length of Egypt (gathering all the rich produce of their delightful banks of the Nile) they arrive at the mouth of that river, towards the ocean, whence they set out, and return to their respective habitations: for care is taken to set down exactly, in a roll, or register, every district whence the hives set out in the beginning of the season; their number, and the names of the

* particular persons who sent them; as likewise the mark or number of the boats in which they were placed, according to their several habitations.'

This seems to prove how exceedingly advantageous it is for persons to live in the neighbourhood of a great river, when their fields are not very abundant in flowers, or sufficient to support these animals during every season. I conceive that bees, by taking a little voyage upon a river, and enjoying the spring of a dry country, with the autumn of a fat, shady soil, may thus be supported the year round. But, in order to do this, the owners of hives must live near a navigable river, otherwise what has been observed would be defeated; and many places have not such an advantage.

Yet this defect may be supplied by land carriage. Columella informs us, that the Greeks constantly conveyed every year bees from Achaia into Attica; and this because that, at the time when the flowers in Achaia are gone, those of Attica began to blow. Monfort relates, that the people of the country of Juliers used the same practice; and that, at a certain season of the year, they carried bees to the foot of mountains covered with thyme, and that of the wild kind. As these instances, being borrowed from remote times, may not have their due weight, it may not be amiss to observe that Monsieur Proutaut makes his bees travel like those of the Greeks of Achaia. This ingenious artist has set up a manufacture for whitening wax, at Yeuve-la-Ville, near Petivres, in the diocese of Orleans, in France, and there keeps a great number of hives.

This spot is one of those in which flowers become scarce very soon, and where few are seen, after the corn is ripened. He then sends his bees into Beauce, or le Gatinois, in case it has rained in those parts. This is a journey of about 20 miles. But, if he concludes that the bees could not meet, in either of these countries, wherewith to employ themselves advantageously, he then has them carried into Sologne, about the beginning of August, as knowing they will there meet with buck-wheat in flower, which will continue so till about the end of September.

The land conveyance of these insects being far more difficult than that by water, the contrivance of Mr. Proutaut is, first, to examine those hives, some of whose honey-combs might be broken or separated, by the jolting of the vehicle, to prevent which they are made fast one to the other, and against the partition of the hive, by means of small sticks, which may be disposed differently, as occasion will shew. This being done, every hive is set upon a packing-cloth, or something like it, the threads of which are very wide: they then turn up the sides of this cloth, and lay them on the outside of each hive, and tie them together with a piece of small pack-thread, observing to wind it several times round. They afterwards place in a cart, built for that purpose, as many hives as it will hold. The hives are set two and two, the whole length of the cart. Over these others are placed, which make, as it were, a second lay, or bed, of hives. These must be always put topsy-turvy; it is for the sake of their honey-combs, and to fix them the better, that the hives are disposed after this manner; for such as have no honey-combs, or very small ones, are placed in their natural situation. Care is taken in this stowage, not to let one hive stop up another, it being essentially necessary for the bees to have air; and it is for this reason they are wrapped up in a coarse cloth, the threads of which are wove very wide, in order that the air may have a free passage, and qualify the violent heat which these insects raise in their hives, especially when they move about very tumultuously, as often happens in these carts. Those used for this purpose in Yèvre hold from 30 to 48 hives. As soon as all are thus stowed, the caravans set out. If the season is sultry, they travel only in the night; but, in cool days, they make a proper advantage of them. You will imagine that they do not ride post: the horses must not be permitted even to trot; they are led slowly, and through the smoothest roads. If any hives are void of honey-combs, or have not sufficient to support the bees during their journey, which is more than of one day, they are made to stay in the place where they happen to be. The sort of hives we are speaking of, are taken out of the cart, are set upon the ground, and, after removing the packing-cloth, an aperture is made at the bottom of every hive, by which the bees issue forth, in order to procure themselves provisions abroad. The first field they come to serves as an inn to them. In the evening, as soon as they are all returned, the hives are shut up, and being placed again in the cart they proceed on their journey. When the caravan is arrived at their journey's end, the baskets are set up and down in the gardens, or in fields adjacent to the houses of different peasants, who, for a very small reward, undertake to look after them. It is thus that, in such spots as are not very abundant in flowers, means are found to supply the wants of bees during the whole year.

R E M A R K S.

Honey and wax, the productions of these delicate animals, being commodities of very general use and benefit to mankind, and affording divers branches of traffic, of no incon-

siderable extent, is the reason of our intimating the measures which have been suggested for the more than ordinary care and nourishment of these active insects. It is certain that the methods beforementioned have been successfully practised; and how much farther the profitable care of these useful creatures may be carried, is not easy to say. It does not seem at all irrational to conjecture that variety of melliferous herbs and flowers might, in many parts, be planted adjacent to the residence of bees, without their being made itinerants, which would, perhaps, afford them constant nourishment at all seasons of the year: that is to say, that such quantities of suitable herbs, flowers, and vegetables, might, by the means of hot-beds, be preserved, so as to afford them sustenance at all times. And these measures, together with well-contrived, warm apiaries, I am inclined to think, might render bees far more profitable than they have yet been.

The making essays of this nature would well become persons of leisure, and who are rurally well situated for such experiments. The expence would be inconsiderable to people of fortune, and the amusement not a little engaging and delectable to those who have a true goût for the studies of nature. We are convinced, from instances innumerable, that art will surprisngly assist nature, and be productive of infinite variety of effects, which were unknown to our forefathers, who had made no progress in the experimental philosophy, which is the only kind of philosophy that can be of utility in regard to traffic. We well know the care and tenderness requisite for the preservation of that other important animal, the silk-worm: without the application of art for their breed and nourishment, we should not experience that plenty of their estimable and delightful productions.

Honey, properly managed, we are sensible yields a most delicate kind of liquor. This is much used in the northern countries, where great cold hinders the growth of the grape, and production of wine; but kind nature has bountifully provided them with honey, which they make into a spirituous liquor with water, and esteem it as much, yea, some prefer it before wine.

Mead, metheglin, and hydromel, are all prepared from honey, which is a sweet juice, exuding from the flowers of a great variety of vegetables, bitter as well as sweet, and sucked up from them by the bees, and laid up in their combs. Honey was formerly thought to have different qualities, according to the different plants and flowers it was gathered from; but later discoveries have proved this to be false. Honey is a natural soap, attenuating, aperitive, loosening, cleansing, and stimulating, of very high esteem before the use of sugar, and, in several cases, far exceeds it, as for a pectoral, diuretic, &c. and neither heats, dries, nor constringes, till after fermentation; for, before that, the spirit is not set at liberty.

But we must consider these three liquors as they are after fermentation. All these are made with honey and water, and some aromatics, as cinnamon, ginger, nutmegs, cloves, &c. and fermented with yeast after boiling; the last is only honey and water boiled, and barrelled close, without fermentation. These are the chief drinks of Russia, Muscovy, Lithuania, and Tartary; and many in Britain are wise enough not to despise those liquors; for what is produced from the animal nature may afford more kindly and salubrious drinks than any from the vegetable.

Fermented mead, having the essential oil and salts of the flowers from which the honey is gathered, broken, and mixed with the water, and reduced to a subtle, volatile spirit, becomes of the nature of wine, when it is kept to a right age, i. e. till it be clear, fine, and of a pleasant, vinous taste; which, if rightly made, it must be, considering that honey is the most essential, subtle, and fine parts of flowers; and for this reason, mead must be a very wholesome liquor, because it is a curious and chemical collection of the best principles of aromatic and cordial flowers.

Mead must also be an excellent nervous wine, increase the animal spirits, and inflate the delicate tubes with its volatile and exalted parts, and fit them better for vigorous motion and action; and, as it affords plenty of nervous juices that will supply the nerves of involuntary motion, strengthen the heart, promote circulation, and prove a great cordial, far beyond brandy, aqua vitæ, or French wine; because, their spirits being stripped of their mucous phlegm, and left naked, they soon exhale and leave their phlegm to thicken the blood, load the vessels, and weaken the fibres; but the spirits of mead and metheglin, being still more wrapped up in the oily parts, continue longer in the body, invigorate the solids, and keep them longer in play.

Mead is excellent in all languishings and decays of nature; it is a milk for old people, a great strengthener of the solids of the phlegmatic, an attenuator of the blood, an invigorator of the loaded abdominal vessels, and a powerful reviver of the spirits of melancholy persons.—It is a powerful diuretic, cleanses the kidneys, urethers, and bladder, of all sandy, mucilaginous, gravelly, and exotic, tardy bodies.—As it affords plenty of animal spirits, which invigorate the nerves and fibres, they attenuate, mix, and prepare the blood for secretion and excretion; by this property, and its multitude of essential salts, it scours the glands and lymphatics, cleanses

away the viscidities of the blood; it fortifies the stomach, and promotes digestion in the bowels, by its gently stimulating the muscular fibres, attenuates the viscidities lodged in the glands, and affords a nervous juice.

But hydromel, that is, honey and water boiled, and kept unfermented, with cinnamon, ginger, and nutmegs, is a powerful cleanser of the lungs, it helps expectoration, and sheaths the sharp prickling salts which tickle the tracheal glands; for that, not having undergone fermentation, abounds with many oily parts and salts, which, not being so minute and subtle as in the other, prick not, nor stimulate the nerves and glands; neither are the oily parts so gross as to clog and load the small vessels of the lungs, but soften and smooth them, sheath the sharp irritating salts, and smooth the insides of the vessels with a noble balsamic litus, which defends them from pungency and irritation, till they recover strength and elasticity; whereby they shake off and propel any viscid or saline moisture, which might stuff, load, or tickle them. Thus are honey and mead of unspeakable service to the diseases of the breast. And also where the bowels are sluggish and inactive, and do not answer; or where they are too dry and stiff, and want glandular moisture to expedite the passage of the fæces, mead is good, because it's gross salts prick and stir up the intestines to their office, or it's gross oil lubricates and softens them, causes the glands to give way to the impulse of the circulating blood, and their excretory ducts are softened and widened; hence a large quantity of intestinal glandular juice, whereby stool is provoked. But vinous mead has not this effect, because the fermentation has subtilized it's oil and salts so much, that they readily get through the first passages into the blood, without producing that effect. The œnomali (i. e. wine and honey mixed) of the antients, will still make the wine more pectoral; that is to say, the oil and viscid parts of the honey will obtund or sheath up the tartar of the wine, so as it will not prick nor tickle the glands of the throat, to excite a troublesome cough; the wine, on the other hand, will make the honey more cordial, stomachic, and of quicker digestion.

Mead, and all preparations of honey, are most disagreeable to choleric constitutions, because it soon degenerates into the nature of bile, causes terrible gripes, bilious cholics, and not seldom death: it is also hurtful in ardent fevers, because it's spirits will increase the violent and impetuous motion of the humours, and exasperate the disease. It is no less unsuitable for hot summer weather, because then the solids are lax, digestion slow, and it, lying on the stomach, meets with the biles, and turns into an acid, which presently raises a violent cholick: so that, as cyder is adapted for the summer, so is this for the winter. Mead, drank before it be fine, palls the stomach, goes slowly off, causes belchings, flatulency, indigestion, nausea and vomiting, from the viscidities it had not yet deposited, wherein the contained air rarifies, expands, and causes an explosion; and these viscidities, meeting with the bile, easily turn into the same, and so cause bilious vomiting, pain in the bowels, and looseness; and, because it contains both much spirit and viscous parts, it easily causes drunkenness, hard to get off.

From these observations it is apparent, that all liquids, like all solids, are not suitable to every constitution, which also shews the folly of depending on empirics for the preservation of health, who, having no true philosophy, cannot possibly make a true judgment of any medicine they confidently prescribe. And every physician may be truly said to be nothing better than an impudent quack, who is not thoroughly acquainted with the specific nature of the drugs, and the minerals he dares to administer. Yet there are too many who superciliously strut about the town, pick people's pockets by wholesale, who neither know one drug from another, when they see them together, nor skilfully to perform one process in chymistry. But, if they have heard a few lectures, and read Boerhaave, upon those subjects, and got the technical terms by rote, they dogmatically prate away before their ignorant patients and others, and pass for profound fellows: when, if they were catechized in the whole of medicinal philosophy, before those who are judges, their patients would be astonished, to think that they had trusted their lives in the hands of such pedants in physic; whose knowledge has only been stolen from the files of apothecaries, and whose success has been owing to a low and detestable cunning, rather than to any real merit in their profession.

BEE-WAX. The wax is a provision not less necessary for the bee, than the honey itself: they build their apartments with it, and it closes the cells of the nymphs, as well as those where the honey is treasured. When any accidents happen, any fractures open, or whenever the species grow too numerous, they recur to the wax; and therefore are always careful to provide a competent quantity in time. They search for it upon all sorts of trees and plants, but especially the rocket, the single poppy, and generally all kinds of flowers. They amass it with their hair, with which their whole body is invested. It is pleasant to see them roll in the yellow dust, which fall from the chives to the bottom of the flowers, and then return covered with the same grains; but their best me-

thod of gathering the wax, especially when it is not very plentiful, is to carry away all the little particles of it with their jaws and fore-feet, into a socket or cavity, that opens at their hinder-feet.

This cavity is made to receive the wax, like a spoon, and the hair, which covers their feet, serves to keep the burden fixed and steady, till they return home. They are sometimes exposed to inconveniencies in this work, by the motion of the air, and the delicate texture of the flowers which bend under their feet, and hinder them from packing up their booty; on which occasions they fix themselves on some steady place, where they press the wax into a mass, and wind it round their legs, making frequent returns to the flowers; and, when they have stocked themselves with a sufficient quantity, they immediately repair to their habitation.

Two men in the compass of a whole day, could not amass so much as two little balls of wax; and yet they are no more than the common burden of a single bee, and the produce of one journey. Those who are employed in collecting the wax from flowers, are assisted by their companions, who attend them at the door of the hive, ease them of their load at their arrival, brush their feet, and shake out the two balls of wax; upon which the others return to the fields to gather new treasures, whilst those who disburdened them, convey their charge to the magazine. However, there are some bees, who, when they have brought their load home, have carried it themselves to a lodge, and there delivered it, laying hold of one end with their hinder feet, and with their middle feet sliding it out of the cavity that contained it.

These parcels of wax continue a few moments in the lodge, till another set of bees come, to knead it with their feet, into different sheets laid upon one another.

This is the unwrought wax, which is easily distinguished to be the produce of different flowers, by the variety of colours which appear in each sheet. When they afterwards come to work it, they knead it over again; they purify and whiten it, and then reduce it to a uniform colour. They use this wax with a wonderful frugality; for it is easy to observe, that the whole family is conducted with prudence, and all their actions regulated by good government.

The matter which constitutes this wax, is of a certain balsamic nature, and appears in very small quantities, upon the surface of the leaves of some plants, where it is inspiated by the heat of the sun; as is manifest in rosemary.

There are also often found in other plants certain very minute globules, rising from the open feminal tufts in the main part of the flower; these can scarce be collected by any human means, but I have sometimes found, says Boerhaave, upon frequently cohobating spirit of wine upon rosemary leaves, an unexpected and ungrateful taste or smell of wax, fouling the spirit, which before was good; and, upon viewing these leaves with a microscope, I thought I discovered little waxy risings of the surface, and, upon handling them considerably, I evidently found wax sticking to my fingers.

Bees-wax, therefore, appears to be a certain species of turpentine, which the fat juices of plants, when heated by the sun, sweat out upon the surface, or produce within the cavities of the flowery tufts. This the bees collect, as before described. It is generally yellow, and not ungrateful either in taste or smell; it becomes hard and almost brittle in the cold, but grows soft, and dissolves with heat.

Of the medicinal use of BEES-WAX.

The water, vinegar, fetid spirit, and butter, from wax, distilled by the retort.

PROCESS I.

Half fill a glass retort with fine wax, cut into pieces small enough to enter the wide mouth thereof; then pour clean sand upon it, so as to fill the retort, which is now to be gently warmed till the wax melts, and sufficiently imbibes and mixes among the sand: set the retort in a sand furnace, apply a receiver, and distil with a gradual fire: there usually first comes over a little tartish water, of a disagreeable fetid odour, along with a little spirit; when with a gentle heat of 214 degrees nothing more ascends, change the receiver, and raise the fire; by which means there will gradually arise a thin oil of a whitish colour, and concrete, like butter, in the receiver. When this ceases, apply a violent fire of suppression, upon which the whole body of the wax will soon come over into the receiver, and there appear in a solid form, like butter; having lost the hard brittle nature of wax, and melting oily. So much sand should be here mixed with the wax, as to prevent it's explosive swelling, as would otherwise happen in the boiling.

The Use.

Here it is manifest, that the whole body of the wax is volatile, with a certain degree of fire; in which respect therefore, these substances agree with camphire, though camphire be much more volatile. Hence we see also that wax, which is wholly inflammable, may exist in a hard and almost brittle form; and when dissolved in hot water, then forced through

a linnen strainer, and poured into shallow, metalline moulds, so as to form little cakes; these being exposed to the open air and sun, and frequently sprinkled with pure water, the wax is thus blanched or whitened; and, though it now also consumes in flame, yet it is almost as brittle as glass: so as to seem a very different thing from oil. Inflammable vegetable oils, therefore, may exist under the various forms of oil, balsam, rosin, pitch, dry tears, wax, and butter. From whence we may further observe, that the fire can make true liquid oils from bodies, which appeared not to be oils before. And this conversion of wax into butter is durable; for it does not return to hard wax again in a very long time, but constantly remains a soft butter, even in the greatest cold. I have kept this butter of wax, says Boerhaave, above twenty years, in a glass cylindrical vessel, whose wide mouth was only loosely covered with paper, yet in all this time it did not return to wax; whereas the most liquid oil of turpentine soon grows thick, like thin turpentine itself*; so that the different effects of fire upon the bare oily parts of plants is surprising, consequently no certain rules can hence be laid down for the action of fire upon oils.

* *Quere.* Whether the oil of turpentine being imbibed and mixed with sand in the retort, as in this case of the wax, would not so volatilize it, as effectually to prevent the coagulation of the one as well as the other? Does not the sand absorb that inspissating congealing quality we find in the one and not in the other, by not using sand? Or will not the proper application of certain absorbent earths, to all vegetable, resinous, or waxy bodies, imbibe that internal fiery quality, which is the cause of coagulation; and thereby so volatilize them, as to render them a durable butter, as in the present case?

Camphire, which is a pure inflammable oil, becomes camphire again, and not a liquid oil, after being raised by the fire. The butter of wax, thus prepared, affords an extremely soft anodyne unguent, agreeable to the nerves, highly emollient and relaxing, and, when rubbed upon the parts, proves serviceable in contractions of the limbs, and successfully preserves the skin from roughness, dryness, and cracking in the cold, or the winter: it also proves excellent in the sharp pains of the hæmorrhoids.

The butter of wax turned into a liquid oil, upon repeated distillation by the retort.

P R O C E S S I I.

Melt the butter of wax over a gentle fire to a liquid oil, then pour it through a funnel, first well heated, into a glass retort also well heated before-hand, so as to half fill the retort, with care to prevent any of the butter from sticking to the neck thereof, because in that case the gross matter would fall into the receiver, which should here be avoided. Set the retort in a sand furnace, lute on a clean receiver, and distil cautiously, managing the fire so, that one drop may follow another at the distance of six seconds; when nothing more comes over with this degree of heat, raise the fire, and distil as before, and continue in this manner increasing the fire with the same caution, so long as any butter remains in the retort; and by this means all the butter will come over, scarce leaving any faces behind; and a thickish oil, not much diminished in quantity, be found instead of butter in the receiver. If this oil of wax be again distilled in like manner, it always becomes more liquid, soft, transparent, and thin, so as at length to resemble a subtile, limpid oil: and, the oftener the distillation is repeated, the more mild and gentle, yet the more penetrating, the oil becomes.

T H E U S E.

Hence it appears, that the action of the fire more and more attenuates certain oily bodies of plants, yet without rendering them acrimonious, but on the contrary always milder, though at the same time more penetrating; for this last oil of wax is an incomparable remedy for the diseases of the nervous papillæ in the external skin, and has scarce its equal in curing chapt lips in the winter, chapt nipples in the women who give suck, and in the cracking of the skin of the hands and fingers, being sometimes gently anointed therewith. It is also serviceable in discussing cold tumours, arising on the face or fingers in the winter; and curing contracted tendons, and the rigidity of the limbs thence arising; being used along with baths, fomentations, and motion; for it has a singular virtue in thus restoring flexibility to the parts: being frequently rubbed upon the abdomen, it prevents costiveness; and is therefore excellent in effectually curing the diseases of children.

A further use of these kinds of oils.

After the chymists had justly shewn the physicians the spirit residing in essential oils, contained in a small volume, all the particular virtues of the plant, physicians prudently reflected that from thence they had an excellent instrument in their art, but that the unctuous tenacity of the oil still prevented, in many cases, its being used with safety, because these oils

being extremely sharp, and by their tenacity remaining fixed to one part, occasioned inflammations. Wherefore they began to think of a method of rendering these oils miscible with water, and uniformly conveying their entire virtues to the places intended, and this they found might be effected by the means of sugar.

Grind therefore an ounce of dry loaf-sugar to an impalpable powder, in a glass mortar, with a glass pestle, and by degrees add thereto a drachm of any essential oil, or half a drachm, if the oil be very tenacious, and continue rubbing them together, till the oil be thoroughly incorporated with the sugar. The oil in this operation usually diffusing a fragrancy, it should be performed quick. Thus sugar, which is a pure soap, or a true essential oily salt, divides the glutinous tenacity of the oil, interposes itself betwixt the principles thereof, unites them closely together, and makes an extemporaneous soap; which may thus be commodiously diluted with water for medicinal uses: for though this mixture is not so perfect as in an actual soap, or true essential salt, yet it suffices for use: nor is there reason to apprehend any inconvenience from the sugar in this preparation; for sugar is unjustly said to be unwholesome, as there are no proofs extant thereof.

On the contrary, it is a wonderful salt that perfectly mixes with water, and ferments therewith into wine; and yet what is again surprising, it appears oleaginous, and perfectly inflammable in the fire: whence it is known to consist of oil and salt.

If these elæosaccharums be well prepared, dried, and put into clean glasses, exactly closed with glass stoppels, they may long be preserved perfect; and, in this manner, very effectual medicines might be commodiously carried from place to place, and be directly used on journies, by adding a little of the elæosaccharum to a glass of wine. By this method, therefore, physicians, if acquainted with practical chymistry, may prepare an excellent medicine, rich in virtues; for if the elæosaccharum of mint be dissolved in distilled mint water, then strengthened with the addition of the spirit of mint, and the mixture sweetened with the syrup of the same plant, the whole virtue of mint may thus be obtained.—In like manner the before described oil of wax may by the means of sugar be made an elæosaccharum, which, if properly applied, may be taken internally with success.

Hence appears the saponaceous property of sugar, which fits it for breaking and dividing the bodies of oils, as if they were in a manner fermented with sugar; and at the same time it does not diminish, but rather improves, the particular virtues of these oils. The antients, therefore, who were unacquainted with sugar, mixed oils with honey for the like purpose. And hence we learn the virtue of sugar in the body, where, being diluted with the natural juices, it affords a saponaceous lixivium; which, by the force of circulation, dissolves unctuous and viscid matters; whence it does not generate but dissolve phlegm, nor increase the bile, nor turn into it, but opens, thins, and divides it; though, by dissolving the oils too much, it may occasion leanness, as by attenuating too much it produces a weakness and relaxation of the parts, and is therefore often found hurtful in the rickets, and the scurvy.

Having shewn the medical use of bees-wax, by way of chymical analysis, we shall shew its utility in other respects.

Of the use of bees-wax in the solid body.

There is a very considerable traffic in the yellow and white wax. The first sort is made from the pressing of the honey-comb over a fire, with a sufficient quantity of water; and, when all is dissolved, they strain it through a cloth; this done, they melt it, and scum off the dross and froth, and afterwards cast it into cakes.

In the refining of wax, some persons use Roman, or some other vitriol, but the best method seems to be by well melting.

That which we call wax, is, in its natural state, the honey-comb, which contains the honey in the hive. Poland, Barbary, Bretagne, and several parts of France, furnish a great deal of yellow wax; but that of Dantzick, Bretagne, and Champagne, is reckoned the best; but it is of little consequence from what place it comes, provided it be pure and of a good kind.

In the choice thereof, that is the best which is of a high yellow colour, a good smell, easy to break, and does not stick to the teeth; and take care that it be the same inwardly as outwardly: and, when in large cakes, as that from Dantzick, observe that there be no water, stones, or earth in the middle, or that it be not mixed with rosin, white frankincense, or pitch, or coloured with turmeric or roucou.

The use of yellow wax is considerable for several sorts of works; as tapers, candles, flambeaux, images, anatomical and other curious works, sealing-wax, &c. Besides its before-mentioned use in medicine, it is likewise used by way of giving a body to unguents and plaisters.

We meet with, besides this, in the hives, a kind of red wax, called virgin wax, or propolis, which is that the bees use to stop up the chinks or holes of the hives, to hinder the cold

air from entering. And therefore, the more cracks or holes there are about a hive, the more propolis will be found there. This was once much used, but, at present, is hardly known in the shops, though it has been found very good in nervous cases.

The white wax is made out of the yellow, cut by a certain engine into small flakes, and then bleached in the sun, by which it will become very white. See the article WAX.

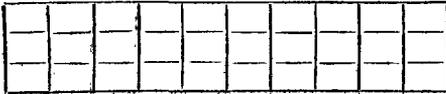
It is then cast into round cakes, some thicker, some thinner. That is the best which smells well, and chews hard, not mixed with sheep's suet, and is without a clear colour, without any cast of yellowness. The last, and most proper to turn white, is the yellow wax of Bretagne, which when it is well made, as that usually is of Chateau Gontier, eight leagues from Angiers, which passes for the best sort in France, will be pure, white, clear, transparent, in thick cakes, that when broken betwixt the teeth, does not stick, neither has any ill taste or scent.

It is with this fine wax the finest works are made. And we reckon, after the Chateau Gontier wax, the second sort, that of Angiers; the third sort that of Mons; the fourth that of Holland, which is generally brought in great cakes of four or five hundred weight; and the first sort is that we call the Dutch wax royal; the fifth is that of Amboise; the sixth of Chaumont, near Troyes; the seventh, and the worst, is that of Rouen, because of the great addition of suet they put in, and it is better or worse, according to the quantity of suet wherewith it is mixed.

At Montpellier in France, they are reckoned to have one of the best manufactures for the blanching of wax in Europe; the manner and process of which is as follows.

First, they melt the wax in a large copper cauldron, then they have ready a mold or form of wood, of the figure of a sugar loaf, or the block of a steeple crowned hat, which having besmeared over with slime of snails, they dip into the wax thus melted. This takes up a skin or film of wax, as candles upon dipping do:

This they smooth with their hands, and dip in water, and when it is cold take it off the form, from which, by reason of the anointing the form with the before-mentioned mucilage, it will readily slip in the form of a cone or long crucible. These cones (so let me call them) are set in a garden in ranks, singly one by one, supported with canes or reeds, crossing one another in this fashion.



Round about they set pots with water, wherewith they sprinkle the wax often, to keep it from melting. In summer time, when the sun lies hot upon it, they sprinkle it six or seven times a day, otherwise but three or four times. In fourteen or fifteen days, the upper end of these cones will grow white, and then they turn them to whiten the other end. In a month's time, more or less, according to the weather, they will become white all over.

Then they melt the wax again in earthen pans like metæ, or scuttles, and run it so melted, through the neb of a tin-pot, into water; and, as it runs down into the water, a man either breaks it with his hand into grains, or works it into round figures, like spiral wreaths, or corollæ, and these they expose again to the weather, in the garden, and order as before, till they become purely white, and then melt into large pieces to sell. The mucilage wherewith they besmeared the forms, is made of snails taken alive, shells and all, and pounded in a mortar, till they become a perfect pap, or viscous.

The form, once besmeared well over with this pap, will last dipping many times. Wax whitened is also twice as dear as yellow wax. Yellow wax is solutive, and used where there is an inflammation, and the sore not ripe; white wax, on the contrary, is very astringent. They say, Montpellier is a place proper for whitening of wax; and that the same workmen, coming over into England, found the air of a different temperature, and not so convenient for this trade.

REMARKS.

To what has been said under the article BEES, the following further observations may not be unacceptable to many. The due care and culture of bees, affording both profit and delight, have always been an agreeable and useful employment for the rural life. The ancients industriously cultivated these animals for the sake of their honey, which, among them, was in as high esteem as sugar is at present among the Europeans and Americans. Although, since sugar has been so universally substituted in the stead of honey, the latter has been in less general estimation, yet that does no way depreciate from it's natural excellency and cordiality to the human nature. As much as the animal nature may in dignity surpass the vegetable, to the like degree, perhaps, may the natural productions of the one surpass those of the other, more especially in a matter which is allowed to be the very quintessence of

the vegetable, without participating of it's excrementitious qualities: and the degree of animal coction given to honey and wax, seems the more naturally to prepare them for the human species than is in the power of any vegetable to do, for want of that warmth and motion connatural to the animal beyond the vegetable.

But, was not this the case with respect to the species of vinous and spirituous liquors which these insects afford, yet their wax makes so general an article of traffic, and, as we have seen, is productive of several good medicaments, that the bees have a claim as much, at present, to our regard on that account, as they had to that of the ancients for the sake of their honey chiefly.

It is not in towns, but in the country, bees are trained up. Two classes of people concern themselves in the culture; the country people for profit, others for agreeable rural amusement.

The former, engaged in providing for their daily subsistence in other shapes, can bestow but a few stolen moments on their hives. an', therefore, can neither benefit themselves or their country thereby, to the degree those insects will admit of.

The other class, whom an easier fortune, a superior education and discernment, would render capable greatly to advance an art, which, at this time, makes no inconsiderable branch of commerce, have not curiosity enough to satisfy themselves to what degree of perfection and profit these animals might be brought.

The culture and multiplication of bees depend chiefly on a knowledge of their wants, which can not be known, unless we are exactly acquainted with their method of living, their temperature, their nutriment, the dangers to which they are exposed, the most favourable situation they may be placed in, the productions of flowers and vegetables suitable to them, and how to screen and shelter them from those inclemencies of weather, as well as other animals who are destructive of their tender natures. &c.

The ancients have amused us with so many delusions and fabulous histories of their bees, that it is no wonder if the prejudices which arise from these false representations, have retarded the progress which might otherwise have been made in the training them up.

To reinforce this beneficial art, and to render it capable of the highest perfection, it was necessary that some body should make bees their study, and not content themselves, as the ancients have done, with poetical, fictitious descriptions only of them. This has been done; and we are indebted for it to Swammerdam, Maraldi, and Réaumur. The two former, indeed, though very curious in many of their observations, have not, like the latter, the true experimentalist in philosophy, given us rules for the training them up to the advantage they may be. Nor are the labours of Réaumur level to the capacities of those who are the most likely to improve the art to any considerable degree.

To compensate for this, an anonymous writer has obliged the public with a tract, which he calls the *The Natural History of the Bees*; wherein the ingenious author has, from the sentiments of the learned Réaumur, and others, handled the subject with no less judgment than elegance, by way of conversible entertainment.

And if our country gentlemen, in their retirement, would divert themselves with making further improvements upon the industry of these sagacious creatures, they would not only profit the trade of their country in general, in the articles of honey and wax, but might reap considerable advantage by their very amusements.

The studies of nature, and in what manner art may be applied to aid and assist her, is the great source of all discoveries for the benefit of trade. It is, therefore, submitted whether apiaries may not be improvable from something of the following principles:

1. From the due application of hot-houses, so contrived to let in the dews at certain times, for the production, at all seasons of the year, of such flowers and plants as may afford proper matter for honey and wax, and protect these insects from the inclemency of the weather, as well as from other animals which are their destroyers.
2. Whether, by such-like means, bees might not be made to produce both honey and wax of superior qualities to the ordinary, by extracting their materials from certain flowers and vegetables, which might, at the same time, administer some peculiar medicinal virtues, adapted to the cure and preservation of the human nature?
3. Whether common turf, in well contrived air-furnaces, might not be used as fuel, to keep such-like hot-houses competently warm for these purposes?
4. Whether water may not, at a small expence, be artificially applied, like rain, in vesicular, upon those flowers or vegetables?
5. Whether, upon the whole, heat and moisture may not be so applied, under cover, in places built like barns, &c at the least expence that may be, so as to render bees considerably more profitable to the proprietors and the nation than they have yet ever been?
6. Whether helps of this kind, superadded to all the ordinary ones which are practised, or have been suggested by the curious,

may not contribute to the further improvement of the productions of those insects?

BEECH-TREE, a forest-tree. It is very thick, and full of branches. It grows admirably well in heavy lands, on mountains, and even in a stony or rocky soil. It has leaves somewhat resembling those of the horse-bean; the male flowers grow together in a round bunch, and are produced, at remote distances from the fruit, on the same tree. The fruit, which is called mast, consists of two triangular nuts, which are inclosed in a rough hairy rind, divided into four parts.

Besides the common sort, there are two others, the one with yellow striped leaves, and the other with white striped leaves; but these are only accidental varieties, which produce no real difference of species. Planters, indeed, would distinguish two or three sorts, one of which they call the mountain-beech, which, they say, affords a much whiter timber than the other, which they call wild beech. But Mr Miller is of opinion that the difference in the colour of the wood is occasioned by the places where the trees grow, which is often the case with most other sorts of timber.

This tree is propagated by sowing the mast any time from October to February, observing only to secure the seeds from vermin when early sowed, which, if carefully done, the sooner they are sown the better, after they are full ripe. A small spot of ground is sufficient for raising a great number of these trees from seed; but you must be very careful to keep them clear from weeds; and, if the plants come up very thick, you must not fail to draw out the strongest of them the autumn following, that those left may have room to grow: so that, if you husband a feed-bed carefully, it will afford a three years draught of young plants, which should be planted in a nursery; and, if designed for timber-trees, at three feet distance from row to row, and 18 inches asunder in the rows: but, if they are designed for hedges, to which this tree is very well adapted, the distance need not be so great; two feet from row to row, and one foot in the rows, will be sufficient.

In this nursery they may remain two or three years, observing to clear them from weeds, as also to dig up the ground between the roots at least once a year, that their tender roots may the better extend themselves each way; but you must be careful not to cut or bruise their roots, which is very injurious to all young trees; and never to dig the ground in summer, when the earth is hot and dry, which, by letting in the rays of the sun to the root, is often the destruction of the young trees.

This tree will grow to a considerable height, though the soil be stony and barren, as also upon the declivities of hills and chalky mountains, where it will resist the winds better than other trees; but then the nurseries for the young plants ought to be upon the same soil; for, if they are raised in a good soil, and a warm exposure, and afterwards transplanted into a bleak, barren situation, they seldom thrive: the nursery, therefore, should be made upon the same soil where the plantation is intended.

This tree is very proper to form large hedges, to surround plantations, and large wilderness quarters, and may be kept in a regular figure, if sheared twice a year, especially when they shoot strong; in which case, if they are neglected but a season or two, it will be difficult to reduce them again.

The shade of this tree is very injurious to most sorts of plants which grow near it, but is generally believed to be very salutary to human bodies. The two sorts with variegated leaves may be propagated by budding, or grafting them upon the common sort, observing not to plant them in a good earth, which will cause the buds, or cyons, to shoot vigorously, whereby the leaves will become plain, which often happens to variegated plants.

This tree affords but two articles for trade, namely, its timber, and its fruit, or seed. The wood of the beech is whitish, hard, dry, and crackles in the fire. In France it is commonly sold in the forests cut into boards, stakes, and shingles, to be afterwards used in making household furniture, and other joiners works. The boards ought to be from 11 to 12 inches broad, 13 lines thick, and 6, 9, or 12 feet long.

The beech timber is also sold in laths, which are small thin boards, designed for the drawer and trunk-makers.

They likewise make of this wood staves, saddle-bows, &c. It is very useful for making the keel and inside of ships.

Beech wood is also used in making shovels, spoons, wooden shoes, and other such small wares.

Of the largest trunks of beech trees are made forms, and kitchen tables, which are 4, 5, 6, and 7 inches thick, and of different breadths and lengths, according as the trunks are more or less thick and long.

Beech-wood also makes good fuel; for which reason there is a great deal of it sold in faggots, in cords of wood, in logs, &c.

The fruit, or seed of the beech-tree, which is a kind of nut, or acorn, called mast, contains a kind of white and oily marrow, or pulp, of a sweet taste, and agreeable to eat, of which they make oil, very much esteemed for urying, and for saljads. This oil, which is very common in Picardy, and those places where there are many beech-trees, is extracted cold by expression, after the shell of the mast has been taken off, and

the pith broke, or bruised. There are some countries where hogs are fattened with beech-masts, as they are with acorns in other places.

The common people in France use that oil instead of butter; but most of those who use a great deal of it complain of pains and a heaviness in the stomach. Monsieur Danty d'Isnard has prescribed a method to prevent those inconveniences. One must pour the oil of masts, newly expressed, into stone pitchers, very closely shut, put them into the ground, and leave them there a year; after which time the oil will have lost all its bad qualities. History of the royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1726.

BEER, a common and well-known liquor, made with malt and hops, and used in those parts of Europe where vines will not grow, and where cyder is scarce, or little used.

To give the reader a particular account of the whole process of making beer or ale, we shall first explain how the malt is made, and next how the liquor is brewed.

Sir Robert Murray describes the method of making malt as follows: take good barley, newly threshed; put about six English quarters in a stone trough, full of water, and let it steep therein till the water be of a bright reddish colour, which will be in about three days, more or less, according to the moisture or dryness, smallness or bigness of the grain, the season of the year, and the temperature of the air. In summer malt never makes well; in winter it requires longer steeping than in spring or autumn. It may be known when it is steeped enough by other marks, besides the colour of the water: as by the excessive swelling of the grain, if it be over-steeped, or by too much softness; being, when it is in a right temper, like the barley prepared to make broth of.

When it is sufficiently steeped, take it out of the trough, and lay it on heaps, to let the water drain from it; then, after two or three hours, turn it over with a scoop, and lay it in a new heap, about 20 or 24 inches deep. This is called the coming heap, in the right management whereof lies the principal skill. In this heap it may lie 40 hours, more or less, according to the abovementioned qualities of the grain, &c. before it comes to the right temper of malt; which, that it may do equally, is the chief article wished for.

While it lies in this heap, it must be carefully looked to after the first 15 or 16 hours; for, about that time, the grains begin to shoot roots; which, when they have equally and fully done, the malt must, within an hour after, be turned over with a scoop, otherwise the grains will begin to put forth the blade, or spire, also, which must by all means be prevented. If all the malt do not come equally, but that which lies in the middle, being warmest, comes the soonest, you must turn it so as that the outmost may be inmost, and thus manage it till it be all alike.

As soon as the malt is sufficiently come, turn it over and spread it to a depth not exceeding five or six inches; and, by that time it is all spread out, begin and turn it over and over again, three or four times; afterwards turn it over in like manner once in four or five hours, making the heap deeper by degrees; and continue so to do for the space of 48 hours at least. This frequent turning it over cools, dries, and deadens the grain, whereby it becomes mellow, melts easily in brewing, and separates intirely from the husk.

Then throw up the malt into a heap as high as you can, where let it lie till it grows as hot as your hand can endure it, which usually happens in about 30 hours time: this perfects the sweetness and mellowness of the malt.

After it is sufficiently heated, throw it about to cool, and turn it over again about six or eight hours after, and then lay it on a kiln, with hair-cloth or wire spread under it, where, after one fire, which must continue 24 hours, you must give another fire, more slow, and afterwards a third, if it be necessary; for, if the malt be not thoroughly dried, it cannot be well ground, neither will it dissolve well in the brewing, but the ale or beer it makes will be red, bitter, and unfit to keep.

The best fuel is peat and turf, and next charcoal. If there be not enough of one kind, burn the best first, for that gives the strongest impression. Indeed, the best and most natural method of drying it is in the sun, in the months of April or May. This yields the palest, the most wholesome, and the finest liquor. However this be, take care the malt be not smoaked in the drying. As to the complexion, or colour of malt, white is accounted the best, because it is most natural.

Having thus explained how the malt is prepared, we shall now proceed to give an account how beer and ale are brewed. A quantity of water, being well boiled, is left to cool till the height of the steam be over, when so much is poured to a quantity of malt in the mashing-tub as makes it of a consistence stiff enough to be just well rowed up; after standing thus a quarter of an hour, a second quantity of water is added, and rowed up as before. Lastly, the full quantity of water is added, and that in proportion as the liquor is intended to be strong or weak. This part of the operation is called mashing. The whole now stands two or three hours, more or less, according to the strength of the wort, or the difference of the weather, and then it is drawn off into a receiver, and the mashing repeated for a second wort, in the same manner as the

the first, only the water to be cooler than before, and not to stand above half the time.

The two worts are then to be mixed, the intended quantity of hops added, and the liquor, close covered up, gently boiled in a copper the space of an hour or two, then let into the receiver, and the hops strained from it into the coolers. When cool, the barm, or yeast, is applied, and it is left to work, or ferment, till it be fit to tun up.

For small beer there is a third mashing, with the water near cold, and not left to stand above three quarters of an hour, to be hopped and boiled at discretion. For double beer, or ale, the two liquors resulting from the two first mashings must be used as liquor for a third mashing of fresh malt.

For fine ale the liquor thus brewed is further prepared with molasses.

Instead of yeast some use Castile soap, others flour and eggs, others an essential oil of barley, others a quintessence of malt, others of wine, and others of sal paranius.

Beer is chiefly distinguished from ale by the quantity of hops, which is greater in beer, and thereby renders the liquor bitterer, and fitter to keep.

Here follow some extracts of the chief statutes of England, relating to beer.

II. Stat. 1 Will. & Mar. stat. 1. cap. 22. sect. 1. Any person may ship off, within any of the usual and allowed ports by law, and at the common keys, and within the usual hours of excise, to be exported into foreign parts, in the presence of a sworn officer, to be appointed by the farmers, &c. of excise within the limits where the same shall be shipped, any strong ale, strong beer, cyder, or mum, to be sent beyond the seas, paying custom for the same after the rate of one shilling per ton, and no other duty: such officer to certify the quantity so shipped off to the commissioners and officers of excise where the entry thereof shall be made, who are required to make allowances, and repay the excise of beer, ale, cyder, or mum so exported, to the brewer, or maker thereof, within one month after such exportation, deducting three-pence per ton for the charges of their officers.

III. Sect. 2. If any person shall cause or suffer any liquor, so shipped, to be laid on land, or put into any other vessel, within England, Wales, or Berwick, he shall forfeit the same, and 50 l. more for every cask so unduly landed, or put on board any vessel, the one moiety to the king, &c. the other to the informer. And their majesties commissioners and officers of the customs shall charge every master of any vessel, in his victualling-bill, with so much beer, ale, cyder, or mum, and no more, as such number of men used to spend in such voyages, the excise whereof to be recovered according to the laws established.

IV. Sect. 3. The said rate of 1 s. per ton for beer, &c. shall be levied and paid under such rules and penalties, and in such manner as by the laws of tonnage and poundage are ordained.

V. Sect. 4. No mum imported from foreign parts shall have any part of the custom, or excise, repaid upon exportation.

VI. Stat. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 15. sect. 1. for ascertaining the measures for retailing ale and beer. All persons retailing ale or beer shall sell their ale and beer by a full ale quart, or ale-pint, according to the standard remaining with the chamberlain of the Exchequer, in a vessel made of wood, earth, glass, horn, leather, pewter, or other wholesome metal, marked from the said standard in the Exchequer, or city of London, or some other place where a standard shall be kept; and not in any other vessel not marked, on forfeiture of a sum not exceeding 40 s. nor less than 10 s.

VII. Sect. 2. If any inn-keeper, alhouse-keeper, &c. shall sell any ale or beer, in a vessel not marked, or deny to give the particular number of quarts, &c. in any reckoning, such inn-keeper, &c. shall not, for non-payment of the reckoning, detain any of the person's things not paying the same, but be left to his action at law.

VIII. Sect. 3. The sub-commissioners, or collectors of excise, shall procure a substantial ale-quart and ale-pint, of brass, according to the Exchequer standard, to be made, sealed, and certified from the chamberlain's there, without fee, and delivered to the mayor, or chief officer, in each city, corporation, borough, and market-town, within their divisions, where there is not one already; and the chief officer giving a receipt for it, the same is to be delivered to the succeeding officer: the sub-commissioner, or collector, to forfeit for every default therein 5 l.

IX. Sect. 5. Every mayor, or chief officer of every city, borough, or market-town, shall, on request, cause all such ale-quarts and pints, made of wood, &c. as shall be brought to him, to be measured and sized with such standard, and marked with W. R. and a crown; which marks the said mayor, or chief officer, are to provide, and to take not above a farthing for marking each measure. The mayor, or chief officer, not doing his duty therein, to forfeit 5 l. and treble charges to the party grieved.

X. Sect. 6. One moiety of the penalties in this act shall go to the poor of the place, the other to the prosecutor, to be recovered by the oath of a credible witness, before a justice of peace, and prosecution within 30 days after the offence committed, and the justice of peace to cause levy the penalty.

XI. Sect. 7. Nothing in this act shall extend to beer or ale sold to be spent out of the house, if it be measured out by the standard.

XII. Sect. 8. Actions brought against justices of peace, or persons employed by them, upon the execution of this act, shall be laid in the proper county only, to which the general issue may be pleaded, &c. and upon a verdict, &c. the defendant to recover treble cost.

XIII. Sect. 9. The justices of peace, at their quarter-sessions, are to give this act in charge to the juries.

XIV. Sect. 10. This act shall not extend to colleges or halls in the universities.

XV. Stat. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 11. sect. 19. Nothing in the act 11 Will. III. cap. 15. shall extend to deprive the universities of their rights of seizing and marking of measures for ale and beer within their jurisdictions.

XVI. Stat. 13 Will. III. cap. 5. sect. 34. No common brewer, inn-keeper, victualler, or retailer of beer and ale, shall use any sugar, honey, foreign grains, Guinea pepper, the liquor called essenta bine, made from malt and water boiled up, coculus India, or any unwholesome ingredients in the brewing or making of beer or ale; or mix any sugar, &c. with any beer or ale in casks, after the same is cleaned, on pain of forfeiture of 20 l.

Mr Savary asserts, that beer is not only made in France with barley, but also with wheat, oats, rye, and even with tares, but never with the latter alone, and those only with a small quantity. He adds, that they mix hops with it to give it the taste of wine, and that it is the flower of that plant which makes the beer heavy, and proper to intoxicate. But in this last particular he is certainly mistaken; for the hops give the beer only a bitter taste, and serve to preserve it; and it is the malt alone that gives it strength. As for making beer with any other grain but barley, I do not know what may be done in other countries, but, in England, none is brewed but from barley-malt. There is, however, a kind of ale made of oats, which, for that reason, is called oat-ale.

He asserts, also, that part only of the grain to make beer must be malt; and that the proportion ought to be one fourth part of malt to three-fourths of fresh grain: and that, when tares are added, it is to give the beer a brisker taste. He observes further, that, after the beer is brewed, some put sugar, cinnamon, and cloves into it; and others honey and spice, to make it either stronger or more palatable.

He also tells us, that, in France, they make people believe that the English, in order to give the beer they brew in their country that strength, which, in that respect, makes it preferable to any other beer made in Europe, and even to that of Mons and Bremen, they throw into the kettle some flesh, which they cause to be consumed in the boiling: but it is very likely that the goodness of their beer is only owing to their manner of brewing it, to the degree of boiling it, and to the ingredients they put into it, with which all other brewers are unacquainted.

Beer may be brewed in all seasons, but that which is brewed in March, says Mr Savary, is the most excellent, and is better for keeping. In England we reckon the October beer the best. See BREWING and MALTING.

The trade of beer in France, does not extend much beyond that kingdom; but they have a very considerable trade of it at Paris, and in some provinces, particularly in Flemish and French Flanders, and in Picardy.

The duty of exportation is paid in France at the rate of 26 sols per ton of beer, and of importation at the rate of 12 sols per barrel; and that of England at 10 sols the bottle.

These duties are regulated by the tariff of the year 1664.

There are other regulations by the ordonnance of 1680, which relating only to themselves, 'tis needless to give the long detail of.

BEGUQUILLA, a medicinal plant, the root of which is a sovereign remedy for the bloody flux.

BEHEN, a medicinal root.

BEHEN, a fruit from which an oil is extracted. } See BEN.

BEID, a plant which grows in Egypt, near the village of Matara. The Egyptians call it ossar, whence is derived the name given to it's fruit, which is beidelfar in Arabic, as the bordes ossar, i. e. the egg ossar, in Latin apocynum: Mr Miller calls it in English dog's-bane. This plant shoots a great many roots, from which arise several branches and suckers, each five or six feet high. It's leaves, which grow by pairs, are broad, very thick, and end in an oval. Whilst they are still young and tender, there issues from them a kind of milk, which curdles, or coagulates by the heat. It's blossoms are of saffron colour, inclining to red: they grow in bunches at the end of the branches, to which they adhere by long stalks, and where they form a sort of crown turned towards the earth. The bees gather wax and excellent honey from these flowers. The seed and fruit is covered with a-kind of cotton, softer than silk, and of which they make mattresses and cushions: it is called wad. We must not forget to observe, that the milk, or milky juice, which distils from this admirable plant, is proper to curry or dress leather, and has several properties and uses in medicine; it serving as a depilatory to make the hair fall off, and to cure the scurf, the

itch, and other small tumours, which are formed upon the skin. The leaves boiled in water, or even raw, being applied to scrophulous swellings, cure them by transpiration. There are seen at Paris, in the gardens of some curious persons, several plants of beid, but of which they could not preserve the species; the seed growing and blowing there, but without producing any seed afterwards. They have in France some trade of the cotton of this plant; but what is imported thither from the Levant, is not considerable, and serves for curiosity rather than for use.

Mr Miller gives us the following account of this plant, and its several kinds.

The leaves are produced opposite by pairs, upon the branches; the flower consists of one leaf, which is cut into several segments; from its flower-cup arises the pointal, which is fixed like a nail in the back-part of the flower, and is afterwards changed into a fruit, which is, for the most part, composed of two capsules, or pods, which open from the base to the top, inclosing many seeds, which have a long pappous down adhering to them; to this may be added, that the whole plant abounds with a milky juice.

There are several sorts of this plant cultivated in the curious gardens, some of which are very beautiful. We shall mention the different species of this plant, which are cultivated in the English gardens.

1. The upright broad-leaved hoary Syrian dog's-bane, with purplish-coloured flowers.
2. The upright narrow-leaved Canada dog's-bane.
3. The broad-leaved upright Canada dog's-bane.
4. The American dog's-bane, with tusan leaves and red flowers, like the lily of the valley.
5. The shrubby upright dog's-bane, with roundish green leaves.
6. The upright willow-leaved African dog's-bane, with hairy fruit.
7. The African creeping dog's-bane, with leaves like money-wort.
8. The upright dog's-bane, with oblong leaves and scarlet flowers, called by some bastard ipeccacuanha.
9. The narrow-leaved Canada apocynum, with orange-coloured flowers.
10. The upright Maryland dog's-bane, with roundish leaves, and deep red flowers.

The first of these dog's-banes is a prodigious creeper at the root, and will in a short time overspread a large compass of ground, and must never be planted too near other plants or flowers, which would be over-run by this plant and destroyed; but it may have a place in some obscure part of the garden; for it is extremely hardy, and will thrive in almost any soil or situation. It grows to be six or seven feet high, and produces large umbels of flowers, which have a strong sweet smell, but are of a poisonous nature; as are all the true apocynum, and therefore should not be planted in the way of children, who may receive damage by breaking any part of the plant, and letting the milky juice, with which they abound, run upon the tender part of their flesh, which will be apt to blister it. These flowers are sometimes succeeded by large oblong pods, which contain a great quantity of a soft cottony substance, that adheres to the seeds, and are of service to transport them to a distance, when ripe. This plant dies to the root in winter, and rises again the succeeding spring.

The second, third, fourth, and tenth sorts, are all of them very hardy, and may be planted in the open ground, but must have a dry soil. All these produce large fine flowers, and are propagated by parting their roots in March, after the cold weather is past; for they seldom produce any ripe seed with us.

The fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth sorts, are tender, and must be preserved in pots, and housed in winter.

The fifth and sixth sorts will grow very shrubby, and sometimes to the height of eight or nine feet, and do produce bunches of flowers, which in the sixth sort are of a whitish green, and in the fifth of a worn-out purple colour, but are of no great beauty or smell. These are increased by planting cuttings in any of the summer months, in pots of light sandy earth, plunging them into a moderate hot-bed, shading them from the great heat of the sun, and giving them gentle refreshings of water. These must have a good greenhouse in winter, and must not have too much water in that season.

The seventh sort is a climbing plant, and will twist itself round a stake, and grow to the height of seven or eight feet, and in summer will produce, from the joints, small umbels of worn-out purple-coloured flowers, which are extremely sweet; this is propagated by laying down the young shoots, which do easily take root, or by parting the roots of the old plants.

The eighth sort is the most tender of them all, and requires a moderate stove to preserve it in winter. This produces extremely beautiful orange-coloured flowers, which often are succeeded by ripe seeds. This plant may be increased, by planting cuttings in June, in a moderate hot-bed, but must have little water, and be secured from the violent heat of the sun, and cold in the night. But the best way to propagate them, is by sowing the seeds in a hot-bed in March; and,

when the plants are come up, prick them into small pots, and plunge them into another hot-bed, to bring them forwards: and in June you may begin to expose them to the open air, at which time they will begin to flower; but it will be advisable to preserve one or two of the strongest in the hot-bed, in order to procure good seed.

The ninth sort is tolerably hardy, and only requires to be skreened from the extreme cold in winter, and perhaps, if it were planted into the full ground under a warm wall, it would do very well. This plant produces beautiful umbels, of orange-coloured flowers, which continue most part of the month of August, and deserves a place in the most curious gardens. It is propagated by parting the roots in March, or sowing the seeds, which in a good season do ripen tolerably well with us.

BEIGE SERGE. It is the name which the people of Poitou give to a sort of serge, which is black, grey, or tawny: others call it sheep-coloured serge, or natural serge; because the wool with which it was manufactured, was never dyed, being employed both for the warp and for the woof, such as it came from the sheep. Beiges ought to be composed of 38 or 39 reeds at least, each reed being of 20 threads.

BEIRA, a principality of Portugal, is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero and Minho; it is bounded by the ocean on the west, and by some part of Estremadura; on the south by another part of that province, and by the Tagus, or Taio; and on the east it runs contiguous to the Spanish Estremadura, and the kingdom of Leon.

AVEIRO is a considerable market-town, situated on a bay, at the mouth of a creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven: in it are made vast quantities of salt, which are exported, some into other parts of the kingdom, and the rest into foreign countries.

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The country, though not so rich and fertile as some in this kingdom, or most in Spain, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other useful commodities, it rightly cultivated. But a great part of the people of this province are so excessively lazy, that they had rather beg, steal, or do any thing, than cultivate their land as they ought.—This is owing to the pride and oppression of the great ones; to their contempt of the lower people; and to their discouragement of honest industry among them, rather than any natural propensity they have to idleness. Could people of distinction be induced to encourage, instead of distressing and despising them, we need not doubt but it would prove more interesting to themselves; the labour and traffic of the mass of the people being the only source of the wealth and grandeur of the nobles and gentry. There are, however, a number of cities, and noted towns, which are in a pretty flourishing condition, and carry on several laudable manufactures, though not to so great an height, and so good profit, as they have heretofore; which has impoverished the estates of the gentry, in proportion as the trade and manufactures have declined; all which must be ascribed to the ill policy, and egregious defects of the Portuguese constitution and government, which seems calculated to enslave and impoverish the bulk of the people, rather than to incite them to become industrious and rich: to which may be added, that the lands are, as it were, absolutely in the hands of the nobility, gentry, and clergy; and wherever that is the case, whether in Portugal, or in any other country, the majority of the people will be as poor and beggarly as those of this province.

The country, 'tis certain, is well fitted for inland produce; being less mountainous than some towards the north, and likewise better watered than some others. Its chief rivers are the Lomba, Arda, Paiva, Tevora, Tourones, and Coa; all which fall into the Duero; those of Zezer, Ponful, Aravil, and Elia, which empty themselves into the Taja; and the Mendego and Vouga, which, after taking in considerable streams, run into the ocean.

BELELAIS. Silk stuffs after the manner of taffeties, which are manufactured in the kingdom of Bengal. They measure forty cobres in length by two in breadth, at the rate of 17 inches and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cobre. The English who trade from Madras to the Manilles, carry thither great quantities of those stuffs.

BELEMNITES, or LYNX-STONE, as some call it, in Latin lapis lyncis, or dactylus idæus, and called by others in English, the arrow-head, or finger-stone. It is a long stone, nearly of the bigness of one's finger, sometimes more, sometimes less, round, pointed, or of a pyramidal figure, representing an arrow. They are of different colours, some white, some grey, some brown: they are generally imported from Candia, but some also come from the Alps, and from many parts of France, Switzerland, and Germany. They are found even in sandy places near Paris. There are two sorts of them; the one, being put into the fire, sends forth a bituminous scent, the other emits no scent at all. The former is probably, say some, what the ancients called lyncurjus, which they falsely imagined to be a sort of succinum, formed out of the coagulated urine of the lynx. But, The belemnites is really a fossil stone, which resembles talc by its weight and colour. Its exterior form has occa-
sionally

fined it to be taken by some for the petrified tooth of an animal, and its inward colour has made others take it for a petrified horn.

The learned naturalist, Dr Woodward, gives us, at the end of his Natural History of the Earth, the origin and constitution of the belemnites; wherein he endeavours to prove, that it is a true fossil, and of a mineral kind: he refutes those who imagine that it is formed in a shell, or in an outward mould; for it is always found contiguous to a mass of stone, without any void space between. There are some belemnites, which are near two feet long, and about two inches diameter in the biggest place. He also refutes those who imagined it was a horn or a tooth of some extraordinary fish. Some of these stones are indeed of the figure of a horn, but that is not generally true; for they are of all sorts of figures, quite different the one from the other.

This stone has a particular smell, when taken out of the earth; but those of England have commonly no smell. A great many of them are found in the chalk, but none of those which Dr Woodward saw, had any scent. Those that have any, had it communicated to them by the saline, sulphureous, or bituminous matters, among which they had been in the ground.

The belemnites are very common, and to be found almost every-where. They agree in several particulars with some minerals. Some of them are half transparent, and yellowish, and resemble pretty much common amber, which made the ancients give the name of lapis lyncurius, both to amber and to the belemnites.

As to the constitution of the belemnites, their substance is not tough and slicky, as that of animals, but friable and brittle, like that of talc and other such fossils. At sight it appears mineral, and proves also to be so by the chymical operations, and by all the trials that are made of it. Its fibres cut its axis diametrically, like those of several minerals. So that Dr Woodward does not think he shall be charged with rashness for asserting, that the belemnites are fossils of the nature of talc. They have the same specific gravity with talc, and are of the same contexture and constitution. The curious reader may consult that famous philosopher, upon this subject, we giving him only an abstract of his observations, which is sufficient for our purpose.

Here it is proper to take notice of what Theophrastus says upon the lapis lyncurius, as also what his ingenious and learned annotator, Dr Hill, has observed upon the belemnites.

Theophrastus says, that the lapis lynceus is excellent in its virtues, and is used for engraving seals on, and is of a very solid texture, as stones are; it has also an attractive power, like that of amber, and is said to attract not only straws and small pieces of sticks, but even copper and iron, if they are beaten into thin pieces. This Diocles affirms.

The lapis lyncurius is pellucid, and of a fine colour: and those stones which are produced from the animal in its native wildness, are better than those from the tame; as also those from the male, than those from the female: as the different nourishment the creature eats, and the different exercise it uses, as well as the difference of its whole habit of body, in being either drier or moister, make great differences in the stones.

They are found, in digging, by people who are skilful; though the creature, when it has voided its urine, hides it, and heaps the earth together about it. The polishing these stones is also a work of great trouble.

Upon this account of Theophrastus, Dr Hill observes, 'that there has been more confusion and error about the lapis lyncurius of the ancients, than about any other substance in the whole fossil kingdom. What I have to offer, in regard to it, is very different from the generally received opinions; these are, however, first to be examined; for, if they are right, this has no title to be heard.

The first and most generally received is, that it was what we now call the belemnites: this is the opinion of Woodward, &c. &c. &c. how true this is, is to be examined from their accounts; and as they are, most of them, only copies, and those often erroneous ones, of Theophrastus, he is, where his descriptions are long enough, always first to be consulted, and most relied on; and from his words I venture to pronounce it evident, that the lapis lyncurius was not the belemnites. He first says it was fit for engraving seals on; which every one who ever saw a belemnites, must pronounce impossible to have been meant of it; its texture rendering it the most improper substance imaginable for such uses. And next, that it was of a very solid texture, like that of the stones or gems; the first sight of a belemnites must also prove, that this was not meant of it; for it is not of a solid texture, nor of a grain, as we call it, any way resembling that of a stone, but composed of a number of transverse striae, and of the texture, specific gravity, and hardness of talc, which could never give it a title to what our author says of the lyncurius; that it was not only hard and solid, but extremely so. Hence, I presume, I may venture to pronounce this, which is the common opinion, evidently erroneous, and that the lapis lyncurius of the ancients was not the belemnites.

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'The few who dissent from this opinion, of the number of whom are Geoffroy, Gesner *, &c. hold, that the lapis lyncurius of the ancients was no other than amber. This is the second and only other opinion worth naming, and the favourers of it bring many passages from the copies of the ancients to confirm it: all which serve to prove what I have before observed, that many quote the ancients who have never read them; and show how useful, and, indeed, absolutely necessary, a correct edition of the work of this author is, in researches of this kind. This opinion is even more easily than the other proved erroneous from the words of the author, who not only compares the lyncurius, in some of its properties, to amber, which I have before observed in a parallel case in the notes on the sapphire †, [see the article SAPPHIRE] is sufficient proof, that they cannot be the same; as no body would ever think of comparing a thing to itself: but after having gone through a complete description of the lyncurius, according to the received, though erroneous, opinion of those times, of its being produced from the urine of the lynx, he begins a separate account of amber under its own proper name, and shews he was well acquainted with its nature and properties, and knew it to be a native fossil. Hence it is, therefore, also evident, that the lapis lyncurius was not amber, and that the generally received opinions of it are both evidently erroneous.

* Ego lyncurium a succino differre non video; & id quoque pro gemma habitum olim, præsertim quod aureo colore pellucet & splendet, minime dubito.

† See Theophrastus's History of Stones, with an English version, and critical and philosophical notes. By John Hill, M. D. pages 59, 60, 61.

'That such who had not read the ancients themselves, should fall into errors of this kind, from the obscurity and confusion of those who copied from them, we cannot wonder. But here it may not be amiss to observe, that it is not the ancients themselves, but these copiers and quoters of them, who are generally obscure. Epiphanius, who was better acquainted with them, has made a different guess, and is, indeed, the first author who has had the least thought of what, I shall attempt to prove, is evidently the truth in regard to this stone.

What it is not, has been sufficiently proved. It remains to enquire what it really is: the way to judge of this is, to consider what the ancients have left us about it: what Theophrastus says we have before us; that it was of a stony texture is plain from his account, and may be confirmed from all those who wrote more determinately; they have always called it λιθὸν λαγυρίου. Epiphanius has, ἐδρομευθε λαγυρίον ἔτω καλεῖσθαι λιθόν. And Pliny, l. 8. c. 38. Lynceum humor ita redditus, ubi gignuntur, glaciatur arefcitque in gemmas carbunculis similes, & igneo colore fulgentes lyncurium vocatas. Can any one imagine this a description of the belemnites? All that we find in the ancients about it, in short, is of this kind, and determines the lapis lyncurius to have been a transparent gem, of no determinate shape, and of a yellowish red or flame colour, sometimes paler, and sometimes deeper, which distinguishes it into male and female, as we shall see hereafter from Theophrastus; and of a texture fit for engraving on.

Had the ancients meant to have described our belemnites, they would not only not have named any one of these characters, but would certainly have described its shape, which is the most striking, obvious, and remarkable thing about it. We are therefore to seek for some stone better answering this description; and this we find, even to the utmost exactness, in the gem which we now call the hyacinth, which it is also evident they have never described under any other name but this (for what they called the hyacinth, was a stone of a very different kind, and reckoned by us either among the garnets or amethysts) and which it is not easy to conceive how they could better or more exactly have described, than they have in their accounts of the lyncurius. Hill's Theoph. p. 73, 74, 75.

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Left some may imagine that it is needless to dwell so long upon articles of this kind, in a work of commerce, it should be considered, that the study of natural history, in every respect, hath administered the original matter for universal traffic. For manufactures of every kind being made of some substances, and the fossil and mineral kingdom affording no less matter for these purposes than the vegetable or animal, that should not be wholly neglected in a work of this nature.

The dealers in precious stones, minerals, and metals, certainly are considerable enough to deserve our regard. Nor does the fossil kingdom, from the diamond to the pebble, admit only of extensive objects for traffic, when duly managed by our mechanical artist, but they afford extraordinary medicinal virtues, both from pharmaceutical and chymical preparations.

parations. And whether they may not be much more introduced into the art of dyeing, and thereby render that operation far less expensive than it is at present, may deserve consideration. Cochineal and orchelia, and many other ingredients used in the art of dyeing, come extremely dear in comparison, perhaps, to what many productions of the fossil kind would do, was this branch of the works of nature duly cultivated, and the properties of those bodies skilfully analyzed. For the perfection of the art of dyeing consists in discovering fixed, bright, and permanent colours, not subject to change for the worse in the open air; and such colours should rather be expected from mineral, fossil, or metallic matters, than from those of the vegetable and animal kingdoms; which usually afford subjects of too lax and alterable a texture for permanent colours.

Iron and steel are used in the dyeing of all true blacks (called Spanish blacks) though not in Flanders blacks; also coppers, steel filings, and slippe, which is the stuff found in the troughs of grind-stones, whereon edge-tools have been ground. They use pewter for bow-dye, scarlet; viz. they dissolve bars of pewter in the aqua fortis they use; and nitre and all other sorts come under the fossil kingdom.—Arsenic is used in crimson, to give it lustre.—Of mineral salts used in dyeing, the chief are allum, argol, and salt-petre, or nitre. See the article DYEING.

This part of nature affords variety of materials for painting. Many mineral subjects are natural pigments; as native cinnabar, ochre, black lead, &c. but particularly the yellow earth called light ochre, found in Shottover-hills, which is used native as a light yellow, and by calcination makes a light red. This colour England supplies Italy with; and Le Gar would frequently say, he had been no painter without it. Moreover, those who have no relish for the contemplation of nature, either out of curiosity, or with a view generously to communicate something beneficial to mankind, should be incited, methinks, from their own private interest, to obtain some knowledge of this kind. For the worth of land does not always consist in what it produces upon its superficies: nor are mines and metals the only things, which have often greatly enriched their possessors; fine marles, clays, and sands, have frequently made one acre of land worth fifty, which were contiguous to it. Windfor loam, pipe-makers clay, fine pottery earths, Woolwich sand for glass-making, are glaring instances of the truth hereof. Has not many an estate been greatly enriched by quarries of stone, marble, and alabaster, as well as by common lime-stone, coal, and salts? and all which for centuries have lain concealed, till some body of skill and discernment has made the discovery. To what good account have turned, in the way of traffic, the Lemnian earth, the earth of Malta, and various boles, chalks, and talcs? Has not many an estate been greatly improved by allum, vitriol, and metallic fossils of divers kinds? Those who look upon the earth and all nature with a philosophical eye, do not only receive unfeakably more joy and satisfaction than the ignorant in their contemplation, but have a much greater chance to improve an estate, by their superior knowledge in the works of nature.

Nor is it enough to know and distinguish the natural productions by name; their qualities should be discovered by art, or their worth cannot be ascertained, because their proper application cannot be judged of. To discover the properties of bodies, some knowledge in analytical chymistry is requisite. On which consideration among others it is, that we shall, in the course of this work, advance so far into practical chymistry, as to enable the country gentleman, at a small expence, to examine the internal parts of his estate, and to make just and accurate essays of any of its peculiar productions, in order to be informed of the uses, to which they may be most profitably applied.

BELL, a well known instrument, ranked by Merfenne and other musicians, among those of percussion.

The metal of which it is made, is a compound of tin and copper, or pewter and copper; the proportion of one to the other is about twenty pounds of pewter, or twenty-three pounds of tin, to one hundred weight of copper.

The constituent parts of a bell are the body, or barrel, the clapper, and the ear or cannon, by which it hangs to a large beam of wood.

The bell-founders distinguish two sorts of proportions, viz. the simple, and the relative. The simple are those which ought to be between the several parts of a bell, and which experience has shewn to be necessary to render it agreeably sonorous. The relative proportions are those, which fix a due relation between two or more, whereby their combined sounds may produce the designed harmony.

The parts of a bell are, 1. The founding bow, or the smaller circle which terminates it, growing thinner and thinner: 2. The brim or the belly, or that part whereon the clapper strikes, and which, on that account, is thicker than the other parts. 3. The outward striking of the middle of the bell, or, rather, the point under which it grows wider and wider to the brim. 4. The waist or furniture, or that part which grows wider and thicker, by a supply of metal, which

is larger and larger quite to the brim. 5. The upper vase, or that half of the bell which rises above the waist. 6. The pallet, or crown, which is the cover of the bell, and supports the staple of the clapper within. 7. The crown, which are branches of metal uniting with the cannons, bent, and hollowed through, to receive the iron-keys, by means of which the bell is hung up to the beam, which is at once its support and counterpoise, when it is rung out.

The founder begins by taking the thickness of the brim of the bell to be cast, or the thickness of the brim of the largest bell, when he is to make many agree together with different notes. The brim is the fundamental rule of the whole work. To measure that thickness, he uses compasses with bent legs, and carries this measure upon a rule, divided into feet, inches, and lines.

Reason and experience taught our ancient founders, that making their bells all of a shape, that is, of equal width and thickness every-where, would produce but a very dull sound at very great cost. Making the upper part of the vase smaller than the rest is enough: they have, by repeated trials, found out the necessity of diminishing the thickness of it considerably. Whenever they have been lavish of the metal, and have made a bell of an excessive thickness, it produced only a confused humming. The founders obtained a more lively sound, by lessening the expence, by the gradual shortening of the diameter of the bell upwards, and the successive diminution to a certain degree in the thickness of it: but they were still crossed by an inconvenience, which led them at last to the form now in fashion for bells. The bell is sonorous in its whole extent. The sound of the brim, which is the thickest part of it, is of course predominant, even so as to weaken, and sometimes totally drown, the sound of the upper vase. But it often happens, that they are heard both in the small bells, and more distinctly than in the larger. A single bell may then produce an harmony, and the combination of the two sounds will be pleasant or disagreeable, according to the proportion of the upper with the inferior diameter.

If the upper vase is exactly subordinate, or half of the inferior, that is, seven brims and an half to fifteen; this will be the ratio of two to one, or of the whole to one half. And as the string of a base-viol gives the Ut grave, whilst its half gives the Ut sharp, the diameter of the upper vase being in the proportion of one to two, or of the half to the whole, whilst the brim gives the Ut grave, the upper vase will sound the sharp octave, which is an agreeable concord; and is heard in almost all bells without being remarked, because the two notes of a just octave resemble much the unison. But, when the upper vase is somewhat more or less wide, it may make us hear, together with the sound of the brim, an interval of a seventh or a ninth, or any other interval. That seventh makes a discord; and the ninth, which is not a fine consonance, may be diminished, and make a false octave with the predominant tone of the second bell. But here is a still greater cacophony.

The sharp octave is not only most commonly heard in conjunction with the sound of the brims, but there are bells in which, besides the foregoing sounds, you moreover hear the sound of the third's place, or of that part which grows wider and wider below the waist; according to the bent given to this part, it will prove more or less sunk and thick. Here is that which will result from the diversity of the thickness, which is a necessary consequence of the variety of the methods followed by founders in their proportions. When you put a few drops of water in a glass, and, with the tip of your finger dipped in that water, rub the brink of the glass circularly, the whole vase begins to resound, and changes its tone, in proportion as you put more or less water into it. The liquor being but one body with the glass as it were, the sound of it becomes grave in proportion, as the quantity of matter increases; and it becomes sharper, as you diminish the quantity of the liquor. The third's place of the bell may then add to the predominant sound of the brim, and so its sharp octave, produced by the upper vase, a third or a fourth, or any other consonance good or bad, according to the nature of the beat, which admits more or less metals, as it swells or flattens these parts more or less.

This third sound is not difficult to be distinguished in the two fine bells of St Germain des Prez. Our most skilful founders, and most learned harmonists, agree unanimously, that they have heard nothing more perfect in this kind, than the concord of five of these mingled sounds in the two large bells of the cathedral of Rheims, and of three very distinct ones in the biggest of the two, which is twenty-four thousand pounds weight, according to the inscription. When this last is rung alone, it strikes with equal clearness the two octaves along with a third tone, which makes a fourth with the grave, and the inverted fifth with the sharp octave. When both bells ring in company the two grave sounds, which are very soft and argentine, are always accompanied with two fourths of the utmost brightness and truth. They are not heard less distinctly than the two lowest tones. From these four sounds, always surmounted with the upper octave

of the sharpest bell, there results an harmony which affects those who have no skill in point of music, although they think they hear but two sounds instead of five.

But the combination of these different sounds, which is the effect of the ingenious structure of the bell, and which must needs please, when just, may become false, and even render an excellent piece of metal very disagreeable, when the founder does not direct the proportions of his bell rightly, or when, having a bell to restore to a concordant chime, he happens to follow, in the new casting of it, proportions different from the casting of the other. An irregular found, going in company with that of the brims, proves discordant, and makes a false harmony, although you think you hear but one sound; the ear is offended by it without knowing why. If these sounds, already ill sorted in one single bell, come to be mixed with those of another, the discordance is greater still. A founder, who would exactly determine all the effects which must needs result from such or such simple proportions, ought to have a theory much superior to that of a country bell-founder, who has no other guide but his old method and traditional rules.

A no less disorder is reigning in the relative proportions that fix the concordance of several bells. The workmen govern themselves herein upon the campanary scale, the use whereof they make a great mystery; but father Merfenne has long since made that matter publick. This learned monk has demonstrated it to be defective, repugnant to the rules of harmony, and liable to mistakes that may ruin them, from their being obliged to re-cast a large set of bells at their own expence. Whoever desires may see this matter minutely treated of by father Merfenne himself, in the seventh book of his Universal Harmony, containing the theory and practice of music, from page 1 to page 46, in folio, printed at Paris 1636. In regard to their casting, see FOUNDERY.

BELLASOR. The Portuguese and the Dutch pronounce thus, and spell the name thus in their maps, rather than Ballasor, or Balasore, or Belasora. It is a large village in the kingdom of Orixá, near the borders of Bengal, and stands on a fine river three leagues from the sea, between the cape, or Punte de los Palmeres, and the mouth of the Ganges. The English, Dutch, and French, have each a factory there. There comes a stuff called Bellasor, from this place where it is manufactured: it is made of the herba, which is the rind of a certain tree, which, being prepared and drawn out fine, works like silk, and is manufactured either with cotton or with silk. The English import the Bellasors into Europe. The pieces are 14½ yards long, and ½ a yard broad, English measure. There are fine handkerchiefs of this stuff. See BENGAL.

BELLOWS, an instrument which serves to draw in the air, and expel it again. It is used in chambers and kitchens, in forges, furnaces, and founderies, to brisk up the fire. It serves also for organs, and other pneumatic instruments and machines, to give them a proper degree of air or wind. This instrument is composed of two flat boards, sometimes of an oval, and sometimes of a triangular, figure. Two or more hoops, bent according to the figure of the boards, are placed between them: a piece of leather, broad in the middle, and narrow at both ends, is nailed on the edges of the boards, which it thus unites together, as also on the hoops which separate the boards, that the leather may be easier open and fold again. A tube of iron or copper, and sometimes of silver for chamber-bellows, is fastened to the undermost board, in which there are several holes; that tube is called the noze, or nozel; finally, there is a piece of leather within the machine, which serves as a valve, or sucker, and covers the holes in the under board, that the air, which comes in through those holes, when the upper board is raised, may be expelled with force through the nozel, when that board is moved down.

The bellows used in the forges of silversmiths, locksmiths, farriers, blacksmiths, founders, &c. whether they be single or double, are moved up and down by means of an iron chain fastened to them, and pulled by the workman.

The bellows used in founderies, and for furnaces where metals are melted down, and those of the forges where large iron works are made, as anchors for ships, &c. are generally set a going by the wheels of some water-mill.

The Hessian bellows are a contrivance for driving air into a mine, for the respiration of the miners. This M. Papin improved, changing it's cylindrical form into a spiral one; and with this, working it only with his foot, he could make a wind to raise two pound weight.

Other bellows, as particularly those of enamellers, are moved by one or more steps, which the workman has under his feet.

Finally, the organ-bellows are blown by a man. These bellows, which give air to the several pipes, that form the tones of the organs, are of a particular make, different from the others, and are a kind by themselves; we mention them in another place.

The butchers do also use bellows of an extraordinary structure, to blow and swell the flesh after the beasts are killed, to skin and cut it the easier.

There are several workmen who make those different sort of bellows: but yet, in France, they all belong to the same company, which is that of the turners.

BENGAL, the most easterly province of the Mogul's dominions in India, lies upon the mouth of the Ganges, and is bounded by the provinces of Patna and Jeshat on the north; the kingdoms of Arracan and Tipra on the east; the bay of Bengal and the province of Orixá on the south; and by the provinces of Narvar and Malva on the west; extending near 400 miles in length, from east to west, and 300 in breadth, from north to south; and, being annually overflowed by the river Ganges, as Egypt is by the Nile, is one of the richest and most fruitful provinces in India.

The bay is the largest and deepest in the world, except that of Mexico, and much larger than that, if it be carried no further than it is by our modern geographers, viz. from the most western land of Cuba on the north, to the easternmost land of Yucatan on the south. The extent given to this bay, is, from the most southern point of the Isle of Ceylon, on the west, to Achem, on the most northern point of the island of Sumatra, on the east, and thence to the coast of Malacca; being 20 degrees of longitude, or 780 miles; and, as it strikes out from the Indian ocean towards the north, between India and the peninsula of Malacca, it stretches from the latitude of 6 to the entrance of Ganges in 23, which is 17 degrees, or 1020 miles. In fact, the bay of Bengal, as it is commonly expressed and understood by the English, extends from the south part of Coromandel to the river Huguely. It receives several great rivers; the Ganges and Guenga from the west side of it, and the Aracan and Menamkior, or Avas river, from the east side. But Bengal, as a coast, is supposed to extend only from Cape Palmiras, on the north of the coast of Golconda, to the entrance into the Ganges. This river being the most frequented by European ships, and made the center of their commerce for the whole province of Bengal, it may be proper to observe, that Strabo says, the Ganges was the greatest river in the three continents of the world, the Indus being the second, the Ister the third, and the Nile the fourth. Cluverius says, it was noted for producing gold and jewels; that it's least breadth was two German leagues, and the greatest five; and that, where shallowest, it was 100 feet deep. It rises in the mountains of Nigracut, part of Great Tartary, receives many other rivers, and, after a course of 3000 miles, falls into the gulph of Bengal by so many mouths, that travellers are not agreed in the number of them.

The common passage for European shipping is up one of the most western branches, called the river Huguely. As pilots are not always to be had, the English, French, and Dutch, who have their respective factories here, keep them in constant pay, to be ready at Ballasora, to carry their shipping up the river, because it is of the most difficult entrance to a stranger, has the greatest variety of channels, and is the most blocked up with innumerable sands and shoals of any river in this part of the world; therefore it has been surveyed and sounded with great exactness, and several safe and good channels marked out, so that the largest ships that use the India trade may be carried up to the furthest part of it where the commerce requires, there being generally from five to seven fathom water in these channels, within a few miles from Huguely itself, which is, from the entrance of the braces and other channels, at least 160 miles, and much more, including the windings and turnings.

That which is supposed to be the most southern branch of the Ganges has a town on it called Piply, four or five leagues up the river, which was formerly a place of good trade, having factories both English and Dutch; but, from the loss of it's trade, is become a beggarly place (as will ever be the case) inhabited only by poor fishermen, since the removal of the factories to Huguely and Calcutta.

Among the many villages and farms interspersed in the large planes by the river Huguely, the first of any note on the river side is Calculla, a market-town for corn, coarse cloth, butter, oil, and other products of the country; and above it is the Dutch Bankshall, where their ships ride, when the currents hinder them from getting up the river. From Calculla and Juanpardo, two large deep rivers run to the east; and, on the west side, there is another that runs by the back of Huguely island to Radnagor, famous for manufacturing cotton cloth and silk romaals, or handkerchiefs. Bassundri and Fessindri, or Gorgat and Catrong, are on that river, which produce the greatest quantity of sugar in Bengal.

PONJELLY, is a village a little higher up on the east side of the Huguely river, where there is a weekly corn-market, which exports more rice than any place on this river.

At **GOVENAPORE,** about a league further up on the other side of the river, is a little pyramid, built for a land-mark, or boundary, of the English India company's colony of Calcutta, which is about a league higher. The English, it has been said, abandoned Huguely, because of the unhealthiness of it's situation; and Captain Hamilton says, that this place is the most unhealthy on all that river, by reason that, three miles to the north-east, there is a salt-water lake, which overflows in September and October, when vast numbers of fish resort to it, which are left dry by the going off of the flood, in November

and December, and infect the air by their putrefaction, and cause a yearly mortality.

The governor's house in the fort is as regular a piece of architecture as is to be seen of this kind in India; and in the fort are many convenient lodgings, both for the factors and writers, and some store-houses for the company's goods, besides magazines for their ammunition. The company has also a pretty good hospital here, with a garden and fish-ponds, from whence the governor's kitchen is supplied with carp, mullets, and calkops. Most people of any figure here have the same advantages, and all sorts of provisions being good and cheap, as well as cloathing, the country is very agreeable, with all its abovementioned inconveniencies.

The garrison here consist generally of 2 or 300 soldiers, more for conveying the company's fleet from Patana, with their salt-petre and piece goods, raw silk and opium, than for defence of the fort; for, as the company hold the colony in fee-tail of the Mogul, they are not afraid of enemies dispossessing them. The Rajas, whose territories lie on the banks of the Ganges, between Patana and Cassembazaar, are sometimes troublesome, by claiming duty for all merchandizes that pass on the river, by, or through, their dominions, and often raising forces to compel payment; but some detachment from the fort generally clear the passage. Captain Hamilton complained, that, in his time, the colony had very little manufactory of its own. He estimated the number of inhabitants at about 10,000; and adds, that the company's revenues, which are pretty good, and well paid, arise from ground-rents, and consular on all goods imported and exported by British subjects, who, as free merchants, are tolerated by the company to trade; but all other nations are free from taxes.

Opposite to the factory which the Danes once had, about four miles below the town of Huguely, the late Ostend company [see the trade of the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS and OSTEND COMPANY] settled a factory at Bankebankhal; but, anno 1723, they quarrelled with the fouadaar, or governor of Huguely, who forced them to quit the place, and seek protection from the French, who have a factory at Charnagur; but the latter here being poor, and carrying on little trade, content themselves with a little church to bear mass in, which says Captain Hamilton, is the chief business of the French at Bengal.

CHINCHUSA, where the Dutch emporium stands, is about half a league further up. It is a large factory. The place is wholly under the Dutch government, and about a mile each way, and well inhabited by Armenians and the natives. It is contiguous to Huguely, and is a sanctuary for many poor natives, when they are in danger of being oppressed by the Mogul governor, or his harpies.

HUGUELY, or **OUGLY**, where the English once had, and the Dutch still have a factory, is an unhealthy, but pretty large, ill-built town, extending two miles, by the west side of its river, from Chinchusa to the Bandel. This town, at which the Mogul has a fuzza, or custom-house officer, drives a great trade, because all foreign goods are brought to it for import, as those of the Bengal product are for exportation. Bernier says, it is the best and most fruitful country in the world, and the air temperate; that it produces very great quantities of rice, sugar, spices, cotton, silks, canes, &c. The Portuguese drive a great trade here in confections, pomecitrons, a delicate root like sarsaparilla, ambas, ananas, mirobalans, lemons, and ginger. The other commodities are salt-petre, with which the English and Dutch load whole ships: they have also lacque, opium, wax, civet, long-pepper, and butter.—The country is well watered by channels cut from the Ganges, on the banks of which grow their pulse, mustard-seed, sesamum for oil, and low mulberry-trees, to feed their silk-worms; but their silk is not near so good as that of Persia.

The trade of Bengal affords rich cargoes for 50 or 60 ships yearly, besides what is carried in small vessels to neighbouring countries; and there are vessels of about 200 tons, that bring salt-petre hither from Patana. They come down in October, before the stream of the river, but are obliged to tow them up again, by strength of hands, not less than 1000 miles. Besides, the trading vessels in India deal in opium, long-pepper, ginger, tobacco, and various sorts of piece-goods, not merchantable in Europe. They abound with warehouses, and shops full of all sorts of Indian-goods, especially silks, fine cloths and stuffs. The Portuguese had a factory here in the beginning of the last century, which they called Porto-Riquero, and another a little to the south-west, called Porto-Angeli, but were expelled by the Moguls, because of their piracy. There is abundance of Moorish merchants, who carry on a considerable trade here. The Dutch factory here, which is built in an open place, about a musket-shot from the river, looks more like a castle, being incompassed with deep ditches, full of water, high stone walls, and bastions faced with stone, and mounted with cannon. Their spacious warehouses are also of stone, and the apartments for the officers and merchants are large and commodious.

This being the chief of all the Dutch factories in the Bengal direction, the accounts are transmitted from hence to Batavia. Bernier says, that there were 8 or 9000 Christians

here in his time, and about 25,000 in the rest of the kingdom. The adjacent country is very finely diversified with arable land, neat houses, large gardens, ponds, bathing-places, delightful vallies, and roads adorned with trees, resembling walks.

At **BANDEL** there was formerly a Portuguese colony, but governed since by the Mogul's roudaar. They, at present, deal in no sort of commodities, says Captain Hamilton, but what are in request at the court of Venus, the owners whereof are to be met with at its church, and a priest to conduct the buyer to proper shops, for view of the goods, and to vouch for their goodness.

At **CASSEMBAZAAR**, about 100 miles above Huguely, and 20 leagues west from Dacca, are factories both English and Dutch, of which, by their company's orders, the seconds of the council ought to be the chiefs. It is a large town, much frequented by merchants, and stands in a very healthy and fruitful island of the Ganges, whose inhabitants are employed in many valuable manufactories, especially muslins and silks, which are naturally yellowish, till the natives whiten them with the ashes which they call there of Adam's fig-tree. Tavernier says, that the Dutch export 7000 bales of them from hence annually; and, except what the natives keep for themselves, the Tartar and Mogul merchants ingross the rest, which is about 15,000 bales. Captain Hamilton says, that it stole its present trade and grandeur from

RAJAHMAL, **RAGEMAHALE**, or **RAGMEHAL**, 12 miles from it, a well-built town, which was once the residence of the governors of Bengal, and the greatest place of trade and commerce on the Ganges, by the name of Muxadaubaud, and where the Mogul has still a mint; but on the port's being choaked up, the government was removed to Dacca, and the trade to Cassambazaar. The country adjacent affords plenty of rice, and excellent hunting. The Bengal roupies, which are gold, are coined here.

MALDO, is a large populous town, well frequented by merchants, on another channel of the Ganges, 40 or 50 miles east of Rajahmal, and 15 leagues north east of Tanda. Both the English and Dutch have factories here; as also at

DACCA, which is also called **DEKAKA**, **DAAC**, or **BANDAR DACCA**, in an island on the broadest and most eastern branch of the Ganges. It is about a league and an half long, on the banks of the river. Mr. Hamilton says, it is the largest city in Bengal, and manufactures the best and cheapest cotton and silk. The plenty and cheapness of provisions here is also incredible. In short, it is a populous wealthy town, and resorted to by merchants from China, and divers parts of India.

SUNDIVA, an island, which lies four leagues from the rest, and as far from the main land, and 120 miles south of Chaigan, is about 20 leagues in circumference, has three fathom water within a mile of its shore, and serves to shelter small ships from storms, or the south-west monsoons. It is thinly inhabited by a simple honest people, who sell their cloth manufacture incredibly cheap, and have such plenty of provisions, that Captain Hamilton was informed, by a person of credit, that he bought 580 pounds weight of rice for half-a-crown, and that he gave no more for eight geese, and 60 good tame poultry. Mr. Fytch says, also, that it abounds with wild hogs and fat kine, and that he bought the latter for 6 s. 3 d. a piece, and four wild hogs, ready dressed, for 12 s. 6 d. The island is divided into two parts, by a channel, which, at high water, is navigable.

After describing the coast and bay of Bengal, with the mouths of the Ganges, and the islands thereof, we shall next give an account of the continent, and its trade, which is called the kingdom or province of Bengal.

It lies in the south-east corner of Indostan, on both sides of the tropic of Cancer, and the river Ganges; having its bay, and the province of Orixia, on the south; Patna and Jessat on the north; Malva on the west; with Aracan and Tipra on the east. It is usually compared to Egypt for its fertility. Bernier says, it is the best and most fruitful country in the world, it being well watered, not only by the Ganges, but by channels cut out of it, on whose banks grow their pulse, mustard-seed, sesamum for oil, and little mulberry-trees, to feed their silk-worms, whose products of raw silk, and their wrought silk, are preferred to the Chinese, and reckoned little inferior to that of Ghilan on the Caspian sea. Besides aloe, salt-petre, lacque, opium, &c. as before observed, it produces very great quantities of rice, which is sent every year to the Moluccas, Sumatra, Malabar, and Coromandel; the Maldiva islands, Ceylon, Goa, &c.—They also send plenty of sugar to Golconda, Carnateo, Arabia, Mesopotamia, and Persia, as also spices, cotton, the finest muslins and calicoes, silks called Bengals, elaches and herba stuffs, with Indico and canes, to Europe. The Portuguese drive a great trade here, in confections, pomecitrons, a long, but very delicate, root, like sarsaparilla, ambas, ananas, mirobalans, lemons and ginger. They have, from April to September, almost continual rains, accompanied with tempests, which occasion inundations, and do a great deal of mischief. During the other part of the year, the weather is fair, and cooled by the north east wind; but, in December, January, and February, the mornings are misty and

and cold; yet in December, when the days are shortest, they have the sun for half an hour after six in the morning to half an hour after five in the evening.—The days are then serene and clear, though the nights are cold; and this season is their harvest. Here is great plenty of fish, good fowls for three half pence apiece, and geese and ducks in proportion. They abound with sheep, kids, and hogs, the chief food of the Europeans, who also victual their ships therewith.

The governors here exercise absolute power, have all the tributes, imposts, and fines; for which they are obliged to furnish the emperor with horses and arms; so that this province is rated at 40,000 horse, and 80,000 foot, for its quota; and its yearly revenue is calculated at no less, according to Schouten, than 5,000,000 sterling.

Some geographers have represented Bengal as the chief city; whereas there is no such town, or a very obscure one.—Martinieire says, that, of the many travels he had seen to Indostan, he never met with any satisfactory evidence, either as to the situation or existence of the city of Bengal. Our merchants and seamen, who have been there so often, know no such place; and, according to the accounts of the situation of what is called by this name, it would seem to be a town that borders upon Aracan, and is the most easterly boundary of the Mogul's dominions, viz.

CHATIGAN, or, as the Portuguese call it, **XATIGAN** and **PORTO MAJORE**, about 50 leagues below Dacca, near the bottom of Bengal bay. Moll and Herbert place it at the south-east corner of an island, formed by the two most eastern mouths of the Ganges; and the Sansons, on the west side of the Cosmin, overagainst what they term the city of Bengal. The place is called, by the natives, Chittagoung. The distance from hence to Sagor, the westernmost channel of the Ganges, is, according to Hamilton, about 100 leagues.

Fytch says, it is the chief harbour of the country; and it appears to have been formerly a place of considerable traffic. It was the first settlement made by the Portuguese; but the dangers their ships ran, in coming hither in the south-west monsoons, made them remove to Bandel at Huguely, and it is now a poor place, poverty always being the consequence of the loss of trade.

SATIGAN, or **SATIGA**. Mr. Frederic, in his travels, says, that, in his time, above 30 ships were annually laden here with rice, lacque, sugar, long-peper, oil of Zezelin, &c. and that merchants commonly bought and freighted vessels at this place, to trade up to the Ganges, by which they made considerable advantages; but the commerce is since removed to Huguely.

At PATNA, **PATENA**, or **PATENAW**, where both the English and Dutch have factories for raw silk and salt-petre; and some geographers place it on one side the Ganges, and others on the contrary. The Sansons place it on the east of the Ganges, where the kingdom of that name lies, 135 miles north-west of Dacca; but it is placed on the west side by the maps, as well as by Thevenot, Tavernier, and other travellers. The former says, it is a very large town, in a pleasant and fruitful country: the latter, that the Dutch, whose factory here is chiefly for salt-petre, refine it at a great town called Choupar, 10 leagues higher up the Ganges. He makes Patna to be six miles in length, and one of the biggest cities in the Indies. Hamilton says, it is the seat of the prince of Bengal, who is always of the royal blood, and that it produces so much opium, that it serves all the countries in India with it. It supplies them also with cotton, cotton-cloth, sugar, &c. that gold is dug in the neighbourhood.—They make a sort of potter's ware here very fragrant, and almost as thin as paper, for the use of the Mogul's seraglio, and the princes of Indostan.

BANNARAS, or **BANNARON**, is a handsome large city, on the east side of the Ganges, about 100 miles above Patna, in the road to Agra. It has a very considerable trade in calicoes and silks, which the manufacturers dare not sell 'till stamped with the Mogul's seal, on pain of being fined and bastinadoed. They abound with plenty of pulse, and all sorts of grain, in the neighbourhood; and they have manufactures of rich stuffs of gold, silver, and silks, of magnificent turbans, fine girdles, and light vestments, for the ladies of the seraglio, which makes this of one the wealthiest towns in the Indies.

TANDA, on the east side of the Ganges, above where it divides into branches, and about a league from the river, was the capital of a kingdom, 'till subdued by the Moguls, and is a place of great trade in cotton and callico.

SOMELPORE, about 30 leagues from Huguely, is noted for the fine diamonds in its river Gouel, supposed to be washed down from the south mountains of Golconda; inasmuch that, about the end of January, or the beginning of February, when the water is clear, after having been mudded by the great rains that generally fall in December, above 8000 men, women, and children, search for diamonds all along from this town to these mountains.

JONPOURE, stands on the same river as Soumelpore, but 25 miles more to the south. It is noted for a considerable commerce in sweet-scented oils, rich carpets, hangings embroidered with silk, and all sorts of fine linnen.

LACCANOW, not far from Jonpoure, drives a very great trade, more especially in linnens.

OUNCE, or **OUJEA**, an ancient city, on a river that runs into the Ganges, formerly the seat of the Patan kings, has a mighty trade in horn, being used by the Indians for drinking-cups and targets.

BALASORE, or **BELLESORE**, is the place where the European ships, bound for Bengal and the Ganges, take in a pilot; and the English, Dutch, and French, have their respective factories here, which were, indeed, the capital factories of the bay of Bengal, before the navigation of the Huguely river was improved, but, at present, of no great consideration. The adjacent country is fruitful to admiration, producing rice, wheat, gram, doll, callavances, several sorts of pulse, anise, cummin, coriander, and carraway-seeds, tobacco, butter, oil, and bees-wax. Their manufactures are of cotton, in sannis, callas, dimities, mulmuls, silk and cotton romals, gurrachs, and lungies; and, of the herba (the rind of a certain tree, which, being prepared and drawn out fine, works like silk, and is worked with either silk or cotton) they make gingham, pinascas, and several other sorts of goods for exportation. There are rich Moors, Banians, and Gentiles here. The town trades pretty much with the Maldiva islands, which having no rice or other grain of their own product, it supplies them with what necessaries they want, and, in return, brings cowries and cayar, for the service of shipping. The sea-shore of Balasore being very low, the ships ride three leagues from it, in four or five fathom water, in a road which is rendered safe, by Cape Palmiras, from the violence of the south-wind. There is a very dangerous bar at the mouth of its river, which is about 12 leagues to the north of Cunnaca river. Between these two rivers there is one continued sandy bay, where vast numbers of sea-tortoises resort to lay their eggs; and here are shoals of a very delicious fish called pamplee, which are sold for two-pence a hundred, and two of them are sufficient for a moderate stomach.

R E M A R K S.

When it is said the English have a factory in this part, and the Dutch in that, it is rather to describe which of the European nations has the principal commerce there; for, except in the particular places where they severally have forts, and maintain garrisons, no factory is singular to an European nation upon all the coast; but the several nations have particular houses, or bazars, in the respective cities and trading ports, and this they call a factory; whereas the main body of the inhabitants are Indians, and the Europeans are there only by the permission of those Indians, or of their princes and governors.

But the case of the Portuguese is different at Goa, whose possession is their own in sovereignty, and they acknowledge no prince but the king of Portugal, though they have near 100,000 people under their government; the reason whereof is, because they first obtained their sovereignty of the proper prince, who then ruled, the Great Mogul at that time in being having not extended his dominions to such a height as his successors have since done. The Portuguese thus strengthening themselves at Goa, and having taught the Indians and Mestizes to live after the European manner, they have prevented the Dutch from dispossessing them, as they have done at Coulang, and other places on that coast.

The Dutch have secured themselves, even more effectually, at Batavia, on the island of Java, which, when they came first thither, was only an Indian village, surrounded with no more than a palisado of bamboo canes.

This city is the glory of this island, and of all the European settlements in the Indies. It is the center of all the strength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, where they are so powerful, and have so many subjects, so many islands, kingdoms, principalities, and dominions, depending on them, and are so able to support and protect them, that it is to be wondered any other European nation should have the least footing in the Indies, and that the Dutch do not extirpate all the other European factories out of the country.

They have also brought the natives, where they have any influence, to cloath in the European manner, which has wonderfully increased their commerce from Europe thither.

By these politic measures, we find, that the Dutch have rendered their trade to this part of the world so important, as to strengthen themselves there, in a manner far superior to all the rest of the European powers put together; and, therefore, whenever it is the will and pleasure of their High Mightinesses, they may monopolize, as it were, all this trade from Europe to themselves. This would increase their navigation and brood of seamen to such a degree, that they would soon become as potent in Europe as they would then be in Asia.

The same principles of policy, therefore, which dictate to the chief potentates of Europe to maintain the ballance of power among themselves, do also dictate the holding the ballance of power in Asia among the Europeans settled in that part of the world; for, although some have imagined, but never proved, we conceive, that the East-India trade of this nation is, upon the whole, a losing trade; yet, if ever England gives the same up, it will certainly prove a real, not an

imaginary loss to this kingdom, and a certain gain to that into whose scale of trade it shall be thrown: thus, as it will weaken our navigation, and lessen our brood of seamen; so it will strengthen those who shall supplant us.

If this trade was really detrimental to the nation, we may reasonably presume it would prove the same to other states which have a share therein as well as we; unless it can be shewn that other nations are more experienced in this commerce, and carry it on to greater advantage than we do. But it is extraordinary that this trade should prove beneficial to all other nations, and otherwise to us; and it is still more extraordinary—that upstart nations in trade should be so sanguine to establish a new East-India company*, if they were not morally certain of its proving nationally beneficial.

* This alludes to the endeavours of the king of Prussia, to establish an India company at Embden, and make that a free port, under certain limitations, as has been rumoured.

But those who are not for depriving England of this trade, yet imagine that it would be carried on more to the interest of the nation by being free and open to all his majesty's subjects, than in the hand of a trading company, with a large joint-stock, and with privileges and immunities, exclusive of all other the British subjects. To which, for the present, I shall only observe, that; while other nations always have, and still do experience it to be for their interest to carry the same on by such-like companies, it seems impolitic for us to do otherwise, and thereby hazard the loss of a real gain for an imaginary greater. This matter, however, shall be considered under the article of EAST-INDIA COMPANY; wherein we shall also endeavour to shew how that company may be greatly advantaged, and that as much to the interest of the nation as the company itself. The reason for these sentiments, under this head, is to apprise our readers, in some measure, of what they are to expect in the sequel of this work; we not contenting ourselves with a mere narrative of trade as it is, but are ambitious to suggest what may occur to us, which may tend to the advancement of that of our own nation.

In the interim, we shall only observe what measures the parliament of England have been pleased to take, to prevent the subjects of the crown of Great-Britain from becoming interested in any foreign East-India company, and for the encouragement of our own.

Abstract of several acts of parliament, now in force, which were made for preventing his majesty's subjects from trading to the East-Indies under foreign commissions, and from being interested or concerned in any foreign East-India company to be erected.

By the following acts of parliament now in force, and which were made for preventing his majesty's subjects from trading to the East-Indies under foreign commissions, and from being interested, or concerned, in any foreign East-India company to be erected, it is enacted as follows, viz.

5 Geo. I. cap. 21. By an act passed in the fifth year of his late majesty king George I. all his majesty's subjects, except those licensed by the East-India company, are prohibited from going to the East-Indies.—And, to the end such offenders may be brought to justice, the East-India company are empowered to arrest and seize such offenders in the East-Indies, and to send them to England, there to answer for the said offence; and every British subject who shall procure, solicit for, obtain, or act under, any commission, authority, or pass, from any foreign prince or state, to sail or go, or trade in, or to the East-Indies, incurs and forfeits, for every such offence, 500 l.

7 Geo. I. cap. 21. By another act, passed in the seventh year of his late majesty king George I. every subject of his majesty who shall go to, or shall trade, or adventure into, or from the East-Indies (contrary to the laws in being) and shall be convicted thereof, in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, is to pay and suffer such fine and imprisonment as the court shall think fit.

And all the goods and merchandize that shall be bartered, or trafficked for in the East-Indies, or purchased there, by any such offenders, or that shall be found in his custody, or in the custody of any other person by his order or procurement, are declared to be forfeited, with double the value thereof.

9 Geo. I. cap. 26. By an act passed in the ninth year of his late majesty king George I. all his majesty's subjects are prohibited from subscribing, contributing to, encouraging, or promoting, the raising, establishing, or carrying on, any foreign company, from, and after, the 24th day of June, 1723, to be raised, formed, or erected, for trading to the East-Indies, and from being interested in, or intitled to, any share in the stock, or capital, of such foreign company, under forfeiture of all his, her, or their interest, in the capital, principal stock, or actions, of any such foreign company, together with treble the value thereof.

And the attorney-general is empowered to exhibit bills of complaint in the court of Chancery, or court of Exchequer,

against such offenders, for the discovery of such offence; which discovery such offenders are obliged to make, on the attorney-general's waving in such bill the said forfeiture of the treble value, and insisting only on the single value thereof; and, in such case, the single value is to be decreed to be paid by such offender.

And that every subject of his majesty accepting of any trust, or knowing of any interest, share, part, proportion, or concern, which any other of his majesty's subjects shall have, or be intitled to, in any such foreign company, and who shall not, within six months next after the accepting such trust, or coming to the knowledge of such interest, share, proportion, or concern, as aforesaid, truly discover the same in writing to the East-India company, or their court of directors, shall forfeit treble the value of the interest so accepted in trust, or so known and not discovered, as aforesaid; and any person, making such discovery, is intitled to a moiety of the forfeiture. And all his majesty's subjects (other than such as are lawfully authorised thereunto) going to, or found in the East-Indies, are declared guilty, of a high crime and misdemeanor, and are made liable to corporal punishment, imprisonment, or fine, for the same, at the discretion of such of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster where the prosecution for such offence shall be commenced.

And every person so offending may be seized, and brought to England, and committed to gaol there, by any one of his majesty's justices of the peace, until sufficient security be given by natural-born subjects, or denizens, to appear in the court where such prosecution shall be commenced; to answer the same, and not depart without leave of the court.

3 Geo. II. cap. 14. By an act passed in the third year of his late majesty, it is enacted, That, if any of his majesty's subjects (other than the East-India company, and those licensed by them) shall, directly, or indirectly, go to, trade, or venture into, or from, the East-Indies, every such offender shall incur the forfeiture and loss of all the ships and vessels employed in such a voyage, trade, or adventure; and also all the goods laden thereupon, or that were sent to, acquired, traded, or adventured, within the East-Indies, and all the proceed, and effects of the same, and double the value thereof.

BENZION, or **BENJAMIN**, a kind of gum, which some reckon in the same class with incense and aroma's. The trees from which the benzion runs grow plentifully in Cochinchina; there are also many of them in the forests of the kingdoms of Lao and Siam.

This tree resembles pretty much the almond tree; but its leaves are longer, and roundish at the top. The benzion runs from incisions made in the trunk and large branches of the tree; though some authors pretend, without any reason, that it is to be found in a kind of pods, and is formed from an oil, thickened by the heat of the sun.

The grocers and druggists sell two sorts of benzion, the one in drops, and the other in lumps.

The true benzion in drops, which is seldom to be met with in France, and of which the people of the ambassador of Siam's retinue brought a pretty large quantity, is of a yellow, or gold colour without, and white within, striped with small clear veins, which are white and red; it is friable, without any taste, but of a sweet and very aromatic scent. It is very different from the benzion in drops which is sold at Paris, and which is clear, transparent, of a reddish colour, and mixed with white drops, resembling almonds, whence it is called amygdaloid benzion. This latter must be chosen with such qualities as come as near as possible to those above-mentioned; and, above all, let it be without any dirt, which happens but seldom.

The benzion in lumps is the most common of all, and is very liable to be adulterated by several gums melted together. In order to be of a good quality, it ought to be very clean, of an agreeable smell, very resinous, and abounding with white drops: that which is too black, and without any scent, must be absolutely rejected.

The best benzion grows in the island of Sumatra, at a place called Baros, on the western coast of the island, a little to the north of the equinoctial line. It belongs to the Dutch, who send great quantities of that drug into Indostan, or the Mogul's country, for the Indians there use a great deal of it in their religious ceremonies. This drug has several names; it is called *assa dulce*, *ben* of Judea, *benzion* of beninas, and in Latin, *benzoinum*.

They get from the benzion a kind of white flowers, good for asthmatic persons, and an oil, which is a sort of balm for wounds.

All sorts of benzion pay duty of importation in France at the rate of six livres per 100 weight; but, when it has been deposited any where, and comes from the Levant, from Barbary, Persia, or Italy, it is then reckoned as one of those merchandizes, on which, according to the decree of the council, dated the 15th of August, 1685, a duty of 20 per cent. of their value ought to be raised; which duty is also raised on the benzion when it is imported by Roan, though it had not been deposited any where.

BERCHEROIT, or **BERKEOITS**, a weight used at Archangel, and in all the dominions of the czar of Muscovy, to weigh such merchandizes as are very heavy, or very bulky, such as pot-ashes, &c. The bercheroit weighs 400 pounds of Muscovy, which amount to about 364 pounds English avoirdupoise weight.

BERGAMO, a coarse tapestry, which is manufactured with several sorts of spun thread, as flocks of silk, wool, cotton, hemp, ox, cow, or goat's-hair. It is properly a web of all those sorts of thread, the warp of which is commonly of hemp. It is wove on a loom, almost like linnen cloth. Some pretend it was called bergamo, because the people of Bergamo in Italy were the first inventors of it.

Roan and Elbeuf, cities of the province of Normandy in France, furnish a considerable quantity of bergamos of all colours, and mixtures of colours: some after the manner of the point of Hungary (point d'Hongria); others with broad stripes, worked with the figures of flowers, birds, or other animals: some with broad and narrow stripes, even, and without figures; others again, which are called China's and scales, because they are worked so as to imitate the point of China and the scales of fishes. They make at Roan a particular sort of bergamo, which they call twine, or twisted (tortin in French) because they use twisted wool in it; they also make some at Toulouse.

The height or length of the bergamos is most commonly an ell and a half, an ell and $\frac{2}{3}$, two ells, or two ells and a half French measure. They make, nevertheless, some of two ells and three quarters; but these are not common, being seldom made but for merchants who will have them so. There are of these tapestries some fine, some middling, and some coarse, or common.

Formerly the French used to send some bergamos into foreign countries, particularly towards the north: but, at present, they are scarce used any where but within the kingdom, and chiefly at Paris, there being few tradesmen, or mean people, in that great city, who would not think it a disgrace, if, when they set up, they had not a bergamo tapestry in their rooms. These are likewise called tapestries of the street St Dennis, or of the gate of Paris, because there are more of them sold in that part of the town than any where else in Paris.

They who trade in those tapestries are the mercers, upholsters, and brokers; but the former only have them from the places where they are manufactured. See **TAPESTRY**.

BERKSHIRE, a county in England, bounded by Hampshire on the south; by Wiltshire and Gloucestershire on the west; by the Thames on the north, which divides it from Buckingham and Oxfordshire; and, on the east, by Middlesex and Surrey. The air is, in the general, healthy, and the soil fertile, where it is cultivated; and the whole county, which is as pleasant as most in England, is well stored with cattle and timber, particularly oak and beech in the western parts, and in Windsor forest. This county also abounds with wild fowl, and other game, as it's rivers Thames and Kennet, the one on the north the other on the south side of it, do with fish, especially fine large trout and cray-fish.

It has been observed, that land is dearer here than in other parts the same distance from London. The chief manufactures of this county are woollen cloth, sail-cloth, and malt; there being great crops of barley in the west part of the county, particularly the Vale of White Horse.

READING. This town formerly abounded with many and very wealthy clothiers. In the reign of Edward I. Thomas Cole went by the name of the rich clothier of Reading; and Mr Kenrick, a merchant of London, and son of a clothier of Newberry, left 7500 l. to encourage this trade here; but, of late years, this manufacture is in a great measure laid aside for that of malt, which, by the convenience of the rivers in this county, turns to great account; for the river Kennet will bear a barge here of 110 tons; and then it is so near the Thames, that the largest they use may come up to the town-bridge, where they have wharfs.

Though they have a great trade in the country, yet their principal traffic is by navigation to London, to which they carry vast quantities of malt, meal, and timber, and bring back coals, salt, tobacco, grocery wares, oils, &c. Some of these barges will carry 1000 or 1200 quarters of malt at a time. A large manufacture of sail-cloth was set up here, by the late Sir Owen Buckingham, lord-mayor of London; but he dying, and his son being unhappily killed in a duel, that manufacture died with him.

ABINGDON. The several streets of this town are well paved, and center in a spacious area, where the market is held, which is a considerable one, especially for barley; and they make great quantities of malt, which they send in barges, with other commodities, to London.

HUNGERFORD, stands on the river Kennet, and is famous for the best trout and cray-fish. But, though it lies in the great road to Bath, &c. which is it's chief support, neither it's buildings nor market are considerable, it's trade being nothing, and situation moorish.

NEWBERRY, or **NEWBERY**. The manufacture of cloth throve here once to such a degree, that in the reign of Henry VIII. here flourished John Winschomb, commonly called Jack of

Newberry, one of the greatest clothiers that ever was in England, he keeping 100 looms in his house; and, in the expedition to Flodden-Field against the Scots, marched with 100 of his own men, all armed and clothed at his own expence; and he built all the west part of the church. Also, Mr Kenrick, the son of a clothier of this town, and afterwards a merchant of London, left 4000 l. to this town, as well as 7500 l. to Reading, to encourage the cloathing trade. But it has lost, at present, most of this manufacture, and, in proportion, the prosperity of the town has decayed, since it removed to the west. However, they make a great quantity of shalloons and druggets, which, with it's other trades, renders it still a pretty flourishing town. It stands very pleasantly, in a fruitful plain, with the river Kennet running through it. It was made a corporation by queen Elizabeth, and is governed by a mayor, high-steward, recorder, aldermen, and capital burgessees. The streets are spacious, particularly the market-place, in which stands the Guildhall. It is noted, also, for it's excellent trout, eels, and cray-fish, and has all manner of provisions in great plenty.

MAIDENHEAD. Here is a considerable trade for malt, meal, and timber, which they carry in their barges to London.

OKINGHAM is the chief place in Windsor-Forest, being a pretty large, well-frequented town, with several streets, a fair, market-house, and a manufacture of silk stockings and cloth, especially of the former, of which large quantities are bought in it's market.

BERMUDAS, or **SUMMER ISLANDS**, lie in latitude 32 north, and in longitude west from London, according to the most accurate observations, 64. 48. They are numerous, and lie pretty contiguous to each other. Voyagers differ about their number, but they are reckoned, upon the whole, near 400, yet the most of them so small and barren, as to be uninhabitable.

Their extent, which is from north-east to south-west, is computed but about 20 miles, and their greatest breadth about five, and not above one eighth part of them is inhabited. Most of them are so inconsiderable, that neither the Spaniards, nor any other Europeans, thought it worth their while to settle upon them. The first Englishman that saw them was one May, who was cast on them by strefs of weather, anno 1593; but the account he gave of them did not encourage other adventurers to search after them, till Sir George Sommers made an attempt, and was shipwrecked upon them, anno 1609: after which the Virginia company sold their property to those islands, which they held by virtue of a charter from king James I. to 120 persons, who, about three years after, sent thither one Richard Moore, with about 60 persons. These landed on the largest island, where they built themselves huts, which grew, by degrees, into handsome houses, and, in time, into an handsome town, to which they gave the name of St George, and from which the whole island hath been called ever since.

This is by far the most considerable of all the islands, being about 16-miles long from north-east to south-west, and about three in breadth where broadest, and is surrounded with high and craggy rocks, which jut a good way into the sea, and serve instead of a strong rampart to it: But to it's natural strength the inhabitants have taken care to add several good forts, with batteries, and other outworks, especially towards the east, where it lies most uncovered, so as to command all the channels, and other avenues, on that side.

The number of English inhabitants are computed to be above 10,000, besides slaves, who carry on a tolerable commerce in tobacco; but it is of so indifferent a kind, and so inferior to that of the other British plantations, that it bears but a small price in proportion. They have, likewise, some cochineal, catch pearls on their coasts, and some small quantities of ambergrease, which is likewise gathered upon their coasts; and in these commodities their trade chiefly consists, for the security of which they have built no less than 10 forts, most of them well manned and armed, and all kept in good repair. The country is chiefly mountainous, but hath some fertile plains; the ground is of various colours, but the brown is esteemed the richest; the whitish, or sandy, is reckoned next, and the reddish the worst, and not unlike potter's clay. About two or three feet below the mould, is found a white hard body, which seems to be a kind of hard chalk, or pumice-stone, through which, however, the roots of the trees force a passage, and a kind of clay is commonly found to lie under it. Upon the whole, the soil, though thin and stony, is notwithstanding rich and fruitful; but their water is generally brackish and disagreeable, except rain water, which they preserve in cisterns.

The climate is temperate, yet warm enough to produce two good crops in a year. They sow in July, and again in August, and reap in December. Their chief growth is the Indian wheat and tobacco, but they have some fine fruits, especially oranges, all which enjoy a constant verdure, new leaves always sprouting out before the old ones fall. The cedars of this island are said to excel those of other parts of America, particularly in their fragraney, duration, beauty, and hardness of their wood; and they are here in such plenty, that it answers in all respects to our oak timber; so that not only

only their best sloops, brigantines, and other vessels, are built with it, but likewise some of their houses, churches, and other public buildings: and, with respect to ships, those that are built at Bermudas are reckoned the best, and are the most valued throughout all the West-Indies.

Their palmetto is no less useful and common; its fruit, which, in colour, shape, and size, resembles our damson, is very delicious, the wood serviceable for building or fuel, and the leaves, which are commonly between 8 and 10 feet long, serve to make a light covering for their houses.

The date, or palm-tree, yields likewise an exquisite fruit; and their forests abound with variety of odoriferous and medicinal woods, some of a black, others yellow, and some of a red colour; and these last bear a berry of the styptic quality of the sloe, and is used by our English to cure those fluxes with which they are commonly afflicted by the too greedy eating of the palm berry, and other luscious fruits. But the most remarkable and singular plant for use is the red-wood, so called from its fine tincture, especially that of its berry, which produces worms, that afterwards turn into flies, some of them bigger than the cochineal fly*, and with a medicinal virtue far exceeding it.

* It has been asserted by some, that these flies will afford a dye no way inferior to that of the cochineal; which, if true, and they could be plentifully cultivated, might come cheaper to our English dyers than cochineal.

All European and American trees and plants, likewise, grow here in great perfection, especially the palm, mulberry, olive, laurels, barberry, pear, and orange-trees, the latter of which is affirmed to bear the best and most delicious fruit, and which used to be brought over into Europe, but they have been discontinued of late years.

There are so great plenty of tortoises caught here, that the inhabitants make it their common food, their flesh being very white, tender, and of an exquisite taste.—They have, likewise, great variety of fowl, both wild and tame.

Fish is here in such great plenty and variety, both of the scaly and shelly kind, that they have not found names for many sorts of them. Some whales, also, are caught upon these coasts, chiefly in the months of February, March, and April; but all their attempts for settling of a whale-fishery have hitherto proved fruitless. The Bermudans, heretofore, drove some traffic in sperma-ceti, and in the train or whale-oil; but that branch is gone into decay, with some others, which has lessened the wealth of the inhabitants, as well as their number, many of the younger sort going to seek their fortunes elsewhere, since the decay of their traffic.

The country, however, continues still to be well cultivated; and tho' their whole commerce seems to be confined to the other parts of America, which they furnish with great variety of their productions, and with sloops, and other trading vessels, which, indeed, is the most considerable branch of their trade: and notwithstanding they do not receive any extraordinary encouragement from England; we do not find they repine much at it, but seem to content themselves with the healthiness, pleasure, and plenty of their country, which they look upon as a safe and quiet retreat from the cares and troubles of the other parts of the world. They do not seem to have any ambition to enrich themselves, which, probably, may be owing, in some measure, to the small prospect they have of succeeding in it, if they had; for it is not to be doubted but they would gladly embrace every opportunity of improving their commerce with Great Britain, from which they annually receive such a considerable quantity of goods, being mostly clothed with our manufactures, and using no other utensils in all their divers kinds of works but such as are sent to them from hence: so that, with respect to traffic, the whole advantage lies on the side of England. But, were all due encouragement given to the Bermudans, there is very great probability that several estimable commodities might be raised among them, which would capacitate them to take much greater quantities of manufactures from their mother-country. There are two, in particular, for which their country is said to be more naturally circumstanced than any other of the British plantations, viz. silk and cochineal, which are not inconsiderable articles of commerce. And it was with this view that a very worthy merchant of the metropolis of London collected, some few years ago, an account of all that had been writ, or what was to be met with upon that head, and caused it to be digested and printed, and sent to be distributed, at his own expence, in Carolina and the Bermudas; which is such an instance of public spirit as deserves to be mentioned with honour, and is well worthy to be imitated. A few generous attempts of this kind, supported by proper subscriptions, and inferior to those made for some diversions only, might turn to unpeakable advantage to the public, and prove the means of making multitudes of people happy both here and there. We may add, also, that the character of the inhabitants of that island for industry, ingenuity, and especially honesty and fair trading, which they are allowed to have always maintained above all our other plantations, justly intitle them to a peculiar regard; since it is affirmed, by a gentleman who

had been as well acquainted with this, and our other plantations, as 30 years trading with them would make him, to be the finest country, and inhabited by the best people he ever knew.

Bermudas, indeed, is become less healthy and pleasant within these 20 or 30 years, on account, as is supposed, of the dreadful hurricanes and thunders, which are sometimes so violent as to split whole rocks; and, as it always was, and still is, difficult of access, on account of the vast ridges of rocks that surround it, as well as the impetuosity of the currents, which forcibly carry ships out of their course, and the many shipwrecks which happen along these coasts, it has lessened the trade of this island. But, notwithstanding these inconveniences, the island is still so pleasant and healthy, that people live to a great age, and seldom die of any other distemper but that.

The government is here much the same as in Virginia, the crown appointing the governor and council, and the people choosing their representatives to sit in the assembly; and they are observed to have fewer by-laws than any other of our plantations, which, in all likelihood, is owing to the smallness of their trade.

BERNE, a canton in Switzerland, is bounded on the north with that of Solothurn, and a part of the bishopric of Basil; on the east with Lucerne and Underwald; on the south with the Valais, or Wallisland, and the lake of Geneva; and, on the west, with the Franche Comté, and the county of Neuchâtel. This is the most fruitful, richest, and by much the largest of all the cantons. The revenues of it arise, 1. From the lands or demesnes of the sovereign. 2. From the tenths of the fruits of all the lands of the canton, except some few lordships, which are, by a particular tenure, exempted. 3. From a certain tax upon rural lands, which they call, in French, censés foncieres. 4. From duties, or customs; on merchandize. 5. From the produce of the sale of salt.—The first article produces great quantities of corn and wine, which are laid up in magazines, and sold out to the people, when the government thinks fit. The second must needs run very high in so great a district of country. The third is a tax upon lands which are not possessed by gentlemen, like the taille in France, and is supposed to amount annually to about a French livre per acre. The fourth produces but little, because of the smallness of their trade, and the easiness of the duty. The fifth is very considerable, because the sovereign alone sells it to the subject by retail, at what price he thinks fit. There is another tax in use, called, in French, le lod, which is a fine, amounting to the sixth part of the full value of any parcel of land, or estate, payable by the buyer of every estate to the sovereign. As the sale of corn and wine, in which these revenues chiefly consist, is more or less, according to the price they bear; and as, in cheap seasons, the sovereign sells none at all; it happens that, for some years together, they put little or no money into the treasury, and, at other times, lay up in one year the revenue of many. The peasants of this canton are generally rich, especially on the German side; and, as they pay no duties to the public, and the soil has, as well as requires, great cultivation, it is common for them to have estates to the value of 10,000 crowns, and some to the value of 100,000. They get a great deal of money by breeding horses. They have some fountains of salt-water, but the making of the salt consumes so much wood, that it has not turned to account. Though the subjects of the state are rich, the public itself is poor; and, though they could oppose a sudden invasion, yet their unkindly soil requires such a number of hands to cultivate it, that they could not spare any for a long war.

The trade of the city of BERNE is not very great now, and was much less before the arrival of the French refugees, who entered into partnership with some of the city tradesmen, and introduced certain manufactures of stuffs; but some doubt whether they have not done more harm than good, by the introduction of the French modes and luxury, in room of the ancient Helvetic simplicity and frugality.

SAUREN, has several fairs in a year.

That part of the Roman, or French country, or PAIS DE VAUX, which banks upon the lake of Geneva, produces a white wine, that is equally palatable and wholesome, and is called vin de la cote. As soon as the vintage is over, they ship off their wine upon the lake of Geneva, which furnishes all the towns that lie upon the borders. What they design for other parts of the country they unload at Vevey, and, after about half a day's land-carriage, convey it into the river Aar, which brings it down the stream to Berne, Solothurn, and, in short, distributes it through all the richest part of Switzerland; and, by means of this navigation, the wine comes very cheap, notwithstanding the great distance of the places where it is sold from the vineyards.

The markets and fairs of BEX are well frequented. Near the town is virgin sulphur, good for the nerves, and three salt-pits; one at Bevioux, half a league above Bex; the second at Roche, between Villeneuve and Aigle; and the third at Panex mountain, where are springs of salt water. They were discovered near 200 years ago; but, while they were in private hands, turned to no account, 'till the lords of Berne bought

bought them, and they have so improved them, that they make three times the salt they did 50 or 60 years ago, and have reduced the price of it to three half-pence a pound.

At **VILLENEUVE**, is a very fine trout-fishery, which brings a great revenue to the lordship.

MONTREUX, is a parish consisting of a score of villages and hamlets, dispersed among these mountains, where their vines are planted in rows, and not confusedly, as in other places, and the inhabitants both of this, and of the government of Aigle, have always wine to sell earlier than their neighbours.

VEVAY is a pretty large and flourishing town, with a considerable trade, by the resort of the Savoyards, the Valetians, and mountaineers, who come hither to sell their commodities, and it stands in a very pleasant, fruitful country, with a good air.

At **LALAY** is a bath, which draws many people to it in the summer.

The country of **LA VAUX** may be said to be altogether a vineyard, which produces the strongest wine of all the canton of Bernc. The chief of the parishes is Cully, noted for the best wines in this country.

MORGES is a very handsome, modern-built town, and, by means of its spacious harbour, fine key, and warehouses, has a shew of greater trade than any other town on the lake, for the articles of traffic between France and Geneva are landed here.

In the neighbourhood of **ST PREZ** there is a mineral spring of great reputation, which draws much company thither.

The country on the coast of the lake, which is therefore called **LA COTE**, part of which is included in the bailiwick of Morges, and that called **la Vaux**, abovementioned, are the two best vineyards in the 13 cantons. The wine de la Vaux is the most sparkling, the briskest, and the most palatable; but the wine de la Cote is the wholesomest, and, though not so sprightly as the other, will better bear the carriage. It is exported to Holland, Brandenburg, Italy, &c. and as much esteemed, for it's delicate flavour, as the best wines of Champagne and Burgundy. It is a white wine, of which the inhabitants of this canton drink to excess without the least inconvenience.

The bailiwick of **MORGES** is full of lordships, all which are, generally speaking, full of corn and wine, &c. That which is produced, in the neighbourhood of the town is tolerably good, but the wine de la Cote excels it by far, particularly that about Rolle and Burfins.

At the town of **ROLLE** are abundance of the beau monde, who are drawn hither, especially in the summer time, not only by the mineral waters at both ends of the town, which are in great vogue, but also by it's advantageous situation, at the foot of a hill, where is an excellent vineyard.

NYON is very well situated for trade, not only by reason of it's neighbourhood to Geneva, and it's harbour on the fine lake, but by it's communication with Burgundy, from whence there is a resort to it's fairs, and very often to it's weekly markets.

FRANGIN is noted for it's mineral waters, which are very much in request in the summer season.

YVERDUN has a public granary, a flourishing trade, and a small harbour, formed by a canal, which receives the Orbe, together with warehouses, and a custom-house. It's lake is very convenient for transporting it's commodities. The inhabitants are generally in good circumstances, and had once a manufacture of silk.

At **MOULTON** are four fairs in a year, but they are not near so much frequented as they were formerly for a long time.

The people of the **PAIS DE VAUX** are so lazy, that German peasants come hither every day to husband their lands, and, either by taking farms, or by their good service to such as keep them in their own hands, they get a good deal of money.

The chief product of the bailiwick of **MORAT** is wine, though it is none of the best. They have cabbages of an extraordinary size, of which they send hundreds of cart-loads to Bernc.

BERRY, a territory of Orleanois, near the center of France.

This territory is bounded on the north by Orleanois, properly so called; on the east by Nivernois; on the south by Bourbonnois and Upper Marche; and, on the west, by Poictou. The air here is very temperate, and the soil produces wheat, rye, and wine, which, in some places, is not inferior to that of Burgundy; but, in other places, it is not by far so good, and very weak. The pastures abound with sheep, the wool of which is very fine. This country produces also a great deal of hemp and flax. They say that there are, in the province of Berry, several mines of iron and silver, but they are intirely neglected. There are quarries of stone at half a league's distance from Bourges, which are of great use. In the parish of St Hilary, near Vierron, there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dyings, and which is of great use, there being but little of that mineral in the kingdom. They make here a great quantity of thick woollen cloth, called, from this province, draps de Berry.

BOURGES, though of large extent, is very thinly peopled, the reason of which is, their having no manner of trade here;

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which is owing, according to Monsieur La Martiniere, to a privilege granted by Lewis XI. to the inhabitants, by which every person who has once bore the office of mayor, or echevin, or alderman, is reputed a gentleman; and, after that, are weak enough to despise trade, which impoverishes them. The citizens of Bourges have four great privileges, as Du Chesne informs us, 1. That their goods cannot be confiscated. 2. They are free from garrisons and winter quarters. 3. Their estates pay nothing to the king. 4. Those who possess lordships are exempted from the ban and arriere-ban, viz. from serving in the kings armies, whether they hold immediately from the crown, or mediately from some other lord.

At the barony of **CHATEAU-NEUF**, the lord levies the taille, together with the king, upon all the citizens, peasants, and inhabitants, the richest of whom are obliged to pay five pence each every year to the lord, and the others something less, according as they are able.

The trade of **MEHUN** consists in wool, flax, and other merchandizes, and they keep here two fairs every year.

The inhabitants of **VIERRON** are the most industrious and most laborious of the whole province. Their chief trade consists in wood, and in woollen cloth and serges, manufactured here.

BOIS-BELLE is an independent and sovereign principality, the lords of which have always enjoyed the rights and prerogatives of sovereign princes, having caused money to be coined in their own name, with their image stamped upon it. They have also granted letters of grace, pardon, remission, and abolition. All these privileges have been confirmed by Henry the Great, Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. The city, therefore, with it's district, are free from tailles, gabelles, aids, and all kind of taxes.

ISSOUDON is divided into two parts by the river Theols, the lower of which is inhabited chiefly by merchants and tradesmen. The trade here consists in cattle, woollen cloths, and druggets, woven and knit hose, and hats, manufactured in this city, and in the neighbourhood; but their chief trade consists in timber, with which they supply the adjacent countries. As the inhabitants have always distinguished themselves by their zeal and fidelity to the French kings, they are exempt from the ban and arriere-ban, taille, and quartering of soldiers.

The territory of **CHATEAU-ROUX** is one of the most barren spots of ground in all France, most of the lands consisting of forests, ponds, and heaths, which is not worth the while to cultivate. However, the wood of the forests affords fuel to the forges; the fish of the ponds is sold in Berry and Touraine; and the heaths afford food for cattle, of which they have here a great trade. There is, in this city, a manufactory of woollen cloth, which is one of the most considerable in the kingdom, and affords employment to above 10,000 persons, both within the town and in the neighbourhood. The territory of **BLANC**, likewise, is very barren, but contains a great many woods and forges, and a vast number of ponds, though the river Creuse be not navigable here, yet they use it to send down floats of timber to the neighbouring towns.

BERWICKSHIRE is bounded on the south with Tweed and Teviotdale; on the north by Lothian; on the west by Tweeddale; and, on the east, it is washed by the German ocean. 'Tis the south-east shire of all Scotland, being divided from the town of Berwick by the Bound-Rod, and from Northumberland by the river Tweed, which runs between them for about eight miles, and rises out of the same tract of hills, as the Clyde and the Anand. It runs swift between hills through Tweeddale forest and Teviotdale; and, before it passes into the ocean, has measured 50 miles. Templeman's Survey, which divides it into Mers and Lauderdale, makes it 30 miles in length, and 16 in breadth, with an area of 338 square miles. The General Atlas makes it 30 east and west, and 22 where broadest south and north, including Lauderdale. The editor of Camden divides it into three parts viz. Mers, Lammermoor, and Lauderdale. He says, the Mers is a pleasant low ground, open to the influence of the sun, and guarded from storms by Lammer-moor: so that 'tis a fruitful soil, abounding with corn and pulse, but especially hay.

LAMMER-MOOR is a great tract of hills on the north side of the shire, above 16 miles long and at least 6 in breadth, feeding multitudes of sheep and black cattle. In the summer-time, 'tis particularly noted for pasturage; and for plenty of partridges, moor-fowl, plover, dotterels, and other game; but the product of it's soil does not bear such a price as that of others, and therefore is not reckoned so good.

LAUDERDALE is a tract lying on each side of the water of Lauder, abounding with pleasant valleys, hills, and woods, and well stored with corn and pasturage.

The shire of Berwick, in general, is very fruitful in corn and grass, abounds with sheep, black cattle, and horses, and has many seats of persons of quality. The most fruitful and populous parts are those that lie on the Tweed, and the lesser rivers Whitewater, Blackwater, and the Eye. The fuel of the common people is turf and peat, but the gentry have coals from Northumberland. It is well supplied with fish from the sea and it's rivers.

DUNS, a burgh of barony, a pretty large populous town, of the best trade in the county, and stands on a rising ground in the center of the shire.

EYMOUTH, **AYMOUTH**, or **HAYMOUTH**, a good fishing town, the only port in the shire for shipping, at the mouth of the Eye, and has a weekly market.

CALDSTREAM, or **COLDSTREAM**, a market-town close by the Tweed.

GREENLAW is a burgh of regality, with a weekly market, and is the chief burgh of the shire.

EYTON, or **ATON**, stands on the same river as Eyemouth, is a large pleasant village, and has an annual fair. The people here are as perfectly Scots, as if it was 100 miles north of Edinburgh.

COCKBURN'S-PATH, or **COBBER'S-PATH**, stands near the coast, where it has sometimes a great herring-fishery. It has also an annual fair.

BERYL, **BERYLL**, or **BERYLLUS**, a precious stone, transparent like crystal. It is found in the mines of the Indies, and is also to be met with on the banks of the Euphrates. There are several sorts of beryls; they reckon even ten species of it. The most valuable are the beryl, the chrysoberyl, and the chrysofrafin.

The beryl inclines a little to a sea-green, whence it was called in Latin aqua marina, under which name we have mentioned it. To make it more sparkling and bright, it must be cut facet-wise; for the polishing gives it no brightness, after what manner soever it be cut.

The chrysoberyl is paler, and inclines somewhat to a gold-colour.

The chrysofrafin partakes more of the green.

Some think that the beryl is the diamond of the ancients; and it is certain, that some modern jewellers, though very skilful, have sometimes mistaken the one for the other.

There are sometimes such large pieces of beryl found, that they may serve to make very fine vases. It is said there are great quantities of them in Cambaya, Martaban, Pegu, and the island of Ceylon.

The properties of the beryl were very considerable, according to the ancient naturalists and philosophers. It was proper to make men avoid the snares of their enemies; to raise the courage of the fearful; to cure the diseases of the eyes, and the pains in the stomach. At present it has none of those good qualities, because people are no longer simple enough to believe it has them.

Dr. Woodward, in his *Methodical Disposition of Fossils*, printed at the end of his *Natural History of the Earth*, makes the beryl in the class of stones, of the 2d species, 2d sort, and the n. 11. among those, which have fine colours, and are transparent. That celebrated and learned Englishman observes, that the beryl of the lapidaries is a sort of fine cornelian, more transparent than the common cornelian, and of a deeper red. That of the ancients was quite different; it was of a bluish green, and is probably the same with our aqua marina.

BESISTAN, or **BERSTEN**. Thus at Constantinople, Adrianople, and in some other towns within the Grand Signior's dominions, they call those places where the merchants have their shops, and expose their merchandizes to sale. Each sort of merchants have their particular besistan, which must also be understood of the workmen, all those of the same trade working in the same place. These besistans are commonly large galleries, vaulted over, whose gates are shut every night. Sometimes the wardens and keepers of the besistans will answer for the merchandizes, on paying them a very moderate perquisite for each shop.

There are two besistans at Constantinople, the old and the new one.

The old one was built in the year 1461, under the reign of Mahomet II. There are but few fine merchandizes in it. Here they sell all sorts of weapons, especially fabres, as likewise horse-harness, indifferent enough, though some of it are enriched with silver, gold, and precious stones.

The new besistan is designed for all sorts of merchandizes, and yet one hardly sees there any thing but the finest and richest works: as plate, furs, vests, carpets, and stuffs of gold, silver, silk, and goat's-hair; nor are precious stones and porcelaine, or China wares, wanting there.

This besistan, which is also called the great besistan, is a round building, all of free-stone. It has four gates, which are never opened but in the day-time. In the night a watch is locked up in it, for the security of the shops. Each branch of trade, or trading company, has a place assigned, out of which no person can sell, nor even expose to sale the same sorts of merchandizes. The English, French, and Dutch merchants, have their shops for drapery goods in this besistan.

Merchandizes are very safe in such places, the gates of which are always shut betimes. The Turkish merchants who have shops there, go and lie at their houses in the city: as for the Christians and the Jews, they retire in the evening beyond the water to the suburb Pera, and return the next morning. See **BAZAR**.

The besistans of Adrianople are very fine, especially that

where the stuffs are sold, and that in which are the shoemakers shops.

BESOAR. See **BEZOAR**.

BESORCH, a coin of tin, or of some alloyed metal, current at Ormus at the rate of about $\frac{2}{3}$ parts of a farthing sterling. Ten besorchs are worth one pays, 4 pays one fondis, 10 pays one chay, about 4 pence farthing and half a farthing English; 20 pays one mamoudi, 8 pence 3 farthings English; 2 mamoudis 1 abassi, or 17 pence half penny; 25 pays make a larin; 5 larins a reale, or rixdollar; and 100 mamoudis a toman. They reckon at Ormus by tomans, as they do in Holland by pounds de grofs.

BETEL, a plant in great repute all over the east, especially in the Indies, where there is an incredible consumption and trade of it.

This plant, which is pretty much like the shrub that bears the pepper, is so weak, that it wants a prop to support it, as it grows up. Its leaves are like those of ivy, but more tender, and are full of a red juice, which the people of the east imagine is very good to comfort the heart, to fasten the teeth, and to make the breath sweet and agreeable.

The Indians are continually eating, or rather chewing, the leaves of this plant, with slices of the arch-nut. It is this that renders their lips so red, and their teeth of so black a colour, which it is well known they prefer before the whiteness of the teeth of the Europeans.

Monfieur Garcin asserts, that this is a mistake; the juice of the betel-leaves not being red: and that it is the arch-nut alone, which, when chewed, renders the spittle red.

The trade of betel-leaves is very considerable. A great number of substantial merchants are concerned in it, who keep several ships to transport that drug almost over all the east, where it is so much in use, that both the great men and the common people, the rich and the poor, are never without their box of betel. They offer some of it to one another, whenever they meet; and it is a ceremony established, as well among the men as among the women, to offer it to one another in all their visits, and they would look upon it as an affront, either not to be regaled with it, or to refuse it, when offered. What renders this trade easy, is the property which the betel-leaves have of keeping a great while good. See **ARECK**.

BEURT-SCHEEPEN, or **BEURT-SCHUYTEN**, which may be translated into English, turn-ships, or turn-boats. Thus they call, at Amsterdamb, those ships that go to sea, or vessels or boats that sail only on rivers, or fresh water, and have the exclusive privilege to take in goods for several cities, both within and without the seven provinces. They are thus called, because every master of a vessel is obliged to load and put off in his turn, for the place for which it is bound; which is regulated and settled by the directors of the company of boatmen, or watermen.

The privileged places for the ships are, for France, Roan, and St. Vallory; for England, London; for Germany, Hamburg and Bremen. There are also such vessels for Middleburg in Zealand, for most of the towns in Brabant and Flanders, and for almost all the cities in the seven provinces. This is extremely convenient for the merchants of Amsterdam, who have not merchandizes or goods enough to load a whole ship or vessel, and who by paying freight, as it is regulated by the ordonnances, have, by those vessels, an opportunity of sending to all those places as many or as few merchandizes as they please.

Every one of these vessels, or boats, has its fixed place in one of the canals of the city, or in the harbour; and cannot set off but in its turn, and when it is fully loaded.

When a merchant has merchandizes enough to load one or more of these ships or vessels, for one of those privileged places, he is at liberty to agree for the freight with the master of the ship or vessel, without conforming himself to the regulations; and he may chuse such ships, and such masters, or boatmen, as he pleases, though it be not their turn to set off, but he must first know from the superiors of the company, whether they will permit it; because, in case the master or boatman were not a burgher of Amsterdam, if another who was one, should offer himself, the latter would be preferred. Leave being given, the merchant who wants to load a vessel, ought first to make his declaration to the commissaries in the following form:

Gentlemen, Commissaries of the navigators without the country, I desire you to give leave to Master N. N. to load (for Roan for instance) on condition that he shall take in no merchandizes but for me alone.

At Amsterdam the —, &c. I. P. R.

This declaration is given to the master or boatman of the vessel which has been freighted, or which is designed to be freighted; the master or boatman carries it to the commissaries, who thereupon deliver the permit or leave to him. In case of a refusal, which happens but seldom, the only remedy is to look for another master or boatman, for whom the commissaries may have more kindness or indulgence, it not being safe to load without leave; for these gentlemen are very jealous

ious of their privileges; besides that, they find some profit, when the merchandizes pass through their hands.

That the reader may have a more accurate notion of those turn-ships, and turn-boats, or vessels, we shall add here an extract of the ordinance of police, which has been made for the beurt-scheepen, or turn-ships, which are privileged for Roan, and for London.

An ordinance for those ships which may sail by turns for Roan and for London.

First, No vessel which is in a condition to sail out of these countries, shall load for the above-mentioned ports, but in its turn; and such vessels, whose masters are desirous to sail by turns, must be well provided with anchors, cables, sails, &c. that the merchandizes may be transported dry and well conditioned: the whole at the discretion of the superiors of the company of navigators out of the country, or of others who may be appointed to take cognizance of these matters.

2. Every other week two vessels shall be loaded for London, and every twenty days two vessels for Roan.

3. Those for London shall come to the key on the Monday, the one to remain there till the Saturday following, that is to say, 6 days: and the other to sail 7 days after the departure of the first, that is to say, 14 days after it shall have been put in turn.

4. The first of those for Roan shall depart from the key on the evening of the 10th day after its coming to it; and the other shall depart ten days after the first, that is to say, twenty days after it came to the key.

5. The said vessels shall set sail the second day after their leaving the key, and others shall come in their stead to observe the same order, under a penalty of 25 guilders for such masters whose turn it shall be to come to the key, and who shall neglect it.

6. In winter, those vessels shall have two days more to load, than in summer; that is to say, those for London eight days, and those for Roan twelve. The summer shall be reckoned to begin on the first of March, and continue to the first of October: and the winter, from the first of October to the first of March.

7. The vessels, after departing from the key, shall not load any merchandize, under the penalty of a fine of 6 guilders, for every parcel or piece loaded, and being deprived of their turn a whole year for the first time, and the same penalty and arbitrary punishment for the second.

8. In case the vessels, or one of them, get their full lading before the time limited, they shall be obliged to depart immediately from the key, and another to be put to it directly, whose days of loading shall not begin to be reckoned from the day, on which the time of that which it succeeds, was to end.

9. It shall be lawful for such masters as shall have continued at the key during their limited turn, without being able to get their full lading, to buy merchandizes for their own account, in order to compleat their cargo; but this however ought not in the least to delay their departure, nor to prejudice the merchandizes already shipped, under the penalty of paying a fine of 25 guilders. Those masters, who shall thus have bought merchandizes, shall pay no freight for them to their partners, if they have any.

10. Two merchants or factors may freight a vessel in the city for either of the above-mentioned ports, at such a price as they shall agree for with the master. But the master shall not load any other merchandizes, but those of the said merchants or factors, under the same penalty as above.

11. The masters, whose turn it shall be to load, shall be obliged to take in, without distinction, all the merchandizes that shall be brought to their ships, even though they should have already promised to take in others: the first that arrive, ought to be the first loaded.

12. The master's who sail by turns, shall not undertake any voyage, nor serve as tender, during eight days before their turn comes; but shall be obliged to bring their vessels to the key, four days before their time of loading begins; and place their vessel next to that to which they are to succeed, that they may help each other, under the penalty of 50 guilders fine, and losing their turn for a whole year. But in case a master, without any fault of his, cannot take his turn, the other masters shall draw lots, who shall take his place: and he on whom the lot falls, shall be obliged to take the other's place, under the penalty of 25 guilders fine, and losing his turn for a year.

13. The masters who shall have had their turn for Roan, shall have it afterwards for London. Which is to be understood also of those who shall have had their turn for London, and who shall load afterwards for Roan.

14. The two masters who shall come to the key at the same time to load for London, shall divide their freight in common, which those for Roan shall also do between themselves. And, for want of a good account in one of them, he who shall be guilty shall pay a fine of 50 guilders, and lose his turn for three years.

15. No master of a vessel shall sail by turns, till he has been four years a burgher of Amstcrdam.

16. Those vessels which shall be set to the key together for loading, shall draw lots which shall sail first.

17. The masters of vessels, which shall sail by turns to Zealand, to Antwerp, or to other places between the lands, shall have no turn to sail to London or Roan, unless they quit and renounce their turns of sailing to places between the lands.

18. The masters of vessels which sail by turns, shall be obliged to keep near their vessels from morning till night, except to wards noon, when they shall have liberty to go to the exchange. And if any master, whilst his ship is loading, is found to do otherwise, or to drink in a public house or elsewhere, he shall pay a fine of 3 guilders for every such offence.

19. The lords of the magistracy shall appoint a person to have the inspection over the keys, where those ships shall be, that are to sail by turns for London and Roan, and to make them depart at the proper time.

20. One third part of the fines shall go to the lord, one third to the poor, and one third to the informer.

21. And, in order that the merchants may know what they are to depend upon for the payment of the freight of those vessels which shall sail by turns, the said lords have ordered by these presents, that such freight shall be paid according to the following tariff or rate, the masters being at liberty to take less, but not more, under the penalty of paying a fine of 25 guilders, and losing their turn for a year.

22. If any merchandizes be shipped for Roan or for London, the freight of which is not set down in the said tariff, if it be for Roan, and the freight be found in the tariff of London, or on the contrary, if it be for London, and the freight be found in the tariff of Roan, there shall be paid one third more.

Finally, the masters shall pay to the inspector, every time before their departure, namely, for vessels of above three lasts, three guilders; and for those under that number two guilders, upon pain of paying double on their return.

Resolved the 19th of February, 1611.

This same ordinance contains also an order, according to which the masters of those vessels which sail by turns for London and for Roan, ought to regulate themselves with regard to the bigness or capaciousness of such vessels, in order to divide the freight between them.

A vessel, from 26 to 31 lasts, is reckoned for 30 lasts; from 31 to 36, for 35; from 36 to 41, for 40; and from 41 to 46 and above, for 45 lasts.

There are a great many such other ordinances for the freight of ships sailing to Hamburg, Zealand, Flanders, and within the United Provinces. The ordinance relating to Hamburg, which is dated the 27th of April, 1613, has this remarkable particular, That in it's tariff there is a difference made between the freight in summer, and the freight in winter; as also between the freight paid from Amsterdam to Hamburg, and that from Hamburg to Amsterdam. The reader may see that tariff, and those for London and Roan, in the *Traité du negoce d'Amsterdam* (Treatise of the trade of Amsterdam) published in the year 1722, by *Monf. S. P. Ricard*. We shall only add here, with regard to these three tariffs, that, in that for Roan, the merchandizes are rated in guilders, stivers, and pennings; in that for London, in pounds, shillings, and pence sterling; and in that for Hamburg, in marcs, sols and pence lubs, with respect to ships sailing from Amsterdam; and in guilders and stivers, with respect to those returning thither.

The French have always complained of these beurt-scheepen, for Dunkirk, St. Valery, and Roan; and seem to be pretty well grounded in their complaints. For,

1. If there be a Frenchman who desires to load his ship, they make him wait till three Dutch vessels have sailed before him: whereupon it is to be observed, that, every ship having a fortnight's time to take in its lading, the Frenchman's turn is put off for six weeks.

2. That it is not lawful for the merchant, to whom the Frenchman is directed, to dispatch him himself before the limited time, though he should give him half his lading; for he cannot do it, unless he gives him his full lading; which can never be the case, because from Holland they send into Picardy and Normandy nothing but fine merchandizes, excepting however pot-ashes, a sort of ashes which come from the Black Sea: which often obliges the French to return empty, or to sail for some other port.

3. The directors of the beurt, or turns, know so well how to promote the advantage of their own nation, that within the interval of fourteen days, during which the Frenchman stays to take in his cargo, there is scarce any thing left for him, the merchandizes which are to be shipped off being always kept for the Dutchman, whose turn comes after the Frenchman's.

Notwithstanding there are many general benefits attend these regulations, yet they are not without some inconveniences: as vessels must thus be loaded by turns, the freight of merchandizes is always kept up at a pretty high rate. For it is observed, that a bale of pepper, or of other merchandize, pays, from Amsterdam to Roan, twice or thrice as much as from Amsterdam to Bayonne, and that for no other reason,

but because ships are loaded by turns for Roan, and not for Bayonne; which cannot but proportionably raise the price of merchandizes coming from Holland, and imported into France by Picardy and Normandy.

BEZISTAN. See the article **BESISTAN.**

BEZOAR, or **BEZOARD,** a medicinal stone, which is reckoned a sovereign antidote against poison, and an excellent cardiac. It is also prescribed against a swimming in the head, the epilepsy, a palpitation of the heart, the jaundice, the cholick, and such a vast number of other distempers, that it will doubtless be shorter to say in general, that it is esteemed by some empirics a kind of panacea, or universal remedy, proper to cure all sorts of diseases. It is, perhaps, as much its scarcity, as its real properties, which has gained it so high a reputation. However, people begin now to value it less, and there are some able physicians, who do not esteem it at all.

There are several sorts of bezoars, and, among others, the oriental, the occidental, and that of Germany.

The oriental bezoar is reckoned the best, and there is plenty enough of it in several parts of the Indies, especially in the kingdoms of Golconda and Cananor. It is found there, mixed with the dung of an animal called pazan, in whose belly that stone is formed. The buds of a certain shrub which it browses, are, as it were, the seed of the bezoar, which grows round about that food, commonly of the bigness of an acorn, or of a halle-nut, and sometimes of the size of a pidgeon's egg.

This stone has several shining skins or coats, like an onion; they are sometimes of a blood-colour, but pretty often of a pale yellow, brown and clear green, and also of the colour of honey.

The number of bezoars, which each of these animals produces, is not certain; some have none at all, some have but one, and others two, three, even to six.

The bigger the bezoar stone is, the dearer it sells, the price rising proportionably like that of diamonds. Those of an ounce weight are sold in the Indies for 100 French livres; and one of four ounces and a quarter was sold for 2000 livres.

The reader would perhaps be glad to know what sort of animal it is, in whose belly the bezoar is found; and we should indeed have begun this article, with a description of it: but the several writers, who boast that they have seen those animals, and even that they have had some of them in their possession, speak so inconsistently of them, that it is very difficult to determine a matter of fact between authors, who alledge their own eyes as vouchers for what they assert, and yet disagree among themselves.

What seems to be most certain, because all authors agree in it, is, that this animal is a kind of wild goat, but which the Indians know how to tame, in order to make an advantage of their bezoar.

The oriental bezoar must be chosen shining, of a scent something like that of ambergrease, soft to the touch, and in large and fine bits. As for their figure, it is no matter what it is, nor of what colour the bits are, but they are most commonly of an olive-colour.

It is easy to adulterate the bezoar, but then it is not less easy to discover the fraud. Here follow several methods to try it.

1. Let it soak three or four hours in water that is but lukewarm: if the water does not change its colour, and the stone loses nothing of its weight, it is a sign that the bezoar is without mixture.

2. You may find it with a sharp red-hot iron: if it enters the stone, and makes it fry, the stone is factitious.

3. If, by rubbing it over a paper smeared with ceruse, or white lead, it leaves a yellow tint upon it, one may be certain that it is good and genuine.

The occidental bezoar, or bezoar of Peru, differs very much from the former. It is to be found in the bellies of several animals peculiar to that part of America. In some the bezoar is of the size of a halle-nut, in others it is as big as a walnut: there are even some bezoars of the bigness of a hen's egg.

There is no less difference in their figure than in their size. Some are oval, some round, and others almost flat. As for their colour, it is either dark, or of an ash colour.

This bezoar is scaly, like the oriental sort, but the scales are much thicker. When it is broke, one would think it has been sublimated, because of the many small shining needles of which it seems to be composed: but, on the outside, it is very smooth and even.

The animals in which this stone is formed are the guanacos, the iachos, the vicunnas, and the taraguas. That of the last is most esteemed, and the taragua is pretty much like the animal which produces the oriental bezoar, being like the goat in size, and of the shape of a sheep.

Mr. Wafer (in the third volume of Dampier's Voyages, p. 383, &c.) gives us a curious account of an animal which produces bezoar, and is found in the isle of Mocha, which lies over-against the city of Chili, about 30 degrees 20 minutes south latitude. It is a sort of sheep, which the inhabitants call *cornera de terra*. This creature is about 13 hands and a half high at the back, and is a very stately beast. These sheep are

are so tame, says our author, that we frequently used to bridle one of them, upon whose back two of the lustiest men would ride at once round the island, to drive the rest to the fold. His ordinary pace is either an amble or a good hand-gallop; nor does he care for going any other pace, during the time the rider is upon his back. His mouth is like that of a hare; and the hair-lip above opens as well as the main lips, when he bites the grass, which he does very near. His head is much like an antelope's, but they had no horns, when Mr. Wafer was there: yet his people found very large horns, much twisted, in the form of a snail-shell, which they suppose these animals had shed; there lay many of them scattering upon the sandy bays. The ears of this animal resemble those of an ass. His neck is small, resembling a camel's: He carries his head bending, and very flatly, like a swan: is full-chested, like a horse, and has his loins much like a well shaped greyhound. His buttocks resemble those of a full-grown deer, and he has much such a tail. He is cloven footed, like a sheep, but, on the inside of each foot, has a large claw, bigger than one's finger, but sharp, and resembling those of an eagle. These claws stand about two inches above the division of the hoof, and they serve him in climbing rocks, holding fast by whatever they bear against. His flesh eats as like mutton as can be. He bears wool of 12 or 14 inches long upon his belly, but it is shorter on the back, shaggy, and but inclining to a curl. It is an innocent and very serviceable beast, fit for any drudgery. Of these Mr. Wafer's men killed 43, out of the maw of one of which they took 13 bezoar-stones, of which some were ragged, and of several forms; some long, resembling coral, some round, and some oval, but all green, when taken out of the maw: yet, by long keeping they turned of an ash colour. The Spaniards told Mr. Wafer's people that these creatures are extraordinarily serviceable to them at the mines of Potosi, which lie a great way up in the country, in bringing the silver from thence to the cities that lie towards the sea, between which cities and the mines are such cragged ways and dangerous precipices, that it were almost impossible for any man, or any other beast, to carry it. But, these sheep being laden, and led to the precipices, their master leaves them there to themselves, for above 16 leagues, and never meets them 'till he himself has also fetched a compass about 57 leagues round. This their sureness of foot consists solely in their aforesaid claws, by which they hold themselves so fast upon the least footing, that they can go where no other beast can.

The German bezoar, which some call cow's-eggs, is found in the ventricle, or stomach, of some cows, but more particularly in that of the shamoys, a kind of wild goat. Some of these stones weigh 18 ounces: but this sort of bezoar is not much valued.

Besides these three sorts of bezoar, which are not very scarce in France, or elsewhere, and are to be had at all the druggists and apothecaries shops, the curious have three other sorts in their closets, whose scarcity have raised them to an exorbitant price. These are the hog, or boar bezoar, the Malacca, or porcupine bezoar, and the monkey bezoar.

The hog, or boar bezoar, called by the Dutch *pedro de porco*, and by the Portuguese, who first brought them into Europe, *pedro de vassar*, is found in the gall of some Indian boars. It's bigness, or size, seldom exceeds that of a silberd, which it resembles pretty much in figure, though more irregular. As to its colour, it has no fixed one, though it is most commonly white, inclining somewhat to green. Finally, it is on the side flacked, as it were, and soft to the touch.

When these bezoars arrive at Amsterdam, the number of which seldom exceeds five or six, in the richest cargoes that come from the East-Indies, they are bought for 3 or 400 guilders a piece, and even for more, not by merchants to trade with, and get a profit upon them, but by the wealthiest citizens, either to make presents of them to persons of distinction, or to keep in their families, as a very great treasure, which they transmit to their children by a kind of entail.

It is incredible how many virtues, or properties, the Indians ascribe to this bezoar, which, among them, they call *massica de soho*; and those of the kingdom of Malacca, where it is most commonly found, esteem it more than the oriental bezoar; not so much because they think it the best antidote in the world against all sorts of poisons, but because it is a sovereign remedy for curing the mordoxé, a kind of distemper to which they are very much subject, and which is not less dangerous in that part of Asia than the plague is in Europe.

The other properties which the Indians ascribe to the hog or boar bezoar, are as follow: they say it is admirable for curing all malignant fevers, as well as the small-pox, and all distempers incident to women who are not with child; but it is known, by experience, that it makes those pregnant women miscarry who are indiscreet enough to use it.

This bezoar must be steeped in a glass of water, or wine, 'till the liquor has acquired a bitterish taste, which is not disagreeable. This liquor must be taken in the morning fasting; though upon an urgent occasion, it may be drank at any time of the day.

To make that infusion more easily, as also to preserve so precious a stone, most of those who have any, cause it to be in-

closed in a round golden box, full of holes, to which is fixed a small chain of the same metal, by which they keep it suspended in the liquor, when they want to use it.

The bezoars of porcupines and monkeys differ from the boar's in nothing but their being found in the galls of those two animals, whereas the other is found in the wild boar's gall; unless we should say, with Monsieur Tavernier, that the two former, which he calls Malacca stones, are not taken out of the galls, but out of the heads, of the porcupines and monkeys, and that these are the bezoars on which the Malaysans set so high a value, that they never suffer any to be carried out of their country, unless it be to make presents to ambassadors, or even to some of the greatest kings of the Indies.

Some assert, that the bezoar of Siam, which is so much esteemed on account of its rare and excellent qualities, is a stone, found in a monkey, and that it is to be met with in that kingdom, as well as in that of Malacca, to which alone travellers had ascribed it, 'till the Chevalier de Chamont was sent ambassador from France to Siam, in the year 1686.

Upon the whole, the properties, figure, and colour of those three bezoars are so much alike, that there is no great danger, though a person should mistake the one for the other, or even think it is one and the same stone, under three different names.

We may observe, in general, with regard to all those bezoar-stones, that there are few animals in whose bowels they are not found; and people seldom fail to ascribe to them very extraordinary properties, which, perhaps, they never had; and it is, very probable, after that manner that all the bezoars, both ancient and modern, mentioned in this article, acquired the reputation they have.

We shall not speak here of the bezoars of some whimsical chymists; we shall only intimate what they call animal-bezoar, which is a powder of vipers, and bezoardicum Joviale, or bezoar of Jupiter, is nothing but block-tin, several times calcined.

OX BEZOAR, otherwise called gall-stone, is a yellowish stone, found in the ox's gall-bladder. The physicians use it sometimes in medicine, and the painters in miniature employ it in several casts of yellow.

BIA, Thus the Siamese call those small white shells which come from the Maldives, and which are called coris, or cowries, almost throughout the East-Indies, where they serve for small coin, or money. They are also current in several parts of the African coast.

BICHET, a quantity or measure of corn, which differs according to the places where it is used. The bichet is not a wooden measure, as the minot at Paris, or the bushel at London: it is a compound of several certain measures.

At Tornus in Burgundy, the bichet is of 16 measures, or bushels of that province, which amount to something above 19 bushels of Paris.

The bichet of Beaune, as well as that of Tornus, is divided into 16 measures, or bushels, but these measures amount but to 18 bushels of Paris.

At Verdun the bichet is composed of 8 measures, or bushels, of the country, which at Paris make 15 bushels.

The bichet of Châlons on the Saône contains 8 measures, which make 14 bushels at Paris, equal to the quarter of Bresse.

In some other places of France, and particularly at Lyons, the bushel is called bichet, though very different from the other bichets mentioned above.

BIDON, a liquid measure, containing about 5 pints of Paris, that is, about 5 quarts English wine measure. It is seldom used but among ship's crews. The wine designed for every mess of sailors is put into a bidon, which is a kind of wooden casks, bound with flat iron hoops.

BIGONTIA in Italian, **BIGON** in French, a liquid measure used at Venice. It is the fourth part of the amphora, and one half of the botté. Four quarts, or quartons, make a bigot, and four tischanfera a quart. See **VENICE** for their measures reduced to the English standard.

BIGORRE, the south division of the principality of Gascony in France, is situated almost intirely in the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from Arragon on the south; on the east it is bounded by Couferans and Comminges; on the north by the mountains of Armagnac; and, on the west, by Berne. The mountains here are said to have mines of copper, but they are not wrought.

TARBE, or **TRAVIA**, is situated in a fruitful plain, on the banks of the river Adour, 12 leagues distant from Auch to the south, and 6 from Pau to the east.

BANGÈRES is a city remarkable for its several baths, within this city and its neighbourhood, to which people resort twice a year, viz. in the spring and in autumn.

BAREGE is a village also remarkable for its baths, and a great resort of company. There are there four baths, of different degrees of heat. The first is called the great bath, and consists of two springs of clear water, the smell whereof is like that of the mud of the sea, and is very hot.

When you expose silver and copper over the steam of this bath, the silver becomes immediately red, and then black, as the copper also does. The alteration is quicker still, when you plunge these metals into the water, whether it be at the spring, or even when the water is cold, and taken the day before. The

water of the second bath is of the same nature, but not quite so hot, because the pipe through which it is carried into the common reservoir, is longer than that through which the water of the great bath runs, and is made of marble, whereas the other is of iron. The water of the third is less hot still; and that of the fourth, called the round bath, is but luke-warm, and very much weakened by a mixture of water from some cold springs. These baths are reckoned very good for the cure of rheumatic pains, and other distempers.

REMARKS.

The estates of many gentlemen affording variety of mineral springs, which occasion great resorts of people, and prove no inconsiderable advantage to such estates, as well as to the towns and cities wherein they happen to be discovered; the practice of bathing, and likewise mineral water selling for drinking, are become a species of traffic. For a gentleman who converts a mineral spring upon his lands into a commodious bath, may be said to trade in the virtues of his water; and, if he sells them, he becomes a kind of dealer in mineral liquors.

On these considerations, it may not be altogether useless to observe, that, since the variety of baths in England, and in many other parts of the world, have turned to so good an account to their proprietors, and have tended greatly to enrich particular towns and cities adjacent to them, it concerns the landed gentleman to know and discover whether his estate happens to afford any salubrious spring of this kind, and to judge whether any advantage is to be made of it.

To which end, it is requisite (as I have observed on other occasions) that land proprietors should be so much of the philosopher as to be able themselves to make a proper judgment of the various sorts of waters, as well as of whatsoever else their estates may afford.

Wherefore it may be very acceptable, instead of disagreeable, to many of the gentlemen of this kingdom, to find, in a Dictionary of Commerce, whatever has a tendency to the improvement of their estates, for the benefit of their families, which are often very large, and require better provision than they are frequently able to make for them: whereas, could they be prevailed on to cast an eye upon this work, we flatter ourselves that they would experience it to turn to no less good account to them than to traders in general. And as the land, as well as the sea, is the grand source of trafficable productions, we conceive it perfectly compatible with a work of this nature to promote the interest of land in this shape, in conjunction with that of trade in others.

The method of examining mineral waters for drinking, &c.

1. To half a common wine-glass of pyrmont water, was added a dram of syrup of violets; whereby a greenish colour was produced. 2. To a like quantity of the same water, were added a few grains of scraped galls; and, first, a purple, then a blackish colour, presently ensued. 3. A quantity of the same water was evaporated, and a small proportion of an ochry substance was left behind. 4. A glass of the same water was set cold in the receiver of the air-pump, and found, upon withdrawing the external air, that the water sparkled violently, and discharged a numerous quantity of small bubbles at its surface, like what happens in the conflict of an acid and alkaline liquor.

This experiment holds in all the cases of chalybeate waters only, and not of mineral waters in general. By mineral waters in general are meant all those wherein any medicinal virtues, besides those of common water, are found. These are of various kinds; they may be considered thence under the general titles of chalybeate, purgative, and alterative.

The more useful and commodious additions for examining these three kinds of mineral waters, are galls, syrup of violets, and oil of tartar per deliquium.

Galls discover in them any small proportion of vitriol, or dissolved iron, as having the property of immediately striking a purple, or black colour, in all waters where any such substance is lodged.

Syrup of violets, in the same manner, discovers any small predominancy of an acid or alkali therein, by changing the water red, if an acid, and green, if alkali prevails.

Oil of tartar discovers any small proportion of earthy matter, less capable of dissolving in water than that salt, by precipitating such earthy matter, in form of a white cloud, to the bottom of the containing glass, where it collects, and appears like a subtile white powder.

These particulars may be shewn, and proved satisfactorily, by adding to pure water a little of a known acid, alkali, dissolved iron, and subtile earth, or a fine light sediment of an earthy water; applying the syrup of violets, galls, and oil of tartar respectively.

Suppose, therefore, any unexperienced water to be examined; first, drop into it a little syrup of violets, and, if this does not alter its colour, but continues its full natural blueness, the water is neither acid nor alkaline. If gall do not turn the water black, it is not iron, or vitriolic; and, if oil of tartar does not precipitate a white powder, the water holds no considerable proportion of earthy matter.

These experiments admit of great enlargements, by means of many other additions, capable of causing a change of colour, or a precipitation, in waters, according as they are impregnated with matters of certain kinds. Thus a solution of silver, by causing a thickness, or light precipitation, discovers a minute proportion of sea-salt contained in waters; and there is scarce a salt on earth, or a mineral, hitherto known, but the industry of the experimental philosopher has found ways of discovering if it be contained in any common or mineral water; especially, if to this we add the use of evaporation, or bringing the solid contents of such waters to a dry form. So that, if this whole affair was to be properly conducted, we apprehend it might, in a short time, terminate in a certain discovery of the contents of all the mineral waters of the kingdom, to the great advantage of ordinary life, a considerable improvement in the art of medicine, and many other mechanical arts and trades, depending upon the proper choice and use of waters. These things are remarked here, with a view only to apprise the country gentlemen of our intention to omit nothing essential that may have any tendency to the discovery of whatever may turn to their private advantage. For more matter on this head, see the article *WATERS*, chalybeate, purgative, and alterative.

BILL signifies a paper, either written or printed, in very large characters, which is posted up in some open and public place, to give notice of the sale of any merchandize or ship, or of the sailing of any vessel into foreign parts. The latter ought to mention the places where such vessels are bound, and those where they are to touch by the way, as also of what burden they are, how many guns they carry, and how many men they have on board. It is also by bills posted up, that the trading companies acquaint the public with the quantity and quality of the stuffs, linnens, metals, drugs, spices, and other effects, which their ships have brought home. They generally mention in those bills the places where such ships are arrived, the day of the sale, and often, also, the conditions of it. In a word, there are few things in commerce for which traders are not sometimes obliged to have bills posted up, if it were only to give notice of the new manufactures which they undertake to set up, or even only to let the public know that they have changed their dwelling-place, in order to preserve their customers.

No man is at liberty to post up a bill at Paris on any account whatsoever, without first obtaining leave from the lieutenant of the police, or from superior judges, according to the nature of the case.

Though such bills be also used in England, yet printed bills are often handed about for the abovementioned purposes; and the great conveniency of advertising in the public news-papers makes those bills less necessary here than in other countries.

BILL, in trade, both wholesale and retail, as also among tradespeople and workmen, signifies an account of merchandizes or goods delivered to a person, or of work done for one.

In those bills must be set down the sums of money received on account, which ought to be deducted from the sum total.

In France, agreeably to the seventh and eighth articles of the first title of the ordonnance of March 1673, the bills of merchants ought to be settled within a year after the delivery of the merchandizes, and the bills of workmen within six months after the delivery, or performance, of the work, otherwise exceptions might be made at law by the buyer, who, in such case, may refuse payment: but, in that case, the merchant, or workman, may cause the debtors to be examined, and oblige them to declare upon oath whether or not they have paid for such merchandizes or works, according to the tenth article of the same title of the abovementioned ordonnance.

BILLS settled, are such bills at the bottom of which they to whom the merchandizes, or works have been delivered, acknowledge that they have received them, that they are satisfied with the price, and promise to pay it, whether the time when payment is to be made be expressed or not.

As soon as the bills are thus settled, or that there is a promise to pay for the merchandizes, &c. the merchants and tradesmen are secure against all exceptions at law, and may in France claim their debts, even during 30 years.

BILL, in commerce, is also a common obligation, or engagement, given by one man to another. It is sometimes with a penalty, and sometimes without a penalty, though the latter is more commonly used. By a bill is ordinarily understood a single bond, without a condition; and it was formerly the same with an obligation, save only that it was called a bill, when in English, and an obligation, when in Latin.

A bill has been defined to be a writing, wherein one man is bound to another to pay a sum of money, on a day that is future, or presently on demand, according to the agreement of the parties at the time it is entered into, and the dealings between them: and it is divided into several sorts, as a bill that is single, a bill that is penal, &c. When a bill of 100 l. is to be paid on demand, it is a debt presently, and there needs no actual demand; and a single obligation, or bill, upon the sealing and delivery, is debitum in presenti, a present debt, though solvendum in futuro, to be paid in the time to come. On a collateral promise to pay money on demand, there must be a special demand; but between the parties it is a debt, and

paid to be sufficiently demanded by the action. It is otherwise where the money is to be paid to a third person, or where there is a penalty. If a person acknowledge himself by bill obligatory to be indebted to another in the sum of 50 l. and, by the same bill, binds himself and his heirs in 100 l. and says not to whom he is bound, it should be intended he is bound to the person to whom the bill is made. A bill obligatory written in a book, with the party's hand and seal to it, is good; and, if a man makes a bill thus, I do owe, and promise to pay, to A B, 50 l. &c. for payment thereof I bind myself to C D, another person; it is good, by the words of the first part, and the words obligatory to another person are void. A person says by his deed, Memorandum, That I A B have received of C D the sum of 20 l. which I promise to pay to E F. In witness whereof I have hereunto set my seal, &c. Or, if the bill be, I shall pay to C D 20 l. in witness, &c. and the same be sealed: or, if it runs as follows, I owe C D 20 l. to be paid at, &c. or, I had of C D, 20 l. &c. to be repaid him again: or, I A B do bind myself to C D, that he shall receive 20 l. &c. all these are said to be obligatory.

Form of a single bill for money.

Know all men by these presents, That I A B, of, &c. do owe, and am indebted to C D, of, &c. the sum of fifty pounds of lawful money of Great-Britain, which I promise to pay unto the said C D, his executors, administrators, or assigns, at or upon, the first day of October next ensuing the date of these presents. In witness whereof I hereunto set my hand and seal, the 10th day of August, Anno Domini 1750.

A penal bill for payment of money.

Know all men by these presents, That I A B, of, &c. do owe unto C D, of, &c. the sum of one hundred pounds of lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid unto the said C D, his executors, administrators, or assigns, on, &c. next ensuing the date hereof. For which payment well and truly to be made I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, to the said C D, his executors, administrators, and assigns, in two hundred pounds in like lawful money, firmly by these presents. In witness, &c.

BILL of Credit, is a bill which a merchant, or banker, gives to a person whom he can trust, empowering him to receive money from the said merchant, or banker's correspondents in foreign countries. It is generally in the following form:

' This present writing witnesses that I A B, of London, merchant (or banker) do undertake to, or with C D, of, &c. merchant, his executors and administrators, that, if the said C D do deliver, or cause to be delivered, unto E F, of, &c. or to his use, any sum or sums of money, amounting to the sum of, &c. pounds sterling of lawful British money (or any sum or sums of money, as the said E F shall have occasion for) and shall take a bill under the hand and seal of the said E F, confessing and shewing the certainty thereof; that then I, my executors and administrators, having the same bill delivered to me or them, shall and will immediately, upon the receipt of the same, pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said C D, his executors or assigns, all such sums of money as shall be contained in the said bill, at, &c. For which payment, in manner and form aforesaid, I bind myself, my executors, administrators, and assigns, by these presents. In witness, &c.'

Though bills of credit be different from bills of exchange, yet they enjoy the same privileges, for the money paid in consequence of them is recoverable by law.

A merchant, or banker, ought to be very well acquainted with the characters of those to whom he gives letters of credit, especially if the sum be not limited. It is advisable, therefore, as much as it is possible, to determine the sum, that a person may exactly know what engagement he enters into.

There is another caution to be observed, which is, to acquaint the correspondents who are to furnish the money, with the departure of him who is to receive it, and to describe his person as accurately as can be, or even to agree about some peculiar word or sentence, by which the correspondents may know that the person who applies to them for money is really the identical person meant: for he may be killed, and his bill of credit stolen, whereby another might personate him, and receive the money in his stead, which has frequently happened.

BILL of Entry, is an account of the goods and merchandizes entered at the custom-house, both inwards and outwards, in which is expressed the merchant exporting or importing, the quantity of merchandize, and the divers species thereof, and whither transported, or from whence. See examples hereof at the end of the letter A, where the method of computing the duties, and the manner of entering goods at the custom-house, are explained.

BILL of Exchange, is a piece of paper, commonly long and narrow, on which is wrote a short order, given by a banker, a merchant, or trader, for paying to such a person, or to his order, or also, in some countries, to the bearer in a distant place, a sum of money equivalent to that which such a banker, merchant, or trader has received in his dwelling-place.

The exchange of monies is of great antiquity, as well by observation of the Hebrew customs as those of the Romans.

Upon the first day of the month Adar, proclamation was made throughout all Israel, that the people should provide their half shekels, which were yearly paid towards the service of the temple, according to the commandment of God; on the 25th of Adar, they brought tables in the temple (that is, in the outward court, where the people stood) [Exod. xxx. 31.] on these lay the lesser coins, which were to furnish those who wanted half shekels for their offerings, or that wanted lesser pieces of money in their payment for oxen, sheep, doves, &c. which stood there ready in the same court to be sold for sacrifices; but this supply and furnishing the people from these tables, was not without an exchange for other money, or other things in lieu of money, and that at an advantage: hence all those who sat at the tables were called bankers, or masters of the exchange.

By the Romans it is supposed to be in use upwards of 2000 years, money being then made out of gold and silver, to avoid the carriage of merchandizes in barter, from one country to another: so other nations, imitating the Jews and Romans, erected mints, and coined monies, upon which the exchange by bills was devised, not only to avoid the danger of the adventure of monies, but it's troublesome carriage.

Thus states having, by their sovereign authority, coined monies, caused them to appoint a certain exchange, for permutation of the various coins of several countries, without transporting of the coin, but giving par pro pari, or value for value, with a certain allowance to be made those exchangers for accommodating the merchants.

As commerce branched into various shapes, so did exchange, but was generally reducible to four species, viz. common exchange, real exchange, dry exchange, and fictitious exchange. Those who practised the common exchange were constituted by the several kings, who, having received monies in England, would remit by exchange the like sum, to be paid in another kingdom. Edward III. to ascertain the exchange, caused tables to be set up in most of the general marts or ports of England, declaring the values of the foreign coins of those countries with which his subjects carried on commerce, and what allowances were to be made for having monies to be remitted to such countries.

Real exchange was, when monies were paid to the exchanger, and bills were drawn, without naming the species, but according to the value of the several coins; which two offices afterwards were incorporated; and, indeed, was no more but, upon payment of monies here in England, to be repaid the just value in money in another country, according to the price agreed on between the officer and deliverer, to allow, or pay, for the exchange of the money, and the loss of time.

Dry exchange is, when a merchant hath occasion for 500 l. suppose for a certain time, and would willingly pay interest for the same; the banker, being desirous to take more than the legal interest, and yet to avoid the statute, offers the 500 l. by exchange for Cales, or any other place, to which the merchant agrees; but, the merchant having no correspondent there, the banker desires him to draw his bill, to be paid at double or treble usance, at Cales, by any feigned person, at the price of the exchange then current. Accordingly, the merchant makes the bill, and the banker pays the monies; which bill the banker remits to some friend of his, to procure a protest from Cales for non-acceptance, with the exchange of the money from Cales to London; all which, with costs, the merchant is to repay to the banker; and sometimes they have been so conscientious as not to make above 30 per cent. by these artifices. This kind of usury is said to be first introduced into England by the Jews. Vide Co. 2 Inst. fol. 506.

Fictitious exchange is when a merchant hath occasion for goods to freight out his ship, but cannot well spare the money; the owner of the goods intimates, that he must have ready money; the buyer knowing his drift, it is agreed, that the seller shall take up the monies by exchange for Venice, or any other parts; but then the merchant must pay for exchange and re-exchange.

These two last ways of oppressing the generous merchant were afterwards prohibited 3 and 4 Hen. VII.

The just and true exchange for monies, by bills, is par pro pari, according to value for value; which is grounded on the weight and fineness of monies, according to their several standards, proportionable to their valuation; which, being truly and justly made, ascertains and reduces the price of exchange to a sum certain, for the exchange of monies to any nation or country whatsoever.

Foreign bills of exchange have long been looked on as the most obligatory and convenient paper-security, that is amongst merchants; not so much by virtue of the laws of any country, as in conformity to the universal customs and usages established among traders themselves, by a kind of unanimous concurrence, for the facilitating a general commerce throughout the world. In order, therefore, to make a judgment in cases of this nature, it is necessary to be acquainted with those

customs and usages: but, although in the courts of judicature of this nation, great regard is paid to these mercantile usages, yet they have been frequently over-ruled by the law. Wherefore we judge it necessary to give a series of select cases, which have been determined in our courts of law, as also those statutes which relate to bills of exchange; these being the fundamental principles, upon which the reasonableness and equity of mercantile usages must be judged of in this kingdom. In the reign of king William III, inland bills in this nation had greatly lost their credit, being not looked upon as bills of exchange, and therefore not punctually and regularly paid; which proceeded, in a great measure, from the defect of the laws, they not having effectually provided for the recovery of such debts: whereupon the following act of parliament took place to remedy this evil.

Anno 9 & 10 Gulielmi III. Regis.

An act for the better payment of inland bills of exchange.

Whereas great damages and other inconveniencies do frequently happen in the course of trade and commerce, by reason of the delays of payment, and other neglects on inland bills of exchange in this kingdom; be it therefore enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that from and after the 24th day of June next, which shall be in the year 1698, all and every bill or bills of exchange drawn in, or dated at, and from any city or town, or any other trading city or town, or any other place in the kingdom of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, of the sum of five pounds sterling or upwards, upon any person or persons, of or in London, or any other trading city, town, or any other place (in which said bill or bills of exchange shall be acknowledged and expressed, the said value to be received) and is, and shall be, drawn payable at a certain number of days, weeks, or months, after date thereof, that from and after presentation and acceptance of the said bill or bills of exchange (which acceptance shall be by the underwriting, the same under the party's hand so accepting) and after the expiration of three days, after the said bill or bills shall become due, the party to whom the said bill or bills are made payable, his servant, agent, or assigns, may, and shall, cause the said bill or bills to be protested by a notary public, and, in default of such notary public, by any other substantial person of the city, town, or place, in the presence of two or more credible witnesses, refusal or neglect being first made of due payment of the same, which protest shall be made and written under a fair written copy of the said bill of exchange, in the words or form following;

Know all men, that I R. S. on the _____ day of _____ at the usual place of abode of the said _____ have demanded payment of the bill, of which the above is the copy, which the said _____ did not pay; wherefore I the said _____ do hereby protest the said bill, dated at _____ this _____ day of _____

Which protest so made, as aforesaid, shall, within fourteen days after making thereof, be sent, or otherwise due notice shall be given thereof to the party, from whom the said bill or bills were received, who is, upon producing such protest, to repay the said bill or bills, together with all interests and charges, from the day such bill or bills were protested; for which protest shall be paid a sum, not exceeding the sum of six-pence; and in default or neglect of such protest made and sent, or due notice given within the days before limited, the person, so failing or neglecting thereof, is, and shall be liable to all costs, damages, and interests, which do, and shall, accrue thereby. Provided nevertheless, that in case any such inland bill, or bills of exchange, shall happen to be lost, or miscarried, within the time before limited for payment of the same, then the drawer of the said bill or bills is, and shall, be obliged to give another bill or bills of the same tenour with the first given, the person or persons to whom they are, and shall be so delivered, giving security, if demanded, to the said drawer, to indemnify him against all persons whatsoever, in case the said bills or bill of exchange, so alledged to be lost or miscarried, shall be found again.

After this, the nation being sensible of the conveniencies arising to commerce by that act, and observing, that there was no provision made in it for protesting such bills for non-acceptance, and the merchants further considering how beneficial it would be to the public to have the same remedy upon promissory notes, as upon bills of exchange, whereby the same may be transferred from party to party, without any other formality, but that of an endorsement: all these matters having been taken into consideration by parliament, an act for that effect passed both houses, and received the royal assent, to the general satisfaction of the nation, which is as follows.

Anno 3 & 4 Annæ Regiæ,

An act for giving like remedy upon promissory notes, as is now used upon bills of exchange, and for the better payment of inland bills of exchange.

Whereas it hath been held, that notes in writing, signed by the party who makes the same, whereby such party promises to pay any other person, or his order, any sum of money therein mentioned, are not assignable or endorrible over; within the custom of merchants, to any other person; and that such person to whom the sum of money mentioned in such note is payable, cannot maintain an action, by the custom of merchants, against the person who first made and signed the same; and that any person to whom such note should be assigned, endorsed, or made payable, could not, within the said custom of merchants, maintain any action upon such note against the person, who first drew and signed the same: therefore, to the intent to encourage trade and commerce, which will be much advanced, if such notes shall have the same effect, as inland bills of exchange, and shall be negotiated in like manner; Be it enacted by the queen's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, that all notes in writing, that after the first day of May, in the year of our Lord 1705, shall be made and signed by any person, or persons, body politic or corporate, or by the servant or agent of any corporation, banker, goldsmith, merchant, or trader, who is usually entrusted by him, her, or them, whereby such person or persons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, or unto bearer, any sum of money, mentioned in such note, shall be taken and construed to be, by virtue thereof, due and payable to any such person or persons, body politic or corporate, to whom the same is made payable; and also every such note payable to any person or persons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, shall be assignable or endorrible over, in the same manner as inland bills of exchange are, or may be, according to the custom of merchants; and that the person or persons, body politic and corporate, to whom such sum of money is, or shall be, by such note made payable, shall and may maintain an action for the same, in such manner, as he, she, or they might do, upon an inland bill of exchange, made or drawn according to the custom of merchants; and that the person or persons, body politic and corporate, who, or whose servant or agent, as aforesaid, signed the same; and that any person or persons, body politic and corporate, to whom such note that is payable to any person or persons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, is endorsed or assigned, or the money, therein mentioned, ordered to be paid by endorsement thereon, shall and may maintain his, her, and their action for such sum of money, either against the person or persons, body politic and corporate, who, or whose servant or agent, as aforesaid, signed such a note, or against any of the persons that endorsed the same, in like manner as in cases of inland bills of exchange: and, in every such action, the plaintiff or plaintiffs shall recover his, her, or their damages, and costs of suit; and if such plaintiff or plaintiffs shall recover his, her, or their costs, against the defendant or defendants; and every such plaintiff or plaintiffs, defendant or defendants, respectively recovering, may sue out execution for such damages and costs, by capias, fieri facias, or eligit.

And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that all and every such actions shall be commenced, sued, and brought within such time as is appointed, for commencing or suing actions upon the case, by the statute made in the 21st year of the reign of king James the first, intitled An act for limitation of actions, and for avoiding of suits in law, provided, that no body politic or corporate, shall have power, by virtue of this act, to issue or give out any notes by themselves or their servants, other than such as they might have issued, if this act had never been made.

And whereas by an act of parliament made in the ninth year of the reign of his late majesty king William III. intitled, An act for better payment of inland bills of exchange; it is, among other things, enacted, that from and after presentation and acceptance of the said bill or bills of exchange (which acceptance shall be by the underwriting, the same under the party's hand so accepting) and after the expiration of three days, after the said bill or bills shall become due, the party to whom the said bill or bills are made payable, his servant, agent, or assigns, may and shall cause the same bill or bills to be protested, in manner as in the said act is enacted: and whereas, by there being no provision made therein for protesting such bill or bills, in case the party on whom the same are or shall be drawn, refuse to accept the same, by underwriting the same under his hand, all merchants and others who refuse to underwrite such bill or bills, or make any other than a promissory acceptance, by which means the effect and good intent of the said act in that behalf is wholly evaded, and no bill or bills can be protested before, or for want of such ac-

ceptance by underwriting the same, as aforesaid: for remedy whereof, Be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that from and after the first day of May, which shall be in the year of our Lord 1705, in case, upon presenting of such bill or bills of exchange, the party or parties, on whom the same shall be drawn, shall refuse to accept the same, by underwriting the same, as aforesaid, the party to whom the said bill or bills are made payable, his servant, agent, or assign, may, and shall, cause the said bill or bills to be protested for non-acceptance, as in case of foreign bills of exchange: any thing in the said act, or any other law, to the contrary notwithstanding; for which protest there shall be paid two shillings, and no more.

Provided always, that, from and after the said first day of May, no acceptance of any such inland bill of exchange shall be sufficient to charge any person whatsoever, unless the same be underwritten, or endorsed in writing thereupon; and if such bill be not accepted by such underwriting, or endorsement in writing, no drawer of any such inland bill shall be liable to pay any costs, damages, or interests thereupon, unless such protest be made for non-acceptance thereof, and, within fourteen days after such protest, the same be sent, or otherwise notice thereof be given, to the party, from whom such bill was received, or left in writing at the place of his, her, or their usual abode; and if such bill be accepted, and not paid before the expiration of three days after the said bill shall become due and payable, then no drawer of such bill shall be compellable to pay any costs, damages, or interests thereupon, unless a protest be made and sent, or notice thereof be given, in manner and form above-mentioned: nevertheless, every drawer of such bill shall be liable to make payment of costs, damages, and interests, upon such inland bill, if any one protest be made for non-acceptance, and non-payment thereof, and notice thereof be sent, given, or left as aforesaid.

Provided, that no such protest shall be necessary, either for non-acceptance, or non-payment of any inland bill of exchange, unless the value be acknowledged and expressed in such bill to be received, and unless such bill be drawn for the payment of 20 l. sterling, or upwards; and that the protest, hereby required for non-acceptance, shall be made by such persons, as are appointed, by the said recited acts, to protest inland bills of exchange for non-payment thereof.

And it be further enacted, that from and after the first day of May, if any person doth accept any such bill of exchange, for and in satisfaction of any former debt, or sum of money formerly due unto him, the same shall be accounted and esteemed a full and complete payment of such debt, if such person, accepting of any such bill for his debt, doth not take his due course to obtain payment thereof, by endeavouring to get the same accepted and paid, and make his protest as aforesaid, either for non-acceptance, or non-payment thereof.

Provided, that nothing herein contained shall extend to discharge any remedy, that any person may have against the drawer, acceptor, or indorser of such bill.

After a recital of these acts of parliament, in relation to bills of exchange, we conceive it more satisfactory, to every man of sense, rather to give a variety of cases that have been determined in the courts of judicature of this kingdom, than the collective sense of those whose judgment is not of the like authority.

We apprehend, moreover, that those cases, being abstracted with their essential circumstances, will prove of more public utility, than giving them in a gross superficial manner, which in that way, even to lawyers themselves, who have not the cases ad unguem, could be of little service, and of much less to traders in general. In regard to the acceptance of bills of exchange, see the article ACCEPTANCE, where there are some cases, incorporated with the general usages of merchants.

SOME CURIOUS CASES RELATIVE TO BILLS OF EXCHANGE, AS THEY HAVE BEEN DETERMINED IN COURTS OF JUDICATURE IN ENGLAND.

Clark versus Mundal. 3 W. & M. coram Holt C. J. at Nisi Prius at Guildhall.

A, having a bill of exchange payable to him, and he being indebted to B in a sum of money, sends and indorses this bill to B. Afterwards B brought assumpsit against A for the money, and on non assumpsit A gave in evidence this bill of exchange indorsed, and that it had lain so long in B's hands after it was payable, and reckoned it as money paid and in his hands; but it was disallowed; for a bill shall never go in discharge of a precedent debt, except it be part of the contract that it should be so. If A sells goods to B, and B is to give a bill in satisfaction, B is discharged, though the bill is never paid, for the bill is payment: but, otherwise, a bill should never discharge a precedent debt or contract; but, if part be received, it shall be only a discharge of the old debt for so much. Salk. 124.

Hodges

Hodges versus Steward. Pasch. 3 W. & M. B. R.

In an action on the case on an inland bill of exchange, brought by the indorser against the drawer, the following points were resolved.

1. A difference was taken between a bill payable to J. S. or bearer, and J. S. or order; for a bill payable to J. S. or bearer, is not assignable by the contract, so as to enable the indorser to bring an action, if the drawer refuse to pay, because there is no such authority given to the party by the first contract, and the effect of it is only to discharge the drawer, if he pays it to the bearer, though he comes to it by trover, theft, or otherwise. But when the bill is payable to J. S. or order, there an express power is given to the party to assign, and the indorser may maintain an action.
2. Though an assignment of a bill payable to J. S. or bearer, be no good assignment to charge the drawer with an action on the bill; yet it is a good bill between the indorser and indorsee, and the indorser is liable to an action for the money; for the indorsement is in nature of a new bill.
3. It being objected, that, in this case, there was no averment of the defendant's being a merchant, it was answered by the court, that the drawing the bill was a sufficient merchandising and negotiating to this purpose.
4. The plaintiff declared, on a special custom in London, for the bearer to have this action. To which the defendant demurred, without traversing the custom; so that he confessed it, whereas, in truth, there was no such custom; and the court was of opinion, that, for this reason judgment should be given for the plaintiff; for though the court is to take notice of the law of merchants, as part of the law of England; yet they cannot take notice of the custom of particular places, and the custom in the declaration being sufficient to maintain the action, and that being confessed, he had admitted judgment against himself.
5. 'Twas held, that a general indebitatus assumpsit will not lie on a bill of exchange for want of a consideration; for it is but an evidence of a promise to pay, which is but a nudum pactum; and therefore he must either bring a special action on the custom of merchants, or a general indebitatus assumpsit against the drawer, for money received to his use. Judgment pro Quer'. Ibid. 125.

Pinkney versus Hall. Hill. 8 Will. III. B. R.

By the custom of England, where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill drawn on both for him and partner, it binds both, if it concerns the trade; otherwise, if it concerns the acceptor only in a distinct interest and respect. Ibid. 126.

Clark versus Pigot. Pasch. 10 Will. III. B. R.

Clark having a bill of exchange payable to him or order, puts his name upon it, leaving a vacant space above, and sends it to J. S. his friend, who got it accepted; but, the money not being paid, Clark brought an indebitatus assumpsit against the acceptor: and it was objected on evidence, that the property was transferred to J. S. Et per Holt, C. J. J. S. had it in his power to act either as a servant or assignee: if he had filled up the blank space, making the bill payable to him, that would have witnessed his election, to have received it as indorsee; but, that being omitted, his intention is presumed to act only as servant to Clark, whose name he would use only in order to write the acquittance over it. Ibid. 126.

Anonymous, Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Nisi Prius at Guildhall.

A bank bill payable to A, or bearer, being given to A, and lost, was found by a stranger, who transferred it to C for a valuable consideration; C got a new bill in his own name. Et per Holt, C. J. A may have trover against the stranger who found the bill, for he had no title, though the payment to him would have indemnified the bank; but A cannot maintain trover against C, by reason of the course of trade, which creates a property in the assignee, or bearer. Ibid. 126.

Anonymous, Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Nisi Prius at Guildhall.

A bill of exchange being made payable to A, or order, A indorses it to B; B cannot sue A, unless he first endeavour to find out the first drawer to demand it of him; for the indorser is only a warrantor for the payment of the drawer, and therefore liable only on his default; and such endeavour must be set forth in the declaration. Ibid. 126.

Allen versus Dockwra. Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Treby, C. J. at Nisi Prius at Guildhall.

A bill was drawn on Sutor, payable in three days; Sutor broke; the person to whom it was payable kept the bill by him four years, and then brought assumpsit against the drawer: and per Treby, C. J. when one draws a bill of exchange, he

subjects himself to the payment, if the person on whom it was drawn refuses either to accept or pay: yet that is with this limitation, that, if the bill be not paid in convenient time, the person to whom it is payable shall give the drawer notice thereof; for otherwise the law will imply the bill paid, because there is a trust between the parties, and it may be prejudicial to commerce, if the bill may rise up to charge the drawer at any distance of time; when in the mean time all reckonings and accounts are adjusted between the drawer and drawee. Ibid. 127.

Jackon versus Pigot, 10 Will. III. B. R.

The plaintiff declared on a bill of exchange drawn by J. S. on the defendant, dated the 15th of March, 1696, payable a month after sight, and that afterwards, viz the 27th of April, 1697, he shewed it the defendant, and he promised to pay it according to the tenour of the bill, after verdict for the plaintiff on non assumpsit, was moved in arrest of judgment that this manner of declaring was absurd, it being impossible to pay according to the tenour of the bill at time of the promise. Resolved by the court, that, where the time of payment is past at the acceptance of the bill, the acceptance can be only to pay the money; and if he was so absurd as to promise to pay the money, according to the tenour of the bill, yet that is no more in law now than a promise to pay the money generally: but it is better to declare in such a case on general promise to pay the money. Per Holt, C. J. Ibid. 127.

Lambert versus Pack, Pas. 11 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Nisi Prius, London.

An action on the case was brought on a bill of exchange against the indorser; and it was ruled by Holt, C. J. upon evidence, 1st, That there is no need to prove the drawer's hand, because, though it be a forged bill, the indorser is bound to pay it. 2dly, The plaintiff must prove that he demanded it of the drawer, or him upon whom it was drawn, and that he refused to pay it, or else that he sought him and could not find him; for otherwise he cannot resort to the indorser. 3dly, That this was done in convenient time; for if they stand, and are responsible a convenient time after the assignment, and no demand made, the indorsee shall not charge the indorser. The time for foreign bills is three days, and no allowance is to be made for Sundays and holidays. Serjeant Wright cited a case of one Tracey, who stood a week after the indorsement, and the indorsee lost his money; which Holt, chief justice, thought was too strait; but such matters must be left to the jury. 4thly, It is a question whether notice must be given or no; but it is fair to give notice. 5thly, That the demand must be proved subsequent to the indorsement; for, if it was precedent, he could only act as servant to the indorser; and so the demand was insufficient to charge the indorser. 6thly, If a man indorses his name upon the back of a bill blank, he puts it in the power of the indorsee to make what use of it he will, and he may use it as an acquittance to discharge the bill, or as an assignment to charge the indorser. 7thly, In cases of bills purchased at a discount, this is the difference; if it be a bill payable to A, or bearer, it is an absolute purchase; but if to A, or order, it is indorsee blank, and filled up with an assignment, the indorser must warrant it as much as if there had been no discount. Ibid. 128.

East versus Effington, Mich. 1 Ann. B. R.

Indorsee declared on a bill of exchange against the drawer, and the bill was, Pray pay this my first bill of exchange, my second and third not being paid; and the endorsement was set out in this manner, that the drawer indorsavit super billam illam, content' billæ illius solvend' to the plaintiff, without shewing that it was subscribed. On non assumpsit and verdict pro quer. it was objected in arrest of judgment, that there was no averment that the second and third bills were not paid, which is a condition precedent: sed non allocatur: et per cur. That must be intended, for the plaintiff could not otherwise have had a verdict: and, for the same reason also, the endorsement, which was likewise excepted against as set forth in the declaration, was held good, being aided by the verdict; the court comparing it to an action of debt, by an assignee of a reversion, without shewing an attornment which, on non debet, is aided by verdict; for, if the endorsement be necessary to transfer the bill, so is the attornment to pass the reversion. Ergo, as the attornment shall be supplied by the jury's finding debet, so shall the endorsement by their finding assumpsit. Ibid. 130.

Lucas versus Haynes, Pasch. 2 Ann. B. R.

In trover for a bill of exchange, the case upon evidence was, that the plaintiff had a bill of exchange drawn upon the defendant, and sent it by J. S. to the defendant, to get it accepted; J. S. left it with the defendant, and afterwards, the bill being lost, the plaintiff brought trover for it, and J. S. was now the plaintiff's witness for this matter, and, because the plaintiff had endorsed the bill, it was objected that J. S. could not be a witness; and, this point being saved, the court were all of opinion, that the bare endorsement, without other

words purporting an assignment, does not work an alteration of the property; for it may still be filled up, either with a receipt or an assignment, and, consequently, J. S. is a good witness. *Ibid.* 130.

Butler versus Crips, Trin. 2 Ann. B. R.

Per Holt, C. J. Pay to me, or my order, so much, is a bill of exchange, if accepted; and this is the only way to make a bill of exchange without the intervention of a third person. *Ibid.* 130.

Borough versus Perkins, Mic. 2 Ann. B. R.

Error of a judgment in C. B. in case on an inland bill of exchange brought against the drawer, and judgment for the plaintiff by *nil dicit*. Mr Raymond for the plaintiff in error urged, that it doth not appear by the declaration that the bill was protested, and since the statute 9 and 10 Will. III. no action lies against the drawer, unless there be a protest made, as that act requires; and this ought to appear in the declaration; for, at common law, the party had no remedy against the drawer, without notice given him of non payment; and, if the statute does not make the protest necessary, it does nothing. Mr Parker cont. It does not appear the bill was accepted by underwriting, without which it is not within the statute, and without it a protest cannot be made; for a protest was not necessary at common law in case of inland bills, as it was in case of foreign bills; but, supposing it were within the statute, yet the protest need not be set forth in the declaration, but this is to be considered at the trial; for, if the drawer receive damage for want of a protest, and the damage amounted to the value, it is a total discharge; if less, yet for so much. *Holt, C. J.* In inland as well as foreign bills of exchange, the person to whom it is payable must give convenient notice of non-payment to the drawer; for if, by his delay, the drawer receive prejudice, the plaintiff shall recover: a protest on a foreign bill was part of its constitution; on inland bills, a protest is necessary by this statute, but was not at common law; but the statute does not take away the plaintiff's action for want of a protest, nor does it make such want a bar to the plaintiff's action; but this statute seems only, in case there be no protest, to deprive the plaintiff of damages or interest, and to give the drawer a remedy against him for damages, if he make no protest. *Quod Powell concessit*, and that a protest was never set forth in any declaration since the statute. *Ibid.* 131.

Buckly versus Cambell, Hil. 7 Ann. B. R.

The plaintiff declared upon a bill of exchange drawn at Amsterdam, payable at London at two ufances, and did not shew what the two ufances were; and judgment was given pro def. for the court could not take notice of foreign ufances, which varied, being longer in one place than another. *Ibid.* 131.

Hill & al' versus Lewis.

Action upon the case for 170 l. 10 s. The plaintiff declared several ways, viz. 1st, Upon two bills of exchange against the indorser. 2dly, Upon a mutuatus. 3dly, An *indebitatus assumpsit* pleaded. The case upon evidence was, Moor, a goldsmith, subscribed two notes, payable to the defendant. The defendant, on the 19th of October, indorses these two notes, and gives them and eight others to one Zouch, to whom he was indebted: Zouch, the 19th of October, between the hours of 11 and 12, brought these notes to the plaintiffs, being goldsmiths, and they accepted them, and gave to Zouch other bills, and some money: and afterwards, the same day, the plaintiffs received money upon other bills of the said Moor, and might have had the money due upon these two bills, if they had been demanded; but, in the night following, about midnight, Moor broke and ran away; and whether the plaintiffs or indorsers should lose this 170 l. 10 s. was the question. The question was, whether the acceptance of these bills in satisfaction for so much money be a good discharge of the indorser? and *Holt, C. J.* held, that goldsmiths bills were governed by the same laws and customs as other bills of exchange; and every indorsement is a new bill, and so long as a bill is in agitation, and such indorsements are made, all the indorsements and every of them are liable as a new drawer. That by the law, generally, every indorser is always liable as the first drawer, and cannot be discharged without an actual payment, and is not discharged by the acceptance of the bill by the indorsee; but, by the custom, this is restrained, viz. the acceptance is intended to be upon the agreement, sc. that the indorsee will receive it of the first drawer, if he can, and, if he cannot, then that the indorser will answer it; as if the first drawer be insolvent at the time of the indorsement, or upon demand refuses to pay it, or cannot be found. And the indorser is not discharged without actual payment, until there is some neglect or default in the indorsee, as if he does not endeavour to receive it in convenient time, and then the first drawer becomes insolvent.

The second point was, what shall be thought convenient time to endeavour to receive such bill? Et per *Holt, C. J.* In case of foreign bills, he upon whom it is drawn hath three

days to pay it, and the indorsee of such bill need not demand payment until the said three days be expired; and, if he upon whom the bill is drawn become insolvent in the said time, the indorser is chargeable, and after the three days the indorsee may protest it; and it seems the same time ought to be allowed for inland bills, though it was urged that for foreign bills alone time was required, in respect the drawee was to receive advice from the drawer.

And the chief-justice, in his direction to the jury, said, that what should be thought convenient time, ought to be according to the usage among traders in such cases, and upon all the circumstances: that the plaintiffs had ten bills delivered to them together; and that, perhaps, they had other affairs that hindered them from going presently to receive these two bills, and that they received two other bills the same day. The chief-justice left it to the jury to consider, whether the time in this case were convenient time or not; and, if the plaintiff had convenient time to receive his money, then to find for the defendant, otherwise for the plaintiff; upon which the plaintiff prayed to take the verdict upon the *indebitatus assumpsit*. Et per chief justice: you cannot take the verdict upon any part of the declaration but that to which evidence was given, and here it will be good, if found upon the bills of exchange; but, if the evidence be applicable to any other part of the declaration, you may take it upon any such part to which the evidence is applicable. And because Zouch had sworn that he had received the benefit of, and had been satisfied with the bill he took of the plaintiff, by which the defendant was discharged against Zouch, the verdict was taken upon the *indebitatus assumpsit* for money laid out for the defendant's use; and it seems the indorsement by the defendant to the plaintiff was good evidence of a request to pay the said money to Zouch. Now exception was taken that one bill was payable to the defendant only, without the words, or his order, and therefore not assignable by the indorsement; and the chief-justice did agree that the indorsement of this bill did not make him that drew the bill chargeable to the indorsee; for the words, or to his order, give authority to the plaintiff to assign it by indorsement; and it is an agreement by the first drawer that he would answer it to the assignee: but the indorsement of a bill which has not the words, or to his order, is good, or of the same effect, between the indorser and the indorsee, to make the indorser chargeable to the indorsee. *Ibid.* 133.

Harry versus Perrit, Trin. 9 Ann. B. R.

Action on a promissory note against the second indorser, and the plaintiff declared without an averment, that the money was demanded of the drawer, or the first indorser. And this was held good upon motion in arrest of judgment; for the indorser charges himself in the same manner as if he had originally drawn the bill. *Ibid.* 133.

Witherley versus Sarsfield, Mich. 1 W. & M.

A writ of error was brought in the exchequer chamber upon a judgment in B. R. where the plaintiff declared in case, on the custom of merchants, that if any merchant, or other trading person, make and direct any bill of exchange to another, payable to a merchant, or any other trading person, and the bill be tendered, and, for want of acceptance, protested, in such case the drawer by the custom is chargeable to pay, &c.—That the defendant at Paris in France did draw a bill on his father here in London, payable to the plaintiff, and the same was presented but refused, and he, according to custom, protested the bill, whereby the defendant became chargeable, and, in consideration of the premises, did assume, &c. To this the defendant pleaded, that he was a gentleman, the son and heir of Dr Thomas Witherley, and, at the time of drawing the bill, was a traveller, and at Paris, for his better education; and that he was no merchant, nor trader, nor did ever deal as such, and he was then at Paris as a gentleman and traveller, as aforesaid, absque hoc, and denies that he is or ever was a merchant, &c. The plaintiff demurs to the defendant's plea, and shews for cause, that it amounts to the general issue, is double and uncertain, &c.

Holt, C. J. It is not every plea that amounts to a general issue that is ill; and the custom is the foundation, and the plea is an answer to that, and therefore enough. But this drawing a bill must surely make him a trader for that purpose, for we all have bills directed to us, or payable to us, which must be all voidable, if the negotiating a bill will not oblige the drawer of it. The judgment for the defendant was reversed, and the plaintiff had judgment in B. R. upon a remittitur. *Holt's Reports*, 113.

Darrach versus Savage, Pasch. 2 W. & M.

Indebitatus assumpsit for 40 l. received to the plaintiff's use, the defendant pleaded non assumpsit; and upon the trial the evidence was a bill of exchange, or note, under the defendant's hand, dated the 22d of February, 1687, directed to a merchant of London, Pray pay to Mr John Darrach, or his order, the sum of 40 l. and place it to my account, value received, witness my hand. The money was never demanded of the

merchant 'till the action brought: and it was insisted for the plaintiff, that the defendant was still chargeable, and so continued to be 'till the note was discharged.
 Holt, C. J. In this case the bill, or note, should be deemed payment; and that the plaintiff was satisfied with the merchant as his debtor. if he did not in convenient time resort back to the drawer for his money: for his keeping the bill, so long, was an evidence that he thought the merchant good at that time, and that he agreed to take him for his debtor. Judgment for the defendant. *Ibid.* 113.

Mogadara versus Holt, Mich. 3 W. & M.

In case on a bill of exchange, the plaintiff sets forth, that there is a custom, that if any merchant in London draws his bill, or bills, upon any merchant in Rotterdam, payable to any merchant, or order, and if the merchant there accept any such bill, and before acceptance, or after, the merchant to whose order the money is directed to be paid doth indorse it to any other merchant, and that other merchant doth indorse it to some other, and the merchant, to whom the bill is directed, accepts it after such indorsement, and fails in payment to the merchant to whom indorsed at the time limited, whereby the bill becomes protested, and notice is given thereof to the drawer; that, in such cases, the drawer becomes liable to pay the same with damage to the indorsee. That the defendant drew a bill of exchange, 19th November 1688, on Edward Williams, payable in two months and a half, to the order of one Hartopp, for 300 l. value of himself; and Hartopp the same day indorsed it to Marques, and Marques indorsed it to the plaintiff; that the plaintiff afterwards, viz. 8 Feb. 1689, gave notice to Williams, and he then accepted the bill; that Williams failed to pay it, and, by reason thereof, the said 8 Feb. the bill was protested, of which protest the defendant had notice the 28th of April, and did not pay it. The defendant demurred generally to the declaration, the bill not being accepted till after the day of payment was expired; and it was insisted, that the protest should have been for non-acceptance within the time, and failure of payment at the time.

By Holt, C. J. The law of merchants made him liable, who was the drawer of the bill, though the acceptance were after the day; for it need not be tendered within the time. Now by that law the drawer is chargeable by the value received; and though the money were not paid, or the bill presented within the time mentioned, yet it ought still to be paid: and if the party do not tender and protest at the day, and there be a break in the mean time of the person on whom the bill is drawn, he loses his money; otherwise, if there be no particular damage. Judgment was given for the plaintiff. *Ibid.* 114.

Ward versus Evans, Mich. 2 Ann.

A case made before my lord chief-justice Holt at Guildhall was this: Ward, the plaintiff, sent his servant to receive a note of 50 l. of B, who went with him to the defendant Sir Stephen Evans's shop, and he indorsed off 50 l. upon a note of 100 l. which B had upon him, and gave the servant a note of 50 l. upon one Wallis, a goldsmith, to whom the note was carried the next day by Ward's servant; but Wallis refused to pay, and that day broke; and thereupon the note was sent back to Evans, who refused payment, on which an action was brought; and the question was, whether it would lie against the defendant, or that this were a good payment by Evans to the plaintiff.

Holt, C. J. It is plain the servant was sent by his master to receive the money, and not the bill: and if the servant upon tender of the bill, had come to the master to know his mind, and the master had sent him back for the money, if then he had took the bill, that would not have bound the master; but here was some time for the master to assent to what the servant had done; but he held clearly, that this indorsement by Evans on the note of B, was a receipt by him of so much money to the use of the plaintiff, for which an indebit. assump. would lie. And they all agreed, that if a master send his servant to receive money upon a goldsmith's bill, or any other, and he takes another bill upon another person for payment, that shall not bind the master, without some subsequent act of consent; as if he would not send back the bill in reasonable time, &c. but acquiescence, or any small matter, will be proof of the master's consent, and that will make the act of the servant the act of the master.

A goldsmith's note is received conditionally, if paid, and no otherwise, without an express agreement to be taken as money: and the party having such note shall have a reasonable time to receive the money, as, in this case, the next day, and is not obliged as soon as he receives the note to go straight for his money. *Ibid.* 120.

Popley versus Ashley, Pasch. 3 Ann.

The defendant took up several goods of the plaintiff, who sent a servant with a bill to him for the money; the defendant orders the servant to write him a receipt in full of the bill, which he did, and thereupon he gives him a note upon a third person, payable in two months: the master sent sever-

al times to the third person, to present him the note, but could not get sight of him within the time; the party breaks; and all this appearing in evidence, and that the defendant went to sea the next day after he gave the note, now this action was brought against the defendant for the money.

Holt, C. J. If a man give a note upon a third person in payment, and the other, takes it absolutely as payment, yet, if the party giving it knew the third person to be breaking, or to be in a failing condition, and the receiver of the note uses all reasonable diligence to get payment, but cannot, this is a fraud, and therefore no payment; and here was no laches in the plaintiff, for the party failed before the money was payable. The chief-justice directed for the plaintiff. *Ibid.* 122.

Soper versus Dible.

Assumpsit upon a bill of exchange. The plaintiff declares, that secundum consuetudinem et usum mercatorum the acceptor is bound to pay, &c. without shewing the custom, at large. And the defendant demurred; and it was adjudged for the plaintiff; and, per curiam, it is a better way, than to shew the whole at large. Lord Raym. 175.

Nicholson versus Sedgwick.

The plaintiff declares, quod inter mercatores et alios negotiantes intra hoc regnum there is, and time whereof, &c. hath been a custom, that if any trader make a bill, or note, by which he assumes to pay another person, or the bearer of the bill, such a sum of money, such person is bound by it to pay such sum to such person to whom the note is payable, or to the bearer.—The plaintiff then shews, that the defendant Sedgwick, being a goldsmith, made a note in writing, whereby he promised to pay to Mason, or bearer, 100 l. that Mason delivered the note to the plaintiff for 100 l. in value received; and that for non-payment of this 100 l. the plaintiff brought this action against the defendant. Non assumpsit pleaded, and verdict for the plaintiff. It was moved in arrest of judgment, that this action could not be brought in the name of the bearer, but it ought to be brought in the name of him to whom it was payable. Quod fuit concessum per curiam; for the difference is, where the note is payable to the party or bearer, or to the party or order.—In the latter case the indorsee has been allowed to bring the action in his own name, because the indorsement of the party, must appear upon the back of the note; but, where it is payable to the party or bearer, it may be very inconvenient; for then any one, who finds the note by accident, may bring the action. Though this last has been frequently attempted, it has never yet prevailed; and in the case of Horton and Coggs, the goldsmith (3 Lev. 299.) this difference was taken and agreed; and the judgment of the court (being the same case with this) was arrested. But the court declared that the bearer might bring the action in the name of him to whom the note was payable. And judgment was arrested, nisi, &c. The same point was resolved in B. R. between Hodges and Steward, before given, Salk. 125. But there it was resolved, that the indorsement to the bearer binds the party who immediately indorses it to him. The principal point was also resolved, Mich. 6 W. & M. B. R. between Sir Thomas Escount and Cudworth. *Ibid.* 181.

Bellasis and Hester.

The question was, whether a general indebit. assumpsit will lie upon a bare acceptance of a bill of exchange. By justice John Powell, a general indebitat. assumpsit does not lie on a bill of exchange; but it ought to be a special declaration upon the custom of merchants, as in the case of Brown and London, 1 Lev. 298. 1 Mod. 285. 2 Keb. 695, 731, 758, 822. 1 Vent. 152. In which case, judgment was arrested after verdict, as reported by Levinz and Ventris. Lord Raymond, 281.

Bromwich and Lades.

In this case, it was said by the chief justice Treby, that bills of exchange were of such general use and benefit, that, upon an indebitat. assumpsit, a bill of exchange may be given in evidence to maintain the action; and Mr justice Powell, that upon a general indebitat. assumpsit, for monies received to the use of the plaintiff, such bill may be left to the jury to determine, whether this was for value received or not. In this case the declaration was on the custom of merchants, and a general indebitat. assumpsit thereon. See the declaration and exceptions to it, in the foregoing case of Bellasis and Hester, 1 Lutwych, 1589.

Brown and London.

What actions lie upon a bill of exchange, and how to be brought, and against whom. See Hardres, 487, in Scaccario. 1 Mod. 285. 1 Lev. 298. and 2 Keb. 695. and the case of Cramlington against Evans and Percival, 2 Vent. 307. Lord Raym. 175, 364, 574.

A draws a note upon a goldsmith, and sends his servant to receive the money, and invert it in Exchequer bills; the servant gets B to give him money for the note, and then brings

the Exchequer bills to his master, and two days afterwards the goldsmith fails; it was adjudged that A must answer the money to B: for the property of the note was not transferred to B, there being no indorsement; and he could not have sued upon it; it was only in the nature of a pledge or security to him. Luc. 109.

Morris versus Lee.

Note, The foregoing Stat. 3 and 4 Ann. ch. 9. having given like remedy upon promissory notes, as upon inland bills of exchange: it was resolved, that an action lies by a second indorsee upon a note, whereby the defendant promised to be accountable to J. S. or order, for 100 l. value received. L. Raym. 1396.

Burchell versus Slocock:

A note value received de præmissis, in Rosemary-lane, was adjudged a good note within the statute. Idem, 1545.

Elliot versus Cooper.

The indorsee declared, that the defendant made his note in writing, by which he promised to pay, &c. without saying the defendant signed it: this was held good, on demurrer. Idem. 1376, 1377. The like of a bill of exchange, in the case of Sir John Ereskine versus Murray. Error C. B. Idem, 1542. So in the case of

Smith versus Jarves and Bailly.

Where the declaration shewed, that the defendant made it a note for himself and partner, and signed it; whereby he promised for himself and partner to pay, &c. Idem, 1484. And in the foregoing case of Ereskine and Murray. A bill need not to be expressly averred to be drawn according to the custom of merchants. Idem, 1542.

Neale versus Ovington. Error C. B.

An action on a note, by which the defendant and another promised jointly or severally, as ill. Idem, 1544, 1545. A draws a bill upon B to the use of C, and, upon non-payment, C protests the bill; he cannot sue A, unless he gives notice that the bill is protested, for A may have effects of B in his hands, by which he may satisfy himself. Vent. 45.

Jenny and others against Herle. Error C. B.

Pray pay to H. 1045 l. upon demand, out of the money in your hands, belonging to the proprietors of the Devonshire mines, being part of the consideration money for the manor of West-Buckley.—This is no bill of exchange. Idem, 1361, 1362, and 1563, in the case of Hadock and Lynch. Pay to J. S. or order, 10 l. as my quarter's half-pay by advance, is a good bill of exchange, as in the case of Macleod and Snee, Pargiter and Beckin. Idem, 1481.

Monk versus Clayton and Morris.

A, servant of Sir Robert Clayton and Mr. alderman Morris (but at that time actually gone from them) took up 200 guineas of Mr. Monk, a goldsmith, without any authority of his masters; (but Monk did not know that he was gone) the monies not being paid, Monk brought an action against Sir Robert Clayton and Morris, and at Guildhall it was ruled by Keeling chief-justice, that they should answer; and there was a verdict for the plaintiff. And, though there were great endeavours to obtain a new trial, yet it was denied, the court at Westminster being fully satisfied that they ought to answer: for this servant had used often to receive and pay monies for them; and thereupon they actually paid the monies. Mich. 22. Car. II. in B. R.

Note, That which will oblige the master, will be the authority and liberty which he usually gives the servant; therefore such a power, devolved, ought to be secured by the prudentest way that may be: which is generally done by bonds and obligations. And, tho' the same seems an act of wisdom for merchants and others so to take, yet it oftentimes proves the destruction of many a family. The father puts out the son apprentice, perhaps, with no less than 2 to 300 l. or 500 l. and is himself become bound for his integrity, &c. The servant is immediately trusted with his cash, and he too young to be experienced in the world, either neglects keeping a just account, or, keeping that, subjects his master's cash to be spent by himself, and those who make it their business to betray youths so circumstanced. The master, discovering the fraud, calls his servant to account, who, conscious of the act, forsakes his service, dreads the sight of his relations, and, as a general consequence, falls into company, into whose wicked courses he is trepanned. The father is called to answer whatever his son has embezzled, which proves a great affliction, if not the ruin of many families. On the other hand, if servants were not to be trusted, the mystery of business, according to the common way of practice, could not be learnt, nor affairs dispatched, and therefore faith must be given: but then it were justice, honour, and honesty, as well as humanity, that, as a father puts a child to one in whom he reposes a confidence, that the master should be as a parent; so he should prevent every occasion that might subject a young fellow to temptations, and not be over-hasty in

trusting them with their cash. Which is the very bait with which our London gamesters catch such gudgeons.

Pinckard versus Fowke.

If a bill is drawn on B, and B happens to be in the country, and a friend of his desires the party not to protest, and he will pay the same, it shall bind such party. Styles, fol. 416. The merchants of London allow three days, after a bill of exchange becomes due, for the payment; and for non-payment within three days protest is made, but is not sent away 'till the next post after the time of payment is expired.

The use of the protest * is this, that it signifies to the drawer that the party upon whom he drew his bill was unwilling, or not to be found, or insolvent, and to let him have a timely notice of the same, and to enable the party to recover against the drawer; for, if one draws a bill from France upon a person in England, who accepts and fails, or becomes insolvent, at the time of payment, if there be not a protest and timely notice (which is looked upon to be the third day) sent to the drawer there, it will be difficult to recover the money.

* There are two protests: 1. For non-acceptance, which is called also intimation. 2. For non-payment.

A man not found, or being found, not met withal either at home or the exchange, is cause sufficient for a protest; but in that there must be diligence used to find him.

A bill, returned protested for non-payment, being once satisfied by the drawer to the deliverer, the drawer is discharged and so is the acceptor to him to whom the monies were to be paid: but the acceptor, by virtue of his acceptance, makes himself debtor to the drawer, according to the custom of merchants.

Monies may be had on exchange by way of letters of credit, the which are in two respects; the first general, the other special.

The general letter is open, directed, To all merchants and others that shall furnish my servant or factor, or any other, with such and such monies; for repayment of which, he binds himself to answer and pay all such bills of exchange as shall be drawn on him upon the receipt of the value, by his servant, factor, or other person: if there be really monies advanced on this letter of credit, and paid to the factor, servant, or other, and bills of exchange are sent to the party that sent such letter of credit, and if he refuses to accept, yet according to the custom of merchants he is bound to pay: the reason is, for that there was no respect had to the ability of the taker up, but to him that gave his letters of credit: and therefore in such case, if an action at law be brought, the particular custom as to that point must be carefully set forth. The special letter of credit, where one writes a letter to furnish another man's factor or agent; there is in this the same remedy as above. Molloy.

As bills of exchange seldom come without letters of advice, so ought they to be pursued: if a bill shall express, And put it to the account of A; and the letter of advice says B, this must be protested against, for it cannot safely be paid, without running the risk of an equitable suit. Idem.

If one pays money on a bill before it be due, and the party breaks, it has been conceived that the party ought to answer the drawer: the reason hath been, because the drawer might have countermanded the same, or ordered the bill to be made payable to another. Idem.

In Italy, if money is paid to a banker's servant, and if the master subscribe, Pagate com si dicé, this binds the master as effectually, as if he had subscribed it with his own hand. Idem.

A bill drawn by a merchant in London, payable by another person beyond sea, such bills in most countries, are assignable over from merchant to merchant, and the last person may sue and recover the same upon an acceptance: but, in England, only the first person mentioned in the bill, and to whom the money is made payable, may recover. 'Tis true, such person to whom the money is made payable, may, for a valuable consideration, deliver this bill to another person, and he may indorse an order on the back-side; and, if the party afterwards refuses payment of the same, it may be sued in the party's name to whom the same was transferred, laying the same by way of custom. Idem. But in the case of

Hawkins versus Cardy.

If the person to whom a bill is payable, indorses it for payment of part only to J. S. the drawer is not liable to the action of J. S. for a man cannot make another liable to two actions, where by the contract he is liable but to one. L. Raym. 360.

It is essential to a bill of Exchange to be negotiable, Lucas 294.

It is enacted by 3 and 4 Ann. c. 9. That all notes, payable to any person, or order, shall be assignable over in the same manner as inland bills of exchange are, or may be; and that any person to whom such note is indorsed, may maintain an action for the money, either against the person who signed such note, or against any of the persons who indorsed the same, in like manner as in cases of inland bills of exchange.

By stat. 2 Geo. II. c. 25. sect. 1. If any person shall forge, or procure to be forged, or assist in forging any (inter alia) bill of exchange, promissory note for payment of money, indorsement, or assignment of any bill of exchange, or promissory note for payment of money; or any acquittance or receipt for money or goods; or shall utter or publish, as true any such forged, &c. knowing the same to be forged, with an intent to defraud any person; every such offender shall be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. And,

By stat. 7 Geo. II. c. 22. If any person shall falsly make, alter, or forge, or procure to be falsly made, &c. or assist in falsly making, &c. any acceptance of any bill of exchange, or the number or principal sum of any accountable receipt for any note, bill, &c. or any warrant or order for payment of money or delivery of goods, or shall utter or publish any such falsse acceptance, bill, &c. with intent to defraud any person; every such offender shall suffer as a felon; without benefit of clergy.

In an action on the case, grounded upon the custom of merchants, that whenever any such or other person, negotiating for them with any other merchant in England, have bills directed to them, that if he to whom such bills are directed, refuse to accept on sight, or to pay such bills, then he that drew them ought: both being by the custom to be merchants, the bearer as well as the drawer. And, the plaintiff not having shewn that the bearer was such a merchant or person negotiating, it was moved to stay judgment for that cause; but judgment was given for the plaintiff, for, by the court, such merchant is referred only to him, to whom the bill is directed, and to the procurers of such a bill, and not to the drawers, or they to whose use the money is to be paid. 1 Keb. 592, 636.

The governors of the bank of England and Newman.

Assumpsit for money lent; and, upon motion for a new trial, the case appeared to be this: one Bellamy gives his bill of exchange to Newman, payable to him or bearer, on the 1st of April ensuing; before the 1st day of April, Newman discounts the bill with the governors of the bank, who sent the bill after the day to Bellamy, and he acknowledged it, but it was not paid; on the 8th of June ensuing, before payment of the bill, Bellamy becomes insolvent, for which reason the bank came upon Newman, and brought this action; and a verdict was found at Guildhall for the plaintiff. But the court granted a new trial for two reasons; first, for that, the bank having discounted the bill with allowance, it was a purchase in them of the bill. Secondly, the bill was not received at the day when the bill was good, and Bellamy solvent, which delay was laches in the bank. Comyns, case 37.

Anonymous: In Chancery.

A gave a bill of exchange for value received, B assigns it to C for an honest debt; C brings an indebitat. assumpsit on this bill against A, and had judgment; on which A brings his bill to be relieved in equity against this judgment, because there was really no value received at the giving this bill, and C would have no prejudice, who might still resort to B, upon his original debt: it was answered, that A might be relieved against B, or any claiming as servant or factor of, or to the use of, B. But the chancellor held, that C being an honest creditor, and coming by this bill fairly for the satisfaction of a just debt, he would not relieve against him, because it would tend to destroy trade, which is carried on every-where by bills of exchange, and he would not lessen an honest creditor's security. Comyns, case 28.

More versus Manning.

Assumpsit. Upon a promissory note given by Manning to Statham and order: Statham assigns it to Witherhead, and Witherhead to the plaintiff; and upon a demurrer to the declaration an exception was taken, because the assignment was made to Witherhead, without saying to him and order, and then he cannot assign it over; for by this means Statham, who had assigned it to Witherhead, without subjecting himself to his order, will be made liable to be sued by any subsequent indorsee. And to this the chief-justice at first inclined, but afterwards it was resolved by the whole court, that it was good.

For if the original bill was assignable (as it will be, if it be payable to one and his order) then, to whomsoever it is assigned, he has all the interest in the bill, and may assign it as he pleases; for the assignment to Witherhead is an absolute assignment to him, which comprehends his assigns; and therefore nothing is done when the bill is assigned, but indorsing the name of the indorser, upon which the indorsee may write what he will, and, at a trial when a bill is given in evidence, the party may fill up the blank as he pleases. Comyns, case 160.

Josceline and Lassere.

This was an action on the case on a bill of exchange brought against the drawer, and the bill was to pay 28 l. at 7 l. a month, at monthly payments, to begin September following, out of his growing subsistence.

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Branthwait: This is no bill of exchange, for, if he receives no pay, then he will not be liable. The court will take notice of the custom of merchants, and, if this be not within the custom, this court will adjudge them no bills of exchange; and there is no difference when brought against the acceptor, and when against the drawer: suppose a bill should be drawn to pay so much money out of his rents, that would not be a good bill of exchange.

Whitaker: This is a good bill of exchange; there are three persons concerned in it, which are necessary to make a bill of exchange; out of growing subsistence are words not known in the law, they are insensible, and therefore to be rejected; it is also negotiable, for what makes it so, is, it's being drawn payable to order, and is value received. 2 Vent. 308. Shore 4, 5. There was a case at Nisi Prius, Parsons and Goodwin. At least this is a good bill against the drawer.

Chief-justice Parker. There is no necessity, in a bill of exchange, of saying value received. The question is, whether this be intended more than a bare authority? This rather imports, that the drawer had then no subsistence; this looks more like an authority than a bill of exchange, and the action is brought for non-payment, and not for non-acceptance.

The next point will be, if this bill, as he calls it, or whatever it be, be a good consideration for the express promise; for, though it be strictly no bill of exchange; yet, if it be a good consideration to raise the express promise in the narrative, it will be good.

Eyre justice. To insert value received in a bill is not necessary; nor is it necessary to have three persons to make a good bill of exchange, for a man may draw a bill on himself, but it has always been taken to be for a certain sum, and the party takes on him to pay at all events. This is payable out of a certain fund; suppose a promissory note of 100 l. were payable out of such and such rents, would that be good? In such a case there must be an averment, that such rents were received, out of which the bill was to be paid; and there is no difference here between the drawer and acceptor; for, suppose an action had been brought against the acceptor, would an action lie against him before he had received the rents? sure it would not. The other point, whether it be a good consideration? If the subsistence do not come in or is contingent, that may be a reason for it's not being a good consideration.

In this case the judgment was afterwards reversed, which had in C. B. been given for the plaintiff, in the original cause.

Thomas and Bishop, Mich. 7 Geo. II.

A note was drawn by Charles Mildmay on the defendant, at thirty days sight, to pay to John Somervil, or order, 200 l. and to place the same to the account of the York-buildings company, as per advice, and is accepted by Bishop. This was a case saved to the defendant, on a verdict for the plaintiff at Nisi Prius, before Mr. Justice Page. After the note being read,

Mr. Kettleby moves for a new trial. The action is brought by an indorsee, whom he apprehends has no action against the defendant, the direction of the note being to Mr. H. Bishop, cashier of the York-buildings company, at their house, &c. and that therefore the company ought to have been charged with it, and especially as the letter of advice is directed to the governor and court of assistants of the said company.—It is a great hardship upon the defendant, and must ruin him, if he is charged therewith, there being great numbers of other notes accepted by him in the same manner.—There was a question when he was first sued as to his putting in bail, and 'twas compared to the case of Maddocks of the bank, and urged, that, though the acceptance of a banker's servant binds the master, yet the servant is not bound by it.

Strange also for the defendant. The note would have been sufficient to have charged the company, so the plaintiff has remedy without the defendant. For it is a settled point, that the master may be charged by a servant. At the trial the opinion was, that he was bound for his saying only, Accepted, and not as agent of the company. But it appears, from the face of the bill itself, to carry the interest of the company with it, and is so addressed, and so likewise is the direction. But the letter of advice clears it beyond doubt, and is a key to the whole case, as being directed to the governor and court of assistants of the company by Mildmay, who drew the bill.—He insists this was proper matter of evidence for the consideration of the jury, and, therefore, as it was not admitted before, hopes the court would grant a new trial.

Serjeant Darnell. It is urged that the question, whether the defendant accepted for himself or the company, ought to have been before the jury; but I must be of opinion to think otherwise, never knowing that a goldsmith's servant, accepting for himself, would bind his master, but not him. A man may accept, and whoever does that, it binds him; nor shall the addition which is necessary to describe the person, and make him known, excuse him. The statute, indeed, directs the servant's acceptance shall bind, but that shall

shall be as he accepts. Besides, the drawer is discharged, if there is no acceptance in time. The acceptance is a personal contract, and, if left to a jury, would destroy the credit of all such notes. Had the action been against the company, there had been more reason to have doubted then, than in the present case.

Kettleby in reply. Every man's property must depend on the discretion of a jury, and thinks it was a proper question for their determination, whether this acceptance of the defendant was on his own account, or for that of the company, as being a matter of great importance, and was never determined.

Strange. As this action depends upon the uncertainty of a mere matter of fact, the jury are the only proper persons that can determine it. The same may happen in many other cases, and as it is admitted that a servant may act on his own and his master's account, and therefore as he may act in a double capacity, it is a proper question to come before a jury, to determine in which capacity he acted in the present case.

As to the remedy over upon the drawer, that will be the same, let this be determined as it will; for here is certainly an acceptance, but the question is by whom, which will make this objection vanish.

York chief-justice. I am of the same opinion my brother Page was of at the trial, and think the verdict was a proper verdict. A bill of exchange is a contract of a very peculiar nature, depending, in a great measure, upon the custom of merchants. It is originally the contract of the drawer, but, when accepted, is a contract of the drawee, and is according to the tenor of the bill: and a farther contract may arise from the indorser; though it is certain that a writing may be drawn in the form of a bill of exchange, and yet not be so; but I know of no case, where it has happened to be so, and the acceptor been discharged, by any evidence not appearing upon the bill itself, and cited the cases of Jenney and Hern. *Paf. 10 Geo. I. in B. R.* The latter of these cases was on a bill to pay to J. S. on demand, out of the money in your hands, arising from, &c.—And, in this case, the acceptor was held liable to answer for no more than what he should raise from, &c.—But the case in question comes not up to this. The addition in the bill is merely a description, and cannot alter the nature of the contract; and the acceptance is general, and must be taken *secundum formam billæ*. It is not to account out of any particular fund, but only, when the money is paid, to what account to place it.

As to the letter of advice, that was only between the drawer and drawee; and, as it was a private transaction only between them, it cannot alter the case.

In regard to the evidence of the defendant's being cashier of the company, this ought not to be considered by the court: any extrinsic parole evidence might as well be produced; and that would affect the credit of all these contracts. It is plainly, from the face of the bill, a bill between the drawer and drawee, and could not have been accepted by the company, but for the honour of the drawer, and this a stranger might have done. There was a much stranger case in this court, between

Cramlington and Evans. 2 Vent. 307.

Where, notwithstanding the money due upon the bill was levied by extent before the day of payment, yet it was held the acceptor was bound, and the indorsee had judgment against him. Nor would it have excused the defendant, if the acceptance had been for the company; for the company could not have been charged. That would have been a matter of equity between Mr. Bishop and the company, and he might have been relieved there.

Probyn. Where a bill is drawn upon a banker, and accepted by one who is his servant, he inclined to think it shall bind the master, though the acceptance is general, because no one would trust the servant; and the bill is taken on the credit of the master: but the present case is not so: the bill here is drawn upon the servant, and the addition is only descriptive of him.—We must go according to the face of the note, and the rules of law, to make things certain.—The indorser is a stranger to the contract between the drawer and drawee, and, if there is any thing in it that does not appear upon the face of the note, it ought not to be admitted in evidence against him.

Lee. In cases of this kind, extrinsic evidence ought not to be admitted; the acceptance is general, according to the tenor of the bill; and, as the bill shews nothing that the company were engaged in it, no evidence thereof ought to be admitted. Bills of exchange are sacred things; and, as no man can determine any thing of them but from the face of the bill, that only should be taken in evidence, which is understood to be a general rule in all trials of this kind.

Page. In a case where a bill was given for goods sold and delivered, which were not delivered; yet the court would not admit any evidence of it; for they held that the bill was to be considered from the face of it.

Cur. The rule to stay the postea must be discharged.

This case being important, is the reason I have given the

pleadings thereupon, according to the best information I have been able to obtain.

Crosse and Gray. Easter 8 Geo. II.

One Slaughter, a clerk in the Exchequer, gave a promissory note to Gekie, Gekie indorsed it over to Webb, who indorsed it to the defendant, who indorsed it to the plaintiff. The note was not payable 'till six months after date, and, about a week after it became due, the plaintiff, by his attorney, demanded the money of Slaughter, who refused payment, and desired some time of forbearance, which the plaintiff's attorney refused to give, but after the plaintiff himself gave him a month's time. This was in August last, and, the month expiring before the beginning of Michaelmas term, the plaintiff, the first day of the term, filed a bill in the Exchequer against Slaughter (which was as soon as he could be sued, by reason of his privilege) and on this bill obtained judgment: but, Slaughter proving insolvent, the plaintiff brought this action against Gray, the indorser. The question was, whether, if the indorsee gives time to the drawer of the note, it does not discharge the indorsers. The chief-justice said, the time for the indorsee to demand the money of the drawer, was settled to be a reasonable time.—A verdict was given for the plaintiff.

Lewis and Orde. 2d Sittings in Middlesex, before Hardwicke chief-justice.

This was an action brought upon a note given by the plaintiff to the defendant, in the following form; I promise to pay to Mr. James Lewis eleven pounds, at the payment of the ship Devonshire, for value received. The plaintiff declared as upon the statute of queen Anne, taking it to be a note within the statute.

Marsh for the defendant objects, that it is not a note within the statute. 1st. Because not payable to order, or bearer; and 2dly, Because of the contingency of the time of payment.

Hardwicke. It has been long settled, that the statute does not require a particular certain form, and said, he remembered a case in this court, where it was held on demurrer, that a note, to be within the statute, need not be payable to order; and in that case it was urged, that it might as well be said every note within the statute should be payable to order or bearer, for they are the words of the statute. As to the contingency of the payment, the subsequent fact of the payment of the ship makes it certain; and therefore, though not a *lyen ab initio*, yet became sufficiently so, and within the statute, by the fact happening after. It is not like the case of *Joscelin and Laferré*. *Raym. 1362*, where it was held, that a bill of exchange, payable out of a particular fund for growing subsistence, was not within the statute. I think, therefore, the declaration is proper enough; but you may make your objection in arrest of judgment, for this will appear on the record. The chief-justice further said, that in case of a foreign attachment, where A receives the money of B, by authority of C, and in discharge of a debt due from C to A, the money can never after be attached in the hands of A for the debt of B.

Powell and Molieré, in Chancery, Easter 10 Geo. II.

The bill was for satisfaction of a bill of exchange drawn upon the defendant, and accepted by him. Pending the suit, the original defendant died, and it was revived against his executors, praying also a discovery of assets, and to be satisfied thereout. On the proofs some question was made, whether the acceptance was sufficient to charge the defendant, and whether the plaintiff by keeping the note about ten days after it became due, without coming to the drawee for the money, had not discharged the acceptor? But it was insisted for the defendant, as a previous matter, that the plaintiff had a plain remedy at law, that his case depended upon facts that ought to be tried by a jury, and not to be determined in this court.

Hardwicke lord chancellor. Regularly the plaintiff ought to pursue his remedy at law, and not in this court: and, if the case stood as it did at first, I should certainly dismiss the bill; but the bill of reviver praying a satisfaction out of assets and a discovery of assets, it is made a case of which this court takes cognizance, and then the prayer of satisfaction is an incident that follows with it. I have, therefore, no doubt, but that the plaintiff is proper in praying a remedy in this court. But, with regard to the acceptance, if there were doubt of it, as to the fact, or whether in law what has been done amounts to an acceptance, it might be still necessary to send the parties to a trial at law; but I think there is no doubt of either. The testator, when the bill was brought to him, received it, entered it in his book according to his course of trade, and is proved to have been made under a particular number, and wrote that number under the bill, and returned it. Now it is said to be the custom of merchants, that, if a man underwrites any thing to a bill, it amounts to an acceptance. But, if there were no more than this in the case, I should think it of little avail to charge the defendant; but what determines me is, the testator's letters; and I think

I think there can be no doubt, but that an acceptance may be by letter, and it has been so determined. There was a doubt, whether a parole acceptance be good. Lord chief-justice Eyre held that it was, lord Raymond held the contrary, and there was a like case came once before me at Nisi Prius, (Lumley and Palmer) and I had a case made of it for the opinion of the court; and it was several times argued, and at last solemnly determined, that such acceptance is good, much more than an acceptance by letter.

As to the plaintiff's being intitled to interest, I think it a clear case that he is, though no protest has been made; for that is necessary only to intitle the drawee to damages against the drawer, and, all the damage that can be had in such a case, is the interest.

Decree for the defendant to pay the note with interest, at the rate of 4 per cent. The plaintiff to pay the costs to the time of the bill of revive, and after each party to bear their own costs.

Thead and Lovell. At the fittings after term for B. R. in London, Mich. 12 Geo. II.

This was an action against the indorser of a bill of exchange. The bill was given in evidence, with an indorsement only of the defendant's name; which, as was urged for the defendant, was not an indorsement that would subject the defendant to an action; to which the plaintiff's counsel agreed, but prayed that they might have the bill back, to write over the indorsement, pay the contents to J. Thead, which was opposed by the defendant's counsel, urging, that, if the plaintiff had any right so to do, he ought to have done it before the cause came on, and that he ought not to be admitted to do it now.

Lee chief-justice. I believe this hath been often allowed; and I am of opinion, that the plaintiff ought now to be let in to do it.

The bill was then delivered back to the plaintiff, and the words above were wrote over the defendant's name.

It was then objected, that the plaintiff himself appeared to be an indorser of the bill, and therefore the property out of him, so that he could not maintain this action. Upon which it was prayed for the plaintiff, that they might have the bill back again, to strike out the indorsements subsequent to the defendant's; which was opposed by Strange, solicitor-general, averring, that he remembered a like case at Nisi prius, before lord Hardwicke, where, though he allowed the bill to be delivered back, to have the indorsement filled up; yet he refused to let it be delivered back, to have the subsequent indorsements struck out.

To which Marth for the plaintiff said, that the subsequent indorsement, being in blank, amounted to nothing; it might be as a witness, &c. and would not shew a transfer of the property; which appeared from the necessity of having the purport of the defendant's indorsement wrote over it. But Strange said, that he was ready to submit this to the jury, whether such indorsement were an assignment of the property, or not.

Lee, chief-justice, declared his opinion, that he thought the plaintiff ought to have this advantage now; and the bill was therefore again delivered back to the plaintiff, that the indorsements subsequent to that made by the defendant might be struck out, which being done, and the bill read, the solicitor-general took this further objection, That by the defendant's indorsement, as it is now made, to pay the contents to J. Thead, and the record is to Thead, or order, so it is not the same bill. But, upon looking into the record, it appeared to agree with the indorsement.

It was then urged for the defendant, that the plaintiff must prove a demand upon the drawer, and his neglect to pay; which was submitted to by the plaintiff's counsel without argument. Upon which it appeared in evidence, that the plaintiff had by his servant, from time to time, applied to the drawer for six weeks together, and was put off; that, at the end of six weeks, the drawer became a bankrupt, and the plaintiff not being able to shew that he had given notice to the indorser of the default in the drawer, and the witness confessing that he knew of no notice being given to the indorser of this neglect of payment in the drawer, it was taken, without argument, to be a discharge of the indorser, and the plaintiff was nonsuited.

Reynolds and Dundas. Rolls Trin. and 14 Geo. II.

Upon motion for an injunction the case appeared to be, that the plaintiff had been drawn in, upon some false or mistaken consideration, to give a promissory note to J. S.; and, J. S. having put the note in suit, the plaintiff brought his bill in this court to be relieved, and to have an injunction; and before answer, or any order made in the cause, J. S. indorsed over the note to the present defendant Dundas; whereupon the plaintiff amended his bill, setting forth the indorsement, and charging notice, both of the fraud and his pend' concerning it in Dundas, and prayed relief against the note, and an injunction against Dundas, from proceeding at law thereupon.

Dundas, in his answer, swore to the payment of the money specified in the note to J. S. upon the note being indorsed over to him; but not clearing himself of the charge upon him of notice of the fraud, an injunction was granted by Mr Verney, master of the Rolls, who declared, that there was no fort of proceeding more liable to fraud, than the negotiating such notes; and said, that though generally the consideration of such note is not inquirable into the hands of an indorsee; [Comyns 43.] yet, that where there appears to have been an original fraud, and any person knowing, or who may be supposed to have notice of, that fraud, will pay his money, and take an indorsement to himself of such note, it is but justice and equity, that the note should still be subject to be avoided by that original fraud, which it cannot but be supposed the indorsee had notice of, and that he would not have advanced his money, without having in view a design to support and maintain the fraud.

It was then prayed, that the injunction should be granted only on terms, that the plaintiff should give judgment at law with release of errors, subject to the order on hearing; but this was denied by his Honour, he saying, that he saw no reason for it, and granted the injunction generally. N. B. Mr Murray for the defendant, and Mr Noel and Mountney for the plaintiff.

Cook and Coland. Mich. 18 Geo. II. in B. R.

This was a writ of error of a judgment in C. B. for the plaintiff. The action was on a promissory note, to pay 150 guineas ten days after the death of the defendant's father. And, the question being whether this is a note within the statute of queen Anne, it was held in C. B. that it is, and judgment was given for the plaintiff; and was affirmed upon this distinction, That where the time upon which the note is payable depends upon a contingency, that must some time or other happen, as in this case; and where it is upon a time that may possibly never happen at all; the one makes a vested interest, which the other does not.

Of the laws and usages of Scotland in regard to bills of exchange.

The foundation hereof depending upon the 20th act 3 parl. king Charles II. it will be necessary to cite the same, which is as follows, viz.—‘ Our sovereign lord, considering how necessary it is for the flourishing of trade, that bills or letters of exchange be duly paid, and have ready execution, conform to the custom of other parts, doth therefore, with advice and consent of his estates of parliament, statute and ordain, That foreign bills of exchange, from or to this realm, duly protested for not-acceptance, or for not-payment, the said protest having the bill of exchange prefixed, is registerable within six months after the date of the said bill, in case of not-acceptance, or after the falling due thereof, in case of not-payment, in the books of council and session, or other competent judicatories, at the instance of the person to whom the same is made payable, or his order, either against the drawer or indorser, in case of a protest for not-acceptance, or against the acceptor, in case of a protest for not-payment, to the effect it may have the authority of the judges thereof interponed thereto, that letters of horning upon a simple charge of six days, and other executorial necessary may pass thereupon, for the whole sums contained in the bill, as well exchange as principal, in form as effects: sicklike, and in the same manner, as upon registerate bonds, or decrees of registration, proceeding upon consent of parties. Provided always, That, if the said protests be not duly registerate within six months in manner above provided, then, and in that case, the said bills and protests are not to have summary execution, but only to be pursued by way of ordinary action, as accords. And farther, The sums, in all bills of exchange, bear annualrent, in case of not-acceptance, from the date thereof, and in case of acceptance, and not-payment, from the day of their falling due, ay and while the payment thereof. And farther, Notwithstanding of the foresaid summary execution provided to follow upon bills of exchange, for the sums therein contained, in manner above specified: yet it is leesome to the party charger to pursue for the exchange, if not contained in the said bills, with re-exchange, damage, interest, and all expences, before the ordinary judge, or, in case of suspension, to eik the same to the charge, at the discussing of the said suspension, to the effect that the same may be liquidate, and decreet given therefore; either against the party principal, or against him and his cautioners, as accords.

The execution, that is provided by this act, varying in several points from the customs of other countries, these customs generally regulate the practice of traders in Scotland, when their own publick acts are silent and determine nothing.

In case of any foreign bill of exchange from or to Scotland, duly protested for not-acceptance, or for not payment.

This act mentions only foreign bills, and not such as are drawn from one place within Scotland to another, or inland bills; which was so ordered, lest people had been tempted, with the privilege of summary execution, to constitute all their debts by bills, and none by bonds.

Inland bills of exchange had not in England, before 1697, any manner of force or credit. But, at length, seeing great damages frequently happened in the course of trade, by reason of the delays of payment, and other neglects of such bills; these bearing value received, were ordained to be summarily negotiated by protesting, accepting, and giving advice thereof, &c. provided the bills be drawn for 20 l. sterling, or upwards.

The laws of SCOTLAND have not only made careful provision for the due payment of foreign bills, but also of inland draughts; summary execution, by horning, is ordained to proceed upon bills, or tickets, drawn upon, or granted by, or to, and in favour of the bank, and the managers and administrators thereof, and protests thereon, as is appointed to pass upon foreign bills*.

* Act of Parliament 17 July, 1695, which is not inserted in the principal collection of the statutes of Scotland.

The like execution passes now upon all inland bills and precepts, as is appointed to pass upon foreign bills by this act 20 parl. 3. Ch. II, 1681: which statute is extended, in all points, to inland bills and precepts*: yet, whether under that general the privilege of annualrent be comprehended, seems not so clear: for as it may be alleged for the affirmative, that seeing generalia debent generaliter intelligi, and the act, 1681, is extended in all points; the clause concerning annualrent, being one of them, must be understood as carried under the general, especially considering, that this sense is acquiesced in by common practice; no body ever scrupling at the payment of annualrent for inland bills.

* Act 36. sess. 6. parl. K. W.

But the lords have found annualrent due upon inland bills as well as others*. Bills or precepts, for delivery of salt, meal, &c. are not privileged as money-bills: though the ordinary solemnities required in other writs may be dispensed with in them, when granted in re mercatoria †.

* 8 June, 1705, Blair contra Oliphant. 16 Decemb. 1713, Leslie contra Robertson.

† 19 February, 1715, Douglas contra colonel Erskine.

Inland bills and precepts must also be negotiated as foreign bills, by duly presenting them, protesting for not-acceptance and not-payment, and advising the drawer, or last indorser, thereof. So the possessor of an inland precept granted by his debtor in a bond, not having protested the same for not-payment, nor done any diligence against the acceptor of the precept, till he broke, was found to have no recourse for payment against the drawer, or his cautioner in the bond ‡.

‡ 10 July, 1706, Brand contra Yorston.

Promissory notes have the same effect, both in France § and England ||, as bills of exchange, as to indorsements thereof, and maintaining actions thereon for payment of sums, with costs and damages. There is this difference, indeed, that, whereas a bill must be protested, the party, failing to pay a note, must be summoned to a court.

§ Edit. de Commerce, 1673, tit. 5. art. 27. tit. 7. art. 1. || 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 9. junct. 7. Ann. C. cap. 25.

Promissory notes have no such privilege in Scotland. A merchant's note payable to others, or order, at such a place, or at any other place, with the current exchange, was found to be only a simple ticket, and not of the nature of a bill of exchange, in respect there was not a drawer and acceptor, and therefore null, for want of writer and witnesses names and designations**.

** 29 Jan. 1708, Arbuthnot contra Scot.

The like note, whereby one promised to pay to a person, or order, a sum, value received, being indorsed to a third party, was, for the same reason, compacted with the indorser's debt ††. Nor doth the English statute of 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 9. giving the like remedy upon promissory notes, as is now used upon bills of exchange, for three years, though made perpetual by an act of the British parliament since the union ††, extend to promissory notes in Scotland ††, because the British statute doth only make the former, which was a temporary law of England, to have perpetual force there; and, being but an accessory, can go no further than the statute of England it was calculated to continue.

†† 12 Feb. 1708, Bundie contra Kennedy.

†† 7 Ann. cap. 25.

†† 6 Decemb. 1714, King contra Esdale.

A protest, having a bill of exchange prefixed, is registrable within six months after the date of the said bill, in case of not-acceptance, or after the falling due thereof, in case of not-payment, &c.

Bills of exchange have every-where paratum executionem; for retarding whereof, no exceptions are admitted, but such as are instantly verified*. But not by this act, after six months from the date of the bill, in case of not-acceptance, or from

its falling due, in case of non-payment, within which time only summary diligence is competent by registration †; and yet a bill payable at a certain day, which the possessor neglected to protest for not-acceptance within six months of the date, was found duly protested for not-payment, and registrate against the drawer, within six months after the term ‡. Here, some would think, the lords proceeded upon the supposition that bills, payable on a precise day, require no acceptance, and that the creditor therein needs never to offer his bill till the term of payment elapse, and then protest for not-payment; though it be otherwise with bills drawn on so many days sight, which must be offered in order to acceptance, for determining the time of their falling due. But this distinction between these two kind of bills hath neither foundation in the act of parliament nor in the merchant-custom. And if bills, payable at a certain time after date, were not to be duly negotiated, by presenting in order to acceptance, and protesting for want of it, as well as bills on so many days sight; it would interrupt commerce, and ruin merchants. Therefore, it seems more probable, that the reason of the aforesaid decision was, because the drawer could qualify no prejudice he sustained by the possessor's neglecting to protest for not-acceptance, since the person drawn upon had none of his effects.

* G. Dunozei dec. 268. n. 4. 5. Boer. dec. 295. n. 7. Scaccia de appellat. lib. 3. cap. 2. quaest. 17.

† Which is a decree on sentence in the construction of law.

‡ 25 July, 1699, Robert Yule against James Richardson.

At the instance of the person to whom the same is made payable, or his order. The simple having of a bill is a sufficient title to protest for not-acceptance; but none, without an active title in his person, can effectually protest for not-payment, and obtain the protested bill to be registrate, at his instance; because the accepting of a bill puts nothing in the presenter's pocket, but is merely an obligation to pay in the term on it, to the person that shall have right thereto at the falling due: whereas payment of a bill can only be made to one having right to receive and discharge, and consequently such a person only may protest for not-payment: the design thereof being to put the debtor in mora solvendi, so as to infer exchange, re-exchange, and damages; which can never be without an active title in the protester.

When a bill is payable to two or more persons conjunctly and severally, any one of them may receive payment, and discharge the debt*; but then, after one has charged for it in his own name, the bill cannot be warrantably paid to any other without his consent †.

* Arg. l. 31. §. 1. ff. de novat.

† Arg. l. 16. ff. de duob. reis constit.

Either against the drawer or indorser, in case of a protest for not-acceptance. By the custom in other countries, the creditor of a bill that is suffered to be protested for not-acceptance, cannot recur by action and diligence against the drawer, or indorser, for payment, before the term; unless he be vergens ad inopiam: but only to oblige to give sufficient security for payment, at the day and place appointed; with charges and re-exchange, in case of failzies, to be valued according to the course of them: after which security is given, they can be no more troubled than if a bill had been accepted; and the possessor must superede farther diligence till it fall due*. Though an indorser should, before the term, give satisfaction to the creditor, he cannot, till then, oblige the drawer, or a former indorser, to reimburse him, if they be willing to find surety in manner abovementioned †. This is the practice in other countries; but, by the acts of Scotland, when a bill is protested for not-acceptance, the possessor has immediate recourse, by horning, &c. against the drawer or indorser, even before the term of payment: for, if it were otherwise, the creditor might sometimes (as when his bill is payable nine or ten months after date) be debarred from the common benefit of summary diligence, which is only competent within six months.

* Du Pay, chap. 7. n. 6, 7. Scarlet, chap. 13. R. 7, 8, 18. † Ibid. R. 191.

Or against the acceptor, in case of a protest for not-payment, &c. An accepted bill, being protested for not-payment, is registrable in order to horning, and other diligence against the acceptor, when the possessor must first discuss: and, that being done without recovering payment, he has only an action for making his money effectual, against the drawer and indorsers; who yet may be pursued conjunctly or severally, in solidum. Herein the law of Scotland recedes from the custom abroad, which makes drawer, indorser, and acceptor liable to the creditor in the bill, without any benefit of discussion*. And what can be the reason why it is not so in Scotland, but that the acceptor is considered as principal debtor, from the first design of the parties to have the bill paid by him; the drawer and indorsers being but so many mandators, much the same in law as cautioners, who regulariter are only liable subsidiary, after discussing of the principal †. And, if summary immediate diligence were allowed against the drawer or indorsers, they could not propose the most ordinary defence

and exception against the possessor, viz. that he suffered the acceptor to break by his omission of due diligence, but by way of suspension, which would be expensive. The creditor in a bill protested for not-acceptance, has also action against him on whom it was drawn; if he unjustly refused to accept, having provisions in his hand †. Thus a person who suffered a bill drawn upon him to be protested for not-acceptance, was found liable to the possessor in quantum he had of the drawer's effects; at protesting of the bill, and to be in mala fide to pay thereafter to the drawer †. And as the possessor of a bill, having first discussed the acceptor, has subsidiary recourse against the drawer, and all indorsers: so those who indorsed, after acceptance of the bill, have ground of relief of the drawer, acceptor, and other more early indorsers; and every indorser of those that went before him. Yet a bill payable at a certain day, being protested for not-payment, after the falling due thereof, without a previous acceptance, or protest for not-acceptance, was found registrable against the drawer §. And horning against the acceptor upon an instrument of protest for not-payment, against the drawer, and all others concerned, without express mention of the acceptor, was sustained †, although there be no action competent against the drawer 'till the bill is protested against the acceptor; for a protest for not-payment need not be used against the party personally, or at his dwelling-place, but only at the place of payment.

* Marquardus, lib. 3. cap. 8. n. 5. Neostad. suprem. cur. Holl. Zealand. &c. Dec. 12. Du Puy, cap. 16. n. 1. Voet in Pand. lib. 22. tit. 2. n. 9. Resp. Jurific. Holland. part. 3. vol. 2. conf. 33.

† Nov. 4. Authentic, presente C. de fidejussor.

‡ Stair's Instit. lib. 1. tit. 11. sect. 7.

§ December 9, 1712, Gordon contra Anderson.

¶ July 25, 1669, Robert Yule contra Richardson.

‡ ——— 1697, John Inglis and James Fowlis against Mackie of Palgown.

The possessor of a bill payable at a certain day, having signified the draught, by a letter to the person drawn upon, desiring to know whether he would accept; and received answer, acknowledging he had effects of the drawer's, that he should be careful to have them applied towards the payment of his debts, but was resolved to clear off, first, such as he himself stood engaged for; and hoping the possessor would be discreet, and not protest the bill, for he expected sufficient effects from the drawer, at such a day. When the bill fell due, it was protested for not-payment, against the writer of the letter, as if the letter had been equivalent to an acceptance, and horning raised thereon. But the lords found the bill so protested to be no ground of a summary charge, and turned the same into a libel*.

* July 12, 1699, William Maxwell against captain M^cKay.

Correi debendi, by the common law, are not bound in solidum, unless the obligation express it so*; because, in dubiis potior est conditio debitoris. And the custom of Scotland finds ordinarily co principal debtors, that are expressly bound, conjunctly and severally, to be liable only pro rata, unless the matter of the obligation be an individual fact, or something not to be done. And in bills of exchange drawn upon two or more persons conjunctly, not being in society, every one may accept for his own part †. But then bills drawn upon two, without expressing conjunctly and severally, or any words equivalent, and simply accepted by one of them, were found to make him liable for whole sum ‡. Whence it may be inferred, that, when one or more persons drawn upon would only oblige himself pro rata, he must not accept simply; but qualificate, for his own part. Acceptance of a bill by one of two co-partners obliges the other: but a commission granted jointly by two merchants, for sending home wines upon their account, with a promise to make payment of the bills that should be drawn for the price; and the wines accordingly sent and delivered to one of them, to whom the bills, though drawn upon both, were only presented, and by him accepted: which being thereafter protested for not-payment, and the other party, granter of the joint commission, pursued for them: he was absolved upon this ground, that he received no part of the wine, and the bills were never presented to him, or accepted by him, nor the drawing thereof so much as intimated to him by advice from the drawer, or his factor: but, on the contrary, the pursuer took a new security from the acceptor, long after they were protested, without offering to pursue the defender, before the other was broken and gone off †.

* L. 11. §. 2. ff. de duob. reis conf. L. 47. ff. locati condudi.

† Scarlet, cap. 10. R. 30.

‡ January 25, 1675, M^cMorland contra Maxwell.

‡ March 24, 1685, Stewart contra William Blackwood.

That letters of horning upon a simple charge of six days, and other executorial necessary, may pass thereupon.

All hornings* on registrate bonds † and decreets ‡ in Scotland, not bearing days, but in form as effects, must be upon fifteen days, and pass by way of bill, as the warrant thereof. But seeing it is necessary for the flourishing of trade that bills of exchange be duly paid, and have ready execution, conform

to the customs of other countries; horning on these is issued out on six days charge.

* Which are warrants, in the king's name, to charge persons to pay debts, or perform deeds, within a prefixed time, upon pain of being declared outlaw by three blasts of a messenger's horn, in case of disobedience.

† Bonds, or obligations of record:

‡ i. e. decrees, or sentences of court.

By other executorial necessary, we understand the other ordinary diligence required by the laws of Scotland; for compelling a man to pay his debt; such as caption, or execution of the body, whereby his person is seized, and put under restraint; arrestment, and pouding*; for effecting his moveables; inhibition †, comprising ‡, and adjudication †, for affecting or evicting his heritage.

* i. e. distraining or distress.

† i. e. a prohibition by letters in the king's name, in favour of a creditor, discharging his debtor to sell, dispose of, or any way burden his lands or hereditaments, and all other persons to bargain with him, to the prejudice of the creditor's claim; 'till the same be satisfied.

‡ Or appraising, is a decree, or sentence, of a messenger at arms, adjudging a person's lands and hereditaments to belong to his creditors in payment of debt; but recoverable, by satisfying the debt within a certain term of years, called the legal reversion: upon expiring of which legal reversion; before all is paid, the subject appraised becomes absolutely the creditor's, who is called the appraiser.

§ Adjudication (which is now instead of appraising) is a decree, or sentence, of the lords of session, of the same nature, and having the like effect; as an appraising.

Merchants enjoy many personal privileges in several other countries, which they are abridged of in Scotland. As they cannot be arrested, or made prisoners upon the publick exchange; nor can their persons and goods be seized on at solemn fairs, for debts elsewhere contracted. In Sweden, Norway, France, Spain, and Portugal, the merchants of Hans-Towns; in Denmark and Muscovy, the merchants of Lubeck; and in Prussia, all the merchants of Germany have the publick faith for their safety from arrestments upon the road.

By the municipal statutes of some places, as Milan, there is a tacit hypothetic competent for bills of exchange*: that is, law gives, to the creditor in a bill, a real security upon the goods of the debtor, for the payment thereof, without express paction. But even express hypothecations of goods, without delivery, are ineffectual by the customs of Scotland; and by it few tacit hypothetics allowed, whereof none are for bills of exchange: for ordinarily we prefer parties according to the priority of their legal diligence, that commerce may be the more sure, and less retarded, by not obliging them to too nice an inquiry about the condition of such as they contract with.

* Du Puy, cap. 17. n. 6. Nic. a Genua de script. privata de la cam. l. 2. n. 7.

Though the possessor of a bill be not bound to seek for payment at any other place than where the same is payable*, yet he may, in case of not-payment, proceed in diligence against the acceptor, or his goods, wherever he can find them †; not only for the principal sum, but also for damage and interest ‡.

* L. 9. ff. de eo quod certo loco. Scaccia, §. 2. Gloss. 5. n. 194, 210.

† L. 1. ff. de eo quod certo loco. L. 19. §. 1. ff. de judiciis.

‡ L. 2. ff. de eo quod certo loco. Scaccia, ibid. n. 213.

For the whole sums contained in the bill, as well exchange as principal, &c. The instrument of protest, as being juris gentium, bears ordinarily the principal sum, exchange, re-exchange, damage, interest, and expence*. But we can only charge for the principal, and exchange, if contained in the bill; annualrent, from the date thereof, in case of not-acceptance, and from thence it falls due in case of acceptance and not-payment: re-exchange, damage, and interest, not being liquid debts. Yet, though the sums charged for be satisfied, the possessor is not bound to discharge the debt, and give up the diligence, but only the principal bills, with a discharge thereof, reserving the diligence for an instruction of his claim in an ordinary action for exchange, when not in the bill, re-exchange, damage, and interest. The reason why the principal bill must be returned, upon payment of the sums therein mentioned, with the annualrent, is, because if the bill were kept up, and only a separate receipt of the money given, what should hinder the bill to be afterwards indorsed to another, for value received? against whom the indorser's receipt apart would not avail the debtor, since bills of exchange are as fungible as money, and pass from hand to hand sine onere, and affected with no separate obligations of the author. Therefore, if the possessor of a bill shall refuse to deliver up the same, upon an offer of the sums charged for; that would be to the debtor a good ground of suspension, and exoneration from expences of plea.

* Scarlet, cap. 11. R. 4. cap. 17. R. 13.

The exchange is sometimes given to the drawer, sometimes to the remitter, and then it is contained in the bill. Exchange should be determined conformable to the course, at the place where the bill is drawn, to the place of payment; but how the course is regulated is a more difficult question? Some have compared the rising and falling of exchange to the ebbing and flowing of the sea. [See the article BALANCE of trade for the general causes of the rise and fall of exchange.] Besides what is there said, exchange may be observed to depend also upon the present rate of coin, in the place the bill is directed to, and the plenty or scarcity of money or bills from whence they are drawn. Plenty of money, and scarcity of bills, raises the exchange; and plenty of the latter, and scarcity of the former, lowers the same. When ships come in plenty to carry off the product of a country, that is a season when money is easier to be had than bills, and consequently the exchange riseth there; and, when that demand ceaseth, bills are more plentiful, and easier to be had than money, and consequently the exchange falls.

The many different sorts of money, current at Frankfort, occasions a great variety in the prices of exchange there. King Edward III of England, as mentioned at the beginning of this article, for determining the course of exchange, in the infancy of foreign trade, caused tables to be set up in most of the general marts and ports of the kingdom, &c. But parties now in most countries are left to agree among themselves, as they best can, without any legal check, provided they keep free from dolo, and tricks of circumvention. And this is partly the reason why the value of exchange is so variable in rising and falling every week. This latitude in exchange may be thus justified: 1. Every thing is worth so much as it may be sold for, to him that knows the quality thereof. 2. We may lawfully inhance, or lower, the price of any thing (where there is no express law to the contrary) according to the quality of the person with whom we have to do: and, therefore, the taking of more in name of exchange from one than from another, is justifiable, because a great risque may be run in trusting him who pays the higher exchange, as not being so sufficient a person, nor of so unquestionable credit, as the man who is dealt with upon easier terms. Provided always, that, if the said protests be not duly registrate within six months, the said bill and protests are not to have summary execution, but only to be pursued by way of ordinary action.]

There are instances not a few in the laws of Scotland, of privileges indulged to such as use diligence upon recent deeds, or obligations, which are denied to those who suffer things to lie long over unquestioned: as the oath in litem to the pursuer of a spulzie * within three years; the preferable diligence of the defunct's creditors to the creditors of the apparent heir, completed within the like space; and the benefit of summary execution competent to the possessor of a bill, duly protested, and registrate within six months; besides many others I could instance. Which prescription of six months doth run against minors, as well as others, for those reasons.

* i. e. an action for spoliation of goods.

If an accepted bill, be lost, the possessor has not the benefit of summary diligence, but can only pursue by way of an ordinary action; because a protest for not-payment cannot be made but upon the accepted bill *.

* Scarlet, cap. 40. R. 14.

The sums in all bills of exchange bear annualrent, in case of not-acceptance, from the date thereof; and in case of acceptance and not-payment, from the day of their falling due, and while the payment thereof.]

Though the taking of annualrent be lawful in Scotland, and the quantity thereof established by act of parliament; yet, in particular cases, it is only due ex pacto, when parties oblige themselves for it; or ex lege, when custom or statute appoints it, as here in foreign bills of exchange.

By the laws in other countries, annualrent is only due for protested bills *; which is agreeable to the laws of England, where inland bills being protested, the party from whom they were received is liable to repay the same, with interest and charges from the date of protesting †.

* Edit. de Commerce 1673, tit. 6. art. 7. Du Puy, cap. 15. n. 3. † 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17. §. 2.

The creditors of an unexcepted bill can have no recourse against the drawer or indorser, even for the net sum therein, and far less for annualrent, till once it be protested for not-acceptance: consequently, no annualrent should be claimed for bills, although accepted, if not protested for not-payment: but yet the acceptor of a bill that was never protested, was found liable for annualrent from the term of payment, in regard the clause concerning annualrent is couched in the general term of all bills *.

* 20 Feb 1700, William Clapton and George Watfon against Baillie McIntosh.

However, the lords did afterwards, in another case *, find annualrent not due for the sum in an accepted bill for the term of payment, in regard the bill was never protested for

not payment; which is both more agreeable to the merchant-law and custom of other places, and to the analogy of their own decisions: for, if the indorsee of an accepted bill, not protested against the acceptor, nor diligence used to obtain payment for the space of five years, be duly considered as a common assignee †, whereby he loseth the ordinary privileges of exemption from compensation, or arrestment for the indorser's debt; it seems no less reasonable, that the neglect of protesting should exclude from the benefit of annualrent.

* 15 July 1713, Watfon and executors of Wilfon contra Gordon. † 18 Feb. 1715, Deuchar contra Grierfon.

The French edit. de commerce, 1673 *, ordains annualrent for the principal sum and exchange, from the day of the protest; and for re-exchange, from the commencement of a process. But the Scotch act provides only annualrent for the principal sum, and for exchange, when contained in the bill: which is inferred from these words, The sums in all bills of exchange bear annualrent, &c.

* Tit. 6. art. 7.

Yet it is lease to the party charger to pursue for the exchange, if not contained in the said bills, with re-exchange, damage, interest, and all expence, before the ordinary judge, &c.] Exchange is not contained in the bill, when the profit of it is given to the drawer, in consideration of his furnishing the remitter's occasions with such a sum elsewhere, as in all bills drawn in Edinburgh upon London. and ordinarily it is then contained in the bill expressly, when payable in a coin not current at the place of payment; or when the deliverer gets the exchange, as a premium for advancing ready money, to supply the drawer's exigencies. and accepting his bills payable some time after, and, perhaps, in another place, when and where the drawer may more conveniently command the money, as when bills are drawn at London upon Edinburgh. The reason why exchange not contained in the bill, with re-exchange, damage, interest, and expence, can only be pursued via ordinaria, and not summarily, is, because they are liquidated debts, and therefore want to be constitute by a decret, or sentence, of a judge.

It is the natural consequence of an obligation, to wrong and prejudice no body, either by failing in the performance, or by acting contrary to it; and that damage, of whatever nature, must be repaired by him that occasioned it. By damage and interest is understood a real diminishing a man's substance, or obstructing some expected profit. The former may be easily valued, the latter not. Yet this loss ob locrum cessans in infinitum non est producendum, sed primum tantum peti potest *, si mercator probat si debitam pecuniam persolvissit dicta die, certe lucratus esset decem, audiatur; verum si dicat ex illis pecuniis merces comparasset, lucratusque esset, non audiatur †. And the possessor of a bill cannot plead upon damage sustained in the disappointment of his designs, as the loss of some profitable opportunity through the not payment.

* L. im. C. de sentent. quæ pro eo quod interest prof. l. 21. §. 3. ff. de act. empti.

† Straccha de mercatura, part 4. Tit. de contract. merc. n. 4. Scarlet, cap. 21. r. 10.

The points to be considered about damage and interest are, 1. If there be any due, and wherein it consists? 2. What estimate ought to be set upon it? For clearing the first, the quality and circumstances of the matter of fact inferring damage; what were the immediate and remote consequences, and how far the party charged therewith dipped, or had a hand in it, must be examined into. These are the lights a prudent judge should walk by, in judging matters of damage and interest.

Re-exchange is an ordinary article of damages for a protested bill, which was first claimed by the Florentine exiles. But many labour under a gross mistake about the nature of it, as if exchange and re-exchange were double exchange. When the possessor of a bill not paid, protests, and takes up so much money by exchange, at the place where it should have been paid; the exchange for this is commonly higher than what was given for the protested bill, in consideration of the ready money advanced; whereas, in the first case, he gave in his money upon receiving the bill. What adds between the exchange of the draught, and re-draught, is what is properly called re-exchange.

According to the French edict of commerce 1673, there is no pretence for re-exchange, unless when it is made appear, by an instrument, that the possessor of the protested bill took up money by exchange, at the place where it should have been paid: but only for restitution of exchange, with annualrent, and charges of protesting *. For this money taken up by exchange, to supply the want of that for which the bill was protested, the disappointed party may either redraw upon the first drawer †, or upon either of the indorsers, if the bill was

* Edit. de commerce 1673. tit. 6. art. 4.

† Du Puy, cap. 15. n. 4. Scarlet, cap. 30. r. 2. cap. 19. r. 3.

negotiated in several places †, or upon the place where he was to be before he returned home, or upon any other part, when there is no certain trade between the place of the second draught and those where the protested bill was drawn and indorsed; if so be, he the re-drawer timeously advertise the parties concerned §. And his oath is sufficiently probative, as to his design with the bill, though taxable, if it appear exorbitant, as other oaths in item ¶.

† Ibidem. Du Puy, *ibid.* n. 9. Stair *Inft.* lib. 1. tit. 11. §. 7.
§ Du Puy, *ibid.* n. 5, 10, 6. Scaccia, §. 1. quæst. 7. part. 2. amp. 8. n. 250.
¶ Stair, *ibid.*

But then the drawer of the first bill in either of these cases is no farther obliged for re-exchange, than at the course (the time of protesting) for bills at sight, from the designed place of payment to that where the bill was drawn*: which gave occasion to the foreign custom of subjoining to protests a certificate from two brokers, concerning the present value of exchange between those places †.

* Edit. de commerce 1673, tit. 1. art. 5. Du Puy, *ibid.* n. 20. Scarlet, cap. 20. r. 7, 8.
† Du Puy, *ibid.* 26.

In like manner, the indorsers are only liable in the course of re-exchange, to the place where they indorsed the bill*. The reason of all this is plain, because there being nothing treated on between the drawer and remitter, but exchange from whence the bill was drawn, to the place of payment, the re-exchange must only be understood from thence, back again to the place of the draught, without respect to emergent and unthought-of negotiations: nor was there any other thing under consideration, between the indorsers and the person to whom they indorsed the bill, but exchange from the respective places where each of them did negotiate the same.

* Edit. de commerce 1673. Du Puy, *ibid.* Scarlet, *ibid.*

But if, by the drawer's order and express allowance, the bill was indorsed in some particular places, he will be accountable for re-exchange to those parts, or to any place, wherever it was indorsed, if he gave indefinite powers to negotiate*. However, though, as before observed, the drawer, in some cases, be subject to the re-exchange, without a necessity upon the possessor of re-drawing directly on him; since, if it were otherwise, re-exchange would only take place when the creditor has occasion to employ his money there, from whence the protested bill came; which seldom occurs in so short a time. Yet the acceptor of bills, having, after they were protested, and a charge given him, made partial payment of the principal sum, and offered the remainder by way of instrument, was found liable only for that part of the principal that was unpaid, with the interest thereof, 'till the time the offer was made, and not for re-exchange: in respect the possessor had not re-drawn for his money upon the first drawer †. But, after all, this act of parliament makes no mention of re-drawing, as a requitum to infer re-exchange, which it seems to allow after a due protest.

* Edit. de commerce 1673. art. 6.
† So it was decided in the case of William Boick contra Blackwood.

The drawer will be obliged for the sums contained in the bills, with annualrent, exchange, re-exchange; and charges, although he received no value, but followed the remitter's faith for it, who hath not paid him: if the possessor paid value to his author*. But, if a bill chance to be unfatisfied, through some accident, which the drawer could not foresee, nor prevent; this will be to him a ground of indemnity for damages: in like manner the protesting for not-payment of an accepted bill, at the acceptor's mortuary house, where he died, was sustained to afford action to the creditor in the bill, for the single value, against both the drawer, and the successors of him on whom it was drawn: but not for exchange or re-exchange given against the drawer; because it was not thought any fault, or voluntary failure, but an accident of death intervening, that the bill came to be protested †.

* Scarlet, cap. 42. r. 2, 4.
† July 8, 1664, Kennedy contra Hutcheson.

The protesting for not-payment of a bill, by the possessor's nearest of kin, or executor nominate (as hath been done) with a design to save and keep intire the recourse against the drawer, is a most unwarrantable action; for, besides that it cannot infer exchange, re-exchange, and damages; seeing the debtor ought never to be considered as in mora, 'till once an active title is made to the bill: Molloy* affirms, that a protest for not-payment ought not to pass in such a case, no person having right to make it; and, if any notary should protest, an action might lie against him, at the instance of the party receiving prejudice thereby.

* L. 2. cap. 10. n. 34.

Or in case of suspension to eike the same to the charge, at the discussing of the said suspension, to the effect that the same may be liquidate, and decreet given therefore.]

Suspension* is a stopping of execution either for a time, or for ever, upon reasons instantly verified by writ, or oath of party, unless they consist in fact, and are probable by necessities, or be founded upon another man's writ, as when sureties suspend upon discharges granted to the principal debtor.

* Which is something in the nature of an injunction in the law of England.

By an act of parliament dated 17 July, 1695, no suspension can pass of any charge of sums lent by, or to, the bank, but upon discharge, or consignation, of the sums charged for. When reasons are insisted on besides those in the bill, they are called, in Scotland, eiked, or added reasons. This eiking of reasons is allowed, because that suspenders are obliged instantly to verify. Though summary execution be not competent for exchange not contained in the bill, re-exchange, damage, &c. those not being liquid or ascertained debts; yet, in the case of suspension, they may be warrantably added to the charge; seeing they can then be conveniently liquidated, and constituted in the decreet, finding the letters orderly proceeded. And* frustra fit per plura, &c. But, the possessor of a bill not having re-drawn upon the drawer, an additional charge of re-exchange, damage, and interest, was not sustained against the acceptor †. When diligence upon bill of exchange is suspended, all preceding expences may be eiked to the charge. And if, at discussing of the suspension, the same be found calumnious, the lords will also decreet the additional charges of plea, according to a particular account thereof given upon oath by the charger ‡; but not where there is a probabilis causa litigandi: so expences are refused in a suspension, raised by the acceptor of a bill, on a ground of compensation for the indorser's debts; although the compensation was over-ruled, and the latter founded orderly proceeded ¶.

* Which sentence is given, if the suspension appear to the lords at advising to be groundless.
† In the case of Boick contra Blackwood.
‡ W. par. 1. sess. 6. c. 22.
¶ 31 January, 1699, Stewart against Campbell.

I shall here briefly touch upon the common reasons and exceptions against bills, whereof some are only competent to be proponed in a suit of review, such as the exceptions of fraud, or force*, and the exceptions of bankrupt † though it was found that a declarator of bankrupt against the drawer of a bill, at the instance of his creditor, an arrester upon the act 1696, might be received incidently in a multiple pouding ‡. between him and the possessor of the bill ¶. Other reasons there be against bills, which are proper by way of suspension and exception.

* Stair *Inft.* lib. 4. tit. 46 §. 38.
† 24 Feb. 1700, William Wightman against Cuthbertson.
‡ An action setting forth that the plaintiff is subject to manifold distress, at the instance of different persons claiming right to the same debt, and praying that the judge may find him liable only in once and single payment.
¶ 2 Feb. 1700, Norman Durward against William Struchers.

The strongest reason of suspension is payment, or it's equivalent compensation, which is debiti et crediti contributio*, a mutual payment, although an omission in the possessor of a bill to procure the same accepted, and paid in due manner, or to protest for not-acceptance, or not-payment, will cut off his relief against the drawer; if the time of the mora, the person drawn upon did break with the drawer's effects; yet payment of a bill is not to be presumed †.

* L. 1. ff. de compens. a reckoning between creditor and debtor of what is due to each other; or when something therefore ceases to be due, because the creditor owes to the debtor a thing of the same kind and value.
† Arg. l. ult. C. de solution.

Neither was action sustained upon such a presumption, to the creditors of one who had accepted bills, for repetition against the drawer; although he had framed and remitted an account to the acceptor, wherein he gave him credit for these bills, and made himself debtor: no instruction that they were paid by the acceptor being produced; and it being ordinary among merchants to credit one's account for bills drawn on him, upon supposition that they will be paid*. Therefore, in a new suit, at the acceptor's own instance, for payment of the aforesaid fitted account, the drawer was allowed deduction of the fore-said bills, giving credit for the same, in regard they were returned on him protested †. Again, a bill with a receipt of the contents thereof, written and subscribed by the creditor therein, found among his papers after his death, was not held sufficient to exoner the debtor, in respect that law presumed, that the receipt was written spe numerandæ pecuniæ, and that payment was never made, seeing the bill with the receipt was undelivered ‡. Payment to the creditor of a bill afterwards indorsed to another, was not found relevant ¶ for the debtor's

* March 1686, Watson against John Drummond of Newtoun.
† Jackson cont a eudem.
‡ 16 July, 1709, Cochran contra Pringle.
¶ i. e. was agreed not to be a good plea.

liberation, though he was ignorant of the indorsement: because he declined to give his oath of calumny, that he had ground to say, the present possessor knew of the payment made to the indorser, when the bill was indorsed to him §.

§ February 5, 1702, Van Muin and Allan against Wood.

Neither will a receipt of the money from the creditor, not being upon the bill, but in a paper apart, defend the payer against a new possessor. But partial payments marked upon the foot of an accepted bill of exchange, and a balance stated, as due in figures, offered to be proved to be the deceased creditor's hand-writing, was sustained in a process at the instance of his heirs, to absolve the acceptor, except as to the said balance; in respect, he offered to prove by witnesses, that payments were truly made conform to the said account, and the bill was still in the custody of the pursuer*.

* 9 Feb. 1709. Watson of Muirhouse contra Smith.

To avoid the troublesome circle of making mutual payments, by such as are debtor and creditor to one another, compensation is found necessary: it being more one's interest to retain in his own hands, than to pay and seek back again. Compensation is ordinarily relevant, or a good plea, with us, against an assignee upon a liquid debt due by his cedent, before intimation of the assignation*, conform to that principle in law, none can be in a better condition than the author, from whom his right flows †. Yet in bills of exchange, our law sustains not compensation against the possessor of a bill, upon a debt of the indorser's prior to the indorsement, not even in inland bills ‡. So compensation against an inland bill accepted by two co-partners, upon a liquid debt due by the indorser to one of the joint acceptors, prior to the indorsement, proposed by the other acceptor and co-partner, was repelled; although the ground of compensation, founded on, did consist with the possessor's knowledge, and was received by him upon the indorser's order. The reason is, because indorsements use neither to bear dates, nor need intimations like other assignations; and, for the benefit of commerce, carry right to the sums in the bill sine onere, as if so much money had been delivered in a bag to the indorsee.

* March 16, 1639. Forfyth contra Coupland, January 22, 1663. Wallace contra Edgar.

† L. 175. §. 1. ff. de Reg. Jur.

‡ 31 Jan. 1699. John Stewart against Alexander Campbell.

When we say, that compensation is not to be obtruded to the possessor, upon the indorser's debt; it is to be understood with this common exception, unless the debtor prove by the creditor's oath, that the bill, pursued for, is for the indorser's behoof. And so it was found relevant for the acceptor of a bill of exchange, to prove by the possessor's oath, that the indorsement, in their favour, was but a trust: and, by the oath of the indorser, that he was satisfied for the sum contained in the bill, by the drawer. But he the indorser being in France, and we in statu belli with that kingdom; the lords refused to grant commission for taking his oath there, but only to be executed within the dominions of any of our sovereign's allies*. Yet they stopped circumduction of the term for not reporting of the commission during the war; without prejudice to the acceptor to take the benefit thereof, if in the mean time the indorser happened to die †.—Again, the indorser of a bill, pursued by action of recourse, was allowed to prove payment by oath of the possessor's cedent, although the plaintiff was an assignee for an onerous cause. Because he knew that the sum contained in the bill was rendered litigious by process betwixt the cedent and the defender, before the assignation ‡. 'Tis true, the acceptor proving by the oath of the creditor in the bill, that the same is for the drawer or indorser's behoof, may compensate upon debts due to him by that person: but yet a creditor of the drawer of a bill, having arrested in the acceptor's hands, and proved by the possessor's oath, that the bill was only payable to him for the drawer's behoof, was found to have good right to the sum in the bill, without being obliged to stand to that oath, when made use of by the acceptor, for proving that the drawer and acceptor were upon the matter one person; and, consequently, that all his pleas were entire to him against the arrester, as against the drawer ||.

* Nov. 18, 1701. Daniel Arthur and Patrick Coutts against Patrick Cockburn.

† June 25, 1703. inter eosdem.

‡ 29 January 1708. Fulton contra Johnston.

|| In the case of Robert Cowan against Robert Douglas.

When compensation is founded upon a debt due by the creditor in the bill, it must be such whereof the term of payment is come*. And, if payable in another place, he is to be considered for the loss he has, by not being permitted to discharge at the place of payment; and must have allowance, in the compensation, of so much as is usually given for remitting money to that port †.

* L. 7. Pr. ff. de Comp.

† L. 15. eodem les loix civiles, &c. Tom. II. lib. 4. tit. 2. sect. 2. art. 8.

As no debt of the indorser of a bill can be a ground of compensation against the possessor; so, for the same reason, nei-

ther do the indorsers separate receipts of partial payment militate against him the possessor*. Upon the same topic, declarations apart were thought not sufficient to stop the currency of bills †. But indorsement of bills, not for value given at the time, but in security of bygone debt, less than the sum in the bill, and what expences should happen to be disbursed in recovering payment, was excluded by an anterior separate general discharge granted to the acceptor ‡.

* December 12, 1711. Erskine contra Thompson.

† January 18, 1700. Whitman contra Johnston.

‡ Jan. 15, 1708. Crawford contra Piper.

Very commonly bills are suspended upon a reason of multiple pointing*, as when the debtor is, or may be, sued by different pretenders; to the end they may dispute their preference, that he may be liable, in once and single payment, to the party who shall be found to have best right. And he, the suspender, gets ordinarily allowance for his expences; but not till the conclusion of the cause, and the preference be discussed §. But yet there is not so much ground for competition in the matter of bills, as upon other rights; which, according to the custom of Scotland, are more variously affectable by diligence.

* i. e. manifold distresses.

§ December 12, 1702, George Wood against the creditors of Wightman.

The competition in bills runs ordinarily, either between assignees by indorsement, or betwixt arresters, or betwixt assignees and arresters. In a competition of different persons, to whom the first and second bill are indorsed; he will be preferred that procured the first acceptance, whether upon the first or second bill, although last indorsed*; as being master of the first complete right. In a debate betwixt two arresters, an arrestment, by virtue of letters of horning upon a protested bill, was preferred to intervening arrestments upon depending actions †.

* Scarlet, cap. 42. r. 36.

† ————1697, John Inglis and James Foulis, against Mackie of Palgown.

In ordinary competitions betwixt assignees and arresters, the preference is ruled by the priority of the intimation or arrestment, though it be but the difference of three hours*; but indorsements of bills of exchange are transmitted, without notice to the debtor, and seldom dated: therefore an indorsement was preferred to a posterior arrestment laid on for the indorser's debt, before intimation of the possessor's right to the acceptor ‡. For commerce-sake, the possessor of a bill indorsed for value received, should be preferred to prior arrestments, at the instance of the indorser's creditors. Bills not being arrestable, more than they are compensable, for the indorser's debt; therefore the possessor of a bill to whom it was indorsed for value, was preferred to the indorser's creditor, who had arrested the money in the acceptor's hand before indorsement; it not being alledged, that the indorsee knew of the arrestment, when the bill was indorsed to him §. It may seem proper here, once for all, to observe, that although bills of exchange are, regulariter, neither compensable nor arrestable for any indorser's debt, and his separate receipts of payment, not extant upon the bills, cannot militate against the present possessors for value; yet bills, as well as other obligations, are affectable by compensation, or arrestment, for the present possessor's debt, or by his separate receipts, and liable to any other legal exception, founded upon his own deed: which doth not in the least infringe upon the faith and free security of commerce, but only obligeth dealers in exchange to act justly towards those they have to do with.

* Stair Infit. lib. 4. tit. 35. §. 7.

† July 12, 1698, John Erwin Geils and Robert Innes.

§ December 5, 1712, Hume contra Smith.

'Tis true, Sir George Mackenzie, in his observations*, doth suggest, as a reason for denying compensation upon the possessor's own debt, that bills, being in effect bags of money in the construction of law, are a kind of depositum, against which compensation doth not lie. But this is of no weight, seeing bills are not compared to money-bags in the hands of the designed acceptor, or debtor liable in payment, who only could be understood the depositary; but resemble ready money in the hands of the possessor, in so far as bills do, alike freely as money, pass from one possessor to another, without any latent embargo upon them, arising from the debts or deeds of his author, as if they had been originally payable to himself. Nay, a bill, payable to a society, may, while it stands in their persons, be arrested or compensated for the private debt of any member of the society, in so far as extends to his proportion and interest in the stock of the society, which is a tacit withdrawing thereof. So a particular share of principal and interest of the capital stock of the African company in Scotland, was found arrestable, at the instance of the proprietor's creditor, in order to oblige the directors of the company to transfer the same in the ordinary way in favour of the arrester †.

* On the act 20 Parl. Ch. II.

† March 18, 1707, Alison contra Directors of the African company.

It may frequently fall out, that a person, being abroad, accepts of bills drawn by his creditor, presented to him personally, while in the mean time there is an arrestment, unknown to the acceptor, laid on at his house by the drawer's creditor. In such case, the acceptor of the bill should be liable both to the arrester in the forth-coming*, if the arrestment be used before acceptance of the bill, and to the possessor of the bill, provided he have it for an onerous cause. The reasons are, 1. There is no doubt but an arrestment is such a legal imbargo upon the effects arrested, as they cannot be converted to any other use than the arrester's payment. Nor should the acceptor's ignorance prejudice another's preferable diligence. 2dly, The possessor of the bill may justly pretend, that the acceptor must implement his acceptance, against which he can never be heard to alledge, that it was upon supposition of his having such effects to answer, which, without his knowledge, are carried away by an arrester's diligence. For he might have accepted the bill without effects; neither was the possessor bound to know whether he had effects or not. And the possessor being hindered, through the bill's being accepted, from immediate recourse against the drawer, who may break in the interval; therefore the acceptor, in the foresaid case seems only to have the drawer, to seek for his relief.

* i. e. in the suit for making the subject arrested effectual.

A creditor of the drawer of a bill as per advice, having arrested in the hands of the possessor and acceptor, and the possessor having deponed in the forth-coming, that the bill was only payable to him for the drawer's account; the acceptor, who had none of the drawer's effects, was decreed to make the sum in the bill forth-coming*; although the drawer, or his trustee, the possessor, could never have compelled the acceptor to pay, without instructing aliunde some ground of debt: and, though the arrester made use of the possessor's oath against the acceptor, he, the acceptor, was not allowed the benefit of the same oath, to prove, that the bill was payable for the drawer's behoof, and that there was no advice in the case. Advice for the creditor in a bill to him it was payable to under trust, ordering the application of a part of the money towards the satisfaction of a debt due to a third person, not being intimated to him; the property of that money, notwithstanding the advice, remains with him who sent it, arrestable by his creditors †. Nor was the protesting of a bill of exchange found sufficient to intitle the possessor to effects remitted afterwards by the drawer, to the person drawn upon, and arrested by the drawer's creditors; although the receiver of the money had advice from the drawer, to make payment to him. And it was found, that the property of the money was not transmitted from the drawer by the letter of advice, but remained his, and affectable by his creditors, the arresters who were therefore preferred §. But one would think, that, had there been effects of the drawer's in the hands of him on whom he drew, at the time of the protest for not-acceptance: no posterior arrestment could have excluded the possessor of the bill his right to these effects. For then he could have pursued the person drawn upon for payment, notwithstanding he did not accept. A person having got a precept, by way of missive letter, upon his debtor's debtor, containing an assignation to his bond; and having both protested the precept for not-acceptance, and intimated the same as an assignation; was preferred to a posterior arrester, although the protest wanted witnesses subscribing thereto, the intimation having witnesses; although there had been a former intimation produced by him without witnesses, and that it was alledged by the arrester, that *litte pendente nihil est novandum* ||. For no man, by producing a null title, can be excluded from founding afterwards upon one more valid and formal.

* Cowman against Douglas.

† January 10, 1706, Lord Rofs contra Gray of Newtown.

§ 1697, Inglis and Fowlis against Mackie of Palgown.

|| July 23, 1703, William Blackwood against Charles Miln and Sir Robert Anstruther.

Because, in competitions betwixt arresters and assignees, the question is frequently tabled, whether bills of exchange be comprehended in the act of parliament 1696, about bankrupts? Whereby all voluntary deeds by one under horning, found by decret of the lords to be insolvent, and also to be either imprisoned, or retired to the abbey, and other privileged place, or fled or absconded, or to defend his person by force, made at, or after, or in the space of sixty days before his becoming so, in favour of any of his creditors, either in satisfaction, or for security, are declared null. Which point is necessary to be cleared. It may be alledged, that bills of exchange are not accepted in the act, which is general against all voluntary deeds, made by a bankrupt in favour of any of his creditors, to the prejudice of others; so that even voluntary payment, by such a partial preference, would be ineffectual, and liable to be litigated; and, by parity of reason, bills of exchange. 2dly, If an exception were allowed, as to bills, then bankrupts would make all their conveyances by bills, and so elude the act of parliament. But, on the other hand, it may be pleaded, that bills cannot be brought under that act,

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and are none of those deeds which a bankrupt may not do within sixty days of his breaking. 1. Although bills are not expressly therein excepted, it is not to be imagined, that ever the parliament designed they should be comprehended: since they pass from hand to hand in payments, as bags of money; and are neither arrestable nor compenabile. 2. There is a wide difference betwixt an assignation to a sum, and a bill: for he that takes an assignation, knows that the person whose debt is assigned, is debtor to the cedent; but the receiver of a bill is not bound to enquire, whether the person on whom the same is drawn, be debtor to the drawer, or not, it being sufficient for him to procure acceptance. For what is more ordinary, than the accepting of bills of honour of the drawer or indorsers, to whom the acceptor owes nothing? 3dly, It were in vain to pretend, that the accepting of bills from the statute would make it elusory: for all fraudulent conveyances by bills, or otherwise, are still reducible; and bills drawn by country gentlemen, or others who are not in use to trade, would be more liable to the suspicion of a fraudulent design, than such as are drawn by merchants in the ordinary course of their trade. And, to bring the drawing or indorsing of bills within the compass of the act of parliament, were to destroy the security of merchants, interrupt commerce, and occasion great confusion. For a bankrupt may give a bill to his creditor, for payment of an anterior debt, which comes to be accepted, and thereafter indorsed, perhaps, to two or three more for value received; would it not be a hardship to annul this bill, because the drawer within sixty days of the date proves insolvent? This point is now cleared by several decisions. A precept or inland bill granted to a creditor, in satisfaction or security of his debt by the common debtor, when he was under diligence of horning and caption, and insolvent and retired, fled, or absconded in the terms of the act of parliament, was found reducible at another creditor's instance*. The act of parliament, 1696, was found to take place upon a bankrupt's indorsement of an accepted bill of exchange, still in the person of the indorsee, litigated by the acceptor, who was the indorser's creditor, if he the acceptor proved, that the bill was indorsed for satisfaction or security of a prior debt, and not for present value received §: for it had been unreasonable to oblige the creditor in the bill to prove, that he gave present value for it; seeing the paying value for bills (which may be either in goods, money, or bank-notes, or another bill given to the drawer or indorser, upon some other place, where he has occasion for money) is a transaction that cannot be easily proved, the presence of witnesses not being required to the subscribing of bills. But a bill of exchange drawn or indorsed by a bankrupt, payable to a conjunct person, his own brother-in-law, was found to fall under the foresaid act of parliament, unless it were made appear, that value was given for it at the time of the drawing or indorsing ||: where deceitful collusion, to the prejudice of the creditor, being presumed in law, betwixt persons so near allied by blood, it was no hardship to burden the receiver of the bill, with proving immediate delivery of the value. The reason of that quality in the decision, unless value was immediately given for the bills, is, because a bill drawn by a bankrupt, within the foresaid space of sixty days, for value delivered at the time, is good, and ought not to be disputed: seeing, over and above that, it is not a preferring one creditor to another, which the act only provides against; whatever privileges merchants may have, as to their bargains *ex incontinenti*, in the course of their trade, that it may not be retarded; yet, when they come to take security for bygone debts, that must be done according to the common law.

* February 15, 1698, Charles Gray against Andrew Melvil and Harry Baird.

§ January 16, 1713, Campbell of Glandervel, contra Graham of Gorthie.

|| February 2, 1700, Durward contra Struthers and Wilson.

In the foregoing cases, bills of exchange, drawn or indorsed by bankrupts, were allowed to be questioned upon the act of parliament of 1696, only in the person of the first possessor or indorsee: for, had they been *de novo* for value to third parties, it is to be doubted, whether it would be consistent with the freedom and safety of commerce, to reduce upon that head in their persons, who are not bound to know the condition of the first drawer or indorser. But yet an assignee to whom precepts bearing for value received, were granted by a rebel at the horn upon his debtors, as a corroborative security for bills of exchange, due before the denunciation, was preferred to the donatory of escheat: although the precepts wanted the solemnity of witnesses, and the writer's name and designation*; in respect that the assignee, in concurrence with the rest of the rebel's creditors, subscribed his consent to the passing of the donatory's gift, with this express quality, that it should not prejudice his right: though it was alledged for the donatory, that the assignee's subscribing a qualified consent to the procuring of the gift implies only, that his right should not be diminished by his subscription, without giving him any farther right, than he had before.

* December 2, 1698, Dean of Guild Blair, contra George Watson.

It is a stated controversy among lawyers, if the exception of not numerate money (to which all written obligations for money received, lay open by the civil law for two years; during which time, the creditor, pursuing, behaved to prove delivery of the money, otherwise than by the debtor's handwriting) be competent against bills of exchange? But all they say, pro or con, is of small use to the Scots, who allow no such exception; and sustain writs after delivery, as valid and probative from the date, 'till they be improvén: admitting always contrary probation by writ, or oath of party; although the chyrographium bear a clause expressly renouncing the exception of not numerate money. Which take place in bills, as well as in other written obligations; so the exceptions be made to the possessor of a bill protested for not-acceptance by his immediate author, whether he be drawer or indorser, upon the account of no value received from the possessor himself. But it would not be relevant for the drawee, or a prior indorser, to object against the possession of a bill, for an onerous cause, that no value was paid for the same, by his author the last indorser; or for the acceptor, to found upon no value received by the drawer.

Causa data, non secuta, is an ordinary exception against bonds; and in mutual contracts, both parties must perform. But a bill of exchange, bearing value received, being granted for the part of the price of a ship, which was never delivered free with a valid vendition; and the bill indorsed to a third person: the exception, ob causam non secutam, was not found effectual against the possessor; nor declarations apart, sufficient to stop the currency of bills*. Because bills of exchange are as fungible as money, affected with no qualities, but such as are mentioned in the bill; and value received imports a renunciation of all exceptions. But though the allowing the exception of causa data, non secuta, against a stranger or third party, to whom a bill is indorsed, might prove a stop to the necessary course of bills: it is relevant for the debtor in a bill, to prove by the creditor's oath, that the bill, he being the first possessor thereof, was granted for the vendition of the part of a ship; and the being acknowledged, to instruct, that he, the debtor in a bill, was debarred from possession of the subject sold, by preferable rights of bottomry, affecting the ship. And the arrester of a bill for a part of the price of meal to be delivered by the drawer, for whose performance the creditor in the bill stood obliged, as cautioner in the contract, was not obliged to pay the bill, the meal not being delivered, although the bill was payable before the delivery of the meal †.

* January 26, 1700, Wightman against Johnston.
 † February 13, 1706, Plummer contra Houston.
 ‡ June 7, 1707, Boys contra Shaw.

Prescription is another exception against bills, which is the way to acquire or lose the property of a thing, or any right, or action, by the course of time. Which definition implies two kinds of prescription: the one, whereby the possessor acquires the property of that he possesses, and the proprietor is despoiled of it, for want of possession: the other, which occasions the acquisition or loss of all other rights, or claims and actions: whether there was possession in the case, as in the enjoyment of servitudes; or no possession, as when one loses a debt by failing to exact it in due time. Prescription is founded on this presumption, that he who enjoys a right, has a just title, else the same had been sooner called in question; and that he who ceased to exercise it, hath been dispossessed and denuded for a just cause: and that the person who hath continued so long without demanding payment of his debt, hath either got satisfaction, or acknowledged nothing to be due to him. The rules of prescription are either such as regard the use, nature, subject, and interruption of it; that which legitimates and vitiates prescription, and the persons against whom it runs: or such as distinguish the times of prescription, which are but arbitrary laws, different in divers places.

From clearing the time from which bills prescribe, we are to consider a two-fold prescription, viz. a short prescription of six months, which is the time allowed for registration and summary diligence; and a long prescription of twenty years, which is common to bills with holograph writs. Although bonds prescribe only from the term of payment, and not from the date*: yet this prescription of six months commenceth from the term of payment, only in case of acceptance and not-payment; for, in case of a protest for not-acceptance, the computation runs from the date of the bill, even when the day of it's falling due is longer than six months.

* February 17, 1665, Butter contra Gray.

As to the long prescription, Sir G. Mackenzie, in his observations*, informs us, indeed, that he remembers the parliament expressly refused to limit bills of exchange to the twenty years prescription: as being too narrow for these common vehicles of trade between Scotland and foreign countries. And it is said to have been decided †, that bills of exchange do not prescribe as holograph writs: but this can hardly be well accounted for, since the reason why holograph writs prescribe quoad modum probandi sooner, than such as are

more solemn, is, their not being subscribed before witnesses; and consequently, bills of exchange, as both wanting witnesses, and seldom holograph, should much rather have a shorter course, as it is in other parts. Especially, seeing the reason why these are probative, without being holograph, and without witnesses, is, for that they are not given as lying securities: but payment thereof is ordinarily sought after. And my lord Stair is of opinion ‡, that such would not be probative, if kept up for any considerable time. Yet there is this difference betwixt a bill of exchange, and an ordinary holograph writ, that the first doth prove it's own date, whereas the other does not.

* June 23, 1675, Bruce contra Bruce.
 † February 4, 1692, in the case of Lelly of Balquhan, against Mrs Menzies.
 ‡ Stair Instit. lib. 4. tit. 42. § 61.

A charge, or protest at the instance of a creditor in a bill, against one of the correi debendi, will hinder prescription, as to the rest*; though they be not creditors, or debtors in solidum †.

* Arg. l. ult. C. de doub. Reis.
 † Les loix civiles, &c. Tom. II. lib. 3. tit. 2. sect. 5. art. 16, 17.

Of the regulation of Bills of Exchange in France, according to the ordonnance of March 1673, Title 5.

A R T. I.

Bills of exchange ought to contain, in a concise manner, the names of those to whom the contents are to be paid, the time of payment, the name of him who gave the value, and whether it was received in money, merchandize, or otherwise.

A R T. IV, XI, XII.

The bearers of bills of exchange, which have been accepted, or which become due at a day certain, are obliged to get them paid, or to have them protested within ten days after that on which they became due. And, after such a protest, they who have accepted them can be prosecuted at the suit of the bearers: the same bearers can also, with the judge's leave, seize the effects of those who have drawn or indorsed these bills, though they were accepted, and even the effects on those to whom they were drawn, in case they accepted them.

A R T. XIII, XIV, XV.

They who have drawn or indorsed bills of exchange, ought to be prosecuted within fifteen days, if they dwell within the distance of ten leagues; if at a greater distance, at the rate of one day more for every five leagues, without distinction of the districts of parliaments: but this must be understood of such persons only, whose dwelling-place is within the kingdom of France: as for those who dwell in other countries, the delays are otherwise regulated. They who dwell in England, Flanders, or Holland, ought to be prosecuted, within two months: in Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, within three months; in Spain within four months; in Portugal, Sweden, and Denmark, within six months: all those several terms must be reckoned from the day next following that, on which the protest was made, to that on which the prosecution is begun inclusively, without distinction of Sundays or holidays; after which terms, the bearers of bills of exchange have no longer any action or demand against the drawers and indorsers.

A R T. XVI, XVII.

The drawers and indorsers of bills of exchange are obliged to prove, in case it be denied, that those on whom they have drawn them, were indebted to them, or had money in their hands, at the time the bills were to be protested, otherwise they are obliged to make them good; and in case the drawers or indorsers had, since the time limited for the protest, received the value either in money, merchandize, by account, compensation, or otherwise, they are also obliged to make those bills good.

A R T. XVIII, XIX.

Bills of exchange payable to a particular person, and not to the bearer or order, being lost or mislaid, payment may be demanded and made, by virtue of a second letter, without giving security, provided, nevertheless, mention be made of it's being a second bill, and that the first or preceding shall remain void and null. But, when a bill, payable to the bearer or order, happens to be lost or mislaid, it ought not to be paid but by an order from the magistrate, and by giving security to answer for the payment.

A R T. XX.

The securities given for the payment of bills of exchange are discharged of course, without any sentence, proceeding, or summons, if no demand was made during three years, reckoning from the day of the last prosecution.

A R T. XXI.

A bill of exchange is reputed to be acquitted or paid, when no demand or proceeding was made during five years, reckoning from the day next following that on which it was due,

or protested, or the last proceeding made. Nevertheless, the pretended debtors are obliged, if thereto required, to declare, that they are not indebted; and their widows, heirs, or assigns, must affirm, that they sincerely believe there is nothing due.

A R T. XXII.

What has been observed in the two last articles, ought to take place also with regard to minors and absent persons.

A R T. XXIII, XXIV, XXV.

A bare signature on the back of a bill of exchange is looked upon only as an indorsement, and not as an order, unless it be dated, and the person's name be mentioned, who paid the value, either in money, merchandize, or otherwise. And a bill, thus indorsed, is reckoned the property of him whose name is mentioned in the order, without any transfer or notification: but, on the contrary, if there be only a blank indorsement, that is to say, the bare signature of the proprietor, it should be reckoned to belong still to him, who thus put his name on the back of it, and such might be seized by his creditors, and brought into account to his debtors.

A R T. XXVI.

It is absolutely forbidden to antedate any order, upon pain of forgery.

A R T. XXVII.

They who subscribe a bill of exchange (which subscription the French call aval) whereby they bind themselves to pay the contents, in case it be not paid when due by the acceptor, or drawer, become thereby bound to the drawer, indorser, and acceptor, though it be not mentioned in the subscription or aval.

Finally, the first article of the 7th title of the same ordonnance orders, That they who have signed bills of exchange, and even they who put their aval to them, may be arrested; which is to be understood, in case the bills be not paid.

As, in the ordonnance issued in the year 1673, it was impossible to foresee all the different cases that might arise in the negociation of bills of exchange, though, as we have seen, that ordonnance enters into very minute particulars upon that subject, there have been given since several declarations of the king, and decrees of the parliament, which have interpreted or explained several articles of that ordonnance, and added some new ones to it.

By the declaration issued in May 1686, it is ordered, by way of explanation of the ordonnance of 1673, that the fourth article of it be observed according to it's form and contents; and that, accordingly, the ten days granted for protesting bills and notes of exchange should not be reckoned but from the day following that, on which the said bills and notes became due; that the day on which they became due, should not be reckoned among the ten, but only that on which the protest was made, as well as Sundays and holidays, even the most solemn festivals, which should fall within the space of the ten days; notwithstanding all orders and customs to the contrary, even the 6th article of the said ordonnance of 1673, which article is abrogated, in that respect, by this last-mentioned declaration.

By a sentence of the Chatelet of Paris, given the 31st of August 1708, it was declared, that the limitation of time, established by the 15th article of the 5th title of the ordonnance of the year 1673, with regard to the bearers of bills of exchange, who neglect to prosecute the indorsers, within the term set down in the 13th article of the same title, should take place, as well with regard to the indorsers of notes, payable to bearer, as with regard to the indorsers of bills of exchange.

By a decree of the parliament, in the form of a regulation, made the 30th of August 1714, according to the opinion of the king's attorney-general, it is ordered, that the articles 18, 19, and 33, of the ordonnance of the year 1713, shall be executed; and accordingly, that, in case a bill of exchange, on which are several indorsers, be lost, the owner shall apply to the last indorser, and not to the drawer, in order to have a second bill. See **INDORSEMENT** and **INDORSER**.

The frequent augmentations and diminutions of the coin in France, which happened during the reign of Lewis XIV, and which the necessity of the state caused to be continued during the first years of Lewis XV, having occasioned many disputes, with regard to the payment of bills and notes of exchange, they were obviated by two declarations; the one of the 16th of March 1700, and the other of the 28th of November 1713, and by a decree of the council given the 27th of May 1719.

By the first of these declarations, the bearers of bills and notes of exchange, or of bills payable to the bearer, are obliged, ten days after they become due, to cause payment to be demanded of the debtors, by a summons containing the names, qualities, and dwelling-places of the said bearers, offering to receive the payment of such bills or notes, in current specie: and, if the bearers omit to make such a demand within the limited time, they shall be liable to suffer from the diminution that might happen in the current specie. The second declaration confirms and explains the former, and orders, that, reciprocally, it shall not be in the power of

the debtors of such bills, or notes, to oblige the bearers to receive the payment of them before the tenth day after they became due. And, with regard to promissory notes for value received in merchandize, which, according to custom, are not paid 'till a month after they are due, the debtors of such notes shall not oblige the bearers to receive payment before the same day. Nevertheless, his-majesty's will and pleasure is, that they, who shall have given notes for merchandizes, the discount of which was agreed upon, shall be at liberty to discharge them, provided payment be made full thirty days before that appointed for the diminution of the species.

The decree of the council, given the 27th of May 1719, contains a regulation for the payment of the bills of exchange, drawn or indorsed in foreign countries, particularly in England and Holland. His majesty orders, that the bills drawn from Holland, before the augmentation of the 1st of May 1718, be paid in crowns of five livres; and that those drawn, before the diminution of the 8th of May 1719, could be known there, be paid in louis d'ors of 36 livres; and with regard to the bills drawn from England before, and due since, the said diminution, be also paid in louis d'ors of 36 livres; with liberty, however, to the bearer, to cause himself to be reimbursed, by the person who pays the bill, twenty-fols per louis d'or, in the case the definitive sentence, which was to be given in England, should order, that the bills drawn before, and due since, the known augmentation of the first of May 1718, were to be paid in crowns of six livres.

There are four things to be considered in all bills of exchange, viz. 1. The persons. 2. The time of payment. 3. What is to be paid; and, 4. The value. As for the words or expressions, and other conditions, they are arbitrary.

I. There are commonly four persons concerned in a bill of exchange, namely, the drawer; he who receives it, and has given the value, called by some the drawee; he who is to pay it; and he who is to receive it.

E X A M P L E I.

S I R, Paris, August 11, 1732. For 1000 livres.
' At sight pay by this my first of exchange, to Mr Severin,
' the sum of a thousand livres, value received of Mr Lucian,
' and place it to account, as per advice from
To Mr Hilaire Your humble Servant
at Lyons. SIMÉON.

Observe, that it is not customary at present to make compliments in bills of exchange, so that most merchants omit those words, your very humble servant, and only sign their name. In order that this kind of contract may be put in execution, the drawer gives notice to the person who is to pay the bill, with orders to do it, by a letter to this purpose:

S I R, Paris, August 11, 1732.
' I have this day drawn a thousand livres upon you, payable
' at sight to Mr Severin, for value received of Mr Lucian. I
' desire you to honour it, and charge it to my account in con-
' formity.'

In case the drawer has not effects in the drawee's hands to the amount at least of the sum drawn, he must give him notice how he will furnish him with money to pay it: but, if the drawee be his debtor, he says, place it to his account, or to that effect.

Sometimes, or rather now most commonly, they put in the bill of exchange, Pay to Mr Severin, or to his order, or, Pay to the order of Mr Severin.

There are afterwards many times several successive orders; but this does not in the least alter the nature of the bill of exchange, all those orders being only a substitution of the one in the place of the former, and putting the last in the place of him to whom the bill was originally made payable.

E X A M P L E II.

S I R, Paris, August 14, 1734. For 2000 livres.
' Eight days after sight please to pay this my first of exchange
' to Mr Felix, or order, the sum of two thousand livres, for
' value exchanged with Mr Martel, and place it to account,
' as per advice of
To Mr Victor, at Roan. Your's, &c. FABIAN.

And at the bottom of the bill, or most commonly on the back of the bill, is put,

For me pay the contents above, or on the other side, to the order of Mr Vincent, value received of Mr Julian.

Paris, August 14, 1734. Signed FELIX.

And thus several other orders are, or may be, put successively. From these orders being now commonly writ on the back of the bills of exchange, come the words of indorsement and indorser, from the Latin in dorso. These orders are generally very

very concise, as for instance, in these words only, Pay to the order of CD, and signed by the owner of the bill, sometimes with, and often without any date. Sometimes, or rather very often, the bill of exchange is payable to him who gives the value, which happens chiefly when he is to go to the place where the bill is to be paid, or when he has a mind to negotiate it: in which case there are but three persons named in it.

E X A M P L E III.

S I R, Paris, August 1, 1736. For 3000 livres.
 ' At the end of this month please to pay this my first of exchange to Mr Romuald, the sum of three thousand livres, value received of him, and place it to account, as per advice of
 To Mr Paul, at Marseilles. Your's, &c. GABIN.

If the person to whom the bill is payable should not go to Marseilles, some question whether his order alone would be sufficient to get it paid, and say that he must make a transfer of it before a notary-public, or send a letter of attorney: but neither of these are of more force than a bare order; they are only more authentic. But, to prevent the necessity of such a transfer, or letter of attorney, it is better to make the bill payable to such a person, or order. Sometimes the person on whom the bill is drawn, being a correspondent of the drawer, and of him who pays the value, it is made payable to himself, and in that case also there appear but three persons in the bill.

E X A M P L E IV.

Paris, August 14, 1740. For 1000 Δ, at 101 deniers de gros.
 S I R,
 ' At two ufances pay by this my first of exchange to yourself the sum of a thousand crowns, at a hundred and one deniers de gros per crown, value received of Mr Benoit, and place it to account as per advice of
 To Mr Dennis, at Amsterdam. Your's, &c. AUBIN.

There appear, also, but three persons in a bill of exchange, when the drawer puts that it is value of or in himself.

E X A M P L E V.

S I R, Paris, August 21, 1741. For 4000 livres.
 ' At the next payments of August, be pleased to pay to Mr Jouin the sum of four thousand livres, for value in myself, and place it to account as per advice of
 To Mr Paul, at Lyons. Your's, &c. GABIN.

There are also bills of exchange in which but two persons appear, namely, the drawer, and the person who is to pay it.

E X A M P L E VI.

Paris, August 1, 1742. For 1000 Δ, at 74 kreiffers per Δ.
 S I R,
 ' At the next fair of September pay this my first of exchange to yourself the sum of a thousand crowns, at seventy-four kreiffers per crown, value in myself, and place to account as per advice of
 To Mr Hilaire, at Frankfurt. Your's, &c. SIMEON.

E X A M P L E VII.

S I R, Paris, August 1, 1744. For 1000 livres.
 ' At two ufances you will pay by this my first of exchange, to my order, the sum of one thousand livres, value in myself, and place to account as per advice of
 To Mr Jordan, at Roan. Your's, &c.

But, in those sorts of bills of exchange of the sixth form, or example, there must always be understood one person, and sometimes two: for either the bill is drawn for the account of a third person, who is not mentioned in it, but only in the letter of advice, or it is remitted for the account of a third person, not named in it. It even happens sometimes that it is both drawn for the account of one person, and remitted for the account of another, though neither be named in it: but, in those cases, the person to whom the bill is directed acts the part of several persons, for he pays to, and receives from, himself; but the draught, or remittance, must of necessity be for the account of a third person, for it is impossible that a man should pay to himself, without some foreign cause: so that there are at least three persons, and sometimes four, necessarily concerned in a bill of exchange. The seventh example, or instance, happens but seldom: but Monsieur James Savary asserts, that he has seen it, and adds, that some people questioned whether it were really a bill of exchange. In order to solve that question, we must know the reasons which occasion the drawing of such bills of exchange; our author mentions two reasons: the first is, when

a banker has orders to draw upon a place at a certain price, which he judges advantageous, but meets with no opportunity to do it, neither at that price, nor in any other, there being no money to be remitted at that place; he thereupon resolves to take the bill he draws for a friend's account, to his own account, rather than fail to serve his friend, and, 'till he can meet with an opportunity to negotiate it, he draws the bill payable to his own order. The second reason is, when the drawer is a creditor of the person upon whom he draws, and, before he disposes of the money due to him, he would secure it by the privilege of an accepted bill of exchange. One cannot doubt, but, in either of these cases, the bill is a true bill of exchange, for it has the essential conditions of it, which are, on the one hand, the remittance from place to place, and, on the other, the consent of the drawer to the giver of the value; and, over and above that, the consent of the acceptor. Of the drawer, in the first case, by the letter of the person who gave orders to draw to him who paid the value; and, though this consent of two persons appear not in the bill of exchange but by one and the same person, yet it is perfect, nevertheless, representing really two persons, him who gave the order, and him who received it. If it be objected, that, in the second case, there is not the consent of two persons, it may be answered, that, by the order, that consent is full and intire, and, consequently, it is a true bill of exchange. We may add a further example, which happens very seldom; it is as follows:

E X A M P L E VIII.

Caen, August 20, 1746. For 3000 livres.
 ' On the 20th day of December next I shall pay, at the house of Mr P—, in Paris, to the order of Thomas, the sum of three thousand livres, value received of him in merchandize.
 N. CLEMENT.

There are in that bill but two contracting parties who bind themselves; he who gives the bill binds himself to procure the payment of it, and he who gave the value binds himself to get the money received. The two other persons, viz. he who is to pay the money, and he who is to demand the payment, are only to see the contract executed, or performed.

II. The second consideration with regard to bills of exchange is that of the time when they are to be paid, which is done five different ways, as follow:

1. At sight, or at will, which is the same thing, because the bill must be paid the moment it is presented.
 2. So many days after sight, which is an uncertain time, determined only by the presentation of the bill, because it is reckoned from that day only, that the drawer may, in the mean time, procure the sum drawn upon him.
 3. On such a day of such a month, which is a time determined in the bill.
 4. At one or more ufances, or at one, two, or three ufances and a half, which is a time determined by the custom of the place where the bill is to be paid. See USANCE.
 5. At the payments, or at the time of the fair. This method is not general for all places, but only for those where there are settled fairs, as Lyons, Frankfort, Bolzano, Lintz, and some other places; and that time is limited by the regulations and statutes of those fairs. See FAIRS.
- III. With regard to what is to be paid, which is the sum expressed in the bill, it will be sufficient to observe, that, when the bill is drawn for so much money current in the place where the bill is drawn, and that money is not current in the place upon which it is drawn, the price at which it is valued must be mentioned in the bill, as the reader may see in the fourth and sixth examples above, to which we shall add one of a bill of exchange drawn from London upon Amsterdam.

London, April 27, 1749. 150l. at 35 schellings 11 gros, 2 1/2 ul.

S I R,
 ' At two ufances and a half pay by this my first of exchange to Mr D, or order, the sum of one hundred and fifty pounds sterling, at thirty-five schellings and eleven gros per pound sterling, value received of Mr E, and place it to account as per advice of
 To Mr M. N. merchant, at Amsterdam. F. G.

IV. Finally, with regard to the value, the forementioned edict published by the king of France in March 1673. tit. 5. art. 1, orders that it shall be declared in all bills of exchange, whether the value was received in money, merchandize, or other effects: but, as merchants of other nations are not obliged to submit to that edict, there are many of their bills of exchange which express only value received, without mentioning the nature of the effects in which the value was received; some even say only value of such an one, without adding the word received; and in some it is only said value in account. It must be observed, that merchants generally draw a second, sometimes a third, bill of exchange, for the same purpose with the first, in these, or the like, words:

London, April 27, 1749. 150 l. at 35 schellings 11 gros, 2 1/2 uf.

S I R,

At two times and a half pay by this my second (or third) of exchange, the first (or the first and second not being paid) to Mr. D, or order, the sum of one hundred and fifty pounds sterling, at thirty-five schellings and eleven gros per pound sterling, value received of Mr. E, and place it to account as per advice of

To Mr. M. N. merchant, at Amsterdam.

F. G.

These second and third bills are given for the security of him to whom, or to whose order, the bill is made payable, in case the first should be lost; as also that he may, if he pleases, send one to be accepted, and keep the other, or others, by him, or negotiate it as he thinks fit; for it is enough if one of the two, or three, be accepted, the other, or others, being only in the nature of duplicates.

The orders and regulations of the city of Hamburg, with relation to bills of exchange.

I.

He that accepts a bill of exchange, becomes a debtor himself, as well as he that has taken up, or received, the money.

II.

When a bill of exchange comes from foreign and distant countries, if drawn upon any man, in order to be accepted; if the person declines accepting, he who presents the bill must immediately protest it. If he waits three days to know the mind of him who should accept it, he shall incur no prejudice thereby, provided no servant goes in the mean time to the place where the money is told out.

III.

If the person upon whom the bill is drawn will not accept within the three days, the proprietor, or presenter of the bill, must protest, and send back the protest; but, withal, he must keep the bill itself by him, till the time is elapsed. If the person upon whom the bill is drawn will then pay the money, the bearer must receive it upon condition, that he likewise pays the charges of the protest. If he will not pay, then the owner must protest for principal, interest, and damages, and send back the protest with the bill, and demand of the drawer his principal, interest, and damages, pursuant to the course of exchange.

IV.

When a bill is due, the time being expired, the owner must not fail to demand his money with all possible expedition; and, if the acceptor be remiss and backward in paying, he is obliged to protest the bill within 12 days, for he may wait no longer without prejudice, provided he is remiss in making his demand, or has not had any new contract or dealings with the acceptor: but, if these 12 days expire before he enters his protest, he thereupon forfeits his demand upon the drawer, and can only apply himself to the acceptor. This case holds punctually, but allowances are made for a Sunday or holy-day falling in, upon which no protest can be entered.

V.

If any one takes a bill upon himself, and promises to accept it, he is obliged to pay it.

VI.

If a man receives a bill, in order to accept it, and keeps it by him three exchange-days, so that the former possessor cannot come at it, though he makes a demand, the bill shall pass as actually accepted; and, when the time is expired, he that kept it so long, and did not return it upon a demand made, stands obliged to pay it.

VII.

If a person receives money, and the bill drawn thereupon is not accepted at the appointed place, but a protest returned upon it, he is obliged immediately, without any delay, to give in surety, or pledge, or consign goods to the value, to secure the creditor for the money, together with his charges and damages.

VIII.

If a servant, without full power and commission given in writing, accepts a bill drawn upon his master, the master is not obliged to pay it, when it becomes due; but, if the servant had a full power given in writing, the master must pay it in the usual course.

IX.

If any man presents a bill of exchange, and it is not accepted, a third person may accept, out of regard to the person that drew it; and, after he has made payment, and received the bill transferred, he has a good action against the debtor for the money he paid: or he may protest, and accept the bill, and then pay and take the bill himself, with a protest, that he may have a clear demand for his own. This third person does, by virtue of the acceptation, stand obliged to pay the said bill.

X.

No man must pay a bill before it is due: for, if it should happen that the person who receives the money before due, breaks in the mean time, the loss falls upon those who paid the bill before the time.

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XI.

Those who have paid the sum specified in a bill of exchange, may re-call the commission therein contained, upon the account that the person who drew the bill re integrâ paid it before the acceptor, unless it be that he upon whom the bill was drawn was no agent or factor for the drawer, but had a right to the said sum, and received advice along with the bill to apply the said sum intirely to his own use.

XII.

Bills being drawn payable at Frankfort, Leipfick, Nuremberg, and the like places of yearly fairs, and there accepted, the possessors of the bills may, without prejudice to themselves, be allowed to enter a protest three days after the people are returned from such fairs to their usual place of abode; and upon other commissions or orders they may protest three days after the pay-week; but, if they do not protest within, or upon, the expiration of those three days, they thereby lose their action upon the drawer, and must intirely depend upon the acceptor.

An edict of the imperial city of FRANKFORT upon the MEINE, relating to EXCHANGE and COMMERCE.

We, the council of the holy imperial city of Frankfort upon the Meine, do hereby make known to all men, and particularly to all inland and foreign traders that carry on commerce and exchange in the fairs that are usually kept here, and otherwise; that, upon the complaints brought before us, we have found that, for some time past, the bills of exchange negotiated in this city, and at these fairs, have been managed in a very disorderly and abusive manner. Now considering that this occasions no small inconveniencies, and chargeable and tedious law-suits; and besides, it is to be feared, that, if this abuse is not looked after, it will terminate in sinking the trade and commerce, to the great detriment of the free and privileged fairs that are to be held here. Upon this consideration, we conceived, both from our own concern, and from the earnest request of several merchants, that we are under an obligation, and necessity of determining, by a certain edict, or order, how merchants are to act in our fairs, and what measures they are to observe in the managing their affairs of merchandizing and exchanges.

Accordingly, we do now ordain and require, in this our public edict, what is drawn up in the following articles.

I.

In the first place, considering that it has but too often happened that some foreign merchants, who do not resort hither personally themselves, but send their sons, factors, or servants, to negotiate and adjust all their concerns, have thereby occasioned a dispute upon what was contracted and negotiated by the persons thus commissioned: we give those foreign merchants to understand, that it behoves them, both at fair-time, and on all other occasions, to qualify the persons they send with a due commission, or full powers, either general or special, and confined either to a certain or unlimited time, empowering them to act at liberty both in buying and selling, as also to accept, take, pay, discount, and discharge bills of exchange, and to do as they think fit in whatever is needful, pursuant to the nature and act of every sort of business; and these commissions, or full powers, are hereby ordered to be entered in every principal superior court.

II.

And, that those who deal with such agents may have full instruction and satisfaction in regard to their commission, every person thus commissioned shall be obliged to convey his commission, with a copy of it, to the notary, that is always here appointed, and set apart for that office; which done, the notary shall immediately compare it with the original itself, and carry the same to the Protocal. After that, he shall return the original, having first writ upon it that he brought it out of the Protocal; and the agent again shall sign upon the copy brought from the Protocal, that he had his original returned to him.

III.

The commission, or full power, given without a limitation of time, shall continue in force till the principal granter revoke it in due form, and notifies his revocation by the notary at the Protocal, appointed for this service: so that, if the revocation itself is not registered in the Protocal, it shall be invalid.

IV.

But if it happen that a principal, having given a commission calculated to a certain time, wants to disannul the commission before the time is expired, he may do it without prejudice to any man; only the revocation must be notified and registered as above, in the Protocal: and what was negotiated before the revocation continues in full force.

V.

Further, considering that, of late, a custom is crept into partnerships, companies, and societies, that the members do not all write their own names, nay, oftentimes none of their own names, but only the name of the founder or treasurer of their company, who is dead long before; so that traders cannot know who and how many belong to such a company, or, in case of the death, or the breaking, of any of the members, who to apply to, as being jointly bound for the debt: upon this

consideration it is enacted, That all and every trader, whether inhabitants of this place, or foreigners, that are incorporated into a company, or joint society, shall insert all their several and particular names in any commission, given either to one of their own members, or any other person, for negotiating their concerns, without omitting any thing relating to their respective rights: to the end that the notary, set apart for the office, may give into the Protocol not only the commission, or full power, put into his hands, but likewise the names of all the company, or partners, and what relates to their joint settlement; the which he shall be obliged to do.

VI.

If a company has a mind to part, the partners must give timely notice of it to their correspondents, and especially their creditors, as well as the appointed notary; in default of which, all subsequent negotiations, upon that foot, shall affect them as much as if the company were subsisting; and the notary shall be obliged to mark the separation, or parting, thus notified, in the margin of the full powers registered in the Protocol.

VII.

In like manner, to prevent the disorderly events that have happened with reference to bills of exchange, all acceptations hereafter shall be signed either by the name of the principal dealers, or by those who are fully commissioned, with the date annexed, both in the time of the fair, and at all other times.

VIII.

In the time of the fair, the acceptance of bills of exchange shall commence upon the Monday in the beginning of the fair, and reach to Tuesday at 9 o'clock in the morning, in the second or third pay-week; after which time no presenter is obliged to wait longer for acceptance; but, if it is performed before 9 o'clock aforesaid, the bill may be protested, or at least noted. In the mean time, the creditor and presenter may protest it before, if he thinks fit; and at the same time, if any one, who declined the acceptance in the first week, is willing to accept it per honor di littera sopra protesto, then the protest shall be put into his hands, for his use, as well as the bill.

IX.

The reason of the refusal to accept must be taken from the recusant, or some of his servants, and inserted into the protest by the appointed notary; or, if, through multiplicity of business, he has not time, by any other notary substituted by him; and, at the same time, a particular copy thereof shall be kept by the said notary. If any one, alarmed by the protest, offers to pay the bill before the protest is sent away, he is obliged to pay the charges, as well as he that pays per honor di littera

X.

Bills regularly accepted in the fair, but not paid at the due time, shall, pursuant to the ancient custom, be marked down, or registered, upon the demand of the creditors, or presenters, by the notary, on Saturday, in the pay-week, presently after the merchants are gone from the common place of meeting, or to fix to a certain time, at any hour from 2 o'clock in the afternoon to sun-set: and the protest raised thereupon must be sent away by the very first, or, at farthest, by the second post.

XI.

The transferred and indorsed bills, which commonly appear at the fair, shall, for certain reasons, be no farther prohibited, but pass current.

XII.

In fair-time, the usual protestations of bills drawn at usance, that is, payable 14 days after accepting, shall continue as heretofore; that is, the person may, without prejudice, delay the protestation four days at discretion, after the bill is due, but with this difference, that the day upon which the bill is presented and accepted shall not be reckoned, the following day being the first of the computation, and that Sundays or holy-days falling in shall never be reckoned amongst the days of grace.

XIII.

But this allowance of time is not given to such bills as run upon sight, or at two or three days sight, upon which the acceptor has no days of grace, but is obliged, as soon as the bill is accepted and due, to pay the money at farthest within 24 hours.

XIV.

As to the value and worth of bills coming either in fair-time or otherwise, from such places as observe the fair-standard of this city, and reckon in rixdollars, the payment shall be in exchange, or bank-money, of 74 cruizers, and not 90 cruizers, of current money, unless it be that it is expressly specified so in the bill. But, let it be either exchange or current money, both of them shall be understood of the good large specie.

XV.

Considering that in the course of exchange, notwithstanding it is founded upon plain and honourable commerce, the exception non numeratæ pecuniæ, or the shifting refuge of not having ready money told down, will begin to creep in, it is hereby declared in such dealings, the said exception shall by

no means be admitted: so that those who absolutely accept a bill must never plead any such exception, but stand obliged to make prompt payment, with a previous regard to their own right.

XVI.

In like manner, no exceptions of that nature shall take place in any contracts; and the contracts themselves, unless they be concluded with the mutual approbation of the joint contractors, are hereby declared invalid.

XVII.

All assignations must return upon the assignees, unless it be that the assignee does absolutely accept and take upon himself the whole matter.

XVIII.

With reference to the failure and bankrupt cases that happen here, considering that foreign dealers who live out of our country are admitted upon an equal foot with our own inhabitants, and the former receive their ratum, or dividend, as well as the latter, though at the same time our inhabitants are denied the like privilege elsewhere: we therefore enact, jure talionis, that the merchants living in those places that use our inhabitants after that rate, shall be upon the same footing here; and that no foreigner, or out-living trader, shall be allowed to partake of a bankrupt's estate or effects, before he produces a credible testimony from his magistrates and superiors, importing that our dealers are allowed the like privileges in the like cases in the place where he trades and lives.

XIX.

Since the merchant's stile has brought it to a custom, that, in case any one had a demand upon a third person both for his own account, and somewhat due apart for another, though this third person does not make full payment, the demander, whether foreigner, or a home trader, is empowered to hold to his own account whatever is contracted, or paid: we therefore ordain, that, if this account is made before a man breaks, the demander must acquiesce in it.

XX.

In like manner, if any one has received commodities of another, to sell them by way of commission, but upon their account is charged with bills of exchange, and other costs, he is empowered to reimburse himself out of the said goods, and, in case of the goods being seized upon the proprietors breaking, he stands obliged only for the surplus.

To make this our order and edict known unto all men, we have caused it to be printed and published; and it shall begin to be of force the next ensuing Easter in 1667: and all merchants, or others that deal to this place, are hereby ordered to act accordingly, in order to their own safety.

Given at the council-board, Sept. 18, 1666.

The edict having been published in the year 1666, it was followed by another short confirmatory decree of Feb. 8, 1676.

A later edict of the imperial states of Frankfort upon the Meine, relating to exchange and trade, renewing and enforcing their former orders, with additions.

We, the council of the city of Frankfort upon the Meine, do hereby make known to all and every trader, whether foreigner or inhabitant of this place, Christian or Jew, that is any way concerned in exchange and merchandise: that so far as we are, to our high displeasure, informed, that our new order, issued forth in 1666, with regard to commerce and exchange, is not duly observed, whereby great disorders have crept into all payments on bills of exchange, and assignations, of which the traders who reside have given us intelligence, and petition for this our regulation. We, therefore, considering that such disorders may be greatly detrimental, did appoint a deputation, commissioned from our own body, together with some merchants and traders, to inspect narrowly into the circumstances of this affair, and form some resolutions thereupon; the substance of which is as follows:

I.

It is our will and pleasure that our new edict, or order, relating to traffic and exchange, issued forth in the abovementioned year of our Lord 1666, shall be, and is, hereby enforced and renewed, as to all the particulars contained in it: and that hereby full warning and admonition should be given to all persons, to correct, after the time to come, the disorders and abuses committed contrary to the tenour of that order.

II.

In a particular manner we hereby confirm and revive the fourteenth paragraph of the said edict, or order: and injoin all persons, in pursuance of that, to make payment of money in good large specie: but with this allowance, that, from the date hereof to the first day of the month of July next ensuing in this present year, all who have occasion to make payments are warranted to satisfy their creditors in guilders, and other pieces of small money; or, if that be refused, to suffer their bills to be sent back protested. But, as soon as the first day of June is past, no man shall be obliged, against his will, to receive in the payment of bills guilder pieces, or the small half and quarter dollars: if the bill is drawn payable in bank or exchange money, he is not bound to take any other money but

but the cross-albertus's, or Dutch dollars, and the three whole and half good rixdollars, or whole and half ducatoons, each ducatoon being reckoned as a rixdollar and a quarter; and those who fail in payments after this manner, are declared liable to the immediate execution of the law. Farther, those who are debtors upon bills, are allowed to pay in as many quarter-dollars, as will make 10 in the 100, but no more.

III.

Nevertheless, in the third place, no man shall be forced to take any assignation, unless it be that the assignation falls upon the person that is willing to pay in ready cash.

IV.

All contracts made at the end of the fair-time shall stand as good and valid as those agreed upon in the middle of the fair-time.

V.

Lastly, when Jews are to pay bills to Christians, they are hereby obliged and bound (as well as the Christians) to bring the money to their houses without admonition.

All this we injoin with a salvo to what alterations, additions, and explications this council may make, as time and occasion shall require.

Given at the council-board, Tuesday February 8, 1676.

The regulations of exchange of the honourable and prudent the states of the city of Augsburgh.

Forasmuch as the honourable and prudent the states of the imperial city of Augsburgh are informed, upon good grounds, that, for some time past, no small disorders are crept into the management of exchange among the merchants that trade here, which give occasion to apprehend, that, if this grievance be not speedily redressed, it will not only grow heavier in process of time, but may prove the source of many tedious and costly law-suits, and other inconveniencies: upon this consideration the said honourable states (who are always careful and vigilant in promoting the interest of their country, by omitting nothing that may advance commerce and fair trade, upon which depend the livelihood and welfare of their traders) the said states find themselves bound, pursuant to the example of other trading towns, to establish an order and standing rule of exchange, and to publish the same, that no man may pretend ignorance, in hopes that the good citizens and inhabitants will observe the contents of it with a dutiful compliance, as they mean to avoid the penalties that arise upon their doing otherwise.

In the first place, as to what relates to the accepting of bills of exchange, if the person upon whom a bill is drawn is unwilling to accept, either he, or one freely commissioned by him, must sign it, and add the date of the acceptance. Both parties may chuse to present, or accept, the bill, either the very day upon which it comes to hand, or the next day after (abating for the Venetian bills, upon which there follows a peculiar order in the fourth paragraph of this our edict.) But the person upon whom the bill is drawn must discover his mind as to the accepting in such a convenient time, that, in case he declines to accept, he who has the bill may enter and forward his protest to the respective place, by the first post.

In the next place, considering that the posts and comes to and from this place are settled upon such a foot, that the letters from one place to another, coming in for the most part (especially in harvest and winter) in the afternoon, and towards the evening, must be dispatched against the next day, 4 or 5 o'clock being the last hour for the giving in of letters, which confines men to a narrow compass of time, inasmuch that it may easily happen, especially if the writing or post-day chances to be a holy-day, that they cannot negotiate the acceptance in the preceding date: we therefore determine, that all acceptations demanded, or given, on such holy-days, shall be valid (excepting still the Sundays, which there is no necessity of including) but, at the same time, all persons shall hereby be obliged to the Christian demeanour, of not making use of this dispensation without an absolute necessity, it being required of them to procure the accepting on the foregoing working days, if it is possible. In like manner the public notaries are hereby warranted to enter and mark down the protestations on such holy-days, and, if occasion is, to return them; all which cannot be done, if the protest cannot be sent back in less than eight days, which may prove detrimental to those who remit, and are under a necessity of making use of the instrument of protestation.

In the third place, the honourable states do all along stand by their decree, published on July 16 and 24, in the year 1624, by the tenour of which, the common and single usance is settled to 15 days, and consequently, the double usance to 30, an usance and a half to 23, and a half usance to eight days; and, after the expiring of these, commencing from the acceptance, the next day is the day of payment, upon which computation all holy-days, besides Sundays, are not reckoned for termini in terminis. The same method shall hold and continue as to the five days of grace inclusive, after the usance is out, which time the merchants may wait without prejudice or danger, provided still that Sundays and all holy-days, in which no council can be held, shall not be reckoned in that number.

In the fourth place, in regard it is enacted in the said decree, with reference to Venetian bills, that no person shall be obliged to accept them but upon Fridays; the consequence of which is, that the last day of usance elapses on a Saturday, and the pay-day happens to be the next Sunday, so that the money cannot be demanded 'till the Monday following: and considering that this, upon the account of the letters from Venice their coming in mostly all the year round on a Thursday before noon, may prove dilatory, and no small detriment to those who receive the Venetian bills: upon these considerations, the tenor of the said decree shall stand firm, which provides that the accepting of Venetian bills shall be upon Friday; but withal, that the bills from Venice, or elsewhere, to this place, and falling due upon a Sunday, may be demanded on the foregoing Saturday: so that such payments made on a Saturday are warrantable and legal. And the like shall be observed as to the days of grace, as much as if they had become due on a Saturday.

The same rule holds as to all other bills of exchange, pursuant to the ancient use and custom.

Fifthly, With reference to such bills of exchange as are drawn payable à lettera vista, or upon sight, which are presented out of hand and accepted; we impose no necessity upon traders to pay them presently, provided they do it within 24 hours; after which a protest is warrantable. In like manner, no days of grace shall be allowed upon such bills as are payable in a very short time, such as two or three days; these bills being hereby put upon the same foot with the foregoing bills upon sight. But all other bills, of what number of days soever, upon half, whole, or more usance; and likewise in the Frankfort Ritorni ultimo Junii, ultimo Novembris, or whatever bills made payable upon a certain expressed day, shall, without distinction, be allowed the five days of grace; to this end only, that the creditor, or possessor of the bills, may wait so long without prejudice to himself to satisfy the debtor, if he can't receive the money upon the first demand, pursuant to the decree mentioned above. Not that the allowance of these days of grace shall encourage men to gratify their humour or occasions, in retarding the payment so far behind the due time. On the contrary, they are required to make good payment upon the day that the bills become due, according to the custom hitherto observed; so that no delays shall be officiously claimed, upon the pretence of days of grace.

Sixthly, In case bills drawn payable upon a certain day, do not arrive here 'till not only the prescribed time itself, but likewise some part of the accessory days of grace is expired; the said five days of grace shall be computed, as beginning not from the presenting and accepting of the bill, but from the day of payment fixed in the bill: so that the debtor can only make use of the remainder of that complement. If both the time prescribed, and the full number of the days of grace, are all past before the prescribing the bill, the payment shall accrue within 24 hours after accepting, as well as bills upon sight.

Seventhly, All bills of exchange drawn payable on a certain day, at one, or more usances, or a shorter term, must be paid by the acceptor, whenever the usance and the five days of grace are expired, whether the value be received by the drawer or not; for 'tis a standing rule, chi accetta pagi. In like manner, let this be an universal rule as to the payment of bills, that as payments made upon the day that the bill becomes due, or any day after, are good; so, on the contrary, payments, made before the accruing day, are faulty; for, if they prove any way prejudicial to one or the other third person, they will be held as null and invalid.

Eighthly, As soon as a bill of exchange returns protested for non-payment, he who drew the bill, stands obliged immediately to repay his creditor the sum specified in the bill, besides his charges, and the exchange Laggio; or to give him good security, or some other reasonable satisfaction, upon the very day that the advice comes, and both the drawer of the bill and the acceptor are bound jointly and severally, as creditors, to the possessor, 'till the bill is satisfied; the possessor having a full power to demand payment of either.

Ninthly, To give credit to a protested bill lies chiefly at the door of those who are to receive the money; and, if they will not credit it themselves, they should endeavour to try about; and, if they meet with any one that accepts this protested bill, he, having accepted, stands obliged to pay it. But if, after this, the person upon whom the bill was drawn, desires and offers to accept and pay the bill, then he who gave the bill this credit before, is not obliged to stand, unless so inclined.

Tenthly, That if any inhabitant of this place accepts a bill to pay at some other place, as Nuremberg, Ulm, St Gall, &c. and in like manner, if any one receives remittances and bills of exchange, upon debtors living elsewhere, the content of which bills is to be advanced here; in both these cases, the acceptance must be procured by letters and bills of exchange, transmitted from one to another, which require some time. The time of payment, in such cases, shall accrue after the same rate, as if the acceptance had been made at the place where the money is to be paid. But, in case any inhabitant

of this place stands bound to pay, here at Augsburgh, a bill of exchange to another person that lives elsewhere; and is desired by him to transmit him neat money for it; he is not obliged to comply with his desire, without discounting the provision money. After that, the possessor of the bill may send any body who takes the payment on himself, according to the usual manner, in the market-place of this city; or, if he is willing to dispense with it, he may freely do it.

In the eleventh place, with reference to the manifold indorsements of bills of exchange; since they are so much in use here as well as in other places, that it will not easily bear a limitation, and far less a total restraint; we suffer them still to pass, but with this reserve, that the indorsement in banco is hereby declared altogether null; and he who gives such bills, shall be obliged to fill up the indorsements, making mention of the sums.

Twelfthly, In regard that by the dispatching of Dispacii, not only in the Botzner fairs (where transferred bills are not allowed) but in other places, to save the provision charge, a custom is introduced, that the debtor does not give his own bill, but one of a second, third, or fourth person, with whom the creditor never had any dealings: we suffer this custom to take place towards the facilitating of business, but with this proviso, that the debtor shall, upon sending such a bill, write to his creditor a separate acknowledgment, that he stands for ever obliged to see the bill paid.

Considering likewise, in the thirteenth place, that, for some time past, great and many inconveniencies have arose, from the too late dispatching bills per le fieri; and that there is a necessity of removing such inconveniencies: we therefore enact, that the debtor shall stand obliged, under the penalty of four guilders to the poor, to pay the bill to his creditor, at farthest, at the noon of that day, upon which the primi spacii must be dispatched. Besides, those who have received money per le fieri, stand obliged to give a writ of acknowledgment to their creditors, if they but desire it.

Lastly, It being sufficiently known, what inconveniencies and differences have arisen from the assignation payments, 'tis full time to remedy them; to which end, nothing is more proper, than that all written assignations and transferrals should be altogether taken away, and recontro upon the spot placed in their room, after the following manner. He who is to pay the money, is to appear at the exchange, on exchange-days (for which from eleven to twelve before noon, on Saturday, Monday, and Tuesday, is the precise time allotted) and there endeavour to adjust the recontro, and to satisfy his creditors. But, if upon Tuesday exchange, he cannot come to an end with his creditor, who demands prompt payment in cash, he stands obliged, without further delay, to pay him in ready money.

Some observations, necessary for those who have bills to receive at Amsterdam, the capital city of the province of Holland.

1. That all bills of exchange, upon any one resident in that town, are payable in bank [see the BANK of Amsterdam, described under the province of HOLLAND] except it is otherwise ordained in exprefs terms in the bill.

2. All bills of exchange at Amsterdam must be paid within six days after they are due at the latest (that being the number of the days of grace in Holland) except those that are payable in bank, when the bank is shut up at the time they should be paid; in which case they must be paid, by writing off the value in bank, within three days after it is open; and, if it be not done in that time, they must forthwith be protested.

3. When a bill becomes due, the bearer thereof generally carries it to the person who is to pay it, having first written the following order upon the back of it:

Write the contents of the other side upon my account in bank, at Amsterdam, the of 176 M. P.

And the bill being left with the debtor, he accordingly writes off the value next day in bank.

4. Or, if the bearer of the bill be not inclinable to deliver it to the debtor, 'till the value be actually writ off in bank, after shewing him the bill, and telling him that he will find it in the bank, he must carry it thither, and, paying six flivers to the book-keepers, desire them not to deliver it to the debtor, 'till the value be written off in the books; and afterwards, returning when he thinks the value is written off, and finding it done, he must order them to deliver the bill to the person who has wrote off the value, and who ought to go and call for it. But, if the value be not written off in due time, the bearer must demand the bill, and cause it to be protested for non-payment.

5. But, if the bearer of the bill has no account in bank, and is not desirous to have any, he may propose to the debtor to pay the bill in current money, agreeing for the price of the agio; [See AGIO] and, having received his money, give a receipt upon the back of the bill, mentioning that he has received the value in current money, agio at so much per cent.

6. But, if the bearer of the bill can't agree with the debtor for the agio, he may negotiate it with a cash-keeper, or any body else: because, if the indorsement was simply for value received, it would not be valid; no such bill being reputed paid, without a special indorsement, except it be written in bank.

Write for me the contents of the other side to A. B. in bank, value of him, at Amsterdam, the of 176 F. N.

These indorsements upon the bills may be made in French, English, or any other language understood by the acceptor of a bill: but orders in bank must be written in the language of the country. And therefore I have thought it proper to insert a model of these orders in their own language.

Fol. 976.

De heeren commissarissen van de bank, geleeven te betalen aen B. G. de somma van twee duysent vier hondert seven en t'achtentig guldens tein flyvers, actum in Amsterdam den, &c.

Flo. 2487: 10.

When a merchant is desirous to negotiate bank-money for current, he may do it before the town-house, between 10 and 11 in the morning: where the cash-keepers generally meet, who will give either bank or current money to such as want it. And sometimes such negotiations are transacted upon the exchange by the interposition of brokers, who get 1 per 1000 for their trouble, equally payable by both parties. The salaries of the officers of the bank are paid by the city, and all the fines and other monies paid for transferring of sums, and other things of that nature, are laid out in charitable uses.

When any man's account in bank is filled up, and a new one must be begun, the party, having notice thereof, must repair to the bank to compare accounts in the same manner as when the balance is made.

When any body that has money in the bank takes it out, if the agio be under 5 per cent. the treasurers pay them the difference, they having received it at that rate.

When any difference happens between merchants concerning any sum in bank, 'tis determined by two or three commissioners, chosen among the magistrates, who decide all such matters summarily.

At the death of any person, who has money in the bank, their heirs and successors must prove their titles by authentic deeds, before the book-keepers transfer the sums to their accounts.

Most bills of exchange are negotiated at Amsterdam, as at other trading cities in Europe, by agents or brokers (see the articles AGENTS and BROKERS) who enter in their book a memorandum of such negotiations concluded by them, in order to determine any difference between merchants on these occasions, and also to adjust their brokerage.

Those brokers for exchange and merchandize, at Amsterdam, are in number 375 Christians, and 20 Jews. They are admitted into these offices by the magistrates, before whom they take an oath to perform their functions faithfully, according to the regulations appointed for them.

Besides these sworn brokers, 'tis believed there is twice that number of other little intermeddlers at Amsterdam; in January 1613, and November 1624, they were allowed to take, for negotiating bills of exchange, 3 flivers per 100 florins; and, in exchanging bank and current money, 1 per 1000.

And, as to usance of Amsterdam, it is to be observed, that it is not, as in some other places, either precisely 30 days, or 31, or 28, or 29, according to the number of the days of the month; for there, a bill drawn at usance, suppose the 10th, 20th, 25th, or any other day, falls due the same day of the ensuing month, without any regard to the number of days in the month, in which it was drawn.

So that a bill, drawn (for example) the 20th of February, becomes due the 20th of March, though February has but 28 days, except when it is leap year: and, on the other hand, a bill, drawn the 20th of January, does not become due 'till the 20th of February, though January has 31 days. See the article USANCE.

For more matter relating to the negotiating of bills of exchange in Holland, see the article AMSTERDAM, under the province of HOLLAND.

His Electoral Highness of Saxony's most gracious decree, for regulating the payment of bills of exchange, and the time of their being due: as well as the method of dealing, by way of commission or factory, in the city of Leipzig.

TRUSTY and well beloved: We have heard your humble information and your dutiful petition, setting forth what the merchants of our city of Leipzig have proposed, for the security and improvement of their commerce; and their earnest desire to have it brought into the next diet, and passed into an Imperial edict. It being our inclination propitiously to promote whatever may tend to the advantage of commerce in this country, and we have withal remarked, that the particulars given in by our merchants, will

will scarce be allowed of in all the trading towns of the holy Roman empire, or pass for a general rule in the Imperial decree: upon these considerations, we have resolved, as being princes of this country, and by virtue of the power we are here invested with, as well as out of regard to a dutiful petition of our city of Leipzig, since presented to us, to make a particular act and order, upon the case above-mentioned.

In the first place: As for bills of exchange, and what relates to them, we continue them upon the same foot, as in our declaration issued forth, July 21, 1660, from the express terms of which, 'tis evident, that bills drawn upon sight, are firm and obligatory upon the drawer or acceptor, let him be whom he will; and that not only bills upon sight, but even those payable after some time, are of the same firm obligation: and that the penalties are fully as severe upon those who drive no trade, whether gentlemen or ordinary persons, learned or unlearned, employed in publick offices of distinction or unemploy'd, as they are against the merchants themselves.

In the second place, in regard the merchants have hitherto complained, that the Nurembergers observe no certain time in returning home, and yet this time of this their uncertain return is the period upon which both the payment and protesting the bills does depend:

We therefore ordain and constitute, that, from this day forward, Thursday in the pay-week shall be the term; or if, in the new year's fair, the fair begins on Sunday, the fifth day of the pay-week (reckoning, from the day upon which the fair is prohibited upon the expiration of the first week) and the protest of bills shall pass 'till ten o'clock at night, but none shall be received after that hour.

In the third place, with reference to goods put into the hands of another upon commission, the same custom as is observed in other trading towns shall take place in our town of Leipzig: so that whoever has goods upon commission to sell for another, and upon these is charged with bills, he has a power to refund his charges out of the goods in his hands. And, if in case of bankruptcy or otherwise, such goods be attached or arrested, he is only obliged to account for the surpluse.

This we require you to make publick, in the usual form, to all traders, and, as much as in you lies, to see it inviolably observed: in the doing of which, you will perform what is our will and pleasure.

Given at Dresden, Sept. 4, 1669.

JOHN GEORGE, ELECTOR.

To our trusty and well-beloved the council of Leipzig.

The regulations and ordonnances of exchange, established at Bologna in Italy.

I.

The place shall be free to all persons, both foreigners and natives, and as well to those that do not, as to those that do, merchandize; so that every person, of what condition soever, may give or receive money in exchange, provided that the exchange be real: meaning by real exchange, when the money is actually paid in Bologna, that it may be re-paid in another place, according to the contents of the bill of exchange, and that also the bill be actually sent to the place and person upon whom it is drawn, and there be either paid or refused.

II.

It shall be in every one's power, though no merchant, to put his money in merchants hands, and receive real bills of exchange for it; that thereby he may have credit in other places, as its usual elsewhere in Italy, and out of it; and also it shall be lawful for any person to give money upon bills of exchange, and to return such bills to the drawer, if the buyer does not receive the money he paid upon them.

III.

If foreigners send foreign pieces of money for exchange, or otherwise, such money shall remain free and unmolested for the use of those who sent it; even though they be excommunicated by the order of the holy church, or be guilty of heresy, or treason, or though they should be indebted to the treasury, such money shall be left free and unmolested, for the use of the said foreigners, and the same shall be understood of money sent from other countries by bills of exchange, to persons of that character here*.

* This seems to be no mean stroke of policy in the ecclesiastical state, in order to render it a kind of asylum for delinquents of all nations; and to convince the world, that even the worst of crimes shall be no restraint to the drawing money and people into these all-sanctified territories.

IV.

All differences and disputes happening in this city, concerning bills of exchange, between any persons whatsoever, shall be decided and determined by the consuls and merchants judges, to whom alone it shall belong to take cognizance of such suits and differences; nor shall it be in the power of any other judge, or judicature, or magistrate whatsoever, to take

notice of, or judge, or any other way, to hinder their judgment, or to meddle or concern themselves in it, directly or indirectly, in any manner whatsoever. And 'tis likewise declared, that the deciding of all such controversies shall belong to said judicature, not only in the first trial, but also in case of an appeal, according to the constitution and form of the said judicature. And; if any one should appeal to the pope himself, the right of judgment shall then devolve upon the judge of appeals, and the merchant judges, and consuls, as it is specially ordained by his holiness in such a case; and the appellant shall be obliged to prosecute his suit before them within a certain limited time, according to the statutes of the said judicature; or otherwise the appeal to be void and of no effect, and the sentence given to be put in execution by the merchant judges and consuls, as if there had been no appeal.

V.

The merchants may meet in the place where the said judicature sits, or any other place which shall be thought convenient for them, whither they shall repair, and remain there an hour in the forenoon, and an hour in the afternoon, three days a week, viz. Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, these not being holidays; and if they be, that meeting shall be kept the day preceding, and there shall be no business done among merchants on holidays.

VI.

The exchanges must be made in gold crowns of good coin, for all places; and all accounts and writings between merchants and dealers, foreigners or inhabitants, shall be made in that specie.

VII.

The ufance for paying bills of exchange shall be as follows, viz.

To Rome and Genoa, ten days sight.

To Milan, Venice, Florence, Pisa, Lucca, and other places of Tuscany, eight days sight.

To Naples, fifteen days sight.

To Palermo, Messina, Bari, and other places of Sicily, one month.

To Lyons, Besançon, and Spain, according to the yearly markets.

To Paris, Antwerp, and all the Netherlands, two months.

To London and the Levant, three months.

VIII.

There shall be paid, to the brokers who conclude the said exchange contracts, a golden flyver for every hundred crowns, by each party; and these brokers shall be approved and allowed by the judicature of merchants, and be obliged to make observations, and do every other thing, which shall be required of them, according to the disposition of the statutes of the said judicature; and they shall keep a book, after the manner of a journal, wherein they shall write from day to day, with their own hands, what exchange contracts they conclude, setting down both parties, viz. the drawer and the buyer of the bill, as well as the sums drawn, and the prices of the exchange, and for what places: in doing of which, if any fail, in the whole or in part, they shall be discharged from their offices, and deprived of all their fees.

IX.

In case any bills of exchange drawn at Bologna return protested, the buyer of any such bills to whom it shall be returned, immediately appearing before the judges and consuls, if they be sitting at that hour, and otherwise before one of the notaries of the said judicature; and, these demanding execution against the drawer of the said bill, the said judges or consuls, or (they not sitting) the said notary without any other intimation, or acting of the drawer, shall presently grant the said execution, by virtue whereof, the creditor may with a serjeant seize the goods of a debtor for the sum contained in the bill, with the interest, charges, and damages, according as the judge shall think fit.

And, in case any hinderance or delay shall happen to the said execution, the said serjeant shall presently give notice thereof to the said notary, who shall then be obliged to give a personal order to the creditor against the debtor, who, in case of any execution upon his goods, may appear before the said judges and consuls, and complain, if he thinks himself oppressed, or has any exception to make against the bill. But he shall not in any manner be admitted to an audience, 'till he has secured the creditors, although the time of payment be not come. And in case a bill be returned protested, and he that drew the bill be dead, the buyer may proceed against the goods of his heir, in the same manner as he might do against his, if he were living, though the time limited by the law for prosecuting an heir, or making an inventory of his goods, be not expired, as though the heir be a minor, who has not yet got tutors, and notwithstanding any other reason whatsoever. And in case the time appointed by the law for the heirs to take full possession of the goods of the deceased, and for making a lawful inventory, be expired before the creditor appear to demand the said execution, then the said creditor may lawfully draw bills of exchange for the said money, charges, &c. upon the said heirs, 'till he be

fully paid. And the goods of all sorts of people, of what condition soever, even though they be magistrates, to whom a protest, or a non-accepted bill, shall be returned, may and shall, at the request of the creditor, be seized for the paying or securing of the payment of the creditor's money, before the said judge, consul, or notary, as is said before, notwithstanding all laws, customs, statutes, and privileges, to the contrary.

X.

And because it sometimes happens, that some who lay out money upon exchange, do it with a surety, who subscribes the second or third bill, as it is customary in many places; it is hereby declared, that, if the first bill be refused and returned protested, the creditor may as well demand his money of the subscribers of the second or third bill, as of the principal who hath drawn it, as he shall think fit; and the fore-mentioned execution to be awarded against the principal, may also be awarded against the surety, any law or custom formerly in use, to the contrary, notwithstanding.

XI.

No prescription shall be of force, nor no other exception be admitted against true and real bills of exchange; and all trials of that nature shall be speedily decided, without any artificial delay, hindrance, or interruption of the process.

XII.

Bills of exchange being drawn upon Bologna, and refused to be accepted, the bearer thereof may cause a protest to be made for all charges, damages, and interests, against the person or persons refusing to accept them; and in case such person or persons be absent, and no opportunity can be found to make a personal protest, it may be made by a notary, at the house of the party or parties who should accept it; and the time of payment being come, and payment made, the protest may be delivered to the payer.

XIII.

No acceptance of bills drawn upon Bologna shall be valid, except they be accepted by him who is to pay the money, and not by an agent, friend, or book-keeper, except such persons have a sufficient procurator: in which case, all traders shall be obliged to give notice to the superintendent of the court-merchant, of all persons that are so appointed, to satisfy their bills, and for the time they are to continue in that station, which the said superintendent must enter in a record kept for that purpose.

XIV.

Bills upon other men being thus accepted, by persons qualified as above, the said person shall be obliged to pay the money in due time, and the bearers of such bills shall be no way prejudiced by such acceptations, so that they may not act against all such persons as are in any manner bound in the said exchange, but shall be allowed to proceed against any one concerned in the said bill, as they think fit, and that as well for the principal sum, as for the charges, damages, and interest.

XV.

If it happen, that after the accepting of any bill the acceptor breaks, and by that means the bill remains unpaid, the bearer thereof duly entering his protest, the drawer shall be obliged to refund to him the principal, as well as the interest, damages, and charges.

XVI.

No attorney shall be allowed to appear in the court-merchant, except only in cases in which it is ordained by the statutes of the said judicature of merchants, in the article concerning bills of exchange, and with the conditions and restrictions contained in the said article, concerning the said attorneys, and no otherwise.

XVII.

And in case there should happen any differences concerning the said bill of exchange, not mentioned in these articles, they must be determined by the judge and consuls of the said judicature, or by the greatest number of them. But, in all the cases above-said, they must act, proceed, give sentence, and execute, according to the contents of these articles; and not according to the institutions of the said judicature concerning exchanges, as far as they are contrary to, or differ from, these articles; but otherwise the said institution to remain in their full force and virtue, as well concerning bills of exchange, as concerning common writings, and all other things whatsoever, treating of the power or jurisdiction of the judges, consuls, &c. any former law, use, practice, or custom to the contrary, notwithstanding.

R E M A R K S.

In the first part of this article of Bills of exchange, I have given a series of select authenticated cases relating thereunto, which have been adjudged in our courts of law in England; and which, being maturely considered, will enable a thinking man to make a good judgment upon any other occurrences that relate to this important topic. For not only similar, but dissimilar cases are determined by the due application of those general maxims of reason and law, whereupon these prior adjudged cases have been grounded.

Sometimes, indeed, it has fell out, that what has been law in the opinion of some judges, is not so in that of their successors; but this I am inclined to think, has been but in very few cases; and that in such which have been very delicate and complicated, and wherein they have not been exactly parallel, and tallied in all circumstances: and, where this happens, there is the same reason why our judges should differ from one another, and even from themselves, as that they should accord, when it happens otherwise.

It is this difference in the circumstances of cases, which has rendered the reports of law so voluminous; but this is unavoidable, as necessarily arising from that infinite variety of transactions among mankind. But it is certainly more to the security of property to have all pre-determined cases authentically reported, for the guidance of succeeding courts of judicature, than not; and not to leave them unrestrained, and to act arbitrarily, without any regard to those reasons and principles of law of their predecessors, which have stood the test of ages. It is more to the benefit of society to bear with voluminous laws, and even those which may sometimes clash, than to be governed only by the uncontrollable will of judges, who have not always proved incorruptible.

Moreover, although some have been wont to think, that our law, being so voluminous, occasions it to be more expensive, yet I apprehend this to be a vulgar error; for, where cases are so faithfully and equitably reported, as in England, a man of sense, though not bred to the law, who attentively and impartially consults those reports, may himself form a good judgment in most cases, whether he is in the wrong or the right in going to law: which shews, that the more law cases there are properly represented, or, if you please, the more voluminous the law is in this respect, the less tedious, the less expensive, and what is still more desirable, it is rendered the less precarious, and the less dependent on arbitrary will. The statute-law of England, it is true, is voluminous, and perhaps uselessly so, and often inconsistent with the common law: but, as our judges are the proper constructors of these statutes, it is observable, that where any doubt arises, with regard to the sense of a statute, they judge of it by the tenor of the common law: and, in matters of law, it is more for the advantage of the subject, that Westminster-hall should, in this respect, controul St Stephen's chapel, than the latter the former; for, otherwise, the statutes which do not always square with the sense and spirit of the law, would subvert a great part of it, and render all reported cases useless to posterity; and every new judge might have it in his power to make new laws, whereby we should have no laws certain at all.

In regard to Scotland, likewise, I have given some curious cases relating to bills of exchange, which will serve as a guide in many other respects; for, in order to enter into the reason of these adjudications, they are supported by the authority of those, who are allowed to have wrote the best on the subject, according to the established customs of the principal trading nations in Europe.

The regulations and edicts of France, Holland, the great cities of Hamburgh, Francfort, Leipsic, Augsburgh, and Bologna, must convey an idea of the care which they have judged necessary, in order duly to apprise traders of the laws and customs they are obliged to regard, in these kind of negotiations. But, besides the laws and usages which are peculiar to particular nations and great trading cities, in regard to matters of this nature, there are fundamental principles and maxims of reason, whereupon those peculiar laws and customs ought to be grounded; and these cannot be too well understood both by traders and lawyers: and those short circular letters, or orders, given by bankers and trading people to furnish to others certain sums of money, are of such use and advantage to trade, that it cannot be carried on without them; seeing in many nations the exporting of money is prohibited under severe penalties; in others no money is current but their own, and all foreign coin reputed bullion: so that bills seem to be the only expedient left to merchants for drawing their effects out of foreign countries, from persons indebted to them, upon the yearly ballance of trade; and no one would send their merchandize to a place from whence, when they are sold, he has no means to bring home the value, or cannot do it without an extraordinary risk.

Many great men, both lawyers and divines, have wrote upon this subject; but what the ancients wrote, when the exchange was but in its infancy, imperfect, and less known, does not suit with the modern constitution of it, as now refined and improved. And later authors, what with their useless niceties and unintelligible different notions about the nature and lawfulness of it; and their fanciful divisions and subdivisions; instead of clearing up the matter, they have only perplexed and confounded it.

Among the Italians that have wrote upon exchange, Sigismund Scaccia, and Raphael de Turri, are the chief: whom Jo. Gaitus, J. Marquardus, Fra. Stypmannus, Car. Ant. de Luca, Joseph Giballinus, Van Lewen, and others of several nations, have but copied after. The works of these leading authors abound with learned subtilty, and whimsical scholastic questions, but are shamefully defective in material things, founded on the plain nature of commerce. Many of the de-

decisions of the *Rotæ* of Genoa are upon points of little import to us. The decisions of Portugal, collected by Anton. di Ganim; those of the supreme courts of Holland and Flanders, compiled by Neostadius and Christineus; and the *Responsa jurisconsultorum Hollandicæ*, touch upon bills of exchange but seldom, and with relation only to particular cases. In the whole *Journal du Palais*, which is a collection in nine volumes of the decisions of all the parliament and sovereign judicatures in France, for many years, there are not above three or four decisions relating to bills of exchange: the reason whereof is, because, in all the trading towns of France, established courts-merchants take cognizance of differences between persons of that profession, in a summary manner; except where the intervening of some nice points of law render merchants incompetent judges, which are carried before the parliament. Such courts for determining differences arising upon matters of commerce are also erected in most other trading nations in Europe, though there is no such judicature as yet in Britain. This matter was but of late well understood by lawyers: for, in deciding controversies of this nature, the advice of merchants was frequently taken and followed; and even few of those have a right notion of it. The French lawyers never much applied themselves to treat of it. M. Marechal, 1625, published *Un traité de Change & Rechange, & Banqueroutes*, crammed with citations of laws and doctors; but he runs over bills so superficially and disorderly, that it is more than likely he was but little acquainted with the subject. Clerac, 1695, printed another *Traité de Change*, to as little purpose. Sieur Jacques Savary, though he excels the other two in his *Parfait Negociant*, handles the argument so meanly, that it is plain he never went to the root of it. *L'Art des lettres de Change*, par Monsieur Jacques du Puy, illustrates the nature of an exchange contract, and contains some principles for deciding questions of this kind: but, as that author hath some good things, so he is chargeable with many material defects, and is far from answering the title of his works. The French edict of commerce, 1673, regulates and decides only the more ordinary cases. Sam. Ricard's *Traité general du commerce*, has many useful practical things; yet these are only touched as a merchant, but does not case the matter, or dip into the point of law. Marius's Advice concerning Bills of Exchange, and Malines, are as flat and heavy as they are injudicious. Scarler's *Stile of Exchanges* is but an undigested collection of incoherent rules and aphorisms, and blended with inconsistencies. Wyffel *Styl tot Amsterdam*, or the course of exchange at Amsterdam, which, though it contains several things touching the particular customs in Holland, is but a rhapsody of tautologies and superfluous matter. Molloy's *de Jure Maritimo & Navali* has but one chapter on bills of exchange, wherein there are not many cases, nor are those given so fully as to be satisfactorily understood; and, indeed, cases without the essential circumstances, and pleadings, are of little avail.

It was necessary, therefore, we apprehend, for the use of the traders of this nation in particular, to collect a number of select cases, with all their pleadings, by means of which, as before observed, a very good judgment may be made of many others, which may not quadrate in all their circumstances. The laws of exchange are universal, as well as particular. The former are those established by the common consent of all nations, called The customs of merchants, which are everywhere in force. The latter are the peculiar laws of exchange, that obtain in several countries, by statute or custom. But though there are some special differences of formality, as we have seen, in the management of it in different places, yet the common law of exchange is much the same everywhere, all nations having concurred, as much as possible, to encourage this advantageous commerce, and to free it of all incumbrances which might interrupt it's progress: so that there does not seem to be great reason for the distinction frequently made between the custom of merchants and the analogy of our law, as if these often clashed and interfered; since nothing merits the denomination of a merchant-custom but what universally obtains, & apud omnes per æque observatur, abstracted from the civil and municipal customs of particular places, which are too often unjustly obtruded for the custom of merchants.

The laws of exchange are not so exactly observed in Spain as in England, France, and Holland. In England the law pays due regard to the custom of merchants. Inland bills and promissory notes, we have seen, are privileged by statute; concerning which also in France, careful provision, we find, is made by royal edicts and ordinances, particularly that of Lewis XIV. anno 1673. In Scotland, all bills of exchange, whether inland or foreign, have the same force by positive law*, though they have no such regard as the French or English to promissory notes. In several places of Italy, as Bologna, the rules of exchanges are established by law and ordinances, and in others by immemorial practice, or local custom. The more considerable trading cities of Germany, as Hamburgh, Frankfort, Augsburgh, Leipfick, as we have shewn, have also their particular orders and regulations, with relation to bills of exchange. See the articles EXCHANGE and ACCEPTANCE.

* Act 20. par. 3. Char. II. Act 36. sess. 6. par. K. W.

BILL of Lading, is a memorandum, or acknowledgment, signed, by the master of a ship, and given to a merchant, or any other person, containing an account of the goods which the master has received on board from that merchant, or other person; with a promise to deliver them at the intended place, for a certain salary. The French use the word *connoissement* for ships sailing in the ocean, and they say *police de chargement* (a policy of lading) when they speak of ships sailing in the Mediterranean.

According to the ordonnance of the marine, or navy; in France, made in August, 1681, tit 2. of the third book, the bills of lading ought to be signed by the master, or the cap-merchant, and must contain an account of the quality and quantity of the merchandizes, the marks and numbers of the bales, chests, or parcels; the name of the merchant who shipped them, that of the person to whom they are to be delivered, or to whom they are consigned; the place from whence the ship sails, that where the goods are to be landed, the name of the master, that of the ship, and the price agreed upon for freight or carriage.

Each bill of lading must be made treble, one for the merchant who loads the goods; another to be sent to the person to whom the goods are consigned, at the place where they are to be landed; and the third to remain in the hands of the master of the ship, or of the cap-merchant.

Four-and-twenty hours after the goods have been put on board the ship, the merchants are obliged to present the bills of lading to the master, for him to sign them, and to furnish him with the acquittal, or discharge, of their merchandizes, upon pain of paying the interest of the delay.

The factors, commissioners, and others, who receive the merchandizes mentioned in the bills of lading, are obliged to give receipts for them to the masters who require them, upon pain of paying all costs, damages, and interests, even those incurred by the delay.

When there happens to be any difference in the several bills of lading of the same merchandize, that which is in the master's hands is to be credited, if it was filled up with the merchant's own hand, or with that of his factor; and that which is in the merchant's possession ought to be followed, if it was filled up by the master's own hand.

It must be observed, that a bill of lading is used only; when the merchandizes sent on board a ship are but part of the cargo; for, when a merchant loads a whole vessel for his own personal account, the deed passed between him and the master, or owner of the ship, is called **CHARTER-PARTY**. See that article.

That the reader may the better understand what has been observed above, it was thought proper to insert in this place, the three following models, or forms, of bills of lading; the first as is used by the French, the second by the Dutch, and the third by the English.

In order to distinguish what is printed from what is left blank in the printed forms to be filled up by the parties concerned, we shall set down in the following forms what is printed, in a Roman letter, and what is written in the blanks in Italics.

The form of a French Bill of Lading.

Jesus Maria Joseph. *At Marseilles the 7th of March, 1743*, were loaded in the name of God, and of good safety, at the port and harbour of this city, by Mr Charles, for the account of Mr *Ijabeau*, on board the ship called the *St John the Baptist*, commanded by Captain James Rebutty, to carry and bring, with God's help, to *Havre de Grace*, and deliver to Mr *Pinant, merchant*, or to his assigns, the merchandizes hereafter mentioned, to wit, 1. *I say, two tuns of wine, containing eight millerelles, no. 1, 2.* Further, 2. *I say, two bales of old Flanders tapestries, directed to Mr. Ijabeau*; which above-said merchandizes have been shipped on board the said ship well-conditioned, and marked with the mark as per margin; for which, when delivered by God's assistance at the said *Havre de Grace*, without any thing being wetted or spoiled, shall be paid by the said *Sieur Pinant*, or his agent, for freight, *three-score and fifteen livres per tun, containing fourteen millerelles of this city for the wine, and six livres for the two bales of tapestry, &c.*

Signed GERMA, &c.

The form of a Dutch Bill of Lading.

I Charles Piquet, master under God of the vessel called the *St Ann*, lying at present at anchor before Rotterdam, in order to sail with the first fair wind (which God shall send) to the city of *St Vallery*, where my true unloading is to be made; confess to have received on board my said vessel between decks, of you Mr *William Hennequin*, the following merchandizes, marked and numbered with the same mark and number as per margin; the whole dry, and well conditioned: namely, *one bale, containing six half pieces of woollen cloth*; which merchandizes I promise to deliver to *Messieurs Marses and Angueux* or to their commissioner, factor, or agent, the dangers and accidents of the sea only excepted. And for the performance

formance of what is here said I have bound, by these presents, my person, my goods, and my said ship, freight and tackle, and shewing to me one of these bills of lading, and paying to me for freight of the said merchandizes the sum of *five guilders*, over and above the customary average and duties. In witness of the truth of which I have signed, with my own sign manual, three bills of lading, of the same tenor, of which one being performed, the others shall remain of no value. Done at *Rotterdam, the 15th of September, 1743.*

Signed CHARLES PIQUET.

The form of an English Bill of Lading.

N. B. That the words between [] are blanks filled up.

Shipped by the grace of God, in good order, and well-conditioned, by [F. C. of London, merchant] in and upon the good ship called [Mermaid] whereof is master, under God, for this present voyage [N. O.] mariner, and now riding at anchor [in the port of London] and by God's grace bound for Leghorn in Italy; to say [one bale of woollen cloth, one cask of tin in blocks, and one cask of refined sugar, contents, &c. as per invoice] being marked and numbered as in the margin, and are to be delivered in the like good order, and well-conditioned, at the aforefaid port of [Leghorn] (the danger of the sea only excepted) unto [Mr P. R. merchant there] or to his assigns, he or they paying freight for the said good [two dollars and a half per 100 weight for the tin, and one dollar and a half per cloth] with primage and average accustomed. In witness whereof the master, or purser of the said ship, hath affirmed to [three] bills, one of which being accomplished the other [two] to stand void. And so God send the good ship to her desired port in safety. Amen. Dated in [London the 4th day of January, 1752.] In fides and contents unknown to

N. O.

Evans versus Martlett.

If goods by bills of lading are consigned to A, A is the owner, and must bring the action against the master of the ship, if they are lost. But if they be special, to be delivered to A, to the use of B, B ought to bring the action. But if the bill be general to A, and the invoice only shews that they are upon the account of B, A ought always to bring the action, for the property is in him, and B has only a trust, per totam curiam. And per Holt, chief-justice, the assignee of a bill of lading has such a property as that he may assign it over. And Shower said, that it had been adjudged so in the Exchequer. Lord Raym. 271.

BILL of Parcels, is an account given by the seller to the buyer, containing the particulars of all the sorts and prices of the goods bought.

BILL of Sale, is a solemn contract, under seal, whereby a man passes the right, or interest, that he has in goods and chattles; for if a man promises, or gives any chattles, without valuable consideration, or without delivering possession, this alters no property, because it is nudum pactum, unde non oritur actio; but, if a man sells goods by deed under seal duly executed, this alters the property between the parties, though there be no consideration, or no delivery of possession, because a man is exposed to deny his own deed, or affirm any thing contrary to the manifest solemnity of contracting.

But what is chiefly to be considered under this head, is the statute of 13 Eliz. cap. 5. by which it is enacted, 'That all fraudulent conveyances of lands, &c. goods and chattles, to avoid the debt or duty of another, shall (as against the party only, whose debt, or duty, is so endeavoured to be avoided) be utterly void, except grants made bona fide, and on a good (which is construed a valuable) consideration.' And by the latter clause of that statute it is provided, 'That all parties to such fraudulent conveyance, who, being privy thereto, shall wittingly justify the same to be done bona fide, and on good consideration; or shall alien or assign any lands, lease, or goods, so to them conveyed as aforefaid, shall forfeit one year's value of the lands, lease, rent common, or other profit out of the same, and the whole value of the goods; and, being thereof convicted, shall suffer half a year's imprisonment without bail, the forfeiture to be divided between the queen and the party grieved.'

For the explanation of this statute the following cases may serve.

A being indebted to B in 400 l. and to C in 200 l. C brings debt against him, and, hanging the writ, A being possessed of goods and chattles to the value of 300 l. makes a secret conveyance of them all, without exception, to B, in satisfaction of his debt; but, notwithstanding, continues in possession of them, and sells some of them, and, others of them being steep, he sets a mark on; and resolved, that it was a fraudulent gift and sale, within the aforefaid statute, and shall not prevent C of his execution for his just debt; for though such sale hath one of the qualifications required by the statute, being made to a creditor, for his just debt, and, con-

sequently, on a valuable consideration; yet it wants the other; for the owner's continuing in possession is a fixed and undoubted character of a fraudulent conveyance, because the possession is the only indicium of the property of a chattel, and, therefore, this sale is not made bona fide. 3 Co. 80. Mo. 638. 2 Bullst. 226. Twine's case.

Upon the same reasons the following case turns: A is indebted to five several persons, to the sum of 20 l. cash, and having goods to the value of 20 l. makes a gift of them to one of the five, in satisfaction of his debt, but upon this secret trust between them, that the grantee, in compassion to his circumstances, should deal favourably with him, in permitting him, or some other for him, to use and possess the said goods, paying this creditor, as he was able, and could afford it, the said debt of 20 l. and resolved to be a fraudulent conveyance and deed of sale. 3 Co. 81. Mo. 639.

So in that case, if A makes a bill of sale of all his goods, in consideration of blood and natural affection to his son, or one of his relations, it is a void conveyance in respect of creditors; for the considerations of blood, &c. which are made the motives of this gift, are esteemed in their nature inferior to valuable considerations, which are necessarily required in such sales by 13 Eliz. cap. 5. and this is a construction suitable to the strictest rules of equity; for, if considerations of blood or natural affection were allowed to be of equal dignity with, or to come under the notion of, valuable considerations required by this statute, then it would be in the power of any debtor, by such conveyances of his personal estate to his kindred, to build a family, upon a conduct to his creditors, which carries in it all the strains of injustice and collusive dealing: moreover, there is a strong presumption that such sales to relations are constantly attended with a secret trust and personal confidence of recovering part of the goods to the vender, for his subsistence; so that they are intirely inconsistent with the scheme laid down by the statute, and therefore void and illegal. 2 Rot. Abr. 779. 3 Co. 81. Palm. 214.

A possessed of divers goods to the value of 250 l. by covin to defraud his creditors, made a gift thereof to his daughter, on condition to be void on payment of 20 s. adjudged that it was apparently a fraudulent conveyance, and void. Cro. Eliz. 810. Bethel versus Stanhope.

As the owner's continuing in possession of his goods, after his bill of sale of them, is an undoubted badge of a fraudulent conveyance, because the possession is the only indicium of the property of a chattel, which is a thing unfixed and transitory; so there are other marks and characters of fraud; as a general conveyance of them all without any exception; for it is hardly to be presumed that a man will strip himself intirely of all his personal property, not excepting his bedding and wearing-apparel, unless there was some secret correspondence and good understanding settled between him and the vendee, for a private occupancy of all, or some part of the goods, for his support; also a secret manner of transacting such bills of sale and unusual clauses in it; as that it is made honestly, truly, and bona fide; are marks of fraud and collusion; for such an artful and forced drefs and appearance give a suspicion and jealousy of some defect varnished over with it. 3 Co. 81. Mo. 638.

If goods continue in the possession of the vender, after a bill of sale of them, though there is a clause in the bill that the vender shall account annually with the vendee for them, yet it is a fraud; since, if such colouring were admitted, there would be no difficulty whatever to avoid the provisions and cautions of the aforefaid act. Mo. 638.

A man takes a wife, and afterwards marries another, his first wife living, and by deed gave part of his goods to his pretended second wife; it seems this is a fraudulent gift, within 13 Eliz. and by the common law too, in respect of creditors, because made without any valuable consideration; for the second pretended marriage is so far from coming under the notion of a consideration, that it is a crime punishable by law. 2 Leon. 223. Stamford's case, per Dyer.

Where there is an absolute conveyance, or gift, of a lease for years, and the person who makes it continues in possession after such sale, the gift is fraudulent, because attended with that distinguishing character of a fraud; but if the conveyance, or sale, be conditional, as that upon payment of so much money, the lease shall go to the vendee; their continuance in possession after the gift does not make it fraudulent, because the vendee is not to have the lease in possession, till he performs the condition.

A has a lease of certain lands for 60 years, if he so long lives, and forges a lease for 90 years absolutely, and by indenture, reciting this forged lease, bargains and sells it for valuable considerations, together with his interest in the land, to B. In this case B is not a purchaser within 27 Eliz. cap. 4. for though there were general words in the sale, to pass the true interest, yet it is plain that it never was contracted for, or originally included in the bargain; so that, the bargain being made of an imaginary interest, the bargainee can never come under the character of a real purchaser, to defeat the purchaser of the true lease of 60 years which A was really possessed of. Co. Litt. 3. Sir Richard Cobham's case.

A, by bill of sale, made over his goods to a trustee, for B, who lived with him as his wife, and was so reputed, and he also purchased the lease of a house wherein he dwelt, in the name of a trustee, and declared the trust thereof to himself for life, then in trust for B, during the residue of the term; and his bill of sale was held fraudulent, as to creditors; but, as to the declaration of the trust of the term, the court held it good, and not liable to A's debts, the term being never in him, and being so settled at the time it was purchased, and A might have given the money to B, who might have purchased it for herself, and in her own name. 2 Vern. 49c. Decreed in equity between Fletcher and lady Ledley.

If A makes a bill of sale to B, a creditor, and afterwards to C, another creditor, and delivers possession at the time of the sale to neither, after C gets possession of them, and B takes them out of his possession, C cannot maintain trespass, because the first bill of sale is fraudulent against creditors, and so is the second; yet they both bind A, and B's is the elder title, and the naked possession of C ought not to prevail against the title of B, that is prior, where both are equally creditors, and possession, at the time of the bill of sale, is delivered over to neither. Abr. Eq. 148. Baker versus Lloyd. Per Holt.

BILL of Store, is a licence granted at the custom-house to merchants, whereby they have liberty to carry, custom-free, all such stores and provisions, as they may have occasion for during their voyage.

BILLEDULGERID, a territory in Africa. This country is said by geographers to derive its name from the Arabic Biled-el-gerid, which signifies the land of dates, it abounding with that kind of fruit, more than any other part of that quarter of the world; inasmuch that it can furnish most of the neighbouring kingdoms with it, in exchange for wheat, which grows here in very small quantities. It is bounded on the east by a ridge of high mountains, which parts it from the kingdom of Tripoli, and part of Gadamis; on the south, by the province of Verghela, and on the west by the countries of Zeb and Mezeb, and part of the kingdom of Coucque, or in more general terms, by the kingdom of Algiers.

This whole country is very mountainous, sandy, and barren, producing little sustenance, excepting prodigious quantities of dates, as before intimated, some parts of it being quite covered with large thick woods of palm-trees, from which that fruit is gathered. The climate is hot and unhealthy, and the people lean, and of a swarthy and shrivelled complexion; their eyes are very much hurt by the east-wind, which drives the hot sand into them; and are sometimes so violent, as to bury them under it by whole herds. They are mostly a mixture of ancient Africans and wild Arabs, the former living in some kind of cities or towns, the latter in tents, and ranging from place to place for food and plunder. The Arabs, who esteem themselves of the most noble race of the two, are in some manner independent, and will hire themselves into the service of the neighbouring princes that are at war. The rest either follow the plundering or hunting trade, which last is one of their noblest diversions, especially that of ostriches, which are said to be here as high as a man on horseback. They eat their flesh, barter their feathers for corn, pulse, or other things they want, use their hearts in their conjuring tricks, their fat or oil as a medicine, make pendants for their ears of their talons, and turn their skins into snuffboxes. Their common food, besides the dates above-mentioned, is the flesh of these ostriches, and of their goats and camels; and their drink either the thin liquor or broth in which that flesh is boiled, or the milk of their camels, for they seldom drink any water, that little they have of it being neither wholesome nor pleasant, but in most parts they labour much under the want of it. They have some horses, which they use in their hunting, and thievish exploits; in both which, those of the better sort are attended by their black slaves, and the rest by their obsequious wives, who look after them and their horses, and perform all the most slavish services about them.

Some schools they have, to which they send their boys, who, if they prove proficient in that kind of learning they are taught, are commonly raised to the dignities of judges or priests, or more properly conjurers or jugglers, for they use a great deal of that superstitious trash. Some few among them give themselves to trades, but the generality despise it as below them; and where any of them think it worth their while to till the land, which is but rarely done, they commonly leave it to their wives and slaves. Some of them wander from one end of their country to the other, with their herds of cattle.

TOUSERA, or **TEUZAR**, is a town or colony, near the frontiers of Tunis, in latitude 32, 28, and east longitude 10, 26. Marmol places it in Numidia, and Mons. De Lisle in Billedulgerid. The town is parted by the river; one side of it is inhabited by some of the ancient Africans, and the other by the Arabs. Here are held several fairs, to which all the neighbouring countries resort to purchase what they have, and the people are pretty wealthy both in money and dates.

CAPSA, the other colony in Billedulgerid, in the latitude 33, 15, and east longitude 9, 3; which was formerly, according

to Marmol, very populous, and had some stately mosques, and other structures, and handsome streets, but was inhabited only by poor people, whom the oppression of the Tunis government will scarce suffer to live. In the heart of the city is an inclosed fountain, whose water is hot, and serves equally for bathing and for drinking, when it is cool. The territory about it abounds in palm, citron, olive, and other fruit trees; but the climate and inhabitants are very unhealthy, which makes them peevish and churlish to strangers: which, together with their want of commerce, gives them a rank little above the pitch of the brute creation.

TO BIND an Apprentice, is to engage him with a master, or freeman of any company, in order to learn, during a certain number of years, which is regulated in France by the statutes, and in England is generally of seven years, the profession or trade of the master with whom he is bound.

We say, that a master cannot bind above one or two apprentices at a time, to signify that he cannot have above that number, according to the regulation and by-laws of his company. See APPRENTICE.

TO BIND oneself for another, is to be his bail, or surety; to engage to pay for him, to make oneself answerable for the losses and damages that may happen through his fault.

TO BIND Books, is to sew together the sheets of a book, and put a cover to it. See BOOK-BINDER.

BINNELANDS-PASS. Thus they call at Amsterdam, and in all the other towns under the dominion of the States General of the United Provinces, a kind of passport which people are obliged to take, when they would transport any merchandize from one town to another, without paying any duty of importation or exportation. That passport costs but 24 stivers; but it must be brought back within six weeks, with a discharge from the commissioners of the customs, certifying, that the merchandizes are arrived at the place they were designed for; otherwise the owner would be obliged to pay duty for them, as if they had been shipped for exportation into foreign countries.

Binneland is a Dutch word, which signifies inland.

BIRCH-TREE, in Latin **BETULA**, is a tree of a middling height: its branches are thin, flexible, and bending. The outward rind of the trunk is thick, rough, white, and full of crevices: but the inward rind is thin and smooth like parchment; the ancients used it instead of paper. The wood of this tree is white; the leaves are pretty broad, peaked and indented on the edges; they are like those of the black poplar, being green, tender, smooth, and of a bitter taste. Its flowers are catkins, of the length of long pepper, with several leaves placed like scales, and fastened to a small pedicle. These catkins leave no fruit behind them; the fruit is produced at a distance, on different parts of the same tree: it looks first like a small ear of corn, with several scales, which becomes afterwards a little squamose cone, of which the scales, cut for the most part like trefoil, cover each of them a winged seed. This tree casts its outer rind every year. It grows in a poor soil, or marshy places.

The timber of this tree, though accounted the worst of all others, yet it is not without its various uses. The turners often use it to make chairs, &c. and the husbandman for making ox-yokes; it is also planted for hop-poles, hoops, &c. and is proper likewise to make baskets of its branches: but in places within twenty miles of London, it is kept often cut to make brooms, and turns to very good account.

BIRD, a two-legged animal, covered with feathers, and having two wings, with which it raises itself up into the air, and which it uses to support itself there, and to fly. There are nevertheless some kinds of birds, which run rather than fly. We call singing and pleasure-birds, those whose warbling is agreeable to the ear, or those, which, by the brightness and variety of their plumage, are pleasing to the eye. They are also called aviary-birds, because they are kept in aviaries, or great cages made of iron or brass-wire, where they are brought up and fed. None but the masters-bird-catchers trade in these birds in France.

There are divers kinds of birds, either tame or wild, whose feathers and down are part of the trade of different merchants. Of that number are the ostriches, the fine feathers of whose wings and tails are sold by the feathermen; the swans and geese, whose large feathers or quills are sold by the stationers, and whose down is used by upholsterers in several of their works; the grebes, of which very fine muffs are made, and those kinds of falcons or hawks, which furnish the ledredon, a very light and warm downy skin, which has not been above half a century in fashion.

BIRD-CATCHER: this, though a mean trade, we shall take notice of it, by reason that what follows will shew, that even the lowest is under some proper regulation in France. Such a one is he who goes a birding, to catch small birds, to bring them up, and make a trade of them. In France, the bird-catchers do also make the aviaries and cages, either of wood or wire, to keep the birds and make them fit; as also the traps to catch them, and all the several nets that are used in that innocent and agreeable fowling.

At Paris, the bird-catchers are a pretty numerous corporation or company, which is none of the most modern. Their

statutes and rules were given them, from the remotest antiquity, by the officers of the forests at Paris; and the rules and statutes by which they are at present governed, were delivered to them in May 1647, by the recorder of that jurisdiction, as being extracted from the ancient registers.

These rules and statutes are composed of fifteen articles, the chief of which ascertain the time during which the jurats ought to continue in office, the number of years for which apprentices are to be bound, and the right, difference; and order of the visitations.

No jurat can continue in office above two years; apprentices are bound for three years, and the visitations both of the foreign merchants, and of the master bird-catchers of the city and suburbs of Paris, are performed as follow.

No foreign merchant, who brings to Paris any of those birds called Canary-birds, either common, or from the Canaries, can sell them, before he has exposed them to public view from ten of the clock in the forenoon 'till twelve, on the marble-stone of the justice-hall, on the days when the parliament meets, of which he is obliged to take the certificate from the officers of the forests. He is likewise to wait 'till the governors of the king's aviaries, having had notice given them by the jurats, have declared, that the said aviaries are sufficiently stocked with those birds, and 'till the master bird-catchers have also refused to buy any of his birds; after which, such a merchant is at liberty to sell them to whom he pleases, but yet not before he has given to every jurat a bird out of each cage, for their duty or perquisite of visitation.

In case the master bird-catchers think fit to buy all the birds, they are to distribute them by lots among such freemen of their company who would have any.

No man can trade in singing or pleasure-birds, nor go about to catch any, unless he be free of the company; and no one can be made free, unless he has been an apprentice, except he be a freeman's son.

None but freemen are allowed to import and feed ortolans; nor can they sell them alive to retailers, in order to be fattened, and rendered fit for eating, under the penalty of forfeiting the birds, and of a fine to be paid both by the buyer and the seller. The freemen of that corporation have also the sole right of making bird-cages, and nets to catch birds; they have also the liberty to cast, either of lead or any other metal, drinking-pots for birds.

The birds which the master bird-catchers only are allowed to catch, either with bird-lime, bird-calls, nets, or otherwise, are all those which are called singing or pleasure-birds; such as linnets, goldfinches, chaffinches, canaries, linets, nightingales, quails, larks, blackbirds, siskins, ortolans, and others of the same quality.

The time during which it is not lawful to go a bird-catching, is from the middle of May 'till the middle of August, because during that time the birds couple, make their nests, and hatch their young ones: birds of passage, however, are excepted from this rule, such as quails, nightingales, and ortolans, which may be caught from the 2d of April to the 2d of May, which is the time when they come, and from the 1st of August 'till they go back.

The places where, and days on which, the bird-catchers may expose to sale the birds they have either caught or brought up, are their own shops every day of the week, and the Valley of Misery (a place at Paris) on Sundays and holidays; except on the highest festivals, and on days of general processions: they being permitted on Sundays, and less solemn holidays, to expose to view and hang their cages before the shops and walls of the houses of the said valley.

Besides the above-mentioned birds, the freemen of that corporation sell also turtle-doves, pigeons, parrots, parokates, squirrels, and other small animals for pleasure.

Finally, according to a very ancient custom, and by virtue of two articles in their statutes, namely, the seventh and the fifteenth, the jurats are obliged to be present at the king's coronation, to bring birds thither, and let them fly in the church where the ceremony is performed. And the freemen are also obliged to let fly, as a token of joy, on Corpus Christi day, and when a queen makes her entry, a certain number of birds which are ordered by the officers of the forests.

BIRD'S-NESTS, a kind of spice very much esteemed in China, and throughout all the East-Indies; it is to be found in Tonquin and in Cochinchina, but more particularly in the kingdom of Campa, or Champa, which is situated between both. The birds which make those nests to lay their eggs, and hatch their young ones in, are pretty much like the swallows: in coupling-time, there issues from their bills a clammy foam or glutinous matter, which is the only material they build their nests with; they fasten them to the rocks, by applying to them that glutinous substance, by several layers the one over the other, as the former becomes dry. These nests are of the form of a middle-sized spoon, but the brims are higher.

There are so many of these kinds of nests, that they gather every year several hundred weight of them, which are almost all carried into China, where they are sold for 5 taels per hundred weight, which amount to about a hundred Spanish

ducats. They are thought to be good for the stomach and the head, and give a delicious taste to the meat seasoned with them.

R E M A R K S.

As it is very difficult nicely to observe the natural objects, which one sees or hears mentioned in the Indies, this is the reason why they are but very imperfectly described by travellers. We should, therefore, be satisfied to learn to know them from their accounts but by parts, 'till time and repeated observations, give us a perfect knowledge of them. The first relations always present us with something wonderful; but the wonder decreases, in proportion as things are more accurately observed, and become more familiar to us. When it is reported, that in the Indies people eat bird's-nests, there is no man but must wonder at it; nay, many think they are imposed upon, because it appears to them quite repugnant to nature, or at least very little acceptable to the palate.

The thing seems more surprising still, if we say, that those nests are eaten not as a spice, as Monsieur Savary asserts, who has been misled by some erroneous memoirs, but as a true food, very nourishing and salubrious.

The travellers who mention these nests, have not been well informed of the places where they are found, nor of the substance they are composed of, nor of the real use that is made of them. Of all this we shall here give an account, with a true description of those nests, which no man has yet accurately described.

The bird who makes them is a kind of swallow, the upper part of whose body, including the head and tail, is of a bluish black, and the under part is white: it's head is small, it's bill short, thick, crooked, bluish, and very shining: it's legs are short and slim, it's wings very long, extending far beyond it's tail.

This kind of swallows dwell upon high rocks, which are the true places where they nestle. There are seen vast numbers of them in all the Sunda isles, in the Molucca's, in the islands of New Guinea, in the Philippine islands, and on all the coast of the main land, which lies between the peninsula of Malacca as far as China; that is to say, in such places as are mountainous, and full of rocks: which is quite different from what Tavernier and father Tachard tells us of their nests, asserting that they are no where to be met with but in Tonquin and Cochinchina. This kind of swallows must needs abound most plentifully in all those places, since several thousands of pounds are taken for them yearly, and great quantities used for the table in the Indies.

These nests differ something from one another in their size, thickness, colour, and weight. Their diameter commonly is full three fingers breadth on the top, and their perpendicular depth, which is greatest in the middle, does not exceed an inch. The substance of these nests is white, or reddish, and somewhat transparent: in some nests, and in certain places, it is mixed with a dark purple. Their thickness is near that of a silver spoon. The form of one of these nests is not much unlike a sea-shell; it is, as it were, an irregular semicircle, whose diameter, or side, which is about three inches long, is that which is fixed to the rock, where the bird built it. It's weight is about a quarter of an ounce, sometimes a little more, and sometimes a little less.

These nests are very brittle, and their substance, being broke in pieces, shines in the inside like gum. As the matter was applied, by the industry of the bird, in liquid and clammy threads, the nests seem wrinkled, or slightly furrowed, on the surface. All that I have been asserting, in this description, must be understood of the nests that are very dry, and have been long kept; for, on those inaccessible places where they are fastened, they are more limber, larger in their dimensions, and heavier.

As to the matter of which they are made, travellers have been puzzled to know what it is; most of them have thought it to be a kind of clammy foam, which issues from the bills of those birds in coupling-time, as Monsieur Savary asserts here after them.

But here follows an account that must undeceive the public. These swallows do, indeed, build their nests in coupling-time, as all other birds do, and particularly our swallows; but then, like ours, they go and fetch elsewhere the materials for building their nests. As every kind of volatiles have their different ways of building their nests, and even the same kind in different climates; so these swallows use a particular substance, different from that used by any other bird. It is an animal substance, which they go and fetch on the sea-shore; they fix on a kind of star-fish, whose substance, or flesh, resembles a slimy and viscous jelly, which the sea ebbling leaves on the shore; of which they take whole bills full, which each bird carries to the place where it designs to make it's nest, applying it by threads one over the other at several times, flying backwards and forwards all the while, 'till the nest be finished. Some people pretend that these birds get that glutinous matter from a kind of oysters,

oysters, or some other shell-fish, which abound in those seas, and are of the kind called in Latin chama, which is a sort of cockle. It may be that those swallows take the materials of their nests from both these sorts of sea insects; their crooked and strong bills show sufficiently that they are able to tear those animals to pieces, and take their substance away.

To come now to the use of these nests, it must be observed that they are by no means sought for on account of their taste only, as is in some relations falsely asserted: for it is certain that they are of an insipid taste, which must be heightened with seasoning, mixing them with good meat, to make them good and palatable; so far are they from serving instead of spice to season other meat, as was thought formerly.

But they are reckoned good, light, and wholesome food, very proper for sick people; they are so well dressed with several other good ingredients, that they prove an excellent dish to those who do not know what it is; as the materials with which they are made come from fish, they are not insalubrious.

The Dutch use a great many of these nests, and as many in proportion as the Chinese, both at Batavia, and in the other parts of the East-Indies. Their ships, especially, have always a large provision of them for the table of their officers, which serve them instead of garden-stuff, either in soups, or dressed in the form of a mess.

The substance of these birds-nests is very clean, and free from all manner of filth. There are seen, sometimes, small feathers adhering to the inward surface of the nest, but they are easily separated, when the nest is put for some time in water to soak, in order to mellow and prepare them for dressing. They are white, and pretty much like vermicelli; so that they are pleasant enough to the sight.

Of late years the Dutch, and even the English, bring some of these nests into Europe, to make the curious taste of them, and to adorn cabinets with, rather than for any other use. In this last case they are worth keeping; I have made presents of some to several learned men at Paris, since I came back from the Indies.

These nests are sold at Batavia from one rixdollar and an half to two rixdollars, Dutch money, per pound: they are sold in parcels, being placed very regularly, the one within the other, neatly tied with strings of reeds, neatly wove, as it were, like a basket boot-fashion, with holes, through which the nests are seen. Memoirs of Mr. Garcin.

BIRMINGHAM Hard-ware-men, or dealers in the city of London, Sheffield, and Brimingham wares, are so called, because they principally trade in, and mostly wholesale, all sorts of tools, smaller utensils, toys, buckles, buttons, in iron, steel, brass, &c. made in London, and the great trading towns of Brimingham in Warwickshire, and Sheffield in Yorkshire, where many thousand of artizans in different branches, are constantly employed, but for the most part in the smithery and cutlery ways.

There are but few of these in London; yet almost all of them carry on a very extensive trade, and are reputed wealthy. It is not easy to conceive, much less to describe, the numerous articles that pass through their hands: therefore a youth, desirous to serve an apprenticeship to this business, should be ready and acute, not want a good memory, write a plain hand, know arithmetic, and somewhat of book-keeping.

This trade will require at least 500 l. to set a man up; and one that intends to pursue business with spirit, may dispense with 2000 l.

BIS. This is a Latin word, which signifies twice. It is often used among merchants, particularly when through inadvertency or mistake two leaves in the same book have been marked with the same number: in which case one writes bis next to the number of one of those leaves, to shew that it has been used twice.

The same caution is observed with regard to the numbers marked upon pieces of stuff, when the same have been repeated. This method has been found out to prevent the trouble of altering a whole series of numbers.

BISA, or **BIZA,** a coin of Pegu, which is current there for half a ducat.

It is also a weight used in the same kingdom, to weigh merchandizes. It is equal to two pounds and five ounces of Venice, or to three pounds and nine ounces of the subtle, or light weigh, of the same city; and 100 pounds subtle weight of Venice make about $65\frac{1}{4}$ pounds of London. Each bifa weighs 100 tecalis.

The smallest weight after the bifa is the abucco, which weighs but 12 tecalis and a half. The agito weighs two abocchis, and two agiti half a bifa, that is to say, 50 tecalis.

BISCAY, the most north-east principality of Old Spain, which, although subject to the kings of Spain, yet they stile themselves lords of Biscay. As generally taken, it is divided into three provinces, viz. Biscay, properly so called, Guipuscoa, and Alaba, or Alava. The whole is bounded on the west by that slip of Old Castile which reaches to the sea, and parts Asturias from Biscay on the south. The ridge of mountains branching from the Pyrenees separate it from Old Castile on the south-east, as the same mountains part it again from Navarre, and the little river Cidaro from France, on the east; and on the

north side it is washed by the Cantabrian sea, called commonly the bay of Biscay. The whole length, from east to west, is about 120 miles, and, from north to south, where broadest, somewhat less than 60.

The country is mountainous and barren, producing neither wheat, barley, wine, nor oil, but abundance of millet seed and fruit; so that cyder is here in plenty, and is the common drink of the inhabitants, excepting a small sort of wine made there, which they call chacolino. Some flax is likewise produced in their vallies, and abundance of timber for shipping on the hills. But their greatest treasure consists in their inexhaustible mines of iron, which is esteemed the best in the whole world, and is, therefore, transported thence into all parts.

Here are whole towns of smiths, that carry on the manufacture of all sorts of iron work, especially in the military and naval way; and their workmanship is extremely neat and elegant. There are likewise very considerable quantities of wool shipped off from their sea-ports into most foreign nations, where they have an important woollen manufacture of fine broad cloths, but most of the wool is brought thither from Old Castile. Some, however, they have here, but, as it is neither so fine, nor in any quantity, they manufacture it wholly for their own use.

ORDUNNA, a port-town in this province, situate 25 miles south-west of Bilboa, and is the only place in this province that is dignified with the title of city. It is seated in a plentiful vale, surrounded with high mountains, and distant about 18 miles from the sea. It is more considerable for its trade than bigness.

BILBOA, a large town but no city, though few cities in Spain are larger at least, there are many cities much smaller; nor is there any city in all the north part of Spain that equals it for trade. The port is very good; and, though it stands six miles from the sea, and the river Ibaichaval, or Nervius, on which it stands, is very small and narrow, yet the channel receives ships of good burden, and smaller vessels come up to the very town-mole, or key. Two things make this a place of extraordinary trade: first, it's being the nearest seaport to Madrid, so that, from hence, the manufactures of other countries, especially of England, Holland, and France, are carried by land thither; and this causes a great importation of these goods. It is not a place of any antiquity, being built, as the Spanish historians say, in the year 1300; but it came into trade, and grew rich, from the goodness of its port. The second article of it's greatness is, the export of those two capital products of Spain, wool and iron; both which are brought chiefly to this port. Much of the iron, also, which is in quantity inexhaustible, and in quality incomparably good, is manufactured here, and in all the country near it: and they make here all those necessary things which we call in England hard-ware, as also handy-craft stores, in which iron is necessary, such as mechanic and artificers tools, and tools for husbandry, nails, locks, chains, jacks, crows, pick-axes, wheel-works, &c. as also steel, and steel-ware; with all kinds of military iron work, such as swords, fire-arms of all sorts, and almost all necessary utensils made of that metal. Besides this, the iron and the steel is largely exported in bars, and France takes off a prodigious quantity of it, as well as England.

Here is also a small fleet of ships fitted out annually, for the whale fishery at Greenland, or Spitzbergen; and, in proportion to the number of ships, they have succeeded as well as any other nation, and shew themselves as skilful harponiers as any.

DUSONGO, stands 15 miles distant to the south-east of Bilboa, on a small river, which descends from the mountains with which it is surrounded on the land-side. It is inhabited by about 1500 families, most of them employed in the iron-manufacture, such as sword-blades, hilts, and such-like military implements.

ST SEBASTIAN, a noted port in the bay of Biscay, and territory of Guipuscoa, situate 55 miles east of Bilboa, and 25 south-west of Bayonne. In this port have been seen upwards of 100 English merchant-ships at a time, which have been made prizes by the Spanish privateers, in times of war with Spain. The mole will receive 200 sail of shipping. The inhabitants do not amount to above 1600 families, in two parishes; and they have no great trade but in time of war by privateering.

R E M A R K S.

It being necessary to the interest of Britain that she be well acquainted with the policy of it's neighbouring countries, and in particular to attentively watch every measure they pursue with relation to their commercial interests; it may not be altogether useless to observe what a late very ingenious Spanish writer has said; with regard to the Biscayners, especially as there has been for some years a spirit rising in Spain, that does not forbode any good to the trade of these kingdoms:

'The navigation and commerce, says this Spanish writer, of these provinces [meaning Biscay and Guipuscoa] by sea, have been much impaired by losing several ships, in the ex-peditions

peditions of the late war: for they have not yet been able to replace them, and build others, as they have had very bad harvests, and are not yet paid the whole of what was due to them for freights, and other things: so that it will be very reasonable and expedient to order the ballance of their accounts to be paid immediately, that they may be enabled to build and fit out other vessels, and thus revive and improve their fishery and commerce by sea.

As it is also certain that money is now very scarce in Guipuscoa, where the principal disbursements were usually made for building ships, and other necessary and chargeable preparations for a fishery that is any way considerable, I should apprehend it a very good piece of policy to make them a tender, out of the king's revenue, of 25 or 30,000 doubions, without interest, for their first expences, which usually run high, upon the condition of their repaying it in six years. My intention is, that in the two first years they be not obliged to return any part of it; but, in the four following, to do it in equal payments, 'till the whole be discharged; and, for a security that the loan be repaid in the form and manner that shall be stipulated, let the province of Guipuscoa stand engaged for it, besides the joint bonds given by the private persons who are to receive the money. That the distribution of the money, the execution of the bonds, the securities, and other points, may be well conducted, and with all the precaution that is requisite on such an occasion, let there be chosen out of that province, or sent from the court a minister of known abilities and public spirit, charged with this commission, and to dispose their minds to it, encourage associations, and every thing that should tend to enlarge the fishery of bacalao, on the banks of Newfoundland, as also the fisheries for whales, herrings, &c. in those parts where found to be in plenty.

Should the English, in opposition to all the reasons above-mentioned, still persist in disturbing his majesty's subjects in this fishery, and it be not proper to employ force in order to take satisfaction, and maintain their just rights, 'till we have first tried all the gentler methods which prudence dictates; in my opinion, they should also be given to understand that his majesty, among other expedients, may avail himself of the sovereign right he possesses to prohibit the consumption of bacalao in all his dominions. This too is a measure very practicable, and may be done without any great inconvenience to the common people, whenever the fishery of his majesty's subjects, both on our own coasts, and in other seas, shall be encouraged and enlarged in the way I propose*, and also supported by the provisions I before recommended on the subject of guarda costa. For as the fishery of bacalao was not begun, or even discovered, in Newfoundland, but since the year 1500, and Spain, tho' much more populous, was able to support herself for above a thousand years without this commodity, and all the time observe the vigils and days of abstinence in the Catholic religion; it should, methinks, be no extraordinary or difficult thing to maintain ourselves without it, and so well, as to find no want of it. But I should not advise this step 'till the other, which I have pointed out as a means likely enough to relieve, in a great measure, the misfortunes we sustain from the large consumption of salt-fish from abroad, prove to be insufficient for the purpose.'

* This author, after shewing the advantages which the English, French, and Dutch have derived from their fisheries, takes no little pains to animate the Spanish nation to pursue the like policy; and that the Biscayners and Guipuscoans, in particular, should vie with the English in their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland: and, indeed, that they should vigorously attempt to supply themselves with fish of all kinds, instead of purchasing those of England, Scotland, Ireland, Newfoundland, or New England. And policy of this kind, it is said, has already taken root in Spain, together with many other maxims, which are likely to prove of no advantage to these kingdoms: all which shall be taken due notice of in their proper places, in order to forewarn the nation of the danger, before it may be too late to prevent it.

Further R E M A R K S.

These sentiments were introduced in my first, and second editions of this work; and that they were not groundless suggestions of the author's, the last war has sufficiently evinced; for when Spain joined France, they made pretensions to a share of the FISHERIES at NEWFOUNDLAND: but such care has the court of GREAT-BRITAIN taken of this essential point in the DEFINITIVE TREATY of Peace between his BRITANNIC MAJESTY, the MOST CHRISTIAN KING, and the KING of SPAIN, concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February, 1763, as to obtain the following explicit RENUNCIATION, with regard to the FISHERIES of NEWFOUNDLAND, on the part of the King of Spain; which is contained in the XVIIIth article of the said Definitive Treaty, viz. HIS CATHOLIC MAJESTY DESISTS, AS WELL FOR HIMSELF, AS FOR HIS SUCCESSORS, FROM ALL PRETENSIONS, WHICH HE MAY HAVE FORMED, IN FAVOUR OF THE GUIPUSCOANS, AND OTHER HIS SUBJECTS, TO THE RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF THE

ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND. See the article AMERICA for the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See also the article BAHAMA ISLANDS, with respect to the said DEFINITIVE TREATY, and BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

In chapter 29, the Spanish author further says, which treats of the conduct and practice of the English, and the vast sums of money they drain from us by the sale of bacalao*, and other salt-fish, I introduced a few remarks and observations upon this calamity, and the means which might be employed to prevent it in a great measure, and which I was led into by the reflections of an English writer, well affected to the crowns of Spain and France, in his treatise, under the title of *The interest of England ill understood in the war of queen Anne*. And as we should never lose sight of the principal of those observations and reflections, which are the foundation of the particular provision in support of the fisheries, I have thought proper to repeat some part of them in this place.

* If the Spaniards should attempt to lay any prohibition, or higher duties on our fish, than what are now laid by substituting treaties, they may be soon convinced that the crown of Great-Britain has it in her power to retaliate upon them, by proper measures to be taken in regard to the regulation of our own commerce. These things we shall humbly suggest, in the sequel of this work, under their essential heads.

This minister invites the bishops to allow, throughout the year, the use of certain kinds of food prohibited upon particular days, and means, no doubt, eggs, cheese, milk, and butter, which some religious foundations are restrained from many days in the year. In all probability, he would also insinuate, that the prohibition of flesh might be moderated, as it is in the provinces of the crown of Castile, in respect to Saturdays, and may be extended to the crown of Arragon. In all these measures he apprehends the pope will readily concur, for the reasons he there gives, and others hinted at; and, without daring to speak out, was, in my opinion, willing to tell us, that, if by such means we would reduce the consumption of bacalao, and other cured fish, which they bring us from the North and Newfoundland, we might take away this great advantage from the English, and other powers, who, by the sale of them, drain us of millions of crowns, increase their own strength, and ruin us. These great disadvantages so very much interest our conscience, as well as all good policy, that they deserve the particular attention of all catholic princes, and especially the pope. From the pious zeal of this holy father we have reason to flatter ourselves, that, as soon as he shall be informed of these inconveniencies, he will allow, and even encourage, the measures that tend towards a remedy, even though it be necessary to substitute, in the place of numerous fast-days, another species of abstinence and restraint, that equally administers to the mortification of our souls, and does not turn out so much to the advantage of the rivals of the crowns and the catholic church, as those frequent fast-days do, by opening a way for the importation and consumption of their salt-fish, which is a main branch of their commerce, and a great foundation of their riches and strength.

Though I have some reluctance at the thought of giving my sentiments as to the generality of these points, that are of so delicate a nature, methinks I may, without any scruple, decide in one particular. It is to solicit the permission of his holiness to allow of flesh in the kingdoms of the crown of Arragon, and in Navarre, upon those Saturdays that happen not to be particular vigils, under the restraints, and as it is practised, in the provinces of Castile.

This I propose, both on the strength of the solid and well-known motives already given, and because it would be no more than what has been established for many ages, and is now practised in most parts of the kingdom of Spain, &c.

As to the measures insinuated in the reflections of this writer, which regard the taking off in part the prohibition of flesh on some other days in the year, and permitting religious houses certain sorts of food, which they are restrained from, besides flesh, during the whole, or most part of the year, I judge it a point of greater moment, and to require more deliberation. The utmost I shall have courage to offer is, that there be laid before his holiness the reasons already given, and others that will occur, in particular the increase of strength, and other advantages, which several nations, by means of the great consumption of salt-fish in Spain, acquire and employ against the catholic church itself; that, in his wisdom, he may vouchsafe to determine upon, and establish, those provisions, which he shall judge most effectual, and proper for a remedy; so far at least, as to take off part of the inconveniencies that have been described. For never shall we be able to find a more sure way to succeed in redressing either the grievance itself, or it's accidental circumstances, than by referring it intirely to the great piety, holy zeal, and infallibility of his holiness.

Vide The theory and practice of commerce and maritime affairs, written in Spanish, by the late Don Geronymo de Uztariz, member of his Catholic majesty's privy council, of the

royal board of Trade and the Mint, and his majesty's secretary in the council and chamber of the Indies.

BISCAY NEW, a province of Mexico in America, is bounded by New Mexico on the north; by part of Florida and Panuco on the east; by Zacatecas on the south; and by Culiacan on the west. It is about 100 leagues from east to west, and 120 from north to south. It's being well watered makes it fruitful, and it's situation a little above the tropic of Cancer renders it temperate. Though there is a mountainous barren part, called Topia, yet most of the country is pleasant, abounding with all manner of provisions; and, though it has no communication with the sea, yet the inhabitants are very rich, not only in corn, cattle, &c. but also in silver mines, and some of lead. The natives are warlike, and not yet totally reduced. They have four great towns between the mines of Zacatecas and those of this country, which lie in morasses, and are therefore difficult of access. St Barbara, St John's, and Ende, are three little towns, built by the Spaniards, for defence of the large silver mines in the neighbourhood, and are therefore well inhabited, particularly the first, which lies 240 miles north of Zacatecas. The second lies about 70 miles north of it, and is equally rich in mines, and the third, which is also rich in mines, lies 70 miles west of the second. These are the mines, which Hennipin says, M. de la Salle aimed at, when he ranged the coast of Florida, on pretence of seeking the mouth of the river Mississippi.

BISKET, or **BISCUIT**, from *biscoctus*, twice baked. It is said particularly of that bread, which is made for voyages by sea, especially for long voyages. This sort of bisket must be baked four times, whereas the other sorts are baked but twice.

Bisket, in order to be good, should be made six months before it is put on board a ship: it must be of good wheat flour, thoroughly cleaned from bran, and with a well leavened dough.

Water and bisket are the most necessary provisions in the fitting out of ships, and, if either of these two be lost or spoiled, the crew languish away, and often perish most miserably, especially if they happen to be bound for a very long voyage.

The reader may find under the article **WATER**, which is the most proper to be taken on board, the precautions that are to be taken, in order to preserve it, or to prevent it from running; and even the several experiments which, from time to time, have been tried, to take away the brackishness of sea-water, and render it, if possible, fit to drink.

With regard to bisket, we shall present the reader here with several observations, designed to shew how to make good bisket: they are extracted from a memorial drawn up by Monsr. Savary de Ganche, who had, during ten years, the general direction of the victualling-office of the marine in France, for the district of Brest.

The manner of making sea-bisket.

W H E A T.

Wheat is the only corn that must be used in the making of sea-bisket. It ought to be chosen of a red grain, smooth, and, above all, well cleaned from grit, tares, or yetches, and all sorts of weeds.

New wheat, three or four months old, is the best; that of a year old may also be used, provided it has not been heated, and was kept in very dry and well aired barns, not raised in too high a pile, that is, of two feet and an half at most, and has been well stirred once in a fortnight.

When the corn is taken out of the barn, it must be exposed to the air, and stirred with a shovel two or three times at least. When it is heated on the surface only, which may be known by it's not smelling sour, and if the grains do not stick to each other, when pressed with the hand, it must be kept a month in the barn, and continually stirred, 'till it be well recovered.

F L O U R.

Flour which comes from abroad, especially if it be well cleaned from bran, is not safe to make bisket of, if it be but never so little heated. It's musty scent may be taken away, by often stirring and sifting it; but you can never take off it's bad taste, which afterwards infallibly spoils the bisket. Nevertheless bread may be made of it, because it is not necessary to keep it long.

It is better to have flour from abroad with the bran, because it is not so apt to heat in the boats, when it is well packed up, that is to say, well beaten and pressed in the sacks.

Good flour must have no manner of smell; when put upon the tongue, it ought to taste like a nut; and, when sifted, it must be like velvet to the touch: when it is sandy, that may be found out, by putting a handful of flour into a basin of water; the sand, if there be any, will all settle at the bottom. When the flour comes from the mill, the bran mixed with it ought to be flat and broad; nor should it be sifted 'till about a fortnight after it is ground, that the moisture it has contracted at the mill may dry off, and so pass the better through

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the sieve, which is absolutely necessary for the making of good bisket.

L E A V E N.

In order to make the leaven, a piece of dough weighing about 20 pounds, from the leaven of the last oven-full, should be prepared, which is done, we'll suppose, between 11 and 12 at noon. At four of the clock in the afternoon, the baker puts that dough into the kneading-trough, and pours over it about five gallons of very clean water, a little more than lukewarm, but hotter in winter than in summer; he dilutes afterwards with the quantity of flour necessary to consume all that water, so as to make a dough neither too soft nor too hard. This new mass of dough weighs commonly about sixty pounds. In this condition the baker puts it in a corner of the kneading-trough, surrounding it on all sides with flour to support it. When it has been rising five or six hours, the same operation is repeated; by adding water and flour to the dough, which increases it by about thirty pounds.

About one or two of the clock the next morning, which is the time when the baker would knead, he adds thirty pounds more to the paste, which makes a mass of 120 pounds; of this he takes half to serve as leaven for the next baking, and at the same time kneads the remaining sixty pounds in the kneading-trough for the first oven-full, and, for the other bakings he is to make during the rest of the day, he increases the leaven at once with sixty pounds, which he puts into a tub or bucket, in order to continue the same alternately, except that for the last oven-full he adds but twenty pounds to the leaven, which is to serve for beginning the same operation again the next day.

Care must be taken that the baker, out of laziness, does not knead two ovens-full upon the same leaven for in that case the bisket would be apt to corrupt. Let it be observed, that in winter there ought to be $\frac{2}{3}$ part of leaven more than in summer. It must at all times be covered with some woollen stuff, as cloth, frize, or raten, but never with linnen, to prevent a crust being formed upon it.

In some places, and particularly at Brest, they follow another method, but which is not reckoned so good. They take, indeed, twenty pounds for the first leaven, which they increase to sixty pounds, as in the former operation; but then, within six hours after, they increase it to two hundred pounds, which they divide into four parts, two of which they put at the ends of the kneading-trough, one into one bucket, and another of twenty pounds into another. The three former parts serve to knead the three first bakings, or ovens-full: and the last parts to compose three other parcels of leaven for three other bakings, with a quantity of twenty pounds weight of leaven for the next day's baking.

D O U G H.

The kneader takes water out of the kettle or copper which he used for the leavens, and dilutes that which he would employ into a whitish and thick water; and, putting flour to it two or three times, he kneads it quickly and very strongly with his fists, going from the right to the left, and beginning again from one end to the other, and from the left to the right, he reduces it to one single mass. After this, he flattens it with the palm of his hands, and divides it into four parts: then he flattens them again, and handles and kneads them with all his might one after another; afterwards he puts them again upon one another, and, having cleaned his kneading-trough, he puts the whole into one mass, turning and kneading it still. After which he cuts it again into four parts, which having rejoined for the last time, he takes the dough out of the kneading trough, and puts it upon a table, where another workman turns it often and often, during a quarter of an hour, 'till it be very firm and dry.

C A K E S.

As soon as the dough is in the above mentioned condition, it must immediately be made into cakes. Each cake must weigh fourteen ounces of dough, that, when baked, it may weigh eight, or at most nine, ounces.

The dough is cut into pieces of that weight, which pieces are afterwards turned upon the table with the hands into balls, to make it harder still: then it is flattened with a kind of rolling-pin, the middle of which is thicker than the two ends, observing, however, to make the cake something hollow in the middle; as for the edges, they must be even, and be above one third part of an inch thick.

The cake being thus formed, they make the mark, a cross, or some other figure, upon it, with an instrument for that purpose; after which they turn it on the other side, laying it upon the table, as near as possible to those that are already made; finally, a little before they put it into the oven, they prick it four or five-times with an iron instrument that has three points.

Before they prick the cakes and put them into the oven, they must let them rest half an hour upon the table, or even more, if need be, that they may have time to rise, which the baker ought to know and direct.

At Brest, they put the cakes into the oven, as soon as they are pricked, without letting them rest or rise, because they pretend

pretend they are sufficiently furnished with leaven, and in that case they do not cover them.

O V E N.

For the first oven-full, they must begin to heat the oven, as soon as they begin to work the dough with the rolling-pin; and they know that the oven is hot, when the roof of it is of a whitish ash-colour. But for the other oven-full they do not warm the oven, but after they have rolled the dough, or a little sooner or later, according as the baker thinks fit, or as the dough requires it, and the oven is not to be quite so white. It must be observed, that for the first oven-full they may heat the oven with green wood, because it has time to dry and burn: but, for the others, the driest wood is the best, because the dough requires to be soon put into the oven, lest it should dry too much.

The building of an oven.

It must not be above two feet and an half high, taking a perpendicular line from the key-stone of the roof to the center of the floor: the floor must have bricks well burnt, two inches thick, and eight inches square. In such places where they have broad flat stones, which can bear the fire, they use them rather than bricks; the mouth of the oven ought to be two feet wide, by two in the base: the bottom or floor must have five feet and a half in depth, by nine in breadth. The fire should be put at two feet distance from the mouth of the oven, to come directly to the mantle-piece of the chimney: that mantle-piece must be raised about eight inches higher than the mouth of the oven; the oven must be covered.

The baking of the cakes.

After the fire is taken out of the oven, and it has been well swept, the baker thrusts the cakes into the oven the one after the other, on an iron or wooden shovel, observing to place them regularly, so that there may be no void space between them.

He afterwards shuts the oven very close, and puts a few shovels-full of live coals against the door: a quarter of an hour after he opens the oven, to see whether the biskets begin to colour: if he finds it sufficiently coloured, he leaves the oven open for half a quarter of an hour, during which he takes away the coals from before the door, which he shuts again. When the cakes have remained in the oven a full quarter of an hour longer, he takes out some of the cakes which were first put in, and breaks them to see whether they be baked. When they are so, the edges are reddish within; and the little crumb which remains in the middle, is spongy but dry. They put their hand upon that crumb, and, if they observe any moisture in it, it is a sign that the cakes are not baked enough; and they must leave them in the oven, as long as they judge it necessary to dry up all the moisture.

S T O R E - R O O M S.

As soon as the biskets are taken out of the oven, they carry them out into the store-room, which has been well cleaned, and warmed during four days. The store-rooms, to be good, should be built over the ovens, wainscoted at top and bottom, and on all sides, and the joints of the boards well caulked. When the store-room is full, it is never to be opened but to take out the bisket. It requires a month to cool it, and another month to make it stale enough to be sent on board. Observe, that it is customary in Provence to put the bisket into a large airy loft, where they reckon it cools better and more naturally than in the store-rooms, where it is shut up with all its heat; and they take care to shut the windows of those lofts, in damp or rainy weather.

B A K E R S.

Three bakers, or journeymen, are sufficient for each oven; namely, a head-man, who puts the cakes into the oven, as soon as they are pricked, and two kneaders, each of whom is to knead three ovens-full alternately, and help in doing the rest of the work. In Provence they have but five journeymen for two ovens, namely, one head-man and four kneaders. At Brest, the custom is, that the same kneader kneads the six ovens-full for the day, and the other the six for the next day; which is the reason why the dough for the last baking is not so well worked, because the kneader grows tired.

REMARKS upon the shipping of bisket.

It ought to be shipped in fine dry weather, in flat-bottom boats, very tight, in which it should not continue long. The store-rooms in the ships ought to be well wainscoted and caulked, and warmed during six days and six nights with live coals, after which they must be left to dry three or four days, that the moisture drawn in by the fire may evaporate. The store-rooms must afterwards be lined with good mats from top to bottom, and on all sides: it has been observed in France, that the mats made in Provence are better for that purpose, than those of the west. After the bisket is put into the store-rooms, and they have been closely shut, they must not be opened but one after another, as occasion requires, and the bisket must be taken out only at the opening of the scuttles. All wheat, rye, barley, malt, beans, pease, and all other

sorts of corn and grain, ground or unground, and bread, bisket, or meal, may be exported free of all duties, 12 Car. II. 11 and 12 Will. III. 1, 5, 6, and 7 of Anne.

BISMUTH. Authors give such different accounts of bismuth, that it is a difficult matter to know exactly what it is. Some make a metal of it, and pretend, that towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, there was a mine of it found in Bohemia. Others make only a semi-metal of it; some place it in the rank of a bare mineral; finally, some would have it to be nothing else but a mixture of tin, tartar, and salt-petre, a work of art rather than nature.

Among so many contradictions, there are some people, who, doubtless, by a kind of accommodation or compromise, chuse rather to follow a mean opinion between all, and imagine that there is a natural and an artificial bismuth. This is the opinion we shall follow in this article, 'till the subject be better cleared up.

The natural bismuth is a mineral body, but half metallic, which wants perhaps but a little more coction and maturity, to be perfect tin: and, indeed, it is thought to be the marcasite of that metal.

Bismuth hath sometimes it's own proper mine, if it be true that such a mine was found in Bohemia, as has been observed above, and as we read in Monsieur Furetiere's Dictionary, who quotes the authority of one Alonso Barba. But it is chiefly found in tin-mines: it's substance is hard, ponderous, and brittle, of a large glossy white, and shining grain.

Dr Woodward, the English philosopher, places the bismuth in the fifth class of fossils, and among the minerals, n. 9. It is likewise called by some tin-glass, because, being broke, it shews many small bright particles, polished like glass; but this is an absurd appellation, being metallic, though it is capable of vitrification, and that possibly may have given rise to that name. The pewterers sometimes use it instead of regulus of antimony, as do the letter-founders, in casting their types. By chymical preparations they extract from it flowers and a magistery, which they call white of pearl; it is used to beautify the complexion, and preserve the skin. But as it is certain, that it has an arsenical quality therein, it cannot be safe to use as a medicine in any shape: by no means, 'till it is skilfully prepared by an able chemist.

The artificial bismuth is very much like the natural, with regard both to it's form, and to it's property and use. It is made, by reducing tin into small bits, or very thin laminae, or plates, and cementing it with a mixture of tartar, salt-petre, and arsenic, placed alternately in several strata, or layers, in a crucible, over a naked fire. There is a great deal of this bismuth imported into France from England, but it has a reddish cast, because of the copper, which the English are said to mix with it's composition. That which is made at Paris, is clearer and whiter.

It must be chosen in fine, broad, white, and very brittle scales. **BISTI**, a small coin of Persia. Some accounts, which come from pretty good hands, place the bisti among the current silver coin which is struck in Persia, and make it worth one sol and four or six deniers French money; (that is to say, a little above three farthings of our money.) Others, who deserve, perhaps, more credit, and, among them, Sir John Chardin, speak of the bisti only as a money of account. They call it indeed dinar-bisti, and make it be worth ten simple dinars: so that the toman, which is also a money of account, being worth 10,000 simple dinars, it will be worth but 1000 of those which are surnamed bisti.

BITCHEMARE, a kind of fish which is salted and dried like cod. It is caught in some places on the coast of Cochinchina, and is part of the trade which the Cochinchinese drive with China. It pays duty of importation at Canton, at the rate of four mas per pic, and seven per cent. for freight. The Dutch import a great deal of it into China. It is bought for two patacks per pic at Batavia, and sold again for about four taels at Canton.

BITTACLE, a sea-term, signifying a frame with two stories, placed in the steerage, before the place where the steersman stands, by the mislen-mast. It is all made of boards fastened together with wooden pegs, without any iron, to prevent the direction of the needle of the compass, which is inclosed in it, from being altered by the proximity of that metal. They also put a clock or watch in it, with a candle or lamp to light the steersman.

In large ships, besides this bittacle, they have another for the pilot or mate.

BITTS, are two perpendicular pieces of timber in the fore-part of the ship, bolted to the gun-deck and orlope-beams, their lower ends stepping in the foot-wall, the heads of which are braced with a cross-piece, and, when several turns of the cable taken over them, is for securing the ship at an anchor; there are generally two pair of them; besides, there are others upon the upper deck, which are fixed by the main and fore-mast, and called the top-sail sheet, and jeer-bitts.

BITUMEN, an inflammable substance, fat and unctuous. They extract an oil from it, and it dissolves in water: yet oily matters and alkali salts are the natural dissolvents of bitumen.

The druggists distinguish three sorts of bitumen, which they subdivide again into several others; namely, hard, soft, and liquid,

liquid, or oily bitumen. Among the hard bitumens, they reckon the yellow amber, (perhaps we might more justly place amber-grease in that class) jet, asphaltos, or bitumen of Judæa, pissaphatos, pit-coal, the black-stone, and sulphurs. The soft are Maltha, bitumen of Calao, of Surinam, and of Copal. Lastly, the naphtha of Italy, and the petroleum, are reckoned among the liquid bitumens.

Of these bitumens some are fossils; others swim on the surface of the waters of some lakes and ponds, and others issue out of the earth, almost after the manner of springs.

There are some bitumens so hard, that they are used in forges like coals. There are some so binding, that they may serve instead of mortar in building: with the latter were built the famous walls of Babylon. Some again are so liquid, that they are burnt in lamps instead of oil.

The bitumen of Auvergne is a kind of pitch of a pretty bad smell; it is to be found between Clermont, Montferrant, and Riom. There is such a great quantity of it, and issues out of the ground so plentifully, as to render the roads sometimes unpassable.

It is this drug dried and hardened, which some hawkers sell for the true asphaltos, or bitumen of Judæa, to such apothecaries and druggists; as are not well acquainted with drugs: but it's intolerable stench is sufficient to prevent any body's being imposed upon by those cheats.

REMARKS.

Dr Woodward, the English philosopher, in his Methodical Distribution of Fossils, class the 4th, divides the bitumens thus: There are, says he, two sorts of them. Some are liquid, as the naphtha, the petroleum, and the oil of Barbadoes. Others are what we properly call bitumens, and are of different consistences: the species of them are as follow: 1. The bitumen properly so called, or the asphaltos: 2. The pissaphatos, which, according to Dioscorides, was found in the Ceraunian mountains: 3. Amber: 4. Jet: 5. The Ampelitis: 6. Pit-coal.

It appears from thence, and from what has been observed above, what difference there is between the division of bitumens made by traders, and that made by natural philosophers. But those druggists, as well as apothecaries and chemists, who deal in drugs, should by no means be ignorant of their quality, lest they poison as many by the bad medicines, as empirics do by the UNSKILFUL APPLICATION OF GOOD.

It is very well known, that there is in iron a great deal of an oily substance of bitumen, which even is but little connected or incorporated with the other principles: or rather, which abounds too much to be every where closely connected with them. It is that kind of bitumen which ought to be the base or chief ingredient of the Prussian blue, which we shall speak of under it's proper article. But it is too compact, and it's blue colour too much involved. It must be extended and very minutely divided, which cannot be done but by a dissolution. The bitumen of iron is conjoined with a yellow metallic earth; it is not looked for in the substance of iron, but in vitriol, where the iron is already very much attenuated, and very finely dissolved, and consequently it's bituminous qualities already much opened and extended.

Sulphurs formed in the earth of fire, acid salts, water, and a very fine earth, are termed bitumens: Bitumens, dissolved in a large quantity of water, form the oils or petrolea. But, if they are mixed with earth and salt, the solid bitumens are produced, differing from one another in degrees of purity, according to the quantity or grossness of the earth, or different degrees of mixture. Thus fossil coals, jet, amber, and the ordinary bitumens, and bituminous earths are produced. If there be but a small quantity of earth and much acid salt, the common mineral sulphur, or brimstone, is formed. If the mineral original bitumen is joined to a fusible earth, capable of vitrification, it communicates to it a metallic form; that is, the sound, brightness, softness, ductility, malleability, and all other sensible qualities of metals.

This origin of mineral bitumens may be confirmed by many experiments. If a mixture of equal parts of oil of vitriol and oil of turpentine be digested together for a considerable time in a very gentle heat, and afterwards distilled in a retort, there will come over first a yellowish liquor resembling petroleum, both in smell and consistency. What remains in the retort, is at first a soft bitumen, and afterwards turns into a hard blackness, easily inflammable, and, when burnt, smelling exactly like fossil coal. But, if the distillation be continued, a white acid liquor will next be obtained, which, by standing, lets fall a grey powder, which is true common brimstone, a yellow substance of the like nature adhering likewise to the neck of the retort; what is left behind being a black, shining, light substance, dispersed in thin disgregated strata, like talc, in which, by the help of the load-stone, iron may be discovered. Thus therefore all these bitumens may be artificially produced; and the analysis of the natural ones further confirmed the manner of their formation. Thus true chymical philosophy shews, that metals are nothing but bituminous substances, which have undergone a long digestion; for by depriving them of their sulphur they are reduced to ashes, and then to glass. This is easily seen in the imperfect metals.

For if any of them be exposed to a long heat, and especially to the rays of the sun, collected by a large burning glass, the sulphureous principles fly off, and only a calx, or ashes, will be left behind; which, in a more vehement degree of fire, are presently vitrified; and, by restoring the sulphur, this glass may again be reduced to metal.

These considerations merit the attention of all, who would understand the true nature of bodies, and their true philosophical method of analysis. But the solution of metallic bodies may be carried infinitely farther than this: and, if what we shall communicate upon these points, meet with the same general approbation, as the rest of our labours have had the honour to do, 'tis possible, that some future work may afford more light into the true experimental philosophy, than any that has gone before it. Our philosophy in this shall be applicable to trade principally.

BLACK, an opaque and porous body, which absorbs the rays of light, and reflects none, or very few of them: of all colours, black (if it can be called a colour) is the darkest, and the most opposite to white.

There are several sorts of blacks used in trade, which shall be explained hereafter, namely, dyers-black, German-black, ivory or velvet-black, bone-black, hart's-black, Spanish-black, lamp-black, earth-black, and currier's-black.

Dyers-Black, otherwise good black, is one of the five simple and mother colours used in dyeing.

It is made differently, according to the several qualities of the stuffs that are to be dyed. For stuffs of a high price, as woollen cloth an ell and a half, or an ell and a quarter wide, after the Spanish or Dutch make, cloth of Languedoc, Sedan, Abbeville, Elbeuf, Roan; serges of St Lo and Beauvais; broad and narrow rateens, fine woollen druggets, and some others; they must use a black made of the best woad and indigo, inclining to a bluish-brown.

The goodness of the composition consists in there being not above six pounds of indigo ready prepared to each ball of woad, when the latter being in the tub begins to cast it's blue flower, and in not being heated for use above twice: after which it must be boiled with allum, tartar, or ashes of lees of wine; then maddered with common madder, or the crust of fine madder; and, lastly, the black must be given with gall-nuts of Aleppo, or Alexandria, copperas, and shumac.

To bind the black, and prevent the stuffs from smearing, and staining one's hands or linnen, when used, they must be well scoured and cleaned in the fulling-mill, when white, before they are put into the dye; and afterwards they must be well beaten in water with the feet, then maddered, and, when dyed black, they must be well washed, till they yield no more powder.

As for more indifferent stuffs, such as small rateens, bays, flannels, serges of Aumale and Mony, shalloon, flamines, and even blankets, it is sufficient that they be well blueed with woad, and afterwards blacked with galls and copperas, because such stuffs cannot pay for the expence of maddering, and of the other operations which stuffs of a higher value undergo. No stuff ought to be dyed immediately from white into black, but must absolutely be first dyed blue.

All that we have been observing concerning dyers-black, agrees with the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th articles of the general regulations for dyers in France, made in August 1669. There are some other sorts of black, which though prohibited by the ordinances, have, nevertheless, wrongfully crept amongst dyers, as, for instance, that which is made with alder-bark, the stuff that settles at the bottom of the grinder's trough, which they mix with the filings of iron, or brass. There is likewise the Jesuit's black, which is made with the same ingredients as the good black, but without having first dyed the stuff blue. In order to make this sort of black, they make the ingredients dissolve in water, which has been first prepared by making it boil during four hours; after which, they let it cool till the hand can bear it; then they put the stuff into it, taking it out, and putting it in again, six times, or more. Some pretend that this method of dyeing black is better than any other: but it is hardly to be believed; since, when stuffs have been thus dyed immediately from white to black, without passing through the intermediate blue, they can take but a bad and unsettled black. For which reason the 12th article of the abovementioned regulations forbids, under very severe penalties, the dyeing of any stuff from white into black.

It is said, that the Jesuit's black had that name given it, because the Jesuits were the first inventors of it, and do still dye their stuffs after that manner in their convents, where they keep dyers, to whom they pay wages.

Grey is a shade of black, from the lightest colour, which is the white-grey, to the deepest, which is the black-grey: such are pearl-grey, lead-grey, lavender-grey, beaver-grey, pigeon-grey, slate-colour, chestnut-grey, brown grey, &c.

By stat. 23 Eliz. cap. 9. sect. 3. No cloths, kerseys, bays, friadoes, hosen, or any other things in nature of cloth, shall be maddered for a black, except the same be first grounded with woad only, or with woad and ancle, alias blue Inde, unless madder be put in with shumac, or galls, upon pain that the dyer shall forfeit the value of the thing dyed, the one moiety

moiety to the queen, and the other moiety to him that will sue for the same.

SECT. 4. It shall be lawful to dye gall-black, shumac-black, alias plain black, wherein no madder shall be used.

Stat. 13 Geo. I. cap. 24. sect. 1. If any person shall, within England, Wales, or Berwick, dye black any bays, or other woollen goods, as madder-blacks, the same not being dyed throughout with woad, indigo, and madder only; or shall dye black any cloths, long-ells, bays, or other woollen goods, for woaded blacks, the same not being woaded throughout; he shall forfeit for such false maddered-blacks as follows: viz. For every long bays, containing 70 yards, 44 s.

For every Colchester bays, or short bays, containing 35 yards, 20 s. and so in proportion for bays, or other woollen goods.

For every cloth dyed black, without being woaded throughout, containing 44 yards, 40 s.

For every piece of bays falsely dyed, as aforesaid, containing 70 yards, 30 s.

For every Colchester short bays, containing 35 yards, 12 s. For every perpetuana, or stuff falsely dyed, 4 s. and so in proportion for any other woollen goods deceitfully dyed for woaded-blacks.

SECT. 2. All woollen goods, which shall be truly maddered-black, shall be marked with a red rose and a blue rose; and all woollen goods which shall be truly woaded black throughout, shall be marked with a blue rose: and, if any shall counterfeit the said marks, or shall affix any such mark to any of the goods falsely dyed for maddered or woaded-blacks, such offender shall forfeit 4 l. for every piece of goods to which the said mark shall be affixed.

SECT. 3. If any person shall use logwood in dyeing of blue, he shall forfeit 40 s. for every piece of cloth so dyed, containing 44 yards; and 22 s. for every long piece of Bocking bays; and 22 s. for every Colchester, or short bays, containing 35 yards; and 4 s. for every perpetuana, or stuff, containing 24 yards; and so in proportion for all other woollen goods.

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The art of dyeing all kinds of woollen, filken, and cotton manufactures is none of the least curious, and the least important; nor is it yet brought to the last perfection, perhaps, in this nation, nor with materials so cheap as could be wished and desired for the general benefit of our manufactures and the kingdom. Wherefore, under the article of DYEING, we shall not only give an ample account of the art, as it at present stands, but suggest such hints and observations as may have a tendency to it's improvement.

In the interim, I shall only intimate, that, as a thorough skill in this art depends upon a well-grounded knowledge in the chymical philosophy, we shall here describe the nature and cause of blackness, upon these principles.

If fire, determined by the sun, be received on the blackest known bodies, it's heat will be long retained therein; and hence such bodies are the sooner and the strongest heated by the same fire, as also the quickest dried after having been moistened with water; and it may be added, that they also burn by much the readiest: all which points are confirmed by daily observation. Sir Isaac Newton accounts for this extraordinary susceptibility of heat in black bodies from hence, that the rays of light, falling on them, are neither reflected from them, nor transmitted through them; but, entering the bodies, undergo a great number of reflections and refractions within, till the motion be spent, and, consequently, their heat, &c. lost; i. e. according to him, till they cease to be fire: but what motion and heat they themselves lose, the body receives and retains.

To confirm which, let a piece of cloth be hung in the air, open to the sun, one part of it dyed black, another part of a white colour, others of scarlet, and divers other colours; the black part will always be found to heat the most, and the quickest of all, and the others will each heat the more slowly, by how much they reflect the rays more strongly to the eye; thus the white will warm the slowest of them all, and next to that the red, and so of the rest in proportion, as their colour is brighter or weaker. This is well known to the nations who inhabit the hotter climates, where the outer garments, if of a white colour, are found best to preserve the body from the scorching sun, and black ones, on the contrary, to increase the heat.

And it has often been observed, by the makers of woollen cloth, that if, at the same time and place, they hang out two whole pieces, the one black, the other white, the former will smok, and dry quickly, but the latter retains it's water long; and cloths of other colours will dry so much the slower, by how much their colours are the brighter,

It has also been long observed, that all black bodies are sooner kindled and set on a flame by the same fire, than those of any other colour. The dust of white touchwood will hardly catch, and sustain a spark of fire struck on it; whereas, if the same be struck on a black coal, the dust thereof will readily receive, and keep it up, so that, in a short time, the whole dust will be on fire. The purest and whitest linnen will hardly maintain a spark thrown on it; but if the like spark

be cast on tinder, which is only the coal of linnen kindled, and again extinguished, it will immediately catch through the whole body of it. Nor would gunpowder, were it not for it's black colour, be so easy to kindle; as appears by the powder made of white nitre, ground with sulphur*. The gardeners have long complained, that their white soils would not warm with the sun, except in the very utmost surface; whereas the black grows so hot as even sometimes to burn the roots of plants.

* The composition of gunpowder is six parts of well-purified salt-petre, one of sulphur, and one at least of charcoal; See GUNPOWDER.

Lastly, the philosophers have confirmed the matter by experiments. If a piece of white paper be laid on the focus of a burning-glass, it will be long before it heat; and very long before it take fire; and, as soon as kindled, quits it's whiteness, turns brown, and then black, immediately after which it catches flame: whereas, if a black paper be laid on the same focus, it immediately takes fire. We have some extraordinary things on this head in the experiments of the academy del Cimento*.

* Sagg. Esperienz. 266, 267.

German-BLACK, called by some Frankfort-BLACK, is made with the lees of wine burnt, washed afterwards in water, then ground in mills made for that purpose, with ivory, bones, or peach-stones, also burnt. This is the black used by the rolling-press printers. It commonly comes from Frankfort, Mentz, and Strasburg, either in lumps or in powder. However, they make some in France, which is not inferior to that of Germany, but with regard to the difference there is between the lees of wine it is made of: That of Paris is even more valued than that of Germany, and the rolling-press printers find it softer. The black made in the kingdom of France is distinguished by the name of the cities where it is made; as black of Paris, black of Troyes, black of Orleans. There are at Paris but three workmen who make that kind of black.

The German black must be chosen moist, but yet it must not have been wetted; it should also be of a fine shining black, soft, friable, or easily reduced into powder; light, and with as few shining grains as possible; it should also have been made with ivory, which is better to make a fine black than either bones or peach-stones.

Ivory-BLACK, otherwise Velvet-BLACK, is ivory burnt, commonly between two crucibles well luted together; which ivory being become quite black, and reduced to thin plates, or scales, is ground in water, and made into trochæes, or little cakes, to be used by painters in their works, and by jewellers who set precious stones, to blacken the bottom, or ground of the collets, wherein they set diamonds to give them what they call the teint, or foil.

Ivory-black, in order to be good, ought to be tender, friable, and to have been thoroughly ground.

The apothecaries, and those who burn ivory, ought not to throw away the burnt ivory that falls to the bottom of the retort, it being as proper to make ivory-black, as even new ivory, provided it be prepared as has been above directed.

Bone-BLACK, is made with the bones of oxen, cows, &c. burnt, and well ground. In order to be good, it must be tender, easily reduced to powder, shining, and to have been ground very fine. It is very much used in painting, but is not so much valued as ivory-black.

Hart's-BLACK, is that which remains in the retort after the spirits, volatile salt, and oil, have been extracted from hart's-horn: These remains are ground with water, and make a kind of black, almost as fine and as good as ivory-black, and which painters may very well use.

Spanish-BLACK, thus called, because the Spaniards first invented it, and it mostly comes from Spain. It is nothing but burnt cork: it is used in several works. In order to be good, it must be very black, light, and have as little sand or gravel mixed with it as possible.

Lamp-BLACK, or Lam-BLACK is the sooty smoke of rosin.

There is some in powder, and some in lumps. That in powder is sold by the bushel, or in small oblong barrels; that in lumps is sold by the pound. It is made of small bits of rosin, melted and purified in iron vessels; then they set fire to it under a chimney, or in any other place made for that purpose, which has been lined on top with sheep-skins, or pieces of coarse linnen cloth, to receive the vapour or smoke, which is the black. They gather it afterwards by shaking the skins, or cloths, and put it into barrels, or other vessels, to keep it. With us it is commonly made from the resinous and fatty parts of wood, burnt under a kind of tent, which receives it: but the greatest part is brought from Sweden and Norway.

It is used on various occasions, particularly in making printer's ink: for which purpose it is mixed with oil of walnuts, or linseed, and turpentine, all boiled together.

The grocers, and others who trade in lamp-black, must take notice that it takes fire very easily, especially that which is in powder; and when once it is on fire, it cannot be extinguished without very great difficulty; therefore they cannot be too cautious upon that account. The best method to extinguish the fire in the lamp-black in powder, is to smother it with

wet linnen, hay, or straw; for water alone hardly produces any effect in this case.

Earth-Black, is a sort of coals found in the ground, which the painters or limners, use to paint in fresco, after it has been well ground.

There is a sort of black made with gall-nuts, copperas, or vitriol, such as common, or writing-ink.

They also make a black with silver and lead, which serves to fill up the holes or cavities of ingrav'd things.

Curriers-Black, The workmen who curry the leather after it is tanned, give the name of first black to the first blackening they apply to the cow's, calf's, or sheep's leather. That black is made with gall-nuts, four beer, and old iron. The second black is composed of gall-nuts, copperas, and gum Arabic. It is upon this last black the gloss is set.

BLACKS, the inhabitants of Nigritia, or Negroland. See **NEGROLAND**.

BLACK SEA, or **EUXINE SEA**, lies between Europe and Asia, being bounded by Tartary on the north; by Circassia, Mingrelia, and Georgia, towards the east; by Natolia, or the Lesser-Asia, on the south; and by Romania, Bulgaria, and Bessarabia, towards the west; extending from the 29th degree of east longitude to the 44th, and from the 42d to the 46th degree of north latitude, intirely surrounded by the Grand Signior's dominions, who enjoys the sole navigation of it, but disturbed sometimes by the excursions of the Cossacks, who issue out of the mouth of the Boristhenes, and commit great ravages on the coasts of Turkey. The Russians did attempt to establish a navigation on this sea, but have been obliged, by late treaties, to deliver up all the fortresses they had erected on the coasts of the Euxine, and abandon this navigation. It is reckoned a tempestuous sea by the Turks, from whence it is said to have obtained the name of the Black Sea, and there are not many good harbours in it.

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The principal trade of this Sea has been, for some ages, only among the Turks, for supplying the city of Constantinople with corn, cattle, and other provisions. All the tribute of the kingdom of Hungary, when they had it, and the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, which they have still, except what was paid in cattle driven by land, was brought down the Danube into the Black Sea, in great quantities. But great part of that revenue being cut off from the Turks by the conquest of Hungary, and especially of Belgrade, that commerce is very much interrupted.

However, there is a trade established from Vienna and Hungary to the Black Sea, and several merchants are pretty largely engaged therein. Another trade had like to have been opened, as before observed, in this sea for the Muscovites, by the taking of Afoph: but the late czar's losing that town by the treaty on the banks of the Pouth, put a stop to it. But this town, standing on the frontiers of Russia against Turkey, has been several times taken and retaken of late years; but in the last peace, concluded in the year 1739, between those two powers, it was agreed that the fortifications should be demolished, and the town remain subject to Russia. So that by the river Boristhenes, which runs into this sea, the commerce with Turkey is in some measure maintained; whereby the Russians supply the Turkish court, and the great bassas, with the rich furs of Siberia, such as ermins, sables, and the black fox in particular, which is so great a rarity, that none but the Grand Signior, the grand vizier, the bostangi bassas, and the musti, are admitted to wear them. These the Turks pay all for in ready money, they having no goods to barter with the Muscovites. They also buy honey in large quantities of the Muscovites; and this trade is chiefly carried on by the bassas of Bender, whose situation is very convenient on the river Bog, between the Danube and the Nieper.

By the passage of this sea, also Constantinople receives all the fine choice goods of Persia and Armenia; the center of which commerce seems to be Erzerum, to which the Persians come freely, and some of the Mogul's subjects, likewise, from India itself.

It should be remarked here, that this trade from the Black Sea to Constantinople would be very advantageous to that city, provided the Boristhenes were navigable up the country any considerable way, as rivers of that magnitude generally are: but the navigation is entirely interrupted by huge immovable rocks, causing vast cataracts, or water-falls, which it is not possible any boats should pass: so that, although it be a river of an exceeding long course, and would open an extensive commerce to Muscovy, Tartary, Poland, and Lithuania, if it was a clear stream, it is in a manner useless for about 60 miles from it's entrance into the sea.

The Turks have, it seems, some correspondence this way with the Tartars, who bring honey and wax in great quantities, and some corn: but the chief of their trade is to sell their slaves; that is, the poor Christians who fall into their barbarous hands upon their excursions and inroads into Poland, or among the Cossacks or Muscovites; in which cases they tell us they have carried away 30,000 people at a time.

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This commerce is from the Crim Tartary also, and by the Streights of Caffa.

BLADE, a thin piece of metal, extended either in length or breadth, beaten with a hammer, or cast into a mould.

It is said particularly of that part of a sword, dagger, bayonet, or other offensive weapon, that pricks or cuts. We also say the blade of a knife, the blade of a razor, to signify that part of those instruments which cuts or shaves. All those sorts of blades are of very fine tempered steel, or at least of iron very well sharpened. In France the blades of weapons are made by the furbers, or sword-cutlers, and the blades of knives by the other cutlers.

The good qualities of a sword-blade are, that it be easy to bend, and well grooved. Among the foreign blades imported into France, those of Damascus and England are most valued; and, of those that are made in the kingdom, the blades of Vienne in Dauphiné.

Sword-blades, and other weapons, pay duty of importation in France like hard-ware that is to say, 10 livres per 100 weight, according to the decree of the 3d of July, 1692; and 3 livres duty of exportation, or even but 2 livres, when they have been declared to be for foreign parts, and a licence has been obtained to export them; for they are a contraband merchandize, as to exportation, according to the ordonnance of 1687. In England they may not be imported to be sold, bartered, or exchanged, upon forfeiture, or their value.

BLAFART, a small coin, current at Cologne. It is worth 4 abus's; and the albus 9 deniers and 1/3 French money; that is to say, something more than a farthing of our money.

BLAISIS, a territory of Orleans in France, is bounded on the north by Beauce; on the east by Orleans, properly so called; on the south by Berry; and on the west by Touraine.

At **BLOIS**, the chief trade consists in wine and brandy, which they send to Orleans, Paris, Tours, Angiers, Laval, and even into Holland. There were formerly here a great many tanners; but the high duties laid upon leather have made that manufactory sink to nothing. They made here some ferges, and other woollen stuffs; but that branch of their trade is not considerable. This city is also noted for the best watches in the kingdom.

ST. DIE, is noted for the excellentest wine produced in it's territory.

BLANC, a small copper coin, which was formerly current in France for 5 deniers tournois.

The pieces of three blancs were formerly of copper, alloyed with a little silver, and were worth 15 deniers. The old ones had 6 deniers and three grains fine, and the new ones but 3 deniers and 18 grains.

The pieces of 6 blancs, worth 30 deniers, have also been struck with sometimes more, sometimes less silver. There was an edict of Lewis XIV, made in August 1657, ordering the striking of those pieces; but it was repealed by letters patent of November the same year.

In 1670, under the same reign, they struck pieces of three blancs, of the same standard with the old ones; they were called pieces of three blancs with edgings. All the rest had but 3 deniers and 17 or 18 grains fine.

But afterwards those pieces have no longer been a current coin, but only a money of account; and they still say three blancs, to signify 15 deniers, and six blancs for 30 deniers, for two sols and six deniers; but the latter is much more in use than the former.

BLANCHING, the art or manner of making any thing white. See **BLEACHING**.

The blanching of iron plates is performed with aqua fortis and tin.

The blanching of woollen stuffs is done with soap, or with chalk, or with sulphur, or brimstone. The best blanching of woollen stuffs in France is done at Paris.

The blanching of silk is performed with soap and brimstone. See **BLEACHING**.

The blanching of wax is by exposing it to the sun and dew. That of Chateau-Goutier is the finest and most valued in France.

Blanching of copper is done various ways, so as to make it resemble silver. The common sophisticating method of blanching it, is principally founded upon the admixture of arsenic, first fixed with nitre. For instance, suppose they melt four ounces of copper, into this they throw half an ounce of arsenic, fixed by being previously melted with nitre, and being brought into a ball or two with some fusible mud and lime-water. These they let flow together, with care to prevent any coals from falling into the vessel, for a quarter of an hour; then, pouring out the matter, they try it upon the touch-stone, as also upon the anvil, to see if it be white and malleable. If they find it sufficiently soft, they reserve it for use; but, if brittle, they again melt it for a while, along with a little nitre, or Venice glass. And if the copper thus blanch'd be mixed with half, or a third part of pure silver, it preserves a very good colour in wearing.

Those methods of blanching copper are of a more curious nature; which may be attempted, according to the direction

of Becher *, with the earth of salt of tartar, thus: stratify any quantity of copper plates, with half their weight of the earth of red tartar, which has been first extracted with vinegar, and freed from the salt, though this not totally, but only by a single affusion. Let them be kept ignited together, in a close vessel, for the space of five days and nights; then take out the matter, and commit it to the cupel.

* See Becher Concord. Chym. pag. 576, 578. no. 33. and 40.

To this purpose it ought to be recollected what Becher observes || as to this earth of tartar, viz. that, being melted along with gold, it gives a whiteness thereto, that is not easily got off again. And in another place he expressly declares what is the real substance and use of this earth †.

|| Physic. Subterrân. §. 5. cap. 3. §. 72.

† See Physic. Subterrân. §. 5. cap. 2. §. 50.

Becher has another curious method of blanching copper, which he delivers with an assurance of it's usefulness ‡.

‡ Supplem. ii. in Physic. Subter. §. 55.

The method is this: mix luna cornua with an equal, or double weight of tin; put the mixture into a concave globe of copper, consisting of two hemispheres, the lower whereof may be thus filled with the matter. Then lute the juncture, and, with a moderate fire, keep the globe of a dull red heat for some hours. After it is cold, open it, and what you find at the bottom melt with a reducing flux, and you will again find, says he, the weight of the silver employed; whilst the upper hemisphere remains so blanched and penetrated with the spirit, or fume, of the volatile mixture, as to afford a large part of good silver proof.

This experiment might be otherwise made, in the way of cementation, by forming some copper-plates into a hollow figure, placing them at the bottom of a crucible, and laying the mixture of luna cornua, and tin, or iron-filings, upon them; over which again some pure plates of copper may be laid, and the whole closed with a cover of copper, or earth; then, luting the juncture, the operation may be performed in the manner directed.

Ludovicus de Comitibus affords another method of whitening copper, where he tells us there is a certain wonderful solutive liquor, which can totally extract the greenness of copper, and leave the bottom of it white, so as never to turn green again: but prove a new metal, different from any of the seven.

But, as we have no particular knowledge of this liquor, we can say nothing satisfactory about it, unless perhaps, it be of the same nature with that compound spirit mentioned by Mr Boyle *, as procured from nitre and salts, in the preparation of the bezoar mineral, of which we shall shew the effect in treating of the tinctures of gold. We have therefore, only to add, that, as it manifestly appears, from the context of the author, that the copper is only hereby changed in it's colour, but not at all in its corruptibility, upon calcination, and testing with lead, it has not the genuine properties of silver, and therefore can only pass for a concealment, or sophistication, though an useful one indeed, for the making of vessels, &c. of such a white metal. See the articles COPPER, METALLUR-GIST, METALLURGY.

* See Boyle's Abridgm. vol. i. pages 260, 261.

R E M A R K S.

Ought not those dabblers in the sophistication of the inferior metals, in order to make them imitate the superior, to put people upon their guard in their dealings for wrought plate? For by these deceitful artifices may not persons pay six, seven, and eight shillings an ounce for wrought plate, that may not be worth half the money, the hall-mark being daily counterfeited by those impostors? See the articles ALLOY, ASSAY, GOLDSMITHS-HALL, MINT, PLATE, REFINERS.

BLANCHING, in Coinage, is the operation performed on the planchets, or pieces of silver, to give them that lustre and brightness the pieces of money have when they come from the Mint. They also sometimes blanch pieces of plate, when they would have them continue white, or have only some parts of them burnished.

The blanching, as it is now practised, is performed by nealing, or heating, the planchets, or pieces of plate, in a kind of square pan, without a handle, with a wood fire, in the manner of a reverberatory, that is to say, so as that the flame may pass over the pan. The pieces being sufficiently heated, and afterwards cooled again, are put successively to boil in two other pans, which are of copper, and called boilers: in these they put water, common salt, and tartar of Montpellier. When they have been well drained of this first water in a copper sieve, they throw sand and fresh water over them, and, when dry, they are well rubbed with towels.

Another method of blanching planchets and pieces of plate, is to put them, after they have been heated; into a large vessel full of common water, mixed with some ounces of aqua

fortis, but in different proportions for gold and silver. For gold there must be eight ounces of aqua fortis, and for silver but six, to each pail-full of water. This method is but seldom used at present, because it is too expensive, and also because the aqua fortis diminishes something of the weight of the silver. See COINING.

BLANK. Thus merchants and traders call void or unwritten places, which are sometimes left in their day-books, or journals, which is a very dangerous practice, on account of the ill use that may be made of it. Merchants books are considered as good vouchers in courts of justice, because they are supposed to have been written successively from day to day: but, as soon as there is any blank or void space, found in them, were it but of two lines, as it sometimes happens at the bottom of a page, the book deserves no longer any credit. Arbiters, appointed to examine merchants books, ought carefully to observe whether the disputed articles be not set down at the bottom of the pages, which is very suspicious; and, in the report they make of the condition in which they found the books delivered to them, they are to declare, whether they found any blanks in them or not, and whether there is any probability that there were blanks left, which may have been filled up afterwards.

BLANK is also a piece of paper, at the bottom of which a person has signed his name, the rest being void. Blanks are commonly intrusted in the hands of arbiters, or friends, to be filled up as they shall think proper to terminate any dispute, or law-suit. A man must be thoroughly certain of the honesty of those whom he trusts with such a blank.

A blank letter of attorney is one in which a void space is left to be filled up with the name of the person who is to act.

With regard to bills of exchange, we say a blank indorsement, when a man only writes his name on the back of it, leaving an empty space sufficient to write either an order or a receipt. See INDORSEMENT.

Among merchants and traders in France, they call a bill or note in blank, one in which a void space is left, to be filled, when thought proper, with the name of the person to whom the note or bill is to be made payable.

BLANK LOTTERY, called in French BLANQUE, a kind of game of chance, to which some give the name of commerce. The game of blank-lottery was introduced into France by the Italians who attended queen Catharine of Medicis thither.

That game, as it was then played, and of which Pasquin has given us a description in the 49th chapter of the 8th book of his Recherches de la France, is nothing but what is now called a lottery, which since above half a century is become so common in France and elsewhere. See LOTTERY.

At present the blank lottery is nothing like the common lottery, except that it is chance which distributes the lots in both.

In the blank lottery, every person concerned is at liberty to try his good or bad luck, without waiting for the rest of the company; and he may, if he pleases, reiterate the trial immediately, after every chance drawn, being only obliged to pay, for every chance he draws, the sum to which the master of this lottery has taxed it.

The fund of the blank lottery consists commonly of small jewels or toys of several sorts, pictures, wearing apparel, merchandizes, and trinkets, the whole of little value, which are exposed to view in some shop, to tempt those who pass by it.

As these blank-lotteries are commonly kept at the fairs in villages, so there are hardly any but the vulgar and country people who concern themselves in that sort of game, and take a diversion in it; without considering that most of these lotteries are only bubbles and impositions, though they cannot be set up but with leave from the officers of the lords to whom the places belong where the fairs are kept.

The blank-lottery is drawn two ways; the one by a book or register, the other by a machine or engine, which is something like those portico's, where people used to game very high at court, under the reign of Lewis XIV.

To draw the blank-lottery after this last manner, they throw an ivory or leaden ball into a funnel, which is suspended over a table, divided into a great many rounds or rings, made somewhat hollow; and the round in which the ball stops, determines the player's fate; that is to say, that he gets nothing, if the ball falls into a blank round; and, if the ball falls into a black round, that is, into one marked with a number, he wins the lot to which that number refers, all the numbered rounds being black, and the rest white.

There are few or none of these lotteries that are fair; for they who keep them know so well how to give a declivity to the white or black, rounds, that it almost constantly draws the ball into them; so that he always keeps his toys, to the great amazement of the simpleton, who puts his money in such a lottery.

As to the blank lotteries drawn by a book, there are some indeed, that are fair, and in which chance is not determined by artifice; but the safest is to mistrust them as well as the others, because of the tricks that can be played into them.

If a man would keep one of those blank-lotteries, he numbers all the lots that are to compose it. Those numbers are afterwards marked upon the leaves of a large book of white paper, one number upon a leaf, taking care, however, that the small lots be well intermixed with the great ones, that there may be more room for chance. In this book there are sometimes above a hundred blank leaves, against a black or numbered one. The book being thus numbered, he who keeps the lottery, after receiving his money or perquisite, presents a long brass needle to the drawer or gamester, who pricks it into such place of the book which he pleases, the book being held by the keeper of the lottery. If the leaf where the gamester has struck the needle proves blank, he gets nothing; but, if it has got a number, he has the lot thus numbered delivered to him.

One would think, from what we have just now said, that the blank-lottery, drawn by a book, should be free from all fraud and imposition, and yet it is no difficult matter to cheat in it. The manner of presenting the book to the drawer, and of opening it after he has pricked the needle into it, is none of the least cunning tricks, which they who keep blank-lotteries, and who are all downright knaves, learn from the jugglers, to order it so, that the leaves pricked may always prove blank, or have sometimes but very small lots, that the lookers-on may thereby be encouraged to try their fortune.

BLANKET, a coverlid for a bed. A stuff made commonly of white wool, to cover beds with, in order to keep the cold out. They are made in a loom like cloth, with this difference, that they are crossed like serges.

In order to adorn them, they work stripes of blue or red wool at each end, and a crown at each corner; with this difference, however, that the stripes are worked in the loom, and the crowns are worked with the needle, after the blankets are finished, and before they are sent to the fuller.

They also sometimes work the name of the weaver upon them with yarn, and often also the name of the place where they have been wove.

When they come from the loom they are sent to the fuller, and, after they have been fulled and well cleaned, they are napped with a fuller's thistle.

There is a great quantity of blankets manufactured at Paris and in some provinces of France, particularly in Normandy, Auvergne, and Languedoc. Most of those that are manufactured at Paris, are made in the suburb of St Marceau. There are also some manufactories of them in the suburb of St Martin.

Of the blankets made in Normandy, those of Dartenal near Roan are the best and the finest, the manufacturers mixing English and Spanish wool with that of France.

Those made at Vernon, another town of Normandy, where they also make a great quantity of them, are less esteemed, because they mix no foreign wool with them.

The blankets of Dartenal are sold at Roan and at Paris, and in time of peace are exported into foreign countries; those of Vernon are sold at Beauvais, and in the small villages in the neighbourhood.

Besides the blankets made in France, they also import thither a great many from foreign countries; and particularly from Catalonia, Spain, Flanders, and England.

Those of Catalonia, which are very beautiful and fine, have kept the name of the province where they are manufactured. Some, however, pretend, that the name of Castalogue, or Castellone, as others write it, comes from Castellana, which in Latin signifies lambkin's wool, of which these blankets are supposed to be made.

There are also blankets made with the hair of several animals, as of goats, dogs, and others.

BLANQUILL, a small silver coin, current in the kingdom of Morocco, and on all that part of the coast of Barbary: it is worth about three halfpence of our money.

BLASTING, in minerology, is when the vein of a mine cannot be broke up with the spade, the gad, the ax, or softened by fire, then blasting is used; which is performed with gun-powder, as the most expeditious method of blowing up the mineral stone; by means whereof, much of the hardest rock may be shivered and split in a very little time; a parcel of gunpowder being laid in a long hollow cut for the purpose, after the nature of a gun-barrel, and fired, as it were at a touch-hole; a small vent, where the quick-match is applied, being left for the purpose, and the whole orifice being otherwise hard stopped up with clay. See **MINEROLOGY**.

BLEACHING, the art of whitening that which was not perfectly white, or not at all so: thus we say, to bleach linnen cloth, wax, iron in leaves, silks, woollen stuffs, &c. The different methods of bleaching or blanching wax, and iron in leaves, are explained under the articles of **WAX** and **IRON**. As to the methods of bleaching silks, linnen cloths, and woollen stuffs, we shall explain them in this article, there being no place in this dictionary, where it could be more properly done.

The method of bleaching silk.

The silk, being still raw, is put into a bag of thin linnen, and thrown into a vessel of boiling river-water, in which has been dissolved good Genoa or Toulon soap.

After the silk has boiled two or three hours in that water, and the bag has been often turned, it is taken out to beat, and then is washed in cold water. When it has been thus thoroughly washed and beaten, they wring it slightly, and put it for the second time into the boiling vessel filled with cold water, mixed with soap and a little indigo; which gives it that bluish cast, that is commonly observed in white silk.

When the silk is taken out of this second water, they wring it hard with a wooden peg, to express all the water and soap from it; after which they shake it to untwist it, and separate the threads. Then they suspend it in the air in a kind of stove made for that purpose, where they burn sulphur: the vapour of which mineral, properly applied, gives the last degree of whiteness to the silk.

The method of bleaching woollen stuffs.

There are three ways of doing this. The first is with water and soap; the second with the vapour of sulphur; and the third with chalk, indigo, and the vapour of sulphur.

Bleaching with soap and water.

After the stuffs are taken out of the fuller's mill, they are put into soap-water a little warm, in which they are again worked by the strength of the arms, over a wooden bench; this finishes; giving them the whitening which the fuller's mill had only began. When they have been sufficiently worked with the hands, they are washed in clear water, and put to dry.

This method of bleaching woollen stuffs is called the natural method.

Bleaching with sulphur.

They begin with washing and cleaning the stuffs thoroughly in river-water, then they put them to dry upon poles or perches. When they are half-dry, they stretch them out in a kind of stove very close, in which they burn sulphur, the vapour whereof, spreading itself, flicks by degrees to the whole stuff, and gives it a fine whitening; this is commonly called bleaching by the flower, or bleaching of Paris, because in that city they use this method more than any where else.

Bleaching with chalk, indigo, and sulphur.

When the stuffs have been well washed in clear water, they throw them into a bucket of cold water impregnated with chalk and a little indigo, wherein the stuffs are well stirred and agitated: then they take them out, and wash them again in clear water, after which they hang them on poles: when they are half-dry, they put them into a stove, to make them receive the vapour of sulphur, which finishes their perfect whitening.

This bleaching, which is not the best, though very agreeable to the eye, is called bleaching of Beauvais; because the inhabitants of that city are the first who found out this method of bleaching woollen stuffs.

It must be observed, that, when woollen stuffs have once imbibed the vapour of sulphur, it is a difficult matter to make it take a good colour in dyeing, unless it be a black or blue. The woollen dyers, in France, have the liberty to bleach all sorts of linnen cloths, cottons, hemp, thread, camblets, serges, ratteens, new and old itamines, and even worsted stockings: Regulations of the month of August 1669, art. 55.

The manner of bleaching fine linnen cloths, with the method of preparing them, as practised in Picardy, and particularly toward St Quintin.

After the linnens are taken from the loom, they are put to soak in clear water for a whole day; when they have been well washed and cleaned of all the filth, they are taken out, and thrown into a bucking tub filled with cold lye, made of wood-ashes and water, which has served already.

When they are taken out of that lye, they are washed again in clear water, and spread in a meadow, where they are now and then watered with clear water out of small canals, which are along the meadows. They water them with scoops, or hollow and narrow wooden peels, with a long handle: these scoops are called gieters by the Dutch, who pretend to be the inventors of them.

After lying a certain time on the ground, they pass them through a fresh lye poured on hot: this lye is differently made, according to the condition in which the linnens are.

Being taken out of this second lye, they are washed in clear water, and laid again on the meadow, all which several operations are repeated, till the linnen is perceived to have acquired the desired degree of whiteness.

They

They are afterwards put into a soft gentle lye, to make them recover the softness, which the former more sharp and strong lye's caused them to lose; and afterwards they wash them in clear water.

They next rub them with black soap, which begins to clean them from the grease they have contracted, and finishes whitening the selvages, which would never become perfectly white, without the help of soap.

Then they wash them well to take off all the soap, and put them to soak in cow's-milk, the cream being first taken off. This perfects their bleaching, gives them all their softness, and makes them cast a little nap. Being taken out of the milk, they are washed again in clear water for the last time.

When they have undergone all these operations, they give them the first blue; that is to say, they dip them into water, in which a little starch has been steeped with smalt, or Dutch lapis, of which the fattest and palest is the best, for the linnens must not have too blue a cast.

The linnens being thus bleached after the manner we have related, the bleachers or whiteners deliver them into the hands of the merchants to whom they belong, who cause them to be properly prepared.

These preparations differ, according to the qualities of the linnens: for there are some which ought to preserve all their strength, and others whose strength must be lessened, to make them clearer.

Lawns, or cambrics, are prepared with starch and pale smalt, diluted in clear water. They add some other drugs, the quantity and quality of which is left to the workmen's knowledge and capacity.

Being thus prepared, they are fastened with ropes to poles fixed in the ground at some distance from each other. When they are three quarters and a half dry, they take them from the poles, and beat them on marble blocks with very smooth wooden mallets; which is done to beat down the grain, and give them a more beautiful appearance.

After this they fold them into small squares, and press them. When they come out of the press, the merchants put their numbers upon them, which are wrote or stamped upon small bits of parchment, and tied to the selvaige of the piece with silk of different colours, according to the merchant's fancy, who calls that silk his livery; each merchant having his particular colour, which he never changes.

After this they wrap up the pieces very neatly in brown paper of Roan well beat, tied with small packthread, which they commonly get from Holland. Then the linnens are in a proper condition to be sold, packed up, and sent to the places, where they are disposed of.

All the clear linnens of Picardy, such as plain, striped, or spotted lawns, are prepared after the same manner as those before-mentioned: except that these are beat, and not those of Picardy.

It must be observed, that, the fairer the weather is, the easier are the linnens bleached. In fair weather they may be bleached in a month's time, but, in foul weather, six weeks or more are hardly sufficient to compleat the operation.

Let it also be observed, that all the linnens, of what kind soever they be, which are bleached in Holland, Flanders, and Picardy, are all dipped into cow's milk, after the cream is taken off; it being certain, that it is this white liquor which gives them that delicate whiteness, so much admired in the linnens which come from those different countries.

It is customary with the merchants who send their linnens to the bleaching grounds of Flanders and Picardy, to mark them at each end with one or more letters of their names; which marks are made with thread of Epinay, worked with the needle; and, to fasten at the places where these marks are put, some small twists made also of the same thread of Epinay; which twists have a certain number of knots, at some distance from each other; each knot having it's particular value, according as every merchant thinks proper. The marks are put, in order to know to whom each piece belongs, and the twists to remember the prices.

The method of bleaching common linnens, as it is practised in Anjou.

Immediately after the pieces are taken from the loom, they are carried to the whistler, who puts them directly into a kind of wooden troughs, full of cold clear water, where, with wooden mallets, which are moved by a water-mill, they are so well agitated and beat, that they are insensibly cleared from all their filth and nastiness.

Being taken out of the mill, they are spread on a meadow, where the dew which they receive, during a week begins to bleach them.

Then they are put into a kind of wooden tubs, where they throw over them a common lee quite hot.

The linnens having thus gone through the lee, they take them out of the tub, to clean them again in the mill; then they spread them a second time in the meadow, where they leave them a week, after which they give them a second lee: all these several operations are repeated, till the linnens have acquired a perfect degree of whiteness. Then they fold them

up after a manner proper to each sort, and to the places for which they are designed.

R E M A R K S.

The linnen manufactures of these kingdoms, particularly of Scotland and Ireland, where it is their chief staple, cannot be too much cultivated and improved; it being the quantity, as well as the reasonableness of the price, that will render it acceptable at home as well as abroad.

And, although every part of the process of this manufacture should be executed to a pitch of excellency, superior to that of any other nation; yet, if the captivating beauty of whiteness alone was wanting, that would prove impediment sufficient to the success of this general manufacture. Yet, to give this colour to it's perfection, every other previous branch of the operation must be duly performed, or the admired whiteness cannot be obtained. Thus the imperfection, in this particular, both of the Scotch and Irish linnens, for a long time, consisted in the badness of the flax; which was by many ascribed to the want of a proper water, and extraordinary secret materials, which the Hollanders and other nations had, and we could not come at. But, since these countries have fell into the Flemish method of raising and managing flax, they have the more easily come into their excellency of bleaching.

It is certain, indeed, that the goodness of the flax alone will not absolutely supply the defect of unskilful bleaching, or of bad or improper materials for that purpose, though it may contribute to set it off to greater advantage. In short, in any manufactural operation, which consists of a variety of different parts, the skilful performance of particulars affords reciprocal benefit to each other, and a general lustre to the whole.

The Scots, by the aid of public encouragement, introduced and brought to perfection the art of bleaching fine linnen, as practised in Holland. At every public field, quantities of fine cloth have been brought to as good a colour, as any whitened in Holland. But they miscarried now and then in several pieces; but it is now well known, that this is not owing to the want of skill or industry in the bleacher, but to the badness of the flax whereof the cloth is made.

Nor did they, till within these few years, bleach so cheap as the Hollanders, but, at present, if I am rightly informed, they do within a trifle, though, in that respect, they have not had such public encouragement as the importance of the matter required, and a long while have laboured under many disadvantages, which the Hollanders did not. But from the wisdom and integrity of the trustees, appointed for the care of their manufactures, and the extraordinary zeal and industry in their manufacturers, they have now arrived to a very great perfection in their method of bleaching for fine goods; for cloth under three shillings per yard cannot bear the expence of it, nor does such cloth, indeed require so high a colour.

Although they have many public bleach-fields in Scotland, which are under very good regulations, and therefore excel in the art, yet there are also many private bleachers; and their cloth frequently differ so much one piece from another, that scarce one pack of goods of the same fineness, is to be had of the same colour; but, was all the linnen of Scotland whitened in public fields, under proper laws, regulations, and penalties, all the same staple would be also of the same colour, and that country happily freed from the least apprehension of the use of any prejudicial material, which will very much advance the value of the Scotch linnens of every kind.

The Irish linnen likewise, as well in the article of bleaching, as in all others, is arrived to a very great degree of perfection, and they are daily making advances therein as well as the Scots.

The trustees of the linnen manufacture of this country have very happily experienced the effects of premiums, which they have wisely given for the improvement of this manufacture in every branch thereof; and it is certainly the interest of England cheerfully to promote the same, according to it's merit. From the narrative before given of the art of bleaching, we find it depends upon water, chalk, sulphur, lixiviums, soap, indigo; and I am inclined to believe, from what I have seen, on some other materials, foreign materials, which are not so commonly known, and which come considerably dearer than any of the rest. But, if the particulars above enumerated be well chosen, and properly applied, it is more than likely that bleaching in these kingdoms might be carried on at less expence than it at present is. Wherefore to that end, I would humbly submit the following short observations to consideration.

- Qu. 1. Whether all waters, made use of in this operation, should not be first duly examined by the hydrostatical balance, or by water-poses, in order to judge of the specific gravity of the water proposed, and thereby to determine it's goodness by it's lightness?
2. That as the softest waters, and those the least impregnated with gross terrestrial matter, are experientially found to be the best adapted for this use: Quere, Whether only using small quantities of chalk, for the purpose before intimated, can answer so good ends, as if very large quantities of it

were thrown into, and to stand some considerable time in, these troughs, dikes, or canals, where water is used in bleaching grounds? And whether lixiviums made with this chalk and water would not be found more efficacious for bleaching, than the water used crude, as it commonly is?

The reason of this query is grounded on the well known principle, that chalk will not only greatly soften the hardest water, but that it is also a precipitator of a great deal of gross terrestreity out of the water.

3. Whether lixiviums of a more kindly and efficacious nature, than what are commonly used, may not be made from fern-ashes, or other vegetable natures? And whether these salts of ashes, of what kind soever may be used, would not operate sooner and more effectually if they were more cleansed and purified than they generally are, and lixiviums made thereof after such greater purification of the fixed salts?

4. Whether, according to the difference of the wood or combustible matter employed for the making of pot-ash, not only better lixiviums, but better soaps for the use of bleaching, may not be prepared than what usually are?

5. There are certain saline plants, that yield pot-ash in abundance, as particularly the plant kali; there are others that afford it in less plenty, and of an inferior quality, as bean-stalks, &c. But, in general all vegetable subjects afford it of one kind or other, and may most of them be made to yield it tolerably perfect, by burning a quantity of the matter; even the loopings, roots, and refuse parts of ordinary trees, vine choppings, &c.

6. But, besides the difference found in different vegetables for producing the salt required, as some may naturally produce more or less of the saline, oily, or earthy principles, than others; another difference will arise, from the manner of burning the subject, according as this is done with a greater or less degree of fire, or accession of the air. If a vegetable subject be burned in a close stifling manner, to a grey, or somewhat blackish or brown ashes, these ashes, thus containing more of the oil of the subject, will afford a more unctuous salt, that makes better soap, as well as better lixiviums for the use of bleaching. But, if the subject be burned in the open air, which has every way free access thereto, the ashes will be white, or contain no part of the oil of the subject; and thus such salt will prove fitter for the making of glass (where no oil is required) than of good lixiviums, or good soap for bleaching.

7. The fixed salts of all vegetables, when reduced to absolute purity, or entirely separated from the other principles, appear to be one and the same thing, at least not manifestly to differ. Whence it should seem, that, by a suitable management, good pot-ash might be made in all places where vegetable matters abound, without our bleachers being under the necessity of purchasing foreign pot-ash at a great expence. For if by examining Russia pot-ash, for example, we find, that its superior excellence depends upon its being clear of earth, or upon its containing a large proportion of oil, or fixed salt, these advantages may, by properly regulating the operation, be given to English, Scots, or Irish pot-ash; so as, perhaps, to render the latter as good as the former.

But, where the pot-ash of any remarkably saline vegetable is to be imitated, as that of kali suppose, we would recommend a prudent sprinkling of the subject with salt or seawater in the burning. And, by these means properly diversified, any principle that is naturally wanting in the subject might be artificially introduced, so as to perfect the art of pot-ash; whereon the art of bleaching so greatly depends, as also that of soap-making: for, without soap, we find that bleaching cannot be performed. So that it becomes the interest of the bleacher to be well knowing in the art of soap-making, or, at least, he ought to be so skilled in the qualities of soap, as to be capable of judging, which kind is the fittest for the purpose of his operation, will come to him the cheapest, and will, in concert with the other measures requisite to be taken, blanch his linnen to the utmost perfection.

To which intent see the article SOAP-MAKING, where I shall not only shew the ordinary processes, but suggest some new methods, founded on experimental knowledge, to make soap better in quality, and cheaper than it generally is; as also to point out what kind of soap is the most naturally suited to the art of bleaching, and how bleachers may, at a small expence, take such measures with the ordinary soap they use, as to render it the more efficacious for the intention required. See the articles LINNEN, FLAX, SPINNING, LINT-MILLS, LAPPERS, CALLENDERS, RUBBING-MILLS, and WAX, for it's method of bleaching.

BLEACHING of hair, is performed by washing it, as linnen is done, in a suitable lixivious water, and afterwards spreading it upon the grass. This lixivium, with the heat of the sun and the power of the air, brings the hair to so extraordinary a whiteness, that the most experienced person may sometimes be deceived therein; though the artifice is pretty easily detected, by boiling and drying it; which leaves the hair of the colour of a dead walnut-tree leaf.

There is likewise a method of dyeing hair with BISMUTH [see that article] which makes white hair, bordering too much upon the yellow, of a bright silver colour. This also

may be tried by boiling, the bismuth not being so fixed as to withstand it.

BLIND, a kind of false light, which traders commonly have in their ware-houses and shops, to prevent too great a light from diminishing the beauty and lustre of their linnens and stuffs, &c.

BLOMARY, or **BLOMARY**, the first forge in an iron-work, through which the metal passes, after it is melted out of the mine.

BLOOD-STONE, or the **LAPIS HÆMATITIS**, is a mineral of a reddish colour, hard, ponderous, with long pointed needles. This stone is brought from variety of places, there not being any iron mines wherein it is not found.

Choose these stones that are of the highest colour, with fine striæ, or needles, and as much like cinnabar as may be.

This mineral has some use in medicine, as it is astringent, desiccative, and good to stop bleeding, used externally, or given inwardly in fine powder; the dose is from four grains to a drachm.

Mr Chares observes, in his *Pharmacopœia Chymica*, page 823, That if you drive it over the helm, in a retort with sal armoniac, you may draw flowers of the colour and smell of saffron, which are what they call the flores aromatici philosophorum: and moreover, you may make with it a chalybeate acid spirit; and, with spirit of wine, a tincture and flowers; both which have great virtues, according to the before-mentioned author, to whom we refer.

It is said this stone has a sovereign virtue to stop blood, from whence it derives it's name of lapis hæmatitis, or the blood-stone.

This stone being powdered, as the loadstone, enters the composition of some Galenic medicines.

Goldsmiths and gilders use it to polish their works, whether it be upon silver, copper, iron, &c.

There is also another kind of blood-stone, called the red crayon, used by such as design and draw sketches: it is like that of Spain, with this difference, that it does not appear to sparkle with needles, but dull and unpolished, like earth.

This kind is in England, and there are two different sorts of it; the one good, which is pretty tender, soft and easy to saw or cut into crayons; but the other, not worth any thing, as being hard and gravelly, and will not admit of cutting.

In Bohemia, they extract an excellent iron from it; it is dug up in Germany, Italy, and Spain, but the last is esteemed the best. Pliny distinguishes five kinds of it, according to the countries it comes from, and it's different colour and hardness: and others divide them from their outward appearance; some are uneven and angular, as those of Spain; some clustered on the surface like bunches of grapes, and therefore called botryoides, as those brought from Harts-forest in Germany; and others are formed in various convolutions, like the intestines, or the outer surface of the brain.

BLOWING of Glass, is performed by dipping the end of an iron blowing-pipe into the melted glass, and, by blowing with the mouth, forming the several works which are made in the glass-houses, and manufactories of looking-glasses. See the article GLASS.

BLUE, that which is of a blue or azure colour.

Blue is one of the five simple and mother colours, which dyers use to compose the others.

Dyer's blue is made with woad that grows in Languedoc, and elsewhere: and small woad, called vouede by the French, which comes from Normandy, and indigo brought from the Indies.

Of these three drugs, the common woad is the best, and the most necessary for dyeing. The vouede, though inferior in quality, strength, and substance, gives also a pretty good colour, but the indigo gives but a false colour; it may, however, be used, if not above six pounds of it be mixed with each large bale of woad; and if it be not employed, till it has been well prepared in a great tub, and in the two first chafing-dishes. It is prohibited to use it otherwise than with woad, and without being prepared with proper lees.

The vouede can never be employed by itself, as having too little substance; nor can it serve to correct the defect of indigo, unless it be mixed with woad: but, in case it be used with indigo only, it requires no less than one pound of indigo to 100 weight of vouede.

Some dyers, in order to heighten the colour of blue, use Indian and Brazil wood, and orchel; but, by the ordonnance in France of the year 1669, art. 5, they are prohibited to use any of these drugs, and even to have any by them.

The blue is rendered more lively and bright, if the stuff, after being dyed and well washed, be dipped into lukewarm water: but it is much better done by fulling the dyed stuff with melted soap, and washing it afterwards very clean.

Very deep blues are brightened by boiling the stuffs once in clear water, and then putting them into a decoction of cochineal: but the azure, and lighter blues, would lose their colour, and become grey, if they were put into such a decoction.

Stuffs, dyed blue, pass immediately from white to that colour, without

without any other preparation but what they have undergone at the fuller's mill. In order to know whether the ground blue has been given to the stuffs, the dyers are obliged to leave at the end of each piece a blue rose of the bigness of a silver crown. Regulations of the year 1669, art. 34. The master-piece of a dyer of the finest stuffs consists in extracting from woad a blue dye, from the deepest shade to the lightest, and applying it to woollen stuffs. Regulations of the year 1669, art. 5. The blue never fails, if the colour of it be good.

R E M A R K S.

The art of dyeing in general in France, it is well known, is brought to a very great degree of perfection; and it is not at all to be admired that it should be so, when dyers, in regard to every capital colour, are under such wife and politic regulations, in order to enable them to surpass all other nations therein: and nothing is more certain than that no measures can prove more effectually conducive to the reputation of their woollen and silken manufactures of every kind, than the superior delicacy, beauty, and lustre of their colours. By this means have they not only been enabled to beat England in their blacks and their blues, but in their scarlets, and every other colour; which, together with falling in with the taste of the Turks in making cheaper scarlet cloths than we, have enabled them to supplant us so greatly in the Turkey trade? Does not this confirm the necessity that our artists and manufacturers of every kind should have the utmost assistance from the learned; I mean the philosophical learned, as well as due public encouragement from the state, to enable them to keep pace with, if not emulate and outvie, our industrious rivals in the dyeing, as well as every other quality of their manufactures; they being the great source of that treasure, and consequently of that power, which this nation at present does, or may hereafter ever expect to enjoy? See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS, and the ROYAL SOCIETY of London.

Painters-BLUE, is differently made, according to the different kinds of painting it is designed for. The ultramarine, blue ashes, and smalt, are equally employed in oil, in fresco, in water-colours, and in miniature. These three sorts of blue, are natural, except the smalt, which has almost as much of art as of nature in it. There is also an ultramarine which is all factitious, the making of which is explained under it's article. Indigo prepared is also a blue colour, used both in oil and in miniature. See INDIGO.

All these sorts of colours, either in powder, or diluted with oil, are sold in France by the druggists.

The blue used by painters in enamel, and on glass, is prepared by themselves, each having his particular method of doing it.

They give the name of Dutch azure to that which is prepared at Amsterdam, and in some other places of the United Provinces: it is more proper for linnens than for painting.

Flanders-BLUE, is a greenish-blue, seldom used but in landskips. It is otherwise called green albes.

BLUE. To give the blue to linnen signifies, with the whittlers, or bleachers, to dip it into water wherein they have dissolved a little starch with smalt, or Dutch azure. They commonly give two blues to cambrics: the first is the bleaching-blue, given by the whittlers; and the other the stiffening blue, given by the merchants. See BLEACHING, where the method of bleaching fine linnens is mentioned.

Blue is also used in the bleaching of silks, to give them that bluish cast, which heightens their whiteness and lustre. Silks are blue by dipping them in a tub of cold water, in which a little soap and indigo has been diluted.

BLUE of Prussia, or Prussian BLUE, is by some reckoned as good as the ultramarine for painting both in oil and in water colours.

R E M A R K S.

The composition of this blue was a secret till the celebrated Dr. John Woodward, late professor of Physic in Gresham College, London, published it in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London; and which was communicated to him from Germany in Latin, the sense of which is as follows: Take of tartar and nitre crude, each four ounces; pulverize and mix them well together, and, by decrepitation, bring them into a fixed salt; which being powdered very finely hot, add to it four ounces of thoroughly dried ox-blood, reduced to fine powder. Calcine the mixture in a close crucible, of which it may fill two third parts: then lightly pound the matter in a mortar, and throw it hot into two quarts of boiling water. Boil them together for half an hour; afterwards strain off the liquor, wash the black remaining substance with fresh water, and strain as before; continuing to do thus till the water poured off becomes quite insipid. Join the several liquors together, and evaporate them to two quarts. Dissolve an ounce of English vitriol, first calcined to whiteness, in six ounces of rain water, and filtre the solution. Dissolve likewise half a pound of crude allum, in two quarts

of boiling water; and add to this the solution of vitriol, taken hot from the fire; pouring to them also the first lixivium whilst thoroughly hot, in a large vessel: a great ebullition and a green colour, will immediately appear. Whilst this ebullition continues, pour the mixture out of one vessel into another, and afterwards let it rest; then strain the liquor through a linnen cloth, and let the matter, or pigment, remain in the strainer; from whence put it, with a wooden spatula, into a small new pot; pour upon it two or three ounces of the spirit of salt; and a beautiful blue colour will instantly appear. Let the matter be now well stirred; then suffered to rest for a night; afterwards thoroughly edulcorate it by repeated affusions of rain-water, allowing a proper time for the precipitate to subside, and thus, at length it will become exquisitely blue. Lastly, let it drain upon a linnen strainer, and dry it gently. This makes the paint called the Prussian blue.

N. B. This operation greatly depends on the calcination. The crucible must first be surrounded with coals, at some distance; that it may grow gradually hot, and the matter leisurely flame and glow. Let this degree of heat be continued till the flame and glowing decrease; then raise the fire again, that the matter they glow with an exceeding white heat, and but little flame appear above the crucible. Lixiviums should be very hot, and mixed together with the utmost expedition.

Observations and experiments upon the foregoing preparation, by Mr. John Brown, chemist, F. R. S.

In going through the foregoing process exactly, according to the proportions prescribed, I observed that, by a calcination of ℥ iij of blood dried, with ℥ iij of sal tartari, in two hours time that part of the operation was over, and a black spongy substance remained in the crucible weighing, ℥ iij; a dissolution of which being made in boiling water, and afterwards filtered, the remainder, when dried, weighing ℥ ix avoirdupoise, the former having been weighed by the same kind of weight. The loss and filtration of the vitriol and allum is not worth taking notice of, they having both been very clean before they were dissolved, the mixtures being made as prescribed, with the addition of the spiritus falis, the product was a very fine blue, which, when well edulcorated by frequent washings, and afterwards thoroughly dried, weighed ℥ i, or a little more, and intirely answered the character the author gave of it.

Among the several experiments that were made with these liquors, I mean the lixivium with blood, the solution of vitriol, the solution of allum, and the spirit of salt, though they always produced a blue; yet that blue differed in degrees of colour, according to the varied proportions of the vitriol and allum; and the colours produced from these several proportions were each of them improved by the addition of the spiritus falis. I shall mention only two of the several I tried; in one of which the allum was intirely left out, and a pale blue produced; in the other, the proportions of vitriol and allum were equal, and a very deep blue was produced. These differences in colour, arising from the several proportions of the vitriol and allum, are only mentioned to confirm the truth of the author's precept, as being the most exact and best proportioned to produce the finest colour of any I have tried. The only misfortune he takes notice of as attending his precept, is what may happen in the calcination.

It would be curious to know what gave the first hint for the production of so fine a colour, from a combination of such materials; especially when we come to consider, that the blood has the greatest and principal share in this surprizing change. I doubt not but blood, or flesh of any kind, would produce the same effects, but have reason to believe the latter would not produce so beautiful a colour as the former. I purposely dried some beef, freed from it's skin and salt, and pursued the same course as with the blood; but there was a sensible difference to be observed during the calcination, and a very manifest one in the beauty of the two colours, when finished.

To prove the share the blood has in this change, the following experiments (some of which were shewed before the Royal Society of London) may be convincive. The solution of allum, mixt with that of the vitriol, produces no alteration of colour: if to these you add the spiritus falis, the appearance is the same; but, if to the whole you put the lixivium with blood, there precipitates a blue. If you substitute, instead of the lixivium with blood, a lixivium made with the same salt of tartar only, which then becomes an ol. tartari, and, after the solution of the allum with that of the vitriol, you pour on this ol. tartari, there follows, indeed, a precipitation, but of no colour; and, if you add the spirit of salt, it so strongly attracts what is precipitated, as to render the muddy mixture perfectly clear. The very same effect will follow if any volatile alcalious spirit is made use of as a precipitant, or any volatile salts dissolved in water; nor can the blood itself be supposed to communicate such change from any such properties, the heat of fire it undergoes in the calcination being sufficient to throw them off.

In the calcination of the dried blood and salt of tartar it was observed, that there was a loss of just half. It is difficult to determine

determine exactly what quantity of either was lost by this calcination, but it will easily be granted, that there was lost a far larger quantity of the blood than of the salt of tartar; and that is obvious from an experiment, by which, when the salt of tartar was calcined by itself, with the same degree of heat, it lost less than $\frac{1}{3}$ part; whereas, when the dried blood was calcined by itself, it lost more than $\frac{1}{2}$. The blood, in calcination with the salt of tartar, communicates it's tinging quality to the salt, or that quality is extracted from it by the salt, and passes with it in it's dissolution in the boiling water. To prove this some dried blood was calcined by itself, and a strong decoction was made of it in water, and afterwards filtered: this, when mixed with the former solutions, produced little or no alteration; but, on the addition of the spiritus salis, changed to an amber colour, without any precipitation. When this liquor was mixed with the ol. tartari, and poured to the former solutions, it caused a precipitation, but no colour; and the spiritus salis, as in the other experiment, made the liquor clear again, but left this also of an amber colour. The change of colour is not effected in any of the materials, except in that of the solution of vitriol; so that the allum seems only to be of use in fixing the colour, as it is often used by the dyers for that purpose, and the spiritus salis gives it a deeper dye: for, if the lixivium with blood be poured to the solution of allum alone, there will fall a sediment a little on the purple, to which, if you add the spiritus salis, it changes the colour, and the sediment is a brown.

So much the same changes will be produced if you pour the spiritus salis to the lixivium, but not the least appearance of a blue; whereas, when the lixivium is poured to the solution of vitriol, there immediately follows the blue, which is still heightened by the addition of the spiritus salis. It will not be improper to take notice, that, as the author orders all the liquors, except the spiritus salis, to be boiling hot, when mixed, so it is certain the colour is thereby more immediately produced, and looks more beautiful; but most of the experiments here mentioned were made with the liquors cold, and the colours came to their beauty with a little washing. In one of the experiments with the liquors cold, after the lixivium with blood had precipitated the blue in the mixture of allum and vitriol, by pouring in a little more of the lixivium, the blue all disappeared, and an ugly muddy colour was left; but the addition of the spiritus salis soon discharged that, and the blue returned. In calcining the beef and salt of tartar, I found the matter left in the crucible to weigh just half of the whole mixture, as in that with the blood; but after the boiling it in water, the residuum in the filtre, when dried, was very near $\frac{1}{2}$ less in proportion than the other: from whence may be reasonably inferred, that the salt of tartar holds a larger share of the beef in the one operation, than of the blood in the other.

Having, in the former part of this account of the Prussian blue proved, by the experiments there mentioned, that the solution of vitriol was the only subject among those ingredients, that the lixivium of blood produced this change of colour in it; and having since considered that the vitriol, made use of in this preparation, is no more than iron dissolved by a liquor running from the pyrites, when exposed to the weather, which is afterwards boiled up and shot into crystals; it seemed to follow, as a natural consequence, that this metal is the subject on which the lixivium of blood produces the change; and this thought gave occasion to the following experiments on metallic bodies, in order to observe if the same change of colour could be produced in any of them.

To a solution of silver in aqua fortis was poured the lixivium of blood, which occasioned a coagulum of a pure flesh colour. The lixivium made with flesh produced a whitish coagulum, and the ol. tartari (which was continued to be used by way of comparison with the other lixivium) a much whiter. By the addition of the spiritus salis to each of these, the bloom of the flesh colour was taken off in the first, but suffered no other change. In the second the coagulum was a little tinged with blue; and in the third, the white was manifestly improved. The bluish tinge in the second of these experiments cannot intirely be assigned as the effect of the lixivium with silver; when thus dissolved, whether precipitated with salt water or ol. tartari, it will, after it has stood some time, contract a bluish tinge, and this from an alloy of copper, from which it may not be intirely freed.

The same liquors were made use of to precipitate the mercury in the mercurius sublimatus corr. dissolved in water; the consequence of which was, that the lixivium with blood produced a pure yellow; the lixivium with flesh an orange colour; and the ol. tartari a dingy red. The addition of the spiritus salis to these made some very odd alterations; for the first changed it's yellow colour for an orange; the second, it's orange for blue; and the third became quite clear again without any colour. The blue colour in the mixture of the lixivium with flesh, and solution of sublimate, may be accounted for from the vitriol in the composition of the sublimate; but it will not be so easy to give a reason why the same colour should not have been produced from the lixivium with blood, and the same solution.

Copper, when dissolved in aqua fortis, tinges the water of a green colour; and if to this you pour the two lixivium of blood and flesh, when you add the spiritus salis, they both change, and become of a colour not unlike the copper itself before it is dissolved in the aqua fortis. If the ol. tartari be poured to a solution of the copper, the coagulum is a pale green, which coagulum the spiritus salis dissolves, and leaves the liquor clear, but green, as before precipitation.

Tin-glafs (an imperfect metal) dissolved in aqua fortis, and mixed with the lixivium of blood, made a milky coagulum; and, by the addition of spiritus salis, after some time standing, it's upper surface changed to a light blue. The lixivium of flesh and the ol. tartari produced both white coagula, which the spiritus salis scarcely alters.

Lead dissolved in spirit of vinegar produceth much the same white coagulum, when mixed either with the lixivium of blood, flesh, or the ol. tartari, nor doth the spiritus salis make any alteration.

By all these experiments it is pretty evident, that not any of those metallic bodies were affected by the lixivium of blood, so as to produce this fine blue. The two metals untried are gold and tin, the latter of which, when dissolved in the spirit of vinegar, has so near a resemblance to lead dissolved in the same menstruum, that, in all probability, the experiments would answer much alike in both. What may be expected from gold I am not yet so well assured of, as I am from iron, which, when dissolved in spiritus vitrioli, will answer all the experiments that have been tried with the solutions of vitriol, and produce as fine a colour; nor can this be owing to any property in the dissolvent itself, which, though drawn from the same kind of vitriol all along made use of in these experiments, yet is so altered by the violent fire in the production of it, as not to answer many trials to the vitriol itself. May we not, therefore, conclude, that iron is the metal that is the subject of this beautiful colour produced by means of the lixivium of blood?

Monfieur Geoffroy the elder has, by the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1725, discovered a method of making this blue, with good success, by the means of charcoal alone, to be substituted in the place of ox-blood, and with this profitable circumstance, that it will yield almost twice the quantity of blue, and of a deeper colour. He also makes some variation in the foregoing process, not suffering the calcined mixture of alcali salt and blood, or coals, to cool: he only exposes the fecula to the air, stirring it now and then: nor has he any occasion for the spirits of salt: according to his method, it is enough that the degree of calcination of the alcali salt and coals be very exact.

Further R E M A R K S.

The method of making the Prussian blue in perfection has been held and purchased as a very valuable secret, both in England, Germany, and elsewhere; but it is now got into several hands. It's process is very extraordinary, and could scarce, perhaps, be derived à priori from any reasoning upon the nature of colours. It is allowed an excellent blue pigment, and by some preferred to ultramarine; though it's permanency might have been suspected, from the vegetable and animal matters used in it's preparation, if the colour did not seem wonderfully fixed by the operation, which may reasonably be ascribed to the allum.

A great variety of colours are prepared by the means of animal matters, and more particularly by the means of urine, which, when it has stood to ferment, or putrify, serves to extract, change, or fix the natural colours of some bodies, and to heighten the colours of others. Thus it is used in the preparation of the ordinary blue called orchel: it is also used in the changing or fixing of turnsole, so as to make a most elegant red from the sun flower: it is likewise a principal ingredient, along with indigo, in making that noble, fixed and durable blue, for the staining of callico; a colour that first appears green, but by washing with soap, changes, and fixes into a lively blue.

Certain chemical preparations from animal subjects are also employed for extracting, changing, or heightening the colours of various bodies. Thus the alkaline, or volatile, spirit of urine, blood, bones, &c. extracts a fine blue from copper, changes a green solution of copper to a purple, and heightens the red of cocheneal. And doubtless the present stock of colours might be considerably enlarged, or improved by a prudent choice of animal menstrooms.

By animal menstrooms we mean both the natural and artificial kind. The natural are such as blood, serum, galls, urine, saliva, rennet, whey, butter-milk, &c. most of which, being properly employed, will either discharge, or produce, colours. Thus recent urine discharges the common ink out of linnen; the saliva discharges red ink; butter milk takes stains and mildews out of linnen, &c. blood, we see by our present experiments, affords a rich and beautiful blue; and gall is a natural yellow, which may deserve to be treated as blood in making the Prussian blue.

These natural animal menstrooms, or other animal substances, being chemically treated, may afford a great variety both of

simple and compound liquors, or new artificial menstruums, for farther improving the business of colours, dyes, and stains. Thus, as purified urine affords an alkaline spirit, by distillation, that serves to produce, alter, or destroy, a great number of colours; so, likewise, might the liquors obtained by distillation, from recent, or fermented whey, butter-milk, &c. And, by variously compounding these several substances, or liquors, even by random trials, or chance experiments, discoveries in colours might be made, as in the present experiment of Prussian blue: though we have a much greater dependence upon conducting such experiments in a rational manner, or in the way of an art, formed upon a competent knowledge of chemical operations, with their productions and effects; which will enable the enquirer to reason, by analogy, from one experiment to another, and thus lead, in a sure and guarded manner, to new profitable inventions and discoveries. Thus, for instance, the chemical operator found that common bones, burnt only to blackness, affords the bone-black, it is very easy to transfer the experiment to ivory, whereby a better black is produced. And thus, upon finding that dried ox-blood has so great an effect in making the Prussian blue, we are naturally led to try the same experiment with the blood of different animals, or other concrement animal juices, as gall, feathers, flesh, leather, &c. or the intire bodies of certain insects, fish, birds, &c. And this should be done with proper diversifications of the ingredients, and their proportions; all along carefully noting the several phenomena and events, which will constantly afford light and instruction to the mind, for the better regulating and conducting of the enquiry, till it ends in a satisfactory discovery of the point aimed at.

BOA-ATI. This is a Malayan word, which signifies a fruit shaped like a hart. It is a dry fruit, which is produced on a tree that is to be found nowhere but in some of the Molucca islands, and particularly in that of Ternate. It is naturally of a middling size. The natives of those islands call that tree foolamou (or rather, according to the English pronunciation, foolamoo) the Dutch spell it foelamoe, which, according to their pronunciation, has the same sound; for the diphthong *oe*, in their language, sounds like *ou* in French, and like *oo* in English. We make this observation, because the French, and other travellers, do often commit blunders in foreign words, or names, because they do not pronounce them like the natives. It is so much the more proper to know this, as it will teach the reader to pronounce the names which he will meet with in several places of this work, and which the Dutch have given to divers merchandizes, that are yearly imported from the East-Indies in their company's fleet, of which they distribute printed catalogues through all Europe.

The fruit of the tree called foolamoo is very much esteemed as a medicine through all the eastern parts of the East-Indies; that is to say, the peninsula beyond the Ganges, as far as China, and in all the Sunda and Molucca islands, where they drive a great trade therein, on account of its excellent qualities against fevers, pains in the stomach, cholics, &c. Many people in those countries look upon that fruit as a remedy for the cure of several other diseases. It is surprising that the Dutch, who use it often in those islands, have not yet introduced it into Europe. Its virtues, as is pretended, do by far excel those of the Bean of St Ignatius, which grows in the same places, and with which the Spaniards of the Manillas have made us acquainted. See **BEAN** of St Ignatius.

The *boa-ati* is a fruit almost round, flattened on both sides, and somewhat thickish in the middle, of the size of a thumb's nail, or something larger, sloped on one side; and a little peaked on the other, which makes it resemble a heart, whence it obtained its Malayan name; for in that language *boa* signifies a fruit, and *ati* a heart. It is of a feuille-mort, or file-mot colour; and, when carefully observed, though dry, we discern that it is properly a capsule, with two cavities, each of which contains a very small seed. Finally, its taste is very bitter, though not at all unpleasent. The dose commonly given is a whole capsule, but in difficult cases they give even three or four. Mr Rumphius, whose history of the Plants of the Molucca Islands was in the press at Amsterdam in the year 1740, calls this fruit, *rex amarorum*, king of the bitters. The Indians of the Molucca and Sunda isles make a very great use of bitters in physic: and this begins, of late, to be pretty common also in Europe; but there are some bitters more effectual than others, as appears from the quinquina, or Jesuit's bark. If the *boa-ati* came once to be known in Europe, the Dutch East-India company would, no doubt, reap a very great benefit from that drug in their trade, since they alone are in possession of the countries where it grows, as well as of those where most spices are to be found. It was not improper to give an account of that drug in this place, that an opportunity may from thence be taken to import it into Europe. There are, in the hot countries, a thousand remedies, naturally produced, which are always too late discovered; but often, for want of knowing how to use them, they never come to have the reputation they deserved.

BOARD, a long piece of timber, sawed thin, for building, and several other purposes. See **TIMBER**.

The trees, of which boards are chiefly made are the walnut, beech, oak, fir, pear-tree, and poplar. See each of these articles, where you will meet with an account of the length, breadth, and thickness of the boards sawed from those trees, as also of the use for which they may be proper.

The trade of boards at Amsterdam.

The trade of boards, as well as of other timber for joiners, carpenters, and coopers, is one of the most considerable that are carried on at Amsterdam. We mention it in several places of this Dictionary: we shall speak here only of the trade of boards which they drive in that city.

All the boards are sold by the hundred, but in most of them there are more or less boards in a hundred.

The boards of Christiaan are sold for about 56 guilders per 100, 126 being reckoned to the hundred.

The boards of Cooperwyk (perhaps it should be Oosterwyk) about 65 guilders per 100, 132 being reckoned to the 100.

The boards from the north for about 48 guilders per 100, and also 132 to the 100.

Lastly, the boards of Westerwyk are sold for about 60 guilders per 100, 124 to the 100.

N. B. All masts, timber, boards, of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muscovy, or Russia, or of any of that imperial dominion, must be imported only in ships belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland; except such ships as are of the built of the country whereof the said goods are the growth, production, or manufacture; or of such port where the said goods can only be, or most usually are, shipped for transportation; on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 8. See **NORWAY Trade**.

BOAT, a vessel worked upon rivers and lakes. (In our language that word signifies chiefly a small open vessel; but we are obliged to take it here, in a more extensive sense, to signify even covered vessels; and we are authorized so to do by custom, since even the ships which sail with the mail to Holland, Portugal, &c. are called boats, namely packet-boats.)

In this large sense, therefore, a boat is a vessel, either sailing, or worked by men, drawn by horses, on rivers or lakes, and carrying merchandizes, or provisions, from one place to another. The structure, and even the names of boats, are different, either according to the uses they are designed for, or according to the provinces in which they were built.

The boats which navigate on the river Peine are large, long, and strong vessels, with pretty high sides; they come from Roan, and from the river Oise, and are commonly used to carry great loads of wood for fuel, and other goods. They call them *foncets*.

The boats which come from the river Loire are called *chalands*; they are narrow, and neither very long, nor very high, because of the canals and sluices, or locks, through which they must pass. They serve to carry wines, and other productions and merchandizes of the provinces which lie near the Loire and the Allier.

The boats of the river Marne keep the name of that river, and are called *Marnois*: they are flat and middle-sized. They are commonly laden with wine, corn, and timber, from the province of Champagne.

The stage-boats, called in French *bateaux-coches*, and more commonly *coches-d'eau*, water-coaches, are large covered vessels, which serve, particularly on the river Seine, for the convenience of travellers, and for carrying all sorts of merchandizes. The names of them are, the passage-boat, or water-coach, of Sens, of Auxerre, of Montereau, and of Fontainebleau, or Valvin.

The boats of the master ferrymen at Paris are called *flottes*.

The ordonnance of that city, made in the year 1672, enjoins them to keep their boats always provided with staves and oars, and to have a sufficient number of boats ready at the places and ferries appointed by the provost of the merchants and echevins.

The fishing-boats on rivers are hardly known under any other name but that of *bachot*. They are provided with a pair of oars, a staff, a pole to fasten the boat in the river when they are fishing, a mast and fishing-lines.

The ordonnance of Lewis XIV, made in December 1672, and quoted above, contains a great many articles concerning the places where the boats laden with merchandizes, which arrive at Paris, are obliged to stop, when there is no room for them at the usual keys. There are other articles relating to the clearing of the keys, after the boats are unladen; and some also about boats overset or sunk at those keys, as well as for the carrying off, marking and selling of the wrecks.

Some articles in the same ordonnance, regulate the rank of the boats in the river, either going up or coming down: others, what is to be observed in passing through bridges or narrow passes, and which boats are to give way.

Other articles relate to the time when the boats are to come to the keys, to the declaration of their arrival, to the unloading of their merchandizes, to the demands which merchants may have on the boats, for misreckoning, loss, or other accidents which befall the said merchandizes through the fault of the boatmen, carriers, or masters of the boats; in

in fame the ordonnance is declared, in what cafes the boats are not answerable for the losses.

Laſtly, there are ſome articles which determine what time the boats ought to continue at the keys, according to the goods they are laden with.

With regard to theſe matters of trade by water, the reader may conſult the firſt, ſecond, third, fourth, and ſixteenth chapters of the ſaid ordonnance, or the articles of this Dictionary, where we mention the carriages and carriers by water, the narrow paſſes of rivers, the clearing of keys, the bridge-maſters, the mooring-places, the bridge-officers, floats of wood, and the like, which will be found in their alphabetical order.

Post-BOATS, are boats eſtabliſhed on the river Loire, for the conveniency of the public. They are long and narrow, and go very faſt. There are ſome alſo on the Rhône, which go from Lyons to Avignon in twenty-four hours. See the article **POST**.

BOATS of Holland. In almoſt all the ſeven United Provinces, there are boats which ſerve for public carriages, which ſet out from every city at all hours of the day, and carry people very conveniently from one place to another, at a very ſmall expence. They are long, narrow, and covered, and can contain near ſixty perſons; each boat is drawn by one horſe, and has but two men to manage it; the one ſits at the helm, and the other takes care of the rope; the horſe is generally rode by a boy. There are ſome alſo which ſet out at a certain hour in the night. There is in theſe boats, on the ſide of the poop or ſtern, a room, which can eaſily contain fix perſons, and is ſeparated with boards from the reſt of the boat; it has glaſs-windows, whereas the other openings are only ſhut with oil-cloth in bad weather. Theſe ſeparate rooms are called *roefs* in Dutch, which they pronounce *roof*: ſo that a perſon who would go, for inſtance from Amſterdam to the Hague, takes a place in that room, or even the whole room, if he pleaſes; gets into it at eight of the clock at night, where he finds cuſhions to lie upon; and is ſure to arrive the next morning at the Hague. But this muſt be underſtood of the boats which carry merchandizes; for in thoſe deſigned for paſſengers only, in each of which there is alſo a private room, a man is obliged to change boats ſeveral times. From Amſterdam to Haerlem, he muſt change boats half way, becauſe the canal there is cut by a dyke. At Haerlem, he muſt croſs the town to get to the boat that is to carry him to Leyden. At Leyden, he muſt again croſs the town, to meet the boat in which he is to go to the Hague. All this can be performed in ten hours and a half; for, at eight o'clock preciſely, a boat ſets out from Amſterdam for Haerlem, where it arrives about half an hour after ten: at eleven a boat ſets out from Haerlem for Leyden, and arrives there at three in the morning: half an hour after three a boat ſets out from Leyden, and arrives at the Hague half an hour after fix.

There is ſo good an order kept, that at the ringing of a bell the boat muſt ſet out immediately, without waiting for any paſſenger. There are few countries where people can travel ſo conveniently as in Holland.

REMARKS.

Theſe regulations ſeem calculated to answer two ends of no little conſideration: (1.) That of the conveniency of trade, even in the minuteſt cafes of water-carriage, which makes merchandizes come cheaper to the hands of the conſumer. And (2.) For the ſpeedy, convenient, and certain accommodation of travellers, to induce them either to ſee the country and ſpend their money among them, or to facilitate the means of a commercial correſpondence for the benefit of theſe ſtates.

BOCAL, or **BOCCALE**, a liquid meaſure uſed at Rome. It is properly what they call in France a bottle, which with us is about half a gallon wine meaſure. It holds a little above a Paris pint, or half a gallon; ſeven bocals and a half make a *rubbe*, or *rubbia*; and thirteen *rubbes* and a half make the *brente*, which therefore holds $101\frac{1}{2}$ bocals. (Monſieur Savary ſays 96, but that muſt be a miſtake, ſince $13\frac{1}{2}$ multiplied by $7\frac{1}{2}$ makes $101\frac{1}{2}$.)

BOCKING, or **BOKKING**. Thus they call, in Holland, what we call red herring in Engliſh, and the French *hareng fumé*, or ſoet, ſmoaked herring. The new liſt, or tariff of Holland, diſtinguiſhes three ſorts of bocking, namely, the bockings in general, thoſe that are caught thirteen days after *Candlemas-day*, and thoſe of May, which are alſo called *Mey bocking*. (*Mey* in Dutch is the name of the month of May.) Theſe three ſorts of herrings are free in Holland from any duty of importation: as for exportation, the duty differs: the firſt ſort pay at the rate of one *gulder* and ten *ſtivers* per laſt, of 10,000 herrings; the ſecond 15 *ſtivers* for the ſame laſt, and the third only three *ſtivers*.

They import into Holland great quantities of our Engliſh red herrings, which they eſteem much more than their own. **BODY**, is ſaid in general of ſeveral perſons who compoſe a *jurisdiction*, or a company or corporation: [in this ſenſe we ſay in Engliſh a body corporate.] Thus in France they ſay,

the body of the city [*le corps de ville*], the body of the merchants, the body or community of arts and trades, to ſignify the concurrence and aſſembly of all thoſe perſons, who, by employment, privileges, or freedom, have a right to enter, or to be called into thoſe companies.

The body of the city of Paris is compoſed of a governor, the king's lieutenant, a provost of the merchants, four *echevins*, or ſheriffs; the king's attorney, twenty-fix counſellors, the recorder, ſixteen aldermen, or *quarteniers*, as they call them in French; an uſher of the audience, and ſix *commiſſary-uſhers*.

The provost of the merchants, aſſiſted by *echevins*, and the king's attorney, take cognizance of all the diſputes which ariſe amongſt the merchants, with regard to the merchandizes which arrive by water on the keys.

There are at Paris fix bodies or companies of merchants, who are looked upon as the chief channels, through which the whole trade of that great city is carried on.

The firſt is that of drapers.

The ſecond that of grocers, or druggiſts,

The third that of mercers.

The fourth that of the furriers.

The fifth that of the hoſiers.

And the ſixth that of the gold and ſilverſmiths.

On the 24th of December, 1694, there was made by the king's council a remarkable decree, by which all judges are forbidden to pronounce any ſentence for apprehending the perſons of the maſters and wardens of any of the fix bodies of the merchants of Paris, in order to compel them to produce the merchandizes by them ſeized in their viſitations; and all uſhers or tipſtaffs, and all other officers, are alſo forbidden to force them to it; with liberty, however, for them to ſee ſuch ſentences executed upon the keepers of their offices, with whom the merchandizes ſeized are depoſited.

The general aſſemblies of theſe fix bodies of merchants are commonly held in the draper's office or hall, who have the ſole right to call them, becauſe they hold the firſt rank.

When there is occaſion to call an aſſembly, or buſineſs which concerns the fix bodies in general, the maſters and wardens of the drapers company ſummon the five other companies to come to their office; theſe companies generally ſend either two deputies, choſen out of the wardens of each body; and when any of theſe five bodies has ſome buſineſs of conſequence, which concerns that in particular, and requires the concurrence of the other bodies, the maſters and wardens of that company addreſs themſelves to the firſt grand warden of the drapers, to demand a general aſſembly of the fix bodies.

The firſt grand warden of the drapers company always preſides, or is chairman, in the aſſemblies of the fix bodies.

The maſters and wardens of the fix bodies of merchants have the honour to carry the canopy over the heads of kings, queens, and other princes, princeſſes, and lords, who make their public entry at Paris.

The maſters and wardens of the drapers company, as repreſenting the firſt body, begin with taking up the canopy before the throne, which is commonly erected without the bars of *St Anthony's-gate*; and the other five bodies take it up by turns, the one after the other, according to their rank; ſo that the body of the gold and ſilverſmiths are the laſt who hold it, and carry it into the *Louvre*.

The fix bodies of the merchants of Paris have, for their coat of arms, a man ſitting, and holding in his hands a bundle of ſticks tied together, which he endeavours to break, with this motto, *Vincit concordia fraterum*; that is to ſay, The concord or union of brethren overcomes; hinting thereby, that, as long as the fix bodies of merchants ſhall continue united, their trade will flouriſh, and their privileges will be preſerved to them.

It muſt be obſerved, that the corporation of wine-merchants at Paris has made, from time to time, ſeveral attempts to be erected into a ſeventh and laſt body of the merchants of Paris; but the fix bodies have always oppoſed it, ſo that the wine-merchants can be looked upon only as a corporation of merchants diſtinguiſhed from the others, by having maſters and wardens, who have the liberty to wear gowns of black cloth, faced with velvet, like thoſe of the fix bodies.

BODY is alſo ſaid, in France, of the commonalties of arts and trades, that is to ſay, of all ſorts of tradesmen and workmen, who have been united into ſeveral bodies. They are more commonly called *commonalties* in French, and companies in Engliſh. See the article **COMPANY**.

BOHEA, one of the beſt kinds of tea that come from China: There are three ſorts of it. The firſt is bought at *Quantung* or *Canton*, for 80 *taels* per pic; the ſecond for 45, and the third for 25. The Dutch ſell it again, the firſt for 180 *patachs*, the next for 120, and the laſt for 75. See **TEA**.

There is a great variety of teas, as they differ in colour, flavour, and in the ſize of the leaf. Theſe are, however, all the leaves of the ſame tree, only differing according to the ſeaſons at which they are gathered, and the manner of the drying. 'Twere endleſs to enumerate theſe ſeveral diſtinctiſons; the general diviſion is into three kinds: the ordinary green tea, the finer green tea, and the bohea; to the

one or the other of these may be referred all the other kinds. The common green tea is gathered in April; the bohea in March; while in the bud, according to F. le Compte, and hence proceeds the smallness of the leaves, as well as the depth of the tincture it gives water. It is of a darker colour than the others, often blackish, and is of the smell and taste of the others, but with a mixed sweetness and astringency, in some degree resembling the taste of the terra Japonica, which the green tea wants. The green teas have all somewhat of the violet flavour; the bohea has naturally somewhat of the rose smell.

Kœmpfer says, the tea-tree is a shrub that grows but slowly; it rises to six feet and higher, has a black, woody, irregular branching root. It's bark is dry, thin, weak, chestnut-coloured, greyish on the stem, and somewhat inclined to green on the extremities of the twigs; it is firm, and adheres closely to the wood, and is covered with a thin skin, which sometimes loosens of itself, as the bark grows dry. This being removed, the bark appears of a greenish colour, and smells somewhat like the hazle-tree leaves, but more disagreeable and offensive, and of a bitter, nauseous, and astringent taste.

The wood is hard and fibrous, of a greenish colour, inclining to white, of a very offensive smell, when green; the pith, which is very small, sticks close to the wood.

The branches and twigs are numerous, growing disorderly, slender, of different sizes, though, in the general, short, wanting those rings which in trees and shrubs denote their yearly growth; thick beset with leaves, on short, fat, green, foot-stalks, roundish, and smooth on the back, but hollow, and somewhat compressed. On the opposite side stand the leaves: these are of a soft substance, between membranous and fleshy; in substance, shape, colour, and size, when full grown, like the Morella cherry-tree; but, when young and tender, they resemble (except in colour) the spindle-tree, with red berries, called eunymus.

The larger leaves are two inches long, and one broad, or near it; from a small beginning they become roundish and broader, and then taper in a sharp point. Some are of an oval shape, somewhat bent, and irregularly undulated lengthways, depressed in the middle, with the extremities rolled backwards; they are smooth on both sides, of a dirty green colour, somewhat lighter on the back; where the nerves being raised pretty much, leaves so many hollows and furrows on the opposite side; they are serrated or indented, the teeth being a little bent, hard, obtuse, and set close together, but of different sizes; they have one conspicuous nerve in the middle, to which a deep furrow answers on the other side. It is branched on each side into five, six, or seven thin transverse ribs, of different lengths, and bent backwards near the edges of the leaves; some smaller veins run between the transverse ribs.

The leaves, when fresh, are destitute of smell, and are not, as the bark, ungrateful to the taste, being astringent and bitterish, but not nauseous. They differ in substance, size, and shape, according to the different age, situation, and nature of the soil wherein they grow. Were they infused and drank, when they are fresh and green, they would much affect the body, especially the hands; for, being narcotic, they would occasion a trembling and convulsive motion in the nerves; but they lose this bad quality in the drying and rolling, which expresses that clammy, yellowish, acid juice, which causes these tremors; so corrosive sometimes is this juice, that it excoriates the hands of the roasters and rollers.

The branches are thick beset with flowers, much like our wild roses, about an inch in diameter, having little smell, composed of six round hollow petals, or leaves, standing on a foot-stalk of an inch long, which, from a slender beginning, insensibly grow larger, and end in an uncertain number of small, round squamæ, or leaves, which serve instead of the calyx. These flowers continue growing till late in the winter; one or two whereof are generally sick, shrunk, and fall short of the largeness and beauty of the rest; they have a very disagreeable, bitterish taste, which chiefly affects the basis of the tongue.

Within the flower are many white stamina, exceeding small, as in roses, with yellow heads shaped like a heart; in one flower, there are sometimes an hundred and thirty of these stamina. The flowers are succeeded by great plenty of fruit, which is uncapular, bicapular, but more commonly tricapular, like the seed-vessels of the ricinus, or palma Christi, composed of three round capsules, of the bigness of wild plums, grown together to one common foot-stalk, as to a center, but distinguished by three pretty deep partitions; each capsule contains a husk, nut, and seeds. The nut is almost round on one side only, where the three capsules grow together, somewhat compressed, covered with a thin, hardish, shining, chestnut-coloured shell, which, being cracked, discovers a reddish kernel, of a firm substance like filberds, at first of a sweetish, but not very agreeable taste, which soon grows rougher and bitter, like that of the cherry-kernels, making people spit plentifully, and very nauseous, when they fall down into the throat; but this ill taste quickly goes off. These kernels contain a great quantity of oil, and often turn

rancid, which is the reason why scarce two of a dozen will germinate when sown; this probably may have frustrated our attempts in Europe to raise this shrub.

Of the culture, growth, gathering, and sorting of TEA.

The natives of Japan do not allow the tea-shrub any particular gardens, but plant it round the hedges of their fields, with regard to the soil; nor do they lay the seeds into rows, which would make it grow into hedges, but at some distance from each other, that, when the shrub comes to spread, the growing too close might not hinder the plucking off the leaves. They put at least six, but mostly 12 seeds, as they are contained in their seed-vessels, into one hole, made five inches deep, because few are found to germinate out of that number; sometimes two or three shrubs come up together so closely joined, that the ignorant would readily take them for one stem.

As the tea-bushes rise, the more industrious people fatten the soil where they grow, once a year, with proper manure, mixed with earth. The shrub must be at least three years old before the leaves are plucked, and then it bears plenty of very good ones; in about seven years, the shrub rises to a man's height; but then it grows but slowly, and bears few leaves; but, if cut down to the stem, new sets of branches and twigs shoot out thicker, and much more numerous than before, and all nourished by the same root. The young shoots, as they come up the first year from the stem, are always fewer in number, but fatter and larger than those which succeed them; in process of time they become branched.

The leaves are gathered at three different times; the first is gathered at the middle of the first moon preceding the vernal equinox, which is the first month of the Japanese year. The leaves then are few, but very young and tender, being only of two or three days growth, and scarce fully opened.

These are accounted best, and sold dearest of all, viz. from 56 to 240 crowns per pound. This grows chiefly about Udû, a small town situated between the sea and Miaco, the capital city, and imperial seat of the ecclesiastical hereditary emperor of Japan, where they are sent to court under a good guard of 100 or 200 men, prepared and put up in paper bags, and these into large porcelane pots, called matubos. These leaves are not gathered by handfals, but one by one, that they be not torn, being tender, and not above two or three days old. Yet one person, that is accustomed to it, will gather 10 or 12 pounds a day; but others not above two or three pounds. This is called *fieki tsjaá*, or ground tea, because it is ground to powder, and sipped in hot water; a dish of it is sometimes valued at 12 shillings.

This sort is also called *Udû tsjaá*, and *tacke sacki tsjaá*, from *Udû*, the place where it grows, whose soil is very good, and because it is gathered off shrubs of three years old, which are then at their greatest perfection. This is drank by the imperial family. It's shrubs are planted on pleasant walks on a mountain, inclosed with hedges for their security, and frequently cleaned, that no dirt may be found on their leaves. Two or three weeks before the labourers begin to gather them, they must abstain from eating flesh, or any unclean food, lest the impurity of their breath stain the leaves, or injure their goodness; and, when they are gathering, they must bathe themselves twice or thrice a day, either in a hot bath or river. They must not touch the leaves with their naked hands, but gather them with gloves. This is also called *voni bui*, or bohea tea of the Chinese.

The second gathering is called *tootsjaá*, or Chinese tea, being prepared after the Chinese manner. This is often sold for the first; therefore the smaller are carefully picked and separated from the larger or coarser sort of leaves. The tea-merchants, and shop-keepers of Japan, divide this into four others, which differ in goodness and price. The first sort of it is gathered, when the leaves just appear, and are unopened; then every young branch bears not above two or three. This is sold from 30 Dutch stivers per Dutch pound and quarter.

The leaves of the second sort of this are older and more grown, and, though gathered but a little after the first, the same quantity of this is sold at 40 or 45 stivers. The leaves of the third sort are still older and larger, and worth about from 23 to 35 stivers. The greatest quantity of the tea imported into Europe is of this sort, and sold by the Dutch at six or seven guilders per pound. Those who cry it about the streets in Japan sell it for about 24 stivers per pound and quarter. The vulgar there drink this.

The third and last is gathered in our June; this is most plentiful, the leaves being come to their full growth, both as to their number and largeness. Many omit the two former, and depend wholly on this gathering; the leaves whereof are all sorted into their different classes of size and goodness, called the first, second, and third sort; the last whereof is coarsest of all, being between two and three months grown, and falls to the share of the lowest rank. It is of this sort the labourers gather 10 or 12 pounds a day. This gathering is called *ban tsjaá*, and is often too coarse to be dried in pans over the fire, after the Chinese manner; but, being for the vulgar, they prepare it any how. The longer this is kept, the

the better it is; its virtues, being fixed in the gross leaves, are not so easily lost, infused, or boiled; but the other sorts suffer greatly by any of the three.

Of the preparation of the gathered TEA-LEAF.

When the leaves are gathered, they are brought to the workhouse to be roasted, the same day, over a fire in an iron pan; for, if they lie long, or be laid on large heaps, or be kept overnight, they would heat, turn black, and lose much of their virtue; and, if they do heat at any time, they presently fan them, and spread them thin on the ground to cool them. The roasters put several pounds of the leaves into the pan at once, which is heated, that the leaves, though turgid and juicy, when put in, yet soon crack at the edges of the pan; and, that they may be thoroughly and equally dried, the roaster constantly stirs them with his hands; 'till they are as hot as he can possibly bear them; then he takes them out with a shovel, like a fan, and pours them on a mat; then the rollers roll them with the palms of their hands, in small parcels, 'till they are equally curled; and such a sharp, yellow, and greenish juice sweats out of the leaves upon this rolling, as burns their hands almost to an intolerable degree: but still they must continue their work; for, if the leaves are quite cold before they are rolled, the sooner they cool the better, for they keep their curl the longer; therefore they have one to fan, while another is rolling them. When they are cold, the roaster (who is the chief master of the workhouse) puts them a second time into the pan, and roasts them again, 'till they have lost all their juice. He stirs them more slowly now than before, lest he put them out of their curls; though some leaves will spread, in spite of all his care. After this roasting, they are carefully rolled again the same way. If they are fully dry after this, they have done; if not, they are delivered a third time to the roaster. And,

Now the utmost care and skill is necessary, lest he burn or blacken them. Some curious persons roast and roll them six or seven times; but use a slower fire, that the leaves may preserve their greenness; because of that sharp juice which sweats out of them, the pan is clean washed after every roasting. The Chinese, before they roast their leaves of the first gathering, put them into hot water about half a minute, that they may sooner, and more fully, sweat out that noxious juice.

When they have done roasting and rolling them, they pour them out on a mat, and sort them a second time into different sorts, according to their goodness, and separate those which are less curled, or too much burnt, from the rest. Country people roast their leaves in earthen vessels; and, as they are at less expence this way, so they can afford them cheaper, though very little, if any, the worse.

The tea must be all roasted in the night, being gathered in the day; which makes the preparers of it complain heartily of their bad fate. When the leaves have been kept some months after these roastings, they turn them all out, and roast them again, to take out any remaining moisture, or what they may since have imbibed.

As soon as the tea is cooled, after this last roasting and curling, the Chinese put it up in boxes of coarse tin, which are inclosed in wooden chests, or cases, of fir, all the chinks whereof are carefully stopped with paper, that the air of those climates may not dissipate its extreme subtle and volatile parts: and in this manner it is imported to us. These tubs, or chests, one with another, contain about 112 pounds of tea each. The common people of Japan keep their own tea in large earthen pots, with narrow mouths: but the emperor has his kept in matubos, which is a fine kind of porcelain pots, or vessels, wrecked up from the sea-rocks, near the island Formosa, where once the rich and flourishing island Mauri stood, which was long ago swallowed up by an earthquake; here were the best earth, and the most ingenious people in the world, for making the finest and richest porcelain. These vessels, thus fished up, are the emperor's property, and sold at most extravagant rates, viz. three, four, or five thousand thails, each thail being near equal to five shillings and ten-pence.

The dry leaf, as imported here, contains, 1. Phlegm; for, by drying a dram of green, and a dram of bohea tea, on different saucers, before a clear fire, the first lost $\frac{1}{3}$ part, the last $\frac{1}{10}$ part, in a quarter of an hour, or twenty minutes; so that all kinds of bohea have naturally more of this than the green, because it is gathered while this principle exceeds its due proportion, viz. before the salt, oil, and earth have been sufficiently dissolved and rarified by the subterranean and aerial heat, and fitted to raise up into a plant, in due quantity with the phlegm.

As the leaf grows, this watery principle lessens, and the others increase. 2. An oil, which has sundry attachments to the leaf, which loses one part by being exposed to the open air, or put up in paper, or any spongy body; therefore it is sent to us in tin canisters.

Another part is drawn off by infusion in cold water; for two drams of green tea, as much imperial, and the like quantity of bohea, each infused in a pint of cold water slowly before a small fire, the first and last had lost above $\frac{1}{4}$ part, and the middlemost an exact fourth.

Another part of this oil is extracted by boiling water; for the

two drams of imperial tea that had been infused in cold water, and dried, infused again in three sundry boiling waters, and then dried, it had lost three grains more, i. e. 34 in all, out of 120 grains. The green tea, that had been infused in boiling water, and dried, being now infused in boiling water an hour, and dried again, had lost 16 grains more, i. e. 48 grains in all, out of 120 grains. But fresh green tea, that had not been used before, infused in several boiling waters, lost 46 grains; two drams of bohea tea, treated in the same manner, and dried again, had lost 46 grains; 112 grains of hyson tea, thus infused and dried, lost 42 grains; 112 grains of all those teas that had been thus infused and dried had a pint of boiling water poured on them, and let stand 24 hours; then poured off, and fresh put on, and shifted again, 'till green copperas would no longer change the colour of the waters; then the leaves taken out, and dried slowly, had lost only 9 grains, i. e. near $\frac{1}{12}$ part, and 103 grains were left.

Another part is drawn out by boiling in water over an open fire. Thus the last 103 grains boiled in a pint and a half of water to half a pint, and the operation was repeated six or seven times; then the leaf was taken out and dried, and it had lost some grains.

There is still another sort that cannot be extracted by watery vehicles, but must have rectified spirits. Thus 22 grains of dried Pekoa tea, that had been infused and boiled in sundry waters, infused in rectified spirits, and then dried, had lost two grains; 112 grains of bohea tea, that had been used before, lost seven grains in spirits.

There is another part, also, which is separable only by an open fire; for two drams of the above teas (that had been infused in cold water, boiling water, boiled and infused in spirits) being put in a crucible, set in a clear fire, and slightly covered with an iron plate; the tea first sent out a very thick blue smoke, and then a clear flame; a deal of black rough oil hung on the underside of the plate; it tasted exceeding rough and bitter; so that the oil of tea consists of light separable earth and oil, which constitute a gum.

Eighty grains of hyson tea, as much green, and as much Pekoe, put into different phial-glasses, and two ounces of spirit of wine poured on each, and all set some hours before the fire, then removed into a cold place, and let stand seven days more. The like weight of these teas, put into three phials, and the same quantity of spirits poured on each of them; then removed quickly into a cold place, and let stand as many days as the first had done, both in the heat and cold; then the spirits poured out of all the six glasses, and the leaves taken out and dried. The hyson, in the first, had lost 26 grains, the Pekoe 24 grains, the green tea 27 grains. The spirits, left to exhale slowly in a small heat, lost very near the same weight. Of these, in the cold infusion, the green left 14 grains, the hyson 14 grains, of a very bitter, astringent, delicate tasted green gum; the Pekoe 12 grains. The spirits exhaled lost the same weight again: so that warm infusion draws out near double of the cold; but both tincture and gum of the last are infinitely pleasanter and beautifuller than the first; and the dried leaves were clear, and sparkled, as though covered with some vernice.

These infused in several boiling waters, 'till copperas would tincture the liquor no longer, then dried and weighed, hyson weighed 38 grains, the Pekoe 37 grains, the green 38. This gum is partly dissolvable in water, and partly inflammable by the fire; for a little of that extracted by spirits, put into cold water, and set before the fire, a great part of it dissolved quickly, and tintured the water green, turning it exceeding bitter and astringent. Six grains of it, laid on a hot fire-shovel, it quickly flowed, burnt in a flame, and left a little white ash.

Tea contains a salt, but it is chiefly fixed, when it comes to us; for two drams of tea, that had been fully infused and boiled, was burnt, and the white ashes put into its infusions and decoctions, and all evaporated slowly to dryness. Water poured on the residuum, and filtered twice, then the earth well dried weighed 36 grains. The filtered liquor, being slowly exhaled, left 8 grains of an exceeding brackish salt, which would not ferment with acids.

So that we see the parts of tea are separable into, 1. A peculiar yellow noxious juice, which evaporates in roasting. 2. A thin oil, which is dissipated, either by lying long in the open air, or by infusion in cold water. 3. A semibalsamic liquor, somewhat grosser than the last. 4. A thick and black resinous oil. 5. A little resin, friable in the cold, and inflammable by fire, but not dissolvable in water. 6. A gum, consisting of more mucus than oil, therefore dissolvable in water, or combustible in the fire. These are the different sortments of the oil of the leaf; for the flowers and seeds, we have had no opportunity to examine them, nor are they in use. 7. A fixed salt. 8. Earth.—The different proportions of these parts, as near as they could be well computed, are, bohea tea contains $\frac{1}{3}$ phlegm, or other volatile parts; green tea $\frac{1}{10}$ part. Fixed earth is about $\frac{1}{2}$ of both, only green tea has a little more than bohea. Green tea has $\frac{1}{12}$ part salt, bohea tea $\frac{1}{12}$ part. The oil and lighter earth, lost by decoction and evaporation of the filtered liquor, are $\frac{1}{12}$ of the

whole. But, in making of tea, the parts obtained from the leaf are different in different waters; for two drams of green tea, infused two hours in boiling river water, then the water poured off, and more put on, and repeated a third time; then the leaves, carefully and slowly dried, had lost $\frac{2}{3}$. Rain water left it lighter, &c.

BOHEMIA. Under the name of Bohemia in general are included the kingdom of Bohemia proper, the duchy of Silesia, and the marquisate of Moravia; which lie altogether in the form of a lozenge, between Austria on the south; Brandenburg and Lusatia on the north; the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony, on the west; and Poland on the east. The revenues of this country are computed at 12 or 1400,000 l. one year with another; a sum which might be greatly augmented, were the mines, especially those in Bohemia proper, better looked to; they being esteemed the richest in Europe, both for gold and precious stones. As to the proportion the three grand divisions bear to one another, it will be best known by the extraordinary subsidies the emperor demanded of them for 1733, when Bohemia proper paid 260,000, Silesia 190,000, Moravia 140,000.

The kingdom of Bohemia, properly so called, is bounded on the east by Moravia and Silesia; on the west by Misnia and Bavaria; on the north by Lusatia; and, on the south, by Austria. It is almost intirely encompassed with mountains, in which there are mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, and nitre. Carbuncles, emeralds, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, and other precious stones, abound more here than in any other part of the empire. These the Jews send into foreign parts. Gold-sand is likewise discovered in some of it's rivers. There are salt-pits, but, the product not answering the expence, they are supplied with it from Misnia, and other places. They make great quantities of salt and alum. The soil produces store of saffron. The gardens and orchards yield fruit enough sufficient for consumption and export. They don't much cultivate vineyards, because their wine does not keep long: They have beer both brown and white, which is much valued and exported; and their hops are better, and more plentiful, than those of their neighbours. They have meadows and pastures in abundance, with large cattle, and horses fit for war, beside sheep, and geese, whose feathers are carried abroad, there being no beds scarce at any of the inns but at Prague. The inhabitants of the towns here are not fond of either arms, arts, or trade, but prefer a supine indolent life. The revenue of Bohemia to the house of Austria is near a million a year sterling.

The whole trade of the city of Prague is in the hands of the Jews, who deal in all sorts of commodities, especially in the precious stones found in the Bohemian mines, and, by receiving all old-fashioned things in payment, quite ruin the Christian handicraftsmen. There are crystals here called Bohemian crystals, which have a very good lustre, when polished by the Jews, and are set in ear-pendants, rings, and shirt-buttons; but are chiefly for lustres and drinking-glasses, that are vended all over Europe.

KUTTENBURG, has no less than thirty mines in its neighbourhood, the chief of which, of the same name, is the richest in the kingdom, being nineteen fathom deep, containing silver and copper. An hundred weight of some of it's ore yields an ounce of silver, and from eight to ten of copper; and the like weight of the other ore yields eight or nine ounces of silver. When they meet with a vein of blue earth, they think it a sign of good ore.

KADAN is a town noted for excellent beer.

CARELSBADT is noted for it's baths and medicinal waters, and is frequented by abundance of foreigners, particularly the nobility and gentry of Austria, as well as those of Bohemia, and merchants from all parts. The town is inhabited chiefly by armourers, and other artificers in iron, who work very neat, and vastly cheap.

Near **EGRA** are mines of silver and copper. The river Eger here is broad and deep, and bears large vessels. It was formerly noted for making the best mead in Germany. Without the city are large suburbs, with handsome houses, and a great number of tanners, who send their skins all over Hungary and Austria.

The town of **GLATZ** has the privilege of coining money in the name of the magistrates, but they seldom coin any above the value of a farthing or a halfpenny. The trade of it is in silver ore, iron, timber, coals, venison, cattle, butter, and cheese.

BOLE, is said in general of several kinds of earths, which enter into Galenical preparations, or which are used by painters, and some other artists.

Boles are native fossil earths, usually somewhat unctuous, so that, when mixed up with water, they may be wrought into a paste, but not soluble either by water or fire. Such are Argill, or white clay; Axungia terræ, or Axungia lunæ; Cimolia, fuller's earth, boles white and Armenian; the Chian, Eretrian, Lemnian, and Maltese earths; ruddle; Samian, Selinusian, Tocavian, and all the sealed earths. But there are others of a drier and leaner kind, as chalk, ochre, and marle.

Earth is an insipid, opaque, fossil body, indissoluble by fire; water, or air, more fusible than stone, still friable, and usually somewhat unctuous.

Earths are divided into simple, or immutable, and compound; though, perhaps, there is no such thing as a strictly simple earth; Mr Boyle having observed, that neither nature nor art appears to afford any elementary earth; at least some which seem of the simplest sorts, are found upon examination to have qualities not ascribed to pure earth*.

* See Phil. Transact. No. 164.

To the first kind are reducible chalk, which is the simplest and driest of all earths, as having no discernible fatness at all, and appears to be dense and brittle, readily stains the fingers, and sticks to the tongue without any astringency. Different kinds of earth come under the denomination of chalk; among which, those used in physick are the white chalk and red ochre. The best white chalk, called terra Cretica, was formerly brought from the island of Crete, but is now found in several other countries. It drinks up and ferments with acids, and is therefore successfully used in acidities of the first passages, and particularly in the heart-burn; it softens the acrimony of the fluids, and checks the violent motion of the bile, and consequently proves of service in some kinds of fluxes.—Under this species of earth, pumice, rotten-stone, &c. may be comprehended.

The second, or the compound kind of earths, take in the different boles, as the red, white, and brown; most clays, especially all the fat ones, which are wrought up and dried into potter's ware; fuller's earth; the several kind of medicinal earths, and some marle.

Bole is defined by some, to be a ponderous different-coloured earth and some marle, but less fat than clay, somewhat soluble in the mouth, of a rough taste, and stains the finger. Only the Armenian and common boles are chiefly employed for medicinal purposes; being accounted astringents and softeners of acrimony, when internally given; and drying and astrigent, in outward application.

Clay is a ponderous, dense, fat, viscid, and slippery earth; and, being held for some time in the mouth, leaves an impression on the tongue, something between that of soap and fat. When fresh dug, it may be moulded into any figure, like soft wax, and by fire be changed into a stony hardness. The species of clay are almost numberless, several of which should seem to deserve the title of simple earths, though on a strict examen they appear very compound. Thus Mr Boyle thinks tobacco-pipe clay, by reason of it's fixity, whiteness, and insipidity, may, with almost as much probability, be accounted elementary, as any other native earth; and yet tobacco-pipes, well-baked, may sometimes be made to strike fire; and it has been frequently found, that two pieces of new tobacco-pipe, being briskly rubbed together, would in a minute or two grow warm, and being immediately smelt to, manifestly afford a rank scent, between sulphureous and bituminous; almost like that which proceeds from pebbles and flints, rubbed hard against each other; as if tobacco-pipe clay were not a true earth, but a fine white sand, consisting of grain too small to be distinctly seen.

The same author observes, that porcelain, or the matter whereof China-ware is made, is a pure sort of clay, which yet is sometimes somewhat fusible in a violent fire; and will strike fire with steel, almost like a flint, to which it approaches in specific gravity. And the like has been found to obtain, in an imitation of porcelain with a sort of English clay*.

* See Boyle's Abr. Vol. III. p. 422, 423.

Dr. Lister makes clay a genus almost as extensive as earth itself; dividing clays into two grand classes, under the title of pure and mixed. The former are soft and soluble in the mouth, and have little or no grittiness; and these are subdivided into greasy, which include the medicinal earths, or terræ figillatæ, and fuller's earth, yellow, brown, and white; boles, cow-shot clay, and a dark blue clay: harsh and dusty, when dry, as Cretes, properly so called, or the milk-white clay of the isle of Wight; potter's clay, yellow, blue, and red: and stony, when dry, as the several sorts of stone, clays, and clunch.

Mixed clays he subdivides into those with round sand and pebble; as the yellow loam of Kipworth-moor; the red sandy clay near Rippon, &c. and those with flat or thin sand, glittering with mica; as crouch-white clay, grey or bluish tobacco-pipe clay, and a red clay in the red sand rock at Rotheram*.

* See Phil. Transact. No. 164.

The medicinal earths are very numerous, and by some comprehended under the species of clays, their virtues being nearly the same: a history of them has been long expected with impatience.

Marles, likewise, are of different kinds and various colours : the earth, generally known by the name of marle, is a light friable substance, of a middle nature between clay and chalk, but neither so fat as clay, nor so dense as chalk, and sticks to the tongue.

There are many other species of compound earths. For Vannochio, an eminent Italian mineralist, informs us, that a sort of reddish earth often contains the richest metals; Mr Boyle has found finely figured crystals to grow in a red earth; and he had a whitish earth sent him from the north of England, which contained a large quantity of lead. An experienced writer on the gold and silver mines of America observes, that gold itself is frequently disguised under the appearance of a reddish earth. And our English ochres are richer, in iron, even than some ores of that metal.

Bole earths seem divisible into two species, according as they are more or less tenacious; in which view loam and clay may represent them all. And even these two seem only to differ in respect of the fineness or coarseness of their component parts; which renders them more or less tenacious, clinging, or adhesive. To make a true judgment of the quality of this kind of earth, the following experiment may give an insight.

(1.) Common loam was mixed into a mass with water, then dried, to shew that, compared with clay, it would easily break, crumble, and fall to powder. But (2.) Beating some loam fine in a mortar, and mixing it well with water, it clung like clay; and, when dried, adhered much more tenaciously than before.

This shews, that not only loam and clay, or all the bolar earths, are nearly the same thing, when their component parts, or gravelly and sandy matters, are reduced to the same degree of fineness; but also supplies us with a plain and simple rule for the improvement of the art of pottery, and the imitation of China-ware.

And, perhaps, certain curious boles may afford very delicate matters for pottery wares, and that of variety of colours not less curious than the white; nor do I see why that colour, alone, should be made the chief basis of this art. The rule is to grind, or beat, the earths employed, to an extreme degree of fineness; and, accordingly, porcelain has been imitated in Europe by tobacco-pipe clay, and other earths exceedingly fine ground, mixed into a past with water, and properly baked and burnt.

Marles, or boles, also afford a fit matter for the making of crucibles, retorts, &c. They likewise serve to procure the discontinuation and division of certain salts and other materials, that would otherwise rise and boil over in the operation.

They contribute too more materially, more intimately, and essentially, as to quantity, in the fixation of certain bodies in the art of chemistry; as of oils, for example, of common sulphur, and even of mercury. For which, see Becher's first supplement to his *Physica Subterranea*.

There are chiefly two sorts of bole used in the medical way, the Armenian and common. The first, called

BOLE ARMONIAC, OR ARMENIAC, OR BOLUS ARMENIA VERA OFFICINARUM, which is a ponderous, fat, brittle earth, of an astringent taste, of a colour between red and yellow. It is found in Armenia. It is not certain, whether that, mentioned by Galen, be the same with that of the Arabian, and later Greek writers; for the first was pale, and the other is of a saffron colour. It is possible, however, that the same vein may afford boles of different colours, as we see in the common sort, which is found in the same spot of earth, sometimes white, sometimes yellow, and sometimes red. The best Armenian bole is that which is most easily reduced to a fine powder in a mortar, or dissolved in any liquor; which is without grit; and, when held in the mouth, seems to melt like butter, leaving an astringent taste on the tongue. It is commended by Galen in dysenteries, and other fluxes; in spitting of blood and catarrhs, especially those in which a thin matter falls into the thorax; and in ulcers of the lungs. The same author affirms, that, in a great plague, all who used this medicine were cured. Outwardly applied, it is drying and astringent, and is therefore proper to stop a flux of blood from fresh wounds.

The common bole is a ponderous brittle earth, of a colour between yellow and red, of an astringent taste, and is found in many parts of France. It has the same virtues with the former, and is to be met with in the shops. As both these boles are frequently mixed with sand and grit, the apothecaries prepare them in the following manner:

They dissolve them in water, and, after the sand has subsided, they pour the turbid solution into another vessel, where it remains till the water is clear; being poured off, the sediment is dried in little cakes, and kept for use.

They may be prescribed to be taken inwardly, either alone, or mixed with sealed earth, in this manner:

Take prepared or washed Armenian bole, sealed earth, and Venice treacle, of each half a drachm; of syrup of dried roses, an ounce; of plantane water, six ounces; mix and make them into a julep: to be taken by spoonfuls, in loosensses, &c.

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Take prepared Armenian bole, dragon's blood and mastic, of each a scruple; of roch allum, fifteen grains; of syrup of comfrey, a sufficient quantity to make them into a bolus. This bolus is to be repeated every four hours, till the flux is stopped, together with a draught of the decoction of the greater comfrey roots.

In wounds and contusions, these boles and the sealed earth may be used thus:

Take, of washed Armenian bole, a sufficient quantity; beat it up with the white of an egg and rose-water, into the consistence of a cataplasm, to be spread upon linnen cloth, and applied to the part affected, and keep it on by bandage dipped in oxycrate.

Take of Armenian bole, sealed earth, and dragon's blood, of each two drachms; aloes, myrrh, and colcother, of each one drachm: mix them into a powder, to be applied to the part from which the blood flows.

These boles are used in several officinal compositions, in the confection of hyacinth, Fracastorius's confection, Gordonius's troches, the bezoardic powder of Renodæus, the seratum santalinum, and plaister of fractures, in the *Pharmacopœia Regia* of Charas. See Geoffroy.

BOLE, or BOLUS, in physic, is a remedy prepared of such a thickness or consistency, that it may be swallowed in one or two bits, or from the point of a knife; it is contrived for the conveniency of persons, who have an aversion for potable medicines.

BOLOGNESE, or the duchy of Bologna in Italy, is bounded on the north by the Ferrarese, on the east by Romagna, on the south by Tuscany, and on the west by the duchy of Modena.

BOLONGNA, the capital city, is situate at the foot of the Appennine mountains, on the little Rhine, or river Reno, and hath a noble plain on the other three sides, which furnish it with all the necessaries of corn, wine, oil, fruits, &c. Here is a large channel cut between the Reno and the Po, which wonderfully facilitates the transportation of all commodities to and from the city: those which are transported are commonly wax, silk, hemp, flax, hams, tobacco, wash-balls, perfumes, sweet-meats, and a curious small breed of lap-dogs, so little, that the ladies carry them about in their muffs and apron-pockets. Besides these, they export great quantities of wrought silk of all sorts, rich velvets, leather-bottles, and other manufactures of this city, besides olives and other fruits, which are produced in great plenty in the neighbourhood of it. It is well peopled; the citizens are wealthy and industrious, and the noblemen are here in great numbers, who spend their money, and are above concerning themselves with any kind of commerce. It is reckoned to contain about 80,000 inhabitants. The greatest manufacture carried on here is that of silk, of which there are several wheels for winding.

BOMB, is a large shell of cast iron, having a great vent to receive the fusee, which is made of wood. The shell being filled with gunpowder, the fusee is driven into the vent or aperture, and fastened with a cement made of quick lime, ashes, brick-dust, and steel-filings, worked together in a glutinous water; or of four parts of pitch, two of colophony, one of turpentine, and one of wax. This tube is filled with a combustible matter, made of two ounces of nitre, one of sulphur, and three of gunpowder-dust, well rammed. To preserve the fusee they pitch it over, but uncase it, when they put the bomb into the mortar, and cover it with gunpowder-dust, which, having taken fire by the flash of the powder in the chamber of the mortar, burns all the time the bomb is in the air, and, the composition in the fusee being spent, it fires the powder in the bomb, which bursts with great force, blowing up whatever is about it: the great height the bomb goes in the air, and the force with which it falls, makes it go deep into the earth.

BOND, a deed, by which a person obliges himself to perform certain acts; such as to pay a certain sum, or to answer for another, or to serve an apprenticeship with a master. The latter is with us called an indenture. See *APPRENTICE*. In England, bond is a deed or obligatory instrument in writing, whereby a person binds himself to another, to pay a sum of money, or do some other act, as to make a release, surrender an estate, for quiet enjoyment; to stand to an award, save harmless, perform a will, &c. It contains an obligation with a penalty annexed, and a condition which expressly mentions what money is to be paid, or what other things are to be performed, and the limited time for the performance thereof, for which the obligation is peremptorily binding.

It may be made upon parchment or paper, though it is usually on paper, and be either in the first or third person: and the condition may be either in the same deed, or in another; and sometimes it is included within, and sometimes indorsed upon, the obligation; but it is commonly at the foot of the obligation.

A memorandum on the back of a bond may restrain the same, by way of exception.

The condition of a bond must be to do a thing lawful; and

bonds not to use trades, till or sow the ground, &c. are unlawful, they being against the good of the public, and therefore void: and a condition of a bond to do a thing wicked in itself, as to kill a person, &c. is void; so are likewise bonds made by distress, by infants, by feme covert, &c. And, if a woman, through threats or flattery, be prevailed upon to enter into a bond, she may be relieved in chancery. If an infant seal a bond, and be sued thereon, he is not to plead non est factum (it is not done) but must avoid the bond by special pleading; for this bond is only voidable, and not in itself void. 5 Rep. 119. But, if a bond be made by a feme covert, she may plead her coverture, and plead non est factum, her bond being void. 10 Rep. 119.

If a bond depends upon some other deed, and the deed becomes void, the bond is also void.

A bond, made with condition not to give evidence against a felon, &c. is void; but the defendant must plead the special matter. 1 Leon. The condition of a bond to indemnify a person from any legal prosecution, is also void. 1 Lutw. 667. And, if a sheriff takes a bond as a reward for doing of a thing, it is void. 3 Salk. 75.

Conditions of bonds are to be not only lawful, but possible; and when the matter or thing to be done, or not to be done, by a condition, is unlawful or impossible, or the condition itself repugnant, insensible, or uncertain, the condition is void, and in some cases the obligation also. 10 Rep. 120. But sometimes an obligation may be single to pay the money, where the condition is impossible, repugnant, &c. 2 Mod. 285.

If a thing be possible at the time of entering into the bond, and afterwards becomes impossible by the act of God, the act of the law, or of the obligee, it becomes void; and if a man be bound to appear next term, and dies before, the obligation is saved. A condition of a bond was, that J. S. should pay such a sum upon the 25th of December, or appear in Hilary term after in the King's-Bench; he dies after the 25th of December, and before Hilary term, and had paid nothing: in this case, the condition was not broken for non-payment, and the other part is become impossible by the act of God. 1 Mod. Rep. 265. And, when a condition is doubtful, it is always taken most favourably for the obligor, and against the obligee; but so that a reasonable construction be made as near as can be, according to the intention of the parties. Dyer, 51.

If no time be limited in a bond for payment of the money, it is payable on demand. 1 Brown, 53. But the judges have sometimes appointed a convenient time for payment, having regard to the distance of place, and the time wherein the thing may be performed. And, if a condition be made impossible in respect to time, as to make payment of money on the 30th of February, &c. it shall be paid presently, and here the obligation stands single. Jones, 140. Though if the act be to be done at a certain place, where the obligor is to go to Rome, &c. and he is to perform the sole act without limitation of time, he hath time during life to perform the same: if the concurrence of the obligor and obligee is requisite, it may be hastened by the request of the obligee. 6 Rep. 30. 1 Roll. Abr. 437.

When no place is mentioned for performance of a condition, the obligor is obliged to find out the person of the obligee, if he be in England, and tender the money, otherwise the bond will be forfeited: but, when the place is appointed, he need seek no further. And, if where no place is limited for payment of money due on a bond, the obligor at, or after the day of payment, meets with the obligee and tenders him the money, but he goes away to prevent it, the obligor shall be excused. 8 Ed. IV. The obligor, or his servant, &c. may tender the money to save the forfeiture of the bond, and it shall be a good performance of the condition, if made to the obligee, though refused by him; yet, if the obligor be afterwards sued, he must plead that he is still ready to pay it, and tender the money in court. Co. Litt. 208.

The condition of a bond being for paying of money, it may be performed, by giving any other thing in satisfaction; because the value of money is certain, and therefore may be satisfied by a collateral thing, if the obligee accept it: but, if the condition be to do a collateral thing, there it is otherwise, and paying money is no good satisfaction. 3 Bullst. 148.

The acceptance of a new bond will not discharge the old one as a judgment may. One bond cannot be given in satisfaction of another; but this is where given by the obligor himself, for it may by others. 1 Mod. 221.

If a bond be to pay money on such a time, &c. it is no plea for the obligor to say that he did pay it; he must shew at what time, or else it may be taken, that the performance was after the time limited. Noy's Max. 15.

If a bond be of twenty years standing, and no demand be proved thereon, nor good cause of so long forbearance shewn to the court, upon pleading solvit ad diem (he paid it on the day) it shall be intended paid. Mod. Ca. 22.

Payment of money, without acquittance, is an ill plea to action of debt upon a single bill; but it is otherwise upon a bond with condition. Dyer, 25.

If several days are mentioned for payment of money on a bond, the obligation is not forfeited, nor can be sued until all the days are past: but, in some cases, the obligee may prosecute for the money due by the bond presently, though it be not forfeited; and, by special wording the condition, the obligee may be able to sue the penalty on the first default. 1 Inst. 292.

In a bond, where divers persons are bound severally, the obligee is at his election to sue all the obligors together, or all of them apart, and have several judgments and executions; but he shall have satisfaction but once, for, if it be of one only, that shall discharge the rest. If an obligation is joint and not several, all the obligors must be sued that are bound; and, if one be prosecuted, he is not obliged to answer, unless the rest are sued likewise. Dyer, 19, 310.

Where two or more are bound in a joint bond, and only one is sued, he must plead in abatement, that two more sealed the bond, &c. and aver that they are living, and so pray judgment de billa, &c. and not demur to the declaration. Sid. 420. If a bond is made to three, to pay money to one of them, they must all join in the action, because they are but as one obligee. Yelv. 177.

An heir is not bound, unless he be named expressly in the bond, though the executors and administrators are. And, if an obligation be made to a man, his heirs or successors, the executors and administrators shall have the advantage of it, and not the heir or successor; because it is a chattel. Dyer, 14, 271.

A declaration need not be according to the letter of the bond, where there is any omission, &c. but according to the operation of law upon it. Mod. case 228.

In bonds to save harmless, the defendant being prosecuted, is to plead non damnificatus, &c. (no damage suffered, &c.) A bond may be from one to one, one to two, three or more persons; or from two or more persons, to one, two, three, &c. and the name of the obligor subscribed is said to be sufficient, though there is a blank for his Christian name; 2 Cro. 261. But, where another Christian name is in the bond, and the bond signed by the right name, though the jury find it to be his deed, the obligee cannot have judgment, for the name subscribed is no part of the obligation. 2 Cro. 558. 1 Mod. 107. In these cases, though there be a verdict, there shall not be judgment.

If a bond has no date, or a false date, if it be sealed and delivered, it is good. A plaintiff may suggest a date in a bond, where there is none, or it is impossible, &c. where the parties and sums are sufficiently expressed. 5 Mod. 282. A bond, dated the same day on which a release is made of all things, usque ad diem datus, &c. (to that day) is not thereby discharged. 2 Roll. Rep. 255.

A person shall not be charged by a bond without delivery, or words, or other things, amounting to a delivery. 1 Leon. 140.

A bond may be good, though it contains false Latin or false English, if the intent appears, for they do not make the bond void. 2 Roll. Abr. 146. The condition of a bond, the intent of what sum was in the obligation, may be more easily known and explained; and the condition of the bond may be recorded, and the plaintiff demur, &c.

Likewise the condition of bonds may expound to whom an obligor is obliged to pay money: as if A binds himself to B, in a sum to be paid to A, whereas it should be to B, the obligation is good, and the solvendum void. 1 Inst. 108, 209. Interlineation in a bond, in a place not material, will not make the bond void: but, if it be altered in a point material, it shall be void. 1 Nelf. Abr. 391. And a bond may be void by rasure, &c. as where the date, &c. is rased after delivery, which goes through the whole. 5 Rep. 23. Such words, whereby the intention of the parties may appear, are sufficient to make the condition of a bond good, though they are not proper, and shall not be construed against the express words. If the words in a bond at the end of the condition, 'then this obligation to be void,' are omitted, the condition will be void, but not the obligation: but if the words, 'or else stand in force,' be left out, it has no effect to hurt either the condition or the obligation.

The stealing of any bond, or bill for money, being the property of any one, is made felony, as if the offenders had taken other goods of like value. Stat. 2 Geo. II. c. 25.

FORM of a BOND for Payment of Money.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I A. B. of the parish, &c. in the county, &c. gentleman, am held and firmly bound to C. D. of, &c. in the county aforesaid, Esq; in one hundred pounds of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the said C. D. or his certain attorney, his executors, administrators, or assigns: to which payment, well and truly to be made, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents, sealed with my seal: Dated the sixth day of May, in the thirteenth year of the reign of our sovereign lord George the second, by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and forty.

The CONDITION of this obligation is such, that if the above-bound A. B. his heirs, executors, or administrators, do and shall well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the above-named C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, the full sum of fifty-two pounds and ten shillings of lawful money of Great Britain, on or before the sixth day of November next ensuing the date hereof, then this obligation to be void, or otherwise to be or remain in full force and virtue. (Or it may be thus.)

That if the said A. B. &c. do pay to the said C. D. &c. the full sum of fifty pounds, with interest for the same, after the rate of five pounds per cent. per ann. (or with lawful interest) on the day, &c. Then, &c.

BOND conditioned to pay an annuity for life, and to charge it upon lands in England within a year.

KNOW all men by these presents, that I Anthony Acton, of, &c. Esq; am bound and firmly obliged, unto Barnaby Burch, of, &c. in 800 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid unto him the said Barnaby Burch, or to his certain attorney, his executors, administrators, or assigns. To the well and true making of which payment, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents, sealed with my seal, this thirtieth day of September, in the sixth year of our sovereign lord George the second, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord 1733.

Whereas the above-named Barnaby Burch has contracted and agreed with the above-bounden Anthony Acton, for the purchase of one annuity, or clear yearly sum of 30 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, free from taxes and other deductions, during the life of him the said Barnaby Burch, for the sum or price of 360 l. of like lawful money; which said sum of 360 l. he, the said Barnaby Burch, hath paid unto the said Anthony Acton, at or before the sealing and delivery of the obligation above-written, the receipt and payment whereof, accordingly, the said Anthony Acton doth hereby acknowledge. Now, therefore, the condition of this obligation is such, That, if the said Anthony Acton, his heirs, executors, or administrators, shall and do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said Barnaby Burch, and his assigns, during the term of his natural life, one annuity, or clear yearly sum of 30 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, free from taxes, and all other deductions whatsoever, at the four most usual feasts, or days of payment, in every year, viz. &c. by even and equal portions; the first payment thereof to begin and to be made on the feast-day of the nativity of our Lord Christ, next ensuing the date of the obligation above-written; and also, if he the said Anthony Acton, his heirs, executors, or administrators, shall and do, within one year next ensuing the date of the obligation above-written, at the request of the said Barnaby Burch, legally and effectually secure the payment of the said annuity in manner aforesaid, by and out of freehold messuages, lands, and tenements, or hereditaments, of him the said Anthony Acton, in some convenient place, in that part of Great-Britain called England, of sufficient value for that purpose, with proper power of entry and distress, for recovering the same annuity, in case of non-payment as aforesaid, then this present obligation to be void and of none effect, or else to be and remain in full force and virtue. See *Horseman's Precedents in Conveyancing*, Vol. I. p. 263. wherein may be found a great variety of bonds, very accurately and legally drawn, for many other important occasions.

BONDING, or giving bond for duties to be paid at the custom-house. All obligations and specialties of this kind, made for any cause concerning the king's majesty, &c. must be made by these words, *domino regi*, and to be paid by these words, *solvend' eidem domino regi, hæredibus, vel executoribus suis*. 13 Hen. VIII. cap. 39. §. 2. 3.

Bonds taken otherwise, the offender to suffer such imprisonment, as shall be adjudged by the king or his council.—The debt of such obligations not satisfied in the king's life-time, to come to his heirs. 6 Ann. cap. 26. §. 7.

Bonds written, to be stamped with three fixpenny stamps. 5 and 6 W. and M. cap. 21. 8 and 9 W. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 25.

Bonds written on paper, &c. before duly stamped, void till stamped; and payment of the duties, and 15 l. besides, and the officer to forfeit his employment. 1 Ann. cap. 13. 5 Ann. cap. 8. and 5 ditto, cap. 19. and 12 and 13 Ann. cap. 9. §. 21 and 25.

Bonds to be given for duties on importation, see the several articles of merchandize; where an account of their respective duties is given.—See also CERTIFICATE of discharge.

R E M A R K S.

This giving bond for duties to the crown, arising from the great height of our custom-house imposts, is an evil which has been, and still continues to be, attended with consequences, not only greatly detrimental to traders and their sureties,

who have been jointly bound with them, but to the general traffic of the whole kingdom.

In regard to the former, that hath been too notorious to need animadversion. With respect to the latter, the height of the customs, that may deserve some notice in this place; it being a matter which has been greatly lamented by those who have understood the true interest of the trade of this kingdom.

All authors agree, that low customs are one of the causes of the great trade of Holland. And, if low customs advance trade, it follows, that high customs must prejudice it, which is comparatively our case at present.

If the lower the customs, the greater the trade, no customs, or FREE PORTS, must carry trade to it's utmost height, which case might be ours.

If low customs have had such good effects in Holland, which hath the most natural disadvantages of any country; a free port must have the greatest and best effect in Britain, whose natural advantages are beyond those of any country in Europe, as will be proved under the article BRITAIN.

That the above observations are founded in truth will appear, by shewing how customs, especially high ones, obstruct the trade of these nations.

First, They prevent our country's being an universal store-house. Because, our duties being so great an additional disbursement to the first cost of the goods, no merchant will let so much of his capital lie dead for duties here, when he can have it all circulating in commodities in other countries; nor can such goods be re-exported, because the officers fees in and out, which always remain, and the interest of the money lying dead for duties paid (though they be mostly drawn back) are so great a charge, the natural interest of money being higher with us than in Holland, that the goods cannot come near so cheap from us to any foreign market, as from a free port where nothing is paid in or out; therefore they prevent our country's having the best choice of merchandize at the cheapest prices, to tempt foreigners to become our customers: the great duties on India goods discourage foreigners from buying at our sales, who pay an extraordinary charge of commission on that advanced price, and are forced to lie some months out of the money for their drawback.

Besides, the strict rule of declaring goods, at the custom-house, makes public to every one each transaction of trade, and thereby prevents shipping, for foreign parts, such goods as are there prohibited; which deprives us of several beneficial branches of trade that are carried on from Holland, or free ports, to the great advantage of foreign nations.

Secondly, High customs prevent the increase of our navigation, by enhancing the expences of building and navigating our ships.

Boards, hemp, sail-cloth, and iron, paying duties, those materials must be dear, and several necessaries of life paying some customs, and some excise, the ship-builder's labour must be dear, also the provisions and stores put on board the ships.

The English sailor paying, on his own and family's necessaries, customs, and excises, must have, and hath, higher wages, than most other countries give.

So that a British vessel, built and rigged with dear materials, by dear labour, supplied with dear stores, and navigated by sailors at dear wages, must have dear freights, bring in all foreign necessaries and materials for manufactures dear, and carry out all our own products and manufactures dear to foreign markets, much to the disadvantage of their sale.

This shews the reason, why we have not yet been effectually enabled to rival the Dutch, Hamburgerers, &c. in the Greenland trade, the navigation of the Baltic, or the herring-fishery, which being trades carried on for small profits, the dearthness of our navigation has hitherto excluded us from making any advance in these branches: though it is to be hoped, from the encouragement given by parliament, and from the distinguished wisdom, skill and integrity, of those zealous friends to the trading interest of this kingdom, who have, at present, the conduct of our herring-fisheries, that we shall happily surmount every obstacle, and raise that nursery for seamen to that glorious pitch, to which it's warmest friends can desire: to which end, it merits every kind of public encouragement, to prevent a possibility of miscarriage.

By not having an universal store-house, our ships, like empty houses, lie by idle in our harbours, waiting months for freights, the interest of the money they cost eating out their profits; or else are obliged to lose their time; and be at great expences in going from one port to another to endeavour to obtain a cargo.

Thirdly, High duties prevent the increase of our sailors, the true strength of this nation.

This is a consequence of the two last remarks; for no trade breeds so many or so good sailors as a free port, and maritime carriage, the employment being the greatest, and the experience the largest as the voyages are the most various and extensive, it being no less than the trade of the whole world.

As high customs are inconsistent with such a trade, of course they debar us of that increase of sailors, which must be necessary to carry the same on, and who would protect us from,

and

and carry vengeance to, those enemies who shall dare to insult us.

All this is not only destructive to our riches, but also to our security, it being difficult in time of war to man our navy, not improperly called our floating castles; and occasions that hard and disagreeable custom of pressing, which puts a free-born British sailor on the footing of a Turkish slave: the Grand Signior cannot do a more absolute act, than to order a man to be dragged away from his family, and against his will run his head before the mouth of a cannon; and, if such acts should be frequent in Turkey, upon any one set of useful men, would it not drive them away to other countries, and thin their number yearly? and would not the remaining few double or treble their wages? Such is the case of our sailors in time of war, to the great detriment of our trade and manufactures.

Fourthly, High duties lessen the capitals of our merchants. By keeping a great part of their stocks by them idle, to pay duties of the goods they import, which is, in effect, making them not only advance their money, or strain their credit by bonding, or otherwise, for the service of the state, but likewise run the risk in the credit they give of ever being reimbursed, and is diverting a stream of riches that should water trade; for it often happens that when our merchants are short of cash, and they have both customs and manufacturers to pay, so much money goes for the first, that nothing is left for the latter, which causes a circulation of disappointments, seldom known in Holland on that account; and the Dutch merchants can carry on the same trade with much less stock than ours, sell cheaper, extend their commerce farther, and of course give better encouragement to their working people, whereby they cause them to be more industrious than ours.

The following case will shew the difficulties and discouragements our merchants labour under more than the Dutch, one of our great rivals in trade.

Suppose a merchant in Rotterdam to ship corn for Bourdeaux in France, and the neat produce to amount to the value of 2000 l. sterling; if he orders it to be invested in wines, and shipped for Holland, he will not pay for duties above 40 l.

Suppose a merchant in London to ship corn for Oporto, and the neat produce to amount to the value of 2000 l. sterling; if he orders it to be invested in wines, and shipped for England, he will pay for duties above 2000 l.

Therefore the dutch merchant's prime cost and duties of his cargo will be - - - - - l. 2040

The English ditto - - - - - 4000
1960 l. of the English merchant's disburse more than the Dutch merchant's in the amount of the duties, is imprisoned until the people he trusts pays him, which may be a year, or a year and a half; whereas, if the Dutch merchant's capital be equal, he has had 1960 l. to employ in buying up goods to freight another adventure, perhaps of woollens, giving quick employment to the navigation and manufactures of his country.

Suppose the retailers they trust break about the year's end, and make a composition, amounting to 25 per cent. on the prime cost and duties of the wines.

The Dutch merchant's loss will be - - - - - l. 1530

The English ditto - - - - - 3000

This also makes our merchants risque in trade greater, and their losses heavier, than in Holland.

Fifthly, High duties encourage and force the consumption of foreign superfluities.

The dearer outlandish luxuries are, the more are they esteemed by our people of taste; it is the expence that makes the elegance; therefore duties on them only further their sale, as Mr Locke clearly proves in his Considerations, &c. 'For, it being vanity, not use, that makes the expensive fashions of your people, the emulation is, who shall have the finest, that is, the dearest things, not the most convenient or useful. How many things do we value and buy, because they come at dear rates from Japan and China, which, if they were our own manufacture or product, to be had common, and for a little money, would be contemned and neglected? Have not several of our own commodities, offered to sale at reasonable rates, been despised, and the very same eagerly bought and bragged of, when sold for French, at a double price? You must not, therefore, think that the raising their price will lessen the vent of fashionable foreign commodities amongst you, so long as men have any way to purchase them, but increase it.' Page 93.

But, besides encouraging, our customs force the consumption of most foreign superfluities that are imported; for, though the duties be mostly drawn-back on some articles, yet the interest of the money, lying dead for duties and fees in and out, hinders, in some degree, their re-exportation, and, in many articles, the duties are only in part drawn-back; so that what remains is such an additional load as prevents such goods being saleable at any other market, and, consequently, forces us to consume all such superfluities.

This makes a people luxurious, who can do nothing with foreign superfluities but riot and indulge; whereas the Dutch, having the object of gain always before their eyes, by the ad-

vance of foreign markets for their superfluities they have in their storehouses, are checked from indulging in what appears to them common, and of no great value for the present, but may be attended with great profit hereafter; which accounts for the Dutch frugality, so justly celebrated by all authors.

It is the excessive consumption among us, not the trade in foreign superfluities, that should be discouraged; and which is certainly best done by taxing the consumers, letting the goods, as objects of traffic, go quite free; whereas our high duties on the goods do just the reverse, for they encourage the consumption, and destroy the trade, to the immense loss of the nation.

Sixthly, High duties encourage smuggling.

Where the avoiding high customs makes the profit great, no risk, no danger, can prevent men's attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fish, he will snap at it, though destruction ensues; this prejudices and discourages the fair trader, either tempts or forces him to turn smuggler, and associate himself with those many examples of depravity we have at this time among our people, living in a state of war with the government, in defiance of laws; whereby an universal corruption of manners, and contempt of authority, must ensue, if not more effectually prevented than seems in the power of hanging to do.

Besides, it being chiefly the articles of luxury that are smuggled, as brandy, tea, French wines, laces, silks, &c. it spreads their consumption among the lower class of people, who are tempted to imitate, at a less expence, the luxuries of their superiors; and the same smugglers that bring us these superfluities, carry off vast quantities of raw wool, to the great prejudice of our manufactures, and the kingdom in general.

Seventhly, High duties ruin manufactures, especially the woollen.

Customs prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own consumption, but also for exportation, which might enlarge the vent of our goods ten times more than at present: for if a merchant now exports woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to more than the cost of his woollen goods; so that he must have a double capital for such an adventure, or let it quite alone, whereby the sale of great quantities of woollen goods are lost to the nation.

As customs enhance the expence of our navigation, the freights must be raised accordingly, whereby the prices of soap, oil, and dyeing-stuffs, used in manufacturing our wool, are advanced to the maker, and the freights on the cloths or stuffs exported, being also raised, are additional clogs upon the sales of our woollen goods.

Customs prevent the carrying and fishing trades, the great nurseries of seamen, whereby our sailors being few, and their expences raised by taxes on the necessaries of life, they have the highest wages of most people in Europe; which, as it is an additional advance of our own freight, so it proves injurious to our woollen trade in proportion.

Customs taking away so great a part of our merchants stock, they are thereby deprived of driving that great trade of maritime carriage, and vending those quantities of woollen goods, they would otherwise do: besides, our merchants risque in trade being greater than in Holland, and their losses heavier, as we have shewn, their bankruptcies must be more frequent; this sensibly affects our manufacturers, who are generally considerable creditors: for broken merchants may be well compared to nine-pins, one of which seldom falls without beating down many others.

Customs recommend foreign manufactures of fine goods, by making them expensive, which vanity, on that account, soon renders fashionable; whilst our own are despised, though superior in goodness, and are a great discouragement to our manufactures.

Customs are the cause of the smuggling of wool, because the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the high duties, hath raised the contraband trade to a great height; and the smugglers cannot make their returns in any commodities of so quick and certain a vent, or that gives so good a profit, as our wool; for the French, being less taxed in proportion to their number of people than we, can work cheaper, and their own wool being coarse, in comparison to ours, English and Irish wools are so much in demand, that they will give great prices for them; for which reason they receive vast quantities, to the ruin of the vent of our own manufactures in foreign countries.

Customs on the necessaries of life, and the materials of divers manufactures, must necessarily make all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewise (though our workmen should have no excises to pay) and such discouragements give opportunity to foreigners to send their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and smuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the daily ruin of our manufacturers; for all those customs which affect the necessaries of life, and the materials of various manufactures, are as much taxes on our woollen manufactures as if they were laid on the wool itself, or more: for the workman must raise the money on the woollen goods he makes,

makes, to pay the duties of what he uses of the above articles, with the advances in all the hands they pass through, before they come to him.

It is by these means that we ourselves drive away our own manufacturers, and prevent our ever getting more; and foreigners could not rival the people of so fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furnish them with the means of our high taxes and restraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though designed to advance it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the most rigorous penal laws; of which Mr Locke gives an instance in his *Considerations*, &c. p. 116. 'Tis death in Spain to export money; and yet they, who furnish all the world with gold and silver, have least of it among themselves; trade fetches it away from that lazy and indigent people*, notwithstanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it, and it follows trade against the rigour of their laws; and their want of foreign commodities makes it openly to be carried out at noon-day.'

* The Spaniards have borne this reproach so long from other nations, that they now seem, according to the system of policy which they have adopted, to deserve quite a different character. See the articles *BISCAY* and *SPAIN*.

This seems to be a parallel of the state we are coming to; and which some foreigners may soon possibly make.

It is felony in England to export wool, and yet they who furnish all the world with wool have least of the manufacturing of it among themselves; the smuggling trade fetches it away from that excited and custom-loaded people, notwithstanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it there: it follows the smuggling trade against the rigour of their laws, and their want of taking off the taxes on their manufacturers makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

By this we see that neither death nor banishment can force trade to an unnatural channel; and it may be compared, in one respect, to water, which cannot be compressed within its natural dimensions; the more force is exerted, the sooner is the vessel broke that contained it, and the water let loose, never to return.

The great De Wit, in his *Memoirs*, Ratisbon edit. p. 77, asserts, 'That the navigation, the fishery, the trade and manufactures, which are the four pillars of the state, should not be weakened or encumbered by any taxes; for it is they that give subsistence to the most part of the inhabitants, and which draw in all sorts of strangers, unless the necessity was so great that the country was threatened with an intire destruction; and these fundamentals should be attacked, upon the hopes that these taxes would not last long; at least, haste should be made, as soon as the storm was over, to take them off. Again, this distinction should be made, that manufactures should not, nor cannot, be taxed at all, because they are not fixed to the country, and we must fetch from foreign countries the stuffs and materials to work them up.'

Eighthly, High duties send away our specie. Britain, having no mines of gold or silver, has no means of getting or preserving its treasure but by foreign trade. As customs confine our trade to mere importation for our own necessities or vanities, and, at the same time, ruin our manufactures, what we want in exports to ballance the imports, must be paid in specie, making the ballance of trade every year more and more against us; for as we raise the prices of our goods so high by taxes that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their superfluities, which we now chiefly, and in time must intirely, pay for with our gold and silver, as appears by the bills of entry, in every week, we are beginning to do; and our high duties encouraging smugglers, who have seldom a settled habitation, or any stock of our manufactures by them, they carry out no inconsiderable quantities of specie to purchase their cargoes. Such large draughts make our mint lie almost idle: we find our money disappear, and grow scarcer and scarcer every year, our trade declining, and our people starve.

The bonding of duties being the apparent consequence of high customs, we have judged it no way improper, under this article, gradually to lay open such sentiments, as, we humbly apprehend, may have a tendency to prevent the necessity of a practice, which, we experimentally know, has proved ruinous to numbers of our eminent traders, and their families. And practices which have such fatal effects, with respect to individuals, cannot be compatible with the general interest of trade; which, we conceive, will appear from what we have said on this occasion, and what hereafter we shall submit to consideration, in such parts of this work as have a connection with the like point.

BOOK, a work of genius, wit, or learning, composed for the advantage of the public, or sometimes only for pleasure or curiosity.

Books are printed by the printers, bound by the bookbinders, and sold by the bookfellers, either wholesale or retail, bound or in sheets. We speak elsewhere of these three professions, and of their art and trade.

VOL. I.

Besides printed books, there are others in manuscript. Among the Roman Catholics in France; they give the name of usages, or church-books, to books of devotion, or to those that are used for the divine service in churches.

Printed books are distinguished by their sizes, or forms; which are of several sorts; as books in folio, in quarto, in octavo, in duodecimo, or twelves, &c. which is to be understood of the manner of folding the sheets, and the number of leaves, or of pages, which each sheet contains.

Book in Sheets, is a book which is neither bound, nor stitched, nor folded. The authors, printers, and bookfellers in France, who obtain privileges or licences for the printing and vending of books, are, according to the public edicts and declarations for that purpose, obliged to deliver eight books, or copies, to the syndical chamber; but it is sufficient that the books be in sheets: they are not obliged to deliver them bound.

A Book Bound, is a book which, after it has been beat, sewed, and cut, is covered with paste-boards, and these again with some sort of leather, or other stuff. See **BINDING**.

Books Prohibited, are such, the printing and selling of which are forbid by the laws and ordinances of France. Under this head are comprehended in that kingdom all books against religion, morality, and the state; and even books printed without privilege or licence, without the name or mark of the printer and bookfeller, and in which the name of the place where they were printed is not mentioned.

There is hardly any trade in France which is more free than that of bookfelling. This liberty of the book-trade consists chiefly in a double exemption; the one from all duties of importation and exportation out of the kingdom, or any other tax or importation within the kingdom; the other from all visitation, or search, except those of the syndical and assistants of the bookfeller's company; which search is, nevertheless, not made at the custom-house, or offices belonging to it, but in the company's syndical chamber, or hall.

This double exemption is very ancient, and was granted and confirmed by the kings of France, in behalf of a trade which is so useful to religion, the state, and literature.

The declaration of Lewis XII, given at Blois the 9th of April, 1513, which has served as a ground work, or model, to that great number of declarations, edicts, decrees of the council, and of the parliament, which have been published under the following reigns, 'till this time, orders, That all books, either in Latin or in French, bound or not bound, shall be free from all tolls and inland duties, whithersoever they be carried by land or by water, within the kingdom, or out of it, without paying any tax, imposition, or any other subsidy whatsoever.

The declaration of Henry II, dated the 27th of June, 1551, forbids the opening of the bales of books, except in the presence of the syndics and assistants.

These two declarations concerning the exempting books from all taxes, and from all visitations except those of the syndical chamber, have been since confirmed by all the successors of Lewis XII. and Henry II; the former in 1543, by Francis I. and, in 1547, by Henry II, and afterwards both together, by Charles IX, in 1560; by Henry III, in 1587; by Henry IV, in 1595; by Lewis XIII, in 1630; and finally by Lewis XIV, by several decrees and declarations of the council; the most considerable of which are the decrees of December 1651, and of the 18th of August 1699, and the declaration of the 11th of September 1703.

The visitors, or searchers, of the custom-house of Paris do indeed open the bales and chests in which the books are packed up, in order to see if there be not any other merchandizes concealed among them, but they do not examine the books, which are sent to the syndical chamber.

The licentiousness of authors, and of printers and bookfellers, the former of whom may make an ill use of their genius by composing, and the latter of their profession, by printing and dispersing among the public such books as may be dangerous to religion, good morals, or the state, have been the occasion that at all times some precautions have been taken, in order to prevent, or put a stop to, such an abuse.

Before the invention of printing, the university of Paris was alone charged with that care, with regard to those books which were exposed to sale in that city by the bookfellers, who were then absolutely subject to that body, and could not publish any book for sale before they had communicated it to the censors of books appointed by the university, to be by them either approved or corrected.

Part of this right of inspection over books, as far, at least, as it relates to those of divinity, or which treat of any religious subject, is still enjoyed by the university, and no such books can be printed without the approbation of some of the doctors.

But, the better to prevent the printing and vending of such books of all sorts as are any way obnoxious, the government has imposed the necessity of obtaining a privilege under the great seal, or a licence from the officers of the police, according to the quality of the impressions; besides which, they are also obliged to annex to the books the names of the authors, bookfellers, and printers, with their marks, as also the name

of the place where the books are printed; without all which particulars, a book is reckoned contraband, and liable to be seized, and the bookfellers and printers to be fined or even more severely punished, if the case requires it.

We shall not, in this place, speak of the several edicts, declarations, and decrees, either of the council or of the parliament, by which that sort of policy was settled for the regulation of the book-trade in France, because we give a particular account thereof in two other articles of this Dictionary. See the article BOOKSELLER.

As all these regulations could relate only to books printed within the kingdom, and that books imported from abroad, and especially from a neighbouring state (Holland) equally famous both for the ability and licentiousness of its printers, might contain a venom more dangerous still, they have taken in France several precautions against it; either to prevent the importation of books which are there esteemed injurious to the state, or of counterfeited books, that is to say, of books printed in France, and reprinted abroad, or to discover and find them out when they have been imported by stealth, deceiving the vigilance of the inspectors.

To prevent the importation of dangerous or counterfeited books, Lewis XIV. has, by a decree of the council, given the 11th of June, 1710, regulated and specified the towns by which alone all books and pamphlets imported from foreign countries may be entered into the kingdom.

There are ten of these towns, namely, Paris, Roan, Nantz, Bourdeaux, Marseilles, Lyons, Straßburgh, Metz, Rheims, and Amiens; to which Lille has since been added, by a decree of the council, given the 18th of December, 1717, for books and pamphlets coming from foreign countries, through French-Flanders.

In each of these eleven cities there is a chamber established, where the books are first to be deposited, to be afterwards visited by the syndics of the company of bookfellers, or by two bookfellers appointed for that purpose, in those towns where there are no syndics. Lastly, the syndics, or appointed bookfellers, are obliged to draw up an exact catalogue of all the books that are brought into, and visited in, their chamber, and to send every week an attested copy thereof to the chancellor, that he may, according to the orders he shall receive from the king, regulate all that concerns the suppressing, seizing, permitting, selling, and vending of all the said books.

This decree, relating to the importation of books into the kingdom of France, was the next year followed by a declaration of the same king, given at Fontainebleau the 5th of September, 1711, containing a regulation of what is to be observed in the sale of books within the city of Paris.

By this declaration, which was explained by a subsequent one, given in November the same year, it is ordered, in nine articles,

1. That, according to the regulations made in the year 1686, relating to the trade of books, none but bookfellers and printers shall have liberty to carry on that trade; with leave, however, to all private persons to dispose of their books, libraries, and cabinets, but not before having been examined by the syndics and assistants of the bookfeller's company, and having first obtained leave of the lieutenant-civil, and of the lieutenant-general of the police.
2. That the bookfellers and printers who shall have bought a library, or cabinet of books, in company, shall cause the books to be carried into the syndical chamber, the books being first examined, in order to proceed there, in the presence of the syndic and assistants, to the dividing among them such books, the sale of which is, not prohibited; for the performance of which they have but eight days time allowed them; during which they are not allowed to sell one single book, under any pretence whatsoever.
3. The books thus bought in company shall not, before they are shared, be carried any where but to the syndical chamber; nor, after they are shared, any where but into the shops of the bookfellers and printers who bought them, and to whose share they fell, under the penalty of forfeiting the books, and a fine of 1500 livres.
4. If libraries, or cabinets of books, be bought by one printer or bookfeller only, he shall have liberty to carry them to his house to sell them in his shop, but not any where else, after they shall have been visited, without displacing them, at the place of sale.
5. That no person shall have liberty to let out any place to put books into, but after obtaining permission from the lieutenant-general of the police, under the penalty of a fine of 500 livres.
6. That no bookfeller nor printer shall have a warehouse out of his dwelling-house, unless he makes a declaration of it to the syndics and assistants, which shall be entered into a particular register kept for that purpose, under the penalty of forfeiting all the books that shall be found in such a warehouse, and a fine of 1500 livres: and no private person shall let out to hire such places, but by a lease made before a notary, and after the abovementioned declaration shall have been registered, under the same penalty of a fine of 1500 livres.

7. That, at the time of taking off the seals, the books either prohibited or printed without licence, shall be set apart by the commissary who put on the seals, to be carried, after a catalogue of them shall have been made, into the syndical chamber, and delivered to the syndic and assistants, upon their receipt written at the bottom of the catalogue.

8. That, in case there be a sale of books, to which the seal was not set, the syndic and assistants shall be called to visit them, and the books prohibited, or printed without licence, shall be separated from the rest, and sent to the syndical chamber, as above.

9. Finally, it is ordered, that no printer or bookfeller shall appraise any books, unless a certificate be first produced of their having been duly visited, under the penalty of a fine of 500 livres, and being interdicted for six months.

With regard to the second declaration, designed to explain the former, it is thereby ordered, that the formalities commanded by the first, concerning the visiting and selling of libraries, or cabinets of books, shall take place only in cases of voluntary or forced sales, but not in cases of legacies, gifts, or presents of such libraries or cabinets of books.

REMARKS.

To urge a word in favour of letters and useful sciences, is as needless, at this time of day, as to declaim on the benefits of rain and sunshine, when nature requires them for the cultivation of the earth: and, from the history of mankind, such seems to have been the first rudeness and barbarism of the human species, that the mind of man would have continued as wild and barren as the earth, without culture by art and ingenuity.

Books being the only means whereby knowledge of every kind can be generally and easily conveyed, they become estimable in proportion to the useful matter they propagate; and, although some may abuse this power, yet so tenacious of this privilege of book-printing have been the warmest friends to the liberties of these kingdoms, that they have looked on it as the great palladium of our civil and religious rights, and have therefore zealously contended for its preservation.

If then a privilege of this nature be esteemed so dear to this nation, should not all due encouragement be given by the legislature to support and maintain it? Can any means prove more effectual to that end, than securing to every one, who thus generously communicates the result of his studies for the benefit of the public, a right and property to the productions of his own labours? However reasonable this is, yet it seems extraordinary, methinks; that authors should be the only people in the kingdom whose property is not justly and safely established.

REMARKS.

As this point is put in a judicious, and, in my humble judgment, an unanswerable light, by a very learned gentleman, who has obliged the world with some of the most admirable performances which this age has produced, I am highly sensible that giving the reader his sentiments will be far more acceptable than any thing that can come from me; and therefore I shall crave that learned author's permission to reprint his Letter to a member of parliament, concerning literary property, at large, lest its strength and elegance should be lost, by being in the least curtailed.

SIR,

It seemeth, to me, an odd circumstance, that, amidst the justest and safest establishment of property, which the best form of government is capable of procuring, there should yet be one species of it belonging to an order of men, who have been generally esteemed the greatest ornament, and, certainly, are not the least support of civil policy, to which little or no regard hath been hitherto paid. I mean, the right of property in authors to their works. And surely, if there be degrees of right, that of authors seemeth to have the advantage over most others; their property being, in the truest sense, their own, as acquired by a long and painful exercise of that very faculty which denominateth us men; and, if there be degrees of security for its enjoyment, here again they appear to have the fairest claim, as fortune hath been long in confederacy with ignorance, to stop up their way to every other kind of acquisition.

History, indeed, informeth us, that there was a time when men in public stations thought it the duty of their office to encourage letters: and when those rewards, which the wisdom of the legislature had established for the learned in that profession deemed more immediately useful to society, were carefully distributed amongst the most deserving. While this system lasted, authors had the less occasion to be anxious about literary property: which was, perhaps, the reason why the settlement of it was so long neglected, that at length it became a question, whether they had any property at all. But this fond regard to learning being only an indulgence to its infant age: a favour, which, in these happy times of its maturity, many reasons of state have induced the public wisdom to withdraw; letters are now left, like virtue, to be their own reward. We may surely then be permitted to expect that

that so slender a pittance should, at least, be well secured from rapine and depredation.

Yet so great is the vulgar prejudice against an author's property, that when, at any time, attempts have been made to support it, against the most flagrant acts of robbery and injustice, it was never thought prudent to demand the public protection as a right, but to supplicate it as a grace: and this too, in order to engage a favourable attention, conveyed under every insinuating circumstance of address; such as promoting the paper manufactory at home, or augmenting the revenue by that which is imported from abroad.

The grounds of this prejudice are various. It hath been partly owing to the complaints of unsuccessful writers against booksellers, for not bringing their works to a second edition; and partly to the complaints of little readers against successful ones, for a contrary cause; when, to the great damage of the purchasers of the first edition, they have fraudulently improved a second. For the proprietor professing to sell only his paper and print, and not the doctrine conveyed by it, the purchaser, who has nothing else for his money, never reckons (and often with good reason) his improvement for any thing. So that, when a second edition lessens the price of the first, he very naturally thinks himself tricked of his money.

Another ground of prejudice, is, the unfair advantage made of the author's property by booksellers: which, if true, would be just as good a reason for refusing him the public protection, as it would be to turn all those estates upon the common which one of your Peter Walters has out at nurse. For why should it be expected of an author, and of no one else, to become sage before he be intrusted with his own? Let him but share in the common security, and he will soon learn the value of property, and how to use it like his neighbours. As it is, we need not wonder he should be disposed to part with that, for little, which he is unable to preserve but at great hazard and expence.

A third ground of prejudice is the odious sound of the word monopoly. But this is taking the thing in question for granted, viz. that an author hath no right of property: for a monopoly is an exclusive privilege by grant of doing that which all men have a claim to do; not an exclusive right by nature of enjoying what no one else has a claim to. So that to make this a monopoly, is making a proprietor and a monopolist the same.

A fourth ground of prejudice is the favourite sound of liberty, in these times commonly used for licentiousness; and apparently so on this occasion. For liberty signifies the power of doing what one will with one's own; which is the right we here contend for: and licentiousness the doing what we will with another man's; which is the wrong we seek to redress. So that, as sure as licentiousness destroys liberty, so certain is it that the production of the right in question adds strength and vigour to it.

But it is not my design to defend the use men make of property, but to vindicate the right they have in it. I shall therefore go to the bottom of them; and, as they all support themselves on the false logic here detected, the taking the thing in question for granted, I shall shew, that an author has an undoubted right of property in his works.

Things susceptible of property must have these two essential conditions, that they be useful to mankind, and that they be capable of having their possession ascertained. Without the first, society will not be obliged to take the right under its protection; and, without the second, it will never venture upon the trouble.

Of these, some are moveable, as goods; some immoveable, as lands: and they become property either by first occupancy, or by improvement.

Of moveables, some are things natural; others, things artificial. Property in the first is gained by occupancy; in the latter, by improvement.

Moveable property, arising from improvement, is of two sorts; the product of the hand, and of the mind; as an utensil made; a book composed. For that the product of the mind is as well capable of becoming property as that of the hand, is evident from hence, that it hath in it those two essential conditions, which, by the allowance of all writers of laws, make things susceptible of property; namely, common utility, and a capacity of having its possession ascertained.

Both these sorts of things, therefore, being capable of property, we are next to consider, as they are so different in their natures; whether there be not as great a difference in the extension of their rights.

In the first case, then, it is agreed, that property in the product of the hand, as in an utensil, is confined to the individual thing made; which, if the proprietor thinks not fit to hide, others may make the like in imitation of it; and thereby acquire the same property in their manual work, which he hath done in his.

But, in the other case of property in the product of the mind, as in a book composed, it is not confined to the original M.S. but extends to the doctrine contained in it: which is, indeed, the true and peculiar property in a book. The necessary consequence of which is, that the owner hath an exclusive right of transcribing or printing it for gain or profit.

This difference, in these two sorts of property, arises from an equal difference in the things: as will appear, by considering the different nature of the works, and the different views of the operators.

With regard to the nature of the work: an utensil; and a book only considered as a composition of paper, and ink drawn out in artificial characters, are both works of the hand; and, as such, the property is confined to the individual thing. But a book, considered merely in this light, is considered inadequately and unjustly; the complete idea of a book being such a composition as is here spoken of, together with a doctrine contained. But under this idea it assumes another nature, and becomes a work of the mind. We have proved a work of the mind to be susceptible of property, like that of the hand. Now if the property, in a book, be confined to the individual volume, here is a work of the mind executed without any property annexed: the property in the individual volume arising from its being merely the work of the hand. A doctrine absurd in speculation, as it is making manual and mental operation one and the same, which are two distinct and different things: and unjust in practice, as it depriveth the owner of a right annexed by nature to his labour. Again, in the utensil made, the principal expence is in the materials employed; which, whoever furnisheth, reasonably acquires a property in the thing made, though made by imitation. On the contrary, in a book composed, the principal expence is in the form given: which as the original maker only can supply, it is but reasonable, how great soever the copies of his works may be multiplied, that they be multiplied to his own exclusive profit.

Let us next consider it, with regard to the different views of the operators. He who makes an utensil, in imitation of another he sees made, must necessarily work with the same ideas the original operator had, and so fitly acquires a property in the work of his own hands. But the most learned book in the world may be copied by one who hath no ideas at all. What pretence, then, hath such a one to property, in a work of the mind, who hath employed, in copying it, only the labour of the hand? And which tends but to make his theft the more impudent, as he steals what he doth not understand. Again, in an utensil made, the framer of it hath plainly no regard to any one's benefit but his own: and he must finish it before it can be fitted for his use. His end, then, being obtained in that individual piece of work, it is but reasonable his property should there terminate. In a mental work, the thing turns the other way. Here the contriver may himself enjoy all the fruits of his discoveries without drawing them out, scholastically, in form. When he doth this, it is but candid to suppose that it is done for the benefit of others. Can any thing, therefore, be more just, than that he should be owned and protected in a property, which he hath not merely acquired to himself, but which is generously objective to the benefit of others?

In a word, to insist once again upon what hath been said.— If an author have only a property in his individual manuscript, he hath, truly speaking, no property in his book at all; that is, as his book is a work of the mind; which, in this case, still lies in common. The consequence is, (as appears from the explanation of property given above) that no property ariseth from a thing susceptible of property: nay, which is still more absurd, from a thing actually become property; as being attended with all those essential conditions from whence property ariseth. To deny an author, therefore, or his assigns, an exclusive privilege to print and vend his own work, seemeth to be a violation of one of the most fundamental rights of civil society.

But here let it be observed, that, in our division of artificial moveables, into the two sorts, of manual and mental, we purposely omitted a third, of a complicated nature, which holds of both the other in common; as reserving it for this place, to support and illustrate what hath been said above of the two more simple kinds: and that is, of mechanic engines. Now, these partaking so essentially of the nature of manual works, the maker hath no perfect right of property in the invention. For like a common utensil, it must be finished before it can be of use to himself; like that, its materials are its principal expence; and, like that, a successful imitator must work with the ideas of the first inventor: which are all reasons why the property should terminate in the individual machine. Yet because the operation of the mind is so intimately concerned in the construction of these works, their powers being effected and regulated by the right application of geometric science, all these have concurred in giving the inventors of them a licence of monopoly, for a term of years, as on a claim of right. Now the reason of this, we say, can be explained only on the principles here advanced, that the constructor of a piece of mechanism hath his property confined to the individual thing made; and the composer of a scholastic work hath his extended to the ideal discourse itself. And a mathematical machine holding of the nature of both, but more essentially of the former, there was no way of adjusting and satisfying an imperfect right but by such a grant as is here mentioned.

But it is no unfrequent practice for the claimants of a per-

fect right to apply to the magistrate, or legislature, for the better security of an acquired property, in the same manner that claimants of an imperfect right do, to acquire property: sometimes, to the one for a licence; and sometimes, to the other for an act of parliament. Yet from thence to conclude, that the claimants of a perfect right have, by such application, waved, or given up, their claim; or that the magistrate or legislature have, by their licences or acts of exclusive privilege for a certain time, either abridged or superseded that claim, appears to me the highest absurdity; as it will, I am persuaded, to others, on reflecting upon the plain and obvious reasons why the petitioners seek this additional security, for the enjoyment of a natural right; and why the magistrate and legislature grant it only for a certain term of years.

In the common administration of justice, the way in use, to restrain the invasion of property, is to oblige the offender to repair the damages sustained. Now such is the nature of the property in question, that it may be long invaded before the sufferer can discover the offender: so that such a one having a fair chance not to be detected; and, if detected, a certainty of refunding only what he hath unjustly gained; bad men will have but too great encouragement to invade their neighbour's property. Therefore, to counteract this undue temptation, it was natural for such proprietors, in their own defence, to apply to the state for additional and accumulative penalties against the invaders of their right. In which, they act but as the state itself doth for the security of government in general; when, for the support of that natural allegiance, which all men owe to the society under which they chuse to live, and whereby they are protected, it addeth, by positive laws, the additional sanction of oaths, and other solemn engagements. Now if the state, in this case, can never be supposed to have waved or superseded its natural claim to allegiance, and to rest it solely on the oaths taken, or the engagements made; what reason have we to think that the subject in his turn, when he applies to the state for protection, in the instance in question, should give up or impeach his natural right, while his only purpose is to seek additional security for the enjoyment of it?

This leadeth us to our second question, Why the magistrate and legislature restrain this additional sanction to a certain term of years? And the reason is evident. The petitioners neither require more, nor doth the state find, that more is needed. The great temptation to invade this property being while the demand for it is great and frequent; which is, generally, on the first publication of a book, and some few years afterwards. While this demand continueth, the proprietor hath need of all additional sanctions, to oppose to the force of the temptation: but when, in course of years, the demand abateth, and with it the temptation, the common legal security of natural rights is then sufficient to keep offenders in order.

However, as clear and undoubted a property as this is by nature, and the common principles of society, it cannot be denied, but that the legislature may abridge, suspend, or abrogate it within its own jurisdiction, as it is accustomed to do with several other the like rights, for the sake of the whole. But then it must be done by express declaration and decree: implication, inference, or any mere law-consequence, or even a mistake of judgment, in the legislature, going on a supposition that there was no natural right where indeed there was, would be, simply, insufficient to abrogate it. And the reason is plain, because the believing a thing to be no natural right doth not infer a judgment, that the enjoyment of it, as such, would be hurtful to the society; which judgment is the only cause of the legislature's abridging or abrogating a natural right.

This was necessary to premise, in order to set a case in its true light, which hath, above all others, encouraged the invasion of property; though the act, from whence it arises, was solely contrived to prevent that invasion. I mean the act of the eighth of queen Anne; which ignorance and knavery have concurred to represent as a restrictive, and not accumulative, law; and, consequently, to suppose it the sole foundation, instead of an additional support, of literary property. It is intitled, An act for the encouragement of learning; in which an exclusive right of property, under certain conditions, is secured, by particular penalties, to authors, and bookfellers claiming under them, for the term of one and twenty years.

Now in this act, we are so far from finding any declaration to abridge, suspend, or abrogate this natural right; (which, as we say, would be indeed sufficient to dissolve it) or any expression intimating the opinion of the legislature against its existence; (which, as we say, would not be sufficient) that, on the contrary, there is, in the preamble of it, an expression plainly declarative of their opinion, that authors had a right, prior to this act; and, towards the conclusion, a proviso, which leaves the question of the right, free from, and undetermined by, what is, in this statute, enacted concerning property.

The expression is this—'Whereas printers, bookfellers, and other persons, have of late frequently taken the liberty of

printing, reprinting, and publishing, or causing to be printed, reprinted, and published, books, and other writings, without the consent of the authors or proprietors of such books or writings, to their very great detriment, and too often to the ruin of them and their families, &c.'—Now, could the injured parties, here mentioned, be proprietors of that in which they had no property? Or did the legislature, in a law for the regulation of so momentous a branch of what was deemed and claimed as property, use the terms of the subject in question inaccurately or unfitly? If it were possible to think so of a British legislature, the supposition would be excluded here; because, not only the expression, but the sentiment necessarily supposes that they used the word proprietors in its strict and exact signification; it being a representation of the bad effects from the liberty taken of printing and reprinting books, without the consent of the authors, or their assigns.

The proviso, in the conclusion, is in these words,—'Provided that nothing in this act contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, either to prejudice or confirm any right that the said universities, or any of them, or any person or persons have, or claim to have, to the printing or reprinting any book or copy already printed, or hereafter to be printed.'—Now, though it may be easily granted, that one purpose of this proviso was to leave undecided all claims, or pretences of claim, to exclusive printing, from patents, licences, &c. yet the large wording of it appears to have a particular aim at obviating such misconstruction of the statute, as if the additional temporary security, thereby given, either implied that there was no right of property before, or else abrogated what it found. And the having these two things in its intention, viz. the natural right, and that which is founded on patents, seems to be the reason of its saying that it neither prejudiced nor confirmed: it being unjust to prejudice a plain natural right; and inexpedient to confirm an unexamined claim by patent. For what the legislature's sense was of this natural right, appears from what hath been observed of their use of the word proprietors, in the preamble.

But lastly, in cases where the sense of the legislature is uncertain or obscure, there the interpretation of the supreme magistrates of justice hath been always deemed to have the force of a legal decision. And this decision hath been made in favour of property, on the act in question. For, in the high court of Chancery, actions for damages have been sustained, where the action for forfeiture and penalties, on this statute, was not competent in any other court: which shews, that that great magistrate did not consider this act as a restrictive, but as an accumulative law. It being a rule, that positive correctory laws are to be strictly interpreted. For, in every civil society, experience shews, that the subject, in many cases, must be put under restraint with regard to things in themselves lawful, merely because of the bad consequences, to the public, by the abuse of liberty. But, in all such restrictive laws, right reason, at the same time, forbids these laws to be extended, in the smallest particular, beyond the letter of the act. To do otherwise would be abridging liberty, without authority of law, which is the same thing with private violence. This plainly shews the judgment of the high court of Chancery, to be that there was a right of property previous to the statute; which the statute had neither abrogated nor abridged; and, on that right, the action was sustained, where the action for forfeiture and penalties was not competent. For an additional security of property, made for the benefit, and at the request, of the proprietors, can never be deemed to exclude them from having recourse, at pleasure, to that legal remedy, which on the common principles of a court of equity, they had a claim to, prior to the grant of such additional security.

All this laid together, it seems abundantly evident, that no right is taken away by this act, which authors, or their assigns, had before the making of it. And consequently that it is no restrictive, but an accumulative law, brought in aid of a natural right, whose reality I have here endeavoured to support.' See the articles BOOKSELLER and COPIES OF AUTHORS.

R E M A R K S.

'Though what this learned gentleman has urged, is more than sufficient to shew the justice of a law for the security of literary property, yet we shall presume to add a word more, by observing what effect this would have on particulars, and on the public. With regard to the former, it is certain, that, while an author or his assigns are protected in their property from the invasion and piracy of others, they can afford to sell cheaper; it being well known, that the profits of bookfelling depend on the numbers sold, and not on a few; and, the fewer are sold, the dearer the books must be; and, the more, the cheaper they can be afforded. And, as to the public, it is apparent, that the interests of society will be better secured both in a civil and a religious view; for then the licentiousness of libelling the government, and insulting the church and gospel itself by impious books, will be easier remedied than when property is insecure.

Should it be said, that, if literary property be so necessary to be secured, how happens it not to be done in any country abroad, in the manner it has been demanded? And how happens it to be now wanted at home, when we have done so long without it? To the first question it may be observed, that there are arbitrary powers in the administration of governments abroad, even in their republics (which powers our free government has not thought fit to intrust to the executive power) whereby the magistrate is well enabled by the standing police, from time to time, to punish the invaders of these temporary licences which he granted. And yet the want of establishing literary property on a right foundation, even there, is attended with many mischiefs to proprietors, which they lament, and want that remedy to rectify, which is greatly desired, by all friends to literature, in this kingdom.

As to the other question, how we come to want a new security for property not wanted before? The general answer is, that these mischiefs have been continually growing since the revolution, and are now arisen to such a height, as to become intolerable. Before that happy period of the establishment of public liberty, there were two very powerful restraints to the invasion of literary property: the one was power granted by the council-board (which had then a very formidable jurisdiction) to the company of stationers. 2dly, The power of licensing by persons severally deputed by the crown, and the archbishop of Canterbury. Now, consider the efficacy of those two jurisdictions to restrain piracy, as it is called; who are the invaders of property? Necessitous bookfellers, and scribbling authors still more necessitous, and who very easily pirate large volumes, that contain bodies of sciences, such as dictionaries, systems, &c. only by making trivial alterations, or casting them into different forms.

Before the revolution, the company of stationers effectually restrained the piracy of bookfellers: and the licensers, by application of the proprietors, the piracies of scribblers. But, happy for the general liberty, the powers of the council-board, as exercised a century ago, and of licensers, are at an end. But it was not presently considered, that, as abusively as the powers were exercised, yet, the powers had their use, to refrain injustice: and that, when they were abolished, there would want something to supply their place.—In a word, if unlicensed printing, as undoubtedly it is, be one of the securities of public liberty, an act declarative, of an author's right in his copy, is as necessary for the security of private property.

Permit me, says an elegant writer, to speak a word in the cause of learning, and lament that a liberal education should be the only one, which a polite nation makes unprofitable. All mechanic artizans are allowed to reap the fruit of their invention and ingenuity without invasion; but he that has separated himself from the rest of mankind, and studied the wonders of the creation, the government of the passions, and the revolutions of the world, &c. and has an ambition to communicate the effect of half his life spent in such noble enquiries, has no property in what he is willing to produce, but is exposed to robbery and want, with this melancholy and just reflection, that he is the only man who is not protected by his country, at the same time that he best deserves it. According to the ordinary rules of computation, the greater the adventure is, the greater ought to be the profit of those who succeed in it; and, by this measure, none have a pretence of turning their labours to greater advantage than persons brought up to letters. A learned education is very expensive, and consumes a moderate fortune before it is gone through in it's proper forms. The purchase of an handsome commission, or employment, which would give a man a good figure in another kind of life, is to be made at a much cheaper rate. Now, if we consider this expensive voyage, which is undertaken in the search of knowledge, and how few there are who take in any considerable merchandize, how less frequent it is to be able to turn what men have gained into profit; how hard is it that the very small number who are distinguished with abilities to know how to vend their wares, and have the good fortune to bring them into port, should suffer being plundered by privateers, under the very cannon that should protect them?

The most eminent and useful author of the age we live in, after having laid out a princely revenue in works of charity and beneficence, as became the greatness of his mind, and the sanctity of his character, would have left the person in the world, who was the dearest to him, in a narrow condition, had not the sale of his immortal writings brought her in a very considerable dowry, though it was impossible to be equal to their value. Every one will know that I mean here the works of the late archbishop of Canterbury, the copy of which was sold for 2500l.

I do not speak with relation to any party; but it has happened, and may often so happen, that men of great learning and virtue cannot qualify themselves for being employed in business, or receiving preferments. In this case, you cut them off from all support, if you take from them the benefit that may arise from their writings. For my own part, I have brought myself to consider things in so unprejudiced a

manner, that I esteem more a man who can live by the products of his understanding, than one who does it by the favour of great men.

The zeal of an author has transported me thus far, though I think myself as much concerned in the capacity of a reader. If this practice goes on, we must never expect to see again a beautiful edition of a book in Great-Britain.

Books, in the plural number. This, in the trading and mercantile stile, is understood of all the registers in which merchants, bankers, and traders, do methodically write, either in the gross, or minutely, all the affairs relating to their traffic, or even such of their domestic concerns which are any ways connected therewith. Thus we say, the books of such a merchant, or trader, are in very good condition; that banker keeps his books in very good order; there is no order, no accuracy, in this trader's books of account.

Merchants cannot absolutely carry on their trade, without keeping proper books of account; they are even obliged by the ordonnances in France so to do. See REMARKS upon the article BANKRUPTS. But they have occasion for more or less books, according to the nature of their trade, and the quantity of business they have, or according to the manner in which they keep their books.

BOOK-KEEPING. Books are kept either by single, or according to the method of double entry. They who keep them in the former method (which is proper only for retail dealers, or at least for traders who have but very little business) have occasion for few books only, such as a journal, or day-book, and a ledger, or post book; the former, to write all the articles following, as they occur in the course of their business; and the latter, to draw out the accounts of all the debtors and creditors on the journal. But, as for wholesale dealers, and great merchants, who keep their books according to the double entry, or Italian method, as is now most commonly done, their business requires several other books, the usefulness of which will be seen from what followeth.

Most authors agree, that the Italians, and particularly those of Venice, Genoa, and Florence, were the first who introduced the method of keeping books by double entry, or by way of charge and discharge; whence amongst us it is still called the Italian method.

Books kept according to the method of double entry.

The most considerable books, according to this method, are the waste-book, the journal, and the ledger. Besides these three, which are absolutely necessary, there are several others, to the number of thirteen, or even more, called subservient, or auxiliary books; which are used in proportion to the business a man has, or to the nature of the trade he carries on.

These thirteen books are,

The cash-book.

The debt-book.

The book of numero's.

The book of invoices.

The book of accounts current.

The book of commissions, order, or advices.

The book of acceptances of bills of exchange.

The book of remittances.

The book of expences.

The copy-book of letters.

The book of postage.

The ship-books.

The book of workmen.

To these thirteen may be added others, which depend on the greater or lesser accuracy and order of the merchants and bankers, and on the several kinds of trade carried on by particular dealers; but for the generality, these thirteen are sufficient.

The Waste-Book, is the first and most essential, in which all kind of matters are, as it were, entered, according to the order of time in which they occurred, in a promiscuous manner, in order to be afterwards separated and transcribed into the other books. This book cannot be kept with too much accuracy and regularity, because recourse must be had to it in all disputes which may arise relating to trade.

It may be kept two ways; the first is by only entering things into it successively, just as they fall out; as, for instance, bought of such an one, sold to such an one, paid to such an one, lent such a sum, and so forth.

The second way is, by entering at once each article, according to its proper debtor and creditor: this method is reckoned the best, because, by forming immediately a kind of journal, it saves the trouble of making another.

Some, for greater accuracy, divide the waste-book into four others; namely, the book of emption, or of things bought; the book of sale, the book of cash, the book of bills. Among the merchants who follow that method, some do immediately enter the articles from these three books into the ledger, without making a journal; others, writing those four books fair out, make a journal of them, out of which they afterwards post the several articles into the ledger.

The waste-book is an universal and compleat memorial of all the transactions and events of business, taken in the natural order of time; whereby all things of one date are placed together, serving as a preparation for the ledger, into which they are all to be transferred upon distinct accounts, according to the order of the subjects.

The waste-book begins with an inventory of a merchant's effects and debts, and contains a compleat record of every transaction of his affairs, with all the circumstances, in a plain narration of matter of fact; every transaction following another, according to the order of the dates. This book is in reality a journal, or day-book; but, that name being applied to another, the name of waste-book is given to this by way of distinction; though what relation the word waste bears to the nature of this book, is not very obvious. Some authors, with more propriety, call it the memorial, or memorandum-book, because it's principal use is for taking memorandums.

Here follows an instance of the method and use of the waste-book. If, on the first day of July, you buy a pipe of port-wine for 27 l. ready money, and on the 4th sell to Edward Ellis 12 pipes of sherry at 30 l. per pipe, of which he pays you 70 l. down, and for the rest you give him a month's credit; all the form of expressing these cases in the waste-book, is as follows, viz.

	July 1.	l.	s.	d.
Bought a pipe of port wine, for which I paid -	27	0	0	
4th,				
Sold to Edw. Ellis twelve pipes of sherry, at 30 l. per pipe.				
Received in ready money - -	70	l.		
Rest due at one month - - -	29	0	l.	
	36	0	c	0

And so of any other matter.

The Journal, or Day-Book. The name of this book sufficiently shews its use. Each article, entered into this book, ought to consist of seven parts, which are, the date, the debtor, the creditor, the sum, the quantity and the quality, how payable, and the price.

This book is commonly a register in folio, of five or six quires of paper, numbered, and ruled with one line on the side of the margin, and with three on the other end, to write the sums.

It is the journal which is meant in the ordonnance of France, of March 1673, where it is ordered, tit. III. art. 1, 3, and 5. That all merchants and traders, whether wholesale or retail, shall keep a book, containing an account of all their commercial transactions, bills of exchange, debts active and passive, &c. And, for want of keeping such a book, and surrendering it up, in case of failure, they are reputed fraudulent bankrupts, and prosecuted accordingly in an extraordinary manner, and condemned to suffer the punishment directed in the same ordonnance, tit. II. art. 11, 12.

Model of an article in the journal.

	July 26, 1747.	l.	s.	d.
Wine debtor to cash, 160 l. bought of Duval, ready money, 16 pipes of wine, at 10 l.	160	0	0	

The journal, so far as it differs from the waste-book, is only a book of aid to the ledger. There are two different methods of keeping it: in the first, which is that hitherto chiefly used, the journal is a complete transcript of the waste-book, in the same order of time, but in a different stile: for the waste-book expresses every transaction in a simple narration of what is done; whereas the journal distinguishes the proper debtors and creditors, as a preparation for the ledger: thus, when any transaction is to be transferred from the waste-book into the journal, they examine it by the rules of the ledger, as if it were to be entered immediately there; and, finding the debtors and creditors to which it belongs, these are distinctly marked by their denominations of debtor and creditor, in the stile of the journal; at least, the accounts that are debtors, are expressly so named; and, by their being directly connected debtor to some other accounts, these are sufficiently determined to be the creditors, though the word creditor be not written.

The other form of a journal, which in certain respects is preferable to the former, makes this book a complete transcript of the waste-book, without any alteration, leaving on the left side of every page a large margin, about the third part of the page, on which, against every transaction, are written the names of the debtors and creditors of the transaction, with their titles of debtor and creditor, and sums of money; observing, that, where there are sundry debtors or creditors to one creditor or debtor, they write their names next each other, and the name of the one corresponding debtor or creditor against the total of the other sums; by which means, the connection appears at sight. Then, when the transac-

tion is transferred to the ledger, they write in this margin the numbers of the folio's where the accounts stand in the ledger, for the purposes already mentioned, in speaking of the former method. This book may be called either the waste-book or journal, being in reality both; not only as every waste-book is a journal, but as there is here also that which distinguishes both a waste-book and a journal.

Ledger, or Ledger-Book, sometimes also called the great book, because it is the greatest of all the books used by the merchants; and the post book, because all the articles extracted from the journal are distinctly posted into this; is a large volume in folio, composed of several quires of large and thick paper. Every page of it is ruled with six lines from top to bottom, two on the side of the margin, and four on the side of the fums.

In this book are written all the accounts by way of debtor and creditor as they are extracted from the journal; so that it is properly the waste-book still further digested, and contains all the transactions of a man's affairs in such order, as that those belonging to every different subject lie together in one place, making so many distinct or several accounts.

To form every account, two pages are used opposite to each other: that on the left serves for debtor, and that on the right for creditor. After the name of each debtor on the left page, they write Debtor, or by abbreviation Dr. and on the right Per Contra, Creditor, by abbreviation Cr.

Each article in this book must be composed of five parts or members, which are, 1. The date. 2. The person whom we credit, or are credited by. 3. The subject, that is to say, the thing credited or indebted for. 4. The folio, or page corresponding to it. 5. Lastly, the sum or amount of the article. Two instances, the one of an article of debtor, the other of an article of creditor, will more distinctly shew the form and use of this book.

Model of an article in the ledger. See BANKING.

1751	Anthony Roberts, Dr.	fo.	l.	s.	d.
Sept. 25	To cash paid by his order to bearer - - -	16	1900	00	00

Model of an article in Creditor.

1751	Per Contra	Cr.	fo.	l.	s.	d.
Oct. 23	By cash for this remittance on James	21	1900	00	00	

As the management of the ledger is of the last importance in accounts, the following rules relating thereto should be duly attended to.

1. That, for every distinct subject with which you have an account (i. e. for every person with whom you deal on mutual trust and credit, or who by any means becomes your debtor, or you his) as well as for every thing you deal in, there must be a certain separate space, or portion allowed, wherein are to be written all and only the transactions relating to that subject, whose name is to be inscribed or written on the head thereof, making thereby distinct and particular accounts.
2. Every account is to be distinguished into two parts, taking for each an equal portion (less or more as you think fit) of right and left pages, of one folio, or opening; the name of the subject being written on the head of the account on both sides, which are distinguished by the word Debtor on the left side, and creditor on the right, for the purposes following, to which the columns explained below are subvenient.
3. Every personal account to contain, on the debtor side, all the articles which that person owes you, and the payments you make of your debts to him: and, on the creditor side, all that you owe to him, and the payments he makes of his debts to you. Or, because this rule considers payments under the notion of mutual opposite debts upon the receiver, if this be once supposed, the rule may be briefly expressed thus: every person is debtor for what he owes me, and creditor for what I owe him.
4. Every real account to contain on the debtor side the quantity and value of what was upon hand at the beginning of the account, and what was afterwards received, with all cost and charges; and on the creditor side, the quantity and value of what is disposed of, or in any manner taken away, or gone out of possession, with all the returns that subject makes me. Or, more briefly, thus: it is debtor for all received, first cost, and charges; and creditor for all gone out of it, with the returns.
5. Every transaction must be entered in the ledger-book, with a balance of debt and credit, i. e. so as that every article be placed on the debtor side of one account, and the creditor side of some other, making thereby equal debt and credit in the ledger: and where the personal and real accounts concerned in the transaction, do not, in the articles belonging to them, make this ballance (as they will in most cases) then some imaginary account must be used to supply the defect.

6. Those

6. Those accounts, whose articles of debt and credit in any transaction balance one another, are, in the ledger, to be connected together in the stile of every article, as mutual and correspondent debtors and creditors, by writing in each of the corresponding accounts the name of the other, after the particule To in the debtor's account, and By in the creditor's, which connects the two; the name of the accounts in which articles are written, with its quality of debtor and creditor, being understood as joined to, and so is read before, the word To or By, in every article, (though it be written only once for all upon the head of the account.) Then, after the name of the corresponding creditor or debtor, follows a brief narrative of the fact; the date, and other numbers, being placed in their proper columns.—Hence we find the use of the column which stands before and next to the money columns, which is this, to write in it the number of the folio where stands the corresponding account, with which the account in which you write is connected in every article.

To facilitate the use of the ledger, there is an alphabet, or index, made to serve as a repertory; it consists of as many leaves as there are letters in the alphabet, that is to say, 24: each leaf is cut on the edge, and marked with one of the 24 letters, in their natural order; and on each leaf is set down the initial letter, or letters, of the names of every account, either personal or real, with the number of the folio of the letter where the account is stated; by which means a person may find in the ledger, with the greatest ease, any account which he has occasion to consult.

Cash-Book. This is the first and most important of the 13 auxiliary books. It is so called, because it contains, in debtor and creditor, all the cash that comes in, or goes out, of a merchant's stock. The French call it also the book of cash, and of notes (livre de caisse & le bordereau) because, besides an account of the cash received and paid, it contains also notes of the several species of the money, or coin, that comes in, or goes out.

When a merchant does not keep that book himself, he has it kept by a clerk, or book-keeper, whom they stile cashier.

In this book they write all the sums which are daily received and paid. The receipts on the debtor's side, the persons of whom it was received, on what, and on whose account, and in what specie; and the payments on the creditor's side, mentioning also the specie, the reasons of the payments, to whom, and for whose account, they are made.

The title of this book is set down as follows: all the other books have also their proper titles written on the back, or cover.

C A S H - B O O K.

No. A. 1751.

The articles in debit and credit are formed after the following manner:

Model of an article in debit, which must be on the left side.

CASH DR.

July 29th, 1751.		l.	s.	d.
Received of John Fox, for 2 tons of wax, sold the 2d instant				
An 100 guineas	— 1. 105 : 0 : 0			
In Portugal pieces	— 105 : 0 : 0	1230	0	0
In bank	— 1020 . 0 . 0			
	l. 1230 : 0 : 0			

Model of an article on the credit side, which must be on the right side, overagainst the former.

CREDIT.

August 12, 1747.		l.	s.	d.
Paid to Peter Hart, for 2 tons of wax, bought the 4th instant				
200 guineas	— 1. 210 : 0 : 0			
In Portugal money	— 105 : 0 : 0	1150	0	0
In bank	— 835 : 0 : 0			
	l. 1150 : 0 : 0			

The better to conceive the nature of the book, it is to be observed, that in business, where cash happens to be an account which has numerous articles, it is convenient to keep a particular account thereof in a book distinct from the ledger, and for this reason called the cash-book. This is formed in all respects like the cash-accounts in the ledger, with a debtor and creditor side, in which all the cash received and given out is entered, either in a simple stile, or in that of the ledger: but, which way soever the narra-

tive is made, every article must be duly entered on the opposite side of the corresponding account in the ledger, with a reference to the ledger account of cash: for such an account there must also be, into which the sums of the debtor and creditor sides of the particular account must be transferred once a week, or month, as is found most convenient. Thus in the cash-book, the sums being written down against them, say, transferred to the ledger, and mark the folio; and in the ledger account enter the sum, with the date of the transfer, debtor to, and creditor by sundry accounts, as per cash-book. The cash-account in the ledger is necessary for the balance of the whole; and the conveniency of the separate account of all the particulars is, that we have them all together in one continued account: whereas the rule of the ledger being not to allow more than one folio for one account, till that be filled up, the account might hereby lie in several folios.

Book of Debts, or Payments, is a book in which is written down the day on which all sums become due, either to be received or paid, by bills of exchange, notes of hand, merchandizes bought or sold, or otherwise, that by comparing receipts and payments, one may in time provide the necessary funds for payments, by getting the bills, notes, &c. due, to be paid, or by taking other precautions.

Two models will be sufficient for explaining the whole use and form of this book; let it only be observed, that, like the ledger, it ought to have two pages, opposite to each other, on the left of which is set down what is to be received, and on the right what is to be paid.

Model of the left page for the receipts.

May	1751	To Receive	l.	s.	d.
1		Remittance of James Vaffer, of the 12th of March, on Peter King - - -	600		
		Of Robert Nash, for wool, sold the 16th of July last - - -	1800		
2					
3		Of Devall, by bond of the 23d of May last	2000		
		Remittance of price of the 23d February on page - - -	1800		
4					
5					

Model of the right page, for the payments.

May	1751	To Pay	l.	s.	d.
2		To Charles Harley, for a purchase of the 1st of July - - -	1200		
		The draught of John Ball of 22d March, to Isaac Metchel - - -	2000		
3					
4		The draught of T. Le Gendre, of the 15th of April, to Pits - - -	445	6	
		My note of the 25th of February, to Norris, or bearer - - -	3000		
5					
6					

Book of Numero's, or Wares. This book is kept, in order to know easily all the merchandizes that are lodged in the warehouse, those that are taken out of it, and those that remain therein. Its form is commonly long and narrow, as of a half-sheet of paper folded length-ways. Every page is ruled with transversal and parallel lines, about an inch distant from each other, with two other lines from top to bottom, the one next the margin, and the other next the sums.

Within the oblong squares formed by those lines, they write on the left page the volume of the merchandizes, that is to say, whether it be a bale, a chest, a tun, &c. their quality, as pepper, cloves, honey, soap, &c. and their quantity, or weight; and overagainst it, on the side of the margin, the numbers which the bales, chests, tuns, &c. are marked with as received into the warehouse.

On the right-hand they follow the same method for the discharge of the merchandizes which are sent out of the warehouse, putting overagainst each article on the left, first in the margin the date when the merchandizes were carried out of the warehouse; next in the oblong squares the names of those to whom they were sold or sent; and, finally, what quantity of each was sent out, in case the whole were not. Here follow the two models, the one of the left, the other of the right-hand page.

Left-hand page.			Right-hand page.		
No			1751		
1	One bale of white pepper weighing	400lb.	March 15	Sold to Charles Hayter	
2	A piece of crimson damask - yards	63			
3	A cask of cloves - weighing	284lb.	April 10	Sent to Myron of Orleans	
4	A chest of hollands	pieces 29	May 15	Sold to Watts - pieces	15
5	Etc.				

Book of Invoices. This book is kept to preserve the journal from erasures, which are unavoidable in drawing up the accounts of invoices of the several merchandizes, received, sent out, or sold, wherein one is obliged to enter very minute particulars; it is also designed to render those invoices easier to find than they can be in the waste-book, or journal. The invoices which must be entered here are those of the merchandizes bought, or sent away, for the account of another. Those of merchandizes which one sells by commission.

Those of such merchandizes as are in partnership, of which others have the management.

Lastly, all the accounts which are not immediately closed, and which one would not open on the ledger.

This book contains an account, or invoices, of all the goods which a person ships off, either for his own account, or for others in commission, according to the bills of lading, with the whole charges till on board, every invoice following after another, in order as they happen.

The invoice-book is only a copy of what is written in the waste-book in those cases.—After the date, the narration is to begin thus:—Shipped on board the ship N, A B master, bound for C, the following goods, &c. consigned to E F, for my account, or by order, and for the account, of G H.—Or it may be begun thus:—Invoice of goods shipped aboard, &c.

Book of Accounts current. This book is kept in the form of debtor and creditor, like the ledger; it serves to draw up the accounts which are to be sent to correspondents, in order to settle them in concert, before they are balanced in the ledger: it is properly a duplicate of the accounts current, which is kept to have recourse to occasionally.

Book of Commissions, Orders, or Advices. In this book are entered all the commissions, orders, and advices, a person receives from his correspondents.

The margins of this book ought to be very broad, that there be room to write over against each article the necessary notes, or remarks concerning their execution. Some do only cross each article, after it has been executed.

Book of Acceptances, or of Draughts. This book is designed as a register of all the bills of exchange, which our correspondents advise us by their letters they have drawn upon us.

They are thus registered, to the end that, when the bills are presented, a merchant may know whether he has orders to accept them, or not.

When a person will not accept a bill of exchange, he writes in the book of acceptances, against the article of that bill, a P, which signifies protest, that, when it comes to be presented to him, the bearer be told that he may protest it. If, on the contrary, he would accept the bill, he puts an A against the article, which signifies accepted, adding the date, or day of acceptance, in case the bill be at some days sight; and, after the articles have been transferred on the book in which are set down the days on which payments become due, it is cancelled.

Book of Remittances. In this book are registered all the bills of exchange, as they are remitted by the correspondents, to require the payment thereof, when due.

If they be protested for non-acceptance, and sent back to those who made the remittances, it must be mentioned against each article, by putting a P in the margin, with the date of the day on which they were sent back, and then they must be crossed: but, if the bills be accepted, they put an A against the articles; and the day on which they were accepted, if they be at some days sight; and, after they have been transferred on the book of the days of payment, they are crossed. There is so near a relation between the book of acceptances and that of remittances, that several merchants, bankers, and traders, make but one of those two, which they keep in the form of debtor and creditor, putting the acceptances, or draughts, on the debtor's side, and the remittances on the creditor's.

As the draughts are of two sorts, that is to say, that a merchant may draw bills of exchange on his correspondents, and his correspondents may reciprocally draw bills upon him; many merchants and bankers, besides the books of acceptances and remittances, just now mentioned, keep a third book, only for registering the bills which they draw upon others;

but most traders keep but one book for those two sorts of bills, that they may not too much multiply the number of auxiliary books.

Book of Expences, is a book in which is set down a particular account of all the expences, either in their household or for commercial affairs, which, at the end of every month, they cast up, and set down the sum total either in the waste-book or in the journal, or rather in the cash book.

This book, being a separate account of all the expences of living, serves to keep both the profit and loss account, and also the cash book, more distinct; the greater and more considerable articles are to be placed here particularly; but the several small articles of daily disbursements only in totals; though what denominations, and how general or particular the articles of this book ought to be made, must be left to every one's choice: all that is necessary to observe here is, that the cash paid out on such accounts must be carefully entered here; and then once a week, or month, be transferred to the cash-book, and to the profit and loss-account in the ledger, which is debtor to cash for it.

Book of Copies of Letters. This book serves to keep copies of all the letters relating to business, which a merchant writes to his correspondents, that he may have recourse to them upon occasion, and know exactly what he wrote, and what orders he gave to them.

Book of passage, is a small register, long and narrow, in which a merchant opens a particular account to each of his correspondents, of the postage paid for them; which is afterwards cast up, when he thinks proper, and they are entered in the journal and ledger accordingly.

Book of Vessels, or the Ship's-Book. This book is kept by the way of debtor and creditor, an account being opened for every ship. On the debtor's side are set down all the expences for victualling, fitting out, wages, &c. and, on the creditor's side, all that the ship has produced, either for freight or otherwise: the total of each is afterwards entered in the journal, making the vessel debtor and creditor.

Book of Workmen. This book is particularly used by those traders who have manufactures, and is kept in debtor and creditor, there being an account for every workman that is employed. On the debtor's side are set down the materials which are given to them for manufacturing, and on the creditor's side, the work which they bring home, after it is manufactured.

Bank-Book. Besides all the above mentioned books, in those cities where there is a public bank, as London, Venice, Hamburg, Amsterdam, the merchants who keep cash therein are obliged to keep a bank book, which is likewise kept by way of debtor and creditor. Herein they set down all the sums which they pay to, or receive from, the bank; by which means they can easily know, in a very little time, how they stand with the bank, that is to say, how much cash they have there.

The same may be observed with regard to those merchants or other persons, who keep their cash at a banker's, which is very much practised in London.

Month-Book. This also is one of the auxiliary books kept by some merchants. It is numbered in folios, like the ledger, and divided into spaces, on the top of each of which are the names of the 12 months in the year January, February, &c. allowing a whole folio, or what you please, to each month; and a different set of twelve spaces, for every different year. On the left-hand page enter the payments to be made to you in that month, and on the right-hand page the payments you are to make. Make a column likewise on the left-hand of every page, in which write the day of payment; and after this the name of the debtor or creditor, and draw the sum into the money columns: This does not differ much from the debt-book above mentioned.

All these books or writings, which merchants and traders have more or less occasion for, according as their trade is more or less extensive, are in the main, kept after the same manner in the chief trading towns in Europe; but not with regard to the coin, or money, every merchant regulating himself, in that respect, to the money which is current in the country where he is settled.

In France, the merchants and bankers keep their books in livres, sols, and deniers; Tournois; the livre is worth 20 sols, and the sol 12 deniers.

In Holland, Flanders, Zealand, and Brabant, they are kept in pounds (ponden) shillings (schellingen) and grots, groet, Flemish (vlaamsch) which are summed up by 20 and 12; because the pound is worth 20 schellingen, and the schelling 12 groot.

They also keep their books, in those countries, in guilders, stivers, and penningen, which are summed up by 20 and 16, because the guilder (gulde) is worth 20 stivers (stuivers) and the stiver 16 penningen.

It must be observed, that the pound grots, or Flemish, is worth six guilders, and the schelling (which the French call fol de grots) six stivers: so that the guilder is worth 40 groot, and the stiver two groot.

At Bergamo, they keep their books in lira's (livres) soldi (fols) and danari (deniers) which are summed up by 20 and by 12, because the lira, or livre, is worth 20 soldi, and the soldi 12 danari; the fums are afterwards reduced into ducats, of 7 livres of Bergamo.

At Bologna, the books are likewise kept in livres, fols, and deniers, which are also summed up by 20 and by 12, for the above-mentioned reason: but the fums are afterwards reduced into crowns, each of which is worth 85 fols of Bologna. At Genoa, they are kept after the same manner; but the fums are at last reduced into piafters of 96 fols each.

At Florence, in golden crowns, fols, and deniers; the crown is worth 7 livres and ten fols, and the fol 12 deniers.

At Leghorn, they keep their books in livres, fols and deniers, summed up by 20 and 12, for the like reasons; the fums are afterwards reduced into piafters of 6 livres.

At Messina, Palermo, and in all Sicily, they are kept in ounces, tarins, grains, and picoli, which are summed up by 30, by 20, and by 6, because 30 tarins make an ounce, 20 grains a tarin, and 6 picoli a grain.

At Milan, in livres, fols, and deniers, summed up by 20 and 12, for the reason so often mentioned.

At Rome, in livres, fols, and deniers of gold di stampa, which are likewise summed up by 20 and 12.

At Venice, in ducats and groffo's (grofs) bank money; 24 groffo's make a ducat; but this is particularly used for the bank.

They likewise keep their books there in livres, fols and deniers, de grofs, which are summed by 20 and 12, because the livre is worth 20 fols, and the fol 12 deniers; but it must be observed, that, according to this second method, the livre is worth 10 ducats.

They are also kept at Venice in current ducats, which differ 20 per cent. from the bank ducats.

At Ancona, in crowns, fols, and deniers; the crown being worth 20 fols, and the fol 12 deniers.

At Lucca, in livres, fols, and deniers; as also in crowns with 7 livres and 10 fols each.

At Novi, in crowns, fols, and deniers of gold of mark; the crown of gold of mark being worth 20 fols.

At Malta, in tarins, carlins, and grains; as also in sequins, and, as they call them there, in dieci tarini, or ten tarins.

P O L A N D, &c.

At Dantzick, and in all Poland, the books are kept in rix-dollars, grofs and deniers; which are summed up by 90 and by 12, because the rixdollar is worth 90 grofs, and the grofs 12 deniers.

They are likewise kept in that country in florins, grofs, and deniers, which are summed up by 60 and by 12, because the florin is worth 60 grofs, and the grofs 12 deniers.

They keep them moreover in livres, grofs and deniers, which they sum up by 30 and 12; the livre being worth 30 grofs, and the grofs 12 deniers.

G E R M A N Y, &c.

At Frankfort, Nuremburgh, and almost throughout all the empire, accounts are kept in florins, creutzers, and pennings or phenings, current, which are summed up by 60 and by 8, because the florin is worth 60 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

They keep them likewise at Frankfort in florins, creutzers, and pennings of exchange, which are summed up by 65 and by 8, because the florin is worth 65 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

At Hamburg, they are kept in marks, fols, and deniers lubs, which are summed up by 16 and by 12; the mark being worth 16 fols, and the fol 12 deniers lubs.

They keep them also at Hamburg after the same manner as in Holland.

At Augsburgh, in talers and creutzers; the taler is worth 90 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

At Bolzano, or Botzen, as at Augsburgh: and also in florins and creutzers, the florin being worth 60 creutzers.

At Naumburgh, in rixdollars, grofs, and fenins, the rixdollar being worth 24 grofs, and the grofs 12 fenins.

In Hungary, in golden hungars and femi-hungars.

At Strafburgh, in florins, creutzers, and pennings, a money of Alface.

At Berlin, and in part of the king of Prussia's dominions, in rixdollars, and in grochs, as also in florins.

In Sweden, in silver dollars, and in copper dollars.

In Denmark, in rixdollars, in hors, and in schellings.

In Muscovy, in rubles, in altins, and in grifs, or grives.

At Geneva, in livres, fols and deniers, as also in florins.

In Savoy, as at Geneva, but the florin differs.

At Raconi, in florins and in grofs.

In Switzerland, in florins, creutzers, and pennings.

S P A I N and P O R T U G A L.

At Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, and in all Spain, the books are kept in maravedis, 375 of which make a ducat.

They are also kept in Spain, in ryals of plate or silver, and in pieces of eight; 34 maravedis make such a rayal, and eight rayals are worth a piece of 8 piafters, or a rayal of 272 maravedis.

At Lisbon, the books are kept in rees, which are distinguished by hundreds, with comma's from the right to the left, and are reduced into mil-rees, or a thousand rees, each of which thousands make a Spanish pistole.

In England, Scotland, and Ireland, the books are kept in pounds, shillings, and pence sterling, which are also summed up by 20 and 12.

In the ports of the Levant, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seigneur, the books are kept in piafters, abouquels, and in aspers.

Book of Cargo, or Loading, is a book kept by the cap-merchant, or purser, on board a trading vessel, in which he enters all the merchandizes which compose the cargo of it's ship, either for freight only, or for sale, or exchange, according as they are sold in the places for which they are shipped, or delivered to those to whom they are directed, the whole as it is specified in the captain or master's bill of lading.

The method of keeping this book, is to write down apart, or by themselves, all the merchandizes that are to be sold, every one according to the place where it is to be disposed of; and also apart all those that are only taken in for freight, and those likewise according to the places and persons to whom they are directed.

There are commonly, on every page of this book, two columns on the left side, and three on the right; in the first on the left, they set down the mark of the bale or chest, and in the second it's numero. Over-against it, they write down the place where the merchandizes are to be sold, with an account of what merchandizes are contained in the bale or chest; they do the same with regard to such merchandizes as are only for freight: then they set down, in the three columns on the left, the fums which have been received either for sale or for freight.

They commonly set down the merchandizes for sale first, and next to them those for freight: an instance of an article in a book of cargo will be sufficient to make the reader understand how it is kept.

Model of a book of cargoes.

Book of cargo of the merchandizes shipped at Rochelle, the 6th of March, 1751, on board the Swallow frigate, Cofal maister, to be, with God's assistance, carried and redelivered to the places and persons for whom they are designed.

		Merchandizes for freight, for Cadiz		l.	s.	d.
P. D.	No. 15.	To be delivered to Mr Paul David, at Cadiz, a bale numbered and marked as per margin, containing 36 dozen of beaver-hats, rotions -		400		
		Merchandizes for sale for the Canaries.				
B. B.	No. 36.	A bale numbered and marked as per margin, containing 400 pieces of linnen cloth of Brittany, in exchange for wine of the country, hogheads -		60		

Books of cargo are looked upon as private writings only, and cannot have the same authority as bills of lading, charter-parties, invoices, and such other writings, to serve as vouchers for a ship's cargo.

This difference, in France, has been adjudged by a decree of the king's council, given the 21st of January, 1693, by which his majesty declares as a lawful prize several bales of merchandizes, which had been shipped on board the Redeemer, taken by a French privateer, which merchandizes were only registered in a book of cargo, which was the only book on board: his majesty declaring, that it could not supply the want of an invoice, of a charter-party, and of a bill of lading, none of which were to be found on board. So that, notwithstanding the claim of a French merchant, the merchandizes were sold for the profit of the privateer, except the tenth part, which was remitted to the high admiral, to which it belonged.

These books, together with the bills of lading, charter-parties, and other papers and vouchers, are what they call the writings of a merchant-ship.

By the 9th article of the first title of the ordonnance of Lewis XIV, concerning the four great farms, made in February 1687, all captains and masters of ships are obliged to declare at the office, the nearest to the place into which they put, for what port their merchandizes are designed, and, for that purpose, to produce and shew to the commissioner their books of cargo, bills of lading, charter-party, &c. See BILL OF LADING, CHARTER-PARTY.

From this description of the use of those distinct books, an idea may be formed, that the intention and result of the whole is to exhibit to a trader, at all times, the true state of his affairs; than which, nothing can be a greater preservative against misfortunes in trade.

The book wherein this representation of a trader's concerns is to be seen, is called the ledger; by reason that herein are digested, in a collective light, all the principal heads of his accounts, by way of charge and discharge, according to the nature of the transaction: and, if every account in this summary book is duly debited and credited, as reason requires, for what it ought to be, there is no great difficulty to comprehend, that the balance of every distinct account will justly and truly shew the state of such account, and, if also the balance of every particular account is just and true, the general balance of the whole cannot be false.

To persons, who are unacquainted with the Italian method of accountanship, or the method by double entry, or by way of charge and discharge, suitably to the nature of the occurrences, this multiplicity of books may so perplex and bewilder them, as to render this art a very mystical matter; whereas it depends upon the plainest principles of reason, and therefore can be no way difficult, if those principles are attended to.

That the art is extremely easy, I have endeavoured to shew under the article of **BANKING**; where I have, upon a single sheet, exemplified the fundamental principles of the whole mystery: and, if the familiar explanation thereof which I have given, be well understood, the application of those principles to any other purposes may be made without difficulty. For, as it has been shewn, that all the other books are only auxiliary, or preparatory to this grand and principal book, wherein all transactions are entered in miniature; so, if the reason of the entries in this be thoroughly understood, the use and nature of the subservient and inferior books will be so of course. For it is this book alone, which can teach the art, it being the essential. The others may vary in their number, and in their method of keeping, according to the business wherein a trader may be concerned; but this book must never vary from the laws and principles of true reason, whereupon the science is bottomed.

And, although I have given a description of the use of the divers books generally to be met with in a merchant's counting-house of any degree of eminence; yet, I have only done this, in compliance to the ordinary way of giving instructions in this art; for 'tis my opinion, that the nature and foundation of the ledger should be first taught, and the use of all books preparatory thereunto (be they ever so numerous, according to the peculiar circumstances of a trader's business) will, with all desirable ease, be thoroughly comprehended.

The accountant, who keeps the principal books in mercantile business of consequence, always considers the effects of his journal entries in the ledger, before he states them; that naturally leading him to fall upon the true debtors and creditors in stating of his journal, previously to the posting from thence into the ledger: for, if the necessary consequence of every entry into the ledger is not weighed and understood by the book-keeper, this journal can never be rightly stated; and therefore, the ledger can never give a just representation of a trader's negotiations.

Wherefore, whoever would be fundamentally grounded in that excellent art of book-keeping by double entry, should first study the nature of the ledger, and not be perplexed with any other book till he becomes thoroughly acquainted with that: for the peculiar forms of ever so great a multitude of other books will be as soon understood as seen, and may be kept by any hackney writer, as well as by the ablest book-keeper, or accountant; and a thorough-paced accountant (especially in the mercantile way, which admits of a surprising variety of transactions in large and extensive business) is no low or contemptible character, notwithstanding there are so many who unmeritedly call themselves so.

Having given a short state of a banker's ledger only, under the article of **BANKING**, according to the currency of the ordinary transactions of that branch of business, it may be useful to the reader, in order the more intelligibly to explain my meaning, to illustrate the very same transactions, by giving him an idea of ranging them in the various auxiliary books, previously necessary to their being transferred into the ledger; and then he will experience, I am persuaded, that the easiest and shortest method to become skilled in this art, is to be master of the ledger, before he is put to understand the forms of other books. For, as the ledger is the accountanship-result of all the other books, so the imagined re-conversion of that book into all the rest will shew the difference of the method proposed; and the vulgar one that is practised.

Let it be supposed, then, that these transactions of banking were entered, as they occurred, in the several books appropriated for the divers occasions: as,

1. That they are entered in the waste-book, in the natural and promiscuous order as they happened daily to arise, as is done in the mercantile way.

2. That they should be from thence journalized, or stated in the due form of debtor and creditor, according to the reason of such occurrences.

3. That what relates to the cash-account, should again be separated into a daily or weekly cash-book.

4. That a distinct book was kept for bills of exchange, and another for promissory notes.

5. That another was kept for the dealings in stocks, and another for bottomries; and in the like manner particular books for other parts of the business.—This being supposed to be the case, there can be no difficulty to conceive, that the sole design of all these books is to terminate in an accurate ledger, in order always to exhibit the true state of the banker's affairs, in relation to every branch thereof.

Now the art of the accountant consists in judging of the result and consequence of every thing, as it shall appear in the ledger-form; otherwise, it is not possible that he should be able to keep the accounts accurately. For, although he should keep no grand ledger at all, yet, if he does not keep his cash-account in that form, by way of charge and discharge; and the several other distinct accounts also; such books will always be in confusion, and can never be duly ballanced, 'till they are reduced into that form from the waste-book or journal, and what other books may contain the whole of a trader's negotiations.

From what has been observed, it cannot but be obvious enough, I apprehend, that as the great end, and design in the business of book-keeping, is the stating of a ledger in an exact and accurate manner; so the perfect knowledge hereof should be the first, and not the last thing, which the accountant is made acquainted with. For, if he knows how to form a general ledger under the most accurate and concise heads, a knowledge of the form of all other books, preliminary or auxiliary thereunto, will, as observed, so soon be understood as viewed. Nay, when a person is capable of stating the ledger with judgment, in regard to any kind of transactions, he will, with no less judgment, adapt the number, as well as the form, of all the preparatory books thereunto.

'Tis necessary, absolutely necessary, we allow, that all the forms of accountanship should be duly adhered to; but, as we would convey the essence, and not the form of the art only, we have thought proper to point that out to our readers. The great difficulty in accountanship, according to the method of double entry, consisting in the properly stating of the ledger, it will be expected that we should lay down the principles of reason, upon which the same is founded. This we shall do, but not 'till we come to the article of **MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP**; where we shall have occasion to illustrate the principles by so great a variety of practical occurrences, that any one may become a complete master of this useful science, and apply the same to whatever public or private occasions he may require.

We desire, therefore, that what we have said here, in regard to this matter, as also under the articles of **ACCOUNTANTSHIP**, and our **REMARKS ON BANKRUPTS**, and the examples we have given with respect to the business of **BANKING**, may be all looked upon as introductory to the article of **MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP**; and what we shall say under that head, as preparatory to the understanding of the **NATIONAL ACCOUNTS**; where we shall endeavour to demonstrate, how easily this admirable art is also applicable to the accounts of nations, as well as to those of private persons; and what confused and bewildered notions persons of the first distinction have had of these things, for want of being able to state the accounts of this nation in particular, in so familiar and so accurate a manner as this method will admit of.

And, as the knowledge of the money-affairs of this kingdom is of so high concernment to the interest of land and trade, we humbly hope, that what we shall suggest upon that topic, will be as cordially received by our nobility and gentry, as it is zealously intended for the general benefit and advantage.

BOOK OF RATES. This is a book established by parliament, shewing at what value goods that pay poundage, shall be reckoned at the custom-house. See **CUSTOMS, DUTY, TUNNAGE, POUNDAGE.**

The book of rates annexed to the act of tunnage and poundage, made in the 12th year of King Charles II. is the foundation of all subsequent custom-house duties which have been laid since, and is subscribed with the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimstone, then speaker of the house of commons. An additional book of rates of goods and merchandizes usually imported, and not particularly rated in the former, with rules, orders, &c. is signed by Spencer Compton, Esq; speaker of the house of commons, 11 Geo. I. c. 7. See at the end of every **LETTER** in this Dictionary, concerning the **BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.**

BOOKBINDER, he who binds books. The company of binders and gilders of books, in the city and suburbs of Paris,

is very modern; though their profession is very ancient. 'Till the month of August 1686, these workmen were of the body of bookfellers, and carried on the book trade together with them; some had even printing-houfes. This union, which had continued many centuries, was broke by two edicts of Lewis XIV; one of which contains regulations for the printers and bookfellers, and the other erects the bookbinders and gilders into a distinct company or corporation.

When the body of bookfellers was first established, there were but two bookbinders and two book-gilders, who were stiled colourers (enlumineurs.) The invention of the art of printing, by which the number of bookfellers was considerably increased, did, in consequence thereof, increase that of the bookbinders and gilders; and these two professions, which made but one company, were soon confounded, the book-binder becoming a bookfeller, and the bookfeller exercising the art of bookbinding.

By the edicts of the year 1686, which were designed to reform that abuse, and prevent it for the future, the bookfellers, printers, and letter-founders, were continued one company, and the bookbinders and gilders were erected into a new company, having their own wardens, and particular statutes.

We shall give hereafter an account of the statutes of the bookfellers and printers company. See **BOOKSELLER**. And we shall, in this place, present the reader with an extract of the most important regulations, which relate to the bookbinders and gilders.

By the above-mentioned edict, given at Versailles in August, 1686, and registered in the parliament of Paris the 7th of September following, the king orders:

1. That the company of the master-bookbinders and gilders shall, for the future, be entirely separated from the company of bookfellers and printers, so as that these two companies may never be again united and incorporated together.

2. That the profession of bookbinders and gilders shall continue erected into a mastership, and the masters united into one body corporate, to be governed according to the regulations and statutes prescribed to them by this same edict.

3. That they who follow together the two professions of bookfelling and bookbinding, shall be obliged to chuse either, and to continue afterwards in that company which they shall have chosen, according to the cases and circumstances which are set forth and explained in that edict.

4. Lastly, That the master bookbinders and gilders shall still be reputed and reckoned as members of the university of Paris, and as such enjoy all the privileges, which they lawfully and justly enjoyed before. That they shall make but one brotherhood with the master bookfellers and printers, but nevertheless they shall not be summoned to the assemblies, nor be present at the election and nomination of the syndic and assistants of the bookfellers company; but, on the day next following that election, they shall meet and chuse, by a majority of voices, the wardens of their own company.

The master-bookbinders pretended that the merchant-mercens, and other freemen of corporations who trade in paper, had not the right to keep by them several of those tools, or instruments, particularly those which serve for the beating, cutting and binding of books; but, by a decree of the parliament of Paris, made towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, the stationers have been kept in possession of the beating-stone and hammer, of the cutting-press, and of the sewing-press, on condition, nevertheless, that they shall not bind any register but with square backs; those with round backs, as belonging to the bookfellers trade, must be bound by the bookbinders only.

BOOKSELLER, one who trades in books, whether he prints them himself, or gives them to be printed by others. See **BOOK-TRADE**.

BOOKSELLER Foreign, or Alien, one who comes into a town, or city, which is not his usual dwelling-place, to sell, dispose of or exchange books, which he caused to be printed elsewhere, or caused to be brought from foreign countries.

At Paris no alien-bookfeller is allowed to keep a shop, warehouse, or printing-houfe, nor to cause bills of his books to be posted up, either by himself or by factors, or any other persons, nor even to expose and sell them at the fairs of St Germain and St Laurence.

They have liberty, however, to sell or exchange them, provided it be done in the syndical chamber, or hall, of the bookfellers and printers company, after their books have been there visited, and on condition that they shall not continue there above three weeks, reckoning from the day of the opening and visiting their books for the disposal of them.

The new regulation concerning bookfelling and printing, of the 28th of February, 1723, made but very little alterations in the three articles which compose the title of foreign bookfellers, in the regulation of 1686. The only statute of policy, added to it, is to be met with in the second article. By that statute, the foreign bookfellers are ordered to keep

their books for sale within the university, as is expressed in the 12th article, and no where else, and to declare to the syndic and assistants of the bookfellers company the places where they shall keep them. See the next **ARTICLE**.

BOOK-TRADE, the trade of those who deal in books.

The bookfellers and printers at Paris make but one corporation, or company, under the name of the Body of bookfellers; to which are continued united, in France, the master-letter-founders, by the edict of Lewis XIV, given in August, 1686; and from which body were separated the bookbinders and gilders, by an edict of the same king, given the same month and year, whereby they were erected into a distinct company.

We mention hereafter the letter-founders, and we have given above an account of the bookbinders. See **LETTER-FOUNDER** and **BOOKBINDER**.

There are, among others, the regulations made in France in 1650, 1663, 1670, 1671, 1686, 1703, 1704, and 1713, besides a vast number of decrees of the council, serving either to explain the ancient statutes, or to establish some new ones.

The four last regulations, and particularly the edict given in August, 1686, and registered in the parliament of Paris the 21st of the same month, and the declaration of the 23d of October, 1713, and registered the 26th, given as an explanation of that edict, ought to be considered as true statutes of the company of bookfellers, 'till those which have been offered to the king's council by the bookfellers and printers, and partly agreed upon amongst them in several conferences, received the royal authority by a new edict, or declaration.

We shall give here an extract of that edict of 1686, corrected where it may be necessary, by the articles of the declaration which explains it, or by the other declarations and decrees of the council given since.

This edict, in the form of a regulation, contains 69 articles, brought under 15 titles; these titles are as follow:

Of the franchises, exemptions, and immunities, of the bookfellers and printers of Paris.

Of the bookfellers and printers in general.]

Of apprentices.

Of journeymen.

Of the admission of masters, or freemen.

Of the widows.

Of the correctors.

Of hawkers of books.

Of foreign bookfellers.

Of syndics, assistants, and masters of the brotherhood.

Of the visitation, and the syndical chamber.

Of libels, and prohibited books.

Of the privileges, or licences, for printing books.

Finally, of the inventories, appraising, and sales, of the stock of bookfellers and printers.

The bookfellers, printers, and the letter-founders, who with them compose the body of the traders in books, are reckoned to belong to the body, and to be members of the university, being entirely distinct and separated from the mechanic arts; and in that quality they enjoy all the rights, franchises, and prerogatives, which the rector, master, and scholars of the said university are used to enjoy.

There are at the head of this company a syndic and four assistants; the company, being assembled, chuse them by election, and by a majority of votes. The election of a syndic is made but every other year, and that of the assistants every year, but of two only at once, in the room of two ancient ones who go out of the office. The day of the election is fixed on the 8th of May, and the number of the electors to 16 persons, who are summoned from among the bookfellers and printers, besides the syndic and the assistants. The election is made in the presence of the lieutenant-general of the police, and of the king's attorney-general, at the Chatelet.

There was an equality kept between the bookfellers and the printers, by the edict of 1686, in regard to the right of election, and to the number of persons summoned; but the vast disproportion between the number of the former and that of the latter, (there being but 36 printers, and much above 200 bookfellers) occasioned an explication to be made of the declaration of the year 1713, in the seventh article of which it is ordered, that there shall be chosen for the future but one assistant from among the printers every other year; and that but four printers and 12 bookfellers shall be summoned for the elections.

The syndic is entrusted with the administration of the money and effects belonging to the company, and the two last assistants are the administrators of the brotherhood.

The visitations both general and particular are made by the syndics and assistants; the general ones every three months, and the others as often as they think it necessary.

The visitation of the books imported from abroad (which are all carried to the syndical chamber, by virtue of the 58th article of the edict, the execution whereof has also been ordered by a sentence of the lieutenant-general of the police, given the

the 6th of June, 1698) ought to be done, at least, by three persons from among the syndic and the assistants: the days appointed to make it are Tuesdays and Fridays, at 2 in the afternoon.

In those visitations, all libels against the honour of God, and the welfare and quiet of the state, and all books printed either within or without the kingdom, in breach of the regulations, or privileges, ought to be stopped, even with the merchandizes that might happen to be in the bales with such libels, or other prohibited books.

Not only the visitation of the books which are carried to Paris by foreign printers, or bookfellers, or from the provinces, to be sold or exchanged there, ought to be performed in the syndical chamber; but even the sale, or exchange, of those books ought to be done there in the presence of the said syndic and assistants.

Lastly the officers of this company, besides the visitations made at their brethren's houses and shops, have also the right to visit, or seize, those of the sellers of marbled paper, printfellers, and dealers in printed paper for hangings, who, by the 61st article, are forbidden to keep at home any letters proper for printing books.

Apprentices, who must not be married people, are obliged to serve at least four years following, and afterwards three other years as journey-men, with any freeman of the company. None can be admitted an apprentice, unless he be versed in the Latin tongue, of which he is to produce a certificate from the rector of the university.

A printer who has but two presses can take but one apprentice: the others may have two. As for the bookfellers, they can bind but one apprentice at a time: but the sixth article of the declaration of 1713, which orders that every printer shall have at least four presses, seems to have made void that difference of one or two apprentices for printers.

The sons of freemen are not obliged to undergo any apprenticeship; and, if they have the requisite qualifications, they ought to be admitted upon their first application: this, however, is liable to some exceptions, as shall be observed hereafter.

The qualifications requisite to be made free, besides the apprenticeship and service for those who are obliged to it, is, that they be full 20 years old, natural-born Frenchmen, skilled in the Latin tongue, and able to read Greek.

He who sues for his freedom, ought to have a certificate from two other freemen of the company, declaring that he is capable to follow the profession of a printer or bookfeller, which is to be understood, according to the interpretation given in the 4th article of the declaration of 1713, that the son, or apprentice, of a bookfeller, who would be admitted a freeman-bookfeller, must have a certificate signed by two bookfellers only; and the son, or apprentice, of a printer, in the same case, shall have a certificate from two freemen-printers only; and, if any would be printers and bookfellers at the same time, they must have certificates from two bookfellers and two printers.

According to the 3d article of the declaration of 1713, the sons of freemen-printers, who follow only the business of printers, ought to serve a whole year with a bookfeller at Paris, or two years with a country bookfeller, before they can be admitted bookfellers. In the like case, apprentices are to serve two years at Paris, or three years in the provinces: which must also be observed, in similar circumstances, by the sons, or apprentices, of bookfellers, who would be made free printers.

Journey-men who marry the widow, or daughter, of a freeman, are admitted as freemen's sons.

Widows, who continue such, enjoy all the privileges of their late husband's freedom, except that they cannot bind new apprentices, but only keep those they have till their time be out. The number of printers is fixed at 36, whose places, in case of a vacancy, cannot be filled up but by printers sons, or by such as have a right from their regular apprenticeship.

The number of bookfellers is not determined; but they are not allowed to admit above one freeman a year, besides freemen's sons and sons-in-law. In such an admission they prefer him whose name has been first set down in the register by the syndic and assistants.

Every one of the 36 printers, who, by the 2d article of the regulation of the year 1686, might have two presses only belonging to him, is now obliged, by the 6th article of the declaration of 1713, to have at least four presses, and eight different sets of Roman letters, with their Italics, from the great canon to the pearl; nor can several printers enter into partnership for the same printing-house.

The bookfeller-printers, who keep a printing-house, or bookfeller's-shop, ought to keep them within the quarter only, in the same place, and not separately. The bookfellers, who are not printers, may keep their shops within the palace, or the court of Justice-Hall, unless they confine themselves to the selling of primers only, and other small prayer-books, in which case they may live in the neighbourhood of the palace, and in the street of Notre-Dame.

The 11th article of the edict of 1686, which contains those

regulations concerning the dwelling places of the printers and bookfellers, does also determine the limits, or bounds, of what is called the quarter of the university.

All the printers and bookfellers who print, or cause to be printed, any books, are obliged to put their names and marks to them, to take out privileges, or licences, under the great seal, to print these privileges entirely, at the beginning or end of each copy, and to have it also registered at length, as likewise the cession they make of them, in the register of the syndical chamber.

However, it is not necessary, it is even forbidden, to obtain such licences for petitions, cases, &c. We give in another place a full account of all that relates to this subject. See LICENCE.

After several alterations which happened in the book-trade with regard to the number of copies which bookfellers and printers are obliged to deliver to some libraries, or to the syndical chamber, at every impression they make of books, the declaration of Lewis XIV. of the 6th of October, 1703, fixed them to eight, to be distributed as the reader will see in the article COPIES of authors for Printing.

The declaration of 1713 does likewise oblige to it all engravers and printfellers, with regard to such books as contain figures, cuts, maps, &c. See COPIES.

It belongs to the bookfellers and printers only to make an inventory of, or to appraise, printing-houses and books, which are to be exposed to sale. And the presses and letters belonging to a printing-house cannot be sold, nor carried off, without leave from the lieutenant-general of the police, and only in the presence of the syndic and assistants, who ought to keep a register of them, upon which they, to whom they have been sold or adjudged, are obliged to write that they take them for their account, upon pain of forfeiture and a fine.

The bookfellers and printers, as members of the university, and on account of the excellency of their art, having been always separated and distinct from the mechanic arts, their company was comprized in the list drawn up in council for the execution of the edict of Lewis XIV, by which were created, or erected, officers of masters and wardens, syndics and jurats, for the bodies of the merchants, and for the companies of arts and trades: but, a new creation of auditors in those bodies and companies being made in 1694, the company of bookfellers, who, through inadvertency, were inserted in the new list, against their privileges, was, as it were, forced to pay a considerable sum, which they were obliged to borrow, to get rid of the vexations they suffered from the king's farmer.

Finally, in 1703, the bookfellers and printers, being again prosecuted for several taxes laid on the other companies by the edicts of 1701 and 1702, they obtained a full and absolute discharge by a declaration made in October, 1703; and the sums paid by them, till that time, into the king's coffers, were declared to be instead of the augmentation of what they were to pay for the confirmation of their rights and privileges. By the same declaration, the number of copies to be delivered to the syndical chamber was increased to eight, and the fees for visitations and admittance of freemen were also considerably increased, in order to indemnify the company of bookfellers for the large sums they had borrowed, to pay the arrears, and to reimburse them by degrees.

We do not mention here the correctors of the press, hawkers of books, foreign bookfellers, the syndical chamber, nor several other things relating to this, of which mention is made in several articles of the regulation of 1686, because we give an account of them under their proper heads, to which the reader may have recourse.

Regulations concerning the book-trade and printing, at Paris, resolved in the king's council of state, the 28th of February, 1723.

The new regulations, that were to determine the disputes which arose continually between the bookfellers and printers, being at last put into a proper form, his majesty, in order to secure the execution of them, issued a declaration, dated the 10th of December, 1720. But, though these regulations had been drawn up and examined with a great deal of care, yet, when they were brought to the parliament, with the customary sealed letters, to be there registered, there were found reasons to make several observations, by which it appeared that a great many articles wanted some alterations; besides which, several abuses that had been introduced among those who carry on the business of bookfelling and printing, required to be redressed by some new regulations. These considerations determined his majesty to call in his declaration, that these regulations might be amended, and again presented to his council, to be approved there. It was at last resolved; on the 28th of February, 1723, and published with the title of Regulations for the bookfellers and printers of Paris.

These regulations, by virtue of a decree of the king's council of state, made that 19th of June the same year, and agreeably to an ordonnance of the lieutenant-general of the police, whom the king charged to see them executed, were read

read and registered in the syndical chambers of the bookfellers and printers of Paris, the 13th of October following. These new regulations contain 120 articles, whereas those of the year 1686 had only 69. As to the titles, there is but one added, which is that of subscriptions, which they have put the third, in the room of that of letter-founders, which is now the eleventh. We shall give no account here of that new title, referring it to the article of SUBSCRIPTIONS. As for the articles either added or amended, we shall just run them over, and, to avoid tiresome repetitions, we shall say nothing of those that do not differ from the articles of the regulations of the year 1686:

The first article confirms the exemption granted to the company in 1703, of being free from loans, taxes, levies, subsidies, &c. already laid, or to be laid hereafter, on arts and trades, of which his majesty excepts, distinguishes, and intirely separates this company.

By the second, all books, either manuscript, printed, or engraved, bound or unbound, old or new, books of prints and geographical maps, whether they come from foreign countries, or from the cities and provinces of the kingdom, or be exported out of the kingdom, as also cast letters and characters for printing either old or new; and the ink serving to print, coming from foreign countries, or from the cities and provinces of the kingdom, are free from all duties of the custom-house, tolls, bridge-duties, &c. according to the edicts and declarations of his majesty's predecessors: and, to the end that the above-mentioned merchandizes may enjoy the said exemption.

It is ordered, by the third article, that on each parcel, bale, tun, &c. there be a declaration in these words, books, cast letters, printing-ink, &c.

By the fourth article, all persons, of what quality or condition soever they be, except bookfellers and printers, are forbidden to carry on the trade of books, or to have any printing presses at their houses. This article is the same with the sixth of the regulations of 1686, but very much enlarged. The fifth, sixth, seventh, and eight articles are only the sequel of the fourth, and relate to the buying and selling of old papers, old parchments, and old books, by the wives and widows of bookbinders, bookfellers, and printers. They also regulate in what books the merchant-mercens may trade, which was the subject of the 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, and 16th articles of the preceding regulations of 1686.

By the 14th article all bookfellers, who, at the same time, carry on the business of printers, are obliged to put up a bill, or sign, declaring that they keep a printing-house; nor are they to set it up at any place but where their printing-house actually is.

The 23d article declares that no bookfeller, or printer, shall take above one apprentice at a time: they may, however, take a second, when the last year of the first is begun.

The 44th article, which relates to the admission of freemen, is the most important of all in these new regulations, and deserves to be given here at length.

The 44th article of the regulations of 1723, concerning the admission of freemen.

As it is of very great importance that they who follow the profession of printing and bookfelling be endowed with a sufficient capacity and experience, his majesty orders that the sons and sons-in-law of freemen, as well as the apprentices who shall have finished their time, and served the masters as journeymen, before they obtain their freedom as bookfellers or printers, besides the certificate of the rector of the university, be moreover obliged to undergo an examination, to wit, they who would become bookfellers, an examination on the trade of books; and they who would be admitted printers, after being examined on the book-trade, shall undergo a trial of their capacity with regard to printing, and the things relating thereunto: which examinations they shall be obliged to undergo in the presence of the syndics and assistants in office, attended by four ancient officers of their company, two of whom must be printers and two bookfellers; and by two other bookfellers and two other printers, who have not yet bore any office in the company, but have been at least 10 years free of it. These eight examiners shall be drawn by lot by the candidate, both out of the number of the ancient officers, and from among such bookfellers and printers who have at least 10 years freedom. These said examiners, thus chosen, his majesty orders to meet with the syndics and assistants, at the syndical chamber, to proceed all together, by way of scrutiny to the said examination and trial, which examination is to continue two hours at least; nor the candidate be admitted to his freedom, unless he have two thirds of the votes in his favour. The syndic and assistants shall take immediately a verbal process of the whole proceedings: and, for the fees of their attendance, the syndic, and each of the assistants, as well as every one of the examiners, shall have six medals, worth six livres tournois, which shall be distributed to them by the candidate.

It is ordered by the 45th article, which is but a sequel of the foregoing, that every candidate for the bookfellers trade, who shall be found to have the requisite qualifications, shall

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be admitted by the syndic and assistants, upon paying the sum of 1000 livres, to be employed for the company's occasions: and every candidate for the printer's business shall pay 1500 livres, with this difference, that the latter shall not be admitted but by virtue of a decree of the council; given by the advice of the lieutenant-general of the police, sent to the keeper of the seals.

It is also ordered, that, if a person who shall have been admitted a bookfeller, comes after to be admitted to the freedom of a printer, he shall be obliged, besides the 1000 livres abovementioned, to pay the sum of 500 livres. The fees for attendance, to be paid by the candidates, are the same for bookfellers and printers; namely, 12 silver medals to the syndic, six to each of the assistants, and two to each of the ancients.

By the 46th article, the fees for the admission of freemen's sons are settd, namely, at 600 livres for bookfellers, and 900 livres for printers, which fees are also to be paid by such journeymen who, after having finished their apprenticeship, shall marry a freeman's daughter or widow; with this condition, nevertheless, that such freemen's sons, or sons-in-law, or they who marry freemen's widows, shall undergo the examination, and observe all the formalities abovementioned.

The 48th article grants to the freemen of Paris the right of going to dwell, and carry on the bookfellers trade, in all the cities and other places of the kingdom, by only producing their letters of freedom, and causing them to be registered at the ordinary court of justice kept in those places.

The six following articles treat only of the printers, and order,

1. The execution of all the articles of the ancient regulations made with regard to printing, particularly those of 1686. in all the articles which are not abrogated by these present regulations. 2. That the preference formerly granted to the sons and sons-in-law of printers, of being admitted in their stead, shall no longer subsist, and that they shall not be preferred, unless they be at least of an equal merit with their competitors: 3. That every candidate to the freedom, who, upon examination, shall be found to have the requisite qualifications, shall be obliged to have a printing-house, with four printing-presses at least, and nine sorts, or sizes, of Roman letters, with their Italics, as it is explained in the 51st article, of which presses and letters an inventory shall be made by the syndic and assistants. 4. That no printer shall lend to any candidate any presses, cases, or letter, upon pain of forfeiting the same, and losing his freedom; nor shall any candidate borrow them. 5. That the printers already admitted, whose printing-houses are not completely furnished, according to what is ordered above, shall furnish them thoroughly within three months: in default of which they shall be obliged to sell them within the course of two years. 6. Lastly, the printing-houses which shall have been found completely furnished at the general visitation ordered by the regulations, shall afterwards be constantly kept so.

The title of the letter-founders contain 13 articles, namely, from the 57th to the 69th, inclusively; but, as we give a full account of them in another place, we shall only refer to it here. See FOUNDER of letters.

The title of the hawkers of books contains six articles, which are the 69th to the 74th, inclusively.

There are but three articles relating to foreign bookfellers, viz. the 75th, 76th, and 77th. See BOOKSELLER Foreign. The declaration of the year 1713, which altered the regulations made in 1686, with regard to the election of a syndic and assistants, have been again amended by the regulations of the year 1723.

By the first article of that title, which is the 78th of these regulations, it is ordered, that the company shall proceed, according to custom, every year, on the 8th of May, to the election of two assistants, in the room of those who, after two years service and functions in the said office, ought to go out of it; that every other year, on the same day, a syndic shall be chosen, who shall be taken out of the number of ancient assistants, on condition, nevertheless, that a syndic shall be chosen alternately from among the said ancient assistant-bookfellers, or assistant-printers; or, at least, that the syndic's place shall not be filled up above twice following by a person chosen out of the number of the ancient bookfellers, or ancient printers: and that, when the syndic shall be a printer, there shall be but one assistant following the profession of a printer, so as that, of the five officers that compose the board, there be always two freemen following the printer's business.

It is also ordered, by the 79th article, that, of the 16 persons summoned for the election, there be eight printers.

The articles 90, 91, and 92, contain wise precautions to prevent the importation of books, either prohibited, or printed against the statutes, as also the importation of cast letters for printing, which might be introduced fraudulently, and serve not only for printing spurious, pirated, or counterfeit editions, but likewise for printing libels, or works against religion, or the public tranquillity.

By the first of these three articles, all drivers, and masters, and leaders of coaches, carts, waggons, &c. and all other carriages by land or by water, in which are carried to Paris

bales of books, prints, or cast letters, are forbidden to deliver them as directed, or to unload them in the neighbourhood of that city, and all private persons are forbidden to receive any. His majesty orders that such bales shall be carried to the custom-house, or delivered, upon a note signed by the syndic, or by two of his assistants, to be carried to the syndical chamber, under the penalty of a fine of 1000 livres, and even of corporal punishment, if they should commit the same fault again: and, if there be found in any such carriages, books, prints, or cast letters, which were not declared by the leaders of the carriages, or if any such be carried clandestinely through by-places, they shall be stopped, and notice of it shall be immediately given to the syndic and assistants, who shall take care of them, upon the verbal process of the officers and clerks of the custom-house.

The second of these three articles does likewise forbid all inspectors and overseers of the custom-house at Paris, as also the waiters, or clerks, employed at the gates and bars, and all masters of coaches, carriers, messengers, and others, to deliver any bale, parcel, or chest of books and prints, to any person of what quality soever he be; and this is to be observed, notwithstanding all decrees, orders, permissions, and even the 6th article of the decree of the council of the 11th of September, 1720, containing regulations for the king's library; upon pain for the offenders to answer for it in their own proper name, to pay a fine of 500 livres, and to lose their places.

Finally, by the third of those three articles, his majesty appoints the cities at which it shall henceforth be lawful to import books and pamphlets. These cities are Paris, Roan, Nantz, Bourdeaux, Marseilles, Lyons, Strafburgh, Metz, Amiens and Lisle.

The same article, providing for the security of the books, as they are carried through the several offices of the kingdom, forbids all directors, clerks, wardens, and others employed in the said offices, to open, visit, or stop any bales, packs, parcels, &c. of books, prints, or cast letters, coming from foreign countries, or from the provinces of the kingdom, to the city of Paris, and orders that they shall suffer them to pass to the place they are designed for, upon security being given by the person who sent the bales, &c. of which the carriers, &c. are to take a receipt; namely for bales coming from foreign countries, at the first custom-house as they enter the kingdom; and, for the others, at the custom-house of the place whence the bales, &c. are sent, or, if there be none, at the next custom-house, where the bales and parcels shall be marked with lead, and the receipt given to the carriers registered.

The 97th article relates to the dealers in marbled paper. See the article *MARBLD PAPER*.

The 98th article orders that all merchandizes relating to the book-trade, which shall be seized for any offence against these regulations, shall be deposited in the syndical chamber of the company of bookfellers and printers; the syndic and assistants shall take upon themselves the care of them, by virtue of the verbal process concerning the seizures, to keep them without any fee or expence, 'till a sentence be pronounced upon the said seizures: nor shall those merchandizes be transported to any other place, nor committed to the care of any other keeper or officer.

The title or the privileges, or licences, for the printing of books, contains 11 articles, the first of which is the 101st, and the last the 112th. They are partly new, and partly extracted from the regulation of the year 1686.

A decree of the king's council of state of the 10th of April, 1725, containing regulations concerning the printing and sale of books.

It seemed that the foregoing regulations, in which the king's council entered into such minute particulars, should have sufficiently provided against all that might disturb the good order of a company so necessary to the state, and to the sciences. But his majesty being informed that the negligence of several bookfellers and printers, and the covetousness of some, had given rise to several new abuses, which raised the complaints of the public, and did a very great prejudice to the trade of books printed in France; that even some of the said bookfellers, having got leave to receive subscriptions for the printing of some works, had not fulfilled the engagements they were entered into with the public; that others, having obtained a renewal of the licence for books already printed, made no other use of it but to prevent other bookfellers from getting leave to print the said book: his majesty being willing to provide against all this, caused four new articles to be drawn up, to serve as a supplement to the regulations of the 28th of February, 1723: to wit,

I. That, for the future, nor licence, nor permission, for printing new books, or for making new editions of books already printed, shall be delivered, unless there be presented, at the same time, two printed sheets, as a specimen of the paper and letter the printer designs to make use of, which printed sheets must be approved by the keeper of the seals; the one to be annexed to the counter-seal of the licence, and the other to be deposited in the syndical chamber, where the said li-

cence shall be registered; these sheets to serve as a specimen, by which the whole edition shall be examined by the syndic and assistants of the bookfellers company, in the presence of a person appointed for that purpose by the keeper of the seals, before the books be exposed to sale, upon pain of forfeiting all the copies that shall be found not answerable to the specimen, and paying a fine of a thousand livres, &c.

II. That all bookfellers and printers shall be obliged to take a particular care, that all the editions of books be absolutely correct, as much as is possible, upon pain of forfeiting those whose correction shall have been visibly neglected, and losing the licences and permissions, &c.

III. That no subscription shall be proposed to the public, but for the printing of considerable works, which could not be printed without such assistance; and only after leave first obtained from the keeper of the seals, who shall not grant it 'till the books be approved by the censors; which leave or permission shall be written and signed upon the printed sheet, called prospectus (proposals), which is to contain the conditions to which the bookfeller binds himself to the subscribers, both with regard to the paper and letter, and to the price of the books, and the time when they are to be delivered: which printed sheet of proposals shall be deposited, with the original permission, in the syndical chamber, and registered in the company's books, in which the bookfeller shall also sign his obligation or bond to perform the proposed conditions: and such bookfellers as shall fail to fulfil any of the said conditions, shall be condemned to return to the subscribers double the sums they receive from them, and to pay an arbitrary fine, according to the nature of the offence.

IV. That all the syndics and the assistants of the bookfellers company shall be obliged to deliver, within a month to the keeper of the seals, an account of all the privileges or licences that were renewed since the 1st of January, 1718, for books already printed; with an account of such books as shall have been reprinted, in consequence of the renewing of the licences; to the end that, upon examination, all the new privileges or licences which have not been used, may be annulled, and new ones, or only simple permissions, granted, to such as shall petition for them, and promise to cause those books to be very soon reprinted, according to these present regulations.

R E M A R K S.

From the multitude of regulations made in France, with regard to the business of bookfelling, we may judge of what importance they esteem this employment to the state, as being capable of doing great good or great mischief to it. To prevent what is looked upon, by that government, in the light of the latter, we find such restraints are laid upon the liberty of the press, that the people shall have no knowledge communicated to them, sans privilege du roy, without the king's leave: that is to say, in plain English, that the whole kingdom shall be kept in such ignorance, as best suits with the will of their sovereign; to the end, that he may be as uncontrollably absolute and tyrannical over the people as he pleases.

As this kind of policy hath proved, and is likely to prove, an invincible barrier against the liberties of that brave and polite nation; so the contrary hath proved the grand preservative of the liberties of Great-Britain. For, whenever we shall be deprived of this privilege, can we expect other than to be governed by the absolute will of a prince and his ministers? Would not our parliaments become cyphers, or, perhaps, be totally annihilated? And what kind of government could we expect, but a joint confederacy, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, against the properties of the people? What inducement could there then be for industry and commerce when our acquisitions were insecure?

Arbitrary princes, 'tis true, do give encouragement to arts and trade, but with what view? Is it more, than to render their subjects temporarily rich, that, when they have occasion for plunder, they may not have all beggars in their state? On the contrary, when the powers of princes are governed by laws made by the people, the people will take care to make such laws, as will secure their liberties and properties against the oppressions of princes. If such a constituted legislature should sometimes happen to be misled or corrupted, in the making of laws; yet while we enjoy the liberty of writing, we may be sure to have those laws repealed; for what corruption can withstand the power of a free enquiry? The upholders of this invaluable privilege, are the writers, the bookfellers, and the printers. Being, at present, confined to the bookfeller, I shall refer to the other respective heads, and consider him in relation to other traders, who have connection with his branch.

The quantity of paper, consumed in the manufacture of books, is very considerable: and whereas, not many years since, we were under the necessity of importing seven eighths of that commodity for this purpose, we have now the satisfaction to say, that we do not take above one eighth from foreign countries, the remainder being of our own manufacture. This has been owing to the great encouragement given

given by our bookfellers, to this branch of trade; wherein, if we continue to advance, we shall not only be capable of supplying ourselves, but may, in a few years, make that commodity so exquisite and so cheap, as to be able to export it to foreign countries. See the article PAPER-MAKING.

The stationer, bookbinder, and engraver, are great dependents on this class of traders; and the printer hath his chief dependence upon them, and the letter-founder on them both. 'Tis the business of the bookfeller to encourage all artists who have any connection with his branch, to the end that his books may be so delicately printed and embellished, that we may not only equal, but surpass foreign nations in the art of book-printing. Nor is this a traffic of inconsiderable extent at present; and, by proper encouragement, may be made far more importantly so. For, from the freedom of the English press, or the unrestrained liberty we enjoy of writing upon every kind of subject, foreigners entertain an opinion of our books, and persons of distinction, in most parts of Europe, are not a little fond of them. As our language also begins to be more generally studied in Europe than ever, so it is not to be doubted, but the British trade of bookfelling will increase in the like proportion; especially if literary property be duly secured by law.

We are inferior to no nation, at present, in the art of letter-foundry, as well as that of printing; and therefore, if due care be taken by our bookfellers to have their books printed as well, and as cheap, as they are in other nations; if our home-manufacture of paper be equally good, and every decoration belonging to a book be as well executed, what hinders but we may largely extend our commerce of bookfelling? That no nation can beat us in this trade, I could produce manifold instances. For brevity's sake, I shall mention a few only, viz.

The Anatomical Tables of Albinus, which are published on 48 large copper-plates, 15 inches by 22, beautifully engraved, and printed on large imperial paper; accurately representing figures of the human skeleton, and of the several orders of the human muscles; also distinct views of the particular parts, wherein all that belongs to the structure or habit of each muscle, is shewn at large from the body. Together with a minute and ample explanation of the whole.

The plates in this work are esteemed to be as correctly and masterly engraved, as those of any work of this kind ever were in any part of Europe; and the paper and letter are superior to that printed in Holland, and sell near two thirds cheaper. Nor should it be forgot, that the whole is printed on paper of our own manufacture. Also,

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition of Q. Horatii Flacci Opera, in two volumes 8vo, printed on royal paper, illustrated with 35 copper-plates, taken from antique statues, gems, medals, &c. and representing several curious pieces of antiquity. To which is prefixed, a descriptive account of every plate, and the passages in the poet which it explains and illustrates.

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition, of Virgilii Opera, in two volumes 8vo, printed on royal paper, embellished with above sixty copper plates, containing 166 pieces of antiquity, taken from statues, marbles, paintings, gems, medals, &c. To which is prefixed, a full and descriptive account of every plate, and a reference to the passages in the poet, which each explains and illustrates.

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition, of Terentia Opera, in two volumes 8vo, on royal paper, with copper-plates, in the same manner.

This edition of those classical authors was corrected from the most accurate manuscripts in the university of Oxford; and for beauty and elegance of printing, as well as cheapness, we may presume to say, was never equalled in this, or any other nation.

Another instance we have in the Heads of the Illustrious Persons of Great-Britain: containing 120, finely engraved by Mr Houbraken, and printed on large imperial paper, together with their Lives and Characters, by the Rev. Dr Birch, Secretary to the Royal Society.

From these facts it appears, that the bookfellers of this kingdom are capable of printing books as well, and as cheap, as those of any other nation: and therefore, for the general benefit of the kingdom, should be so encouraged, as to be capable of extending this traffic as greatly throughout the world, as it will admit of. But there seem to be various obstacles in their way to prevent it, which are continued, I am persuaded, for want of the consequences thereof being duly weighed and considered.

The principal obstacle hereto is the insecurity of literary property, according to the laws at present subsisting. Though this matter has already been spoken to, in the REMARKS on the article of BOOKS, to which we refer the reader; yet it may not be altogether useless, under this head, to add a word more on a subject so interesting to the nation; and wherein, at present, indeed, I am a party concerned. For what encouragement shall I have to go through with the laborious work, I am at present engaged in, provided the property is not so secured, as that I may make that reasonable advantage of it to which I am intitled? 'Tis above twenty years severe study and application, that has enabled me to

undertake this performance; and although the large fund of materials, which I have so long been collecting, were not indeed, originally designed for this identical work; yet they were designed for one no way dissimilar, nor less laborious, and very probably might have terminated in one of the same kind.

Whatever is a discouragement to persons turned for study, in order to render themselves useful to the community, stops up the channels, from whence all improvements of science flow. For what mechanical or maufactural art, what branch of knowledge whereon our commerce and navigation depend, hath not been, at first, discovered by studious men, and communicated for the general benefit of others? Were not they, also, the original founders of civil government itself; and therefore may it not be said with truth, that all sovereignty owes its origin to them? At first, in every country, there prevailed nothing but barbarism and rudeness: all places were terrified with giants, and enchantments, and insolent usurpers to deceive mankind: against these there first arose some mighty heroes, as Hercules, Theseus, and Jason: these scowered the world, redressed injuries, and destroyed those human monsters; for which they were made demi-gods. After them succeeded Solon and Lycurgus, &c. who accomplished the work, founded commonwealths, gave laws, and put justice in it's course.

'Tis true, there have been princes, as well as other distinguished personages of the first rank, who have thought it their duty, as well as an honour, to become authors for the benefit of communities: and, why is there not as much glory in writing for religion and virtue, for the liberties of mankind, and for the benefit of useful arts and universal commerce, whereby the whole human species subsist, and are knit and united together, as in fighting for them, in pleading for them in senates, or in settling of property between person and person? But the bulk of those authors, who have been, by far the more numerous, and perhaps, not the least useful, have not been men of the supreme class; they have rather been necessitous than opulent; for many studious men delight rather in a retired, than an over-active life, that they may scan the actions of men in private more nicely, and contemplate the works of nature more narrowly, in order to draw knowledge for the benefit of the solely active part.

But, if such whose fortunes do not abound, and to whom the divine providence seems to have given a constitutional turn and bias to benefit society by their studies, cannot subsist by them with decency, will not useful learning and science become contemptible, and will not the human species again degenerate into their primitive state of barbarism and brutality? But it is not to be doubted, when this matter comes to be laid before the legislature, but literary property will be so effectually secured, that men of letters may be encouraged to advance useful science of every kind in this kingdom.

Few authors caring to have the fatigue of retailing their own books, they generally chuse to employ bookfellers for that purpose, or to assign over their property to them for a valuable consideration. Nor are there many authors, who have undertaken the printing and publishing of any considerable work, that is likely to be transmitted to posterity, at their own expense, and without being concerned with some bookfeller, or several of them, eminent in their profession.

And, in order to have books well printed and prudently propagated, bookfellers seem, in many cases, to be agents indispensably necessary to authors, more especially in large undertakings: and, indeed, they have been instrumental in setting forward many of the greatest and most useful works, which have been published. But, was the property of authors better secured, the more could a bookfeller afford to give authors for their copies, and the more would literature be encouraged. See the article BOOKS and COPIES of authors.

BOOK-KEEPING. See BOOKS of MERCHANTS, and MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

BOOK-KEEPER, is, or ought to be, a person properly qualified to keep such accounts as he is required to do, in a methodical and correct manner. The title is principally given to the chief clerks of merchants, and other eminent traders, and they generally keep the journal and ledger, all the other auxiliary books being kept by the younger gentlemen clerks, or by others under the book keeper.

Those who keep the accounts of noblemen or gentlemen, or are employed in any under branch in the public offices of the kingdom, where the state of the national revenue is kept, are commonly called clerks, not book-keepers. And such who have the chief conduct of the accounts of these public offices, or of any of the great trading or monied corporations, are distinguished by the title of ACCOUNTANTS [see that article] or accountants-general, and not book-keepers.

R E M A R K S :

However mean in the eye of some a book-keeper may appear, from the sound of the word; yet the character of an able mercantile one, is very far from being contemptible in the opinion of those who are acquainted with his accomplishments.

plishments. There are, indeed, amidst this class of people, many ignorant and unskilful persons, who have brought no credit to the profession, which is the case of all others.

The book-keeper, who is at the head of this employment, is he who is commonly called a merchant's book-keeper; and the qualifications, requisite for such a one, should be no way inferior to those of a merchant himself; because, if his conduct and his qualifications render him acceptable, he stands a fair chance to become a merchant for himself; which has been the case of great numbers, who have been no discredit to that honourable employment.

For merchants, who are generally gentlemen of generous and noble spirits, when they have had experience of a just and skilful book-keeper, they think it no dishonour to take him into their partnership, either in their houses abroad or at home. As a book-keeper to a merchant, therefore, is in the road to advancement, it is his interest not to be deficient in point of accomplishment. And, if he does not succeed in that shape, he may gradually strike into trade for himself; for, if his own fortunes will not admit of that, yet, where a person in that capacity has behaved with integrity and honour, and is a man of judgment and conduct in his business, the people who have had dealings with the merchant he lived with, will not scruple to put confidence in him; and, if he is wise enough not to stretch his credit beyond its bounds, he has an happy opportunity to prosper.—Nay, some merchants, after a series of faithful services from their book-keepers, have thrown a branch of their business into their hands, lent them money to carry the same on, and recommended them to their foreign correspondents. Others again, by having the conduct of the business at the death of their master, have naturally fell into a considerable part of his business, and become very eminent traders. Some likewise have been fortunate enough to contract such friendships with the young gentlemen, clerks of considerable worth, who, from experiencing the integrity and judgment with which they behaved, have taken them into partnership, and had no reason to repent their choice. We do not say, that these things are very common; but 'tis well enough known they have very frequently happened: and my reason for hinting these things is with no other view, than to remind this set of people, that their abilities, their honour, and their secrecy in their master's affairs, and having his interest really at heart, are so strong a recommendation, that they have rarely reason to repent their having been servants in this capacity.

The accomplishments of a complete book-keeper should be no way inferior to those of a merchant himself, since, as observed, he is not out of the road of becoming one; and I am inclined to think, that if some young gentlemen themselves, even of tolerable fortunes, who have served their clerkship with a merchant, would condescend for two or three years afterwards to become book-keepers to their master, or to any other merchant, it would prove more to their advantage, than being eager instantly, after the expiration of their clerkship, to strike into trade for their own account. For, although the law gives age at one and twenty, that term of years does not always give such judgment and experience, as may be requisite to embark a fortune in trade.

I am too well acquainted with the way of thinking of these young people, as not to be sensible, that even such who have only four or five thousand pounds to begin trade with, would think it too great a disparagement to be thought a book-keeper, however beneficial it might hereafter prove to them. But, if a regard to this admonition would prove more interesting, than gratifying a youthfully fashionable delicacy, it may not be undeserving their attention. Let these young gentlemen take it, as they please, the advice is sincerely intended for their advantage, not their disgrace. But, if they should be so nice as to think themselves above receiving a salary in that capacity, there is no nobody will be angry with them on that account, if they are not with themselves.

If this should by no means prove agreeable, I think they should be article'd, from sixteen years of age, rather for seven than five years; the age of three and twenty being early enough to hazard a handsome fortune in trade; and this may answer the end of obtaining more experience before they commence for themselves, as well as being a book-keeper, provided the two last years they keep the principal books, especially the ledger.

An able book-keeper of a merchant of skill and discernment, has great opportunity of improving his judgment in the art of conducting trade; for, as he is the recorder, so he may be the critical inspector of his master's actions, and gain experience from his fagacity, or faux pas: 'tis not unmeaningly proverbial, that the by-stander sees more than the gamester. Though it is not necessary for a book-keeper to be a man of learning, yet he should not be illiterate; though he is not required to be a great critic, yet he should be a grammarian, be well acquainted with the language of his country, and knowing in the French tongue, as being the universal corresponding mercantile language. But he cannot be too familiar with other of the principal modern languages, nor too

ready a writer, or too expert an arithmetician and accountant. And, as he may be occasionally put upon holding a part of the foreign correspondence, he should not be wanting in point of the epistolary stile; which in the mercantile way, cannot be too easy, unaffected, and plain, so as to leave nothing ambiguous and unintelligible. There are divers other amiable qualities required by a person acting in this capacity; for, although he may be entrusted with the state of a merchant's affairs, yet this should not lessen his respectful duty, nor inviolable secrecy: but there are methods of concealing what may be requisite, without much trouble to a merchant.

BORAX, a mineral salt, used in folding and fusing gold, and other metals. The ancients have known it under the name of chrysolocola. Pliny, lib. 33. cap. 5. of his Natural History, speaks largely of it; but his account does not, in every respect, agree with what has afterwards been discovered by experience.

That author distinguished this drug into natural and artificial, or factitious borax. The natural borax, according to him, is nothing but a slimy humour, which runs in the mines of gold, silver, copper, and even lead; and, being congealed and hardened by the cold in winter, takes the consistency of pumice-stone.

As to the artificial borax, he pretends that is made by letting water run into the veins of the mine during the whole winter, 'till the month of June, and letting the mine to dry for two months; so that, according to him, the artificial borax is nothing but the mineral putrified and corrupted.

The same author distinguishes black, green, white, and yellow borax, which take their several colours, as well as their price, from the mines whence they are extracted. He pretends that the natural borax is much harder than the artificial. The moderns do also distinguish two sorts of borax, the natural, which is called crude borax; and the artificial, which is the same purified and refined.

The natural borax is a mineral salt, of the figure of the common gem-salt. It is taken out of the bowels of the earth in several parts of Persia; it is also found at the bottom of a torrent which runs in the mountains of Purbeth, in the territories of Radziaribron, and extend to the borders of White Tartary.

When this mineral is taken out of the earth, they expose it to the open air, where it acquires a kind of reddish grease, or fatness, which serves to feed it, and prevents it's calcining. When the borax is in it's perfection, the merchants of Persia send it commonly to Amadavat, a city in the Grand Mogul's empire, whence the English, the French, the Dutch, and other nations, get it, and bring it into Europe.

There is another sort of natural borax, which is harder, of a grey colour, and pretty much like the English copperas, after it has been long exposed to the air: but, upon the whole, it's only difference from the former is, that, having continued a long time in the air, it is dried up, and lost the reddish fatness it had before. They who deal in these sorts of crude borax ought to take care that it be not adulterated, nor mixed with stones, and other foreign ingredients.

The Venetians were the first who made any artificial borax, or, rather, who found out the art of purifying and refining the natural. They purify it by dissolving it in water, filtering it, and crystallizing it afterwards; to reduce it into crystals they use cotton matches, about which the borax crystallizes, as sugar-candy and verdegrease do upon wood.

Others, after refining the borax, reduce it into small stones, of the figure of tagged points; but as it had too greenish a cast, the Dutch, who have also laboured to refine it, have reduced it to large bits, which give it a whiter cast, and make it more saleable. This last sort of borax is that which is now sold by the druggists and grocers of Paris.

The refined borax, either from Venice or from Holland, in order to be good, ought to be clear and transparent, almost insipid to the taste; and, above all, it must not have the least mixture of English allum, which is not easily discovered by the sight only, though adulterated borax is never so white nor so light, as that which is pure; but use does but too soon discover the cheat, allum not being proper to fuse metals; and, when it is put on live coals, it does not swell so much as borax does.

Borax is sometimes used in medicine: it enters into the composition of the unguentum citrinum, and serves also to make some kind of paint for the ladies.

Agricola observes that there is a fossile nitre, which is as hard as a stone, of which the Venetians make borax. He is in the right therein, and it is nothing but the Persian borax, we have been speaking of. But what he adds, according to Furetiere's quotation, that the Venetian borax is made with the urine of young lads who drink wine, which urine is beaten with a pestle in a brazen mortar, 'till it be of the consistency of an unguent, and then mixed with verdegrease, and sometimes with nitre, not only is false, but is a misrepresentation of the passage from the chapter of Pliny quoted above, where there is not the least mention of wine drank by young lads, whose urine Agricola pretends is made use of.

Of all the mineral salts the borax is that whose natural composition is the least known. It may be placed in the class of alkali salts, and among the absorbents.

By the analysis, or resolution of this salt, when put in a retort over a gradual fire, the matter swells, and yields but a clear insipid water, without any smell, which is no part of the salt, and is so foreign to it, that the borax, notwithstanding that loss, and notwithstanding the increase of a very violent fire, continues still in its customary saline form; the only alteration it receives from the action of the fire is, that it reduces itself, at the bottom of the retort, into a transparent mass, and, as it were, vitrified; which, though by its transparency it resembles glass, yet it differs from it in being still dissoluble in water; in all other respects it is a kind of glass, as fine, and almost as hard, as crystal; which is not surprising, since this salt easily acquires the transparency of glass, and even forwards the vitrification of certain matters, when mixed with them. Spirit of wine, being poured upon this vitrified borax, excites a heat in it, which common borax does not acquire: yet, notwithstanding this alteration, vitrified borax, being dissolved in warm water, and afterwards crystallized, resumes its ancient form, and becomes a beautiful refined borax, which shews that the action of the fire in that process does not change the substance of that salt.

This is a summary account of Monsieur Lemery's experiments on the nature of this salt, extracted from his Memoirs, printed in the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences for the year 1728, which he has continued in those for the years 1729 and 1732, to make these experiments serve, by rational inference, to understand not only the medicinal properties of the borax, but also the manner of its operating in the fusion of metals, wherein it is used.

We shall only add here the observation of a person of very great experience, concerning the manner of using borax.

It must be calcined at several times before it is used for soldering, that all the moist parts may be separated from it, and thereby prevent it from ebullition, which often makes the work miscarry, this being of a dangerous consequence in valuable pieces of work: it must be calcined with a slow fire, and, when it does not swell any more, it must be neatly pounded; after which they calcine it a second time, and then pound it again, to use it upon occasion.

The use of borax in medicine is chiefly as a stimulant, emmenagogue, and diuretic; it is one of the most efficacious medicines known in suppressions of the menses, and is given with success to promote delivery, and to bring away the secundines. It is usually given with powder of myrrh, and a few grains of saffron. Its dose is from five to 15 grains; some writers speak of much larger quantities, but they are neither safe nor necessary. It is also used by the women as a cosmetic. The great consumption of it, however, is for soldering, and the fluxing metals clean and free from all their feculent and heterogeneous matter; and the dyers, if it were not too dear, would consume a great quantity of it, to give a gloss to their colours: but allum, fused in a crucible with common nitre, may answer that end at a much cheaper rate, borax being frequently from 5 to 10 shillings a pound.

BORAX, is also a sort of toad-bezoar, that is to say, a sort of stone found in the heads of toads, to which great properties are ascribed. Some natural philosophers pretend that it is really a petrified bone of that animal's head, and deny there being any such stones. There are some, however, to be met with in the cabinets of the curious; but the most sincere of them would not answer for their being genuine, nor for their pretended properties against poison and a bad air. There are also some authors who assert that this stone, which they call *crapaudine* (from the French word *crapaud*, a toad) is found in the head of the sea-toad, and not of the land-toad, and they place it among the precious stones, called by some *toad-stone*.

BORROWING, the taking up of money of a friend, or other person, on condition of returning it after a certain time, and paying interest for the same. It is almost impossible to undertake and carry on an extensive trade, without sometimes borrowing money, or taking merchandizes upon trust, which amounts almost to the same: but both these ways are capable of destroying a man's credit, and ruining him, if he is not punctual in paying the money, when due, especially if it be money borrowed; because the interest, if continued for some time, generally absorbs the whole profit which is made in trade.

BOSNIA, a frontier province of Christendom, divided between the house of Austria and the Turks; that part which lies on the east of the river Unna belonging to the Turks, and that part on the west of that river to the Austrians. It is bounded on the north by the river Save, which parts it from Slavonia; on the west by Croatia, and partly by Dalmatia, which bounds it also on the south; it has Servia on the east, from which the river Drin separates it.

The air here is sharp, but the soil produces some corn; and there are also some mines of gold and silver, which are rarely wrought, and, when they are, they do not turn to any extraordinary account.

BOTARGO, a kind of sausage, made with the eggs and blood of the sea-mullet, a large fish, pretty common in the Mediterranean. It is long and narrow, about the thickness of a pike. They open the fish, and take out the eggs, of which they make the botargo, which is afterwards transported to all places. We meet chiefly with this fish in a small arm of the sea near Alexandria, as you come from Rosetta. The best botargo comes from Tunis in Barbary. They also make some in France, at a place called Martegue, 8 leagues distant from Marfeilles: the people of Provence eat a great deal of it. There is no great trade of it at Paris; however, the great grocers have commonly some of it to sell, especially towards Lent, it being very proper food to use in that holy season. They eat the botargo with olive-oil and lemon-juice: it must be chosen dry and reddish. They cut it in slices, like the caviary, and it is reckoned a nice dish, as it really is. When they would keep it, they put every bit by itself, and wrap it up in a kind of wax leaves, otherwise it will generate maggots: a person may carry it thus every-where about him. They salt and dry it in the sun, like *CAVIARY*. See that article.

They also make vast quantities of botargo in several parts of Egypt, particularly towards Alexandria. They open the mullet, as soon as it is caught, and they dress the eggs almost as they do those of the sturgeon for making the caviary. There is a great consumption of botargo's of Alexandria throughout all the Levant.

BOTTAGE, a duty which the abbey of St Dennis in France raises on all the boats and merchandizes which pass on the river Seine, from St Dennis's-day, the 9th of October, to St Andrew's-day, the 30th of November.

This duty is considerable enough to oblige the merchants to take their measures betimes, that they may avoid paying it, either by sending their merchandizes before the day on which this duty begins to be paid, or by delaying to send them 'till the day is past, especially if the merchandizes be of any bulk.

BOTTOMRY, is a marine contract in commerce, for the borrowing of money upon the keel or bottom of a ship; that is to say, when the master of a ship binds the ship itself, that, if the money be not paid by the day appointed, the creditor shall have the said ship: and this taking up money on bottomry is commonly in nature of mortgaging a ship: and in the instrument executed between the lender and the borrower, there is a clause which expresses, that the ship is engaged for the performance of the same.

Bottomry is also where a person lends money to a merchant, who wants it in traffic, and the lender is to be paid a larger sum at the return of the ship, standing to the hazard of the voyage; in regard to which, though the interest be greater than that allowed by law, it is not esteemed usury: for money, lent at sea, is allowed a larger interest than money advanced on land, by reason 'tis furnished at the greater hazard of the lender; and, if the ship perishes, he shares in the loss; so that there is not that degree of security, as in cases on land, on mortgages, &c. And, the greater the danger is, the greater may be the profit reasonably required for the money so lent: and this hath been the opinion of civilians, and all, or most part of the trading countries of Christendom allow it. The contract of bottomry, as generally made, is just and honourable, according to the laudable custom of maritime persons; and, though the advantage seems to run high, as twenty, thirty, or sometimes forty per cent. and upwards, without consideration of time; yet, if by the common law, an action be brought on such an instrument, the defendant cannot plead the statute of usury. So it was held, where a person brought an action of debt on a bond for money taken up on bottomry; the defendant pleaded the statute against usury, and shewed, that a certain ship made a voyage to fish in Newfoundland (which might be performed in eight months) and the plaintiff delivered 50 l. to the defendant, to pay 60 l. upon the return of the ship to such a port; and, if the said ship by leakage or tempest should not return from Newfoundland to the said port, then the defendant should pay the principal money, viz. 50 l. only: and, if the ship never returned, then nothing should be paid: it was adjudged in this case, that the same was not usury; for, if the ship had staid at Newfoundland two or three years, yet at her return but 60 l. was to be paid; and, if she never returned, then nothing. Trin. 6 Jac. B. R. 2 Cro. Rep. 208. 209.

There is likewise another way of advancing money, called *usura marina*, though with little propriety, joining the advanced monies and the danger of the sea together; and this is obliging sometimes upon the borrower's ship, goods, and person: the product of which, by agreement, will advance sometimes 20, 30, and sometimes 40 per cent. For instance, a private gentleman has 1000 l. ready money lying by him, and he, being informed of an ingenious merchant that has good credit beyond seas, applies himself to him, offers him 1000 l. to be laid out in such commodities, as the merchant shall think suitable for that port or country the borrower designs for, and that he will bear the adventure of that money during all that voyage (which he knows may be accomplished within a year) hereupon the contract is agreed upon,

upon, 6 per cent. is accounted for the interest, and 12 per cent. for the adventure outwards, and 12 per cent. for the goods homewards; so that, upon the return, the lender receives 30 per cent. which amounts to 1300l. This is not esteemed usury by the laws of this realm, by reason of the risk and danger that the lender runs.

When a master or owner of a ship takes up money on bottomry, and buys in lading, but endeavours to defraud the prince or state of their customs, or puts such goods on board which incur a forfeiture of the ship; in such case, the borrower only runs the hazard, and not the lender. And where bonds or bills of bottomry are sealed, and the money is paid, if the ship receives injury by storm, fire, enemy, or any other accident, before the commencement of the voyage, then the person borrowing shall only run the hazard; unless it be otherwise provided, by particular words, that the contract is to have its beginning from the time of the sailing. But if the condition be, that if such a ship shall sail from London to a port abroad, and shall not arrive there, &c. then, &c. here the contingency begins not till the departure. Leg. Naval. Rhod. Moll.

A master of a ship hath no power to take up money on bottomry, in places where his owners dwell, unless he is a part-owner (as masters often are at this time, and is the greatest security for their faithful service) and in that case he may take up so much only as his part will answer in the said ship: for, if he exceeds that, his own estate shall stand liable to make satisfaction. But when a master is in a strange place or country, where he hath no owners, nor any goods of theirs, nor of his own; and for want of money, which he cannot procure by exchange or otherwise, his voyage might be retarded, there money may be taken upon bottomry, and all the owners are liable for it; that is, they are answerable by their vessel, but not in their persons, by the act of the master; and the owners may have their remedy against such master, whom they put in trust. Leg. Oleron. c. 4.

If money be lent on ship-board by a merchant or passenger, and before the day of payment the ship happens to be cast away, if there be such a favor as will admit of a contribution, the party lending is not to have his whole money, but it shall come into the average; because, if that money had been lent, it would have been in common danger with the rest: but, if the time appointed were past before the misfortune happened, then the borrower must repay the lender his whole money, free from contribution. And, therefore, by the maritime laws, in case the borrower detains any money thus lent, beyond the appointed time for the repayment; he shall, at his return from the voyage, not only pay the profit agreed on before, but be obliged also to augment the same, according to the longer time, accrued since the day of payment. Leg. Naval. Artic. 17, 18.

SOME CASES DETERMINED IN THE COURTS OF JUDICATURE IN ENGLAND, RELATING TO BOTTOMRY.

Deguilder versus Depeister.

The case was upon a bottomry bond, whereby the plaintiff was bound in consideration of 400l. as well to perform the voyage within six months, as at the six months end to pay the 400l. and 40l. premium, in case the vessel arrived safe, and was not lost in the voyage.

It fell out, that the plaintiff never went the voyage, whereby his bond became forfeited; and he now preferred his bill to be relieved; and upon a former hearing, in regard the ship lay all along in the port of London, and so the defendant run no hazard of losing his principal; the lord keeper thought fit to decree, that the defendant should lose the premium of 40l. and be contented with his principal and ordinary interest: and now, upon a re-hearing, confirmed his former decree. Vern. 257.

Goddard versus Garret.

The defendant had lent money on a bottomry bond, but had no interest in the ship or cargo; the money lent was 300l. and he insured 450l. on the ship; the plaintiff's bill was to have the policy delivered up, by reason the defendant was not concerned in point of interest, as to the ship or cargo.

Cur. Take it that the law is settled, that if a man has no interest, and insures, the insurance is void, although it be expressed in the policy, interested or not interested; and the reason the law goes upon is, that these insurances are made for the encouragement of trade, and not that persons unconcerned in trade, nor interested in the ship, should profit by it; and, where one would have benefit of the insurance, he must renounce all interest in the ship. And the reason why the law allows that a man, having some interest in the ship or cargo, may insure more, or five times as much, is, that a merchant cannot tell how much, or how little, his factor, may have in readiness to lade on board his ship. And it was said, that the usual interest allowed on bottomry was 3 per cent. per ann. and you may insure at 6 or 7 per cent. for

the voyage: so, if this practice may be allowed, a man might be sure to gain 30l. or more per cent. Per cur. Decree the policy of insurance to be delivered up to be cancelled. See ASSURANCE.

Note. That, in this case, notice was taken in the policy, that it was to insure money on bottomry.

Note also, That, in this case, the ship survived the time limited in the bottomry bond, and was lost within the time limited in the policy. So, if insurance good, the defendant might be intitled to the money on the bond, and also on the policy. Vern. 254.

Harman versus Vanhatton.

Defendant lent the plaintiff 250l. on a bottomry bond, and afterwards insured on the same ship; but the insurance was larger as to the voyage, there being liberty to go to other ports and places than what were contained in the condition of the bottomry bond. The ship being lost, the defendant recovered the money on the policy of insurance, and also put the bottomry bond in suit: the ship, though lost, had deviated from the voyage mentioned in the bond, in going to Virgin Gardo to buy salt.

The plaintiff brought his bill, pretending the defendant ought not to have a double satisfaction to recover both on the insurance, and also on the bond, he having insured only in respect of the money he had lent on bottomry, and had no other interest in the ship or cargo; and therefore the plaintiff would have had the benefit of the insurance, paying the premium. Sed non allocatur.

The defendant, having paid the premium, was intitled to the benefit of the policy, and run the risk, whether the ship was lost or not; and the insurers might as well pretend to have aid of the bottomry bond, and to discount the money recovered thereon, as the plaintiff to have the money recovered on the policy, to ease the bottomry bond.

The plaintiff also charged, that the defendant had promised and agreed to deliver up the bond, on the plaintiff's making up the money recovered on the policy, as much as he lent on the bond, with interests and costs, and proved such offer and promise. Sed non allocatur. It was but nudum pactum, a voluntary offer, and on condition that the money was then paid, and it was not complied with. Vern. 636.

Williams and Steadman.

Debt upon a bond upon bottomry; the defendant pleads, that the ship went from London to Barbados sine deviatione, and afterwards she returned from Barbados towards London, and in her return she was lost in *voyagio prædict'*; the plaintiff replies, that the ship, in her return, went from Barbados to Jamaica, and that, after a stay there, she returned from Jamaica towards London, and was lost, and so shews a deviation. The defendant rejoins, that she was pressed into the king's service, and so compelled to go to Jamaica, which is the deviation pleaded by the plaintiff: *absque hoc*, that she deviated after her being pressed, &c.

The plaintiff demurred; and *per curiam* adjudged for the plaintiff. First, the bar of the defendant is not good; for he pleads, that the ship went from London to Barbados without deviation, and that, in the return from Barbados to London, she was lost in the voyage aforesaid, but does not shew without deviation; for the condition is *in expressis* words; and he ought to shew expressly, that he had performed the words of the condition; and though it be said in *voyagio prædict'*, and it cannot be in *voyagio prædict'* if she had deviated, and so it is implied.

Yet Holt chief justice said, that to plead such a matter, which would be a performance of a condition by implication, is not sufficient. 3 Cro. 234. Tedcastle's case. Holt's Reports, 126.

Many masters of ships having insured, or taken up money upon bottomry, to a greater value than their adventure, have sometimes willfully cast away, burnt, or otherwise destroyed the ships under their care; therefore, by statute 10 Car. II. 1, 6, the crime was made felony, and the person or persons offending were to suffer death: and this law was continued, by a statute made in the first year of the reign of queen Anne. Vide statutes 4 Geo. I. c. 12. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. under the head Navigation and Shipping.

By the 19th Geo. II. cap. 37. it is enacted, That, after the 1st day of August, 1746, every sum of money lent on bottomry, or at *respondentia*, upon the ships of any subjects, to, or from, the East-Indies, shall be lent only on the ship, or the merchandizes laden on board her, and so expressed in the condition of the bond; and the benefit of salvage shall be granted to the lender, his agents, &c. who only shall have a right to make assurance on the money lent; and no borrower of money on bottomry, or at *respondentia*, shall recover more on any assurance than the value of his interest on the ship or effects, exclusive of the money borrowed. And, if the value of his interest doth not amount to the money borrowed, he shall be responsible to the lender for the surplus, with lawful interest for the same, together with the assurance and all charges whatsoever, &c. notwithstanding the ship and merchandize shall be totally lost.

By the 21 Geo. II. All his majesty's subjects were prohibited, during the continuation of the late war, to lend money on bottomry, or respondentia, on any ships or goods belonging to France, or to any of the French dominions or plantations, or the subjects thereof; and, in case they did, the contracts and agreements to be void, and they or their agent, or broker, therein interfering, were to forfeit 500 l. &c. See ASSURANCE.

There is a fictitious way of taking up money in the nature of bottomry, upon supposition of a ship and master, being the common practice among the Italians, and has been used by some persons on this side the water; where a man borrows money, the condition reciting, whereas there is such a ship, naming her, bound to Amsterdam, whereof such a man is master (when, indeed, there is no such ship or master in nature) that, if that ship shall not arrive at such a place within twelve months, the money agreed on to be paid, shall be paid; but, if the ship shall arrive, then nothing: this method of raising money is highly unjustifiable, and has, 'tis to be feared, been too frequently practised; but what is very extraordinary is, that such a contract should ever have been adjudged good according to the common law of this realm; yet it has been so, and on a special verdict too. See Hill 22. and 23 Car. II.

But, although it has had this authority, yet since the prohibition of assurances, interest or no interest (as by the before-cited act) it will render the like practices the less frequent, if not totally put an end to them. See the article ASSURANCES.

A BILL of BOTTOMRY is made as follows.

To all people to whom these presents shall come, I A. B. &c. owner and master of the ship, called, &c. of the burthen of 200 tons, now riding, &c. and bound for, &c. in the West-Indies, send greeting. Whereas I the said A. B. am at this time necessitated to take up, upon the adventure of the said ship, called, &c. the sum of one hundred pounds, for setting forth the said ship for sea, and for furnishing her with provisions, &c. for the said voyage, which C. D. of, &c. merchant, hath on request, lent unto me, and supplied me with at the rate of 20 l. for the said 100 l. during the said voyage. Now know ye, that I the said A. B. do, by these presents, for me, my executors and administrators, covenant, grant, and agree, to and with the said C. D. his executors and administrators, that the said ship shall, with the first fair wind, after the day, &c. of this instant, &c. depart from the said river of Thames; and shall, as wind and weather shall serve, proceed in her voyage to, &c. aforesaid, in the West-Indies, and having there tarried until, &c. and having the opportunity of a convoy, as being sooner dispatched (which shall first happen) shall return from thence, and, as wind and weather shall serve, directly sail back to the river of Thames, to finish and end her said voyage. And I the said A. B. in consideration of the said sum of 100 l. to me in hand, paid by the said C. D. at and before the sealing and delivery of these presents, do hereby bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, my goods and chattels, and particularly the said ship, with the freight, tackle, and apparel of the same, to pay unto the said C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum of 120 l. of lawful British money, within one and twenty days next after the return and safe arrival of the said ship, in the said river of Thames, from the said intended voyage. And I the said A. B. do also for me, my executors and administrators, covenant and grant, to and with the said C. D. his executors and administrators, by these presents, that I the said A. B. at the time of the sealing and delivery of these presents, am true and lawful owner and master of the said ship, and have power and authority to charge and engage the said ship as aforesaid; and that the said ship shall, at all times after the said voyage, be liable and chargeable for the payment of the said 120 l. according to the true intent and meaning of these presents. And, lastly, it is hereby declared and agreed, by and between the said parties to these presents, that in case the said ship shall be lost, miscarry, or be cast away, before her next arrival in the said river of Thames, from the said intended voyage, that then the said payment of the said 120 l. shall not be demanded, or be recoverable by the said C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, but shall cease and determine, and the loss thereof be wholly borne and sustained by the said C. D. his executors and administrators; and that then, and from thenceforth, every act, matter, and thing herein before contained, on the part and behalf of the said A. B. to be done and performed, shall be utterly void; any thing herein contained to the contrary thereof, in any wise notwithstanding. In witness, &c.

Sometimes there is added to this bill of bottomry, as a further security, a short bargain and sale of the ship, &c. with a proviso to be void, on payment of the money, and performance of the covenants.

A BILL of BOTTOMRY, where the ship is to go to several ports.

To all people, &c. I A. B. of, &c. mariner, master, and part-owner of the good ship or vessel, called, &c. of London, of the burthen of two hundred tons, or thereabouts, now rid-

ing at anchor in the river Thames, within the port of London, do send greeting: Whereas the said ship is now bound out upon a voyage from the said port, unto the island of Barbados, and from thence, if occasion shall be, to the island of May, and so to return back again to the said island of Barbados, and thence to London, to end her voyage: Now know ye, that I the said A. B. for me, my executors and administrators, do covenant and grant, to and with C. D. of, &c. (who, before the sealing and delivery hereof, hath paid and advanced unto me the sum of 100 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, and is contented and agreed to stand to, and bear the adventure of, the said sum upon the body of the said ship, during the said voyage) and to and with the executors, administrators, and assigns, by these presents: That the said ship, with the first good wind and weather, after the day of, &c. next ensuing the date hereof, shall depart from the said river of Thames, on the said intended voyage, and shall, by God's grace (the perils and dangers of the sea, and restraint of princes and rulers excepted) return into the river of Thames from her said voyage, before the expiration of fourteen months, to be accounted from the date of these presents; and that the said ship, in her said intended voyage, shall not fail or apply unto any other ports or places, than those before-mentioned herein, unless she shall be necessitated thereto, by extremity of weather, or other unavoidable accident. And that I the said A. B. my executors, administrators, or assigns, shall and will well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, at, &c. the sum of 130 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, in respect of the adventure aforesaid, if the said ship shall go only to the island of Barbados, and from thence return to London to finish her said intended voyage; and the sum of 140 l. of like money, if the said ship shall go from thence to the island of May, and so return again to the said island of Barbados, and thence to London, to end her said voyage; and that within one month, after the return of the hull or body of the said ship, unto the river of Thames, from her said voyage. Provided always, and it is nevertheless the true intent and meaning of these presents, That if the said ship, in her intended voyage, shall happen to be lost, miscarry, or be taken by men of war, or pirates, that then this present writing or deed, and every covenant, payment, matter, and thing therein contained, on the part and behalf of me the said A. B. to be done, paid, and performed, shall be void, and of none effect: and that then I the said A. B. my executors or administrators, shall not be in any wise chargeable, or liable to pay the said several sums before-mentioned, or either of them, or any part thereof, to the said C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, but that he and they are to lose the same, and every part thereof; any thing herein before contained, to the contrary thereof, in any wise notwithstanding.

And it is agreed, by and between the said parties to these presents, that in case the said ship shall not be returned unto the river of Thames, from the said intended voyage, at the end of fourteen months, to be accounted from the date of these presents; and that, at the expiration of the said fourteen months, there shall not be just proof made of the loss, happening within the time aforesaid: that then I the said A. B. my executors, administrators, or assigns, shall and will within twenty days, next after the end and expiration of the said fourteen months, well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, at the place of payment aforesaid, the said sum of 130 l. in case the said ship shall go unto the island of Barbados as aforesaid, and the said sum of 140 l. in case the said ship shall go unto the island of May as aforesaid; and that the said C. D. shall not run the hazard and adventure of the said sum by him adventured as aforesaid, upon the body of the said ship, any longer than fourteen months, to be reckoned and accounted as aforesaid. In witness, &c.

A BOTTOMRY BOND is of the following form.

Know all men by these presents, That I A. B. of the parish of, &c. in the county of Middlesex, mariner, am held and firmly bound to C. D. of, &c. in the county aforesaid, merchant, in 280 l. of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the said C. D. or to his certain attorney, his executors, administrators, or assigns; for which payment well and truly to be made, I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents, sealed with my seal: Dated this day of, &c. in the _____ year of our sovereign lord George the third, by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and _____.

The condition of this obligation is such; that if the above bound A. B. his heirs, executors, and administrators, do and shall well and truly pay, or cause to be paid unto the above-named C. D. his executors, administrators, or assigns, the full sum of 130 l. of lawful British money, at or before the end of one month next after the return of the ship, &c. (burthen, &c. whereof the said A. B. is master)

from

from her present intended voyage, which she is to make to the island of Barbados, and safe arrival in the river of Thames; and pay the full sum of 140 l. of, &c. if the said ship, shall go to, &c. And also shall and do well and truly observe, perform, fulfill, and keep, all and every the covenants, grants, articles, agreements, which, on his or their parts and behalfs, are, or ought to be, observed, performed, fulfilled, and kept, mentioned and contained in a certain writing, or bill of bottomry, of the date above-written, made by and from the said A. B. part-owner of the said ship, unto the said C. D. in all things, according to the true intent and meaning of the said bill of bottomry, or adventure; that then this obligation to be void, or else it shall remain in full force and virtue.

BOULINIS, or **BOULIGNIS**, a copper coin, struck at Boulogna, or Bononia, in Italy; it serves there instead of pence, and, in buying and selling, they bargain by boulinis, as they do in France by sols, and in England by pence.

The boulinis is worth four quadrans, that is to say, the Roman bayoca, which is current in the trade which those two cities have with each other, because Boulóna lies in the territories of the Pope. The name of the coin, as one may easily guess, comes from that of the city where it is struck.

BOUNTIES. The **BOUNTIES** and **ALLOWANCES**, payable out of the **DUTIES** of **CUSTOMS**, the **BOUNTIES** and **DRAWBACKS** on **BRITISH** exciseable goods exported, and the premiums on naval stores imported; together with instructions in regard to the performance of the respective regulations required by law, are so very numerous, that we refer to Saxby's Book of Rates, in relation to these points, from page 359, &c. and his Index.

BOURBONNOIS, a territory of the government of Lyons in France, is bounded on the north by Nivernois and Berry; on the west by Upper Marche; on the south by Auvergne; and, on the east, by Burgundy and Forez. This country produces very good wine, but it spoils, if it be transported abroad. Here are a vast number of mineral springs, which are very famous, and much resorted to.

At **MOULINS** is made a great deal of iron and steel works, which are very much esteemed in France.

Near the city of **BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD** are some rocks which have veins, the small stones of which are like diamonds and cut glass; when they are well polished and set, the best connoisseurs will take them for true diamonds.

At **GANNAT** is a granary of salt.

BOX, a tree too well known to need a particular description. There are several species of this tree; the two most considerable of which are, the *buxus vulgaris*, or *buxus arborecens*, which grows to the height of a small tree; and the *buxus humilis*, or humble box, which does not grow above two or three feet high, but spreads very much.

We shall speak here of the box-wood, only as far as relates to its nature, use, and the trade that is made of it.

The box-wood is yellowish, hard, solid, even, very heavy, and takes a good polish.

When this wood is in pieces, of a reasonable thickness and length, it is very saleable, being used in works of sculpture, and in wind-instruments of musick, such as violins, bass-violis, haut-boys, flutes, flagelets, &c.

Box of an inferior quality serves to make smaller works, as combs, balls, tops, spoons, forks, handles of knives, nut-crackers, tooth-pick-cases, snuff-boxes; and other boxes, pulleys, &c.

The finest box-dust is used to throw over paper, to dry the fresh writing; the stationers and comb-makers have a considerable trade of it.

The provinces of Champagne and Franche Comté, in France, produce a great deal of box, which is reckoned very good; but the best comes from Spain and Smyrna: the latter is carried to Roan by the Dutch, on the return of their ships from the Levant.

It is of this last sort of box that almost all the combs are made at Paris. It is sold by the hundred weight, and is in thick and thin billets, commonly four feet long. It is sold by the comb-makers themselves, who cut it into square pieces, of different lengths and thickness, according to the combs they would make.

The great quantity of box which is brought to Roan is the reason why they make a great many combs in that city, which they send to Paris, and into the provinces of the kingdom, and even into foreign countries.

One may extract from box, by the help of a retort; a spirit and an oil, which may be rectified, like that of guaiacum. The druggists of Paris, and those of some other great cities in the kingdom, drive a pretty good trade of that oil, which is reckoned a sovereign remedy for several distempers, but it is very easy to adulterate it.

BRABANT, is bounded on the north by Holland and Guelderland, on the west by Zealand and Flanders, on the south by the counties of Hainault and Namur, and on the east by the principality and bishopric of Liege, and by part of Prussian Guelderland.

The trade of **BRUSSELS**, the capital city of Brabant and of all the Netherlands, consists of camblets, laces, and fine tapestries made here, and which they send all over Europe. Round three parts of the large market-place here, are the halls of the different trades, where the deacons and tradesmen meet on the affairs of their companies: they have each a great room for themselves. Here is a mint for the coining of money.

VILVORDE receives some advantage to its trade, from the canals running by it, which lead from Brussels to Antwerp. At **NIVELLE**, is made a great quantity of fine linnen, equal to that of Cambrai.

LOUVAIN was formerly the richest city in the country, and drove a very extensive trade, consisting chiefly in woollen cloths manufactured here: that trade was so flourishing in the beginning of the fourteenth century, under John III, duke of Brabant, that there were here above four thousand woollen drapers, and above an hundred and fifty thousand weavers. But in 1380, these journeymen weavers revolting against Winceslaus, duke of Brabant, he laid all the country waste; but being besieged at last, they were obliged to beg that prince's mercy, and were most of them banished. Upon this they retired into England, where they were very kindly received. This entirely ruined the trade of Louvain, which is not considerable at present; and consists chiefly in the excellent beer which they brew here; and of which they send a great quantity into the neighbouring cities, and particularly to Brussels.

DIEST is not large, but noted by the woollen cloths, hose, and other manufactures; as also by the excellent beer brewed here, which is sold in all the neighbouring towns. They keep here, every Ash-wednesday, a famous fair for horses.

At **BOISLEDUC**, the linnen and woollen manufactures flourish, and the place is likewise famous for cutlery wares and needles.

OOSTERWICK was formerly very considerable, having 500 weavers looms, and 38 brewhouses. There is a large market-place, where they keep a market every Wednesday, and three fairs every year. See **AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS**.

BRACELET, an ornament put round the wrist. There are some made of ribbands, of wove hair, of horse-hair, of pearls and of precious stones. The small pictures in miniature, which are put on the arm, are also fastened to the bracelet.

Bracelets are in use as well among the most polite as the most barbarous nations. The inhabitants of Madagascar make them of metal, in the form of a ring, or of a chain. The savages of America have them of glass-beads. The blacks on the coast of Guinea make them of those shells, which are called *couris*, or *coris*, in Asia, and *Bouges*, in Africa: and it is in order to get those vain ornaments, that they all give their richest merchandizes, and even sometimes barter for those trifles the liberty of their fathers, wives and children. See the next article.

BRACELET, called by the French *menille*, or rather *manille*, from *main* (manus) the hand, is one of the merchandizes, which the Europeans, and amongst others the Dutch, carry to the coast of Africa, to trade with the negroes. The French also used it very much in their trade with the inhabitants of the island of Madagascar, whilst they had a settlement there.

These bracelets are a kind of large ring of copper, which these African nations use to adorn themselves with, and for which they barter slaves and other merchandizes, for which the Europeans trade with them. This odd kind of ornament they put on the bottom of their legs, just above the ankle, and on the thick part of their arms above the elbow.

There are two sorts of these bracelets or rings; some are plain, flat, and without any engraving; the others are round, thicker, and adorned with chiselled works, and foliages in relief. The latter are of good copper, and of a pretty good workmanship; the others are hardly any thing but the scum of that metal; they are both exchanged either by tale or by weight.

The inhabitants of Madagascar are also very fond of adorning themselves with those bracelets; the richest amongst them, and the chiefs of the white have gold ones; but these they make themselves, melting down and changing into bracelets all the gold coin they sometimes receive from the Europeans, in exchange for their merchandizes. Most of their yellow brass bracelets they get from the French, who drove a pretty good trade in those wares, whilst they settled in the bays of Atougil and St Augustin.

BRANDENBURG. This marquisate and electorate has Mecklemburg and Pomerania on the north, part of Lunenburg on the west, part of Magdeburgh, of the duchy of Saxony, Lusatia, and Silesia on the south, and Poland on the east. In the New Mark they feed great flocks of sheep, and some black cattle; and La Forest says, that, if they were as much given to trade as to drinking and feasting, they might make considerable profit of their sheep, and breed more black cattle. But, since his time, the trade of this country is very much improved, the elector Frederic William having entertained near a hundred thousand protestants,

testants, who fled hither from persecution in France, &c. in 1685, and the following years, to whom he allowed great privileges, and an act of naturalization, which settled many useful manufactures in this country, and doubled several branches of the revenue: and the late elector prolonged, and even augmented, the franchise of those French protestants; caused churches to be built for them, of which he maintained the ministers; gave them a very fine college for the education of their children, and chose a company of musqueteers out of them, in which none but French were admitted. Their commodities are chiefly exported by the Elbe and Oder, betwixt which there is a communication by a canal, which saves their paying toll in the Sound. The revenues of the elector of Brandenburg were computed, in 1680, to amount only to between 6 and 700,000 l. a year. In 1690, they were thought to exceed one million: and his late majesty, by almost every year inviting, and handsomely settling, new colonies of French protestants in his dominions, advanced his revenue to above a million and a half of our money. There are some, who, considering the many and great taxes that have been lately laid on all commodities, wearing apparel and victuals not excepted, have made his annual revenue to amount to near two millions sterling. As he has few silver mines, but some of brass, iron, and copper, the money in his dominions is generally worse than in Saxony and the electorate of Hanover.

LANDSPERG is very conveniently situate for trade, which consists much in casting of iron ordnance.

FRANKFORT was once a free and imperial city, but now exempt, and not so considerable as formerly. Nevertheless it has a considerable trade, chiefly in linnen cloth and fells, by the Oder, and the canal between that river and the Elbe, and has three great fairs a year.

The canals from Berlin to the Havel, the Oder, and the Elbe, not only stock it with fish better than any city in Germany, but make it one of the best trading towns in the empire; for they open a communication by small vessels from Silesia to the mouth of the Elbe. At the same time it must be owned, that the French refugees have contributed, in an extraordinary degree, to the aggrandizement and embellishment of this city, by the introducing and establishing the arts in it, and all kinds of manufactures. In the street called La Rue de Cloitre, Frederic the First established an academy for nobility and gentry; but the late elector, upon its decay, changed it into a workhouse, with lodgings for several woollen manufacturers; so that 'tis called the Royal Manufactory. There are public workhouses adjoining to it, which were established and built by the present elector's grandfather; and, being destroyed by fire, the late elector caused them to be rebuilt. Near the square called the Moloke Mark, is a manufactory of gold and silver lace. The house of the general of the ordnance contains the foundery, where men are continually at work. The manufactures that are most flourishing in this city, are curious works in gold and silver, in polished steel and in glass, as also light stuffs, coarse cloths, stockings, &c. And Mr Toland ascribes the improvement of this city, and of the Brandenburg dominions in general, not only to the encouragement given to the French refugees, but to the great number of houses, which the elector (grandfather to the present) built in several places, whereby his subjects reaped considerable profit, both from their labour and materials; for it's said, that he actually set apart 150,000 crowns a year for his buildings.

At **POTZDAM** are made all the sorts of arms for the forces and arsenals, which were formerly made at Liege.

The city of **BRANDENBURG** has a considerable trade; the Havel bringing great boats hither from the Elbe, with all sorts of merchandize, from the towns on that river.

The inhabitants of **STEUDEL** have a pretty good trade in corn and linnen cloth, and make a good profit by travellers, it being in the road from Magdeburgh and Erfurt, to Hamburg and Lubeck.

The chief trade at **SOLTWEDEL** is in beer, which they export. The chief trade of **GARDELEBEN**, is in beer and hops, reckoned as good as any in Germany, which are bought up by the Danish merchants.

TANGERMUND is a place of pretty good trade in corn, and other commodities conveyed to Hamburg, and other places by the Elbe.

BRANDY, a spirituous and inflammable liquor, extracted from wine, or other liquors, by distillation, which is most commonly performed by the balneum Mariæ, but sometimes also by a small flaming fire.

The vessels used in this operation are commonly of copper: some distillers, in order to cool the brandy sooner, make the neck of the matras, which they have very long, and of a serpentine, or winding figure, pass through a tun of cold water.

In order to distil this brandy, they fill the cucurbit half full with the liquor they would extract it from, which they put over a moderate fire 'till about the sixth part of it be distilled, or 'till they perceive that what falls into the recipient is no longer inflammable.

Brandy distilled a second time is called spirit of wine; and

this spirit purified again, by one, or by several distillations, is what they call spirit of wine rectified.

The second distillation is made in the balneum Mariæ, and in a glass cucurbit, 'till the brandy that was put into it be reduced to one half; and this half is again rectified, as often as the operator thinks proper.

To abridge these several distillations, which are tedious and troublesome, they have invented a chymical instrument, by which the rectification of spirit of wine is made by one single distillation. One may see the description and figure of that instrument in Glafer's Treatise of Chymistry, the Lyons edition, 1676.

To try the goodness of the rectified spirit of wine, you must examine whether, when lighted into a blaze, it consumes intirely, without leaving any impurity behind; or rather, which is surer still, whether, having put some gunpowder at the bottom of the spirit you would try, the powder takes fire, when the spirit is consumed: in which case the spirit is good.

With regard to brandy (we speak only of that which is distilled from wine) they who trade in it chuse it white, clear, and of a good taste, and such as will bear the test of proof, that is to say, that, when poured into a glass, it forms on the top of it a little white lather, which, as it diminishes, makes a circle, which the French brandy-merchants call the chapelet, and the English the bead, or bubble, there being no brandy but that which is well deslegmated, and does not retain too much humidity, wherein the bead will be intirely formed.

The chief use of brandy is as a drink, particularly in the northern countries, among the negroes of Guinea, who will sell one another for some bottles of brandy; and among the savages of Canada, who are extremely fond of it, but to whom the French are forbidden to give any, under very severe penalties.

Brandy is also used in medicine, to strengthen the nerves; and in dyeing, when rectified into spirit of wine, being then reckoned by the dyers among the non-colouring drugs.

Besides the brandy made of wine, there is some also made of beer, cyder, syrups, sugar, molasses, fruit, grain, &c. (But these are not properly called brandy with us, but go under the general denomination of SPIRITS. See RUM and ARRAC.) Wine-brandy made in France is esteemed the best in Europe. By a decree of the parliament of Paris, of the 13th of March, 1699, none but French brandy is allowed to be brought to Paris, and the sale of all other brandies, as those of cyder, syrup, molasses, &c. is prohibited under the penalty of forfeiting the same, and paying a fine of 1000 livres. Cyder-brandy is made in Normandy, and that of syrup, sugar, and molasses, at Orleans, and other places in France, where there are sugar-bakers.

They make brandy in France wherever they make wine, and for that purpose, they make use both of wine that is pricked, and of good wine.

The brandies for foreign trade, and which the Dutch especially buy up in great quantities, are those of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cognac, Charente, the Ile of Rhé, Orleans, the country of Blaisois, Poictou, Touraine, Anjou, Nantes, Burgundy, and Champagne.

Of all the French brandies, those of Nantes and Poictou, which are of the same quality, are the most esteemed, because they have a better taste, are finer and stronger, and will the longest bear the proof of the bead. These are what foreigners chiefly buy.

The brandies of Anjou, Touraine, Orleans, &c. but chiefly those of Anjou, are most commonly sent to Paris, and into Flanders, by the river Loire. They are not of so good a quality as those of Poictou and Nantes, though they are also very good.

The merchant-druggists and grocers are those who, at Paris, have the greatest trade in brandy, either by wholesale or retail. Some merchant-mercers, as well as the lemonade-sellers, the vinegar-sellers, the distillers of brandies and strong waters, do likewise carry on some trade in brandy: and those of the last companies have a right to distil it, and to keep by them all the utensils, as coppers, stills, and other vessels, either of copper, earth, or glass, necessary for that distillation. Whereas, on the contrary, all vintners, tavern-keepers, and other retailers of wine, are forbidden to distil any, and even to keep any distilling vessels in their houses.

Besides the two bodies of mercers and grocers, and those three companies of arts and trades, who, by their statutes, have a right to trade in brandy at Paris, there are also a great number of poor people, of both sexes, who get a livelihood there by retailing brandy in very small quantities. They are a kind of hucksters, who set up their little shops, or stalls, at the corner of streets every morning betimes, when the workmen and labourers are going to their day's work. They also walk about the streets, carrying their whole shop, bottles, glasses, and measures, in a small basket, which they hang about their necks. The women generally sit in their shops, or stalls; and the men walk about, crying brandy to sell.

The French name for brandy is eau de vie; in Latin aqua vitæ, water of life: but the French call it sometimes brandevin;

from the Dutch brandewyn, as it were, burnt wine, from branden, to burn, and wyn, wine: but the word brandevin is seldom used unless among the vulgar and the soldiery. At Paris, where brandy is sold by the hucksters in small quantities, or measures, from four deniers to a sol; and in the armies, where the sutlers retail it, they call it brandevin, rather than eau de vie; but every-where else they use the last word, unless it be in joking.

The vessels and casks, into which the French brandies are put, and transported abroad, have different names, according to the several provinces where they are made or bought. The most common are the barriques, pipes, tuns, tonneaux, and poinçons.

There are also barrels and baricants; but the latter are very small, and are used only for the retail of brandy within the kingdom, and particularly for presents, and for the provision of private families.

The brandies which come from the country, or province, of Blaisois, are in poinçons, or puncheons; those of Anjou, Poitou, and Nantes, in pipes and tonneaux; and those of Bourdeaux, Cognac, Rochelle, the isle of Rhé, and other neighbouring places, in bariques.

We are obliged to make use of these French names, because we have none in English which answer exactly to them.

Though the barique (or hoghead), be in several places a vessel containing a determined quantity of liquor, ascertained by gauging; yet, in the brandy-trade, it may be considered as a measure of evaluation, which serves to determine the purchases made by foreigners.

This barique of evaluation is not equal every-where, and contains more or less veltes, or verges, according to the places.

At Nantes they reckon 29 veltes to the barique; at Rochelle, Cognac, and in the Isle of Rhé, 27; at Bourdeaux, 32; which must be understood with this proviso, that, in case the cask holds less than the number of veltes for which the buyer made his bargain, the seller accounts to him for what is wanting, at the rate the purchase was made at: if, on the contrary, it contains more, which is almost always the case (there being pipes, poinçons, tonneaux, and bariques, from 50 to 60 veltes) the buyer is to account for the surplus to the seller: so that, if the pipe sold at Bourdeaux, where the barique of evaluation is rated at 32 veltes, should contain 48 veltes, the buyer pays for it as for a barique and a half; and thus in proportion in all other places.

The velte, by which the barique is rated, contains three pots, the pot two pints, and the pint weighs something less than two pounds and a half (observe that a French pint answers very near to our English quart, wine measure; so that the velte contains about a gallon and a half, or six quarts, or bottles.) Some reckon the velte to contain four pots; but they are probably mistaken, or the pot, by which they measure the velte, contains less than two pints.

It must be observed, that the brandy-casks, being not limited, as we have said, to a fixed number of veltes, and the pipes, poinçons, and tonneaux, containing from 50 to 90 veltes, all that is above the 50 veltes is called excess, or overplus, for which the commissioners of the custom-houses settled in the ports where the wine or brandy is shipped off, cause a duty to be paid at the rate of so much per velte, over and above the duty of exportation for the 50 veltes, at which every barique is rated in the tariff, or book of rates.

At Amsterdam, and in the other cities of Holland, the barique, or hoghead, is rated very near as it is in France, and almost upon the same footing as the barique of Nantes; that is to say, it contains 36 viertellen, each viertel 6 mingles, and the mingle weighs 2 pounds and a quarter.

The French brandies are sold at Amsterdam by pounds de gros, or pounds Flemish, more or less, according to their quality; with a deduction, or discount, of 1 per cent. for ready money. Those that are of $\frac{3}{4}$, which the Dutch call verloop, are sold for $\frac{3}{4}$ more than the common ones.

The merchants of Rochelle, Nantes, Roan, &c. do themselves export a pretty large quantity of their brandies into foreign countries. There is no ship laden there, particularly for the French islands in America, the coast of Africa, and the northern countries, but French brandy is part of the cargo. Yet that trade is nothing in comparison to what is carried on with foreigners, who come and buy up those brandies in the abovementioned ports, and particularly at Bourdeaux.

The number of foreign vessels which, in time of peace, arrive at those ports, and take part of their cargo in brandy, is incredible; there are some from all parts of Europe. Nantes alone furnishes them with about 7 or 8000 hogheads, Bourdeaux above double that number, and the other places in proportion.

The foreigners who buy most of the brandies, are the English, Scots, Irish, Dutch, Flemish, and Hamburgers; but it is certain that the Dutch alone take up near as much as all the others together, not only for their own consumption, which is very considerable, but also to export again into all the countries in Europe, and to America.

In time of war between England, Holland, and France, the

Danes, if they be neutral, and sometimes also the Swedes, join with the Hamburgers, and carry on with them the trade of brandy; which those nations can hardly forbear drinking. Hamburg alone consumes above 4000 hogheads of brandy; Lubeck about 400; Koningsberg only 100; Riga, Revel, and Narva, as many; Denmark more than Lubeck; Archangel, according as they have liberty to import any, there being sometimes a general and severe prohibition to buy or sell any; Dantzick imports but little brandy, and even that little is proper for Prussia only.

We do not reckon Poland and Sweden among the northern countries where they consume any French brandy; not that these nations are more reserved than any other with regard to this burning drink; but, as they prefer corn-brandy to French brandy, they have at home wherewithal to make such brandy as suits their taste best, and costs them much less than the French brandy would do: so that about 100 hogheads annually are sufficient for the provision of Stockholm.

R E M A R K S.

Brandy is distilled over a common fire, but slow, and not in balneum Mariæ. For this operation they use stoves built with bricks, or stone, which are made either round or square: when they use bricks, they bind them with a strong fine clay, mixed with horse-dung, or cows-hair.

These stoves must always have two bottoms; the lowermost is to receive the ashes of the wood, or coals, and the uppermost to put the fuel in. They also have the precaution of contriving three or four vents round the copper, which they open or shut, as they would either forward or retard the distillation. For want of a stove, they sometimes use an iron trevet to set the copper upon, and they only put wood under it: but this method is very defective; nor can ever good distillation be made, if the operator is not master of the fire, to manage it with judgment and dexterity, which cannot be done in this last method in the open air.

In order to make good brandy, there must be used a large copper cucurbit, to which the head must be properly adapted; and, having filled it half full with wine, which must be neither sour, nor vented, nor corrupted, the cucurbit must be covered with its head, which must be exactly luted to it, with paper and paste, or rather with a wet bladder, folded several times. Then the cucurbit must be put into the stove, and the branch, or neck, through which the brandy is to distil, must be made to pass through a tun with one bottom only, filled with fresh water; for which purpose the neck must be three or four feet long, composed of a long tube, which must pass obliquely through the tun, and, winding again, must meet a tube which issues out of the head of the cucurbit; these two tubes enter into one another, and must be also luted together with paper and paste, or a wet bladder, as above, to prevent the evaporation of the spirits during the distillation. Care also must be taken to keep upon the head of the cucurbit a wet cloth, to make the spirits condense. As soon as you observe that some drops begin to fall at the end of the long tube, you must suffer about 50 to fall down, after which you must adapt to that end of the tube a recipient, or vessel, capable to receive the brandy which is going to distil. If you would make good and delicate brandy, you must take care not to hasten the distillation by too fierce a fire: in order to act with more security, you must observe that a drop which falls does not wait for the next, and regulate your fire, increase or decrease it, by giving more or less air to the stove, either by opening or shutting some of its doors, or by opening or shutting some of its vents: to do which with the more exactness, a register is requisite.

If what we have been observing be exactly followed, and but one fourth part of the liquor contained in the cucurbit be extracted, you shall have excellent brandy, provided you chuse proper wine. That which grows about Orleans and Paris is very proper to make excellent brandy, though it be none of the strongest; it will even afford more brandy than that which is much stronger; the reason of it is this: those wines which seem to abound most with spirits, do also much more with tartar, which fixes those spirits; whereas weaker wines, having a less quantity of tartar, suffer the spirits to rise much easier.

There are also several other sorts of brandies, made of fruit, grain, and other ingredients. But, before we finish this article, we shall give an account of the manner of extracting brandy from the husks, or skins, of grapes, after the pressing; because the benefits that can arise from this distillation deserve some attention.

After the grapes have been pressed, what remains in the press is coarsely separated into small particles with the hand, and afterwards thrown into large tubs, where they press it very hard, mix a little water with it, and cover it very close with clay: in that condition they leave it to ferment during four or five weeks, observing, however, to shut the crevices which might happen to come in the clay, to prevent the evaporation.

After that time, they fill a very large copper half full with that mixture, cover it with its head, and lute it to it, and distil the whole after the same manner as they do brandy.

By this work they may make a very great advantage of a matter, which they were used to cast upon a dunghill. If this brandy be not so palatable as that which is made of wine, yet it is excellent for making spirits of wine. Both these liquors are a considerable branch of trade, and we thought that it would be acceptable to the public to enter into a minute account of this operation.

The ordinance of aids in France, made in 1680, art. 1. and 2. of the title of duties upon brandies, settles those that are to be raised, as they enter the city and suburbs of Paris, at 45 livres per muid, or hoghead, Paris measure, whether they enter by land or by water; wherein are comprised the 15 livres for the wholesale trade, and for the eighth penny, laid upon that liquor; which duty of 45 livres is also to be paid for all brandies coming by water, and unloaded within three leagues of Paris; even those which are carried through that city, either by land or by water, without stopping there, excepting, however, that upon these there is a deduction of the 15 livres for the wholesale trade, and for the eighth penny.

As for those brandies which pass through the city of Paris, without stopping there, to be transported into foreign countries, they are free from all duties of entry into that capital, by proving their letters of carriage, and giving security to the general custom-house of entries, that they will bring back a certificate from the judges and officers where the brandies were embarked, that they were really shipped, and produce a receipt of the payment of the duty of exportation.

The duty on brandy sold by wholesale is a twentieth part of their price, or value; and on those sold by the quart, or retail, 15 livres per muid, or hoghead, Paris measure. But the brandies sold within the city and suburbs of Paris, are free from that duty. Those also are free from all duties which are bought by the pot, or by the pint, and resold again by the hucksters about the streets in small measures of 4 or 6 deniers, or of a sol at most.

There are still some other duties on brandy, which are paid in France, but not generally every-where, as the fourth; the duty of aids, that of augmentation, and some others, for which the reader may consult the same title of the above-mentioned ordinance of the year 1680.

Besides the decrees, declarations, or edicts of the king's council, for regulating the transportation and sale of brandies, hitherto mentioned, there is a last declaration of the 8th of May, 1718, registered in the parliament the 16th of the same month, which orders, that, for the execution of those of December, 1687, and January, no brandies shall be carried off before the buyer shall have given good and sufficient bail to the custom-house of the place from whence they are to be carried away, promising to bring back certificates and receipts for the payment of the duties of entry at such places where they are due; unless the sellers of those brandies, or the factors residing in the places where they are sold, chuse to give such security, of which mention shall be made in the permits for carrying them away, upon pain of forfeiting the brandies, carriages, and all things belonging to them: the custom-house officers of the place whence the brandies are to be carried away, being forbidden to receive any declaration, or to deliver any permit, before the security be given, upon pain of losing their place.

Duties of exportation paid on brandies at Bayonne.

The pipe, containing about 80 veltes (about 120 gallons) pays 4 livres ancient duty, and for the $\frac{1}{2}$, or the augmentation of 4 sols per livre, 16 sols; in all 4 livres and 16 sols.

Duties of exportation at Bourdeaux.

	liv.	sols.
At the custom-house, per piece of 50 veltes	—	28 9
But the seller accounts to the buyer	—	8 11
for the duty of importation into the city; so that there remains to be paid by the buyer, who sends the brandy abroad	—	19 18
For tare on the pipe of brandy	—	2 10
For brokerage	—	5
For carrying on board and stowing	—	12
For portage from the seller's key to the buyer's house, from 6 sols to 8	—	8

Pieces containing above 50 veltes pay 11 sols for the last-mentioned portage; but, on exportation, the seller reimburses it to the buyer.

The trade of brandy at Amsterdam.

We have as yet said but little of the trade of brandy which is carried on at Amsterdam: yet we presume it will be acceptable to the reader to find in this place the account given us in Mr John Peter Ricard's work, printed in the year 1722, wherein he treats very accurately of the trade of that famous city. Most of the wine-brandies sold at Amsterdam are imported from France, particularly from Cognac, Nantes, Bayonne, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Languedoc, and Provence: they have also some from Barcelona in Spain. All those brandies are sold

by the verge (which is the same as the velte) and are paid in pounds gros, or Flemish, which the French call livres de gros. The 30 verges of Cognac brandy are

bought, one year with another, regulated by the year 1682, for	—	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds de gros.
Those of Nantes	—	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Those of Rochelle	—	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Those of Bourdeaux	—	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Those of Languedoc	—	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Those of Provence from	—	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Those of Barcelona also from	—	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 7 $\frac{1}{2}$

As for the grain-brandy, or spirit, the greatest part of which is made at Amsterdam, it is sold by the aam, which contains 128 mingles.

The aam of grain-brandy, or spirit, is commonly sold for 23 guilders and a half, a little more or a little less, according to the variety and plenty of grain. On all those brandies either of wine or grain there is a deduction, or discount, of one per cent. for prompt payment, or ready money.

It is always the seller who gets the brandies gauged at his expense, which costs him, according to the placart, or ordinance, of the year 1704, for a piece of 50 verges, and under, 3 stivers; from one of 51 to 79 verges, 6 stivers; and, for one of 80 and above, 12 stivers.

If the buyer finds the piece erroneously gauged, after he has emptied it, he may have it measured again, by a sworn gauger, who measures it with water; and, if there be any error found the seller is obliged to indemnify the buyer.

Brandies several ways prepared, which serve for drinking.

They make with brandy, either simple or rectified, several sorts of strong liquors, into which they put sugar and spices, with flowers or fruit, and other ingredients, which they clarify afterwards, by passing through a woollen cloth, or filtering through brown paper.

The grocers, lemonade-sellers, vinegar-merchants, distillers, and all those who have the right to make brandy, have also that of compounding and selling those liquors: but, commonly, the greatest quantity of them come from Montpellier, where it hath been said they make them better than in any other part of the world; and it is from that city that the coffee-houses at Paris, where there is the greatest demand for those liquors, have them, whether they get them directly from Languedoc, for their own account, or buy them in the street called la Huchette, where there is a warehouse of them, of many years standing. The chief of these waters are,

Cette-water,	Cinnamon-water,
Anise-water,	Coriander-water,
Water of franchipanne,	Juniper-berry-water,
Angelic-water,	Citron-water,
Claret-water,	Water of mille-fleurs, or a thousand flowers,
Celeri-water,	Coffee-water,
Fennel-water,	Lastly, Barbadoes water.
Divine-water,	

The last of these, to be excellent, must be imported from England, and come really from Barbadoes; for the apothecaries and distillers of Montpellier have not yet been able to imitate it perfectly.

Besides those liquors made with brandy, and which have kept the name of water (from the French eau de vie) there are some others, which, either from the fruit mixed with them, or from the fancy of the artist, have got names which are become, as it were, their proper names: such are, the rossolis, persico, ratafee, valtee, muscadine sack, and some others.

Further REMARKS relating to the laws of England concerning brandy.

The improvements which have been made within these few years in the British distillery, afford very good English brandy; and how near brandy made in England, from subjects of our own production, may be brought to approach the quality of French, see the article DISTILLATION. The statutes of England relating to brandy are:

By stat. 22 Car. II. cap. 4. sect. 2. It is declared that brandy is a strong water perfectly made, and, being imported, is chargeable, by the act 12 Car. II. cap. 23, 24. with the duty of 8 d. per gallon set upon strong water perfectly made and imported, and not with the duty of 4 d. per gallon upon spirits made of wine, or cyder, imported.

2 Will. and Mar. stat. 2. cap. 9. sect. 12. All strong waters, brandy, or spirits, brought from Guernsey, Jersey, Sark, or Alderney, shall be charged with 8 s. per gallon, to be paid to the collector of excise before landing; and all other exciseable liquors brought from the said islands (except beer, ale, and mum) shall be charged with the like duties as are charged on the like liquors made in this kingdom, to be entered and paid as aforesaid; and, before the landing such liquors, oath shall be made by the importer, or owner, before the collector, or principal officer of the customs, that the same are of the growth and manufacture of the said islands, and are not mixed with foreign materials. And, in case such liquors shall be landed before such entry and oath be made, and the duties paid, the same shall be taken to be of the growth and manufacture of the territories of the French king, and the liquors shall

shall be destroyed, and all persons concerned in the importation or sale thereof shall suffer the penalties mentioned in stat. 1 Will. & Mar. stat. 1. cap. 34. viz. They shall forfeit the value for the first offence; and for the second offence, double the value, and shall be disabled to bear office: the values to be stated as follows, viz. a tun of wine 30 l. a tun of brandy 40 l. and commodities rated according to the book of rates, and other commodities, by a jury.

Revised by 12 Will. III. cap. 11. sect. 8. and continued by 3 Ann. cap. 4. 5 Ann. cap. 19. and made perpetual by 1 Geo. I. stat. 2. cap. 12.

Stat. 12 Will. III. cap. 11. sect. 18. No person shall sell brandy, or other distilled liquors, to be drunk in his house, but such only as shall be licensed in the same manner as ale-house-keepers, and subject to the same penalties: and the justices of peace, &c. are authorized to exercise the same jurisdiction over retailers of brandy, &c. as over common ale-house-keepers.

Seçt. 20. If foreign brandy, or spirits, shall be imported in any ship under 15 tons (except for the use of the seamen, not exceeding one gallon each) such brandy, &c. shall be forfeited, one moiety to his majesty, and the other to such person as shall seize, or sue, for the same.

Stat. 1 Ann. cap. 14. sect. 1. Concerning distillers who keep places for distilling English brandy and strong waters, from malted corn, and all shop-keepers, who principally deal more in other goods than in brandy and strong waters, and who do not permit tipping in their houses, the clause in stat. 1, 2, and 3 Will. III. cap. 11. sect. 18. shall be repealed.

Seçt. 2. If any person shall import French brandy before the duty be paid or secured, or by licence from the proper officer, every person that shall so do, or be assisting therein, or conceal the same, when landed, shall forfeit not only the goods imported, but also double the value, one moiety (after charges of suit deducted) to her majesty, and the other to the informer: and, if any officer of the revenue shall connive at such clandestine importation, or conceal the same, or compound, without licence, with any person concerned in clandestine importation of French brandy, such person shall be incapable of office in the revenue, and shall forfeit 500 l. to be divided as aforesaid.

6 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 12. All persons who shall become distillers, or sellers of, or dealers in, brandy, arrack, rum, spirits, or strong waters, shall, before they take any such brandy, &c. into their custody, make entry, at the office of excise, of the several warehouses, &c. intended by them to be made use of for the keeping of brandy, &c. on forfeiture of 20 l. for every such warehouse, &c. made use of by such distiller, &c. without making such entry, together with the brandy, &c. found therein, and all the casks, &c. containing the same.

Seçt. 13. No brandy shall be brought into such warehouse, &c. without first giving notice to the officer of excise of the division, and producing, and leaving with him, an authentic certificate, that the duties chargeable on all the said brandy, &c. have been paid, or that the same has been condemned as forfeited, or was part of the stock of some importer, distiller, &c. of which an account had been taken pursuant to this act, and expressing the quantity and quality thereof, and at what port the duties were paid, or the brandy, &c. condemned, or of whose stock the same was part, on forfeiture of the brandy, &c. together with the casks and vessels containing the same.

Seçt. 14. The officers of excise may at all times, by day and by night (and, if by night, in the presence of a constable, or other peace-officer) enter into the said warehouses, &c. made use of by any distiller, &c. and by tasting, gauging, or otherwise, take account of the quantity and quality of all such of the said liquors as shall be in their custody; and if any distiller, &c. shall hinder, or refuse, the said officers to enter his warehouse, &c. or obstruct them in the execution of the powers by this act given them, he shall forfeit 50 l.

Seçt. 15. No brandy, &c. shall be sold, or exposed to sale either by wholesale or retail, but when the same shall be in some of the warehouses, &c. so entered, on pain of forfeiting 50 s. for every gallon of brandy, &c. sold, or exposed to sale, in any other place, and so proportionably.

Seçt. 16. Where any brandy, &c. shall be sold in the said entered places, in great or small quantities, the officers of excise of the division shall be obliged, upon the request of the seller, without fee, to give the buyers thereof certificates in writing, signed by the said officers, expressing the quantities so sold, the names of the buyers and sellers thereof, and that the duty has been paid, or that the same has been condemned as forfeited, or was part of such stock, as aforesaid.

Seçt. 17. No brandy, &c. exceeding the quantity of one gallon, shall be removed, or carried from one part of this kingdom to another, by land or by water, without a permit, or certificate, from one of the officers of the customs, or excise, certifying the quantity and quality thereof, and that the duties have been satisfied, or that the same had been condemned, or was part of such stock as aforesaid, on pain of forfeiting the brandy, &c. and the casks, &c.

Seçt. 18. Every person who shall have in his custody any brandy, &c. exceeding the quantity of 63 gallons, shall be deemed a dealer in brandy, &c. and subject to the survey of the officers of excise.

Seçt. 19. The penalties and forfeitures by this act given on account of brandy, &c. shall be sued for, &c. by the laws of excise, and one moiety thereof (the charges of suing for, &c. being first deducted) shall be to the king, and the other to him who shall seize, or sue for the same.

Seçt. 20. Where any brandy, &c. shall be seized, as forfeited, by any officer of either the said revenues, all such seizures (except where the seizure shall be made for unlawful importation, and the whole quantity of brandy, &c. at any one time for that cause seized does not exceed 63 gallons) shall, in a summary way, be heard and determined, viz. in case such seizure be made within the immediate limits of the chief excise-office in London, the same shall be determined, in a summary way, by the commissioners of excise, or the major part of them: and, if such seizure shall be made without the limits of the said excise-office in London, then the same shall be heard, &c. before two justices of peace residing near the place where such seizure shall be made; which commissioners and justices shall cause the person in whose custody such brandy, &c. was found, to be summoned to appear before them, and, upon their appearance or default, to examine in to the cause of the seizure, and give judgment, and to issue out their warrants for sale; and such judgments shall be final, not liable to appeal, or to be removed by certiorari.

Seçt. 21. Where any such brandy, &c. (except as before) shall be seized as forfeited, and no person within 20 days after appears to the officer who made such seizure, to claim the same, then, if such seizure shall be made within the limits of the chief office of excise in London, the officer who made the seizure may, after the expiration of 20 days, cause notice in writing to be signed by the solicitor of the excise, to be affixed at the Royal Exchange, signifying the day, and time of the day, that the commissioners of excise will proceed to hear the matter of such seizure, and to condemnation of the brandy, &c. And, if such seizure be made out of the limits of the chief excise-office, the officers who shall make such seizure may, after the expiration of 20 days, cause public notice to be given, by proclamation, at the next market-town to the place of seizure, on the next market-day after the expiration of the said 20 days, of the day and place when and where the justices will proceed to hear the matter of such seizure, and to the condemnation of such brandy, &c. in which cases the said commissioners and justices respectively are to proceed to examine into the cause of such seizures, and to give judgment for the condemnation of such brandy, &c. as on examination shall appear to be forfeited, and of the casks, &c. which judgments shall be final, as if the owners of the said brandy, &c. or the person in whose custody the same was, had been summoned to attend the said commissioners and justices, and shall not be liable to appeal, or to be removed by certiorari.

Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. sect. 11. All dealers in foreign brandy, spirits, or strong waters, who shall receive into their custody any British spirits, shall keep the same apart, and in separate places, from their foreign brandy, &c. on pain of forfeiting 10 s. for every gallon which shall be found in any vault, &c. where they shall keep any foreign brandy, &c. together with the casks, &c. wherein the same British spirits shall be found.

Seçt. 12. In case any officer of the excise shall find any increase of foreign brandy, &c. in the hands of any such dealer, over and above the quantity he found at the time of his last survey, such increase shall be deemed to be made by foreign brandy, &c. for which no duties were paid, and which had been privately brought by such dealer into the place where such increase shall be found, without permit, or payment of the duty, or any previous entry to any officer of the excise of bringing the same; and so much of the said foreign brandy, &c. as shall be found so increased, shall be forfeited, and may be seized by such officer, unless the owner shall make it appear, that such increase was made either by mixing some of his stock of British spirits, whereof the officer had taken an account, with his foreign brandy, &c. in the presence of the officer of excise of the division, or by foreign brandy, &c. brought into the place, with certificate of the payment of the duties, or that the same had been condemned, and that due notice was given to the officer of bringing in the same before it was brought in.

Seçt. 13. No foreign brandy, &c. although the same be under the quantity of one gallon, shall be received into the custody of a retailer, &c. or any person for his use, without a permit, or certificate, signed by some officer of the customs, or excise, signifying that the duties were paid, or secured, or that the same had been condemned as forfeited, on forfeiture of the brandy, together with the casks, &c.

Seçt. 24. All brandy, arrack, rum, spirits, and strong waters, as well foreign as British, and foreign exciseable liquor, which shall be forfeited, together with the casks, bottles, vessels, and other package, containing the same, may be seized by any officer of the customs, or excise, or by persons deputed by warrant

warrant from the lord-treasurer, or under-treasurer, or by special commission under the great-seal, or privy-seal, but by none others.

Seçt. 25. If any person shall assault, or hinder, any officer of the customs, or excise, in seizing or securing any brandy, &c. or foreign excisable liquors, which shall or may be seized, by virtue of this or any other act, or shall by force rescue any brandy, &c. after the same shall have been seized, or shall endeavour so to do, or shall, after seizure, save or damage any cask, &c. containing such brandy, &c. the party offending shall forfeit 40 l.

Stat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. seçt. 3. No brandy, arrack, rum, spirits, or strong waters, whether British or foreign, shall be sold, or exposed to sale, either by wholesale or retail, but when the same shall be in some of the warehouses, or other places, entered in pursuance of the act 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. on pain of forfeiting all such brandy, &c. together with the casks, &c. over and above the penalty of 40 s. per gallon, imposed by the said act.

Stat. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. seçt. 10. No person shall sell brandy, or other distilled liquors, by retail, but such as shall be licensed in the same manner as common alehouse-keepers, and subject to the same rules and penalties; and the justices of peace shall have the same jurisdiction over retailers of brandy, &c. as over alehouse-keepers.

Stat. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. seçt. 2. The duty (by stat. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 20.) of 30 l. per tun on French brandy of single proof, and 60 l. per tun on French brandy of double proof, shall cease.

Seçt. 3. In lieu of the said duties, there shall be paid to his majesty the excise herein expressed; viz. for every gallon of single brandy imported, to be paid by the importer, before landing, over and above the duties payable for the same, 1 s. For every gallon of double brandy imported, 2 s.

Seçt. 4. The said duties shall be collected in the same manner, &c. as the duties of excise.

As for the famous gin act, as it is vulgarly called, that is to say, the act against retailing spirituous liquors, which affected all sorts of brandies, as other spirits, it being now repealed, we think it needless to give an extract of it in this place. See DISTILLATION and MALT.

Further REMARKS ON BRANDY.

Although neither English malt nor molasses spirits come up to the goodness of brandy, yet the fault is not in the grain, or fruit, from which they are extracted, but from the different manner of their preparation; for both grapes and grain consist of the like principles, of oil, salt, phlegm, and earth, by a chemical analyzation; they differ only in the quantity and connection of their principles, for the grain has them more firmly and closely conjoined.—Hence appears the necessity of a double fermentation to swell the compact earthy parts, and to disengage and subtilize the oily and saline parts, that they may be separated from the more gross and earthy.

These spirits differ also in respect of their separability and volatility. Thus some wines, that are stronger bodied, abound more with sulphur and salt, afford less spirit than others that are thinner, and appear weaker; for the spirituous particles of the last are much smaller, lighter and finer, and are less entangled in a viscus; their spirits are more disposed to motion, and run more readily, and in larger quantity, from their earth and phlegm.

Spirits of the grape, or grain, are the oil, or salt of those vegetables, reduced into volatile particles, lighter than the phlegm wherewith they are entangled. These spirits are neither acid nor alkaline, but of a neutral nature as to both, which Boerhaave has sufficiently proved by divers experiments.

That there is no essential difference between brandy, molasses, and malt spirits, if they are thoroughly rectified, appears from hence; for, all spirits being obtained by distillation, it does not seem possible that the fire should make so great a difference as is generally believed. Wine distilled yields much spirit, which is only its oil and salt subtilized. After this spirit comes much phlegm; after that come over acid spirits, mixed with a sharp white nauseous astrigent phlegm; continue the distillation, and there arises a black, thick, burnt, stinking oil, which may be separated from the acid spirits by brown paper: after all, in the bottom of the still remains a mass of salt and earth, which may be separated with water.

This salt is a fixed, alkaline salt. Molasses, fermented with water, and cast into a still, yield the same. Grapes contain much oil, salt, and phlegm. Barley has much oil, and but a little essential salt. Sugar has in it much essential salt, and not a little oil. As all these spirits are in daily use with us, it may not be unacceptable to consider them a little further: for, as the better sort use what is called brandy, so the poorer must be content with malt spirits, which are cheaper, and whose ordinary imperfections are, 1. Want of age, which gives them an empty, rheumatic, and fiery taste, though some pretend to take it off by the proper application of the dulcified spirit of nitre. 2. It is of a lower standard than true French brandy, this having about seven parts of phlegm

to nine of spirits; the other nine parts phlegm to less than five of spirits, and often not so much; for if you cause 20 quarts of it to be put into a still, you will not get above two quarts of spirit, which would all burn away; i. e. nine parts phlegm to one of spirit. 3. It wants, likewise, the vinous flavour of true brandy; this some attempt to give by incorporating the dulcified spirit of nitre also, or young buds of black currant-berries, into it: but the remarkable taste of the first, and the cerified flavour of the other, in the ordinary process, discover the imposition.

Of judging of proof in spirits.

This being a commodity of general use, and, therefore, a large article of traffic, it may not be improper to shew the most exact methods of examining proof in spirits, and detecting the invalidity of the common methods of judging of the purity, genuineness, and goodness of brandies, &c. To which end, Take a long phial, half filled with the common proof spirit of the malt-distillers, and give it a smart stroke with its bottom against the palm of the hand, and there will appear, on the surface of the liquor, a chaplet, or crown of bubbles, which will disappear in a clear strong manner; that is, it will first remain a while, and then go off by degrees, without breaking the bubbles, or rising into larger: and, when the bubbles go off in this manner, the spirit is vulgarly said to be proof, or merchantable: for, if the bubbles are too large, and vanish too soon, the spirit is deemed above proof; if too small, and they go off too soon, it is said to be below proof. But this is a fallacious method of judging; because there are certain known ways of making a spirit bear this trial, when it is in reality either above or below proof: for the proper meaning of the word is, that a proof-spirit should contain about one half water, and the other half alcohol.

By the beforementioned kind of proof, however, all distillers, brandy merchants, brokers, and the officers of the customs and excise, judge of the strength and quality of brandies and spirits, in all the brandy countries and sea port towns of Europe. It may, therefore, appear singular here to oppose the general opinion and practice, in a particular where the interest of so many trading people, watchful against all imposition, is concerned: and yet we undertake to shew that this kind of proof is a mere fallacy and deception; for if but a little vinous or saccharine matter, as treacle, syrup, must, the rob of fruits, &c. be added to a quantity of highly-rectified spirit of wine, this slight addition will give a brandy-proof to that spirit, which, therefore, by this trial, may be made to pass for brandy; that is, a composition of half water and half alcohol, whereas, in reality, it is almost totally alcohol.

The fraud is easily detected; not in the common way practised upon the keys, but by burning a little of the spirit in a spoon, for thus it will leave the saccharine matter in a dry form, behind.

Whether there be any method commonly known of making any spirituous liquor of Europe that contains much less than a half of alcohol, to pass current for proof-spirit, is not so certain: but doubtless this might be easily effected; for we see that arrack is proof, or affords a strong crown of bubbles, upon shaking, as well as brandy, though arrack usually contains not above half the quantity of alcohol that brandy does; and if but a drop or two of its own, or any other essential oil, be added to a pint of proof-brandly, this is sufficient to destroy its proof, and make it appear much weaker than it is.

To prevent being imposed upon in this way, we might have recourse to the essay instrument, or hydrostatical balance: a gallon of alcohol is computed to weigh seven pounds and a half, and a gallon of water eight pounds; whence the compound gravity of an equal mixture of the two may be assigned. But it is a more sure and ready method for men of business to burn a little measured quantity of the brandy to be tried, in a cylindrical metalline vessel, plunged in cold water to an equal height with the brandy, and when it ceases to burn, exactly measuring the remainder, which is the water: but, if the spirit has lost one half of its measure by burning, the brandy may be allowed proof; if more or less, it must be judged of accordingly*.

* See a paper of Mr Geoffroy to this purpose, in the French Memoirs.

But, besides the false method of judging the strength of brandies by what is called proof, there is another no less fallacious one of judging of their goodness, though kept a great secret in few hands, as a thing some dealers imagine a certain criterion for determining whether foreign brandies are mixed with corn spirits. These dealers are provided with a certain yellow liquor, a few drops whereof, being poured into a glass of right French brandy, gives it a beautiful blue colour, by the strength and brightness of which colour they judge of the genuineness or unmixed state of the commodity, and buy upon this kind of proof; whence they may come to be much deceived; for, if an ordinary malt-spirit was to be coloured with oak, this spirit would sustain the present method of proof, and might therefore be purchased by those dealers for French brandy.

This proof tincture, or essay liquor, may be expeditiously prepared,

pared, by dissolving a little green vitriol (first calcined to redness) in a weak spirit of sea salt, which thus becomes a yellow liquor; a single drop or two of which being added to a glass of any inflammable spirit, coloured yellow or brown with oak, will instantly turn it of a beautiful bright blue: whence it is evident that this kind of trial is no more than a deception, and only shews when brandies are tinged with oak, as they constantly are by lying long in the cask; and that it is the oak which thus causes French brandies to turn blue with the essay liquor, appears again from hence, that, if the best and oldest French brandy be re-distilled, and thus made colourless, it will not turn blue with the essay liquor, because all the tincture of the oak, or tinging matter of the cask, is left behind in the still.

One of the best methods to prevent being imposed on by the mixing of malt-spirits with a finer, is to acquire the habit of judging by the taste and smell; for malt-spirit is usually rectified so ill, by the addition of fixed alkaline salts, or certain flavouring ingredients, that it may commonly be perceived by the nose or palate, especially if the brandy proposed for examination be largely diluted with water, to prevent its overheating the mouth; or else be burnt in a spoon, so as to leave the phlegm to be tasted and smelt by itself; for this phlegm, if the brandy be debased by a corn spirit, will taste and smell considerably nauseous, very different from the phlegm of pure French brandy.

Burying casks of brandy in the earth, or lying some months on the sea, takes off its hot, empty, rheumatic taste, makes it mild in the mouth, and warm upon the stomach; it is by the last of these methods that the Dutch impose upon us with molasses spirits, instead of right French brandy.

Of the use of brandy in regard to the health.

Brandy should be drank very moderately, rather from necessity than pleasure; so will it be of service, and contribute to health. When the stomach is raw, weak, and lax, a moderate dram raises a pleasant warmth, a gentle tension, and better digestion, by rarifying the viscid phlegm which loaded it, invigorating its fibres, and making its coats play with more agility and vigour. When flatulency, or wind, abounds in the intestines, a dram rarifies the retained, gross, perspirable matter, and prepares it from an explosion upwards or downwards, or sends it off by perspiration; it revives the languid nervous filaments, affords them new spirit and strength for action, whereby their peristaltic motion is promoted.

When the body is faint and languid, from a waste, or dissipation of the animal spirits, from excess of exercise, too long walking, fasting, or too low and abstemious a diet, whereby the nervous juice is exhausted, and the solids cannot act with their former vigour, a dram is so subtle before it is drunk, that, in its very swallowing, and as soon as it enters the stomach it penetrates the nerves, adds to the elasticity of the fibres, invigorates the vibrations, and takes off all sense of languor and faintness. For the same reasons, when the circulation of the blood is languid, from the decreased tone of the vessels, a dram excites their vigour, and causes a brisker circulation.

A dram taken in the decoction of mallows, and althæa-root, with a little honey, cleanses the kidneys, ureters, and bladder, powerfully; forces away sand, small stones, gravelly and slimy matter with the urine. A moderate dram used in dropical and cachectic cases, where the body is disposed to be over-bulky, and in danger of leucophlegmatia, or any other general, or particular tumours, from a laxness, or languor of the nervous system, as a thickness or toughness of the blood, especially of the lymphatic juices. In these cases a dram invigorates the fibres, rarifies the fluids (though a too frequent, or excessive use, of spirits, has the quite contrary effect) stimulates the vessels and secretory contractions, causes the blood to flow in the reins in larger quantity, and with greater velocity; hence the secretion of urine is increased, and, at the same time, perspiration encouraged.

When the stomach is weakened by a surfeit of tenacious food the preceding day, which has left much phlegm in the excretory ducts of its glands, or exhausted its spirits, a dram is good before dinner. Drams are chiefly useful to phlegmatic constitutions, bulky bodies, or old age, and such as have weak and lax stamina, exposing them to diseases of the head, and nervous disorders or dropies, &c.

But all these good effects will not counterbalance the mischiefs done by the indiscreet and immoderate use of spirits. All melancholy tempers are injured by them; for, though a small dram rarifies the blood at first, yet the more thin and spirituous parts exhale sooner, and carry off some of the finest serum with them, whereby the blood becomes thicker, and the solids more dry and stiff.

Choleric dispositions have their fibres too much stimulated by its use; the acrimony of the blood and its motion, and agitation, are increased by it. The repeated use of unnecessary drams, in sanguine constitutions, rarifies the blood at first, makes it distend the vessels, and some unprepared parts rush into the canals of conic tubes, where they cannot readily pass; hence fevers and other disorders. A too free use of them, in any constitution, puts the humours into a violent

agitation; whereby their nutritious parts are unfit to answer their design, for this great rarefaction is often succeeded by a thinness and wateriness of the blood; hence an ill habit of body, a pale look, and a decay of the natural actions.

All spirits cause drunkenness, by an overfusion of the fluids, and distention of their containing vessels; hence head-achs and pains from saline spicula darting into and prickling the relaxed vessels, and the slimy matter deposited on their insides, which weakens them and soaks them with phlegm, till the person become paralytic, lethargic, apoplectic, and convulsed, and often spirits kill the drinker upon the spot; from all which we cannot help thinking, that the world had been happier, had men never been accustomed to brandy or spirits; for such as content themselves with water, or good table beer, are by far more vigorous, healthy, and long-lived than drammers, who mostly make themselves diseased, and at length become more like beasts than men.

BRASS, a factitious metal, composed of several metals mixed together, among which the chief is copper. That which the French call *leton*, or yellow copper, is red or natural copper, prepared with the lapis calaminaris. See **CALAMINE**. Before the lapis calaminaris is put into the foundry, it must be thoroughly calcined, then ground into powder, afterwards mixed with coal-dust, and watered, so that it be no longer like dust.

The calamine-stone being thus prepared, they divide it, as well as the rose-copper, into eight equal parts, and put it into eight crucibles, one part of each into every one, and place them all into the same furnace, where being melted, it is transformed into brass: so that, instead of any waste or diminution, there is an augmentation or increase of 48 or 50 pounds per hundred, if copper of Hungary or Sweden be used; that of Norway yielding but 38, and that of Italy but 20.

Brass must be hammered or forged rather hot than otherwise, for it breaks, if hammered quite cold; and, after it has been twice melted, it is no longer malleable; the workmen not being able to use it then, unless they add a due proportion of lead to it, which renders it soft and easy to work.

It is certain, that brass often melted loses that degree of ductility it has, when first made; which inconviency is remedied, by adding to it, when melting, eight or ten pounds of old copper to an hundred weight, but no lead.

Brass is used to make great guns: some reckon the best method is to put into the quantity of eleven or twelve thousand weight of metal, ten thousand of rose-copper, nine hundred pounds of tin, and six hundred of brass.

But Mr Chandler observes, that the best brass-guns are not made with pure copper and calaminaris, but that coarser metals must be mixed therewith, as lead and pot-metal, to make it run close and fonder. See the article **FOUNDERY**.

What they call brass-wire, or brass in hoops, is brass drawn through the wire-drawing-iron.

For making the finest statues of brass, the proportion is one half of copper, and one half of brass. The Egyptians, whom some think the inventors of this art, used to put two thirds of brass to one third of copper: rose-copper is not so proper for casting statues as that which is hammered.

In common brass the alloy is made with tin, and even with lead, when people would be saving. But the latter ought not to be used in brass designed for statues. For brass-guns, they put ten or twelve pounds of tin to a hundred of brass. For bells, they put twenty or twenty-four pounds of tin to the same weight of copper, to which they add two pounds of antimony, to render the sound more soft; and they put but three or four pounds for kitchen-furniture.

Corinthian brass has been famous in all antiquity. L. Mummius having sacked and burnt the city of Corinth, in the 158th olympiad, or 146 years before Christ, it is pretended, that this precious metal was formed from the immense quantity of gold, silver, and copper with which that city abounded; which being all melted and mixed together by the fierceness of the fire, composed, as it were, a new metal. The statues and vessels which were afterwards made of it by excellent artists, were esteemed of great value: and, though it is commonly the sculptor's hand, which enhances the price of those pieces of workmanship, yet, on this occasion, the matter seemed to vie with, or even to excel above the ordinary perfection of art.

They who have given an accurate account of this metal, distinguish three sorts of it; in one gold was predominant, in the next silver, and in the last gold, silver, and copper were in equal parts. It is very probable, that what was formerly owing to chance, might at present be imitated by art: but, as most things are chiefly valued on account of their scarcity, it is but too true, that the ease with which an artist might now make such brass, would render it less valuable, how like soever it might be to that of Corinth.

BRASS is also a colour prepared by the braziers and colourmen to imitate brass. There are two sorts of it; the red brass, or bronze, as the French call it, and the yellow or gilt brass. The latter is made only of copper filings, the smallest and brightest that can be found; with the former, they mix some red ochre finely pulverized. They are both used with varnish. In order to make a fine brass, that will not take any

ruff or verdegreafe, it muft be dried with a chafing-difh of coals, as foon as it is applied.

The fineft brafs colour is made with powder-brafs, imported from Germany, diluted into a varnifh, made and ufed after the following manner. The varnifh is compofed of one pound and four ounces of fpirit of wine, two ounces of gum-lack, two ounces of fandarac: thefe two laft drugs are pulverized feparately, and afterwards put to difolve in fpirits of wine, taking care to fill the bottle but half full, otherwife it would burft: in all proceffes, in which fpirit of wine is made to act by means of fire, the veffels muft be exactly flopped with a hog's bladder, and but half full. The varnifh being made, you mix fuch quantity as you pleafe of it with the pulverized brafs, and apply it with a fmall bruff to what you would brafs over. But you muft not mix too much at once, becaufe, the varnifh being very apt to dry, you would not have time to employ it all foon enough; it is therefore better to make the mixture at feveral times. After this manner they brafs over figures of plafter, which look as well as if they were of caft brafs.

BRAZIER, a maker or feller of brafs-ware.

The company of freemen braziers of the city of Paris is very ancient, and had ftatutes of their own, a great while before the reign of Charles VI.

The regulations, at prefent, relating to them, regard chiefly the jurats, apprentices, brokers, and foreigners, or thofe who are not free of that corporation.

Of the four jurats, who take care of the company's affairs, and whole bufinefs it is to make a proper fearch or vifitation at the mafters or freemens houfes, there are two chofen every year.

The freemen can have two apprentices at a time, whom they cannot bind for lefs than fix years: and apprentices cannot obtain their freedom, unlefs they perform a mafter-piece of workmanfhip.

The two brokers of the company are chofen by a majority of votes, and are obliged to give the freemen notice of the arrival of foreign traders: they cannot be brokers and taders at the fame time; that is to fay, that they are not allowed to buy any brazier's ware for their own account, and their brokerage is limited.

Finally, all foreign traders, and fuch as are not free of the company, are forbidden to fell, diftribute, and vend, within the city and fuburbs of Paris, any brazier's ware, except by wholefale, and for a fum exceeding 40 livres.

R E M A R K S.

This trade, as exercifed in England, may be reckoned a branch of the fmithery, though they feldom keep forges, except for brazing or foldering, and tinning the infides of their veffels, which they work up chiefly out of copper and brafs, prepared rough to their hands. They confift of a working part, and a fhop-keeping part, which latter many carry on to a great extent, dealing as well in all forts of iron and fteel, as copper and brafs goods for houfhould furniture; and lately have fell much into felling what is called French plate, made of a fort of white metal, filvered and polished to fuch a nicety, as the eye cannot foon difcover it from real filver.

The ftatutes in England, relating to this bufinefs, are in fubftance as follows, viz.

By ftat. 19 Hen. VII. c. 6. feft. 1. Brafs to be fold in open fairs and markets, on pain of 10 l. And to be worked according to the goodnefs of metal worked in London, or be liable to forfeiture; and uſing falſe weights to forfeit 20 s. Searchers of brafs and pewter likewife to be appointed in every city, &c.

By 4 Hen. VIII. c. 7. Brafs ware defective to be forfeited. By 25 Hen. VIII. c. 9. Tin or pewter wares not to be bent out of the realm, on pain of forfeiture; and officers to fearch and make feizures, &c. Pewterers not to teach their trades to foreigners.

33 Hen. VIII. c. 4. This ftatute makes the act 25 Hen. VIII. perpetual, and inflicts a penalty of 5 l. for refuſing the fearch of brafs, tin, &c.

33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. Conveying out of the realm, brafs, copper, bell-metal, &c. (except tin and lead) to forfeit double value.

2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 37. This act adds the penalty of 10 l. for every thouſand weight, beſides the double value of tranſporting brafs, &c. But metal made of Englifh ore may be exported, by the ftatute 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 17.

4 and 5 W. and M. c. 5. For brafs wrought and imported there is a duty of 5 l. per cent.

9 and 10 W. III. c. 39. Brafs and copper, &c. to be spun upon thread, and not ſilk, on pain of 5 s. per ounce. And no thread made of copper, brafs, &c. or wire wrought, to be imported on pain of forfeiture.

7 Ann. c. 8. Exportation of Britiſh copper and brafs wire to pay no duty.

By 8 Geo. I. c. 15. Brafs manufactures of all forts, exported free.

BRAZIL, a territory in South America, belonging to the Portugueze, is bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean,

on the weſt by the land of Amazons, on the north by Terra Firma, and ſome part by the ſame ocean, and on the ſouth by Paraguay and another part of the ſame ocean. It extends itſelf chiefly from north to ſouth, except at the two extreme ends, where the coaſts wind toward the weſt; ſo that it's utmoſt ſtretch, which is from cape Aquara, which lies about 30 minutes ſouth of the equinoctial line, in weſt longitude 51: 40. to that of St Vincent about 30 minutes ſouth of the tropic of Capricorn, and in longitude 45. 10. weſt. is full 23 degrees and a half, or 470 leagues, or 1410 miles; where it muſt be obſerved, that ſome geographers give it a larger extent ſouthward; even as far as the 25th degree; ſo that according to that dimenſion, and the winding of the coaſt, it's length may be reckoned to extend above 2000 miles. As for it's breadth from eaſt to weſt, if we take it from cape St Auguſtin, which is the fartheſt eaſtward under the 35th degree of weſt longitude to the 51ſt, where it's weſtern boundaries are commonly fixed, it may be computed ſomewhat above 300 leagues, or 900 miles; but it's territories reach but a little way into the inland, and conſequently it's breadth bears no proportion to it's length. As for the coaſts of Brazil, they begin at the mouth of the great river of the Amazons, whence they run almoſt eaſtward as far as cape St Roque; that is, from 35. 40. to 49 degrees of longitude, or about 450 leagues, from which they take a winding ſouthwards, quite to the Spaniſh province of Guayra, from which it is parted by the river Capibari, two or three leagues from the town of St Vincent. So that almoſt the whole county lies under the torrid zone, there being but very few places in it which reach beyond the ſouthern tropic.

Mr Nieuhoff, who reſided ſome years in it, and one of the lateſt that hath wrote of it, informs us, that Brazil is excellently well qualified for the producing of all things that are generally found to grow in the Weſt-Indies about the ſame climate, but, in his time, had neither mines of gold or ſilver worth taking notice of, at leaſt none ſuch had then been diſcovered there. However, with regard to the gold mines, we have been ſince informed, that they have found ſome conſiderable ones, from which they get plenty of that metal, and with much more eaſe than they do in thoſe of Peru, &c. (Rogers.) But the riches of this country, and, indeed, of all America, are thoſe of diamonds, ſo large and beautiful, that the king of Portugal hath forbid them to be digged, to prevent the exceſſive fall of the price of that ſo much valued commodity. Nieuhoff likewiſe extols the conveniency of it's ſituation for trade, and it's many noble rivers and commodious harbours for ſhipping: to which he adds, that though it be under a very hot climate, viz. between the line and the tropic, yet it's exceſſive heat is greatly allayed by the eaſt winds from the ocean; which, being interrupted by neither iſlands nor mountains, blow ſo full and pleaſant upon it, that it is altogether healthy and delightful, and free from thoſe diſtempers which commonly rage in countries of the ſame latitude, as in Guinea, Angola, &c. where thoſe ſea-breezes have not the ſame free paſſage. The plague is a thing unknown in Brazil, though the inhabitants are not free from ſome putrid fevers, occaſioned by the heat and moiſtneſs of the air, as well as by the exceſſive uſe of fruit. Sugar and tobacco are their principal commodities; and theſe they have in great plenty, and are inferior to none in quality, more eſpecially their tobacco, if kept 'till it be old; for, when too new, it is ſtrong and intoxicating: and this is, perhaps, the reaſon why the commerce of it is here ſo inconfiderable, except in ſnuff, to what it is in other parts of America. Other commodities of this country are, ambergreaſe in ſmall quantities, roſin, train-oil, ſweetmeats in great abundance, hides, ginger, indigo, and eſpecially the moſt excellent balaſam, called capayva, beſides the vaſt quantities of Brazil-wood, which is every where known by that name.

The chief commerce of the Portugueze conſiſts in that from Europe to their Brazil colonies; which, ſince the Dutch quitted them in 1654, their trade thither is ſo ſurprizingly increaſed and improved, and they are become ſo ſtrong and populous there, eſpecially ſince their diſcovery of the gold mines, that they have advanced their commerce to more than twenty times the value of what it was in thoſe days.

This increaſe of their trade adds a very great increaſe to the wealth, and conſequently to the ſtrength of their government, as well as to that of their private merchants; for it has been eſtimated from a reaſonable computation, that the revenue of the king is ſo advanced by this trade, that it does not amount to leſs than two millions ſterling annually in gold, beſides the cuſtoms of the merchandizes imported from thence. As the return is thus enlarged from the Brazils, eſpecially in gold; ſo the export of all forts of manufactures from Europe is increaſed to ſuch a degree, as is not eaſy to ſay, and which is chiefly occaſioned by the exceſſive confluence of people to thoſe colonies, as well from other countries as from Portugal.

The principal exportation of European goods to the Brazils, are as follow, viz.

Woollen manufactures of Great-Britain, ſuch as

Fine broad medley cloths.

Spaniſh cloths, dyed ſcarlet, crimſon and black.

Serges and duroys, druggets and sagathies.
Shalloons and camblets.

Norwich stuffs.

Colchester bays dyed black.

Sayes and perpetuana's, called long elcs.

Hats, stockings, and gloves.

Linnen manufactures of Holland, Germany, and France, especially fine hollands, bone-lace, and fine thread.

Silk manufactures, from France and Genoa.

Paper also from both, &c.

Likewise lead, iron, block-tin; copper and brafs from England, wrought and unwrought, but especially of the wrought iron, brafs, and pewter, a very great quantity as well as variety.

These exportations exceedingly add to the trade of Portugal for the Brazils, and increase that trade so much, that whereas twelve ships a year from thence were usually the bulk of their commerce, they now receive three fleets; that is to say, from three particular ports, and these sometimes twice a year: so that their commerce thither, at present, generally employs above 100 sail of ships a year.

This will be allowed, we may suppose, a considerable sign of the increase of the commerce of the country.

But to this may be added, the increase of the returns from the Brazils: which, though they are still confined to the same chief articles as formerly, namely, sugar, hides, tobacco, and Brazil wood, are yet so increased in quantity, that they have near four times as much of those goods brought from thence every year as they usually had.

This advance of the Portugal trade, by means of their Brazil colonies, has improved their shipping, increased the numbers of their seamen, and not a little the credit of their whole country.

The ships for the Brazils, being under the orders of the government, have their seasons of going out appointed them, and are obliged to go in fleets; nor can any ship go single, or at any other time than with the fleets, but by a special licence from the king, and that is very rarely granted. The seasons for their going are thus,

The fleet for Rio de Janeiro goes out in January.

For Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February.

For Femembuque in March.

The Portuguese having various considerable settlements in Africa, they carry from thence every year a very great number of slaves to the Brazils; and, as their colony there is exceeding great and populous, as well as rich, were it not that they have such extended settlements on that coast for the supply of negroes, it is thought by some that they would not be able to carry on their sugar works, their mines, and other planting business in the Brazils, where the slaves are not long-lived. See AMERICA and PORTUGAL.

BRAZIL WOOD, thus called, because it came at first from Brazil, a province in South America.

It is differently furnished, according to the several places from which it is imported: thus there is the Brazil wood of Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, the Brazil wood of Japan, that of Lamon, that of Santa Martha, and lastly the Brasillet, which is esteemed the worst. This last comes from the Antilles islands.

The Brazil wood of Japan is otherwise called Sapan: there is the large one and the small one: the large is simply called Sapan, and the small Sapan bimaës.

The tree of the Brazil wood grows commonly in dry barren places, among rocks. It becomes very thick and tall, and pushes out long branches, whose twigs are furnished with a vast quantity of small leaves, half round, of a fine-bright green, pretty much like those of box, but longer, hard, dry, and brittle. It's trunk is seldom straight, but crooked and knotty, almost like the hawthorn. There comes twice a year, at the extremity of the branches, and between the leaves, small bunches of flowers, which are somewhat long, pretty, much like those of the lily of the valley, of a bright red, and an agreeable aromatic smell, very comfortable to the brain, which it strengthens: these are succeeded by a flat red fruit, which contains two small flat seeds, of a most lively red; these seeds are a kind of almonds, of the form of a pumpkin seed.

Though the trunk of this tree be very thick, yet it is covered with so gross a bark, that, when the savages have taken it off from the wood, a trunk, which before was as thick as a man's body, remains, as it were, a log not bigger than his leg.

The Brazil wood is very heavy, very dry, and very hard; it crackles very much in the fire, and emits hardly any smoke, because of its excessive dryness.

None of those different sorts of Brazil woods have any pith, except that of Japan: that of Fernambuco is reckoned the best. It must be chosen in thick pieces or logs, heavy, compact, very sound, without any part of inner bark upon it, and without the least rottenness, and such, as after splitting

it, from pale becomes reddish; and that, being chewed, it has a sweetish taste, like sugar.

This wood is proper for turners work, and takes a good polish: but it's chief use is for dyeing, where it serves for a red colour. However, by the regulations made in France, the dyers of rich and valuable stuffs are forbidden to use it, because it yields but a spurious colour, which fades very soon. Yet the dyers of inferior stuffs are suffered to use it, though it be subject to very great inconveniencies.

From the Brazil wood of Fernambuco, they extract, by means of acids, a kind of carmine: they also make of it a liquid lacca for painting in miniature. And, with a tincture of this wood often repeated, they make that reddish chalk, which is called rosetta; but it is nothing but the white of Roan, to which the Brazil wood gives the colour of an amaranthus.

Some pretend that a decoction of this wood, that is to say, of the heart is good for pains in the stomach, that it strengthens it; and that it is even used with good success in some agues. See Voyages du Chevalier des Marchais, Tom. I. p. 91.

BREAD, a baked mass of dough, which is a constant part of man's food.

Though the master-bakers of Paris, knead, bake, and sell bread to the inhabitants of that great city, yet the bakers of the small towns and villages have liberty to carry their bread thither, and expose it to sale on the fixed market-days, which are Wednesdays and Saturdays in every week. The bakers in the city and those of the suburbs, who were formerly two distinct companies, have been united into one under the reign of Lewis XIV, by an edict given in August, 1711. See BAKERS.

The corn which is most commonly used in Europe, to make the flour of which bread is made, is wheat, rye, and mesling, mescelin, or mallin, which is a mixture of both. In a great scarcity of wheat, poor people make bread with oats or barley. Buck-wheat is also pretty much used in some provinces in France.

In several parts of Asia, Africa, and America, they make bread of maize flour; beside which, they have in America the cassave, the root of which is a rank poison; but it's substance, being dried and scraped, makes a pretty delicate and nourishing bread.

The several sorts of meal with which the bakers of Paris make their bread, are the pure flour of meal for soft bread; the white meal, next after the flour for white bread; the remains of the first bolting, mixed with what we have called the white meal, for white household bread; the last bolting of the bran, mixed with the two last mentioned sorts, for brown bread: and, when corn and flour are very scarce, they make household bread with the meal of bran sent a third time to the mill. Some get bran to be ground in the mill to make rolls, because it rises better than flour, but it does not make such good rolls by far.

The bakers of Paris, as well as the country bakers, who carry their bread thither to market on Wednesdays and Saturdays, are obliged to mark the loaves on the upper part, that the citizens who buy them may know how much they weigh. In order to make the weight exact, a certain proportion must be observed between the dough before it is set to the oven, and the bread when it is baked, because of the diminution occasioned by the baking, which is always proportionably greater in small loaves than in large ones.

The large loaves, exposed to sale in the market at Paris, do commonly weigh 12 pounds, and the small ones two pounds. The proportion between the raw dough and the baked loaves, as they come out of the oven, from the loaves of twelve pounds to those of two, is as follows: one pound for loaves of twelve; three quarters of a pound for those of ten and eight pounds; half a pound for those of six and of five pounds; and a quarter of a pound for those of three and of two pounds. They also make loaves of nine, seven, and four pounds, the diminution of which is regulated at the rate of those to which they come nearest.

The defects or faults of bread, according to the regulations, are, to be slack, or over baked, dry, or hard.

The statutes in England relating to bread are, 8 Ann. c. 18. The lord mayor of London, mayor, &c. of any city, &c. or two justices, where there shall be no such magistrates, shall set the affize and weight of bread. Every baker to set a mark on his bread. Bread, wanting in weight or goodness, to be distributed to the poor.

1 Geo. I. c. 26. And forfeiture of 5 s. per ounce for every ounce wanting weight, and 2 s. 6 d. for less than an ounce, on complaint within twenty-four after baked or exposed to sale within the bills of mortality, and within three days in other places.

The affize of bread for the city of London and bills of mortality (except Westminster, Southwark, and the bills of mortality in Surry) to be set by the lord mayor and aldermen.

The ASSIZE of BREAD, in pounds, ounces, and drams, avoirdupois. In the first column is the price of the bushel of wheat, from 2 s. to 15 s. the allowance for baking included; and in the other columns the weight of the loaves. Note, The white loaves are one half, and the wheaten three quarters of the weight of household loaves.

The price of the bushel of wheat.	SMALL BREAD.											
	The penny loaf.						Two-penny loaf.					
	White.		Wheat.		Houfh.		White.		Wheaten.		Houfhold.	
	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.
2 0	23	3	34	12	46	5	2	14	5	4	5	8
2 1	20	10	30	14	41	3	2	9	3	3	13	13
2 2	18	9	27	13	37	1	2	5	1	3	7	10
2 3	16	14	25	4	33	11	2	1	11	3	2	9
2 4	15	7	23	3	30	14	1	14	14	2	14	5
3 0	14	4	21	6	28	8	1	12	8	2	10	12
3 1	13	4	19	14	26	8	1	10	8	2	7	12
3 2	12	6	18	9	24	11	1	8	11	2	5	3
3 3	11	9	17	6	23	3	1	7	3	2	2	12
3 4	10	14	16	6	21	13	1	5	13	2	0	11
4 0	10	5	15	7	20	10	1	4	10	1	14	14
4 1	9	12	14	10	19	8	1	3	8	1	13	4
4 2	9	4	13	14	18	9	1	2	9	1	11	13
4 3	8	13	13	4	17	10	1	1	10	1	10	8
4 4	8	7	12	10	16	14	1	0	14	1	9	4
5 0	8	1	12	1	16	2	1	0	2	1	8	3
5 1	7	12	11	9	15	7	1	15	7	1	7	3
5 2	7	7	11	2	14	13	1	14	13	1	6	4
5 3	7	2	10	11	14	4	1	13	12	1	5	6
5 4	6	14	10	5	13	12	1	12	11	1	4	7
6 0	6	10	9	15	13	4	1	11	10	1	3	8
6 1	6	6	9	9	12	13	1	10	9	1	2	9
6 2	6	3	9	4	12	6	1	9	8	1	1	10
6 3	7	2	11	1	14	3	1	8	7	1	0	11
6 4	6	14	10	5	13	12	1	7	6	1	0	12
7 0	6	10	9	15	13	4	1	6	5	1	0	13
7 1	6	6	9	9	12	13	1	5	4	1	0	14
7 2	6	3	9	4	12	6	1	4	3	1	0	15
7 3	6	0	9	0	11	15	1	3	2	1	0	16
7 4	5	13	8	11	11	9	1	2	1	1	0	17
8 0	5	10	8	7	11	4	1	1	0	1	0	18
8 1	5	7	8	3	10	14	1	0	0	1	0	19
8 2	5	5	7	15	10	9	1	0	0	1	0	20
8 3	5	2	7	12	10	5	1	0	0	1	0	21
8 4	5	0	7	8	10	0	1	0	0	1	0	22
9 0	4	14	7	5	9	12	1	0	0	1	0	23
9 1	4	12	6	2	9	8	1	0	0	1	0	24
9 2	4	10	6	15	9	4	1	0	0	1	0	25
9 3	4	8	6	13	9	1	1	0	0	1	0	26
9 4	4	7	6	10	8	13	1	0	0	1	0	27
10 0	4	5	6	7	8	10	1	0	0	1	0	28
10 1	4	3	6	3	8	7	1	0	0	1	0	29
10 2	4	2	6	3	8	4	1	0	0	1	0	30
10 3	4	0	6	1	8	1	1	0	0	1	0	31
10 4	3	15	5	15	7	14	1	0	0	1	0	32
11 0	3	14	5	13	7	12	1	0	0	1	0	33
11 1	3	13	5	11	7	9	1	0	0	1	0	34
11 2	3	11	5	9	7	7	1	0	0	1	0	35
11 3	3	10	5	7	7	4	1	0	0	1	0	36
11 4	3	9	5	6	7	2	1	0	0	1	0	37
12 0	3	8	5	4	7	0	1	0	0	1	0	38
12 1	3	7	5	2	6	14	1	0	0	1	0	39
12 2	3	6	5	1	6	12	1	0	0	1	0	40
12 3	3	5	4	15	6	10	1	0	0	1	0	41
12 4	3	4	4	14	6	8	1	0	0	1	0	42
13 0	3	3	4	13	6	6	1	0	0	1	0	43
13 1	3	2	4	11	6	5	1	0	0	1	0	44
13 2	3	1	4	10	6	3	1	0	0	1	0	45

The price of the bushel of wheat.	LARGER BREAD.											
	Six penny loaf.				12 Penny loaf.				18 Penny loaf.			
	Wheaten.		Houfhold.		Wheaten.		Houfhold.		Wheaten.		Houfhold.	
	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Pounds.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.
2 0	13	0	9	17	6	1	26	1	2	34	12	2
2 1	11	9	6	15	7	3	23	2	12	30	14	5
2 2	10	6	13	13	14	7	20	13	11	27	12	14
2 3	9	7	11	12	10	4	18	15	5	25	4	7
2 4	8	11	0	11	9	6	17	6	1	23	2	12
3 0	8	0	5	10	11	2	16	0	11	21	6	4
3 1	7	7	3	9	14	14	14	14	5	19	13	13
3 2	6	15	4	9	4	5	13	14	7	18	8	10
3 3	6	8	4	8	11	0	13	0	9	17	6	1
3 4	6	2	2	8	2	14	12	4	2	16	5	11
4 0	5	12	11	7	11	9	11	9	6	15	7	3
4 1	5	7	13	7	5	1	10	15	10	14	10	4
4 2	5	3	7	6	15	4	10	6	13	13	14	3
4 3	4	15	7	6	9	15	9	14	14	13	3	14
4 4	4	11	13	6	5	2	9	7	11	12	2	12
5 0	4	8	9	6	0	11	9	1	1	12	1	7
5 1	4	5	8	5	12	11	8	11	1	11	9	6
5 2	4	2	12	5	9	0	8	5	8	11	1	13
5 3	4	0	3	5	5	9	8	0	5	10	1	2
5 4	3	13	13	5	2	6	7	11	9	10	4	12
6 0	3	11	9	4	15	7	7	3	9	14	14	5
6 1	3	9	8	4	12	11	7	3	1	9	9	7
6 2	3	7	10	4	10	2	6	15	4	9	4	5
6 3	3	5	13	4	7	12	6	11	10	8	15	8
6 4	3	4	2	4	5	8	6	8	4	8	11	1
7 0	3	2	9	4	3	7	6	5	2	8	6	13
7 1	3	1	1	4	1	7	5	2	2	7	5	14
7 2	3	0	0	3	0	9	4	1	1	6	4	15
7 3	2	14	5	3	13	13	5	12	11	7	11	9
7 4	2	13	1	3	12	2	5	10	3	7	8	4
8 0	2	11	14	3	10	9	5	7	13	7	5	1
8 1	2	10	12	3	9	1	5	5	9	7	2	10
8 2	2	9	11	3	7	10	5	3	7	6	15	4
8 3	2	8	11	3	6	4	5	1	6	6	12	8
8 4	2	7	12	3	4	15	4	1	7	6	9	15
9 0	2	6	13	3	3	12	4	13	10	6	7	7
9 1	2	5	15	3	2	9	4	11	10	6	5	2
9 2	2	4	1	3	1	7	4	10	6	5	4	9
9 3	2	3	4	3	0	6	4	8	9	6	3	11
9 4	2	2	3	2	5	5	4	7	0	5	14	11
10 0	2	2	2	2	4	5	4	5	8	4	8	11
10 1	2	1	2	13	6	4	4	2	5	10	13	8
10 2	2	1	6	2	12	8	4	2	12	5	9	0
10 3	2	0	11	2	11	10	4	1	7	5	7	4
10 4	2	0	1	2	10	12	4	0	3	5	5	0
11 0	1	15	8	2	10	0	3	14	15	5	3	15
11 1	1	14	14	2	9	3	3	13	13	5	2	6
11 2	1	14	5	2	8	7	3	12	11	5	0	14
11 3	1	13	13	2	7	12	3	11	9	4	15	7
11 4	1	13	4	2	7	0	3	10	9	4	14	1
12 0	1	12	12	2	6	6	3	9	8	4	12	11
12 1	1	12	4	2	5	11	3	8	9	4	13	7
12 2	1	11	13	2	5	1	3	7	10	4	10	2
12 3	1	11	3	2	5							

sixteenth, or full half-ell, or half ell and one sixteenth: such are Egyptians, China fattins, camblettines, Modena's, fatts of Bruges, legatines, ferges, dauphines, flamines of Lude, brocatella's, linnens for waifcoats, silk fcarfs; oftades, half-oftades, dimitty, fuffians, &c.

Plain mohairs, burales, ferandines, &c. both plain and wrought, whose woof is of wool, hair, thread, &c. are of four different breadths, viz. a quarter and a half, half ell wanting one sixteenth, full half-ell, and half-ell and one sixteenth.

Thin flight silks, gauzes, flamines, crapaudailles, prifonnieres, and fuch like fluffs, as likewife fine crapes, either frizzled or fmooth, and coarfe crapes, are made according to their ufual breadth, which are not fet down in the regulations, but may be feen under the feveral articles of all thofe fluffs, in their alphabetical order.

The breadths of all fluffs is determined by the breadth of the flay of the loom on which they are wove, and by the number of threads in the warp. All thefe things are explained in the articles where each particular fluff is mentioned.

BREADTH of Linnen Cloths. The linnen cloths made at Laval are of four different breadth, called by the French the great breadth, the high, or middling breadth, the common breadth, and the fmall breadth. The reader will fee, in the following regulations, how much every breadth ought to meafure.

Regulations concerning the breadth of the linnen cloths manufactured in the city and viscounty of Laval, made in 1683, article 13.

Linnens of Laval, defigned for trade, ought to have one of the following breadths, meafured by the ell of that city.

1. The linnens called of the great breadth ought to be $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, one inch and an half broad, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be exactly $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, amounting to $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ lines, Paris meafure.

2. Thofe called of the high, or middling breadth, $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and 4 lines coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell and one inch broad, amounting to $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, 3 inches, 2 lines, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line, Paris meafure.

3. Thofe of the common breadth, $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell wanting an inch, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be $\frac{1}{2}$ and half a quarter in breadth, amounting exactly to $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell, Paris meafure.

4. Thofe of the fmalleft breadth muft be half an ell broad, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may have half an ell, wanting 9 lines, amounting to half an ell and one twelfth, Paris meafure.

Note, The Paris ell contains 3 feet, 7 inches, and 8 lines, of their meafure; the foot they divide, as we do, into 12 inches; but the inch they fubdivide into 12 parts, which they call lines (lignes).

The breadth of fluffs, and of all that is wove on the loom, and is meafured by the ell, the yard, &c. is taken between the lifts, or the felvages; and that which is contained between them is called the breadth.

The price of fluffs is in proportion to their nature and quality, and increafes or decreafes according to their breadth.

There are in France a great many regulations, which determine the breadth of all forts of fluffs, either of gold, filver, filk, wool, thread, &c. the chief of which regulations are thofe of the year 1669: we mention in another place both that, and all thofe that have been made fince.

We ufe the word breadth to fignify, in fome fenfe, the quantity requifite of any fluff to make the width of a garment: thus we fay, there muft be five breadths of callimanco to make that petticoat.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded with Radnorfhire on the north, from which it is divided by the river Wye; Herefordfhire on the eaft; Monmouthfhire on the fouth-eaft; Glamorganshire on the fouth and fouth-weft; Caermarthenfhire, and part of Cardiganshire, on the weft. Hence are fent great herds of cattle every year to England, from the mountains.

BRECKNOCK, a borough town, fituate on the river Ufk, has fome fhare in the woollen manufacture.

BEALT has a confiderable manufacture of ftockings:

BREMEN. The dutchy of Bremen has the Wefer on the weft; the Elbe, and part of Lunenburg, on the eaft; the German fea on the north; and part of Verden and Oldenburg on the fouth. The fituation of this country between the two navigable rivers, the Elbe and Wefer, has turned the thoughts of the people in general to trade. This country, with Verden, which was conquered by the king of Denmark in 1712, and then taken from the Swedes, was mortgaged to the Elector of Hanover, our late king, who, in 1715, had 250,000*l.* granted him by his parliament, to enable him to make a purchafe of it. There was a great oppofition made to this in both houfes, and a clamour raifed without doors. The legiflature wifely judged it might be of dangerous confequence to the crown of Great-Britain, that any foreign prince, efppecially a maritime power, fhould hold the

key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Wefer. Any one who takes the pains to perufe the maps of this part of the empire, will perceive that, whilft that king was in the poffeffion of Bremen and Verden, he was mafter of the fea-coaft from Denmark almoft to the Seven Provinces. The maps fhew that the Elbe runs for above 500 miles, through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the reft of Germany; and that the Wefer paffes, for about 250 miles, through Heflia, Weftphalia, Oldenburg, and (fome other countries of the empire: and the vaft importance of thofe rivers to our trade will be confeffed by every one who confiders that all our woollen, and other Englifh manufactures, and almoft all our commodities, both domeftic and foreign, to the value of many hundred thoufand pounds a year, are, by thofe freams, conveyed to innumerable markets; and that, by the fame navigation, a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreigner, either to lock it up from us, or to lay what impofitions he pleafed on it, as might have been the cafe, if his late majefty had not got Bremen and Verden out of the hands of the king of Denmark.

BOXTHEUDE, fituate in a pleafant country, is fo fruitful as to be reckoned one of the granaries of Hamburg.

STADE has a good trade; and, befides it's having been a free imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges, particularly with a right of toll for fhips paffing up the Elbe; but became fo poor by Hamburg's outtripping it, that it was forced to fell it's ftock to that city. After it's abovementioned decay, our Englifh merchants, upon fome difguft taken at Hamburg, removed hither, which revived it's trade, fo that it again became rich and populous, and is in good condition at prefent, though the Englifh returned to Hamburg. Here is a large and commodious haven, that will admit larger fhips than Hamburg; and, as it ftands fairer for trade than Bremen, and 30 miles nearer the fea, it is thought ftrange that it has not more engaged the attention of the minifters of the electorate.

At the mouth of the Schwing is **BRUNSHUSEN**, a fort where our king has a confiderable toll, all the fhips, except the Hamburgers, that come up the Elbe out of fea, being obliged to ftop here, and give an account of their lading; for which, when they come to Hamburg, they muft pay a certain duty to a comptroller, placed there by the government of Hanover: and an Englifh man of war, of 24 guns, rides at anchor on the Elbe, at the entrance into the Schwing, in order to oblige them to bring to; which vefel is of great fervice alfo to the Englifh trade and navigation in thofe parts, for preventing clandestine practices, and preferving the rights and freedom of our commerce.

The chief trade of **BREMERFURD** is by paffengers between Stade and Bremen.

RITZBUTLE is a bailiwick belonging to the Hamburgers. Here they have a pretty good harbour, called Cuxhaven, which is of great benefit to fhips coming on the Elbe in the winter, when the river is full of ice. Here, likewife, their fhips often ftop, at their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news, and to know whether all is well with the city, before they venture up. Here are their privileged pilots, who, by their ftatutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at fea, near the outermoft buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occafion fhall require, on board of every fhip coming into the Elbe. But, notwithstanding this is one of the moft dangerous rivers in Europe to come into, as all the fhips coming to Hamburg are obliged to pay half-pilotage, whether they have pilots on board or not, they are feldom at fea but in good weather, when they are leaft wanted, which has occafioned the lofs of many a rich fhip within the river.

BREMEN is a great, populous, and flourifhing town, a free imperial city, and the third in rank among the Hans. It had feveral privileges granted it by the emperor Wencelaus, one of which was, that no goods were allowed to go down this river and pafs this city, without being firft landed here. The inhabitants have the privilege, alfo, of fifhing from the bridge of Hoy, four German miles above Bremen, down to the fea; as likewife in the rivers Hunte, Ochtum, Wemme, and Seefum, which flow into the Wefer. The city is well fupplied with fifh, both from it's rivers and the fea, and they have every month feveral forts in feafon. Among others they catch great quantities of falmon and lampreys, the former of which, being dried and smoked, and the latter pickled, are in great efteem throughout all Germany. Charles V. gave them the right of coinage. The river Wefer, which is navigable about 30 miles from the fea, runs through it; but the river is not navigable for fhips of burden farther than Fegefack, fix miles below the town, where is a custom-houfe, and where all fhips which come out of the fea, or are outward bound, load and unload: nor does this river ebb or flow farther; fo that all goods are brought up from thence in flat-bottomed vefels. It has a confiderable trade to England, efppecially with all forts of Weftphalian linnens, and fends feveral fhips, particularly to London, every year; here being a great confumption of the Englifh woollen manufacture, which they

they receive not only directly from England, but chiefly by way of Hamburg and Holland, and disperse again through the whole circle of Westphalia. It sends ships likewise to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and a good number to Davis's Straights. It has also a considerable inland trade, particularly to the great fairs and marts in Germany, to which, among other goods, it sends large quantities of calicoes and sugar, printed and refined here, though not to that perfection as at Hamburg. Its beer is very much esteemed in Germany, and therefore exported in large quantities. Its other commodities are, minerals, timber, corn, cattle, and leather, in dressing of which, and cloth, they are very expert; so that both are sent hither for that purpose from other countries.

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Its duties upon importation and exportation are very low, which is a great encouragement to its trade, and gives BREMEN an advantage over the Dutch in the countries between this city and their republic. It is reckoned, in short, the next port to Hamburg in the whole empire for commerce; and, in time of war, it also fits out ships of force, to convoy their merchantmen. It generally sends 25 or 30 ships a year to the whale-fishery in Greenland; and their harponiers, being esteemed the most expert in all the country, are frequently hired, both by the Dutch and English. In fine, it cannot but be a very flourishing city, after having enjoyed a perfect neutrality during several wars, between the northern, and other, powers of Europe. Here is a council of trade. See the article GERMANY.

BRENTA, a liquid measure used at Rome; it contains 96 boccales, or 13 rubbia's and a half.

BREWER, he who makes beer, and sells it by wholesale.

The company of the master-brewers of the city and suburbs of Paris is very ancient, being one of the first that were erected into a corporation, and to whom the provost of Paris gave statutes.

The statutes of 1268, drawn up, or approved, by Stephen Boileau, who was then invested with that office, have been the model, or ground-work, of all those that have been made since; and, though there be some difference with regard to the number of jurats, and to the years of apprenticeship, they are, nevertheless, the same in substance, there being hardly any alteration but what the difference of the times, the language, and the customs, are used to occasion in regulations of that nature.

These first statutes, wherein the freemen of the company are called cervoisier, from the word cervoise (cervisia) as the French then called beer, consist but of eight articles; we shall mention but the second only, that we may avoid repetitions when we come to give an account of the statutes established by Lewis XIII, which the company is still governed by.

No brewer shall make beer except with hops and grain; that is to say, barley, or a mixture of barley, rye, and oats: and, if he uses any other ingredients, such as laurel-berries, long-pepper, or resin, he shall be fined to the king in 20 sols Paris; all the liquor brewed with such ingredients shall be given to the poor.

James Desboisville, also provost of Paris, did, on the 6th of October, 1489, draw up a new set of statutes for the company of brewers. They consist of 15 articles; the abuses which began to creep into the brewer's business requiring greater precautions than were formerly needful.

By these statutes the time of the apprenticeship, and the master-piece of the trade, were settled, which were not mentioned in the former statutes.

A third set of statutes, but approved and confirmed by letters-patent, was given in May 1514, by Lewis XII. They contain 17 articles, which differ but little from those of 1489. The master-brewers obtained the confirmation of them under the following reigns, in 1556, 1567, 1580, and 1606. Lastly, under the reign of Lewis XIII, were drawn up the statutes whereby the company is governed at present, which, having been referred to the officers of the Chatelet, were, agreeably to their opinion, approved, ratified, and confirmed, by letters-patents granted in February, 1630.

Four years before this, the same king had issued out an edict, in the form of a regulation, for the brewing and selling of beer throughout all the cities and boroughs of the kingdom: but the 10 articles of this regulation related rather to the new creation of visitor-comptrollers of beer erected in the year 1625, than to the discipline or government of the company of brewers: for which reason they were neither rehearsed, nor referred to in the letters-patents granted for the confirmation of the statutes of 1630.

By these last statutes, which are reduced to 18 articles, three jurats, or wardens, are established, two of whom must be changed every other year, and two others chosen in their stead, by a majority of votes, the next day after the festival of St Leonard, who is the company's patron. These jurats are to make search at the masters and retailers, both of the hops and of the yeast, brought by foreign merchants; to

watch for the preservation of the company's privileges, and take care that their statutes be put in execution; to admit apprentices, and prescribe the master-piece to those who would become freemen; and manage the company's stock, and all their concerns.

The time of the apprenticeship is fixed at five full years, without any interruption, and the service at the master's, after their time is out, to three years, as journeymen, after which they can be made free, making their master-piece.

No freeman can have above one apprentice at a time, during the five years: nevertheless, when the last year of his first apprentice is begun, he may take another.

No man can turn over his apprentice to another, unless it be for a reasonable cause, and having first given notice of it to the jurats, and obtained their leave.

None can be made free without undergoing an apprenticeship, except a freeman's son; but yet a freeman's son must perform the master-piece, and pay the company's fees, as well as any other apprentice.

The master-piece, which must be performed in the presence of the jurats, and of six ancient officers of the company, summoned for that purpose, consists in making at least 72 bushels (the French say six septiers) of grain into malt, or even more, if the candidate pleases, and brewing it into beer.

All masters are forbidden to spirit away the apprentices, or servants of others; nor to employ the journeymen who leave their masters before their times be out, except with the master's consent.

Nor is any brewer allowed to take a partner, unless he be a freeman.

Every master is obliged to have his own particular mark, and to set it on every cask, barrel, or other vessel, in which he puts his beer, and to leave a print of it on the leaden table which is in the chamber of the king's attorney of the Chatelet, that, in case there be any trespass against the statutes of the company, or any beer ill brewed, one may know from what brewhouse it came.

It is ordered that no beer shall be made but with good malt, well cured and ground, without mixing any tare, or buckwheat, with it, nor any bad ingredient.

No master-brewer is allowed to brew above one copperful in a day, and only of 180 bushels of malt at most; being forbidden to keep brewhouses, and to have coppers larger than is necessary for the said quantity of malt; both because beer is not so good when kept (as the French think) and to the end that every brewer may have work, and get his livelihood by his trade.

Freemen's widows, as long as they continue such, may keep a brewhouse, and have journeymen, but may not take apprentices; however, they may continue to keep those who were bound to their husbands, and whose time is not yet out.

Cleanliness being very requisite to make good beer, all brewers are forbidden to keep in their brewhouses, or yards, any oxen, cows, hogs, ducks, geese, and other such animals, which commonly occasion a stench and infection.

All hawking of beer and of yeast is prohibited, both to those who are not free, and to the freemen themselves; the latter not being allowed to sell beer but at their brewhouses, or dwelling-houses, nor can they sell yeast to any persons but to bakers and pastry cooks, who use it in their trades.

Finally, hard or solid yeast, or barm, brought by foreign traders, shall not be by them exposed to sale any where but in the brewers hall, nor sold to any persons except pastry-cooks and bakers, and only after it has been seen and examined by the jurats.

These statutes were confirmed under the reign of Lewis XIV, in the month of September, 1686, by his letters-patents, registered in the Parliament of Paris the 3d of May, 1687.

Several offices newly erected, and, among others, those of jurats, registers, auditors of accounts, comptrollers to mark the books of merchants and of companies, wardens, and keepers of records, and such like, having been, since 1691 to 1714, united with the company of brewers, upon their paying several fines into the king's Exchequer, the company obtained a new confirmation of their statutes, with 10 new articles for the better governing their body, which were added to the old ones, by letters-patents dated the 29th of May, 1714, and registered in the parliament the 18th of June following.

By the first of these articles, in order to prevent the frauds which might be committed by foreign hop-merchants, who come to Paris, the said foreigners shall not, for the future, bring any hops thither without making an exact declaration of it to the jurats of the brewers company, upon pain of forfeiting the hops not declared, or not mentioned in their declaration. By the second article all master-brewers, and brewers widows, are forbidden to enter into partnership with any persons but freemen of the company, and to lend their names, either directly or indirectly, upon pain of paying a fine of 500 livres, and, for the masters, and masters widows, of losing their freedom; and for strangers, or persons not being free, of forfeiting all the utensils, hops, and other materials used in brewing.

By the third, the jurats are permitted to make, besides the four customary visitations, such other visitations, or search, as they shall think proper, both at the houses of the master-brewers, and at those of the licensed sellers and retailers of beer,

beer, in order to prevent the frauds, and particularly the use of molasses, in the making of that drink; ordering the sum of 10 sols to be paid for each of the four visitations, to be made at the houses of such sellers of beer who do not belong to the company.

The fourth settles the fees to be paid by those who would take up their freedom, having the necessary qualifications required by the statutes, to 1000 livres; and of those who want those qualifications, or have not served out their whole time, to 2000 livres; and those of freemens sons, who were born before their fathers were free, to 400 livres. Ordering further, that there be paid to the company a fee of 150 livres for every apprentice's indenture, and 40 livres by every person who opens shop, or sets up the business of a brewer: one half of which fees shall belong to the company, and the other half to the jurats: nor shall any person set up for himself before he has declared it to the jurats. His majesty declares, nevertheless, that this augmentation of the fees shall continue no longer but 'till the full payment of the sums and arrears borrowed, and due by virtue both of the said edicts and of the foregoing, after which the said fees shall be reduced, as they were before the edict of March 1691.

The fifth article forbids all licensed sellers of beer to have any apprentice, or journeyman, agreeably to the decree of the parliament of Paris, made the 23d of August, 1641, and to the declaration of the 30th of June, 1705, given in behalf of the weavers, upon pain of paying a fine of 300 livres.

The sixth does likewise forbid all retailers of beer to sell to the coopers, or to any other persons, the casks which the brewers have lent them: and commands them to return them, as soon as they are empty, under the penalty of a fine of 200 livres, to be paid both by the buyer and by the seller.

The seventh grants, to the master-brewers of the city and suburbs of Paris, the liberty to settle in any other city or place of the kingdom, without paying any fee for being admitted into a company of the same trade, by shewing only their letters of freedom.

Finally, it is ordered by the last article, that such jurats, ancient officers, and freemen, who, without any lawful cause, shall be absent from the meetings summoned after the usual form, shall be obliged to pay 12 livres, for the profit of those present; and that all that shall have been resolved by those who shall be present at such meetings, provided their number be not less than 10, shall stand good, as if all the freemen had signed it.

There had been also erected, in February 1698, 40 offices of beer-tasters for the city of Paris, but they were again suppressed in March following, none of these offices having been sold by the person who had farmed the produce of them.

Besides all the articles contained in the old and new statutes of the brewers company, there are some others to be met with in the ordonnance of aids of the year 1680, which they are obliged to observe, under the penalty of a fine to be paid by the offenders.

Those articles are the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th, of the title of duties on beer.

By the first of these four articles the brewers are not allowed to use any tubs, coppers, or troughs, before they have been gauged by the farmer of the duties on beer, or by his clerk, and before the said farmer has put his mark on all those vessels, under the penalty of forfeiting all the vessels not gauged, or not marked, and the beer contained in them, and paying a fine of 100 livres.

By the second, they are obliged, at each brewing, to give notice in writing to the clerks, of the day and hour when they kindle the fire under the coppers, and not to put their beer into barrels but in the day-time: namely, from the 1st of April to 1st of October, between 5 of the clock in the morning and 8 at night; and, from the 1st of October to the 1st of April, between 7 in the morning and 7 at night, under the same penalty.

The third article orders, that the barrels shall be marked immediately after they are filled, and that a register shall be kept by the clerks of their number, and of what quantity of liquor each of them holds: nor shall the brewers suffer any cask to be carried, or sent away, before the marks be taken off by the clerks, under the penalty of forfeiting the same, and paying a fine of 500 livres.

Lastly, by the fourth article it is left to the farmer's choice to cause the duty to be paid, either upon the number and capacity of the casks into which the beer was put, without any deduction, or at the rate of the gauging of the coppers, deducting one fourth part, both of those that have wooden brims, and those that have none; nor shall those brims be above four inches high.

BREWING, the process, or method, of making those liquors which we distinguish by the name of ales, or beers; the best subject for the operation whereof is esteemed malt, whereon, as well as the skilful management of the operation of brewing, the good quality of the liquor produced, depends.

Wherefore, previously to the process of brewing, it may be proper to give a short account of the nature of malting (which,

however, we shall do more fully under the article **MALT**) in order to have a full view of the whole together.

In order for brewing, the barley is first to be made into malt; which is done by putting it into a cistern full of water, wherein it may steep for a longer or less time, as the weather is more or less cold; two days and nights sufficing in hot weather, and five or six in extremely cold: when sufficiently steeped, the water is drained off, for 12 or 20 hours: being taken out, it is couched, or heaped up, into one or two heaps, and turned every five or six hours, the outermost part inwards, and the bottom upwards. As it comes, or sprouts, it is spread thinner, to cool, and to prevent it's sprouting too fast: when come, it is spread very thin, and turned 10 or 12 times a day, 'till the sprout is dead; after which it is again thickened on the floor, and turned as before directed, great care being taken that it neither mould nor become acro-spiced, that is, that the blade don't grow out at the end opposite the root, or the malt come and sprout at both ends. The preparation is finished with drying it on a kiln, by spreading it on a hair-cloth, or a tin bottom, full of holes, over a brisk turf or charcoal fire, stirring and turning it from time to time. For further matter, see the article **MALT**. To proceed to the operation of brewing itself: they boil a quantity of water, which is left to cool, 'till the height of the steam be over, and pouring enough of it upon the malt, in a mashing tub, to wet the malt as stiff as it will can be rowed about; after standing a quarter of an hour, another portion of water is added, and the rowing repeated; lastly, the full quantity of water is added, according to the intended strength of the beer, or ale. The whole, having stood two or three hours, is drawn off into a receiver, and fresh water thrown on for a second wort; which is to be cooler, and to stand less time than the former. The two worts being mixed, and the hops added, the whole is put into a copper, well covered and closed, there to boil an hour or two. Which done, the liquor is let into a receiver, and the hops strained therefrom: when cold, the yeast is added, and, after fermenting, or working, it remains to be tunned up.

For small beer, there is commonly a third mashing, with the water near cold, and left to stand near an hour, to be hopped and boiled at discretion. For double beer or ale, the two liquors, resulting from the two first mashings, must be used as liquor for a third mashing of fresh malt. For fine ale, the liquor, thus brewed, is further prepared with molasses.

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These operations, we find, depend on the duly preparing, curing, and fitting the vegetable subjects for the purpose intended. The management of vegetable productions is founded on the art of chymistry.

On regulating the growth, and curing of vegetables, depends the perfection of corn, malt, wines, bread, sugar, tobacco, spice, drugs, simples, dyeing stuffs, and the like. And new discoveries, either in vegetation or curation, might easily introduce new trades; as has been the case in sugar, tobacco, wines, spirits, &c.

By proper experiments in vegetation is shewn the method of regulating, or conducting this natural power for the service of arts, by directing it to answer particular ends. Thus, by stopping short towards the beginning of vegetation in barley, we procure malt; and by permitting the grapes to hang 'till they grow not only ripe, but almost dry, upon the vines, rich sweet wines are produced. Thus vegetation may be stopped at any period, or continued longer than ordinary, according as the occasions of different arts require.

By experiments of this kind, we would shew the method of collecting, preparing, and securing vegetable commodities, so as that they may long remain sound, perfect, and fit for service.

The first experiment following, therefore, is calculated to shew the method of stopping the natural process of vegetation in the seed, so as to prepare grain, pulse, nuts, malte, and roots, for the making of beer.

The second tends to shew the method of curing vegetable juices by decoction, or inspissation, for the service of brewing and distilling. And the third and last experiment will shew the method of curing yeast, the flowers of wine, and wine-lees, for the service not only of the art of brewing, but of several others, as we shall shew in their proper places. These experiments follow in order:

I. The method of stopping the natural process of vegetation, with a view to malting; or the preparation of grain, seeds, pulse, nuts, malte, and roots, for the making of beers, vinegar, and spirits.

Garden beans, being suffered to lie in the ground about six weeks in the winter season, were then plucked up and each bean was found to begin to be split, or separate into it's two lobes, whilst the radicle was shot out some inches downwards, and had begun to take root in the ground; the plume, also, which becomes the stalk of the bean, was risen to the height of two inches.

In this state, a few of these beans were dried over a clear fire, and thus were found to be turned to a kind of bean-malt,

that tasted sweetish, but mealy between the teeth, and dissolved freely in warm water, so as to afford a wort, fit for fermenting, with yeast, into a kind of beer, or ale. This experiment instructs us in the ordinary process of malting; which, in the case of barley, we have seen, is conformable hereto, and in the case of malting Indian corn, as we shall see presently in the process itself*.

* See also some experiments to this purpose in the Philosophical Transactions.

In the general process of malting, with respect to the barley, every maltster pretends to have his secret, or particular way, of management. But, to render the operation perfect, the following cautions must be observed. (1.) That the barley be newly threshed, or at least newly winnowed. (2.) That it be not mixed, or made up of different sorts. (3.) That it be not over-steeped in the cistern, or so long as to make it soft. (4.) That it be well drained. (5.) That it be carefully looked after, when couched, so as to stop the first tendency of the blade to shooting. (6.) Another caution is to turn the wet couch inside outmost, if the barley comes, that is, shoots more in the middle than on the sides. (7.) To keep it duly turning after it is out of the wet-couch. (8.) To give it the proper heating in the dry heap. (9.) To dry and crisp it thoroughly upon the kiln, but without a fierce fire; so as to be several days in drying a kiln of pale malt. And, if these directions be carefully observed, the malt will always be good.

The method of malting Indian corn, or Virginia wheat, is much less laborious: for, if this corn be buried two or three inches deep in the earth, and covered with the loose mould dug up to make room for it, in 10 or 12 days time the corn will sprout, and appear like a green field; at which time being taken up, and washed, or fanned, from its dirt, it is immediately committed to the kiln; and by this means, it becomes good malt, exactly as beans so treated would do. It is observable of this corn, that both its root and blade must shoot to a considerable length, before it will make malt: and, perhaps, this is the case in all large-bodied grain, and nuts*.

* It may be worth trying, whether the same process is not, with due care, applicable to the malting of turnips, potatoes, carrots, parsnips, &c.

It might be of service to transfer this easy experiment to the making of malt from barley, rice, and the other small grains and seeds; but the attempt may be attended with difficulties, because in the making of malt, the barley must only be suffered to grow in its root, and not in the blade; when it would be difficult, at first, to hit the exact time for taking it out of the ground; and, as the grain is so small, it might prove troublesome to separate it from the earth, or mould. However, the matter may deserve to be tried*.

* And possibly some contrivance might be found, by the means of large hair-cloths, or otherwise, to inclose the grain, so that the loose earth should not mix among it; and, at the same time, an opportunity be afforded of commodiously examining how far the barley is come after lying.

It is a consideration of a higher nature to determine the physical effect procured by malting; and whether the end may not be obtained by cheaper, and less laborious means. The physical difference between malted and unmalted corn appears to be the production, or extrication, of a sweet saccharine substance in the malt, which is wanting under that form in the corn. And it is this sweet substance alone which we require in malt, for the making of beer, ale, vinegar, and inflammable spirits, as I shall shew elsewhere. But even unmalted corn, duly treated, may be made to afford beer, ale, vinegar, and spirits: this, therefore, may intimate to us a way of making such liquors, without the formal extrication of any remarkably saccharine substance. And, according to some trials made, unmalted corn affords half the quantity of inflammable spirit, by fermentation and distillation, as the same corn would do, when malted. And suppose that unmalted corn were to be made into a kind of dough, or paste, fermented with yeast, as is usual for bread, and then baked; would not this be a cheaper substitute for malting*? It deserves, at least, to be tried how much beer, ale, vinegar, and spirit, might be procured this way, compared with that other of malting.

* They are said to brew after this manner in some countries.

On the other hand, if only a sweet saccharine substance be required in malt, are there not cheaper and easier ways of procuring it than by malting? Do not many trees afford such a saccharine juice, by tapping in the spring without prejudicing the trees? Is not young green corn itself remarkably sweet; and does not this sweet juice enter the composition of the ear, and there remain fixed, or almost lost in a saccharine form, 'till recovered by malting? Here is a door

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opened for explaining the nature of sweetness, and deducing the particular history of sugar; which is a work that, for its usefulness in trades, and ordinary life, we wish were extant: and, 'till some considerable progress is made in a work of this kind, the art of malting, and all that depends upon it, will not arrive at perfection.

Those who are disposed to enter upon the enquiry, may please to compare the art of starch making with that of malting, and particularly try whether some considerable uses might not be made of the refuse liquors produced in both arts. The high-coloured liquor drained away from the barley in the steeping cistern is a vegetable tincture, that might, if not by itself, yet by being used, instead of water, to ground malt, be worth fermenting and distilling for spirit; and the starch-makers refuse liquors have been observed to contain a quantity of inflammable spirit.

The present experiment may, in this respect, be made general, it shewing that there are different times of stopping, or preventing, the farther growth of vegetables, for the service of arts. And this doctrine may be extended to the forming a set of general rules, for gathering the different parts of plants, at different seasons of the year, for different uses.

Thus roots, for instance, to be had perfect, should be gathered and dried in the spring, before the leaves are formed; leaves should be gathered, when they are fully opened, but before the flower appears; flowers, when they are not fully opened; and some, as red roses, in the bud.

Seeds are to be gathered, when full ripe, and beginning to dry, before they fall spontaneously; and trees are generally best felled and sanded for their bark in the beginning of the spring. But all this is to be understood of the common uses of the subjects; for there are many particular occasions which require them immature. Thus buckthorn-berries should be ripe gathered for making the fyrup, but unripe for making the painters colour called sap-green.

II. The method of curing vegetable juices, by decoction, or inspissation.

Make an infusion of malt, in the common manner of wort, for beer and ale, let it stand to clarify, and decant the clear, and boil it over a soft fire, to the consistence of treacle: in this state it will long keep sound, or fit for the making of beer, vinegar, or inflammable spirits.

This experiment shews us a general way of reducing fermentable subjects to a small compass, and for securing them against external injuries. Thus a kind of treacle from malt might be produced in cheap years, for the service not only of the brewer, but the distiller and vinegar-maker. The method is likewise applicable to any other sweet or saccharine juice, as that of grapes, the tappings of trees, and the fermentable juices of summer fruits, and certain sweet roots, as even parsnips, &c.

These inspissated juices, if not boiled too high, or scorched in the operation, are easily brought back to a true degree of thinness with water, and fermented in the same manner, and for the same purposes, as they might have been before they were boiled. So that not only beer, but vinegar, or spirits, as shall be shewed under proper heads, may be thus commodiously procured, even in hot countries. Whence it should seem that brewers and distillers might reap no inconsiderable benefit by a prudent use of this expedient.

The wine-merchants might thus order the juice of grapes, or stum, to be boiled down in wine countries, and so left fit to be reduced, by water, and fermented into wine in others. And, for this purpose, the poorer vintages might serve as well as the rich, excepting only that the rob, when reduced by water, would not afford so much wine as the thicker or richer juices. But this operation must be performed with considerable exactness, to make it succeed, so as to produce artificial wines, perfectly like the natural.

This process also seems applicable to hops, which may be thus, in cheap years, made into a kind of extract, without any loss of their valuable parts; whereby the numerous contingencies attending that commodity might, in good measure, be prevented. But there would here be danger of fraud, because the extract of gentian, centaury, or other bitter, stomachic vegetables, might be mixed with the extract of hops, so as not to be easily discovered: though perhaps, this inconvenience is not greater than that generally suffered already, for many are well assured, by experience, that the extract of gentian is a wholesome bitter, which will very well supply the place of hops in brewing.

It is also a process somewhat of this kind that they frequently practise in wine countries, viz. either by suffering the grapes to grow almost dry upon the vine, or else to boil down their juice, 'till it become sufficiently thick to afford such rich wines as Canary, or Frontignac; whose strength may be readily imitated by adding a less proportion of water to the rob, or boiled down juice of grapes, in the manner above explained.

III. A method of curing yeast.

Take a quantity of common ale-yeast, and put it into a close canvas bag, gently squeezing out the moisture in a screw-press, 'till the remaining matter be left as hard as clay. In

this state let it be close packed up in a tight cask, and well secured from the air; it will keep sound and fresh for several months, as has been often experienced.

This is an experiment of considerable use to distillers, as well as brewers and bakers, who in England, though they employ very large quantities of yeast, seem to have no method of preserving it, or raising nurseries thereof, whereby they frequently sustain considerable loss: whereas the brewers in Flanders make a great profit by supplying the malt distillers of Holland with yeast, which is rendered lasting, and fit for carriage, after the manner of our present experiment.

The same method is practicable to much greater advantage in the yeast of wine and wine-lees, which we shall shew in it's proper place.

We learn from what has been said, that we have power to stop the course of nature in vegetation, so as to make this principle answer our own particular ends and designs; whence branches of trade may receive considerable improvements:

2. That yeast of malting is farther improveable by a general acquaintance with the nature of vegetation, vegetable juices, the art of fermentation, and of sugars, and other saccharine substances:

3. That the labour and expence, attending the business of malting, may, in some measure, be saved by procuring and separating the sweet juices of vegetables, as nature affords them; or by boiling them down to a treacly or saccharine substance:

4. That there are different seasons of the year, peculiarly fitted to the collecting or procuring of these juices, and all other vegetable matters, according as they are required ripe or immature:

5. That all sweet vegetable juices may be preserved sound and ferviceable by inspissation over a soft fire, so as to throw off their superfluous aqueous parts, and leave the sweet or saccharine substance behind, in a state fit for fermentation, upon the addition of fresh water:

6. That several bitter vegetable juices, capable of answering the end of hops in brewing, may be inspissated by the fire, and preserved for that purpose:

7. That the extremely corruptible substance, yeast, may be preserved sound, barely by freeing it from it's superfluous moisture, and securing it from the external air and too great heat. See the articles MALT, DISTILLATION, WINE, SUGAR, and YEAST: all which will administer important matter for the improvement and advantage of a great number of trades.

The brewery is a very extensive trade, and hardly ever more flourishing in England than at present, the practice of wine-drinking being now very much turned into that of common beer, or potter, as it is often called; but, whether through choice or necessity, I leave to the judgment of the public.

It is divided into three parts, viz. for small beer, or, as usually termed, table-beer, in brewing only which many carry on large brewhouses.

For pale ale, commonly called two penny, amber, or home-brewed, the smaller brewers of which are generally victualers, who brew only for their own draught.

For brown, or butt-beer, and common ale, or, as the excise office distinguishes them, common brewers, which is by far the larger branch.

Brewing, we have seen, is an art of no little ingenuity, and capable of great improvement. It not only requires good experience in the manner of working, in the large way in and about London, but a thorough knowledge in the goods, malt and hops, and constant attendance, by those who have the direction, from the mash-tun to the store-cellar, and even then too it must be looked after; but of labour but little, they having serving men to do the drudgery.

A youth for the larger concerns in the brewery (and those in a small way take none) ought to write a good hand, understand accounts and gauging; whose friends must give with him apprentice from 100 to 200 or 300 guineas.

When he is out of his time, if he has behaved well, he may become a workman-brewer, home-clerk, or abroad clerk, the least of which have seldom less than 50 l. a year; and some of them 200 l. &c. Sometimes they are taken in partners, in proportion to what cash they can advance, which is the most common way of their coming first into trade, for, to erect a common brewhouse, and lay in stock answerable, will sink many thousands before they see any returns.

They were incorporated into a company in the year 1438, in the reign of king Henry VI, and confirmed by king Edward IV, in 1480, with the privilege of making by-laws.

The substance of the statutes in England relating to brewers is as follows, viz.

23 Hen. VIII. c. 4. Brewers putting their drink in a vessel not marked by a cooper, to forfeit 3 s. 4 d. a barrel; and not selling it at reasonable rates, appointed by justices, for every barrel 6 s. kilderkin 3 s. 4 d. firkin 2 s. and 10 s. for a larger vessel.

12 Car. II. c. 23. The duty, by this act, for every barrel

of beer above 6 s. value, is 1 s. 3 d. and under 3 d. By 1 W. & M. 9 d. for every barrel of beer, &c. above the value of 6 s. 8 d. was added. These duties were granted to king William and queen Mary for their lives; and the additional duty of the 9 d. per barrel for 99 years, &c. Brewers to make an entry at the excise-office once a week of liquors brewed, under the penalty of 10 l. Brewers to be allowed three barrels in 23 for leakage.

Brewers altering coolers, vats, &c. without notice, incur 50 l. forfeiture, increased to 200 l. by 8 and 9 William. Obstructing search 20 l. Keeping a private storehouse, &c. 50 l. penalty; and opposing a gauger 50 l. by statute 8 and 9 William.

Keeping a private pipe under ground, by 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 30. to forfeit 100 l. Refusing an officer entrance into the brewhouse 20 l. Not permitting him to taste the drink on the dray, 5 l. Not telling the gauger how much ale is intended to be brewed, 20 s. per barrel; increasing it afterwards, 5 l. per barrel. Mixing small with strong the same penalty. Carrying wort out of the brewhouse before the whole is brewed, 40 s.

Obstructing search for private pipes, penalty 100 l. Bribing a gauger, 10 l.

BRICK, an oblong square of fat and reddish earth, first dried by the air, and afterwards burnt in a kiln or a clamp; being first well kneaded and worked, with the feet or hands. They are formed in wooden moulds of several sizes, according as the bricks are to be made larger or smaller, considering the works they are intended for.

R E M A R K S.

Bricks among us in England have several names, according to their forms, dimensions, uses, method of making, place, &c. The chief of them are, compass bricks, which are of a circular form, and used for steen walls. Concave or hollow bricks; on one side flat, like a common brick, and hollowed on the other, used for conveying water under-ground. Cogging bricks, used for making the indented work, under the copings of walls, built with great bricks. Coping bricks, formed on purpose for coping of walls. Dutch, or Flemish bricks, used to pave yards and stables, and for soap-boilers vats and cisterns. Clinkers, are bricks that are glazed by the heat of the fire in burning. Feather-edged bricks, are like the common statute bricks, only thinner on one edge than the other, and used to pen up the brick pannels in timber building. Samel, or sandal bricks, are such as lie outmost in a kiln or clamp, and consequently are soft and useless, as not being thoroughly burnt. Great bricks, are those which are twelve inches long, six broad, and three thick; the weight of one being about 15 pounds, so that 100 weigh 1500, and 1000 of them 15,000 pounds; their use is to build fence walls, together with pilasters, or buttress bricks, which are of the same dimensions with the great bricks, only they have a notch at one end, half the breadth of the brick; their use is to bind the work at the pilasters of fence walls, which are built with great bricks. Paving bricks, or tiles, are of several sizes, in several countries and places. Statute bricks, or small common bricks, when burnt, ought to be nine inches long, four and a quarter broad, and two and a half thick. (By stat. 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. within 15 miles of London, these bricks ought to be 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ thick) 100 of these do commonly weigh 550 pounds, and 1000, 5500; about 407 in number make a ton weight. These are commonly used in paving cellars hearths, sinks, &c. Thirty or thirty-two, if true measure, will pave a yard square, and 330, laid flat, will pave a square of 100 feet; but, if laid edgeways, there must be near double the number.

Stock bricks are to be of the same dimensions, only $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch thicker.

Bricks are commonly red, though there are also some of a whitish colour; Walpit, in Suffolk, is famous for this sort.

The earth whereof bricks are made must not be sandy, which would render them both heavy and brittle; nor ought it to be too fat, which would make them crack in drying. They should be made either in the spring or autumn; and, when made, must be sheltered from the sun, if it be too hot, and yet be exposed to the air to dry. If they be made in frosty weather, they must be covered with sand; if in hot weather, with wet straw. When they are well dried, they must be burnt.

The burning of bricks is performed either in a kiln or in a clamp. In the former, the bricks being set in, and the kiln covered with pieces of bricks, they put in wood to dry them with a gentle fire; and this is continued 'till they are pretty dry, which is known by the smoke turning from a whitish dark to a thin black smoke. They then cease to put in wood, and proceed to burn with brush, furze, straw, heath, brake or fern faggots; having first dammed up the mouth of the kiln with a shimlog, that is to say, with pieces of bricks piled upon one another, and closed with wet brick earth, instead of mortar. Then they continue to put in more faggots,

gots, 'till the kiln and it's arches look white, and the fire appear on the top of the kiln; upon which they slacken the fire for an hour, and let all cool by degrees. This they continue to do, alternately heating and slackening, 'till the ware be thoroughly burnt, which is usually effected in 48 hours. About London they chiefly burn in clamps, built with the bricks themselves, after the manner of arches in kilns, with a vacancy between each brick's breadth, for the fire to play through; but with this difference, that, instead of arching, they truss or span it over, by making the bricks project one over another on both sides the place, for the wood and coals to lie in, 'till they meet and are bounded with the bricks at the top, which close up all. The place for the fuel is carried up straight on both sides, 'till about three feet high; then they fill it almost with wood, and over that lay a covering of sea-coal, and then overspan the arch; but they strew sea-coal also over the clamp, between all the rows of bricks; lastly, they kindle the wood, which gives fire to the coal, and, when all is burnt out, they conclude that the bricks are sufficiently burnt.

For the making of such bricks as will stand the fiercest fires, our Stourbridge clay, or Windsor loam, are esteemed the best, though I have seen these melted down like glass. There are some artificial composts, which will stand fire much better, perhaps, than any natural earths.

By stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. Earth or clay, designed for making bricks for sale, shall be dug and turned at least once between the 1st of November and the 1st of February, and not be made into bricks 'till after the 1st of March; and no bricks be made for sale, but between the 1st of March and the 29th of September: and no Spanish to be mixed with the earth, or breeze, in the burning of bricks. And all bricks are to be burnt either in kilns, or distinct clamps, each sort by itself.

By stat. 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. There may be mixed with brick-earth any quantity of sea-coal ashes, sifted or screened through a sieve or screen half an inch wide, and not exceeding twenty loads to the making one hundred thousand bricks, each load not exceeding thirty-six bushels. And breeze may be mixed with coal in the burning of bricks in clamps for sale, &c. Stock bricks and place bricks may be burnt in one and the same clamp, so as that the stock bricks be set in one distinct parcel, and not mixed nor surrounded with place bricks.

For the more effectual securing the observation of these laws, it was enacted by 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. for the better discovering of offenders, that the master and wardens of the company of tilers and brick-layers should have power to search brick-kilns, &c. but they having permitted, and even encouraged, divers persons to make bricks, contrary to the directions in the said act; by 2 Geo. II. cap. 15. they are divested of that power; and any two, three, or more persons, appointed by the justices of the peace, are empowered, within fifteen miles of London, to go in the day-time, in any grounds, sheds, or places, where any clay or earth shall be digged, or digging, for bricks or pantiles; or any bricks or pantiles shall be making, or made for sale, and there to view, search, and inspect the same, &c. Offenders to forfeit twenty shillings for every thousand of such tiles or bricks; one moiety to the use of the prosecutor, the other to the poor of the parish where the offence shall be committed.

BRICKLAYER, one who lays bricks, in the building of edifices of any kind. Tilers and bricklayers were incorporated 10 Eliz. under the name of master and wardens of the society of freemen of the mystery and art of tilers and bricklayers.

The universal call for this trade is so well known to every one, that little need be said of it.

This, however, is to be observed, that it is mostly an outdoor business, much exposed to the weather, by which they are often hindered from working.

As to the work itself, it is not very difficult to be learned, nor laborious (for they have labourers to do their heavy work) but handy and ingenious in contriving. With respect to the masters, most of them live handsomely: and some, who employ many hands, and undertake large work, commonly called master-builders, obtain good estates; but then they are such, who not only have money at command, but take great pains to qualify themselves for projecting, drawing plans, surveying and estimating buildings.

BRICKMAKER, is he who undertakes the making of bricks. See **BRICKS**. This is mostly performed at some small distance from cities and towns; and, though some, through ignorance, look on it as a very mean employ, because laborious, yet the masters about London, and other capital cities, are generally men of worth.

BRISTLE, the strong hair standing on the back of a hog, or a wild boar.

Hog-bristles are put to several uses, particularly in making several sorts of brushes: they are commonly sent in barrels or hogheads, in parcels of several fizes, which are sold by the weight.

Wild boars bristles are much stronger than hogs, and are much more valued, but then they are also much dearer.

Shoemakers, harness-makers, fadlers, and others, use them; putting one of them as a needle or awl at the end of their thread, to sew their work.

There is a great deal of this commodity imported from Muscovy and Livonia, by the way of Hamburg and Holland; whence it is sent away in small parcels tied in the middle, and put in little deal boxes about a foot long, and two or three inches broad: it is commonly sold by the weight.

Bristle, both of hogs and wild boars, is part of the iron-monger's trade in France, who buy it by wholesale, and sell it by retail, to such workmen as make it into brushes, &c. or have occasion for it in their own way of business.

BRITAIN, or **GREAT-BRITAIN**, or the **BRITISH EMPIRE**, is constituted of the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, Ireland, and the several plantations of America thereunto belonging.

The island of Great-Britain lies in longitude (Teneriff being the meridian) between 9 and 17, and between 50 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

The southern division of this Island, viz. that part of it called England, is bounded by Scotland on the north; the German sea, which separates it from Germany and the Netherlands on the east; by the English channel, which divides it from France on the south; and by St George's channel, which separates it from Ireland on the west. It is 360 miles from north to south, and 300 in breadth from east to west, in the widest part.

The northern division, called Scotland, is bounded on the south by the Irish sea and England; on the east by the German ocean; on the north by the Deucaledonian sea; and on the west by the Atlantic ocean. It is about 215 Scots miles in length, and in breadth in the widest part about 140.

Ireland, situate between longitude 5. 40. and 10. 37. west from London, and between 51. 16. and 55. 20. of north latitude, is an island separated from England and Scotland by St George's channel on the east; has the Scots western islands on the north and north east; the mouth of St George's channel on the south; and the Atlantic ocean on the west. It is reckoned about half as large as England.

The American British colonies on the continent, are Newfoundland, New England, New Scotland, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, Georgia, Hudson's-Bay. The island colonies are, Barbadoes, St Lucia, St Vincent, Dominico, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, St Christopher's, Barbuda, Anguilla, Jamaica, Bahama, and Bermudas. We have settlements also in Africa. See **GUINEA**.

For a particular and minute account of the productions, manufactures, and trade of England, Scotland, and Ireland, we refer to the several counties and shires thereunto belonging; and, with regard to a distinct account of the trade of the colonies belonging to Great-Britain, we refer to the article of **BRITISH AMERICA**.

Our intention, under this general head of Britain, is to answer these purposes. 1. To take a general view of our inland circulating commerce within ourselves, as nearly as we can, independent of foreign trade; and also to shew how the three kingdoms have a connection and dependency on each other, and on our plantations in America.

2. To point out the natural advantages of Great-Britain for universal commerce; and to consider in what state our trade at present is, with regard to the principal nations of Europe. The chief land productions, commodities, and manufactures of England, are the following:

Corn	Cheese	Lead	ing, paving,
Timber	Hides	Iron	&c.
Cattle	Beer and	Rock-salt	Slate
Flax	Malt	Allum	Oker
Wool	Spirits	Copperas	Fuller's earth
Salt	Cyder	Lapis calaminaris	Pipe and
Tallow	Tin	Stones of divers	Potter's clay.
Butter	Copper	forts, for build-	
Manufactures of wool, hair, and cotton, such as	Cloth of several sorts. Serges, perpets, says, shalloods. Stuffs of various kinds. Bays, flannels, dimities, fustians. Camblets, mohairs, programs, &c. Blankets, rugs, carpets.		
Manufactures of silk, such as	Lace Velvets Brocades Sattins Taffeties Damasks Luffrings Mantua's Sarfenets		
Manufactures of flax and hemp, such as	Linnens of various sorts Lace Thread Cordage Paper		
Manufactures of timber, such as	Ships and vessels of all sorts Casks of all kinds		

as also at Dartmouth, Weymouth, and Colchester, and various other places in the Channel.

For the managing this business in particular, as also for making malt, and for other common uses, there is a large coasting trade to these parts; from Swansey in Wales for culm; in the carriage whereof, there are not less than 300 sail of shipping constantly employed.

A considerable number of coasting ships are likewise always employed in passing to and from London, from Dartmouth, Pool, Weymouth, Lyme, Topham, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, &c. Those from Topham bring a great deal of bale goods, such as serges, perrets, &c. made at Exeter; and, in plentiful years, there have been imported into London not less than 20,000 hogheads of cyder, the growth of the South-hams, from Topham, Lyme, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and other places in Devonshire.

All these vessels make their returns from London in heavy goods, such as grocery ware, oil for manufactures, lead, iron, flax, hemp, wine, pot-ashes, and all other sorts of goods which the warehouses and shops of this great city afford.

Many ships are sent also from Bristol to London, with glass-bottles, flint-glass, window-glass, and sometimes with West-India goods, as sugars, cottons, &c.

Lastly, there is a continued throng of vessels with corn from the eastern and southern coasts of England, so that all the out-ports have some communication with London; and most of them may be said to derive their greatest advantages from thence; and, indeed, it is scarce credible what a number of people are, upon the whole, employed in this coasting trade. They have been computed, and I believe without exaggeration, at no less than 100,000, including the coal trade, salt trade, and corn trade, with the constant carriage of shopkeepers goods from port to port, and also the fisheries.

Nor is the inland trade of England less considerable, through the great variety of manufactures, of which some sorts or other are established in almost every county; as well as through the rich mines in several parts of the kingdom.

Of the latter, those of Cornwall abound chiefly with tin; those of Lancashire, Staffordshire, and Shropshire, with lead, iron, and copper; those of Somersetshire with lead and copper; Glamorganshire, Cardiganhire, and Flintshire (the three last in Wales) with lead also; and those of Durham, Cumberland, Suffex, and Surry, likewise with iron.

The principal salt-works are at South Shields in the bishoprick of Durham, and at Lynington in Hampshire; for that species which is drawn from sea-water, and that from the salt-springs, is made chiefly in Worcesterhire and Cheshire; besides the Lancashire rock salt; which has been mentioned above.

The manufactures of hard-ware are carried on principally at Birmingham, in Warwickshire, and at Sheffield in Yorkshire; at which latter place more than 40,000 people are employed in this branch of trade alone.

Each of these articles, indeed, affords subsistence to a prodigious number of people, who are concerned only in the working and manufacturing them; whilst their vast circulation by the inland as well as coasting trade before-mentioned, not only to the city of London, but to all other parts of England, furnishing daily occupation for multitudes besides. The brewery, likewise, is an article to be reckoned amongst the more considerable inland trades of this island. The quantity of malt liquors brewed in England for home consumption, at the public houses chiefly, is so very great, that the excise of them only amounts yearly to what would maintain a kingdom, besides the tax upon malt, which is little less than a million more.

But the chief staple commodity of England is the woollen manufacture, which is carried on more or less in almost every part of the kingdom; some making one species of goods, some another. As, from the multitude of people, there is a great home consumption of all sorts for their own use in all places; so no part of the nation making every kind, or having near at hand the materials necessary for the particular kind they do manufacture, they are obliged to send for such articles as they want to the counties where they are made, or to London, which is the center of their commerce.

This occasions so general an intercourse of trade and correspondence among ourselves, for the native commodities of our own country, that the inland trade of no other nation in Europe, perhaps, is equal to it.

Thus the manufactures called Manchester wares, such as fuzians, cottons, tapes, inkle, &c. are sent on pack-horses to London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c. for exportation, and also to the wholesale haberdashers for home consumption; whence the other towns of England are likewise served, or by the Manchester men themselves, who travel from town to town throughout the kingdom. Of these goods they make, at Manchester, Bolton, and the neighbouring places, above 600,000 l. worth annually. The returns these manufacturers have from the three sea-ports before-mentioned, consist in cotton, inkle, linnen, yarn, &c. which they work up into all sorts of Manchester wares.

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Another manufacture of surprizing extent, is the Yorkshire coarse cloths, called double dozens, and kerseys; the former made at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, and Hatherfield; the latter at Hallifax, in which parish only there are above 100,000 people employed in that single branch; besides what is made in that part of Lancashire, bordering on the west-riding of Yorkshire.

This manufacture is carried to the same places, and in the same manner, as the Manchester wares are, besides immense quantities that are sent directly to Hull for exportation: and, as it is used for cloathing the poorer sort of people in other counties, even where finer cloths are made; so the shopkeepers, in these very counties of Yorkshire, are obliged to buy the fine Medley cloths of Wiltshire and Gloucestershire, the stuffs and serges of Norwich and Exeter, the duroys and silk druggets of London and Taunton, for the wear of the people of better condition.

In like manner the traders of Devonshire and Somersetshire buy the fine woollen cloths of Wilts and Gloucester, and their camblets, crapes, and women's stuffs, from Norwich; their stockings from Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Worcesterhire, Yorkshire, or London; and the like is done with regard to other sorts of goods.

The Norwich traders enter into the same circulation of manufactures; buy their serges from Exeter, duroys and druggets from Somersetshire, and fine broad cloths from Wilts, Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, and their coarse cloths and kerseys from Yorkshire, and supply all these counties with their own manufacture of Norwich stuffs.

London, indeed, is the center of this home circulation, the several counties sending their own goods thither, and receiving those of other counties in return. And the same may be said with respect to all other manufactures, as well as those of the woollen kind. But of these, besides what are distributed on pack-horses, from one town and county to another, there are also immense quantities sold, with all other species of commodities, at the great fairs of Stourbridge, Bristol, West Chester, Exeter, and Woodborough hill.

The materials for the cloathing trade, such as the wool and yarn, are circulated from place to place, in the same manner as the cloths, after they are manufactured.—The fine fleece wool of Lincoln, Leicester, and Northamptonshire, is carried on pack-horses south to Cirencester and Tedbury in Gloucestershire, where it is bought up and afterwards made into yarn for the clothiers of Wilts, Gloucester, and Somersetshire, to mix with the Spanish wool in making their broad cloths: eastward the same is carried to Norwich and Bury for the manufactory of those parts; and northward to the farther parts of Yorkshire, and even into Westmoreland and Cumberland, where it is made into fine yarn, which is brought up to London to the amount at least of 100 horse-packs a week, for the making of fine druggets and camblets, &c. in Spittal-fields.

The surprizing quantities of wool produced on the spacious plains of Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, and Hampshire, are carried into the counties of Somerset and Devon. In some parts of Somersetshire, it is mixed with the above long staple wool of Lincolnshire; in other parts of that county, and in Devon, with the Irish wool, imported at Biddeford and Minehead, for the perfecting their fine serges, stuffs and druggets.

There is likewise a very great quantity of fell-wool, that is, wool taken from the skins of the sheep after they are killed, sent from London to Colchester, Bocking, Braintree, and all other parts of Essex, where the bays trade is carried on: and this sort is likewise used by the manufacturers of Wilts, Gloucester, and Somersetshire.

These last mentioned manufactures consist in fine mixed or medley cloths, or fine whites to dye black, scarlet, &c. which are called with us Spanish cloths. The consumption whereof is so great at home, that the value does not amount to so little as a million sterling per ann. and this branch is said to employ not less than a million of our people.

We shall now take notice of the fisheries on the coast of England, which are not the least important articles of our commerce. These are the herring, the pilchard, the mackarel, the oyster, and the lobster fisheries: the herring fishery employs great numbers of shipping and men. The season for fishing on these coasts comes in about June, and ends about September: they are taken in prodigious quantities round the whole English coast, but particularly off Yarmouth, and in the Severn Sea, the back of Devonshire and Cornwall, where they have an excellent method of packing and curing them.

The season for pilchards comes in much about the same time, and continues as long as the herring fishery. These are almost peculiar to the coasts of Devonshire and Cornwall, where they are so plentiful, that 'tis common to take 3 or 400 tons out of the same shoal of fish. They press and pack them after the same manner as the herrings, and they are a very profitable commodity to the merchants of these ports.

The next considerable is the mackarel fishery, which is carried on between the Thames and Yarmouth east (beyond which place they are seldom found) and as far as the land's end

in Cornwall west. The season for this fish comes in about April or May, and ends about July. Immense quantities of them are consumed in England, especially in London, whither they are brought from the coasts of Kent and Suffex. They are likewise taken in abundance on the Dorsetshire coast, and sent far inland on horses backs: but the plenty is sometimes so great, that they are obliged to throw away whole boat-loads of them, and even to dung the land with them. There are but few of these fish cured, and that only by the merchants of Yarmouth and Leostoff.

The smaller fisheries on the coast are for oysters and lobsters. The oyster fishing is at Colchester, Feverham, the isle of Wight, and in the swales of the Medway, and also in the creeks and rivers between Southampton and Chichester. This, though it may seem an inconsiderable branch of trade, employs a great number of vessels and men, which are continually pouring them into London, from September to April. Lobsters too come in large quantities from the channel, and from the coasts of Northumberland.

To all these may be added the salmon fishery in the Severn, and on the north-east shore about Newcastle, &c. which are always a marketable commodity at London, and sometimes bears a very high price.

It is to be observed, that, as one sort of fish goes out, another comes in; so that some are always in season, and the fishermen constantly employed.

The cod, or white fishery, we shall not mention here, as it belongs chiefly to Scotland, of the home trade whereof, and as it relates to England, we shall next speak to.

As Scotland is a branch of the same continent with England and Wales, so it is united under the same government. Let it suffice to observe, that the two crowns were united under one head, in the person of king James I. of England, and VIth of Scotland, by which the English and Scots have been freed from those incursions and wars, which used to harass and torment them both. And, from the union of the two nations, the legislation, which heretofore was vested in the king and parliament of Scotland, independent of the parliament of England, is placed in one general parliament of Great-Britain, according to the articles of union enacted by both parliaments, in the fifth year of queen Anne.

All that part of the continent which lies between the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, with great numbers of islands on the other sides, which are bounded by the ocean. On the west it hath the Irish sea; on the north the Deucalionian; and on the east the German ocean. 'Tis in length about 250 miles, and in breadth 150; in the most southerly part 'tis 54 degrees 54 minutes in latitude, and in longitude 15 degrees 40 minutes; but, in the most northerly, 'tis 58 degrees 32 minutes in latitude, and 17 degrees 50 minutes in longitude.

The soil, take it in general, comes far short of England in fruitfulness, being much more fit for pasture than corn: not but, in some of the inland counties, they have good store of grain, wherewith they trade to Spain, Holland, or Norway. The skirts of the country abound with timber, which is of a vast bigness, especially fir-trees.

Scotland produces a very great number of black cattle, and also of sheep, more than can be consumed within themselves, and therefore they send herds into England, to the yearly amount of near 80,000 head of black cattle, and about 150,000 sheep.

The Scots likewise send their wool into England, which is used in making of the coarse cloths of Yorkshire and Lancashire, and receive no inconsiderable quantity thereof again, when manufactured into cloth; as well for their own consumption, as for exportation to the British plantations in America.

On the north-east parts of Scotland, especially about Aberdeen and Elgin, the wool is finer, and of a longer staple than that in the southern; and the manufactures of worsted stockings made at Aberdeen, and the parts adjacent, are very fine, and employ a great number of hands.

Their other chief woollen manufactures are of ferges at Stirling, stuffs at Musselburgh, blankets and shalloons at Edinburgh. There is a manufacture of mullins also about Glasgow, and the parts contiguous, which employs abundance of poor people in the spinning, bleaching, and dressing it, and great quantities thereof are brought to England. And we may add here the manufacture of plaiding at Glasgow and Aberdeen.

The mines of lead in this kingdom are of very great advantage to the inhabitants, as likewise is the abundance of fine coal produced on the banks of the Frith of Edinburgh in Clackmannanshire; where the townsmen are employed in loading them away, as well for Edinburgh as England, and for the coast towns on the east side of Scotland, such as Montrose, Aberdeen, &c.

Near these coal works are salt-pans, for the making and boiling of salt, which is made in such quantities, as occasion a very great trade.

And, although they abound with great quantities of fir timber, and which is very fit for ship-building; yet, as most

of it lies too remote from water-carriage, so much advantage is not made of it as could be wished.

But the great supports of the people of Scotland are their linnen manufactures and their fisheries; the first of which, since the union, has been greatly encouraged; for the duties on Scots linnen being taken off, and the wearing the printed foreign callicoes since prohibited in England (instead of which the Scots linnen is used, as it is very proper for taking the impression of colours and figures) great quantities of it are consumed in England, as well as in the British plantations in America; and by the great increase of this manufacture, the poor of Scotland are greatly employed, and, in general, subsist much more comfortably than before.

The fisheries of herring, salmon, and cod, or white fish, which lie at their very doors, and might employ an infinite number of hands, they have not so industriously attended to, 'till lately, as might have been expected; yet the salmon and herring fisheries have certainly turned to good account; and it is not to be doubted, but their fisheries in general will now be prosecuted with all needful vigour and zeal, since the parliament has passed an act, giving power to constitute a joint stock company, for the carrying them on; which, 'tis to be hoped, will tend to enrich these people, and prove an additional nursery for seamen; of no little importance to the interest of the united kingdoms.

The Scots export great quantities of their manufactures to the British colonies in America; where, by virtue of the Union, they are allowed a freedom of commerce; and in this trade they are very much improved.

In fine, Scotland is increased many ways in their trade, within a few years past, as well in manufacturing at home, as in merchandizing abroad. And, if they are effectually supported in carrying on their staple manufacture of linnen and their fisheries, they might, in a few years, grow rich in proportion. Their only loss seems to be, that their situation is too far from the court and the metropolis; the one too much taking away their nobility and gentry, and causing their money to be spent from home; and the other, being too distant, cannot so effectually take off the product of their country, which makes the corn and cattle of Scotland, though much of it goes to England, yet not sell at so good a price to the husbandman as if it were nearer to London.

The salt of Scotland ought to be mentioned also as a produce, rather than a manufacture, as it is in England: and we speak of it again, because, as it is esteemed stronger and better than that of Newcastle, so it cures their fish better, and is more desired abroad; and great quantities of it are exported every year to Germany, Norway, and to the Baltic. Thus the remotest parts of Britain are furnished for commerce, and every part of it has it's peculiar advantages, something to employ their poor at home, and something to supply for merchandize abroad. And Scotland has this particular happiness in its commerce, which England cannot boast of, nor hardly any other nation in Europe, viz. that, in every single branch of it's trade with other nations, the balance is to her advantage, that is, she sends out more in value than she receives back, and, consequently, must have the difference made good in money: so that Scotland may be truly said to be daily increasing in riches, by their trade. The ballance of mere trade between Scotland and England is also manifestly to the advantage of the former, the goods they receive from the latter bearing no proportion to those they send from the former; these consisting chiefly in woollen manufactures, of the finer sorts only, and some silk; in the room of which England takes off their wool, their cattle, their linnen, their mullin, their corn, and very great quantities of almost every species of their produce, except fish and salt. It is to be observed, also, that, by this increase of commerce in Scotland, they are very much increased in shipping, and that they build, as well as buy, ships continually, especially for the West-Indies, and the southern commerce; an article which is necessarily followed by an increase of seamen, and an increase of employment and business on shore; for the building and fitting out those ships is many ways beneficial to Scotland. Their chief want is of good large timber; but their east-country trade begins to supply that to their advantage, by making an easy and larger return, as back-freight for their ships which carry out their fish.

By this means Scotland must necessarily increase in wealth, and posterity will discern it. Nations do not grow rich at once: time, and a long series of concurring circumstances, bring it to pass. And, as Scotland receives the overplus of it's commerce from all the nations wherewith they have any, the effect must necessarily discover it'self in the people, by living better and easier than formerly, and, in time, becoming as wealthy in proportion as England it'self. For a more particular account of this trade, see the several counties and shires in Scotland, and the general article of SCOTLAND.

The next point that falls under our view is the trade of Ireland, as belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; which we shall, also, in this place, consider in a general light, and how it is connected, or otherwise, with the interest of England.

Ireland is an island, and lies between longitude 5. 40. and 10. 37. west from London; and between north latitude 51. 16. and 55. 20. It is separated from part of England and Scotland by St. George's, or the Irish Channel, on the east; has the Scots western islands on the north and north-east; the mouth of St. George's Chappel on the south; and the Atlantic Ocean on the west.

The soil, in general, is fitter for graze and pasturage than tillage, the graze in some places being so long, and sweet withal, according to Dr Beale, as would suffice their cattle, if they were not restrained; and in other places their soil is so very fat, as not to admit of being dunged. Though a great deal of wood has been cut down to make charcoal for the iron-works, and many hundred acres of bogs drained, of late years, which are now excellent meadows and corn-fields, yet several great woods are still remaining in Ulster, &c. and other parts are still incumbered with bogs of different sorts, the deepest of which are impassable in summer, except such as have some paths of firm ground, which are known only to the natives, and shake, as they tread on them, for which reason they are called shaking bogs, &c.

Here are a great many iron-mines, but they have been chiefly discovered and made useful by the English, who have been considerable gainers by them, since the reign of queen Elizabeth. Of these there are three sorts, the rock-mine, the bog-mine, and the mountain-mine. The first, as it lies near the surface, is dug out with very little charge; the ore is full of good tough metal, if the operation of smelting and refining it be skilfully performed; but, in the smelting thereof, it must be mixed with other sorts of ore, because it is too stubborn to melt properly by itself, and chokes up the furnace, unless ores more mellow and more kindly for fusion are intermixed therewith. The second sort is hewn with little trouble from the rocks; it is not so rich as the former; and the iron is so brittle that is scarce fit for any thing but plow-shares, unless it be mixed with some other more malleable sorts, which, it must be observed, is to be done by melting of the ores together. The mountain ore is tough, of a middle substance between the other two, and, in many parts, affords iron no ways inferior to the Spanish. Dr Beale says, that they had considerable mines of lead too, which were very promising, before the Irish rebellion, but that they were destroyed by the rebels, and never duly improved since.

Here are several ridges of hills, from 10 to 50 miles long; many of which abound with good pasture and arable land; and the tops and sides of several of them look as if they had been plowed. Some of them are very high, particularly between Dundalk and Carlingford. It may be said of the country in general, that it has as good pasture as any in Europe, and abundance of good corn. Their own cattle are generally small, but those brought from England thrive exceedingly well. Here are many quarries of free-stone, marble, slate, flint, and sea coal; but their principal fuel is turf, only in towns near the coast they are supplied with coal from England and Scotland. Here are also some glass-works, but they have their land for making it chiefly from England.

Their chief commodities for exports are cattle, hides, furs, tallow, butter, cheese, honey, wax, salt, hemp, linnen cloth, timber, pipe-staves, wool, and woollen-cloth, coarse rugs, and shag-mantles, freezes, ratteens, camblets, fowl, variety of fish, as salmon, herring, &c. some lead, tin, and iron. The chief riches of the antient Irish consist in their numerous flocks of sheep, which they shear twice a year; great herds of black cattle; and abundance of small horses, noted for their soft and round amble. Here is variety of game of all sorts, but the Irish gentry are not so fond of hunting as the English. Though they have rain generally all the year, except about five or six weeks fair weather in the spring, yet the inhabitants are as healthful, and as long-lived, as their neighbours; and though, in summer, it frequently rains some days together, to the great hindrance of the maturity of their corn, &c. as well as of their gathering of it in, yet there is as seldom a dearth here as in any country whatsoever, and most years they have not only enough for their own consumption, but for exportation.

It has been observed by some, that Ireland is treated by the English as a conquered country in nothing more than in matters of trade; and that they are, as it were, compelled to carry a high hand over them in this article, from the principle of self-preservation, by suppressing and prohibiting the export of the Irish manufactures, to prevent the ruin of their own. It is certain that the Irish have not only wool, fuller's earth, &c. to as great perfection as the English, but have abundantly the advantage of them in the manufacturing it, by reason of the cheapness both of the materials, and the labour of the people, owing to the greater cheapness of the common necessities of life. Those who attempt to justify the English for preventing the Irish from running into the British manufactures, urge, 1. That the peopling of Ireland (the native wild Irish excepted) was from England, and under the protection of the English power. They ought, therefore, say they, to enjoy the country upon the English terms, and not use the advantages given them there to the injury of the people that first settled and supported them, as would be the case, if

they fell into the English manufactures. 2. They say that the sheep, which now yield them such a prodigious fleece, were first carried from England; and, as this was at a time too when their exportation was prohibited to all the rest of the world, they ought not, in justice to England, to employ the product of those sheep to the disadvantage of their benefactors, or to run into a trade which is so far the property of England (as to them) that they could have no right to it, but what they must derive from the English. On these foundations, it is said, that the English have, by act of parliament, restrained the inhabitants of Ireland from exporting any of their woollen manufactures to any part of the world, except to England. How just and conclusive the foregoing reasoning is, we leave to the reader's own determination. Whence it is that the woollen manufactures of the Irish are not to be reckoned any part of their foreign trade, except to England only. In return for this, and to make them some compensation, they are admitted not only to bring their wool to England, but also to manufacture it in part; that is, to spin it; and very great quantities of their yarn are imported into Great-Britain in a year: and the very last session of the parliament of England an act was passed to open the port of Great Yarmouth, for the importation of wool and woollen yarn from Ireland; the motive to which signified, in the preamble, to be of great utility and advantage to the woollen manufacturers in that part of England, by rendering the conveyance of these materials to the several towns and places where the said manufactures are carried on, more easy, cheap, and expeditious. The Irish, who think the before-mentioned restrictions in regard to the woollen manufacture a hardship upon them, have long clandestinely exported their unwrought wool to France; which, perhaps, has proved more prejudicial to England than if they had been permitted to manufacture the same in Ireland. But considering those restraints, it is no wonder that the trade of Ireland is very much contracted, compared to what it would have been, was the case otherwise.

The common trade of Ireland, except the article of linnens, therefore, is to be considered as almost confined to the provisions that are the mere produce of their lands; of which, as they have extraordinary plenty, so they have a very great, and very profitable, trade with them. They trade considerably to Flanders and the Low Countries, especially for butter, tallow, and leather; but chiefly for butter, of which the Flemings buy large quantities; so that the Irish send many ships at a time to Ostend, laden wholly with that commodity. They drive a considerable trade to France, also, with their barrelled beef (with which the French victual their men of war, and such of their merchant ships too, that are bound for long voyages) besides the returns which they make from thence for their wool.

As for their herrings, of which they catch great quantities on the north side of the kingdom, viz. on the coast from Belfast to Londonderry, they chiefly send them to Spain and Portugal. With regard to their linnen manufacture, which is so exceedingly increased of late years, for which they not only spin the yarn themselves, to a far greater perfection than could have been expected in so few years, but they raise a great part of the flax themselves; and, it is to be hoped, will be able to raise the whole. Of their linnens, they, as well as the Scots, send great quantities to the British colonies, and import it into England duty free.

The Irish also built very good ships, and have exceeding good harbours, in which many English merchants chuse to build, their oak being very good, and plenty. From the mouth of St. George's Chappel northward, they fish sometimes with 100 sail of large fishing boats together. Besides herrings, they catch some white fish. They have all their coals, except a few in Kilkenny, which is far within land, from England; as also all their copper, block-tin, and lead, from Lancashire, Flintshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and Yorkshire. They import their hops, and great part of their West-India commodities, with all the bulk of their mercery, grocery, and haberdashery wares, &c. from England.

Having, with what brevity I could, run through the chief branches of home-trade of England, Scotland, and Ireland, as they are chiefly carried on within themselves, and as they have relation and dependency on each other, there remain two other points to be considered, in order to complete our general survey of the commerce of Great Britain within herself: the one of which is that of the British colonies and plantations in America, and the trade between them and England, Scotland, and Ireland; the other is to take a view of the foreign trade of these kingdoms in general; and to conclude with our remarks upon the whole.

The exportations from England to her American colonies, consist of almost all the necessaries and conveniences of life, provisions chiefly excepted; yet large quantities even of these, such as beer, brandy, flour, meal, cheese, are sent to the island colonies in particular, though no necessary provisions are sent to those on the continent, they having plenty within themselves.

But our continent, as well as island, colonies, are furnished from England with materials for wearing apparel, household furniture,

furniture, silk, woollen, and linnen manufactures, iron, cordage, and sails, great guns, small arms, ammunition, lead, brass, iron, and steel, whether wrought or unwrought; in a word, England furnishes them almost with every thing needful for the luxuries, as well as conveniencies, of life, except provisions, as before observed.

The exports to our plantations from Scotland and Ireland consist principally in linnens of their own manufacture; and from Ireland they send also a considerable quantity of beef, butter, and pork, to the island colonies.

The imports from the colonies, in return, are of various kinds, according to the several places from whence they come.

From Hudson's Bay are brought chiefly furs and skins, of divers sorts, such as beaver, bear, deer, &c. which are the materials for the carrying on several capital and profitable branches of our manufactures. See the articles HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY.

From Newfoundland, cod-fish and train oil, which supports a great part of our fisheries, breeds seamen, and greatly improves our navigation. See the articles NEWFOUNDLAND, and FISHERIES.

From New England, furs, whale fins, and oil for our woollen manufacturers, drawn from the whale, and some from the white-fish; tar in large quantities, turpentine, cod-fish, plank, pipe-staves, hoghead-staves, cedar, &c. See BRITISH AMERICA.

From New York, and both the Jerseys, the same as from New-England, except cod-fish.

From Virginia and Maryland, tobacco, saffraas, sarsaparilla, snake-root, and various other medicinal drugs.

From Carolina, furs and skins, especially of deer and bears; tar, pitch, and rice; the latter the principal product of this colony.

From the island colonies in general, viz. Jamaica, Barbadoes, St Christopher's, Nevis, Montserrat, &c. sugars, Molasses, rum, indigo, cotton-wool, ginger, pimento, cocoa, preserves, citron-water, and great variety of drugs. See the articles ANTILLES ISLANDS.

From Bermudas, cedar-boards, and sloop built there. See BERMUDAS ISLANDS.

From the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, by way of New England and New York, logwood, fustic, and Nicaragua woods. See LOGWOOD.

The trade of these plantations with each other is not inconsiderable; for, as those on the continent abound with provisions of all sorts, such as wheat, flour, pease, beans, beer, malt, oats, barley, beef, pork, bacon, salt-fish, rice, and also with horses and lumber, viz. timber, deal-boards, pipe-staves, &c. and, as there is a great scarcity of all these in the island colonies, so those on the continent are continually supplying the islands with those particulars, and make their returns in rum, sugar, molasses, &c.

The act of navigation, as it is commonly called, restrains the British colonies with regard both to exports and imports, from trading to any part of the world except to their mother-country, but under certain restrictions and limitations.

R E M A R K S.

Before I conclude this sketch of our plantation trade, we should not, methinks, omit the branch of the African trade; for, although we cannot be said to have any colonies in that part of the world, yet our settlements, forts, and castles, give us a right to attempt them, if ever it should be judged eligible. Our African settlements, however, being the means of supplying our colonies with negro labourers, for the cultivation of sugars, rice, rum, molasses, tobacco, cocoa, coffee, &c. our American possessions may be said, in a great measure, to depend upon our trade to Africa; which employs no inconsiderable quantity of shipping. Nor is the trade to Africa, considered abstractedly from the slave-trade, of small advantage to this kingdom, and might, perhaps, be rendered highly more so, when the nature of that trade comes to be considered in a different light from what it hitherto has been. See the articles AFRICA, AFRICAN ISLANDS, AZORES ISLANDS, and such heads as are from thence referred to.

Under the article AMERICA, we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY, concluded between GREAT-BRITAIN, FRANCE, SPAIN, and PORTUGAL, in the year 1763; by which it will appear what great alterations that treaty has made in our AMERICAN AFFAIRS, since the second edition of this work was published; it having annexed all CANADA and it's DEPENDENCIES to the British crown, and likewise FLORIDA, and therewith the ports of St. AUGUSTINE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILE, and the right of navigating the MISSISSIPPI in the gulf of MEXICO, which acquisitions will certainly, in a little time, give quite a new face to our commercial concerns in all NORTH AMERICA, and doubtless very much to the benefit and advantage of the whole BRITISH EMPIRE. See the articles AMERICA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

The same DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has also annexed to the BRITISH CROWN, all the NEUTRAL CARIBBEE ISLANDS, except St. LUCIA, viz. St. VINCENT, DOMINICO

and TOBAGO; and in the lieu of that, we have obtained the French island of GRENADA and the GRENADINES. The national utility and emolument of these new acquisitions are likely to prove no way inconsiderable to Great-Britain hereafter. See the articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS, FRENCH AMERICA.

That foreign trade may impoverish, as well as enrich, a nation, has been shewn under the article BALANCE of Trade; yet without foreign trade, therefore, be pursued upon principles which will render the same beneficial to the state, must we not be daily declining, in treasure and maritime strength; and consequently, in time, give our enemies and rivals, an opportunity to bring us under their yoke? Wherefore the study of trade is a matter of the last consequence to these kingdoms. And, to answer the great end of defence and preservation, it should be studied both in a practical and a political light; the former to accomplish our traders in general to extend commerce for their private interest, the latter to enable us so to regulate the same by wise and salutary laws, that the nation may be gainers, not losers, by it. On what maxims of policy this depends, see the articles ARTIFICER, ASPHALTUM, MANUFACTURERS, ROYAL SOCIETY, TRADE, and such other heads as we from thence refer to.

How to judge, also, when a nation gains or loses by it's trade with particular nations, and how it stands upon the general balance, see the general articles BALANCE of Trade and EXCHANGE.

As the nature of trades with particular countries varies, nor are all alike beneficial; therefore, to judge of the good or ill consequences thereof, it is necessary to indicate the certain signs and characteristics of advantageous trades.

That trade which exports manufactures made of the product of our own country, is certainly profitable, seeing it employs our poor by taking off our superfluities.

The trade which imports foreign materials to be manufactured here, especially when they are procured in barter for our own commodities; and when the goods, after they are manufactured, are mostly sent abroad; is doubtless beneficial.

That trade may be called advantageous which exchanges manufactures for manufactures, and commodities for commodities; and an importation of commodities bought partly for money, and partly for goods, may be of national benefit, if the greatest part of the commodities thus imported are again exported.

All imports of goods which are re-exported, may be generally reckoned beneficial to a state; and the carrying goods from one country to another cannot be otherwise, as it increases our seamen and shipping, and gains us the freight.

These being some of the signs, which are generally agreed on, of a beneficial trade, it may be necessary to observe a few general maxims, whereby to try the value of every particular trade. And,

1. As we have no gold and silver of our own produce, so all we have must be imported from other countries, in exchange for the product and manufactures of our own: and, as we gain gold and silver from those countries which do not sell us so great a value of their commodities as they take from us, but pay the balance in money; so we must pay a balance in money to such countries as sell us more commodities in value than they take from us, and the capital stock of bullion is diminished by such a commerce, unless the goods we import from an over-balancing country be re-exported:

That we are most enriched by those countries which pay us the greatest sums upon the balance, and most impoverished by those which carry off the greatest balance from us:

That the trade of a country which contributes most to the employment and subsistence of our people, and to the improvement of our lands, is most valuable:

That the trade which lessens most the subsistence of our people, and the value of our lands, is most detrimental to the nation:

That the country which does not sell us so great a value of it's commodities as it buys of our's, contributes the whole of the balance to the employment and subsistence of our people, and to the product of our lands:

That the country which sells us more in value than it purchases of us, takes the whole value of the balance from the subsistence of the people and the landed interest:

That, therefore, the balance which is either paid or received by means of our trade with any particular country, is one certain medium to judge of the value of that trade; for every particular trade with other nations contributes so much to the subsistence of our people, and the improvement of our lands, as the balance it pays to us, for the greater value of commodities we sell than buy: and it deducts so much from both, for the greater value of commodities we buy than sell, as the balance we are to pay amounts to:

And, lastly, that every country which takes off our finished manufactures, and returns us unwrought material, to be manufactured here, contributes so far to the employment and subsistence of our people as the whole cost of manufacturing those materials. See TRADE.

By these obvious maxims, which have been granted by all who have had any knowledge of commerce, we shall compare our chief branches of foreign trade; whereby their benefit, or otherwise, to the nation, may be judged of.

And, 1. Our trade to Portugal. The goods we send thither are broad cloths, druggets, baiz, says, long-ells, perpets, callimancoes, and various sorts of worsted stuffs, silk, worsted hose, hats, tin, lead, leather, fish, corn, and divers other English commodities. Our returns from thence are great quantities of wine, oil, salt, and fruit; by which means their spare lands, since they have had the supplying us so largely with wine, are greatly improved.

Since the war in queen Anne's reign, it is certain that we have very considerably increased our importation of their wines; which is more our interest to do than to have them from France, whence our imports have been always more than our exports would pay for; and to Portugal our exports are rather greater than their returns, especially since we have desisted from importing their sugars and tobacco, commodities wherewith we are far more advantageously supplied from our plantations in America; and we are now able to furnish foreign markets cheaper than the Portuguese can, or as cheap as the French, if our plantations were upon a footing equally beneficial with theirs. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, and PLANTATIONS.

The Portuguese were formerly the great navigators of the world, as appears by their many discoveries, both in the East and West-Indies, besides the several islands of the Azores, Cape de Verd, and Maderas, where they have settled colonies. To these they admit us a free trade, but reserve their remoter settlements on the continent of Brazil more strictly to themselves, whither they export many of the commodities which we send them.

Their islands we supply directly with our manufactures, and from the Azores load corn, wood, and some wines, which we receive in barter for them; the first we carry to the Maderas, where it is again bartered for the wines of the growth of that island, which are shipped from thence to our plantations in America.

As the Portuguese are not now the navigators which they formerly were, so neither are they great manufacturers; some sorts of coarse cloth they do make, which is often shipped to the islands of Maderas and the Azores, where it is preferred before any other of the like goodness, because of their own manufacture; and they have attempted the making of baiz, for which they drew over some of our workmen; but it soon came to an end, our workmen returning home by due encouragement being given them here: so prudent is it to stop an evil in the beginning.

Upon the whole, so large is the quantity of Portugal wine imported into England, Ireland, and our plantations, from the Maderas, and also the quantities of oil, salt, and fruit, that, notwithstanding the appearance of a little Portugal gold among us, the balance is certainly far less in our favour than is generally imagined; for the French and the Dutch have of late years greatly interfered with us in that trade; which is well enough known to the British factory at Lisbon; notwithstanding, it is said, the court of Portugal have lately treated our British merchants in that kingdom with a behaviour contrary to the laws of nations, and subsisting treaties, and which the English nation does by no means merit from that. But we do not doubt but every cause of misunderstanding will be soon happily prevented, since the Portuguese have so lately experienced the powerful friendship of Britain in time of need. See the article PORTUGAL.

2. Our trade to Spain. The goods we export thither are broad cloths, druggets, callimancoes, baiz, says, perpets, stuffs of divers kinds, cotton, worsted, and silk hose, fish, leather, tin, lead, corn, &c.—The commodities England takes from them are wine, oil, fruit of various sorts, wool, indigo, cochineal, and dyeing stuffs of several kinds, drugs, iron, cocoa. The bulk of the commodities we take from them are the produce of their own country, viz. wine, oil, and fruit, &c. so that the Spaniards pay for our woollen, and all other products, at a very easy rate; and, if it were not for the great consumption of Spanish wines, fruits, and oils, &c. in England, their sales of these commodities would amount but to a trifle, they having no nation for their customers but us, Holland, and a very small matter to Flanders, Hamburg, and the Baltic.

It is computed that we take off above two thirds of the whole; so that, although we are obliged to the Spaniards for their custom in our manufactures, they are no less obliged to us for taking off their produce.

Formerly was received a great ballance from them in bullion; but since the house of Bourbon has filled the Spanish throne, and introduced French stuffs and fashions, we have very great reason to believe the ballance is but very small in our favour: and, according to the system lately adopted by that court, it is likely to be less, if not to be turned against us, unless we turn the tables upon them, and take less of their wines, oils, and fruits, &c. as they give less encouragement to our manufactures. Their attempting the scheme of the late duke de Ripperda, by stealing away our woollen manufactures, I am afraid forebodes no good to this nation. See BISCAY, and SPAIN.

V L I.

3. Our trade to Italy. The goods we send to that country are, viz. serges, baiz, druggets, perpets, says, kerries, Spanish cloth, long cloth, stuffs, flannels, lead, tin, and fish, pepper, and other East-India goods. The commodities which England takes from them are oil, wine, raw, thrown, and wrought silks, soap, olives, anchovies, cuttrants, paper, drugs, and dyeing wares.

Within these 20 years we received a considerable ballance by the Italian trade in general; but the French having stepped in here too with great quantities of their woollen manufactures, and also having got a part of the fish trade; and as we import great quantities of thrown and raw silk from thence to carry on our manufactures; the ballance is certainly now against us.

The Italians have an excellent method of throwing their silk, by a water-engine, which, with a few hands to attend it, will do more work than a hundred persons can do at throwing, according to our common method. Indeed, fine Italian raw silk cannot be thrown with that exactness and delicacy required, by hand, as it can be by an engine. We have however, been so unfortunate as never to have had any such engine, 'till of late years, and there is but one complete in the kingdom; though shorter ways of labour will render our manufactures cheaper: which, therefore, is one great point not to be neglected in this kingdom.

Both Venice and Genoa have made some attempts on a woollen manufacture, being furnished with wool from Alicant, and those eastern parts of Spain.

4. Our trade to Turkey. The commodities this trade takes from us are chiefly broad cloth, dyed in colours, serges, long ells, tin, lead, and some iron; and the English merchants frequently buy up French and Lisbon sugars, and transport thither, as well as bullion from Cadiz. Our returns are chiefly raw silk, program-yarn, cotton-wool, and cotton-yarn, goat's-hair, coffee, dyeing goods, and drugs of sundry sorts, soap, leather, some fruit and oil.

The Turkey silk is only fit for the shute of our fine damasks; and other coloured silks, and for making silk stockings, galloons, and silver and gold lace; but it is not proper for the warp of any silk, not being fine enough, nor even enough for organzine, or double-twisted silk, that being all Italian, nor indeed even enough for the shute, or woof; of black lustrings, alamodes, or paduasoyes, the shute of that being also Italian.

Our returns, however, from Turkey, have been the foundation of several manufactures, different from our own, by the variety whereof we better suit cargoes to export again. See TURKEY COMPANY and TRADE.

5. Our trade to Hamburg, and other parts of Germany. The goods we send to those countries are broad cloths, druggets, long ells, single dozens, perpets, baiz, serges, flannels, worsted hose, and several sorts of stuffs, tobacco, sugar, ginger, East-India goods, tin, lead, and several other commodities, the great consumption of which is in Lower Germany. We take from them, even yet, great quantities of linnen, linnen-yarn, kid-skins, tin-plates, and many other commodities.

Formerly we were supplied by France with linnens; but, since the high duty upon French linnens, the emperor, and other princes of Germany, have gained that manufacture, which has greatly enriched them. Notwithstanding the advantage they have by importing their linnens upon us, some of them have prohibited several sorts of our woollen manufactures, and others have prohibited all; which at present gives them a ballance upon us.

6. Our trade to Holland. The goods we send to this country are very considerable, as broad cloths, druggets, long ells, stuffs of various sorts, leather, corn, coals, and something of almost every kind which this kingdom affords, besides all kinds of India and Turkey re-exported goods, sugars, tobacco, rice, ginger, pitch, and tar and sundry other commodities of the produce of our American plantations.

We take from Holland large quantities of fine Hollands linnens, threads, tapes, and incles, whale-fins, brass battery, madder, argol, clapboard, wainscot, and a great number of other commodities and toys, pepper, and all sorts of India spices, fine lace, cambricks, Dutch paduasoyes, velvets, and other wrought silks; yet, so great is the quantity of our exports thither, that the ballance by way of trade only is considerably in our favour. See HOLLAND.

7. France takes from England large quantities of tobacco, horn plates, tin, some lead, some flannels, and corn in time of scarcity. We take from them wine, brandy, linnen, fine lace, fine cambricks, and cambrick lawns, to a very considerable value, as also brocades, velvets, and many other rich silk manufactures, which are either run in upon us, or come by way of Holland; the humour of some of our nobility and gentry being such, that, although we have these manufactures made as good, if not better, than the French, yet they are frequently obliged to be called by the name of French, to make them sell. Their linnens are run in upon us in very great quantities, as are their wine and brandy, from the Land's-End even to the Downs. Their brandies have been sold from 3 s. to 3 s. 6 d. per gallon, and their claret from

3 s. to 4 s. the best, though the bare duty of the brandy is 6 s. 8 d. per gallon, and that on wine 52 l. per tun, or 13 d. per quart. This must drain us of our gold and silver; for the smugglers carry nothing out but gold, silver, and wool, wherewith to purchase those commodities. It is a misfortune upon us, that our interest is not better considered; we might be supplied with fine rum from our plantations, that would be more acceptable to our common people than French brandy, provided the importation was sufficiently encouraged; then the nation would be supplied with that spirit from abroad at little charge, for it would not cost above 12 d. sterling per gallon abroad; and, in reality, it could not stand the nation in more than one fifth part of that; for it is shewn, under the article PLANTATIONS, that four fifths of all that is gained by them comes home to us. France, above all other nations, is the most disadvantageous for England to trade with: it produces most things necessary for life, and stands in need of very little for luxury or convenience, some few materials excepted, to help in carrying on their manufactures, the chief whereof are wool, and some dyeing stuffs.

8. Flanders takes from us serges, a few flannels, a very few stuffs, sugar, tobacco, tin, and lead. We take from them fine lace, Flanders whited linnens, thread, tapes, incles, and divers other commodities to a very great value. But the Dutch, having the command of the mouth of the Schelde, do thereby secure to themselves, in a great measure, the passage of goods to and from Flanders through Holland; so that it is difficult to judge what the balance we pay to them amounts to. By the direct trade which is carried on by the way of Antwerp, the exchange indicates that it is in our favour.

9. Norway and Denmark take from us Guinea's, crown-pieces, and bullion, a little tobacco, and a few coarse woollens, of small value. We take from them vast quantities of deal boards, timber, spars, and iron. We pay them a large balance; and their re-building great ships of burden (destroyed in the war between them and Sweden) has pretty well established them in the navigation and freight of their timber, which has increased the balance upon us. See NORWAY and DENMARK.

10. Sweden takes from us gold, silver, and but a small quantity of our manufactures, or productions. We take from Sweden near two thirds of the iron wrought up and consumed in the kingdom; also copper, boards, planks, &c. so that the balance now is considerably to their advantage with England. Before they encouraged a woollen manufacture of their own, they took large quantities of our cloths; but, having loaded them with high duties, that trade is since much more to our disadvantage. See SWEDEN.

11. Russia takes from us some coarse cloths and palaches, long ells, worsted stuffs, tin, lead, and a few other commodities. England takes from Russia hemp, flax, linnen cloth, linnen-yarn, Russia leather, tallow, furs, iron, pot-ash, rhubarb to a prodigious value; which turns the balance considerably against us: and, having no other market to go to for hemp, where any great quantities may be had, they are paid their own price for what we take of them.

12. The East-India trade takes from us great quantities of bullion, and considerable quantities of our woollen manufactures, and various other commodities, which purchase there, at very low prices, the products and manufactures of India and China, which are brought home in our own navigation; out of which we supply ourselves with mullins, calicoes, and other cotton cloths, as also coffee, tea, and raw silk; and sell to foreigners, it is thought, as many of the said commodities as repay for all the bullion shipped, and leave with us besides a very considerable balance upon that trade. See EAST-INDIA TRADE, and EAST INDIA COMPANY.

Bengal-raw silk is bought at very low prices there, and is very useful in carrying on the manufactures of this kingdom. China silk is of an excellent staple, and comes at little above one third of the price of Italian Piedmontese silk. The duty of Bengal raw silk being one third more, and China near three times as much, as that of Italian, hinders our being supplied so fully as we might, and is no little detriment to the kingdom; for we pay the duke of Savoy all ready money for what we have from him, which as effectually drains us of our bullion as the India or China trade does, with this aggravation, that almost three pounds of China silk may be purchased for the money that one pound of Piedmont silk costs us.

Although silver is not sent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet in fact it is the same thing; for the balance of some other trade is carried thither, which otherwise would be remitted to us.

The silk of China will answer, in most respects, the use of Italian silk, provided we could be supplied with the fine raw silk whereof they make their damasks, sattins, and other fine manufactures, which, by the curiosity of these silks, must come up to the goodness of Italian silk.

The China silk that we commonly receive is purchased at Canton, the nearest port we trade to in China; but their fine silk is made in the provinces of Nankin and Chekiam, where their fine manufactures are carried on, and where prodigious quantities of raw silk are made, and the best in all China.

We have never imported any quantities of the superfine here, but two or three ships have brought extraordinary good, the best of which, we are informed, was brought from Amoy; and, doubtless, if encouragement was given for the importation of that fine silk, it might be thrown here, and our manufactures carried on at a small expence to the nation. The countries of Chekiam and Nankin, that produce it, are much to the northward of the places that we now trade to, and near Chufan, about 5 or 600 miles to the northward of Canton, an island in which we formerly had a factory, and were admitted to trade.

That country is very cold in winter, and some of our woollen goods have sold very well there, especially our callimancoes and long ells.

Besides, the countries of Chekiam and Nankin are near the heart of the empire, where the greatest trade is carried on; and Nankin being the metropolis of trade in that country, as London is in England, she sends out her manufactures and merchandize to Canton, as we do to Bristol, Liverpool, and other out-ports. But, as Canton is the nearest port, some captains and supercargoes have raised objections against going further down the coast, alleging that it is a difficult pilotage, and they are in danger of losing their passage back that year; that the mandarins, and other officers, impose upon them, which makes it difficult to trade with them. But, when private traders had liberty to go to China, they were of another sentiment; they went to those places where they could get most money; and the people of Chufan (where the merchants of Nankin, as well as of Hamcheu and Nimpo, two other great trading cities, lodge great quantities of merchandize) would be as inclinable to cultivate a commerce with our captains and supercargoes as the people of Canton are; and it is little to be doubted but we might find as much encouragement to trade to those parts, as we do now to Canton, their interest being the same among them all.

We have been assured, that several of our other commodities, as well as our woollen, would be very acceptable towards the heart of China. If this trade could be duly established, and any considerable quantities of our produce and manufactures vended in that populous and extended country; and could we also import that fine silk before intimated; it would exceedingly add to the profits we already receive by the India traffic, and would effectually enable us to vie, in the silk manufacture, with any nation in Europe; for, as cheapness and goodness always obtain preference, silk, so imported from China, would answer in both those essential respects.

The licences given by the present company to private merchants, to carry on a coasting trade in India, has proved of no little advantage to the kingdom in general; and may prove of far more, by finding out more markets in these parts for our European commodities. See EAST INDIA TRADE, and COMPANIES.

R E M A R K S.

I. From this short narrative of the trade of Great Britain and Ireland, and of our American plantations, and Africa, among themselves, some judgment may be made, how far these kingdoms can be said to be independent, in point of trade, from all the rest of the world: and, indeed, when it is duly considered, what quantity of shipping and water-craft of every kind, which are employed in our home coasting trade round our islands, and likewise the shipping employed to and from Great-Britain and Ireland to our colonies in America and settlements in Africa, and what quantity our colonies employ amongst themselves: when these points are well weighed, our seamen and tonnage of shipping, would perhaps intitle us to the character of a maritime power, although we had no commerce with other nations. But, If we had no commerce with other nations, and our neighbouring potentates had, and a commerce so wisely regulated, that they were constant gainers by it, and we only carried on a domestic trade within our own territories, should we not be at a kind of stand with regard to wealth and power, while other nations were daily increasing both? Was this the state of things, would it be possible to maintain ourselves an independent people? Must we not always be at the mercy of the most potent neighbours, and become vassals to their will?

Let any man, conversant with the world, pass but a transient reflection on the state of mankind throughout the globe, and he will find, that scarce any thing prevails, but a confederacy of civil, ecclesiastical, and military power, against the liberties and properties of the whole human species, except in the little spots called Great-Britain and Ireland, and their dependent dominions. And was it not the advancement of the commerce of this nation, in the days of that great princess Elizabeth, that first enabled us to oppose those chains of slavery, which were so resolutely forged for us in Spain? And has not our trade and navigation, ever since, been the only means whereby we could keep pace with our enemies in riches and power, in order to defend ourselves against that tyranny and oppression, to which almost the

whole world is liable? Can any man consider these indisputable facts, and hesitate a moment, whether our trade is not still the only means left us, whereby we can protect ourselves from that bondage, wherein other states are involved? Since trade, the converse with the world, is the honest way to strengthen and enrich a nation, and the great discourager of idleness and debauchery, &c. we being situated by nature, and having genius proper for its cultivations, ought to make it our study to manage it to its highest capacity of advancement; which, if we would in earnest pursue, war itself would be such advantage and security to us, that we should not only be out of danger from our enemies, but command the trade of the world; and, on the contrary, if that be neglected, all the miseries, attendants on slavery and poverty, that shall happen to the nation, may be ascribed to our own improvidence and inactivity.

We contradict the received maxim, That men will attempt any thing for advantage, whilst we neglect proper methods for improving and encouraging trade; for no greater advantage can flow from any fountain, or proceed from any faculty upon earth, than from that; for, where trade is, there will be employment; where employment is, thither will people resort; there will be a consumption of commodities, and thereby, as things are at present circumstanced, the public revenue will be increased: so that, if we support ourselves by a flourishing commerce, we need not doubt but people from all parts of the universe would resort hither to enjoy themselves and improve their stocks.

We see every day, that the convenient situation of any estate gives an estimate, and raises its purchase; and without convenience, life itself would be but a mere spiration, scarce worth the valuing: England then most certainly deserves to be valued and preferred to all nations on the earth, having both to so great advantage.

'Tis an island placed as a center to the circular globe, towards which, trade may draw a line from the whole circumference; 'tis blest with a moderation of every element; no scorching sun negroes, nor frigid zone benumbs, its natives, but a medium influence strengthens and beautifies its inhabitants, who are of regular shapes; neither an unwieldy nor pigmy breed, but fit to endure the toils of war, or peaceful labours on the land: our climate is so moderate, that the sun neither exhales, nor the cold phlegmatics, the spirituous parts, but allows a temperature between both; so that our native imaginations are neither too airy for consideration, nor too dull for invention; its soil is mixture and productive, and, where barrenness appears on the surface, the bowels are enriched with valuable mines, &c.

No Alpine mountains, nor Holland bogs, but a delightful variety of hills and dales, compass the land; so that, when the parching sun burns up and chaps the higher lands, the humble meadows thrive with verdure; and, when mighty showers drown the vales, the hills grow fruitful by watering; our lands, when tilled, produce a grateful plenty in return to labour; our trees in general are lofty and well topped, afford us all the conveniences that we can expect; our kingly oaks so firmly rib our ships, that our royal navy, if duly supported by the effects of a prosperous national commerce, will ever prove an invincible bulwark to any daring foe; our fruits are pleasant and useful for support; our cattle large, healthy, strong, and numerous, which are as good as the world produces, for labour or for food; their skins are firm, and of so contracted pores, that better leather is no where to be met with. Our wool is very good, and, if duly regarded, would equal the boasted Segovia; 'tis the parent of our chief manufactures, and gives us a plaudit in our cloth, baiz, fays, ferges, &c. throughout the universe. We have fowl in plenty, and that plenty good. In the bosom of our native earth are hid riches, which are easily obtained by the artist and laborious, as tin, lead, copper, iron, coals, &c. Our land is plentifully veined with rivers, refreshing the earth, affording variety and plenty of fish. Nature has made such a paradise of the land, that we shew ourselves ungrateful to the divine bounty, when we are negligent of the blessings it hath liberally bestowed. In short, the nation is a verdure-field indented with harbours around it, where our ships, from their natural situation, may ride out the tempestuous storm.

The sea, by providence, is a wall which surrounds us, to defend us from the Pharaoh that would enslave us; 'tis champion and servant too, for by our ships furrowing its waves, we send our plenty out, and bring the riches of the most distant parts of the world into our possessions.

Ought we not to be grateful, when we consider the blessings we enjoy, and the opportunities that are given us to improve them farther to our advantage? 'Tis wonderful to think, how several sorts of fish, in numbers innumerable, at certain seasons, visit our coasts by divine appointment and natural instinct, for our sustenance; and day by day are ready, not only to furnish us with food, but also to be made merchandize of to the enriching of the nation.

'Tis very observable how heaven blesses us by the course of the wind, that commonly blows westerly for above half of the year, which makes all our cape lands and bays, opposite to the French and Dutch coasts, good roads for our ships to

ride with security; for we are on the weather, and the French on the lee shore; besides, our anchor hold is much better than either the French or Dutch; for we have generally a stiff clay, chalk, or hard gravel, whilst the French have only hard rocks, or loose sands; the Flemish and Hollanders more number of sands on their coasts; their water of less depth, and consequently their ports choaked up with quick sands; when our ships ride safe, even between our sands, by our country's being a weather shore.

Thus, in epitome, we see what a rich heirless with an immense fortune we enjoy, by the gift of the great Father of the universe; but we should consider, when this portion was given, gratitude and duty were expected, that it might descend as a jointure to our posterity: but, instead of such returns, ungrateful we, by indolent and vicious lives, forget the obligation from the donor; and, regardless of our present prosperity, neglect the means to improve the talent intrusted to our management; and, the greater the trust is, the greater will be expected our improvement; wherefore let us no longer dally, but seriously amend, and, to our power, use the means put into our hands, to make us a prosperous, a powerful, and a happy people; which can be done by no honest way, than by trade and industry.

And trade is so noble a matter, that it is willing to entertain all mankind in its service; and has such variety of employments adapted for every capacity, that all, but the lazy and supine, may support, at least, if not enrich themselves; its agents are every-where laborious and industrious; but in our British empire may be enriched, by manufacturing and improving our own and foreign products, and be defended by the increase of our seamen and shipping; which, if duly employed, can never be too many, being always the conveyors of our riches, as well as strength of this nation: as all the felicity and glory of Britain depend upon the encouragement and good management of trade and navigation, so its ruin and confusion must be the consequence of their neglect.

It is not a wonder, that schools, universities, inns of court, and colleges, should be so careful to have regulators and inspectors for the better government and direction in their several faculties, that are not in comparison with the fruits of a duly regulated trade, by which they are all maintained; yet trade, that gives warmth and motion to the blood, a d fresh spirits to every part of the nation, from the meanest cottage to the royal throne, that provides, under God, our daily bread, is in a manner unregarded, and without a due inspection, regulation, and encouragement! Notwithstanding this great lady (affecting freedom and security, hath no inclination to continue under the arbitrary power of France, nor the uncertain fate of Holland, with whom she hath resided only as a sojourner, though she hath been very highly caressed and embraced by them) is ready to espouse both our interest and nation, and with herself bring in dowry the treasures of the world; if we would vouchsafe to give her an encouraging entertainment, being very sensible of the great advantage we might in return give her, by so absolutely securing our free enjoyment of liberty, that there might appear a certainty of its continuance to posterity, and by having our civil rights and properties maintained; so that the nation may not be depopulated, both by discouraging ingenious artificers and manufacturers from repairing hither, and by forcing our own out of the country to seek bread and protection elsewhere, and by cramping the industry of others that shall remain; which has certainly been the case, and the French and other states have had the wit to take the advantage of our negligence, by encouraging industry and commerce to an amazing degree in every branch of it, by which means they became so potent and dangerous to all Europe, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has something curbed them. How absolutely necessary is it then, that all possible endeavours be made, to study the ablest means and methods for the improvement of trade; which alone can give employment to our poor, and prevent robberies and murder, which are an ignominy to the nation, more effectually than any penal or severe laws whatsoever?

With all these superior natural advantages, we cannot be hurt but by ourselves; 'tis our folly only that can undo us. Had the trade of this kingdom been effectually encouraged, foreigners could not have diverted its course as they have done, unless these natural advantages were annihilated; and they may as well attempt to sink our islands in the ocean, as, while they remain, to deprive us of the benefits resulting from their situation and produce, if we take only a resolution to open our eyes; for, although our wounds were, before the late peace really deep, with the weighty incumbrance of our debts and taxes, yet we are far from apprehending they are inurable, though our public debts are so greatly augmented by the last war.

That many branches of our foreign trade are now carried on to the disadvantage of the nation, which a few years since were greatly for its benefit, is certain from the courses of exchange; for by Lloyd's list now before me, of the 21st of April, 1752, I find that

London gave to Venice for the ducat banco 51 d. 3

London

London gave to Leghorn for the dollar 50
Genoa for the dollar - 49 1/2

By Sir Isaac Newton's Tables.

Venice the par is 49 d. 492 dec.
Loſs to England about 4 1/2 per cent.
Leghorn, the par is 51 d. 69 dec.
Gain to England, about 1 3/4 per cent.
Genoa. Although the exchange is at preſent in our favour, yet as this is owing to the unhappy ſituation of their affairs at preſent, which is likely to be only temporary, no judgment can be made from thence at this juncture.

April 21, 1752.

London gave to Liſbon for the milree, 5 s. 5 d. 1/2
The par of exchange is 67 d. 166 dec. Gain to England not 2 per cent.

London gave the pound ſterling to Antwerp, for 36. 5.
The par is 35. 17 dec. Gain to England about 3 1/2 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Amſterdam, for 35. 4. 2.
The par is 36 s. 59 dec. Loſs to England about 3 1/2 per cent.
The occaſion of which loſs upon the balance with Holland, it muſt be obſerved, is not only the intereſt money, which we pay them for the millions they have in our public funds, but the remittances made through Dutch hands to pay the balances of ſeveral branches of trade that are againſt us, all which affects our whole trade to Holland at a diſadvantage to England of 3 1/2 per cent. and conſequently the fame to their benefit; which, added to the intereſt money England pays them as national creditors, drains us very conſiderably. And, as the continuance of theſe cauſes will always keep the exchange in our diſfavour; ſo likewiſe their diſadvantageous exchange proportionably affects our whole commerce to theſe countries, with which we negotiate our money affairs by exchange, through the medium of the Dutch exchange, which adds ſtill more to the diſadvantage of this nation.

London gave the pound ſterling to Hamburgh, for 33. 5.
The par is 35 s. 17 dec. Loſs to England about 5 per cent.
London exchanges with Norway, Sweden, Ruſſia, and moſt parts of Germany, by the way of Hamburgh and Amſterdam; and the exchange between England and that place, which is the moſt to our detriment, is alſo moſt ſo in all the bills of exchange we negotiate with the abovementioned places, through ſuch medium.

London gives to Madrid for a piece of 1/3 40 d. 3/4.
The par is 43. 2 dec. Gain above 6 1/2 per cent.
London gives to Paris 31 d. 1/16 for the French crown of three livres.

The par is 29. 149 dec. Loſs to England above 7 1/2 per cent.
Thus we have the exacteſt view, we can, of the ſtate of the trade between England and the principal nations in Europe; and we find, that we loſe more by the trade with France, than we gain by that with Spain; and ought this not to rouze us to think of taking effectual meaſures ſo to regulate our trade with that kingdom, that we may not be ſuch daily ſufferers thereby; nor be over-reached in our commercial intereſts, by the chicanery and machinations of that court?

The London courſe of exchange this 22d day of May, 1764, ſtands as follows, viz.

Exchange on	
Amſterdam, 36, 6, 2, 1-half, a 2 uf.	Cadiz, 37, 7-8th
Ditto, a ſight, 36, 4.	Madrid, 38, 1-8th
Rotterdam, 36, 7.	Bilboa, 37, 7-8th
Antwerp, no price.	Leghorn, 48, 3-8th, a 1-half
Hamburgh, 34, 10, 2, 1-half uf.	Genoa, 47, 3-4th
Paris, 1 day's date, 30, 1-half	Venice, 50.
Ditto, 2 uf. 30, 1-4th	Liſbon, 5 s. 6 d.
Bourdeaux, ditto, 30, 1-8th	Porto, 5 s. 5 d.
	Dublin, 9, 1-4th

How the BALANCES OF TRADE with particular ſtates ſtand at preſent, the above courſes will ſpeak for themſelves, we leaving the application thereof to the reader, to make his own judgment.

R E M A R K S.

'Tis not many years ſince the Turkey trade was very profitable to theſe kingdoms, it affording us markets for great quantities of our woollen manufactures, together with lead, and other our products ſhipped from hence to Conſtantinople, Scanderoon, and Smyrna; and from thence diſperſed all over the Turkiſh empire, and alſo into Perſia. But the ſcene is changed here, as we have ſeen it is in many parts of Europe, France having ſupplanted us in this once important branch of the Britiſh traffic.

That we may judge by what meaſures that crafty nation have effectuated this matter, I flatter myſelf, that it may not be unacceptable to my readers to lay before them the ſteps, they took to bring this about; which, amidſt numberleſs other politic arts, ſhould by no means paſs unnoticed and unrecorded in this work.

This point was accompliſhed by the indefatigable endea-

vours of that able miniſter of France, Monſ. Colbert, whoſe memory will be deſervedly immortal in that kingdom. From the great increaſe of the naval power of France, at the action off Beachy-head, when the united navies of England and Holland declined a thorough battle, and plied away to avoid engaging, ſprung the increaſe of their navigation in matters of trade. For, under the happieſt oeconomy of their affairs, the French then entered upon two things, which gave a new turn to the ſtate of their whole commerce. The firſt was their planting mulberry-trees, and nourishing the ſilk worm; by which means they annually produced a very large quantity of ſilk of their own growth, to the great increaſe of the wealth of the kingdom. The ſecond was the erecting manufactures of wool in all parts of the kingdom, and prohibiting all the Engliſh woollen manufactures to be imported among them. So that, in a few years, Monſ. Colbert ſet the poor to work all over France, in combing, ſpinning, weaving, and dyeing of woollen goods, although they had a very inconfiderable quantity of wool of their own.

The firſt conſequence of this was, that the king of France ſaw all his ſubjects clothed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who but a few years before bought all their cloths from England, and which was more diſadvantageous to them at ſecond-hand from Flanders and the Dutch.

This was managed with ſuch exquisite policy, and carried on with ſuch a prodigy of ſucceſs, that it would take up too much room to relate under one head, but it will more fully appear throughout this work. This profound ſtateſman, this hearty friend to the trade of his country, ſpared no expence, nor left unpractiſed any wiſe meaſure, to gain over Engliſh artiſts, and to plant them in every proper part of France; where they taught the people, ſo well, all the ſeveral parts of the manufacture, and the people were ſo eager to learn, and ſo dextrous at teaching each other, that, in a few years, they ſent their teachers home again, being as able to make and manage every branch of the woollen manufacture, as their inſtructors.

The principal care Monſ. Colbert took, next to that of planting the manufacture, and of procuring head workmen to inſtruct the people, was the furniſhing France with Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and this he did effectually; and to him we owe the injurious traffic of owling as it is called, which is carried on to this day, on the coaſts of Kent and Suffex in England, and from divers parts of Ireland; and which all the laws, the military power, nor all the arts of the cuſtom-houſe officers, and our guarda-coſta's, have not hitherto been able to ſuppreſs.

By this means, the French being able to furniſh their own people, to clothe the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himſelf (for he determined to wear nothing that was not of the manufacture of his own ſubjects) they not only in a few years totally excluded the Engliſh woollen manufactures from that kingdom, but begun to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival them at all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy; alſo in Aſia and Africa, but eſpecially in Turkey and Barbary.

The unwearied application of Monſ. Colbert did all this; he informed himſelf of the various ſorts of Britiſh manufactures, which were ſold in every foreign market, and of which he had large patterns brought him: after this he erected particular works in France for the making of thoſe very goods, encouraged the merchants to export them, by cauſing credit to be given them out of the PUBLIC STOCK; that is, by the king, even till the returns for thoſe goods came home: this was particularly done with the Turkey merchants at Marſailles, WHO HAD CREDIT GIVEN THEM, 'TILL THEIR SHIPS RETURNED FROM SMYRNA AND SCANDEROON.

The ſame encouraging meaſures were given at the famous manufactory near Niſmes in Languedoc, where, 'tis ſaid, that cloths are made ſo admirably well, that ſome have even thought they have outdone the Engliſh: this we cannot credit; certain, however, it is, that they make very good cloths, and dye and drefs them to great perfection; certain it is, that alſo they have hit the taſte of foreign purchaſers, and ſupplanted the Engliſh.

Effectually to encourage the exporting of theſe cloths, the Turkey merchants of Marſailles had nothing to do but to take a cargo to the ſum agreed on, and ſhip them off; and, having time given them for payment, the voyage came round before the money was demanded, and they paid for the cloths with the very goods which they received from Turkey.

Nor did the manufacturers ſtand in need of any encouragement but what they inſtantly had, without years of expenſive attendance, ſolicitation, and cringing, as if they were craving alms, when they were attempting to ſerve their country more than themſelves. See the article MANUFACTURERS. After ſuch encouragements, is it to be at all admired, that the French ſhould ſupplant the Engliſh in the Turkey trade, as they have done? Is it impoſſible for the ſkill, the credit, and worth of our Britiſh Turkey merchants, aided by the wiſdom of Britiſh counſels, and ſupported with all ſuch encouragements as we have in our power, to retrieve this branch of our commerce? The name; nor the eſtabliſhed reputation

and honour of our merchants, are yet forgot in the Turkish empire.

Portugal is a constant market for corn, either from Britain or her American colonies; the latter, together with Ireland, supply it with great quantities of provisions, great part of the payment of which centers in London, by the returns of wines; so that the Lisbon exchange is so far from falling to 5 s. or 5 s. 2 d. per millree, that it has not for many years been under 5 s. 3 d. and, at present, we find it no less than 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; which, as before observed, does not make the ballance two per cent. in our favour, notwithstanding the imaginations of some that we are mighty gainers by that trade. What can this be ascribed to, but the decline of the Portugal market for our manufactures, particularly the woollen? Our foreign rivals in trade, working cheaper, steal it away by degrees: cloths between 8 and 11 s. per yard the Dutch supply them with, and have beat out ours about that price almost entirely. France has, for some time, begun to supply them with quantities of it and other manufactures; so that it appears by the exchange now, that not much of the extraordinary gain remains from Portugal, with which too many flatter themselves; for a great part of the Portugal gold, brought here, is for Dutch account, and that of various other foreign states; and, the moldores having been circulated for more than they are worth, the nation has been cheated upon that account.

The trade of Spain as yet, we see, continues tolerably in our favour, but the foundation seems to be effectually laid for it's inevitable destruction. That court, it seems, have, in earnest, adopted the system of the late duke de Ripperda, who laboured hard, during his administration in Spain, to establish the woollen manufacture in that kingdom, in order to enable the Spaniards to supply themselves, instead of taking woollen goods from England. And, for this purpose, have they not stole away our manufactures, to instruct their people, as the French, we have seen, did in the days of Colbert? Whether Ripperda took his measures at that time from Don Geronymo de Uztariz of Spain, whose system now takes place, or the latter borrowed it from the former, is not very material; but it is observable, that Uztariz first published his thoughts of commerce and maritime affairs in 1724, which was at the time when Ripperda was at the head of the finances in Spain. The establishment of woollen manufactures in Spain at that time of day, together with their close union with the court of Vienna, did not a little alarm this nation. In a word, the Spaniards have long been reproached by other nations for their indolence and inactivity in matters of trade; but, at present, they may seem resolute to wipe off that stain of ignominy, and to pursue an active, and no longer submit to the disadvantages of a passive, commerce. See the article BISCAY, and SPAIN.

Their reluctance also to settle those disputes, which had subsisted between them and the English for near forty years, in regard to America, before the late DEFINITIVE treaty took effect, did not look with that face of cordiality and friendship towards this nation; the proposed regulation of the taxes upon their own commodities, and of the custom-house duties, together with their vigorous attempts to settle the woollen manufacture; (all which, it seems, were intended to humble the power and pride of heresy*) did not prognosticate any good to the trade of these kingdoms before the last peace.

* See Uztariz. Father Villareal the jesuit's approbation of his system on commerce and maritime affairs, which approbation of this learned priest, we may suppose, was obtained; with a view to make the Spaniards the more readily relish the new system, to the injury of the maritime, or heretical, powers.

However, the Spaniards would do well to consider, that it would be no extraordinary punishment to Great-Britain to be deprived of their wines and their fruit, if they should attempt to serve us as the French have already done, with regard to the woollen manufacture. For we shall now very probably be able to supply ourselves with as good wines, as ever came from Spain, or Portugal, or France, by means of our new acquired colonies; and there is no other way to preserve the trade of the nation, than by buying less of those nations, which diminish their purchases of ours.

Our trade to Hamburg and Germany being apparently so much to our detriment, and woollen and other manufactures being daily establishing in various parts of that empire; and, as his Prussian majesty, in particular, seems determined to have a new East-India company, and is taking all measures to improve every corner* of his dominions by trade; is it not time for England to think of turning the ballance in her favour with the Empire? As the great consumption of German linnens, in England and her Plantations, is one principal cause of this commerce being so disadvantageous, ought we not to give such effectual encouragement to the Scotch and Irish linnens, that we may cease to lose, if we can gain nothing, by the trade of Germany? What difficulties have not the Scots and the Irish struggled with, to bring their linnens to the perfection they have done? And what hinders, with all

reasonable encouragements from the British legislature, but they may arrive to as great perfection as any foreign nation; which sure will induce all the subjects of the crown of Great-Britain to wear them, if we should never be able to export them any where, except to our own plantations?

* They write from Berlin, that his Prussian majesty being willing to favour the port of Schwiebus (which has hitherto been an obscure place and but little frequented) has made it a corporation, giving it the title of city, and ordered divers sorts of manufactures to be set up there; in consequence of which encouragement, together with considerable privileges granted to all that are expert in marine matters, they have begun to build some new streets; and, as the place is pleasantly situated, and very commodious, many inhabitants of Stetin and Greyffenhague have resolved to go and settle there. Utrecht Gazette, 1752.

Linnens are the staple manufactures of Scotland and Ireland; and, if England preserves the woollen for their staple, the other nations should have every help in our power, to carry their linnens to as great perfection as the English have brought their woollens. If they have not, how can the English expect but both will do their utmost to interfere in their woollen manufactory? While Germany took off large quantities of our woollen goods, it was our interest to take some proportionate quantity of their linnens in return; yet, as they have lessened in their British imports in general, shall we continue to drain the nation of it's treasure, by buying of the Germans considerably more than we sell to them?

It is for the interest of England to give all such encouragement to the trade of Scotland and Ireland, as hath no tendency to prejudice her own. But how can encouraging of the linnens and fisheries of the former, and the linnen of the latter, be any way injurious to England? It is highly to the disadvantage of England to support either the French, the German, or the Dutch linnens, because the ballance is with the two former, and so likewise with Holland, for the reasons before given, though far less than they were a few years since. Why does Ireland carry on the clandestine trade of wool with France, but because they have more than they can manufacture for themselves, or send in wool and woollen yarn, to England? But, if they had all desirable encouragement for their linnens, they would certainly contract their sheep-walks, and employ them in the more useful branches of tillage and flax; which would not so interfere with the interest of England, as the French have done, and still do, by means of the Irish wool. Long experience must convince us, that the Irish will sell their wool to any nation, rather than let it rot upon their hands, or leave their sheep-walks useless, and their lands of no value to them.

'Tis true, England encourages the importation of Irish wool and woollen yarn; and, was the manufacture of England so increased, as to enable her to take every ounce of their wool, except what they used in their own manufacture, would it not be unspcakably more to her benefit, than to let the French have it?

It is computed, that England imports annually from Ireland, of wool, woollen and worsted yarn, about 227,049 stone, at 16 pounds to the stone. Now, the computed price at a medium of wool and yarn is at 10 s. 4 d. per stone; and the least profit arising upon that, when manufactured, is computed at 2 l. 19 s. 8 d. for a stone of wool manufactured, without dyeing, is at least worth 3 l. 10 s. especially that which Ireland sends to England, it being the choicest and best they have: if so, then the English must gain yearly, by the manufacture of Irish wool, 678,573 l. 15 s. 6 d. at the lowest calculation. But, as calculated by others, it rises considerably higher; as thus: A pound of wool in England is valued at 12 d. and Irish wool and yarn of the best sort at 14 d. at least: Mr. King's computation is, that the wool is the fourth of the value of it, when manufactured: if so, a stone of wool manufactured, is worth 3 l. 14 s. 8 d. and the profit, by Irish wool sent to England, would then amount to 730,340 l. 19 s. Another ingenious gentleman, who wrote upon the trade of Ireland in 1687, says, that 3 l. worth of wool and oil, when manufactured into white cloths, are worth 13 l.; at this rate, the gain to Britain upon the importation of Irish wool, computing such as is worth 14 d. Irish there, would be 916,710 l. 6 s. 9 d. Which computation being made on white cloths, are sold in England, before they are dyed and exported; the profits upon exportation after dyeing are to be added, which may at least be supposed to amount to one third; if not one half more: so that the calculation given does not seem to be exaggerated. See Wool.

The importation of Irish wool and woollen yarn into England, proving so beneficial to the latter, must convey an idea, how highly injurious the clandestine exportation of wool to France must prove to these kingdoms, as France not only supply themselves with woollen manufactures, but have interfered therein with us in foreign nations; and, as the best branches of their woollen goods are composed principally of Irish wool, the quantity thereof, imported into France, can-

not be inconsiderable; none would imagine, we apprehend, that to suppose the French import, at least, double the quantity of Irish wool the English do, in any shape, is beyond the bounds of truth and probability: 'tis rather to be feared, that this will be thought a supposition far below the mark; yet, if France gains as much by it as England, from what has been said, we find it will not be less than two millions per ann. Should it be said, that France, obtaining the Irish wool clandestinely, makes it come dearer to them than it does to the English legally; and that therefore the gain of France, by the manufacture of Irish wool, cannot be so great as it is to the English: to this it may be answered, that the greater quantity the French import, together with the benefits of exportation after dyeing, may be presumed to compensate more than the occasional disadvantage in point of price, by reason that some wool is seized upon and then in the exportation. If then France may be reasonably believed to gain at the rate of two millions sterling per ann. by means of the wool of Ireland; and, if by the means thereof, the French have interfered with us more or less in all the countries of Europe; does it not most importantly concern England to divert Ireland from the raising of more wool than what they themselves use, and what England can take from them? To do which effectually, can any thing be more natural, than so to encourage Ireland in their linnen and other manufactures, which do not interfere with the trade of England, as to induce them gradually to contract their sheep-walks, and apply themselves to the branches of tillage and flax?

I am not unaware of what has been urged in behalf of the importation of foreign linnens, and what has been formerly said against taking off the drawback on the re-exportation of foreign linnens: but, as the ballance of trade with Germany is now against us, and the Scots and Irish have made so extraordinary improvements in most branches of the linnen manufactures: these considerations added to that still more weighty one of the great benefit France receives, and the great injury England sustains, by the French manufactures of Irish wool, does it not appear to be for the interest of England to encourage, to the utmost, the general wear of Scots and Irish linnens in Great-Britain and Ireland, and also in all the British plantations? The Scots and Irish linnens, in many respects fall little short, in point of quality and cheapness, to the foreign linnens; and, if they receive all the public encouragement that the national concernment of so staple a manufacture requires, is there any reason to doubt, but our British and Irish linnens will soon equal those of any part of the world, both as to excellency and price? And, if we are once capable of supplying ourselves and our plantations as cheaply with British linnen, as we do with foreign, is it not reasonable to believe, that our colonies will receive them as cheerfully as they now do foreign linnens? And, if likewise those manufactures are once brought to the perfection of foreign, shall we not be able to make as acceptable assortments of goods for the Spanish West-Indies, as with foreign linnens? Though our own people should not for some years arrive at the absolute perfection of foreign linnens, yet is it good policy not to encourage them at home and our plantations, 'till they are able to arrive at the desired perfection? Did not France first supply themselves with the woollen manufactures, before they turned their thoughts to supplant England at foreign markets? But, had not due encouragement been given first to have supplied themselves, could they ever have had any chance to have interfered with us in any other nation?

Within less than twenty years, the possibility of Irish linnens arriving at the perfection they at present are, was looked on as chimerical, and was treated as such, in the capital contest about taking off the draw-back, upon the re-exportation of foreign linnens: but fact and experience have demonstrated, that some worthy gentlemen were mistaken in their foresight. Nor are the linnen manufactures the only point, wherein those people, as well as the Scots, have wonderfully improved within these twenty years, but the Irish have really made considerable improvements in divers other essential particulars.—As the county of Wexford is greatly advanced in the raising of hops; the counties of Kildare, Meath, and Kilkenny, in raising of corn; the county of Lowth, in marling and liming land; the county of Tipperary in raising of Turnips; the counties of Tipperary, also, and Langford, in the draining of bogs; the counties of Kildare and Meath, in graveling land; the counties of Cork, Limerick, and Waterford, in making of butter; the Queen's County, King's County, and Cork, in making of cheese, and spinning bays yarn; the county of Wicklow, in rearing of calves and working of mines; the counties of Down, Antrim, Armagh, and Derry, in the manufacture of linnens; the Northern Counties, Roscommon, Mayo, Langford, and Westmeath, in the spinning of linnen yarn. Wherefore, from the extraordinary spirit of industry and zeal for the advancement of commerce in that country, we may hope to see their linnens equal those of any foreign country whatsoever.—The wonderful improvements also that have been made in Scotland, are no way inferior, which we shall shew in it's place; observing here only, that according to the information I have received from a gentleman of credit and honour,

The linnens stamped in Scotland, from the 1st of November, 1746, to the first of November, 1747, were	Yards,	6,661,788
From Nov. 1, 1747, to Nov. 1, 1748.		7,353,098
Increase from Nov. 1747, to ditto 1748.		691,309
From Nov. 1, 1747, to Nov. 1, 1748, as above		7,353,098
From Nov. 1, 1748, to Nov. 1, 1749.		7,360,286
Increase		7188

But to what a degree the linnens of Scotland have encreased, see the article SCOTLAND.

And we have great reason to expect, as well as to hope, that the fisheries also will increase, to the intire satisfaction of the united kingdoms.

The Flanders were once famous for carrying on the woollen manufacture, which they did by means of the wool they fetched from England. But king Edward III, by wisely keeping our wool at home, put a stop to their manufacture, and established it in England. If, therefore, the prohibiting our wool to be carried out had, at that time, so happy an effect to this nation, why should not our care to prevent it's too great growth in Ireland have the same consequence with regard to the French, since all our endeavours to prevent it's clandestine exportation have so many years proved ineffectual? As thus making it for the interest of Ireland so to contract their sheep-walks, as to afford no more wool than what they themselves and England can manufacture, and inducing them to employ those lands in the branches of tillage and flax: as the due encouragement, given by the crown of Great-Britain to the Irish linnen manufactures, seems to be the most natural and effectual way to deprive France of their wool, and thereby lop off from their trade and manufactures two millions a year, and gradually reinstate this kingdom again in the woollen manufacture, at all the markets where the French have prejudiced us: as these appear to be the necessary consequences which must arise from a discouragement of foreign linnens, and encouragement of our own, I do not see how any thing can be urged in favour of foreign linnens, that is likely to have any such happy effects in these kingdoms.

The French are the greatest rivals in our manufactures; but let care be taken to prevent their being supplied with wool from England and Ireland, and we shall soon see an alteration therein. 'Tis true, they have wool of their own, but they cannot work it so as to injure us at foreign markets, without ours or Irish. As this will be laying the ax to the root of a capital branch of the French commerce, and thereby preventing the success of their machinations for universal dominion, does it not become the wisdom of the nation to think seriously of what so nearly and importantly concerns us?

Experience has sufficiently convinced us that war, 'till the last peace of 1763, has not proved the way to put it out of the power of France to hurt us. Were we to exert the British bravery at the expence of a hundred of millions more than we have done, it is certain that, under such incumbrances, we should grievously waste ourselves, but 'tis much to be doubted whether we should gain any permanent advantage over France. For the art of war is now become a science, and, indeed, a trading one, and France is often obliged to give their military people diversion abroad, lest they should be troublesome at home. War, therefore, every 10 or 20 years seems to be necessary to that nation; but it is no way so to us, but defensively.—When the sword is drawn; besides those who immediately engage, do we not see other potentates, from various views and insigations, are drawn in on either side; and what was at first a contest only between two, comes at last to involve twenty? Wherefore let us, so deal with France, and indeed, with all other nations, by the peaceable arm of commerce; let us beat them by our superior industry in the acquisition of such useful arts as will not only employ our own people, but invite all hither who are oppressed in other countries; for plenty of people, and of useful arts, give them beneficial employment; and this will give us such power, that no nation, or any confederacy, will dare to insult us; and it will never be our interest to insult others, but it will be our happiness to become the universal asylum for art, industry, and commerce, to all that are persecuted elsewhere.

As the beating of our greatest rivals in trade is the grand system which we have to pursue for the preservation of our being, as a free and an independent nation; so the next good policy that offers itself to consideration is the cultivation of strict amity with such allies, whose interest it will ever be to support us against the confederacy of enemies, as it will be ours to support them against the like evils. Every one will at once see that I mean the Dutch, who must be something attached to our interest, while they have above thirty millions of money in our funds; and who, next to Great-Britain, are the great bulwark of Protestantism and liberty.

Although, from the Exchange between England and Holland, it appears that the ballance is not against us, as it was some years ago, yet, when it is something against us, I desire again that it may be observed, I do not mean that the ballance of trade is against us, but that the ballance of money negotiations with them, is:

1. Because they are fo great national creditors, and receive interest of us.

2. Because the money remitted to Ruffia, Sweden, Denmark, and various parts of Germany, where the ballance of trade is againft us, is remitted through their hands.

While thefe caufes fubfift, the effect muft be that the exchange will be againft us, with regard to money-transactions in general, though not with regard to thofe of merchandize only; for, although we fell them more real merchandize in value than we buy of them, yet the ballance will not appear in our favour by the courfe of exchange; for the reafons before fuggested.

As thefe caufes argue no difadvantage in point of real commerce with the Hollanders, fo they ought not, by any means, to difunite us in our reciprocal interefts, in regard to thofe who are our common rivals in trade, as well as our natural enemies.—And our union in regard to our trading intereft, in particular, will naturally cement a union in our national interefts in general.

The goods we fend to Holland are of confiderable value, whether we confider our woollen manufactures, the product of our own country, or our plantation and Eaft-India goods; and our returns for them in fpecies, linnen, thread, Rhenifh wines, battery, madder, whale-fines, clap-boards, &c. Some of which are ufeful to us in our manufactures. Dr. D'Avenant, late infpector-general of the imports and exports, in his fecond report to the commiffioners of the public accounts, December 11, 1711, by a medium of feven years, has valued our trade to Holland, though it is not quite fo confiderable at prefent.

Our annual exports at l. 1,937,934 : 7 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
 Our annual imports at 579,832 : 1 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
 Ballance 1,388,102 : 6 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

The chief handle which the emiffaries of France have made ufe of to divide us and the Dutch, has been the point of trade, in which they have always endeavoured to represent them as dangerous rivals. It is certain, the wealth and ftrength of each nation doth depend intirely upon trade, and that, therefore, neither we nor they can be too careful and tender in that matter. But the world is wide enough for us both: and, if the pains and expence that have formerly been employed in the quarrels we have had with one another upon the pretence of trade, had been applied in keeping, a watchful eye over our common enemies, and preventing the encroachments they have made upon us in that valuable article, the trade of both nations would have been much more extenfive and flourishing than it is at this time; and I am far from allowing, that the trade of the two nations engages them in fuch a rivalship and competition with one another as is generally pretended. For all that have any insight into the affairs of Holland muft acknowledge, that their trade is chiefly founded upon their carrying goods cheaper than any nation of the world. The hard and penurious way of living they are inured to, enables them to perform the longeft voyages with much lefs confumption and expence than other nations: by this means they are become the common carriers of the product of other countries, having little of their own, except what arifes from their fettlements in the Indies. Our trade, on the contrary, confifts almoft intirely in vending and difpering the product and manufactures of our own country and the plantations, while our freight is dearer than that of any other nation. The main branch, therefore of the Dutch commerce, no way affects, nor interferences with ours; neither, if they were to lay it down to-morrow, would any fhare of it devolve to Great-Britain, but to the French, the Danes, the Swedes, the Hamburgers, and the other Hans-Towns, who all both can, and actually do, fail much cheaper than we.

France, therefore, is our moft formidable rival, and the proper object of jealousy to both nations; who, by fomenting animofities and quarrels between us, has had the addrefs to weaken us at our own expence, and to make herfelf powerful under favour of our folly and connivance. The divifions between England and Holland firft gave her the courage and opportunity to increafe her naval ftrength, to extend her dominions in the Indies, to drive the Englifh out of the trade of Hudfon's-Bay, and of great part of Newfoundland; to lay fuch high duties on our refpective commodities as amount to a prohibition, and thereby to encourage, and even compel, her own fubjects to eftablifh our manufacture in France, and by that means to run away with a great part of ours, as well as the Dutch trade, to Spain, Portugal, the Levant, and other countries.

Thefe are part of the fruit of our former quarrels with the Dutch; which, one would hope, might at leaft have that effect, as to make us wifer for the future, by teaching us that the only way to retrieve our paff follies is by uniting, in order to recover thofe valuable branches of our refpective trades which France has taken from us; to preferve a ballance of power in Europe, that peace and trade may flourish; to provide for the fecurity of the feas, and fafety of commerce; and to oppofe any growing naval force that may endanger it.

Thefe meafures, and a general difcouragement amongst us of French produce and manufactures, being purfued, would not only turn the ballance of trade with that kingdom in our favour, which, at prefent, we have feen is fo ruinous to us, but defeat French machinations to diftract Holland, and weaken us both at once, by fowing the feeds of diffentions between us.

And here I cannot but take notice of that admirable example which, it feems, is fet by a great body of people in and about this great city of London, in order to difcountenance effectually the confumption of all French produce and manufacture, and to encourage our own artifts and manufactures by rewards: I mean that laudable fociety who diftinguifh themfelves by the title of Antigallicans, who not only bind themfelves by their honour neither to eat, drink, or wear any thing that is French, but actually do not. And, if this fpirit fhould fpread itfelf throughout the kingdom, and once become fashionable amongst us, it will not a little advantage our own trade, and prejudice that of our rivals. Does it not concern us nearly to keep alive and fpread this Antigallican fpirit as much as may be?

Nor is every branch of trade to thofe nations, to which we pay a ballance in gold and filver, chargeable with exhausting our treasure; for, if the goods we buy from any country are fuch as we export again in the whole, or in part, for the fame, or a greater fum of money, our treasure is not exhausted by fuch a trade; the goods we buy, by fuch re-exportation, makes us full reftitution for all the fums we are out for them.

It is certain, that, befides goods and merchandizes, we export yearly to the Eaft-Indies, in bullion, 4 or 500,000 ounces, and yet I cannot believe that our treasure has been exhausted by means of that trade. See EAST-INDIA TRADE. Saltpetre, pepper, and fome few drugs of that country, we cannot well be without; and yet I am inclined to think that our merchants would fit few or no fhips for fo long a voyage, if they were not alfo to have the liberty of importing manufactures. A very great quantity of Eaft-India goods being re-exported, and at a much greater price than the whole annual fums which are fent from hence to the Eaft-Indies, the confequence is, that our treasure is not exhausted by that trade, fince we have thofe goods in exchange for our money, as procure us much greater fums from other countries, and our whole lofs is more than repaired by re-exporting part only of thefe goods, at a much higher price than we paid for the whole.

From what has been faid, I would not be thought, nor do I think it juft in thofe that do, to condemn every trade, that carries out our bullion, of exhausting our treasure, but that only which carries out our bullion for manufactures to be confumed here, which returns no fort of goods to be fent abroad again; and, laftly, which no ways enables us to repair ourfelves of that lofs; and this is the cafe of our trade with France.

I had not dwelt at all on this point, did I not judge it neceffary to the commercial interefts of this kingdom to maintain the ftricteft friendship with Holland, and theirs to do the fame with us. For, although we are obliged to the Dutch for taking off fuch very large quantities of the Britifh produce and manufacture, yet they are no lefs obliged to us for being able to furnifh them therewith, to fupply their foreign customers, and for the commiffion we pay them for tranfacking bufinefs for us as factors for Ruffia, Sweden, Denmark, and fome parts of Germany.

It is advanced by Dr D'Avenant, in the before mentioned Report to the commiffioners for public accounts, p. 41, 'That they are wrong in their notions who pronounce, becaufe we carry to a country more of our growth and manufactures than we bring from thence of theirs, that we muft always be gainers in the ballance of trade with fuch country. This would indeed hold, if the people with whom we had dealings of this nature confumed among themfelves all the merchandize exported to them: but, as in the cafe of Holland, where our product and manufactures, our plantation and Eaft-India goods, are the chief materials wherewith they drive their trade with other nations; there, the more of thefe commodities they take from us, the more they enlarge their univerfal traffic, and, confequently, increafe their riches.'—And, page 42, 'That large quantities of our woollen manufactures, corn, tin, tobacco, with divers other commodities have been fent to Holland, which goods, in the former courfe of trade, we exported direftly ourfelves to France, &c. but, as our exports thither have been increafed all along, fo our exports to other parts muft, in proportion, have diminifhed, and what we feem to have gained, by our dealings there, we have loft in the general ballance of our trade with other countries.'

For what purpofe the commiffioners ordered this report to be drawn up, the public need not be informed, fince we are told, page 56, 'That in fome ports the Dutch fupplant us, and every where out-wit us; that when we find them enterprizing, vigilant, and jealous, in whatever has relation to their trade; and when we obferve them ftill endeavouring to get

ground, and never yielding any point to us, but forming long schemes, calculated to take effect many years to come, in order to enlarge themselves at our expence; it will become good patriots to look about them, and to take care left, in time, England should be, in a manner, excluded from the commercial world.'

Page 67. 'To be in a lasting condition to cope with the Dutch in trade, we must, as well in time of peace as war, have a fleet in readiness, strong enough upon all occasions vigorously to assert our dominion of the sea; and, in all future treaties of commerce we shall make with other countries, we are to fence particularly against the arts and encroachments of the Dutch, who, beyond all dispute, are our most dangerous rivals in trade, &c.——'

When the treaty of commerce between Great-Britain and France was under public consideration, the strain of talking used by the advocates for it was, 'That, by prohibiting the French trade, we only hurted ourselves, and gave the Dutch an opportunity of enriching themselves, &c.'

As it is the constant business of the emissaries of France, and other weak people, to amuse the nation in this manner, and irritate them against the people in the world we ought to be the most careful of having any misunderstanding with, it may not be altogether useless to attempt further to remove these groundless notions which some entertain against the Dutch. It is somewhat surprizing, methinks, that he, who could thus assert the danger our commerce was in from the Dutch, could not likewise take notice, that it was far from the interest and safety of Great-Britain to put France into possession of the trade of the whole world; that he should recommend excluding the Dutch from all trade, and, at the same time, take no notice that our Newfoundland fishery was given away to France at the treaty of Utrecht; that he should recommend our fencing against the arts and encroachments of the Dutch, at the same time that treaties of commerce were concluding, ruinous to the trade of Great-Britain, and all its manufactures; that he should propose our having a fleet always in readiness, strong enough to cope with the Dutch, at the same time that we were sacrificing our fisheries, colonies, and plantations in America, to France, which were our nursery for seamen, the increase and encouragement of the navigation of Great-Britain.

If our ministers and senate, for the three last years of the queen, had not suffered the French in some parts to have supplanted us, and every-where outwitted us; if they had taken care that England had not been, in a manner, excluded the commercial world, by its treaties of peace and commerce with France and Spain, which were concluded at Utrecht; if they had not yielded any point to France, whose monarch we had found enterprising, vigilant, and jealous, in relation to trade, and to have formed long schemes, calculated to take effect many years to come, in order to extend it, as they have done, at our expence; happy had it been for these nations.

But, indeed, talking in the manner the doctor has done, could be only to amuse the ignorant; for, as he allows that the ballance of trade was then so highly in our favour with Holland, and is confessedly so now, what does it avail to us whether the goods exported to Holland be consumed in the country or not?

Can any thing be more extraordinary, than putting our being gainers or not gainers by our trade to any country, upon that country's consuming, or not consuming, what we export to it? Do we any more consume all that is imported into this kingdom, than the Dutch do what is imported into Holland? If we cannot be said to be gainers by our trade to any country unless the commodities we export to it are consumed in it, what trades can we be gainers by, for what country do we trade with more than Holland, that consumes within itself all we send to it of our product and manufactures, our plantation and East-India goods? But, as most countries export in great part the goods we import into them, so do we likewise export great part of the goods and merchandize which we import from Holland, Hamburg, &c. either in kind, or manufactured.

In the report before quoted, there is not only great venom against the Dutch, but also, that, in a medium of seven years, our annual exports to Holland exceeded the value of our imports l. 1,388,102 : 6 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, there is this remarkable paragraph, page 21. 'If the Dutch had not found their account in the prodigious quantity of effects annually exported to Holland from hence; and, if so wise a state had perceived itself to carry on a losing trade, they would have put a stop to this mischief, either by prohibition of, or high duties upon, our product and manufactures; for which they had sufficient pretence, from the additional impositions we have laid upon their linnens, and other goods.'

Who disagrees with the doctor, that not only the Dutch, but other countries, have a sufficient pretence to lay duties on the commodities we import into their dominions? And must we not conclude the Dutch would certainly have put a stop to such an excess of traffic, which must soon have made them poor, had they not been made good the ballance they paid us annually, by the trade they had with other countries, which

they were enabled to carry on more extensively and advantageously, by means of the commodities imported from England?

The Dutch, by their large stocks in trade, by the interest of money being lower than ours, and by having little or no duties upon the goods imported into Holland, are enabled to make their country a magazine for all goods and merchandize, and to carry on an universal commerce; and, if they did not buy such great quantities of our product and manufactures, our plantation and East-India goods, and carry them to foreign markets cheaper than we can, what people could we depend upon doing it, or by whom would our commodities be equally introduced into so many parts of the world?

If the Dutch can carry, to any part of the world, not wholly dependent upon them (as many settlements in the East and West-Indies are) our growth and manufactures, our plantation and East-India goods, cheaper, and afford them at less price, it is either our fault, or misfortune: but, if this should be the case, and they can deal on better terms with other countries, even with our own commodities, it would much better become us to correct our errors, which give them such advantages over us, than to be angry with them, and presently denounce their final destruction.

That the Dutch may enlarge their traffic by the commodities they have from us, is not more certain than that the great exportation we have had for so many years to Holland, has partly occasioned the landlord to receive his rent duly; the farmer's selling the product of his land at so high a rate; and that wool, tin, lead, leather, &c. have borne the greater price; and not only this, but encouraged the manufactures of this kingdom going on more cheerfully, and flood in the room of money, which otherwise must have been exported to have paid our armies abroad, and left the nation destitute of cash to circulate its commerce.

It is the reciprocal interest of Great-Britain and Holland, on a civil, as well as a religious account, to be united, and promote each other's happiness and prosperity; and it is far from shewing any regard for our own preservation, and the liberties we enjoy, when we denounce destruction to that people who are, next to ourselves, the best and greatest support of the protestant religion in all Europe. Can any man reflect upon this, and what they have undergone, with ourselves, in the defence and maintenance of our religious and civil liberties, and regret that they enlarge their traffic, and increase their riches, or think it reasonable for us to differ with them, because they take off so much of our produce and manufactures, and supply other countries with it cheaper than we can do ourselves?

But if these rivals, as they are called, of ours in trade, were crushed, it would not follow that the trade of the world would, as imagined, fall wholly to our share: 'For, says Sir William Temple, if the trade of Holland should be ruined, it would certainly break into several pieces, and shift to us, to Flanders, to the Hans-Towns, or any other parts, according as the most of those circumstances should any-where concur to invite, and the likest to such as appear to have drawn it to Holland, by so mighty a confluence of people, and so great a vein of industry and parsimony among them.'

If this great man had been to write at this time, he would have included the French by name, who have of late years become our greatest and most dangerous rivals in trade, and had almost engrossed the riches of America to themselves; and if they had not been checked, as they have happily been, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, were in the most certain road to have cut us out of the greatest part of the trade of EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, as well as AMERICA.

When the French commerce bill was in debate, we were told, and it is not uncommon to hear some talk in the same strain now, that our goods were first sent into Holland, Flanders, Italy, &c. and afterwards into France, under the pressure of the high duties; that is, when we could not get them into France by means of paying the French such duties, they were able to bear the high duties of France, and other countries together. These are such absurdities as can never be believed by any reasonable man, yet greedily swallowed by too many among us.

Dr D'Avenant, by saying, in his 42d page, 'That our exports to other parts must decrease in proportion (which, by the way, is a manner of begging the question, rather than proving it) and what we seem to have gained in our dealings there (i. e. Holland), we have lost in the general ballance of trade with other countries.'

Whatever intention this gentleman may have had to excite our indignation against that people (as he plainly has by the tenour of that part of his report) he has unhappily brought an argument that cannot serve his purpose; for supposing, though not granting it to be true, that the channel of trade has been changed, as he would insinuate it to be, and allowing his argument the full force it is capable of, viz. that, if we increase in our traffic to Holland only so much as we decrease in our commerce to other parts, we are not then gainers in the ballance of our general trade by such an addition of our trade to Holland; and also laying aside, for argument sake,

the consideration mentioned above, whether if the trade were still driven, as he supposes it to have been, in as great a degree to other parts; we had not been obliged to take consumable and detrimental commodities from such other nations, in exchange for our own: which is by no means the case of our trade with the Dutch; that trade being no prejudice to our general trade; and if it be, at the utmost, only no advantage, and is not a prejudice to us, there is the less provocation given for his angry paragraph, page 67. It would have been more proper for the doctor to have said, that to such other nation (if he could have instanced in any) whose commerce he apprehends has been prejudiced by such an alteration in the channel of our trade; for it can have no weight with us, because if we neither get nor lose, but that the same trade is still driven, how are we concerned, or why should we be angry with the Dutch? Let them that are prejudiced complain, we are unconcerned in the matter, so far as his argument relates to the increase of our trade, without considering other consequences, whether it is to the one or the other nation, that our commodities and manufactures are exported.

The Dutch are an industrious trading people, and it is almost impossible for them to subsist without driving that commerce they do; but have we any reason to be angry with them who are our natural allies, for pushing their traffic as far as they are able?

I would not willingly be thought uncharitable, and I hope I shall not be deemed so in declaring, that those who are ever grumbling, railing at, and damning the Dutch, are as well ignorant of the happiness of enjoying liberty and the Protestant religion, as of the true interest of their country; and that it has been the endeavour of the best and greatest men in this nation, ever since the Reformation, or the Dutch throwing off the Spaniards, to maintain a sincere and solid friendship with Holland.

The world is large enough to employ the industry and wealth of Great-Britain and Holland; and it would be absurd if one neighbour should differ from another for being more frugal, vigilant, active, and, consequently, to thrive better than himself; on the contrary, he is to emulate this man, and, as near as possible, to square his own actions by those rules which he finds has made the other prosperous: this holds, likewise, between countries that are rivals in the same mysteries; and, if we will ever pretend to outdo the Dutch in trade, we must practise several of their virtues, and lay aside many of our own vices.

It is to be wished that we could be brought to reflect seriously upon what is said by Sir Richard Steele, in his importation of Dunkirk considered, 'That all reasonable men know that the Dutch can reap no advantage but must flow from their industry and our negligence; but the power of France cannot only rival us in trade, but also, when the king pleases, invade us again by the pretender.' Has not our DEFINITIVE TREATY put it out of their power to do this, if HOLLAND and we do but sincerely unite our powers against France, when needful? Dr D'Avenant, in his Discourse on trade, &c. also says, 'Though the Dutch may never turn their strength to hurt the traffick or peace of England, yet 'tis no very remote fear to apprehend that, notwithstanding all their riches, they may at last become a prey to France.'

'And if the French, with the Dutch shipping in their right, and as their lords, should once become masters of the East-India trade, such an accession to that wise, well-peopled, and large empire, must prove our ruin.' If the new acquisitions we have secured to ourselves are duly preserved and encouraged, will it not be out of the power of France to injure us without being still greater sufferers? See AMERICA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, BISCAY, &c. BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

Thus have we endeavoured to remove those causeless prejudices too many have conceived against the Dutch, and hope this matter is set in so clear a light, and according to the sentiments of those who have understood our trading interest best, as to disabuse such who have been imposed upon; which will convince them, that we have been more obliged to them than to any one country wherewith we have exercised commerce, for keeping our poor from starving, and our products and manufactures from sinking; in upholding and augmenting the price of lands, and enabling the tenants to pay their rents; in easing the landed men in the taxes, on land in particular, and enabling every subject to contribute to the taxes in general, in being assiduous to us in preserving our holy religion and maintaining our own, and the liberties of all Europe.

What has been said I conceive sufficient also for making a judgment of our commerce with those several countries, and the advantage, or otherwise, in a great measure accruing to this kingdom by all, or any of them; wherein I have omitted to give the particular amount of the trade and balance by each country from the Custom-house accounts, because that is a touch-stone which can give no satisfactory account of the matter; and, therefore, has been rejected by some of the most judicious writers upon this subject: instead of which, they have made the courses of exchange between us and those

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countries not only the more certain criterion, but by far the easiest way to determine this matter. Wherefore I have made use of the same; for which I have given my reasons under the articles ARBITRATION of Exchanges, and BALANCE of Trade, and shall endeavour to confirm the truth thereof throughout this whole work, from such variety of lights as will corroborate each other.

To what I have already said in regard to this point, under the beforementioned heads, I would only add for the present: First, That exchange shews us daily which of two nations is owing the other, and, consequently, that it is the true BAROMETER of COMMERCE.

Secondly, That the nation which is indebted has the disadvantage in commerce, and that the one to which a balance is owing has the advantage.

And, thirdly, That advantageous commerce necessarily draws specie, or bullion, into the state which has the advantage, or to which the balance is owing; and that they are exported out of that state which has the disadvantage, or which is indebted.

There are, however, cases which may occasion some exception to this rule. There happen, at some particular times, extraordinary movements in the course of exchange. Those which are owing to some particular turn of trade, are seldom of any continuance; nor considerably felt by traders: things speedily return into their natural situation, and the balance leans sometimes to one side, sometimes to another; but it is quite otherwise when these movements are occasioned by causes that are superior to, and independent on, commerce. For example, a recoinage of money in France, which brings too much advantage to the king, and, consequently too much loss to his subjects, or a chamber of justice, a visa, &c. in that country, induce people to send their money abroad, in order to save a part of their loss. In such cases, though the French are not then debtors, yet the exchange falls at once. It is the same case when a state, for some political consideration, is obliged to pay great sums in foreign countries, without having received a compensation: then that export is the fall of exchange; it is much more sensible, and of much longer continuance. In such a case, before practically engaging in exchange, it ought to be nicely studied, and narrowly examined; and, if it be found not capable to bear considerable returns, it is much better to transport money in kind than to ruin trade.

Let that be as it will, it is however certain, that they who attentively consider the daily course of exchange, by seeing which of two nations is indebted to the other, or which has the advantage or disadvantage in trade, will also see what is to be done for supporting that exchange, or for benefiting trade. This method of knowing the balance of trade is infinitely more sure and expeditious, than that of examining the imports and exports of merchandize; for it enables the legislature daily to take such measures as may either maintain and preserve the advantage, if we have it, or recover it, if we have it not; whereas, that which results from the examination of commodities which are imported and exported, can only be known a long time after; and then it is out of time to carry proper measures into execution.

If what has been said at present, and what is also said under the other articles referred to, with respect to the exchange being the most certain touch-stone, whereby to judge of the state of trade between one nation and another, should not be satisfactory; I might confirm the truth thereof by the authority of many able writers, though reason and demonstration, we conceive, are intitled to greater regard than any mere authority. Yet, since what I have wrote on this topic in the former part of the work, there has appeared a very ingenious Italian writer, who has justified what has been urged, it may not be improper to quote him upon this occasion. The author I mean is the celebrated Signior Marchese Gerolamo Belloni, merchant and banker at Rome, in his treatise De Commercio, where, in his third chapter De monetaria permutatione, he says *, 'Though, to the generality of mankind, the word exchange may seem to be a mere metaphysical term, and does not signify any thing that hath

* Quamquam hujusmodi cambii vocabulum plerisque metaphysicum esse videtur, nihilque in se habere. quo res certa, & vere existens demonstratur; nihilominus si ea, quæ à nobis antehac dicta sunt, accuratius recolantur, deprehendatur profecto, rem hanc suam esse non imaginariam, sed verum habere à Commercio. Quod ut planum fiat, illud primum statuatur oportet, cambii nomine nihil aliud nisi pretium pecunie exterorum regnorum intelligi solere, quod quidem pretium quam non aliunde motum suum, nisi ab ipso commercio acquirit; ejus nature est, ut regni alicujus, aliorum regnorum respectu, quoad negationem, statum apposite manifestet. Etenim si moneta, ut sæpe diximus nihil aliud est, quam mensura quedam, quæ rebus ipsis quæ sub ratione commercii intra regnum aliquod continentur, apta proportione respondet; ipsum monetæ exterorum pretium seu cambium illud est, nec alia sane res, quæ intentionem detegit, sive quam commercium cum exteris sit in æquilibrio; sive quam veris lance impar feratur; aut denique quam ratione ponderis præpollat.

‘ a real being and existence in nature; yet, if we attentively consider what has been said, every one must be convinced that trade is that which gives exchange a real and practical, not an imaginary, existence. To explain which further, it must be observed, that, by exchange, nothing is meant but plainly the price of foreign money, which derives its fluctuation from traffick only, as before intimated. Whence it is in its nature adapted to indicate the true state of one nation, when compared to another, with regard to their commerce. For if money, as before shewn, is only a certain measure whereby to determine the proportions of those things within a kingdom which are comprehended under the nature of commerce, exchange is that which discovers intrinsically whether the trade of such kingdom is upon an equality with foreigners, or whether the balance of trade is either in its favour, or otherwise.’—And, in another part of the same chapter he says †, ‘ When trade stands in æquilibrium, or upon equal terms between nation and nation, the price of exchange will be at par, or will be equal to the real intrinsic value of the money; but, if the balance of trade is against such a kingdom, the course of exchange will be above the par, or above the intrinsic value of the money; and, on the other hand, if the balance of trade be on the advantageous side, the course of exchange will be below par, or beneath the intrinsic value of the money.’

Though I have endeavoured to shew, that the exchange is the characteristic chiefly to be relied on, in our disquisitions about the state of trade with particular nations; yet I would not be understood wholly to reject all knowledge than can be derived from the custom-house accounts: on the contrary, I shall endeavour, occasionally, to make the best use and application of those accounts, according to the degree of light and certainty they will afford, in relation to the subject I am engaged on.

†Twas for this reason, that I chose to make use of the custom-house accounts, as given us by Dr D’Avenant, in regard to the trade between us and the Dutch; because the exchange, in this instance, does not indicate the true state of the mere trade between us and that country, though, as shewn, it does the state of money-transactions in general. Another reason for introducing that account given us by the doctor, was, with design to take an occasion from thence to urge, what I have done, with respect to a matter wherein the two nations appear to be highly interested.

But, if the reader should not have all desirable satisfaction upon this head, from the whole of what has been said, in various parts of this work, taken in its united weight and energy, he may be assured to meet with much more hereafter. For, in a work so disposed as this is obliged to be, ’tis desired the reader will constantly observe, that it cannot be expected, I should fully discuss every point in one article; and, therefore, I am under the necessity of referring to such other heads, as have a natural connection and affinity with each other. See FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS, HOLLAND.

BRITANY, the most north-west principality of France, is a peninsula, bounded on all sides by the ocean, except towards the east, where it borders on Anjou and Maine; on the north-east, where it borders on Normandy; and on the south-west, where it borders on Poictou; it is one of the largest provinces of France. The soil here yields pasture, hemp, wood, minerals, corn, and but very little wine. The meadows feed abundance of cattle, especially horses, of which a very good race is bred here. Hemp and flax grow in great plenty, so that abundance of canvas and linnen is made in this province. There are also here some mines of iron, lead, copper, and tin. This province is happy in havens, having more good sea-ports than any other parts of France. The inhabitants are good fishermen, being encouraged by the great variety of delicate fish taken on their coast, particularly salmon, herrings, sardines, and a certain fish of a most delicious taste, called imperator, or empereur at Marseilles, and gracieux seigneur, or gracious lord, in Britany; besides tunnies, porpusses, dolphins, sturgeons, and some others, appropriated to the royal fishery.

RENNES, the capital city of Britany, stands on the conflux of the Isle and the Vilaine, which divides the city into two parts, and makes the trade of it flourish, by means of the large boats which come here from the sea, above fourteen leagues distant from it.

VITRE is pretty large, and well peopled. They make in the parishes round it coarse cloth, which they export to various parts of Europe and the West-Indies. This cloth is proper to make small sails. The women and maidens of all conditions at Vitre knit thread stockings and gloves, which are sent into Spain, and even the Indies. They sell about twenty thousand livres worth of them every year.

† Quando commercium obtinet æquilibrium; illud efficit, ut nempe cambium seu pecuniæ exterorum pretium intrinsecò monetæ valori æquale sit; si vero illius commercium præ altero minoris fuerit, tunc cambium seu pretium monetæ exterorum intrinsecum ipsius valorem excedit; quod si demum lancis pondus in regni favorem inclinât, tunc monetæ eorundem pretium interiori monetæ valore inferius evadit.

At **FOUGERES**, the trade of leather which the inhabitants carry on, makes their city flourish.

The city of **NANTES** is the capital of a country of the same name, the second city of Britany, and a great mart for trade, vast quantities of all sorts of merchandizes being brought in by the river Loire, which flows up to its walls, and brings up very large boats, and ships of small burthen; and from hence, by the same river, foreign goods are sent to Anjou, Blois, Orleans, &c. and native commodities brought down. An excellent sort of brandy is exported hence into foreign countries. By reason of this convenience for trade, the city has been from time to time considerably increased; and there are now four suburbs round it, which are much larger than the city itself, and very well filled with inhabitants. One of the suburbs, called la Fosse, is near the harbour, and inhabited by rich merchants. There is here a large key, along which are fine houses, and very large warehouses. There is a very particular kind of society or partnership established above a century ago, between the merchants of Nantes and those of Bilboa in Spain. The society is called the Contraction, and has in each of these cities a reciprocal tribunal, after the manner of a consular jurisdiction; a merchant of Nantes who happens to be at Bilboa, has a right to sit in this tribunal, and has a deliberative voice; and the merchants of Bilboa are used after the same manner, when they are at Nantes. It is because of this society, that the Spanish wool pays but a very small duty at Nantes, and that, in return, the linnens of Britany are upon the same footing at Bilboa. These two cities had even formerly ships in common, which traded for the profit of the partnership; but this is now no longer practised. They have established of late at Nantes a manufactory of cotton linnens, which succeeds as well as that which has been long since set up at Rouen, and may even exceed it in time, because cotton and indigo are here much cheaper than at Rouen.

The inhabitants of **GUERANDE** are rich, and drive a good trade in white salt, made in the neighbouring salt-marshes, and which the English and Dutch load at the port of Croisil. There is also here a fair kept every year, during which they sell a great many horses.

CROSSIL, situate between the mouths of the Vilaine and the Loire, on the sea-coast, has a large and very safe harbour.

The city of **St MALO** is secured to the sea by a shoal of sand that encompasses it, and by several rocks and small islands; that make the harbour of a difficult access, so that it is reputed one of the best keys of France. At low ebb, the port is left almost dry, by which means it is very easy to build or to refit vessels here. This city is very considerable for its trade and strength, and the skill of its inhabitants in maritime affairs; by which great numbers of privateers are, in time of war, fitted out from hence, which greatly disturb the trade of those seas. Besides their trade to England, Holland, and Spain, they fit out a great number of ships from one to three hundred tons, for the cod-fishery in North America.

At **DINAN**, in the suburb called Jargia, along the side of the river Rance, is a fine key.

The land in the neighbourhood of **DOL**, produces a great deal of hemp, of which they make a coarse cloth.

In the diocese of **St BRIEUX**, are several manufactories of linnens, and the land produces a vast deal of corn and abundance of fruit, of which they make cyder.

LAMBALE is particularly famous on account of the adjacent pastures, wherein are fed many herds of cattle, and for its considerable trade in parchment.

The trade at **TREGUIER** consists chiefly in horses, corn, hemp, and flax. They also make here a great deal of paper, of which they send a considerable quantity to divers parts of Europe. Here is a small harbour, which is pretty safe.

The river of **MORLAIX** is deep, and receives vessels of a hundred tons, which by means of the tide come up into the town; by the convenience whereof it is a place of good trade, which consists in flax, canvas, paper (made here in great quantity) linnen cloth, thread, and other commodities, that are exported hence into Holland, and other parts. This has so increased the number of the inhabitants, that two suburbs have been added to the town, called Venice and St Matthew. Here is a market kept twice a week.

At **LANTON** was formerly a considerable trade in butter, but it is now very much decayed, since the people of Paris fetch their butter from Iigni in Lower Normandy. Their chief trade now consists in wine from Bourdeaux and la Rochelle, which the merchants of St Malo come and buy here.

BREST is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France. The harbour is encompassed with very fine keys, on which are built several warehouses, filled with all sorts of naval stores. Here the greatest number of the French navy winter, and are fitted out; and ships of 80 or 90 guns are built here, which make it a populous and rich place.

QUIMPOR is situate on the Oder, into which a small river called Benadet falls, surrounding the town, and making it a kind of island. The Oder is here so deep, that barks of a large size are conveyed at high tide to the port at the confluence of the two rivers, where stands the suburb termed the Duke’s Land, and inhabited by many rich merchants.

The sea which surrounds COUCARNEAU, forms it's port by a small intrenchment, which leaves but a very narrow entry for the vessels to come in. They are sheltered here from all storms by the mountains, which stand along this intrenchment.

AUDIERNE is a small sea-port, agreeably situate in a little bay, on the mouth of a rivulet which comes from Pont le Croix. DOARNEMES has a good port, and lies at the upper end of a bay, to which it gives it's name.

VANNES is watered by two little rivers, which join here, and make the port capable to receive several vessels of 200 tons burthen. The key is built with large free-stones, as well as the mole or pier, which lies across a little marsh, near which are several magazines and fine houses; inhabited by rich merchants. The inhabitants of the diocese of Vannes have a very good trade by means of several rivers, and their neighbourhood to the sea.

The harbour of PORT-LOUIS is very good and safe. The largest ships enter in very easily, and go up to the end of the bay at a place called l'Orient. Here are the warehouses, and chief establishments of the French East-India company. Lewis the XIVth made a very good use of this port during the war, having caused several men of war of the first rate to be built and rigged here. Notwithstanding the conveniency and safety of this harbour, yet very few merchants have settled here; the reason of which is, that they would be obliged to fetch their merchandizes from Nantes, so that they could not sell them so cheap as the merchants of that city. The only trade therefore of Port-Louis, consists in fardines and congers.

At HENNEBON are several rich merchants. It is situate on the river Blavet.

BRITISH AMERICA, or the state of the trade of the colonies and plantations in America, that belong to the crown of Great-Britain. Under the article of America, the reader is desired to observe, that we have given a general account of the commerce of that part of the world, with respect to Europe, Africa, and Asia, which shews the general dependency, in regard to trade, of one quarter of the world upon the other. This we judged a necessary introduction to a particular account of the trade of the new world, with relation to the several European potentates, among whom the American territories are principally divided. To do which in the most acceptable manner, and according to the alphabetical order to which I am confined, I have referred from America as the root to BRITISH AMERICA, as a branch for what concerns Great-Britain; to FRENCH AMERICA, for what concerns France, &c.

The colonies and plantations in America, belonging to the crown of Great-Britain, consist of those upon the continent, and of those which are islands. Those upon the continent, since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, are as follow. [See the article AMERICA.] VIZ. FLORIDA, GEORGIA, the CAROLINAS, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, the Jerseys, New York, New England, New Scotland, or Acadia, Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, and CANADA and all it's DEPENDENCIES. The islands are those of Jamaica, Bahama, Bermudas, Anguilla, St Martin's, which belongs to the Dutch as well as the English, Barbuda, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica, St Vincent, TOBAGO, GRENADA, and the GRANADINES, Barbadoes.

Florida we have had annexed to the crown of Great-Britain by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. This new British colony on the continent, is rendered advantageous to this kingdom, from its ports of PENSACOLA, and MOBILE, and the British right of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, through the GULPH OF MEXICO, and likewise by the PORTS of ST AUGUSTINE and ST MOTTHEO, lying in the GULPH OF FLORIDA; and being so contiguous to the Bahama islands, and Georgia and Carolina, constitute together a very good maritime barrier to our southern colonies on the continent of America. See BAHAMA ISLANDS, FLORIDA, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

Florida lies on the east of the Mississippi river, and extends to the west frontiers of Carolina and Georgia, is separated from Canada on the north by the Apalachian mountains, and has the Gulph of Mexico at the south. What is called the Peninsula of Florida, has Georgia on the north, the Gulph of Mexico on the south-west, that of Florida on the south, with the channel of the Bahamas; and the Atlantic Ocean on the east.

GEORGIA, a British colony on the continent of North America, lying within the province of Carolina, as described in the charter to it's late proprietors, is by some reckoned the third grand division of it. 'Tis separated from South Carolina by the river Savannah on the north, has the Atlantic ocean on the east, Indian Florida on the west, and is separated from Spanish Florida on the south, by the river Alatomaha. 'Tis above 170 miles from north to south, and above 300 from the midst of the coast to the Apalachian mountains, and extends on the north-west even as far as the river Mississippi. By several treaties made and renewed with the Cherokees, Chickasas, the Nautches, and the three Creek Indian nations,

the subjects of his Britannic majesty have a right of possession from Lake Erie to the Chickasas, at the river Mississippi; whereas, in many of those parts, the French have no other title but that of intrusion and force. When general Oglethorpe, one of the first promoters and trustees of this colony, went generously with the first colony of the English, at his own expence, he and their allies made treaties and cemented our friendship with the Indian nations, who extend themselves to the river Mississippi.

Before the general's arrival here, this country had the name of Yamacraw, an Indian nation; whose chief Tomochichi, that had been banished, with others, from his own country, readily entered into a close friendship with him; which was the more agreeable to both parties, as there was no other Indian nation within fifty miles. About this time also, the chief men of the lower Creek Indian nations, consisting of eight tribes, who are allied together, and speak the same language; came to the number of fifty persons, with their attendants (some of them after a journey of five days) to treat of an alliance with this colony. These Indians laid claim to all the land from the Savannah river, as far as St Augustine, and up Flint river, which falls into the bay of Mexico. Those Indians promised by solemn treaty, and with the highest affection to their English brethren, to encourage no other white people to settle in their country, to which they all set the marks of their respective families.

The year following, an alliance also was made with another Indian nation in this country; called the Nautches, Natches, or Natchitoches, tending very much to the security of this new colony. But we have suffered these our faithful allies to be almost absolutely destroyed by the French, from their settlements on the Mississippi; which, any one will easily believe, has had no tendency to strengthen our friendship, and render the British name respectful among Indian nations; who, in general, are alone capable of supporting all our colonies in North America; and, these in particular, might, with proper management, not only have been rendered an invincible barrier to Carolina and Georgia, but have proved of extraordinary advantage to the commerce of these colonies. For,

These Indians, when their kings and chief were prevailed on by the address of general Oglethorpe, to come to England, gave testimony; that they were men of good sense, and hearty well-wishers to a lasting commercial correspondence betwixt this nation and theirs; and therefore desired of the trustees, that the weights, measures, prices, and qualities of goods, to be purchased by them with their deer-skins, might be settled; and that nobody might be suffered to trade with the Indians in Georgia, without a licence from the trustees, that the Indians, in case of injury and fraud, might know where to complain. They further desired, that there might be but one storehouse in each Indian town, from whence the traders should supply them with goods at the fixed prices; because they said the traders had often, in an arbitrary manner, not only raised the prices of their goods, but given them, at the same time, short weights and measures; and; by their imposition, had created frequent animosities between the English and the Indians, which had often ended in wars prejudicial to both their interests.

Upon these remonstrances, the trustees prepared the following acts, which being laid before the king and council in January, 1735, were, after a report from the board of trade, ratified by his majesty, viz. 1. An act for maintaining the peace with the Indians in the province of Georgia. 2. An act to prevent the importation and use of rum and brandy in that province, or any kind of spirits or strong waters. 3. An act for rendering the colony more defensible, by prohibiting the importation of negroes.

On the 30th of October, 1734, Tomochichi the Indian king, &c. being conducted from the Georgia office in the king's coaches to Gravesend, embarked for their own country, after four months stay in England; during which, they were allowed by his majesty 20 l. a week for their subsistence, and were entertained in a most magnificent manner, not only by the Court, but by several persons of distinction, who had the prosperity of that colony at heart. Nothing was wanting to give them an idea of the politeness and grandeur of the English, and of our nation's regard for the Indians. They carried away handsome presents; and, 'tis said, the Duke of Cumberland (then but thirteen years of age) presenting the young prince with a gold watch, exhorted him to call upon Jesus Christ every morning when he looked upon it, which he promised. In return for these testimonies of regard, they promised eternal fidelity and attachment to the British nation. Upon the return of general Oglethorpe in 1739, to Georgia, Tomochichi, together with four other Indian kings of the Creek nation, with thirty of their warriors, waited on him at Savannah, and acquainted him, that though the Spaniards had decoyed him to St Augustine, on pretence that he was there; and offered them great presents to fall out with the English; they adhered in their fidelity to his Britannic majesty, and that the Creek nation would march 1000 warriors wherever he should command them.

And

And because the British traders, who came amongst them from Carolina, had used bad weights, they desired the general would order them brass weights and sealed measures, to be lodged with each of their kings; and they invited him to come up in the ensuing summer to see their towns; which he promised, and accordingly performed the year following, travelling through a country very little known but to the Indians, and very difficult for Europeans, to the town of Coweta, though not less than 500 miles from Frederica. Here he conferred, not only with the chiefs of all the tribes of this nation, but also with the deputies of the Chowetaws and Chickesaws, who lie between the English and French settlements; and, on the 21st of August, he made a new treaty with the nations of the Lower Creeks; and of which we the rather take notice, because it shews the situation and limits of the Creek nation, and of the lands we have obtained of them, as represented by themselves.

The deputies having drunk black drink together, according to a superstitious custom of their ancestors, the whole estates declared nem. con. that they adhered in their ancient love to the king of Great-Britain, and to the agreements made, in the year 1733, with the trustees established for the colony of Georgia; and they farther declared, that all the dominions, territories, and lands, from the Savannah river to St John's river, and all the islands between them; and from St John's river to the bay of Apalache, and from thence to the mountains; do by ancient right belong to the Creek nation, who have maintained possession of it against all opposers by war, and can shew heaps of the bones of their enemies, by them slain in defence of their lands. And the said estates further declared, that the said nation hath, for ages, enjoyed the protection of the kings and queens of England; and that the Spaniards, nor no other nation, have any right to any of the said lands; and that they will not suffer them, or any other person, except the trustees of the colony of Georgia, to settle on the said lands. And they acknowledge the grant they have already made, to the said trustees, of all the lands upon the Savannah river, as far as the river Ogeeche, and all the lands along the sea-coasts as far as St John's river, and as high as the tide flows, and all the islands as far as the said river, particularly the islands of Frederica, Cumberland, and Amelia, to which they have given the names of his Britannic majesty's family, out of gratitude to him. But they declare they did, and do referve to the Creek nation, all the land from Pipemakers Bluff to Savannah, and the islands of St Catharine, Ossebau, and Sappalo: And they farther declare, that the said lands are held by the Creek nation, as tenants in common. And Mr Oglethorpe, the commissioner for king George the second, doth declare, That the English shall not enlarge or take up any lands, except those granted as above to the trustees, by the Creek nation; and doth covenant, that he will punish any person that shall intrude upon the lands so reserved by that nation.

This province produces Indian corn, as also some wheat, oats, and barley, of which the two last grow best; very good wheat is also reaped in May, and they mow grass in June. Here are potatoes, pumpkins, water and musk melons, cucumbers, all sorts of English green pease, and garden beans, except the Windsor, which will not flourish here, Indian pease, all sorts of fallading all the year round, and sweet herbs and pot-herbs. Rice too might be cultivated here with as much success as in Carolina. Here are nectaries, plums, and peaches, which tree, especially peaches, are almost as common as apple-trees in Herefordshire. The plums are ripe at the beginning of May, peaches and nectaries the latter end of June. Here are no hazle-nuts, but chincapins very sweet and good; wild grapes in abundance, which are ripe in June, as also four or five sorts of good wine berries, premissins much like our medlars, wild cherries that grow in sprays like currants, and are not much larger. Here are a few English cherries in the gardens and orchards, also apples, pears, and a few apricot-trees. Many of the apple-trees, bear twice a year, but the latter crop is small. Here are great quantities of white and black mulberry-trees, the fruit of which are not to compare with those of England, though the leaves are the best food for the silk-worms. Olives flourish here in good perfection, and so do oranges, especially in the south part of the province. The chief trees for timber, &c. are pine in abundance, six or seven sorts of oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, cypress white and black, laurel white and red, bays, myrtle, of whose berries they make candles; saffras, the infusion of which makes good drink; beech-trees, and many others that have no name. In some places here is as good land as any in England, were there but hands enough to cultivate it.

There is a great deal of game in this country, particularly in the winter season, viz. from the beginning of November to the month of March, such as wild geese, ducks, teal, and widgeon; wild turkeys, from 20 to 30 pounds weight; turtle-doves in great plenty, curlews, sand-birds, woodcocks and partridges, but much smaller than in England; small deer; and, when it is very cold in the northern parts of America,

here are vast flights of wild pigeons, which are very easy to shoot. The chief game here in the summer season is deer and ducks; and the poorer sort of people kill great number of possums and racoons; the former eat like sucking pig, the other like lamb. Here are many tygers, but small; and bears, whose cubs flesh eats like that of young pigs.

Here is plenty of fish, which, in the summer time especially, are very cheap, such as trout, mullet, whiting, black-fish, rock fish, sheep's-head, down fish, bass, sturgeon, which are hard to catch, and sundry others, very good. As to shell-fish, here are oysters innumerable, but not crabs so good as the English; clams, muscles, conchs, and prawns so large, that half a score of them are sufficient for a moderate stomach.

This colony bids very fair for four staple productions, viz. skins, rice, silk, and wines. Indeed in regard to the latter, the coat of the natural grape is not strong enough to contain the juice, so that, when it is ripe, it bursts. The frost about the vernal equinox often kills the vines, also, when they are shooting; and, as for the European grapes, many are destroyed by the insects of the country: yet experience has shewn, that, by grafting the European on the wild vine, all these inconveniencies may be prevented; for then it shoots later, and so escapes the frost better, the skins of the grape becoming thicker and stronger, and the insects having less power to do prejudice. Some vines brought hither from Portugal and Madeira have thrived very well, even in the most barren parts of the province.

In fine there seems nothing wanting by nature in this country to render it as fruitful as it is pleasant, and as profitable to Great-Britain as any other of the northern colonies.

Savannah is the chief town, and lies on the south of the river of the same name; on which it has a very fine situation for trade, it's navigation being very safe, and ships of 300 tons can lie within a few yards of the town and bank, about a mile along the river side; and ships of such burden may also go a great many miles above the town.

The river here forms a half-moon, with banks on the south side 40 feet high; and on the top there is a flat, which they call a bluff, at least 60 feet high from the river, which is a plain high ground, extending five or six miles into the country. In the center of this half-moon stands the town, and overagainst it an island of very rich land, fit for pasture. The river abounds with fish, is pretty wide, the water fresh, and, though there are high woods on both sides of it, yet, from the key of the town, there is a prospect of it's whole course to the sea, and to Tyby-Island, which lies before the mouth of it to the southward of the bar; and, the other way, there is a view of the river for six miles up into the country. Tyby is a very pleasant island, with a beautiful creek to the west of it, where a ship of any burden may lie safe at anchor. It has great plenty of deer on it, and a light house 80 feet high. About four miles from Savannah, within land, are two villages, about a mile asunder, which they call Highgate and Hampstead, where the inhabitants chiefly apply to gardening, and supply the town with herbage of all sorts. There are 20 plantations within 20 miles round the town, which have each of them from five to 30 acres of land shared. There are two forts built on the Savannah River, one called Patocho-coas Fort, the other Savannah.

Abercorn is a village about 13 miles north-west from Savannah; and, about 5 miles farther up the river, is the town of Ebenezer, a very healthy place, where the Saltburghers are settled, who are a sober industrious people, that raise not only corn, and other produce, enough for their own subsistence, but sell great quantities to the inhabitants of Savannah. They have good herds of cattle for the use of the public, and for breeding.

Augusta is a fort on the river Savannah, which is a pretty thriving place, whither the traders with the Indians from South Carolina and Georgia resort, and where are warehouses, furnished with such goods as the Indians want, the deer-skins taken in exchange being sent 230 miles down the river, to the town of Savannah in boats, which carry each about four tons and a half. This place is a great protection to both the provinces of Carolina and Georgia, against any invaders. Horse-roads are made from it to the town of Savannah, and to the habitations of the Cherokee Indians.

The islands and forts upon the coast, as they lie from north to south, are these, viz.

1. Amelia Island, about 7 leagues north of St Augustine, belonging to the Spaniards, is 2 miles broad, and about 13 long, and extends to the southern mouth of the river Alatomaha, the present south boundary of Georgia, and within a league of St John's, or Juan's River, which is about five leagues from St Augustine.

2. Cumberland Island, is about 20 miles south of Frederica. Here are two forts, called William and St Andrew's. The former, which is at the south end of it, commands the inlet of Amelia Sound, is strongly palisadoed, and defended by eight pieces of cannon. Barracks also are built upon it for 220 men, besides storehouses; within the palisades are fine springs of water, and a house, with large magazines under it for ammunition and provisions.

3. St Simon's Island, near the north mouth of the Alatomaha River, is about 45 miles long, and from 2 to 4 in breadth. The south end of it, where was a fort, and a camp, or barracks, with some huts, in 1742, when the Spaniards last invaded it, is 25 leagues north of St Augustine. A strong battery was also erected on it, for protection of Jekyl Sound, in which 10 or 12 forty-gun ships may safely ride. This island has a rich fruitful soil, full of fine oak and hickery-trees, intermixed with meadows and old Indian fields. In the middle of it is the town of Frederica, round which are good fortifications, a regular fortress, strengthened by four bastions, and spur-work, towards the river, mounted with several pieces of cannon.

New Inverness, in the south part of the province, 20 miles from Frederica, is a place on the river Alatomaha, where the Highlanders are settled.

Upon the purchase of the propriety of Carolina, by his late majesty, orders were issued for building 11 towns here and in Carolina, each of which was to have a district of 20,000 acres of land square, and to be divided into shares of 50 acres for each man, woman, or child, of one family, which was to be augmented as the planters should be in a condition to cultivate a larger quantity. Each town was also to be formed into a parish, the extent whereof was to be about six miles round; and as soon as the parish contained 100 masters of families, it was qualified to send two members to the assembly of the province, and to enjoy the same privileges as any of the other parishes. The ground of each town, being marked out, was to belong in common to all the inhabitants, till shared out to each of them. There were to be 300 acres of land near each town, to be common for ever, without being charged with rent; and no person, by virtue of any former grant, was to take possession of any land within six miles of each town. The rent payable for every 100 acres, after 10 years, was to pay 4 s. a year. And to every European servant, whether male or female, 50 acres of land were also to be distributed free from all rent for 10 years.

CAROLINA is also part of that great region of North America which was formerly comprehended under the name of Florida. King Charles II made a grant thereof, in 1663, to Edward earl of Clarendon, then lord high chancellor of England, and others, from the north end of the land, called Luck Island, which lies in the southern Virginian Sea, and within 36 degrees of north latitude, to the west, as far as the South Sea; and, southerly, as far as the river St Mattheo, which borders on the coast of Florida, and is within 31 degrees of north latitude; and so west, in a direct line, as far also as the South Seas, with all royal fisheries, mines, and every thing necessary in an absolute propriety, paying a quit-rent of 20 merks yearly.

The plan of government for this colony was designed by that great statesman, Anthony earl of Shaftesbury, and digested into form by the great Mr John Locke; whence great expectations were raised. But, how specious soever that plan might appear in theory, experience shewed it's impracticability. The only remedy that could at length be found, was to get rid of this fine-spun constitution, wherein it was pretended that all the errors of our own were cured, and to put the province into the hands, and under the protection, of his late majesty George II; and this remedy has answered all that could be expected from it in so few years.

After this sale and surrender to the crown, in consideration of 22,500 l. had been confirmed by an act of parliament in the year 1728, intitled, An act for establishing an agreement with seven of the lords proprietors of Carolina, for surrender of their title and interest in that province to his majesty the remaining one eighth of the propriety and arrear of quit-rents were reserved, by the said act, to the right honourable John lord Carteret, now earl of Granville.

In consequence of the powers granted by this act to his majesty, he has ever since appointed governors of North and South Carolina. Besides the governor, there is an assembly, composed of deputies, chosen by the freeholders of every county, who, with the governor's consent, have the power to make laws for the administration of the affairs of the colony.

This country is situated between the extremities of cold and heat; the air, for the most part, is serene and clear, both winter and summer; yet they have their winter rains, and sometimes heavy showers about Midsummer, especially if the wind changes suddenly from south-east to north-west, it then blowing exceeding cold, and bringing distempers on those who do not prudently guard against it. The country is generally healthful, where people live regularly, and use precaution.

This province is watered by several rivers, the most considerable of which are, 1. The Savannah, which rises in the Appalachian mountains, runs to the south-east, and falls into the sea, about 32 miles to the southward of Port Royal, after a course of above 200 miles. 2. Congaree, or Saulee, comes from the Cherokee mountains, and disembogues itself into the sea near Cape Carteret, to the north of Charles-Town.

3. Cape Fear River, hath it's head in Virginia, from whence it runs almost southwards, and forms, at it's mouth, a narrow slip of land, the uttermost point of which is called Cape Fear, in north latitude 33. 34. 4. Roanoke, springs also in Vir-

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ginia, and falls into the sea in latitude 36, where it forms a kind of long and narrow bay, called Albemarle Sound.

So kindly is the soil of this county, that almost every sort of trees and plants will grow there to great perfection, particularly vines, wheat, barley, oats, pease, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange and citron trees, as also white mulberry-trees, for the feeding of silk-worms; nor are the lands difficult to clear there, because they do not abound with stones or brambles, but chiefly with large trees, that do not grow very thick: so that great quantities of land are cleared in a little time.

It is true, the soil in general is sandy, but, being richly impregnated with a nitrous salt, it is extremely fertile, and that to such a degree, that it is remarkable that numbers of plantations, which have been constantly cultivated for near 70 years, yet produced great plenty without dung manure; the planter having nothing more to do than to turn up the superficies of the earth, and all that he plants thrives to admiration, which is something peculiar.

The season of sowing Indian corn here is from the 1st of March to the 10th of June. An acre produces from 18 to 30 bushels. The seed time of rice is from the 1st of April to the 20th of May. It is sowed in furrows about 18 inches distant; a peck usually sows an acre, which yields seldom less than 30 bushels, or more than 60; but between these two, as the land is either better or worse. It is reaped in September, to the 8th of October; and the produce is now become so considerable, that it returns to Great-Britain at least 80,000 l. a year, including freight and commission, which are the most profitable articles in the British commerce. In a good year this colony can export 80,000 barrels, of 400 weight each, and upon a medium of seven years, may make 50,000 barrels, disposed of as follows, from a computation made a few years since:

To the south of Cape Finisterre	10,000 barrels
To the north of Cape Finisterre	38,000
To Great-Britain	2,000
	<hr/>
	50,000 barrels.

This quantity of rice will employ above 10,000 ton of shipping, and may return, as observed, to Great-Britain 80,000 l. This product is so considerable, so good in quality, and continues so increasing, that there is great likelihood that, in few years, all the markets in Europe may be supplied therewith from this province.

Silk-worms in Carolina are hatched from the egg about the beginning of March, at the same time that the mulberry-leaves, which are their food, begin to open: being attended and fed six weeks, they eat no more, but have small bushes set up for them to spin themselves into balls, which, thrown into water, are wound off into raw silk.

Rosin, tar, and pitch are also produced from the pine-tree: rosin, by cutting channels in the standing green trees, which meet at a point at the foot of the tree, where is placed a receiver; the channels are cut as high as one can reach with an ax, and the bark is peeled off from all those parts of the tree that are exposed to the sun, that the heat of it may the more easily force out the turpentine, which, being taken from the receiver, and melted in kettles, becomes rosin. Tar is made by preparing a circular floor of clay, declining a little towards the center, from which is laid a wooden pipe, the upper part whereof is even with the floor, and reaches about 10 feet without the circumference; under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels are placed to receive the tar as it runs; upon the floor is built up a large pile of dry pine-wood, split in pieces, and surrounded with a wall of earth, which covers it all over, except a little at the top, where the fire is fire kindled. After the fire begins to burn, they cover it with earth, to the end that there may be no flame, but only heat sufficient to force the tar downwards into the floor; they temper the heat as they please, by thrusting a stick through the earth, and letting the air in at as many places as they see convenient. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles, set in furnaces, or by burning it in round clay holes made in the earth.

Black cattle have mightily increased since the first settling of this colony: about 40 years ago it was reckoned a great deal to have three or four cows, now some people have 500 and 1000 head; and for one man to have 200 is very common. Here are hogs in abundance. The beef and pork that are raised here find a good market in the sugar-islands.

The trade of Carolina is now so considerable, that, of late years, there have failed from thence annually above 200 ships, laden with merchandize of the growth of the country, and they have commonly three ships of war for the security of their commerce. It appears from the Custom-house entries, from March 1730, to March 1731, that there failed, within that time, from Charles-Town, 207 ships, most of them for England, which carried among other goods, 41,757 barrels of rice, about 500 pounds weight per barrel; 10,750 barrels of pitch; 2063 of tar, and 759 of turpentine; of deer-skins 300 casks, containing 8 and 900 skins each; besides a vast quantity of Indian corn, pease, beans, &c. beef, pork,

and other salted flesh; beams, planks, and timber for building, most part of cedar, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, and pine.

For the deer, and other skins, they carry on a considerable trade with the Indians; in exchange for which they give them only lead, powder, coarse cloth, vermilion, iron, strong waters, and some other goods, by which they have large profit. The great number of slaves make another part of the riches of this province, there being above 40,000 negroes, which are worth, one with another, 25 l. each. Artificers are frequently so very scarce, that all sorts of work are very dear. Taylors, shoemakers, smiths, &c. are particularly acceptable there; a skilful carpenter is not ashamed to demand from 20 to 30 shillings a day, Carolina money, besides his diet; and the common wages of a workman is from 12 to 15 shillings a day, and more, provided he speaks English, without which he cannot be understood, and, therefore, is not so useful as others.

Silk is come to great improvement here, some families making 40 or 50 lb. a year, and their plantation-work not neglected, their little negroe-children being serviceable in feeding of the silk-worms. Sir Nathaniel Johnson was the principal promoter of this improvement, as also of vineyards. They manufacture their silk with wool, and make druggets. The French protestants have set up a linnen manufacture.

Besides their bills of credit, the currency of this province is French pistoles and Spanish gold, which, before the act for regulating coin in the colonies, passed at 6 s. 3 d. 1 dwt. and 3 d. the odd grains; Dutch dollars, and Peruvian pieces of eight, at 5 s. There is little English money but what here passes at 50 per cent. advance: a crown at 7 s. 6 d., a guinea at 32 s. 3 d.

This country is bounded on the south and south-west by the river Savannah, which parts it from Georgia; on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the north by Virginia; and, on the west by several Indian nations, which lie between this settlement and the French colonies. The two principal of these nations are the Creeks and the Cherokees, who were a long time at war with the English in Carolina; but now the latter are in amity and alliance with the subjects of the king of Great-Britain, and serve as a powerful barrier to Carolina and Georgia, against both the French and Spaniards. The emperor of the Cherokees, and the king of Catawaga, renewed their league of friendship with governor Glen, at Charles-Town in South Carolina, in May 1745. Some extend Carolina westward as far as the Apalachian mountains; but, whatever may be the claim of the English in that respect, it is certain that the abovementioned Indians, and, perhaps, some other unconquered nations, inhabit between these mountains and our settlements in Carolina, which extends from the mouth of the river Savannah, in north latitude 31. 55. to 36. 31. of the same latitude, along the coast, which, running chiefly from south-west to north-east, makes the length of the country that way about 350 miles; it's greatest breadth, from the sea-coast westward, is about 260 miles; but, towards the north, it is much pent up by the Cherokee mountains, so that there is not much above 200 miles abroad.

The country is divided into South and North Carolina: the former contains four counties, viz. Granville, or Carteret, Colleton, Berkley, and Craven; and the latter two, viz. Clarendon and Albemarle.

In the county of GRANVILLE is the river May, which, joining with the river Cambog, forms, together with the sea, the island of Edelano. The country upon the river May was formerly inhabited by an Indian nation, called the Vestoes. There is in it a pleasant lake and valley. Port-Royal River lies about 15 miles to the northwards of the river May. It has a bold entrance, 17 feet deep on the bar at low-water. The harbour is large, commodious, and safe for shipping, and runs into a fine fruitful country, preferable to the other parts of Carolina. It spends itself by various branches into other large rivers. This port is not above 180 miles from St Augustine, and, may now, since St Augustine is annexed by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, to the crown of England, in conjunction therewith, prove highly beneficial to these kingdoms. The first English who came to Carolina thought of settling hereabouts, but the Indians advised to the contrary, because the harbour, being the finest in this country, would have tempted the Spaniards to disturb them. Beaufort, a town in this county, situated in the island of Port Royal, in north latitude 32. 23. about 30 miles to the east of Purrysburgh, and 45 from Charles-Town to the south-west; the continent and island from that fine capacious harbour called Port-Royal, which might hold the royal navy of England. The island whereon the town stands consists of near 1000 acres, and is navigable all round for boats and pettyaugers, and one half of it for shipping, having four fathom water close by the high bluff; so that ships may load and unload from the shore, without the assistance of boats. The harbour is secured by a fort, built some years since, on which 12 culverins are mounted; but the town and island have no fortifications, nor is the harbour so well fortified as a place of this importance deserves, especially as it lay so high Spanish Florida, and is said to have been demanded by

the Spaniards as a part of their territories. There are not above three-score houses in this town at present; but from it's advantageous situation, and the goodness of the harbour, it is expected that this town will one day become the capital of Carolina. Now Florida is annexed to the crown of England, this harbour is rendered of still greater advantage. Purrysburgh lies in north latitude 32. 20. This was settled by Mr Purry, a gentleman of Neufchatel in Switzerland, being encouraged by the government both in England and Carolina, and made a Swiss colony of it; but it has not been properly supported, though it would have proved highly beneficial to Carolina, being, with Georgia, by it's situation, a kind of bulwark against the inroads of the Indians, and, perhaps, of the Spaniards and French. It would also have been very advantageous to Great-Britain, because a vast number of Vaudois, who are protestants, inhabiting the valleys of Piedmont, being persecuted by the king of Sardinia, would have settled here, as a few of them have done; but the far greater part of them were disheartened, when they heard what usage both their countrymen and the Swiss had met with there. The Vaudois make very fine silk in their country, and would have very much improved that manufacture in Carolina, by which means vast sums of money, which are yearly sent from England to Italy for silk, would have been saved to the nation. But, it seems, for fear of disgusting an Italian prince, we are neither to attempt to make silk ourselves, nor to import the fine silk of China, which will come at one third of the expence of Italian silk. It is to be hoped, that our new possessions in North America; will, by good management be productive of silk as good as ever came from Italy or elsewhere.

COLLETON County is the next to the north of the former: it is watered by the river Stono, which is joined by a cut to Wadmoolaw River. The north-east part of this county is full of Indian settlements; and the Stono and other rivers, form an island, called Boone's Island, a little below Charles-Town, which is well planted and inhabited. The chief rivers in this county at North Edistow and South Edistow. For two or three miles up the latter, the plantations are thick on both sides, and they continue for three or four miles higher on the north side. On the north bank of the latter, about 12 miles from it's mouth, stands Wilton, by some called New London, a little town built by the Swiss.

BERKLEY County lies to the north of Colleton. The northern parts are not planted, but the southern are thick of plantations, on account of the two great rivers Cooper and Ashley. On the north coast there is a little river, called Bowall River, which, with a creek, forms an island, and off the coast are several isles, called Hunting Islands, and Sillivant's Isle. Between the latter and Bowall River, is a ridge of hills, which, from the nature of the soil, is called the Sand-Hills. The river Wando waters the north-west parts of this county, and has several good plantations upon it. It runs into Cooper River, and they both unite their streams with Ashley River at Charles-Town.

Charles-Town is the capital of the province, is built on a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper rivers, but it lies most on the latter, having a creek on the north side, and another on the south. It lies in north latitude 32. 48. longitude 78. 16. west, 2 leagues or 6 miles from the sea. This is a market-town, and thither the whole product of the province is brought for sale. Neither is it's trade inconsiderable, for it deals near 1000 miles into the continent; however, it labours under the disadvantage of a bar, that admits no ships above 200 tons. 'The bar, says the author of Harris's Collection, has 16 feet water at low tide, and there is good riding when a ship is got close to the town, and the harbour is defended by Johnson's Fort, which has about 20 guns in it, level with the surface of the water.' 'Ashley River, he says also, is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and pettyaugers, or large canoes, near 40 miles. Cooper River is not navigable for ships so far, but for boats and pettyaugers much farther.'

CRAVEN County follows next, still going northwards. It lies along the banks of the river Congaree, or Santee, which separates North and South Carolina. It is pretty well inhabited by English and French protestants. In this country is Sewee River, where some inhabitants of New England settled. NORTH CAROLINA has a peculiar governor, and contains the two following counties:

CLARENDON County lies to the north of Santee River. In this county is the famous Cape Fear, at the mouth of the river of the same name. The Indians in this neighbourhood are reckoned the most barbarous of any in the province. In this county is Watery River, or Wynyann, about 25 leagues distant from Ashley River; it is capable of receiving large ships, but inferior to Port-Royal, nor is it yet inhabited.

ALBEMARLE County is the most northerly, bordering on Virginia. It is watered by Albemarle River, and is full of creeks on both sides of it, which, for breadth, deserve the name of rivers, but they do not run far into the country. At Sandy Point it divides itself into two branches, Noratoke and Notaway, and, in the north point, lies an Indian nation, called the Matacomogs. Next to Albemarle River southward is

Pantegoe River, and between them is Cape Hattoras. Albemarle county was more planted than any of the other, when Carolina was first settled, and consisted of near 300 families; but the plantations upon Ashley River, in time, grew upon it so much, that most of the planters here removed thither.

VIRGINIA. Under this name was formerly understood all that tract of land which reached from Norembequa to Florida, and contained the countries at present known by the names of New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Carolina. The difficulties in settling this, as well as other of our colonies, being well known, and to be found in their history, it is needless, and, indeed, not within the design of this work, to give those tedious narratives.

The Indians who originally inhabited the borders of this province, which retains the name Virginia, were very numerous, of different tribes, and most treacherous and cruel to the English of all the Indian nations.

The situation of this country is peculiarly happy and convenient. It has the river Patowmack on the north-east, which separates it from Maryland; the Atlantic Ocean on the east; Carolina on the south; and the Apalachian mountains on the west. It lies from the 36. 30. north latitude, to the 39. 30. and between the 74. 50. and 79. 20. of longitude west from London. It's extent from south to north, is about 180 miles, and about 140 from east to west.

The air of this country depends much upon the winds: the north and north-west are either very piercing, or boisterous and stormy; the south-east and south being hazy and sultry. The winter is dry and clear, which makes it very pleasant. Their spring is somewhat earlier than ours; in April they have frequent rains; May and June are very pleasant months, the heat being greatly tempered by cooling breezes; July and August are sultry hot, the air growing in a manner stagnant, which produces great thunder and lightning; in September the weather breaks, and there fall prodigious showers of rain, when the inhabitants are sickly. It ought, however, to be observed, that in this, and, indeed, in all our colonies, the climate grows daily better, and these thunder-seasons less violent; which the inhabitants ascribe to the clearing of the country, by the cutting down woods, which gives the air a freer passage.

Towards the sea-coast the soil is generally low, and, for 100 miles up the country, there is hardly a hill or stone to be met with, except that here and there some iron-stone appears above the surface, and some banks of a kind of petrified oyster-shells, that are of a prodigious thickness. The soil in general is a rich fat mould, three feet deep, and under it a loam, of which they make good bricks; but according as the situation is moist or dry, the soil varies. It is distinguished into three sorts, high, low, and marshy, all which, having sand mixed with them, makes their land warmer than that of Old England. The highlands are mostly sandy; however, they are not unfruitful; the soil does not hold in strength so long as the lowlands, which are very rich, being a blackish mould, about a foot deep; and this soil will hold it's strength seven or eight crops without manuring. Their land in general is no way inferior to that of England; that at the mouths of rivers is moist and fat, and produces rice, hemp, and Indian corn. There are veins of a cold, raw, hungry soil, where huckle-berries, cran-berries, and chinkapins generally grow: also oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypresses, and sweet gums, hockly, sweet myrtle, and live oak, are found here in great abundance. The land up the rivers is of a different kind of soil, and stored with chestnuts, chinkapins, oaks, walnuts, hickories, dog-wood, alder, hazel, salfras, elm, ash, beech, and poplar. The lands at the heads of the rivers, and their productions, are also various. Here are trees of an incredible size, and plenty of pasture-ground, coal, quarries of stone, iron and lead mines.

Before the settling of the English there were neither horses, cows, sheep, or swine; at present there is plenty of them all: their horses are very serviceable, and travel at a great rate. They have likewise red deer pretty plenty, hares, beavers, wolves, and foxes. They do not want great variety of fowl or fish.—In February, March, April, and May, shoals of herrings pour into their very brooks, some of the size of ours, but, in the general, considerably larger.

Though the common way of traffic in this province is by barter, or exchange, of one kind of merchandize for another, or of any for tobacco, which is the staple production of the country, yet there is stirring some silver coin, both English and Spanish; and there was considerably more, 'till the lowering the value, tempted people to export it to the other colonies, where it was current for more than in Virginia.

The chief of their coins are either gold and silver of the stamp of Spanish America, or English money: they have some Arabian chequins.

The trade of this colony consists chiefly in tobacco. To so great perfection is this branch brought here, that the Virginia tobacco, especially the sweet-scented, which grows on York River, is reckoned the best in the world, and is generally vended in England for their home consumption. The other sort, called Oronoac, and that of Maryland, are hotter in the mouth; but it turns to as good account, being in great de-

mand in Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Germany. Of this commodity 30,000 hogheads have been exported yearly from the port of London, which if 4 l. a hoghead are cleared by them at foreign markets, it will amount to 120,000 l. per annum; which contributes so much to diminish the ballance of those trades which we carry on to our disadvantage. This is a profitable branch of trade to the English commerce, as it employs little less than 200 sail of stout ships every year, our own consumption of this commodity being included; the revenue thereof, as well from Maryland as Jamaica, and arising to the crown, is not inconsiderable. See TOBACCO.

Nor is tobacco the only product of value this country produces; they have besides flax, hemp, cotton, and silk they might certainly have, if they were not so extremely addicted to their staple commodity as never to think of any thing else, if tobacco can be brought to a tolerable market. They have likewise silk-grafs, of which they make very little advantage, though, no doubt, under proper management, very profitable manufactures might be made in England, since it's threads are said to be finer than flax, and stronger than hemp. All kinds of naval stores might be produced in Virginia with great ease, as well as in great plenty, such as plank-timber, masts, yards, rosin, turpentine, pitch and tar, and iron, which we are obliged to take from other countries, they having several good mines of that metal. There have been rumours of gold and silver mines; but it is certain, that they do not want coals, antimony, and other things of value, in the bowels of that country, which they would not be regardless of, if tobacco alone did not wholly ingross their application; which is not a little imprudent; since it too frequently turns to very indifferent account to the planter: whereas, were they wise enough to obtain other strings to their bow, they would be more prosperous, and could afford to take more of our manufactures in return.

MARYLAND. This province was reckoned part of Virginia 'till king Charles I. made a grant of it to lord Baltimore: and the climate, soil, produce, animals, &c. in this colony, differ very little from those of Virginia. In both these provinces the English live at large in their several plantations, which hinders the increase of towns. Every plantation, indeed, is a little town of itself, and can subsist itself with provisions and necessaries, every considerable planter's warehouse being like a shop, where he supplies not only himself with what he wants, but the inferior planters, servants, and labourers; and has commodities to barter for tobacco, or other goods, there being little money in this province, and little occasion for any as long as tobacco, and their other productions, shall answer all the uses of gold and silver in trade.

There are here few merchants and shopkeepers, who may properly be called so; I mean, who live properly by their trades. The tobacco of this province, called Oronoko, is stronger than that of Virginia; but it is in great demand in the eastern and northern parts of Europe, and preferred before the sweet-scented of James and York rivers in Virginia. The Maryland planters, finding so good vent for their commodity at foreign markets, have cultivated it so much, that the province is thought to produce as much, or more in quantity than Virginia. The soil is here, at least, as fruitful, the country being a large plane, and the hills in it so easy of ascent, and of such a moderate height, that they seem rather an artificial ornament to it, than one of the accidents of nature. The abundance of rivers and brooks are no little help to the fertility of the soil; nor is there any grain, plant, or tree, which grows in Virginia, but thrives as well here.

The number of ships trading hither from England, and other parts of the British dominions, are computed at 150 sail at least.

There is no woollen manufacture followed, unless in Somerset county. Their common drink is cyder, which is very good, and, where it is rightly ordered, not inferior to the best white wine. They have wine brought from Madeira and Fial, rum from Barbadoes, beer, malt, and wines from England. There is plenty of good grapes growing wild in the woods, but no improvement is made of them.

This province lies between the 38th and 41st degrees of north latitude, and 74. 20. and 77. of longitude west from London, and is bounded on the east by Delaware bay and the Atlantic ocean, on the south by Virginia, on the west by that part of the Indian country, which the French claim under the name of Louisiana, and on the north by Pennsylvania. Or more particularly, according to Mr Lloyd of Maryland, the colony of Virginia, on the west side of the bay of Chesapeake, is divided from Maryland by the river Patowmack, and on the east by the river Pocamack, whose head lies near the sea to the eastward. The boundary of the province of Maryland begins at the river Patowmack, and runs along the bay side northwards, 'till it intersects a line drawn west from the mouth of Delaware bay, situate in 39. 20. degrees north latitude, having for it's bounds to the west high mountains, and on the east the said bay. The eastern side of the province of Maryland is bounded on the west by the bay of Chesapeake, on the east by the main ocean, on the north by Delaware bay, and on the south by the river Pocamack, which is the line of division between it and the colony of Virginia.

Virginia. The chief rivers here are Potowmack, mentioned in the situation of Virginia, Patuxent, and Severn, on the western shore; and, on the other side, Chiptonk, Chester, and Sassafras, of the greatest note.

The province of Maryland is divided into eleven counties, six on the western, and five on the eastern side of the bay. Those on the western side, are St Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Anne-Arundel, and Baltimore counties. On the east side of the bay, are Somerset, Dorchester, Talbot, Kent, and Cecil counties.

PENNSYLVANIA contains all that tract of land in America, with all the islands belonging to it, from the beginning of the 40th to the 43d degree of north latitude, whose eastern bounds, from twelve miles above Newcastle, otherwise Delaware town, run all along upon the side of Delaware river. These bounds and extent were contained in the original grant; but Mr. Pen, the proprietary, having afterwards obtained part of Nova Belgia from the duke of York, it was added to the country given in the first grant, so that it extends now to the 48th and 55th minutes of north latitude. It is bounded on the east by Delaware bay and river, and the Atlantic ocean; on the north and west by Canada, on the south by Maryland. But if it extends to the 43d degree of north latitude, as is expressed in the grant, it must run almost parallel to New Jersey and New York, even to the banks of the great Ontario-lake.

By it's latitude, Pennsylvania is at a like distance from the sun with Naples in Italy, and Montpelier in France; but it must be observed, that the climates on the continent of America differ much from those of the same latitude in Europe. The southern part of Hudson's-Bay and the Thames are much in the same latitude; yet the Thames has a mild agreeable climate, Hudson's-Bay almost in perpetual frost and snow. Natural philosophers can easily account for that difference. The air, however, in Pennsylvania, is sweet and clear; the fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and lasts 'till the beginning of December, when the winter sets in, which continues till March. Frosty weather and extreme cold seasons are frequently known here; but, as in most countries where there are such seasons, the air is then dry and healthy. The heats are pretty extraordinary in the summer months, of July, August, and September; but mitigated by cool breezes, which make them very tolerable.

The soil of this province is in some places a yellow, or black sand, in others a loomy gravel, in others a fat mould, like the vales in England, especially near inland brooks and rivers, where the lands are considerably richer than those that lie near navigable rivers.

The chief rivers here are, the river Delaware, which rises far north, in the Indian country of the Iroquois, takes it's course to the southward, and, dividing this province from that of New Jersey, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between the promontories or capes, May and Hentopen, forming at it's mouth a large bay, called also Delaware. This river is navigable for above 200 miles, but has a cataract above Bristol, which renders the navigation of it unpracticable to the northward of the county of Bucks. The second river is that of Sasquahanah, which, rising likewise in the country of the Iroquois Indians, runs south through the middle of the province of Pennsylvania, and falls into the Indian bay called Chesapeake, in latitude 39. 47. This is navigable for large ships. The third is the Schoolkill, which, also having it's source in the country of the Iroquois, runs south, almost parallel to the two former rivers, and at length turning to the eastward falls into Delaware, at the city of Philadelphia; it is also navigable for boats above 100 miles up. These rivers, and the numerous creeks and bays in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this country admirably situated to carry on a foreign trade.

Here are trees of all sorts, oak, red, white, and black ash, beech, Spanish chestnuts, cypress, poplar, gum-wood, hickery, sassafras, shrubs, snake-root, sarsaparilla, sulpur, spruce, cranberries, wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, beans, water-melons, muskmelons, apples, pears, cherries, apricots, quinces, carrots, turnips, onions, parsnips, cucumbers, &c. are here in very great plenty; as also Indian corn, hemp, flax, &c. It is frequent for one bushel of corn sown here to yield 40, often 50, and 60 bushels. Of animals, here are, for food and commerce, deer, elk, rabbits, racoons, beaver; plenty of oxen, cows, and sheep: of the latter, 'tis common for farmers to have 4 or 500 in a flock. They have also beasts both for labour and otherwise. Of fowl, here are fine buffards, 40 or 50 pound weight, pheasants, heath-birds, pigeons, partridges, clouds of black-birds, swans, geese, brantides, duck, teal, and snipe. The fish are sturgeon, herrings, eels, smelts, and perch, oysters, crabs, cockles, and muscles, &c. The merchandize of this country, with respect to Europe and America, consists of horses, pipe-stave, pork, beef, and fish salted and barrelled up, skins and furs; all sorts of grain, wheat, rye, pease, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian pease and beans, pot-ashes, wax, &c. and in return for these, they import from the Caribee-Islands, and other places, rum, sugar, molasses, silver, negroes, salt

and wine from Great-Britain, household goods and cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools and toys. They have also some rice, but no great quantities, and a little tobacco, but of the worst kind. Their trade with the neighbouring Indians upon the continent consists but in few articles; they receiving of the native Indians, chiefly skins and furs of their wild beasts, for which they exchange with them cloathing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other spirituous liquors, in return. This, as well as other the northern colonies, endeavour to carry on some trade with the American colonies belonging to other nations: Pennsylvania can't be said to have a staple commodity, nor have the inhabitants yet set up any manufacture of their own.

Philadelphia, the capital of Pennsylvania, is extremely well laid out; and were it full of houses and inhabitants, according to the proprietary's plan, it would be a capital fit for a great empire. It is at present a large city, most commodiously situated between two navigable rivers, Delaware and Schuifkill. The land on which the city stands is high and firm, and the conveniences of docks and springs have greatly contributed to the commerce of this place, where many rich merchants now reside. Ships may ride here in six or seven fathom water, with very good anchorage. The land about it is a dry wholesome level. The great dock is formed by an inlet of the river Delaware, at the south corner of the front of the wharfs, and has a bridge over it at the entrance. Several creeks run into the city out of the two rivers, and there is no city in Holland that is so naturally accommodated with fine canals, as this might easily be. The key is beautiful, about 200 feet square, to which a ship of 500 tons may lay her broadside. And, as these surprizing advantages have already rendered this one of the best trading towns in the British empire out of Europe, so, in all probability, it will continue to increase in commerce and riches, 'till it will have no equal in America.

NEW JERSEY has Delaware river on the south-west, the bay on the south-east, the Atlantic ocean on the east, and New York on the north. It lies betwixt north latitude 39. 10. and 41. 35. and betwixt west longitude 73. 46. and 75. 15. 'Tis in length on the sea-coast, and along Hudson's river; i. e. from south to north, about 140 miles, and about 80 where broadest. East Jersey, before it was united with west, extended east and north all along the sea-coast and Hudson's river, which is in north latitude 41. and was divided on the south and west from West Jersey, by a line of partition passing from Egg-Harbour to Creswick river, Stony-brook, and the south branch of Raritan river. It extends 100 miles along the coast, and by Hudson's river. The breadth is very unequal, it being in some places much indented by west Jersey; it is, however, the most valuable part of the country. 'Tis divided into Monmouth county on the south of Raritan river, Middlesex and Essex counties on the north of it, and Berghen county on Hudson's river.

MONMOUTH County has a pretty good town called Middleton, twenty-six miles south of Piscataway, with out-plantations of thirty thousand acres.

Shrewsbury, the most southern town, about eleven miles from Middleton, is reckoned the chief of the county, has the same number of plantations, but more families than Middleton.

Freehold is a town, which has thirty thousand acres of plantation.

MIDDLESEX County is the most populous and flourishing for it's plantations, most of whose proprietors are Scotsmen. It's towns are,

1. Piscataway, which has forty thousand acres of land.
2. Woodbridge, has thirty thousand acres of plantation.
3. Perth Amboy, the capital of the county, is a sweet wholesome place, at the mouth of Raritan river, which runs into Sandy-hook bay, that is able to contain five hundred ships, and is never froze. It is so commodious for trade, that ships of three hundred tons can come up to the port in one tide, and lie at the merchant's door, and vessels may be built here cheap. The whole plan consists of a thousand and seventy acres, as laid out by the Scots proprietors.

ESSEX, the next county, has above forty thousand acres of plantation.

Elizabeth, it's chief town, lies three miles within a creek, opposite to the west of Staten island.

Newark, the next town, six or seven miles to the north, is the most compact in both the Jerseys. It has fifty thousand acres laid out for cultivation.

BERGHEN County lies on Hudson's river over-against New York. This, as well as the other parts of the Jerseys, is extremely well watered, there being, besides that of Hudson, the river Hackinsack and Passaic, and several lesser streams. The inhabitants are mostly Dutch. They have ten thousand acres of land assigned them.

WEST JERSEY has not so many towns, nor is so well planted, as East Jersey, yet, by reason of it's navigable creeks, this province is as commodious for trade as the other, they lying at a convenient distance, and some running a great way up into the country.

CAPE MAY County is the only part, which has the name of a county. This is a tract of land betwixt Cape May, it's most easterly point of land, at the mouth of Delaware bay, and Little Egg harbour, dividing the two Jerseys. Most of the inhabitants here are fishermen, there being a whaley on both shores of the mouth of Delaware bay. From Maurice river, the next stream to Cape May, Delaware bay and river water all the south-east; and south and south-west parts of West Jersey. The plantations, some of which are so close, that they are called a town, lie all along that bay and river, and most of them on creeks.

In an island in the middle of Delaware river opposite to Philadelphia, lies Bridlington, or Burlington, the capital of the province; in which, though there are few or no plantations within twenty miles of it, the courts and assemblies of West Jersey used to be held. It carries on a brisk trade, by it's easy communication with Philadelphia and the ocean, by the river Salem, which falls into the bay of Delaware: The town is laid out into spacious streets, with commodious keys and wharfs, that will admit ships of two or three hundred tons. Higher up lies Maidenhead, a town of forty or fifty families; and, about forty miles higher, is the country of the Indians, called Minissuks, who live in a fertile soil, which 'tis expected will be soon inhabited by our countrymen, because it borders upon New York, and has a communication with it by means of the river Acopus, which falls into that of Hudson; near Kingston.

This province has an easy communication with Maryland, by a river within eight or nine miles of the bottom of Chesapeake bay; and there was once a project to cut a canal thro' that space, but it was so vehemently opposed both by Maryland and Virginia, that it did not succeed.

Upon the whole, the climate, of New Jersey is somewhat warmer than that of New England and New York, by being situate more to the south. The soil, produce, trade, and the conveniences of rivers and creeks of both provinces, are much the same with those of Pennsylvania; but there are more rivers and creeks in West Jersey than in the east, by reason of it's situation on Delaware river. The country, which has a better soil than all the colonies round it, and is better cultivated, yields plenty of all sorts of grain. The inhabitants are computed at above sixteen thousand English, men, women, and children; of whom, about three thousand are men fit to bear arms. The chief trade of New Jersey consists in provisions, particularly flour and pork, and great quantities of white pease, which they sell to the merchants of New York, who export them to the Sugar-Islands. It has also some fur-skins and tobacco for an English market, and train-oil, fish, and other provisions, for Portugal, Spain, and the Canary-Islands.

As the towns generally lie up in the country, their trade is chiefly over land to New York. There are from an hundred to two hundred families in a place, and great part of them are Dutch, an industrious people, and quiet subjects to the English government, by which they are protected. The increase of it's trade and produce may be judged by that of it's number of hands, especially negroes, who are ten times as many as they were about forty years ago.

NEW YORK. This province is divided by Hudson's river; from the East and West Jerseys on the south and south-west, as it is from New England on the north and north-east, by a line drawn between Rye and Greenwich. It has also part of Canada on the west, and on the north those Indians, allies to the French, who, being assisted by them in 1746, fell on the frontiers of New York, and did our colonies here great mischief. 'Tis not above twenty-five miles broad, particularly betwixt Connecticut colony on the east, and Jersey on the west, and two hundred in length from south to north, extending from Long-Island in north latitude, 40 degrees 40 minutes to the lake of Champlain, 44 $\frac{1}{2}$, where the French having built forts, have in a manner expelled us from the north part of this country.

The climate is more temperate, by lying more to the south than that of New England, but it is colder here in winter, and hotter in summer; than in European countries of the same latitude. The soil is so fruitful, that one bushel of wheat has produced an hundred: it's product in general, as well as it's animals, are the same with those of New England. The savages too of both countries are very much alike.

The English here deal with the Indians very largely for the skins of elks, deer, bears, beavers, otters, racoons, and other rich furs; and, in summer chiefly, they are supplied by the Indians with venison, fish, and fowl, very cheap: for, by means of Hudson's river, the largest in all our northern colonies, it being navigable even beyond New Albany, near a hundred and fifty miles from New York, and having a communication with the great river of Canada, by a stream called the Otter river, except an interstice of land-carriage of about sixteen miles, the Mohawk and Iroquois Indians from the lakes, and others from the French settlements, come to the English settlements upon this river, and drive a considerable traffic.

The other trade of this colony is to Barbadoes and the Sugar-Islands, with horses, beef, smoked beef, bacon, pork, pease,

apples, onions, corn, flour, bread, pipe staves, for which they receive sugar, molasses, rum, ginger, &c. in return;

'They have also a very profitable commerce from hence to Madeira and the Azores; with pipe-staves and fish, for which they load their ships back with wine and brandy; and there is scarce a more beneficial trade in all the English commerce, they taking off more of our woollen manufactures than all the island colonies taken together, Jamaica excepted, and return more gold and silver to pay for them.

In fine, it is generally allowed, that there is not a colony in America, which makes a better figure than this for it's trade, or where the people seem to have a greater spirit of industry and commerce, or are better affected to the English nation.

Besides, 'tis agreed, that the inhabitants of the inland part of this country, are our greatest fence against the French. As the city of New York may be deemed it's frontier garrison on the south; against any invasion by sea; so Schenectada town and fort, in the county of Albany, may well be reckoned it's frontier on the north, against the French of Canada, and their Indian confederates:

'Tis divided into ten counties; which, going up Hudson's river from south to north, are Richmond, Suffolk, Queen's County, New York County, Chester, King's County, Orange, Dutchess, Ulster, and Albany; which last five counties are said to be all inhabited by Dutch, or such as are of Dutch extraction, besides Staten-Island and Long-Island, before the mouth of Hudson's river. They are pretty well stocked with farms, but have not many considerable towns.

Long Island, which is sometimes called Nassaw Island, has Staten Island, and that in which New York lies, on the west and north-west; the colony of Connecticut on the north; and the Atlantic ocean on the east and the south. 'Tis not above eighteen miles in breadth, but 'tis a hundred and twenty in length; stretching along Fairfield County in New England; near the mouth of Hudson's river, furnished every-where with convenient harbours, and contains the counties of Suffolk and Richmond; and Queen's County.

The trade drove here is in furs and skins, tobacco as good as that of Maryland, horses, beef, pork, pease, wheat, and all sorts of English grain, which are sowed here with very great increase; and the soil is so good, that all other fruits and herbs thrive here, together with flax, hemp, pumpkins, melons, &c.

On the south side of this island in the winter time, there lie store of whales and grampusses, which the inhabitants catch in their boats, and drive no inconsiderable trade with the oil. An infinite number of seals lie here also in the same season; on some broken marshes, beaches and bars of sand; which likewise yield excellent oil.

Staten Island, which lies to the west of the former; near the county of New York, is about fourteen miles in length, and eight in breadth, and has a number of good farms and plantations, but no town.

The capital of the whole province is the city of New York; at the south end of York county in Manhattan island (at the mouth of Hudson's; or the Iroquois river) which island is 12 miles long, and about 3 broad. This town is reckoned one of the pleasantest in British America. It has a good harbour, with keys and warehouses, and employs hundreds of ships and vessels in it's foreign trade and fisheries. The Dutch have set up mills to saw timber, one of which will do more in a day, than fifty men can.

Kingston, a town ninety miles up the river, on the west side of it, is a pretty well built populous town, inhabited by English and Dutch. The river Acopus, from New Jersey, falls into Hudson's near the town, and makes a good communication between the two provinces.

New Albany, called Orange fort by the Dutch, who drove a profitable trade from it with the Indians to Quebec, is a hundred and forty-three miles up the river to the north of New York, and is but five miles below the place where the east branch of the river leaves the southern, and runs up almost off the Iroquois; two hundred miles within land. After it's reduction by the English, it was called New Albany. This town, consisting of between two and three hundred families, is, for the most part, inhabited by Dutch. The governor of the northern provinces comes hither often to confer with the Indian sachems or kings; to renew their alliances, to settle matters of traffic, and to concert measures against their common enemy; and it is reckoned the barrier of New York, against both the French and the Indians.

Schenectada, sixteen miles above Albany, but in the county of Albany, is situate on a river that runs into Hudson's to the east, and in one of the finest vales of the world; it is compared to that in Nottinghamshire, watered by the Trent. The inhabitants are both English and Dutch. It was almost destroyed by the French, and their confederated Indians, towards the close of the last century, and the inhabitants murdered; but they have now strengthened it; and the place is much larger and more populous than before. The country betwixt this fort and New York is very fruitful, but inhabited by several Indian nations, who are not very industrious.

Saratogo, about 26 miles to the north of Schenectada, is the

village that was destroyed in the last war by the French and Indians, who came upon it by surprize.

NEW ENGLAND. This country contains the most flourishing and powerful colonies the English have in America; has the Atlantic ocean on the east and south-east, Nova Scotia or New Scotland, or Acadia, on the north-east, the country of the savage Indians on the north, part of Canada on the west, and New York, with Long-Island, on the south and south-west. It extends from north latitude 41 to 44½, and from longitude 69 to 73, 35. The late Rev. Mr Daniel Neal, who has wrote the best history of this country, says, that, from Kenneback river to the south-east boundary of New York, it is three hundred and thirty miles; that the coast from west south-west, to east north-east, is a hundred and sixty leagues without the angles; and that it is a hundred and ninety miles, brought from Cape Cod to the north-east bounds of New York; but the author of the British Empire in America, tho' he allows it to be near three hundred miles along the coast, without reckoning the angles, says, 'tis no where above fifty miles broad in a direct line.

The summer season here is warmer, though shorter than ours, and generally accompanied with a clear sky for two months; which renders the country so wholesome, that none of our plantations suit an English constitution better; yet in their winters, which are longer and severer than ours, the winds are often very boisterous, and the air is sharper than in Old England, though it lies so much more to the east. Naturalists have imputed this to the large fresh water lakes that lie behind this country to the north-west, which, being constantly frozen over in November, occasion that early winter which is commonly felt in all the adjacent country, and is one principal cause of those cold north-west winds that continually blow here in the winter, and are so fatal to mariners on the New England coast in that season. Snow generally lies on the ground here, from November to February. June, July, and August are the hottest months, during which, the people are greatly pestered with musketoes, bugs, and other insects.

The land next the sea is generally low, and in some parts marshy, but farther up it rises into hills, and on the north-east it is rocky and mountainous. About the Massachusetts Bay, the soil is as fat and black as in any part of England; and the first planters found the grass in the vallies above an ell high, and rank for want of cutting; but the up-lands are not so fruitful, they being for the most part gravel and sandy, inclining to a clay.

There are few countries better watered with springs, rivers, and lakes, though the latter are not so large as those to the north and the west. Of it's rivers, which all abound with fish, seven are navigable for several leagues, and would be so farther, were it not for the falls. As, 1. Connecticut river, which is navigable a great way with large vessels. It rises in the north part of New England, and runs almost directly south through the province of it's name, 'till it falls into the sea, after a course of at least two hundred miles, between the towns of Saybrook and Line, almost opposite to the east end of Long-Island. 2. The Thames, which rises in some lake north of the Massachusetts's country, runs also directly south, and falls into the sea below New London, and to the east of the Connecticut. 3. The river Patuxet, which, rising in the north-west of the Massachusetts's country, runs south-east, through Providence plantation, and falls into a noble bay of the sea, near a town called Swanley. 4. The great river Merrimack, which, rising north of New England, runs also to the south, forming a lake on the west of New Hampshire; from whence running south for near a hundred miles, to the latitude of 42. 54. it then turns east, and falls into the sea between Salisbury and Newberry in Essex. 5. The river Piscataway, which runs from west to east, and falls into the sea near Portsmouth in Hampshire, with a mouth more like an arm of the sea, and capable of receiving the largest ships. 6. The river Saco, which runs from the north of New England to the south, falling into the sea between Cape Porpus, or Porposes, and Cape Elizabeth, in the province of Maine. 7. The Casco river, which runs parallel with the former, and falls into a bay of it's own name. To the east of these are the rivers Saghedock, Kenabeck, Penobscot, and many more considerable ones, which, rising far to the north, run almost due south, and fall into the ocean to the north-east of Casco bay.

To the convenience of so many fine rivers, and the plenty of fresh water, the number of large populous towns is justly ascribed. There are some copper and iron mines.

There is also plenty of good timber, but so much has been cut within ten or twelve miles from the sea, that, 'tis said, there is a necessity for a law to prevent the waste of woods. Oak, elm, ash, cypress, pine, chestnut, walnut, cedar, beech, aspin, salisfras, are common here; as are also spruce and fir-trees, which are of an extraordinary growth, producing pitch, tar, rosin, and turpentine; also masts, yards, and planks, as the oak does the other ship-timber; so that more ships have been built in this province, than in all the other parts of America. Here is shumack, which is used by dyers and tan-

ners; and, as there is no want of hides and skins, nor bark, there is a great manufacture in leather. That, called the she-cedar, produces sweet gums, as do other of their trees balsms that are medicinal. The dwarf oak grows wild here, and was sent hence to Old England to be cultivated. All sorts of garden and orchard-trees thrive here so well, that 'tis easy for a planter to make a hundred hogheads of cyder in a season; and the export of apples to the Sugar-Islands is a constant article in it's commerce.

They have as good hemp and flax as any in the Baltic; great plenty of all sorts of roots, as turnips, parsnips, carrots, radishes, much larger and richer than ours, though their seeds came originally from hence; good store of onions, cucumbers, and pumpkins, but the seeds of their water-melons and squashes, which grow here in great plenty, are supposed to be brought from Portugal.

They had a great variety of fruits of their own growth, before the English settled here, and they have universally improved them. Mr Dudley, one of the council in New England, and a fellow of the Royal Society, says, the peaches here are large, all standards, and the fruit better than ours; and that they bear commonly in three years from the stone; that in 1721, in a village near Boston of about forty houses, they made near three thousand barrels of cyder; and that some of their apple-trees yield six or seven barrels, and at the rate of eight or nine bushels to the barrel.

There is a great variety of plants here, different from those of Europe; particularly the common favin, which frequently grows wild on the hills; that called the bear-thistle, very short and prickly; whose root with a decoction of cancer-root, and a sort of devil's bit, cures the king's evil. Here's a plant called partridge-berries, an excellent cure for the dropy; and that called the bleeding-root, to cure the jaundice; together with some others, of which the late Dr Cotton Mather gave the Royal Society of London a specimen.

There is hardly a greater variety of fowl any where than in this country, and plenty of beasts both tame and wild, of every useful kind. Here are also abundance of excellent fish, both in the sea and rivers. Whales were often caught formerly between New England and New York; but the whaling-fishery is of late engrossed in a manner by the Newfoundlanders, though there are still vast quantities of fish of all sorts, especially cod, taken on this coast, which are salted and sent to Europe, as well as to the sugar plantations, for the subsistence of their negroes as well as white servants.

There is scarce any sort of British manufacture, whether for use, ornament, or luxury, but is imported into New England; so that the exports from Great-Britain and Ireland have been computed by some to be no less than 300,000 l a year. The imports also from thence are not of the unbeneficial kind. They sell their fish to Spain, Portugal, and the Straights, the produce of which comes hither in gold and silver, or bills of exchange. Other returns they make us in masts, the best and largest in the whole world, besides pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, plank, knees for ships, and other species of timber for various uses. These commodities, especially pitch and tar, were formerly purchased of the Swede stores but, since the encouragement given to their importation from New England, they have fell to half their former price. New England also imports logwood for the dyeing our woollen goods in quantities for our own use, and a surplus, with which we furnish Holland and Hamburgh. Other articles might be mentioned, as whale oil and fins, which are yearly imported from New England in considerable quantities; and, if not had from hence, they must be purchased of the Dutch with ready money, and at much higher prices. New England plants no sugar, indeed, but it assists our island colonies that do; which, without it's help, could not make it near so cheap, and in sufficient quantities. For, if the Sugar-Islands were obliged to sow wheat, and plant as much Indian corn as they wanted, they must necessarily plant the fewer canes. From hence they are likewise supplied with horses for their mills, timber for their sugar-works, boards, hoops, and staves for their casks, butter, cheese, oil, tallow, corn, flour, bread, beans, pease, besides barrel pork, mackarel, and the refuse cod-fish.

NOVA SCOTIA, NEW SCOTLAND, OR ACADIA, is the eastern part of the North American continent, and has New England on the south-west; part of New France, and the river St Lawrence, on the west and north; the gulph of that name, and Cape Breton island, on the east; and the Atlantic ocean on the east and south. According to some geographers, it extends from the Streight of Canis and Fronfac (which divides it from Cape Breton island) west longitude 60. 15. to the river of Kennebeck, in longitude 69. 0. and from Cape Sable in north latitude 43. 37. to Cape Anne, in the river of St Lawrence, in latitude 49. 30. It is so indented in the middle by that called the bay of Funda, that the part of the country which is on the south-east of the bay towards the ocean, is a sort of triangular peninsula, only joined by a small isthmus to the other part, which is not much inhabited or known.

Monf. de Lifle, the famous French geographer, varies much in the situation and boundaries of this country. In his map of Canada, published in 1703, Acadia takes in the country of the Etchemins, or Itchemins, who are placed in some of our maps on the west side of the bay of Funda, and a part of the continent larger than the peninsula, extending from latitude 43 to 45. 20; whereas in Monf. De Lifle's general map of America, engraved in 1722, Acadia is confined within the peninsula, and bounded on the north-west by the Gaspesians country. Father Charlevoix makes it 250 leagues in compass. Monf. Bellin, engineer and hydrographer to the Marine Office, for the illustration of CANADA, when in French hands, reports the length of it from Cape Canfo on the east, to Cape Sable on the west, according to their way of reckoning, to be eighty leagues. He says that Mr. Popple's map of this country is not at all correct as to the figure of the ports and bays, and the particular windings of the coasts; but that it is pretty exact in the longitude and latitude, though it places Cape Canfo twenty minutes too far north. La Hontan, another French writer, who made a long stay in North America, gives it a much larger extent than the Canada map just now mentioned, for he includes in it a part of Canada and Gaspesia. According to this author, it is three hundred leagues in length along the sea-coast, from Kennebeck, the frontier river of New England, to the isle Percee, towards the mouth of the river St Lawrence, including the bays of Funda and Chaleurs. But all Acadia, and its dependencies being now annexed to the crown of England, all disputes of this kind between Great-Britain and France have ceased.

To proceed, however, at present, with the state of the country, with regard to its productions and commerce. Here are, says baron la Hontan, a great many little rivers, whose mouths have depth for the largest ships, with good anchorage; they abound with salmon; and that, in most of the rivers and the gulphs with which they communicate, there is plenty of cod-fish; that the four seasons of the year are easily to be distinguished here, but that the three winter months are extremely cold. La Hontan further observes, that almost every part of ACADIA yields corn, fruit, pease, and other pulse; that in several places there are MASTS AS STRONG AS THOSE OF NORWAY; and that, if there were occasion, all kinds of SHIPPING MIGHT BE BUILT HERE, THE OAK TIMBER THAT GROWS HERE BEING BETTER THAN THAT OF EUROPE. The baron, who says here is good hunting, represents it in general to be a fine country, the climate tolerably temperate, the air pure and wholesome, and the water light and clear. Charlevoix, another French writer, says, it abounds with all the necessaries of life, in every season, to subsist the inhabitants without much fatigue. Here is plenty of feathered game, such as partridges, ducks, teal, and bustards; and that, of the latter, vast numbers come to all the islands, and the banks of rivers in April, to build their nests; where our author says, they have eggs enough to subsist the inhabitants at that time, and yet the species does not seem to be much diminished.

At the end of March the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. The herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. Here are multitudes of beavers, otters, and the fish called bass, whose flesh is reckoned as good as veal. In October and November they hunt the two first, and in January they fish for the last. All the coast of the peninsula from Cape Sable on the west, to Cape Canfo on the east, is lined with shoals or sand banks. About November, a sort of fish called Picamo, supposed to be a sea-dog, comes and spawns on the ice, and this is the time when the tortoises also lay their eggs.

The savages, or Indians here, much resemble those of New England; they have, indeed, more of their native barbarity and ignorance than their neighbours, who have more dealings with the French and English.

As some authors have represented this to be as indifferent a country as ever was inhabited by Barbarians, we shall here add what is farther related by F. Charlevoix before-mentioned, in support of the above account given of its general fertility. He says, that Mr. Denys, who published an accurate description of this country, in which he resided a long time, and was proprietary and governor for the French king, of the east coast, reports, THAT ONE SINGLE GRAIN OF WHEAT, SOWN NEAR LA HURVE, PRODUCED 150 EARS, VERY LONG AND SO LOADED, THAT THEY WERE FORCED TO SUPPORT THEM WITH IRON HOOPS. The jesuit adds, that here are mines both of copper, and coal; and that about three fourths of a league from the isle Monano, which shews the way into ST JOHN'S river, on the north side of Funda bay, there is a rock of LAPIS LAZULI, which is almost covered with the sea; and Mr Denys, who saw a piece that had been taken off of it and sent to France, says it was valued at ten crowns an ounce.

Besides the fish already mentioned, here are mackarel, pilchards, shad, trout, sea-cows and whales, in such numbers, that several ship-loads may be taken in a season in the port of Monconadi. The rivers here are also full of the freshwater kind.

This country is strangely indented, on all sides, with bays from the sea. The chief is called the bay of Funda. It breaks above 200 miles into the land from Cape Sable, the most southern point of New Scotland, to the isthmus which joins the peninsula to the continent. According to F. Charlevoix, 'tis two French leagues over to the river of St John, and has a clean shore, with depth of water enough to carry the LARGEST SHIPS TO THE LESSER BAY, on which stands its capital, viz.

Annapolis, which lies in a fair clean bay within the bay of Funda, where there are at least six or seven other good harbours. It was called Port-Royal by Monf. De Monts in 1605, when he brought the French colony hither from St Croix; and it had the name of Annapolis in honour of queen Anne, in whose reign it was taken by the English under colonel Nicholson. F. Charlevoix says, this harbour has but one fault, which is, the difficulty of entering or coming out of it, besides the inconvenience of the frequent fogs here, so that only one ship can pass in or out of it at a time; and that must be with the stern foremost, and with great precaution, by reason of the strong currents and tides. This excepted, says the father, nature has scarce omitted one thing to make it the finest harbour in the world. It is two leagues in length, and one in breadth, having a small island, called Goat-Island, almost in the middle of the basin, which it is said, is able to contain ALL THE SHIPS IN AMERICA. Its depth of water is no where less than four or five fathom, it being six or seven on one side of the island, and on the other sixteen or eighteen. The bottom is every-where good, and ships may be secure in it from all winds. When the French possessed it, they often brought their fishing vessels into it. The place chiefly subsists by the traffic of skins, which the Indians bring down in exchange for European goods. It has also a pretty good trade in lumber and fish.

By the last DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, the islands of CAPE BRETON, ST JOHN'S, and ANTICORTE, and all the DEPENDENCIES of CANADA are annexed to the crown of Great-Britain. By CAPE BRETON, England commands the navigation to CANADA by the RIVER ST. LAWRENCE, and a most excellent additional fishery on this coast, together with several very good harbours for our shipping. This with Canada and all its dependencies, which now belong to this kingdom, cannot fail to prove a considerable acquisition to our maritime power and fisheries, while it diminishes that of France in the like proportion. A most sensible mortification to our most formidable rival in trade and navigation! See the articles AMERICA, CANADA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

NEWFOUNDLAND. This island is of a triangular form, about as big as Ireland, and 310 leagues, or 930 miles in circuit. On the north it is separated from Terra de Labrador, or New Britain, by the strait of Belleisle, which runs north east, and is about twenty-three miles over in its narrowest part. On the west it has the gulph of St Lawrence, and on the south and east, the western, or Atlantic ocean. Cape Race, or Raz, the most southerly point of the island, lies in north latitude 46. 45. the most northern point is in latitude 51. 30. So that the greatest length of the island, from south to north, is 280 miles. Cape Raye, its most westerly point, lies in north latitude 47. 35. and, between it and Cape Race, the distance is about 80 leagues, or 240 miles.

Authors differ widely in the account they give of its climate and produce. Some assert that the sky is almost constantly clear and serene; that here are beautiful forests and verdant fields, covered with strawberries, &c. that the bushes are nothing but raspberries of a delicious taste and flavour; that here are exceeding good waters, very fruitful vales; and that there is here a kind of rye, which grows naturally without culture, and is very nourishing; and that the isle abounds with all sorts of game. Others, on the contrary, represent it as a frightful country, and assert, that the whole island is almost one continued rock, &c. In order to reconcile these opposite descriptions, says F. Charlevoix, we must distinguish the different parts of the isle, which have been visited by Europeans. It is true, adds he, that the southern and eastern coasts do not commonly enjoy a very serene sky, because of their neighbourhood to the great bank, which is almost constantly covered with a thick fog. But in the northern and western parts, the sky is very clear, both in summer and winter. As for the innermost parts of the country, there is nothing certain concerning them, it being almost impossible to travel far into the island. Among those who have travelled farthest, some, perhaps, may have observed beautiful vales, whilst others, who went another way, could perceive nothing but steep and barren rocks.

The chief, and almost only, trade and business here, is fish; whereof there is such plenty in this sea, that all the world almost might be supplied from it, all sorts being taken here in immense quantities; but the principal fishery here regarded is that of cod, whereof at least, six hundred sail of ships are laden every year for France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, England, and other parts. The main fishery is on the Great Bank, of which presently; and on the other banks about this island,

island, as also all along the coast. The fishing season is from spring till September.

Train oil is drawn off the livers of the fish, which are thrown up in heaps, when the cod is cured; and from thence is drawn all the oil that comes from Newfoundland.

There are two sorts of trades in this navigation; the one, and perhaps the most profitable, considering the risk is less, is that driven by the fisheries themselves, who only visit and man their ships at Biddeford, Pool, Dartmouth, and other western ports chiefly, and go away early to fish, having the hands and the ships necessary. The other is, when the masters sail directly to Newfoundland, to purchase cargoes of fish of the above-mentioned fishers, or of the inhabitants off their stages. These traders purchase their cargoes with bills of exchange, at two months date, which are very seldom protested. The fish that is shipped for Great-Britain and Ireland, is inconsiderable, in comparison of what is sent to Portugal, Spain, and Italy. Some fish is also shipped for Barbadoes, and the other Sugar-Islands. Besides the great profit which particular merchants make by this fishery, considering the seamen it constantly breeds, the tradesmen it maintains, and the shipping it requires, the increase of the national stock is no less than 3 or 400,000 l. yearly; for a ship of an hundred tons with the charge only of victual, and fishing-tackle for twenty hands, shall bring to market in Portugal, Spain, or Italy 3000 l. worth of fish, and clear frequently not less than 2000 l. to the proprietors; so that an hundred and fifty such ships only will clear 300,000 l. and consequently increase the publick and private stock so much. In the year 1696, the English, says Charlevoix, had several considerable settlements here, chiefly on the eastern coast of the island, and had contrived roads through the woods, for an easy communication of these settlements with each other. Here were several very rich inhabitants, and they traded yearly for 17,000,000 of livres; that is, above 900,000 l. sterling, considering the French money was then much higher than it is at present.

There are a great many fine bays all round Newfoundland, but those on the east and south coasts are best known. Those on the east side are Bonavist, Trinity, and Conception, which stretch themselves to the south-west; Torbay, Capelin, St John's harbour, the bay of Bulls, Fresh-water bay, and others; for there is no shore in the world better accommodated with excellent harbours, and the bays on the east and south coasts are so near each other, that nothing could be more commodious for an easy communication, were there inhabitants that wanted it. At Bonavista the English had a settlement so well fortified, considering the country, that after the French had made themselves masters of a great part of Newfoundland, in the year 1696, they did not dare to attack that place.

St John's harbour is very fine, and capacious enough for two hundred sail of shipping; its entrance is not above half a musquet shot wide, lies between two very high mountains, and was, in 1696, defended by a battery of eight guns.

On the south shore are the bays of Biscay, St Mary, Placentia, bay of Fortune, or St Peter's, and the bay of Deshair, going from east to west; but the most famous and considerable of them is the bay of Placentia, of which Charlevoix gives the following description.

This bay is ten leagues deep, and the harbour is at the bottom of it. The entrance of it is a narrow channel, through which but one ship can pass at a time; but it is deep enough for the largest vessels, and the harbour can contain a hundred and fifty ships, which ride there secure against all winds, and can pass as quietly as in any river. Before the narrow channel, there is a road of a league and half in extent, but exposed to the north-north-westerly wind, which blows very often upon that coast, and is almost constantly tempestuous. What makes the channel so narrow, is a ridge of dangerous rocks, which must be left on the right-hand, and above which the French had built a fort, called St Lewis. The currents are very strong here, so that ships must be towed through the channel.

The great strand, or drying place for fish, which is about a league in extent, lies between two steep hills, one of which, on the south-south-west, is separated from the strand by a small rivulet, which runs out of the channel, and forms a kind of lake that is called the Little Bay. Here they catch plenty of salmon. The great strand may contain at once wherewithal to load threecore ships. There is another lesser strand for the use of the inhabitants, who fish all along the coast. On both these places fish may be laid to dry without danger.

Along the abovementioned rivulet, the French built huts to dry their fish in rainy weather. The houses of the inhabitants were near this place, and formed a street, which was the town of Placentia. Fort St Lewis rendered the French formerly masters of all the southern parts of Newfoundland, and of the island of St Peter, which lie over-against it, and were inhabited. The people of St Malo used to fish a little farther, at a place called Petit Nord. The cod is less there than in the bay of Placentia, but more proper for the Mediterranean and Levant traders.

The great bank of Newfoundland is a vast mountain, concealed under water, lying about six hundred leagues west of France. Mr Denys, author of a good treatise on North America, and a very useful book, gives this bank a hundred and fifty leagues from north to south: but, according to the most accurate sea charts, its southern extremity lies in or about the 41st degree of north latitude, and its northern extremity in 49. 25. The truth is, that these two extremities are so pointed, that it is not easy to mark its limits that way. Its greatest breadth, from east to west, is about ninety marine English leagues, between 42. 30. 51. 30 of longitude west from London. Some sailors have asserted, that they have anchored there in five fathom, which is contrary to the Sieur Denys, who pretends that the depth is twenty-five fathom; it is certain, that in some places it has sixty.

Whatever be the dimensions or figure of this bank, it is covered with a vast quantity of shells, and several kinds of fish of all sizes, most of which serve for food to the cod-fish, whose number here seems to equal the grains of sand on the bank itself. Between two and three hundred vessels have loaded here annually for two centuries, and yet this vast consumption has produced no alteration in their plenty. It would however, adds Charlevoix; be proper to discontinue this fishery from time to time, especially as THE GULPH AND RIVER OF ST LAWRENCE, THE COAST OF ACADIA, OR NOVA SCOTIA, CAPE BRETON, AND NEWFOUNDLAND, AROUND WITH COD, AS WELL AS THE GREAT BANK: THESE ARE TRUE MINES, OF GREATER VALUE, AS WELL AS CHEAPER WROUGHT, THAN THOSE OF MEXICO AND PERU.

The next bank is called the Green Bank; the author of the British Empire in America asserts, that it is about two hundred and forty miles long, and a hundred and twenty miles over; but, by the charts, we do not find it above an hundred and twenty miles long, and about fifty over, where broadest; it lies off the south coast of Newfoundland. The other banks are not considerable enough to deserve particular notice, and their shape and situation may be seen in some good sea-chart, whose proper business it is to describe sands and soundings.

REMARKS.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, all CANADA, and its DEPENDENCIES, the RIVER ST LAWRENCE, the COASTS OF ACADIA, OR NOVA SCOTIA, and CAPE BRETON, are ceded and annexed to the crown of GREAT BRITAIN; and therefore this treaty has added those NEW MINES of treasure to this kingdom; of which we shall daily reap the advantage; and what well deserves our serious consideration is, that the treaty which has procured us the benefits, seems to have long secured them to us. For being now sole masters of all ACADIA, and its DEPENDENCIES, and sole masters likewise of all CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES, what single power is now able to contend with us in these parts of America? The French will not attempt it by virtue of their possessions of the small islands of ST PETER'S and MIQUELON, where it is expressly stipulated, that they are not to keep more guard than 50 men for the police, nor to erect any kind of fortification, these islands being given to France only as a shelter for their fishermen. Article VI. of the said treaty.

By the XVIIIth article of the same treaty, his Catholick Majesty desists, as well for himself, as for his successors, from all pretensions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guisacoans, and other his subjects, TO THE RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NEWFOUNDLAND. England, therefore, having no other power to contend with, who possess any territories in these parts, but France, and those being so trivial, they will scarce attempt to contend with this nation there: but if Spain were to join them in any future rupture with these kingdoms, they are not likely to be any great gainers by it; for our possessions in the gulphs of FLORIDA and MEXICO, may endanger the loss of their Havana again; and then, perhaps, that may share the same fate that CAPE BRETON has done.

From this account of the trade of our colonies in North America, I shall pass on to that of our island colonies, which we have not already taken notice of.

In regard to that of Jamaica, which is one of the principal, we refer the reader to the ANTILLES ISLANDS, where we have considered that already; as we have also that of the BAHAMA and BERMUDAS ISLANDS, under their proper titles. And although the rest of the islands, belonging to Great-Britain, are ranked under the general name of the Caribbees; yet, in order to take a full view of the trade of British America together, we judge it necessary, to consider those of the Caribbees distinctly which belong to us. Whereby we shall omit none under this general article, except the Bahama and Bermudas, and Jamaica; the trade of which latter being much like to that of Barbadoes, we cannot fail having such an idea of the whole, as will answer our design in considering British America together. See also ANTILLES. The island of ST CHRISTOPHER'S. This island, called by our sailors St Kitt's, lies between latitude 17. 10. and 17. 40. and the middle of the island in longitude 62. 40. west from London,

London, and is about ten miles north of Nevis, and fourteen leagues from Antigua. Father Tertre, who gives a particular map of it, makes it near eight French leagues, from east to west, and two and a half from north to south where broadest; but the truest length is twenty-five miles and a half, and the greatest breadth seven: yet in one part, towards the salt-ponds, at the south-east end, it is but half a mile over. The air here is sultry, but pleasant and healthful, being agreeably tempered with cool breezes. 'Tis represented by some as one of the most delightful islands. The soil is light and sandy, and proper not only for the cultivation of tobacco and sugar, but for cotton, ginger, and fruit of all sorts. 'Tis well supplied with springs, and has some hot baths. The vallies and sides of the hills are very fertile, but the mountains of a sulphureous composition, and overgrown for the most part with palmettoes, cotton-trees, lignum vitæ, and various other sorts.

At the south-east end of the island, there is an isthmus that runs into the sea, within a mile and an half of Nevis, where are salt-ponds, which produce a grain that is perfectly white, and more corrosive than the French.

The soil abounds with maize, pine-apples, tamarinds, plantains, prickled pears, pease and apples, all differing from ours. Here are two sorts of cotton, that grows on a small stalk, and is as soft as down; the other grows on a shrub in a cod, bigger than a walnut. The indigo grows here in cods nine or ten in a bunch, and is very good for dyers. Here are wild sugarcanes four or five feet high, mastic and locust-trees, gourds, musk-melons, water-melons, lettuce, parsley, and purslain; with the manchinel-tree, and sea-berries of the size of a musket-bullet, that wash as white as soap. They have a very good fruit called pengromes, another papaw. They have large trees, whose leaves make good mustard, but they bear no feed. Here are abundance of good figs, together with the cassava-root, potatoes, radishes, and plenty of cabbages.

Though St Christopher's is the largest of all the Leeward Islands, yet the middle part of it is so mountainous, that 'tis believed it has not above 24,000 acres of land fit for sugar, of which 'tis reckoned to produce about 10,000 hogheads one year with another. 'Tis computed that it makes above three hogheads of this commodity to one of rum; though, were there a demand for it 'tis able to make a much greater quantity, if we may credit the declaration of a gentleman of distinction of this island, to the committee on the sugar-colony bill, Anno 1731, who said, that himself alone had made 2000 gallons in one year, and that, if he had encouragement, he could make 20,000 gallons. The great salt-pond here is supposed to contain above fourscore acres. The sun so exhales it in excessive hot weather, that the crust of salt which it leaves at the bottom, exactly resembles pieces of rock crystal.

It's animals are generally the same as those in the other Caribbee-Islands. From May to September here is plenty of tortoises, guana's, and land crabs, and they abound with other sorts of fish.

The Island of Nevis is but three or four miles due south-east, from the south point of St Christopher's. It is about six leagues in circumference, and has only one mountain in the middle of it, which is very high, but has a commodious ascent, and is covered with plantations, and great trees all around, from the sea-side to the top.

The soil is fruitful, and even more so than St Christopher's. It's product is much the same as in the other Caribbee-Islands. Sugar, which is the staple commodity here as well as there, serves for all the uses that money does. All the trade of the island is managed by it, and pounds of sugar, instead of pounds sterling, serve in exchange for other commodities instead of money. Tobacco, cotton, and ginger, were much cultivated at first, but of late very trifling; and such large quantities of sugar have been made here, that fifty or sixty ships have been laden with it in a year for Europe.

Mr Smith, rector of St John's town in this island, says, in his Natural History of these islands, that Nevis produces a tree called dogwood, whose bark is much in request for fish-catching. The fish most preferred here is the cavaly, a very firm sea-fish, deep-bodied, which weighs four or five pounds, and tastes like a mackarel. That which is reckoned the richest is the mud-fish. Here are various kinds of turtle, but none of them eatable except the green.

The sheep of this island have no horns nor wool, but an hairy and smooth skin, and spotted. Their porkers, being fed with Indian corn, Spanish potatoes, and sugar-cane juice, are exceeding sweet food, white and fat; and so are the fowls and turkeys, which are fed with the same diet. Some of these, together with geese and ducks, are brought from the northern colonies; but they have plenty of Muscovy ducks of their own breeding.

They breed all their other provisions, such as rabbits, veal, &c. but their Irish salt beef, hams, pickled salmon, sturgeon, and oysters, are brought to them from Europe, and the northern colonies.

The whites here now are computed at about 3000, and the negroes at three times that number, of whom at least 4000 are employed in the sugar trade.

Though much shipping comes to it, yet there is no good harbour in the whole island, nor any good anchoring, except on the south-west side, where are several rocks and shoals, between which ships ride with safety, except in case of hurricanes, when they put out to sea, and, if possible, run into Antigua.

The Island of ANTIGUA. This island, which lies to the east of Nevis and St Christopher's, in about 61 degrees, 40 minutes of west longitude, and 17. 30. north latitude, is almost of a circular form, being about six leagues from east to west, and near six from north to south, or twenty miles each way, according to some, and near sixty miles in circumference. 'Tis more remarkable for good harbours, than all the English islands in those seas, yet so encompassed with rocks, that 'tis of dangerous access in many parts of it, especially for matters of ships that are not well acquainted with the coast.

The climate is hotter than that of Barbadoes, and very liable to hurricanes. The soil is sandy, and much of it overgrown with wood; and, what is worse, there are but few springs, and not so much as a single brook in the island; so that it's chief dependance for fresh water is from rain, for which it is sometimes distressed: yet, for all these natural disadvantages, 'tis a very considerable and thriving plantation. It's product is much the same with that of the other Caribbee-Islands. Sugar, tobacco, indigo, and ginger, were it's principal commodities, when it was first planted, but the two latter are now seldom cultivated. Their sugar was, at first, so black and coarse, that, our sugar-bakers scorned to put it into their coppers, it was generally shipped off for Holland and Hamburgh, where it fetched but 16 s. a hundred, when other muscovado sugar fetched 18 or 19 s. But the planters here have so far improved their art, that as good muscovado sugar is now made here as in any of the sugar-Islands, and they have also learned the art of claying it.

This island contains about 70,000 acres, and produces 16,000 hogheads of sugar one year with another, but does not make quite half so much rum as it does sugar, though 'tis so capable of farther improvement, that 'tis believed, for good reasons, that, if there were proper encouragement, the product of the former might be enlarged one fifth part, and that of the latter near half.

They don't plant any great quantity of tobacco; but what they do is better than it was formerly, when it was sold for nothing but to make snuff. The wild cinnamon is said to grow in their low lands, or Savanna woods.

This island has more venison than any of our other Caribbee-Islands, with plenty of fowl and black cattle: it has most of the animals in the country and on it's coasts, that are common to the other islands.

The Island of MONTSEERAT lies 25 miles almost south-south-east from Nevis, and 20 west-south-west from Antigua, 40 north-west from Guardaloupe, and 240 from Barbadoes.

'Tis of an oval figure, and about 3 leagues in length, and the same in breadth, and about 18 miles in compass. It's mountains are covered with cedars, acajous, acomes, cypres-trees, the iron tree, and the musk-herb, which grows like brambles, without thorns, and bears yellow flowers, which afterwards turns to cods full of seeds, that smell like musk. It's vallies are well watered and fruitful, but it's climate and soil are much the same with those of the other islands; as are also it's animals and commerce. It makes some sugar, but not so fine as that of Jamaica and Barbadoes. It's chief produce is indigo, of which great quantities used to be exported to England, but it is declined of late years. In short, it is a well planted island, and pretty much frequented by ships; though 'tis so surrounded with rocks, that the riding before it is very precarious; and it has no place that can properly be called a haven; so that, in case of the approach of a tornado, ships that happen to be on the coast, must immediately put out to sea, and make to St Christopher's one way, or Antigua the other.

In 1668, when the French had taken Antigua, they attacked this island with a great force, under M. de la Barre, and, after much loss, took it, by the treachery of the savages. The English having made a gallant defence, and killed so many of the brave officers of the French, the enemy set fire to every thing, except what belonged to the Irish (whose governor was the first who submitted); so that above 40 sugar-houses, and several warehouses, full of rich merchandize, were destroyed. This island was afterwards restored to the English, attacked again by the French, and, after plundering and wasting the island at pleasure, they remove to Guardaloupe. It was stipulated, however, by the 11th article of the treaty of peace at Utrecht, that the French should make the English sufferers satisfaction for their losses by this rapine: but it does not appear what they obtained, or whether any thing.

In 1733, this island suffered greatly by an hurricane. About three years after this, General Matthews, the governor of the Leeward-Islands, being in person upon this island, an act was passed, by the governor, council, and assembly, for the more effectual preventing all trade in these parts, between the British subjects and the French. Which was owing to the complaints of an illicit traffic that had been carried on, between the French and British sugar-islands; contrary to the

5th and 6th articles of the treaty betwixt England and France, on the 6th of November, 1686; and to an act of parliament of the 6th of his late majesty's reign, intitled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar colonies in America; and to a particular article in General Matthews's instructions, by which he was commanded to take care, that none of the French subjects be allowed to trade from their said settlements, to any of the islands under his government, or fish upon their coasts. Some of our other sugar-islands had connived too much at the infraction of these orders; and 'tis observed, to the honour of this little island of Montserrat, that it set a good example to all the other Caribbees, by being the first island which exerted the vigour of its constitution, in confirming these orders by the abovementioned law of its own making; in pursuance of which, several French ships were afterwards seized and condemned there, by its court of admiralty.

The Island of BARBADOES. This island is not only one of the chief of the Caribbees, and the most considerable of all the British islands in America, next to Jamaica, but was also the first settled, and the mother of all the British sugar-colonies. Geographers differ much about its situation. According to the best sea-charts, it is but 20 leagues east from St Vincent, which may be seen from it in a clear day; 25 from St Lucia, and a little more from Martinico; 100 leagues from St Christopher's, 60 north from Trinidad, 80 from Cape de Salines, the nearest part to it on the continent, and but a day and an half's sail from the Dutch colony of Surinam. Mr Bowen, his late majesty's geographer, lays it down betwixt longitude 59. 50. and 60. 2. west from London; and betwixt north latitude 12. 56. and 13. 16. According to the Rev. and learned Mr Hughes, in his Natural History of this island, the greatest extent of it is from latitude 13. 10. to latitude 13. 23. and from Longitude west of London, 58. 49. $\frac{3}{4}$. to longitude 59. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The climate of this island is very hot, especially for eight months in the year, but not so excessive as in the same latitude on the continent; because, though they have no land-breezes, yet there are others which arise from the sea with the sun, and increase as it advances to, but abate as it declines from, the meridian.

There's scarce a harbour in the island, except that of Bridgetown in Carlisle bay; nor a stream that deserves the name of a river; though there are two on the east side of the island, called Scotland river, and Joseph's river. They have wells of good water, almost all over the island, without digging very deep for it; and they have large ponds and reservoirs, for rain-water. 'Tis for the most part a plain level country, with some small hills, whose woods have been all cut down, to make room for plantations of sugar-canes, which now take up almost the whole island, and render it the most valuable plantation to Great-Britain for its size, that it ever possessed.

When they first began to plant here, they produced a considerable crop yearly, from three years to nine, without farther trouble, but only weeding and cleaning the soil; and every acre, one with another, yielded 10 s. a year profit to the national stock of England, besides what the planters got, and the thousands that were maintained out of it, both here and there. But the soil, of late years, is not so fertile as it was; and, to mend it, they employ tame cattle for the sake of manure; but not many; because land employed this way, gives not one tenth of its value. For the method of cultivating these canes, see the article SUGAR.

Here are all sorts of oranges and lemons, sweet, sour, and Seville, in abundance; the fruit of which is large, and the juice delicious. Citron-trees also abound here. With the rind of this fruit, the Barbadoes ladies make the most delicate cordials and sweet-meats. Limes are in great plenty here. Fruit in general is become a staple commodity, so that some tons have been imported into England and Ireland in a year. The tamarind and palm-trees were brought here about 70 years ago. Here are the bananas, and the pine-apple, described elsewhere, aloes, mongrove, and calabash-trees; the cotton, cedar, mastic, and bulley-trees: also the sugar-apples, four-top, and shaddock, described in Jamaica; together with the cocoa-tree, of whose shells are made cups, and of the nut-chocolate. Other trees and shrubs of value are, the fig-tree, the cassia-fistula, the physic-nut, the prickled apple, the prickled pear, the pomegranate, the papa, the guava, the custard-apple, the macow-tree, the royal palmetto, and the less. The locust-tree, whose timber is used for wind-mills, and other uses in building; the iron-wood, lignum-vitæ, red-wood, and prickled yellow wood, the plantain-tree, or shrub, the anchovy-apple, the date-tree, the bay-tree, guana-trees, and soap-berries.

Some of the chief plants are ginger, and red pepper of two sorts. Here are grapes, but not so good as in the northern colonies; cucumbers, melons, the sensible plant, the humble plant, the dumb cane; with leeks, and almost all other roots and garden-stuff, brought hither originally from England. They abound also with curious flowers of most kinds. They have coach-horses from Old England, saddle-horses from New England, and others for carts and common uses, from

Bonavista, the Cape Verd-Islands, and Curassaw. They have, when the wind changes to the south-fourth-west, great flocks of wild fowl come in from the continent; such as plovers, curlews, snipes, wild pigeons, wild ducks, and teal. The neighbouring sea abounds with most sorts of fish, besides the green turtle, which is the most delicious of all; particularly parrot-fish, snappers, red and grey cavallos, terbums, coney-fish, mullets, mackarel, lobsters, and crabs. In the fresh waters here, are cray-fish, maid-fish, grigs, prawns, and several fish that come into them out of the sea; as cop-tamies, snooks, plaice, dolphins, barricados, king's fish, and the flying-fish.

The Barbadians trade with New England, Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, and Virginia, not only for lumber, but for bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, salt-beef and pork, fish, pulse, and other provisions; with Guinea for negroes; with Madeira for wine; with Tercera and Fayal, for wine and brandy; with the isles of May and Curassaw for salt, and with Ireland for beef and pork. The other goods, which they import from Great Britain and Ireland, are onaburgs, which are the chief wear of their servants and slaves; linnens of all sorts, with broad cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers, and their families; silks and stuffs, for their ladies and household servants; red caps for their slaves, male and female, stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and hats, millenary ware and perriwigs; laces for linnen, wool-len, and silks; pease, beans, and oats, from our western counties, and bisket from London; also wine of all sorts; strong beer (which they have also from New England) and pale ale; pickles, candles, butter and cheese; iron-ware for their sugar-works, such as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, planes, gouges, augres, hand-bills, drawing-knives, nails, and all sorts of leaden ware; powder and shot, and brass and copper wares: but Birmingham wares, though good commodities, soon rust and canker*, by the evening damps of this climate; and to this moisture of the air 'tis imputed, that clocks and watches seldom go right in this island.

* This is what our Birmingham and Sheffield manufacturers should be very solicitous to prevent, if any thing in nature could be discovered that would effectually do it, without defacing the beautiful polish of iron and steel.

They import also from Great Britain all sorts of India goods and toys, coals, pantiles, hearth-stones, hoops, and every thing proper for an English market, will sell here, the difference of the climate always considered. Servants who are volunteers, and not transports, go off well here, especially mechanics; and, if very good ones, are worth 25 and 30 l. a piece, for their five years servitude. Butter, oil, candles, liquors, and provisions, are generally shipped from hence for this island, about Michaelmas. The voyage is commonly five or six weeks outward bound, and six or seven homeward. The packets generally make it in a month. The planters send to Guinea guns, powder, and arms, perpetuana's, tallow, &c. and all wearing apparel, which they have from England; and dispatch small vessels thither to bring slaves for their plantations, which require to be recruited every year with 20 or 30 negroes to every 4 or 500 acres.

Madeira wine being the chief drink of the gentry, there are about 3000 pipes of these, Malmey and Vidonia wines, imported into this island in a year, either by the London merchants, or the Barbadians themselves. And 'tis observable, that the Madeira wine drank in England, which usually comes round by Barbadoes in a time of war with France, is better than what comes to us directly from Madeira, which is flat and palled.

In regard to the exports of this island, the staple commodity is sugars. Before the civil wars, the trade of this island used to be open and free, and the Dutch ships came hither to purchase sugars, as well as the English; which freedom of trade made money very plenty in the colony: but, several acts of Parliament having been made after the Restoration, confining the trade of all the sugar-colonies to Great-Britain and British ships only, it rendered London the chief mart in Europe for sugars: and, as more were imported every year than was necessary for home consumption, the surplus was exported to foreign markets by our merchants; who thereby underfold the Portuguese, who before used to supply all Europe with their Brazil sugars, and, in process of time, beat them out of all their sugar-trade to the northward of Cape Finisterre.

In the reign of king Charles II. especially about 1676, the Barbadoes trade actually employed 400 sail of ships, of 150 tons one with another, every year: and it was computed, that the running cash of the island was about 200,000 l. and their annual exportation to Great-Britain, in sugar, ginger, indigo, and other commodities, at least 350,000 l. The money brought into the nation in the year last mentioned, by the export of the commodities only brought hither from Barbadoes, was allowed to be above 200,000 l. and 'twas agreed, that as much, or more, had been gained every year betwixt that time and the Restoration. It has been computed by a very judicious gentleman, that the nation acquired, at least,

two millions of money by Barbadoes, betwixt the years 1636 and 1656; that, in the following twenty years to 1676, the gain by it must have been four millions: and our author, allowing for the gradual declension of it's trade since, by many cross accidents, and particularly by settling the French sugar-colonies, computing the last sixty years, viz. from 1676, to 1736, at the same rate as he did the first twenty years, the gain will then amount to six millions: so that, says he, in the space of a hundred years, the inhabitants of Great-Britain have received twelve millions of silver by means of this plantation; and had 50,000 of her inhabitants maintained, all that time, by the people of this colony. It appears, from his remarks on the state of the sugar-colonies, that the Barbadians, in 1730, exported hither 22,769 hogheads of sugar, each weighing 13 hundred weight; of which, near 18000 hogheads came into the port of London only; and that they made 340,391 l. clear profit of the whole; because 'twas proved, that the rum and molasses paid all the charges of a plantation.

As to indigo, which was shipped hence not a great many years ago, there's now little or none made here; but of scraped and scalded ginger they make great quantities, and have abundance of cotton-shrubs, a commodity whereof the slaves make hammocks. They also ship lignum vitæ, succats, citron-water, molasses, rum, and lime-juice, for England.

The inhabitants of this island are of three classes, viz. the masters (who are either English, Scots, or Irish, with some few Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Jews) the white servants, and the black slaves. The masters are the planters and merchants; both clergy and laity, lawyers, physicians, &c. live very elegantly; the white servants are either by covenant or purchase, and are of two sorts; such as sell themselves in Great-Britain or Ireland, for four years or more, and such as are felons transported. When the term of the covenant servants is expired, the British servants have each 5 l. the others but 40 s. Their work is not so hard as that of our day-labourers, yet their encouragement is greater; and, if they are good for any thing, they may be employed upon their own terms, when their time is out. The servitude of the blacks is perpetual; yet great care is taken of them, because, if a negro dies, 'tis 40 or 50 l. loss to the owner: whereas, by the death of a white servant, he loses only two or three years wages to another. The business of the blacks lies mostly in the field, excepting those who are taken into their sugar-mills, store-houses, and dwelling-houses; where the handomest, neatest maids, are bred to menial services, and the cleverest fellows to be coachmen, grooms, and lackeys. Others of them are often employed in handicrafts, as coopers, joiners, masons, &c. A slave who is a good mechanic, is worth 150, or 200 l. and even 400 l. has been given for a skilful sugar-boiler. The negroes are purchased by lots out of the Guinea ships, after being all viewed stark-naked, and are allowed two or three wives, that they may propagate and increase the planter's flock; for their posterity to all generations are slaves, unless they have their liberties given them.

The island of St VINCENT, lies 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, and is said to be of the same form as Ferro, one of the Canary-Islands. 'Tis about 8 leagues in length, 6 in breadth, and 18 or 20 in compass. 'Tis computed to be 10 leagues south-south-east from the Reed river, in the Basse-Terre of St Lucia of this island. There are several mountains on it, with plains at the bottom, which, if cultivated, would be very fruitful.

According to Labat, this island has a deep, fat, free soil, capable of producing every thing almost that can be desired. It has abundance of rivulets and springs, of the best water in the world; large straight trees of all the kinds that are produced in America; and tobacco is cultivated here, which is reckoned not inferior to that of Vermé, near the Caraccas; together with mandioca, potatoes, ignamos, gourds, the finest large melons, and Turkey wheat. To which the same historian adds, when this island was supposed to belong to France, that if any of the French could but agree with some of the old Caribbeans here for some pieces of ground, and only apply to the breeding of poultry, swine, and cabrittoes, they might soon raise a fortune, without stirring off the island; because the Martinicans would not fail to come in their vessels, and take them off at their own price, either in money or goods: by which means, says he, a trade might also be opened, to good advantage, with the industrious negroes of the Cabes-Terre in that island; who might be induced, in time, to put themselves under the French king's protection, and even to pay him tribute. Great profit might also be made of the timber on this island, of which there is a vast stock of all kinds: and indigo thrives here to a miracle. Nor does he doubt but the soil would be very proper for the cultivation of cocoa-trees, enough even to furnish the other islands, which carry their money or goods for it to the Spaniards on the coast of the Caraccas.

REMARKS.

By the IXth. article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763,

this island of St VINCENT, together with DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, which were heretofore termed NEUTRAL ISLANDS, is ceded in full right to his BRITANNICK MAJESTY: also the islands of GRANADA and the GRANADINES, are, by the same treaty, become BRITISH ISLANDS, which before were FRENCH.

To obtain which acquisitions to the crown of Great-Britain, the FRENCH are, by the said treaty, to possess the other NEUTRAL ISLAND of St LUCIA, and to have the conquests of MARTINICO and GUADALUPE, &c. restored.

The many years disputes and contentions, that GREAT-BRITAIN and FRANCE have heretofore had concerning these NEUTRAL ISLANDS, are now FINALLY DETERMINED in the most explicit manner; the nature of which disputes may be proper to appear in the sequel of this article; as it stood in the old edition.

DOMINICA

Lies much about half-way between Guardaloupe on the north-west, and Martinico on the south-east, viz. about 15 leagues from each; extends from north-west to south-east, and is about 13 leagues in length, and near as much over where broadest. Labat says it is from 30 to 35 leagues in compass. It is divided, like Martinico and Guardaloupe, and some other of the Caribbee islands, into the Cabes Terre and Basse-Terre, and the soil much of the same nature. He says the soil is good, and the slopes of the hills, which bear the finest trees in the world, are proper for the production of plants; so that some have reported it to be one of the best of the Caribbees, for its fruitful valleys, large plains, and fine rivulets. The Cabes-Terre is watered with a good number of fresh water rivers, abounding with choice fish. It has a sulphur-mountain, like that at Guardaloupe, but not near so high. There are but two or three places, in that part called Basse-Terre, that are tolerable; the most considerable of which is called the Great Savanna. It produces mandioca, cassava, bananos, and the finest figs. They have potatoes and ignamos in abundance, with a great deal of millet and cotton. Here are great numbers of ring-doves, partridges and ortolans. They breed hogs and poultry, and of the former two sorts of wild ones, descended from such as first came from France and Spain. Here are the finest and largest eels in the world.

The Caribbeans retiring hither, for most part, as they were drove out of the other islands by the Europeans, they are therefore more numerous here than in any of the rest of the Leeward Islands; but in 1700 Labat did not compute them at much above 2000, including women and children. The anchorage is good all round the coast of Dominica, but it has no good port or bay to retire to; all the advantage it has, is the shelter which ships find behind some of its capes. The French always opposed the attempts of the English to settle here, because it would enable them, in time of war, to cut off the communication betwixt Martinico and Guardaloupe; so that it serves for wood and water.

Tobago, another of the Caribbee Islands in the American ocean, situated 20 miles north-east of the island of Trinity, and 120 miles south of the island of Barbadoes, being about 52 miles long and 12 broad. It is a very desirable and fruitful island, and capable of producing sugar, and every thing that the best of the Caribbee Islands produce.

GRANADA.

This island, ceded to England, lies in west longitude 61 degrees 40 minutes, and north latitude 12 degrees; 20 leagues north-west from Trinidade, about 65 miles north-west from Tobago, and 30 leagues north of New Andalusia on the continent, to which this is the nearest of all the British islands in the Antilles. It extends from north to south in form of a crescent, being nine or ten leagues in length, and about five where broadest. Father Tertre judges it to be as big again as St Christopher's, and about 24 leagues in compass. Labat says, they who have travelled round it, make the circumference at most 22.

The missionaries Tertre and Labat give the following account of its natural history. This island enjoys a good air, and a soil so fruitful, that all the trees which cover it, both for fruit and timber, are better, straighter, higher, and bigger than in the neighbouring islands, except the cocoa tree, which does not grow so high here as in the other islands. It has salt-pits, and abundance of armadillos, whose flesh is as good as mutton, and the chief food of the inhabitants; besides tortoises and lamantins. The coast is full of fine vales, watered with good rivers, most of which run from a lake at the top of a high mountain in the middle of the island, where is a low shore, with good anchorage, at 12 leagues distance, but an exceeding strong current, which both ebbs and flows in a few hours.

There are several bays and harbours round the island, which serve for moorings of ships, and the landing of goods; and some of the harbours are fortified. All the east coast is very safe, close by the shore, and the island is not subject to hurricanes. In short, 'tis capable of producing all the commodities of the climate. Its particular articles, besides cattle and wild-fowl, are sugar, ginger, indigo and tobacco, millet and pease. There are mountains along the shore, and about the harbour

where the habitations are; but all the rest is a very fine country, and there is good travelling, either for horse or carriage. Its chief port, called Lewis, stands in the middle of a large bay, on the west side of the island, which has a sandy bottom, where 1000 barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride safe from storms; and the harbour will hold 100 ships of 1000 tons moored. There is a great round basin near the harbour, parted from it by a bank of sand, which, if cut, would be capable of holding a very great number of vessels: but by reason of this sand-bank, great ships are obliged to pass within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains, which are at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile asunder. On one of these a fort is erected, with a half moon in front, and other regular works, all of good stone.

DOMINICA is an island in the governor of Barbadoes's commission; it lies in 50 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and is about 40 miles long and 40 miles over, where it is broadest. This island being a place of little trade at present, and serving occasionally only for wood and water, we shall only observe, that, as this nation pretends to have a right of sovereignty, it should be maintained in fact, and not only by words and formal orders.

BARBUDA is an island that lies in 17 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. It is about 15 miles long, lying north-east from Montserrat.

The land is low and fruitful, and the English began to plant it as early as Nevis, Montserrat, or any other of the Leeward islands, St Christopher's excepted; for Sir Thomas Warner, who first settled there, placed a small colony in this island; but the Caribbeans disturbed them so much, that they were often forced to desert it and their plantations. There hardly passed a year but they made incursions; and the damage the English sustained made them weary of dwelling in a place where they were so much exposed to the fury of the barbarians, who diminishing daily in number, and the Europeans increasing, the English again possessed themselves of Barbuda, where there are at present about 1000 or 1200 inhabitants.

The proprietary is the honourable Christopher Coddington, Esq; and he puts in a governor here, having the same prerogative as the other lords proprietaries in their several jurisdictions in America.

This isle has bred great store of cattle, and the inhabitants employ themselves mostly in that sort of husbandry, corn and provisions coming almost always to a good market in the sugar-islands.

There is plenty of all sorts of tame cattle, as in Europe, and the English live here much after the same manner as they do in the counties of England, only their labour in the field is not so hard as here, the country being so much hotter.

ANGUILLA, ANGUIS INSULA, or SNAKE-ISLAND, so called from its figure, being a long tract of earth, but narrow, winding almost about, near St Martin's, from whence it may easily be seen. It lies in 18 degrees 21 minutes.

This country is level and woody, the soil fruitful, and the tobacco that grew there formerly was reckoned very good in its kind. The inhabitants were originally poor, and do not seem desirous of being otherwise: for they are the laziest creatures in the world. Some have gone from Barbadoes, and the other English Caribbee islands, thither; and there they live, like the first race of men, without government or religion, having no minister, nor governor, no magistrates, no law, and no property worth keeping, if a French author is to be believed: *L'isle n'est pas estimée valoir la peine qu'on la garde, ny qu'on la cultive*; the island is not thought worth the trouble of defending or cultivating: in which, perhaps, the Frenchman is mistaken; for, the soil being good, if an industrious people were in possession of it, they would soon make it worth defending.

The way of the present inhabitants is to take no care for any thing but food and raiment, which are both ordinary enough. They marry after the old fashion of nature: they have no lawyers to put them to the expence of jointures, nor priests to see for licences. Though they are poor, they seem perfectly contented, and may be as happy as the inhabitants of Peru and Mexico.

REMARKS upon British America in general.

As to the several constitutions of the British colonies in America, we shall give them in the representation of his majesty's board of trade to the house of lords, of January 27, 1733-4, which is as follows:

Many of the British colonies in America, say their lordships, are immediately under the government of the crown, namely Nova Scotia, New Hampshire, the Jerseys, New York, Virginia, and the two Carolina's, Bermuda, and the Summer Islands, Bahama Islands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward Islands.

Others are vested in proprietors, as Pennsylvania and Maryland, and not long since the Bahama's and the two Carolina's. There are likewise three charter-governments, the chief of which is the province of Massachusetts-Bay, commonly called New England, the constitution whereof is of a mixed nature, the power being divided between the king and the people, in which the latter have much the greater share; for

here the people do not only chuse the assembly, as in other colonies, but the assembly chuse the council also: and the governor depends upon the assembly for his annual support, which has too frequently laid the governors of this province under temptations of giving up the prerogative of the crown, and the interest of Great-Britain.

Connecticut and Rhode-Island are the other charter governments, or rather corporations; where almost the whole power of the crown is delegated to the people, who make an annual election of their assembly, their council, and their governor likewise; to the majority of which assemblies, councils, and governors respectively, being collective bodies, the power of making laws is granted; and, as their charters are worded, they can, and do make laws, even without their governors assent, and directly contrary to their opinions, no negative voice being reserved to them as governors, in the said charter. And, as the said governors are annually chosen, their office generally expires before his majesty's approbation can be obtained, or any security can be taken for the due observance of the laws of trade and navigation, and hold little or no correspondence with our office. It is not surprizing that governors, constituted like these last mentioned, should be guilty of many irregularities in point of trade, as well as in other respects.

All these colonies, however, by their several constitutions, have the power of making laws for their better government and support, provided they be not repugnant to the laws of Great-Britain, nor detrimental to their mother country: and these laws, when they have regularly passed the council and assembly of any province, and received the governor's assent, become valid in that province; but remain repealable nevertheless by his majesty in council, upon just complaint, and do not acquire a perpetual force, unless they are confirmed by his majesty in council.

But there are some exceptions to this rule in the proprietary and charter-governments; for in the province of Pennsylvania, they are only obliged to deliver a transcript of their laws to the privy-council, within five years after they are passed; and, if his majesty does not think fit to repeal them in six months from the time such transcript is so delivered, it is not in the power of the crown to repeal them afterwards. In the Massachusetts-Bay, also, if their laws are not repealed within three years after they have been presented to his majesty for his approbation or disallowance, they are not repealable by the crown after that time.

The provinces of Maryland, Connecticut, and Rhode-Island not being under any obligation, by their respective constitutions, to return authentic copies of their laws to the crown, for approbation or disallowance, or to give any account of their proceedings, we are very little informed of what is done in any of these governments.

There is also this singularity in the governments of Connecticut and Rhode-Island, that their laws are not repealable by the crown, but the validity of them depends upon their not being contrary, but, as near as may be, agreeable to the laws of England.

All the governors of colonies who act under the king's appointment, ought, within a reasonable time, to transmit home authentic copies of the several acts by them passed, that they may go through a proper examination: but they are sometimes negligent of their duty in this particular, and likewise pass temporary laws of so short continuance, that they have their full effect even before this board can acquire due notice of them. Some attempts have been made to prevent this pernicious practice; but, the annual support of government in the respective colonies making it necessary that laws for that purpose should pass from year to year, the assemblies have frequently endeavoured in those laws, as well as in others of longer duration, to enact proper propositions, repugnant to the laws and interests of Great-Britain, of which this board have never failed to express their dislike to the crown, when such laws have fallen under their consideration, and many laws have, from time to time, been repealed on that account.

But as to such laws as do not directly fall within the above rule, against which no complaint is made, and where the board are doubtful of the effect they may have, it has always been usual to let them lie by probationary, being still under the power of the crown to be repealed, in case any inconvenience should arise from them.

It has also been usual, when a law has contained many just and necessary provisions for the benefit of the colony where it was passed, intermixed with some others liable to objection, to let it lie by, and give notice thereupon to the governor of the province, that it should be repealed, if he did not, within a reasonable time, procure a new law, not liable to the same objections, to be substituted in the place thereof.

I shall add nothing to the foregoing, on the several constitutions, or governments, of our American colonies, but proceed to speak in general of their trade, as it relates to the welfare and prosperity of Great-Britain.

Their chief commodities, we have seen, are tobacco, sugar, molasses, rum, cotton, ginger, indigo, aloes, cocoa, coffee, rice,

rice, dyeing woods, drugs, copper, iron, silk, naval stores, timber, lumber, peltry, (silk and wines in time from Georgia, &c.) and most others in common with Great-Britain: and as our colonies increase our navigation, take off our manufactures and superfluities, as are useless and a burden at home, they are justly looked on to be the greatest support of the power and affluence of this nation.

But then it is known, that the manufactures, trade, and navigation, of some of our plantations, do, or may, interfere with the interest of this kingdom, and in time may prove very prejudicial to it, if not irremediable. Whereupon it has been rightly observed, 'That, indeed, colonies are the strength of their mother-country, while they are under good discipline, while they are strictly made to observe the fundamental laws of their original country, and while they are kept dependent on it; but that, otherwise, they are worse than members lopped from the body politic, being like offensive arms, wrested from a nation to be turned against it, as occasion shall serve.'

It certainly, therefore, concerns the wisdom of the legislative power of Great-Britain to make a strict and speedy inquiry into this matter, to remedy disorders before they grow too obstinate, and to put the government and trade of all our colonies into so good and sound a state, that every one may have it's due share of nutriment, and thereby be the better fitted and disposed for the uses and benefit of the whole body politic, especially of Great-Britain, their head, mother, and protectress.

From the plain narrative which we have faithfully given of the trade and constitution of the several colonies and plantations in America, belonging to this nation, the reader, I hope, will see the reasonableness of what I am about further to submit to consideration on a matter so highly interesting to these kingdoms. And first with regard to our northern colonies, which we shall take in the same order we have described them. As

GEORGIA, with which we began. Though the wished-for produce hereof in rice, &c. interferes with those of Carolina, that does not render this colony the less estimable to Britain. Provided the Carolina's, in time, should furnish a competent quantity of rice to supply all foreign markets, as well as Britain and Ireland, ought this to exclude Georgia from it's share of this trade? Because Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, produces sugar, and Maryland, as well as Virginia, tobacco, are we, therefore, to give up either for the sake of the other? From a jealousy on the side of the Carolinians, that the Georgians might prove detrimental to their rice trade, it has been imagined by some, that every artifice has been secretly practised by the one, to prevent the prosperity of the other. How true this may be, I will not take upon me to say; but this I may say, and I hope without offence, that it is greatly to be lamented that an injurious rivalry has not been better guarded against. If this has really been one principal cause of the ill success of Georgia, will it not afford a lesson of admonition not to be slighted? Does it not shew the necessity of regulating our colonies so as that they may as little interfere with the trade of each other as possible? and that not only in their infancy, but after they have been cherished and grown to maturity? Colonies may be prejudicial to a nation in two lights; 1. When they interfere with the commerce and manufactures of their mother-country; and, 2. When they so interfere with each other, that the one or the other must be ruined.

Wherefore the policy, requisite to be observed in the settlement of colonies, seems to be, the consideration of what commodities we are obliged to take from other nations, in order to carry on our own trade and manufactures, and to cultivate those within ourselves, so far as may be no way repugnant to the national benefit. For the maxim of expecting to sell all to other nations, and to buy nothing of them, may prove as detrimental as buying all, and selling nothing; those principles absolutely destroying the tie between nation and nation, which is necessary to their reciprocal support. But, when the balance of trade is apparently much to the disadvantage of a country, it is wisdom to endeavour to maintain the same at least in equilibrio, if it cannot be turned in favour of the suffering nation. Upon this maxim it was right to think of the raising of silk in Georgia, because we are obliged to take large quantities of other nations, in order to carry on that branch of manufacture, and of such nation too as does not take a quantity of our commodities any way equivalent to what we take of them. If, therefore, there be a possibility of supplying ourselves wholly, or in part, with silk from our own colonies, ought not every reasonable measure to be tried to accomplish it? Or is it because Carolina produces a trifle of silk, that Georgia is to produce none? Or is it that we must be so complaisant to an Italian prince, to throw away 300,000 l. a year, for fear of disobliging him; and, therefore, never attempt to save such out-goings of our cash?

If the truth is, that the climate, after all, will not admit of this production, has not the nation, for many years, been some how shamefully abused, not to say any thing more severe? For, in the year 1739, did not Mr Augspurger, a Swiss, bring over to England a parcel of raw silk from Geor-

gia, and depose before a master in Chancery; That he received it from Mr. Thomas Jones, the trustees store-keeper at Savannah, who assured him that it was actually the produce of Georgia? And was not this identical silk shewn at the trustees office, to Mr Daniel Booth, one of the greatest silk-weavers in this kingdom; and, also, to an eminent a raw silk merchant as any in it; and did they not both declare; that it was as fine as any Italian silk, and worth at least 20 shillings a pound? If I am not greatly mistaken, the late Sir Thomas Lombe likewise bore testimony in favour of the silk of this colony, or what was represented to him for such. And have not the testimonies of those gentlemen induced the nation to contribute large sums of money to bring this design effectually to bear? If silk of the quality abovementioned has, bona fide, been produced in Georgia, why have not quantities of it been produced; after so great an expence to do it? Or, if this was an accidental thing, and a very expensive single experiment only, why were not the public made sensible of every circumstance attending it, that they might not have thrown so much money away on so precarious a foundation? But, if silk will not answer here in quantities, why should not rice, or vines, as we have been also told?

The history of the northern colonies furnishes us with but too many instances of the ruin of their advanced settlements, from their leaving so large a country as this uncultivated and uninhabited, for fear of being too near neighbours to the Spaniards or the French. The importance of this settlement must certainly appear, when it is considered, that it has proved a good expedient for engaging the Indian nations in it's interest, which inhabit the vast countries to the west of Georgia; especially considering the views which the French have had of the same kind, who thought in a little time, to have completed that chain of correspondence; and, indeed, of contiguity, between their colonies of Canada and Louisiana, on which their being formidable to us in North America absolutely depended; since, if they had finished it, they would have surrounded all our colonies on the continent, from Nova Scotia to Georgia: but, by the support of this settlement on the one side, and Nova Scotia on the other, has not this contributed something to break the link of their intended chain, by engaging in our interest occasionally those very Indian nations that have been capable of doing them service, and injuring ourselves; particularly the faithful and heroic nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks? If it should not be possible for this colony to answer the great ends which we have been told it certainly would, must it not give these Indian nations the meanest opinion of our understandings, and the highest of those of our late rivals on the Mississippi, who we suffered to destroy our allies the Nautches, and other Indians, who inhabited near the French settlements?

These considerations are sufficient to make the Indian affairs deserve the most serious attention of every colony in North America.

The Indians are said to be a poor, and generally called a barbarous, people, bred under the darkest ignorance; yet a bright and noble genius displays itself through those dark clouds. None of the greatest of Roman heroes have discovered a greater love to their country, or a greater contempt of death, than those people called barbarians have done, when liberty came in competition. Our Indians have, indeed, outdone the Romans in this particular; some of the greatest of those we have known to murder themselves to avoid shame or torments; but these Indians have refused to die meanly, when they thought their country's honour would be at stake by it; they have given their bodies willingly to the most cruel torments of their enemies, to shew, as they have declared, that the five nations in particular consisted of men; whose courage and resolution could not be shaken. But it must be said, to our eternal shame, that we Christians have debauched and vitiated the honest natural morals of these people; we having not only safely defrauded and over-reached them, in our way of traffic, by dishonest weights and measures, but we have not always duly protected them as friends and allies against our common enemies. While our rivals in trade pursued measures diametrically opposite; while they used every art of policy, justice, and generosity, to gain over these people to their interest, and we were guilty of injustice and meanness towards them, it is no wonder that their affections should, in time, be alienated.

In giving my sentiments upon this colony, some people may, possibly, imagine that I would insinuate more than I really intend; and, therefore, before I leave this matter, I think it my duty to declare that I mean no kind of reflection on the conduct either of the original trustees to this colony, or their successors, they having generously supported the design with their purses, their persons, and their influence. Nor would I be understood to throw the least blemish upon the character of that worthy gentleman who so zealously hazarded his life upon this occasion. But it is too often the fate of the honest man to be imposed on, or not duly supported according to his public-spirited intention. No man can entertain an higher opinion of the wisdom, as well as the honour, of those gentlemen who have had the management of this affair: I cannot help thinking, however, but their zeal for their coun-

try's interest must have over-powered their knowledge, when they thought to establish so important a colony by charitable contributions, or by mean and piece-meal supports, which hitherto it has only had: I should be sorry to view this point in a different light from my superiors in judgment, yet I cannot help thinking that this colony has been of much more concernment to the nation than many may imagine. It's situation, I conceive, plainly shews what a guard it may be made against the Spaniards; and it's capital, Savannah, being distant from Charles-Town no more than 77 miles south-west, in a direct course, and north-west by east about 150 miles from St Auguffin, the capital of the Spanish Florida, which is the greatest bar to the British trade between this province and the bay of Mexico. Has not Georgia, therefore, been the frontier of all our colonies on this side North America? What a check this settlement, when powerfully supported, would be, not only to the Spanish navigation to those parts, but the French attempts for intruding on the Mississippi, must be so obvious to all who are acquainted with these matters, that I should have thought it needless to have said a word about it, did I not observe an unaccountable lukewarmness on so interesting an occasion.

If we can neither raise silk nor rice in Georgia, or if such produce should be thought to prejudice Carolina, will this territory produce no other articles of commerce, which do not interfere with that valuable province! Will not hemp and flax grow in this climate? Is there no pitch or tar, nor any naval stores, to be had from this colony? Are there no stately pines there, no pot-ash, no furs, or other trafficable skins, to be had from thence? We are greatly deceived if bees-wax, myrtle-wax, bears-oil, leather, drugs, and dyers wares of divers sorts are not produced here.

The necessity of cultivating a strict friendship with the Indian nations in general, for the preservation of our colonies, from Georgia to Nova Scotia, is at present so well understood, that it may be thought impertinent to urge a word on that head: so it would be, did not a late map of the French dominions in that part of America, published in France by authority, make it advisable so to do, and more especially, since the same has been industriously propagated in this kingdom, with a view to deceive every Briton in it: I mean the map published at Paris by Monsieur D'Anville, in the year 1746, intitled AMÉRIQUE SEPTENTRIONALE, publiée sous les auspices de Monf. le duc d'Orleans, premier prince du sang; wherein the author has taken upon him with ink and paper to excise a considerable part of the British dominions in North America, and very modestly tack it to those of his grand monarch.

That this Frenchman may not be misled by his superlative zeal for his country's interest, we have taken the liberty to return Monsieur the compliment in his own way, and, therefore, have presented him with another map, pointing out some few hundred leagues wherein the learned gentleman has happened to be mistaken. And

If the learned author would chuse to set his Court right upon this occasion, we desire that he would not only peruse the various charters belonging to the British colonies in North America, but likewise the compacts and treaties made between the English and Indian nations, whose land they have obtained either by fair purchase, free gift, or in consequence of honourable alliances.

That our readers, however, may have some satisfaction at so critical a conjuncture, we desire they would not reject the sentiments of a noble lord, whilst the famous treaty of Utrecht was upon the tapis. 'I hope, said he, that Canada, which we missed gaining in war, will be restored to us at the peace now in agitation, and that Annapolis Royal, which we have recovered, will, with the whole country of Nova Scotia, as far eastward as the island of St Paul, for ever remain to the crown of Great-Britain. They originally belonged to it in fact, and do of right now.—All that country, on both sides of the river St Laurence, was seized for the crown, about the close of the fifteenth century, by Sir Sebastian Cabot, grand pilot to our king Henry VII, and by him sent to find out such parts of North America as were left undiscovered by Columbus. The French pretend, indeed, to a discovery of it by John Verrazan, a Florentine, but this was in ———, which, being of a later date, could give the French king no right to it. King James I, therefore, knowing his title to be good, did, in 1621, make a grant of this country to Sir William Alexander (afterwards earl of Stirling) who settled a colony there by the name of Nova Scotia, and held possession of it several years. Yet, upon the marriage of king Charles I. with the lady Henrietta Maria, it was, by order of the king, given up to the French. In 1627 and 28, we got it again, and the north side of the river called Canada was given to Sir David Kirk, who was both proprietor and governor. And the south side (called by the French Acadie) fell again into the hands of Sir William Alexander. In 1632, it was given away again, though the king, when he found the French had possessed themselves of the whole country, declared publicly, that he had given away only the forts, and not the soil, and, therefore, attempted to recover it again, but failed: be-

rides, the king of France obliged himself to pay, in lieu of the forts, 5000 l. to Sir David Kirk, which he never did; and his family was thereby ruined.

Cromwell, weighing the premises, sent colonel Sedgwick, in 1654, and retook it; and when he made peace with France the following year, and their ambassador made pressing instances for the restitution of it, yet he would not part with it, insinuating that it was the ancient inheritance of the crown of England, and did of right belong to it. Whereupon Mr St Eustount, son and heir to M. Claude de la Tour, a French refugee, who bought Nova Scotia of the earl of Stirling, came over into England, and, making out his title, had it delivered to him, and then sold it to Sir Thomas Temple, who was governor of it till the Restoration; soon after which, king Charles delivered it up again to the French, and Canada with it, where they both rested, to the unspeakable loss and detriment of the crown of England and the plantations, till colonel Nicholson lately recovered the former.—From whence it is evident, that both Canada and Nova Scotia were the ancient inheritance of the crown of England. The only question is, whether the kings of England had power to alienate these countries, which, being incorporated into the crown, were parts of the commonwealth, and descended to them from their ancestors? The civilians, and all that have wrote of the law of nations, have established it as a rule, Non alienandæ sunt imperii partes. They expressly say, That a prince can no more alienate any part of his dominions, than the people may renounce their obedience. Thus Baldwin, Molina, Bodin, Mattheus Parisiensis, Grotius, and Puffendorf. And, for our own laws, Sir Robert Cotton, in his preface to The Abridgment of the Rolls in the Tower, observes, That our parliaments have, in all times, been careful to resume lands alienated from the crown, which they condemned as an undue practice, and, therefore, re-united them. If then it was wrong to dispose of lands that were the patrimony of the crown, how much more so must it be to give away the subjects property, and to alienate part of the empire to a foreign power? If the former were to be inviolable, then the latter, à fortiori, must be sacred and unalienable. If it be pleaded, that these countries came to the crown by acquisition, and, therefore, may be disposed of at pleasure; I reply, sure, that they were not acquired by Charles the First and Second, but came to them both by hereditary descent: and further, that, if acquisition gives a right of alienation, then it is within the prerogative to give or sell Ireland, and all the plantations, to any potentate in Europe, which I believe no lawyer in Great-Britain will give under his hand for law.—Our title appears equal on both sides of the river of St Laurence, that is, Canada on the north, and Nova Scotia, or (as the French call it) Acadie, on the south. But I must beg leave to say, that, in point of interest, the latter is of more consequence to the crown than the former: for, when that is in the French hands, it is a bride to the eastern parts of New England, where the tall pines grow, which are yearly brought home in the mast-s fleet; and, indeed, where there is such a vast quantity of naval stores, of all sorts, as is not to be found in any part of the world. I conceive, therefore, that, seeing naval stores are growing scarce and valuable all over Europe, and the strength and glory of our nation depends upon them, and yet we are at the pleasure of the Rufs and Swede, whether we shall have them or no, and that at their own excessive prices*; surely we should take care to secure what we have in America, as an inestimable treasure. Besides, if we should leave this country to the French, we shall be defeated of our ends in turning them out of Newfoundland; for they will here find as good a fishery as they left there, and infinitely better harbours, and, consequently, will still be able to bring their fish to Europe, and damp our markets, as formerly; and we shall have one fatal disadvantage more by the bargain, in that we remove them from the island to the continent, where they have more room to spread and increase, to the terror of her majesty's subjects. In a word then, if we do not effectually preserve and maintain every inch of land which is comprehended under the province of Nova Scotia, our naval stores are gone, our fishery is extremely hurt, and we lose the only opportunity which we probably may ever have, to establish the peace and security of all the flourishing British colonies on the continent; which I hope her majesty and her ministry will, in their wisdom, consider.

* The Swedes, in the year 1710, established a monopoly of pitch and tar, and had their factories at London and Lisbon, &c. and sent the same in their own shipping to foreign markets, and set their own price upon it; which first induced the parliament to think of encouraging these things by a bounty in our own plantations.

Another gentleman of good knowledge and experience, has since alarmed us much more, and, I fear, not without great and urgent cause. 'The French, says he, whom all the world acknowledge to be an enterprising, great, and politic nation, are so sensible of the advantages of foreign colonies,

nies, both in reference to empire and trade, that they use all manner of artifices to lull their neighbours asleep with fine speeches and plausible pretences, whilst they craftily endeavour to compass their design by degrees, though at the hazard of incurring on their friends and allies, and depriving them of their territories and dominions in time of profound peace, and contrary to the most solemn treaties.—For, besides their seizing on, and settling the great river Melchaceb (or Mississippi) and some part of the north side of the bay of Mexico, and the claim they seem clandestinely to make to another of our inhabited southern colonies adjoining thereto, they, in some of their writings, boast, that their colony of Louisiana hath no other bounds to the north than the Arctic Pole, and that its limits to the west and north-west are not known much better, but extend to the South-Sea, Japan, or wherever they shall think fit to fix them, if they can be persuaded to fix any at all; intending thereby to deprive the British nation of all that vast tract of land situate between the gulph of Mexico and Hudson's-Bay, which includes our province of Carolina, (which the French have confidently called Louisiana) the great lakes, and the whole country of our five Indian nations, with the fur, peltry, and the other trade thereof.

We are all sensible what clamours were raised at the concessions made to France, on the conclusion of the peace of Utrecht. There is scarce a man well versed in the interest of trade and plantations, but blamed the then ministry, for not insisting on the surrender of Canada, as well as Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, for the security of our northern colonies on the continent of America, and the traffic thereof; nor ought they to have allowed them the possession of Cape Breton, if they had well considered or understood the nature of the fishery in these seas.

The history of former ages, and the experience of these latter times, have informed us, that the French have ever been troublesome neighbours, wheresoever they were seated: historians asserting, that the natural levity and restlessness of their temper, their enterprising genius, and ambition of extending their dominions, and raising the glory and grandeur of their monarchs, contribute in great measure to make them so.—Wherefore, it is to be hoped, that the British nation will be so far from continuing idle spectators of the unreasonable and unjust usurpations and incroachments of the French on the continent of America, that they let them know they have enough already of Canada and Cape Breton; and that 'tis expected they abandon their new acquisitions on the Mississippi and the bay of Mexico, that river and country belonging of right to the crown of Great-Britain. And, I believe it will scarce be denied, that, at present, whilst they are weak, and in the infancy and confusion of their settlements in Louisiana, we have a much better chance, and are in far better circumstances to put in our claim to, and dispute the right and possession of, that and other lands, than we shall be some years hence, when they have augmented the number of their inhabitants, debauched the natives to their party, and further strengthened themselves by securing, with forts and garrisons, the passes of the rivers, lakes, and mountains, even though they should not have obtained any advantage over the Spaniards, or enriched themselves with the wealth of Mexico.

I must acknowledge, that, in case the British nation should be so far insatuated, as not to assert their right to this so noble, and to them so useful and necessary, a colony, and endeavour to regain the possession thereof, or secure at least, so much of it as lies on the back of our plantations, as far westward as the Mississippi, it would be much more eligible, and for their interest, that the Spaniards were masters of it than the French; we not having so much reason to apprehend the same danger, either to our colonies, trade, or navigation, from the first, as from the last; though I am far from admitting the cession of it to either of them, on any terms whatever, without an absolute and apparent necessity.—And I am apt to think, that prudence or policy will, or ought to prompt us to keep a balance of power in America, as well as nearer home; and that, as we have, for above thirty years past, found it our interest to check and put a stop to the growing power of France, and set bounds to their dominions in Europe, we shall not easily be induced to allow them to incroach on, and deprive us of our colonies and plantations in America.—The Spaniards are said to be very uneasy at the so near neighbourhood of the French on the Mississippi, and are, perhaps, more jealous of the consequences thereof than we are, though not more than we ought to be; and 'tis presumed, that, on a proper application and encouragement, they'll join with us to oppose and dispossess them of their settlements there, and on the bay of Mexico, lest they render themselves sole masters of the navigation thereof, and, with the assistance of the Indians, make irruptions into the very heart of their colonies, attack their towns, seize their mines, and fortify and maintain themselves therein.

Before we leave the continent of America, it may not be improper to observe, that the town of Annapolis Royal in Nova

Scotia is reckoned as a barrier to the colonies of New England, and is of the last importance to prevent the French joining, in time of war, with the eastern Indians, either by land or sea. In queen Ann's war, whilst this place was in the hands of the French, it actually was, as the ingenious Mr Dummer justly styles it, the Dunkirk of this part of the world; continually harbouring fleets of privateers and French cruizers, to the ruin of the fisheries, and foreign trade of all the British northern colonies; and which will inevitably be the case, if France is ever suffered to obtain any part, or the whole of this important colony, especially since they are possessed of Cape Breton. In 1744, after the French from Cape Breton had taken and burnt Canso, at the east end almost of Nova Scotia, their Indians alarmed Annapolis for a month together, by threatening a general assault, and providing scaling-ladders, but, the garrison happening opportunely to be reinforced, they retired.

Canso is a place exceeding convenient for receiving succours from France. The harbour is about three leagues in breadth, and consists of several islands, whereof the biggest, which is the middlemost, is near four leagues in compass, having a fruitful soil, well watered and wooded. It forms two bays with safe anchorage, and in the continent, which is very near it, there is a river called Salmon river, because of the great plenty of those fish that are caught there. In short, the fishery here is reckoned one of the best in the world. And so imperious have the French been, that they would not suffer any British subject to catch or cure fish here, without paying for a licence from the governor of Cape Breton, though the French have no sort of right to any of those islands or harbours.

Wherefore, the near neighbourhood of Cape Breton to our colony of Nova Scotia is of itself sufficient to alarm us, without suffering them to incroach an inch upon this our Dunkirk of North America; which would so add to the strength of the French, and weaken that of the English there, that we should ever be liable to insults, and our possessions thereby rendered ever precarious. But,

By the treaty of Utrecht, article the XIIIth, The French king hath yielded to the queen of England, and her successors for ever, all Nova Scotia, or Acadia; with all the ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal, now called Annapolis, and all other things in those parts, which depend on lands and islands, with the dominion, property, possession of the said islands, lands, and all rights whatsoever, by treaty, or by any other way obtained, &c. To which the French king added the exclusion of the subjects of France from fishing on the coasts of Nova Scotia, and within thirty leagues, beginning from Cape Sable, and stretching along to the south-west*. And here it is very necessary to observe, that though the restitution of Cape Breton to the crown of England was, doubtless, implied in the terms of this article, as well as that of Nova Scotia; though Cape Breton was always reckoned a part of Nova Scotia, and therein included by the patents; though queen Ann, in her instructions to the late duke of Shrewsbury, when he went ambassador to France, declared, that she looked upon Cape Breton to belong to her, as a part of the ancient territory of Nova Scotia; yet, by the 13th article of the treaty aforesaid, the English were barefacedly-tricked out of this important place, which was treacherously given up to the French, and they were suffered to keep it, 'till it was taken in the late war by the force of New England, and given to France again, by the late peace made at Aix la Chapelle.

* The article in the treaty of Utrecht, whereby Nova Scotia, or Acadia, is made over by the French to the crown of Great-Britain, is as follows:

The most christian king shall take care to have delivered to the queen of Great-Britain, on the same day that the ratifications of this treaty shall be exchanged, solemn and authentic letters, or instruments, by virtue whereof it shall appear, that the island of St. Christopher's is to be possessed alone hereafter by the British subjects, likewise all NOVA SCOTIA, OR ACADIA, with its ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal, now called Annapolis Royal, and all other things on these parts, which depend on the said lands and islands, together with the dominion, propriety and possession of the said islands, lands, and places, and all right whatsoever by treaties or by any other way obtained, which the most christian king, the crown of France, or any the subjects thereof, have hitherto had to the said islands, lands, and places, and the inhabitants of the same, are yielded, and made over to the queen of Great Britain, and to her crown for ever, as the most christian king doth, at present, yield and make over all the particulars aforesaid; and that in such ample manner and form, that the subjects of the most christian king shall hereafter be excluded from all kind of fishing in the said seas, bays, and other places on the coasts of Nova Scotia, that is to say, on those which lie towards the east, within 30 leagues, beginning from the island commonly called Sable, inclusively, and thence stretching along towards the south-west.

The province of Nova Scotia, (known in the French maps under three denominations, viz. Acadia, Gasparia, and Main) has

has been conquered by France from England; re-conquered by England, from France again; ceded by England to France by treaty; and fully, we see, receded again, by France to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, for the last time, without reserve of any part or parcel whatsoever.

If that nation should obtain more than their right in this part of America, they may, with the contiguous colony of Cape Breton, &c. be rendered more powerful in America, than all the other acquisitions she has hitherto ever made there, can possibly do; because it may for ever secure to her a superiority in the fishery there; secure the whole fur-trade of the northern part of this continent; afford her several of the best ports, harbours, and materials for building ships of the greatest force, from whence they may be immediately launched into the ocean; instead of their being brought with great difficulty down the river St Lawrence: and, with these additional advantages, France will be ever a terror to all our northern colonies upon the continent; and how this must affect our island colonies which depend upon them, is much easier conceived than can be represented.

Besides these acquisitions obtained by France, to the prodigious benefit of that nation, and the no less disadvantage of our own, have they not turned their eyes also to the Mississippi, having a view, according to their royal map-maker, of no less extent, than to have a communication of commerce from the river St Lawrence to the bay of Mexico? An extensive design, indeed, but what will not an all-grasping, restless, and insatiable court aim at? Is it out of our power to check their career, in those mighty strides to dominion? Our Carolina, stretching to the mouth of the Mississippi, if the country be duly possessed and fortified, and proper alliances were made with the Indians, could not that river be rendered useless to them?

As to their title to the country bordering upon that river, 'tis as great a jest, as their confident pretensions to lop off a part of our Acadia, or Nova Scotia. Grants from crowns of lands that never were before heard of by the granters, are of no more consideration in justice and reason, than the legacies in Diego's will: but, even according to this title, the English have a prior right to the French in the Mississippi. King Charles the 1st granted all the country between Carolina and that river to the southward, which was called Carolina. Sir Robert Heath and his assigns alienated it to the late Dr Daniel Cox, who, in king William's reign, sent two ships to the Mississippi, with 200 people, to make a settlement; over whom Sir William Waller, so active in the discovery of the popish plot, was to have been governor. Is not this a plain proof, that the English have heretofore at least as great a right to the Mississippi as the French, at least to a good part of it, that which lies on the back of Carolina, and extends to the river's mouth in the bay of Mexico.

R E M A R K S.

The above contains a succinct state of the constant complaints of the wisest, and honestest part of this nation, with relation to the precarious condition of our commercial affairs in NORTH AMERICA, ever since the TREATY of UTRECHT. But,

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, has secured to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, more effectually than ever was done before, all our colonies and plantations upon the continent of America. For all French possession in Canada, and all its DEPENDENCIES, and CAPE BRETON itself, the ISLAND of St JOHN, and all ACADIA, and its DEPENDENCIES, &c. &c. are all now absolutely annexed to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, and that in the most plain, clear, and unexceptionable manner that words can express the cession of such acquisitions; and they are guaranteed to this nation by the FRENCH themselves, as well as SPAIN and PORTUGAL, pursuant to the said DEFINITIVE TREATY.

By this treaty, we seem to have rectified all the mistakes, of the TREATY of UTRECHT, which have been so universally lamented by the nation ever since that period. By possessing ourselves of CAPE BRETON, the ISLAND of St JOHN, and the other ISLANDS in the Gulph, and river St Lawrence, &c. &c. and leaving the FRENCH no other possession in this part of NORTH AMERICA, than those of the very trifling islands of St PETERS and MIQUELON, as a shelter for their fishermen, and this to remain unfished likewise, should seem to put it out of the power of FRANCE, to entertain any hopes to be able to disturb or annoy us in these parts for a long time; unless we shall shamefully neglect to support and maintain, in the most effectual manner, all our NEW ACQUISITIONS obtained by this late treaty. If indeed, we do that, it will leave an eternal stain and ignominy upon the nation; and it is to be hoped, that such men, who shall dare to do so, will pay for it, with the terrors of the axe, or a gallows. Should FRANCE attempt again to disturb our tranquillity in these parts, there will now be very little difficulty to exclude them for ever from all liberty to fish on the BANKS of NEW-FOUNDLAND; and therefore, I can hardly suppose to myself, that so politic a nation will soon run the hazard of sustaining such a further additional loss to their trade and navigation.

As the safety of the colonies on the continent belonging to GREAT-BRITAIN, seems so well secured on the Gulph and river of St Lawrence, and in all this part of NORTH AMERICA; so likewise do they appear to be no less secured on the GULPH of FLORIDA. For by annexing EAST and WEST FLORIDA to the crown of England, and securing to ourselves by the same treaty, the port of St AUGUSTINE, and PENSACOLA, and MOBILE, as well as the RIGHT of NAVIGATION into the MISSISSIPPI through the GULPH of MEXICO: by obtaining these points, we have secured as good a BARRIER to the southern parts of our continental colonies, as we have done to their northern parts by the possession of CAPE BRETON, and of CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES. And it looks very likely that the FRENCH will not soon be in a capacity to annoy us by their navigation in the Gulph of Mexico to the Mississippi, any more than in the Gulph of St Lawrence. For if they should attempt a fresh rupture with us soon, they run the risk of losing NEW ORLEANS, and their liberty of navigation in the Mississippi by means thereof; our settlements on the FLORIDA COAST, even at PENSACOLA itself, enabling us to extirpate the French entirely out of the Gulph of Mexico. If the SPANIARDS should again join them upon such an occasion, they also are now more likely to repent it than they did by engaging with them in the last war; by reason, that we being in possession of FLORIDA, are the better able to resent such treatment on the part of the SPANIARDS, than we were before FLORIDA, and the ports of PENSACOLA, and St AUGUSTINE were annexed to the BRITISH crown. By the assistance of these ports and possessions, together with the Bahama Islands, Georgia, and Carolina, we are now in a better capacity to obstruct and annoy the SPANISH commerce through the Gulph of FLORIDA. See the articles BAHAMA ISLANDS, and FLORIDA. If the SPANIARDS do quarrel with us again, they may probably once more experience the loss of the HAVANNA; which, if it should happen again, the court of England may chuse to retain instead of restore it, since in that case, the SPANIARDS might be at a loss to give us an equivalent. So that we are inclined to think, that Spain would not easily or soon be induced to join France against Britain, they both being far more likely to be losers than gainers by so doing, unless England should be shamefully remiss in her affairs, and neglect to make the most of the advantages she has obtained over them by the DEFINITIVE TREATY. All our American colonies, as well as our Islands, JAMAICA in particular, are rendered far more secure than they ever were before.—These things, we think, must be obvious to every man of candour.

Having traced the measures and success of France in regard to this part of British America, it may be time to take a view of what further strides they have made, to strike at the root of our sugar-islands, and others, which are also situated in the new world. Upon this occasion, I shall not, at present, take a further retrospection than from 1706, when Louis XIV, having himself formed a scheme to take the colony of Jamaica, the best of our sugar-colonies, and sent for the famous M. Mefnager, as he lays in his Secret Memoirs, 'to draw it up in form: when the scheme was, after several alterations, brought to please the king, he told me, says Mefnager, he was extremely fond of that design, and asked me if I was willing to go to the king of Spain with it? I made his majesty sensible, what an honour I should esteem it, to be sent to any part of the world where his service required: I think, said the king, nobody is so able to tell my grandson, the king of Spain, my thoughts in all the particulars, as you, who have seen all the alterations, amendments, and additions, we have made, and know the ground-plot of the whole. —Accordingly I went to Madrid, and laid the scheme before the king of Spain. But, when he came to debate it in his council of state, they were so backward, so ignorant, conceived so ill of the design, and raised so many difficulties, that I was obliged to send his majesty word, I thought the Spanish court capable of doing nothing for themselves. The king was exceedingly vexed, that his proposals were not received with so much readiness as was expected, and called me home again, which I was very well pleased with; nothing being more disagreeable to any man who has lived in France, and especially at court, than that stiff, haughty, unconcerned way, that the Spaniards do all their business with.

This project was in short thus: The king proposed to send fourteen men of war of the line to the Spanish West-Indies, to attack the English colony of Jamaica: his Majesty's measures were, that the ships should rendezvous at Cadiz, there to take in provisions, and as many Spanish seamen, as could be had there; from thence to proceed to the Havanna. This the king ordered, because it would amuse the English, who would not imagine that the design was so far out of the way.—The Spaniards made a difficulty of every thing; they spent three weeks in getting over the method to prevent the Spanish merchants going to America in our ships without licence, and would have had me gone back to Paris for the king's hand to an engagement, that the

French ships should carry no European merchandize with them; nay, they would have had the king's men of war submit to be visited by the custom house officers. Then they scrupled admitting the men of war into the port of Havanna, for fear, I suppose of, seizing it for the king of France; as if, when the king had given the king of Spain a kingdom, he would have attempted to take some of it again from him.—Tired with this impertinent slowness in their proceedings, and with the unperforming temper of the Spaniards, the king, as I said, gave over the best design that was ever laid of that kind, and which could not have failed to have answered the end, had no uncommon disaster befallen it from the elements; for, as to the enemies, there was no fear of any preparation they could make, because there was no possibility of their having any notice of it.

The ships, as I have said, were to have their rendezvous at Cadiz, and were to have 6000 men on board of regular troops, to whom the Spaniards were to join 2000, with 20 transports; and, after the rendezvous at Cadiz, they were to sail from thence to the Havanna; because it was his majesty's opinion, if they went to Martinique, or St. Christopher's, the English would have notice of them, and would immediately arm on all hands to oppose them; but, as the Havanna was a Spanish port, between which and the English islands there was no opportunity of intelligence, it was the king's opinion, that it was easy for the fleet to lie there, and be joined by the other ships which should come from Martinique, &c. and the English have no knowledge of it; which was, indeed, very reasonable: the king's orders were then, that they should send an express to the said colonies at Martinique, to join them with all the armed sloop, or other ships they had, and, in a word, with all the force they could raise, which, as the king said, he expected should be near 4000 men more, with ships and sloop enough to carry them, without reckoning three men of war which were there already; and, as the king observed, he was satisfied that the 4000 men from Martinique and St. Christopher's would be much fitter for service, than the 6000 from Europe; for of them his majesty said, he should always expect one half to be sick.—With this force, the king's measures were, that they should sail from the Havanna directly to Barbadoes, and come to an anchor directly in the road; from whence they were to alarm all the rest of the English islands, and, by making preparations to land, they should at least prevent any force from being sent from thence to Jamaica, where the main design was to make a descent: after some time, the whole army and half the men of war were to sail to Jamaica, which is all with a trade-wind and sea-current, leaving seven or eight men of war at Barbadoes, to keep them alarmed: the forces were to go directly on shore, and attack the forts at the point, which there was no doubt, after a short battery, they would take sword in hand; after which the whole island would be reduced of course, together with it's booty in merchandize and negroes, which would be immense.

The king was so wrapt up in this project, that it was no wonder if he was very much displeas'd with the Spaniards, that they had not an equal passion for it, when it was proposed by me: and, when I brought his majesty an account of their behaviour, he said, They are the most stupid wife people in the world. However, the king, continues M. Mesnager, did not lay aside this project, though he left out the Spaniards in the execution, and though he changed the nature of the attempt and scene of action, which was removed to Nevis, &c. There the enterprize was carried on with good success, and our admiral (Ibberville) landed, destroyed, plundered, &c. and besides the other booty taken, and the spoil done to the enemy, our men took as many negroes from the English, as they sold afterwards to the Spaniards for 400,000 pieces of eight.

Though the French have not gained any great point of us by victory, they have by intrigue and treaty duped us in our greatest, our commercial interests; for the French incroachment on St Domingo, being ceded as a right, was thought of little consequence, but it has proved such, that both Spain and Britain have just reason to repent to this day; since, by that means, the Spaniards of that island are become little better than hewers of wood and drawers of water to the French; and our trade to Jamaica has felt severely the establishment of such a power, in the tract of navigation through the windward passage to Europe.

Before the treaty of Utrecht was ratified, and in the very interval between the cessation of arms in Europe, and the time it was to take effect in America, a French Squadron was equipped and dispatched privately, to invade, take, and destroy the British Leeward Islands, as the much envied rivals of France in the sugar-trade; and first Antigua was the destined sacrifice, as the principal, and most important of these islands to Britain, for it's excellent harbours and situation in the tract of navigation to the other Leeward Islands, and to Jamaica. But Mons. Cassart, who commanded the expedition, failed in the attempt, partly by the vigilance of the inhabitants, and

partly by some lucky accidents, but not by our naval power; and, afterwards attacking Montserrat, he ruined it so effectually, that it is hardly restored to it's former condition to this day.

The plunder of that island falling very short of the expence of the expedition; and the French convinced by experience, that open force could not give them a superiority in these islands, have, since the peace of Utrecht, constantly increased their possessions and power, by incroachments; first upon Dominico, a fruitful island in sight of Montserrat, inhabited by Indians, the aborigines of these islands, who, for several generations have been subjects of England, under a commission from Lord Gray, and his successors, and the chief governors of Barbadoes.

Some years after (viz. in 1722) the late duke of Montague, having obtained a grant from the crown, of the islands of St Lucia and St Vincent (two of the Caribbee Islands, included for many years in the commission of successive governors of Barbadoes, from the kings of Great-Britain) provided ships, military stores, and much people at a great expence, to possess those islands: but, soon after landing at St Lucia, they were forced off by the French of Martinico, pursuant to an express order of their monarch. Tho' this point is finally settled by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, yet it may be useful to know how the matter stood before.

The mandate of the French king, to the Sieur Chevalier de Feuquiere, governor and lieutenant-general of the Windward-Islands in America.

His majesty, having been informed, that the king of England has given the Islands of St Vincent and St Lucia to the duke of Montague, has made his complaint of it in England, and has alledged, that neither the one nor the other of these islands belong to that crown: the first of them ought to remain to the Caribbees, according to a convention made with that people, and the second belongs to France; who has been willing to suspend the settlement of that island, on the request of the king of England. Notwithstanding these reasons, his majesty has not been informed, that there has been any revocation of this grant. On the contrary, he understands, that the duke of Montague is preparing to send and take possession of these islands, and to transport numbers of families thither. This undertaking being contrary to the rights of his majesty, his intention is, that in case the English should take possession of St Lucia, and settle there, the Sieur Chevalier de Feuquiere shall summon them to retire in fifteen days, in regard that island belongs to France; and, if they do not depart, he shall compel them to it by force of arms. He shall take care to charge some of the wisest and most experienced of his officers with this expedition: his majesty desires there should be as little effusion of blood as possible; nor will have any pillage made: he only wishes the English would retire, and not possess themselves of a country which belongs to him.

Done at Versailles, Sept. 21, 1722.

If the court of France had a just title to these islands; who can blame such a spirited mandate? It would be rather commendable, and is well worthy of imitation, by those who have a much clearer title, than bare allegations and positive assertions, to drive the French out of their incroachments on those islands, as well as on the continent in America.

Captain Uring, appointed, by the late duke of Montague, his deputy-governor in this expedition, receiving this mandate, and the French governor's letter inclosing it, wherein he signified his intention to obey it; Mr Uring sent a letter to the governor of Martinico, to acquaint him, that he had orders from the duke of Montague, the lord proprietor, under his British majesty's patent, to plant St Lucia, and defend it; but proposed suspending all acts of hostility, till they could hear from their respective courts. At the same time Mr Uring sent to the captains of two of our men of war, then at Port Royal in Jamaica, desiring to know, whether, in pursuance of the letters to them directed from the admiralty, as well as the duke of Montague, he might depend on their assistance, in case he was attacked by the French: but they gave him no positive answer, and sailed soon after to Barbadoes. Mr Uring also wrote to Mr Cox, the president of this island, for his assistance; to which he answered, That he was ready to give him all in his power. It seems, the captain of the men of war did not think the general orders in the grant of St Lucia, to all the governors and commanders to be assisting to the colony, or the instructions from the admiralty to the same purpose, were sufficient to justify their acting offensively against the French, which must have brought on a war betwixt the two nations; nor would the governors of our American colonies take these general orders and instructions to be a sufficient warrant for them to begin hostilities against the French.

The captains of our men of war not only declined to act in an hostile way, for fear of producing ill consequences to Europe, but they even refused to give Mr Uring assistance towards fortifying and defending the colony by land.

Nevertheless, Mr Uring was very diligent in raising a fortification on the hill, which he proposed to make defensible before the fifteen days, to which his removal was limited by the French mandate, were expired. Mean time the French governor kept punctually to the letter of his mandate, and sent betwixt 2 and 300 men, mostly militia of Martinico; who landing at Shoque-Bay in his island, within an hour's march of the fort, at a time when so many of the planters were fallen sick, and so many others had deserted to the French, that Mr Uring found he had not 80 men left to bear arms; he was compelled to give up the island to the French general the marquis de Champigny, upon the following articles, viz. That the English might reembark all their cannon, stores, arms, baggage, and every thing else without molestation; that the French should also evacuate it, as well as the English; and that the island should remain in that abandoned state till the dispute betwixt the two crowns relating to it was decided; but that the ships of either nation might, at all times, frequent it's ports for wood and water.

In pursuance of this capitulation, Mr Uring, having embarked whatever he had landed, demolished the fort and barricado, struck the flag, and carried it aboard; and sailed for the island of Antigua, after sending the Winchelsea man of war to take a view of the island of St Vincent, where the planters also had orders, from the duke of Montague, to attempt a settlement, in case they were driven from St Lucia: and a considerable reinforcement was, for this very purpose, arrived from his grace in the mean time at Barbadoes, which we shall take notice of presently.

Though, at this juncture, our court might not think it advisable to resent this behaviour of the French, yet his late majesty king George II. sent the following instructions to Henry Wortely, Esq; governor and commander in chief of this island, as all his predecessors had been who were governors of Barbadoes.

• Trusty and well beloved, &c.

• Whereas the French have for many years claimed a right to the islands of St Lucia, and do insist, that the right of the islands of St Vincent and Dominica, under your government, is in the Caribbeans now inhabiting the same; although we have an undoubted right to all the said islands, yet we have thought fit to agree with the French court, that, until our right be determined, the said islands shall be entirely evacuated by both nations. It is therefore our will and pleasure, and you are accordingly to signify the same to such of our subjects as shall be found inhabiting any of our said islands, that they do quit them till the right shall be determined as aforesaid, within 30 days from the publication hereof, in each of the said islands. And you are to use your best endeavours, that no ships whatsoever frequent the said islands, during the time aforesaid, except for wood and water. But it is our will and pleasure, that you do not execute this order, until the French governor of Martinico shall have received the like directions from the French court, and shall, jointly with you, put the same in execution, without exception, &c.

30 Nov. 1730.

H. NEWCASTLE.

From these instructions 'tis apparent, that the courts of England and France had come to an agreement about the immediate state of this island; but not as to their right; for our king declares, fully and plainly, that he looked upon his to be wholly unimpeached by this dispute; and so, to be sure, it was. And it will appear still more clearly, from the French king's letter on this head, to the governor of Martinico, dated the 26th of the month following, that the state, not the right of this island, was the point then settled.

• Monsieur de Champigny,

• The English have, for some time past, formed pretensions to the island of St Lucia, which belongs to me, and to which I have an incontestable right. They have laid the same pretensions to the island of St Vincent and Dominica, which belong to the Caribbeans, natives of the country, according to the treaty of the 31st of March, 1660, and in the possession of which it is my intention to support them. I have, nevertheless, agreed with the court of England, that, till the pretensions are determined, the said islands shall be evacuated by both nations, &c.

In order to know the foundation of the pretensions of England to this island, it may be requisite to give a little of it's history.

The French authors, particularly Labat, say, that, before 1637, neither French nor English thought of settling themselves on this island, because of the frequent attacks they had to sustain from the Caribbeans of the other islands; and that both nations frequented it for catching tortoise, and building canoes, as an island that then had neither governor, fort, nor colony. But both Labat and Tertre, another French author, agree, that the English first settled on this island in 1637, and lived here eighteen months, or more, without any disturbance from the natives, or others till 1639, when the sa-

vages drove them out, for this reason: An English vessel being becalmed before St Dominica, some of the Caribbeans of that island thinking her to be a French ship, because she had a French flag, went aboard, as they usually did the ships of that nation, and, drinking freely, the captain clapped his sails before the wind, to put off: the savages, suspecting his design, endeavoured to recover their canoes; and, being hindered, leaped over-board, and swam to their island, except two, whom the English put in irons, and sold for slaves. Those who escaped, complaining of this treachery to the savages of Martinico and St Vincent, they massacred the English at Barbadoes, Antigua, and others of their new settlements: and then come to St Lucia in the night time, and, surprizing the English, killed the governor, and most of the inhabitants; plundered their warehouses, and did incredible mischief, which obliged those who escaped to fly to Montserrat. This so terrified the English, that they then gave over all thoughts of settling again on this island.

The civil wars in England breaking out, the English neglected this settlement; and, in 1644, M. de Parquet, the French governor of Martinico, sent 35 or 40 men from Granada, under M. de Rouffelan, well furnished with ammunition and provision, who took possession of the island, and built a fort, planted provisions, and cured tobacco. Rouffelan being well beloved by the natives, because he had married one of their women, the French enjoyed a happy tranquillity till 1654, when he died, and was succeeded by La Riviere; who, thinking to live with the natives upon as good terms as his predecessor had done, erected a stately habitation at a greater distance from the fort; where he had not lived long, ere the savages, hating the neighbourhood of the French, resolved to drive them out of the island, and killed the French governor, and several others also who succeeded him.

In 1658, Parquet the governor of Martinico, sent over a new governor, Mons. Aigremont. In a few months after whose arrival, the English attacked the fort, but were beat off: nevertheless, the natives destroyed him in 1660. In 1663, the English purchased the island from the natives by a treaty, which was brought about by the influence of Mr Warner, son of the governor of St Christopher's, by a Caribbean woman. That gentleman, to whom the English had given a commission to be governor of Dominica, persuaded his countrymen to sell St Lucia fairly to the English; and the English sent 14 or 1500 men on board of five men of war; who, being joined by 6 or 700 Caribbeans in 17 canoes, under the command of Mr Warner, came before this island the latter end of June, 1664, and had the fort, which was only of wood and pallisadoed, delivered to them without resistance, on condition that Mons. Bonnart, then the French governor, with the garrison, which consisted at first but of 14 soldiers, part of whom had deserted, should be transported to Martinico, with their cannon, arms and baggage. A bloody flux and famine having soon reduced this colony from 1500 to 89 persons, among whom was the governor, Mr Cook, and the principal officers; those who survived, abandoned the island the 6th of January, 1666, after setting fire to the fort, and dispersed themselves in the other adjacent colonies. Two days after a vessel arrived from the lord Willoughby, governor and captain general of Barbadoes, and the other English Caribbean Islands, to the windward of Guardaloupe, with provisions, ammunition, and all necessaries; but to no purpose, for the colony was gone.

Though the island was thus deserted, yet, even while it remained in that condition, it was always considered as a part of the British dominions, was included in every commission of the governor for the island of Barbadoes, and the governor asserted his jurisdiction over it, by frequently going thither in person, with great pomp, hoisting the king's colours, firing guns, and making all signs of sovereignty and dominion which are requisite to maintain a national right.

The French king, also, in his treaties with king Charles II, and king James II, and likewise in those of Ryfwick and Utrecht, stipulated to restore to the king of Great-Britain all the islands, countries, fortresses, and colonies, which may have been conquered by the most Christian king, and such as were in possession of the king of Great-Britain before the war began: which implies an apparent concession, that the English first possessed this island, and had, consequently, a prior right to it, St Lucia being included in the words, all the British dominions. Nor could that right of theirs, we apprehend, be any way invalidated by their being drove out of it, and murdered, as above, by the savages.

Labat, the Frenchman, indeed, would insinuate that the English forfeited their right to it, because, for 20 years after they were drove out of it by the Caribbeans, they neglected to send men to it; and though, they say, Parquet, the French governor of Martinique, made a settlement there, they took no step to oppose him, nor did any one thing either on the spot, or in Europe, to support their pretensions. But who does not see that this is a bare insinuation only, and does not carry the face of any thing conclusively argumentative, nor proves the least defect in our title?

Labat, without observing that the treaty abovementioned, by which the English fairly purchased the island, corroborated

their title to it, further informs us, that though in 1664, when the second West-India company bought this, and other island, of Parquer's heirs, St Lucia was in the hands of the English, it continued to name governors thereof 'till 1674, but that, by reason of the stagnation of the company's trade, during the long wars in 1673 and 1678, all the inhabitants retired to Martinique, Guardaloupe, and other strong islands; so that, in 1700, there were none left but carpenters, who used to come from Martinique, to build canoes, &c. without any other inhabitants, of what nation or complexion soever. He adds, that it was afterwards a harbour of run-away soldiers and sailors, who found enough here to subsist them, besides the utmost security in the natural fastnesses on the brows of precipices, where 10 men might knock 10,000 on the head, by only rolling stones or stumps of trees, upon them. Sir Hans Sloane says, that, in 1689, when he was here, it was inhabited by a small number of people from Barbadoes, who kept it on account of it's wood, whereof it has great plenty, which the Barbadians were very much in want of. In 1719, the French king granted this island to the marshal d'Etrec, who sent a colony to possess, settle, and plant it. The governor of Barbadoes immediately notified to the commanding officer of the said colony, that, as the island belonged to his Britannick majesty, if the French persisted in settling on it, he should be obliged to dispossess them by force; and, at the same time, our ambassador at Paris represented the matter with so much spirit and justice, as a violation of the rights of his Britannick majesty, that orders were sent to the marshal d'Etrec's colony to evacuate the island, which they did accordingly. Three years after this, his late majesty, king George I, granted this island, and that of St Vincent, as we have seen, to his grace John duke of Montague: and, from the deduction of particulars given, it appears plain enough, that the English have an undoubted right to this territory: that the French have been no better than intruders here, and as such, were obliged to quit it in the reign of king George I, as they had before done in that of king Charles II; since which our rights to this island have been confirmed by treaties: but their quitting it in 1719, when the marshal d'Etrec's colony evacuated it, by express order of the French king, is the strongest and clearest proof of all: for, had not their ministers been sensible of their nation's having no just pretensions to St Lucia, it is not to be supposed that they would so tamely have given up their settlement, after having exerted so much vigour to prevent ours: and as it was declared, by the mutual evacuation of this island in 1722-3, that it could not, or should not, prejudice the claim of either, it cannot be alleged, with any shadow of justice, to defeat that right, or to be at all derogatory from it, though the prosecution of it was thereby, for a time, suspended.

The French, also, used every artifice to prevent our possession of the island of St Vincent, which was included in the patent of his grace the duke of Montague for St Lucia. They poisoned the natives in our disfavour, making them believe that we came to enslave them, when our intention was quite otherwise. The like policy has been practised by this nation to Dominica and Tobago.

And are not the motives to this conduct of the French very apparent? Such is the natural situation of the Caribbee Islands, that they run in a chain across that part of the western ocean which terminates upon the continent of South America. Of that chain Antigua is the northern, and Tobago the southern link. The French being possessed of Martinique, Guardaloupe, and several small islands in the center; and, by late incroachments, have extended their possession to Dominica, St Lucia, St Vincent, and Tobago: so that France attempted to have the whole chain of Caribbee Islands*, of any value for extent and harbours (except Antigua) which are situated in the track of navigation to the coast of Carracas and Carthagenà to the southward; and to St Eustatia, St Thomas, Santa Cruz, Porto-Rico, St Domingo, Cuba, Jamaica, Porto-Bello, and all the coast of New Spain; from thence to the bay of Mexico, and Mississippi, to the northward. What, therefore, could have hindered the French, in case of war, from intercepting all the navigation from Europe, in the passages to these several ports, whenever the naval power of France should be in a tolerable good condition? more especially if Antigua should also fall under their dominion, which was far from being impossible, if it's great port, called English Harbour (the best of any in that part of the world for the reception and security of a British squadron) is not well fortified, and the Leeward Islands powerfully protected by our royal navy. For, if Antigua should be lost, or it's best harbour ruined, Montserrat, Nevis, St Christopher's, and all the lesser islands to the westward of them, must, for want of harbours and protection, fall of course into the hands of our

* Barbadoes, being to the east-ward, is not mentioned as in the chain of the Caribbee Islands; but yet, being one of them, is, from it's nearness to Tobago, in more imminent danger of invasion from that island, whenever it became well settled by the French, because an armament may be conveyed from one to the other in a very few hours; for the same reason the trade of Barbadoes might have been subject to perpetual interruption from privateers.

enemies. In that case, of what value can Jamaica be to this kingdom, when our fleets cannot pass thither without a convoy, superior to the naval power of France? And what trade can bear the immense expence of such convoys? Could Britain with safety, therefore, rest satisfied under the usurpations of France, and, by that means, give it the power of intercepting all the trade of Europe to America? This is now prevented by the DEFINITIVE TREATY.

Thus it evidently appears, what influence these incroachments of France would have had upon the whole trade and navigation of America in time of war. But this was not all our danger; for by these possessions of the French, even in times of peace, would have cut off all supplies of hard timber, without which it is impossible to carry on the sugar-works of Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands, but at immense expence, from the far distant colonies of the Dutch on the continent of South America, Berbice and Essequibe: for neither Barbadoes nor the Leeward Islands produce large hard timber, fit for these purposes, nor even small timber enough fit for carts, and other carriages necessary for plantation use; and therefore Barbadoes has, for many years, been supplied with a good share of such timber from Tobago, and the Leeward Islands from Dominica, 'till the French have pretended to lay claim to it. As the British dominions in North America cannot furnish timber proper for these uses*, and none now is to be had but from the Dutch, at a great distance, it follows, that the very existence of British sugar-colonies depended upon the courtesy of the Dutch, and that courtesy bought at their own price, besides the expence of a longer voyage; or else we must reclaim immediately all those islands which the French have unjustly usurped. If this is not done, our sugar-colonies must be ruined for want of supplies of timber, even in times of peace (as has been observed) and France will, by that means, ingross the sugar-trade of the world †.

* Oak, or other timber of cold countries, splits in the hot climates, and soon decays; besides being subject to be eaten to a honey-comb, by animals called wood-ants, more destructive of wood on shore, than worms are to the bottom of ships when in harbour.

† That the French have, for many years past, supplanted us in the sugar-trade at foreign markets, is certain. By what measures they gradually and insensibly did this, and greatly increased the trade and navigation of their island colonies in general, shall be shewn under the articles FRENCH AMERICA, and SUGAR COLONIES; but now that valuable branch of our commerce may be effectually retrieved, and the British sugar islands rendered of far more importance to this nation than ever they have been.

Notwithstanding all the agreements made with the French in regard to the evacuation and neutrality of St Lucia, &c. the war with France was no sooner broke out, but the French seized the island of St Lucia as their own in 1744, and sent a governor to it, and a number of men, and 40 cannon, from 12 to 48 pounders, and have since fortified it with two forts, besides batteries; and they had between 2000 and 3000 white people upon it, and seemed resolved to maintain this island, as well as Dominica, St Vincent, and Tobago, although, according to the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle, they were obliged to evacuate the same, yet this was never complied with.

The French had about 2000 white men, being French, English, and Danes, besides Indians, under a French governor, at Dominica, and had several sugar-works on that island, and raised great quantities of sugar, indigo, cotton, and other West-India products, on this island.

They had people also at St Vincent's, interspersed with the native Indians, with whom they intermarried. They raised great quantities of tobacco, corn, and coffee, on this island: and they lately obtained such an agency over these Indians, as to make proclamation in that island, that no English, Dutch, or Danes, shall have any commerce with that island without a protection from the general of Martinique.

They had also fortified and settled Tobago since the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in spite of our naval force in these parts*.

* The following instructions were given to Robert Lowther, Esq; on the 23d of February, 1714-15, when he was appointed governor of Barbadoes, St Lucia, Dominica, and St Vincent, and the rest of his majesty's Caribbee Islands to the windward of Guardaloupe; which instructions have been continued to the several governors of Barbadoes since that time. Inf. 106. 'If any of the subjects of a foreign power, or state, have already planted themselves upon any of the islands of St Lucia, Dominica, St Vincent, or Tobago, or shall hereafter attempt to do the same, you are to assert our right to the said islands, exclusive of all others; and, in order to hinder the settlement of any colony there, you are to give notice to such foreigners that shall pretend to make such settlement, that, unless they shall remove in such time as you in your discretion shall assign, you shall be obliged by force to dispossess them, and send them off the said island.

Inf. 109. 'You are not to encourage any planting, nor to grant to any person any lands or tenements which are now, or hereafter shall be, in our power to dispose of in any of our islands under your government, except Barbadoes, until you shall receive farther orders from us therein.'

and insisted on it's belonging to the French king. From this last-mentioned island they may invade Barbadoes in one stretch, and in one night, as it lies southwardly of Barbadoes, distance about 30 leagues.

These attempts of our rivals must certainly have been undertaken with a design to supplant the English in all their sugar colonies, because they had before lands in their hands sufficient to raise West-India products wherewith to supply all Europe.

Wherefore this conduct of the French, it is humbly conceived, required the utmost attention: for, if they had been permitted to remain in possession of these islands, it would have been of the utmost ill consequence to the British nation, by reason, as observed, of their situation: they surround Barbadoes, and are to windward of the Leeward Islands. What must then have been the inevitable doom of our northern colonies and fisheries in America, without our British sugar colonies? and, to carry the consequence in it's natural gradation, what would have become of our British trade to Africa and America?

According to the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle, it is stipulated, in the ninth article, as follows, viz.

‘ Their Britannic and most christian majesties oblige themselves to cause to be delivered, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, the duplicates of the orders addressed to the commissaries appointed to restore and receive respectively whatever may have been conquered, on either side in the West Indies; and every thing besides shall be re-established on the foot that they were, or ought to be, before the present war.

‘ The said respective commissaries shall be ready to set out on the first advice that their Britannic and most christian majesties shall receive of the exchange of the ratifications, furnished with all necessary instructions, commissions, powers, and orders, for the most expeditious accomplishment of their said majesties intentions, and of the engagements taken by the present treaty.’

The islands of St Lucia, St Vincent, and Dominica, were, or ought to have been, neutral, at the time of this treaty, according to a formal evacuation in or about the year 1732, by commissaries appointed in Barbadoes and Martinique, to repair to St Lucia for that purpose, in pursuance of express orders from their Britannic and most christian majesties, as beforementioned. The island of Tobago remained as it was before that war, at the time of the treaty, but was, in barefaced violation thereof, settled by the French in January 1749-50, under the protection of two French ships of war, which were sent from Brest for that purpose: and, therefore, were not the French obliged by treaty forthwith to have evacuated this island.

Thus have I, from a series of incontestable facts, connected in the simplest and most obvious light, and represented in the most candid and unexaggerated manner, shewn the unjustifiable attempts of France to injure the British rights and possessions in America: but it is to be hoped, from the wisdom of his majesty's councils, that all these mischiefs, which look with so formidable an aspect towards the trade of this nation, have at length been happily prevented by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

How far, also, the schemes of this neighbouring nation have had a tendency to injure the commerce and possession of other powers in America, in order to advance their own, shall be made appear in it's place. And when other nations, as well as we, enter into a critical examination of some of their late maps and charts, published by authority, they cannot longer remain insensible of the machinations that were really forming to their prejudice.

Before we conclude this article, it may be proper to intimate, that, under the general head of COLONIES, we shall consider BRITISH AMERICA in various other lights, not less interesting to these kingdoms than what has been already represented. Whatever some may please to think me deficient in, at present, upon this occasion, I promise to make them amends under other subsequent heads, which relate to the commerce of America, particularly under the articles of FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, PLANTATIONS and COLONIES.

BRITISH AMERICA.

THE KING'S PROCLAMATION for the due settlement of our new British Acquisitions in America, pursuant to the DEFINITIVE TREATY of February 10th 1763.

GEORGE R.

Whereas we have taken into our royal consideration the extensive and valuable acquisitions in America, secured to our crown by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February last; and being desirous, that all our loving subjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail themselves, with all convenient speed, of the great benefits and advantages, which must accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy council, to issue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publish and de-

clare to all our loving subjects, that we have, with the advice of our said privy council, granted our letters patent, under our great seal of Great-Britain, to erect, within the countries and islands ceded and confirmed to us by the said treaty, four distinct and separate governments, styled and called by the names of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada; and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

First, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coast by the river St John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the lake St John, to the south end of the lake Nipissim; from whence the said line, crossing the river St Lawrence, and the Lake Champlain, in 45 degrees of north latitude, passes along the Highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the said river St Lawrence, from those which fall into the sea; and also along the north coast of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the coast of the gulph of St Lawrence to Cape Rosieres, and from thence crossing the mouth of the river St Lawrence by the west end of the island of Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid river of St John.

Secondly, The government of East Florida, bounded to the westward by the gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola river; to the northward by a line drawn from that part of the said river where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the source of St Mary's river, and by the course of the said river to the Atlantic Ocean; and to the eastward and southward by the Atlantic Ocean and the gulph of Florida, including all islands within six leagues of the sea coast.

Thirdly, The government of West Florida, bounded to the southward by the gulph of Mexico, including all islands within six leagues of the coast, from the river Apalachicola to lake Ponchartrain; to the westward by the said lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Mississippi; to the northward by a line drawn due east from that part of the river Mississippi, which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola, or Chatahouchee; and to the eastward by the said river.

Fourthly, The government of Grenada, comprehending the island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the islands of Dominico, St Vincents, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fishery of our subjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coast of Labrador, and the adjacent islands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our said privy council, to put all that coast, from the river St John's to Hudson's streights, together with the islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller islands lying upon the said coast, under the care and inspection of our governor of Newfoundland.

We have also, with the advice of our privy council, thought fit to annex the islands of St John's and Cape Breton, or Ile Royale, with the lesser islands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have also, with the advice of our privy council aforesaid, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Atamaha and St Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the speedy settling our said new governments, that our loving subjects should be informed of our paternal care for the security of the liberties and properties of those, who are and shall become inhabitants thereof; we have thought fit to publish and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great seal of Great-Britain, by which the said governments are constituted, given express power and direction to our governors of our said colonies respectively, that so soon as the state and circumstances of the said colonies will admit thereof, they shall, with the advice and consent of the members of our council, summon and call general assemblies within the said governments respectively, in such manner and form as is used and directed in those colonies and provinces in America, which are under our immediate government; and we have also given power to the said governors, with the consent of our said councils, and the representatives of the people, so to be summoned as aforesaid, to make, constitute, and ordain laws, statutes and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our said colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under such regulations and restrictions as are used in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until such assemblies can be called as aforesaid, all persons inhabiting in, or resorting to our said colonies, may confide in our royal protection, for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpose we have given power, under our great seal, to the governors of our said colonies respectively, to erect and constitute, with the advice of our said councils respectively, courts of judicature and public justice within our said colonies, for the hearing and determining all causes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all persons, who may think themselves aggrieved by the sentences of such courts, in all civil cases, to appeal, under the usual limitations and restrictions to us, in our privy council.

We have also thought fit, with the advice of our privy council as aforesaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our said three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority

authority to settle and agree with the inhabitants of our said new colonies, or with any other persons who shall resort thereto, for such lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now or hereafter shall be in our power to dispose of, and them to grant to any such person or persons, upon such terms, and under such moderate quit-rents, services, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and settled in our other colonies, and under such other conditions as shall appear to us to be necessary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and settlement of our said colonies.

And whereas we are desirous, upon all occasions, to testify our royal sense and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and soldiers of our armies, and to reward the same; we do hereby command and empower our governors of our said three new colonies, and all other our governors of our several provinces on the continent of North America, to grant, without fee or reward, to such reduced officers as have served in North America during the late war, and to such private soldiers as have been or shall be disbanded in America, and are actually residing there, and shall personally apply for the same, the following quantities of lands, subject at the expiration of ten years to the same quit-rents as other lands are subject to in the province within which they are granted, as also subject to the same conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every person having the rank of a field-officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain 3000 acres.

To every subaltern or staff-officer 2000 acres.

To every non-commission officer 200 acres.

To every private man 50 acres.

We do likewise authorize and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our said colonies upon the continent of North America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the same conditions, to such reduced officers of our navy of like rank as served on board our ships of war in North America at the times of the reduction of Louisbourg and Quebec in the late war, and who shall personally apply to our respective governors for such grants.

And whereas it is just and reasonable, and essential to our interest, and the security of our colonies, that the several nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, should not be molested or disturbed in the possession of such parts of our dominions and territories as, not having been ceded or purchased by us, are reserved to them or any of them as their hunting-grounds; we do therefore, with the advice of our privy council, declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, East Florida or West Florida; do presume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of survey, or pass any patents for land beyond the bounds of their respective governments, as described in their commissions; as also that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do presume for the present, and until our further pleasure be known, to grant warrants of survey, or pass patents for any lands beyond the heads or sources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic ocean from the west and north-west; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to or purchased by us as aforesaid, are reserved to the said Indians, or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleasure, for the present as aforesaid, to reserve under our sovereignty, protection and dominion, for the use of the said Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our said three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudson's-bay company; as also all the lands and territories lying to the westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from the west and north-west as aforesaid; and we do hereby strictly forbid, on pain of our displeasure, all our loving subjects from making any purchases or settlements whatever, or taking possession of any of the lands above reserved, without our special leave and licence for that purpose first obtained.

And we do further strictly enjoin and require all persons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently seated themselves upon any lands within the countries above described, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchased by us, are still reserved to the said Indians as aforesaid, forthwith to remove themselves from such settlements.

And whereas great frauds and abuses have been committed in the purchasing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our interests, and to the great dissatisfaction of the said Indians; in order therefore to prevent such irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our justice and determined resolution to remove all reasonable cause of discontent, we do, with the advice of our privy council, strictly enjoin and require, that no private person do presume to make any purchase from the said Indians of any lands reserved to the said Indians within those parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow settlement; but that if at any time any of the said Indians should be inclined to dispose of the said lands, the same shall be purchased only for

us, in our name, at some public meeting or assembly of the said Indians, to be held for that purpose by the governor or commander in chief of our colony respectively, within which they shall lie: and in case they shall lie within the limits of any proprietary government, they shall be purchased only for the use and in the name of such proprietaries, conformable to such directions and instructions as we or they shall think proper to give for that purpose: and we do, by the advice of our privy council, declare and enjoin, that the trade with the said Indians shall be free and open to all our subjects whatever; provided that every person, who may incline to trade with the said Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on such trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies respectively, where such person shall reside; and also give security to observe such regulations as we shall at any time think fit, by ourselves or by our commissaries, to be appointed for this purpose, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the said trade: and we do hereby authorize, enjoin and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies respectively, as well those under our immediate government, as those under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant such licences without fee or reward, taking especial care to insert therein a condition, that such licence shall be void, and the security forfeited, in case the person, to whom the same is granted, shall refuse or neglect to observe such regulations as we shall think proper to prescribe as aforesaid.

And we do further expressly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as those employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reserved as aforesaid, for the use of the said Indians, to seize and apprehend all persons whatever, who, standing charged with treasons, misprisions of treason, murders, or other felonies or misdemeanors, shall fly from justice and take refuge in the said territory, and to send them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they stand accused, in order to take their trial for the same.

Given at our court at St James, the 7th day of October, 1763, in the third year of our reign.

REMARKS.

Of the different exchanges between our plantations and London.

The various provinces on the continent of North America, and also the Leeward Islands and Jamaica, subject to Great-Britain, have for many years past varied greatly in the way of reckoning their monies or currencies, from what has been by law established in England.

Barbadoes,	L. 130	
Antigua,	175	
St Christopher's, Nevis, and	} 160	
Montserrat,		
Jamaica,	140	
Virginia,	125	
New England paper money,	525	per 100 l. sterling.
New York ditto,	160	
Pennsylvania ditto,	170	
Maryland ditto	* 220	
South Carolina ditto,	750	
North Carolina ditto,	1000	

* In Maryland have been three kinds of currencies: contracts for sterling, paid in bills of exchange; contracts for gold or silver currency, accounted at 133 $\frac{1}{4}$ for 100 l. sterling; and paper currency 220 for 100 l. sterling, as above.

By the term currency, where it is relative to our sugar-islands particularly, and is mentioned without the addition of coin, is meant the payments made in sugar, rum, cotton, molasses, ginger, indigo, or other commodities, the produce of these islands, in contradistinction to payments made in gold and silver. The variation of coin in some of the islands, and leaving it to the option of a debtor there to pay in what CURRENCY he thinks most for his own advantage, has been productive of great frauds and mischiefs to trade occasionally; and therefore the fair merchant and planter wish for nothing so much as the establishment of one COMMON CURRENCY in all the plantations. Cicero complains of the like confusion in the Roman money, where he says, Jactabatur enim temporibus illis nummus sic, ut nemo posset scire quid haberet; that money was so varied, and tossed about, that no man could tell how much he was worth, till the Roman magistrate reformed it.

The four Leeward Islands, viz. Antigua, St Christopher's, Nevis, and Montserrat, though they have only one chief governor, have distinct assemblies; so that the laws of one island do not bind any of the others; nor can the whole be bound but by a law made by a general assembly of them all, which no one island can afterwards abrogate. There has been no such assembly since the year 1705, and but one general law that

that ever regulated their currency of coin, which was passed in the year 1694, and afterwards confirmed by the crown. As this law was never repealed by a general assembly; and as no act of government in one island could since legally alter the currency of the coin that had been settled by the authority of the whole, the legal currency of these Leeward Islands coin must be according to the act of 1694.

By this act, each piece of eight of Seville, Mexico, and Pillar, and each French crown, was to be current and pass for 6 s. a Peru piece of eight for 5 s. and all monies whatsoever to be rated in proportion, except the eighth part of a Peru piece of eight, commonly called a seven pence halfpenny, which shall pass for nine pence.

Upon this footing stood the currency of the coin in the Leeward Islands till 1704, when, upon a representation to the crown of the different rates at which, by divers indirect practices, the same species of foreign coins passed in the American plantations, (by which means, artful men drew the money from one colony to another, to their own private gain, but to the prejudice of the trade of the whole) Queen Anne, by her proclamation in the said year, regulated the currency of each individual piece in all the plantations, as follows:

	Weight.	True value.		Curr. value abroad, not to exceed	
		s.	d.	s.	d.
Seville pieces of eight, old plate,	17 12	4	6	6	0 0
Ditto, new plate,	14 0	3	7 1/4	4	9 2 1/2
Mexico pieces of eight,	17 12	4	6	6	0 0
Pillar pieces of eight, -	17 12	4	6 3/4	6	0 0
Peru pieces of eight, old plate,	17 12	4	5	5	10 2 3/4
Cross dollars, -	18 0	4	4 3/4	5	10 1 1/2
Ducatoons of Flanders, - -	20 21	5	6	7	4 0
Ecus of France, or silver Louis,	17 12	4	6	6	0 0
Crufadoes of Portugal, -	11 4	2	10 1/2	3	9 2 3/4
Three guilder pieces of Holland,	20 7	5	2 1/4	6	10 3 3/4
Old rix-dollars of the empire,	18 0	4	6	6	0 0

The proclamation directed, that the half-quarters, and other parts, pass in proportion to their denomination, and light pieces in proportion to their weight. This very proclamation was incorporated in, and enforced by an act of parliament, in the 6th of Queen Anne; which wisely established a SAMENESS of currency in all the plantations, and ordained it to be obeyed, under severe penalties. There was, indeed, a proviso in the act, reserving a power in the crown to alter the cur-

rency, either by proclamation, or by assenting to some act of assembly for that purpose; but as no such proclamation or law has passed or issued, with regard to Barbadoes, the Leeward Islands, or Jamaica, the legal currency of their coin cannot exceed the proportions established by the said act.

When the people of Jamaica had raised their money, by agreeing to tender and receive it at an UNCERTAIN WEIGHT, and at 6 s. 3 d. the piece of eight, the lord Carteret, then secretary of state, wrote a letter to the duke of Portland, the governor; wherein he tells him, after complaints made by some merchants, 'That the trade and credit of the island will be lost, if the VARIATION OF THE COIN be not rectified; it being a bold attempt in those who advised it, because expressly contrary to the act of the 6th of queen Anne, and the 47th instruction.'—The same royal instruction has been given to all governors of the Leeward Islands, to oblige them to take care, that the act be punctually obeyed.

How it has been adhered to, experience has shewn; but to the honour of Barbadoes, it has observed the law more strictly than any of our colonies, though it has suffered from the non-observance of it, by the people of the Leeward Islands, who for a considerable time drew away from Barbadoes their LIGHT MONEY, as there purchased by WEIGHT, and passed it among the Leeward Islands by TABLE.

At Barbadoes, where the money is current, according to the 6th of queen Anne, and where the coin is stable and fixed as their weights and measures (as indeed it ought to be every where) fresh provisions, such as beef, veal, mutton, pork, and other necessaries of life, have been all more than 70 per cent. cheaper than they have been at Antigua.

Our readers in general, as well as the trader in particular, will be the better enabled to judge of the necessity of establishing a SAMENESS OF CURRENCY in our American colonies, by the two following TABLES. The first is taken from a report made, and signed by the officers of the mint, to the duke of Newcastle, on the 19th of November 1740, in obedience to an order from the government, consequent on an address of the house of commons to his majesty, for the said officers to enquire into, and ascertain the rates and proportions at which all foreign GOLD COINS are to be accounted, received or paid, in any of those COLONIES. This TABLE, which shews the true assays of those coins, with their WEIGHT, their VALUE, in sterling, their VALUE IN THE PLANTATIONS, &c. was drawn up, in order to settle their TRUE CURRENCY in the said colonies, and to suppress the FRAUDULENT CURRENCY, which they had obtained in the LEeward ISLANDS.

Denomination worse than sterling.	Assay, or fineness.		Weight.	Sterling value, per piece.			Current value per piece, in the plantations.			Sterling value, per ounce.			Current value per pound, in plantations.		
	Car. gr.	Pwt. gr.		l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
	Louis d'or, - - - - -	0 1 1/2	5 6	1 0	0	4 1/2	1 6	8	10 1/2	3 16	4	5 1	9		
Old French guinea, - - -	0 1	5 5	1 0	0	0 1/2	1 6	8 1/2	3 17	0	5	2	8			
Louis of 1725, French, call'd Merliten,	0 1 1/2	4 4	0 15	11	11 1/2	1 1	3 1/2	3 16	6 1/2	5	2	0 1/2			
French pistole, - - - - -	0 0 1/2	4 7	0 16	7	7 1/2	1 2	1 1/2	3 17	5	5	3	3			
Louis de Malt, - - - - -	0 1 1/2	6 6	1 3	10	10 1/2	1 11	10 1/2	3 16	5 1/2	5	1	11			
Johannes of Portugal, - - -	0 0 1/2	9 4	1 15	7	7 1/2	2 7	6 1/2	3 17	9	5	3	8			
Moydore, - - - - -	0 0 1/2	6 17	1 6	0	0 1/2	1 14	8 1/2	3 17	6 1/2	5	3	4 1/2			
Spanish doubloon, mill'd,	0 0 1/2	17 9	3 7	3	3 1/2	4 9	8 1/2	3 17	5	5	3	3			
Spanish pistole, mill'd,	0 0 1/2	4 8 1/2	0 16	10	10 1/2	1 2	5 1/2	3 17	5	5	3	3			
Spanish double doubloon, hammer'd,	0 0 1/2	17 6	3 5	1	1 1/2	4 6	10 1/2	3 15	6 1/2	5	0	9			
Spanish pistole, hammer'd,	0 0 1/2	4 8 1/2	0 16	10	10 1/2	1 2	6 1/2	3 17	6 1/2	5	3	4 1/2			
Barbary ducat, or chequin, - - -	0 1	2 3	0 7	10	10 1/2	0 10	6 1/2	3 14	4	14	19	1 1/2			

For the farther illustration of an article of such importance to the trade and interest of our American colonies, see the following Table; shewing how much each of these gold pieces have exceeded their values in the LEeward ISLANDS, where they have been paid at the following rates, viz.

Names of the pieces, as in the above Table of the Mint.	Plantation currency, as settled by the mint, without the fractions.			How current in the plantations for many years.			How much each piece went above its value, supposing them all full weight.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Louis d'or, - - - - -	1	6	8	1	13	0	0	6	4
The old French guinea, - - -	1	6	8	1	13	0	0	6	4
Louis of 1725, call'd Merliten,	1	1	3	1	8	0	0	6	9
French pistole, - - - - -	1	2	1	1	8	0	0	5	11
Louis de Malt, - - - - -	1	11	10	2	2	0	0	10	2
Johannes of Portugal, - - -	2	7	6	3	12	0	1	4	6
Moydore, - - - - -	1	6	0	2	2	0	0	16	0
Spanish doubloon, mill'd,	4	9	8	5	12	0	0	2	4
Spanish pistole, mill'd,	1	2	5 3/4	nearly	1	8	0	5	7
Spanish doubloon, hammer'd,	4	6	10	5	12	0	1	5	2
Spanish pistole, hammer'd,	1	2	6	1	8	0	0	5	6
Spanish pistole hammer'd, better than sterling,	1	2	10	1	8	0	0	5	2
Barbary ducat, or chequin,	0	10	6	0	14	6	0	3	6

See our article CURRENCY.

BROCADE, or **BROCADO**, a stuff of gold, silver, or silk, raised, and enriched with flowers, foliages, or other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchant, or manufacturers, who invent new fashions.

Formerly that word signified only a stuff wove all of gold both in the warp and in the woof, or all of silver, or of both mixed together: thence it passed to those stuffs in which there was silk mixed, to raise and terminate the gold or silver flowers. But, at present all stuffs, even of silk alone, whether they be programs of Tours or of Naples, fattins, and even bare taffeties or lustrings, if they be but adorned and worked with some flowers, or other figures, are called brocades.

The gold or silver brocades are among the four sorts of cloth, on one of which traders, who would be admitted merchants and mister-workmen of gold, silver, and silk stuffs in the city of Paris, are obliged to make their master-piece of workmanship, according to the 25th article of the regulations of the year 1667, concerning the manufactory of those sorts of stuffs.

The articles 49 and 50 of the same regulations, and the 16th of those of Lyons of the same year, order to make the warp and threads of the brocades of spun and twisted silk; and the warp doubled in a stay of $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell, between the selvages, of pure and fine silk, without mixing with it any silk dyed raw, upon pain of forfeiting the stuffs, and paying a fine of 60 livres for the first offence, and a greater penalty in case of a second offence.

LAWs OF ENGLAND WITH REGARD TO BROCADE.

1. Gold or silver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof; or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of, copper, brass, or any other inferior metal; or gold or silver wire or plate, foreign embroidery, or gold or silver brocade imported, to be forfeited and burnt, and 100 l. paid by the importer, for every parcel so imported.—10 Ann. cap. 26. § 65.—15 Geo. II. cap. 20. § 7.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 1.

2. Foreign embroidery, gold or silver thread, lace, fringe, brocade, or other work made thereof, or of gold or silver wire or plate, may not be sold or exposed to sale, or disposed of by exchange, barter, truck, or otherwise, nor worked or made up in, or upon any wearing apparel, on pain of its being forfeited and burnt, together with the apparel or other materials; and the offender also forfeits 100 l. for every such offence.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 2.

3. Such goods found and seized in the house, warehouse, or custody of any mercer, laceman, haberdasher, upholder, milliner, tailor, or dealer in, vender, or maker up of the said manufactures, besides being forfeited and burnt, such person, if they were brought or continued there with his knowledge or consent, forfeits 100 l. for every piece or parcel. 22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 3.

4. Gold or silver thread, &c.—Such goods, after condemnation, are to be publicly burnt, at such places as the commissioners of the customs shall direct.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 4.

5. In case of any question arising where the goods were manufactured, the proof is to lie on the owner, claimer, or person prosecuted.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 6.

6. Nothing in this act is to extend to inflict any penalty on the wearer.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 7.

7. Prosecutions upon any act prohibiting the importation or sale of such goods, must be commenced within twelve months after discovery of the offence, or, in case of seizure, within three months after seizure.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 8.

BROKAGE. See **BROKERAGE.**

BROKER, a name given to persons of several and very different professions, the chief of which are exchange-brokers, stock-brokers, pawn-brokers, and brokers simply so called, who sell household furniture and second-hand apparel.

Exchange-BROKERS, are a kind of agents, or negotiators, who contrive, propose, make, and conclude bargains between merchants and merchants, and merchants and tradesmen, in matters of bills of exchange or merchandize, for which they have so much commission. The French call them agents of bank and exchange, when they meddle only with bills or money, and courtiers, or brokers, when they make bargains for any sort of merchandize. See **AGENTS.**

LAWs OF ENGLAND WITH REGARD TO BROKERS,

The exchange-brokers are, by the statute 10 Ric. II. cap. 1. called broggers, the original of which name is from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon broc, which signifies misfortune, which is often the true reason of a man's breaking: so that the broker came from one who was a broken trader by misfortune; and none but such were formerly admitted to that employment. They were to be freemen of the city of London, and allowed and approved by the lord mayor and aldermen for their ability and honesty. By the statute 8 and 9 Will. II. they are to be licensed in London by the lord mayor, who gives them an oath, and takes bond for the faithful execution of their offices: if any persons shall act as brokers without being thus licensed and admitted, they shall for-

feit the sum of 500 l. and persons employing them 5 l. and brokers are to register contracts, &c. under the like penalty—also brokers shall not deal for themselves, on pain of forfeiting 200 l. They are to carry about them a silver medal, having the king's arms and the arms of the city, and pay 40 s. a year to the chamber of the city. Stat 6 Ann. cap. 16. The exchange-brokers make it their business to know the alteration of the course of exchange, to inform merchants how it goes, and to give notice to those who have money to receive or pay beyond sea, who are the proper persons for negotiating the exchange with; and, when the matter is accomplished, that is, when the money for the bill is paid, and the bill delivered, they have for brokerage 2 s. for 100 l. sterling.

By statute 3 Geo. II. cap. 3. No person is to exercise the employment of a broker within the city of Bristol, unless he be first admitted by the mayor, aldermen, and common-council of that city, under such restrictions for his good behaviour, and as to fees, and the number of brokers, as the said mayor, &c. shall think fit. Every broker is also to take an oath, and to give bond to the mayor and court of aldermen for the faithful discharge of his office, and pay 10 s. as a fee for his admittance, to the town-clerk of Bristol. The mayor and court of aldermen shall order the names of all such brokers, and the places of their habitation, to be affixed on the Tholfe, and in the council-house, and other public places within the city.

Any person acting as broker, not being sworn and admitted, is to forfeit 100 l. and any person employing one as a broker, not being sworn, shall forfeit 50 l.

Every sworn broker is to keep a broker's book, in which he must enter all the contracts he shall make, within three days after making, with the parties names, on pain of forfeiting 20 l.

Every broker shall carry about him a medal of silver, on which shall be his majesty's arms, and, on the reverse, the arms of the city of Bristol, with the name of such broker, which medal he shall produce, if required on the concluding of every bargain by him made, to the parties concerned, on pain to forfeit 5 l.

If any such broker shall deal for himself, in remittance of money, or buy any goods, to sell again for his own benefit, or shall make profit in buying or selling any goods, &c. for the benefit of any other person, save in the way of a broker only, he shall forfeit for the first offence 20 l. for the second offence 50 l. and for the third offence 100 l. and, being convicted of such third offence, shall be incapable to act as a broker within the city of Bristol.

In France, 'till the middle of the 17th century, they gave the name of broker (courtier) or exchange-broker (courtier de change) to those whose business it was to intervene between merchants, traders, bankers, and other persons, to make them borrow or lend money, or find or give bills of exchange. But, since the decree of the council made in the year 1639, the name of courtier de change has been changed into that of agent de change, banque et finance; and, even to render those offices more honourable, they have added to them, in the beginning of the 18th century, the title of king's counsellors. See **AGENT** of Exchange. So that, at present, the word courtier is confined to those only who make bargains of merchandizes.

R E M A R K S.

The broker's profession is very necessary in commerce, and renders it more easy, especially in towns of great trade, there to have persons of a good understanding, well known and esteemed amongst the merchants, workmen and tradesmen, to give them notice where they may meet with the merchandizes they may have occasion for, or with the materials proper for their several works, or for their manufactures; and to find for those who have manufactured any ware, or who would sell them, persons ready or willing to buy or barter them.

Henry III. of France, as we have observed in the article of Agent of the bank, was the first who erected into an office, or settled employment, the functions of the brokers, which 'till then had been free: but that erection, or creation, did not take place 'till the following reign; nor was it ever put in practice but with regard to the exchange-brokers; and the same liberty does still continue in all the cities of France, except a very few, where there are established brokers, that is, whose employment is a post under the government, as at Bourdeaux, where there are such settled brokers for all sorts of merchandizes, and at Paris for peculiar sorts of merchandizes only.

We may distinguish, as it were, two sorts of brokers: the one who may be called simply brokers of merchandizes, and the other brokers of manufactures, workmen, and tradesmen.

Their functions are alike; that is to say, they all contrive to make people buy, sell, or barter, for the sake of their commission, or brokerage; but the object of their functions is in some manner different, the former facilitating between merchants the sale of the merchandizes which they have bought

by wholesale, or which the foreign merchants bring to market; and the latter applying themselves only to procure to the manufacturers, workmen, and artificers, the materials proper for their several manufactories, or works, or to afford them opportunities and means for selling the stuffs, and other merchandizes, they have worked.

At Paris, which is, as it were, the center of the whole commerce of France, there is hardly a body or company of merchants, or even of tradesmen, that have not their brokers, who are commonly chosen out of their own body, and meddle with no bargains but of such merchandizes, or works, which by the statutes it is lawful for the freemen of such of the six bodies of merchants, or for those of such of the other companies of arts and trades, to sell or to make respectively, for which each broker acts.

The brokers of the companies of arts and trades are commonly such freemen, who, having not wherewithal to set up shop, get their livelihood by brokerage, each among two freemen of his own company. But, as for the brokers of the six bodies of merchants, they are, in some, appointed by the master and wardens, as in the drapers body; but, in others, the broker's profession may be followed by any freeman who pleases, provided he does not, at the same time, follow that of a merchant, which is prohibited by the second article of the second title of the ordinance of the year 1673: so that almost all the brokers of merchandizes are themselves merchants, who have left off trade, or who have not stock enough to carry it on for their own account.

Where the broker's profession has been erected into an employment under the government, as at Bourdeaux, and in some other cities, they alone follow that business, exclusively of all other persons.

At Lyons, which is a free city, and in all the other towns, where there are no companies of arts and trades, any person may set up for a broker, provided he conform himself to the rules of policy established in that respect, and have the qualifications required by the third article of the second title of the same ordinance of 1673.

As for Tours, where there are such companies, and in all the other towns where there are any, a broker must be free of the company, or body, that trade in such merchandizes, or works, as he would be a broker of.

We have observed above, that the brokers of merchandizes, and those of the manufacturers and artificers, are the same; there is, however, a sort of difference between them, which is, that the latter are not obliged to keep registers and journals, being commonly paid their brokerage content, immediately upon the striking of the bargain: whereas it is customary with the former to keep books, wherein they enter all the bargains they make; and their books are admitted as vouchers in the courts of justice.

Both those brokers are credited upon their word, with regard to the disputes which are between merchants, manufacturers, workmen, and artificers, concerning the selling, buying, or bartering of the merchandizes for which they have bargained.

They reckon at Paris, among the city officers, who are under the jurisdictions of the provost of the merchants, and echevins, or aldermen, three sorts of brokers:

1. The brokers of horses, for the carriage of merchandizes by water. They are established for the navigation, and take care to examine the horses used to draw the boats up the river, to fet the horses together, and to oblige the carriers to repair their boats, or to break up such as are no longer fit to serve.

These brokers differ from those horse-brokers whom we call jockies, or horse-couriers, and whom the French, also, stile courtiers de chevaux, whose business is to take, procure the selling, buying, or bartering all sorts of beasts of burden, for carriage or drawing. The office of these brokers is not erected at Paris into a post under the government.

2. Sworn wine-brokers on the keys, to examine and taste all the wines that arrive there. It is their business to judge whether the casks have not been filled or mixed with water, or with some other noxious liquor, and to give the buyers notice; and to see the casks, or tuns, contain the quantity of liquor set down in the mark put upon them by the gauger.

These brokers have nothing in common with the brokers of wine, brandy, cyder, and other liquors, established at Paris by the ancient edicts, nor with those created throughout the whole kingdom.

The 11th chapter of the ordinance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1672, explains, in five articles, all the functions of those sworn wine-brokers, who are officers of the city.

By the first, they are obliged to taste the wines as soon as they arrive, in order to judge of their quality.

The second commands them to meet on the keys and places of sale, in a sufficient number, on the days of sale, to make the citizens taste the wines, if thereto required, and give them notice of the true measure and gauging of the casks.

The third declares, that no man is obliged to employ a wine-broker, unless he pleases, but that when a broker has brought

a buyer to merchant, or sworn seller, he remains answerable for the buyer's solvency.

The fourth leaves to a citizen who is present to take, if he pleases, the bargain agreed upon by a broker for an absent citizen.

Finally, the fifth settles, at four queues, or six muids (or hog-heads) the quantity of wine which a wine-broker, keeping a public house, may keep in his cellars at a time, over and above the wine of his own growth, and inheritance, or estate, which, nevertheless, he is not allowed to sell, but to his guests.

3. Brokers of bacon and lard. These are established to examine those sorts of merchandizes, as they are landed or unloaded, and to answer for their goodness to the buyers, and to the seller for the price of his wares.

They also give the name of salt-brokers to petty officers of the gabelle, or salt-duty, who are present at the granaries on the days when the salt is distributed, and furnish the meters with measures, and with pieces of cloth to put under them.

At Cairo, and in several parts of the Levant, they give the name of censals to those Arabians who do the office of brokers; their manner of negotiating the merchants affairs has something so very singular, that it deserves an article by itself. See therefore CENSAL.

There are at Amsterdam two sorts of brokers, who are called maakelaars. Some are a kind of officers, and are stiled sworn brokers, because they are sworn before the magistrates, or burgomasters; the others are those who, without any commission, and without being owned by the magistrates, take upon themselves the office of brokers: they are called ambulatory brokers.

There are of the former, that is to say, of the sworn brokers 375 Christian brokers, and 20 Jews; the others are almost double that number: so that there are above 1000 brokers at Amsterdam, both of exchange and merchandize, both sworn and ambulatory.

The only difference there is between these two sorts of brokers is, that the books and persons of the sworn brokers are admitted as evidences in the courts of justice; whereas the ambulatory brokers, in case of a dispute, are not admitted, but, on the contrary, the contracts and bargains they made remain void.

The fees, or brokerage, of the sworn brokers at Amsterdam, which have been settled by two regulations, the one made in January, 1613, and the other the 22d of November, 1623, are, with regard to bills of exchange, 18 stivers per 100 pounds gross, or Flemish, which make 600 guilders, that is to say, three stivers for every 100 guilders, to be paid half by the drawer, and half by the remitter, that is, by him who gives the money.

Stock-BROKERS, are those who are employed to buy and sell shares in the joint stock of a company, or corporation.

As the practice of stock-jobbing has been carried to such an excess as became not only ruinous to a great number of private families, but even affected, or, at least, might soon affect, even the public credit of the nation, the legislature thought fit to put a stop to it, or at least to bring it within certain bounds, and under some regulation: and, therefore, the following act was passed.

By statute 7. Geo. II. cap. 8. sect. 1. All contracts, upon which any premium shall be given for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuse, any public stock, or securities, and all wagers, puts and refusals, relating to the present or future price of stocks, or securities shall be void; and all premiums upon such contracts, or wagers, shall be restored to the person who shall pay the same, who shall be at liberty, within six months from the making such contract, or laying such wager, to sue for the same, with double cost: and it shall be sufficient therein for the plaintiff to alledge, that the defendant is indebted to the plaintiff, or has received to the plaintiff's use the money, or premium, so paid, whereby the plaintiff's action accrued according to the form of this statute, without setting forth the special matter.

Sect. 2. Persons who by this act shall be liable to be sued, shall also be obliged to answer, upon oath, such bill as shall be preferred in equity, for discovering any such contract, or wager, and the premium given.

Sect. 3. Provided that the plaintiff, relators, or informers in such bill, give security to answer cost.

Sect. 4. Every person who shall make any such contracts, upon which any premium shall be given, for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuse any public stock, or securities, or any contracts in the nature of puts and refusals, or shall lay any such wager (except such who shall bona fide sue, and with effect prosecute, for the recovery of the premium paid by them; and except such who shall voluntarily, before suit commenced, repay or tender such premium, as they shall have received; and also except such who shall discover such transactions in any court of equity) shall forfeit 500 l. and all persons negotiating, or writing such contracts, shall likewise forfeit 500 l. which penalties may be recovered by action of debt, or information, in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, one moiety to his majesty, and the other moiety to them who shall sue for the same.

SECT. 5. No money, or other consideration, shall be voluntarily given, or received, for compounding any difference for the not delivering, or receiving, any public stock, or securities; but all such contracts shall be specifically executed; and all persons, who shall voluntarily compound such difference, shall forfeit 100 l. one moiety to his majesty, and the other moiety to them who shall sue for the same.

SECT. 6. No person who shall sell stock to be delivered and paid for on a certain day, and which shall be refused or neglected to be paid for, shall be obliged to transfer the same; but it shall be lawful for such persons to sell such stock to any other, and to receive, or recover from the person, who first contracted for the same, the damage which shall be sustained.

SECT. 7. It shall be lawful for any person, who shall buy stock, to be accepted and paid for on a future day, and which shall be refused, or neglected to be transferred, to buy the like quantity of such stock of any other person, at the current market-price, and to recover and receive, from the person who first contracted to deliver the same, the damage sustained.

SECT. 8. All contracts which shall be made for the buying, or transferring, of stock, whereof the person, on whose behalf the contract shall be made to transfer the same, shall not, at the time of making such contract, be actually possessed in his own right, or in the name of trustees, shall be void; and every person on whose behalf, and with whose consent, any contract shall be made to sell stock, whereof such person shall not be actually possessed in his own name, or in the name of trustees, shall forfeit 500 l. And every broker, or agent, who shall negotiate any such contract, and shall know that the person on whose behalf such contract shall be made, is not possessed of such stock, shall forfeit 100 l.

SECT. 9. Every person, receiving brokerage in the buying or disposing of stocks, shall keep a broker's book, in which he shall enter all contracts that he shall make, on the day of making such contract, with the names of the principal parties; and such broker, who shall not keep such book, or shall wilfully omit to enter any such contract, shall forfeit 50 l.

This act was made perpetual 10 Geo. II. cap. 8.

PAWN-BROKERS. These are persons who keep shops, and lend money upon pledges to necessitous people, and most commonly at an exorbitant interest. They are more properly styled pawn-takers, or tally-men.

These are meant in the statute 1 Jac. I. cap. 21. sect. 5. where it is declared, That the sale of goods wrongfully taken to any broker or pawn-broker in London, Westminster, Southwark, or within two miles of London, shall not alter the property.

And sect. 7. If a broker, having received such goods, shall not upon request of the owner discover them, how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed, he shall forfeit the double value thereof, to be recovered by action of debt, &c.

As it is thought that there are a great many abuses committed by pawn-brokers, it was hoped, some few years ago, that the legislature would have made some act to regulate their trade, but this remains still to be done. In Holland there are very good regulations concerning the pawn-broker's trade.

BROKERS, are also those who sell old household furniture, and wearing apparel. They are likewise called fripperers.

BROKERAGE, or **BROKAGE,** the fee or commission paid to a broker for his trouble in negotiating businesses between person and person. See **BROKER.**

BROKERAGE. Thus they call at Bourdeaux a duty which is raised on all sorts of merchandizes, of what nature soever they be, which are either imported or exported by sea in that city; except, however, those merchandizes, on which new duties are laid: on these no brokerage is raised, when it is said in the decrees, edicts, or declarations, that those merchandizes shall pay no other duties, but those laid upon them in the said decrees, edicts, or declarations.

This duty of brokerage is raised after two manners, either as it is fixed or settled, or by estimate or pricing.

The merchandizes on which that duty is settled, are as follow:

All sorts of wines, which pay 30 sols per ton.

Brandies, which pay 30 sols per piece, containing 52 verges.

Vinegar, 30 sols per ton.

Prunes, 15 sols per piece, or hogthead, weighing 6 hundred weight.

Honey, 30 sols per tun.

Wheat, mixed corn, rye, millet, linseed, mustard-seed, walnuts, chestnuts, 10 sols per tun.

Galipot, or turpentine, 30 sols per tun.

As for the duty by estimation or prize, it is paid for all the other merchandizes, at the rate of one per cent. of their value.

Besides this, there is received, for brokerage duty, the first tun of freight on every ship that takes in its cargo at Bourdeaux, which tun is commonly valued at eight livres on ships bound for any port of France, and at 10 livres on those bound

for foreign countries; or it is rated in proportion to the value of the cargo.

It must be observed, that though, in the fair-time, the merchants have the liberty to enter their merchandizes, without paying any local duty; yet they are never free from the brokerage duty.

Observe likewise, that no merchandize imported by land into Bourdeaux pays that duty of brokerage.

For the management of the office of brokerage duty there; of their two officers or commissioners, the one is the receiver, and the other comptroller. The former keeps two registers of receipts, and the other also three registers of control.

The first register serves to write down all the large acquittances of the ships which enter, either at what they call the **CONVOY** (see **CONVOYS**), or at the **COMPTABLE** according to their number. They also set down, in that register, the 8 or the 10 livres for freight.

In the second register are booked the duties of brokerage, either according as they are settled, or according to estimate, with the number of the ship's declaration.

The third register is designed for entering the duties of brokerage paid for cargoes, where particulars are mentioned, and which are exported by sea.

BRUNSWICK. The duchy of Brunswick, taken at large, includes the duchy of Hanover, the principality of Grubenhagen, and counties of Blakenburg and Rheinfein; and is bounded on the south by Thuringia and Hesse Cassel; on the west by the river Weser, which parts it from the principality of Minden, and the counties of Lippe and Hoy; on the north by Lunenburg; and on the east by Magdeburg, and the principalities of Halderstadt and Anhalt. Here are iron mines in the mountains, one of which called Broeken, or Brockberg, is reckoned the highest in Germany; at the bottom of which a salt-spring being discovered in the time of Julius duke of Brunswick, he built a small town for the workmen, called Julius-Hall, which is now grown rich and large, by their trade in salt, copper-kettles and pots, wire, &c.

GOSSAR is situate in a valley surrounded with mountains, in which are mines both of iron and silver, viz. those of Steinberg, Hertzberg, Rammelsburg, Klockenburg, &c. The inhabitants are employed either in digging them, or melting and refining, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals of all sorts, that are dug out of them. The emperor Frederick II, Anno 1235, with consent of the states of the empire, granted to Otho I, duke of Brunswick, the 10th of its mines to him, and his descendants.

BRUNSWICK was once an imperial city, and a rich and powerful Hans-Town, but, after many struggles being taken by the duke Rodolph Augustus, many of the merchants and tradesmen removed to other places, and many of their noble houses, warehouses, and halls, are now empty, or converted to other uses. The city, however, is still rich and populous, though much short of what it was, when free. Their chief trade is in tanning leather, and in brewing mum from a malt made of barley, with a small mixture of wheat, well-hopped. There is one thin weak sort for their common drink; but what they call ship-mum is scarce drinkable, 'till it has purged itself at sea, by which they transport great quantities abroad. There is a set number of brewers, who have the privilege to make it from Michaelmas to Lady-day, but must not sell any 'till it be old enough, lest it should lose its reputation. Butter and hops are likewise great commodities here, and they have a sweet sort of beer called brewhan. Betwixt the city of Brunswick, Goslar, and Thuringia, is the great mountain of Hartz, with the towns and rich mines of Rammelsburg, Wildman, Clausthal, Lantenthall, Cellerfeld, or Zellerfeld, and Grinde, or Grunde. These belong in common to the families of Hanover and Brunswick, but the greatest share to the former. There are above 110 that are called capital mines, several of which have many smaller ones belonging to them. Some of them are worked at the elector of Hanover's charge, and the rest farmed out; so that they bring in a great revenue, 900,000 dollars having been coined in one year, from that of Clausthal alone; and the adjacent country is well stored with wood for working them. They all lie together, according to Moll, in the north-east corner of Grubenhagen, on the borders of the bishoprick of Hildesheim. The mines of Rammelsburg, a high mountain near the city of Goslar, 43 miles south east from Hanover, were discovered in the year 972, by one Ramme, whose horse's foot turning up a piece of ore, as he was hunting, the duke Otho I. got a company of Franks, who understood minerals, to refine the metal, from whom the neighbouring town of Frankenburg had its name. The miners increasing, they found out that of Wildman in 1045, and that of Zellerfeld, which is the chief, in 1070. Here the overseer of the mines keeps his court, and pays the workmen every Saturday. The chief minerals in these mines are silver, lead, and two sorts of copper; one melted from the ore, and the other made by vitriol water, in which, with great art, it is said, they steep great plates of iron in troughs. They find

many other profitable minerals here, though the nauseous smells are often fatal to the workmen; as, 1. Grey vitriol. 2. The ink-stone of many colours; from which two, brayed and boiled together, is made green vitriol. 3. Another vitriol, which grows like icicles, and is used without any further cleansing. 4. Blue vitriol from copper ore. 5. White vitriol from lead ore. 6. Mily, of the nature and colour of Brimstone. 7. Brimstone from a peculiar sort of ore, from whence drop the flores sulphuris, which usually coagulate like icicles.

BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG. The dominions of this electorate may be laid out after the following manner, under these heads, viz.

The principality of Grubenhagen.

The duchy of Hanover, or Clanenburg.

The duchy of Lunenburg.

The duchy of Saxe Lawenburg.

The duchy of Bremen, including Verden.

The county of Hoya.

The county of Diepholt.

The revenues of the elector rise, 1. From the salt-pits, or springs that rise within the walls of Lunenburg. 2. From taxes on land, cattle, merchandize, public houses and inns. 3. The greatest revenues arise from the rich mines of silver, iron, and copper. The mines of Clauffthall, with those of St. Andrew and Allena, yield near 200,000 l. a year; but whether this computation is to be understood as clear of all charges, is not specified: so that, upon the whole, this elector's revenue is calculated to amount to at least 400,000 l. a year.

1. The principality of **GRUBENHAGEN**, is intersected in two parts by the bishoprick of Hildesheim: that on the east side is bounded on the north by the duchy of Wolfembuttel; on the west by Hildesheim; on the east by Hartz forest; and on the south by Eisfeld. The west part is also bounded on the north by Wolfembuttel; on the south by Oberwaldt; and both on the east and west by Hildesheim. It's soil is very barren, most of it's treasure being hidden under-ground; especially in the east part, where are most of the elector's mines of silver, copper, and lead; besides the many sorts of minerals. The east part is generally inhabited by miners.

ANDREASBERG is famous for it's rich mines of iron.

EYMBECK drives a considerable trade in beer, which is in great request; but was more so, before the sweet malt liquor, called the brewhan, came so much in vogue.

2. The duchy of **HANOVER** has Grubenhagen, or that which Moll calls Brunswick-Lunenburg, on the south; Lunenburg-Zell on the north; the county of Schawenburg on the west; and the duchy of Brunfwick Wolfembuttel, and the bishoprick of Hildesheim on the east. 'Tis more fruitful than the country on the south side of it, has fine meadows and fields, breeds excellent horses, and affords sheep and wool for export, and salt and tobacco sufficient for home consumption.

At **HANOVER** are four fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners.

It was once a free imperial city, and a Hans-Town, when it had a flourishing commerce; but it's chief trade now is in that sweet, but muddy liquor, called brewhan, which they send in great quantities to the neighbouring towns and villages.

Though the citizens of **HAMELEN** have the conveniency of commerce by the river Weser, yet agriculture is the chief part of their employment and subsistence.

3. The duchy of **BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG**, in which Zell is comprehended, and therefore called Lunenburg-Zell, has the dominions of Brandenburg and Mecklenburg on the east; the county of Hoya, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, on the west; the territories of Lubeck and Hamburg, and the duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg, on the north; the duchy of Brunfwick, the bishoprick of Hildesheim, and the duchy of Calenburg on the south. This duchy is for the most part a barren, sandy desert, and very thinly inhabited. It abounds with woods and forests, where are produced a great quantity of good fir, oak, and elm, which they sell to the Hamburgers and the Dutch, together with wild swine, and all sorts of deer, and other venison, of which there's a great plenty. A great part of it consists of vast heaths and wastes, yet in the barren parts the inhabitants keep bees, and make great profit of their honey and wax.

From **ZELL** a trade is carried on to Bremen, by the river Aller. The country round it abounds with woods and forests, and the product is the same with that of the duchy of Lunenburg.

WALSTRODE is a considerable town, with a good trade in honey, wax, wool, and beer.

HARBURG has great privileges, is populous, and enjoys a pretty good trade, having as convenient a situation for it as Hamburg, with a tolerable harbour. 'Tis a great thoroughfare from that city to the southern provinces.

LUNENBURG was formerly one of the Hans-Towns, and an imperial city. It's chief trade is in salt made from springs, which rise within the walls. The water is greenish, but a mixture of lead purifies it, and makes it preferable to that of all other salt springs. Their salt-houses are fenced, and con-

stantly guarded, it being the main support of the city, a considerable branch of the elector's revenue, and a constant employment for the poor. The salt is the best in Germany for colour and taste, and therefore much of it is exported. These salt-works are charged with pensions, payable to those in office, to the clergy, and to school-masters.

SCHACKENBURG is a large trading town at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weck, or Bessé.

4. The duchy of **SAXE LAWENBURG** lies on the north and south banks of the Elbe, between Holstein on the west and north; Mecklenburgh on the east; and Lunenburg on the south. It abounds in pasture and good cattle; is well supplied with wood and water, and has some small, but populous, trading towns on the Elbe, besides it's capital.

LAWENBURG is well situated for trade, only it is all engrossed by Hamburg.

N. B. The rest of the dominions of this electorate, viz. the duchy of Bremen, Verden, the county of Hoya, and the county of Diepholt, will fall in under their proper heads, viz. **BREMEN**, and **WESTPHALIA**. See **GERMANY**, and **HANOVER**.

BUBBLE, a cant term, given to a kind of projects for raising money on imaginary grounds, much practised in France and England about the years 1719, 1720, and 1721.

The pretence of these schemes was the raising a capital for retrieving, setting on foot, or carrying on some promising and useful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like. To this end, proposals were made out, shewing the advantages to be derived from the undertaking, and inviting persons to be engaged in it. The sum necessary to manage the affair, together with the profits expected from it, were divided into shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by any disposed to adventure therein.

The surprizing rise of the South Sea stock in the city of London, in the year 1720, gave birth to these projects: for the first designers of them gave out these proposals, with the hopes of raising a sum, which they intended privately to be laid out in South Sea stock, expecting by the rise thereof to refund the subscribers money, with a great gain to themselves. Others, improving the hint, opened their designs with the same plausible pretences, but absolutely with intent to defraud the adventurers of their subscription-money, without the least view to restitution.

There was a third kind somewhat different: the projectors of these, to give the thing a better colour, proposed to have books opened, and subscriptions taken at some time to come, as soon as the affair should be ripe for execution, and for dividing into shares; but, in the mean time, took money by way of premium, to intitle persons to be admitted subscribers, when the matter was to be laid open. Thus several thousands of shares were bespoke in a day, and premiums from one shilling to some pounds paid thereon, which the projectors very honestly put into their own pockets.

There were many and various sorts of these bubbles, and the nature of them was very extraordinary. Some of them were authorized by patents: in others, the projectors and proprietors were formed into corporations, some for fisheries, some for insurances, some for mining, &c. Nay, such was the frenzy of the times, that there were bubbles for cleaning the streets, others for furnishing shoes, others for stockings, others for physic, others for the maintenance of bastard children; others for the buying bad titles, others for the lending money, &c. and thus people of all conditions became the easy dupes of these sharpening projectors. See the articles **ACTION**, **COMPANIES**, **PROJECTOR**, **STOCKJOBING**.

REMARKS.

Bubbles, by which the public have been tricked and deceived, are of two kinds, viz. 1. Those which we may properly enough term trading-bubbles. And, 2. Stock, or fund-bubbles. The former have been of various kinds, and the latter at different times; as in France and England in 1719 and 1720, and when any remarkable alterations have been made, with regard to the property of our monied corporations.

In order to give the more specious colouring to trading-bubbles, they have been generally undertaken by such crafty and designing fellows, who have had art enough to magnify the imaginary gain of their projects, with a view to obtain large subscriptions before-hand, that a few of the cunning ones may suddenly grow immensely rich, at the expence, and by the unwariness of numbers, who mean only to make a reasonable advantage of their money, rather than let it lie dead.

As numbers have been egregiously duped and imposed on, and many families ruined and undone by trading schemes, that have no foundation but in deceit and villainy, it may be useful, especially to the growing and unexperienced generation, to throw some cautions in their way, with respect to public impositions of this kind.

Many of these nefarious designs have been carried on by companies, such as the York Buildings, charitable Corporation, and too many others, as will fully appear in the sequel of this work. I shall make a few observations, first upon trading bubbles, to prevent the public being imposed on here-

after. Let the nature and extent of the commerce proposed be maturely weighed, as whether it will admit of the capital stock required, and whether less would not answer the purposes, and yet yield the adventurers only a reasonable gain; whether the branch of trade is not already over-done; either among ourselves, or by other nations; whether the public encouragement obtained is adequate to the business proposed; and whether it so interferes with other branches which have a connection therewith, that it's constitution can be but of short duration; whether there are not some latent sinister views in the acting junto, either to make a jobb of their scheme; or by drawing in numbers into their subscription at one rate, with design at the critical time, when they have effectually blinded their encouragers, to dispose of their shares at an extravagant real advantage, and leave the imaginary fairy treasure in the hands of the dupes; whether the management of the business lies in the hands of men of discernment as well as worth and honour, or whether the leading cabal may not consist only of a few rotten conductors, who gloss over their proceedings with equipage and pageantry, and make use of a borrowed property of others, in order to raise a real one to themselves; whether many wife, upright, and opulent gentlemen may not be made tools of to raise the credit of a chimera, and become the bubble of bubbles, as well as the innocent widow and the orphan, and numberless others who have but small fortunes, whereon to subsist; whether such arts may not be made use of in the public news-papers, as even to deceive the most circumspect as well as the credulous; whether authentic accounts of the profits and losses of any public enterprizes should not be made public, from time to time, for the satisfaction of the proprietors, and not kept secret only, in the hands of a few designing managers; whether the choice of directors ought not to be so determined by private ballot, as that it may not be known for whom the electors vote; and be made annually, and by lists of the proprietors, not by lists formed by the managers themselves, so as that the change of hands may go only in a round of those who are in the secret to ———?

These, 'tis humbly presumed, are some of those prudent precautions that are requisite to be taken by the public, when great sums of money are to be raised to prosecute any public schemes whatever, and what every honest man will readily acquiesce in.—There is, indeed, one particular, which I had forgot to intimate; though I judge it not less essentially necessary than any that has been suggested.—I mean, the necessity of proprietors in general making themselves thoroughly acquainted, from time to time, with the true state of the affairs of companies; and that men of the best sense among them, and who never intend to act in the management, should pretty constantly attend the public business, and scrutinize into all transactions.—To which end, I would most humbly submit to consideration, That gentlemen of the best education, and of the most knowledge of the world, should make themselves complete accountants; otherwise, how is it possible, that they should be capable of examining into the state of the accounts of public corporations? That I may not be misunderstood, I would desire to observe, for the sake of the private gentleman, as well as others, how far I judge this kind of knowledge necessary. A knowledge and readiness in numerical computation is not the only qualification; for, besides that, the thorough skill in the method of account-keeping, called debtor and creditor, by the way of charge and discharge, is indispensably requisite; this art being applicable to the transactions of public companies, as well as to the affairs of private gentlemen, merchants and other traders. The method of account-keeping by public companies, as well as the public offices, differs, indeed, from that used by merchants; but, though there is a difference in the form, there is none in the essence; a person who is grounded in the one, will apply it to the other easily, and be enabled to detect all fallacies, however subtly disguised.

The number of the books, in the office of the accountants, will multiply, according to the nature of the company's transactions; but, let them be ever so numerous, they are all of them reducible to a plain ledger (as I have shewn, under article BOOK-KEEPING, and BOOKS of Merchants) which, being always posted up, will exhibit the true state of the affairs of the greatest corporations, as familiarly as that of private men. And, why should not the ledger, and, indeed, all the other accounts of bodies corporate, be fairly laid before their general courts? Nay, why should not every proprietor, who is interested to a certain degree, have the liberty of inspecting the books at certain stated times, if not at all times? By this means, the man of penetration would be able to discern how the public business went on, and would be capable of preparing himself to speak to the interest of societies at their general courts; and, who can do that to good purpose, without a competent knowledge in the companies negotiations? I must confess, that I have not discernment enough to discover, why the books and accounts of trading societies, any more than those of the public offices, where the state of the national revenue is registered, should be kept private, when the interest of the public requires otherwise?

Where the transactions of great bodies are kept as they ought to be, by variety of chief officers, and their underling clerks, the various officers and clerks are such checks upon each other, that it is extremely difficult, though not impossible, as is known from experience, for frauds to be committed by these officers.—These, however, have but proved trifling in comparison to those which have been committed, by the mal-administration of the head officers; by those who have had the chief, and, as it were, the sole and uncontrollable direction and government of great bodies. Wherefore, the great lines of conduct are what the proprietors should vigilantly attend to:

To enable the proprietors in general to make a right judgment of the state of their affairs, why should not their accounts be annually made public, that adventurers may be convinced, what dividend may, and what not be afforded; consistent with the real prosperity of the corporation? Would not this be one way to prevent the public being made a bubble of?

The other species of bubbling arises from the nature of our national debts; for, if between eighty and ninety millions of money are so tied up, as to remain untransferable, unnegotiable, and not to change hands, who could ever be induced to lend the government money upon the most pressing emergency, even in consideration of the largest interest?

Though parliamentary security gives the real value to the national debt, or the public funds, they would be like the miser's treasure, useless to the possessor; or like the undiscovered riches of the earth, did not circulation and credit set a market price upon them. As the best things may, so has the liberty of circulating our funds been greatly abused; nor can any thing, I am afraid, ever effectually prevent these general abuses, while our national incumbrances continue, without doing a greater public injury, than can be sustained by the present methods of circulation of the funds:

But, although a public mischief is not to be absolutely prevented, a private one, in a great measure, may, by a proper knowledge, and a competent judgment, to make a seasonable use of that knowledge.

But this can only be obtained by those, who duly attend to the transactions of the great corporations, and from time to time, make proper momento's of the state of their affairs. The bulk of the public creditors are widows and orphans, and other ladies and gentlemen who cannot be supposed to have any knowledge in public business. Who then may we rely upon to watch over the conduct of great companies? To put the sole confidence in directors, no one will contend for, who is at all acquainted with what is past. Who then is so fit to take care of public property, as the public proprietors themselves? Such among these, who are of the best abilities without doors, should attend to the conduct of those within; should call for accounts and vouchers at their general courts, and go to the root of their affairs, before schemes can be formed and executed to the public detriment. This vigilant inspection, this constant scrutiny of the most judicious proprietors, who have no share in the direction of public companies, is certainly the way to prevent those calamities, which have been so often experienced. That gentlemen may not be deterred from duly entering into enquiries of this kind, we shall, in it's place, endeavour, to the best of our abilities, to set the nature, the constitution, and the transactions of these corporations in a true light, in order to prevent the creditors of the public, as well as the proprietors of trading bodies, from being imposed upon hereafter.

There is another kind of imposition; to which too many of the proprietors of our public funds are daily liable, not from any malversation in those, whom they have entrusted with the management of their affairs, but from their own voluntary act. I mean, their jobbing in the funds, for the sake of more gain than their interest or dividends.

Would the proprietors please to consider, how few, how very few, in comparison to their great number, there are, who have, or can have, a competent intelligence and sagacity to trade in the stocks to advantage, they would not be so easily made tools of upon those occasions as they are. Those who make stock-dealing their employment, and lie in wait to take advantage of the innocent, the unwary, and ignorant, make it their business to get such intelligence, as will answer their end, either by buying or selling stocks: and, if such can obtain no real intelligence, to occasion a fluctuation in the stocks, they make no great difficulty to invent such as will answer their purpose. To which end, 'tis common to propagate one thing in the city, and whisper another at St James's, and write different from either both at home and abroad. Have we not known from critical conjunctures, that letters have been forged as coming from foreign correspondents, with intelligence only to raise or fall stocks, according to the intention of the forgers? These are some of the artifices of money-jobbers; who knowing there is not one in a thousand among the public creditors, that are able to see through their finesses, or indeed have either opportunity or discernment to penetrate them, they make a prey of the less knowing, by alarming their fears, or feeding their hopes. Whereas, were the public creditors more steady, and less intimi-

intimidated for fear of loss, or elated with a view of gain, by the rise or fall of stocks, they could never be made such bubbles of, as they almost daily are: and, 'tis great weakness for those, who have no opportunity of intelligence which may be relied on, to be stock-dabblers, or actuated to buy or sell by the nod, the wink, or any other insinuation of a broker, for the sake of his commission.

These, I fear, are not the only evils necessarily attendant upon our national incumbrances; for, while men's minds are engaged in the shuffling of property from hand to hand among ourselves only, which makes us never the richer, with all the bustle of these transactions, they neglect solid and useful commerce, which alone can make the nation really richer. However wealthy the greatest of these fund-jobbers may be, and however much he may plume himself upon his treasure, it is the direct way to render all his monied property of little worth; for, the more stock-jobbing prevails by latent artifices, and the longer the public tranquillity shall continue, the higher will the premiums rise: and will not this, has it not ever given occasion to the reduction of their interest; and is there no danger, that they may be actuated to job with their stocks, 'till they themselves become the instruments of so reducing their interest, that their principal will be worth nothing? Perhaps they may flatter themselves with the trite notion, that, the lower their interest is, the higher will the price of their lands be: but, when money shall fetch little or no interest, what land will they be able to purchase with it?

This may deserve the serious consideration of the national creditors. But stock-jobbing, or stock-bubbling, if you please, seems, at present, to be brought to a kind of science. The gamesters meet in Exchange-alley, and, just as if they were at box and dice, South-Sea, or this or the other stock is the main, which brings in all the bites to set high; and, when the cullies that are not in the secret throw at all, they commonly throw out and lose the box, which the bites take, and the feters go round, laying most extravagant odds, upon the success; but they cog the dice, and nick the main, and so sweep away all the cash. Does this kind of traffic enrich the nation? Will such arts tend ever to realize the property of the public creditors? I wish they would consider their own interest better, as well as that of the kingdom; for these, and other such like measures, I am persuaded, will soon tend to annihilate all their property.

For what's the worth of any thing!
But just as much as it will bring.

'Tis for the interest of the public creditors, that they should be faithfully apprized of their present situation; and what is likely to be the fate of their posterity, so far as it respects their monied properties. This I shall endeavour to do with all impartiality, and hope to convince them, that nothing can give solid treasure to the nation, and render their properties permanently secure to their posterity, but their encouragement of commerce, and contempt of stock-jobbing; that nothing can more effectually prevent their progeny being made the tools and bubbles of designing men, and make them independent, than to train up, especially the younger branches of their families, to commerce, and not to despise that whereby their ancestors acquired both their landed and monied estates. See the articles COMPANY, PUBLIC CREDIT, FUNDS, MONEY, ACTIONS, INTEREST of MONEY, MERCHANTS.

BUCCANEER, one who dries and smokes flesh or fish, after the manner of the Americans. That name is particularly given to the French inhabitants of the island of St Domingo, whose whole employment is to hunt bulls or wild boars, in order to sell the hides of the former, and the flesh of the latter. Sometimes the word buccaneer signifies also those famous adventurers of all the nations in Europe, who join together to make war against the Spaniards of America; and, under that name, their history has been published, in the year 1686, by Alexander Oliver Oexemelia. But we shall only speak in this place of the buccaneers of St Domingo, and almost solely with regard to their trade.

Of the French buccaneers of St Domingo.

The French buccaneers established in St Domingo are of two sorts. The buccaneers ox-hunters, or rather hunters of bulls and cows, and the buccaneers boar-hunters, who are simply called hunters, though it seems that such a name be less proper to them, than to the former, since the latter smoke and dry the flesh of the wild boars, which is properly called buccaneering, whereas the former prepare only the hides, which is done without buccaneering.

As they both wear the same arms and the same dress, have the same followers or attendants, and the same packs of hounds, and enter into the same fellowships amongst themselves, we shall not speak of them separately, 'till we have given an account of what is common to both.

The chief part of the buccaneers equipage is a pack of 25 or 30 hounds, among which they have one or two setters.

The price of these dogs, when the buccaneers sell them amongst themselves, is about 6 crowns, or 18 livres.

Their arms and ammunition, both for war and the chase, (for they must always be prepared for the former, as well as for the latter, because of the neighbourhood of the Spaniards; their sworn enemies) are a gun four feet long, and of a bore proper for balls of 16 in the pound; 12 or 15 pounds of powder, kept in gourds well closed with wax; a proportionable quantity of shot, and two knives in one case, to finish killing the beast, after it is hunted down, to skin it, and cut it up. They have their guns from Dieppe and Nantes, and their powder from Cherbourg in Lower Normandy.

Their whole dress consists in two shirts, a pair of breeches, and a kind of linnen frock, or waistcoat, and a cloth cap, or a hat without a brim, except before; their shoes are made of boar's, or of ox hides, being themselves the tanners to the leather, and the shoemakers to make the shoes.

Lastly, one of the chief parts of the buccaneers furniture, which they never forget, and which is, perhaps, the most necessary, is a small tent, of very fine linnen, under which they pass the nights; sheltered from the muskatoes, which may be looked upon as one of the plagues peculiar to South America, so much they abound there, and so troublesome and insufferable is their sting. The cloth of which these tents are made is so fine, that, after they have twined it, they hang over one shoulder, whence it hangs by their side, in the form of a bandoleer.

Each buccaneer has his mate, that is to say, a companion, or comrade, with whom he is in partnership of every thing, of dogs, of servants, of merchandizes, &c. But, besides this partnership, which is, in a manner, for life, they also enter into other, composed of more persons; for every hunting party they undertake, joining 10 or 12 together, not for the profit, every one hunting for his own private account, but that they may be in a condition to defend themselves against the Spaniards, when they apprehend any danger of being assaulted.

All that we have observed relates both to the ox-hunters and to the boar-hunters. What is proper to each of them in particular shall be next described.

Buccaneers ox-hunters.

When the buccaneers, who have associated themselves together, in order to go a bull-hunting, are arrived at the place where they have agreed to hunt, if they be to continue there some time, they build little huts, with palmetto leaves, which the Americans call ajoupas, in which they pitch their tents. At break of day every one leaves his hut, and goes to what place he pleases, giving notice of it however to one another, that they may answer each other in case of an alarm, or unexpected attack.

In this hunting-march the master walks before the servants, and all the dogs follow in a file, except the setting-dog, which is to find out the bull, and, for that reason, is at the head of all. As soon as the beast is discovered, the setting-dog gives notice of it, by barking two or three times, by which the other dogs are animated, who thereupon run after the chase, being followed by the master and servants, who very often keep pace with the dogs.

At the animal's approach, they all shelter themselves, if they can, behind some large tree, to avoid the fury of the bull, in case the master, who shoots first, does not lay the beast prostrate; for there is nothing more terrible than one of these animals when wounded. If the creature falls down, the nearest to it runs and ham-frings it immediately, lest it should rise again; after which the master takes out and breaks the four large bones, and sucks the marrow quite hot, which serves him for a breakfast: he also gives a piece of flesh to his setting-dog, but hinders the other hounds from tasting any 'till the last beast be killed, lest it should slacken their ardour for their chase. A servant stays to finish slaying the beast, whose hide he carries to the hut, or to some other place appointed by his master, taking also sometimes part of the flesh, if it be a cow they killed, especially the udders, which they reckon a delicate morsel, and which the servant takes care to dress against the company comes back from the chase, which commonly does not finish till every one, and even the master himself, be loaded with a hide, and sometimes with two, if they be not too large and heavy.

If, on their return, they happen to meet with any beast, they throw down their burden; and, if they kill it, they slay it, and hang the hide on a tree, to hinder the wild dogs from spoiling it, and send afterwards a servant to fetch it.

Being arrived at their hut, every one spreads a hide on the ground, and fastens it thereto, with 64 wooden pegs, the inner part of the hide outward, which they rub with salt and albes, well beaten together, to dry it the sooner, which is commonly done in a very few days.

This work being done, they eat what the first servant dressed, a palmetto leaf serving both for dish and plates, and a piece of sharpened wood serving for a fork; to whet their appetite, which though they do not want, they season their meat with a sauce, which they call pimentade; it is made with the melted fat skimmed from the pot where the meat is
boiled,

boiled, seasoned with some lemon-juice, and a little of that sort of pepper which is called pimento, or Guinea pepper. It is this hunting of the buccaneers, which they renew every day, and which continues the whole year, that furnishes France with the finest hides brought from America.

The buccaneers put the hides in packs, which they call loads, mixing together hides of full-grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows.

Each of these loads is composed of two bull-hides, or of an equivalent, that is to say, either of two real bull-hides, or of one bull-hide and two cow-hides; or of four cow-hides; or of three young bullock's hides: three bullock's hides being reckoned equivalent to two full-grown bull's hides, and two cow's hides equivalent to one bull's hide. These bulls they commonly call oxen in France, though they be not get.

Each load is commonly sold for six pieces of eight rials, which is a Spanish coin, the French coin being but little current, or not at all, in the island of St Domingo.

Buccaneers wild boar-hunters.

These buccaneers hunt wild boars after the same manner as those we have just now mentioned hunt bulls; they have, as we have already observed, the same accoutrements, the same dogs, the same arms, the same wearing apparel: the only difference consists in the animals they hunt, and the manner of dressing the flesh of the wild boars which they kill, and in the trade they make of it.

On their return from the chase, each carries his boar to the hut, where, after slaying it, and taking out all the bones, so as there may remain nothing but the flesh, they cut it all into narrow pieces, according to the size of the beast, or the parts they cut.

The flesh being thus cut, and placed regularly upon palmetto leaves, they sprinkle very small salt over it, and, after it has taken salt, and cast the brine, which requires but 10 or 12 hours, they carry it to the buccan, where they smoke it, after the manner we shall describe hereafter. They commonly use the very bones of the beasts they have killed, not only to increase the smoke, but also because it has been observed that the smoke of those bones (on account of the volatile salts which exhale from the bones) renders the meat more slightly, and gives it a much better relish than any other material that might be used to fill the buccan with smoke.

This meat, coming from the buccan, is equally pleasing both to the eye and to the taste, yielding a very agreeable smell, and being of a fresh colour, which whets the appetite: so that many people eat it without any other dressing, and find it more favourable than when it is any other way prepared. It is true, indeed, that buccaned meat does not continue long in that state of perfection and goodness; and even after six months time it dries to that degree, that it has no longer any but a sharp taste, and flavours of nothing but salt.

This meat is sold by the bundle, or pack, weighing commonly 60 pounds, at the rate of six pieces of eight per pack. The palmetto leaves serve to pack it up in, but their weight is deducted, so that there must be in each pack 60 pounds of net flesh.

These buccaneers have also a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather in large pots, which they call potiches. This lard, which is called mantegua, is also sold for about eight pieces of eight per pot.

There is a great trade, and a great consumption, of each of these merchandizes in the French settlements of the island of St Domingo, and in those of Tortuga: besides which, they send great quantities of them to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is also a great deal of it sold for the support of the crews of the ships that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit out, for cruising against the Spaniards.

Spanish buccaneers.

The Spaniards, who have large settlements in the island of St Domingo, have also their buccaneers there, whom they call matadores, or monteros. Their chase has something noble, which favours of the Spanish pride: the huntsman, being on horseback, uses the lance to strike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to shoot him at a distance.

When the servants, who are on foot, have discovered the beast, and, with their dogs, have drove it into some savannah, or meadow, in which the master waits for them on horseback, armed with two lances, that matadore goes and hamstrings it with the first lance, the head of which is made like a crescent, or half-moon, and extremely sharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one.

This chase is very agreeable, the huntsman, making commonly, in order to attack the bull, the same turns, and the same ceremonies, which are practised in those festivals so famous in Spain, wherein the greatest lords expose themselves sometimes to the view of the people, to make them admire their intrepidity and their dexterity, in attacking those furious animals: but then it is a very dangerous chase, those bulls

in their fury running often directly against the huntsman, who may think himself very happy if he comes off only with the loss of his horse, and if he is not himself mortally wounded.

The Spaniards dress their hides like the French, who have learnt it from them; and these hides being carried to the Havannah, a famous harbour in the island of Cuba, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons scarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz, and Porto-Bello, and load there those hides, which they carry into Spain, where they are sold for Havannah hides, the most esteemed of all those that are brought from America into Europe.

The buccan is the name they give to the place where they smoke the flesh and fish, after the manner of the savages. It is a lodge, or hut, about 25 or 30 feet in circumference, all surrounded and covered with palmetto leaves.

In the middle of this hut, which has no other opening but the door, there is a large grid-iron, made of perches of wood, as thick as one's wrist, and seven or eight feet long, which, being put cross-ways, leave openings half a foot square.

Large forked stakes, two feet high, support that kind of grid-iron, from distance to distance, and raise it above ground, that wood, or other combustible matters, may be kindled under it, which produce more smoke than heat. Over this machine, which the Indians call barbuco, they put the fish, or flesh, which they would buccan.

The Caribes or Caribbees, of the Antilles, and other Indian anthropophagi, or men-eaters (if any such there be) of the continent of America, of whom the Europeans learnt the art of buccaneering flesh and fish which they would preserve or keep, have, they say, the cruel custom of buccaneering men, as well as beasts: and thus they smoke and roast the limbs which they cut from the bodies of the prisoners they make in war, on which they afterwards abominably feast; as cannot be read without horror in the accounts, both ancient and modern, which we have of America, and of the customs and manners of its original inhabitants.

But then, it must be observed, that, if ever they eat any human flesh, it is only that of their enemies, taken in war, and out of a kind of revenge, and by way of triumph. For, as our ingenious voyager, Dampier, somewhere observes, there is no nation upon earth but to whom Providence has afforded sufficient food, without being obliged to feed upon creatures of the same species with themselves.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE is situate almost in the center of England. It is divided, on the south, from Berkshire by the Thames; and is bounded on the west by Oxfordshire; on the north with Northamptonshire; and, on the east, with Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex. The chief manufactures of this shire are paper and bone-lace, the latter of which is little inferior to that of Flanders.

CHIPPING-WYCOMB is reckoned one of the greatest corn-markets in this part of England. There are several mills near it, both for corn and paper. After the wheat is ground, and dressed at the former, it is sent to Marlow, and put on board the barges for London.

GREAT MARLOW. The chief manufacture of it is bone-lace; but it is of much more account for the navigation carried on by the Thames, which brings goods hither from the neighbouring towns, especially great quantities of malt and meal from High Wycomb, and of beech from several parts of the country, which abounds with that wood more than any other country in England; and for the several corn and paper-mills in that neighbourhood, particularly on the little river Loddon, and three remarkable ones called the Temple-Mills, or the brass-mills, for making Biftram-Abbey battery-work, viz. brass kettles, pans, &c. besides a mill for making thimbles, and another for pressing oil from rape and flax-seed.

OUNEY is a little town, noted for the manufacture of bone-lace, on the west side of the river Ouse.

BUCKRAM, a sort of coarse cloth, made of hemp, gummed, calendered, and dyed several colours. It is put into those places of the lining of a garment which one would have stiff, and to keep their forms. It is also used in the bodies of women's gowns; and it often serves to make wrappers, to cover, or wrap up cloths, serges, and such other merchandizes in, to preserve them, and keep them from the dust, and their colours from fading.

Buckrams are sold wholesale by the dozen of small pieces, or remnants, each about four ells long, and broad according to the pieces from which they were cut. Sometimes they use new pieces of linnen cloth to make buckrams of; but most commonly old sheets, and old pieces of sails. They make a great many at Paris, and they get, also, vast quantities from Normandy, particularly from Caen, Roan, and Alençon.

BUDZIACK TARTARY, situated on the rivers Neister, Bog, and Nieper, having Poland and Russia on the north; Little Tartary on the east; the black sea on the south; and Bessarabia on the west; subject to the Turks. The chief town is Oczakow, and their chief traffic is that of making daily excursions into the neighbouring plains, to steal Christians, and sell them for slaves to the gallees.

BUFF, BUFFLE, or more commonly **BUFFALO**, in Latin **BUBALUS**, a wild animal, resembling an ox, except that

It is longer and higher. Its horns are very black, it's body very thick, and it's hide very hard. It has short and black hair, and hardly any on it's tail, but a great deal on the fore part of it's head, which is very small in proportion to the rest of it's body. It's horns are very broad, it's neck long and thick, it's tail short, it's thighs thick and short; it is properly a wild ox, which may be tamed, and which they put to labour in Italy, and in several other countries, as they do oxen in France; it's female yields milk like a cow.

Buffaloes are very common in the Levant, particularly about Constantinople and Smyrna. They abound also in Africa, and especially in the kingdom of Congo. There are likewise a great many in Egypt, but they are not so fierce as those of Europe. The merchandizes they afford to trade, are their horns, their hides, and their hair.

Of the horns are made several turner's works, particularly beads for chaplets, and snuff-boxes, which are pretty much valued.

Of the hides dressed with oil and well prepared, are made a sort of coats, called buffs, or buff skins, in which the horse and gens d'armes in France are dressed. They also make bandaleers, belts, pouches, gloves, &c. with buffalo's leather. Buffalo-hides, dried with the hair on, are part of the trade, which the English, French, Italians, and Dutch, drive at Constantinople, Smyrna, and on the coast of Africa. They take them up there in return for the merchandizes which they carry thither from their own countries.

When the hides of elks, oxen, cows, and such other animals, have been dressed with oil, like the buffalo-hides, they also give them the name of buffs, or buff-skins, and they are put to the same uses. Those of oxen and cows are the least valued, they being most commonly used only to make belts, bandaleers, and pouches.

There are in France several manufactories designed for the dressing of those sorts of hides, viz. at Corbeil, near Paris, at Niort, at Lyons, at Roan, at Etampes, at Cone, &c. The first establishment of these manufactures was owing to the Sieur Jabat, a native of Cologne, who had brought them to the highest degree of perfection.

Buffalo's-hair, after it is separated from the hide by means of lime, before it is dressed with oil, is a sort of flocks, which, being mixed with that of oxen, cows, or such other animals, serves to stuff.

The French give the name of buffetin, both to a young buffalo, and to buff-skins ready dressed.

The buffs-hides from the Levant, of which there are three sorts, namely, those of Alexandria, those of Constantinople, and those called buffs-escars, which are of an inferior sort, are reckoned among the merchandizes which come from the countries and territories under the dominion of the Grand Seigneur, of the king of Persia, and of Italy, and pay 20 per cent. of their value, according to the decree of the 15th of August, 1685, when they have been landed in foreign countries, and even without being so landed, when they enter by the port of Roan.

BULGARIA the Great. Bulgaria is divided into Great and Little, or Asiatic and European. The latter, which lies along the south coasts of the Danube, having the Black Sea on the east, and Macedonia on the west, is part of Turkey in Europe, and therefore is foreign to this article of Russia, and will be spoken of in it's proper place.

BULGARIA the Great, is that of which we are now going to speak, as part of Russia in Europe. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Casan, on the east by Bashiria, on the south by the Samara, which divides it from the kingdom of Astracan, and on the west by the Wolga.

This territory is so little known to us, that we are scarcely certain whether, or by whom it is inhabited; whether it be populous, fertile, &c. or the contrary. Some cities, not inconsiderable indeed, we find towards the western side, as Bulgar the capital, advantageously situated on the Wolga, and esteemed amongst the most considerable cities of Russia, 'Tis said, that the mountains of Caf yield plenty of iron, crystal, and other valuable stones.

BULGARIA the Less, is bounded on the west by Servia, on the south by Romania and Macedonia, from which it is parted by a ridge of mountains, called Argentaro, or Costegnaz; on the east it has the Black Sea, on the north, Sanfon's maps

bound it by the Danube, but, according to Wiffcher's and to Mr Baudrand, it extends beyond that river. The chief product of this country is cattle, of which there are vast herds.

At **SOPHIA** the Jews have several synagogues, and drive a very great trade. There are about 100 Roman catholics, with a priest, who says mass publicly. Most of these are merchants of Ragusa, who trade here, as they also do at Belgrade. It is one of the greatest thoroughfares in Turkey, since all they who travel from Constantinople to Ragusa, Venice, or into Hungary, must necessarily pass through this town.

BULLION, is uncoined gold or silver in the mass. Those metals are called so, either when smelted from the native ore, and when they are not perfectly refined; or when they are perfectly refined, and when they are melted down in bars or ingots, in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineness.

When gold and silver are in their purity, they are so soft and flexible, that they cannot well be wrought into any fashion for use, without being first reduced and hardened with an alloy of some other baser metal.

To prevent the abuses which some might be tempted to commit in the making of such alloys, the legislators of civilized countries have ordained, that there shall be no more than a certain proportion of a baser metal, to a particular quantity of pure gold or silver, in order to make them of the fineness of what is called the standard gold or silver of such peculiar state or nation. See the article **STANDARD** of gold and silver.

According to the laws of England, all sorts of wrought plate, in general, ought to be made to the legal standard: and the price of our standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to set a value on their bullion, whether the same be in ingots, bars, dust, or in foreign specie. Whence 'tis easy to conceive, that the value of bullion cannot be exactly known, without being assayed, that the exact quantity of pure metal therein contained may be determined; and consequently, whether it be above or below the standard.

In order to understand the nature and utility of such assay, see the article **ASSAY**.

Of dealing in bullion silver.

In order to facilitate the arithmetical operations requisite in business of this kind, the following tables may be helpful; especially to those who should not be very expert at numbers, or to others who would chuse to have a constant check to their calculations; which will save the time of a double operation by way of proof, or the time of a clerk in so doing. The reader is desired to observe, that a lb. weight of standard silver is 11 ounces, 2 dwts, or penny-weight of fine silver, and 18 dwts of fine copper, which make together 12 ounces, or 1 lb. Troy weight, by which gold and silver are bought and sold.

Of the Troy weights.

14 ounces 8 dwts	make	1 lb. Averdupois weight.
12 ounces	- - - -	1 lb. Troy weight.
20 dwts	- - -	1 ounce.
24 grains	- - -	1 penny-weight.
20 mites	- - -	1 grain.
24 doits	- - -	1 mite.
20 perlots	- - -	1 droit.
24 blanks	- - -	1 perlot.

N. B. In the first and second Tables, the fractions are decimally expressed; [for which see the article **ARITHMETIC**.] For

$\frac{1}{10}$	of a grain, decimal parts	.125
$\frac{1}{20}$	- - - -	.250
$\frac{1}{30}$	- - - -	.325
$\frac{1}{40}$	- - - -	.500
$\frac{1}{50}$	- - - -	.625
$\frac{1}{60}$	- - - -	.750
$\frac{1}{80}$	- - - -	.875
1000 parts		make the whole grain.

BULL

BULL

TABLES for the Computation of BULLIONS SILVER.

FIRST TABLE,

Sheweth filver of any fineness, reduced to the legal standard weight, from 100,000 oz. to one grain, and the thousandth part of a grain.

Ounces.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	dt.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
100,000	225	4	12	108	19	—	—	1	027
90,000	202	14	1	297	18	—	—	—	972
80,000	180	3	14	486	17	—	—	—	918
70,000	157	13	6	675	16	—	—	—	864
60,000	135	2	16	864	15	—	—	—	810
50,000	112	12	6	054	14	—	—	—	756
40,000	90	1	19	243	13	—	—	—	702
30,000	67	11	8	432	12	—	—	—	648
20,000	45	—	21	621	11	—	—	—	594
10,000	22	10	10	810	10	—	—	—	540
9000	20	5	9	729	9	—	—	—	486
8000	18	—	8	648	8	—	—	—	432
7000	15	15	7	567	7	—	—	—	378
6000	13	10	6	486	6	—	—	—	324
5000	11	5	5	405	5	—	—	—	270
4000	9	—	4	324	4	—	—	—	216
3000	6	15	3	243	3	—	—	—	162
2000	4	10	2	162	2	—	—	—	108
1000	2	5	1	081	1	—	—	—	054
900	2	—	12	972	23	gr.	—	—	051
800	1	16	—	864	22	—	—	—	049
700	1	11	12	756	21	—	—	—	047
600	1	7	—	648	20	—	—	—	045
500	1	2	12	540	19	—	—	—	042
400	—	18	—	332	18	—	—	—	040
300	—	13	12	324	17	—	—	—	038
200	—	9	—	216	16	—	—	—	036
100	—	4	12	108	15	—	—	—	033
90	—	4	1	297	14	—	—	—	031
80	—	3	14	486	13	—	—	—	029
70	—	3	3	675	12	—	—	—	027
60	—	2	16	864	11	—	—	—	024
50	—	2	6	054	10	—	—	—	021
40	—	1	19	243	9	—	—	—	020
30	—	1	8	432	8	—	—	—	018
20	—	—	12	621	7	—	—	—	015
10	—	—	10	810	6	—	—	—	013
9	—	—	9	729	5	—	—	—	010
8	—	—	8	648	4	—	—	—	009
7	—	—	7	567	3	—	—	—	006
6	—	—	6	486	2	—	—	—	004
5	—	—	5	405	1	—	—	—	002
4	—	—	4	324					
3	—	—	3	243					
2	—	—	2	162					
1	—	—	1	081					

The use of the foregoing Table, for reducing filver to the standard of England.

When you have a report of the assay-master, of what quantity of pure fine silver there is in a lb. weight of any bullion, more or less than there is in 1 lb. weight of standard filver, the above table will shew how much it will amount to in any quantity of the said bullion. For the finding out which, observe the following rules.

1. Reduce the report of better or worse than standard into half-penny weights.
 2. Multiply the weight of the bullion by the aforesaid half-penny weights.
 3. Collect the product out of the foregoing table.
- Having collected the product out of the table, add them together, and the total will be the weight, that must be added to the first weight, if it be better than standard, in order to know the exact standard weight. But if the bullion be worse than standard, then subtract the total of the aforesaid additions from the first weight, and the remainder will be the standard weight. See the following examples.

Example 1. To know how much 189 ounces of silver, worse than standard, 19 dwts $\frac{1}{2}$ will make, standard weight.

Worse 19 dwts $\frac{1}{2}$
 Multiply by 2

 39 half dwts.
 Multiply 189 ounces the gross weight
 By 39 half dwts.

 Collect these 7371 ounces out of the foregoing table.

oz.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	
7000 makes	15	15	7	567	} added
300	0	13	12	324	
70	0	3	3	675	
1	0	0	1	081	
7371 is	16	12	0	647	worse than standard filver.
From	189	0	0	000	the weight.
Deduct	16	12	0	647	worse
Remains	172	7	23	353	the standard weight.

Example 2. To know how much standard weight there is in 267 ounces of silver, better than standard 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts.

Better 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts.
 By 2

 23 the half dwts.
 Multiply 267 ounces the gross weight.
 By 23 the half dwts worse.

 Makes 6141 called oz. collect these out of the foregoing table.

oz.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	
6000 is	13	10	6	486	} added
100	0	4	12	108	
40	0	1	19	243	
1	0	0	1	081	
6141	13	16	14	918	better
To	267	0	0	000	the gross weight
Add	13	16	14	918	better
Total	280	16	14	918	is the standard weight.

To cast up Bullion.

Example 3. At 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce standard, to know what 267 oz. 17 dwts. 17 grs.

oz.	dt.	gr.
267	17	17
Multiply by	17	
-----	1875	3 : 23
	2678	17 : 2
	4554	1 : 1

oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
4000	0	0	is 9 : 0 : 14 : 324
500	0	0	1 : 2 : 12 : 540
50	0	0	0 : 2 : 6 : 054
4	0	0	0 : 0 : 4 : 324
0	1	0	0 : 0 : 0 : 054
0	0	1	0 : 0 : 0 : 002

4554 : 1 : 1 sub. 10 : 5 : 3 : 298 worse than stand.
 From 267 : 17 : 17 : 000 the gross weight.

Rem. stand. wt. 257 : 12 : 13 : 702

	5
1288	2 : 20 : 501
42	18 : 18 : 283
2	13 : 16 : 143
At 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per oz. std.	1333 : 15 : 6 : 935

It amounts to 1. 66 : 13 : 9

The same proved.

By the second table following, when standard is at

	s.	d.	1000pts
8 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwt. worse is worth less	5	2	125 per ounce
Shews the value of the	0	2	378
	4	11	747 per ounce
			12

Silver is Pence 59,747 1000 parts per ounce
 Multiply by 267 ounces, 17 dwts. 17 grs.

	15952449
10 dwts	is 29873
5	14936
1	5971
16 gr.	1991
6	124
	12)16005(347
	1333(9

Answer 1. 66 : 13 : 9 being the reverse of the foregoing example.

SECOND TABLE.

Silver valued by the gross weight.

It shewing how much an ounce of silver, of any fineness is worth more or less than an ounce of standard silver, to the thousandth part of a penny from a $\frac{1}{2}$ penny weight, better or worse than standard, to 8 ounces worse.

The standard prices from five shillings, to five shillings and six-pence $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce.

See the following Tables on the other side.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER. SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. to 5 s. 1/2 of a Penny per Ounce Standard.

Table with columns: B. or W., Dwts., At or 60 d., 60 d., 60 d., 60 d. Rows 1-19, 1 Oz., 2 Oz., 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

From 5 s. 1 d. to 5 s. 1 d. 1/2 per Ounce Standard.

Table with columns: B. or W., Dwts., at 61 d., 61 d., 61 d., 61 d. Rows 1-19, 1 Oz., 2 Oz., 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

From 5 s. 1/2 d. to 5 s. 1/2 of a Penny per Ounce Standard.

Table with columns: B. or W., Dwts., at 60 d., 60 d., 60 d., 60 d. Rows 1-19, 1 Oz., 2 Oz., 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

From 5 s. 1 d. 1/2 to 5 s. 1 d. 1/2 per Ounce Standard.

Table with columns: B. or W., Dwts., at 61 d., 61 d., 61 d., 61 d. Rows 1-19, 1 Oz., 2 Oz., 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. 2 d. to 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 62 d. $\frac{1}{8}$		at 62 d. $\frac{1}{4}$		at 62 d. $\frac{3}{8}$		at 62 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	
	d. Parts.	or						
Dwts.	62 000	62 125	62 250	62 375	62 500	62 625	62 750	62 875
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	139	135	140	140	141	141	141	141
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	279	279	280	280	283	282	283	283
1 $\frac{3}{8}$	418	419	420	421	423	423	424	424
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	558	555	560	561	564	564	566	566
2 $\frac{1}{8}$	698	699	701	702	705	705	708	708
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	837	839	841	842	847	847	849	849
2 $\frac{3}{8}$	977	979	981	983	989	989	991	991
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1117	1119	1121	1123	1130	1130	1132	1132
3 $\frac{1}{8}$	1256	1255	1261	1264	1271	1271	1274	1274
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	1395	1397	1402	1404	1411	1411	1416	1416
3 $\frac{3}{8}$	1536	1539	1544	1545	1554	1554	1557	1557
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1675	1678	1682	1685	1695	1695	1699	1699
4 $\frac{1}{8}$	1815	1818	1822	1825	1837	1837	1840	1840
4 $\frac{1}{4}$	1954	1958	1962	1966	1979	1979	1982	1982
4 $\frac{3}{8}$	2094	2098	2103	2107	2121	2121	2124	2124
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2234	2238	2243	2247	2261	2261	2265	2265
5 $\frac{1}{8}$	2373	2378	2383	2388	2407	2407	2410	2410
5 $\frac{1}{4}$	2513	2518	2523	2528	2547	2547	2550	2550
5 $\frac{3}{8}$	2653	2658	2663	2669	2689	2689	2692	2692
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	2792	2798	2804	2809	2829	2829	2832	2832
6 $\frac{1}{8}$	2932	2938	2944	2950	2971	2971	2974	2974
6 $\frac{1}{4}$	3072	3078	3084	3090	3111	3111	3114	3114
6 $\frac{3}{8}$	3211	3218	3224	3231	3253	3253	3256	3256
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	3351	3358	3364	3372	3395	3395	3398	3398
7 $\frac{1}{8}$	3490	3498	3505	3513	3537	3537	3540	3540
7 $\frac{1}{4}$	3630	3637	3645	3654	3679	3679	3681	3681
7 $\frac{3}{8}$	3770	3777	3785	3795	3821	3821	3823	3823
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	3909	3917	3925	3935	3961	3961	3965	3965
8 $\frac{1}{8}$	4049	4057	4065	4075	4101	4101	4104	4104
8 $\frac{1}{4}$	4189	4197	4206	4215	4241	4241	4245	4245
8 $\frac{3}{8}$	4328	4337	4346	4355	4381	4381	4385	4385
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4468	4477	4486	4495	4521	4521	4525	4525
9 $\frac{1}{8}$	4608	4617	4626	4635	4661	4661	4665	4665
9 $\frac{1}{4}$	4747	4757	4766	4776	4801	4801	4805	4805
9 $\frac{3}{8}$	4887	4897	4907	4916	4941	4941	4945	4945
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5027	5037	5047	5057	5081	5081	5085	5085
10 $\frac{1}{8}$	5165	5177	5187	5197	5221	5221	5225	5225
10 $\frac{1}{4}$	5306	5317	5327	5338	5361	5361	5365	5365
10 $\frac{3}{8}$	5445	5456	5467	5478	5501	5501	5505	5505
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5585	5596	5608	5619	5641	5641	5645	5645
1 Oz.	5 585	5 5 6	5 6 08	5 6 19	5 6 41	5 6 41	5 6 45	5 6 45
2 Oz.	11 171	11 193	11 216	11 238	11 261	11 261	11 265	11 265
3	16 756	16 790	16 824	16 858	16 881	16 881	16 885	16 885
4	22 342	22 387	22 432	22 477	22 501	22 501	22 505	22 505
5	27 927	27 984	28 040	28 096	28 121	28 121	28 125	28 125
6	33 513	33 581	33 648	33 716	33 741	33 741	33 745	33 745
7	39 099	39 178	39 256	39 335	39 361	39 361	39 365	39 365
8	44 684	44 774	44 864	44 954	44 981	44 981	44 985	44 985

From 5 s. 3 d. to 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 63 d. $\frac{1}{8}$		at 63 d. $\frac{1}{4}$		at 63 d. $\frac{3}{8}$		at 63 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	
	d. Parts.	or						
Dwts.	63 000	63 142	63 284	63 426	63 568	63 710	63 852	63 994
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	141	142	143	143	143	143	143	143
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	283	284	284	284	287	287	287	287
1 $\frac{3}{8}$	425	426	426	427	430	430	431	431
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	567	568	568	570	574	574	575	575
2 $\frac{1}{8}$	709	710	710	712	717	717	719	719
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	851	853	853	854	861	861	863	863
2 $\frac{3}{8}$	993	995	995	997	1005	1005	1007	1007
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	1135	1137	1137	1139	1148	1148	1150	1150
3 $\frac{1}{8}$	1277	1279	1279	1281	1291	1291	1294	1294
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	1418	1421	1421	1424	1435	1435	1439	1439
3 $\frac{3}{8}$	1560	1563	1563	1566	1579	1579	1582	1582
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1702	1706	1706	1709	1722	1722	1726	1726
4 $\frac{1}{8}$	1844	1848	1848	1851	1866	1866	1870	1870
4 $\frac{1}{4}$	1986	1991	1991	1994	2010	2010	2014	2014
4 $\frac{3}{8}$	2128	2132	2132	2135	2153	2153	2157	2157
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2270	2274	2274	2279	2297	2297	2301	2301
5 $\frac{1}{8}$	2412	2416	2416	2421	2440	2440	2445	2445
5 $\frac{1}{4}$	2554	2559	2559	2564	2584	2584	2589	2589
5 $\frac{3}{8}$	2695	2701	2701	2706	2728	2728	2733	2733
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	2837	2843	2843	2849	2871	2871	2877	2877
6 $\frac{1}{8}$	2979	2985	2985	2991	3015	3015	3021	3021
6 $\frac{1}{4}$	3121	3127	3127	3133	3158	3158	3164	3164
6 $\frac{3}{8}$	3263	3269	3269	3276	3302	3302	3308	3308
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	3405	3412	3412	3418	3445	3445	3452	3452
7 $\frac{1}{8}$	3547	3554	3554	3561	3589	3589	3596	3596
7 $\frac{1}{4}$	3689	3696	3696	3703	3733	3733	3740	3740
7 $\frac{3}{8}$	3831	3838	3838	3846	3876	3876	3884	3884
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	3973	3980	3980	3988	4020	4020	4028	4028
8 $\frac{1}{8}$	4114	4123	4123	4131	4163	4163	4171	4171
8 $\frac{1}{4}$	4256	4265	4265	4273	4307	4307	4315	4315
8 $\frac{3}{8}$	4398	4407	4407	4416	4451	4451	4459	4459
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4540	4549	4549	4558	4594	4594	4603	4603
9 $\frac{1}{8}$	4682	4691	4691	4700	4738	4738	4747	4747
9 $\frac{1}{4}$	4824	4833	4833	4843	4881	4881	4891	4891
9 $\frac{3}{8}$	4966	4976	4976	4985	5025	5025	5035	5035
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5108	5118	5118	5128	5168	5168	5179	5179
10 $\frac{1}{8}$	5250	5260	5260	5270	5312	5312	5322	5322
10 $\frac{1}{4}$	5391	5402	5402	5413	5456	5456	5466	5466
10 $\frac{3}{8}$	5533	5544	5544	5555	5599	5599	5610	5610
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5675	5686	5686	5698	5743	5743	5754	5754
1 Oz.	5 675	5 6 86	5 6 98	5 7 09	5 7 31	5 7 31	5 7 35	5 7 35
2 Oz.	11 351	11 373	11 396	11 418	11 441	11 441	11 445	11 445
3	17 027	17 060	17 094	17 128	17 162	17 162	17 166	17 166
4	22 702	22 747	22 792	22 837	22 881	22 881	22 885	22 885
5	28 378	28 434	28 490	28 547	28 603	28 603	28 607	28 607
6	34 054	34 121	34 188	34 256	34 323	34 323	34 327	34 327
7	39 729	39 808	39 887	39 966	40 045	40 045	40 049	40 049
8	45 405	45 495	45 585	45 675	45 765	45 765	45 769	45 769

From 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 62 d. $\frac{1}{2}$		at 62 d. $\frac{3}{4}$		at 62 d. $\frac{5}{8}$		at 62 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	
	d. Parts.	or						
Dwts.	62 500	62 625	62 750	62 875	62 500	62 625	62 750	62 875
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	140	141	141	141	141	141	141	141
1 $\frac{3}{4}$	281	282	282	283	283	282	283	283
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	422	423	423	424	424	423	424	424
2 $\frac{3}{4}$	563	564	564	566	566	565	566	566
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	703	705	705	708	708	707	708	708
3 $\frac{3}{4}$	844	846	847	849	849	847	849	849
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	985	987	989	991	991	989	991	991
4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1126	1128	1130	1132	1132	1130	1132	1132
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1266	1269	1271	1274	1274	1271	1274	1274
5 $\frac{3}{4}$	1407	1410	1412	1416	1416	1413	1416	1416
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1548	1551	1554	1557	1557	1554	1557	

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER. SECOND TABLE.

Table with columns: From 5 s., 4 d. to 5 s., 4 d. 3/4, per Ounce Standard. Rows include B. or W., Dwts., and values for 64 d. parts.

Table with columns: From 5 s., 5 d. to 5 s., 5 d. 3/4, per Ounce Standard. Rows include B. or W., Dwts., and values for 65 d. parts.

Table with columns: From 5 s., 4 d. 1/2 to 5 s., 4 d. 3/4, per Ounce Standard. Rows include B. or W., Dwts., and values for 64 d. parts.

Table with columns: From 5 s., 5 d. 1/2 to 5 s., 5 d. 3/4, per Ounce Standard. Rows include B. or W., Dwts., and values for 65 d. parts.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. 6 d. to	to 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$		per Ounce Standard.	
	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{4}$	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{4}$
B. or W.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.
Dwts.	66	66	66	66
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	148	148	149	149
1	297	297	298	298
2	445	446	447	448
3	594	595	596	597
4	743	744	745	747
5	891	893	895	896
6	1 040	1 042	1 044	1 046
7	1 189	1 191	1 193	1 195
8	1 337	1 340	1 342	1 345
9	1 486	1 489	1 492	1 494
10	1 635	1 638	1 641	1 644
11	1 783	1 787	1 790	1 793
12	1 932	1 936	1 939	1 943
13	2 081	2 085	2 088	2 092
14	2 229	2 233	2 238	2 242
15	2 378	2 382	2 387	2 391
16	2 527	2 531	2 536	2 541
17	2 675	2 680	2 685	2 690
18	2 824	2 829	2 835	2 840
19	2 972	2 978	2 984	2 989
20	3 121	3 127	3 133	3 139
21	3 270	3 276	3 282	3 288
22	3 418	3 425	3 431	3 438
23	3 567	3 574	3 581	3 587
24	3 716	3 723	3 730	3 737
25	3 864	3 872	3 879	3 886
26	4 013	4 021	4 028	4 036
27	4 162	4 170	4 177	4 185
28	4 310	4 318	4 327	4 335
29	4 459	4 467	4 476	4 484
30	4 608	4 616	4 625	4 634
31	4 756	4 765	4 774	4 783
32	4 905	4 914	4 923	4 933
33	5 054	5 063	5 073	5 082
34	5 202	5 212	5 222	5 232
35	5 351	5 361	5 371	5 381
36	5 500	5 510	5 520	5 531
37	5 648	5 659	5 670	5 680
38	5 797	5 808	5 819	5 830
39	5 945	5 957	5 968	5 979
40 Oz.	11 891	11 914	11 939	11 959
3	17 837	17 871	17 905	17 939
4	23 783	23 828	23 873	23 918
5	29 729	29 786	29 842	29 898
6	35 675	35 743	35 810	35 878
7	41 621	41 700	41 779	41 858
8	47 567	47 657	47 747	47 837

From 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to	to 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{3}{4}$		per Ounce Standard.	
	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{4}$	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{2}$	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{4}$
B. or W.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.	or d. Parts.
Dwts.	66	66	66	66
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	149	150	150	150
1	299	300	300	301
2	449	450	451	451
3	599	600	601	602
4	748	750	751	753
5	898	900	902	903
6	1 048	1 050	1 052	1 054
7	1 198	1 200	1 202	1 204
8	1 347	1 350	1 353	1 355
9	1 497	1 500	1 503	1 506
10	1 647	1 650	1 653	1 656
11	1 797	1 800	1 804	1 807
12	1 947	1 950	1 954	1 958
13	2 096	2 100	2 104	2 108
14	2 246	2 250	2 255	2 259
15	2 396	2 400	2 405	2 409
16	2 546	2 550	2 555	2 560
17	2 695	2 701	2 706	2 711
18	2 845	2 851	2 856	2 861
19	2 995	3 001	3 006	3 012
20	3 145	3 151	3 157	3 162
21	3 295	3 301	3 307	3 313
22	3 444	3 451	3 457	3 464
23	3 594	3 601	3 608	3 614
24	3 744	3 751	3 758	3 765
25	3 894	3 901	3 908	3 916
26	4 043	4 051	4 059	4 066
27	4 193	4 201	4 209	4 217
28	4 343	4 351	4 359	4 367
29	4 493	4 501	4 510	4 518
30	4 642	4 651	4 660	4 669
31	4 792	4 801	4 810	4 819
32	4 942	4 951	4 961	4 970
33	5 092	5 101	5 111	5 121
34	5 242	5 251	5 261	5 271
35	5 391	5 402	5 412	5 422
36	5 541	5 552	5 562	5 572
37	5 691	5 702	5 712	5 723
38	5 841	5 852	5 863	5 874
39	5 990	6 002	6 013	6 024
40 Oz.	11 981	12 004	12 026	12 049
3	17 927	18 006	18 040	18 074
4	23 873	24 008	24 053	24 097
5	29 819	30 011	30 067	30 123
6	35 765	36 013	36 080	36 148
7	41 711	42 015	42 004	42 173
8	47 657	48 017	48 107	48 198

The use of the preceding Table.

When you have a parcel of silver, if it be finer or coarser than standard silver, this table shews, to the 1000th part of a penny, how much an ounce of silver is worth more or less than an ounce of silver of the goodness of standard.

For instance, supposing that you have silver to sell, that is worse than standard $15 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts, and would know what an ounce of this silver is worth, when standard sells at 5 s. 3 d. per ounce.

To answer this question, look in the second table for the price of standard, which being supposed 5 s. 3 d. per ounce, you will find at the head of some of the columns: having found the standard price, draw down your finger upon the said column perpendicularly, 'till you have come to the sum that stands even with the $15 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts. in the margin (your silver being so much worse than standard) and you will find there 4 d. 398, which is the value that the said silver is worse than standard.

s. d. 1000 pts
Therefore, from 5 : 3 : 000 per ounce standard.
Subtract - 0 : 4 : 398 worse

The remainder is 4 : 10 : 602, being the value per ounce of the said silver.

If the said silver had been $15 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts better than standard, then you must have

s. d. 1000 pts
Added the said 0 : 4 : 398
To - 5 : 3 : 000 the standard price

The total, being 5 : 7 : 389 per ounce, is the value of the said silver above standard.

The general rule.

When silver is better than standard, add the value of the better to the price of standard; if worse, subtract the value from it.

So that, at the head of each column throughout the said table, you will find the standard prices; and in the margin of each page are set the quantities of the reports of better or worse. And, lastly, underneath the said standard prices, even with the said reports, are set down, to the thousandth part of a penny, how much in value an ounce of bullion is worth more or less than standard silver.—Example.

When standard is worth 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ per ounce, silver $18 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts worse is worth less by 5 d. 281: therefore, to know the value of an ounce of this last silver,

s. d. 1000 pts
From 5 : 3 : 375 equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of a penny, decimally ex-
Subtract 0 : 5 : 281 worse [prefixed
Remains 4 : 10 : 094 per ounce, the answer required.

Another Example.

Suppose that you have silver to sell that is $6 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts better than standard, and standard is worth at this time 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ per ounce, you would know what an ounce of the said silver is worth.

Look at the top of the table for 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{4}$, and in the column underneath, even with $6 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts, you will find 1 d. 825, that is to say, the said silver is worth so much more than an ounce of standard: therefore,

s. d. 1000 pts
Add - 0 : 1 : 825
To - 5 : 2 : 375 or $\frac{3}{4}$, the standard price,
This total 5 : 4 : 200 is the answer, silver of that fineness being worth so much.

SILVER cast up per the gross weight.

Example 1. To know how much 189 ounces of silver, worse than standard by $19 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts, will amount to, at 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ per ounce standard,

s. d. 1000 pts
From - - - - - 5 : 2 : 625 per ounce
Take for $19 \frac{1}{2}$ dwts worse - - - 0 : 5 : 500 p. 2d table
Remains the value - - - 4 : 9 : 125 per ounce

12
pence 57 125
Multiply by 189 oz:
12)10796)625
2)089)5(8

The answer 1. 44 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

GOLD of any fineness reduced into standard weight, by the following table, from 100,000 ounces to one grain, and to the thousandth part of a grain.

Of the Gold Standard.

1lb. weight, or one ounce of gold, must contain
22 carats of fine gold, } Together they make 24 carats, or
1 carat of fine silver, } 1 lb. weight, or 1 ounce Troy
1 carat of fine copper, } weight.

N. B. The carat is a term used by refiners and plate-workers, and others who deal in gold and silver, by which they signify a certain composition of weights, made use of in the assaying and computing of standard gold; and this carat contains either the 24th part of a pound, or the 24th part of an ounce, Troy weight.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

A lb. carat is this subdivided :

12 ounces	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 24 carats
4 grains	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 carat
4 quarters	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 grain
10 dwts Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 carat
2 dwts 12 grs Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 grain
15 grains Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 quarter-grain

An ounce carat is subdivided thus :

1 ounce Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	makes 24 carats
4 grains	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 carat
4 quarters	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 grain
20 grains Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 carat
5 grains Troy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	make 1 carat-grain

THIRD TABLE.

For reducing gold to standard.

Ounces.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	dt.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
100,000	284	1	19	636	19	—	—	1	294
90,000	255	13	15	272	18	—	—	1	226
80,000	227	5	10	909	17	—	—	1	158
70,000	198	17	6	545	16	—	—	1	090
60,000	170	9	2	181	15	—	—	1	022
50,000	142	—	21	818	14	—	—	—	954
40,000	113	12	17	454	13	—	—	—	885
30,000	85	4	13	090	12	—	—	—	817
20,000	56	16	8	727	11	—	—	—	749
10,000	28	8	4	363	10	—	—	—	681
9000	25	11	8	727	9	—	—	—	613
8000	22	14	13	090	8	—	—	—	545
7000	19	17	17	454	7	—	—	—	477
6000	17	—	21	818	6	—	—	—	442
5000	14	4	2	181	5	—	—	—	340
4000	11	7	6	545	4	—	—	—	272
3000	8	10	10	909	3	—	—	—	221
2000	5	13	15	272	2	—	—	—	136
1000	2	16	19	636	1	—	—	—	068
900	2	11	3	272	23gr.	—	—	—	065
800	2	5	10	909	22	—	—	—	062
700	1	19	18	545	21	—	—	—	059
600	1	14	2	181	20	—	—	—	056
500	1	8	9	818	19	—	—	—	053
400	1	2	17	454	18	—	—	—	051
300	—	17	1	090	17	—	—	—	048
200	—	11	8	727	16	—	—	—	045
100	—	5	16	363	15	—	—	—	042
90	—	5	2	727	14	—	—	—	039
80	—	4	13	090	13	—	—	—	036
70	—	3	23	454	12	—	—	—	034
60	—	3	9	818	11	—	—	—	031
50	—	2	20	181	10	—	—	—	028
40	—	2	6	545	9	—	—	—	025
30	—	1	16	909	8	—	—	—	022
20	—	1	3	272	7	—	—	—	019
10	—	—	13	636	6	—	—	—	017
9	—	—	12	272	5	—	—	—	014
8	—	—	10	909	4	—	—	—	011
7	—	—	9	545	3	—	—	—	008
6	—	—	8	181	2	—	—	—	005
5	—	—	6	818	1	—	—	—	002

N. B. When you have multiplied the weight of the bullion, collect the product out of this table.

The use of the Third Table foregoing.

When you have got a report of how much fine gold there is in a lb. weight, or an ounce weight of any bullion, more or less than there is in a lb. or an ounce of standard gold, the said table shews how much it will amount to in any quantity of the said bullion. For the finding out of which, observe the following rules.

1. Reduce the report of better or worse than standard gold into quarter-grains.
2. Multiply the weight of the bullion by these quarter-grains.
3. Collect the product out of the third table, and add them together.
4. If it be better than standard gold, add to it the gros weight, and the total will be the standard weight; if it be worse than standard, deduct the total of the addition from the gros weight, and the remainder will be the standard weight.

Example 1. To know the standard weight of 462 ounces of gold worse than standard by 3 grains $\frac{1}{4}$.

Worse — 3 $\frac{1}{4}$
 Multiply by 4
 13 quarter grains
 Multiply 462 the gros weight
 By — 13 the quarter-grains
 Make — 6006 called ounces.

Collect out of the Third Table.

oz.	is	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
6000	is	17	0	21	818
6	is	0	0	8	181
6006	is	17	1	5	999 worse

From 462 : 0 : 0 : 000 the gros weight
 Take 17 : 1 : 5 : 999 worse
 Remain 444 : 18 : 18 : 001 the standard weight.

Example 2. To know the standard weight of 596 ounces of gold, worse 1 car. 1 gr. $\frac{1}{4}$.

car. gr.
 1 : 1 $\frac{1}{4}$
 4
 5
 4

23 quarter-grains, which multiplied by 596 oz. gros weight, make 13708, which call ounces.

Collect out of the Table.

oz.	dt.	gr.	1000 pts
10000 is	28	8	4 : 363
3000 is	8	10	10 : 909
700 is	1	19	18 : 545
8 is	0	0	10 : 909
13708	38	18	20 : 726

From 596 : 0 : 0 : 000 the gros weight,
 Take 38 : 18 : 20 : 726 worse than standard.

Remains 557 : 1 : 3 : 274 standard weight

Example 3. To know how much standard gold there is in 67 oz. 19 dwts. 11 grs. better by 2 grains $\frac{1}{4}$.

Multiply 67 : 19 : 11
 By 0 : 0 : 9 quarter-grains 4
 Collect 611 : 15 : 3 out of the 3 tab. 9 quarter-grains,

oz.	dt.	gr.	1000 pts
600 : 0 : 0	1	14	2 : 181
10 : 0 : 0	0	0	13 : 636
1 : 0 : 0	0	0	1 : 363
0 : 15 : 0	0	0	1 : 022
0 : 0 : 3	0	0	0 : 008
611 : 15 : 3	1	14	18 : 210 better than stand.

To 67 : 19 : 11 the gros weight
 Add 1 : 14 : 18 better
 Makes 69 : 14 : 5 standard weight.

Gold valued by the gros weight, shewing how much an ounce of gold of any fineness is worth, more or less than an ounce of standard gold, to the thousandth part of a penny, from one quarter of a carat-grain better or worse, to six carats worse than standard.

The standard prices from 3 l. 15 s. to 4 l. 1 s. per ounce.

FOURTH TABLE.

From 3 l. 15 s. to 3 l. 15 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. per			At 3 l. 15 s. 1 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 2 d.		
	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts
1 Grain	—	2	556	—	2	559	—	2	562
1 Grain	—	5	113	—	5	119	—	5	125
1 Grain	—	7	670	—	7	778	—	7	687
1 Grain	—	10	227	—	10	238	—	10	250
1 Grain	—	1	784	—	1	798	—	1	812
1 Grain	—	1	3 340	—	1	3 531	—	1	3 375
1 Grain	—	1	5 897	—	1	5 917	—	1	5 937
2 Grains	—	1	8 454	—	1	8 477	—	1	8 500
2 Grains	—	1	11 011	—	1	11 036	—	1	11 062
2 Grains	—	2	1 568	—	2	1 590	—	2	1 625
2 Grains	—	2	4 124	—	2	4 156	—	2	4 187
3 Grains	—	2	6 681	—	2	6 715	—	2	6 750
3 Grains	—	2	9 238	—	2	9 275	—	2	9 312
3 Grains	—	2	11 795	—	2	11 835	—	2	11 875
3 Grains	—	3	2 352	—	3	2 394	—	3	2 437
1 Carat	—	3	4 909	—	3	4 954	—	3	5 000
2	—	6	9 818	—	6	9 909	—	6	10 000
3	—	10	2 727	—	10	2 863	—	10	3 000
4	—	13	7 636	—	13	7 818	—	13	8 000
5	—	17	— 545	—	17	— 772	—	17	1 000
6	—	20	5 454	—	20	5 727	—	20	6 000

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. 3 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 4 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 5 d.		
	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts
1 Grain	—	2	565	—	2	568	—	2	571
1 Grain	—	5	130	—	5	136	—	5	142
1 Grain	—	7	696	—	7	704	—	7	713
1 Grain	—	10	261	—	10	272	—	10	284
1 Grain	—	1	826	—	1	840	—	1	855
1 Grain	—	1	3 392	—	1	3 409	—	1	3 426
1 Grain	—	1	5 957	—	1	5 977	—	1	5 997
2 Grains	—	1	8 522	—	1	8 545	—	1	8 568
2 Grains	—	1	11 088	—	1	11 113	—	1	11 139
2 Grains	—	2	1 653	—	2	1 681	—	2	1 710
2 Grains	—	2	4 218	—	2	4 249	—	2	4 281
3 Grains	—	2	6 784	—	2	6 818	—	2	6 852
3 Grains	—	2	9 349	—	2	9 386	—	2	9 423
3 Grains	—	2	11 914	—	2	11 954	—	2	11 994
3 Grains	—	3	2 480	—	3	2 522	—	3	2 565
1 Carat	—	3	5 045	—	3	5 090	—	3	5 136
2	—	6	10 091	—	6	10 181	—	6	10 272
3	—	10	3 136	—	10	3 272	—	10	3 408
4	—	13	8 181	—	13	8 363	—	13	8 545
5	—	17	1 227	—	17	1 454	—	17	1 681
6	—	20	6 272	—	20	6 545	—	20	6 817

B U L B U L

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

FOURTH TABLE Continued.

From 3 l. 15 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 15 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 15 s. 6 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 15 s. 7 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 15 s. 8 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	573	— 2	576	— 2	579
1	— 5	147	— 5	153	— 5	159
1	— 7	721	— 7	730	— 7	738
1	— 10	295	— 10	306	— 10	318
1	1	869	1	883	1	897
1	1	3 443	1	3 460	1	3 477
1	1	6 017	1	6 036	1	6 056
2 Grains	1 8	590	1 8	613	1 8	630
2	1 11	164	1 11	190	1 11	215
2	2 1	738	2 1	767	2 1	795
2	2 4	312	2 4	343	2 4	374
2	2 6	886	2 6	920	2 6	954
3 Grains	2 9	460	2 9	497	2 9	534
3	3	— 034	3	— 073	3	— 113
3	3	2 607	3	2 650	3	2 693
1 Carat	3 5	181	3 5	227	3 5	272
2	6 10	363	6 10	454	6 10	545
3	10 3	545	10 3	681	10 3	817
4	13 8	727	13 8	908	13 9	090
5	17 1	908	17 2	136	17 2	363
6	20 7	090	20 7	363	20 7	635

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 15 s. 9 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 15 s. 10 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 15 s. 11 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	582	— 2	585	— 2	588
1	— 5	164	— 5	170	— 5	176
1	— 7	747	— 7	755	— 7	764
1	— 10	329	— 10	340	— 10	352
1	1	— 911	1	— 926	1	— 940
1	1	3 494	1	3 511	1	3 528
1	1	6 076	1	6 096	1	6 116
2 Grains	1 8	659	1 8	681	1 8	704
2	1 11	241	1 11	266	1 11	292
2	2 1	823	2 1	852	2 1	880
2	2 4	406	2 4	437	2 4	468
2	2 6	988	2 7	022	2 7	056
3 Grains	2 9	570	2 9	607	2 9	644
3	3	— 153	3	— 193	3	— 232
3	3	2 735	3	2 778	3	2 829
1 Carat	3 5	318	3 5	393	3 5	408
2	6 10	636	6 10	727	6 10	817
3	10 3	954	10 4	090	10 4	226
4	13 9	272	13 9	454	13 9	635
5	17 2	590	17 2	817	17 3	044
6	20 7	908	20 8	181	20 8	453

From 3 l. 16 s. to 3 l. 16 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 16 s. per	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 1 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 2 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	590	— 2	593	— 2	596
1	— 5	181	— 5	187	— 5	193
1	— 7	772	— 7	781	— 7	789
1	— 10	363	— 10	375	— 10	386
1	1	— 954	1	— 968	1	— 982
1	1	3 545	1	3 562	1	3 579
1	1	6 127	1	6 156	1	6 176
2 Grains	1 8	727	1 8	772	1 8	817
2	1 11	318	1 11	343	1 11	369
2	2 1	909	2 1	937	2 1	965
2	2 4	499	2 4	531	2 4	562
2	2 7	090	2 7	125	2 7	159
3 Grains	2 9	681	2 9	718	2 9	755
3	3	— 272	3	— 312	3	— 352
3	3	2 863	3	2 906	3	2 948
1 Carat	3 5	454	3 5	500	3 5	545
2	6 10	908	6 11	000	6 11	090
3	10 4	363	10 4	500	10 4	636
4	13 9	817	13 10	000	13 10	181
5	17 3	272	17 3	500	17 3	727
6	20 8	726	20 9	000	20 9	272

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 16 s. 3 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 4 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 5 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	599	— 2	602	— 2	605
1	— 5	198	— 5	204	— 5	210
1	— 7	798	— 7	806	— 7	815
1	— 10	397	— 10	409	— 10	420
1	1	— 997	1	1 011	1	1 025
1	1	3 595	1	3 613	1	3 630
1	1	6 196	1	6 215	1	6 235
2 Grains	1 8	795	1 8	818	1 8	840
2	1 11	394	1 11	420	1 11	445
2	2 1	994	2 2	022	2 2	051
2	2 4	593	2 4	624	2 4	656
2	2 7	193	2 7	227	2 7	261
3 Grains	2 9	792	2 9	829	2 9	866
3	3	— 392	3	— 431	3	— 471
3	3	2 901	3	3 034	3	3 076
1 Carat	3 5	590	3 5	630	3 5	681
2	6 11	181	6 11	272	6 11	363
3	10 4	722	10 4	908	10 5	045
4	13 10	303	13 10	545	13 10	727
5	17 3	954	17 4	181	17 4	408
6	20 9	545	20 9	817	20 10	090

From 3 l. 16 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 16 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 16 s. 6 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 7 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 8 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	607	— 2	610	— 2	613
1	— 5	215	— 5	221	— 5	227
1	— 7	823	— 7	832	— 7	840
1	— 10	431	— 10	443	— 10	454
1	1	— 039	1	— 053	1	— 068
1	1	3 647	1	3 664	1	3 681
1	1	6 255	1	6 275	1	6 295
2 Grains	1 8	803	1 8	886	1 8	909
2	1 11	471	1 11	497	1 11	522
2	2 2	079	2 2	107	2 2	136
2	2 4	687	2 4	718	2 4	749
2	2 7	295	2 7	329	2 7	363
3 Grains	2 9	903	2 9	940	2 9	977
3	3	— 511	3	— 551	3	— 590
3	3	3 119	3	3 161	3	3 204
1 Carat	3 5	727	3 5	772	3 5	818
2	6 11	454	6 11	545	6 11	636
3	10 5	181	10 5	317	10 5	454
4	13 10	908	13 11	090	13 11	272
5	17 4	863	17 4	863	17 5	090
6	20 10	363	20 10	635	20 10	908

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 16 s. 9 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 10 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 16 s. 11 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	616	— 2	619	— 2	622
1	— 5	232	— 5	238	— 5	244
1	— 7	849	— 7	857	— 7	866
1	— 10	465	— 10	477	— 10	488
1	1	— 082	1	— 096	1	— 110
1	1	3 698	1	3 715	1	3 732
1	1	6 315	1	6 335	1	6 355
2 Grains	1 8	931	1 8	954	1 8	979
2	1 11	548	1 11	573	1 11	599
2	2 2	164	2 2	193	2 2	221
2	2 4	781	2 4	812	2 4	843
2	2 7	397	2 7	431	2 7	465
3 Grains	2 10	014	2 10	051	2 10	087
3	3	— 630	3	— 670	3	— 710
3	3	3 247	3	3 289	3	3 332
1 Carat	3 5	863	3 5	908	3 5	954
2	6 11	727	6 11	817	6 11	908
3	10 5	590	10 5	726	10 5	863
4	13 11	454	13 11	635	13 11	817
5	17 5	317	17 5	544	17 5	722
6	20 11	181	20 11	453	20 11	726

From 3 l. 17 s. to 3 l. 17 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 17 s. per	s. d. Parts	3 l. 17 s. 1 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 17 s. 2 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	625	— 2	627	— 2	630
1	— 5	250	— 5	255	— 5	261
1	— 7	875	— 7	883	— 7	892
1	— 10	500	— 10	511	— 10	522
1	1	— 125	1	— 139	1	— 153
1	1	3 750	1	3 767	1	3 784
1	1	6 375	1	6 394	1	6 414
2 Grains	1 9	000	1 9	022	1 9	045
2	1 11	625	1 11	650	1 11	676
2	2 2	250	2 2	278	2 2	306
2	2 4	875	2 4	906	2 4	937
2	2 7	500	2 7	534	2 7	568
3 Grains	2 10	125	2 10	161	2 10	198
3	3	— 750	3	— 789	3	— 829
3	3	3 375	3	3 417	3	3 460
1 Carat	3 6	000	3 6	045	3 6	090
2	7	— 000	7	— 090	7	— 181
3	10 6	000	10 6	136	10 6	272
4	14	— 000	14	— 181	14	— 303
5	17 6	000	17 6	227	17 6	454
6	21	— 000	21	— 272	21	— 515

B. or W.	At		At		At	
	3 l. 17 s. 3 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 17 s. 4 d.	s. d. Parts	3 l. 17 s. 5 d.	s. d. Parts
1 Grain	— 2	633	— 2	636	— 2	639
1	— 5	267	— 5	272	— 5	278
1	— 7	900	— 7	909	— 7	917
1	— 10	534	— 10	545	— 10	556
1	1	— 167	1	— 181	1	— 196
1	1	3 801	1	3 818	1	3 835
1	1	6 434	1	6 454	1	6 474
2 Grains	1 9	068	1 9	090	1 9	113
2	1 11	701	1 11	727	1 11	752
2	2 2	335	2 2	363	2 2	392
2	2 4	968	2 4	999	2 4	1031
2	2 7	602	2 7	636	2 7	670
3 Grains	2 10	235	2 10	272	2 10	309
3	3	— 869	3	— 909	3	— 949
3	3	3 502	3	3 545	3	3 588
1 Carat	3 6	137	3 6	181	3 6	227
2	7	— 272	7	— 363	7	— 474
3	10 6	454	10 6	545	10 6	681
4	14	— 545	14	— 727	14	— 908
5	17 6	011	17 6	090	17 7	140
6	21	— 817	21	— 090	21	— 333

B U L B U L

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

FOURTH TABLE Continued.

From 3 l. 17 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 17 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l. 17 s. 6 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 17 s. 7 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 17 s. 8 d.	s. d. Parts	
1 Grain	— 2 642			— 2 644			— 2 647		
1	— 5 284			— 5 289			— 5 295		
1	— 7 926			— 7 934			— 7 943		
1	— 10 568			— 10 579			— 10 590		
1	1 1 210			1 1 224			1 1 238		
1	1 3 852			1 3 869			1 3 886		
1	1 6 494			1 6 514			1 6 534		
2 Grains	1 9 136			1 9 159			1 9 181		
2	1 11 778			1 11 803			1 11 829		
2	2 2 420			2 2 448			2 2 477		
2	2 5 062			2 5 093			2 5 124		
3 Grains	2 7 704			2 7 738			2 7 772		
3	2 10 346			2 10 383			2 10 420		
3	3 — 988			3 1 028			3 1 068		
3	3 3 630			3 3 673			3 3 715		
1 Carat	3 6 272			3 6 318			3 6 363		
2	7 — 545			7 — 636			7 — 727		
3	10 6 817			10 6 954			10 7 090		
4	14 1 099			14 1 272			14 1 454		
5	17 7 363			17 7 590			17 7 817		
6	21 1 636			21 1 908			21 2 181		

From 3 l. 18 s. to 3 l. 18 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l. 18 s. 0 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 18 s. 1 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 18 s. 2 d.	s. d. Parts	
1 Grain	— 2 650			— 2 653			— 2 656		
1	— 5 301			— 5 306			— 5 312		
1	— 7 951			— 7 960			— 7 968		
1	— 10 602			— 10 613			— 10 624		
1	1 1 252			1 1 267			1 1 281		
1	1 3 903			1 3 920			1 3 937		
1	1 6 553			1 6 573			1 6 593		
2 Grains	1 9 204			1 9 227			1 9 249		
2	1 11 855			1 11 880			1 11 906		
2	2 2 505			2 2 534			2 2 562		
2	2 5 156			2 5 187			2 5 218		
3 Grains	2 7 806			2 7 840			2 7 874		
3	2 10 457			2 10 494			2 10 531		
3	3 1 107			3 1 147			3 1 187		
3	3 3 758			3 3 801			3 3 843		
1 Carat	3 6 408			3 6 454			3 6 499		
2	7 — 817			7 — 908			7 — 999		
3	10 7 226			10 7 363			10 7 499		
4	14 1 635			14 1 817			14 1 999		
5	17 8 044			17 8 272			17 8 499		
6	21 2 455			21 2 726			21 2 999		

From 3 l. 18 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 18 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l. 18 s. 6 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 18 s. 7 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 18 s. 8 d.	s. d. Parts	
1 Grain	— 2 676			— 2 678			— 2 681		
1	— 5 352			— 5 357			— 5 363		
1	— 8 028			— 8 037			— 8 045		
1	— 10 704			— 10 715			— 10 727		
1	1 1 380			1 1 394			1 1 409		
1	1 4 056			1 4 073			1 4 090		
1	1 6 732			1 6 752			1 6 772		
2 Grains	1 9 409			1 9 431			1 9 454		
2	2 — c85			2 — 110			2 — 136		
2	2 2 761			2 2 789			2 2 818		
2	2 5 437			2 5 468			2 5 500		
3 Grains	2 8 113			2 8 147			2 8 181		
3	2 10 789			2 10 826			2 10 863		
3	3 1 465			3 1 504			3 1 545		
3	3 4 142			3 4 185			3 4 227		
1 Carat	3 6 818			3 6 863			3 6 909		
2	7 1 636			7 1 777			7 1 818		
3	10 8 454			10 8 590			10 8 727		
4	14 3 272			14 3 454			14 3 636		
5	17 10 090			17 10 317			17 10 545		
6	21 4 909			21 5 181			21 5 454		

From 3 l. 19 s. to 3 l. 19 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l. 19 s. 0 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 19 s. 1 d.	s. d. Parts		3 l. 19 s. 2 d.	s. d. Parts	
1 Grain	— 2 684			— 2 687			— 2 690		
1	— 5 369			— 5 375			— 5 380		
1	— 8 053			— 8 062			— 8 071		
1	— 10 738			— 10 750			— 10 761		
1	1 1 423			1 1 437			1 1 451		
1	1 4 107			1 4 125			1 4 142		
1	1 6 792			1 6 812			1 6 832		
2 Grains	1 9 477			1 9 500			1 9 522		
2	2 — 161			2 — 188			2 — 213		
2	2 2 846			2 2 875			2 2 903		
2	2 5 531			2 5 562			2 5 593		
3 Grains	2 8 215			2 8 250			2 8 284		
3	2 10 900			2 10 937			2 10 974		
3	3 1 585			3 1 625			3 1 664		
3	3 4 269			3 4 312			3 4 355		
1 Carat	3 6 954			3 7 000			3 7 045		
2	7 1 908			7 2 000			7 2 090		
3	10 8 863			10 9 000			10 9 136		
4	14 3 817			14 4 000			14 4 181		
5	17 10 772			17 11 000			17 11 227		
6	21 5 726			21 6 000			21 6 272		

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

F O U R T H T A B L E.

From 3 l. 19 s. 6 d. to 4 l. 1 s. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l.	19 s.	6 d.	3 l.	19 s.	7 d.	3 l.	19 s.	8 d.
1 Grain	1	1	55 1	1	1	56 2	1	1	57 9
1	1	4	26 1	1	4	27 8	1	4	29 5
1	1	6	97 1	1	6	99 1	1	7	0 11
2 Grains	1	9	68 1	1	9	70 4	1	9	72 7
2	2	—	39 2	2	—	41 7	2	—	44 3
2	2	3	10 2	2	3	13 0	2	3	15 9
2	2	5	8 12	2	5	8 43	2	5	8 75
3 Grains	2	8	52 2	2	8	55 6	2	8	59 0
4	2	11	23 2	2	11	26 9	2	11	30 6
3	3	1	94 3	3	1	98 2	3	2	0 22
3	3	4	65 3	3	4	69 5	3	4	73 8
1 Carat	3	7	36 3	3	7	40 9	3	7	45 4
2	7	2	72 7	7	2	81 8	7	2	90 9
3	10	10	09 0	10	10	22 7	10	10	36 3
4	14	5	45 4	14	5	63 6	14	5	81 8
5	18	—	8 18	18	—	1 04 5	18	1	27 2
6	21	8	18 1	21	8	45 4	21	2	72 7

B. or W.	At			At			At		
	3 l.	19 s.	10 d.	4 l.	per Oz.	4 l.	19 s.	p. Oz.	
1 Grain	1	2	72 1	1	2	72 7	1	2	76 1
1	1	5	44 3	1	5	45 4	1	5	52 2
1	1	8	16 4	1	8	18 1	1	8	28 4
1	1	10	88 6	1	10	90 9	1	11	04 5
1	1	1	60 7	1	1	63 6	1	1	80 6
1	1	4	32 9	1	4	36 3	1	4	56 8
1	1	7	05 1	1	7	09 0	1	7	32 9
2 Grains	1	9	77 2	1	9	81 8	1	10	09 0
2	2	—	49 4	2	—	54 5	2	—	85 2
2	2	3	21 5	2	3	27 2	2	3	61 3
2	2	5	93 7	2	5	00 0	2	5	37 5
3 Grains	2	8	65 9	2	8	72 7	2	9	13 6
3	2	11	38 0	2	11	45 4	2	11	89 7
3	3	2	10 2	3	2	18 1	3	2	65 9
3	3	4	82 3	3	4	90 9	3	5	42 0
1 Carat	3	7	54 5	3	7	63 6	3	8	18 1
2	7	3	09 0	7	3	27 2	7	4	36 3
3	10	10	63 6	10	10	90 8	11	—	54 5
4	14	6	18 1	14	6	54 5	14	8	72 7
5	18	1	72 7	18	2	18 1	18	4	90 9
6	21	9	27 2	21	9	81 7	22	1	09 0

The use of the foregoing Table.

GOLD cast up by the gross weight.

Example 1. To know the intrinsic value of 462 ounces of gold worse than standard by three grains $\frac{1}{2}$, when standard is valued at 3 l. 18 s. per ounce.

From - - - 1. s. d. 1000pts
 3 : 18 : 0 : 000 per ounce standard
 Take for 3 gr. $\frac{1}{2}$ w. 0 : 2 : 10 : 568 per
 The value per ounce 3 : 15 : 1 : 432
 Multiply by - - - - - 462 ounces

7 : 10 : 2 : 864
 225 : 7 : 1 : 920
 1502 : 7 : 10 : 800

Answer - - - 1735 : 5 : 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, or 584

The same proved by the third table.

The first example, which illustrates the third table, shews that 462 ounces of gold, worse than standard 3 grains $\frac{1}{2}$, makes 444 oz. 18 dwts. 18 grains standard;

And - - - oz. dts. grs.
 444 : 18 : 18 at l. 3 : 18 per ounce
 1779 : 15 : 0
 44 : 9 : 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
 Comes to l. 1735 : 5 : 1 $\frac{1}{2}$

So that you may see, by the foregoing example, that the third table will prove the fourth in regard to gold, as the first will prove the second, in regard to silver.

Example 2. To know the value of 596 ounces of gold, worse 1 carat, 1 grain $\frac{1}{2}$, when standard is worth l. 3 : 15 : 5 per ounce.

From - - - 1. s. d. 1000pts.
 3 : 15 : 5 : 000
 Less - - - 0 : 3 : 5 : 136 for 1 carat worse.
 Less - - - 0 : 1 : 5 : 997 for 1 grain $\frac{1}{2}$
 Take - - - 0 : 4 : 11 : 133
 Remains value 3 : 10 : 5 : 867 per ounce
 Multiplied by 596 ounces.

21 : 2 : 11 : 202
 317 : 4 : 0 : 030
 1762 : 4 : 5 : 500

Answer 2100 : 11 : 4 : 732

The same proved by the third table.

In the second example, which explains that table, you will find that 596 oz. worse 1 car. 1 gr. $\frac{1}{2}$, make standard 557 oz. 1 dwt. 3 grs. 274.

oz. dts. grs. 1000pts
 557 : 1 : 3 : 274 at l. 3 : 15 : 5 per ounce
 1671 : 3 : 4 : 911
 278 : 10 : 6 : 818
 139 : 5 : 3 : 409
 11 : 12 : 1 : 284

Come to l. 2100 : 11 : 4 : 422

Example 3. To know how much sterling 67 oz. 19 dwts. 11 grs. of gold, better 2 grains $\frac{1}{2}$, will amount to, at 3 l. 17 s. 6 d. per ounce standard.

per ounce . l. s. d.
 3 : 17 : 6
 20
 77 : 6
 For 1 gr. $\frac{1}{2}$ add 1 : 11 : 778 better
 79 : 5 : 778
 12

Pence - - - 953 : 778 per ounce
 Multiply by 67 ounces

6676446
 5722668
 476889 for 10 dts.
 238444 5
 190755 4
 19870 — : 10 grs.
 1987 — : 1
 12)64831071
 210)5402:7
 l. 270 : 2 : 7 the answer.

The same also may be proved by the third table.

REMARKS relating to the practical Trade of BULLION.

When gold and silver are in their purity, or as purely refined as the nature of the metals will admit of [see the article REFINING] they are so flexible, that they cannot be so well wrought into any form for use, without being hardened with an alloy [see the article ALLAY] of some baser metal.

To prevent the abuses which some might be tempted to commit in the making of such alloys, the legislators of well policed countries have ordained, that there shall be no more than such a particular weight of a baser metal incorporated with the finer, to a certain quantity of pure gold, or silver, in order to render them of the fineness of what is called the standard gold or silver of particular countries.

We have already seen what are the rules of this proportion with regard to England. According to law, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made in conformity to the standard: and the price of the said standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to value bullion, whether it be in the mass, bars, dust, or in pieces of foreign money; so that the true value of bullion cannot be known without being assayed, [see ASSAY] the use of the assay being accurately to discover what quantity of alloy there is contained in any bullion, more or less than there is in standard gold or silver: for, if there be less alloy therein than there is in the standard, so much as there is less makes the bullion proportionably finer, and, consequently, more valuable, as we have seen by examples, than standard. On the other hand, if there be more alloy in any bullion than the standard requires, such bullion will be coarser, or worse than standard, and, therefore, will be so much the less valuable.

From what has been said it is obvious, that all who traffic in bullion gold and silver, and foreign coins, &c. cannot be too delicate in having their assays made with accuracy, nor too expert in the computations necessary upon those occasions. Bullion being a commodity, like others, there is some sagacity required in the dealing therein, as well as in others, there being markets where, and seasons when, it is frequently to be bought cheap, and sold at others to an handsome profit.

How gold and silver in bullion, or foreign money, may occasionally be turned to advantage in Holland, &c. when the courses of exchange are favourable, shall be shewn under the articles of GOLD and SILVER, and other heads, to which we shall refer from time to time, as the nature of our subject requires.

Political REMARKS upon BULLION.

There has not been any capital article of traffic more generally misunderstood, perhaps, than what relates to gold and silver, or bullion, which some would have not to be reckoned a commodity, or merchandize, and, therefore, not permitted to go out, when once brought into the kingdom. But those who seem to have thought the clearest and deepest upon this matter, have been of a different sentiment; and, in consequence of judging bullion gold or silver to be merchandize,

size, have contended for it's free exportation, as well as importation.

Those nations that bring in gold or silver by means of their exports of variety of merchandize, are upon an equal footing with those countries that have mines in their possession, and barter their gold and silver for commodities; and, in such trading states, that have no gold or silver mines, gold and silver become a species of merchandize, as well as any other; a merchandize that may be turned in trade with advantage, and, therefore, more valuable in such a country, than where they were first dug from the mines. Industry, and skill to improve trade, and the apt situation of a country for it, afford more real treasure to a people than even the possession of gold and silver mines: nor can any quantity thereof, that may be dug out of the mines, bear a proportion with what may be made to arise from the whole labour of a trading, industrious, and populous nation. For the national stock, though small at first, is, by such means, ever increasing, and that increase still accumulating more and more; so that the augmentation arising from such accumulating increase, and the gold and silver gained from other nations in trade for commodities, makes a perpetual addition: which being permanent, such nation has no bounds to it's wealth; while other countries that possess mines, and rely on their produce, generally work them chiefly for the industrious of other countries, and may become beggars, notwithstanding their first property of all the gold and silver in the world.

The strict prohibition in Spain against exporting gold and silver, was an early obstruction to their commercial industry, and rendered that treasure, in a great measure, useless to the bulk of the people. But if, on the contrary, gold and silver had been allowed commodities, it would, of course, have put them upon methods of turning them to more advantage: whereas, while their hands have been bound up by their own laws, the gold and silver brought from thence have been the tools wherewith other nations have wrought, and gained their riches. Had not this mistaken policy diverted their thoughts from an active commerce, they would certainly have been, at this day, a different nation to what they are. At present, indeed, they seem to be sensible of their faux pas, and England, as well as other countries, is likely soon to experience the effects of a different policy, unless she takes wise measures to prevent it, before it is too late.

Should it be objected to this reasoning, that, as we have a great trade for our product and manufactures, and thereby bring in a general balance of gold and silver, besides other returns in commodities, for our expence, we ought only to carry out commodities in trade, and let the gold and silver remain among ourselves, and by our laws prevent the exportation thereof; which is carrying out that treasure again that comes to us by the balance of our trade.

To this it has been answered, that gold and silver are no otherwise of intrinsic value of themselves, than as they are a settled and constant measure whereby to value commodities of all kinds; which seems manifest from hence, that in such countries, as in Africa, &c. where they are not the settled and constant measure for commodities, they are of no more use than any other trafficable commodity; and as particular species of merchandizes in demand throughout the world are to be had, some at one place, and some at another; so gold and silver are commodities wherein most nations agree, that the difference in the barter of all other commodities is answered and made up, and thereby of general use almost every-where; which being thus subservient to trade, it is highly injurious, nay, it is it's very destruction, to take it from that use: but as to the imagination of retaining the same in the nation, without circulating out of it, this must be a national loss: for that is keeping such a dead stock to that value, which affords no manner of increase, and is of no more use, while it so continues, to the increase of the public capital (however shifted in private hands) than the like value of statues, paintings, buildings, &c. the use of it among us serves to no other end than the convenient transacting of payments with one another, in our domestic negotiations; and, when that end is answered, the plenty of gold and silver will be rather a national loss (besides it's lying dead) as it will naturally enhance the price of our own merchandizes to ourselves, and thereby lessen the demand for them by foreign nations; and consequently, in time, ruin the trade, and impoverish the people, by enabling them to pursue only a passive, instead of an active general commerce, as has been hitherto the case of countries that have depended on their mines, and the mistaken policy of not esteeming gold and silver commodities.

To explain this matter by a familiar instance:

Suppose that our national debts, about seventy millions, were, by some accident, found under the ruins of Whitehall, in species of silver or gold, and were immediately issued out to the public creditors; such an increase of treasure, added to what we have already, would not be of that benefit to the kingdom, which some at first view may conceive; for, immediately the interest of money would, by the rule of proportion, sink to one per cent. or rather to nothing, or else all the utensils of our houses must be made of these metals, or it must lie dead in the cash-chest, without any prospect of ever re-

moving from thence; for, doubtless, such who are against exporting money now, would be of the same mind then, if their arguments are of practical weight with themselves; and what would be the natural consequence of this, unless gold and silver were a commodity for export as well as import? By having the greater plenty of money, should we not give the greater wages to the labourer, mechanic, and manufacturer, &c. and also for the native commodities of wool, lead, tin, corn, and so on? Besides, such persons as now live by making some small interest of their money, as gentlemen that are so wise as to lay up some part of their yearly revenues, widows, and minors, would not only be incapacitated to make any improvement of their money, but must pay more for their cloaths, and other necessaries, than they did before. But the greatest misfortune of all is, that there would be no employment for our artizans and manufacturers; for foreign nations, which had not so much money in circulation, could not afford to buy our manufactures, at the enhanced value which our own plenty of money would raise them to: wherefore, under such circumstances, unless money was permitted the freedom of going and coming, of exporting as well as importing, according as people's occasions required, (for no person exports money for his pleasure) the nation would not grow the more prosperous.

But, upon the supposition of such plenty of gold and silver, and those, in every shape being esteemed commodities: upon the supposition also of disburdening our trade of it's present taxes, in consequence of the discharge of our national debts, such plenty of money, under a well regulated commerce, might be made instrumental so to universalize our trade, by raising an universal spirit for it among the people, that no nation, without the like capital of ready money, and the like advantage in all other respects, could work cheaper and undersell us; for the long credit that is now given in trade, for want of ready cash to circulate it, is as heavy a clog on it as our debts and taxes*.

* I would by no means be thought to insinuate any thing against the discharge of the national debts, and in consequence thereof, lessening the great weight of our taxes: on the contrary, I shall endeavour to shew by what measures and gradations those incumbrances may, according to my humble judgment, be got rid of, without injury either to our commerce, the public credit, or to the national creditors.

But, should it be granted convenient for us to keep within ourselves all the bullion we can acquire, yet long experience has shewn the impracticability of keeping it by any laws: that could only be effectuated by the good management and regulation of our trade. Though the Spaniards make the exportation thereof death, nevertheless, in the way of trade, it is exported at noon-day; the balance they pay for the manufactures of other countries, necessarily carries away their money, notwithstanding the rigour and severity of all their penal laws to prevent it*. It is, therefore, taking due care that the exportation of our native commodities shall always over-balance the importation of foreign commodities, which must keep our money at home, and that only can do it. For if, upon the balance of the exports and imports of our other commodities, we are gainers, and thereby payments are made to us in gold and silver, by other countries (for the balance can be paid us in nothing else at last) that gold and silver being suffered to be made a commodity to fetch goods from some other countries, whence we cannot have them for any thing else, the re-exportation thereof to other countries would become a beneficial article in our commerce, and return a great balance in it's own kind, (our trade otherwise, in products and manufactures, still over-balancing, as before) and would add greatly to the national stock; and, without such a freedom in trade, a superfluous plenty of bullion, or money, would be rather injurious than otherwise.

* This, also, shews the mistaken policy of the Portuguese, in regard to the treatment our merchants have too long received at Lisbon; and which too, it is said, is again revived, to the scandal of the Portuguese administration; seeing it is so recent that they owe their whole kingdom to Great-Britain.

If, by the wise regulation of our trade with foreign nations, the balance is on our side, and we are gainers by sending out our money to purchase such goods, that may be sold again to other countries, we must, as I have shewn under the article *BALANCE OF TRADE*, and also the article of *BRITISH EMPIRE*, by such an increase of treasure as this will give us, always be masters of the exchange all over the world; which is such an advantage in trade with any nation, that, although it may only be a trifle in our favour, it has a national tendency arising from itself, as I have shewn, to augment that balance still more and more to our emolument.

From what has been said, it seems pretty evident, that gold and silver, or bullion, in any shape, ought to be reckoned a commodity, and is to be made use of to advantage in trade, as well as other commodities are; and, therefore, ought to have a free exportation, as conducive to the increase of the capital

capital stock of the kingdom. It must, however, be allowed, that, if we carry on such a trade as importing consumable commodities to be spent among us, more than our own commodities will answer in the ballance, which thereby must be paid in gold and silver, this will certainly be to our detriment, by draining us of our gold and silver, without any return, and be attended with a decay of our own manufactures: but, if this should be our case, it is not to be remedied by any laws against the exportation of our gold and silver, but by the due regulation of our trade, by retrenching our consumption of foreign merchandizes; by establishing new trades and manufactures in the nation, and by purchasing less merchandize of other countries, and selling more of our own; for the exportation of our gold and silver could not be the cause of such our loss, but the necessary and inevitable effect of such our trade, vanity and luxury; which distinction should be attentively and maturely considered.

There would be little difficulty to corroborate this reasoning with a train of weighty arguments, and to confirm the same from the concurring sentiments of the ablest statesmen; but, the letter B swelling to a length beyond the proportioned design, I shall refer the other matter to such heads as have congruity with this topic; such as the articles of COIN, GOLD, SILVER, MONEY, NATIONAL DEBTS, &c.

Bullion, or foreign coin of gold or silver, may, upon entry, be exported by any persons, without payment of custom or fees. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. sect. 12. See COIN. Entered or shipped in the name of any other person, than the true owner and proprietor, forfeited, or the value. 6 and 7 Wil. III. cap. 17. sect. 14. Seized, proof of it's being foreign, and not melted down in this kingdom, to lie upon the owner, claimer, or exporter. Ditto. See SILVER. Foreign coin, imported, may be landed without warrant.

Persons having unlawful bullion shall be committed to goal by one justice for six months. Note. It is by one justice or warden of the company of goldsmiths, &c. within the bills of mortality, and by two justices in any town or place.

Two justices may grant a warrant, for a constable to search any persons houses suspected to have unlawful bullion, and to break open doors, boxes, &c. to search for, and discover the same.

Persons apprehending clippers, washers, counterfeiters, and filers of the current coin of this kingdom, shall have 40 l. paid them within one month after conviction, on certificate from the judge or justices before whom convicted.—Persons guilty, convicting two, shall be pardoned; and an apprentice, making a discovery, shall be made a freeman. 6 and 7 W. III.

BUOY, a sea-term, which has some connection with trade. It is a piece of wood, or of cork, sometimes an empty barrel well closed, which floats upon the water, being tied to a small cable fastened at the bottom of the sea, in order to let pilots and mariners know where the anchors are dropped in the harbours, or where those lie, which have been left in the roads, because they could not be taken up; the buoys serve also to shew where there are wrecks sunk, or shallow places in the sea, or other impediments which might be hurtful or dangerous to ships.

All those buoys are distinguished by the materials they are made of: the mast-buoy is made with a piece of a mast, or, for want of it, with a simple piece of wood; the barrel-buoy is made with staves, tied together with hoops like a barrel; the cork-buoy is made of several pieces of cork, tied together with a rope.

A merchant-ship, lying in a harbour, ought to have a buoy at his anchor; and, if any loss or damage should happen for want of it, the master would be obliged to pay half the damage.

Sometimes the word buoy signifies a sea-mark, to shew the difficult or dangerous passages.

When there are any duties or fees to be paid for buoys, the masters of the ships are obliged to pay them, they not being reckoned among averages. See AVERAGE.

BURGUNDY. The duchy of Burgundy is bounded on the east by the river Soane, which separates it from Franche Comté; has Champagne on the north, Nivernois and Bourbonnois on the west, and Lyonnois on the south. As it is one of the most fertile countries in France for corn and fruit, so there is none that produces more excellent wine, than that of Nuis, Chambertin, Belz, Coulange, Chaffagne, Beaune, and Volenay, all in this province.

AUXERRE is very well situated for inland trade, both on account of the river, and it's easy communication with Paris;

and yet it seems the inhabitants do not make all the advantage they could of that happy situation. This is the feat of four commissaries, who take cognizance of all affairs relating to the taille, and subsidies; or aids. Here is also kept a granary for salt.

At SEMUR also is a granary for salt; and several fairs are kept here in a year, and a market three times a week. The soil of this district is very good, abounding in corn and cattle, of which they drive a considerable trade; they have also very good wine.

MACON is the capital of the country of Mâconnois, famous for it's excellent wine. Here is a public granary of salt.

BOURG. Though this city be not well situated for trade, yet they keep there a great many fairs; all their trade consists in horses, cattle, and skins, which they whiten perfectly well, and sell to the merchants of Grenoble and Lyons.

BURTHEN, or **BURDEN** of a ship, signifies it's contents, or how much it will carry. This is reckoned by the ton, of two thousand pounds weight. Thus when we say, a ship, burthened a hundred ton, we mean, a ship capable to carry, in merchandizes, ammunition, provisions, men, and ballast, a weight of a hundred times two thousand pounds; or two hundred thousand pounds weight, or two thousand quintals: which must be understood proportionably of ships of a thousand, or of two thousand ton, which are the largest; and, when they are men of war, they are said to be of the first or second rate, &c. whose burthen, according to this evaluation, amounts sometimes to above four millions of pounds.

BUSS, a small sea vessel used by us and the Dutch in the herring-fishery. They call it in Dutch haering-buys; these vessels are commonly from 48 to 60 tons burthen, and sometimes more. They have two small sheds or cabins, one at the prow, and the other at the stern: that at the prow serves for a kitchen.

Each buss has a master, an assistant, a mate, and seamen in proportion to the vessel's bigness. The master commands in chief, and without his express order the nets cannot be cast nor taken up. The assistant has the command after him, and the mate next, whose business is to see the seamen manage the rigging in a proper manner; to mind those who draw in the nets, and those who kill, gut, and secure the herrings, as they are taken out of the sea. The seamen do generally engage for a whole voyage in the lump.

The provisions which they take on board the busses, consist commonly in biscuit, oatmeal, and dried, or salt fish; the crew being content for the rest with what fresh fish they catch. See FISHERIES.

BUTESHIRE, in Scotland, contains two of the western isles, Bute and Arran, which lie in the frith of Clyde, north of Argyleshire, east from Cantyre, and west from Renfrew, Cunningham and Kyle. There is a great herring and cod-fishery on the coast. Arran has an excellent safe harbour and bay, on the east side of the island.

REMARKS.

Is it not highly desirable, that our whole fisheries upon the coast of Scotland, were regulated and improved to the utmost degree of advantage they will so easily admit of? See FISHERIES, and SCOTLAND.

BUTLERAGE and **PRISAGE**. These were originally the only custom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and were taken and received by virtue of the regal prerogative, for the proper use of the crown: but, for many years past, there having been granted, by parliament, subsidies, or aids, to the kings of England, and these duties not repealed * but confirmed; they have been pleased to grant the same away to some noblemen, who, by virtue of such grant or patent, is to enjoy the full benefit and advantage thereof, and may cause the same to be levied and collected in the same manner as the kings themselves might, and were formerly wont to do.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. sect. 16. 12th and 27th Rules of Book of Rates.

Butlerage is a duty of 2 s. for every ton of wine imported by merchants strangers; being a composition (in lieu of the duty of prisage payable in kind by English only) in consideration of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by king John and king Edward the 1st, by a charter called Charta mercatoria *.

* 31 Edw. I. cap. 1. and 2. 27. Edw. III. cap. 26.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, from the end of Letter A.

THAT the reader may discern the connection of this part of our design, he is desired to observe, that, at the close of the letter A, we introduced him into a knowledge of the calculation of the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, according to the method pursued in Sandby's book of rates, by an explanation of the table and list made use of for that purpose: after which we entered upon divers other particulars requisite to the understanding of the practical business of that office.

Since the publication of Mr. Sandby's book of rates, another act of parliament was made in the 32d of Geo. II. intitled, An act for granting to his majesty a subsidy of poundage upon certain goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and an additional duty on coffee and chocolate, &c.

The subsidy is 12 d. in the pound, to be raised, levied and collected upon all tobacco, foreign linnens, sugar, and other groceries, as the same is understood in the book of rates, except currants; East India goods, except coffee and raw silks; foreign brandy and spirits, except rum of the produce of the British plantations; and paper, which shall be imported or brought into the kingdom of Great-Britain, according to the value or rate respectively set upon each of the said commodities by the several books of rates, or any act or acts of parliament relating thereunto; which subsidy shall be paid by the importer of such goods and merchandize, before the landing thereof, over and above all other duties charged or chargeable thereupon.

And it is further enacted and declared, by the authority aforesaid, that the said subsidy of poundage by this act imposed, shall be raised, levied, collected and paid into his majesty's exchequer, for the purposes in this act expressed, in such and like form and manner, and with such ALLOWANCES, DISCOUNTS, DRAWBACKS and EXEMPTIONS, and under such PENALTIES and FORFEITURES, and according to such RULES, METHODS, and DIRECTIONS, as are prescribed or appointed for raising, levying, collecting and paying, the subsidy of five pounds per centum, granted by an act made in the twenty-first year of the reign of his late majesty, intitled, An act for granting to his majesty a subsidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandize to be imported into this kingdom, &c.—or as are contained in or by any other act or acts of parliament by the said act of the twenty-first year of the reign of his late majesty, referred unto, or any of them; and all and every the powers, authorities, rules, directions, penalties, forfeitures, clauses, matters and things now in force, contained in the said act made in the twenty-first year of his late majesty's reign, &c. shall be in full force, and be duly observed, practised, and put in execution, &c. for raising and paying the subsidy of twelve-pence in the pound, by this act granted, as fully and effectually to all intents and purposes, as if the same or the like powers, authorities, rules, directions, penalties, &c. were particularly repeated and re-enacted in the body of this present act.

The clause, respecting the drawback, declares, Provided always, and it is hereby enacted and declared, that in all cases where any goods or merchandizes, that have paid the subsidy hereby granted, shall at any time or times be again exported by any merchant or merchants, within three years from the importation thereof, THE SUBSIDY BY THIS ACT GRANTED, AND WHICH SHALL HAVE BEEN ACTUALLY PAID for such goods, wares, or merchandizes, shall, without any delay or reward, be paid in to such merchant or merchants who shall export the same, or the security vacated; except for such goods or merchandizes, as by any former act or acts it is declared, no drawback shall be paid or allowed upon exportation of.

Then a drawback of three shillings per hundred weight is allowed on sugar refined in Great Britain, and exported, oath made by refiner, that the sugar so exported was produced from brown and muscovado sugar charged by this act, and that he believes, the same was imported from our plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of importation.

The same act lays an additional duty of one shilling per lb. on coffee, and nine-pence per lb. on chocolate, to be collected as the former duties thereon.

REMARKS.

For the nature of computing this additional 12 d. in the pound, see the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, AT THE END OF LETTER A; which, if understood, no one can be at a loss to compute this additional shilling in the pound, or any other of the like kind; and we have rather chose to put the merchant importer in mind of the necessity of calculating his duties upon goods, according to the acts of parliament, than relying altogether on any ready calculated to his hand.—For the reason of which, we desire him to consult the conclusion of letter A.

And if what is there suggested should be found to deserve his consideration, he will find, that what is there urged has relation as well to the present act of poundage, as it has to that of 1747; for as that of 1747 was bottomed upon the 12th of Charles II. and the merchant importer is intitled to the allowances therein set forth; and this act is bottomed also on that of 1747, he will discern what he seems to be intitled to by this last subsidy-act: but if the importers do not judge it prudent to have this matter only examined into, they must use their own pleasure upon this occasion.—The author has uprightly done his duty, by apprising the public of what so materially concerns their interest, and there he leaves it; thinking it very improper to compute custom-house tables for the payment of duties, which he is doubtful, for the reasons given, whether they are legal or no.

As it would swell this work to an enormous size, to a size even little less than double, it will not be expected that we should present the reader with only volumes of acts of parliaments, which he can have elsewhere at any time.—No; that would be doing him injustice.—We have interspersed some of the essential, which the reader sees the utility of; and when he has occasion to consult any particular act for his own satisfaction or government, either with relation to the custom-house duties, or the excise, or any other part of the public revenue,—we refer him to Sandby's index at the end of his book of rates, and to the laws of excise; which together are very voluminous, and it would be an imposition on the reader to fill these volumes therewith. But what we apprehend essential to be noticed, we have not omitted.

Of the business of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

In order to enter into the consistency of this part of our design, the reader is further desired to attend to what has been said at the close of letter A. In pursuance of what is there promised, I shall proceed to some other parts of the practice of the custom-house.

I. Of the INWARD BUSINESS, or what relates to the IMPORTATION of goods from FOREIGN PARTS into GREAT-BRITAIN.

In treating of this part of the business of the customs, it will be necessary, first of all, to give directions how to proceed with respect to ships, as well hovering on the coast, as coming within the limits of any port.

Ships hovering on the coast of Great-Britain.

* If ships laden with salt are hovering on the coast, and not proceeding on their voyage; the officers of the customs may compel them to come into port, and may continue on board till the salt be unladen, or the ships depart out of port to proceed on their voyage: and, if the salt is refused to be entered or unladen, or the ships do not depart within 20 days after they come into port (unless permitted by the chief officers of the customs to stay longer) it is forfeited, with double the value, to be recovered of the master.

* 1 Anne, cap. 21. §. 7. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 2.

† If ships or vessels, of the burthen of 50 tons, or under, laden with customable, or prohibited goods, be found hovering on the coast, within the limits of any port, or if laden with brandy, within two leagues of the shore, and not proceeding on their voyages; the officers of the customs may go on board, and take an account of the lading, and demand security of the masters by their bonds in treble the value of the goods, to proceed regularly on their voyages.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 8. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 32. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3.

An Hovering Bond.

Noverint univerſi præſentes, me, H. D. &c.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the 5th year of the reign of George I. intitled, An act against clandestine running uncustomed goods, and for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the customs (which was continued by two other acts, the one made in the 6th year of the reign of George I. and the other in the 2d of his late majesty's) it is enacted, That where any ship or vessel, of the burthen of 50 tons or under, laden with customable or prohibited goods, shall be found hovering on the coast, within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage, wind and weather permitting, the officers of the customs may go on board every such ship or vessel, and take an account

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE:

account of the lading, and demand security of the master, or other person having the charge of such vessel, by his own bond to his majesty, in treble the value of such foreign goods, with condition, that such vessel (as soon as wind and weather, and the state and condition of such vessel do permit) shall proceed on her voyage: and, if such master, or other person, having the charge of such vessel, shall, upon such demand, refuse to enter into such bond; or having entered into such, shall not proceed on such voyage (as soon as wind and weather, and the condition of the vessel, will permit, unless otherwise suffered to make a longer stay by the collector [or other principal officer in his absence] of the port where such vessel shall be, not exceeding 20 days) then, and in either of the said cases, all foreign goods on board such vessel shall, and may, by any officer, or officers of the customs, by the direction of the collector, or other principal officers as aforesaid, be taken out of such vessel, and forthwith brought on shore and secured: and, in case the said goods are customable, the customs and other duties shall be paid for the same.

And, as concerning wool, or any prohibited goods, or other goods liable to forfeiture, which may be found on board such vessel, at the time of their unloading as aforesaid, the same are thereby declared to be subject to forfeiture: and the officers of the customs shall and may prosecute the same, as also the vessel, in case she shall be liable to condemnation: and it is in the same act provided, That after such goods are so taken out of such vessel, and brought on shore, and secured, such bonds so to be given shall be void, and delivered up, without any fee or reward: and such bond, not being otherwise discharged, shall, on a proper certificate, returned under the common seal of the chief magistrate, in any place or places beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants upon the place, That such goods were there landed; or upon proof, by credible persons, That such goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the seas (the proof thereof being left to the judgment of the commissioners of the customs) be vacated and discharged.

And, by another act of parliament, made in the 6th year of the reign of George I. intitled, An act for preventing frauds and abuses in the public revenues of excise, customs, stamp-duties, post-office, and house-money, it is enacted, That where any vessel of the burthen of 50 tons or under, being in part, or fully laden with brandy, shall be found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues from the shore, and not proceeding on her voyage (wind and weather permitting) it shall be lawful for any commander of any of his majesty's ships of war, frigates, or armed sloops, appointed for the guard of the coasts, or for the commander of any yacht, smack, sloop, or other boat or vessel in the service of the customs, or for any officer of his majesty's customs, to compel the master, or other person having the charge of such vessel, to come into port. And it is declared by the said act, That such master, or other person as aforesaid, as likewise such vessel, and the brandy wherewith such vessel is laden in part, or in the whole, shall be subject to the same rules, regulations, penalties and forfeitures, as such cargoes, vessels, and the masters, or others taking charge thereof, which hover within the limits of any port of this kingdom, are, by the aforesaid act of the fifth year of the reign of George I. subject unto.

And whereas the ship Betty of Wells, under the burthen of 50 tons, whereof the above-bound H. D. is master; has been found hovering on the coast of this kingdom, within the limits of the port of Southampton [or at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the shore of the coasts of this kingdom] laden with * 40 hogheads of French wines, pretended to be bound for Stockholm, in the kingdom of Sweden, or to some other port or ports in foreign parts: now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said ship (as soon as wind and weather, and the condition of the said ship, do permit) shall proceed to the said port of Stockholm, or to some other port in foreign parts: and, if a certificate † be returned under the common seal of the chief magistrates, in any place beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants upon the place, that the said 40 hogheads of French wines were there landed; or upon proof, by credible persons, that the said goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the sea: then this obligation shall be void and of none effect, or else shall remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

H. D.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

- A. B. Collector.
- B. C. Comptroller.

* Or the goods may be endorsed on the back of the bond.

† The certificate for the discharge of such bonds, must mention the quantity of goods, and the time when landed.

But if the master, upon demand, refuses to give such bond, or, having given bond, neglects to proceed on his voyage (unless permitted to stay longer, but not to exceed 20 days) then the said goods may be taken on shore and secured, the duties for those that are customable paid, and those that are prohibited prosecuted: and the goods being thus taken on shore, if bond was given, the same must be delivered up: but, if the ships proceed on their voyage after bond has been given, then the same must be discharged by a proper certificate, under the common seal of

the chief magistrate in any place beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants upon the place; testifying that the goods were there landed; or upon proof, by credible persons, that the goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the seas.

II. Ships coming within the limits of any port of Great-Britain;

With respect to foreigners ships it is to be particularly noted *, that such ships freighted towards Great-Britain, or elsewhere, may not be compelled to come into any port of Great-Britain, nor to tarry there against the will of the master, &c. and if such ships come voluntarily, or are driven in, part of the goods may be delivered, and the duties thereof paid, and the ship be permitted to proceed with the remainder, where the master, &c. pleaseth, without payment of any duty. And that † ships belonging to foreigners in amity with her majesty, may have the liberty of the British ports, being driven into the same by stress of weather, or coming to refit, or for supplies of water, or other necessaries for their ships use; and may stay in port to answer such their occasions; and such their coming into port shall not be taken to be an importation of the goods on board, without breaking bulk: but if ships come into port without any visible occasion, or will stay there longer than occasion requires, it is a presumption that the intent of coming in was to discharge there; and, therefore, such coming in, and staying in port, will make an importation of the goods, and subject the master, ship, and goods, to customs, penalties, and forfeitures, as other ships and goods imported; and the officers of the customs may deal with such ships as with British ships coming into port to unlade, &c.

* 28 Edw. III. cap. 13. § 3. 20 Rich. II. cap. 4. § 1.

† Opinion of Sir Edward Northey, attorney-general, dated the 31st of July, 1712.

And when any ships, coming from foreign parts, arrive at any port of Great-Britain, the tide-surveyor must, in his own person, upon their first entrance within the limits of the port, place a sufficient number of tidesmen on board, according to the burden of the ships, and the nature of their cargoes; for if the same consist of wine, linnen, or tobacco, there must be at least three men, and never less than two men, upon any one ship: in boarding which tidesmen, it must be observed that they have their due turns, and that those which are established be always employed before the extraordinary men. For the duty of such tidesmen, from the time of their being placed on board to the time of their final discharge, see the article OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS.

Of foreign-built ships.

As * British built ships (by which is to be understood ships built in Great-Britain, Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey, or the British plantations in Africa, or America) are intitled to several privileges and advantages, beyond all such as are foreign-built, unless those taken at sea as prize, and lawfully condemned in the high court of admiralty; it may be proper to shew what requisites are to be performed with respect to any foreign-built ships, in order to procure their freedoms: wherefore it must be observed, that no foreign built ship whatsoever (that is, not built in any of his majesty's dominions of Africa, or America, or other than such as were bought before the 1st of October, 1662, and recorded in the Exchequer) may be deemed, or pass, as a ship belonging to Great-Britain, or Ireland, or enjoying the benefit, or privilege, of such a ship, although owned or manned by British, except such ships only as are taken at sea by letters of mart, or reprisal, and condemned in the court of admiralty as lawful prize.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 7, 10. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 6.

And, before such prize-ships can be intitled to their freedoms, the claimer, or claimers of the property thereof, must make it appear to the chief officers of the customs at the port next to his or their abode, that he or they are not aliens, and that such ships were, bona fide, and without fraud, bought for a valuable consideration, &c. and likewise must make an entry, and pay duty for such vessel: and, for the proof of the property, &c. it may be made after the following manner:

An oath in order to procure a prize-ship's freedom.

Port of South-amp- } In pursuance of two acts of parliament, the one made in the 12th year of the reign of his majesty king Charles II. intitled, An act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation; and the other in the 14th year of the same reign, intitled, An act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuses in his majesty's customs.

Benjamin Thornton of Southampton, in the county of Southampton, maketh oath, That the ship, or vessel, formerly called the St Joseph; of Bilbao, whereof Nicholas del Barco was master, and now called the Change, of Southampton, whereof James

Dines

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Dines is, at present, master, being a Spanish-built fly-boat, burthen 250 tons, or thereabouts, was taken this present war with the Spaniards from the Spanish king's subjects, by the Dursley Galley, George Purvis commander, and condemned as lawful prize in his majesty's high court of admiralty, as by sentence of condemnation, dated the 9th of January, 17 doth appear; and that now no foreigner, or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, share, or interest therein, but that himself this deponent, and George How, of Pool, are full and sole owners of the said ship, or vessel, being by them bought on the second instant of David White, of Liverpool, for 500 l. at which sum he has this day valued the said vessel upon oath, and paid his majesty's customs accordingly.

Jurat' apud Southampton, Benjamin Thornton.
5 die Feb. 17 coram
A. B. Collector.

Note, All the part-owners are liable to take the same oath, before the chief officers of the customs at the next port to their abode.

Upon the aforesaid oaths being made, a certificate under the hands and seals of the chief officers of the port must be granted; whereby such ship or vessel may, for the future, pass, and be deemed as a ship belonging to the said port, and enjoy the privilege of such a ship, or vessel; the form of which certificate may be as follows:

A certificate of oaths being made to the property, &c. of a prize-ship, in order to procure it's freedom.

Port of } These are to certify all whom it may concern, South- } That Benjamin Thornton, of Southampton, hath ampton. } made oath; That the ship, or vessel, formerly called the St Joseph, of Bilbao, whereof Nicholas del Barco was master, and now called the Change, of Southampton, whereof James Dines is, at present, master, burthen about 250 tons, Spanish-built, was a prize taken this present war with the Spaniards, by one of his majesty's ships of war, viz. the Dursley Galley, Capt. George Purvis commander, and condemned as such in his majesty's high court of admiralty, as by sentence of condemnation, dated the 9th of January, 17 doth appear; and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, share, or interest therein; but that George How, of Pool, and himself the said deponent are full and sole owners thereof, being by them bought on the second instant, of David White, of Liverpool, for 500 l. at which sum the said deponent hath this day valued the said vessel upon oath, and paid his majesty's customs accordingly.

In witness whereof we have hereunto set our hands and seals of office. Dated at the Customhouse of the port aforesaid, this 5th day of February, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George III. by the grace of God, &c.

A register of foreign built ships, condemned as prize in the high court of Admiralty, and also of such as are not prize, but are of British property, and do belong to Great-Britain.

Ships former names.	Former masters.	Ships present names.	Present masters.	What country, and kind of built.	Tons burthen.	From whom taken.	By whom taken.	Date of the sentence of condemnation.	When bought.	Of whom bought.	Sum bought for.	Owners Names.	When oath made.
St Joseph, of Bilbao	Nicholas del Barco	Change of Southampton	James Dines	A Spanish fly-boat	250	Spaniards.	Dursley Galley, George Purvis	9 Jan. 1730.	2 Feb. 1730.	Daniel White of Liverpool	500 l.	Ben. Thornton, who made oath, and Geo. How, of Pool	5 Feb. 1730.
Hope, of Dram		Delight of Southampton	Charles Dell	A Danish	300				13 Feb. 1730.	David Ellis	750 l.	And. Brown, who made oath, and Wm. Man, of Portsmouth	2 Mar. 1730.

Of the REPORTING, or ENTERING *, of every ship, or vessel, arriving from foreign parts, see also the End of Letter A. To which I shall further add, that, when the lading consists but of a few species of goods (as in the case of ships from the British plantations) in filling up the body of the report, separate columns may be erected for each particular kind of package, after the following manner:

* 1 Eliz. cap. 11. § 5. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 2.

Marks.	Numbers	Hbds sugar.	Casks pimento.	Bags Cott.	Tons logw.	Tons fuffic.	Barrels indigo.	Serons bark.	Mahog. planks.	To whom consigned.
A. B.	1 a 100	100	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Andrew Bull.
B. C.	3 a 8	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	Benjamin Curtis.
C. D.	1 a 40	10	4	6	17	—	—	3	—	Charles Deal.
D. E.	1 a 60	60	—	—	—	5	3	—	27	Daniel Ellen.
Total		170	4	6	17	5	9	3	27	

And if a foreign-built ship, which is not a prize, be bought by British, with a design to trade to and from Great-Britain *, though she is still liable to all extraordinary duties, upon account of her being foreign built, yet before she may be deemed, or passed, as a ship belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, the claimer, or claimers of the property, must, instead of the former, take the following oath:

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 6.

An oath, in order to cause a foreign built ship (not a prize) to be deemed as a ship belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland.

Port of } In pursuance of an act of parliament made in the South- } 12th year of the reign of his majesty king Charles II. ampton. } intitled *, An act for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation.

Andrew Brown, of Southampton, in the county of Southampton, maketh oath, That the ship, or vessel, formerly called the Hope, of Dram, and now called the Delight, of Southampton, whereof Charles Dell is, at present, master, being a Danish-built vessel, burthen 300 tons or thereabouts, was, bona fide, and without fraud, bought, on the 13th of February, 17 of David Ellis, of Bristol, for 750 l. by this deponent and William Man, of Portsmouth, who are full and sole owners thereof; and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, share, or interest therein.

Jurat' apud Southampton, Andrew Brown.
2 die Martii, 17 coram
A. B. Collector.

12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 10.

Whereupon a certificate must be granted, as follows:

Port of } These are to certify all whom it may concern, That South- } Andrew Brown, of Southampton, hath made oath, ampton. } That the ship, or vessel, formerly called the Hope of Dram, and now called the Delight, of Southampton, whereof Charles Dell is, at present, master, being a Danish-built vessel, burthen about 300 tons, was, bona fide, and without fraud, bought, on the 13th of February, 17 of David Ellis, of Bristol, for 750 l. by the said deponent, and William Man, of Portsmouth, who are full and sole owners thereof; and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, share, or interest therein.

In witness whereof we have hereunto set our hands and seals of office. Dated at the Custom-house of the port aforesaid, this fifth day of February, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George III. by the grace of God, &c.

Before these certificates are delivered to the owners of the vessels, they must be registered by the officers who granted them, and a duplicate thereof returned to the chief officers of the customs in London, with the names of the persons bought of, the sum paid for the same, and the names of the part owners (if any); the form of which register may be as follows:

In Ireland, where the customs are mostly under the same regulations as in Great-Britain, every master is obliged not only to report after the same manner as in Great-Britain, but, before any goods are discharged out of his vessel, he must give sufficient security to the collector of the port, that his vessel shall not depart out of the port till fully cleared, and discharged by the officers of the customs. Irish Act of Tonnage and Poundage.

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

And, as there are several other particular cases and circumstances which may frequently occur, the following requisites are to be observed in the taking and filling up the bodies of such reports, viz.

I. Prize, or other foreign ships, made free.

If a ship be a prize, or become free by any other means; after the name of the kingdom, &c. in which such ship is said to have been laden, there must be added,—which said ship was, &c. [specifying the particular circumstances of capture and condemnation, or the pretence to freedom by any other title.]

II. Ships from the Mediterranean Sea:

* If the ship be British, and comes from any part of the Mediterranean Seas, beyond the port of Malaga, and hath two decks, and doth carry sixteen guns mounted, with two men for each gun; and other ammunition proportionable (which is called an act, or qualified ship) or if one moiety of her full lading outwards, the last voyage, was fish, laden in any of his majesty's dominions, the goods imported in such ships are not liable to the duty of one per cent. which is payable when ships are not so qualified, or laden with fish: therefore, in these cases, after the place's name, there must be added as follows: viz.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 11, §. 35, 36.

If the ship be qualified—which said ship has double decks from stem to stern, with 16 [or more, as is the case] guns mounted, and other ammunition proportionable.

If the ship went out with fish—which said ship went out from Yarmouth to Leghorn, this last voyage thither, full laden, [or at least one moiety of her full lading] with fish of British taking and curing, and delivered the same at the said port of Leghorn.

But, if a ship that is not qualified, or was not laden outwards with fish, has taken in some part of her lading beyond the port of Malaga, and some on this side; the different places where the goods were taken in must be particularly distinguished in the report, as indeed in strictness should be practised in all cases where a ship loads at several ports: which distinction may be made as follows:

Taken in at Leghorn.

A. B. — 1 a 5 — 5 cases — silk — Andrew Bird.

Taken in at Cadiz.

B. C. — 3 a 9 — 2 bales — kid-skins — Benj. Cross.

And, if the goods are such, that they are liable to forfeiture, or subject to a different duty, upon account of the place at which they were taken in; the truth of their being taken in at the particular place alleged by the master, must be confirmed, by making the following addition to the oath of his report, viz.

And that the goods above-mentioned to be taken in at — were really there laden on board, and were not landed at —, nor any other place whatsoever; but have been kept on board the above ship, ever since the first shipping thereof at —.

III. Ships from the British plantations.

If the ship came from the British plantations in America, or Africa, with sugar, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, or other dyeing-wood, rice, molasses, hemp, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, bowsprits, copper-ore, beaver-skins, or other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the said plantations, to bring such goods to Great-Britain, or to some other of the said plantations; therefore a certificate, that such security has been given, must be produced by the master at the time of the entry of the ship; and the same must be noted in the report, after the name of the plantation — which said ship gave bond here [or at Jamaica] on the 29th of March, 1730, to return [or to come] to Great-Britain only.

The forms of which certificates are as follow:

1. A certificate for a ship that hath produced a certificate in the plantations, of bond being given in Great-Britain, to return to Great-Britain only.

These are to certify all whom it may concern, That Daniel Bright, master or commander of the Tavistock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, English built, registered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath produced a certificate, bearing date the 29th of March, 1730, under the hands and seals of the principal officers of the custom-house in the port of Southampton, with condition, That if the said ship or vessel shall load any sugar, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, or other dyeing wood, as also rice, molasses, hemp, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, bowsprits, copper-ore, beaver-skins,

and other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any British plantations in America, Asia, or Africa, the same commodities shall be, by the said ship or vessel, carried to some port of Great Britain, and be there unladen and put on shore; the danger of the seas only excepted; and hath here laden and taken on board 290 hogheads of sugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 casks of indico.

Dated at Kingston in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord king George II, of Great-Britain, &c. Anno Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher;
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

2. A Certificate for a ship that has given bond in the plantations to come to Great-Britain only.

These are to certify all whom it may concern, That Daniel Bright, master or commander of the Tavistock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, English built, registered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath here laden and taken on board 290 hogheads of sugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 casks of indico, and hath also here given bond, with one sufficient surety, in the sum of 2000 l. sterling, with conditions, that the said goods and commodities shall be by the said ship or vessel carried to some port of Great-Britain, and to no other place, and be there unloaded and put on shore, the dangers of the seas only excepted.

Dated at Kingston in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

3. A certificate for a ship that has given bond in the plantations, to come to Great-Britain; or to go to some other British plantation.

These are to certify all whom it doth concern, That Daniel Bright, master or commander of the Tavistock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, English-built, registered at Southampton, hath here laden and taken on board 290 hogheads of sugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 casks of indico, and hath here given bond, with one sufficient surety, in the sum of 2000 l. sterling, with conditions, that the said goods and commodities shall be, by the said ship or vessel, carried to some port of Great-Britain, or to some other of his Majesty's British plantations, and be there unladen and put on shore, the dangers of the seas only excepted.

Dated at Kingston in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

4. A certificate for a ship that has paid the duties due in the plantations, by an * act of the 25th year of the reign of king Charles II, and has given bond in the said plantations to come to Great Britain, or to get to some other British plantation.

These are to certify all whom it doth concern, That Daniel Bright, master or commander of the Tavistock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, English-built, registered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath here laden and taken on board 290 hogheads of sugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 casks of indico, for which the rates and duties imposed by the act of the 25th year of king Charles II, † for better securing the plantation trade, are fully answered and paid; and hath here also given bond, with one sufficient surety, in the sum of 2000 l. with conditions, that the said goods and commodities shall be, by the said ship or vessel, carried to some port of Great-Britain, or to some other of his majesty's British plantations, and be there unladen and put on shore, the danger of the seas only excepted.

Dated at Kingston in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

* Cap. 7. §. 3.
† Cap. 7. §. 3.

And with respect to the certificates that are produced for ships that hath given security in the plantations, it must be observed, that at the time of entering such ships, and producing the said certificates, the master must confirm the truth thereof by his oath, which must be taken on the back of the said certificate, after the following manner:

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Daniel Bright maketh oath, That he really became bound to his majesty, at Kingston in Jamaica, for the due landing of the goods within-mentioned, as is particularly expressed in the certificate on the other side.

Jurat' apud Southampton
tertio die Januarii 1730.

Daniel Bright.

coram
A. B. Collector.

As it is likewise usual for the master of every ship, coming from the British plantations, with any other goods than those before enumerated, in the certificate, No. (1.) and for which security is to be given; to produce a certificate, that his said ship hath been duly cleared at the custom-house of some British plantation. I shall here insert the form of such certificate, being as follows:

A certificate that a ship, laden with goods not enumerated, was duly entered and cleared in the British plantations.

These are to certify all whom it doth concern, That William Law, master or commander of the Endeavour of Bristol, burthen 180 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 12 guns, navigated with 30 men, English-built, registered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, having on board 4000 pipe and hog-head staves, 15 bundles of whale-fins, 40 barrels of train-oil, hath entered and cleared in the custom-house at Boston in New England, according to law.

A. B. Collector.

Given under our hands and seals of office, this 30th day of April, in the 4th year of the reign of our sovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher.
B. C. Comptroller.

* And if any ship from the British plantations in America, has any train-oil or whale-fins on board, in order to adjust the duty, the place of the owner's abode must be inserted after the name of the place, thus;

The owners of which ship are of London, [Boston, &c.]

* 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 2.

The foregoing regulations relate to ships coming directly from the British plantations to Great-Britain; but as rice * may, by a special licence, be laden in Carolina, and carried directly to any part of Europe, southward of Cape Finisterre, and there landed, and then the ship proceed to Great-Britain; this is a proper place to note what is to be observed on that head, which is,

* 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4.

1. That the said licence having been delivered back to the master before the departure of the ship, with the marks, numbers, and contents of each cask endorsed thereon, by the collector, comptroller, and naval officer; and they having made two copies of such licence and endorsement, and caused the same to have been attested by the master, in order to be left with the said officers; and the said master having obtained a certificate of the consul, or two known British merchants residing at the place where delivered, testifying the due landing of such rice, and that they verily believe, that no other enumerated goods have been there landed: such endorsed licence, and the certificate of landing, must, upon the master's return to Great-Britain, be produced to the officers of the port, where bond was given.

2. * That one of the aforesaid copies of the endorsement having been transmitted, by the officers in Carolina, to the commissioners of the customs; upon receipt thereof, or of the endorsed licence, the half subsidy, [and petty custom, if the rice be the property of an alien] for the quantity of rice shipped in Carolina, must be demanded of the person who gave bond, at the time of granting the licence, by the collector that took such bond.

* 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 5.

IV. Ships which have taken in goods to be delivered at several ports of Great-Britain.

* If a ship has taken in goods, for several ports of Great-Britain, the master must, upon his arrival at the first port, make his report of the whole cargo, in like manner as if it was all to be there delivered, distinguishing the particular goods that are to be landed at each port, after the following manner.

* 1st rule of book of rates.

For Portsmouth.

C. R.— 3 a 9 — 7 casks — madder — Charles Revell.

For Chichester.

N. S.— 1 a 10 — 10 casks — linnen — Nathaniel Smith.

For this port.

A. G.— 1 a 5 — 5 hampers — spaw-water — Amos Grove.
O. L.— 1 a 20 — 20 balls — fundry goods — Oliver Long.

Whereupon, bulk may be broken, and the customs, &c. paid for no more than shall be entered and landed: and, when the master signifies his intention of proceeding to some other British port, the tide-surveyor must send tide-men along with the ship to the next port, and a copy of the report made at the first port must be transmitted to the collector, &c. of such next port, with the particular quantities, qualities, and consignments of the goods there landed, specified on the back thereof; remembering, that if prize has been taken, it must be particularly mentioned, to prevent it's being taken again. The manner of which endorsement should be as follows:

Port of Southampton.

Landed at this port, and for which his majesty's duties have been here paid,

A. G.— 1 a 5 — 5 hampers — spaw-water — Amos Grove.
O. L.— 1 a 20 — 20 bales — fundry goods — Oliver Long.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

And, when the ship arrives at the next port, the master must report his whole cargo, in the same manner as at the former port, mentioning the particular goods which have been there landed, and for which duties have been paid, as specified in the endorsement on the first report, and adding to the oath or affirmation of the master, after this, or some such other, mark *, otherwise than is particularly above expressed: and the like must be performed at every port, till the ship is wholly unladen.

V. Ships which have taken in goods to be delivered, part in Great-Britain, and part in foreign parts.

If part of a ship's cargo be taken in, with a design to be delivered in any port or ports of Great-Britain, and the rest to be delivered in foreign parts, and the ship comes to Great-Britain first, to deliver the goods taken in with that design; the master must report in like manner, as if the whole cargo was to be there delivered, observing to add, after the place's name, in his report, now lying in — bound for —, and to distinguish what goods are designed for foreign parts, after the following manner:

The following goods were taken on board, with a design to be carried to Holland, and not to be landed in this, or any other port or place in Great-Britain.

B. K. — 1 a 30 — 30 casks — wine — Benj. King.

And when the goods designed are landed, and the duties paid, the ship may be permitted to proceed to foreign parts, with the remainder of the cargo.

VI. Ships which have already delivered part of their cargo.

If a ship has delivered any part of her cargo, since she came from her loading-port or ports, and before her arrival at any port of Great-Britain; the goods to be delivered must be particularly specified in the report, after the following manner:

Landed at A —

Or,

Put on board the Delight in the open sea:

Or,

Thrown over-board in a storm.

R. S. — 1 a 2 — 2 bales — silk — Richard Smith.

And in these cases there is added to the oath or affirmation of the master, otherwise than is particularly above expressed.

VII. Ships from Holland with spice.

* If a ship from Holland has any nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, or mace, on board; the licence, granted for the importation of the same, must be delivered up to the collector and comptroller of the port, and be annexed to the master's entry or report of his ship.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 46. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 21.

VIII. Ships from Greenland, &c.

* If a British ship comes from Greenland, Davis's Straights, and the adjoining or adjacent seas with whale-fins, oil, and blubber of whales, or seal-oil, and seal-skins, or any other produce of seals, or other fish or creatures caught in the aforesaid place; in order to exempt the said goods from duty, the master of the vessel must, at the time of his reporting, make the following oath, either in the body of the report underneath the goods, or on the back thereof:

* 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1. 12 Geo. I. cap. 26. §. 7.

A. B.

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM - HOUSE.

A. B. maketh oath, That the fids, &c. above [or within] mentioned, are, really and bona fide, the produce of whales and seals caught in the Greenland Seas [or Davis's Streights, or some other part of the adjacent seas] by the crew of a vessel, whereof the master, and one third at least of the mariners, were British subjects.

Jurat 2^o. die Januarii,
1730^o. coram nobis
B. C. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

A. B.

IX. Coasting vessels, which have taken in foreign goods at sea.

* Though foreign goods may not be taken in by any coasting vessels out of ships at sea, with intent to be fraudulently landed in Great-Britain, without payment of duty; yet it is apprehended that if, in case of distress, and without any intention of fraud, but purely for the security of any foreign goods from perishing, they should be taken on board a coaster; the master must, upon his arrival in any port of Great-Britain, immediately acquaint the officers therewith, and make a report of his said vessel, in like manner as if such vessel had actually taken in and brought the said goods from parts beyond the seas: in which reports, not only the goods, but the ship out of which they were taken, from whence she came, how built, how manned, and where the goods were taken in, must be particularly expressed for hoys, from ships which have taken in goods to be delivered, part in Great-Britain, and part in foreign parts.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 8.

X. Uncertainty of any particular goods being on board.

If, upon reporting any vessel, the master is doubtful or uncertain of any parcel or parcels of goods being on board, or of the quantities of any goods by tale, he must make an exception underneath the goods; the last being a case that frequently happens in ships from Norway, by reason of the difference between the accounts of the mate and the freighter. The form of such exception may be as follows:

The above are the quantities of goods taken on board, according to my mate's account; but the freighter charged me with C. 1 : 15 deals more, I am uncertain which account is right.

Signed A. B.

XI. Omissions in a report.

When, upon the delivery of any ship, it appears that any part of the cargo has been omitted in the master's report, and he applies to the collector, &c. to mend the same; and though the officers have not any reason to believe, but that such omission was through inadvertency, and without any design of fraud; yet the same should not be permitted, as the law stands; but the honourable the commissioners are to be acquainted with a true state of the case, and if they are satisfied, and are pleased to give leave, then the goods, so omitted, may be added to the report, after the following manner:

Third day of March, 1730.—added by the commissioners leave of the twenty-eighth ultimo.

D. S. — 4 — 1 case — linnen — David Smith.

Signed—A. B. master.

And then the report is sworn to de novo, inserting the particular days underneath that, when sworn to before. Lastly, it must be remembered, that if, in any of the aforesaid reports, there are mentioned any small casks of wine under 25 gallons, though the same are, by 1 Geo. II. cap 17, prohibited to be imported, yet upon such casks being duly reported, and there being no appearance of fraud, the particular case and circumstances must be represented to the commissioners, for their directions, whether it be advisable to waive the forfeiture, and to accept the duty, or to prosecute the same.

REMARKS.

From thus illustrating the method of reporting of SHIPS from foreign parts, it may be necessary further only to observe, that, where any privilege * is allowed to British-built shipping, it is meant ships of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or the British settlements in Africa, Asia, or America, and whereof the master, and three fourths of the mariners, are British; that is, his majesty's subjects of Great-Britain, Ireland, and his plantations; and three fourths of the mariners such during the whole voyage, unless in cases of sickness, death, &c.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 7. 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 6.

What has been hitherto said, are the requisites which are to be performed by merchants ships, upon their arrival from foreign parts: but, with respect to his majesty's ships, it must be observed, * that no goods or merchandizes brought from parts

* 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 3. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 5.

beyond the seas, on board any ship or vessel of war, may be unladen, &c. before the captain, &c. has signified in writing, under his hand, to the collector, &c. the names of every merchant or lader of any goods on board the said ship, together with the number and marks, and the quantity and quality of every parcel of goods, to the best of his knowledge, and shall have answered upon oath to such questions concerning such goods, as shall be publickly administered to him by the collector, &c. And such ship shall be liable to all searches, and other rules which merchants ships are subject unto; and upon refusal to make such entries, the officers of the customs may bring on shore, into his majesty's storehouse, all goods prohibited or uncustomed, which they shall find on board.

Of the aforesaid reports of merchants ships, two are to be subscribed by the master; one whereof is to be taken in a book to be kept at the port for that purpose, and the other on loose paper, which must, from time to time be preserved on a file, 'till the end of each quarter: when they are to be transmitted to the register-general of all ships belonging to Great-Britain, in order that he may examine whether they are duly sworn to and attested, and the ships manned according to the act of Navigation. See NAVIGATION ACT.

Having premised what is necessary to be observed in the ENTERING OF SHIPS from foreign ports, the next matter to be considered for the information of the merchant, as well as the officer of the customs, is the ENTERING OF THE GOODS therein imported. In relation to which it is to be carefully noted, * that, before a ship has been duly entered or reported as before directed, entries of any merchandizes whatsoever may not be taken, unless the ship is not designed for that port, but was actually forced in by some necessity, and then only for small matters, and upon the master's oath, That they are only to supply necessaries for the ship: but when the ship is to deliver the whole, or any part of the cargo, at that port, and in order thereunto the master has made a regular report of his ship; there may be then accounted an importation of all the goods on board, designed to be delivered in any port of Great-Britain, so that the duties payable to the crown, on the importation of such goods, are actually become due; and therefore, upon making such report at each respective port †, every particular person that has any goods on board such ship, must, with all possible speed, and before the same may be unladen, make proper entries thereof with the collector, and pay or secure all the duties to which such goods are liable; and such entries must not, upon any pretence whatsoever, be delayed, but must be actually made, for † tobacco, from the time of the master's report of the ship, and for all other goods, within twenty days: and as the duties become due upon the importation of all goods, whether an entry thereof be made or not; therefore, upon refusal or neglect of entry within the aforesaid times, an information, in the nature of an action of debt, may be brought against the importer, for the duties; more especially after the said thirty or twenty days are expired: but in all cases of refusal or neglect of making due entries, or where it shall so happen, that though due entries are made of the full number of hogheads, casks, or other packages of tobacco, yet, perhaps, not more than an half, one third, or one-fourth, &c. part of the real quantity contained in such packages, are entered, and that the tobacco is not landed or discharged 'till after the expiration of the thirty days; the importer must be called upon to perfect his entry, and the commissioners must be acquainted therewith, and their directions be obtained, for the officers government.

* Exchequer Rules.—7 Eliz.

† 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 10.

‡ 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 3.

And, in making these entries, it should be observed, that there must be expressed the ships name, master's name, the place from whence arrived, and the importer's name, with the particular kinds and quantities of goods; and on one of the bills of entry [* the warrant] must be likewise expressed the marks, numbers, and contents of every parcel of such goods as are rated to pay by the piece or measure, and the weight of the whole parcel of such goods as are rated to pay by the weight; which will be only a transcript of the merchant's invoice, and may be inserted either on the face of the warrant, as is usual at the port of London, or on the back thereof, as is practised at many other out-ports: and, lastly, the warrant being thus completed by the merchant, the same is to be signed by himself, or his known servant, factor, or agent, to testify, that the goods are not upon aliens, or strangers, or denizens account; in which case they would be liable to extraordinary duties. But when the goods are declared to be imported by, or upon account of †, an alien or denizen, such subscription is not necessary, because such goods are then liable to the highest duties that can be paid.

* Though it is the practice of the out ports, for the collector to keep the bill subscribed by the merchant, &c. and from the said bill to form a warrant for the delivery of the goods; yet the practice of the port of London is, perhaps, the most consistent with the plain sense and spirit of the law, which is, to make the bill subscribed by the merchant, to be the warrant.

† 1 Hen. VII. cap. 2. §. 1. 11 Hen. VII. cap. 14. §. 1. 22 Hen. VIII. cap. 8. §. 1.

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

With respect to the making and subscribing of merchants entries at the custom house, it must be observed, that * any British man may custom, in his own name, the goods of another British man; so may one merchant stranger enter the goods of another merchant stranger: but he that so enters the goods of another person, that the king loses his duty, forfeits the goods to the king, &c. and likewise all his own goods and chattels for ever.

* 3 Hen. VII. cap. 7. §. 1. 1 Hen. VIII. cap. 5. §. 3, 4, 5, 2 & 3 Ed. VI. cap. 22. §. 4, 5. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6. But in Ireland, where the customs are mostly under the same regulations, as in Great-Britain; the act of tonnage and poundage directs, That all goods be entered only in the name of the true owners, &c.

And, as to the persons that are to be deemed aliens or strangers, they are such as are born in foreign countries, under the obedience of a strange prince or state, and out of the allegiance of the king of Great-Britain *; or a British man born, who has sworn to be subject to any foreign prince; though if such British born person returns to Great-Britain, and there inhabits, he must be deemed as British, and have a writ out of Chancery for the same: and likewise † the children of natural born subjects, though born out of the allegiance of his majesty, &c. and all children born on board any ship belonging to, or in any place possessed by the South-Sea company, are so deemed natural born subjects of this kingdom.

* 14 & 15 Hen. VIII. cap. 4. §. 2.
† 7 Ann. cap. 5. §. 8. 9 Ann. cap. 21. §. 53. 10 Ann. cap. 5. §. 1. 4 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 1, 2, 3.

The aforesaid bills of entry being formed according to the aforesaid directions, and subscribed by the merchant, &c. they will appear in the following form:

In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, master, from Malaga.
On my own proper account and risque. Henry Crew.
Or,
[on my own and company's account and risque.]
Or,
[on British account and risque.]
Signed, Henry Crew.
Or, for Henry Crew.
Signed A. B. servant, factor, or agent.
Then follows the quantity of the goods.

Which bill being produced to the collector, customer, and comptroller, they are each of them to take copies thereof, in order to compute the duties, if any due: and the said copies are to be closed * and numbered in course, beginning a new number each quarter.

* It is the practice of some ports to file the entries of all sorts of goods together, and to number them all successively; but most ports make distinct numbers, and keep separate files for the following sorts of goods, viz.

- | | | |
|--------------|---|----------------------------------|
| One file for | { | Poundage goods (except tobacco), |
| | | Tobacco. |
| | | Spanish, Portugal, &c. wines. |
| | | French wines. |
| | | Rhenish wines. |
| | | Vinegar. |

And when the said officers have computed the duties on their respective bills or copies, and have agreed the same, the collector is to receive the duties: whereupon he is to insert them on the bill subscribed by the merchant, &c. which having been dated and numbered as the said officer's copies were, he is to sign his name thereto, and then deliver such subscribed bill to the customer and comptroller, in order to be signed by them also: after which, the said bill is to be directed to the surveyor, and the particular land-waiters appointed to the ship, as a warrant for their examination and delivery of the books.

And the aforesaid copies or duplicates of the entries, taken by the collector, customer, and comptroller, are to be preserved upon separate files, in order to be entered daily in proper and distinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpose.

For directions in computing the duties, see my New View of the British Customs, by TABULAR INSPECTION.

And, besides the aforesaid general requisites, these further rules and directions are likewise to be observed with respect to the entering of the following particular sorts of goods.

I. Goods not rated for the subsidies, additional duties, imports, second 25 per cent. on French goods, and additional duty on drugs.

If the goods are not of the produce of * East-India, and are not rated in either of the columns of rates, in my TABULAR SHEETS, and are liable to duty upon importation, as the same must be levied † according to the value and price of such goods, as they shall be ascertained by the oaths or affirmations of the

* 12 & 13 Will. III. cap. 11. §. 15, 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 6, 7.
† 11 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 7. 4th rule of add. Book of Rates.

merchant [and not of his servant, &c.] taken in the presence of the customer, collector, comptroller, and surveyor, or any two of them; therefore, instead of subscribing the warrant bill as before directed, the merchant himself must make oath or affirmation thereon, as in the following example:

18th of January, 1750. No. 19.

In the Providence of London, James Bell, master, from Rotterdam.

Joseph Grove.

J. G. } One box, containing certain unrated toys, at eighteen No. 3. } pounds all.

Joseph Grove maketh oath, That the true value and price of the toys above mentioned, as they are here in Southampton, do not exceed eighteen pounds all, and that he is really the importer and proprietor thereof [or that himself and company are really the importers and proprietors thereof, or that they are imported upon British account here, or that he receives the same upon British account from beyond the seas.]

Jurat' 18 die Januarii

1750, coram nobis

Signed—Joseph Grove.

A. B. Collector.

B. C. Comptroller, Customer, or Surveyor.

But in this, and all other cases where oaths are required, if the person be a Quaker, instead of such oaths, he may make solemn declaration or affirmation, in the following words:

* I, Joseph Grove, do solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm, That, &c.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 2.

II. Linnens chequered, striped, &c. imported.

* Linnens chequered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture (except lawns, striped or chequered linnens, being all white, Silesia neckcloths striped at the ends only, barras, or packing canvas and buckrams) being chargeable with two new duties, according to the true and real value thereof, upon the oath of the importer; such value must be ascertained, upon the warrant-bill, as in the following example:

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 66. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 5. 12 Ann. cap. 19. §. 1.

5th of February 1750. No. 37.

In the Hope of London, Daniel Grove master, from Hamburgh.

Henry Dalton.

H. D. } Two chests, containing thirty-two hundred ells, No. 1, 2. } striped narrow German linnen, valued for the new duties, at 4 l. 10 s. per hundred ells.

Henry Dalton maketh oath, That the true value and price of the narrow German linnen above-mentioned, as it is really worth, to be sold in the port of Southampton, without any abatement for his majesty's duties charged thereupon, by an act of the tenth year of the reign of queen Anne, or any former or other act or acts whatsoever, amounts to no more than 4 l. 10 s. per hundred ells.

Jurat' 5 die Feb. 1750.

Henry Dalton.

coram nobis

A. B. Collector.

B. C. Comptroller, Customer, or Surveyor.

III. Hides, skins, and manufactures of leather, imported.

* Hides, and skins, and pieces of hides and skins, tanned, tawed, or dressed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture, whereof the most valuable part is leather, (not particularly charged) being liable to two new duties, according to the true and real value thereof, upon oath of the importer, such value must be ascertained upon the warrant-bill, as in the following example:

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 1. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 1.

17th of March 1750.—No. 70.

In the Golden Lion of Hamburgh, George Pable, from Hamburgh.

Edward Farmer.

E. F. } One bale, containing one hundred and eighty seal-No. 7. } skins, valued for the new duties at 2 s. each.

Edward Farmer maketh oath, That the true value and price of the seal-skins above-mentioned, as they are really worth, to be sold in the port of Southampton, without any abatement for his majesty's duties charged thereupon, by the act of the ninth of the reign of queen Anne, or any former, or other act or acts whatsoever, amounts to no more than 2 s. per piece.

Jurat' 17 die Martii, coram nobis

Signed—Edw. Farmer.

A. B. Collector.

B. C. Comptroller, Customer, or Surveyor.

IV. Wines

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM - HOUSE.

IV. Wines and vinegar, imported.

* As there is a variation in the impost-duty of wines and vinegar, with regard to the circumstances of the importation, as being for merchandize, private use, or retailing; therefore, at the time of entry, proof must be made by oath on the warrant-bill, whether the wines and vinegar, therein mentioned, are imported for sale or private use; the form of which proof must be as in the following example :

* 1 Jac. II. cap. 3. §. 6.

9th of January 1750.—No. 2.

In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, from Malaga.
James Gerard.

J. G. } Twenty casks, containing nine tons of Spanish
No. 1 to 20. } wine, unfilled for sale.

James Gerard maketh oath, That the wine above-mentioned is imported by way of merchandize, and with intent to sell again, and doth not belong either to vintner or retailer.

Jurat' 9 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Signed—James Gerard.

3d of February 1750.—No. 9.

In the Neptune of Ipswich, Arthur Wills, from Oporto.
David Strong.

D. S. } Four casks, containing three quarters of a ton of
No. 5 to 8. } Portugal wine, filled for private use.

David Strong maketh oath, That the wine above-mentioned is imported for private use, and doth not belong either to vintner or retailer.

Jurat' 3 die Feb. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Signed—David Strong.

But, when wines and vinegars are imported by a retailer, an oath is not necessary, because they are then chargeable with the highest duty; being not intitled to any discount out of the impost-duty, by virtue of the act which granted the same: and it must be remembered, that professed vintners, or retailers, may not be permitted to enter any wines and vinegars, any otherwise than by retail, though they may be the property of a merchant, and are only consigned to them to be sold by wholesale, as merchandize.

V. Muscovia or Russia linnen.

As Muscovy or Russia linnens are not contented, and to measure each piece in every bale would be extremely troublesome; it is the practice, in the port of London, to deliver them by the merchant's invoice: and, for that purpose, a copy of such invoice must be inserted on (either the face or the back of) the warrant, and the truth thereof confirmed upon oath, as in the following example :

25th of January 1750.—No. 29.

In the Alexander of Archangel, foreign built and manned,
George Kinger, from Archangel. Abel Smith.

No.	P.	Afhins.	Afh.
1	101	2544	53
2	99	2537	51
3	97	2496	47
4	109	2863	56
5	112	2879	77
6	-	4300	42 Diaper.
		17619	326 Wrappers.
		326	
		17945	

A. S. No. 1 to 6.—Six bales, containing sixty-four hundred, an half, and thirteen ells, plain narrow Russia linnen, and three thousand ninety three yards of Russia diaper napkins, not exceeding half an ell in breadth.

Abel Smith maketh oath, That the above is a true copy of the contents in the invoice of the six bales of Russia linnen above-mentioned, as sent to him from Archangel; and that the said bales contain no more than seventeen thousand, nine hundred, forty-five afhins, including the wrappers, to the best of his knowledge and belief.

Jurat' 25 die Jan. coram A. B. Collector. Signed—Abel Smith.

VI. Train-oil and whale-fins from the British plantations.

As train-oil and whale-fins, of, and from the British plantations, are chargeable with much lower duties than if of foreign fishing, it is the practice of the port of London, to make proof, by oath upon the warrant, that the said oil and fins are of British taking and curing.

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16th of January 1750.—No. 16.

In the Mary of Yarmouth, James Joy master, from New England.

M. M. Matthew Martin.

No. 1 to 65.—Sixty-five barrels, containing seven tons of train-oil.

R. V. 1 to 10.—Ten bundles, containing twelve hundred weight of whale fins. All of British taking and curing.

Matthew Martin maketh oath, that the train-oil and whale-fins above-mentioned are sent him, this deponent, from New England, as of British taking and curing.

Jurat' 10 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Signed—Matt. Martin.

VII. Goods prohibited to be imported for sale.

As many sorts of goods are prohibited to be imported into this kingdom, with intent to be sold here; therefore, when small quantities of such goods are offered to be entered, under pretence that they are only for the importer's own use, proof thereof must be made by oath upon warrant, as in the following example. But if, by the largeness of the quantities, it may be presumed they are for sale, they must not be permitted to an entry.

18th of January, 1750.—No. 20.

In the Providence, of London, James Ball, master, from Rotterdam.

B. T. Benjamin Tunis.

No. 1 to 65.—Four cafes, containing 450 feet of gally-tiles (being painted ware) for private use.

Benjamin Tunis, maketh oath, That the gally-tiles above-mentioned are imported for private use, and not with intent to be uttered, or sold, in the kingdom of Great-Britain.

Jurat' 18 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Benjamin Tunis.

And in all other cafes, where any thing relating to the duties, or importations, cannot be any otherwise ascertained and determined, the importer's oath must be taken, according to the nature of the cafe.

REMARKS.

From this short survey of the practical business of the Custom-house, so far as I judge proper to extend the same at present, it appears, that custom-house-oaths have multiplied in proportion to the multitude of laws which have been enacted, in relation to this great branch of the public revenue. See the articles AFFIDAVIT and OATHS, with regard to the REVENUE; wherein, under the former head, I have shewn the danger of multiplying oaths of this kind, and the sentiments of some great men upon this occasion; but, while the revenue continues in its present state and condition, this frequency of swearing, I am afraid, will never be laid aside; which, with great reason, may be looked upon in the light of a grievance, no less to be lamented than that of mortgaging and anticipating the PUBLIC FUNDS, in consequence of not raising the whole revenue WITHIN THE YEAR, and thereby preventing the increase of the weight of our debts, and taxes: by which politic measures the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, which ought to be laid in the most delicate and judicious manner [see the article CUSTOMS] as well as all other our TAXES [see TAXES on Trade] upon our commerce, and occasionally variable, as the circumstances of trade with divers states may change; yet they seem to be intailed from generation to generation without any alteration. For the effects of which, see the articles CUSTOMS, DUTIES, FUNDS, TRADE.

That high duties give encouragement to smuggling is certain. Where the avoiding high customs makes the profit great, no risk, no danger, will deter from the attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fish, he will snap at it, though immediate ruin ensues. This so greatly injures and discourages the fair trader, that it either tempts, or compels him, to turn smuggler too, and associate himself with those numerous examples of depravity we have at this time among our people, who live in a state of war with the government, in defiance of laws; whereby an universal corruption of manners, and contempt of authority, have prevailed. Besides the articles of luxury being those things that are chiefly smuggled, as brandy, tea, French wines, laces, silks, &c. it spreads their consumption among the lower class of people, who are tempted, at a less expence, to imitate the luxuries of their superiors: and what greatly adds to the public evil is, that the same smugglers who steal these foreign luxuries and superfluities in upon us, carry off vast quantities of raw wool, to the unspeakable detriment of our manufactures and the nation. See BRITISH AMERICA, FRANCE, WOOL.

High duties also ruin our manufactures, more especially that of the woollen. For such customs prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own consumption, but also for exportation; which might enlarge the vent of our own commodities considerably more than it, at present, is: for, if a merchant now exports our woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

more than the cost of his woollen goods, which puts him under the necessity of having a double capital for such an adventure, or laying it aside for want thereof; whereby the sales of great quantities of woollen manufactures are lost to the nation.

As high customs enhance the expences of our navigation, must not freights be raised accordingly? By which, are not the prices of soap, oil, and dyeing materials, used in manufacturing our wool, advanced to the manufacturer? And the freights on the cloths, or stuffs exported, being also raised, are not these additional clogs upon the sales of our woollen goods of all kinds?

High customs ingrossing so large a share of the stocks of our merchants, they are cramped, and deprived thereby of driving that extensive trade, and vending in foreign countries those quantities of our woollen goods, they would otherwise do. Moreover, the risk of British merchants being greater than in Holland, and their losses heavier in proportion, as our duties are higher, their bankruptcies must, and are, more frequent. Does not this very sensibly affect our manufacturers, who are generally considerable creditors; for broken merchants are justly compared to nine-pins, one of which seldom falls without beating down several others.

Nor does any thing recommend the use of the foreign manufactures of fine goods as high duties, by making them expensive; which vanity, on that account, soon renders fashionable, whilst our own are despised, though far superior in quality; which is a great discouragement to our manufactures.

Heavy duties, also, are the principal cause of the smuggling of wool, because the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the customs, hath raised the contraband trade to a great height; and the smugglers cannot make their returns in any commodity of so quick and certain a vent, or that gives so good a profit, as our wool; for the French working cheaper, and their wool being coarser, English and Irish wools are so much in demand, that they will give great prices for them, by returns in their own goods, for which reason they receive vast quantities, to the ruin of our manufactures.

Great customs on ashes, bay-salt, cotton, copper, coals, drugs, foreign soap, flax, fruits, furs, hemp, iron, leather, linnens, oil, paper, rice, tobacco, tallow, threads, tapes, silk, and sugar, being necessaries of life, or materials of manufacture, must necessarily render all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewise (though our workmen should have no excises to pay), and such discouragements give opportunity to foreigners to send their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and smuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the ruin of our own manufacturers; for all the above customs are as much taxes on our woollen manufacture as if laid on the wool itself; for the workmen must raise the money on the woollen goods he makes, to pay the duties of what he uses of the above articles, with the advances thereupon, which are made by all the hands through which they pass before they come to him. By this policy it is that we ourselves drive away our own manufacturers; and foreigners could not rival the people of so fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furnish them with the means, by our high taxes and restraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though designed to advance it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the most rigorous penal laws: of which Mr Locke gives an instance, in his *Considerations*, &c. p. 116. 'It is death in Spain to export money; and yet they, who furnish all the world with gold and silver, have least of it among themselves; trade fetches it away,

' notwithstanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it there: it follows trade, against the rigour of their laws, and their want of foreign commodities makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.'

It is felony in England to export wool, and yet they, who furnish all the world with wool, have least of the manufacturing of it among themselves; the smuggling trade fetches it away, notwithstanding all our artificial and forced contrivances to keep it: it follows the smuggling trade, against the rigour of our laws; and our want of taking off the taxes on manufactures makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

Whence it is evident, that neither death nor banishment can force trade to an unnatural channel; it may be compared, in one respect, to water, which cannot be compressed to a degree beyond its natural dimensions; the more force is exerted, the sooner doth the vessel break that contains it, and the water let loose, never to return. The great De Witt, in his *Memoirs*, asserts, 'That the navigation, the fishery, the trade and manufactures, which are the four pillars of the state, should not be weakened or incumbered by any taxes, for it is they that give subsistence to the most part of the inhabitants, and which draw in all sorts of strangers; unless the necessity was so great that the country was threatened with an intire destruction; and these fundamentals should be attacked upon the hopes that these taxes would not last long; at least haste should be made, as soon as the storm was over, to take them off. Again, this distinction should be made, that manufactures should not, or cannot, be taxed at all, because they are not fixed to the country, and we must fetch from foreign countries the stuffs and materials to work them up.'

High duties send away our specie. Britain, having no mines of gold or silver, hath no other means of getting or preserving its treasure but by foreign trade. As customs confine our trade to mere importation for our own necessaries, or vanities, and, at the same time, ruin our manufactures, what we want in exports to ballance the imports, must be paid in specie [see *BALANCE of Trade*] making the ballance of trade every year more and more against us; for, as we raise the prices of our goods so high by taxes that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their superfluities, which we now chiefly, and, in time, must intirely pay for with our gold and silver; and our high duties encouraging smugglers, who have seldom a settled habitation, or any stock of our manufactures by them, they carry out great quantities of specie, to purchase their cargoes: such large draughts make our mints lie idle, but by fits and starts; we find our money disappear, and grow scarcer and scarcer, our trade declines and our people starve. To confirm all which further, see the articles *CUSTOMS*, *EXCISES*, *NATIONAL DEBTS*, and *TAXES*. Upon what solid principles our commerce and navigation may be advanced, see, also, the articles *ARTIFICERS*, *MANUFACTURES*, *MECHANICS*, *ROYAL SOCIETY*, and *TRADE*.

How far the present system of the public revenue of this nation appears to be calculated for the interest, or otherwise, of our commerce and navigation, shall be considered also under the article *FUNDS*; wherein shall be considered, more especially, the great principle of increasing our debts, and reducing the interest of the national creditors; for however well-bottomed the *PUBLIC CREDIT* may seem to be upon this maxim, I am afraid, upon a just and dispassionate enquiry, it will turn out otherwise than many gentlemen may flatter themselves.



C

C A B

C is the third letter of the alphabet; it is used either alone, or preceded, or followed, by some other letter, by merchants, bankers, traders, and book-keepers, as an abbreviation of certain terms, or words, which they are obliged to repeat very often in the articles which they set down in their journals, or other registers. Thus, among the French, **C** signifies *Compte*, account; **C O**, *Compte Overt*, open account; **CC**, *Compte Courant*, account current; **MC**, *Mon Compte*, my account; **SC**, *Son Compte*, his account; **LC**, *Leur Compte*, their account; **NC**, *Notre Compte*, our account, &c.

CABALISTE, a term of commerce, which is used at Thouloufe, and in the whole province of Languedoc. It signifies a merchant, who does not trade in his own name, but is concerned in the trade of another merchant in chief.

The 24th article of the general regulations of the exchange of Thouloufe, made in the year 1701, for the election of the prior and consuls of the said exchange, orders, that every merchant, or son of a merchant, actually trading, shall be obliged to accept the office of administrator of the fraternity, if he be nominated to it; and that all the cabalistes, and persons concerned in the trade of a merchant in chief, shall also be liable to be named and chosen for the said administration. See the article **ANONYMOUS Partnership**, and Remarks thereon.

CABECA, or **CABESSE**. The Portugueze, who carry on the trade of silks in the East-Indies, distinguish them by the names of *cabeça* and *bariga*; that is to say, head and belly. The *cabeça* silks are the finest, the *bariga* are from 15 to 20 per cent. inferior to them. The Indian workmen endeavour to pass them off one with the other, and there is hardly a bale of *cabeça* but what is mixed with a great deal of *bariga*: for which reason, the more experienced European merchants, who carry on that trade, take care to open the bales, and to examine all the skains, one after another. See the article of **SILKS**, where those of the Indies are described. The Dutch, who have a great trade in those silks, distinguish two sorts of *cabeça*'s, namely, the *moor-cabeffa*, and the common *cabeffa*. The former is sold at Amsterdam for about 21½ schellingen gross, or Flemish; and the other for about 18.

REMARKS.

The ancient Portugueze, who had extended their trade in the East-Indies, introduced amongst the merchants of those countries, that is to say, among the Banians and the Chinese, the distinction of the best and the worst merchandizes, by the comparative names of head and belly: for, as they looked upon a man's head as the noblest, and the belly as the vilest, parts of his body, they do the same with regard to merchandizes (with a design, perhaps, to be better understood by the Indian merchants) styling the best the head, and the worst the belly, of the same sort, or kind, of merchandize. This custom has continued to the present time in the Indies: and the European nations, who trade there, follow that custom of distinguishing the merchandizes in the buying or selling, to make themselves be better understood by the Banians and Chinese.

CABIDOS, or **CAVIDOS**, a long measure used in Portugal, at Goa, and in other places of the East-Indies, belonging to the Portugueze, to measure stuffs, linens, &c.

The *cabidos*, like the Dutch ell, or that of Nuremberg, contains two feet and 11 lines, which make $\frac{7}{8}$ of the Paris ell, and the Paris ell makes one *cabidos* and $\frac{3}{4}$: so that seven *cabidos* make four ells of Paris.

To reduce *cabidos*'s into Paris ells, you must, using the Rule of Three, say, If seven *cabidos*'s make four ells of Paris, how many Paris ells will so many *cabidos* make? And, on the contrary, to reduce Paris ells into *cabidos*'s, you must say, If four ells of Paris make seven *cabidos*'s, how many *cabidos*'s will so many ells of Paris make?

CABINET, a piece of joiner's workmanship. It is a kind of press, or chest, with several doors and drawers, to lock up the most precious things, or only to serve as an ornament in chambers, galleries, or other apartments.

There are common cabinets of oak, or of chestnut; varnished cabinets of China and Japan; cabinets of inlaid work; some of ebony, and of other scarce and precious woods.

The cabinets of Germany were formerly in great repute in France, where they were very much esteemed, on account

C A B

of several mechanical rarities and curiosities, which they were filled with in the inside. They are very much valued in foreign countries, and the Dutch carry some still into the East; but they are almost entirely out of date in France, as well as the cabinets of ebony, which came from Venice.

CABLE, a thick, large, strong rope, commonly of hemp, which serves to keep ships at anchor: but these are commonly called crane-ropes, and are of different sizes. It is also said of ropes which serve to raise heavy loads, by the help of cranes, pulleys, and other engines. The name of cable is usually given only to such as have at least three inches in diameter; those that are less are only called ropes, of different names, according to their use.

Every cable, of what thickness soever it be, is composed of three strands, every strand of three ropes, and every rope of three twists; the twist is made of more or less threads, according as the cable is to be thicker or thinner. The words strand, rope, and twist, are explained under their proper articles. In the manufacture of cables, after the ropes are made, they use sticks, which they pass first between the ropes of which they make the strands, and afterwards between the strands of which they make the cable; to the end that they may all twist the better, and be more regularly wound together: and also, to prevent them from twining, or intangling, they hang at the end of each strand, and of each rope, a weight of lead, or of stone.

When the cable is made, and twisted as it ought to be, they untwist three or four turns, that the rest may better remain in their former position.

Cables that are too much twisted burst very easily; and, when they are spun soft, that is to say, not sufficiently twisted, they break. See **ROPE-MAKER**.

The number of threads, of which a cable ought to be composed, is always proportionable to its length and thickness; and it is by the number of threads that compose it, and make it's diameter and circumference, that one may judge of it's weight, and, consequently, make an estimate of it's value, which is an expeditious way of computing the worth of cordage.

A cable of three inches in circumference, which amount to an inch in diameter, is composed of 48 common threads; and upon that footing are calculated two tables which the *Sieur St. Aubin* has given us, in his *Dictionaire de Marine*, to make both those operations; which tables we have thought proper to insert in this work, with the necessary instructions for using them, that the reader may want no information on a subject which none ought to be ignorant of, who are concerned in marine commerce, who fit out merchant-men for their own account, or freight them for the account of others.

A Table of the number of threads of which a cable must be composed, with regard to it's circumference, from three inches to 20, and from 48 threads to 1943.

Inches.	Threads.
3	48
4	77
5	121
6	174
7	238
8	311
9	393
10	485
11	598
12	699
13	821
14	952
15	1093
16	1244
17	1404
18	1574
19	1754
20	1943

In order to find, by this table, how much a cable of a certain given length ought to weigh; for instance, a cable between 110, or 120 fathoms long, you must measure the thickness of the cable in its circumference, and look into the table, to see how many threads it must be composed of, with regard to that circumference; then multiply by four the num-

ber of threads you have found, because each thread, for making a cable of the proposed length, weighs about four pounds; and the product of that multiplication will give you very near the weight of the cable. Thus a cable of 20 inches in circumference, which, according to the table, must have 1943 threads, will weigh 7772 pounds.

A Table to estimate the weight of a cable, by it's circumference.

Inches.	Pounds.
3	192
4	308
5	484
6	696
7	952
8	1244
9	1572
10	1940
11	2392
12	2796
13	3284
14	3808
15	4372
16	4976
17	5616
18	6296
19	7016
20	7772

By the two foregoing tables may be also found how many threads are required in every rope, according to the thickness one would give to a cable. For instance, for a cable of three ropes, which is required to be made 18 inches in circumference, you must put 550 threads in each rope, observing, however, that, if you would make the cable something tighter, or closer than ordinarily, it will be both shorter and thinner; and if, on the contrary, you make it looser, it will be longer and thicker.

R E M A R K.

It seems that, in the instance given above, by the Sieur Aubin, we should put the word strand, instead of rope, since a cable being composed, as he explained it before, of three strands, and each strand of three ropes, it makes nine ropes for every cable; and, at that rate, the number of threads does not agree with the ropes, but with the strands, the latter being really composed each of 550 threads, or thereabout, and the ropes, reckoning nine to each cable, can have but about 183 threads each.

There is no merchant-ship, though never so weak, but has, at least, three cables; namely, the chief cable, or cable of the sheet-anchor, a common cable, and a smaller one. The length of these cables is commonly from 110 to 120 fathoms. By statute 21 Hen. VIII. cap. 12. sect. 2. No person dwelling within five miles of the town of Burport, in the county of Dorset, shall sell out of the market, holden within the said town, any hemp which shall grow within the said five miles, upon pain of forfeiture of the hemp.

Sect. 3. No persons, other than such as shall dwell within the said town, shall make, out of the said town, any cables, halfers, ropes, traces, halters, or other tackle made of hemp, within five miles of the said town, upon pain of forfeiture of the said cables, &c.

Sect. 4. Twenty pounds weight shall be accounted the stone.

Sect. 5. Every person dwelling within the said distance may make cables, and other tackle for their own use. This act to endure to the next parliament. Continued indefinitely by 3 Car. I. cap. 4. 16. Car. I. cap. 4.

Stat. 35 Eliz. cap. 8. sect. 3. If any person shall make cables of old or overworn stuff, which shall contain above seven inches in compass, every person so offending shall forfeit four times the value. And, if any person shall tar any halfers, or other cordage, made within this realm, of such old and overworn stuff, being of lesser assize, and not containing in compass seven inches, and by retail put to sale the same, being so tarred, every person so offending shall forfeit the treble value, &c.

Sect. 4. Every person which shall offend against this act, shall be imprisoned during her majesty's pleasure.

Stat. 6. Ann. cap. 29. sect. 13. Foreign cordage, or cable-yarn imported, upon exportation shall have no allowance, or drawback of duties.

R E M A R K S.

As cables are one of the principal safeguards to shipping, and the lives of mariners, too much care cannot be taken by all interested in marine commerce, of this article in particular, and that the above statute of Elizabeth should be duly executed; having been well informed, that many rogueries are daily practised in the business of rope-making, which occasion great losses to our merchants and insurers.

CACAO, or COCAO, the nut of which chocolate is made. That tree is of a middle-sized height and bigness. It's wood is spongy, or porous, and very light: it's bark pretty smooth, and of a cinnamon colour, more or less deep, according to the age of the tree.

As the leaves fall but by degrees, and are continually succeeded by others, the tree never looks bare: it blows at all times, but more plentifully about the two solstices, than at any other season.

Its flowers, or blossoms, which are very regular, and in the form of roses, but very small, and without any scent, grow in bunches, between the stalks of the leaves and the wood, or rather from the places where the old leaves grew, the fear of which, if we may so call it, is to be seen at the places from whence they fell. A great quantity of these blossoms drop off; and of a thousand there are hardly ten that set; so that the ground under the tree is all covered with those false blossoms.

Each blossom hangs from the tree by a pedicle, or stalk, about half an inch long; the smaller the blossom is, with regard to the tree and the fruit, the more it appears singular, and worthy of attention.

When the bud begins to open, one may distinguish the calix, the petals, or leaves, and the heart of the blossoms.

This cacao-tree bears fruit almost the whole year, which ripens successively. It does not grow on the slender branches, as our fruit in Europe does, but along the body of the mother-branches, which is no uncommon thing in those countries, where several trees have the same property, such as the apricot-tree, the calabash or gourd tree, the papayer, &c. The cacao fruit is contained in a pod, or cod, which, from being at first prodigiously small, grows, in four months time, to the size and form of a cucumber, pointed at one end, and whose surface is furrowed like a melon.

The pod, in the first month, is either red, or white, or mixed with red, or yellow: these varieties of colours make three sorts of cacao-trees, which have no other difference but that, which is not sufficient to establish three different kinds of species of cacao-trees: and, therefore, Monsieur Tournefort, after the example of Father Plumier, acknowledges but one kind of them, though the Spanish writers reckon four of them in Mexico, without any reason.

Of the first we mentioned above, the pod is of a deep red, especially when it grows near the sea-coast, but it becomes clearer and paler, as the fruit ripens.

The second, of which the pod is white, is in the beginning of so clear a green, that it seems quite white; it becomes by degrees of a citron-colour, which, growing deeper from day to day, is at last quite yellow, when the fruit is come to it's maturity.

The third keeps a medium between the two former; for, as it ripens, the green colour grows paler, and the yellow deeper.

The only distinction one can make between the cacao fruit, is, that it comes from three different places, namely, from Caracca, from Maragnan, and from the French islands; the first is the most valued.

The white pods are flatter than the others, especially on the side of the stalk by which they hang from the tree; and those cacao-trees are more plentiful bearers than the others.

If you split one of these pods lengthways, you will find it to be about one third part of an inch thick; it is filled with cacao-nuts, the intervals of which, before the fruit is ripe, are replenished with a white and firm substance, which afterwards changes into a kind of mucilaginous matter, of a very pleasant acid taste: for which reason, people often delight in putting one of these nuts, with the substance that surrounds it, into their mouth, which is an agreeable refreshment, and quenches the thirst; but they take care not to bite it with their teeth, for, if they were to pierce the skin, or peel off the nut, they would find it extremely bitter. When we examine attentively the inward construction of those pods, and anatomize, as it were, all its parts, it appears, that the fibres of the stalk of the fruit, passing through the pod, divide into five branches, each of which are subdivided into several threads; and every thread terminates at the thick end of one of those nuts, making all together a kind of bunch, consisting commonly of 20, 25, 30, or 35 nuts, placed the one against the other within the pod, in a wonderful order.

The peel or skin of some of those nuts being taken off, you meet with the substance of the nut, which appears tender and smooth, inclining to purple or violet colour, and seemingly divided into several lobes, though in reality it has but two, but very irregular, and much entangled the one in the other.

Lastly, if the nut or kernel be cut into two equal parts lengthways, you meet at the extremity of the thick end, a sort of cylindrical grain, $\frac{1}{2}$ part of an inch long by about $\frac{1}{4}$ in diameter, which is the true germen, or seed of the plant. The Botanists call it the plume.

The cacao-tree grows naturally in several countries within the torrid zone, but particularly in Mexico, in the provinces

of Guatemala and Nicaragua, as also along the banks of the river of the Amazons, on the coast of Caracca, that is to say, from Comoma, or Nova Corduba, to Carthagea, and in the Golden Island.

The trade of cacao-nuts is carried on by a Spanish company, settled upon that coast.

There come likewise large quantities of cacao-nuts from Maragan, in the north part of Brazil, by the way of Lisbon, which commonly is worth but half the price of that of Caracca, being small and not so ripe, which gives it a harsh taste: so that, if chocolate were made of the cacao-nuts of Maragan only, it would be too rough and too dry: and, if it were made all of Caracca nuts, it would be too rich, and not keep so well; but when it is made with one half of the former, and the other half of the latter, it makes very good chocolate, which will keep well, and come cheaper.

There are also cacao-nuts from the isles of Magdalen in the gulph of St. Lawrence in Canada, which come pretty near to the nuts of Caracca, as well as those of Cayenne, which surpass those of the other islands, being plump and full-grown, and sell almost for the same price.

The Spaniards and the Portuguese were the first, whom the Americans made acquainted with cacao; they made use of it many years, without communication thereof to other nations, who had so little knowledge of it in those days, that the Dutch privateers, being ignorant of the value of the prizes of cacao they took, used, out of spite, to throw all the nuts into the sea, calling them, by derision, and in pretty bad Spanish, *cacura de carnera*, sheep's treads.

In the year 1649, they knew in all the Antilles, but of one cacao-tree, which was planted out of curiosity in the garden of an Englishman, settled in the island of St. Croix. In 1655, the Caribbees, who are the savages of the lesser Antilles, shewed to Monf. du Parquet several cacao-trees in the woods of the island of Martinico, of which he was the proprietor. This discovery gave occasion to observe several other trees of the same kind, in the other woods of that island; and the cacao-walks, planted since then in that island owe very probably their origin, to the nuts taken from those woods. One Benjamin planted there the first cacao-walk, about the year 1660: but it was not till 20 or 25 years after this, that the inhabitants of Martinico began to apply themselves to the cultivation of cacao-trees, and to make walks or plantations of them; but we have related above, after what manner they have been since destroyed.

The cacao which comes from Caracca, is more unctuous or oily, and less bitter, than that of Maragan; to which it is preferred both in Spain and in France. But in Germany, and in the north of Europe, people are of a quite different taste. After all, the difference there is between the cacao-nuts of several places is not very considerable, since it obliges only to put more or less sugar, to temper the greater or lesser bitterness of that fruit. For it must be observed, as we have already hinted, that there is but one kind or species of cacao. As for the external differences observable in the nuts, they cannot proceed but from the greater or lesser fruitfulness of the soil, and the care that has been taken in the cultivation.

The cacao-nuts of Caracca are a little flat, and, by their size and figure, resemble pretty much one of our large beans. Those of St. Domingo, of Jamaica, and of the isle of Cuba, are generally larger than those of the lesser Antilles.

The larger and plumper the cacao is, the less diminution there is in the roasting and grinding of it, which is a consideration in favour of the cacao of Caracca and Cayenne.

Cacao, in order to be good, must have a very brown and pretty even skin or peel; and, when it is taken off, the nut or kernel must appear full, plump, and shining, of a hazle-nut colour, very dark on the outside, a little more reddish within, of a bitterish and astringent taste, without any greenish or musty favour; which it acquires, either by being put in a moist place, or by being wetted with salt-water, in crossing the sea; in short, it must not have any smell, nor be worm-eaten.

Cacao is one of the most oily fruits which nature produces; and has this wonderful advantage, that it never grows rank, how old soever it be, as all other fruits do, which have any analogy with this, such as walnuts, almonds, kernels of pine-apples, pistacho-nuts, olives, &c.

The Indians, in their first making of chocolate, took no great trouble about it; they used to roast their cacao in earthen pots, and having afterwards cleared it of the husks, and bruised it between two stones, they made it into lumps or cakes with their hands.

The Spaniards, more ingenious than these Indians, and after their example the other European nations, make choice of the best and freshest cacao: they put about two pounds of it into a large iron-pan, over a clear fire, and stir it continually with a large spatula, till it be roasted enough to divert the nuts easily of their husks, which must be done one by one, putting them by themselves, taking the utmost care to throw away all those that are worm-eaten or musty, and all the husks of the good ones; for these pellicles never dissolve in any liquor, nor even in the stomach, and fall to the bottom

of the chocolate cups, when the cacao has not been well cleaned.

If the cacao be weighed after it is roasted and ground, there will be found about $\frac{1}{3}$ part diminution, something more or less, according to the nature and quality of the fruit.

The cacao being thus roasted, and cleaned several times, is put again to roast in the same iron pan, but over a fire less fierce: the nuts must be continually stirred with a spatula, till they be equally roasted, and to a requisite degree; which is known, by their favoury taste and brown colour, without being black; it is a mistake to think they must taste of the burning, and be of a black colour.

The cacao being properly roasted and well cleaned, they pound it in a large mortar, to reduce it into a coarse mass; which they afterwards grind on a stone, till it be of the utmost fineness.

When the paste is sufficiently ground, they put it quite hot into tin moulds, wherein it congeals, and becomes solid in a very little time. The form of those moulds is arbitrary: the cylindrical ones, which can hold two or three pounds of chocolate, are the most proper, because, the bigger the cakes are, the longer they will keep good, and are most easily managed, when one would scrape them for use. These cakes must be carefully wrapped up in paper, and kept in a dry place. Observe, that they are very liable to take any good or bad scent, and that is proper to keep them five or six months before they are used.

People were formerly very much prepossessed against the effects of cacao-nuts; but the daily repeated experience of their good qualities has prevented them from being out of fashion from a groundless prejudice. And, indeed, cacao which is a bitter, alkaline, and very temperate substance, is a very sweet and benign food, incapable of doing any harm, easy of digestion, and very proper to supply the exhausted spirits, and, indeed, to preserve the health of ancient people, and prolong their days. A proof of the truth of this commendation of cacao is, that the natives of New Spain, and of a great part of the Torrid Zone in America, always took a particular delight in this food, and that, even at this time, all the European colonies settled in those parts, make a surprizing consumption of it. These people take chocolate at all times of the day, and in all seasons, as a constant nutritious food, without distinction of ages, constitution, sexes, or conditions, no one ever complaining of the least inconveniency arising from it, especially if a small glass of water be taken after it.

The uses to which cacao is commonly put, may be reduced to three; it is made into a sweetmeat, as the reader will see presently; also into chocolate, of which we shall speak under its proper article; and there is an oil extracted from it, to which they also give the name of butter. That oil is as sweet as oil of almonds, and is made after the same manner; it is an extraordinary remedy for the cure of burns and scalds. Some of the Creolian ladies of America use it as a paint, to render the complexion fresh, and the skin soft and smooth.

There are some places in America, where the cacao-nuts or grains are used as money, but only amongst the natives: they give twelve or fourteen grains for a Spanish ryal.

The trade of cacao at Amsterdam.

The cacao of the Caraccas is sold at Amsterdam for 8 stivers and $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound, more or less; when it is in casks, they allow so much for tare: but, when it is in bales, the tare is according to the weight. From 100 to 229 pounds, the tare is reckoned two pounds; from 230 to 249, three pounds; from 250 to any weight above that, four pounds. The ferons to 99 pounds weight, give 8 pounds tare per seron: those of 100 pounds and above, 10 per cent.

The cacao of Martinico is commonly in casks, which are tared by the weight; if it be in bags, the same tare is allowed, as for that of the Caraccas.

REMARKS.

The reader will not be displeas'd, I hope, to meet in this place with an account of cacao, as it is given us by Capt. W. Dampier, from his own knowledge and observations, as it will serve to rectify some mistakes in what has already been represented. 'The cacao-tree, says he, grows no where in the north seas, but in the bay of Campeachy, on Costa Rica, between Porto Bello and Nicaragua, chiefly up Carpenter's river, and on the coast of Caraccas, as high as the isle of Trinidad. In the south seas it grows in the river of Guaiquil, a little to the southward of the Line, and in the valley of Collima, on the south side of the continent of Mexico. Besides these, I am confident there is no part in the world where the cacao grows, except in Jamaica, of which there are now but few remaining, of many and large walks or plantations of them, found there by the English at their first arrival, and since planted by them; and even these, though there is a great deal of care and pains bestowed on them, yet seldom come to any thing, being generally blighted. The nuts of the coast of Caraccas, though less than those of Costa Rica, which are large

large flat nuts, yet are better and fatter in my opinion, being so very oily, that we are forced to use water in rubbing them up; and the Spaniards that live here, instead of parching them to get off the shell, before they pound or rub them to make chocolate, do in a manner burn them to dry up the oil; for else, they say, it would fill them too much with blood, drinking chocolate as they do, five or six times a day. My worthy friend Mr. Ringrose commends most the Guaiquil nut, I presume, because he had little knowledge of the rest, for, being intimately acquainted with him, I know the course of his travels and experience. But I am persuaded, had he known the rest so well, as I pretend to have done, who have at several times been long used to, and in a manner lived upon the several sorts of them above-mentioned, he would prefer the Caraccas nuts before any other; yet possibly the drying up of these nuts so much by the Spaniards here, as I said, may lessen their esteem by those Europeans, that use their chocolate ready rubbed up. So that we always chuse to make it up ourselves. The cacao-tree has a body about a foot and a half thick (the largest fort) and 7 or 8 feet high to the branches, which are large and spreading like an oak, with a pretty thick, smooth, dark green leaf, shaped like that of a plumb-tree, but larger. The nuts are inclosed in cods as big as both a man's fists put together, at the broad end of which there is a small tough limber stalk, by which they hang pendulous from the body of the tree, in all parts of it from top to bottom, scattered at irregular distances, and from the greater branches a little way up, especially at the joints of them, or partings, where they hang thickest, but never on the smaller boughs. There may be ordinarily about 20 or 30 of these cods upon a well-bearing tree; and they have two crops of them in a year, one in December, but the best in June. The cod itself, or shell, is almost half an inch thick; neither spongy nor woody, but of a substance between both; brittle, yet harder than the rind of a lemon, like which it's surface is grained or knobbed, but more coarse and unequal. The cods at first are of a dark green, but the side of them next the sun of a muddy red. As they grow ripe, the green turns to a fine bright yellow, and the muddy to a more lively beautiful red, very pleasant to the eye. They neither ripen nor are gathered at once: but for three weeks or a month, when the season is, the overseers of the plantations go every day about to see which are turned yellow, cutting at once, it may be, not above one from a tree. The cods, thus gathered, they lay in several heaps to sweat, and then, bursting the shell with their hands, they pull out the nuts, which are the only substance they contain, having no stalk or pith among them, and (except that these nuts lie in regular rows) are placed like the grains of maize, but sticking together, and so closely stowed, that, after they have been once separated, it would be hard to place them again in so narrow compass. There are generally near a hundred in a cod, in proportion to the greatness of which, for it varies, the nuts are bigger or less. When taken out, they dry them in the sun upon mats spread on the ground; after which they need no more care, having a thin hard skin of their own, and much oil, which preserves them. Salt water will not hurt them; for we had our bags rotten, lying in the bottom of our ship, and yet the nuts were never the worse. They raise young trees of nuts, set with the great end downwards, in fine black mould, and in the same place where they are to bear, which they do in four or five years time, without the trouble of transplanting. There are ordinarily of these trees from 500 to 2000, and upwards, in a plantation, or cacao-walk, as they call them; and they shelter the young trees from the weather with plantains, set about them for two or three years, destroying all the plantains by such time the cacao-trees are of a pretty good body, and able to endure the heat, which I take to be most pernicious to them of any thing: for, though these vallies lie open to the north winds, unless a little sheltered here and there by some groves of plantain trees, which are purposely set near the shores of the several bays, yet, by all that I could either observe or learn, the cacao's in this country are never blighted, as I have often known them to be in other places. Cacao-nuts are used as money in the bay of Campeachy. Dampier's voyages, vol. i. page 59—62. The same author, in his Description of the bay of Campeachy, page 111, mentions another kind of cacao. 'I have seen, says he, a sort of white cacao brought from hence (from Villa de Mofa, in the above-mentioned bay) which I never met with any where else. It is of the same bigness and colour on the outside, and with such a thin husky coat as the other; but the inner substance is white, like fine flour; and, when the outward coat is broken, it crumbles as a lump of flower does. Those that frequent the bay call it spuma, and affirm that it is much used by the Spaniards in those parts, to make their chocolate froth. But I never yet met with any in England that knew it, except the right honourable the earl of Carbury, who was pleased to tell me he had seen of it' Father Labat (Nouveaux Voyages aux Isles Françoises de l'Ame-

rique, tom. vi. page 384) pretends to find fault with this last assertion of Dampier, and adds, that he spoke with an infinite number of persons who traded to Mexico, and on the coasts of Guatemala, Carthagena, and Caraccas, who told him they never heard of that sort of white cacao. But Dampier does not pretend that he found any of it on those coasts; he asserts positively that he never saw it but in the bay of Campeachy; so that Father Labat's information might be true, without affecting in the least Dampier's veracity, as to this particular.

CACAO Preserved, or sweet-meats of cacao. They are made in the Antilles, are excellent, and far excel all the sweet-meats made in Europe.

The cacao, which one would preserve, must be gathered some time before it be quite ripe; the maturity of this fruit is known by it's pods beginning to turn yellow; they must be chosen, therefore, some days before they begin to take that colour.

The nuts, which are then delicate and tender, are put to soak in fresh clear water, which must be changed every morning and every night during five or six days; after which they lard them with very thin bits of lemon-peel and cinnamon; then they make a syrup of the finest sugar, but very thin, wherein they put the nuts: after it is taken from the fire, and sufficiently clarified, they leave them in that syrup 24 hours. When they are taken out of it, and well dried, they make another syrup, but thicker, in which they leave them again a whole day. Lastly, after they have passed them thus through five or six syrups, they make another, of a greater consistency than the former, wherein they put musk, amber, or other perfumes, as people like them; and in this last syrup the nuts are kept for use.

When they would have them dry, they take them out of the last syrup; and, having drained them well, they plunge them into another syrup very strong of sugar, and well clarified, and put them immediately into a stove, where they are candied: F. Labat, from whom this account is taken, observes, that this sort of sweet-meats requires a great deal of care, and consumes a prodigious quantity of sugar: he adds, that the confectioners of the French islands seldom make any, and cannot undertake it, or make it as it should be, under a crown the pound. Labat Nouveaux Voyages aux Isles de l'Amerique, tom. i. page 185, &c. See also Histoire naturelle du Cacao, page 94.

CACAO-Walk, or Plantation, is a place where cacao-trees are planted and cultivated. It is a kind of orchard of those trees, planted in rows by a line.

The culture of cacao in the French islands in America.

The soil proper for making a cacao-walk must be fresh land, that is to say, such as has not yet served for any other crop; the tree which bears the cacao-nut being so tender, that it wants the whole sap and nourishment of a newly cultivated ground: for experience has shewed, that, when the nut is planted in land that is not quite fresh, though it has rested some years, it does not yield any thing comparable to what it will when the soil is otherwise, nor does the tree live long, and never produces good fruit, nor is ever a plentiful bearer. The ground designed for this tree must be very deep, because, from what is observed of the other trees in these islands, it shoots a great many roots, which grow incessantly deep into the ground, though, at the same time, the tree grows upwards, and produces blossoms and fruit. However, nothing is noxious to it except rocks and stones, for it will grow pretty well in a sandy, and even in a clayey ground, if it does not meet with it about 7 or 8 feet below the good mould. Another precaution to be observed is, to plant a cacao-walk in a cool and low soil, near a river, or watered by some rivulets, or brooks, taking care, above all, that it be not too much exposed to the open air, to the heat of the sun, nor to the wind.

The extent of such a plantation should be of 200 paces square, according to the measure of those islands, or thereabout; and, if the ground designed for those trees be larger, it is better to divide it into several squares of that extent, and cover them with good strong hedges, than leave it exposed to the above-mentioned inconveniences, if the square were too large and too open.

The cacao-walk must be surrounded with large trees, or at least covered by them, on those sides from which the settled winds blow. But yet, as frequent accidents may happen by those trees being blown down in high storms, some choose to make those fences with two or three rows of orange trees, or immortal-wood, which, being plant, are more proper to resist high winds, or whose fall, at most, cannot much injure the cacao-trees which stand near them.

Those fences should also be covered with some rows of bonano's and plantain trees.

The soil being thus, as we have described, must be dug, or plowed, as deep as possible, because land that is equally plowed is capable of receiving the rain more uniformly; and also, because, being well levelled afterwards, the several particulars requisite may be the more easily made, according to the plan of the plantation.

To mark out the divisions, they use a line as long as the whole space that is to be planted out, with knots at every eighth foot; at each division they plant a stalk, or stick, three or four feet long. Thus having gone along the whole line, they plant, at eight feet distance from the place where it first lay, and go on thus, from eight to eight feet, 'till the whole ground be divided, which form thus a perfect chequer: so that a space of 100 fathoms, or 200 paces square, may contain 5685 trees.

Some place the trees at six feet, or even but five feet distance, from each other; but it is certain that their being too close hinders their growth, and prevents their producing large fruit, the trees robbing, as it were, one another of part of the sap and nourishment they want; besides that, they want room to extend their roots, without entangling with each other.

This distance of eight feet is regulated only with regard to the foil of the lesser Antilles, for, in the large islands, and on the main land, where the foil is deeper and fatter, the distance between the trees must be 10 or 12 feet, that the trees, which are commonly larger and thicker, may have all the extent they require.

On the Caraccas coast they plant the cacao-trees at 12, and even 15 feet, distance from each other, and they contrive trenches to water them in great droughts; they made once a lucky experiment of this in Martinico.

The walks, or alleys, in the plantation, must be as straight as possible, not only as that is most pleasant to the eye, but because one may more easily observe the slaves at their work, and gather the fruit, when ripe.

The nuts must be planted in the last quarter of the moon, and in rainy weather, or, at least, when it is cloudy, and seems inclined to rain. They take the cacao-pods, when ripe, open them, take the nuts out as they want them, and plant them immediately one by one, for fear they should dry, which would prevent their shooting.

All the cacao-trees are raised by planting the nuts, for it will not grow from cuttings. Care must be taken to plant none but large nuts; for, since in the finest pods there are nuts that miscarry, it would be imprudent to plant them. You should, also, place the thick end of the nut lowermost; for, if you planted it uppermost, the tree would grow up crooked: but, though you should put the nut flat, the tree would, nevertheless, come up pretty well.

They generally put in three nuts round each stalk, or stick, three inches asunder, and three or four inches deep; which is easily done when the ground has been newly plowed, or dug: otherwise, they use a dibble, with which they slightly stir the ground where they would plant the nuts. They plant three nuts round each stick, with no other view but in order to fill up the vacancies, where any happen to miscarry: so that, if they have all took, when they are about 18 inches or two feet long, they leave only the fairest near each stick, and take up the two others, to plant where any are wanting, or to form another plantation.

You may make nurseries of cacao-trees, but the trees taken out of them seldom succeed well, because they, being very tender, cannot be easily transplanted without hurting the roots, which hinders them from growing kindly: wherefore most of the cacao-trees are first planted from nuts; and the most curious, most experienced, and most understanding inhabitants of the islands, choose rather to put new nuts in the room of those that did not come up, than supply their defect with plants from a nursery.

The scorching heat of the sun being very noxious to the newly-raised cacao-plants, because of their great tenderness, they never fail planting two or three rows of cassava, in the middle of the alleys, at the same time they plant the nuts; and, 'till the cassava be large enough to smother the weeds, which grow naturally in fresh ground, care must be taken to weed it continually, for nothing is more detrimental to those growing plants than those weeds, which deprive them of the greatest part of their nourishment.

After the first crop of cassava is taken up, which is at the end of fifteen months, others must be planted again, but in less quantity; that is to say, but one row in the middle of each alley, adding, however, on both sides, water melons, common melons, cucumbers, pumpkins, potatoes, &c. because these plants, having broad leaves, cover the earth, and prevent the growth of weeds. Some plant the cassava a month before they put the nuts into the ground, which has a pretty good effect, because it is the sooner in a condition to screen the cacao from the heat of the sun, and to smother the weeds.

When the cacao-trees are so far grown as to overshadow the ground, every thing must be taken up, for nothing will thrive under them.

The cacao-nuts are commonly seven, eight, or 10 days before they appear above ground, according as the weather, more or less favourable to them, advances or retards their growth: 15 or 20 days after the plants have begun to shoot above ground, they are five or six inches high, and have four or six leaves, which always grow by pairs. The tree, when 10 or 12 months old, is near two foot high, and has 12 or 14, or even to 16, leaves. When it is between 20 and 24

months, it arrives to the height of three feet and a half, and, sometimes, to four feet; when the bud, which 'till then always appeared in the center of the two last leaves, opens, and divides itself into five branches, but seldom into six, and almost never into seven.

The cylindrical grain of the germen swelling pushes downwards the radicle, which becomes afterwards the prop of the tree, and on top the plume is a diminutive of trunk and branches.

When the tree is come to that height, the leaves do no longer grow upon the trunk, but appear on the chief branches, which, as they advance in length and thickness, produce other smaller branches, while, at the same time, the trunk grows proportionably higher and thicker.

The cacao-tree, when two years and a half old, begins to blow. It is proper to take off its first blossoms, that the tree may gather strength. At three years and a half they leave a few, because then it bears already very fine fruit; when it is four years old, they do no longer pull off any blossoms, because it is then strong enough to bear fruit, without prejudicing its growth. Lastly, when it is six years old, it is properly in its vigour.

From the falling of the blossoms 'till the fruit be perfectly ripe, is about four months. Its ripeness may be known when the part between the ribs that divide the pods begins to change colour, and become yellow; in which state it is fit to be gathered. The whole pod must have changed colour, the little bud, or knobs, at the bottom, only remaining green. In order to gather the fruit, they dispose the negroes designed for this work in such a manner that there be one assigned to each row of trees: every negro has a basket, and, according to the row assigned to him, gathers such fruit as is ripe, without meddling with that which wants still some time to ripen, not touching the blossoms.

They use no iron instruments for that purpose, nor do they shake the tree; they only break the stalk by which the fruit hangs, either twisting it a little with a wooden fork, or pulling it off. As soon as the negroes have filled their baskets, they carry them to the end of the walk, where they put all the fruit they have gathered in heaps.

When all is thus gathered and heaped, they take the nuts out of the pods, which they first cut length-ways with a knife, and, bruising them afterwards with a stone, or piece of hard wood; and, when the nuts are thus coarsely divested of the pulp, or mucilaginous substance that surrounds them, they house them.

It is not necessary to empty the pods, as soon as they are gathered; they may be left in a heap two or three days, without danger of spoiling: but, if the nuts were to remain in the pods above four days, they would sprout, and be spoiled: wherefore it is necessary to take them out of the pods, for the latest, on the morning of the fifth day.

As soon as the nuts are housed, they put them into large wooden vessels, or troughs, or into a square place, made with boards, where they cover them with leaves, and well boards and stones over them, to keep them close and well pressed.

Thus they leave them four or five days, taking care, however, to turn them every morning. In that condition they ferment, and, losing the whitish colour they had coming out of the pods, they become of a dark red.

It is pretended, that, without this fermentation, they would not keep, but grow mouldy, and would even sprout, if they were put in a damp place: but, as for this last accident, it is very little to be feared, for, if one should but ever so little delay putting the nuts into the ground, it is certain that they would never sprout.

All that this fermentation produces is, that it divests the nuts of a superfluous humidity they are imbibed with, so that there remains nothing in them but an oil that preserves them, wherein their goodness chiefly consists.

After the nuts are taken from the place where they have fermented, they are spread on hurdles, or in shallow boxes, with holes in the bottom, and exposed to the sun to dry, taking care to turn and stir them now and then, and to put them under shelter in the night-time, or in rainy or damp weather, water and dampness being very prejudicial to them.

Three days of sun-shine and wind are sufficient to dry them thoroughly; after which they are put into casks, or bags, or in a garret, or granary, 'till there be an occasion to dispose of them.

Cacao-nuts may be kept as long as one pleases, without danger of spoiling, provided they be put in a dry place, and exposed to the sun two or three times a year; it is true, indeed, that, as they grow old, they lose of their oleaginous quality, and, when they are too dry, they have no longer the same virtue and flavour which they had before.

They who would gain the reputation of selling the best kind of this commodity, take care, before they put the nuts into casks, to separate by themselves all such as are too small, ill fed, or flat, which are only less pleasant to the eye, and do not yield quite so much chocolate.

After that manner the cacao-nuts dried in the sun are brought to us into Europe, and sold by the druggists, who distinguish

them, without any reason, into large and small Caraccas-nuts, and into large and small cacao-nuts of the islands, for in those places they know nothing of such a distinction; and it is probable, that the tradesmen who deal in them found their account in culling them out in that manner, for naturally the cacao-nuts coming from the same tree, and out of the same nut, are never all of the same size.

The pods contain 25 nuts each, and 400 nuts dried make a pound weight, which must be understood of the cacao-nuts of the lesser Antilles islands, those of St. Domingo being larger. Sixteen pods produce one pound of dried nuts, and eight only will give a pound of green nuts, which is a considerable diminution.

The inhabitants reckon their crop but at the rate of a pound, or a pound and a half, *per* tree, of the gathering made at Christmas, and of a pound only at Midsummer, when their trees are from five to eight years old; but, after that period, they may hope for larger crops, especially at Christmas, when the crop is always better than at Midsummer, because of the rainy season which prevails about Christmas, and is more favourable to the cacao-trees than dry weather.

It must be observed, that, in order to keep those trees in a good condition, there are two works to be performed every year, without which they will hardly continue long: the first is, to earth them up, in order to prevent their young and slender roots from taking the air, and being dried up; the second is, to prune the ends of the branches, to make them shoot new ones. The neglect of these two precautions has been the occasion that many of the finest cacao-walks, or plantations, have decayed and perished by degrees.

The produce of a cacao-walk is very considerable, and the expence but small: 20 negroes are sufficient to manage a plantation of 50,000 cacao-trees, which may produce, one year with another, 100,000 pounds weight of nuts; these, at about 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound, the lowest price they are generally ever sold for in America, would produce 1,875 l. sterling.

This whole article has been revised, and had additions made to it, from the Natural History of Cacao and Sugar, written in French by a judicious traveller, who had lived 15 years in the American islands, and who assiduously observed all that he ascertains. His book was printed at Paris in the year 1719; and the authors of the *Journal des Sçavans*, for the year 1720, have spoke of it with great applause, as of the most accurate work on those subjects: Father Labat's account of them is not so much to be relied on.

R E M A R K S.

Chocolate, which is made of the cacao-nut, being a commodity of general consumption, every measure should be tried to cultivate the cacao in the British colonies, that we may have no occasion to take any from other nations; which is the chief reason for my dwelling so long upon this article.

CAFFILA, a company of merchants, or travellers, or rather a company composed of both, who join together, in order to go with more security through the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and through other countries on the continent of the East-Indies.

There are, also, such caffilas, which cross some parts of the deserts of Africa, and particularly what is called the Sea of Sand, which lies between the kingdom of Morocco and those of Tombut and Gago. This is a journey of 400 leagues, and takes up two months in going, and as many in coming back, the caffila travelling only by night, because of the excessive heat of that country. The chief merchandize they bring back consists in gold dust, which they call atibar, and the Europeans tibir.

The caffila is properly what is called a caravan in the dominions of the Grand Signior, in those of the king of Persia, and in other parts of the East. See **CARAVAN**.

There is some difference between a caffila and a caravan, at least in Persia. The caffila belongs properly to some sovereign, or lord, or to some powerful company of Europe, by which effects, or merchandizes, are carried from one place to another, by means of camels, horses, mules, or asses, which go together in a file, or one after another. It is always led by an officer, who is at the head (as in caravans) under whom are the cameliers, muletiers, &c. with some soldiers, all well armed, who escort the caffila as a treasure, the whole belonging to one master. Whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, who have each a certain number of beasts of burden for their own account, and march all together, under the conduct of a chief, whom they are to reward in common. So that all caffilas may be called caravans, but all caravans cannot with propriety be called caffilas.

At Gombron, otherwise called Bander-Abassi, a town and harbour on the Persian gulph, the English and the Dutch have each of them their caffila, which is larger or smaller, according as they have occasion. These travel to Ispahan, and back again, which is a journey of about 170 leagues. It is by their caffilas these companies send merchandizes from

the East-Indies to the capital of Persia, where they have ware-houses, each under a chief: and from thence every caffila brings back, at different times, merchandizes from Persia, for the Indies, whither they are carried in ships, which cross all those seas.

CAFFILA signifies, also, in the several ports which the Portuguese still hold on the coast of the kingdom of Guzerat, or Cambaya, a small fleet of merchant ships, which sail from those ports to Surat, or come back from thence, under the convoy of a man of war, which the king of Portugal keeps there for that purpose.

CAFRERIA, or the country of the Cafres, is the southern parts of Africa. It begins at Cape Negroe, about the 15th degree and 30 minutes south latitude; extends from thence south-easterly to the Cape of Good Hope; thence north-east to the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about the 25th degree of south latitude, which river separates it on the north-east from Monomotapa; on the north it reaches almost to the equator, where it borders on the kingdom of Makoko, or Anziko, and on the north-west it has Congo, or Lower Guinea, with the kingdom of Benguela. Monsieur Martiniere observes, that Caferria is not properly the name of any particular country, and that there is no nation called Cafres, that being, as Ludolf tells us, an opprobrious appellation, given by the Arabs to all those who do not profess the Mahometan religion; it comes from the Arabic word *Cafir*, which signifies an infidel, or unbeliever. The Portuguese, taking the name in a more general sense, have called Cafres all those nations of Africa who have, or seem to have, no knowledge of a Deity. Some include the empire of Monomotapa within the country called Caferria: but the inhabitants of that empire, being much less barbarous than the Cafres, and that country being very considerable, it will be proper to describe the trade thereof by itself. From the boundaries of Caferria, as given above, it appears to be a very large country, extending from Cape Negro to that of Good Hope, near 20 degrees, or 1200 English miles, from north to south; from the Cape of Good Hope north-east to the mouth of the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about 850 miles; and from the same cape, almost to the equinoctial line, about 29 degrees, or 1740 miles. Its greatest breadth, from Cape St. Tome to the mouth of the above-mentioned river, is about 900 miles; but, from the tropic of Capricorn, up to the equinoctial line, it's breadth is not much above 600 miles.

Caferria may be divided into the kingdom of Mataman, the country of Hottentots, Terra de Natal, and Terra dos Fumos. **MATAMAN** is bounded by the kingdom of Benguela on the north; by the river Bravahul on the east and south; and by the Ethiopic ocean on the west. It extends from Cape Negro, in south latitude 16. 30. to the mouth of the river Bravahul, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, in south latitude 24. so that it's greatest length, from north to south, is about 450 English miles; but it's greatest breadth, from west to east, is not above 260 miles.

About 200 miles to the west of Cape Negro the climate is pretty temperate; and, though the coast be very sandy, yet the country is pretty fruitful, and produces a great variety of provisions. The lands are extremely sandy all along the sea-coast, and the harbours bad, and little frequented. Here are no towns nor cities bordering upon the sea, but only poor scattering villages.

The country of the **HOTTENTOTS** is bounded on the north-west by part of the river Bravahul; on the north it extends to the tropic of Capricorn; on the north-east the river of the Holy Ghost parts it from the empire of Monomotapa; on the east and south it has the eastern ocean; and, on the west, the Ethiopic ocean.

The Cape of Good Hope, which is the most famous place for any traffic among the Hottentots, was first discovered in the year 1493, by Bartholomew Dias, a Portuguese admiral, in the reign of John II. king of Portugal. The admiral gave it the name of *Cabo dos totos los tormentos*, i. e. the Cape of Great Sorrows, from the boisterous winds that are almost continually roaring there. But the king changed that name into *Cabo del bonne Esperanza*, i. e. the Cape of Good Hope, because, said he, there was now good hope of making prosperous voyages to the East-Indies: and by that name it has been known in Europe ever since.

This cape lies in latitude 34. 15. south (according to the Present State of the Cape of Good Hope, given us by Mr. Koiben, who resided there several years, and which was translated from the High German into English, and printed in London in 1731.) After several observations of eclipses, the same gentleman found that the longitude of the Cape was 37. 55. from the meridian of the Pike of Teneriff, east. But, from the authorities of some later observations, which seem to be more accurate, the Cape is laid down in longitude 20. 10. east of London.

Though this famous cape was first discovered by Dias the Portuguese, yet he only went so near it as to observe it's situation, bays, and anchorings; but the Portuguese never made any settlement there: nor did the Dutch, who first visited it in the year 1600, immediately discern all the advantages arising from this situation: wherefore, they only touched there for many years, in their voyages to and from the East-Indies,

to traffic for provisions. For which purpose they went, from time to time, in bodies up into the country, and having thrown up a small fort near the harbour, they there secured themselves and their purchasers of merchandizes in the night-time; 'till they had shipped them.

The Dutch made another use of the Cape, while things were carried on only in this way, which was a notable contrivance. Every commander going out was provided with a square stone, upon which, at his departure from the Cape, he caused his own name, that of his ship, and the names of his principal officers, to be fairly cut, together with the day he arrived there, and the day he departed. The stone with such inscriptions was buried in a certain place without the fort, and under it was put a tin box, sealed up, containing letters from the captain, and others, to the directors of the Dutch East-India company, together with such other letters as any persons on board thought fit to send into Europe. This stone and box were taken up the next ship that passed by the Cape, in her return, and by her conveyed to Holland. And whoever considers the situation of the Cape (as a sort of half-way house in the East-India voyage) and the satisfaction the company, by this means, received, from time to time, concerning the fortune and condition of their ships, will acknowledge this a very useful contrivance.

After this manner the Dutch used the Cape 'till the year 1650, when, their fleet anchoring before it for the usual purpose, Mr Van Riebeck, a surgeon belonging to it, had the penetration to discern the still greater advantages which the company might reap from the Cape, by means of a very little cultivation. He observed that the country was plentifully stocked with cattle; that the soil was rich, and capable of generous productions; that the natives were tractable, and the harbour commodious and improveable; and, upon the whole, made a good judgment to what a degree the Dutch trade might be secured and facilitated by means of this situation: in a word, he saw that it was highly advisable for the Dutch to make a settlement there. He accordingly digested his observations, and, on his return to Holland, he laid them before the directors of the East-India company, who were so well satisfied therewith, that immediately after, on a grand consultation on the same, they came to a resolution to attempt a settlement at the Cape, without loss of time. Upon which, four ships were immediately ordered for the Cape, with all the materials, instruments, artificers, and other hands necessary in such an expedition. Van Riebeck the surgeon was appointed admiral, with a commission, on his arrival, to act as governor and commander in chief of the intended settlement, and with power to treat, manage, and act for the introduction and establishment of the Dutch, in such a manner as he should think fit. Van Riebeck arriving safely with those four ships at the Cape, the natives were so captivated with the presents he brought them of brass, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. and so charmed with his address, that a treaty was no sooner set a-foot than concluded; wherein it was agreed, that in consideration of such a quantity of certain toys and commodities to be deliver'd to the natives, as might cost 50,000 guilders, the Dutch should have full liberty to settle there. This was immediately performed, and the Dutch thereupon took possession of the Cape, which, with a great deal of ceremony, was deliver'd up to them. The traffic of the Dutch with the natives was also, by the same treaty, established on a good and solid foundation, with many considerable privileges and regulations for their commercial interests.

In consequence of these measures, the governor raised a fort, wherein he built dwelling houses, warehouses, and an hospital, for the reception of the sick. To this fort he added proper outworks, to secure himself from any attacks from the Europeans. But, in process of time, settlers flowing abundantly to the Cape, and trade greatly increasing, the then governor, whose name was Bax, took notice that the company's storehouses, which were without the fort, would be quickly too small to receive all the company's merchandize at the Cape: he judged, likewise, that there was a necessity for augmenting the garrison, since all the trading nations in Europe saw, and began to envy the Dutch, the advantages they made of the Cape, and that, therefore, it might be justly apprehended, that one or other of those nations would attempt to wrest it from them. These things he represented to the court of directors, and proposed to them the erecting of a new fort, in a more advantageous situation; which was accordingly done, and has been from time to time, so augmented, that it is at this day a very strong and stately building, and provided with all manner of accommodations for a garrison. It covers the harbour roundly, and is of admirable defence towards the country; and the company's storehouses for merchandizes here are very large and commodious. The settlement being firmly established, they increased and multiplied in people to such a degree, that in few years, being still joined by new settlers from Europe, they began to extend themselves into new colonies along the coast. They are, at present, divided into four principal ones: the first is at the Cape, where are the grand principal, and the capital city; the second is the Hallenbogh; the third the Drakenston; and

the fourth the Waverish colony. The Dutch East India company has likewise bought, for the future increase of the people, all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, lying between Mosambique and the Cape; for which they paid in toys, commodities, and utensils to the value of 30,000 guilders: so that the province is now become of great extent, and the government of it a considerable port.

The government of the Dutch colony at the Cape, stands at present; upon the eight following establishments, namely, a grand council; a court of justice; a petty court of assaults, &c. a court of marriages; a chamber of orphans; an ecclesiastical council; a common council; and a board of militia; by means of all which, this colony is well regulated and governed. In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three remarkable hills: the Table-Hill is the highest of the three. On the tops are several fine springs, the water as clear as crystal, and of a very delicate taste. Though at a distance you discover on this hill no tokens of fertility, yet, when you ascend it, you are charmed with it's fruitfulness: the stately trees with which it is adorned are hardly to be discover'd 'till you are just upon them. On this hill are two groves, between which a silver mine was discover'd some years ago. Some ore dug out of it was sent to Holland; but, it not yielding, it seems, such a quantity of pure silver as to induce the company to think that the produce of the mine would answer the charge of working it, the mine was closed up and neglected*. The beauty,

* This mine may probably be wrought to good profit some years hence. See the articles MINES and MINERALS.

the variety, the fragrancy of the flowers, that grow in great plenty, and delicately adorn the tops and sides of this hill, are not to be expressed, says Mr Kolben; they are more delightful to the eye, and more odoriferous, than any he ever met with in Europe.

The other is called Lyon Hill, which is separated from the former by a valley, whereon stands a hut, for the shelter of two men, posted there by the government, to give notice to the fortrefs at the Cape of the appearance of any ship making in, of which they give signals to the fort.

The last of these is the Wind-Hill, which abounds with excellent pasture.

Part of the Hottentots have submitted themselves to the Hollanders, and are, therefore, stiled the company's Hottentots. The Dutch send annually about 50 or 60 persons to trade with these Hottentots, who purchase their cattle, and give them, in exchange, arrack, tobacco, hemp, and such seeds as they have occasion for, by which means a good understanding is preserved.

The Cafres here traffic with the rovers of the Red-Sea, who bring them manufactures of silk for elephant's teeth, wherein they greatly abound. These manufactures the Cafres exchange, as ships from Europe touch at the land de Natal, for European commodities, often for tar, anchors, and cordage, which they exchange again with the rovers of the Red-Sea. The silk, which they do not put off to the Europeans, they dispose of to the people of Monomotapa.

TERRA DOS FUMOS is but a very small country, which has, the river Dellagoa on the south, that parts it from the country of Natal; it has the country of the Naonetas on the west; the land of Zanguena on the north; and the Eastern Ocean on the west. It stands along the sea-coast, from the mouth of the river Dellagoa to that of Rio de Ladroon, or the river of the robbers.

The most remarkable places here are Cape Pedras, in latitude 29, beyond which there is a creek, called Potto de Pefqueria, or the Fishing Place. The Europeans have no settlements for trade here; and the Cafres who inhabit this country have neither towns nor villages, nor any settled dwelling. The inland countries of the Cafres are so little known, and so triflingly, therefore, is trade cultivated with them, that it is not to our purpose to dwell longer upon them than merely to mention them.

To the north of the country of the Hottentots is the land of the MOZEMBOACULUNGAS which has the kingdom of Mataman on the west; the Hottentot country on the south; Monomotapa on the east; and the province of Ohila on the north. Next to this northwards lies the province of Ohila. Further north is the kingdom of Abutua, which is said to be rich in gold mines.

Dapper says that this province, which he calls Toraca, or Toroa, and others Butua, begins to the south of the mountains of the moon, and extends northwards to the river Magnica, having the river Bravahul on the west. The town of Fatucoa abounds with gold, silver, and precious stones; and there are two gold mines here at Boro and Quitici, 20 leagues distant from Sofale. They are esteemed the richest in the whole country.

Going higher up to the north-east, we find the kingdom of CHICOVA, abounding, travellers say, with silver mines.

In regard to these, and several other barbarous nations, it may be observed that their gold and silver and precious stones, &c. have no tendency, like arts and commerce, to civilize them, and give them any taste for the rational enjoyments of life. See Remarks on BARBARY.

CAHYS, or **CHAYZ**, a dry measure for corn, used in some parts of Spain, particularly at Seville and at Cadiz. Four cahys's make a fanega, and 50 fanega's a last of Amsterdamb. Four anegra's make a cahys which amount to a bushel.

CAJOU. See **ACAJOU**.

CALAMANCO, a woollen stuff manufactured in Brabant, in Flanders, particularly at Antwerp, Lille, Tournay, Turcoin, Roubaix, and Lannoy. There are also, a great many made in England. In France they are of different breadths; some of $\frac{7}{8}$, others of $\frac{3}{4}$, of $\frac{1}{2}$, of $\frac{1}{3}$, or of $\frac{1}{4}$, of an ell, all Paris measure. As for the length of the pieces, there is nothing settled, the weavers making them longer or shorter, according as they please, or as they are commissioned by the merchants. This stuff has a fine gloss upon it, and is chequered in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right side. It is commonly wove wholly of wool; there are some, however, wherein the warp is mixed with silk, and others with goat's hair. There are calamancoes of all colours, and diversly wrought; some are quite plain; others have broad stripes, adorned with flowers; some with plain broad stripes; some with narrow stripes; and other watered. This, also, is no inconsiderable branch of the woollen manufacture of England, both for home wear and foreign exportation. See **WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE**.

CALAMINE, or **CALAMINARY STONE** (*Lapis Calaminaris*) sometimes also called **CADMIA**, and erroneously **CALAMITE**, is a mineral, or fossil earth, of some use in medicine, but commonly employed by founders to dye copper yellow, that is to say, to turn it into brass. See **BRASS**.

There are two sorts of calamine, the grey and the red: the former is found in England, Germany, and the principality of Liege, in lead or copper mines. The red calamine is interspersed with white veins, and is found near Bourges in Berry, and near Saumur in Anjou, where there are quarries quite full of that stone. Besides these two sorts of natural calamine, there are also factitious ones, the best of which is called **POMPHOLYX**; see that article.

Calamine, either grey or red, does not become yellow but when it is baked like bricks; and it is only after it has been thus baked that it is proper to turn copper yellow, and increase it's weight, that is to say, to turn it into brass.

R E M A R K S.

That excellent metallurgist, Dr. Isaac Lawfon, was the first who discovered that the lapis calaminaris is really the ore of zink; they both having the remarkable property of converting copper into brass: yet they have been treated as different substances by the writers on these subjects. Zink, also, is generally confounded with bismuth, though in reality a different body; but, the reguline matter of both these minerals having a very great external resemblance, the vulgar have not distinguished them; whence we hear of many ores of zink, which only mean ores of bismuth.

Lapis calaminaris, the general ore of zink, is a spongy substance, of a lax and cavernous texture, yet considerably heavy. It is of no determinate shape or size, but is found in masses of very various and irregular figures, with rugged, uneven, and protuberant surfaces. It is of a pale brownish-grey, but it is lax, and of a spongy texture, and is often found yellow, or reddish.

Though this substance is the genuine ore of zink, yet that mineral is not confined to this alone, but is frequently mixed among the matter of the ores of other metals, particularly that of lead; which is the case, as I have often seen, in Flintshire in North Wales.

Our artificers have long been acquainted with zink, under the name of spelter; but no one has been able, 'till of late, to make any conjecture at what was it's origin; and some accurate metallurgists have acknowledged, that they have every where searched after the ore of zink in vain, particularly in England. We have much brought, also, from the East-Indies, under the name of tutenage, yet nobody ever knew from what, or how it was produced there; but the learned doctor before-mentioned, observing that the flowers of lapis calaminaris were the very same with those of zink, and that it's effects on copper were also the same with those of that metal, never ceased his endeavours 'till he found the method of separating pure zink from that ore.

Lapis calaminaris, as observed above, is used in medicine; externally in cerates for burns, and in collyriums for the eyes: it's reguline matter serves much better for the purpose of turning copper into brass, than the crude ore, and is used with less trouble.

There is great reason to believe, that all the zink, or tutenage, brought from the East-Indies, is procured from calamine; and we have now on foot, at home, a work established by the great discoverer of this ore, which will probably, very soon make it unnecessary to bring any zink from elsewhere into England.

We have mines of calamine at Wrrington in Somersetshire, and in other places. It is generally dug in barren rocky ground, it's courses running generally from east to west. When dug, it is washed or buddled, as they call it, in a running water,

which carries off the impure and earthy parts, leaving the lead, calamine, and other sparry parts at bottom; then they put it into a sieve, and shaking it well in water, the lead mixed with it sinks to the bottom, the sparry parts get to the top, and the calamine lies in the middle. Thus prepared, they calcine it in a reverberatory furnace, or oven, four or five hours, stirring and turning it all the while with iron rakes. This done, they beat it to powder, and sift it, picking out of it what stones they find; and thus it is fit for use.

CALAMUS VERUS, called also **CALAMUS AMARUS**, is a kind of rush, or rather flag, of the bigness of a goose-quill, two or three feet high, divided with knots, from which the leaves arise, and bearing on the top umbels, loaded with yellow flowers. It's principal and almost only use is in Venice treacle.

This flag grows in the Levant, whence it is brought to Marseilles, sometimes whole and sometimes in bundles, about half a foot long. It must be chosen thick, fresh, cleared from it's root and branches, and in bundles. It ought to be grey, reddish without, and whitish within; it's marrow, or pith ought to be white; it must break into splinters, and be of a bitterness unufferable to the taste.

Lemery does not say that it comes from the Levant, but from the East-Indies; and that, as this calamus is scarce, they substitute the calamus amarus, commonly called calamus aromaticus, instead of it, to make Venice treacle, and other compositions.

This calamus verus is called in English the sweet cane, or sweet smelling flag, and grows in several parts of England. It is much used as a cephalic and stomachic, especially against complaints arising from a cold weak stomach. See **ACORUS**.

CALCULATION, the art of reckoning, or casting up any accounts by numbers. Computation is a word synonymous therewith.

It is proverbial among traders to say, that an error in calculation is not to be admitted; that is to say, that no advantage is to be taken from the errors that may have crept inadvertently into accounts, but that justice may be done by rectifying them.

They say, likewise, that a merchant, or trader, has been mistaken in his calculation, or accounts, when he has happened to take false measures, and has not so well succeeded in his undertakings as he expected.

CALCULATOR, one who calculates, or casts up any thing by numbers, or algebra, &c. it is seldom used in speaking of those who calculate mercantile accounts, but commonly enough of astronomers, who calculate ephemerides, or make other astronomical supputations. In mercantile affairs we generally say **ACCOMPTANT**; see that article.

CALENDAR, an almanack, containing the order of the days, weeks, months, and festivals, or holy-days, in the whole year.

The Gregorian calendar is the ancient one, as it was reformed, or corrected, by pope Gregory XIII, by a bull of the month of December 1581, but which did not take effect 'till October 1582. By this new calendar 10 days were at once subtracted from, or struck out of, the year; so that the next day after the 4th of October, which ought to have been the 5th, was that year reckoned the 15th, and thus it has always continued since.

The Roman Catholics have used that calendar ever since it was reformed, and several Protestant states, which at first refused to accept it, and still followed the old one, have at last admitted it, most of the princes of that religion having ordered, towards the latter end of the 17th century, that it should be used in their dominions, as being more convenient, and more certain.

The English, however, 'till lately, continued to reckon the days of their years according to the old calendar, which 'till the last year of the last century, made a difference of 10 days between the old and new calendar; and, since that year the difference is of 11 days, because the year 1700 was a leap-year, according to the old calendar, but not according to the new. All merchants, bankers, and traders, who deal with such Protestants as have not yet admitted the new calendar, ought to be acquainted with that difference, because of the days on which their bills of exchange become due.

CALENDAR, a machine used in manufactories, to press certain woollen and silk stuffs, and linnens to make them smooth, even, and glossy, or to give them waves, or water them, as may be seen in mohairs and tabbies.

The calendar is composed of two thick cylinders, or rollers, of very hard and polished wood, round which the stuffs which are to be calendarer are rolled very smooth.

These rollers are placed cross-ways, between two very thick boards of polished wood, which are longer than they are broad; some call them tables.

The undermost board, which serves as a base for the whole machine, is fixed, and placed level, on a solid foundation of brick-work. The uppermost board is moveable, though loaded with large stones, cemented together, weighing 20,000 pounds, or more.

A cable wound round the tree, or axis, of a large wheel, something

something like that of a crane to raise stones, and tied with strong rings to this uppermost board, serves to move it, sometimes one way, sometimes another, according as the men who walk in the wheel set it a going. It is this alternate motion, together with the prodigious weight of the uppermost board of the calendar, that renders the stuffs smooth and glossy, or gives them the waves, by making the cylinders on which they are put, roll with great force over the undermost board.

When they would put a roller from under the calendar, to put on another, they only incline the undermost board of the machine.

The dressing alone, with the many turns they make the stuffs and linens undergo in the calendar, gives the waves, or waters them, as the workmen call it. It is a mistake to think (as some have asserted it, and, among others, Mr. Chambers) that they use rollers with a shallow indenture, or engraving, cut into them.

There is at Paris a very extraordinary calendar, called, by way of eminence, the royal calendar. It was made by the order of the late Monsieur Colbert, minister and secretary of state, and superintendant of the arts and manufactures of that kingdom.

The undermost table of this calendar is a block of very well polished marble, and the uppermost is lined underneath with a copper-plate, all of a piece, and extremely well polished, wherein it differs from the other calendars, whose tables, or boards, are commonly of wood only.

There are some calendars without wheels, which are moved by a horse, tied to a wooden bar, which turns sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left, a great pole, placed upright; at the top of which, about a kind of drum, is wound a cable, the two ends of which, being fastened to the two ends of the uppermost board of the calendar, set it a going. The calendars moved by horses are not reckoned so good as those with wheels, the latter having a more uniform and certain motion.

At Paris none but the master-dyers of the best dye have the liberty of keeping calendars at their houses; at Amiens, and in other places, every one may have them who pleases.

CALENDAR signifies, also, a small black insect, which gets into corn, and devours it so as to leave nothing but the husks. Besides the detriment those vermine cause to the corn they get into, they also give the flour made of it a very bad taste.

They give the name of calendared corn to that which has been devoured by those insects, which they sift, or bolt, afterwards, to expose it to sale; but it is in no esteem, and sells very indifferently.

CALF, the young one of a cow, and an animal too well known to want a particular description.

A still-born calf is that which came dead out of the cow's womb; a sucking calf is that which still sucks, and has not yet eat any grass or hay; a grazing calf that which eats grass and hay.

River calves, in France, are very fat sucking calves, which are fed in the neighbourhood of Roan in Normandy, where the pastures are excellent.

The maw of a calf is a small bag, found in a calf's body, full of curdled, or sour milk, which is called runnet (or rennet by some) and is used to turn milk into curds, of which cheese is made.

Though it seems that calves ought to be considered only with regard to their flesh, which is sold in the shambles for food, yet it affords two sorts of commodities for trade, namely, the skin, or hide, and the hair.

The calves hides are prepared by the tanners, tawyers, curriers, and leather-dressers, who sell them to the shoemakers, saddlers, bookbinders, and such other artificers who use them in their several works. The curried calves hides which are produced and manufactured in England, are reckoned the best. Vellum, which is a sort of parchment, is made with the skin of a still-born calf, or of a very young sucking calf. The tawyer begins the preparing of it, which is finished by the parchment-maker.

Calves hair is mixed with that of oxen and cows, to stuff saddles, and some household furniture of little value.

The booksellers and bookbinders say, that a book is bound in plain calf, to signify that the calf's skin that covers it is whitish, without being marbled, nor spotted with red or black.

CALVES-LEATHER dressed with fumach, is calves leather curried black on the hair side, to which they have given a red colour with fumach on the flesh-side. The master-girdlemakers use that sort of leather.

CALVES-LEATHER from England. There is in France a great trade of that sort of leather, which is dressed and prepared in England, and which they have in vain attempted to imitate in other places.

There was, nevertheless, formed at Paris, in the year 1665, a company of men of business, of whom the Sieurs de Saille, Monginot, and du Vodal, were the chief, who undertook to establish a manufactory of those leathers, in the suburb of St. Marcellus.

Monsieur Colbert, to whom France is obliged for so many other commercial establishments, hoping he could be able to

support this, which would have proved very advantageous to the kingdom, by saving above 2,000,000 of livres per annum, which are spent in buying those foreign leathers, caused letters patent to be granted to the undertakers, containing an exclusive privilege for the manufacture of those calves-leathers, according to the manner of those in England. But the company, after having for four or five years carried on this manufacture, under the name of one Bonnet, a tanner of Paris, to whom those privileges were granted, was obliged to give over this undertaking, by which the undertakers lost above 100,000 livres.

However, the setting up of this company, though it met with such bad success, procured a great advantage to the merchants who carry on the trade of true English calves-leather: for, till that time, the English never suffered the French, nor any other foreigners, to buy up any of their calves-leather, but from 25 to 36 pounds weight per dozen, it being prohibited to export any out of England from 36 to 45 pounds per dozen, under the penalty of having one's writ cut off.

But, when it came to be known in England that this company, in case it should succeed, would absolutely ruin their trade of calve-skins, the greatest demand for which was from France, the government of England not only took off the prohibition, and gave foreigners leave to buy up calves-leather of all weights and qualities, but also lowered the duty of exportation from 12 s. to 3; and, the better to secure to the English nation so profitable a branch of trade, they revived, and caused to be executed, the ancient ordonnances of the police relating to the proper dressing and preparing of this commodity, which, as it was thought in England, would render the imitation of them in France more difficult still.

It is not, however, impossible for the French to arrive at a perfect way of dressing that sort of leather; but then the skins of calves fed and killed in France, and particularly in the neighbourhood of Paris, are not so proper for it as those of the English calves.

The chief reason is, that the skins, or hides of calves in France, are too small and too weak, a defect which it is not possible to remedy, because it is a natural one; for the calves in England are stronger, the moment they are calved, than they are in France when a fortnight old.

There is another reason alleged for this also, which is a pretty weighty one indeed, but as it only relates to the police, it might be easily remedied; which is, that, in France, calves are weaned too young, being seldom suffered to suck above three weeks, or even but a fortnight; and being also killed too soon, which hinders them from growing and gathering strength; so that, when their hides are dressed after the English manner, they can never have the weight and quality necessary to be employed in the several works in which they who manufacture in leather commonly use them: whereas the calves in England are suffered to suck six weeks, and even more, and are seldom killed but when they are very strong.

The last wars between the two kingdoms have engaged the French to find out some method whereby they might be able to make shift without the English calves-leather, and they prepare some at present, which, for goodness, come very near to those of England.

CALIN, a kind of metal finer than lead, but inferior to tin. It is very common in China, Cochinchina, Japan, Siam, &c. It is commonly used in the East-Indies for covering the roofs of houses, as we do lead in Europe; they likewise make of it several pieces of furniture. The tea-boxes which come from China are made of calin. They also make coffee-pots of it, some of which are even brought into Europe.

Is it not a mixture of tin and lead, and some other mineral, as zink, &c. rather than a metal of a new kind?

CALKING, or **CAULKING**, is to drive oakum, or spun yarn, or something of that kind, into the seams of the planks, or rather leaks of a ship, to keep the water out. This is done with a mixture of tallow, pitch, and tar, as low as the ship draws water; but it is not put on till the leaks, or seams, have been well stopped with oakum; that is to say, old ropes untwisted, and made again into a heap of hemp, which they drive with main force into the seams, or leaks; after which they do it over with the mixture abovementioned. They drive the oakum in with an iron instrument called a calking-iron: it is made like a chissel; some are broad, some round, and others grooved.

CALLICOE, a kind of linen manufacture, made of cotton, chiefly in the East-Indies. There is a great trade in the province of Bengal in this commodity, which is transported in prodigious quantities into Persia, Turkey, Arabia, Muscovy, and all over Europe. Some of them are painted with flowers of various colours; and the women in the Indies make veils and scarfs of them, and, of some, coverlets for beds, and handkerchiefs. They make another sort of this manufacture, which they never dye, and hath a stripe of gold and silver quite through the piece, and at each end, from the breadth of one inch to 12 or 15, they fix a tissue of gold, silver, and silk, intermixed with flowers; both sides are alike. They make, also, other sorts of cotton cloths at Brampour, because there is no other province in all the Indies which has greater quantities of cotton.

At Seconge they are said to make the best sort of callicoës; in all other parts the colours are neither so lively nor lasting, but wear out with often washing; whereas those made at Seconge grow the fairer, the more you wash them. This is said to arise from a peculiar virtue of the river that runs by the city, when the rain falls; for the workmen, having made such prints upon their cottons as the foreign merchants give them, by several patterns, dip them into the river often, and that so fixes the colours, that they will always hold. There is also made at Seconge a fort of calicut, so fine, that, when a man puts it on, his skin shall appear as plainly through it as if he was quite naked; but the merchants are not permitted to transport it, for the governor is obliged to send it all to the Great Mogul's seraglio, and the principal lords of the court, to make the sultaneßes and noblemens wives shifts and garments for the hot weather.

The city of Baroche, also, is very famous for trade, on account of the river, which has a peculiar quality to whiten their callicoës, and which are, therefore, brought from all parts of the Mogul's territories thither for that end.

This manufacture is brought into this nation by the East-India company, which is re-exported by private merchants to other parts of Europe and America.

REMARKS.

The general wear of stained or printed India callicoës in this nation having, in the year 1719, become a general grievance, and occasioned unspeakable distress and calamity upon our own manufacturers, especially the weavers, the following acts of parliament very justly took place, to prevent the wear of this manufacture.

By stat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 7. If any person shall use, or wear, in any apparel, any printed, painted, stained, or dyed callicoë, being convicted thereof by the oath of one or more witnesses, before a justice of peace, they shall forfeit the sum of 5 l. to the informer; and, upon complaint within six days after the offence, the justice to summon the party accused, and proceed to examination, and, on due proof, cause the penalty to be levied by distress and sale of goods, &c.

If any mercer, or draper, shall expose to sale any such callicoë, or any bed, chair, window-curtain, or other furniture, made up, or mixed with callicoë (unless it be for exportation) every such person shall forfeit the sum of 20 l. and persons using the same are liable to the like penalty: but callicoës made into furniture in families are exempted; and this act shall not extend to callicoës dyed all blue.

One moiety of the penalties inflicted, where they exceed 5 l. shall be paid to the informer, and the other to the poor, recoverable by action of debt, &c. within six months.

Nor to extend to linen-yarn, or cotton-wool, manufactured and printed in Great Britain, provided that the warp thereof be intirely linnen-yarn. See LINNEN CLOTH.

CALLICOË-Printing. The staining, painting, or printing of callicoë, was a business which employed great numbers of people before the preceding act of parliament took place; and since the printing and staining of our own cottons, linnens, &c. hath been so much in fashion, that our linnen printers, in general, are not less numerous than before the said act took effect. It appears highly probable that the Indians, for making the fine, bright, and durable colours wherewith their callicoës and chinchies are stained, use metalline solutions; for, some stained callicoës having been kept for 40 or 50 years, the bright colours have been observed to eat out the cloth, exactly in the same manner as the corrosive, acid spirits, which dissolve metals, are found to do. Whence, to imitate their richest and noblest colours, we are directed to use proper metalline solutions, made something after the manner of the following experiment.

EXPERIMENT.

The method of preparing a metalline colour from gold and tin. Dissolve gold in AQUA REGIA [see that article] and dilute the fine yellow solution with a large proportion of fair water; to the mixture add a sufficient quantity of a saturated solution of tin, made also in aqua regia at several times; and a most beautiful red, or purple coloured powder, will soon precipitate to the bottom of the containing glass. Decant the liquor, and dry the powder; a few grains whereof, being melted along with white chrySTALLINE glass, will tinge the glass throughout of an extremely fine purple, or ruby colour*.

* See Cassius de Auro, p. 105.

By means of this experiment the ancient art of staining glass red, long supposed to be lost, seems at present to be restored. All the colours are easily given to glass [see the article GLASS] but this seems to have been kept in very few hands till lately; and may be considerably diversified, so as to introduce a grateful variety of beautiful red and purple colours in glass, for the making of curious artificial stones, and for divers other purposes, as we shall shew hereafter.

It should seem, also, that the art of callicoë-printing, which wants a red colour equally perfect with the blue it has obtained, might hence be furnished with such a red; though

there is reason to suspect that it might prove too dear for ordinary use. Yet this experiment may be a key to others of a similar nature, which may come cheap enough for this, and various other useful purposes in trade. For as the perfection of this art consists in discovering fixed, bright, and permanent colours, not subject to change for the worse in the open air, such colours should rather be expected from mineral or metalline substances, than from those of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, which usually afford subjects of too lax and alterable a texture, for fine durable colours, unless they could be some way substantially fixed. See PRUSSIAN BLUE, and DYEING.

It would be a farther perfection, not only in this art, but also in the art of painting, to prepare the finest colours without employing either acid or alkaline salts, which usually subject colours to change, or else are apt to prey upon the cloth, or canvas, as we see in verdigrease, the blue and green crystals of copper, &c. Whence we are directed, (1.) To search for menstruums that are neither acid, alkaline, or saline. (2.) For such metalline or mineral calxes, precipitates, or powders, as will not lose their colours by being well washed, to get out their salts. (3.) To prepare certain metalline matters by calcination, or the bare assistance of fire; and, (4.) To look out for native colours, wherein no saline matter abounds.

It may be worth the trying, whether certain metals are not soluble by triture, with the purest oils used in painting, and such as contain neither acid nor alkaline salts; or whether mere water, the white of eggs, saliva, gum-water, milk, &c. may not, by the same means, be made to dissolve them; so as that the metalline particles may be left behind upon callicoës, cloths, &c. when the aqueous or mucilaginous matter is dried, or washed away from them. But no great effect can be rationally expected in such attempts, unless the triture be long continued, and mills, or other well-adapted engines, be used for the purpose: for we find, in all instances, that metals must be reduced to very fine particles, before they will tinge, or colour.

The pigments, or colours, obtained by crystallization, such as the blue and green vitriols, or crystals of copper, &c. cannot be deprived of their aqueous, or saline parts, by a dry air, or by washing, without suffering extreme alterations, or being left in the form of a gross, terrestrial matter, differently coloured from what they were at first. Thus the fine green crystals of iron, by being exposed to the air, become white, and, when well washed in water, lose their greenness, and turn to a reddish, or yellow-coloured ochre, or earth: and, if deprived of their saline and aqueous parts, by a strong distillation, they leave behind a brown, or red caput mortuum, which, being washed in water, affords not a green, but a brown-coloured pigment, or kind of Spanish brown. And, as this holds proportionably of other colours obtained by crystallization, there are little hopes of procuring durable pigments by that operation, which shall be of the same colour with the crystals themselves; though, after being well washed, different colours may be thus procured.

Metalline and mineral matters are reducible to a considerable degree of subtilty, or smallness of parts, by fire, or dry calcination, so as to leave them durably possessed of their native, or adventitious colour. Thus lapis lazuli, by being calcined, becomes the fine, durable, rich blue, called ultramarine: light ochre, by the same treatment, becomes a light red, or the most useful flesh-colour in painting; [see COLOURS] lead, by calcination, becomes durably red; and iron durably brown. But a proper method seems wanting for the dry calcination of the nobler metals of gold and silver; though, for the uses of gilding, &c. these nobler metals are easily made to give colours, by dipping linnen rags into their respective solutions, then drying the rags, and setting them on fire, so as that they may burn to ashes; whereby a dry and fine metalline powder is readily obtained.

Many native mineral pigments, or durable tinging substances, are already discovered, that do not abound with salts; such as ochre, both yellow and red, cinnabar, or vermilion, zaffora, manganese, &c. and, doubtless, many others might be found in countries that abound with mines, or where a proper search is made after new mineral substances. For these, if skilfully managed, will supply the place, at an easy charge, of many other expensive materials, that are, at present, made use of, for want of more knowledge in the mineral kingdom, and more judgment in the nature of mineral and metalline solutions. See the articles DYEING, MINEROLOGY, METALLURGY.

How useful in callicoë-printing, painting, dyeing, &c. many middle minerals of little worth may be rendered, should seem to be inferred from the following EXPERIMENT:

Take an ounce of the abovementioned manganese, and pulverize it to a tolerable subtilty; to this put four ounces of clarified salt-petre, that has been once melted thoroughly in a crucible, or four ounces of clarified salt of tartar: melt them together in a crucible, 'till the salt hath dissolved the manganese as thoroughly as it can do by fusion. When effectually done, pour the mass into an earthen vessel; which let stand while it is near cold, but not quite so, for that will

mar the operation. Having in readiness two or three Florence flasks, filled with a clear soft water, put a small part of the mafs into one of the flasks, about half full of water, and continue putting in so much of the mafs 'till you find the water of a grass-green colour: after which, add more water to the solution, 'till it appears of a deep red; and so continue adding water more and more, 'till the whole grows quite colourless. The water having thus dissolved all the salt, the matter of the manganese, which gave the tincture, will gradually subside at the bottom, free from all salts, in a brownish-coloured powder. This mineral substance, which is of a fixed tinging nature, may, by this preparatory means, be made use of in callicoe-printing, without any corrosive salt, or spirit, to render the colour permanent, which greatly injures the quality of commodities.

The proper application of this, and a great variety of other experiments, which I have made upon all sorts of bodies, I have reason to believe, will greatly contribute to the substantial improvement of variety of arts and trades. See METAL-
LURGY, MINEROLOGY.

CALLIFORNIA is situate between 116 and 138 degrees of west longitude, and between 23 and 46 degrees of north latitude. It lies almost in the form of a cone reversed. It was a matter of doubt for a long time, whether it was an island or a peninsula, but discovered to be the latter by Father Caino, or Kins, a German Jesuit, who landed in California from the island of Sumatra, and passed into New Mexico, without crossing any other water than Rio Azul, or the Blue River, about north latitude 35.

The more southern part was known to the Spaniards soon after their discovery of Mexico; for Cortez discovered it in 1535; but they did not 'till very lately penetrate far into it, contenting themselves with the pearl fishery on the coast. But our Sir Francis Drake landed there in 1578, and took possession of California for his mistress, queen Elizabeth, by the name of New Albion; the king of the country actually investing him with it's sovereignty, and presenting him with his own crown of beautiful feathers; and the people, thinking the English to be more than men, began to sacrifice to them, but were restrained*.

- * Does not this give the English a juster right to the possession of this colony than the Spaniards can pretend to by a slight discovery only, and late slight possession since; Sir Francis having taken fair possession, in the name of our immortal Elizabeth, and been solemnly invested with it's sovereignty? Though the English have never yet attempted to settle any colonies here, yet, if the revival of our right should ever become necessary, we seem to have a much better plea than the Spaniards. And as this nation has many years taken every advantage of us, by insult and depredation, and has, for above these 20 years, amused us with shameful and dilatory negotiations, it may not be useless, perhaps, to think of the revival of every kind of right to which we have any claim or pretensions; in order, at least, to make proper use thereof, to obtain that indisputable right and security of trade and navigation to and from our long-possessed colonies in America; though the wisdom of the nation should not judge it advisable to enlarge our possessions in the new-world, without further provocation from the Spaniards. Hints of this kind being national, we think necessary to suggest them as they naturally arise, because it will too evidently appear, throughout the course of this work, from facts incontestable, that we stand in need of reviving even every colourable right to our trade and possessions, since our real and undoubted ones are daily called in question. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, BISCAY, SPANISH AMERICA, LOGWOOD, FRENCH AMERICA. Under which heads, together with others we shall from thence refer to, will be shewn, according to the sentiments of the ablest statesmen, how we may be enabled so to deal with the Spaniards, in the way of trade, as to stand less in need of their friendship.

It is bounded on the north by a continent unknown; on the east by the province of New Mexico, and the gulph of California, which some call the Purple or Red Sea; and by the South Sea on the south and west. Though it lies for the most part in the temperate zone, there are great heats on the coast in the summer, but the inland part is very temperate; and though in the winter it is pretty cold, it is judged to be a healthy country.

In respect to the soil, the mountains are well wooded, and the plains well watered; they abound with fruit-trees, and are capable of bearing all sorts of European grain. Here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; all sorts of fowl and birds, common in Europe or the Indies; a prodigious plenty of sea and river fish, particularly cray-fish, which are taken out, and kept in reservoirs: there is besides, one of the greatest pearl-fisheries in the world; and it is thought to have mines. It has two considerable rivers, viz. Rio Colorado, and Rio du Carmel, with several other small rivers, and variety of fine ports, both on the east and west sides, with innumerable bays, creeks, and roads, which is the reason of it's having been so much frequented by our privateers in the South Seas.

Such of the natives who live on the east side, on the Purple shore, are great enemies to the Spaniards; but in other parts

of the peninsula, they seem very hospitable to all strangers. It is observable of this country, that, after the rainy season is over, a great quantity of dew falls in the mornings, in April, May, and June, which not only renders the land exceeding fruitful, but, settling upon rose leaves, candies and hardens like manna, and is sweet as sugar, though not so white and pleasant to the eye. In the heart of the country there are plains of salt quite firm and clear as crystal, which, considering the extraordinary quantity of fish of all sorts that are found there, might prove of unspeakable advantage to any civilized people, who were possessed of the country.

Here is also excellent pasturage in all seasons, for great and small cattle. The banks of the rivers are covered with willows, reeds, and wild vines; and there is abundance of xicame here, better tasted than those of any part of New Mexico. On the mountains there grows mercalo, a fruit peculiar to this country, which is gathered all the year round. Almost every season there is plenty of pitachoes, of curious kinds, and figs of different colours. The trees are beautiful, and particularly those called by the natives palo sancto. It yields a great quantity of fruit, and a most excellent perfume is extracted therefrom.

California breeds fourteen sorts of grain, which the natives feed on. They likewise use the roots of trees and plants, particularly the Yyuca, wherewith they make a sort of bread. They have also excellent skirret, and a sort of scarlet, or French beans, of which they eat great quantities, together with pumpions and water-melons, of a prodigious size. In short, the soil is so rich, that many plants bear fruit three times a year. Here are lions, wild cats, and various other wild beasts, like to those of New Spain. And, besides stags, hares, rabbits, &c. there is a species of animals not found in Europe, which may be called sheep, because they somewhat resemble them in shape.

The inland country, especially towards the north, is populous. It is but lately the Spaniards had any settlement at all on this peninsula; and what they have is only a village, near Cape Lucar, at the south end of it, which is called California. The Manilla ships touch here sometimes in their course to Acapulco, and it is like to become a considerable place in time, by their trading with the Indians for pearl.

There are many small islands on the coasts of this peninsula, both in the South Sea and in the Purple Sea, such as the islands of St Catherine, St Clement, Paxoras, St Anne, and the island of Cedars, so called from the great number of those trees that grows on it, of an uncommon size. The islands most known are three, which lie off St Lucar, towards the Mexican coast, and are called Las Tres Marias, or The Three Marys. They are but small, have good wood and water, abundance of game, such as fowls and hares, a wholesome fruit called penquin, as large as a pullet's egg, and salt-pits, like those of California; and, therefore, the English and French pirates have sometimes wintered here, when cruising in the South Seas. It is to be observed, that Capt. Dampier proposed seeking a north-west passage, by doubling Cape Blanco, the most northern point in California.

CAMBAYA, or **GUZURATTE**, a kingdom in the Mogul empire: lies south of the gulph of Indus, Tatta, and Jesselmere; north of the Indian Sea, and the kingdom of Decan; and west of Chandis and Chitor. It is cut in the middle by the gulph of Cambaya, which runs north-east; so that, the greatest part of it is formed into a peninsula by that and the gulph of Indus. Thevenot says it is the pleasantest province of Indostan, abounds with corn, and all the fruits common to Europe and the Indies, particularly the most delicious melons. It has store of cattle, fowl, and fish, and several sorts of pulse, &c. and is so well watered, that it looks verdant all the year. Nor does the soil produce only all the necessaries of life, but great plenty of cotton, indigo, opium, aloes, and many other drugs; as also crystals, cornelians, rubies, sapphires, agates, topazes, jasper, and variety of other precious stones.

The inhabitants have not only a great traffic with their commodities, by it's navigable rivers, but make fine cotton linnen, silks, gold and silver stuffs, jewels, and plate, cabinets, &c. the exportation whereof enrich the inhabitants.

CUTCHNAGGEN is the first town south of the river Indus, which separates it from Sindy, or Tatta province, and is a place of some trade, and produces corn, cotton, coarse cloth, and cheak, or shell fish.

SANGAMA, the next province, also produces cotton and corn, as all the kingdom of Guzpratte does. Notwithstanding, this place admits of no trade, not even at it's sea-port Baet, which, though it be a safe and commodious harbour, gives refuge and protection to a medley of criminals, who fly their country for fear of justice. They strive to board all ships they can come at, by sailing as pirates.

JUGAL, another sea-port, stands on a point of low land, called by it's own name. This city is the seat of the Mogul's governor, and makes a pretty good figure from the sea, but being a place of no trade, is little known, as is the case of all other places that are destitute of trade.

MANGAROL, a maritime town, where once there was an English factory for trade, just under the tropic of Cancer. It's trade

trade consists in exporting of coarse calicoes, white and dyed, wheat, pulse, and butter, and has a market for pepper, sugar, and the betel-nut. It is inhabited by Banians.

PATEN, PATE, or PETAN, between Mangerol and Din, is a great town on this coast, between Chevar and Corymar, which had formerly a very large trade, and has still a considerable manufacture of silk-stuffs and coarse calicoes; but is much decayed, since the trade was ruined by the roads being greatly infested with robbers.

PAREMAIN is a pretty large trading town, not far off, on the same coast, producing the same commodities.

DIU, DEW, or Dio, which is the next port, and the southernmost land on Guzaratte, is an island, three miles long, and two broad, with a city at the entrance of the gulph of Cambaya. It is separated from the main by a narrow channel, over which is a stone bridge, and is the strongest place belonging to the Portuguese in the East-Indies. It has a good safe harbour and had formerly a large trade; but, since the English, Dutch, and French settled in Cambaya and Surat, it is much decayed. The bulk of the inhabitants are Banians, there being but few Portuguese there, and but few of the former of any fortune, by reason of the oppression of the Portuguese to such as are monied men. Provisions are very cheap here, and coral is the chief article of their traffic, it being not only greatly used by the Indians, but also by the eastern Tartars, who come hither to fetch it.

GOGA, is a large trading town, 10 leagues within the gulph, on the west side of it, which was burnt by the Portuguese. It has a safe harbour for the largest ships, and strangers have a free commerce here in the merchandizes proper for importation to, or exportation from Guzarat.

GAMBAYA, or CAMBAUT, a city which gives name to the gulph, lies near the bottom of it, and in the neck of the peninsula, 47 miles south-west of Amadabat, and 12 leagues north-east from Goga. It is a place of much better structure than the cities of Indostan commonly are, and has been a city of such traffic, as to be called the Cairo of India; but, though its trade is decayed, by the sea's being retired half a league from it, so that great ships cannot come within three or four leagues of it, yet both the English and Dutch have still a factory here. It stands on a river formed by the overflowing of the Indus into the bay, and is still a place of great trade, though not half inhabited. It contributes very much to the wealth and grandeur of Surat, to which it is subordinate, and shares the advantages of the great city of Amadabat, because what it exports by sea comes hither for the most part, and is carried by the Surat shipping all over India, except what European ships carry for Europe.

The product and manufactures are inferior to those of few towns of India. It abounds in grain, cattle, cotton, and silk. The cornelian and agate stones are found in its rivers, and, as many travellers say, in no other of the world, though they have quarries also of the latter at Nimroda, a village, four leagues from the town. Of the former they make rings, and stones for signets; of the latter, cabinets, bowls, cups, spoons, hawks for swords, daggers, and knives, buttons and stones to set in snuff-boxes. They embroider the best of any people in the world, and their fine quilts were formerly brought to Europe. In the suburbs, which are almost as large as the town, there are manufactures of indigo. The Dutch ships do not come hither till the end of September, because there is a violent wind on this coast in the beginning of that month, so that it is hardly possible to escape a shipwreck. There are, likewise, dangerous banks in the gulph, which prove fatal to the brigantines that trade from hence to Surat, besides the coasts being infested by Malabar pirates.

BRADERA is a large town on the east side of the gulph, under the tropic of Cancer, 50 miles south-east of Cambaya town, and at least 55 from Amadabat, and about 15 leagues north of Baroach, in a country producing cotton, wheat, barley, rice, &c. and so abounding with lacque, that one village, called Sindickera, produces every year about 250,000 pounds weight of it.

SURAT, the greatest place for trade and commerce in all the Mogul's dominions. It lies in east longitude 72. 20. latitude 21. 30. Here are factories of English, Dutch, and French; but the English have the greatest share of its commerce. Their chief, or governor, lives in the state of a little prince: they enjoy greater privileges here than any other nation. Also, under the governor of this factory and his council, all the little detached factories which the English India company have settled within the country, and all their factories on this coast, and that of Malabar, as far as Ceylon, are directed, Surat being the head settlement on this side, as fort St. George is on the other. It is above 115 miles south of Cambaya, and about 10 from the sea. When the English first established their commerce here, which was about the beginning of the sixteenth century, they were highly esteemed in the country; but the Portuguese, pretending then to a sole right to the trade, disturbed the English in theirs, murdering the people, and taking all their ships and vessels they could; but the English were soon after severely revenged on them, by an intire victory, wherein they killed above 1500 Portuguese, with the loss of only 20 of their own men.

Surat was but an inconsiderable place till the settlement made here by the English, and by other nations soon after them: then, indeed, it became a large town in a few years.

The inhabitants are computed at about 200,000, among whom are many very rich, both Mahometans and Gentiles, who, however, do what they can to conceal their wealth, for fear of tempting the avarice of the Great Mogul, or his governors, to fleece them at pleasure. The revenues of the province are kept here. Those arising from the custom-house, which is the richest in India, as well as from the land-rents and poll-tax, one with another, from 1690 to 1705, amounted to 162,500 l. a year. There is no book of rates here, as in China, but all things are indifferently charged ad valorem. The customs in the emperor's books are but 2 per cent. from the Mahometans, 3 and $\frac{1}{2}$ from the Christians, except the Dutch, who pay but 2 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 5 per cent. from Gentiles. They punish those who defraud the customs by whipping, and not by forfeiture of the goods. The land pays $\frac{1}{2}$ of its product in corn, and the poll about a crown a head; the Christians only are exempt from this tax. The Moors, Banians, Armenians, Arabs, and Jews, drive a much more considerable trade here than the Europeans.

The most numerous body in this city are the Banians, who are either merchants, bankers, brokers, or accountants, collectors, and surveyors, but few or none handicrafts. Some of them who appear very mean and beggarly, carry rough diamonds about them for sale, to the value of several thousand pounds; for they are such money-lovers, that they will traverse the whole town to get a half-penny. Their manufacturers are chiefly weavers, and make most of the silks and stuffs that are wrought in Surat.

The soil on the land side is very fertile, but towards the sea it is sandy and barren. They have, however, great plenty of provisions, and those cheap. They are expert in the art of ship-building, and take the dimensions of all the new English vessels, in order to follow the model, if they approve it, in the next vessels they build; but they by no means approve of the high stems of the Dutch. Their ship-building is altogether with teak, a firm and durable kind of timber; but, instead of caulking the seams, they rabbet the planks, and put them one into another so dexterously, with hammer and oak-ham, that they are exceeding tight. They make use of coire, or cacao-nut cordage, and have anchors and guns from Europe. Sometimes they procure Englishmen for their pilots, but are always manned with Lascars, who are sailors fittest for the climate, hired cheap, and easily maintained.

The English India company's affairs here are managed by a president and council, with different degrees of inferior servants, as senior and junior merchants, factors, &c. who live in good credit. The four principal officers of the company are, the accountant, warehouse-keeper, purser-marine, and secretary; but, in the extent of the presidency, the company has above a hundred servants. Offenders here, if refractory, are sent home; but capital criminals are sent to Bombay, and tried by the laws of England. The president, who, as intimated, superintends the company's settlements on the west and north of India, lives in great splendor, is respected almost as much as the governor, and is chose by the company. His grand council consists of five members, who are generally chosen out of the company's factors; and from this council is commonly elected the deputy governor of Bombay, and the agent of Persia. There are many young clerks, or apprentices, here to the company, who serve them a term of years, and, according to their behaviour, rise gradually to be factors, merchants, and chiefs of factories. These have their diet and lodging in the factory, as well as salaries, and some of them have the liberty of trading in India from port to port; and those of good credit, who have not a capital, may borrow money to trade with of the Banians, at 25 per cent. bottomry [see BOTTOMRY] of which in some voyages, they make cent. per cent. There are also here free merchants, to whom the company grant licences to carry on a coasting trade; many of whom, also, borrow large sums on bottomry of the Banians.

Mr. Lockyer thinks this city the properest place in India for the residence of a virtuoso, here being a conflux of the rarities of the coasts of Africa and Malabar, Arabia, Persia, and Indostan, &c. besides the great collection of agates, cornelians, and other stones of Cambaya, always to be found in its bazar. Their streets are lined with shops of great variety of merchandize; their artists are very ingenious, especially in inlaying and working in ivory, which is always a staple commodity here, though vast quantities are imported hither every year from the coast of Africa, &c. inasmuch that there must be a surprizing consumption thereof in the Mogul's dominions.

The goods proper for this place from Europe are, wine in chests, beer in casks and bottles, fine hats, worsted stockings, and a few wigs for the Europeans; small shot, lead, iron, case-knives, flint-glass, rose-water, cochineal, red and white lead, the finest knives and sword-blades, long and short, toys, &c. for the country merchants; besides which, our East-India company sends coarse cloths, and several other woollen manufactures; and cloth is exported from hence to Bantam. A chest of wine consists of 10 bottles, each containing about five

quarts; or of two carboys, which, one with another, hold out five gallons each. A chest of rose water consists of 24 bottles. The best is of a fine amber colour, and will keep several years, if properly prepared. The merchandizes proper for Surat, from Persia, are galbanum, ammoniacum, affa-foetida, gum elemi, tragacanth, and other drugs, apricots dried without the stones, Persia brandy, coffee, rich silks, carpets, leather, lapis-tutia, pistachia-nuts, ruinus, dates, almonds, prunella's, raisins black and red, rose-water, wines of Schiras, Afhee, and Kiffirush, and worm-feed. These goods are, in a great measure, the produce of the Persian province of Carmania, where the English have a factory for the sake of its fine wool for hats. They are brought in caravans to the gulph of Ormus, where they are put on board English and Dutch vessels, at great freight, for Surat. And Mr. Lockyer, who gives the rates of the freight, observes, that this is a main branch of our India company's profit, because their ships are rarely dispatched from thence for Surat but they are as deeply laden as they can swim, not only with passengers, but vast quantities of pearl, and other treasures, on board, sometimes to the value of 2 or 300,000 l. so that he looks upon English ships from Persia to Surat, in the latter end of October and November, to be the richest vessels on that side of the globe. He says the Dutch, though they have also a great deal of freight hither from Persia, send so many ships together that they are seldom above half full. The goods proper for Surat from China are, quicksilver, vermilion, green tea, copper, tutanaque, sugar, and its candies; sweetmeats, camphire, China roots, China ware, rhubarb, lacquered ware, umbrella's, damask, and all sorts of toys, salt-petre, bees-wax, sugar, &c. will turn to account from Bengal; as well as rice and cardamum from Panola, a French factory, and Telichery, an English factory on the Malabar coast; and Goa arrack, of about 13 rupees a hoghead, will fetch double the price, both here and at Bombay. Cowries and little sea-shells are imported hither from Siam and the Phillipine islands; gold and elephants teeth from Sumatra, in exchange for corn, drugs, and Carmania wool from Persia, and for coffee from Mocha. The inland factories subject to this are, Amadabat, where they purchase silks and gold attalasses; Agra, where they have indigo; Chuperti, where they have coarse cloths; Sering, where they have chints; Baroche, where they have baftas, broad and narrow dimitties, and other fine calicoes; Bombay, and Rajapore, where they have falloes; Carwear, where they have dungares, and the heaviest pepper; and Calicut, where they have spice, ambergrease, granate, opium, and salt-petre. At the Dutch factory are sold spices, imported from Batavia, for part of which product they send back coarse cloth for their planters, and, for the rest, money. All sorts of merchants goods are exposed in the open air in the Castle-Green, both day and night, except during the monsoons; and here the sales are made ready for the shipping. It is a great disadvantage to the European factories here that they are so much in the power of the Moors, that, if any of their vessels are taken by pirates, they expect satisfaction; till which is done, they frequently block up their factories with a body of troops. The Surat gold being esteemed extremely fine, it sells in Europe for a better price than most others; and their silver surpasses that of Mexico. None of its coin has been known to be clipped or debased. All the foreign coin the Mogul officers can lay hold of is melted down, and cast into roupees, with the image of the reigning emperor, after whose death they sink in value 1 or 2 60ths. There is an harbour near the village Suhella, or Sovally, which the sailors call Swalley-Hole, 30 miles north of the town. The entrance to it is full of banks, which, at low water, are almost dry, and it is near half a mile broad. Here all ships bound to Surat formerly anchored; but, since 1666, none have had the privilege, except the English and the Dutch, who have each a port here, with yards, warehouses, gardens, &c. which gives them an opportunity of running goods almost as they list. While the ships lie here, which is commonly from September to March, the Indians, Persians, Armenians, and Turks, pitch their straw huts along the coast like a fair; where they sell calicoes, fatten, procellane, cabinets of mother of pearl, ebony, ivory, agate, turquoises, heliotropes, plantanes, arrack, &c. Thevenot says, that, since the abovementioned prohibition, the ships of other nations lie at the bar, 12 miles below Surat, because though small craft can go up to it, vessels of burden cannot enter the river 'till unladen, and at a spring tide. The custom-house waiters have 18 d. and the boat-men 15 d. for every passenger, who must also pay 2 1/2 per cent. for what gold and silver they have about them; and the next day they must pay the duties abovementioned for their cargoes. During the season of the shipping, especially from January to April, Surat is so full of strangers, that lodging is scarce; but from May to September there are such dreadful storms of wind, thunder, and rain, that, before they come the traders quit this coast. In the neighbouring fields they have groves of trees, from whence they draw a liquor, like toddy, much drank by the seamen and the Moors, when sweetened with black sugar. Of this sugar, infused in water, and mixed with split raisins, they also make vinegar. They prepare other liquors

by distilling rice, tarry, sugar, and dates. That called the sensitive plant is common here; and they have plantations of tobacco and sugar canes.

DAMAAN is a Portuguese factory, the second they have in the Indies, and dependent, as their other Indian factories are, upon Goa. The chief trade of the place is in corn and rice; and several villages and islands belong to it, which pay tribute to the Portuguese. Captain Hamilton says, that, though it was formerly a place of good trade, it is now a poor one. Thevenot says, they make an excellent sort of bread here of rice, as well as other corn; and that their drink, which is only the water of a flank, is very good: they have beef and pork; but Gamelli says they are ill tasted; that their fish, which are but indifferent at the best, are very scarce; and that they have no oil, even for sauce, but that of cocoa.

BACAIM, BASSAIM, or BASSEIN, 18 leagues along the shore, to the south of Damaan, is another Portuguese factory, which, according to Dellon, is four times bigger than Damaan, and has even more people of fashion than Goa. The coast produces oil and cocoa-nuts; and the adjacent country, for 15 miles, abounds with pleasant fruit-gardens, and plantations of corn and sugar-canes, which are cultivated and watered by the Moors, Gentiles, and Christians, who dwell in the neighbouring villages. Captain Hamilton says it is a place of small trade, because most of its riches lie dead, and buried in their churches, or in the hands of country gentlemen of pleasure. The town is about half a league from the island Sallette, which inlet serves it as a harbour, on the east side, for small vessels, but has not water enough for great ships.

Between this and Damaan there are several rivers and villages, under the superintendency of Surat; as Dumbals, a place of little consequence, either in trade or manufacture; Nunsaree, where is a good manufacture of cotton cloth, both coarse and fine; Gundavea, where they cut and export great quantities of teak-timber, of excellent use for building of houses or ships; Seragoung, a river about four miles from Damaan, is noted only for being the boundary of the Mogul's dominions on the sea side.

The most noted inland towns on the sea-coast are,

1. AMAD-ABAT, AMED-ABAT, or ARMAD-ABAT; it is also called by some AMANDABAT, or AMADOVER. It stands 18 leagues north of Cambaya, and 168 miles north of Surat. It is a large strong city, the capital of the province, and the seat of the Mogul's viceroy, who has the title of rajah, or prince, lives in very great splendor, and maintains 12,000 horse, and 50 elephants, for the king's service.

The English have a handsome lodge here, with convenient courts and warehouses, full of the linnen goods of Lahor and Deli. Thevenot says, the Dutch merchants had also a factory, and dealt chiefly in painted calicoes. Pelfart, the Dutch factor, says, that when he was here, all sorts of curious Indian cloths, fattins, silks, and stuffs, formerly brought from China, cushions wrought with gold wire, spike-nard, assa foetida, and other drugs, white sugar, and stuffs of Patana and Bengal, &c. were imported hither from Agra; and that they exported scarves for turbans, women's head-dresses wrought with gold, velvet, fattins, cocoa-nuts of Malabar, European cloth, lead, pewter, vermilion, quicksilver, and spices of all sorts, which they bought of the Dutch at Surat. Mandelsoe says, there was scarce any nation in the world, or any commodity in Asia, but might be seen in this city. They have a prodigious manufactory for silk and calicoes, as well as of gold and silver brocades; but they are both slight and dear, so that the inhabitants chiefly use China silks, which are finer and cheaper. He tells us, also, that, in the time that he was there, they dealt greatly in tuffata's, carpets, sugar in powder or candy, cummin, honey, lacque, opium, borax, ginger, mirabolans, tamarinds, and other preserved fruits, salt-petre, sal ammoniac, and indigo. They traffic likewise in diamonds, which are brought from Visapour, with ambergrease and musk from Pegu, Bengal, Mofambique, and Cape Verd. All goods exported or imported are custom-free, except 15 d which is paid for every wagon to the Mogul's receiver. Ogilvy says, this is one of the four cities which the Mogul honours with his court; and Mandelsoe, that it has 25 large towns under its jurisdiction, besides 2,998 villages. The adjacent country, which is like a wilderness, abounds with all kind of fallow deer, roe bucks, wild asses, boars, hares, panthers, tame buffaloes, tygers, and elephants. Their water is good; and, as they have no wine, they drink the liquor of the cac-o-tree, in which they abound, and a kind of aqua vitæ, better than ours, which they make of rice, sugar, and dates.

The best indigo is said to be made in this place, in pits of 80 or 100 paces round, and made of lime, which grows as hard as marble. Tavernier says, they fill them half full of water, and then up to the brim with the herb which resembles our hemp; others say it is like a yellow parsnip, and rises six or seven feet high, with branches like a reed. The flower is like that of the thistle, and the seed like foenugreek. They cut it three times a year, first when it is about three feet high, within half a foot of the ground. After they have stripped the leaves off of the stalk, they bruise and stir them in the water, till it is as thick as mud; and, after a few days fet-

ting, draw off the water, fill baskets with the slime, and make it up in pieces like children's tops, or in flat cakes, and afterwards dry them in the sun. The merchants break the pieces, to observe the colour and smell, in both which the best resembles our violets. Then it is sifted, to separate the dust, during which the sifters stop their nostrils, keep a little cloth before their faces, with little holes for their eyes, and drink milk every half hour, to preserve them from the piercing quality of the dust; which, notwithstanding all their precautions, makes them spit blue for a good while. Tavernier says, that he laid an egg by these sifters in the morning, which, when he broke at night, was blue quite through. The natives are very apt to cheat the merchants in this commodity, by adulterating it with a blue sand; so that, to prevent the imposition, they burn some pieces of each parcel, when the indigo turns to ashes, but the sand remains. The indigo-fields are left fallow every fourth year. See **INDIGO**.

The meidan, or market-place, of Amadabat, is one of the largest and most agreeable of all the Indies, having on both sides two rows of palm and tamarind-trees, intermixed with orange and lemon-trees, under which the merchants have their shops, expose their wares to sale, and carry on their trade.

The Banians, most of whom are bankers, have very great business here in the way of exchange. There is not own of any note in the Grand Mogul's dominions, and even in all the Indies, but they can make remittances to, which is very convenient for the merchants, because travelling is very dangerous throughout all Indostan, unless it be in caravans; and the sea also is infested by the pirates of Malabar, who cruise in the Indian Sea, as the corsairs of Barbary do in the Mediterranean, and part of the ocean.

The English and Dutch, when they have a mind to go to Amadabat, are used to set out with the caravans that go thither from Surat, and afterwards with those of Amadabat to Agra, when they have any business in that capital of the whole empire.

Amadabat is the place where the English and Dutch get all their linnens printed, and their salt-petre refined; and from the same city come all the blue linnens which are sent into Persia, Arabia, the kingdom of the Abyssines, to the Red Sea, the coast of Melinda, to Mofambique, Madagascar, Java, Sumatra, Macassar, and to the Moluccoes.

The current coins of Surat are rupees and pic's; yet, in accounts, they reckon rupees, ana's, and pic's; viz. 16 pic's to one ana, and four ana's to one rupee; Venetians and gubbers have no settled rate; we sold the former, says Lockyer, for four rupees, one ana, one pic; and the latter for 4013 rupees. These are both of the same weight, which is here one per cent. larger than in Gombroon.

They use different weights in buying and selling, which are appropriated to particular sorts of goods; as bezoar by the tola, which is nearest eight penny-weights Troy, and is divided into 32 vols; diamond-bolt by the ruttee of $17\frac{1}{2}$ grains; Agra musk by the seer; and bulky commodities by the maund, and candy boroch. I cannot tell, continues the same gentleman, how the small weights rise into the seer, but they commonly reckon 40 seer to a maund, and 20 maund to a candy. Pepper, *assa fetida*, dry ginger, benjamin, turmeric, tyncell, and salt-petre, have 42 seer to the maund: coho-seeds and myrrh, $42\frac{1}{2}$, and opium, $40\frac{3}{4}$ seer to the maund: so that, in all bargains where the weight may be disputed, it is necessary to agree how many seer shall go to the maund. I would not be understood to mention the above as always delivered at those rates; but rather to shew how they have been, and may again be expected: remembering that, for the most part, goods wherein there is no waste, as copper, quicksilver, vermilion, ivory, Lahor indigo, tutanaque, &c. are sold 40 seer to a maund, which holds out $37\frac{1}{4}$ pounds English, or three maund to 100.

Musk Agra in cod was worth 25 rupees per seer, which, at 40 seer to $37\frac{1}{4}$ pounds, is 14 ounces, 14 drams, $\frac{3}{8}$. Long bezoar, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 rupees per tola, is, at the highest, $7\frac{1}{2}$ rupees per ounce Troy. Quicksilver at 60 rupees per maund is reckoned very cheap: Goa arrack 25 to 30 rupees per 100: Mexico 221 rupees per 100 dollars: pillar, $212\frac{1}{2}$ rupees per 100 dollars: Persian abaffees, 56 rupees per 100 pieces*. See the articles **EAST-INDIA TRADE**, **EAST-INDIA COMPANY**.

* This account was given by Mr. Lockyer, 1711, dedicated to the right honourable John earl Paulet.

CAMBIO, an Italian word, which signifies exchange. It is pretty commonly used in Provence, and some other nations, and particularly the Dutch have also adopted it. See the article **EXCHANGE**.

CAMBIST, a name given in France to those who trade in notes and bills of exchange, and who constantly attend the public meeting-places of the merchants, in order to know the course of exchange upon the several foreign places, in order to draw or remit at a proper season, and negotiate either money or bills. The word cambist, though a term of antiquity, is even now a technical word, of some use among the merchants,

traders, and bankers. Some derive it from the Latin word cambium (or rather cambio) which signifies I exchange, or barter. Some authors pretend that cambium in Latin signifies the public place where the trade of exchanging is carried on; but I cannot find that it imports such signification. Others derive cambist from the Italian word cambio, which some take for a verb, signifying I exchange, but of which Veneroni makes only a substantive, that signifies the exchange. See the article **CAMBIO**.

CAMBRESIS, a province in France, bounded on the north and east by Hainault; on the west by Artois; and on the south by Picardy. It is a small province, about 16 miles in it's greatest breadth from north to south, and 25 leagues from east to west.

Though the soil in this province be somewhat dry, yet it is very good and fruitful, and produces most sorts of grain, and flax, the thread of which is so fine, that it has occasioned the setting up here a manufacture of curious lawns, called cambricks, [see **CAMBRICKS**] from the capital city of this province. There are also excellent pastures here, especially for horses and sheep, the wool of which is extremely fine, and very much esteemed. They had vines formerly, but the wine they produced was so indifferent, that they have been obliged to destroy the vineyards.

The inhabitants, in general, have great vivacity, and a genius well turned for the sciences; they are, also, laborious, careful, and industrious.

CAMBRICK, is a species of linnen made of flax, very fine and white. This sort of linnen derived it's name originally from the province of Cambresis, in the French Netherlands, and from the city of Cambray, which is the capital thereof, where these linnens were first manufactured. Cambricks made in France, at present, are not confined to Cambray only; they are also made at Valenciennes, Arras, Bapaume, Veroin, St. Quintin, Noyon, and divers other places in the provinces of Hainault, Artois, and Picardy.

The manufacture of French cambricks hath long since proved of extraordinary, indeed of unspeakable benefit and advantage to that kingdom. For many years, it appeared, that England did not, in this article, contribute less than two hundred thousand pounds per annum to the interest of France; which, calculated from the peace of Utrecht to the taking place of the late act of parliament, did not, in that period of time, amount to less than between six and seven millions of money; which round sum, added to our further national expence for other foreign cambricks and lawns, proved motive sufficient to induce the parliament of Great Britain, to enact the following salutary laws, to prevent this great exhaustion of our wealth.

LAWs OF ENGLAND with respect to Cambricks.

By 18 Geo. II. it is enacted, That, after the 24th of June, 1748, it shall not be lawful for any person to wear in Great-Britain, in any garment whatsoever, any cambrick or French lawn, under the penalty of 5 l. to the informer for every offence, being convicted by oath of one or more credible witnesses, before any one or more justice or justices of the peace, who are required, upon any complaint or information upon oath of such offence, within six days after commitment, to summon the party accused, and, upon his or her appearance or contempt, to examine the fact: and upon due proof thereof, either by confession, or by oath of one or more credible witness or witnesses (which oath the justices are required to administer) to determine the same, and, on conviction, to cause the penalty, by warrant under his or their hand and seal, to be levied by distress and sale of the offender's goods, &c. rendering the overplus (charges deducted); the party may appeal to the justices at next quarter-sessions, giving six days notice thereof to the prosecutor, which justices at the said sessions are finally to determine the same.

Any person after the said 24th of June, 1748, who shall vend, utter, sell, and expose, any cambricks or French lawns, made or not made up (except for transportation only) and shall be thereof convicted, shall forfeit 5 l. to be recovered as aforesaid.

If any person, after the said 24th of June, 1748, be prosecuted for wearing any cambricks, &c. and such person shall discover, on oath before a justice of the peace, the person who sold such cambricks, &c. to such persons so wearing the same, such person, so discovering, is thereby freed from all forfeitures for wearing such cambricks, &c. shall be liable to the said penalties, and shall be recovered in manner aforesaid.

That, after the 10th of May, 1745, no cambricks, or French lawns, shall be imported into any part of Great-Britain, until proof upon oath (or affirmation, if a Quaker) by the importer, at the time of entering the same, before a proper officer of the customs (which oath the officer is empowered to administer) either that the same are the sole property of the importer, or other his majesty's subjects, and that no foreigner hath any property or concern therein; and, in that case, proof shall be given by the importer to the satisfaction of the said officers, that the same were really shipped for importation, before the 10th of May, 1745.

After August 1, 1745, no foreign cambric to be imported without proof aforesaid, that they were shipped for direct importation before the said day.

It shall be lawful to import into any part of Great-Britain, after the first of August, 1746, any cambricks or French lawns, or other linnen whatsoever, of the kind usually entered under the denomination of cambricks, upon oath or affirmation by the importers, that they are intended for exportation only, and that the same are the property of his majesty's subjects. And also upon the importer's giving security or bond to the satisfaction of the commissioners or chief officers at the place of importation, to the use of his majesty, his heirs, &c. in double the value of the goods imported, and which bonds, oaths, &c. the proper officers are required to receive and administer, for the payment of 5 l. for every piece of cambric and French lawn, which shall not be exported out of this kingdom within three years after the entry. Pieces lost by fire, &c. not liable to the penalty of 5 l. for not being exported.

By 21 Geo. II. for avoiding some doubts which might arise by 18 Geo. II. it is enacted, That, if any person or persons, who after the 24th of June, 1748, and before the 25th of March 1749, shall be prosecuted for wearing any cambricks or French lawns, shall make an affidavit, or bring sufficient proof, or by the oath of the husband or wife, of the party accused, or by the oath of any credible person, before one or more justice, &c. of the peace, that the same was bought on or before the said 24th of June 1748, such wearer shall be discharged from any penalty inflicted by the said act.

That after the said 24th of June 1748, if any wearer of cambric or French lawns, who shall be prosecuted by the said recited act for wearing the same, and who shall have purchased the same after the 24th of June 1748, shall discover, to the satisfaction of the justice or justices, the seller of such cambricks, &c. and likewise, that the same was sold after the 24th of June 1748, so as such seller shall be convicted, and become liable to the penalties inflicted by such act; then such wearer, so prosecuted, shall be discharged from any penalty by the said act.

That, whenever any person informed against for wearing such cambric, &c. shall be excused from the penalty by discovering the seller, the penalty, inflicted on such seller, shall go to the person who informed against the wearer.

Penalties, incurred by a feme covert, to be levied on the goods of the husband.

If any milliner, sempstress, or other person, shall for hire, after the 24th of June 1748, make up any cambric or French lawn, such person shall be liable to the like penalties as the sellers are liable to, by the said 18 Geo. II. and the penalties to be applied in the like manner as the same are directed to be prosecuted, levied, and applied by this, or the said recited act.

Quakers to make affirmation, and every corrupt affirming liable to the same penalties, as if the matter had been declared on oath.

R E M A R K S.

These acts of the legislature are sufficiently declarative of the national injury we long sustained, by the importation of French cambricks and lawns; and does it not still well deserve the public enquiry, whether the remedy provided hath been adequate to the disease? Under the article of GREAT-BRITAIN, I have shewed how the balance of trade is still against this nation, with those countries from whence we take foreign linnens; and therefore, that the apparent interest of the kingdom calls aloud for further attention to this article. If it be considered, that the importation of foreign manufactures gives employment to the poor of other countries, and enriches those in proportion as it impoverishes our own, and makes our poor still poorer; does it not become the wisdom of the nation to save these out-goings of our treasures, especially with nations that take considerably less of our commodities than we do of theirs?

It must be matter of indifferency to the dealers in foreign linnens of every class, in what kind of linnens they traffic, provided they gain as much by the one, as they do by the other. If the traders in foreign linnens could be put into a way to have equal advantages by trading in Scotch and Irish linnens, as they do, at present, by foreign, what motive could induce them to carry on a commerce injurious to the nation, and not more beneficial to themselves? Does substituting the wear of muslins instead of foreign cambricks, and lawns, effectually answer the national end of the act of parliament? If we pay as much to the East-Indians for this manufacture, as we did to France and Germany for their cambricks and lawns, how is the nation bettered? How is the money saved that we sent out of the kingdom for foreign manufactures, which, I conceive, to be the great end of the act of parliament? If this change of manufacture only does not answer the national end proposed; if also French cambricks and lawns are palmed upon the nation, under any other evasive denomination; ought not this matter to be still further enquired into, 'till the grievance may be effectually redressed, according to the true

intent and meaning of the act? Since we have made such extraordinary advancement in the quality of Scotch and Irish cambricks, does not the effectual remedy to this public evil lie in our own hands; and that only by the simple expedient of making it generally fashionable to wear those linnens, which we are able to make among ourselves? When laws fail of their desired effects in cases of this nature, there is an easy way to prevent our legislators from being disappointed in their good intention, namely, To make it fashionable to pay due regard to the spirit of their own laws: and this is absolutely in their power, however otherwise it may sometimes be; to prevent due obedience being paid to their wisest laws. If our legislators themselves would, by their great example, encourage the wear of such cambricks as we can make ourselves, would not this prove more effectual to suppress the importation of foreign linnens, than all the written laws, and rigorous penalties, that can be devised? Many wise men have thought, that it concerns even the wisdom of the legislature to interpose in the making of fashions in general, and not leave an affair, of so great influence, to caprice and humour. The excellency of our Scotch, Irish, and English linnens of all kinds, depending upon the quality of the FLAX, the delicacy in SPINNING, BLEACHING, and DESIGNING, see these several articles, together with that of LINNENS.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE, a county in England, bounded on the west by Huntingdonshire and Bedfordshire; on the south by Hertfordshire and Essex; on the north by Lincolnshire; and on the east by Norfolk and Suffolk.

It's air and soil are very different, according to it's different parts. About Cambridge and all the south and east parts, the air is judged to be very salubrious; in the Isle of Ely it is reckoned damp and foggy. The soil in general is extremely fruitful.

The chief commodities of this country are, excellent corn, especially barley, of which they make considerable quantities of malt. They abound in fine cattle, butter, saffron, coleseed, hemp, fish, and wild fowl.

The principal manufactures of this county are paper and baskets.

It's greatest rivers are, 1. The Ouse, which rises in Northamptonshire, and, after having watered the counties of Bucks and Bedford, runs through this county from west to east, dividing it into two parts, and is navigable from Cambridge to Lynn in Norfolk, where it falls into the Ocean. 2. The river Cam, which rises in Hertfordshire, and falls into the Ouse at Streatham-Meer, near Thetford. 3. The Welland, which comes out of Northamptonshire, and runs into the German Ocean through the Wash. The others that deserve mention are, the Glene, the Witham, and the Grante. That called Moreton's-Leam, now Peterborough River imbanked, is navigable from Wisbich to that city.

The principal place of general trade here is STURBRIDGE, where there is a fair, the most famous in the whole kingdom, both for people and wares. Some years ago it was reckoned the largest in Europe; and, though it is somewhat lessened of late, it is still very considerable. This fair is kept in a large corn-field, near Casterton and Cambridge, which extends about half a mile square to the river Cam. It is an established custom, that, if the field be not cleared of corn by such a day in August, the fair-keepers have the liberty to trample it under foot, to build their booths; and, on the other hand, if they have not cleared the field by such a day in September, the plowmen may re-enter with plough and cart.

There is one principal row in the fair called Cheapside, after the name of that in our great city of London, where are almost all the trades of London, with coffee-houses, taverns, eating-houses, &c. which are all kept in tents and booths. The number of these, ranged as if they were so many streets, surpass many towns as much in extent, as they do some whole provinces in traffic, especially in the articles of wool and hops, there having been sold here of the former 50 or 60,000 l. at one fair; and as to the latter, there is so large a quantity, that they ingross a great part of the whole field to themselves; and the price they are sold at here is a pretty near standard to govern the prices elsewhere in England.

Besides these, there is an area of 80 or 100 yards square, called the Duddery, peculiar to wholesale dealers in woollen goods, where they have room to bring in waggons, to load and unload, and to take down and open their packs before their booths, which are so large that the insides may well enough be compared to so many Blackwell-Halls, being warehouses well stored with goods. It has been said, and I believe w'th great truth, that there has been a hundred thousand pounds worth of woollen manufactures in less than a week's time. At this jubilee of commerce, if I may be allowed the expression, here meet with cheerfulness the traders of every class, whose business gives bread and employment to thousands of our fellow-creatures. Here we find the clothiers from Lancashire and Yorkshire, with cloths, kerseys, cottons, pennisons, and Manchester goods of all sorts; also every kind of upholster's wares, and Norwich stuffs in abundance, besides the duroys, druggets, and the like manufactures of Devonshire, from Exeter, Taunton, Bristol, and other parts in the west.

The wool is chiefly bought up by the manufacturers of Norfolk,

folk, Suffolk, and Essex, and the hops by the dealers of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northampton, Lincoln, Leicester, Rutland, and even Stafford, Warwick, and Worcester. It is no little advantage to this fair that the river Grant, or Cam, which runs close by the north-west side of the fair, in its course to Cambridge and Ely, is navigable; by which means all heavy goods are brought by water-carriage from London, &c. first to the port of Lynn in Norfolk, from thence in barges to the Ouse, from the Ouse into the Cam, and so to the very edge of the fair.

In like manner the heavy goods are sent from hence by water to Lynn, and there shipped for the Humber and Tine, for the north of England, and even Scotland. Besides the goods bought and sold at this fair, very large commissions in every branch of commerce are then negotiated for other parts of the kingdom.

So great is the concourse of people at this rendezvous of commerce, that it is common to see even 50 London hackney coaches there, which ply night and morning to carry people to and from Cambridge; besides the wherries, which are actually brought from London in waggons, to ply upon the river Cam, and to carry people up and down from the town and fair.

At this time a court of justice is held here every day by the magistrates of Cambridge, who proceed in a summary way, as is the practice of pye-powder courts; so that the fair is like to a well-governed city, without the disorder and confusion with which so great a concourse of people is generally attended.

When the wholesale business of the great hurry of the fair is over, the country gentry flock to it from all parts adjacent, and lay out a great deal of money in toys, dolls, puppet-shews, rope-dancing, and the like diversions, which spread a universal gaiety among all countenances, the natural consequences of commerce and innocent amusement.

R E M A R K S :

Our tradesmen of London being under the disagreeable necessity of sending riders, at a great expence, to promote their business, into the country, shews the use and necessity of fairs in the way of trade. But, as this is a subject of more concern than the generality have an idea of, I shall defer what I have to say thereon 'till I come to the article FAIRS, where I shall shew what is doing abroad, and what ought to be done at home, in that shape.

CAMBODIA, in the East-Indies, is a kingdom that lies on the east side of the kingdom and gulph of Siam, having the Indian Ocean on the South; Cochinchina on the east; and Laos kingdom, and the Kamois mountains, on the north. Moll makes it 400 miles, others only 310 from north to south, where longest, and about 210, where broadest, but it grows very narrow towards the north. The west part is mountainous and desert, but the midland lies low, and has the river Menemcon, or Mecon, running through the whole from north to south, which annually begins to swell on the 1st of June, rises 10 or 12 feet, and, in July and August, overflows the neighbouring lands.

The country abounds with rice, corn, oranges, citrons, mangoes, cocoa, and other Indian fruits, together with pease, butter, and oil. Here is also plenty of japan-wood, sandal-wood, aquila-wood, sticklacc, lacque for japaning, and many sorts of physical drugs. The country produces fine gold also, cambogia of a gold colour, in rolls; raw silk, at about 120 dollars per pecul; and elephants teeth, of which the largest are from 50 to 55 dollars. Captain Hamilton says, flesh and fish are the only things that may be bought without a permit from the king, and they are so plentiful and cheap, that the captain says, he bought a bullock, which was between 4 and 500 weight, for a Spanish dollar, and that 140 pounds weight of rice may be purchased for eight-pence: but poultry are scarce.

The country abounds in amethysts, garnets, sapphires, cornelians, chrysolites, cats-eyes, properly called acates, and there are, also, those called milk and blood-stones, allum and fugar.

They will not suffer the Dutch to settle factories in this country, but are very desirous of trading with the English. Mr. Hamilton says, that, when he came for this purpose to Ponteamas, he sent his supercargoe, with presents to the king, who received him in great state, sitting on a throne like a pulpit, with his face veiled below his eyes, and gave him free leave to trade. And the king, having taken some time to obtain the consent of his guardian, the king of Cochinchina, invited the English to settle in his country, and to erect factories, or forts, in any part of his dominions, to protect their trade.

The English merchants had thoughts of settling a factory at Cambodia, the capital city, 'till 1705, when the people rose upon them, and destroyed that which they had at the island of Paulo Andore, and burned their house, very few of the merchants escaping with their lives; so that our people have not been very forward to settle here since, especially as they have been permitted to establish factories in China, which the

Dutch are not. To make themselves amends for this; the Dutch settled their trade at this place, which, by the communication of rivers, and coasting vessels, stands very convenient to furnish them with the principal commodities of China, which they bring away to Europe, without the trouble of going farther north to fetch them; for the river of Camboya has a northern branch, that, according to the Atlas Maritimus, is navigable a great way towards Cochinchina and the bay of Tonquin, with which, by that means, they have a correspondence; but it is not so much to their advantage as a direct trade to China would be, the goods being, as it were, all bought at second-hand, besides being attended with the extra-charge of land-carriage.

CUPANGSOAP, says capt. Hamilton, is the first sea-port we come to in this country, which affords elephants teeth, sticklacc, and the gum gambouge; but there is no free trade here without a licence from the court of Cambodia.

PONTEAMAS, is the next place, which had a very good trade for many years, having the conveniency of a pretty deep, but narrow river, which, in the rainy seasons of the south-west monsoons, has communication with Banfac, or Cambodia River: this conveniency brought the foreign commerce from Cambodia to this place, where it flourished pretty well 'till 1717, when it was plundered and burnt by the Siam fleet. Captain Hamilton says, that few cared to trade to Cambodia, because the navigation was long and troublesome, which the reader will observe to be quite contrary to the foregoing assertion by the Atlas Maritimus, though the author says, in another place, that ships must warp up against the current at least 180 miles: but this contradiction seems to be owing to his not clearly distinguishing between the eastern branch and the western, of which the former is best.

There are several islands that lie off the coast of Cambodia, but none inhabited, because it is infested by pirates, though there is one about three leagues west, called Guadrul, that is three leagues long, and one broad, which has good qualifications for a settlement, such as fine sandy bays, that are good harbours, plenty of wood and water, and a soil that is black and fat.

There are several small uninhabited islands, also, between Ponteamas and the west entrance of the Cambodia river. The largest of those is Pullo-Penang, which consists of eight islands in a cluster, in 30 fathom water, that form a good harbour: Pullo-Ubi, which is the easternmost, affords good mafts for shipping, and is the center of navigation for these seas, especially from Siam, Bantam, and Batavia, to the river Cambodia.

PULLO-CONDORÉ, is the largest and highest of four or five islands, about 40 leagues east of Pullo-Ubi, 20 south and by east from the westernmost mouth of the river Cambodia. Though Capt. Hamilton says it is a bad place for a colony, producing nothing but wood, water, and fish, and having but two harbours, neither of them good; yet the English settled here in 1702, when the factory of Chufan, upon the coast of China, was broke up; but, having bargained with some Maccaffers, natives of the island of Cabebes, to serve for soldiers, and help to erect a fort, and not discharging them at three years end, according to their contract, they rose in the night, and murdered every Englishman they found in his bed.

They have a little rice, some potatoes, and very good banana's, but little else grows on the island, except some fine trees on the mountains, which afford timber for mafts, &c. particularly one of a very large kind, whose leaves and bark much resemble a chefnut, and the wood is extremely hard. There runs from it a sort of rosin, which they procure by making a cavity in the trunk, three or four feet above ground, wherein, at a certain season of the year, they kindle a fire, which makes the rosin liquify into the bottom, as into a receiver. With this rosin they make flambeaux, which they burn in the stead of candles. Dampier calls it pitch, and others oil, because the matter is at first liquid, and is of the colour of the oil of nuts, though afterwards it turns whitish, has the consistency of butter, and a very agreeable smell*.

* Is it not certain, that many vegetable productions will afford a more healthful, pleasant, and agreeable matter for making of candles than tallow? As nothing is more disagreeable to many, and therefore, perhaps, no way wholesome to any, than the snuff of a candle when just extinguished; so, while burning, there constantly evaporates a fume that may not be salubrious. The myrtle-tree affords fine candles, and of an exhilarating scent.

Martiniere says, the English bought this island in the last century, because it has a good harbour, and lay convenient in the way to China; but, on their being massacred, as above, when their fort was demolished, the ruins of which are still to be seen, it reverted to the king of Cambodia.

The inhabitants employ themselves for the most part in fishing, making the oil of tortoiseshell, flambeaux, planks for the sides of their vessels, and in making brine for salting small fish like anchovies, which abound in this sea.

CAMLET, or, as some spell it, **CAMBLET**, a plain stuff, composed of a warp and woof, and which is manufactured on a loom with two treddles, as linnens and flammies are.

The camlets are either longer or shorter, broader or narrower, according to their several kinds and qualities, and the places where they are manufactured. There are camlets of all sorts: some in goat's hair, both in the warp and woof, others, in which the warp is of hair, and the woof half hair and half silk; others again, wherein both the warp and woof are of wool: and, lastly, some of which the warp is of wool, and the woof of thread.

Some are dyed in thread; that is to say, that the materials both of the warp and of the woof were dyed before they were wove, or wrought on the loom: others are dyed in the piece; others are marbled, or mixed; some are striped, some waved, or watered, and some figured.

Camlets are proper for several uses, according to their different kinds and qualities. Some serve to make garments, both for men and women; some for bed curtains, and other household furniture, altar curtains, and other church ornaments, in France.

The places, under the King of France's dominion, where they make the greatest quantities of camlets, are, Lisle in Flanders, Arras in Artois, Amiens in Picardy, La Neuville near Lyons, and some places in Auvergne. In time of peace the French do also import some from foreign countries, particularly from Brussels, Holland, and England, the latter of which are very much esteemed.

Lastly, there are silk camlets of several colours, especially crimson, carnation, or flesh-colour, and purple, which are manufactured at Venice, Florence, Milan, Naples, and Lucca; but these are properly tabbies and taffeties, disguised under the name of camlets.

The watered camlets of Verona, which are also called Verona carpets, may more properly be called a kind of tabbies.

Lisle furnishes a great quantity of camlets, some all of hair, others all of wool, both warp and woof; their breadth most commonly is half an ell, or half an ell wanting $\frac{1}{2}$, each piece measuring 21 or 22 ells in length, Paris measure. These camlets are wove white, and afterwards dyed of several colours, and then passed under the hot-press, to make them smooth, and give them that lustre which is observable in them.

They also manufacture at Lisle, and in some other places of French Flanders, a prodigious quantity of small camlets, or camelotines, which are very narrow and very light: these are chiefly designed for Spain. The Dutch give several names, and even pretty odd ones, to those camlets; the chief of which names are, the amparillas, or nonpareille, polunitte, polomit, or polomitte, &c.

The camlets of Arras are commonly very coarse, having a very round grain, more like that of barracans than that of common camlets. Most of them are manufactured white, afterwards dyed, and then calendered. Some are half an ell, and others three quarters and a half wide. The pieces are commonly 20 ells long, Paris measure.

They make a great many camlets at Amiens, whose names and qualities are different.

The first, which are reckoned the best, are called camlets after the manner of Brussels, because they, in a manner, imitate the true Brussels camlets in the weaving, length, breadth, and materials they are made with.

The second are a sort of small narrow barracans all of wool, which they sometimes call camlets with twisted thread, or camlets with a coarse grain.

The third are called camlets quinettes, whose thread of the woof is but one single thread, very much twisted. It is all of wool: the piece is half an ell wide, and 21 ells long, Paris measure. They are commonly wove white, than dyed several colours, and afterwards pressed, or calendered, hot.

The fourth go under the name of small striped camlets, because they are striped with several colours length-ways, from the head to the end of the piece. They are half an ell wide, and the pieces measure from 21 to 22 ells, Paris measure. They are likewise passed under the hot-press, as the quinettes camlets.

They make likewise at Amiens some small camlets of thread and wool, half an ell wide: but there are few of these.

The camlets of Amiens, whose warp is of hair and wool, and the woof all of hair, are $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell wide, and in length from $32\frac{1}{2}$ to $38\frac{1}{2}$.

There are some, also, whereof the warp is of silk and wool twisted together, and the woof of wool: they are also $\frac{2}{3}$ wide.

By a decree of the king's counsel of state, made the 17th of March, 1717, for regulating the manufactures of Amiens, whose weavers have no particular statutes, it is ordered:

I. That the warp of camlets all of wool, after the manner of Brussels, shall consist of 840 threads: that they shall be half an ell wide between the lifts, and 36 ells long.

II. That the camlets enriched with two threads of silk, after the manner of Holland, shall have about 1100 threads in the warp, be half an ell broad, and from 36 to 40 ells long.

III. That the warp of the superfine camlets, Brussels fashion, shall be of goat's hair spun, or of camel's hair, with two threads of silk, and have between 1300 and 1500 threads; the woof to be double of goat's or camel's hair, of the same length and breadth as the former.

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IV. The striped camlets, and the plain ones of a changeable colour, must have 396 threads in the warp, be half an ell wide between the two lifts, and $21\frac{1}{2}$ long, coming from the loom, that they may afterwards be full 21 ells long, according to the regulations of the year 1669.

They used formerly to make at Amiens a sort of extraordinary camlets, which they called bangwers. It was wrought with squares, or with wave, and wove on a loom with seven or eight treddles. The warp and woof were of wool, and the figures of white Epinay thread. There was a pretty great consumption of these camlets in France; and they used, also, to send considerable quantities of them into foreign countries, especially into Portugal. But, at present, they make hardly any, they being absolutely gone out of fashion.

The camlets of la Neuville are much like those of Brussels, and almost equally esteemed; whence they are commonly called camlets after the manner of Brussels. Their most usual breadth is half an ell and half a quarter, and the pieces are commonly from 35 to 40 ells long, Paris measure. France is obliged to the Sieurs Claude and Joseph Verdun, two brothers, for the establishment of this manufacture.

The camlets of Auvergne do not much differ from the striped camlets and quinettes camlets of Amiens, but are coarse, and of an inferior quality.

The 18th article of the general regulations for the manufactures, made in August, 1669, and the decrees of the council of the 19th of February, 1671, and the 11th of March, 1673, have settled the length and breadth of the several sorts of camlets that are made in France.

The camlets of Brussels are either variegated or plain, without any stripes and figures. They are commonly half an ell and half a quarter wide, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and from 35 to 60 ells long, Paris measure. There are some all of hair, both in the warp and woof; some whereof the woof is of hair, and the warp half of hair, of the same colour with the woof, and half of silk, of another colour; which renders the camlet variegated, that is to say, that every thread of the warp is composed of two threads, the one of hair, and the other of silk, well twisted together. The Brussels camlets are commonly calendered, and excel both in goodness and beauty above those made in France, and even in Holland and in England, though the latter come pretty near them, and are very much esteemed.

Figured camlets are those of a single colour, on which have been stamped, or imprinted, various figures, flowers, foliages, &c. This is performed with hot irons which are a kind of moulds, that are passed under a press at the same time with the stuff. The figured camlets come only from Amiens and Flanders. The trade of them was formerly pretty considerable; at present there are but few of them sold, which serve commonly for church ornaments, or for making some household furniture.

Waved camlets are those on which a kind of waves have been impressed, as on tabbies, by making them pass several times under the calender.

Water camlets are such, which, being taken from the loom, undergo a certain preparation with water, after which they are put into the hot-press, that renders them smooth and glossy.

They who make camlets, and the merchants who deal in them, ought to be very careful that they do not acquire any false or bad plaits, because it is very difficult to get them out again; which gave occasion to this French proverb, That man resembles a camlet, that is to say, he has taken his plait; intimating, that he has got an ill habit, of which it is impossible to cure him. All sorts of camlets, even those of Holland, must enter France only by the ports of Calais and St. Valery, according to the decrees of the 8th of December, 1687, and the 3d of July, 1692.

CAMP. The Siamese, and some other nations in the East-Indies, give the name of camps to the quarters which they assign to the foreigners who come to trade with them. In these camps every nation forms, as it were, a particular town, where they carry on all their trade. They not only keep their warehouses and shops there, but also live in these camps, with their families, their factors, and agents. The Europeans are free from that subjection at Siam, and almost every-where else, and are at liberty to dwell in the cities, or in the suburbs, as they judge it most convenient for their trade.

CAMPHIRE, or, as some write it, CAMPHOR, a body of a particular nature, peculiar to itself, which is neither a resin, nor a volatile salt, nor an oil, nor a juice, nor a bitumen, nor a gum, but a mixed substance, dry, white, transparent, and brittle, of a strong and penetrating smell. It is easily evaporated in the air if it be a little hot. It is very inflammable, and cannot be easily extinguished, burning even in water and in snow: wherefore, camphire appears to be chiefly composed of an inflammable principle rarified, mixed with some aqueous particles, and a very subtle and attenuated earth.

Camphire may probably be extracted from all plants (even from those of Europe) which abound with an essential oil; yet it would differ with regard to the smell, always retaining that from which it is extracted. The reader may see, in the

Philosophical Transactions, how Mr. Neuman, a celebrated chymist of Berlin, extracted camphire from thyme.

Camphire is divided into natural and fictitious, or artificial. Natural camphire comes two ways: 1. It is to be found in the islands of Borneo and Sumatra, in certain seasons of the year, between the wood and the bark of a tree, which looks pretty much like salt; it is the most excellent and most precious of all, being, as it were, distilled by the heat of the sun. It differs from the other sorts, in not evaporating in the air. It is asserted, that this tree produces hardly one ounce of camphire, for which reason it is worth above a hundred times more than the fictitious camphire of Japan, and there is but very little of it, if any, exported out of the country. The second sort of natural camphire runs from incisions made in the trunk and chief branches of a very thick tree which grows in several parts of the East-Indies, but chiefly in the island of Borneo.

The fictitious camphire is that of Japan. The tree from which they obtain it is very large and thick; they call it *cusnoky* in that country. It produces fine leaves, which, when full grown, become, by degrees, of a beautiful yellow. They smell very much of camphire, especially the fruit, which hangs either singly, or in couples, by a long stalk. It is of a bright green, round, short, very near of the figure of a common acorn, and is surrounded with a shell of a deep green. There is abundance of these trees in the western parts of Japan, namely, in the province of Satzuma, and in the isles of Goths: This tree grows sometimes to such a bigness, that two persons could hardly grasp it. The Japanese know how to cut dextrously part of its root, of which they make very pretty little tables. In order to get the camphire, they cut the remainder of the root, and the most tender shoots, into small bits of the bigness of one joint of a finger: these they boil in water during 48 hours, in large iron or copper kettles, over which they put covers, in the shape of alembics, hollow, with long necks, which serve to keep and stop the camphire which rises with the steam, by means of the fire. When all is cool again, they gather the camphire, and keep it for use. But, as this is the work of the countrymen in Japan, where this drug is so little valued that they hardly prepare any, unless the Dutch merchants give commission for it in the preceding year, it is no wonder that this operation should be performed in a very gross manner, and that some small particles of the wood should be mixed with the camphire; for which reason the Dutch refine it either to separate the wood from it, or, if it be of the second natural sort, to remove the earth, or sand that mixed with it, whilst it distilled from the tree, or was added to it to increase its weight. The Dutch, says Monsieur Garcin, have places on the western coast of Sumatra, which afford them a great deal of camphire, and is the best in all the East-Indies, especially that which grows at Baros, whence, also, comes the best benzoin. Though there be a great deal of camphire in Japan, yet the Japanese have so great a value for that of Baros, which the Dutch carry to them, that they buy it very dear of the latter, for that of Japan is good for little in comparison to the other; and as it is cheap the Dutch buy it, and mix it with that of Sumatra, and, being thus mixed, it looks pretty fine.

The difference of these two sorts of camphire, when crude, is not, perhaps, so great as may be commonly imagined. The Dutch understand perfectly well how to purify and refine this matter, and give it a proper form, of which the Japanese are perfectly ignorant.

This is the reason why the latter, who would have good and well-purified camphire, buy that of the Dutch at a very high price; and the Dutch, in their turn, are fond of that of the Japanese, because it is very cheap, and they know how to refine it, wherein they find their account.

In Europe the merchants give the name of crude camphire to that which is brought from the Indies in small loaves, or lumps, such as are formed and found at the foot of the tree in which the incisions were made. Camphire in that condition must be chosen in pieces that are brittle, white, clean, dry, and of a good scent, and, being crumbled, it must look like common white salt.

The Sieur Pomet, in his General History of Drugs, charges the French artists with being either unwilling, or incapable, to refine camphire, and chusing rather to have recourse to the Dutch, than to perform themselves the sublimation of it; which, however, does not seem very difficult, according to the method prescribed by that author.

The manner of refining camphire, as described by Pomet and Lemery, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Paris, for the year 1705.

Crude camphire is refined in order to clear it of some earth, or sand, that was mixed with it as it fell from the tree. To effect which, it is put into a matras, or any other sublimatory vessel, being first well broke and pounded. When the vessel is half full, you stop, or shut it slightly, and put it over a middling fire; which immediately urges the most subtle parts of the camphire upwards, whereby it is at last intirely sublimated, except the caput mortuum, reckoned worth nothing, which remains at the bottom of the vessel. When

the sublimation is completed, you have a refined camphire, white, transparent, and as fine as that which the Dutch prepare, and in bits more or less large, according to the quantity of crude camphire you have made use of. It is liquefied after sublimation by a moderate heat, and cast afterwards into moulds, to give whatever form the operator pleases.

Amongst the camphire refined after that manner, there remains commonly a small portion of it extremely white, in small grains, which could not incorporate with the rest, but is nevertheless of a good quality.

Refined camphire must be chosen the whitest, the clearest, the least spotted, clear, light, friable, of a strong, penetrating, disagreeable smell, burning intirely, without leaving the least remains; and as little broke as possible; though, for use, camphire in small bits is not worse, than that which is more large and entire.

It is not very easy to adulterate this drug: but what may make some difference, with regard to its goodness, is its being more or less purified or refined.

In order to preserve this substance, and prevent the evaporation, it must be put into bran or linseed, that this seed, by its viscosity or clamminess, may retain the particles of camphire, and prevent their dissipation: for the traders therein observe that this drug, without something of the like care, diminishes by being kept*.

- * Quere, Will not the bran, or the linseed, destroy the quality of refined camphire, though they may not diminish its quantity? Is there not such a magnetism in bodies, as to attract, imbibe, or repel the virtues of each other? especially between such oleaginous and aqueous bodies as linseed and camphire? May not so dry and husky a body, as bran, absorb the subtle spirit of the camphire, and greatly injure its virtues, though it should not lessen its weight, the quality, perhaps, having little affinity with the quantity of matter?

They extract from camphire, by means of spirit of nitre, a sort of oil of an amber colour, very much esteemed for curing rotten bones. If the reader is curious to know something more concerning this sort of oil, he may consult Mons. Lemery's work, who is thought to have handled this subject better than any body else.

R E M A R K S.

EXPERIMENTS ON CAMPHIRE.

I. Take one ounce of alcohol*, and by degrees add thereto an ounce of solid camphire; all which it will nearly dissolve, in a very short time, without any ebullition, or apparent alterations of fluidity, or transparency. After which, pour in a large proportion of fair water, which weakening the solution, and uniting with the alcohol, will cause it to let go the camphire, that now all rose white, solid, and perfect, to the top of the mixture.

- * Alcohol is an highly rectified spirit of wine, a liquor obtainable from vegetable subjects, by fermentation, distillation, and rectification: [see the article DISTILLATION.] It appears related to oil, because totally inflammable; and, when carefully examined, to be the essential oil of the vegetable, intimately broke and ground in, among the particles of water; so as to form one uniform liquor, not easily separable again into different parts.

From this experiment, we learn, that an highly rectified spirit of wine hath the power of dissolving about its own weight of camphire; which when duly examined, appears to be a particular kind of volatile, or essential oil, coagulated into a white and solid substance. And, as such an oil, it is plentifully dissolved in alcohol.

This alcohol is a capital menstruum in chymistry, and fitted to dissolve rofins, as well as oils. Though it does not thus mix inextricably with either, but leave them separable again, by the bare addition of water, which it dissolves more readily than either oil or rofin; and, therefore, lets them go to join with this, according to the law of precipitation: For, whenever one body has dissolved another, and a third be added to the solution, which third has a greater relation to either of the former, than they have to each other, their union is separated, and the third body dissolved, instead of the first or second, one of which is at liberty to rise, or fall to the bottom, according to its specific gravity: as we saw remarkably in the present experiment, where the camphire, dissolved in the spirit of wine, was soon made to float upon the surface, by the addition of water, which has a greater appetite of union, or relation, to spirit of wine, than that spirit has to camphire. And the physical reason hereof may appear, from what was just now said of the composition of this spirit, its being an intimate mixture of water and volatile oil.

EXPERIMENT II.

A facile and simple method of preparing a safe and effectual sudorific from camphire.

If an ounce of refined camphire be beat and ground in a marble mortar, with two ounces of blanched almonds, the camphire will be thus subtilly divided, and brought into a uniform

uniform and consistent mass, fit for the forming of pills, boluses, &c. so as to be commodiously taken in the way of a sudorific, discutient, or perspirative remedy; the dose whereof may be assigned, betwixt the limits of three grains and forty, or two scruples.

Sudorific, perspirative, and alexipharmic medicines, make a large part of the common dispensatories: 'tis judged, that their places may be advantageously supplied by a few powerful ones of approved virtues; among which, this of camphire is esteemed as a principle one, or, at least, superior to Gafcoign's powder, lapis contrayervæ, bezoar, &c. whose virtues, at best, appear to be small.

The virtues of camphire are not, indeed, univervally agreed on by physicians; some esteeming it hot, others cold; some of great, others of little efficacy: but the case is not to be decided by authorities, but experience, which seems to declare, that camphire is one of the most powerful, most immediate, and most innocent perspiratives, sudorifics, and alexipharmics, hitherto known: for a large dose of it, suppose a scruple, or more, though given dissolved in spirit of wine, to a healthy person, does not increase the pulse, or excite a preternatural heat; but rather causes coolness and composure, with a gentle sweating, or increase of perspiration. So little have the virtues of this medicine been understood, or so little can the virtues of medicines in general be deduced from their apparent properties, or reasoning a priori! The natural and medicinal history of this drug well deserves to be traced: it appears to be an essential oil, of peculiar properties; though some would have it a rosin, others a gum. Certainly it stands alone, as a matter sui generis; a body wherein the nature of rosins, gums, and essential oils, are concentrated in some degree. It is, perhaps, one of the most discutient and subtle remedies hitherto discovered, in the whole materia medica. Whence it proves highly anodyne, perspirative, and preservative. And, from certain observations and experiments, it hath been judged, that, if all the virtues of this concrete were sufficiently known, with regard to its external as well as internal application, it might effectually supply the place of numerous other drugs and preparations, to the ease and advantage of pharmacy. See the article PHARMACY.

In cases both of the recent and inveterate lues venerea, this medicine, skilfully prepared and applied, has been recommended to be used instead of the common sudorific decoction of the woods. It may also be advantageously mixed along with the balsams, or fine turpentine, commonly used at the close of that distemper, as the balsam capivi, &c. Some physicians have recommended it in all inflammatory, putrid, pestilential, and even maniacal, diseases. And whoever has the secret of prudently joining this simple medicine along with nitre, perhaps, performs cures scarce to be expected from other medicines frequently used for the same purposes. See the article NITRE.

CANADA, a colony in North America, belonging to the French, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, which has annexed CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN. See the article AMERICA, where the reader will find the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. We shall let this article stand as it did in our last edition, that the better judgment may be made of our affairs in AMERICA, at present. The limits of this large country are variously fixed by geographers, some extending them quite from Florida to the northern boundaries of America, or from 33 to 63 degrees north latitude (Robbe) though Canada, properly so called, and distinguished, be only a small province of this whole tract, and seated on the south and east of the river St. Lawrence, and east of its mouth. Others bound it on the north, by the land called Labrador, or New Britany; on the east by the northern sea and New England, &c. on the south by Florida, and on the west by New Mexico, and the unknown tracts north of it. According to which, it will extend itself from the 25th to the 53d degree of latitude, and from 76 to 93 of west longitude: but its greatest extent is commonly taken from south-west to north-east; that is, from the province of Padoau, in New Spain, to Cape Charles, near the bay of St. Laurence, which is reckoned near 900 leagues. Baron Hontan makes it to reach only from 39 to 65 degrees of latitude; that is, from the south side of the lake Erie to the north side of Hudson's-Bay, and in longitude from the river Mississippi to Cape Rare in Newfoundland; but it is plain from the more recent surveys, published by Monsr. Bellin, that the province of Louisiana is, by this French geographer, made to reach farther, by a great many degrees westward, than the river abovementioned; though, how far the French think proper to make it, no one can decide, but they are sure always to take elbow room enough, notwithstanding they may happen, in this part of the world, to inroach a few hundred leagues now and then upon the English, whom they would gladly extirpate from all North America. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and our maps of America, compared with those of the Sieur D'Anville*.

*It is observable, in our attention to the conduct of the court of France, that they are very solicitous so dextrously to

inculc and fashion their royal geographers and hydrographers in their office of marine, that all their maps and sea-charts may most accurately quadrate with their political system of inroachment upon the territories of other nations. For glaring instances of which, see our maps of North and South America, compared with those of the Sieur D'Anville; that were executed under the patronage of the French court, and our articles of BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA; SPANISH AMERICA; see also our maps of Africa, where it will appear, how shamefully the French have, within these few years, inroached upon the British rights and privileges of trade; several hundred leagues; and are now making strides, at Mofambique, upon the rights of the Portuguese, if what is publicly said and believed, be true.

The expence of the French court, in regard to the late article of map, and chart-making, hath been said to exceed twenty thousand pounds sterling. See Le Neptune Oriental, ou Routier General des côtes des Indes orientales & de la Chine, enrichi de cartes hydrographiques tant general que particulieres, &c. Par Monsr. D'Après de Mannevillette. — This nation is not accustomed to be profuse of their cash, without the view of an ample equivalent in return: and it is a pretty artful, though imperceptible, way of obtaining compensation, by first putting their geographers upon authenticating their imaginary rights, by pen and ink, that they may verify and confirm their extraordinary accuracy, by actual possession.

As its extent is so great both in length and breadth, its temperature, climate, soil, &c. cannot but vary accordingly: all that part which is inhabited by the French, and which is mostly along the banks of the great river St. Lawrence, is, generally speaking, excessive cold in winter, though hot in summer, as most of those American tracts commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The rest of the country, as far as it is known, is intersected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, which render it still colder; it has, however, no inconsiderable quantity of good fertile lands; which, by experience, are found capable of producing corn, barley, rye and other grain, grapes, and fruit, and indeed, almost every thing that grows in France; but its chief product is tobacco; which it yields in large quantities:

There is likewise plenty of stags, elks, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, and other wild creatures in the woods, besides wild fowl and other game. The southern parts, in particular, breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. a great variety of other animals, both wild and tame.

The meadow grounds, which are all well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed great quantities of large and small cattle; and, where the arable land is well manured, it produces large and rich crops. The mountains abound with coal mines, and some, we are told, of silver, and other metals, though we do not learn that yet any great advantage is made thereof. The marshy grounds, which are likewise very extensive, swarm with otters, beavers, and other amphibious creatures, and the rivers and lakes with fish of all sorts.

The lakes here are both large and numerous; the principal of which are those of Erie, Michigan, Hufon, Superior, Frontenac, or Ojivia, Nipissing, Temiscaming, besides others of a smaller size; but the largest of them is that which they name Superior, or Upper Lake; which is situate the farthest north, and is reckoned above 100 leagues in length, and about 70, where broadest, and hath several considerable islands on it: the chief whereof are the Royal Isle, Philippeau, Pont Chartrain, Maurepas, St. Ann, St. Ignatius, the Tonerre, or Thunder-Island, and a good number of smaller ones, especially near the coasts.

The whole country abounds with very large rivers, which it is endless to enter into a detail of; the two principal are, those of St. Lawrence, and the Mississippi. The former of which abounds with no less variety than plenty of fine fish, and receives several considerable rivers in its course. The entrance into the bay of St. Lawrence lies between the Cape de Retz, on the isle of Newfoundland, and the north cape in that called the Royal Island, or more commonly Cape Breton. That of the Mississippi, which runs through the greatest part of the province of Louisiana, from north to south, is called by the French the river of St. Louis, and by the natives of Mischissipi, Mississipi, and Meschagamisipi, on account of the vast tract of ground which it overflows at certain seasons; and by the Spaniards also called La Palissada, from the prodigious quantities of timber which they send down upon it in floats to the sea. It is navigable above 450 leagues up from its mouth. The spring-head of this river is not yet satisfactorily known; but 'tis certain, that it discharges itself into the gulph of Mexico by two branches, which form an island of considerable length.

Canada, in its largest sense, is divided into eastern and western, the former of which is commonly known by the name of Canada, or New France, and the latter, which is of much later discovery, Louisiana, in honour of the late Lewis XIV. The eastern Canada contains the following provinces, viz. 1. Canada, properly so called. 2. Sanguenay. 3. Acadia. 4. Atrurumbeg. 5. New England. 6. New Holland. 7. New Sweden; the five last of which having been dismembered from it some time since; so that there are but two provinces in

in this eastern Canada, that now belong to the French, viz. Canada Proper and Sanguenay.

The former of these, including all to the north and west of the great river and lakes, contains the 28 tribes following, (which, however, we shall not take upon us to give a minute description of, seeing it would take up too much room) viz. 1. Quovavota. 2. Illinois. 3. Quioquibac. 4. Miamis. 5. Attiquemages. 6. Maskontens. 7. Aentordac. 8. Ontovagarmis. 9. Errahonanoate. 10. Hurons. 11. Chiantonati. 12. Outavatz. 13. Chavuaréar. 14. Enchek. 15. Aoffendi. 16. Nipifiriniens. 17. Eachiriovacheon. 18. Taranton. 19. Quionontarcon. 20. Algonkins. 21. Ellovataizonon. 22. Oavechiffaton. 23. Skiarenons. 24. Aftakouvanda, Oronons. 25. Nadoveffoveronons. 26. Kiriffinoas. 27. Iramnadous. 28. Jaetous. But, at present, it is divided into the 13 following provinces, most of them named from their capital towns or forts, viz. 1. Gaïpe. 2. St. Jean Isle. 3. Miscon Isle. 4. Richlieu. 5. The three rivers, or Treable river. 6. Mont-Real Isle. 7. Fort Frontenac. 8. De Conti. 9. St. François. 10. Nôtre Dame des Anges. 11. St. Alexis. 12. St. Michael. 13. St. Joseph.

SANGUENAY contains the four following nations or tribes, viz. 1. The Esquimaux. 2. Berfamites, or Oupapinachois. 3. Oumionquois; and 4. Cocouchaquois, and is divided into the six following provinces, or cantons, called so from their chief towns or forts, viz. Quebec, a bishoprick. 2. Sillery. 3. Tadoussac. 4. Port-neuf, or New Port. 5. Chicquequedec. 6. Port St. Nicholas. These three last, together with Port-quartier, belong to the Esquimaux, of which we shall speak more fully in it's proper place. The numerous wild nations of these parts are enumerated by Baron Hontan, to whom we refer the reader for a particular account.

CANADA PROPER, is by far the most considerable province of all New France, the farther subdivided, the best peopled, and the best cultivated. It hath on the north the Terra de Labrador, Hudson's-Bay, and New Wales. On the east the great river Sanguenay divides it from the province of that name; on the south the great province of Louisiana, and the Iroquois, and Etechemins; as to the northern boundaries, they are not known, and must be left to time to discover.

This province is allowed to have greater plenty of beavers, and larger and finer, than any other that are bred throughout Canada. These, as well as the castors, are very much valued, not only for their furs, but the latter for it's testicles, which have been, from long experience, found to be an efficacious remedy against several diseases, especially those of the hyteric kind; and accordingly the natives carry on a large commerce of both. The river Canada abounds with variety of fish, especially carp of a prodigious size, and white porpoises as large as oxen, besides great quantities of crocodiles, and other amphibious creatures.

This colony is said by some to amount to 80,000 French, who live in plenty and tranquillity. They are free from all taxes, and have full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber for fuel or building, to sow and plant as much land as they can cultivate. Their greatest hardship is the winter cold, which is there so excessive from December 'till April, that the greatest rivers freeze over, and the snow lies commonly two or three feet deep on the ground, though this part lies no farther north than from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude.

TREABLE RIVER, or the THREE RIVERS, so called from the three rivers which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one of St. Lawrence, is the capital of the French government in New France, and much resorted to by several nations, which come down these rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furs. The town here is surrounded with pallisades, and advantageously situated in the center of the country, and consequently free from the incursions of the savage Iroquois. It is the residence of the governor, who keeps a major under him, and hath a monastery of recollects, who are the curates of the place. It was formerly the common emporium, where the wild natives brought their furs, and other commodities, for sale, before the English seized it, and their settlement at Mont Real. The colony was again restored anno 1635, and the Monks who had settled a mission there, returned to it, anno 1673. The country about it is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordships and handsome seats. On each side of the river stands a vast number of genteel houses, scarce above a gun-shot from each other, and the river is full of pleasure and fisher-boats, which catch vast quantities of fish.

MONT REAL is situated on an island of the same name, in the river of St. Lawrence, about 14 leagues long, and 4 wide, where broadest, and very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town drives a prodigious trade with the natives, whose chiefs go first to pay their duty to the governor, and make him some presents, in order to prevent the prices of goods which they come for, being raised to an exorbitant height. This concourse begins about June, and some of them come hither from places distant above 500 leagues; the fair is kept along the banks of the river, where these natives exchange their commodities with the French; and there are placed centinels, at proper distances, to prevent the disorders which might otherwise happen from such vast crowds of different na-

tions. This concourse lasts for near three months. The natives bring thither all sorts of furs, which they barter for guns, powder, ball, great coats, and other garments of the French manufacture, iron and brass work, and trinkets of all sorts.

SANGUENAY, a province in the eastern Canada, and is divided on the west from that properly so called, by the river of it's name. It hath on the north-east the nation called Kilestinaos, or Crestinaux; on the north-west that of the Esquimaux; on the south-east it is bounded by the river St. Lawrence, and on the south-west by that of Sanguenay, at the mouth of which is the town of Three Rivers before-mentioned. It's extent is computed from this last-mentioned town, which is the frontier of Canada Proper, quite to the farther end of the bay called the Seven Isles.

The territory and lands on each side of the river were found so indifferent, and the colony that settled at Tadoussac suffered so much there, that it quite discouraged the French for a long time from settling; but at length, upon their failing up as high as Quebec, they found such encouragement, as has been productive of their present prosperity there.

The river of Sanguenay springs from the lake St. John, and falls into that of St. Lawrence, at the town of Tadoussac. The haven is capable of containing 25 men of war, and hath a good anchorage and shelter from storms, it being of a round figure and deep, and surrounded at a distance with very high rocks. 'Tis needless, in a work of this kind, to dwell longer on the description of this province, it being much the same, as to it's soil, climate, and inhabitants, with that of Canada Proper last described. It is remarkable, indeed, for an extraordinary plenty of marble of several kinds, inasmuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches, and palaces, but even the houses of private men are built of it.

Quebec is the capital of this province, and the other principal places are, Sillery, Tadoussac, Port-neuf, Beau-port, St. Ann, Chicque de Port, St. Nicholas, Port Castier, and Necouba.

QUEBEC, the metropolis of all Canada, and an episcopal see, is in lat. 46. 53. and west long. 70. 40. and situate on the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the little river, and on the north side of the former, and about 140 leagues from the sea. The haven is large, and capable of containing at least an 100 ships of the line; and the great river whereon it stands, though about four leagues wide, doth here shrink itself at once to the breadth of about a mile, and it is on that account, that the name of Quebec was given, which in the Algonkin Indian language, it seems, signifies a shrinking or growing narrower, which is a natural etymology enough of the name.

TADOUSSAC, and it's port, hath been taken notice of, in our brief description of the river Sanguenay; and all that needs to be added, is, it's being a place of great resort and traffic, both for the wild natives and for the French, much in the manner that hath been already observed.

The ESQUIMAUX, or ESKIMAUX, are one of the fiercest, and hitherto unpolished, people in all North America. They are seated on the most eastern verge of it, beyond the river of St. Lawrence, and spread themselves up north and east into the large tract of land, called Terra de Labrador, overagainst Newfoundland, from 51 to 53 degrees of north latitude, and from 52 to 63, or more, of west longitude. Their chief trade is in furs of divers sorts, for other European goods.

The BERIAMITES, are seated on the west of the Esquimaux, and are divided from them by the river of St. Margaret, and run along the north coast of the river St. Lawrence, overagainst Canada. They are a people much resembling the Esquimaux, and carry on a traffic with the French of the same kind.

The IROQUOIS, are the most considerable and best known of all the Indian nations hereabouts. They are seated along the north side of the lake Ontario, Frontenac, and along the river of their name, which is that which carries the waters of the lake into the river of St. Lawrence. They are bounded on the north by the nations called Algonkins and Outavais, and the French settlements at and about Montreal; on the east and south-east by New England, New York, Jersey, &c. on the south by part of Canada Proper, and the lake Erie; and on the west by that of the Hurons, and the canal between these two lakes. They are so advantageously situated between the English and French, that they can join forces either with the highest bidder, or with those who can keep them in the most subjection.

Their soil is high and rich, their water-melons, pumpions, &c. very large, sweet, and of a fine colour and flavour; but they are too proud and lazy, to give themselves much trouble about cultivating their lands, which is, perhaps, the cause of their producing so little. Their way of traffic is no way unlike to what we have before described.

The ILLINOIS, inhabit near the lake and river of that name. They live in villages at a great distance from each other, on the marshy plains, on both sides of the river, near which are large woods and hills, covered with a delightful verdure about nine months in the year, whilst the current thereof, which is mostly south-west, is so smooth and agreeable, that vessels of a considerable size may fall up and down it with ease and safety,

safety, for a course of 120 leagues, before it falls into that of the Mississippi.

The lands on each side afford such plenty of pasture, that they are covered with herds of large and small cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other beasts of the wilder kind. The river swarms with water-fowl of divers species, such as swans, geese, cranes, ducks, &c.

They are great friends to the French, as they protect them from the other Indian nations, with which they are at enmity, and deal with them with honour and honesty, and inviolably regard their alliances with these people. Are not these the natural means to attach these people to their interest, both with regard to their trade and possessions?

LOUISIANA. This vast tract, according to the most modest of the French geographers, is bounded on the south by the gulph of Mexico, on the north by the Illinois, last described, and by the territories of the Parnassus, Paoducas, Ofages, Tiontetecagas, Chavanons, and other Indian nations: on the east by part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina, and on the west by New Mexico and New Spain.

It extends itself from north to south about 15 degrees, that is, from 25 to the 40th north latitude, and from east to west about 10 or 11, that is, from 86 to 96, or 97, according to Charlevoix. Monsf. de Lesle gives these boundaries a much larger extent, especially on the north side, where they make it contiguous to Canada, last described; so that part of it is bounded, according to him, by New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the west by the rivers called Rio Bravo and Salado. According to Le Seur, another French writer, the northern boundaries of Louisiana may reach as far as the northern pole. Neither are those on the north-west less uncertain, the Missouri, a great river which gives name to a vast tract of land unknown, flowing from that point into the Mississippi, about four leagues above its mouth; so that if we except the south, where the sea bounds it, all the rest must be left an uncertainty; and so indeed it is likely to remain, 'till proper persons be appointed to settle those boundaries, on the east with the English, and on the west with the Spaniards: 'till then they will ever be liable to disputes, and, perhaps, to a continuing fluctuation, according as either of the three nations shall have opportunity to enlarge their own conquests, or incroach upon their neighbours.

The most considerable nations in Louisiana, are the Chicas, Chikai, or Chicas, Maubilians, Clamcoats, Cenos, Cadadaguio's, Ibitoupas, Tabuetas, Vacea, and many others. Their various rivers, frequently overflowing, render the country in general extremely fertile and pleasant. Nothing is more delightful than their meadows, which are fit for seed of all kinds. In some parts, the soil yields three or four crops in a year, for the winter consists only in heavy rains, without any nipping frosts. Almost all sorts of trees that Europe affords are to be found here, besides variety of others unknown to us; and some of them very estimable, such as their tall and admirable cedars, a tree that distils gum, which is said to excel all our European noblest perfumes, and cotton-trees, which are of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with an infinite variety of game, fowl, cattle, and, indeed, every thing that life can desire. See the article **LOUISIANA** by itself.

R E M A R K S.

How far the limits of the country the French intend to possess, may extend, is not yet known, and may, perhaps, remain a secret, 'till they are pleased to oblige us with an éclaircissement in their way. That part of it which was granted to Monsf. Crozat, is bounded by New Mexico, and the lands of the English of Carolina, West and East; and by the river Illinois, and the gulph of Mexico, North and South; wherein if it be meant, as no doubt it is, that all the tracts of land not actually possessed by the Spaniards of Mexico, and the English of Carolina, though claimed respectively by both, shall be comprehended, it will take in more than two thirds of the gulph, and reckoning from St. Fe, in New Mexico, to our most westerly settlements in Carolina, about 24 degrees of longitude, or 1440 miles, and, from the mouth of the Illinois to that of the Mississippi, 150 or 160 leagues in a straight line.

But this is only a part of Louisiana, which the king of France (by a reservation expressed in the patent) may enlarge, when he thinks fit, the whole extent of that immense country reaching the South-Sea, Japan, and the Frozen Ocean.

Father Hennepin, in the account he dedicated to king William, of his travels through a great part of it, positively asserts, that Japan is contiguous to the Northern America (the great Grævius was also of this opinion) and that an easy passage may be infallibly found out, from Louisiana to the South-Sea, through rivers that run beyond the Mississippi, deep enough to carry ships of great burthen; and he farther offered in return back in his majesty's service, to make the discovery. That great prince would, in all likelihood, have accepted the proposal, and improved it to the advantage and glory of England, had it not been for his alliance with Spain, which likewise proved fatal to the settlements of the Scots in Darien. It is a melancholy consideration, that so noble an enterprize,

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founded on just and honourable motives, and carried on with invincible zeal and bravery, should have been discouraged, betrayed, and ruined, and the French at the same time permitted to build forts, and plant colonies, under the command of Monsf. D'Iberville, in a country to which both England and Spain had a much better title. 'Tis true, indeed, that Monsf. D'Iberville's commission impowered him only to establish the colonies, and maintain the garrisons, which had preserved the possession of what was acquired to the crown of France by Monsf. Desale; but one of the forts having been entirely razed by the Spaniards, and the garrison carried off, and the other abandoned some years before the date of this commission, the right insisted on, by virtue of that possession, was extinguished: besides, if the charters granted by the crown of England, to the lords proprietors of Carolina, be allowed to be of any validity or force, it may be doubted whether a possession, of much longer continuance, could devolve any right on the French.

The missionaries, who have had the most perfect knowledge of Louisiana, give us so exalted an idea of it's uncommon beauties and productions, that one would take it for the Frenchman's paradise. So temperate is the climate, that the inhabitants enjoy a continual spring; the soil is so fertile, that (as Father Hennepin told king William) it yields two crops every year, without plowing or sowing.

Mr. Gage, who lived twelve years in the kingdom of Mexico, in his description of New Galicia, informs us, that the Spaniards were continually at war with the Indians, who inhabited the northern part of that province, for the sake of the silver mines in their territories, fearing lest the English from Virginia (for Carolina was not then planted) should be beforehand with them, in gaining the possession of these hidden treasures. He farther adds, that he has often heard the Spaniards express their surprize, that the people of that colony should prefer a little paultry tobacco (as he terms it, before the invaluable advantages they must expect to draw from such an easy conquest.

But the chief glory of Louisiana is the famous Mississippi, in many respects the finest river in the world; it is free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable within 60 leagues of it's source: the channel is every-where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it floods. It's banks are adorned with a delightful variety of meadows and groves, and inhabited by almost two hundred different nations, whom the French found tractable to their measures. Our American seamen assert, that several of their rivers are fit to receive ships of the largest burthens, and have several safe and commodious harbours.

What renders the Mississippi more considerable, is a great number of other large and navigable rivers, that run from the eastward and westward, and mix at last with it's stream. Of the first Monsf. Desale, in the account he presented to Count Frontenac of his voyage, on this river, affirms, there are six or seven, 300 leagues each in length, that fall below the Illinois; and proposes it as a matter of the last importance, that the discovery of them should be carried on, to prevent the English of Carolina from interfering with the French in their commerce with the Indians, since some of these rivers take their rise from the Apalachian Hills, not far from our settlements in that colony.

As it can hardly be imagined, that the French will so far neglect their interest, as not to continue their vigorous efforts for establishing their commerce in this part of the world; 'tis evident enough, that these settlements, whether we have war or peace with the French, will not only prove hurtful, but, I am afraid, destructive at last to our British plantations, and thereby weaken, in a very sensible manner, the strength and power of England, by drying the streams that convey thither the greatest part of their wealth.

When the French have drawn a line along the borders of our settlements in every province, from St. Lawrence to the Mississippi, and built forts to secure the most convenient passages on the lakes and rivers that form the communication, they will effectually cut off all intercourse and traffic between us and the Indians inhabiting the inland countries, and likewise compel those who are neighbours and allies, by reason of the absolute dependance they must have on the French for their liberty of hunting and fishing, to fall under their subjection, or starve; and, besides the incroachments on the rights of the English in America, and the loss of a beneficial trade with the Indians in Canada, which has greatly enriched the French. Besides these hardships, we must expect to suffer continual incursions and depredations from the savages on our frontiers, with whom we shall not be able to make either a real peace, or manage a successful war, considering the advantages these savage nations have over the Europeans, by their way of fighting in the forests on the continent.

Experience has shewn these sentiments not chimerical, as appears from the plan that La Hontan presented to the court of France, by order of Count Frontenac, for destroying the Iroquois Indians, a warlike and numerous people, who have manifested their attachment to the British interest.

If the French be allowed, says a judicious writer, to possess themselves of all Canada and Louisiana, as they have christened

it, and a war should break out between the two crowns, the French will find it a matter of no great difficulty, with the assistance of the Indians, to invade from thence and Canada all the English plantations at once, and drive the inhabitants into the sea.

The reader will easily perceive, by casting his eye upon our map of America, that St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, with the lakes and rivers that run between them, surround by land all the provinces on the main of America, belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; and that from the branches of these great rivers, and some falling into the lakes Champlain and Erie, a safe and direct passage may be found out almost to every one of them, by means of other large rivers, with which the whole country abounds.

Though some of these channels the French have heretofore made many descents from Canada upon our northern colonies, destroyed our settlements, and laid waste entire provinces: nor could the inhabitants of New York have secured themselves from the fatal consequences of the like attempts, but by the singular bravery of the Mohacks, who galled the French so sensibly, that they obliged them to retire within 60 leagues of Quebec, and sue for peace on any terms.— And that they may easily penetrate the same way into those English colonies that lie to the southward, particularly Virginia and Carolina, and some rivers that run from the same side into the Mississippi, is obvious by their own accounts, and the discoveries of our Indian traders, who range over these parts of the continent.

All the plantations England is possessed of in this part of the world lie naked to every attack by land, we having no forts or garrisons to defend our frontiers; which, if we are not mistaken in point of judgment, may one day deserve the attention of our superiors. The number of our people here are but inconsiderable, compared to the tract of land they inhabit; their dwellings, except toward the sea, are scattered at a great distance from each other. In short, there seems to be little protection for us to rely on, except that of the Indians; and, from the little care that has been taken to attach them to our interest, I am afraid there is no great dependance to be made on their friendship.

It was very extraordinary, that no effectual measures until lately were taken to settle and fortify Nova Scotia, the only province in America belonging to the crown that can be made a sufficient barrier to cover any of our plantations from the invasions of the French, and check their motions on that side by sea and land; and yet, if the dread of many true friends to the kingdom is not groundless, there seems too much reason to believe, that a part of this province may one day be dismembered from us, and tacked to the French Canada. See *BRITISH AMERICA*, where will be seen how the French have heretofore treated us in respect to this province, and the fishery at Cancaux. And, if skilful and judicious persons are not employed to draw the imaginary line, in order to fix the boundaries, according to treaty, we must expect that our trade to these parts will be attended with the like mischiefs it has been. Without this is done, the controversy can never fairly be decided at Paris or London.

Though the French in Canada have neither exceeded us in numbers, nor the rest of their countrymen in bravery, nevertheless it is certain, they have gained upon us for many years past. Nor will this seem any matter of wonder, to one who seriously reflects on the constitution and form of their government, and the encouragement they have from the crown of France, and their dexterous way of managing the Indians.

It has been a maxim constantly observed by all princes and states who have planted colonies, or subdued nations, to keep them united under the command of particular governors, and in subordination to others, who presided over the whole, to the end that justice might be impartially administered, seditions prevented, or easily suppressed, and each inferior government strengthened and supported by the rest. In the Roman empire, which contained 120 provinces, and near 300 colonies, we find only four prefects, or chief governors, under the emperor; in the kingdoms of Peru and Mexico two; and in Canada, to which Louisiana is added, but one. And, lest it should be imagined that an extensive command must necessarily be attended with arbitrary power, it may be affirmed, with a great deal of truth, that the governor-general of Canada is more effectually restrained from breaking in, either upon the rights of the crown, or those of the subject, than the most petty governors, being liable to the check of the intendant in the first case, and of the sovereign council in the last.

Besides guards and garrisons, such hath been the policy of that nation, that considerable bodies of regular troops have been employed in the service of the colony, without the least burden or charge to the planters: all civil officers, as well as military, have certain yearly pensions settled upon them, and none are admitted into places of the greatest trust, but such who have distinguished themselves at the court of France by their merit, under whose administration the country is become extremely populous and prosperous. This extraordinary increase is, in a great measure, to be ascribed to their intermarrying with the Indians, whom, by this means, they firmly engage in

their interest. In every tribe there are some missionary priests, and, though few of the savages have been made thorough converts to their religion, yet, in all other matters, they look upon these fathers as tutelar gods, and are intirely directed by their counsels.

On the other hand, the country possessed by the English in America seems to be much in the same state Britain was at the first entrance of the Romans, for as that 'was divided (to use the words of Sir William Temple) into several nations, each governed by its own kings and particular princes, different in their ends and councils, it was more easily subdued by united forces: for, Dum singuli pugnabant, universi vincebantur; i. e. While they fought in single bodies, the whole island was conquered: so in America, to draw the parallel no farther, we have thirteen colonies, at least, severally governed by their respective commanders in chief, according to their peculiar laws and constitutions. It would be too tedious, and foreign to my design, to consider the several sorts of government established in these provinces, and the different views and interests they have to pursue; nor would I, by any means, give the reader occasion to think that I am an enemy to those liberties and privileges most of them enjoy by the favour of the crown: I shall therefore only observe, that next to being independent one of another, nothing weakens our plantations more, nor exposes them to greater dangers in times of war with France, than the unskilful administration (to call it no worse) of those who are appointed governors of many of them, and are left to trust to providence for their subsistence. I will not say that all who go thither, like those in David's camp, are in debt or distress, and, consequently, unfit to advance matters of public interest; but we find some in London who can inform us, that, in time of war, the Indians have been supplied with powder and shot, the French with provisions, and the Spaniards with naval stores. Themistocles said, that he could not play on a fiddle, but understood how to make a little city a great one; but some of these siddling gentlemen, by keeping up parties and factions, and oppressing the people under colour of his majesty's authority, have made flourishing colonies poor ones.

And here may be mentioned another set of officers, who are settled in every province, by commissions from England, but without any salaries annexed to the ample powers they are invested with. These are judges, advocates, registers, and marshals of admiralty, who, having nothing to depend upon but the fees of court, and being altogether unqualified for such employments, by promoting litigious actions, and pronouncing unjust decrees, have brought our trade under a very sensible decay. It is to be lamented that so useful a court, in these parts, should not be better established. If the nation considered how much their interest depends upon the prosperity of the plantations, and, at the same time, what discouragements they lie under by the means of such volunteer governors, judges, &c. some of which have been known to use their commissions as some do letters of reprisals, they would order these grievances to be redressed.

To give a more distinct view of the difference between colonies depending absolutely on the crown, and such as are granted by patents or charters, with respect to the resistance they are able to make in time of war, we need only compare Virginia and New York with New England and Carolina. Virginia was planted anno 1584, at the charge, and by the direction, of the incomparable Sir Walter Raleigh, who took possession of it in the name of queen Elizabeth. In the year 1606, a commission was granted to some noblemen and merchants to advance the settlements under the government of captain Smith, who was succeeded by lord Delaware. Since that time the colony has flourished greatly, having been supplied with great men for their governors, who not only kept the Indians in subjection, but acquired to the crown New York, Nova Scotia, and all the countries lying to the southward of St. Lawrence, which has proved of extraordinary emolument to the nation.

New York has been no less happily governed; they have invariably maintained their alliance with the numerous nations of the Iroquois, and, by that means, preserved the tranquillity of their country.

On the contrary, the inhabitants of New England and Carolina have frequently found the savages implacable enemies; for which, perhaps, the chief reason has formerly been, that the governors of these colonies have not had authority enough to prevent the unfair treatment which the Indians have frequently complained of, as defrauding them in their traffic by false weights and measures, and by neglecting to make them due satisfaction, when they have been wronged. In short, that person ought to be a cunning man who treats with the Indians, and, therefore, the French leave that business to the Jesuits.

To conclude this point; as his majesty's dominions on this continent are cantoned into so many petty, independent states, or commonwealths, whereof there is scarce one that can expect effectual relief or assistance from another, in the most imminent danger; as the inhabitants of each colony are unable to defend themselves against a powerful army of French and Indians, and the administration of some of them is too

weak and unsteady to be confided in; and it seems not very probable, from our present system, that we should ever, perhaps, succeed in engaging the Indians on our side, so as to balance the weight of those allied to the French; it seems to follow pretty evidently, that, some time or other, the Mississippi may drown our settlements on the main of America.

Another circumstance that attends the French settling in the Louisiana, with respect to us, is their being thereby, in some degree, masters of the gulph of Mexico, and consequently may one day be in a condition to ruin our trade to Jamaica; they being already in possession of a great part of Hispaniola, and having fortified their settlements at the mouth of the Mississippi, the Havannah and Vera Cruz may also fall into their hands. From what has been observed under the article BRITISH AMERICA, it is apparent that they have had their eye upon Jamaica; and, as we find how tenacious they are to possess themselves of whatever they can of the Leeward and Caribbee isles, and are vigorously augmenting their marine, it is more than probable that they will, some time or other, if they meet with no check in time, gain such an ascendancy in America, as to extirpate the English out of it. And what a figure we shall then be able to make in commerce, and as a maritime power, is more easily imagined than described. If these are idle dreams, then numbers of men of the best sense in the kingdom, nay, in Europe, are not awake; for it is the sentiment of too many, that the French are now taking large strides towards making a conquest of this island, it being the only power that has thwarted all their projects for universal empire. Those who would laugh us out of our security, deserve to be laughed at themselves, when they are reminded how near the French, in the last war, were of conquering our neighbouring provinces, our natural allies, and what confusion they put us into, by only slightly cherishing a handful of rebels.

When the French have effectually planted their whole territories from Canada all along the Mississippi, and secured themselves in the island colonies they aim at, will they not be able to supply the markets of Europe with tobacco, sugar, and every species of commodities produced in our plantations, at a much cheaper rate than we can? For, besides the goodness of the soil, and the industry and frugality of the French, wherein they greatly exceed us, are not their planters furnished with necessaries from France, and negroes from Guinea, far cheaper than ours? [See the article FRENCH AMERICA, and FRENCH and BRITISH AFRICAN TRADES.]

Those who are bred up in the hospitals (whereof there is a prodigious number in France) are sent to America for planters, and every single man of these is obliged to marry an Indian woman. And, to enable them to trade among themselves, they had a supply of 25,000,000 in bank-bills granted them, by an act of the 16th of July, 1719. [See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and COLONIES BRITISH.]

R E M A R K S.

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, having annexed CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES to the crown of GREAT BRITAIN, and also FLORIDA and LOUISIANA, and settled their limits and boundaries, [See the article AMERICA, where is contained the said treaty at large] we may expect that, in a few years, the whole face of the commerce of our BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES will be changed, and all those fears and apprehensions we so justly had of the power and machinations of our FRENCH rivals here be dissipated. For by the cession of all CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES to GREAT BRITAIN, and the very trifling possessions the FRENCH at present enjoy, of the small islands of St. PETER, and MIQUELON, for a shelter only for their fishermen at NEWFOUNDLAND, cannot enable that nation from thence to annoy this, in any of our territories of CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES. Stripped as FRANCE now is of CAPE BRETON, called, very properly, the DUNKIRK of NORTH AMERICA, they are destitute of every place, by the means whereof, they are capable of rendezvous any formidable naval power to do us any great injury in this part of the world, if we take due care to keep all our territories in this part of AMERICA, in a proper plight and condition, and shall be able to defend them by our maritime force. By the DEFINITIVE TREATY we seem likewise to have secured to ourselves the safe and uninterrupted navigation to and from our colonies in America, both from Spain as well as France. By our settlements at Mobile and Pensacola, in Florida, and the right of navigation into the Mississippi, in the Gulph of Mexico; by our settlements of St. Augustine and St. Mattheo, in the Gulph of FLORIDA, together with our situations at the BAHAMA ISLANDS, and at GEORGIA and the CAROLINAS; we cannot but hope we shall be more able to annoy the trade and navigation of SPAIN and FRANCE, on any future rupture between them and us, than they will be to hurt ours. See the articles FLORIDA and BAHAMA ISLANDS, and those other articles to which from them we refer. We seem, therefore, to have pretty well secured our North American colonies by sea, from north to south, by virtue of the DEFINITIVE TREATY: the difficulty, and the only one we labour under, is to secure our North American colonies from the insults and ravages of the Indians, who lie to the westward of those colonies. All proper measures will, doubt-

less, be taken by the government of GREAT-BRITAIN to mollify those people, in our favour, and to attach them most effectually to our interest. This will now be the more easily accomplished, since the boundaries between us and France are now ascertained by TREATY, which they never were before with regard to this part of the new world. Our right of navigation to and from the Mississippi through the Gulph of Mexico, will enable us to annoy our Indian enemies, as well as to aid and assist our friends: our new colonies will daily gather strength, which in conjunction with the assistance of our old, promise fair to render our whole range of British plantations not only more secure, but more flourishing and prosperous than they ever were before. See the articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS.

CANARY ISLANDS, lie to the west of the coast of Biledulgerid in Africa, between the 27th degree and 10 minutes, and the 29th and 50 minutes, of north latitude; and between the 12th and the 17th. 50. of longitude west of London.

These islands have been subject to the crown of Spain since the year 1417. The air thereof is generally good, though hot, and the soil fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet, and excellent wine, which is transported thence to most parts of Europe, but more particularly to Great-Britain. There are, also, abundance of pomegranate, pepper, fig, citron, and orange-trees; they yield, likewise, sugars, dragon's-blood, and some other sort of gums.

There are twelve of these islands, but only seven of note: we shall give a distinct description of them, so far as consents with the scope of our design.

I. LANZAROLA, or LANCEROLA, formerly Canturia (according to Barbot) lies in the 29th degree, 35 minutes, of north latitude, and 12. 30. longitude west of London. It is about 13 leagues long from north to south, 9 in breadth, and 40 in compass. It is parted by a ridge of mountains, which afford nothing but pasture to sheep and goats; but the vallies produce very good wheat and barley, though pretty sandy and dry. Here are also asses, kine, camels, and good horses.

II. FUERTE VENTURA, or FORTE VENTURA, lies under the 29th degree of north latitude, and under the 13th and 14th of longitude, east from London. It is about 25 leagues long from south-west to north-east; its breadth very irregular. The soil is partly mountainous, and partly champain, abounding in wheat and barley. There are several brooks of fresh water along the coast, and soft crooked trees on their banks, that yield gums, of which they make white salt. There are palm-trees, which bear dates; olive and mastic-trees, orchel-weed for dyeing, and a sort of fig-trees, which yield a balm as white as milk, that is of great virtue in several medicines. They make cheese of their goat's milk, of which this island breeds above 50,000 yearly. Their flesh is very good; the inhabitants make great profit of their skins and fat. The harbours here are only fit for middling vessels.

III. GREAT CANARIA, or CANARY, lies under the 28th degree of north latitude, and the 14th and 15th of longitude, west from London. It is in compass about 40 leagues; it is very fruitful, and remarkable for its excellent wines, which bear its name. It abounds also in melons, apples, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantanes; as also with fir, dragon, and palm-trees, and likewise with wild fowl.

IV. TENERIFF lies under the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude, and under the 16th and 17th of longitude west from London. It is about 18 leagues long, and 8 broad, and chiefly remarkable for its peak.

Oratavia lies on the west side of the island, and, being the chief sea-port for trade, the principal English merchants reside there, with their consul. The port is but ordinary at best, and very bad, when the north-west winds blow.

The true Malmsey wine is produced in this island, and that near the town of Laguna is said to be the best in the world. Here is, also, Canary wine, and Verdone, or green wine. The Canary grape grows chiefly on the west side of the island, and, therefore, is sent to Oratavia. The Verdone wine is strong-bodied, harsher, and sharper than the Canary. It is not so much esteemed in Europe, but is exported to the West-Indies, and will keep best in hot countries. This sort of wine is made chiefly on the east side of the island, and shipped off at Vera Cruz.

Besides these wines, here is, also, store of grain, as wheat, barley, and maiz, which they often transport to other places. Here are, likewise, papahs, apples, pears, plums, cherries, pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, limes, pumpkins, onions, esteemed the best in the world, &c. They are well stocked with horses, cows, mules, sheep, goats, hogs, conies, and plenty of deer. Nor is there any want of poultry or fish. All the Canary isles have of these commodities more or less.

V. GOMERA lies to the west of Teneriff, under the 28th degree of north latitude, and the 18th of longitude, west of London. It is about 22 leagues in compass, though but eight in length. It has a pretty good haven, and a town of the same name. The country is high, feeds small cattle, produces dragon-trees, and is incompassed with great deep roads.

VI. FERRO, called HIERRO by the Spaniards, is the most westerly of all the Canaries, and lies under the 27th and 28th degrees

degrees of north latitude, and under the 18th of longitude, west of London. It is 10 leagues long, five broad, and about 25 in compass. The soil is dry and barren in some parts for want of water. This island is particularly famous from the French navigators placing their first meridian in the center of it (Barbot), as the Dutch did theirs through the Peak of Teneriff: but, at present, most geographers reckon the first meridian from the capital city of their own country, as the English from London, the French from Paris, &c.

VII. PALMA lies to the north of Teneriff, under the 29th degree of north latitude, and under the 18th of longitude, west of London. It is about seven leagues in breadth, 10 in length, and 26 in compass. Here is the mountain of goats, from whence, it is said, the island took its original name of Cafararia. It has a town of its present name, and a safe harbour, well frequented for wines, which some reckon the best of the Canaries, and like the Malmsey. They are transported thence to the West Indies, and other places. The best comes from the neighbourhood of a place called Brenia, from whence they export above 12,000 pipes a year. There are here four fine sugar-engines.

R E M A R K S.

These islands of the Canaries, besides the rich product and commerce of them, are of great use to the Spaniards by their situation. Here the Spanish fleets of galleons and flotas from Old Spain to New generally rendezvous, when outward bound, for fresh water and fresh provisions, and wine, whereby they have a considerable help forward in their voyage; and, at their return, they appoint to rendezvous here, to meet with news from Europe, to know if it be peace or war, and whether they shall proceed for Cadiz, wait for convoy, or go for the north to make other ports for security: and sometimes, in case of war in Europe, a squadron of men of war is sent hither to meet and secure them. The islands are not so well furnished, indeed, to secure the galleons and rich fleets from Spain, because, especially at Teneriff, where the ships ordinarily meet, they have no good harbour to receive and defend the shipping; nor is the road, which is open, the best of its kind: but the general remedy of the sailors, in case of a threatening storm, or an enemy, is to go off to sea, where they have sea-room to help to struggle with, or to run for the Azores, or other islands, where pretty good harbours are to be had.

They have some tolerable fortifications on shore, and some good batteries of guns planted on proper landing-places, which are one of their securities. But the strength of these islands consists chiefly in this, that no troops care to make any effort upon the land, left, while they are on shore, the wind should freshen at sea, and the ships be obliged to go off, and leave them; in which case they are sure to be distressed for want of provisions, and, perhaps, to be all lost.

These islands yield a pretty considerable revenue to the king of Spain yearly in wine, of which the quality is not only extraordinary, but the quantity large. In regard to other products in general, they are sometimes not competent for the sustenance of the islanders, who, therefore, are frequently under the necessity of being supplied with corn from Spain, or New England.

CANDIDATE. We have no other word in our language to express what the French stile aspirant. It signifies, in general, one who sets up for any place, post or office; but it is said more particularly, in France, of apprentices, who would become masters, or freemen, either in one of the six bodies of merchants, or in any of the other companies of arts and trades: that is, they are candidates for the freedom of any peculiar company.

CANDIDATE to the freedom, in any of the six bodies of traders at Paris, is he, who being of a proper age, and having completed the time of his apprenticeship, and served afterwards with a master as a journeyman, according to the police of France, would become a master himself, and take up his freedom.

No man can be admitted to his freedom in any of the bodies of merchants, unless he is full 20 years old, and produce the indenture and certificates of his apprenticeship, and of the service he afterwards performed with his masters. If the contents of the certificates should not prove true, the candidate would lose his right to the freedom, and the master who gave such a certificate would be condemned to a fine of 500 livres, and the other certifiers to 300 livres each.

The candidate is to be examined upon book-keeping by single and double entry, upon notes and bills of exchange, upon the rules of arithmetic, the qualities of the merchandizes, so far as they relate to that branch of trade he intends to follow; and every other essential requisite proper to manifest his skill and accomplishment for the business he would follow.

For the better regulation hereof, all private persons and companies are forbidden to accept or receive from the candidates any presents, or any other fees, but such as are appointed by the statutes, under what pretence or colour soever it might be, under penalty of a fine, which cannot be less than 100 livres. The candidate is also forbidden to give any feast or

treat, upon pain of having his reception declared absolutely void.

Besides these general rules, extracted from the third, fourth, and fifth articles of the first title of the ordonnance made in France, in the year 1673, every one of the six bodies of merchants has some rules, or statutes, peculiar to themselves, either with regard to the time of the apprenticeship, or to the number of years a young man is to serve with a master as a journeyman; and, lastly, with regard to the master-piece of workmanship, to which some are subject before they can be admitted; and, as they are not mentioned in the ordonnance, we presume it will be acceptable to the reader to find them here, that he may see, at one view, all the obligations to which a candidate to such freedom is liable, in any of the six bodies of merchants.

In the body of drapers, which is esteemed the first of the six companies, the candidates are not obliged to the performance of any master-piece of workmanship to shew their qualifications; it is enough that they served a merchant-drapeer three whole years as apprentices, and two years, after the end of their apprenticeship, as clerks, or journeymen, which make five years in all.

Though the apothecaries, grocers, druggists, confectioners, and wax-chandlers, make but one body, which is the second of the six, yet the candidates are obliged to the performance of different things, according to the particular profession they would follow in that body.

They who would be apothecaries, for example, are obliged to have been four years apprentices, and have served six years more with the masters, which make in all 10 years; besides which, they are strictly examined, and under the necessity of giving satisfactory testimony of their abilities for the profession.

As for those who would follow the business of grocers, druggists, wax-chandlers, or confectioners, they are obliged but to three years apprenticeship, and to serve the masters three other years in the capacity of a journeyman, in all six years; and they are not bound to any master-piece.

In the body of the merchant-jewellers, which is the third, the candidates are not obliged to perform a master-piece; it is enough, to obtain their freedom, that they served a master-jeweller three years as apprentices, and three years more as journeymen, in all six years.

In the body of the merchant-furriers, or fell-mongers, which is the fourth, the candidates must prove their apprenticeship, and that they have afterwards served with masters: they must have served four full years as apprentices, and four years as journeymen, in all eight years, and are obliged to the performance of a master-piece.

They who would take up their freedom in the body of the hosiery, which is the fifth company, ought to have been apprentices five years, and to have served five other years as journeymen, in all 10 years, and must undergo the master-piece.

Lastly, they who would be made free of the sixth and last body of merchants, which is that of the gold and silversmiths, must prove their apprenticeships, and the time they served as journeymen; the former is to be of eight years, and the latter of two years, 10 years in all: besides which, they are obliged to make a master-piece, and to give security for 1000 livres. See APPRENTICE.

The Candidates to the freedom, in the companies of arts and trades, have also their rules and statutes, relating to the time of the apprenticeship, to that of serving as journeymen, to the master-piece, &c. but almost all of them are different, according to the several professions, and to the works made in them. See the articles where the several companies are mentioned, with the substance of their respective statutes.

CANDLE, a small taper of tallow, wax, or spermaceti, the wick of which is commonly of several threads of cotton, spun and twisted together.

A tallow candle, to be good, must be half sheep's, or ewe's tallow, or rather goat's tallow, and half ox, or cow's, tallow, melted together and well purified. It is prohibited by the regulations in France to mix any other tallow or grease with them, and particularly hog's tallow, which last makes the candles gutter, and always gives an offensive smell, with a black thick smoke, which is highly pernicious.

There is at Paris, as also in several of the chief cities in France, a company of tallow-chandlers, erected into a corporation, to whom alone it is lawful to deal in candles, either in the making or selling them.

Besides the freemen of this company, who are obliged to undergo an apprenticeship, and to perform a master-piece, there are, also, at Paris, 12 privileged tallow-chandlers, following the court, who are admitted by the high provost of the hotel, and have the right, with the other freemen of the company, to make and sell all sorts of candles.

There has been, for a long time, at Paris, a famous manufacture of candles, set up in St. Anthony's suburb, by the Sieur Le Brez: but, the time of privilege which he had obtained being expired, the making of these candles is become part of the trade of the company of tallow-chandlers, who have now the right to make them. However, the Sieur Le Brez, who

is free of that company, still continues that trade, with good success, having this advantage over the other tallow-chandlers, that his candles are esteemed much better for their whiteness, for their firmness of the tallow, and for the brightness of the light they give.

There are two sorts of tallow-candles, the one dipped, and the other moulded. The former are the common candles, the invention and use of which are very ancient in France; the others are the candles of the Sieur Le Brez's manufacture, mentioned above, who either invented, or improved and perfected them.

The method of making candles in general.

After the tallow has been weighed, and mixed in the proportions set forth in the ordonnances, or regulations, mentioned in the beginning of this article, it is cut into very small pieces, that it may melt the sooner; for the tallow in lumps, as the chandlers receive it from the butchers, is too difficult to melt, and would be in danger of burning, or turning black, if it were left too long over the fire.

When the tallow is perfectly melted, and well skimmed, they pour a certain quantity of water into it, proportionable to the quantity of tallow. This serves to precipitate to the bottom of the vessel the impurities of the tallow, which may have escaped the skimmer. Observe, however, that there must be no water thrown into the tallow designed for the three first dips, because the wick, being still quite dry, would imbibe the water, which makes the candles crackle in burning, and renders them of bad use.

The tallow, thus melted, is poured into a tub, through a coarse sieve of horse-hair, to purify it still more. At the lower part of the tub there is a copper or brass top, two or three inches above the bottom, by which the liquid tallow is drawn out on occasion.

The tallow, thus prepared, may be used after it has settled about three hours; it will continue hot, and in a condition to be used, during 24 hours in summer, and 15 or 16 in winter; but, when the weather is too cold, care must be taken to keep it warm, either by covering it, or putting it near the fire.

Before they begin to melt the tallow, they are used to prepare a quantity of wicks, sufficient to take up all the tallow they intend to melt.

The wicks are made of spun-cotton, which the tallow-chandlers buy in skains, and which they wind up into bottoms, or clues.

The bottoms of cotton made for the wicks of candles, commonly weigh half a pound; the wicks consist of two, three, or four threads, according to the quality and size of the candles, it being equally prohibited by the ordonnances of France to make the wicks too thick or too thin.

By the 9th and 10th of Anne, certain duties are granted in England on Candles and Sops.

Makers of candles are not to use melting-houses without due entry thereof at the Excise-Office, on pain of 100*l*. And to give notice of making candles to the excise officer for the duties, and of the number, &c. or shall forfeit 50*l*. Removing the candles before weighed by the officer, or mixing them with others, &c. is liable to penalties. See the article CAMBODIA, a note there about CANDLES.

CANDLE, A sale, or auction, by inch of candle, is when a small piece of candle being lighted, the by-standers are allowed to bid for the merchandize which is selling; but, the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the last bidder.

CANDO, CANDI, or CONDI, a long measure used in several parts of the East-Indies, and particularly at Goa, the capital city of the settlements which the Portuguese still enjoy there.

The cando of Goa is 17 Dutch ells and $\frac{7}{8}$, per 100, longer than the ells of Babel and Bassora, and $6\frac{1}{2}$ than the varre, or ell of Ormus.

Silk and woollen stuffs are measured by the varre, and linens by the cando. The cando, or condo, used in the kingdom of Pegu, is equal to the ell of Venice.

CANE, a walking-stick. That which we intend to give an account of at present, is called by the Dutch *rolting*. It is a reed brought from the East-Indies. There is a great trade of them at Paris and at London. It is customary to adorn them with a head of gold, silver, agate, ivory, amber, and even sometimes enriched with precious stones, and, frequently, the head is only of some sort of wood. Sometimes, instead of a head, they put a spying-glass on the top of the cane.

Some are without knots, and very smooth and even; that is, when the reed was grown so long that the distance between two knots was large enough to make a cane. Others are full of knots, about two inches distant from each other; these last have very little elasticity, and will not bend so well as the others.

Lastly, there are canes made of several sorts of precious wood, as ebony, St. Lucia's wood, rose-wood, &c. These, indeed, are nothing but sticks, but, as they serve for the same purposes as canes, they have got that name.

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CANES of Betigal. The most beautiful canes which the Europeans bring into England and France, &c. come from Betigal. Some of them are so fine; that people work them into vessels, or bowls, which, being varnished over in the inside, with black or yellow lacca, or of some other colour, will hold liquors, as well as glass, or China ware does; and the Indians use them for the same purposes.

These bowls are made much after the same manner as their fine oser baskets that they make in France and in Flanders, and which are very much esteemed on account of the delicacy of the workmanship.

There are canes, also, that are slit into narrow bits, and serve to make rattans, which were formerly greatly used in the making of cane-chairs, and hoops for the ladies, in several parts of Europe.

CANE is also a long measure, which serves to measure bodies extended in length, as cloths, serges, linens, and other such merchandizes. It is longer or shorter, according to the several countries and places where it is used.

At Montpellier, and in all Lower Languedoc, as also in Provence, in the country of Avignon, and in Dauphiné, the cane is 6 feet and $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long, which make an ell and $\frac{3}{8}$ of Paris; so that three canes of Montpellier make 5 ells of Paris. This cane is subdivided into eight spans, or palms.

In order to reduce the canes of Montpellier into Paris ells, the common rule of proportion is thus used; saying, If 3 canes of Montpellier make 5 ells of Paris, what will any other number of canes of Montpellier make in Paris ells? If, on the contrary, you would reduce Paris ells into canes of Montpellier, you must say, If 5 ells of Paris make three canes of Montpellier, how many canes of Montpellier will so many ells of Paris make? This method may serve, also, to reduce the canes of other places into Paris ells, and the ells of Paris into the canes of those places.

Observe, that the use of the cane has been prohibited in Languedoc and Dauphiné, by two decrees of the king's council of state, given the 24th of June, and the 27th of October, 1678; and that, according to those decrees, they must use in those provinces the Paris ell, instead of the cane, in the buying and selling of stuffs.

At Naples the cane is of 6 feet 10 inches and $\frac{1}{3}$, which make an ell and $\frac{1}{2}$ of Paris; so that 17 canes of Naples make 32 ells of Paris.

The cane of Thouloufe, and of all Upper Languedoc, and even of some cities in Guienne, is equal to the varre of Arragon; it is of five feet five inches and a half, which make an ell and a half of Paris; so that two canes of Thouloufe make three ells of Paris.

CANE is also said of that which has been measured with a cane, as a cane of cloth, a cane of muslin, &c.

CANE, a sugar-cane, is the reed with the juice of which sugar is made. See SUGAR.

CANICA, a sort of spice, which grows in the island of Cuba. It is a kind of wild cinnamon, but its taste is more like that of cloves than of cinnamon. It is also used in medicine, where they substitute it in the room of cassia. It is a pretty saleable commodity in the Spanish islands.

CANNON, a piece of ordnance made of metal, of a cylindrical form, and bored through its whole length, which is loaded with powder and ball, to serve in attacking of strong places, in battles, either by sea or by land. There are in France several royal founderies for the casting of cannon. See FOUNDERY.

Cannon, and other pieces of ordnance, as well as their carriages, and all that serve to load or fire them, are contraband goods, the exportation of which is prohibited through the whole extent of the kingdom, territories, and dominions of the French king, according to the ordonnance of the year 1687, under the penalty of forfeiting the goods, paying a fine, and suffering other punishments, according to the nature of the case.

CANNON, with letter-founders and printers, signifies also the largest size of the letters they use. See LETTER-FOUNDER and PRINTER.

CANOE, a small boat made of the trunk of a tree bored hollow, and sometimes also of pieces of bark sewed together. It is used by the natives of America to go a fishing in the sea, or upon some expedition, either by sea, or upon the rivers and lakes. The negroes in Guinea, and even many nations in the East-Indies, use also canoes. The French in Canada have likewise learnt the use of them, and go in canoes to the habitations of the savages, and carry them European commodities, which they exchange for skins and furs, &c. These canoes are made only of the bark of trees, chiefly of birch: two men are sufficient to manage such a canoe: and, when the falls of the rivers oblige them to land, they carry the canoe and merchandizes on their shoulders, till they come above or below the fall, according as they go up or down the rivers or lakes. The largest canoes, made of the bark of trees, rarely hold above four persons.

The canoes, made of the trunk of one tree, keep that name as long as they are so small, that not above three or four people can go in them. When they are larger, those of the Americans are called pirogues, and those of Guinea eham.

The canoes of the savages, about Davis's-Streights, are more extraordinary. They are seven or eight feet long, and two broad; composed of small sticks of a very pliant wood, in the form of a hurdle, and covered with seal-skins: every canoe holds but one man, who sits in a hole made in the middle of the canoe. The reader may see a more particular description of the canoes, in the third chapter of the *Decouverte d'un grand pais en l'Amerique Septentrionale*, inserted in the 9th volume of the Collection of the voyages to the North, in French.

CANTARO, a weight used in Italy, and particularly at Leghorn, to weigh some sorts of merchandizes.

There are three sorts of cantari, or quintals: one weighs 150 pounds, the other 151, and the third 160. The first serves to weigh allum and cheefe; the second for fugar; and the last for wool and cod-fish. The other merchandizes are sold by the 100 weight, or by the pound. Lead, wood of Campeachy, or logwood, or that called Brazil, &c. and other wood, are sold by the 1000 weight. The pound of Leghorn is of 12 ounces, mark weight; and that of Paris, Amsterdam, Strafburgh, and Befançon, where the weight is the same, of 16 ounces, also mark weight: and, at that rate, these three sorts of cantari ought to yield at Paris as follows, viz.

The cantaro of 150 pounds, 103 pounds and 8 ounces.

That of 151 pounds, 104 pounds and 3 ounces.

And that of 160 pounds, 110 pounds, 6 ounces, 3 drachms, and something more. This last makes 136 pounds at Marfeilles.

CANTARO, is also a measure of contents used at Cochín; there are three sorts of them, whose difference is only of a few pounds. They use the one or the other, according to the several merchandizes they would measure. Commonly the cantaro is of 4 rubis, and the rubi of 32 rotolis.

CANTHARIDES, a species of fly, or rather beetle.

This fly, whose venom is very violent, is green and shining: its green, however, is mixed with a little blue and yellow, of a golden colour; which makes it appear of a variable and agreeable colour; but it has such an unpleasant and disagreeable smell, that it is not prudent to admire the colours to prejudice the smell.

The physicians, who compose some of their remedies with poisons, make some of those which are called topic medicines, with these venomous flies. Amongst others, they make a plaister of them for the tooth-ach; they also enter into the composition of the best blisters. The farriers likewise use them very much, for the cure of several distempers in horses, particularly the farcy.

The country people about Paris carry thither almost all the cantharides, which are used by the apothecaries and the farriers; there are some, however, imported from foreign parts. Those of Italy, which are bigger than the others, are not used in France. They use the small ones which are sold by the druggists.

When these flies are gathered, they kill them with the steam of hot vinegar, and then dry them in the sun.

The cantharides must be chosen fresh, dry, and quite whole: they will not keep much above three years, without spoiling, and turning to dust, and then they are good for nothing.

CANTIMARONS, or **CATIMARONS**, a kind of float or raft, used by the inhabitants of the coast of Coromandel to go a fishing, and to trade along the coast. They are made of three or four small canoes, or of trunks of trees dug hollow, tied together with ropes of cocoa, with a triangular sail in the middle, made of mats. The persons who manage them are almost half in the water, there being only a place in the middle a little raised to put in their merchandizes; which last particular must be understood only of the trading cantimarons, and not of those that go out a fishing.

CANVAS, a very clear unbleached cloth of hemp or flax, wove very regular in little squares. It is used for working tapestry with the needle, by passing the threads of gold, silver, silk, wool, through the intervals or squares.

Most of the canvas for tapestry, which is sold at Paris, is made in the neighbourhood of Monfort l'Amours, and particularly at a place called Mefnil.

There is coarse, middling, and fine canvas: the finest are generally made of flax, and the others of hemp. All the pieces of canvas are 45 ells long, Paris measure. But their breadth is very unequal, some being a quarter of an ell wide, others a quarter and a half, half an ell, half an ell and $\frac{1}{2}$, half an ell and $\frac{2}{3}$; $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ and an half of an ell, Paris measure. There are, however, some from 30 to 45 ells long, by 2 ells wide: but the weavers make none of that sort, unless they are bespoke by the merchants.

Though tapestry seems no great object of trade, yet, besides what is used at Paris, and in the other great cities of France, they also export some into foreign countries, particularly into England, Poland, and some other places in the north of Europe.

CANVAS is also a coarse cloth of hemp, unbleached, somewhat clear, which serves to cover women's stays, also to stiffen men's cloaths, and to make some other of their wearing apparel. These canvasses are $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell broad, and from

50 to 60 ells long, Paris measure: they are sold by the current ell.

CANVAS is also a very coarse cloth of hemp unbleached, which serves to make towels. This sort of canvas is made in Normandy, in the neighbourhood of Alençon, and in Perche, towards Montagne. It is commonly 60 ells long, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell broad, Paris measure.

CANVAS, or **KANEFAS**. Thus the Dutch call a sort of very coarse cloth made of hemp, very strong and very close, which are made in Holland, and serve to make sails for shipping. These cloths are sold by rolls, or pieces about 28 ells long, and near $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell wide, Paris measure. The French buy but few, not to say, none of these cloths of the Dutch.

REMARKS.

The frequent losses, some years since, of the sails of our shipping, as well among the royal navy, as merchant-men, proved a great disadvantage to the nation. This was generally allowed to be then owing to the canvas that was manufactured in England, and which came far short of what we had from Holland, as to strength and goodness. But our own canvas is lately very much improved, and the importation from Holland, in consequence thereof, greatly diminished. And this, it is to be earnestly hoped and desired, will soon be the case, in regard to every species of the linnen manufacture.

CAP-MERCHANT, in a trading ship, is the same officer, who is called purser in a man of war. The French call him writer (ecrivain); he is appointed by the merchants to whom the ship belongs, to take care that nothing be embezled nor squandered away.

By the laws of France, the cap-merchant is obliged to have a register, or journal, marked with a flourish at the beginning and end by an officer of the admiralty, of the place from whence he is to sail, or if there be no such officer there, by two of the chief owners of the ship.

That register contains an exact and particular inventory or account of the whole ship's cargo, as tackling, apparel, arms, provisions, merchandizes, &c. In this book are likewise set down the names of all the passengers, if there be any; the freight that is agreed upon, the list of the whole crew, with their age, qualities, wages, and salaries; an account of what has been bought for the ship's use, since her departure, &c. the consumption of provisions and ammunition, in short, all that relates to the expences of the voyage. In this register, are entered all the resolutions of the merchants, captains, pilots, and others, who have a right to vote upon emergencies; the names, ages, and qualities of those who die, and if possible, the nature of the distemper that carried them off.

In a word, nothing happens or is done on board a trading vessel, but an accurate and careful cap-merchant sets down in his book, which cannot be kept too regularly; since, in case of need, it may be produced as a voucher before a court of justice.

The cap-merchant, in the above-mentioned nation, doth also perform the office of a recorder in criminal processes, to take informations; and of a notary, to draw up and witness the last wills of those who die on board, and make an inventory of what they leave.

To prevent all frauds or imposition in this latter case, he is obliged to deposit, into the records of the admiralty, the minutes, or originals of all the said informations, wills, and inventories, four and twenty hours after the ship's return.

The cap-merchant cannot leave the ship till the voyage is finished under the penalty of losing all his wages, and paying an arbitrary fine.

In such ships whose cargo is not considerable enough to bear the expence of a cap merchant, the master himself, or the mate, if thereto requested by the master, performs the office of a cap-merchant.

CAPER, is both the flower and fruit of the plant or shrub which is called the caper-bush.

This plant, which is brachy and thorny, trails on the ground, and spreads very much in a circular manner. It delights in chinks and crevices of old walls or rocks, and in desert barren places. Its leaves are very round. Its flower, when opened, is white, but before it blows, it is green, in the shape of a small round olive, with a stalk. This bud is properly the fruit of the caper bush, which people preserve in vinegar, or in salt, and of which there is a pretty considerable trade, as a pickle.

Father Le Breton, in his Description of the chief plants of America, inserted in the *Memoirs of Trevoux*, for the year 1732, &c. describes this plant otherwise. It is, says he, a shrub, whose stalks or stinks rise to the height of seven or eight feet; the bark is dyed with violet or purple; the leaves are large, firm, shining, nervous, wrinkled, and dry. The flower consists of four leaves, expanded in the form of a small rose, the middle of which is filled with a tuft of stamina. The top of the pistil is shaped like a pebble, and becomes a fruit in form of a siliqua, near a foot long, which opens lengthways from one end to the other. The seeds, which are shaped like a kidney, are covered with a mucilaginous substance,

substance, proper to clean linnen; for it makes the water latter like unto soap*.

* May it not deserve the attention of our linnen manufacturers, in Scotland and Ireland, to think of materials for the bleaching of linnen that will come cheaper than what they at present use? See BLEACHING. LINNENS.

CAPHAR, a duty which the Turks raise on the Christians, who carry or send merchandizes from Aleppo to Jerusalem, and other places in Syria. This duty of caphar was first imposed by the christians themselves, when they were in possession of the holy land, for the maintenance of the troops which were planted in difficult passes, to observe the Arabs, and prevent their incursions: but the Turks, who have continued and increased that duty, make an ill use of it; taking occasion from thence to affront the christian travellers and merchants, extorting arbitrary and considerable sums from them to defend them, as they pretend, against the Arabs; with whom nevertheless they keep up a secret intelligence, favouring their excursions, pillage, and plunder.

CAPITAL, amongst merchants, bankers, and traders, signifies the sum of money which individuals bring to make up the common stock of a partnership, when it is first formed. It is also said of the stock which a merchant at first puts into trade, for his account. It signifies likewise the fund of a trading company or corporation, in which sense the word stock is generally added to it. Thus we say, the capital stock of the bank, &c. The word capital is opposed to that of profit or gain, tho' the profit often increases the capital, and becomes itself part of the capital, when joined with the former.

CAPLAN, a sort of small fish, which abounds in those places where they fish for cod: there is particularly great plenty of it on the coast of Placentia in Newfoundland. They use it to bait the hooks of the lines, with which they fish for cod.

CAPSTAN, **CAPSTANE**, or **CAPSTERN**, is an engine composed of a roller, or cylinder, placed perpendicularly to the horizon, and supported by strong pieces of timber. The capstan on ship-board, by means of a cable that winds round the cylinder, and of two leavers or bars, which are put across the head of it, and moved by men, serves to draw or heave up the weightiest burthens, which are fastened to the end of the rope.

The chief use of capstans on board ships, is to tow them and to weigh the anchors.

They serve also upon large boats on the river Seine, to tow them against the stream through bridges, by fastening the end of the cable to the iron-rings, which are commonly fixed in the middle of the bridges. The capstan is also used to take out of vessels very large pieces of marble, or free-stone, and convey them to the places where they are to be wrought, when they are too large, and too heavy to be put into carts.

CAPTAIN of Merchantmen. See **COMMANDERS** of Merchantmen.

CARACOLI, a kind of metal, of which the Caribbees; or natives of the Lesser Antilles, make a sort of ornament, in the form of a crescent, which they call caracoli. This metal comes from the main land, and the common opinion is, that it is a compound of silver, copper, and gold, something like the Corinthian brass of old. These metals are so perfectly mixed and incorporated together, that the compound which results from them, it is said, has a colour that never alters, how long soever it remains in the sea, or under ground. It is something brittle, and they who work it are obliged to mix a large proportion of gold with it, to make the compound more tough and malleable under the hammer.

The English and French silversmiths have made several experiments thereon, in order to imitate this metal; they who come nearest to it, put to six parts of silver three of copper, and one of gold: The skilful found this imitated mixture, though very fine, yet much inferior to that among the savages.

Father Labat, from whose relation this article is extracted, is of opinion that the caracoli is a simple metal as produced from the mines, and afterwards refined. They make with it in the French American islands rings, buckles, heads for canes, and such other small works.

CARAGI. Thus they call, in the Grand Signior's dominions, the duties of importation and exportation paid on merchandizes.

It must be observed, that the duty of importation is paid but once, and only at the custom-house where the merchandizes are first unloaded. If they be not sold, the importer, or owner, is at liberty to carry them to any other place, where, by producing the first receipt for the duty paid, he is free from any other custom-house duty.

CARAGI, is also the name of the custom-house officers who receive the duties. The general or chief officer, or director, of the custom-house, is called caragi-bachi.

CARAGROUCH, a silver coin of the empire, weighing nine drachms, which does not amount to quite a French crown of three livres Tournois. It goes at Constantinople for 120 aspers: there are four sorts of them, which are all equally current, and of the same value.

CARAMANGO, a drug which comes from China, and is proper to be used in medicine. The Tonquinese value it very much. That which the Chinese carry into Tonquin costs them at Canton but six taels and two mas; and they sell it again for 12 taels and five mas.

CARANNA, or **KARANNA**, a very scarce gum, which comes from New Spain. The trees from which it runs are like the palm-tree. When it is fresh, it is white, but, as it grows stale, it becomes greyish, inclining to green, in which condition it is sent into Europe, where the white is seldom to be met with. It is brought in lumps, wrapped up in reed-leaves, or blades. To be of the best quality, it must be soft, and of a pleasant aromatic smell, and as white as snow. As this gum is very dear, it is seldom sold unadulterated, and other sorts are often substituted in its stead, which have not the same properties. When applied to the head, it has an extraordinary virtue to relieve it from pain, which renders it highly valuable. It produces the same effects in the joints, and is so much esteemed in medicine, that it is become a proverb in pharmacy to say, Whatever the tacamahaca has not cured, the caranna will.

The Americans make a balm of it, which they pretend is a sovereign remedy for the cure of wounds, and the hæmorrhoids or piles.

CARAPACE, a thick, solid, and firm shell, which covers the turtle, or tortoise, and to which adhere those fine transparent shells which are known under the name of tortoise-shell, and of which snuff-boxes and several sorts of inlaid works are made.

CARAT, or **CARACT**, is the common name of the weight which represents what degree of fineness gold is of.

The mint-master, or custom, have fixed the purity, or perfection of gold, at 24 carats, though it is not possible so to purify and refine that metal but it will still want about one fourth part of a carat in absolute purity and perfection; that is to say, gold cannot be so refined but there will remain such a proportion of inferior metal, or alloy, therein. See **ALLOY**, and **BULLION GOLD** and **SILVER**.

The carat is divided into $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{5}$. These degrees serve to distinguish the greater or lesser quantity of alloy therein contained. For instance, gold of 22 carats is that which has two parts of silver, or of any other metal, and 22 of fine gold. See the articles **ALLOY**, **AQUA REGIA**, **BULLION GOLD**, **REFINING**; under which heads, the whole business relating to all kinds of dealings in gold will be amply explained and illustrated, from it's first refining from the native ore to it's various uses in all shapes whatsoever.

CARAT, which the Spaniards call **Quilate**, is also a certain weight, which goldsmiths and jewellers use, wherewith to weigh precious stones and pearls. This carat weighs four grains, but something lighter than the grains of marc-weight. Each of these grains is subdivided into $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, &c. and upon that footing the price of pearls and precious stones is rated and fixed. Tavernier asserts, that the Grand Mogul's famous diamond, which is reckoned the biggest in the world, weighs 279 carats and $\frac{1}{8}$.

In Spain the carat, or quilate, is also of four grains: three carats make a tomin, eight tomins a castellan, six castillans and two tomins one ounce, and eight ounces a marc: but the marc of Spain is about $\frac{1}{3}$ lighter than that of France.

CARAVAN, or **CARAVANNE**, in the East, signifies a company, or assembly, of travellers and pilgrims, and more particularly of merchants, who, for their greater security, and in order to assist each other, travel together through the deserts, and other dangerous places, which are infested with Arabs, or robbers. This is the true origin of these associations.

There is a chief, or aga, who commands the caravan, and is attended by a certain number of janisaries, or other militia, according to the countries from whence the caravans set out; which number of soldiers must be sufficient to defend them, and conduct them with safety to the places for which they are designed, and on a day appointed. The caravan encamps every evening, near such wells or brooks as their guides are acquainted with; and there is as strict a discipline observed upon this occasion as in armies in times of war.

Their beasts of burden are horses, but most commonly camels, who are capable of undergoing a very great fatigue, eat but little, and, above all, can be three, four, five, six, or even seven days, without drinking, to which they are broke, when very young.

REMARKS.

Of the caravans of Africa.

The caravan of Nubia goes twice a year into Egypt. It passes through Gary, a place on the left bank of the Nile, three or four days journey on this side of Dongola. There the merchants of Sannar, the capital of Fungi, those of Gondar, the capital of Ethiopia, and many others from divers parts of Africa, meet at a certain time, when they know the caravan is to arrive. Then, setting out from Gary, the caravan leaves the banks of the Nile, and, crossing the deserts of Lybia, arrives, after a march of 13 days, into a valley, which

is 30 leagues long. This valley, which extends almost from north to south, is planted with palm-trees, and very well cultivated, because there is good water to be found by digging only one foot deep in the ground.

After some days rest in this agreeable place, the caravan marches a whole day between steep mountains, in an even but narrow road; after which it arrives in a narrow pass, through which it crosses that chain of mountains which runs along the Nile on the side of Lybia, and comes at last to Manfelout, a town in Upper Egypt, where the duties to the prince are paid in black slaves, and where the caravan meets the Nile again, for the first time from its setting out from Gary.

The first danger in so difficult a march is, that the caravan being to cross immense plains of sand, where it is impossible to observe or discover the least track of a road, if the guides should happen to lose their way in those unknown countries, the provision of water, necessary to conduct them directly to the place where they are to find more, must infallibly fail them by such a delay, which is frequently of several days journey. In such a case, the mules and horses die with fatigue and thirst in those burning deserts; and even the camels, notwithstanding their extraordinary power to subsist without water, soon meet with the same fate; and the people of the caravan, wandering in those frightful deserts, generally perish also.

The danger is infinitely greater still, when a south wind happens to rise in those sandy places. The least damage it occasions is to dry up the leather budgets in which is kept the provision of water for the journey. This wind, which the Arabs stile poisoned, does often stifle, in a moment, those who have the misfortune to be then travelling: to prevent which they are obliged to throw themselves immediately on the ground, putting their faces close to the burning sand, which surrounds them on all sides, and covering their heads with some linnen for that purpose, lest, by breathing, they should swallow infallible death, which this wind disseminates every where within its power of circulation.

Notwithstanding those dangers, trade, and the desire of gain, makes a multitude of people run those hazards, in order to become opulent by their traffic.

There arrives likewise at Cairo, every year, a numerous caravan from Tripoli, to which the merchants of Algiers, Tunis, and Morocco join themselves, as well as those who would go in pilgrimage to Mecca, though devotion be not the only motive of their journey. This caravan is much less numerous on its return, because the greatest part of those merchants who went by land, with only money, or very fine merchandizes for sale, having employed their effects at Mecca in buying Indian commodities, which are bulky, embark at Alexandria, and return by sea to Algiers.

There come likewise every year into Egypt several caravans from Syria, but the time of their arrival, or of their setting out, is not fixed. The journey of those caravans is neither so difficult nor so dangerous as those of the others, because the deserts which separate these two countries, are crossed in three days, and water here is not scarce. They meet even on that road with several caravan-seras, in which the travellers and their cattle are furnished gratis with all necessaries: so that these caravans enjoy all possible conveniences, especially the rich people among them, who, nevertheless, live very soberly during their journey.

These are the most famous caravans which go into Egypt, on the account of trade, according to Monsieur Mallet, in his last letter concerning the description of Egypt.

Of the caravans of Asia; extracted partly from Monsieur Bugnon's account.

In order to form a caravan, it is necessary to have the permission, in writing, of a sovereign prince, approved, and, as it were, authenticated at least by two other sovereign princes of the neighbourhood. That permission must comprehend the number of men, carriages, and quantity of merchandizes, of which the caravan is to be composed. Those merchants to whom the caravan belongs, appoint its officers, and regulate every thing that relates to its policy or government during the march.

There are commonly four principal officers, namely, the caravanbachi, or head of the caravan, the captain of the march, the captain of stay, or rest, and the captain of the distribution. The first has the uncontrollable command and authority over all the others, and gives them his orders; the second is absolute during the march; the third exerts his authority only when the caravan stops, and encamps in some place; the fourth orders the disposition of every part of the caravan, in case of an attack and a battle. Besides which, this military officer has also, during the march, the inspection over the distribution of the provisions, which is conducted, under his management, by several inferior officers, who are obliged to give security to the master of the caravan, each of them having the care of a certain number of men, elephants, dromedaries, &c. which they undertake to conduct, and furnish with provisions at their own risk, according to the agreement stipulated.

The fifth officer of the caravan is the paymaster, who has under him a great many clerks and interpreters, who keep accurate journals of whatever happens; and it is by those journals, signed by the superior officers, that the owners of the caravan judge whether they have been well or ill served and conducted.

Another kind of officers are the Arabian mathematicians, without whom no caravan will presume to set out, there being commonly three of them in the large caravans. These officers perform the functions both of quarter-masters and of aids de camp, leading the troops when the caravan is attacked, and designing the quarters where the caravan is regulated duly to encamp.

They distinguish five sorts of caravans; the heavy caravans, composed of elephants, dromedaries, camels, and horses; the light caravans, which have but few elephants; the common caravans, where there are none of those animals; the horse-caravans, in which they use neither dromedaries nor camels; and, lastly, the sea-caravans, that is to say, a number of merchant-ships, under the convoy of some men of war: so that it may be observed, that the idea of a caravan is not wholly restrained to the land, but there are marine caravans also.

The proportion observed in the heavy caravans is as follows: when there are 500 elephants, they put 1000 dromedaries, and 2000 horses at least; and then the escort is composed of 4000 men on horseback. There are two men required for leading one elephant, five for three dromedaries, and seven for eleven camels. This multitude of servants, together with the officers, and the passengers, whose number is not fixed, serve to support the escort in case of a fight, and render the caravan more formidable, and, therefore, more secure. The passengers, indeed, are not, according to the laws and usages of this mercantile cavalcade, obliged to fight; but, in case they refuse it, they are not intitled to any provisions whatever from the caravan, even though they should offer to pay an extra price for them.

The officers and servants are paid every Monday, unless it be a new or full moon, in which case the payment is put off till the next day: they begin with paying the meanest of the servants.

Every elephant is mounted by what they call a nik, that is to say a lad nine or ten years old, brought up to that exercise, who drives the elephant, and pricks it now and then, in order to fire it, in a fight. The same lad loads also the firearms of two soldiers, who mount the elephant with him.

The day appointed for setting out is never altered.

In order to be better able to bear the great heat, the traders use drawers and stockings, made of a sort of cotton, extracted, as some travellers tell us, from that kind of stone which the ancients called amianthus, which, being duly beaten and prepared, is proper to be spun, and is said to be incombustible. See AMIANTHUS.

As most of the Arabian princes have no other means whereby to subsist than their robberies, they keep spies, who give them notice when the caravans set out, which they sometimes attack with superior force, assaulting chiefly the centre, in order to separate the company, and carry off, if possible, the vanguard, wherein they pretty often meet with good success. When they are repulsed, they generally come to some agreement, the conditions of which are pretty well performed, especially if the assailants prove to be natives of Arabia; but, in case the caravan be beat, it is absolutely plundered of all its treasure, and the whole convoy made slaves; but they shew a little more mercy to foreigners: sometimes the taking of one caravan only is enough to enrich those princes.

As the plague rages very often in the East, they are obliged to use great precautions, to prevent the caravans from carrying that dreadful distemper into the places through which they pass, or from being themselves infected therewith; wherefore, when they arrive near a town, the inhabitants and the people of the caravan have a solemn conference, concerning the state of their health, and very sincerely communicate to each other the state of the case, if there be really any danger to fear on either side. When on either side they have just reason to suspect any contagious distemper, they amicably agree that no communication whatever should be suffered between them; and, if the caravan stands in need of provisions, it is conveyed to them over the walls of the town, and that with the utmost precaution.

The profits made by the commerce of these caravans, whilst upon the march, are often incredible; and our author relates, that, by several barter and exchanges of merchandizes, often repeated, a friend of his had gained 20,000 crowns, which had cost him only a gold watch of 30 Louis d'ors, that he gave, in exchange for two rough diamonds, to a merchant of the caravan with which he travelled.

These extraordinary profits, which are common enough, engage a great number of persons to join with the caravans, and render the toil and inconveniences of the journey less insupportable: and, indeed, those fatigues are not small. These travelling merchants must resolve to accept every-where such provisions, and other conveniences, as they find, and not permit

permit delicacy and ease to get the better of their desire of honest gain by such traffic: a trader must, like an heroic general, not mind the frightful contusion of languages and nations, the fatigues of long marches, nor the exorbitant duties and imposts paid at certain places; nor do the gallant enterprising traders regard the audacious robberies and subtle tricks, to which they are exposed among that multitude of vagabonds who frequent the caravans, with no other view but to live at the expence of the weak and incautious. These last inconveniencies, indeed, may be prevented, at least with regard to the most precious merchandizes, by putting them into the strong and curious trunk of the caravan, which, like many in Europe, have variety of curious locks, that cannot be opened but by those who know the knack of them.

There set out from Erzerum, the capital of that part of Armenia which is under the dominion of the Grand Signior, a great many caravans, some more, some less numerous: there are some which consist of Armenians only; such are those which carry silks to Tocat, and to Constantinople: these commonly set out in September.

The caravans of Siberia, at present, enter into the territories of China, by Selinginskoy, situated in the 2d degree of north latitude, on the eastern bank of the river Selinga, by virtue of the last treaty of commerce between Russia and the emperor of China; whereas formerly they used to pass through Nerzinskoy and Argun. We shall speak of these caravans in the account of the commerce of Muscovy.

There are also sea-caravans, established for the same reasons, and the same uses, for instance, that of Constantinople for Alexandria. See the articles PERSIA, TURKEY, and other places in the east where they use caravans; see also CAFFILA.

CARAVANIER, is he who leads the camels, and other beasts of burden, which are commonly used in the caravans in the East.

CARAVANSERA, or **KARAVANSERA**, a place appointed for receiving and loading the caravans. It is commonly a large square building, in the middle of which there is a very spacious court. Under the arches, or piazzas, that surround it, there runs a bank, or elevation, raised some feet above the ground, where the merchants, and those who travel with them in any capacity, take up their lodging, as well as they can, the beasts of burden, being tied to the foot of the bank. Over the gates that lead into the court, there are sometimes little rooms, which the keepers of the caravaneras let out, at a very high price, to such as have a mind to be private.

The caravaneras in the East are something in the nature of our capital inns in Europe, with this difference, however, that, in the caravaneras you meet with little accommodations or provision, either for man or beast, but are obliged to carry almost every thing with you.

Most of these buildings are owing to the charity of the Mahometans; and the greatest lords, either out of devotion, or vanity, spend prodigious sums in founding them, especially if they happen to be in dry, sandy, and desert places, whither the water is to be conveyed from a great distance, at a vast expence; for there is never a caravanera without a well or spring of water. There are few large towns in the East, especially in the dominions of the Grand Signior, the king of Persia, and the Grand Mogul, but have some of these buildings. The caravaneras of Constantinople, Ispahan, and Agra, the capitals of the empires of Turkey, Persia, and Mogul, are the most famous, with regard both to their number and magnificence.

In these the foreign merchants have most of their warehouses; for in these three cities there are several caravaneras, which, besides the common construction, as above described, have several safe and convenient apartments, both for the merchants and their merchandizes.

The emperor Mahomet IV. caused such caravaneras to be built at some distance from one another between Constantinople and Damafcus, and appointed considerable revenues for their maintenance. There all travellers, be they Christians, Jews, or Mahometans, are equally well received.

There are also at Cairo in Egypt, very fine caravaneras, which are always full of merchandizes and people; this is a motive that engages the great lords of that country to build such edifices, because they afford them no inconsiderable revenues.

The Nubians, Abyssinians, and other nations of Africa, who resort to Cairo, have there each their particular caravanera, where they always lodge. The same must be observed of the merchants of Aleppo, Damafcus, Constantinople, and other trading towns. These caravaneras are esteemed sacred dwellings, where it is not permitted to insult any person, or to pillage any of the effects, which are deposited there. They even carry their precautions so far, as not to suffer any man who is not married to lodge there, because they are of opinion, that a man who has no wife is more dangerous than another. It is to the interest of the proprietors of these sort of caravaneras, that the travellers are indebted for the good order and security they meet with: this is what Mons. Mallet tells us.

The caravaneras of Schiras and Casbin, two considerable towns in Persia, have also a very great reputation, and little inferior to those of the capital.

Besides the caravaneras which in the East serve instead of great inns, and furnish accommodations for the merchants,

there are some also at Ispahan, which may be filled bazars, or arched halls, where there are shops and warehouses, wherein several sorts of merchandizes and delicate pieces of workmanship are exposed to sale in the day-time, and locked up at night; and for which the keeper of the caravanera answers, in consideration of a certain fee or percentage.

The caravanera-keeper (thus the keeper thereof is called) also keeps an account of all the merchandizes that are sold upon trust; for he is obliged to book them regularly in his register, with the names of the buyers and sellers. He also is to demand the payment of the sums due to the merchant for what has been sold in the caravanera, on the seller's paying two per cent.

CARAVANSERASKEER, the steward or keeper of a caravanera. See the foregoing article.

CARBEQUI, or **ASPER** of **COPPER**, a coin which is current in the province of Georgia in Asia, particularly at Teflis, the capital of it; 40 carbequi's make an abagi, and 10 carbequi's a chaouri. See ABAGI.

CARBUNCLE, a name sometimes given to a red precious stone, more commonly called a ruby. But it is never called a carbuncle, when it's weight does not exceed 20 carats.

The ancients believed, and have written so many extraordinary, romantic, and incredulous tales, relating to the factitious carbuncle, as they called it; and the moderns, who have spoke of it on their authority, have added to many idle inventions of their own, arising from a warm, preposited, and enthusiastic imagination, that, rather than describe them, it consists more with the tenour of this work to omit all such relations.

CARD, a sort of instrument or comb, composed of a great number of small pieces, or points of iron wire, a little incurved like hooks towards the middle, and fastened very closely together by the feet, in rows. A piece of thick leather, which keeps them fast, is nailed by the edges on a flat piece of wood, which is an oblong square, about a foot long, and near half a foot broad, with a handle placed in the middle, on the edge of the longest side: there are always two cards between which are put the materials that are to be worked.

These cards are of very great use in the manufactories, where they serve to comb, disentangle, and range the wool and such other materials, in order to put them in a condition to be spun, by the manufacturers of cloths, stuff, stockings, hair, &c. or to be used unspun in several other works, in much the same manner as the wool and the hair, which the hatters employ in the manufacturing of hats.

The trade of these cards made in France is very considerable. They also import a great many, and pretty good ones, from foreign countries, especially from Holland; these are smaller than those that are made in France, but are very much esteemed.

The best cards made in France, are those at Paris, where the carders only mount them, the wood on which they are mounted, being sent thither from Troyes in Champagne.

After those of Paris, the cards of Roan and Dreux are reckoned the best: the other places in France where they are made, are Remorentin, Bourges, Aubigny in Richemont. Yvoyses-prez in Berry, Orleans, Troye, Eibeuf, Chateauroux, Beauvais, Tours, Poictiers and St. Maixant.

REMARKS.

Cards for wool, in England, may not be imported, nor the wire taken out of old cards be put into new leather and boards, in order for sale, upon forfeiture thereof, or of the value, if not seized.

But may be amended for the proprietors own use, or for transportation only. 3 Edw. IV. 1 Rich. III. 39 Eliz. 3 Car. I. 14 Car. II. 2 W. and M.

Carders, spinners, weavers, fullers, sheermen, and dyers, not performing duty in their occupations, shall yield, to the party grieved, double damages, to be committed till payment. One justice to hear and determine complaints.

Carders, combers, sorters, spinners, or weavers conveying away, imbezbling, detaining any wool or yarn, delivered by the clothier, or any other person, shall give the party grieved such satisfaction, as two justices, mayor, &c. shall think fit; if not able, or willing to make satisfaction, for the offence to be whipped, or set in the stocks in some market-town, or in any town where the offence is committed; the second offence to incur the like, or such further punishment by whipping, &c. as justices shall think proper. Conviction by one witness on oath, or confession.

CARD, playing cards, are little pieces of fine thin pasteboard, made of several sheets of paper pasted the one over the other, and cut afterwards into pieces in the form of an oblong square of several sizes, but most commonly (in England) three inches and a half long, and two and a half broad; on which are printed several points and figures. A certain number or assemblage of them serve to play several games. A full pack consists of 52 cards.

A pack is always wrapt up in a piece of paper, on which are printed the name, sign, dwelling-place, and sometimes the motto of the maker: with the label of the stamp-office in England, signifying that the six-penny stamp duty has been paid and that there is a penalty of 10*l.* for every pack sold unlabelled.

In France they call a parcel of six packs un fizaïn, a gross is of 12 fizaïns, or 72 packs.

The manner of making playing cards.

The moulds or blocks for these cards are exactly like those that were used for the first books: they lay a sheet of wet or moist paper on the form or block, which is first slightly done over with a sort of ink, made with lampblack diluted in water, and mixed with some starch to give it a body; they afterwards rub it off with a round list. The court-cards are coloured by means of several patters, filed stanefiles. These consist of papers cut through with a penknife, and, in these apertures or openings, they apply severally the various colours, as red, black, &c. These patters are painted with oil colours, that the brushes may not wear them out: when the patter is laid on the pasteboard, they slightly pass over it a brush full of colour, which, leaving it within the openings, forms the face or figure of the card.

R E M A R K S.

Cards and dice may, upon sufficient security, be exported without payment of the stamp-duty, 10 Ann. cap. 19. sect. 170. 5 Geo. I. cap. 19. sect. ult.

Playing-cards may not be imported, 10 Ann. cap. 19. sect. 165. **CARDAMOMUM**, or **CARDAMUM**, a medicinal plant and seed, which is aromatical, and is used in the composition of Venice treacle.

There are three sorts of cardamums, the largest, the middle-sized, and the smallest; which the druggists commonly call cardamum majus, medium, and minus. The largest cardamum is nothing but the common grain, or seed of paradise, a sort of pepper which grows at Rio Sextos, Petit Dieppe, and other parts on the coast of Africa. They have long used it in France, whilst the pepper of the Indies was scarce, because it came by the Mediterranean, and they could not get it at first hand, but by very long voyages.

The physicians who tried it, when it was first brought into France by the ships of Dieppe and St. Malo, found it not much different from the Indian pepper, except it's being sharper and hotter. There is still a pretty great trade of it.

The plants which produce the largest cardamomum, and is called by the same name, has green leaves. It's fruit is a kind of pod, or fig, of a pretty fine red; the seeds it contains is a grain of paradise, or small pepper, for it is also called by that name. It is of a triangular figure, reddish on the outside, and white within, of a sharp and pungent taste, and of an agreeable scent, especially when it is fresh.

Some sell it mixed with true Indian pepper. The isle of St. Mary, near the great island of Madagascar, and Caramboul in that island, produce the largest cardamomum in very great plenty.

The leaves of the middle-sized cardamomum are indented, end in a point, and grow three on a stalk, like trefoil or clover-grass. The pods are two or three inches long, and of a triangular form, somewhat channelled and flattened at the end. It is a trailing plant, which does not rise much from the ground. This kind is seldom seen in France. It is taken indifferently for the smallest sort.

The smallest kind is gathered in the kingdom of Cananor, in the country of Malabar, on a mountain six or seven leagues distant from the sea, which is said by travellers to be the only place in the world, where it is to be met with. It's pods that are triangular, of a greyish white, a little striped, are much smaller than those of the middle-sized, and contain a sharp rough substance, which looks like meal, though it be really seed.

The soil where this plant grows, produces a very large income, for it requires neither plowing nor sowing. All the trouble required is, to burn the weeds after the rains are past. The sun dries them in a little time, and their ashes are a sufficient manure, to make the soil produce the cardamomum.

Almost all this cardamomum, which is the most valued and the most precious, is sold and consumed in the East, because the eastern nations never think their rice well seasoned, unless it be with this spice. Some of it, however, is brought into Europe, and the druggists in France buy it of the English and Dutch. The latter consume a great deal of it, because they take a delight in chewing it.

We meet with the cardamomums of Java, in the catalogues of the cargo of ships of the Dutch East-India company, which come from Batavia. And Nicholas de Graaf, in his voyage to the East-Indies, observes, that six cardamomum plants of Cananor do not equal one of Ceylon, where they grow very large and thick.

CARDED, as carded cotton, carded hair, carded wool, is cotton, hair, or wool, which has been worked with the instrument called a card. A card-full of cotton, of wool, &c. is the cotton or wool taken from both the cards, after they have been passed several times over each other.

CARDER, a workman who cards wool, hair, cotton, &c. At Paris, the carders are a particular company of tradesmen. Their rules or statutes are written in the thirtieth folio of the parchment book or register of the ordonnances and statutes, called the little cahier, or book, which is deposited in the chamber of the king's attorney in the Chatelet: these statutes have been confirmed by letters patent of Lewis XI.

dated the 24th of June, 1467, and increased, and again confirmed, by letters patent of Lewis XIV. given in September 1688, and registered in the parliament the 22d of June 1691. By the rules and statutes of this company, no man can be made free of it, unless he has been three years an apprentice, and served one year more with a master as a journeyman: he is likewise obliged to perform a master-piece of workmanship, such as is appointed by the jurymen of the trade, who may chuse for that purpose one of the following works. 1. To make two or three cards full of wool or cotton. 2. To prepare a quarter of a pound of cotton on the hurdle, with a bow. 3. To spin with a spinning-wheel, matches proper for wax candles. 4. To card wool on the furnace. There are always, at the head of the carders company, three sworn freemen, whose business is to watch and take notice of the abuses and misdemeanors that might be committed by any of the trade, and to defend the company's right and interest. These jurats are chosen from year to year, that is to say, two in one year, and one the next, and so on. The last chosen jurats are to take care of the fraternity.

Besides the power granted in France, to the freemen carders of Paris, by their statutes, for carding and preparing wool and cotton, by cutting all sorts of hair, for making cloth, spinning cotton-matches, and making cards; they have also, by the same statutes, the liberty of dyeing, or causing to be dyed, at their own houses, all sorts of wool, in black, musk-colour, and brown. But, by a decree of the council of state, of the 10th of August 1700, they are forbidden to take off, cut, or card any hare's hair, and even to have the skins of those animals in their houses, because the hatters are not allowed to use any hare's hair in the manufacture of hats.

CARDING, is the combing, disentangling, and preparing wool, with the instruments called cards described above, that it may be fit for making the several works it is designed for. They also card wad, cotton, flax, hair, and other materials proper for several sorts of manufactures.

Before the wool be carded, it must be greased with oil, of which one fourth part of the weight of the wool is required for that which is designed for making the woof of stuffs, and the eighth part for that of the warp.

By the regulations for the manufactures in France, made in August 1669, the clothworkers are forbidden to use iron teazles, to range or lay the nap or hair on the surface of the cloth; but they must use teazles made only with thistle.

CARD-MAKER, one who makes cards for carding wool, &c. See **CARD** and **CARDER**.

CARD-MAKER and **SELLER**, he who makes and sells playing-cards. See **CARDS**, **PLAYING-CARDS**.

The card-makers of these cards, at Paris, are a pretty ancient and considerable company. The statutes, by which they are still governed, were drawn up, towards the latter end of the reign of Henry III. according to an edict of that prince, made in December 1581, by which it was ordered to revise and renew the statutes of all the bodies and companies of arts and trades; but they were not approved and authorized before the year 1594, the sixth year of the reign of his successor king Henry IV. which delay was occasioned by intestine disorders and the civil wars of the League.

These statutes are reduced into 22 articles, to which some more were added in the year 1613, under the reign of Lewis XIII. and in 1681 under Lewis XIV.

By the first article it is ordered, That no man shall carry on the business of a card-maker, nor keep a shop in the city and suburbs of Paris, unless he be a freeman of the company.

The second orders, That no one shall be admitted to take up his freedom, unless he has been an apprentice under a freeman during four years, and served afterwards three years as a journeyman.

The third mentions the qualifications an apprentice ought to have, in order to be made free, viz. The enquiry that is to be made of his life and morals by the jurats; the obligation he is under to perform a master-piece of workmanship, which consists in half a gross of fine cards; the place where he is to perform it, namely, in the house of one of the jurats; and the salary or fee due to the jurats who were present at it, which amount in the whole to 40 sols Paris for each of them under the penalty, for those who demand or receive more, of paying four times the sum, and being deprived of their place of jurats.

By the fourth it is ordered, That no man shall be allowed to follow the business of a card-maker in the city and suburbs of Paris, unless he keep a workshop open to the street, and be admitted a freeman of the company.

The fifth orders, That no master shall have above one apprentice at a time, or two at most, who must be bound for four years before a notary-public; and it declares, that no master shall have the liberty to take two apprentices, unless he keep at least five or six journeymen commonly at his house: however, any master is at liberty to take a second apprentice, the last year of the time of the first.

By the sixth, The masters are forbidden to turn over any apprentice, without giving notice of it to the jurats, who are to keep a register of it.

The seventh declares, That the master's children may learn the trade at their father's house, without being bound apprentices to them, and yet become thereby intitled to the privileges of the trade.

The eighth grants to the master's daughters the liberty to carry on the trade after their father's death, without undergoing any apprenticeship, and to serve as journey-women with any master.

The ninth and tenth grant to the master's or freemen's widows, the enjoyment of their husband's privileges, as long as they continue widows; with this exception, however, that they cannot bind new apprentices, but only continue to keep those who began their time with their late husbands.

By the eleventh, all masters are forbidden to carry, or send to be sold, any cards at taverns or inns, and commands them not to sell them any where but in their shops, unless they be sent for by the citizens.

The twelfth orders, That no freeman of the company shall sell, or expose to sale, any fine cards, unless they be made of fine thin pasteboard on each side, and the colours be of indigo and vermillion, upon pain of forfeiture.

By the thirteenth, the hours for working are regulated; namely, to begin at five in the morning, and end at 10 at night, and not later, through all the seasons of the year, except with regard to apprentices, when there is any work which might be spoiled by lying by.

The fourteenth relates to foreign cards, which must be viewed, examined, and marked by the jurats, before they be exposed to sale.

By the fifteenth, the jurats are forbidden to bring any action, or commence a law-suit, concerning the regulations of police, or relating to any matter of trade, without first giving notice of it to the company.

The sixteenth orders all the freemen of the company to have each his particular mark, differing from that of any other, containing their name, surname, and sign, without being at liberty to usurp names, marks, counter-marks, signs, or motto's of others; which marks they shall be obliged to receive from the jurats, at the time they take up their freedom, and must be different from the marks, counter-marks, and signs of their fathers, masters, or predecessors; the marks thus received from the jurats shall be placed on a board fixed up in the chamber of the king's attorney, in the Chatelet.

By the seventeenth, all journeymen and servants, receiving wages, are forbidden to leave their masters before they have served them a whole month; nor can the masters give them any work before they are discharged by those whom they served before.

The eighteenth grants the freedom of the company to any journeyman who marries a freeman's daughter, and regulates the fees they are to pay on taking up their freedom, upon the same footing as they are paid by freemen's sons.

The nineteenth treats of the number and election of the jurats: they are to be but two, one of whom is to be changed every year, so that each of them continue two years in office.

The election is to be made the Thursday next following the festival of Epiphany, by the whole company, which, for that purpose, is to meet before the king's attorney, at his chamber in the Chatelet of Paris. These jurats are to make all searches and visitations necessary concerning matters relating to the company's trade.

The twentieth speaks of those who work in chambers, not being freemen; and orders, that they shall either leave off working at that trade, or enter with masters as journeymen, on the conditions above-mentioned, unless they rather chuse to take up their freedom.

The twenty-first orders, That, when there shall arrive any merchandizes belonging to that trade, but not bought by foreign merchants, all the freemen of the company shall be summoned to be present at the sale of them, to buy any, if they have a mind to it.

Lastly, the twenty-second forbids all freemen to employ any workman who is not of the trade, and has not served an apprenticeship.

After the death of Henry IV. Lewis XIII. ordered that a duty should be paid the bodies of merchants, and the companies of arts and trades, for the confirmation of their statutes. The company of the master-card-makers was the first who paid that duty; whereupon they not only obtained the confirmation of their ancient statutes, but also the allowance of four new articles, drawn up by themselves, and examined and approved by the provost of Paris, to be observed and executed, and have the same force as those of the year 1594.

These four articles are as follow, viz.

First, That henceforth all the freemen of the company shall be obliged to put their name and surname, with the sign and motto they have chosen, upon the knave of clubs of every pack of cards, both broad and narrow, upon pain of forfeiting the same, and paying a fine of 60 livres.

Secondly, All card-makers in the cities, and other places of the kingdom, are forbidden to make, counterfeit, invent, or falsify, either directly or indirectly, the moulds, prints, figures, and other characters, of the said cards, which the card-makers of Paris have always enjoyed and used, on pain of forfeiting

the said cards, and all other merchandizes that might be packed up with them, and paying a fine of 50 livres.

Thirdly, All freemen card-makers, and such as shall take up their freedom hereafter, are ordered to make all the cards, both broad and narrow, according to the moulds and prints which the masters use at present, and of the same length and breadth; and for that purpose they shall be obliged to take the measure of the cuts they intend to have cut, or engraved, from the standards that are to be kept by the jurats of the company, under the penalty of forfeiting all the cards otherwise made, of having all their moulds broke, and paying a fine of 60 livres.

Fourthly, All masters are prohibited from making any of those cards called in French *maitresses cartes*; either broad or narrow, but out of the pickings of the fine cards, under the penalty of forfeiting the said cards, and a fine of 10 livres.

The letters patents by which these four articles are confirmed, were granted in February 1613.

The card-makers having been disturbed in their privilege of buying and selling all sorts of paper, by other companies who trade in the same commodities, were confirmed and supported in it by a decree given the 22d of February, 1681: it is the substance of this decree which the jurats who were trusted with the edition of their statutes, added to those of the year 1594, as a twenty-fifth article, though there was near a whole century between the two regulations.

The last article declares, That the card-makers have a right, and are in possession, of buying and selling all sorts of paper, after the usual manner, according to the decree of the parliament, given the 22d of February, 1681.

CARDIGANSHIRE, in Wales, has Merioneth and Montgomeryshire, in North Wales, on the north; Pembroke and Carmarthenshire on the south; Radnor and Brecknockshire on the east; and is washed on the west by the Irish Sea.

It is 40 miles in length, and 18 in breadth, according to Templeman, who gives it an area of 646 miles. Others make the length, from Cardigan to Plynlimmon on the north-east, but 36 miles, and but 16 or 17 where broadest; and some no more than 32 from south to north, and but 15 from east to west.

It's air varies as the soil does; for, in the south and west parts, which are more on a level than most parts of Wales, the air is mild and wholesome, and the soil fruitful. The northern and eastern parts, which are mountainous, are both barren and bleak; yet, in the worst parts of the shire, there is pasture, in which are bred flocks of sheep, and considerable herds of cattle; in the vales are several spacious lakes.

Coals and other fuel, indeed, are scarce, but there are several rich lead mines (the ore whereof often appears above ground) and some there are which produce silver. Here is plenty of river and sea fish, and of fowl, both tame and wild; nor is there any scarcity of corn; lime to manure their land they are obliged to fetch from Carmarthenshire. This county is so remarkably full of cattle, that some call it the nursery for all England south of Trent; though this is no great argument of it's fertility, because it is well enough known that mountains or moors will breed, though not fatten, cattle.

It's principal rivers are the Teivi, the Rydal, and the Iſtwyth.

The former wanders, as if it were lost among the rocks and mountains, till it comes to Straetfleur, where it begins to run regularly to the south-west, by Fregaron and Bangor, and, making an angle westward, falls into the Irish Sea below Cardigan. The Rydal rises in the south-west side of the Plynlimmon mountain, and runs south and south-west, till it falls into the Irish Sea, jointly with the river Iſtwyth, which rises beyond the lead mines, on the north-east of Cardigan-shire, and runs near on the same point with the Rydal, till it comes near Aber-Iſtwyth, where it falls into the Irish Sea.

CARDIGAN, situate at the mouth of the Teivi, leading into Pembroke-shire, is a large, ancient, and populous borough, whose chief trade is to Ireland; to which, and to divers other parts, it exports lead from it's harbour, to the great advantage of the neighbouring country.

Cardigan Bay is a very large gulph of the sea, bearing far from the land, stretching north and south from Cardigan Point to Barley Island, about 12 leagues north. There are several little tide-havens, and places in it, only fit for small vessels, and most of them are barred, and scarce worth naming, here being neither trade, nor any port fit for it.

At the north part, in a deep bight, there is a bay within a bay, a long gulph running in north-west by north, and, at the farthest end, it is called Pulhelly Bay, near which I have seen several considerable lead mines. At the bottom of it there is a small river, which comes into the sea with a full channel, and makes a pretty good haven, called Traeth Haven. On the north side of the bay there is good riding from seven to ten fathom water, and it is often made use of by ships in stress of weather, bound either to or from Ireland. If a north-west wind blows hard, ships bound from Chester to Dublin, which are frequently drove back, and glad to run for Barley and this bay; and, in a south-west wind, it has been the same with the coal ships bound from Swanzev for Dublin.

ABERISTWYTH, a town situate on the river Rydal, at the mouth

mouth of the river Itwyth. It is a populous and rich place, but dark and smoaky, so that the people look as if they had lived continually in the coal or lead mines. It is reckoned the most populous town in the county; it is pretty large, has a good market, and a thriving trade, both in lead and fish, especially whiting, cod, and herring.

LLANBEDOR-VAWR, is a well built town, has a good market, but a poor harbour, and therefore no great trade.

LLANBADARN ST. PETER, or PONT STEFFAN, a small town leading to Carmarthenshire, and accommodated with good entertainment for travellers. Here is a great market for heifers, cows, calves, and sheep, from the end of April to the beginning of July.

CARGADORS, a name which the Dutch have borrowed from the Portuguese, and which they use to signify a kind of brokers, whose only business is to find freight for ships outward bound, and to give notice, to the merchants who have commodities to send by sea, of the ships that are ready to sail, and of the places for which they are bound. See **SHIP-BROKER**.

If the cargador, to whom the master of the ship addresses himself, meets with a full cargo for it, he agrees for the price with the merchant who wants it; if, on the contrary, he finds only several parcels, or bales, of merchandizes, not sufficient for a whole cargo, he disperses bills upon the exchange and causes several of them to be posted up, according to the following model, which, for instance, is supposed to relate to the cargo of a ship bound for Konigsberg.

For Konigsberg.

- The ship lies before the Oude Stad's-Herberg, or the Old City-Inn.
- Captain Teunis (Anthony) Alopse, of Vlieland, shall sail (by God's leave) with his pink, an exceeding good sailer, called the Shepherd, mounted with six guns, and other warlike ammunitions in proportion: if any be willing to give him any merchandizes, or other effects, he will receive and deliver them faithfully.
- Apply to Teunis Blok, broker, and to Peter Fleymys.
- N. B. Nothing shall be laden before notice is given to the cargadors, nor before the freight is agreed upon; and the bills of lading are to be sent with the merchandizes.

When the merchant has agreed about the freight of his merchandizes with the two cargadors, or with one of them, he procures a permit for exportation from the custom-house, and sends them on board by his own waterman, who brings him back a receipt from the mate to whom he has delivered them. In this receipt the mate declares that he has received, on board of such a ship, so many bales, so many tons, or so many pieces of merchandize, with such a mark; after which the merchant writes three or four bills of lading, of the same tenor, which he gives to the cargador, together with the mate's receipt: the cargador causes the bills of lading to be signed by the master of the ship, who keeps one for himself, and returns the others to be delivered to the merchant. See **BILLS of Lading**.

When any merchandizes are to be landed, which are sent by sea to Amsterdam, the cargadors commonly give notice to the merchants of the arrival of the ships: and then the merchant to whom any merchandizes are directed, causes them to be declared by the convoy-looper (that is to say, by the custom-house officer whom he is used to employ) who brings him the permit for landing, which he need only give to his waterman, or to his cooper, who go and take out the merchandizes, and carry them to such a place as the merchant has appointed.

When there is on board a ship any commodity which no body claims, or when the person to whom it is directed is unknown to the cargadors, one of the servants belonging to the exchange is ordered to give notice by public cry, for several days following, upon the exchange, that there are such merchandizes, with such mark and number, &c. on board such a ship, coming from such a place, laden by such a one, and directed to such a person, and that he who has got the order, or bill of lading, must come and demand them; that otherwise they will be lodged in a warehouse at the owner's expence.

It must be observed, that, when a merchant receives by any ship such merchandizes as are subject to leakage, if there be any casks empty, or near it, so that they be not worth the freight that should be paid for them, he is not obliged to take them, but may leave them for such a part of the freight, which he deducts from that which he is to pay for the whole number of casks directed to him.

But, if they be dry merchandizes, which were well-conditioned, when laden, but were injured or spoiled by some accident which happened during the voyage, the merchant to whom they are consigned must not fail, when they are unloading, to enter a protest, or make a verbal process of the condition in which he received them, to the end that they may be reckoned among the large averages, which he could

not obtain, if he omitted that formality. See **AVERAGE**. Lastly, with regard to such merchandizes as are liable to putrify, or spoil of themselves, without any external accident, such as raisins, figs, chestnuts, &c. the freight must be paid for them as if they were in a good condition.

CARGO, signifies commonly all the merchandizes and effects which are laden on board a ship, exclusive of the soldiers, crew, rigging, ammunition, provisions, guns, &c. though all these things load it sometimes more than the merchandizes.

We say, that a ship has it's cargo, when it is as full of merchandizes as it can hold; that it has half it's cargo, when it is but half full; that it brings home a rich cargo, when it is laden with precious merchandizes, and in great quantity; that a merchant has made the whole cargo of a ship, or only one half, or one quarter of the cargo, when he has laden the whole ship at his own expence, or only one half, or one fourth of it.

CARLINA, CAROLINA, or CHAMÆLEON ALBUS, a medicinal plant, reckoned to be a sovereign remedy against poison, and against the plague: it is also used for curing several other distempers.

There are two sorts of carlina's, the white and the black, which hardly differ in any thing but the colour, and in that the white sort shoots no stem, whereas the black grows pretty tall.

Some authors, and among others Mathioli, in order, perhaps, to render this plant more precious and esteemable, derive it's name of Carolina from Carolus Magnus, Charles the Great; and assert that it was discovered to that emperor by a miraculous vision in order to cure his troops of the plague, which made a great havoc in his camp. (Lemery observes only, that, under that emperor's reign, this plant was found to be good against the plague.)

Let this be real or fabulous, there is, at present, no occasion to have recourse to miraculous interposition to find the two sorts of carlina's in the mountains of the Alps and the Pyrenees, and in the Golden Mountain of Auvergne. They grow there so plentifully, that the peasants feed partly on their roots, and on that kind of artichokes which they produce.

The white carlina has a root about an inch thick, and one or two feet long; it is brown, and chopped on the outside: it's leaves are of a pale green, indented, and prickly; they are placed circularly on the ground, above which they do not rise much. The flower is flat, of four or five inches diameter; it rises from the middle of the plant, without being supported by any stalk; it is shaped like a basin, or rather like an artichoke, bordered with some narrowed and peaked leaves; it is of a yellow, carnation, and purpurine colour: it's seed is like that of wild saffron.

The black carlina is absolutely like the white, except that it grows up into a stalk, or stem, and that it's leaves are of a deeper green. There is, however, another sort, whose flowers are of a purple colour; but it is known to the most skillful botanists only, the druggists selling chiefly the roots of the black and white sorts. These roots, in order to be good, ought to be fresh, plump, of a sweet taste, and aromatic smell. The root of the black sort differs from that of the white, only in being half open, and not so heavy.

CARLINO, a small silver coin, which is current in the kingdom of Naples, and in Sicily. The carlino is worth about 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$.

CARMARTHENSHIRE, a county in Wales, bounded on the east with the shires of Brecknock and Glamorgan; the Severn Sea, or St. George's Channel, on the south; Pembroke-shire on the west; and Cardiganshire on the north, from which it is separated by the river Teivy.

According to Templeman, it is about 40 miles in length, 27 in breadth, and has an area of 869 square miles. Others make it's greatest length, from north-west to south-east, to be 35, and where broadest, from east to west, but 20 miles, which makes the circumference about 102 miles, or an area of about 700,000 acres.

It lies in the diocese of St. David's. The air here is reckoned milder and wholesomer than in most of the neighbouring counties; and the soil, not being so rocky and mountainous, is more fruitful, especially in corn and grafs, coals and lime, and it is pretty well clothed with wood, and watered with about 28 rivers, large and small.

The chief of the rivers are, the Towy, the Cothy, and the Tave. The former comes into the north-east side of this county from Cardiganshire, where it rises, and, running south and south-west through the county, falls into the English Channel, about eight miles below Carmarthen. This river supplies the inhabitants plentifully with fish and fowl, especially salmon.

The Cothy rises on the north side of Carmarthenshire, and runs south, for the most part, till it joins the Towy, about five miles above Carmarthen.

The Tave, or Teivy, rises in Cardiganshire, and is the boundary between this county and that.

CARMARTHEN, situate upon the river Towy, is an industrious, thriving, and populous town, of great resort, and drives a considerable trade. The river whereon it stands is navigable for

for vessels of 100 tons, quite up to the town, where is a very commodious key. This place is not only supplied with fish from its river, but with great plenty of fish, fowl, &c. from the adjacent country. There is such a spirit of politeness, as well as industry, that some have called it the London of Wales.

KIDWELY, a town on a vast bay, called Tenby. It is a mayor-town, and had formerly a good share in the cloathing trade; but the harbour, being too much choaked up with sand, hath been very detrimental to the town, which, at present, is frequented only with fishermen.

LLANDILOVAWR, is a pretty good town, on an ascent, with the river Towy at the bottom. This parish is 13 miles long, and 7 or 8 broad. It's markets are for corn, cattle, and other provisions.

LLANGHAM, LLANHAM, or TALCHAM, stands on the Towy, near its influx into the sea; is a pretty good town, with some small vessels belonging to it, and an indifferent trade by sea.

LLANALTY, or LANELLY, stands on a river, or creek of the sea, not far west from the Og, which separates this county from Glamorganshire. It is a pretty good town, much traded to for sea-coal.

CARMELINE WOOL, of the vicunna, which is also called bafard wool. It is the second sort of wool produced by the animal which the Spaniards call vicunna.

CARMEN, are such who keep carts, in order to carry goods and merchandizes of all sorts, for traders of every condition who may have occasion for them.

Carmen, porters, watermen, or others, assisting in the landing of goods, without a warrant and an officer, may be apprehended, by a warrant from a justice of the peace; and, being convicted by the oath of two witnesses, may, for the first offence, be committed to jail, till they find security for their good behaviour; and, for the second offence, to lie in prison two months, without bail, or till they be discharged by the court of Exchequer, &c. or pay 5*l.* to the sheriff. All other regulations, relating to carmen employed in the city of London, are so well known by those who employ them, that we shall leave out every thing of this kind, in order to make room for what is of more important use, less known, and, therefore, we hope far more acceptable, than what is in the vade mecum of every trader.

CARMINE, a very lively red colour, as it were velvety, used by painters in miniature, and sometimes by painters in oil, but seldom by the latter, because of its exorbitant price. Carmine is the most precious and valuable commodity that is gathered from the cocheneal mesteque: it is a fecula, or powder, which settles at the bottom of the water, wherein cocheneal, couan, and antour have been put to steep, and well mixed together: they sometimes add rocou, but it gives the carmine too much of an orange cast. See **COCHENEAL**.

To be excellent, the carmine must be in powder almost impalpable, of a high colour, neatly and faithfully prepared. Some make carmine with Brazil or Fernambouc wood, well beat in a mortar, and afterwards steeped in white vinegar: the scum which arises from this mixture, after it has been boiled, is the carmine; but it does not at all come up to the beauty of the former sort.

The woollen-drappers make use of carmine, to colour and hide those places in the scarlet cloth which remain whitish after dyeing and napping.

CARNARVONSHIRE, a county in Wales, bounded on the south by Merionethshire and the Irish Sea; on the east by Denbighshire, from which it is separated by the river Conway; it is washed on the west and north by the Irish Sea; and on the north-west it is fronted by the Isle of Anglesey. Mr Templeman makes the length 47, the breadth 25 miles, and gives it an area of 459 square miles, which is computed by others at 370,000 acres.

It has a sharp piercing air, and abounds, in the middle especially, with such dismal rocks and vast mountains, the tops of which are covered with snow seven or eight months in the year, that they may claim the name of the British Alps. Yet it is tolerably fertile, particularly in barley; and great herds of cattle, sheep, and goats are fed on the mountains. That part towards Ireland is so fruitful, and also so populous, that it gives place to few shires in North Wales. The vallies between the hills are both pleasant and fruitful; and both the rivers and coasts abound with fish.

CARNARVON TOWN, stands on the channel that separates this shire from the Isle of Anglesea, and has a beautiful prospect to the isle; it is a small, but clean, well-built town, and well inhabited, by people very courteous to strangers, and the market is well supplied with corn, and all sorts of provisions. There is a ferry from hence to Anglesey, and from thence a direct road to Holyhead, in the way to Ireland.

CARNARVON BAY, lies between two points, at the south entrance of the channel, which runs between the Main and the Isle of Anglesey. Here is a tolerable harbour; for, though it has a bar, where there is not above seven or eight feet at low water, yet the tide rises so high, that, at half-flood, almost any ships may go in or out; however, it is proper to take a pilot. There is very good anchoring in Carnarvon Bay off the bar, in 5 or 15 fathom.

VOL. I.

BANGOR, or BANHOR, lies at the north end of the same frith, or arm of the sea, which is the passage to Anglesey, where it has a harbour for boats. This town is, at present, of little note, except for being the seat of a bishop.

CONWAY, or ABER-CONWAY, situate at the mouth of the river Conway. This town, though the poorest, is notwithstanding the pleasantest in the county, for its bigness, standing on the side of a hill, on the banks of a fine navigable river, which empties itself about two miles off into the sea, at the entrance of that arm of it which parts Anglesey from the main land.

It is reckoned the most beautiful river and port on all this side of Britain; the river, which is able to receive ships of almost any burden or number, and to bring them up to the town, being a fine straight channel, broad as the Thames at Deptford, and deep, yet safe and secure from winds; but the town is old and decayed, and only shews what it might be, and what the want of trade has brought it to; for poverty in all places is the necessary consequence of the want of commerce, as manifestly appears in numberless instances throughout this work: which ought to convince every man in this kingdom, without cavil or controversy, that he who is an enemy to trade and commerce, is a friend only to barbarism and savageness, that alone having polished and civilized the human species, and made Britons different from the brutish Hottentots of the Cape. See **BARBARY**, and Remarks thereon.

PWL-HELI, or SALT-POOL, is a little town in the peninsula, on the south side of the county, stands between two rivers, on the eastern shore, whose market is for corn and other provisions, and hath a small trade by sea. The bay, to which it gives name, receives one of the rivers with a full channel, where it makes a pretty good haven, called Traath Haven, which we mentioned in Cardiganshire.

CARNATION, a very lively red colour, thus called from caro, flesh, because it is like the colour of live flesh newly cut, wherein it differs from what we call flesh-colour, which is paler, and resembles flesh, covered with the white skin, and animated with a natural vermilion.

R E M A R K S.

The regulations made in France in August 1669, for dyeing silk, wool, and thread, order that silks to be dyed of a **CARNATION AND ROSE COLOUR** shall be steeped in allum, and dyed with pure Brazil wood; wool, and flocks of wool, to be dyed with madder, without mixing any fustic with it: and thread with Brazil, Fernambouc, or other such wood, and rocou.

CAROBES, a sort of beans, which grow plentifully in the island of Cyprus: most of the inhabitants live upon them; and, notwithstanding the great consumption they make of them, this pulse, or, as some call them, this fruit, makes still a great part of the trade of that island, whence they send yearly great quantities of it, in small vessels, to all the islands of the Archipelago.

This fruit is the same with the **CAROUGE**. See that article.

CAROLINA, a province in North America, belonging to the crown of Great Britain. See **BRITISH AMERICA**.

CAROLUS, a small copper coin, with a little silver mixed with it: it was thus called because it began to be struck in France under the reign of king Charles VIII.

The carolus was worth 12 deniers, when it ceased to be current. It had been higher before, which must, however, be understood according as it had more or less silver mixed with it: for there have been Carolus's, and, amongst others, those of Lorraine, which were from five deniers, or penny-weights, and 20 grains, to three penny-weights and one grain fine; those of France and Burgundy had, at most, but two penny-weights and 18 grains fine, except the carolus's struck under the reign of Francis I, which had five penny-weights and four grains fine. Those which are still current in trade in Lorraine, or in some neighbouring provinces, go under the name of French sols, for 12 or 15 deniers.

The half-carolus's are also of different value, and of several degrees fine, in proportion to the carolus's. Those with three flowers de luce in bar, which are called old half-carolus's, have three penny-weights and 15 grains fine, and the new ones only two penny-weights and six grains.

CARPET, a sort of covering of stuff, or other materials, wrought with the needle, or on a loom, which is part of the furniture of a house, and commonly spread over tables, or laid upon the floor.

They make several sorts of carpets in France, and in other countries, of both which there is a considerable trade.

There is at Paris a manufactory of carpets, after the manner of Persia, which are but little inferior to the true Persian carpets, not to say, that they are even finer. They are, as it were, velvety, and do perfectly well imitate the carpets which come from the Levant.

France is obliged to the Sieur Dupont, upholsterer in ordinary to king Lewis XIII, and to his disciple Simon Lourdet, for the establishment of that incomparable manufactory.

Henry IV, by his warrant, dated the 4th of January, 1608, settled

settled them at first in the galleries of the Louvre, which he had built; and Lewis XIII. gave them, in 1631, the house called de la Savonnerie. This establishment was regulated three years before this, and the two undertakers settled it under the inspection of Monsieur de Fourcy, superintendent of the king's buildings, and of the manufactories of the kingdom, by virtue of a decree of the council of state, given the 17th of April, 1631.

In the year 1635, the Sieur Dupont published a small treatise upon this sort of manufacture, and gave it the following title, *Stromatourgie, ou de l'excellence de la manufacture des Tapis de Turquie*: that is, *Stromaturgia*, or of the excellency of the manufacture of Turkey Carpets. This treatise is not only curious, for those who would speculatively trace arts of this nature to the root, but is very useful and instructive for all artists who would undertake to set up such a manufactory.

Lewis XIV. being informed, towards the latter end of his life, that this manufactory, formerly so famous, was upon the decline, and in a very bad condition, and being willing to support so considerable an establishment, which was so much for the interest of trade, granted to it, by his edict of January, 1712, the same privileges which that of the Gobelines enjoyed, by virtue of the edict of November 1667, which privileges are set forth in 10 articles.

The first article settles the name of this manufactory, which is to be called *The royal manufactory of the furniture belonging to the crown*, for carpets made after the manner of Persia and Turkey: which title was to be put up over the chief gate of the house of the Savonnerie.

The second puts this manufactory under the government and dependency of the director-general of the king's buildings, of a particular director, and of a comptroller: these two last to be appointed by the director-general.

The fourth settles a sum of 250 livres per annum for the maintenance of each of the children, who shall be chosen by the director-general, to be educated and instructed in the said manufactory.

The fifth and sixth particularly mention the privileges to be obtained by the pupils, as, for instance, that of gaining the freedom of tapestry-makers.

Finally, the four last articles contain the privileges of the masters and workmen of this manufactory, which are, amongst others, being exempted from lodging soldiers in 12 houses appointed for their dwelling in the neighbourhood of the Savonnerie, as also from guardianship, trusteeship, the watch, &c. and from all poll-taxes; and, lastly, their right of *committimus** at the Court of Requests of the Hotel, as being commercial officers of the king's palace.

- * The right of *committimus* is a right, or privilege, which the king of France grants to the officers of his household, and to some other persons, whom he declares to have taken under his protection and safeguard, of pleading in the first instance before the Court of Requests of the Hotel, or Palace, in all matters, either merely personal, or real, or mixed, and to bring before that court all the causes that might be depending before other judges. *Furetiere*.

The abovementioned carpets, imitated from those of the Levant, are made after the manner of a tissue, whose warp and woof contain very tight the silk and wool, which, being cut very close, form a kind of velvet, or plush: they are also mixed with gold and silver thread, frizzled, or curled, which adds to their beauty, and increases their price.

R E M A R K S.

Amidst numberless other extraordinary encouragements given by the court of France for the establishment of new manufactories, this is one that has not proved the least beneficial to that kingdom; it not only preventing so large an importation of the Turkey carpets, but has furnished them with a general manufactory for exportation. Are not these the natural and obvious measures to give bread to their own poor, and to cultivate the arts of commerce to the last perfection?

The christening this establishment with the title of the royal manufactory, &c. and putting the same under the inspection of a superintendent of the manufactories of the kingdom*, and proper officers under him, and generally supporting the design with the public purse, was giving it such a sanction, that it could not miscarry; since they had materials and artists to carry the same to a great perfection. See the articles *ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICS*:

- * This high officer, distinguished by the title of superintendent of the arts and manufactories of France, with other proper subordinate officers, hath proved of unspeakable benefit and advantage to the manufactures of that kingdom. Might it not prove of the utmost consequence to the trade and manufactures of these kingdoms, if some such officers were established by authority, as guardians of the British manufactures in general; who should lay before the parliament whatever merited public encouragement, as being too much for private undertakings? Was an institution of this kind made a matter of solid and incorruptible use, what might not be expected from it?

They make other sorts of carpets at Roan, the capital of Normandy; at Arras, the capital of Artois; and at Felletin, a small town in Lower Marche; these are called tapestry-carpets. Those of Tournay are called carpets of Moulcade. The carpets imported into France from foreign countries, are those of Persia and Turkey, the latter either hairy or shorn, that is to say, with long or with short hair. These are most commonly imported by the way of Smyrna, where there are three sorts of them.

Some of these are called *mosquets*, and are sold by the piece, from six piafters to 30 piafters per piece, according to their size and fineness. These are the most beautiful of all.

Others are filed *pic-carpets*, because they are sold by the square pic. They are the largest of all those that come from the Levant. They are commonly sold for half a piafter per square pic.

The most ordinary sort are called *cadene*, and may be worth from one piafter to two piafters the carpet.

There are also carpets made in England, which are used either as floor-carpets, or to make chairs, and other household furniture*.

- * By the natural industry and skill of our British artists, we have, indeed, at length, got into the way of making very good carpets; and, if we are not yet arrived at the like perfection of our neighbours, for want of the like public encouragement, we should, notwithstanding, be content with what we can make at home; for, if people will buy them, this kind of encouragement will, in time, answer the end, at least for home consumption: though, was something done by authority to animate our manufacturers, they would make a greater proficiency in ten years, than otherways in half a century: which would furnish the nation with more commodities to sell, and less to buy.

There are likewise carpets of Germany, some of which are made of woollen stuffs, as serges, and others of the like sort: these are called square carpets. Others are of wool also, but wrought with the needle, and pretty often embellished with silk: lastly, there are carpets made of dog's hair.

We shall not mention here those fine carpets of painted chintzes which come from the East-Indies, because we give an account of them in another place.

CARRIAGE, a vehicle serving to convey persons, goods, merchandizes, and other things, from one place to another.

There are private and public carriages, as also land and water carriages. See *CARRIER*.

Private carriages are those which private people keep at their own expence, for their own convenience, and that of their families; as these have no relation to trade, it is needless to give an account of them in this work.

Public carriages are those which every one is free to make use of, on paying so much a head for persons, or so much per pound weight for goods, merchandizes, or other effects.

There are again two sorts of these carriages, some of which no man can keep, or let out, at least in France, but by virtue of a privilege; such are the waggons, carts, covered waggons, and horses belonging to, or under the direction of the Post-Office; as also the stage-coaches and boats which set out on a set day, for certain towns in the provinces, and likewise post-chaises, calashes, litters, and horses.

The other public carriages are those which every one is at liberty to have, keep, and let out, after what manner, and to whom he pleases; such are drays, cars without racks, the waggons and carts used by carriers, higglers, and others.

Water-carriages are, in general, all those vessels which serve to carry persons or merchandize by sea, rivers, lakes, or canals, whether sailed, rowed, or drawn by men or by horses; but the word carriage is seldom used, when we speak of ships, frigates, or other large vessels, which sail over the sea. In France, the chief of the water-carriages are the stage-boats, barges, barks, wherries, boats, small and large tenders, and several other sorts of vessels, which have different names, according to the rivers whereon they are used, or the provinces where they were built; all these water-carriages serve to transport, from place to place, wood, wine, corn, spices, salt, and other sorts of drugs and merchandizes.

Land-carriages are either machines invented to carry more conveniently, and in greater quantity or number, persons, and bales, chests, tuns, casks, &c. of merchandizes, drawn by several sorts of animals, according to the different countries, or those animals which carry men, or on whose backs are put such loads as they are able to bear.

The land-carriages, which are most commonly used in France, and in the greatest part of Europe, for carrying men or merchandizes, are coaches, chariots, calashes, berlins, and waggons, with four wheels; or chaises, carts, and drays, with two wheels only. These machines are drawn by horses, mules, buffaloes, or oxen. In winter, when the earth is covered with snow, they use also sledges, especially in the northern countries; and in some parts, as in Lapland and Siberia, they are drawn by rein-deer, which are a kind of stags; every where else, they are most commonly drawn by horses.

All the animals we have been mentioning, except the reindeer, are also proper to carry burthens on their backs, especially the mules, which are of great use, particularly in mountainous countries, they being very sure-footed. In the caravans of Asia, and the caffilas of Africa, they use camels and dromedaries. See the articles *CAFFILA*, and *CARAVAN*.

In some parts of America, and particularly in Peru and Chlli, the vigonnas, lamas, and alpagnas, which are three sorts of beasts, of the bigness of a middle-sized ass, but not so strong, are used, not only to carry wine, and other commodities, but also the mineral stones of the gold and silver mines, so common in that part of America.

Lastly, the palanquin, which is carried on the shoulders of two, four, or six men, and the litter which is carried by two mules, are also carriages, but serve for travellers only. The former is used in the East-Indies, and the latter in most parts of Europe.

R E M A R K S.

CARRIAGES from Alexandretta to Aleppo.

Some particulars relating to the carriages, on which merchandizes are transported from Alexandretta to Aleppo.

All the merchandizes which arrive at Aleppo, whether they come thither from Alexandretta, where they arrive by sea, or are brought by land from some other parts of the grand seignior's dominions, or from those of the king of Persia, are carried to Aleppo on camels, horses, or mules; which obliges the merchants who trade thither, to make their chests or bales of such a weight, and packed up after such a manner, that they may be proper to be carried on the backs of those animals, that they may not be obliged to unpack them, upon their arrival at Alexandretta.

The horses and mules commonly carry two bales, weighing between 50 and 55 rottolis of Aleppo, which amount to 400, or 425 pounds of Amsterdam.

As to camels, their load, divided also into two bales, may be from 70 to 75 rottolis, which is about one third more than what horses or mules can carry.

The English, French, and Dutch merchants always reckon upon that weight, there being seldom any bales that weigh any thing more.

CARRIAGE signifies also the money or perquisite that is to be paid for carrying goods or merchandizes either by water or by land, in carts, waggons, stage-coaches, or on horseback. For instance, we say paid so much for carriage from Cambridge to London. With regard to persons, we use the word fare; whereas the French employ the word *voiture*, both with regard to persons, and to goods or merchandizes. For carriage by sea we use the word *freight*, or *freight*. See **FREIGHT**.

Letter, or **Bill of CARRIAGE**, is a writing given to a carrier, or to the master of a waggon, cart, or other carriage, containing the number and quality of the pieces, chests, bales, &c. of merchandizes which he is entrusted with, that he may demand the payment of the carriage from those to whom the merchandizes are directed, and that the person who receives them, may see whether they be delivered to him in a good condition, in the same number as they were given to the carrier, or on the day set down in the bill of carriage.

In commerce by sea, the writing or register in which are set down the merchandizes and passengers on board a merchantman, is called **CHARTER-PARTY**, or **BILL OF LADING**. See those two articles.

R E M A R K S.

The principal **LAWs** of England in regard to **CARRIAGE**.

By the statute 3 Will. & Mar. cap. 12. sect. 24. the justices of peace of every county, &c. are required, at their quarter-sessions after Easter yearly, to assess the prices of land carriage of goods to be brought into any place within their jurisdiction, by any common carrier: and the rates to certify to the mayors and other chief officers of the market-towns, to be hung up in some public place. And no common carrier shall take above the rates, upon pain of 5l. to be levied by distress and sale of goods, by warrant of any two justices, where such carrier shall reside, to the use of the party grieved.

If any carrier shall travel with waggon, wain, cart, or carriage, with above six horses, oxen, or other beasts (except it be for carrying hay, straw, corn, coal, timber, materials for building, stone, ammunition, or artillery) he shall forfeit 5l. to be levied by distress and sale of any of the said beasts, in three days; to be employed one moiety for the repairing of the highways, and the other to the prosecutor, being an inhabitant in the parish where the offence was committed, by stat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

Persons employed in the driving, or assisting in the driving, with more than six horses, are liable to the same penalty, by stat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

The same statute enacts, That any person or persons, may discover and prosecute them who draw more than six horses, &c. and seize and distrain all or any of the horses, &c. and deliver the same to the surveyors of the highways, or other officers of the place; and, if the 5l. be not paid in three days, the distress is to be sold, and the money delivered to the justice to be distributed.

Surveyors of the highways, or other parish-officers, refusing or neglecting to deliver the money, by them received, to the justice, forfeit 20l. to be levied by distress and sale; for want of distress, to be committed to the common goal till payment. One moiety of the forfeiture to the informer, the other to be laid out in repairing the highways. Stat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

If any person refuse or neglect to carry a horse, &c. so distrained to the surveyor or other parish-officer, he likewise forfeits 20l. to be levied and disposed of *supra*.

Surveyors of highways neglecting to put 6 Ann. or any other law for repairing highways, in execution, forfeit 5l.

By stat. 1 Geo. I. no travelling waggon, &c. with any burthen, &c. (other than before excepted) should at any time be drawn in any common highway, with above five horses, &c.

But by the stat. 5 Geo. I. this act is altered, and it is enacted, That no travelling waggons, for hire, shall be drawn with more than six horses, either in length, or in pairs, or sideways; and no travelling cart to have more than three horses, upon pain of forfeiting all the horses above six in the waggon, and three in the cart, with all geers, accoutrements, &c. to the use of the seizer.

The horses, &c. are to be delivered to the constable, or other parish-officer; and oath to be made of the offence before a justice of peace, who is thereupon to issue his precept to the constable, &c. to redeliver the horses seized.

Travelling waggons are to be bound with streaks or tire, two inches and a half in breadth, at least when worn, or not to be drawn with above three horses, on pain of forfeiting all the horses exceeding that number, with the geers, &c. streaks set on with rose-headed nails, liable to the same penalty. Persons hindering the seizure of horses, to be committed for three months, and forfeit 10l. to be levied on their goods, if not paid in three days, by warrant from one justice. Carriages employed in husbandry, and carrying cheese, butter, or any one tree, or piece of timber, or any one stone, or block of marble, caravans, and covered carriages of noblemen and gentlemen, for their private use, or timber, ammunition, or artillery, for his majesty's use, are excepted.

Persons, prosecuted for any matter done in execution of this act, may plead the general issue, and give this act and the special matter in evidence, and recover full costs.

By stat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 6. it is enacted, That no person shall carry, in the cities of London or Westminster, or within 10 miles thereof, in carts or waggons, having their wheels bound with iron, at any one load, any more than 7 hundred and $\frac{1}{2}$ of bricks, one chaldron of coals, 12 sacks of meal, of 5 bushels to the sack, and 12 quarters of malt: and, if any person should act contrary, he forfeits one of the horses, with the geers, &c. to any one who will seize the same. The penalties to be levied and applied in the same manner as those by 5 Geo. I. relating to carriages drawn on the highway.

Oath to be made of the offence before a justice of peace, who, on conviction, is to order the forfeiture to the seizer, &c.

By an act of 3 Geo. I. the power of reforming abuses, and of settling the rates of water-carriage on the Thames, &c. is vested in the commissioners therein named for nine years, *vide* the act.

Trustees appointed by several acts of parliament for repairing the highways through England, or any five of them, after the 29th of September, 1741, may cause engines to be erected at any of the turnpikes, and, by writing under their hands, may cause all carriages passing the turnpikes to be weighed with their loading, and may demand and take, over and above the toll already granted, 20s. for every hundred weight, above 6000 pounds weight. The money to be applied to the mending the highways.

The same remedy is given by distress, &c. as for the other toll.

If any person driving any cart, dray, or waggon in the streets of London and Westminster, Southwark, and other streets and lanes within the bills of mortality, shall ride upon such cart, &c. not having some other person on foot to guide the same, such offender being convicted before the alderman of the ward, or a justice of peace, by oath of one witness, shall forfeit 10s. to be levied by distress, &c. one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor; and, in default of payment, to be sent to the house of correction for three days. A common carrier may refuse to admit goods into his warehouse, before he is ready to take his journey. 1 Raym. 652.

Taylor versus —————

It was adjudged by Holt, chief justice, upon a trial of nisi prius at Hertford, 4 Aug. 1 Ann. reg. That if goods be delivered

to a carrier, and he does not deliver them according to the direction given him; upon demand of the goods from him, and refusal by him to deliver them, trover lies against him; or an action upon the case lies against him upon the custom. But if the goods be delivered to a servant of the carrier, or to his warehouse-keeper, and they are not delivered, &c. an action of trover does not lie against the carrier, &c. without an actual conversion by him. Raym. 792. CARIBBEE ISLANDS. See BRITISH AMERICA.

A carrier or hoyman is answerable for all losses, except those which happen by the act of God, or the enemies of the king. Ibid. 918. See our articles ROADS and RIVERS.

CARRIER, one who carries merchandizes or other goods from one place to another, in waggons, carts, or other wheel-carriages.

Merchandizes in bales, chests, &c. or of a solid substance and bulky, pay by the weight so much per pound, for carriage. Those that are liquid, as wine, brandy, cyder, beer, &c. pay commonly so much per cask, according to its size. The carriers in France, unless they be accompanied by those who trusted them with goods, or by some person in their name, are to take with them the bill of carriage of the merchandizes they have laden; the permits, if it be wine, brandy, or any other liquor; the receipts from the custom-offices by which they pass, and pass-ports, if there be occasion, and if they are to go through an enemy's country.

They are also obliged to pay toll on the road, wherever it is due, either for carriages and horses, or for merchandizes; with liberty, however, to demand the payment back, in case they did not agree to carry the goods, free from all charges, to the place for which they are designed.

Finally, the carriers answer for all damages, which the merchandizes may suffer through their fault; and with regard to other damages, for which, by the ordonnances and regulations, they cannot be answerable, they are obliged to get a verbal process or declaration of them, drawn up before the magistrates, who live nearest to the place where such accidents happened.

CARRIER, in France, in a larger sense, signifies any person who undertakes to carry from one place to another persons, merchandizes, writings, gold, silver, wine, wood, timber, &c. and even prisoners, for a certain price, either settled by the magistrates, and officers of the police, or by spontaneous agreement between the carrier and the merchants, or others who would employ them.

In this extensive signification of the word, are comprehended not only the carriers properly so called, as the masters of waggons and carts, and those of barges and boats, who carry goods freely throughout all France, either by land or by water, but also the messengers or post-men, the masters of stage-coaches, those who let out horses, the farmers of stage-boats, the post-masters, and other sorts of carriers, who are farmers, and have peculiar privileges and licences.

R E M A R K S.

The liberty of carrying goods by land or by water has always been considered, not only as very advantageous to trade, but even as absolutely necessary to support it, and make it flourish in France. This reason has always disappointed the attempts of the farmers of the king's revenues, who being unacquainted with, or regardless of, what may promote or prejudice commerce, have often endeavoured to farm out all the public carriages. And, indeed, the erecting of so many offices or posts of carriers, comptrollers, weighers, visitors, intendants, super-intendants, clerks, and commissaries of carriers, which were made from time to time, have generally been as soon suppressed, as they have taken effect; as appears from the several edicts, declarations, and decrees of the 30th of September, 1634, the 16th of May, 1635, the 20th of March, 1655, the 29th of March, 1656, the 12th of April, 1657, the 29th of July, and the month of October, 1658, and the 18th of June, 1659.

But although these offices have been suppressed, and the carriers restored to their antient freedom of carriage, yet most of the duties, which had been annexed to those offices, still subsist, and have been added to the king's farms; and it is partly for that reason, that all carriers, who carry bales, chests, &c. belonging to merchants, traders, or other persons, are obliged to make their carriages pass by the offices of the custom-house, and those of the king's farms, in order to pay those duties, which have been kept up for the king's use*.

* These restrictions upon carriage, being as suddenly taken off as imposed, seem calculated only for the sake of the revenue, not for the benefit of trade, because all taxes upon carriages of merchandize must ultimately terminate upon trade.

This liberty or freedom of carriage both by land and by water does not, however, consist in an entire independency: for though the carriers be not united into a company or corporation, yet they have rules or regulations, which they are obliged to regard for the public security, and as a kind of dis-

cipline, which they are obliged to follow among themselves, and in their dealings with others.

An abstract of some of the principal laws of France, in regard to carriage.

1. All persons who have wherewithal to keep boats, barges, or carts and horses, may set up for carriers, either by land or by water, without any grant, permission, or licence.

2. Their setting out and arrival are not fixed to certain days, nor to or from certain places.

3. Lastly, there is no settled price for the carriage of merchandizes or other goods, but the carriers make an agreement with the merchants, or other persons, for the price, which may be more or less, according as the circumstances vary.

That liberty with regard to the price of carriage is so considerable, and of so great importance to trade, that the six bodies of the merchants of Paris, in a memorial presented, in 1701, to monsieur de Chamillard, then comptroller-general of the finances, for the execution of the regulation of 1678, concerning carriages, which were struck at by the declarations and decrees of 1681 and 1684, call that liberty the right arm of trade, and did not scruple to assert, that what cost them 25 or 30 livres carriage by the messengers, stage-coaches, and waggons farmed out, cost them but six livres by the common carriers, because of the fixed or settled price which the farmer-carriers never lessened, and of the voluntary price which they used to agree upon with the others, and which the merchants as well as the carriers might settle as they pleased.

The chief regulations relating to the carriers, particularly to those who arrive at, or set out from Paris, are the regulations contained in the second and third chapters of the ordonnance for the city of Paris, given by Lewis XIV, in December, 1672, concerning carriers by water; and the regulations of the 25th of June, 1678, concerning land-carriers.

The ordonnance of aids given in June, 1680, that of the 22d of July, 1681, and that of February 1687, relating to the five great farms, as also several decrees of the council, and, among others, those of the 25th of July, 1684, and the 29th of May, 1688, contain likewise several articles, relating both to land and water carriers, and particularly to their bills of carriage: from all these ordonnances, regulations, and decrees, we shall extract only the most important particulars, and such as are of a most common practice.

The chief articles of the ordonnance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1692, which relate to the water-carriers, are the 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8 and 9th of the second chapter, and the 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15 and 16th of the third.

By the first article of the second chapter it is lawful to carry goods and merchandizes every day in the year, except on the four solemn festivals, which are Christmas-day, Easter-day, Whit-sunday, and All-Saint's-day.

The second forbids navigation upon the rivers, but between the rising and setting of the sun, and not to set out in stormy weather.

The third and fifth regulate the passage through bridges and narrow passages, made by banks and sluices, as also the meeting of vessels in the rivers; and orders that vessels going down the stream must moor by the shore, till those that go up be got through the bridges and narrow passages; but, if they meet in the middle of a river, those that go up must moor by the shore, to let those pass which go down.

The seventh speaks of goods lost by bad weather, and those that are lost by the waterman's fault; and orders, that in the former case the carriers shall not be answerable for the loss of the goods, upon giving up their vessels and tackle within three days: but in the latter case they are to answer for the damages and interests.

The eighth article forbids all carriers to set out from the keys where they loaded, without bills of carriage, under the penalty of losing the price for carriage; but, in case the merchant or owner of the goods refuse to deliver the bill of carriage, the carrier, on proving such a refusal, is credited upon his word, both as to the quantity of the goods, and the price agreed upon for carriage.

Lastly, the ninth explains what is to be contained in the bills of carriage, for which see that article above.

The sixth article of the second chapter of the same ordonnance orders, that the carriers shall give notice to the owners, or their factors, of the arrival of their merchandizes, twenty-four hours after they are come to the keys, and produce to them their bills of carriage, in the margin of which is to be set down, by the said owners or factors, the day on which they were produced.

The seventh gives leave to the carriers to land the merchandizes, after the owners or factors to whom the bills of carriage are directed, have been summoned to fend for their goods.

The eighth regulates what proceedings are to be had, and before what persons, when, after the summons mentioned in the foregoing article, the proprietor or his factor refuse to accept the bill of carriage, and to receive the merchandizes.

The eleventh article regulates the time, during which vessels laden with corn, wine, hay, wood, coals, and other merchandizes, are to continue at the keys, which is settled at a fortnight for all these vessels, except those laden with wines, which are to continue a whole month at the keys. It is also ordered, that, in case the merchandizes could not be sold within the limited time, the carriers shall be paid for that delay, and their vessels restored to them in a good condition. The twelfth obliges the carriers to deliver the merchandizes by tale or measure, only in case they were trusted with them after the same manner, and this clause be inserted in the bill of carriage: yet, if the merchant had put a person on board the vessel to watch, for the preservation of the merchandizes, the carrier is not bound to answer for the number, quantity, or measure.

By the fourteenth, the merchandizes are answerable to the boats, as soon as they are moored to the keys, and as long as they remain in the said boats.

By the fifteenth, on the contrary, the vessels are answerable for the merchandizes, in case they have suffered any damage by the carrier's fault, or in case he does not deliver the whole of what he was entrusted with.

Lastly, the sixteenth article allows to the merchant, for whom the vessel was laden, all the merchandizes that are found on board, over and above what is set down in the bills of carriage; but the merchant is, however, obliged to pay carriage for that overplus, which turns to his advantage.

The decree of the council made the 25th of June, 1678, for regulating the functions of messengers, masters of stage-coaches, and carriers, by land, contains twenty-one articles, four of which only, viz. the 6th, 13th, 14th, and 20th relate to the carriers.

By the 6th they are forbidden to carry any letters, except the letters or bills of carriage of the merchandizes and other goods they are entrusted with, which bills must even be delivered open to them.

The 13th and 14th give leave to all private receivers, farmers of the king's demains and farms, and to all merchants, traders, and others, to send their money, merchandizes, and other goods, being their property, by the horses, carts, or other carriages belonging to such carriers, as they shall think proper to employ.

By the 20th, all messengers and masters of stage-coaches are forbidden to molest the carriers in following their business, on condition that the latter do observe the edicts, declarations, decrees, and regulations.

A second decree of the council, dated the 8th of August, 1681, and again a third given the 23d of January, 1684, both obtained by the credit of a great minister, who owned most of the public carriages, or had a share in the profit of them, deprived the carriers of the liberty of unloading the merchandizes on the road, of carrying gold, silver, and jewels, which, before those edicts, they were free to carry; and obliged them, when their own horses happened to fail on the road, to use hired horses, the farm of which belonged to that great minister, who was at that time super-intendant of the post, or post-master general throughout the kingdom: but all these restraints being either against the established custom, or against the regulations made in the year 1678, and also very prejudicial to trade, as tending to a monopoly of carriage in general; the six bodies of the merchants of Paris, the traders of Lyons, those of Moulins in Burgundy, and of several other considerable trading-towns, joined in a petition with the land and water carriers of those and of many other cities; whereupon there was a fourth decree of the council, given the 2d of April, 1701, which, explaining that of 1684, restores to the merchants and traders of the kingdom the liberty, they always enjoyed before, of directing their chests, bales, &c. to the correspondents, being merchants or others, they might have, for the sake of trade, in the several towns of the kingdom, to send afterwards the said chests, bales, &c. provided they weighed above fifty pounds, to the places they are designed for, by such carriers as the said correspondents shall judge most convenient.

As the bills of carriage are thus necessary for carriers, both by land and by water, and as they are equally useful to the carriers, for securing the price of their carriage, and the payment according to their agreement, and to the traders and other persons for the security of their merchandizes and effects; and to the receivers of the aids, and of the king's farms, for receiving the duties due on such merchandizes, &c. so there is nothing more exactly settled and regulated by the ordonnances, either of aids, or of the five great farms, and by a great many decrees, than the necessity and form of the said bills of carriage.

The 2d and 3d articles of the 3d title, and the 1st article of the 7th title of ordonnance of aids, made in June 1680, order, that all wines be accompanied with double bills of carriage, made before a notary, or other public person; that they be filled up by the same hand; that they mention the place where the wine was loaded, the name, dwelling-place, and quality of the proprietor, of the place for which it is designed, and of the person to whom it is directed; and that these bills be examined by the officers of the custom-houses,

through which the carriage is to pass, upon pain of forfeiture and a fine.

The decrees of the council of July the 25th, 1684, and May the 29th, 1688, regulate the same with regard to the bills of carriage for brandies, which are sold or carried from one place to another.

The 2d, 4th, and 5th articles of the title of the duties on sea-fish, either fresh, dried, or salted, do likewise order the carriers who carry the said fish designed for the city of Paris, to take such bills of carriage, before they load the fish at the sea-port towns, or other places from which they set out, to present them to the custom house officers of the said ports, to be there registered and comptrolled: or, if there be no such officers on the spot, to have them passed before the notary public, tabelliere, or recorder of the place; which bills ought to contain the quality and quantity of the commodity, the place for which it is designed, the name of the commissioner or merchant who sends it, and the name of the person to whom it is directed.

Lastly, to prevent all inconveniencies which might arise from the falsification or forging of bills of carriage, the ordonnance of July the 22d, 1681, articles 21st and 22d, of the common title of the king's farms, orders, That they who shall have falsified or forged bills of carriage, be for the first offence sentenced to be whipped, and banished for five years from the election or district, where the offence was committed, and pay a fine, which shall not be less than one fourth part of their estate; and, for the second offence, they shall be condemned for nine years to the galleys, and pay a fine not less than one half of what they are worth.

CART, a land-carriage with two wheels, and drawn commonly with horses, to carry heavy goods from one place to another. A cart-load is the quantity which a cart can carry: thus we say, a cart-load of hay, &c.

The use of carts being very common and convenient for the carriage of all sorts of commodities, the officers of the police in France, and even the king's council, have not judged it unworthy their care and attention to regulate the functions, and often to settle the price thereof, in order to prevent monopolies and combinations to the prejudice of trade.

The king by his edicts, declarations, and decrees of his council, has regulated all that relates to the carriages and carriers, without the city of Paris, as the reader may see under those articles; where also we have given some account of what relates to the carriages in England. See CARRIAGE and CARRIER.

As to what concerns the carriers and carmen of Paris, particularly those who work on the keys of that capital city, it is regulated by several articles of the fourth chapter of the ordonnance of that city made in the year 1672.

The 17th article of that ordonnance commands all carmen, and other land-carriers, to be on the keys at the hours of sale, with their carts or drays, and horses put to them, that they may be ready to carry merchandizes at the rates settled by the provost of the merchants and echevins, forbidding them expressly to demand any greater sum, under the penalty of being whipped.

By the 18th, they and their servants are ordered to load themselves the goods upon their carts or drays, except wood, corn, hay, and coals, for the loading and unloading of which, there are proper officers appointed; forbidding all wharf-porters, who ply on the keys, to meddle with the lading of any merchandizes on carts or drays, and to demand any thing from the merchants or citizens, upon pain also of being whipped.

The 19th forbids all carmen from associating together in a confused and irregular manner, but they are to keep a due rank or order on the keys, and not to refuse working for those who chuse them, and offer them the settled hire, under the same penalty.

The 20th orders, that, once every six months, there be posted up in some visible places on the keys, by the care of the king's attorney for the city, a paper, containing the rates of the wages of the said carmen and carriers, as settled by the provost of the merchants, and by the echevins.

By the 22d, they are made answerable for the loss or damage of any goods, happening by their fault, or by that of their servants.

The 23d, in order to prevent retailers from carrying off more goods than they are permitted to do by the regulations, forbids all carmen the loading of their carts, but in the presence of the citizen who employs them, under the penalty of a fine.

The 24th commands them not to set out from the key, till the seller be paid, or have otherwise agreed with the buyer, upon pain of answering for the goods in their own name.

Lastly, to prevent the carmen from disturbing the citizens in the enjoyment of their rights and privileges, the 25th article gives leave to the latter to get the goods and provisions, which they caused to be sent to them by water, landed by their own servants, and to be carried home in their own carriages, if they think fit, without their being obliged to employ the public carmen; the latter being likewise prohibited, on pain

of being whipped, to do any work on the keys, unless they be chosen and employed by the citizens.

CARTWRIGHT, with us signifies only a man who makes carts: but the French word *charron*, which answers to it, has a more extensive signification; it implying as well a workman who makes coaches of all sorts, waggons, litters, caresses, berlins, carriages for the army, and for cannon, drays, sledges, and other such carriages, or requisites belonging thereunto.

The company of the master-wheelwrights-coachmakers of the city and suburbs of Paris, is very numerous: which may be easily inferred, from the almost incredible number of coaches and other wheel-carriages, which are seen in that capital city of the kingdom, and which some reckon to be above fifteen thousand. The antiquity of this company cannot, however, be traced up higher than the reign of Lewis XII. who gave the first statutes to the master-wheelwrights, whom he erected into a body corporate by his letters patent, dated the 15th of October 1498.

Those convenient vehicles, called coaches, being invented, or brought to a degree of perfection in the beginning of the next century, and becoming afterwards very common, they not only added, to the name of *charron* (wheelwright) which the freemen of that company bear, the appellation of coachmakers, which they have borne ever since, but it was also thought proper to renew and amend their statutes, because of the great variety of work which this new invention had introduced amongst the mechanics*.

* By this and numerous other instances throughout this work, it appears, that laws and regulations, in regard to trade, have first taken their rise from the natural and necessary practices of those who are engaged in trade and the mechanic arts themselves: wherefore, the legislators of trading nations cannot be too minutely informed of the peculiar circumstances relating to all traders, from the lowest mechanic to the supreme merchant: how otherwise can it be possible, that their laws should so coincide with the nature of these particular trades and arts, as duly to promote the public interest of the whole? A knowledge, therefore, in the practical arts of traders, cannot be becoming the greatest men in a country that subsists by commerce; for those who attempt to reason upon trade, without this preliminary science, must ever be in the dark; they may make laws one year, and suppress them the next; which only serve to confound and perplex the people, and injure trade instead of promoting it. The making of laws for the regulation of trade, without a proper knowledge of trade, is not less absurd, than those sages, who have pretended to establish philosophy, without experimental knowledge; which for centuries filled the world with ideal and imaginary, instead of real and solid science. Has not this been the true cause of our making and unmaking laws relating to commerce and navigation, wranglings, and controversial scribbling upon this great subject? Has not this led men rather into the superficial knowledge of metaphysical whims, subtilities, and ridiculous distinctions, than into useful knowledge, that will bear the test, and advance the honest industry and happiness of mankind?

The most considerable of these new regulations, composed chiefly of those of the year 1498, were made in 1623. They were given to the company by Lewis XIII. who granted them also, in October that same year, letters patent for confirming their establishment.

But, as these statutes did not prove sufficient to prevent or determine an infinite number of disputes, which arose daily between the freemen of this company, and those of the saddle-makers, harness-makers, turners, upholsterers, ironmongers, carriers, people who let out coaches, &c. the parliament, before whom these disputes were daily brought, declared at last by a decree of the 16th of July 1667, that the masters cartwrights should appear before his majesty, in order to obtain new statutes.

These new regulations, obtained under the reign of Lewis XIV. and registered in the parliament the 20th of November, 1668, are those by which the freemen of this company are governed at present; for the alterations made in them between the years 1691 and 1713, on account of several offices and employments newly created, and incorporated with the company, do not relate, or, at least, very little, to the government of the company, but only to the augmentation of the fees for apprenticeship, freedom, visitations, &c. in order to pay off the sums borrowed by the company, and paid into the king's exchequer, by virtue of the edicts for creating those new offices, and of the decrees of the council for incorporating them. These statutes are composed of 50 articles, whereof the 29th, 30th, 33d, 36th, 37th, 39th, 41st, and 43d, regulate what the freemen of every company, whose business has some connection with that of the cartwrights, and which have been mentioned above, may, or may not, concur with the master-cartwrights. The rest of the articles contain the whole method of government of cartwrights amongst themselves, extracted partly from the statutes of 1498, and from those of 1623, and partly from the several decrees of parliament, and the sentences of the Châtelet, given, since the year 1623, to the year 1668.

The company of the master-cartwright-coachmakers is governed by four jurats, or wardens, who cannot be elected into that office, unless they do actually dwell within the city of Paris, and have been staff-bearers and administrators of the brotherhood of St Eloy, the patron of the company.

Two new jurats are chosen every year, in the room of two old ones, who, on their going out of office, are obliged to give an account of their wardenship, before eight ancient bachelors, two modern ones, and two young freemen.

As long as the jurats continue in office, they may advance each of them a sum not exceeding 50 livres, for the pressing emergencies of the company, by which they are afterwards reimbursed out of a capitation, or poll-tax, which is to be imposed upon every freeman: but they are nevertheless forbidden to pass any decree, or sentence, concerning the corporation, without having first summoned together the number of bachelors and freemen fixed for the settling of their accounts.

The apprenticeship is of four years, as well as the journeymanship; the former with the same master with whom the apprentice was bound before a notary public, and the latter with such a master as the journeyman thinks fit. The apprentice is moreover obliged to pay five livres for the fee of the brotherhood, the very day on which his indenture is signed.

No freeman can have above one apprentice at a time: he may, however, take a second when the first has served half his time out.

Whoever would be made free of the company, must perform a master-piece of workmanship, unless he be a freeman's son, or has married a freeman's widow, or daughter; in which cases he is only obliged to a trial, and even without any expence.

The jurats and the ancient bachelors prescribe the master-piece to him who would obtain his freedom; but yet all the freemen may be present at it. If he be found capable, he takes the oath, and receives his letters of freedom; but not till he has paid the fees due to the officers of the Châtelet, the vacations of jurats and bachelors, and the fees of his admission: all which were settled at 600 livres, but has been much increased, particularly for the freemen without qualifications, since the year 1691.

If the person who would take up his freedom does not well perform his master-piece, he is sent back, to serve two years longer with a freeman, to be afterwards admitted, in case he be then found capable.

No master can have above one shop open to the street; but yet every one is at liberty to have, besides this, a yard in such place of the city, or suburbs, as he thinks proper.

The number of journeymen is not limited; yet it is unlawful to entice any away, or to take a journeyman from another master, or widow-mistress, without his or her consent.

The jurats have a power to visit not only the shops and work-places of the masters, but also the keys where the timber for cartwrights work arrives: but such freemen as have served the office of jurats, and freemen's widows, are exempted from paying the fees for such visitations.

All the timber for cartwright's work brought to Paris for the account of foreign merchants, either by water or by land, is to be unloaded on the keys within the walls of the city, and remain there three working days; nor can it be carried off before six o'clock in the morning in summer, and eight in the winter. No freeman is at liberty to meet foreign merchants bringing goods to Paris, under the penalty of paying a fine, and forfeiting the goods bought: they may, nevertheless go, or send to buy, all sorts of timber for cartwright's work, either yet standing, or ready cut, and cause it to be brought and put up into their wharfs, or timber-yards.

Lastly, to prevent all the abuses which might happen in the making of carriages for coaches or carts, and other new works of the said cartwrights, they are obliged, under the penalty of an arbitrary fine, to mark them with their particular mark, even those that are made by their apprentices, or journeymen.

CARTWRIGHT'S TIMBER, is that which is used by the cartwrights and coachmakers. The timber is of two sorts, particularly elm-timber, which is chiefly used in cartwright's work, namely, the round timber, and the hewn timber.

The round timber is that which is still in logs, or blocks, that is to say, which has not yet been squared with the saw, and has the bark upon it still; but has, nevertheless, been cut to a certain length, proportionable to the works in which the cartwrights would use it.

Hewn timber is that which has been squared with the saw, and reduced to the thickness and size proper for other works of the cartwrights.

With the round timber they make the naves, or stocks, of the wheels, the coach-beams, the jaunts, &c. The hewn timber serves to make the coach-standards, poles, beams, &c.

Rules concerning round elm timber.

The round timber for naves, or stocks of wheels, ought to be six feet and a half high, and 10 inches diameter, at least, at the

the thinnest end; those pieces which are from 12 to 16 inches diameter are reckoned the best, because they may serve for the largest cart-wheels.

The round timber for axle-trees must be six feet long, and from seven to eight inches diameter.

The pieces designed for poles ought to be of several sizes, according as they are intended for coaches, or for other carriages. Those for coaches must measure from 10 to 12 feet in length, and the others from 12 to 15, without any knots, and be well bent.

For the jaunts, the pieces must be two feet eight or 10 inches long, or even three feet.

Rules for the hewn timber used by cartwrights.

The pieces of timber for supporting the standard of a coach must be cut six feet and a half long, six or seven inches broad, and four or five inches thick.

The standards of six feet seven or eight inches long, five or six inches broad, and three or four inches thick.

And the poles nine feet long, three inches and a half square at the smallest end, and four inches at the thickest end.

It must be observed, that there are several other pieces of elm timber used in the cart-wright's business; which they themselves cut, the timber-merchants leaving several pieces, in the form of round timber, of divers sizes and lengths, for which there are no settled rules, the workmen chusing them at the sales, or in the timber-yards, according as they find them proper for the several works wherein they would use them.

Other timber for cartwrights.

The ash timber is commonly cut into standards and poles: some of it is also left in pieces of round timber, proper to make those forts of carriages on which they carry wine in France. These pieces of round ash timber ought to be from 10 to 18 feet long, and eight or nine inches diameter.

The yoke-elm timber is commonly cut into axle-trees, and other pieces in which elm is used; but it is seldom employed but in those provinces where elm is scarce.

Of the branches of elm and yoke-elm, which are not large enough to be left in round timber, or cut for the several pieces of cartwright's work mentioned above, they commonly make the spokes of wheels, though they make them also sometimes of other wood, and particularly of oak.

CASAN, CAZAN, or KASAN, a kingdom in Muscovian Tartary, which the Russians call Czaritwo. Caraukoy was formerly subject to it's own princes, who were esteemed powerful monarchs, but was subdued by the Czar Basilowitz, to which was added the kingdom of Astracan; since which, these two kingdoms have been looked on as the two richest jewels in the Czarish diadem: this of Casan, on account of it's extraordinary richness and fertility; that of Astracan, on account of it's vast and valuable traffic.

Casan is bounded on the north by the provinces of Vairka, last described, and Permia; on the east by the Tumæan Tartary; on the south by Barkiria, Bulgaria, and Astracan; on the west by the Lower Novogorod and Muscovy, properly so called. It is watered by the two rivers Wolga and Kama, which run through it, and enrich both it's soil and it's traffic.

CASAN, a large and populous city, the seat of a Russian metropolitan. It is situate on a fine spacious plain, on the river Casauka, about seven versts from the place where it falls into the Wolga, in latitude 58. 38. It is excellently well situated for being well supplied with all manner of necessaries and provisions, by land and water, and which are here in great plenty and cheapness.

CASE-HARDENING. The art hereof is a lesser degree of steel-making, and practised by baking, calcination, or cementation, of razors, files, knife-blades, &c. in a kind of oven, or other close vessel, stratified with powdered charcoal, and hoofs and horns of animals, so as to exclude the air; and thus, by calcining with the ingredients in occluso, or in a vessel, oven, or furnace, where the open air cannot affect the subject, a coat of steel is given to instruments some depth below their surface.

On the other hand, iron becomes softer by a more gentle and longer-continued ignition; whereby it acquires a kind of sponginess, which, however, is again condensed, upon quenching the metal in cold water: but, to render it more soft and ductile, the way is to quench it in a decoction of animal excrements, either those of men or brutes, or in stale urine, or in the juice of onions; by which means iron may be so mollified, as to become fit for the graver.

CASH, in commerce, signifies the stock of money which a merchant, trader, or banker has at his disposal, wherewith to trade (some derive it from the French caisse, a trunk or chest to lock up money in). Thus we say, the cash of such a banker amounts to ten, twenty, or thirty thousand pounds.

The management of the cash of a separate or joint trader, in society or partnership, is of the utmost consequence to render their trade successful. With regard to the former, he should always have his eye upon that essential account, in order to answer all demands, and to procure payment of debts, when due.

Among partners, the conduct of their traffic should be so divided between the concerned, as to suit each other's talents and disposition. Thus the business should be divided between them, both with regard to the buying and selling of merchandizes, keeping the cash, and the ledger; and seeing to what particular part of the business each is most fitly adapted. He who is of an active stirring temper, is more proper for buying and selling, than he who is of a more sedate disposition, and loves ease and rest. Therefore the more active should be employed in the buying and selling of merchandizes; the more sedate in keeping the ledger and cash; because, having less vivacity, he may be more circumspect in the management of sedentary business, than if he were more active.

And, indeed, the success of partnerships depends, in a great measure, on the prudence and good order of him who keeps the cash and the books; which consists in keeping the books without the least confusion, in knowing instantaneously what is due to the partnership, or what it owes, and in calling in debts regularly, to answer all emergencies.

The most important of all is the management of the cash. That does not consist only in receiving and paying, which is very easy: he who manages it is to take care of many other things, from which the whole prosperity of the partnership must proceed. For which reason he is to mind two things chiefly; first, that there be always money enough in cash to pay the bills of exchange, which their correspondents and manufacturers draw upon them; and, in case they keep manufactories, the bills or notes for monies borrowed, in order to buy the requisite materials, and to pay workmen, that the course of business may by no means be interrupted. Secondly, he must call in the debts regularly; for, as the cash exhausts, it must be timely replenished.

Lastly, he who keeps the account of cash, ought to be like a good pilot, who wisely foresees the storms that may happen, during the time of the partnership, particularly if they have manufactories which depend on the fashion; such as wrought stuffs, that are in vogue, according as people's fancy leads them, and for which there is not the same demand at all times. They who deal, for instance, in gold, silver, silk, and flowered stuff, if there happen to be a public mourning for the death of a sovereign prince, or any of the royal family, will find the sale of such goods at a stand; and yet they must duly pay what they owe, and still uphold their manufactories, which must by no means stand still, upon such a temporary occasion.

This is a very bad time for those sort of traders; their merchandizes remaining dead in the warehouses; their debtors, who deal by retail, not being able to pay what they owe, because their trade is also at a stand; yet their creditors will be paid, and thus the cash becomes inevitably exhausted.

When this is the case, he who keeps the cash ought timely to think of prudential expedients, in order to raise money. To which end there are three that naturally present themselves; the first is, to apply to the debtors; the second, to negotiate bills of exchange; and the third, to have recourse to particular friends.

At such conjunctures little dependance is to be made on the company's debtors, because they are not able to pay, by reason of the stagnation of their branch of trade; yet this is a time in which they must be used with tenderness and indulgence, that they may not be necessitated to break.

The credit for negotiating bills of exchange is uncertain, it depending on the caprice of men, more especially at such critical times; so that little stress is to be laid upon it at such ticklish times.

The safest expedient, at such conjunctures, seems to be to have recourse to particular friends, who are monied-men, and who will not refuse to lend a trader, if they can do it with safety.

All these considerations will occur to the sensible man of business, who has the conduct of the cash, in order to support his trade and credit, that he may not be surprized: for which purpose, he ought always to have before him a balance or account of the company's debtors and creditors, that he may know the state of their affairs, in order to call in the active debts, or to renew the bills or notes for the passive debts, when such bills or notes are become due. And, in case the money fails, he must be very diligent in both these particulars, and examine very carefully, whether those whom they intrust with merchandizes, are punctual in their payments; whether they be careful and prudent in their way of business, in order not to trust them too much, or imprudently; for it is of the last importance to be well acquainted with the circumstances and credit of those with whom we deal.

The partner who keeps the cash ought to know, that, if he be negligent in calling in the active debts, he does too great and irreparable prejudices to the partnership. * The first is, that a merchant, who is able to pay to-day, will perhaps prove insolvent to-morrow, and may break by some unforeseen accident; whereby a part, not the whole of the profit, which the partners shall have made, may be lost. The second is, that there being no money in cash, if the partners are obliged to borrow any, the high interest, they must pay, will swallow up all their profit, and very often their capital also. These plain observations may be of no little advantage, especially to the young and unexperienced traders.

CASH of Loans, in French, *caisse des emprunts*. Thus they called in France a public cash, which was established at Paris in the Hôtel of the king's united farms, where all sorts of persons, of what quality and condition soever, both natives and foreigners, were allowed to carry their money, in order to improve it, and whence they could take it out again at the expiration of the term mentioned in the promissory notes; which the king's farmers-general gave them, and which were signed by four members of the company appointed for that purpose.

These sorts of promissory notes, wherein the name of the person who paid the value was left blank, were made payable to the bearer a year after date; and the interest for the whole year was not paid, 'till the notes became due, which were then either renewed, or paid off both interest and principal. This cash account was instituted, not only to render the management of his majesty's farms the more easy, but to afford private people an opportunity of laying out their money with some profit, till they could dispose of it more advantageously.

This cash of loans was first established in October, 1673, under the reign of Lewis XIV, Monsieur Colbert being then comptroller-general of the finances. It continued several years, being as useful to the state, as to private people; the former meeting with ready supplies in the wars, wherein France was then engaged; and the latter a quick use of their money, with a safe interest: but this cash was nevertheless suppressed towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, and the capital reimbursed to the owners, with the interest due thereon.

The conveniency of this cash, which had been so long experienced, together with the immense expence which the state was engaged in, towards the beginning of the eighteenth century, in order to support the acceptance of the last will, which Charles II, king of Spain, had made in favour of the duke of Anjou, made the ministers resolve to revive that bank, though with some difference with regard to the interest for the sums deposited; which was paid at a higher rate in the new cash of loans, than it had been in the old one.

This second cash of loans was established in 1702, by virtue of a declaration of the king, dated the 11th of March, that same year.

By that declaration the interest was settled at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum. It was afterwards raised to 10 per cent. by a new declaration of the 25th of March 1705; but, after that, it was lowered again, and reduced to 6 per cent. by a third declaration of the 14th of October, 1710; upon which footing it continued till the year 1715, when it fell again to 4 per cent.

As these promissory notes came, through the misfortunes of the times, to amount to immense sums, it was resolved, in the year 1713, to pay off both the principal and interest; for the latter had not been paid regularly for some years, and the creditors had not been at liberty to take out their principal, as they ought to have been, according to the first scheme of this cash of loans.

The first reimbursement of these funds was ordered by a declaration of the king, dated the 3d of October that same year 1713, at the rate of six millions of livres per annum; which were to be paid monthly, to such of the creditors, on whom the lot should fall, for their notes were to be drawn out by lot, in the form and manner prescribed by that declaration.

This method of reimbursement was altered at the end of a year, and by a new declaration issued the 15th of December, 1714, the reimbursement was settled at $\frac{1}{2}\%$ per annum; so that in twenty years time the whole principal money, and all the interest due on the promissory notes of the cash of loans, would be entirely discharged.

Six months after this, another declaration, given the 7th of May, 1715, made some new alterations, not only in the method of paying of those notes, but also in the interest they bore, which was now reduced to 4 per cent. It was also ordered, that a certain number of the notes should be drawn by lot every quarter of a year, in the presence of two of his majesties commissaries, to be entirely reimbursed and paid off, both interest and principal, from such funds as were appointed by that declaration.

This declaration was just begun to be put in execution for the quarter of July, when an edict was issued in August, that same year, by which the cash of loans and it's promissory

notes were entirely abolished and suppressed, and at the same time were created five millions of perpetual annuities on the Town-house, or Guild-hall of Paris, at 4 per cent. for reimbursing the said promissory notes; which were to be paid off, some entirely, and others only by halves, according as they had been negotiated, or not negotiated; which was to be settled by the commissaries of the council.

Lewis XIV. dying in the beginning of September following, and the new administration taking other measures for paying off the national debts, Lewis XV, under the regency of Philip duke of Orleans, issued a declaration the 7th of December, that same year, by which all the royal bills and notes, of what nature soever they might be (which did consequently include the promissory notes of the cash of loans) were converted into bills of the state (*billets d'etat*) for which his majesty made himself security; promising to pay regularly interest upon them, at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, 'till he could successively pay off the principal, by the most convenient means. This declaration, which was only preparatory, was explained by another, dated the 1st of April, 1716, which settled the conversion of all the royal bills at 250 millions of bills of the state, and regulated upon what footing each kind of paper, or note, was to be liquidated by the commissaries of the council.

By this reduction the promissory notes of the cash of loan were brought under three classes:

The first was of those, the value of which, had been originally paid in ready money, or partly in money, and partly in paper; these were reduced to three fourths.

The second of such notes, for which no real value had been paid, but which had been issued out some years before, to be negotiated with a considerable loss: these were reduced to two fifths.

Lastly, the third class contained all those notes, which it was notorious had been negotiated in the latter, and in the preceding reign, at above 80 per cent. discount: these were reduced to one fifth.

Since this declaration, there has been no mention made in France, either in trade or otherwise, of the notes of the cash of loans; and they have been, under the general name of notes, or bills of the state, paid off or annihilated, by the several methods appointed since by his majesty for those sorts of bills; and which we have mentioned above, in the article of the several sorts of bills, which are still, or have been, formerly current in trade, both within the kingdom, and with foreigners.

CASH of Credit was a cash established in France, in behalf of those country traders, who bring wine and other liquors to Paris.

This cash was first established in September, 1719. The edict orders, that the foreign traders and others shall be at liberty to receive there immediately the price of their wine and liquors, and take credit there, on paying a discount or interest of six deniers per livre; but yet, they who take no credit there, shall not be obliged to pay any such discount.

As this new cash met with very little favour from the wine-merchants, it was thought proper to give it, if possible, some sanction, by a decree of the council, dated the 4th of April, 1722; and afterwards, by letters patent of the 28th of June, registered in the court of aids the 14th of August that same year: but, all this proving still insufficient, there was a second decree of the council, issued the 27th of September, 1723, which gives a very particular account of the benefits which the wine-merchants may reap from this cash, and of the manner how it ought to be managed.

His majesty declares first, that the fund of this cash shall be formed from the money arising out of the duties, re-established by the decrees of the 20th and 22d of March, 1722, and by the declaration of the 15th of May following.

In this cash all country traders, and others in general, have liberty to take the credit, that is to say, to borrow the money, they have occasion for; which, however, is not to exceed the value of half the wine, or liquors, they have brought to Paris, either by land or by water.

The interest, or discount, which was to be paid for taking credit there, was six deniers per livre (which is two and a half per cent.) but they who did not take credit there could not be obliged to pay that discount.

The credit for wine was established merely by a single deed, or bond, signed by the party, and wrote in a register of large stamp paper, kept for that purpose, and marked with a peculiar flourish by the provost of the merchants.

After the reimbursement of the first credit, or money lent, which was always to be paid before any other debt, out of the money arising from the first sale of the wine, a second credit was to be granted to the merchant, and then a third, and even more afterwards, on his paying the same interest, or discount, of six deniers per livre: but the money lent was never to exceed half the value of the wine remaining to be sold.

Upon reimbursing the first credit, or money lent, the vessels of wine, which had been marked with the mark of the cash of credit, were unmarked again, by cutting a cross-bar on the

the print of the former mark, and must be marked again every time a new credit was taken; that is to say, every time money was borrowed again upon the wine.

The wine-merchants, their partners, factors, or agents, had always the liberty to manage as they please the wine on which they borrowed money, as that on which they borrowed none, except with regard to the delivery of it, after they sold it; for they could not deliver it but in the cashier's presence, who was to take back the money lent, out of the produce of the sale.

After the reimbursement of all the money lent, the bond which the merchant signed on the register was to be discharged, and the cashier to give him a certificate, declaring, that the money arising from the sale was delivered to him; but, in case part of the money only was repaid, a memorandum, or note, was to be written, both in the certificate and in the register of the cash, of the sums which were received on account.

The wines of credit, that is to say, those whereon money was borrowed, which, after the price they sold for, had been put into the hands of the cashier, while removing from the places where they had been deposited, were to be unmarked by the inspectors, keepers of such deposits, and of the mark of the cash, and not by any other person; his majesty strictly forbidding all merchants, factors, agents, coopers, and others, having the management of the wines in the said places, to unmark themselves any wine of credit, upon pain of forfeiting the same, and paying a fine of 100 livres for every cask of wine.

If there were any vessels of wine of credit in a bad condition, which could not be mended, the wine was to be transvased into another vessel, in the presence of one of the clerks of the cash, who was to mark that new vessel, and the staff of the old vessel, on which the mark had been put, was also to have been broke in his presence.

Lastly, his majesty orders that the money lent by the cash on wine should be paid before any other debts, of what nature soever they might be; and, in case the wine was seized, no sale of it should be made, or ordered, but with an express condition and proviso of paying the money lent, before any other, even before the expences of any law-suit, seizure, or execution.

There have been divers other expedients and artifices made use of in France, for the support of private and public credit. See the Article CREDIT, both Private and Public.

R E M A R K S, in a national light.

From the circulation of the cash of private traders, or gentlemen, we may, in some measure, judge of that of a nation, and what quantity is competent for the circulation of the commerce thereof. To trace things from their first principles. Before the use of money, we may naturally enough consider the proprietors of lands as employing slaves, servants, or vassals, to procure them the conveniences of life. On this supposition, the proprietors must have as much allowed them of the produce of the land as was necessary to maintain them and their children.

Since the use of money, it is further natural to judge, that, when it's quantity, by alterations, gradually found out a par, or proportion, to the other commodities, the land-proprietors allowed those who worked for them so much money per annum, or per diem, as answered to their subsistence, and that of their children, according to the manner of living to which they were used. If the proprietors gave them less, they could not subsist; if they gave them more, others would have offered themselves to work for them cheaper; by which the proportion of men's wages in money was readily found out.

In the like manner the uncertain wages of all undertakers have found out their proportion, according to the gain and manner of living wherewith those of that order contented themselves.

Suppose an equal quantity of cash, or money, to circulate constantly in a place, the proportion of money which every body brings to market, according to the means of subsisting which he hath, naturally keeps the alterations at market (*cæteris paribus*) in a uniform situation; and the variation of prices, in the ordinary commodities of constant consumption, proceed only from little inequalities, when some inhabitants spend more in one week than they do in another.

But the greater variations proceed from good or bad years of vent, and the plenty or scarcity of the commodities.

To come to the nature of the circulation of money, let us consider the proprietor of a large landed estate, which he keeps in his own hands, and who has all sorts of labourers, servants, tradesmen, overseers, &c.

Let it be supposed, also, that several of these overseers and tradesmen, to whom the land-proprietor usually gave an allowance in commodities, for their maintenance, and the propagation of children [see the article BARTER] have, by their œconomy, from time to time, saved a good part of the said commodities, and then exchanged them with Americans

for money, at such price as has been determined in the alterations between them. Let it be imagined, likewise, that all the inhabitants on the said estate are fond of silver, and willingly receive it as a pledge for any commodities they lend to, or barter with each other; and reciprocally take it and give it, in absolute barter, finding it so generally in request, that they may have their commodities for it again, with little variation of price, whenever they want them.

Let us suppose a fixed quantity of this money circulating on this estate, as 2000 ounces of silver, and that subdivided into several small pieces, as is the current money in a state.

If the proprietor himself has purchased these 2000 ounces of silver from the Americans, or dug them out of his own ground, it will come to the same thing, provided he exchanges and barbers them with the other inhabitants, his dependants, for the commodities which the land produces, and whereby they all subsist.

Let it be again conceived, that the proprietor, to avoid the trouble of keeping his estate in his own hands, and employing so many different overseers, labourers, tradesmen, &c. chusing to live out of his own landed estate, and lets in parcels, to several of his own overseers, on the ordinary foot that lands are let in England; and that he leaves the tradesmen to set up as undertakers, for the supplying, as they can, the inhabitants, and himself and family. Suppose the quantity of money at which he lets his estate, be 1000 ounces of silver per annum.

It is the general opinion in England, that a farmer makes three rents; viz. the principal rent he pays the proprietor; a second rent for the charge of his farm, and the wages of his servants; and a third rent for himself and family, whereon to subsist, and for the education of his children. This opinion is founded on experience, which shews, that, of a farm of 300 acres, of equal goodness, the produce of 100 acres sold at market is sufficient to pay the principal rent to the landlord, or proprietor. But in France and Germany, and other countries, the proportion seems different; in several parts of France, the proprietors have two-thirds of the produce of the land free, which makes the farmers, and all dependent on them, live so much the worse*.

- * This should give our farmers and country people, in general, a just notion of the difference, by living under a French government and an English one, according to the steady constitution of our kingdom; which, agreeably to the judgment of the wisest and best of men, can as little subsist by absolute monarchy, as by republicanism or oligarchy.

In this œconomy the tradesmen, who have set up for undertakers, buy of the farmers, &c. their materials; the clothier buys wool of the farmer, the tanner hides, the baker wheat, the butcher oxen, sheep, &c. the land-proprietor, for the use of his family, buys what he wants of all these, who are supposed to have each of them a portion of the 2000 ounces of silver to set up.—And, as the land-proprietor is paid 1000 ounces of silver by his farmer once a year, he pays the said quantity of money to them for that wherewith they supply him, by which they are reimbursed the sums they had advanced in their undertakings, and find also a maintenance for themselves and children.

The actors in regard to the second rent, viz. the tradesmen and undertakers, smiths, carpenters, &c. so far as they are assistant to the farmer; the labourers, servants, &c. belonging to the farmer; pay and receive of the farmer, and of one another reciprocally, 1000 ounces per annum, according to the supposition.

The farmers themselves, who are the actors in regard to the third rent, and have a third part of the produce of the estate free, supposing they save and lay up nothing, create also for extraordinary expences for the education of their children, or for the better conveniency of living, a circulation also of 1000 ounces of silver per annum, according to this supposition: and so, upon the whole, if the estate be let for 1000 ounces of silver per annum, it seems to require 3000 ounces of silver to carry on the circulation of the three rents, if the payments be made once a year.

But, as it frequently happens that the farmer pays the labourers in villages with corn and commodities for their work, that such part of their land as maintains the farmer's horses requires no circulation, or barter in money; that the subsistence of the farmer's servants and family requires no money, since they often kill their own meat, and brew their own drink, and bake their own bread; and since no more money seems requisite than for what the undertakers and tradesmen do, and there being little of that required in villages, but for cloathing, carpenters work, smiths work, and the taylor, shoemakers, and the like: whereas all the proprietor's expence in his family, since he has no land in his own hands, is supplied by the undertakers; from which consideration it should seem, that the circulation of the two last rents does not require near so much money as the single rent of the prop-

proprietor, which is the principal source and cause of the circulation of money.

Yet I will suppose, that the circulation of the two last rents, together, are equal to that of the first rent.

So that, if the produce of all the land and labour in the estate in question is equal to 3000 ounces of silver, the exchange and barter of the said produce among the actors of the three rents will require but 2000 ounces of silver to carry on the circulation of the whole, and make all the payments once a year.

But, if the land proprietor stipulates the payment of his rent with the farmer once in six months; and if all the payments, made by the actors in the three rents, are also made once in six months; 1000 ounces, in two payments, will answer 2000 ounces in one payment.

And, if all the payments are made quarterly, 500 ounces will answer the whole circulation; and it often happens, that the farmers pay but a quarter's rent to the proprietors at a time, and 'tis observable in the country, that there is seldom more money in villages than what will answer a quarter's rent.

And, as the different kinds of the products of land seem to answer and correspond to the four seasons of the year, it seems natural to judge, that the wheels of cash-circulation and barter of commodities are set a-going four times in a year, and in many countries the rents are stipulated to be paid quarterly.

Now, if we suppose this land-proprietor and several others to live together in the common center of their lands, where they form a city, and draw thither most of the undertakers and tradesmen, who supply their families, and one another. As almost every thing is carried on and supplied in a city by undertakers, so almost all the barter requires money; but then, on this supposition, the circulation of money is very quick, all the undertakers and tradesmen commonly paying their workmen and journeymen once a week, and several families paying their expences daily at market.

But these small parcels of money, which go and come so frequently and quick in several small rivulets of barter, are gathered together again in lumps, by the undertakers, as bakers, butchers, brewers, &c. and paid to the farmer, from whom all commodities are bought; and then are again paid quarterly to the land-proprietors, out of whose hands they are again spread into the rivulets of barter: and, these payments made, the proprietors seem to be the principal object to judge by, of the quantity of money in circulation, there being no great sum required for the circulation of the other two rents. Cities are esteemed to contain half the inhabitants of a state, and to make more than half the consumption of the produce of the land.

Though the detail of the circulation of money in a state be indefinite, yet it appears from what has been said, that it is not incomprehensible, and 'till some body has the curiosity to examine the said detail, and endeavours to come at better knowledge of the proportions of it, I shall lay it down as my opinion and conjecture of the matter in general, That the real cash or money, necessary to carry on the circulation and barter in any state, is nearly one third part of all the annual rents of the proprietors of the said state.

Whether money be scarce or plenty in a state, this proportion will not change, because, if it be scarce, the proprietor will sell his land for less money; and, if it be plenty, he will sell it for more, and this will always hold good in the long-run. But, if the circulation of money be slower or quicker generally in a state, the proportion of money, required in circulation, will be more or less.

According to this supposition, if 2000 ounces of silver served to carry on all the circulation on the estate we considered, the proprietors rents ought to have been 6000 ounces, and the three rents equal in value to 18,000 ounces, and consequently the money which carries on the circulation and barter in a state, may be esteemed equal in value to the ninth part of the annual product of the lands of the said state.

Sir William Petty, in a manuscript written in 1685, supposes frequently, that the circulating money in a state is equal to the tenth part of the annual product of the land; and, though he assigns no reasons any-where for such a conjecture, it looks to me, as if his great experience and sagacity had led him into that proportion.

As his supposition differs from what has been suggested but $\frac{1}{2}$, I should readily come into his notion, if it were able to lead me into any useful knowledge; whereas in fixing a proportion between the circulating money in a state and the rents of the proprietors, whereof the sum may be known by an exact land-tax, the knowledge of the actual sum of money requisite in circulation may be attained.

'Tis easy to conceive, that foreign trade requires no great additional sum to carry on it's circulation in a state, when the balance of trade is equal. [See BALANCE of Trade.] In this case, the goods and commodities exported pay the value of those that are imported; when the proprietors consume the foreign commodities, they pay the undertakers of the foreign trade what they had advanced for them; and these pay the same value to the undertakers of the exported

goods; which compensate the imported ones; this is all paid out of the first rent: and, where the actors in the two other rents consume foreign commodities, the money, necessary for the circulation of the said rents also, is sufficient to answer it.

All the influence foreign trade seems to have upon the circulation of money in a state is, that it sometimes retards it, and makes it pass through the hands of more undertakers and brokers, than it otherwise would do.

If the proprietors of land at Paris wear Genoa velvets to the value of 10,000 ounces of silver, and these velvets are compensated by 10,000 ounces value in French cloth, the proprietors out of their rents pay the velvet merchant, as undertaker, 10,000 ounces; he pays the sum to the Genoa banker or remitter; he pays the same to the cloth merchant, who sends French cloth to Genoa on his bills of exchange. But, if the proprietors at Paris wore cloth instead of the velvets, they would pay directly the 10,000 ounces to the cloth merchant, and so that money would not go through so many hands; 'tis in this sense only that foreign trade can affect the circulation of money. See more under the articles CIRCULATION, CREDIT, MONEY.

CASHIER, he who keeps the cash, or the money, which it is his business to receive and pay.

CASHOO, a medicinal and aromatic drug, which is reckoned among perfumes.

All that has been yet asserted, with regard to the composition and origin of this drug, is entirely fabulous: here follows an account, which will sufficiently acquaint the physicians, apothecaries, and druggists, with what they ought to know of it. Cashoo is certainly extracted from a tree, which is called catep in the country where it grows. That country is a province of Indostan, or the Mogul's empire, which is called Behar, the capital of it is Patna. This province, which the famous river Ganges crosses, lies a hundred leagues above the kingdom of Bengal. Cashoo is properly nothing but an extract made by a decoction and maceration of the parts of that tree, and rendered solid by evaporation. There are two sorts of simple cashoo, the rough, and the purified or refined; the latter is a compound of purified cashoo mixed with aromatic drugs, and made into lozenges of several sizes, the biggest of which are as large as a half-crown piece. This cashoo is made for the use of the Indians, who chew it, either alone, or mixed with pinang, or areca. Rough cashoo is a commodity, which is brought down the Ganges as far as Bengal, whence it is distributed by means of trade throughout all the Indies, where there is a great consumption of it; and to the Europeans, who send it into Europe, but mostly purified; for cashoo is never used rough, neither in the Indies nor elsewhere.

They purify the cashoo to different degrees, according to the use which the Indians would make of it. It appears, that the cashoo which comes into Europe, is purified to the first degree only.

The word cashoo is an abbreviation of that of catechoo, or catechu, according to the pronunciation and manner of spelling of the Portuguese; for, in their language, the letter u has the same sound as our oo, or the French diphthong ou (and ch is pronounced like sh in English). So that cashoo in English, cachou French, and catechu Portuguese, are pronounced nearly after the same manner. It appears plainly from these observations, that the word catechu is a compound of two words used in the language of the country where the cashoo-tree grows, namely, from cate, which is the name of that tree, and chou, chu, or choo, which signifies the juice extracted from that tree.

The illustrious Mons. De Jussieu, of the royal academy of science; and professor of botany in the royal garden at Paris, has given an account of the cashoo, in the Memoirs of that academy for the year 1720, with a view to give the public a perfect knowledge of it. He asserts in that account, that cashoo is nothing but an extract of areca. He tells us further, That the observations, made there upon cashoo, are chiefly owing to Mons. Albert, chirurgien-major settled at Pondicherry on the coast of Coromandel (where he died about the year 1725) which observations agree with the opinion of Helbigius quoted by Dale, and with that of Cleyer. It is pity that this chirurgien, who was to be depended upon, as Mons. De Jussieu has done, should have so illy observed the drug, which occasioned that account. It is true, indeed, that in some places on the sea-coast, where the areca-tree grows, the Indians have attempted to make a sort of extract from areca, to imitate cashoo; which they could the easier do, as it has the same, or very near the same, astringent quality. Yet they make very little of it, either because its taste is very different, or because it is blacker, and does not yield much solid matter, which makes it as dear as the true cashoo; and further, that spurious cashoo is never exposed to sale. It is true also, that, in the maritime places, there are some persons, who purify rough cashoo with an infusion or slight decoction of areca; whence it is thought better than that which is purified by dissolving it in common water. The cashoo being dissolved, they filtrate or pass it through a piece of linnen, and give the requisite consistency by evaporation.

When

When it is dissolving, and they would prepare it for sale, they add to it several sorts of aromatic drugs, according to the taste they would give it, to render it more composed and more odoriferous. All these things may have misled Monf. Albert.

In order to demonstrate in the clearest manner, that cashoo is not made of areca, let the following observations be considered. 1. In those countries where the areca-tree grows, which are all near the sea-coast, they make no true cashoo, but get it from other places. 2. At Bengal, though it be pretty near the sea, whence cashoo is exported in ships, there grow no areca-trees, because that country is too far north; for the areca tree will hardly grow beyond the 15th degree of latitude, nothing being more hurtful to it than drought and cold. 3. The areca which is carried to Bengal by sea for sale, is dearer there than rough cashoo; and one seldom meets with both these drugs there at the same price, namely, of five or six ruppees per man. 4. Lastly, the country where the cashoo-tree grows lies in the 28th, 29th, or 30th degree of north latitude; so that it grows about 300 leagues more north-west than the areca-tree; and yet it comes from thence, as well as opium, for the use of all those coasts, and of all the East-India islands, where there is a prodigious consumption of it, where people are excessively fond of chewing astrigent drugs, of several kinds, mixed with aromatics, especially pinang, or areca. The cashoo-tree is, perhaps, a kind of acacia. Cashoo was formerly thought to be an earth of Japan: But Monf. Boulduc, of the Royal Academy of Paris, shewed, in 1709, by it's analysis, or chymical resolution, that it is intirely a vegetable substance, without any earth. It appears from these observations, which are Monf. Garcin's, that truth comes not to us from distant countries but with great difficulties, and that whole ages are sometimes required to find it out.

Cashoo is very much valued in medicine. Amongst other effects ascribed to it, it is reckoned to stop the cough, and to strengthen the stomach; besides which, it sweetens the breath, when being reduced into an impalpable powder, and mixed with ambergrease, and mucilages of gum-adrageant, it is made into pills. Cashoo must be chosen of a tanned red on the outside, of a bright red within, very shining, and not burnt. Kämpfer observes, that they prepare at Odowara perfumed cashoo, of which they make pills, small idols, flowers, and several other figures, which they put into little boxes for sale. The women are very fond of it, and use a great deal of it, because it fastens the teeth, &c. This thickened juice is carried to Japan by the Dutch and the Chinese; and, after it has been prepared at Macao, or at Odowara, mixed with amber, camphire of Borneo, and other drugs, they buy it again, to carry it to other places.

CASSAVA, CASSAVE, CASSAVI, or CASSADA, the root of a shrub, which the French call **MANIOC**, **MAGNIOK**, or **MANIOQUE**, and the English **MANIHOT**. These roots, being rasped and baked, are what is properly called cassava, or flour of manihot, and are used by all the natives of America instead of bread. They plant cuttings of this shrub in new grounds designed for cacao-walks; not only because they are absolutely necessary to a planter for the food of his negroes, but also to prevent the growing of weeds, and to shade the young cacao-plants, as they come up, whose tender shoots, and even their second leaves, would not otherwise be able to stand the excessive heat of the sun: for which reason they delay planting the cacao-nut 'till the manihot or cassava-shrub be grown high enough to shade them. See **CACAO**.

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This shrub is very crooked, and full of knots: it's wood is soft and brittle: it grows very easily from cuttings. There are several sorts of it, of different colours, some more forward and more fruitful than others. The flower consists of five leaves, expanded in the form of a small rose. The fruit is a treble capsula, fastened to a foot-stalk: each capsula contains an oval nut, or stone, with a brittle, marbled, and smooth shell, the almond of which is of the same figure, and oily. The bark of this shrub is so thick, and so full of sap, that, being exposed to the air and sun, it is several months before it becomes quite dry. It is very common to see bits quite out of the ground, which nevertheless shoot out buds. They generally put up the cassava-roots within a year, or thereabout, after planting; at the foot of every shrub are found several roots, of a fleshy substance, without any sensible fibres: they are more or less thick, according to the nature of the plant, and the goodness of the soil. They wash these roots in a great deal of water, to clean them from earth; and, having scraped the peel off, as we do carrots, they rasp them with large copper rasps, almost after the same manner as quinces are rasped, to take the juice out. They afterwards put the raspings into a bag made of coarse cloth, or rushes, and place them under a press, to squeeze out all the moisture, which is hurtful to animals, and even poisonous. They then take it out of the bags, and sift it through a sieve, made after

the manner of the savages, and dress it two ways to make the cassava-bread, or flour of manihot.

First, when they would make cassava-bread, they spread some of this sifted flour, or meal, upon an iron placed over a clear fire, and, squeezing it with the flat of the hand, they make a large cake of it, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch thick, by 20 or 24 inches diameter; and, when it is baked on one side, they turn it on the other; and, if they would keep it for some time, they dry it afterwards in the sun.

Secondly, when they would make what they call cassava-meal or flour, they put it, being rasped, pressed, and sifted, as before, into a large copper pan, with a flat bottom, of four feet diameter, and five or six inches deep, mounted on a furnace of brick-work. They stir it continually with a wooden peel, that it may not stick to the pan, and be equally baked. This flour is pretty much like bread coarsely crumbled, and will keep a long time in a dry place. The savages make no flour of manihot; they eat only cassava cakes, which they bake every day, because, when it is quite hot, it is much more delicate and pleasant to the taste than when it is cold.

When the cassava-juice is left to settle in a vessel, there falls to the bottom of it a fecula, or sediment, which they call moossâche, or mucha ho, in Spanish, as if you should say, the child of manihot; this they put to dry in the sun. It is as white as snow, and they make pretty good cakes of it, which are called crackings.

The landresses use this fecula instead of starch, to starch linen with; and some inhabitants of America mix one third of it with two thirds of wheat-flour, and make bread of it, which is very white, and very well tasted. Histoire nat. du cacao & du sucre, and Observations critique d'un botaniste habitant des îles occidentales de l'Amérique, sur les plantes decrites par le P. Labat dans son voyage aux îles, inserées in the Mem. de Trevoux for the year 1730, p. 132.

CASSIA, a physical drug, which purges gently, and is commonly prescribed by the physicians and apothecaries of France, and particularly by those of Paris.

There are four sorts of cassia, which have all near the same properties, and almost the same figure, they being all black or brown sticks, of several sizes and lengths; but these four sorts will be found to be very different, if we compare together the divers trees which produce them.

These four sorts are, cassia of the Levant, cassia of Egypt, cassia of Brazil, and cassia of the Antilles.

The cassia of the Levant is the fruit of a very high tree, whose bark is of an ash colour, and it's wood very solid, and of a very close texture. Near the center, or middle of the tree, the wood is of an ebony black, and yellowish towards the bark.

This cassia-tree shoots it's roots like the walnut-tree, and has broad leaves, of a pretty fine green. It's flowers, or blossoms, are yellowish, and produce a fruit, which is a kind of pod, long, round, massy, of a red colour, inclining to black. When the pod is ripe, it is full of a black and sweetish pith, contained in small cells of a ligneous substance; with this pith is mixed a very hard seed, in the form of small white kernels, shaped like a heart: these are the seeds of the tree.

This cassia must be chosen new, in thick heavy sticks, not hollow, of a tanned colour, whose rind, when broke, is thin and white within, and full of a black and velvety pulp, of a sweet taste, without any four or musty savour. This cassia comes by the way of Marfeilles.

The cassia of Egypt is very much like that of the Levant, with regard both to the tree and to the fruit; except that the tree grows taller, and it's leaves are much narrower, and that the fruit is slenderer, and has a more tender rind. It is brought to Marfeilles from Grand Cairo, and ought to be chosen like that of the Levant.

The cassia of Brazil is the thickest of all; there is some whose pods are four or five inches round, or even more.

The tree which bears it has long and narrow leaves, a little roundish at the end, and placed with a wonderful symmetry on both sides of the slender branches from which they hang. The flower is a kind of rose, consisting of four or five leaves; from the center of the flower arises a pistil, with two or three threads. This cassia is not commonly to be met with in the shops of the grocers and druggists of Paris, there being few who have any of it but out of curiosity.

Lastly, the cassia of the Antilles, or of the French islands in America, is that which is most commonly sold and used at Paris, whither it is sent from those islands.

The cassia-tree of those islands grows easily from cuttings; it comes up very quickly, and is a plentiful bearer. It's wood is whitish, pretty soft, but extremely tough: it's bark is grey, and very rough. This tree grows very tall: its leaves are long and narrow, and of a pale green: it bears yellow flowers, in large bunches, which are succeeded by siliques, or pods, in which the cassia, which is, as it were, the pith, or marrow of them, is contained. These pods hang from the branches like bundles of candles, 12, 15, or even 20 of them together: they are green before they are ripe. One may know, by their blackness, when it is time to gather them. As for their thickness and length, it depends on the age of

the tree, and the soil in which it is planted. The longer, thicker, and heavier the cassia-pods, or sticks, are, the more the cassia is valued.

The cassia-tree is a native of those islands; that is to say, that it was not transplanted there from any other place. It's fruit was formerly one of the best commodities of those islands; but, since the number of those trees has been increased to an excess, that trade is very much decayed.

There is nothing to be observed with regard to the choice of this cassia, but what has been already said of that of the Levant. We shall add, however, that, if a person would have it from Rochelle, Nantes, or Dieppe, it is proper that he should give orders to his factors, or correspondents in those towns, to chuse it new, without any mixture of what is stale, and without having been buried, the better to preserve it; and to have it placed lengthways and neatly in the boxes, or vessels, wherein it is to be transported, to prevent the sticks from breaking.

They give the name of cassia in sticks, or cassia fistula, to that whose pod is intire, and out of which the pitch has not yet been taken. For use, the pitch, or pulp, is taken out and sifted. This must be had both of knowing and credible apothecaries, or you must have it sifted in your presence; for it is very common to meet at most of the apothecaries shops with old cassia, sifted or boiled with sugar, in order to preserve it.

The greatest demand for cassia in France is at Paris, there being but little of that drug consumed in the provinces of that kingdom.

In the Levant, and in the Antilles, they preserve green cassia, and the flowers of the cassia-tree, which produce almost the same effects as the common cassia. These purging comfits must be chosen fresh; it's syrup must be boiled up to a consistency, and taste neither acid nor musty.

CASSIA LIGNEA. Some authors understand by that name the cassia in sticks, or the cassia fistula. But the true cassia lignea is a kind of cinnamon, or bark, much resembling the true cinnamon, which, like that, grows no where but in the island of Ceylon. Dioscorides calls it cassia dura.

This bark should be thin, deep-coloured, of an agreeable, biting, and aromatic taste: but, how good soever it may be chosen, it comes nothing near true cinnamon; for which reason there is no great demand for it by itself; nor would there, perhaps, be any, if the druggists, being greedy after sordid or unjust gain, did not mix it with true cinnamon; an imposition which deserves punishment: for four pounds of cassia lignea do not cost so much as one pound of true fine cinnamon. However, the former is used in the composition of Venice treacle. See CINNAMON.

CASSIDONY, a mineral and precious stone, with veins of several colours: they make vases of this stone. Some imagine that these vases, which the ancients called murrina, and which they valued very much, were made of cassidony: others pretend they were a kind of porcelain, or China ware. See PORCELAIN.

CASSONADE, or **CASTONADE,** cask sugar, or sugar put into casks, or chests, after the first purification, but which has not been refined. It is sold either in powder or in lumps: the whitest, and of which the lumps are the largest, is the best. Many imagine that it sweetens more than loaf sugar; but then it is certain that it yields a great deal more scum. See SUGAR.

CASTILLANE, or **CASTELLAN,** a gold coin, which is current in Spain. It is worth 14 rials and 16 deniers, or 3 livres and 10 sols French money, upon the footing as it antiently was.

CASTILLANE is also a weight used in Spain for weighing gold; it is the hundredth part of a pound Spanish weight, which is one seventh per cent. lighter than the pound mark-weight of Paris.

Fifty castillanes make a mark, 6 castillanes and 2 tomins an ounce; 8 tomins make a castillane; every tomin is of 12 grains, and the carat contains 4 grains.

The castillane is also in use at Bueynos Ayres, in the mines of Chili and Potosi, and throughout all Spanish America.

What they commonly call a weight of gold in Spain, is always understood of the castillane. So that, when they say, ten thousand weight of gold, it is as much as if they said, the weight of ten thousand gold castillanes.

CASTILLE. New and Old Castille, and Estramadura, in the kingdom of Spain, are parts of one province, rather than distinct provinces. New Castille is bounded on the north by Old Castille, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries through which they run. On the east it is parted from Estramadura by another chain of them, called Guadalupe and La Sorene; on the south from Andalusia, by these called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the east, by the river Segura, and mountains of Almanza and Requene from Valencia; and from Arragon, by those of Mayao, Daroka, and Malina. The length of this kingdom, from south to north, is about 180 miles, and pretty near the same in breadth, where it is widest, but it's figure is irregular in the latter.

The country being all inland, and surrounded with such mountains, which contract the sun's rays, as it were, into a focus, and at the same time suppress the free passages of the cooling sea-breezes, it's climate is consequently hotter in summer, and colder in the winter, than those which lie along the sea-coasts, under the same latitude. It is, nevertheless, very healthy, and it's soil generally fertile, producing abundance of wheat and other grain, plenty of wine, oil, fruit, and herb; feeds a great quantity of cattle, all sorts of fowl, wild and tame; and is very well supplied with variety of fish, and green pasture, by the many rivers that run through it.

This province, large as it is, and the principal of the whole kingdom, has, nevertheless, but six cities, one archbishopric, and one bishopric. But it is sufficiently compensated, (1.) By it's famed metropolis Madrid, which, though no city, is yet esteemed one of the finest and most opulent towns in the world; (2.) By the celebrated university of Complutum, now Alcalá de Henarez; and (3.) By the noble archbishopric of Toledo, reckoned the most opulent in the universe, after that of Rome, and now possessed by one of the royal family. To all which we may add, that New Castille has likewise a considerable number of fine, large, and rich towns, not inferior to any in Europe.

MADRID, the residence of the kings of Spain, and capital of the whole monarchy, is seated in the very heart of Spain, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, and in a wholesome and fertile soil.

TOLEDO is built on a high, steep, and craggy rock, almost inaccessible on all sides, and made much more so by the course of the river Tagus, now Tajo, which encompasses it almost round.

The plain about it is spacious, fertile, and delightful, and so well watered by the Tagus, one of the most considerable rivers in Spain, that it produces corn, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing that can be desired either for conveniency or delight. The air here is particularly serene, clear, and healthy; on which account, and the extraordinary plenty, variety, and cheapness of provisions, which sell much cheaper than in any inland market of Spain, here reside many noble families, besides gentry, learned and religious persons, students, &c. a much greater number of merchants, tradesmen, and artificers, especially in the silk and woollen manufactures; which two branches alone are said to have employed near 10,000 hands.

CUANCA, CUANZA, is situate in the mountainous part of New Castille, called La Sierra, on the eastern side of it. It stands on a hill, difficult of access, on the high road between Madrid and Valentia. It is watered on one side by the Xucar, on the other by the Huecar; so that the plain abounds with fine gardens, orchards, and pasture ground. The Tagus, Xucar, Cabrial, and Turio rivers, running across this territory, fertilize the land, and make fruitful every thing that life and luxury can desire.

GUADALAXARA is the capital city of a territory called Al-
Carria, seated on the banks of the river Henarez. It has handsome streets and stately houses, delicate springs and fountains, curious gardens and orchards, and plenty of provisions of all sorts. It is about 30 miles to the north-east of Madrid, and accounted a healthy and delightful situation.

HUETA-GUELA is situate in a pleasant plain, by which runs the fine brook Cada, which bubbles out of the ground at a small distance, and yet is strong enough to turn 17 corn and several fulling mills. The territory about it is large, fertile, and delightful, and produces, besides all necessaries for life, a very considerable quantity of saffron annually. It stands west-fourth-west from Madrid about 60 miles, and somewhat more from Toledo west-north-west.

CIUDAD REAL lies in a deep bottom, that, for want of a current to carry off the waters, which come pouring down the adjacent hills, after a violent rain, it is in continual danger of being overflowed. Notwithstanding the badness of it's situation, yet the city is very populous, and carries on several manufactures, and is particularly famed for making of gloves. It no ways conflicts with a work of this kind, to enumerate all the other towns in this province, that are no way considerable for their trade or manufactures.—On this province, therefore, I shall only make the following

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In Madrid has been set up a manufacture of tissues, lute-strings, and other silks, no less curious in the workmanship, than in the colours and mixtures, in imitation of the fabrics of Lyons in France; and this manufacture has produced such as the late king himself was not ashamed to wear.

This successful establishment in Spain has been owing to workmen, and a famous dyer from the city of Lyons, procured by his late majesty, at the charge of his own royal revenue; and to the encouragement of a house and supplies of money, which he ordered to be advanced in the infancy of the undertaking, giving also a monthly pension of 15 doubloons to the master-dyer, and 12 doubloons to the head manufacturer.

Without the gates of Madrid has been raised also a fabric of prime tapestry, in imitation of those of Flanders, by a master and workmen, whom his majesty procured from that country, at the charge of the treasury; and they continue in this important manufactory, working for the royal palaces, having the encouragement of houses, workshops, and indulgences, which his majesty granted them.

And notwithstanding there be not yet in either of the fabrics a competent number of masters and workmen, for the considerable consumption of this kingdom; yet the main difficulty has been surmounted, which is settling and bringing the manufactures to the perfection already mentioned; for it is an easy thing to enlarge, or add to what we have begun, and already established upon a good footing.

By this plain fact, says a celebrated Spanish author, IN THE VERY FACE OF THE COURT, many persons might be undeceived, who believe and propagate a notion (upon what grounds I know not) that in this kingdom we cannot arrive at the perfection we have seen in these and other manufactures, either on account of the delicacy of the work, as if there was neither genius to invent, nor hands to execute in Spain; or for colours, as if his majesty's provinces did not really supply the principal and best materials for them; or from our water, which they suppose not proper for them, even when both the declaration of foreign artificers, and experience, shews it to be very fit for dyeing all sorts of colours; and it is also certain, that, notwithstanding foreigners introduced these curious fabrics, many SPANIARDS now join in them, and already make them in equal perfection*.

* By these very measures the great Colbert laid the foundation for the present flourishing trade of France. See the article BRITAIN. And, by these and the like maxims of policy, Spain is likely to raise her trade and navigation to what pitch they desire. See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, and SPAIN. Do we not see that Spain is daily drawing away ingenious artificers from various parts of Europe, as well as Great-Britain? Wherefore, is it not the interest of these kingdoms to give all fitting encouragement to ingenious artificers and mechanics, to keep them at home, to prevent their loss from impoverishing our own nation, and enriching our rivals, by their commerce and navigation? See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, and such other heads we from those shall refer to.

The grand fabric of fine cloths at Guadalaxara is wholly owing to the vigilance and protection of his majesty, though there has not been yet, in the management of it, the good oeconomy, which is requisite, and has been directed by his majesty's orders. But one great point has been obtained, that many of the good workmen employed in these manufactures are SPANIARDS, and some, who have been bred up in them, have dispersed into other parts of the kingdom, which is the principal advantage resulting from the arrival and introduction of foreign masters and workmen; therefore no scruple ought to be made of bearing the expense of their journey, and their first settlement. [BRITONS! permit me to do myself the honour earnestly to recommend to you to cherish and care for your ingenious ARTIFICERS, your MECHANICS, your MANUFACTURERS, that no inducements may prevail with these most useful subjects of the three kingdoms to abandon their native country, to enrich others, and ruin their own!]

And it well deserves our notice (continues this wise Spaniard) that it has been found by experience in Guadalaxara, and other parts of Spain, that the Spanish women, and even the very young girls, spin wool better and quicker than the mistresses of foreign families that instructed them, and were brought over for that purpose.

By means of due supplies and encouragement from his majesty to Don Joseph de Aguada, knight of the order of Calatrava, for the fabric of cloths in Valdemero, the Spaniards have also gained the point of manufacturing them in that town, as fine as those of ENGLAND, and of good colours and mixtures; as is manifest from the approbation they have received from his majesty, who has worn them himself upon several occasions*.

* This again is following the example of Lewis the XIVth of France, who, by the very same means enabled his subjects, first, to supply his own kingdom with the woollen manufacture, and afterwards encouraged them to supplant England at foreign markets. 'Tis certain, from this policy of the court of Spain, that we must lose the greatest part of the trade of both Old and New Spain. Does not this merit the consideration of the wisdom of the nation?

This is but a slight sketch of what has been done in Spain, in regard to their trading interests.—Hear what this noble Spaniard further urges, and which is now duly attended to at the court of Spain:—‘It is out of dispute, says he, upon another occasion, that the commerce, we have many years carried on with other nations, has been very injurious

to the Spanish monarchy; and the cause, whence our damage has arisen in the same commerce, has been pointed out. So that it will be easy to conceive, that, in order to promote our own interest, and possess the great and happy consequences, which we aim at, and we are invited to, and enabled to obtain from the great plenty, and superior quality, of our materials and fruits, we ought to labour, with zeal and address, in all these measures, that can avail towards selling more commodities and fruits to foreigners, than we buy of them, for here lies all the secret, good conduct, and advantage of trade [see our article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN] or at least, that we be upon a par in the barter of commodities, which might be even sufficient for the constitution of this kingdom. For, by virtue of it, there would be detained, in Spain, the greatest part of the wealth that comes from the Indies, and these kingdoms be constantly rich and powerful. Nor ought we ever to lose sight of this maxim, that the vast treasures, which arrive at Cadiz from these parts, contribute nothing to our relief or advantage, but will rather be turned against this monarchy, so long as they pass, directly from the same port, to the rivals of the crown, &c.’

OLD CASTILLE, a kingdom in Spain, borders all the way on the south to New Castille, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains, which change their names according to the places they are in. By that chain which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by those of Pica and Banos, from Estramadura on the west; and by those of Avila and Pernia, with the small rivers of Carrion, Pisuerga, and Heban, from Leon on the north-west. It is parted again on the north from Asturias and Biscay, by another ridge of hills branching out from the Pyrenees, only in the center; between these two provinces, it has a narrow slip of land, which reaches quite to the bay of Biscay, whereon it has several sea-ports.

The climate here differs somewhat from that of New Castille, by reason of the country being more mountainous, which makes the several parts of it vary, according to their situation, the vallies being excessive hot, the upper grounds proportionably cold and bleak; and others, according as the proximity of the hills sends down refreshing gales, or causes a greater reflection of the sun. Upon the whole, the soil is good in general, in some sense or other, the plains yielding plenty of all sorts of grain, fruit, wine, and other provisions; the sides of the hills good pasture for their numerous cattle, and their summits timber for building and fuel. Some of these mountains are so high, as to be covered with snow at the top all the summer, which is carried and fold to the towns to cool their wine, which is a usual thing in Spain.

The natives are, for the most part, grave, smart, witty, and polite, but ambitious asserters of the antiquity and nobility of their families. The gentry, in general, are more solicitous about these trifles, and the politeness and purity of the Castilian language, than they are to cultivate the noble arts of traffic; which would more effectually preserve the antiquity of their families, and delicacy of their manners and language, than what they prefer.

I shall leave such delicacies to be elaborately represented by others of a different taste; they don't suit mine at present.

SEGOVIA is the chief city for commerce. It is situate in a low valley, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and encompassed on the north by the river Eresma, on the south by the brook Clamores, and the river Frio, which runs through the midst of it.

The city stands on a noble eminence, is rich, populous, and opulent, thro' not only the great number of rich and noble families, who make their chief residence there, but much more so by the large commerce, manufactures, and other trades which are carried on here. Here are 25 corn-mills, 14 fulling-mills, various paper-mills, and three places on a fine river, made extremely convenient for cleansing of their wool. The principal mint of Spain is fixed in this city, which, when it works, can coin 30,000 ducats per day. Here is also good printing-paper made, but the woollen manufacture is here the best, and the most considerable in all Spain; for here is a vast quantity of the finest wool made from innumerable flocks, that are raised in the neighbouring plains, and the cloth that is made here, is esteemed the best in all the world, and in highest request both at home and abroad.

Here are also sundry other manufactures and trades carried on with great industry and success; and this city has this peculiar excellent regulation, that it suffers no persons to live a loose and idle life; all must work, if they will eat; and no persons are here suffered to beg.

SIGUENZA is likewise a noble and opulent city, is excellently well situated, and fertilized by the river Henarez, which waters the verdant plains round about, so that they abound with corn, wine, pasture, and all kinds of fruits, game, fowl, &c. They have admirable mineral and medicinal springs, which are much resorted to.

There are four sea-port towns in this province on the bay of Biscay, Laredo, St Andero, Castro de Urdiales, St Vincents de la Barguera; which are well walled, and have good harbours for ships of small bulk, each under the government of

a Corregidor, who is also captain-general, which is a post of honour and profit.

CASTING, in foundery, is the running of a melted metal into a mould, prepared for that purpose. See **FOUNDERY**, **IRON**, and **LEAD**.

CASTOREUM. The liquor contained in the little bags or purses, at the bottom of the os pubis of the beaver or castor, and not in it's testicles, as the ancients imagined, since it is found in the females as well as in the males. See **BEAVER**. The liquor contained in the two upper bags is a resinous, flabby substance, adhering to the small fibres of the bags, of a greyish colour without, yellowish within, inflammable, of a strong, penetrating, and disagreeable scent; this is the true castoreum: being exposed to the air, it hardens by degrees in a month's time, and becomes browner, brittle, and friable: but, if you would have it become hard sooner, you need only hang the bags, in which it is contained, in the chimney, and leave them there a few days, and they will soon dry, and you may easily know, by handling the bags, whether the substance in them is become solid and dry. The two lower bags are placed, the one on the right, and the other on the left side of the anus. They contain an unctuous and adipous substance, which looks like honey; it is of a pale yellow colour, of a strong foetid smell, like that of the castoreum, but something weaker and fainter: this liquor condenses, as it grows stale, and becomes of the consistency and colour of tallow. When it is fresh, the physicians ascribe wonderful properties to it; but, when old, it grows black, and turns into a strong poison. One meets at the merchants with bags of castoreum, some larger, some smaller, according as the beaver, from which they were taken, was of a greater or lesser magnitude. The best come from Dantzic; the castoreum of Canada is much inferior. The bags must be chosen large, heavy, of a brown colour, of a strong penetrating smell, full of hard, brittle, friable matter, yellowish, brown, interlaced with very thin membranes, and of a sharp taste. Care must be taken that it has not been mixed with honey, or any other drugs, to swell the bags, which may be known by squeezing them; those which have been adulterated being softish, and yielding a liquid and stinking honey: but the natural ones are heavy and hard, of a penetrating smell, and full of small filaments or threads. Besides the Venice treacle and mithridate, in which castoreum is used, it is also employed in several hysteric and cephalic medicines. An oil is likewise drawn from it, which is called oil of castor, or beaver; and, whilst it is in it's liquid unctuous state, it is used as an ointment for the cure of several distempers. See **BEAVER**.

CATALONIA, a principality in Old Spain, is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, by which it is parted from the province of Rouffillon in France; on the west by Arragon and a small part of Valentia: from the first of these it is parted by the rivers Nagnera and Maturana, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the south and east it is washed by the Mediterranean, and hath many a convenient sea-port along these shores. The inland part is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the most mountainous, but further in it abounds with delightful and spacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from one degree to 3. 20 min. east longitude, is therefore neither so hot as Andalusia, nor so cold as Asturia, and the north part of Spain; being moreover sheltered on the north by the Pyrenees, and on the east by the sea. This temperature, joined to the many streams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding fertile and delightful. It's product, which is here in great plenty, is excellent wheat, rich wine, sweet oil, exquisite honey, delicious fruits of most kinds, abundance of cattle, swarms of fowls, wild and tame, vast quantities of deer, hares, rabbits, and all other game; good hemp, fine flax, saffron, variety of corn, and other grain, herbs, &c. a considerable quantity of silk, fine wool, fish of all sorts, and in very great plenty; quarries of marble, alabaster, and jasper-stone, coral from the sea, salt, and many other commodities.

BARCELONA is the capital city of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe, that are not the courts of princes. It is delightfully seated on the Mediterranean coast, a little below the gulph of Lyons in France, and opens to the sea in a beautiful semicircle, which, together with it's eminence and castle, and the beauty of it's sumptuous edifices, afford an engaging prospect to the shipping, especially as it stands between two considerable rivers, the Lobregal and Beses. The coast it stands upon is a good safe road; and the port, though rather too small, hath yet rendered it a place of great trade, especially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt, through the Mediterranean. It's territory round it is stored with all necessaries for sustenance and delight, as wheat, and other kinds of grain; oil, rich wines, fruit of all sorts, cattle, fowl, honey, wood, and game of most sorts.

TERRAGONA, the second city in this province, stands commodiously situate near the coast of the Mediterranean, on

the brink of a pleasant hill, at the foot of which is a safe and convenient harbour for small ships, between the river Gaya and Francoli.

The climate here is so temperate, and the soil of so rich and warm a quality, that the trees bear fruit and blossom in the coldest months. The country here in general is adorned with delightful gardens, orchards, and country-seats; the fields abound with corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, and fruits of most kinds in very great perfection; with all kinds of fowl, and game, and fish for the sea. It stands above 50 miles south-west of Barcelona, and about 45 east from Tortosa.

TORTOSA is situate on the banks of the Ebro, not far from the sea, and has a good bay formed by that river, that comes up almost to the walls of this city. It's situation is about 12 miles from the frontiers of the kingdom of Valentia, in the midst of a pleasant wood, and has a stately bridge over the river.

Without this city is a beautiful plain 18 miles long, and 6 in breadth, watered with the Ebro, and producing corn, wine, oil, fruit, timber for shipping, great quantity of palm-trees, with cattle, fowl, game, and other necessaries, beside silk in abundance, which is here made into sarcenets. Here is no want of curious springs, which fertilize the plain, and amply supply the city with water, besides quarries of marble and jasper, and salt-pits.

LERIDA, another ancient city on the borders of this province next to Arragon, situate on the banks of the river Segre, which falls into the Ebro, a few miles below it. The country here is pleasant and fertile, abounding with all kinds of provisions, and the city is famed, among other things, for making excellent gloves.

URGEL lies between two high mountains, not far from the Pyrenees, and on the banks of the Segre, about 90 miles distant from north-west Barcelona. It's territory is surprizingly fruitful, yielding an hundred fold of corn and other grain, with extraordinary quantities of almonds and other fine fruit, and feeds multitudes of cattle.

GIRONA lies along the side of a hill, in the east-part of this province, about 21 miles from the sea, and about 60 north-east from Barcelona. The river Ter washes the walls of this city. It's productions around are much the same with Urgel.

VICQUE, a small city, but pleasantly situated in a kind of peninsula, formed by the rivers Ter and Naguerra, which almost encompasses it. It stands near 36 miles north of Barcelona, and adjacent to a fertile and delightful plain. About 6 miles from the city is the mountain Mollen, where are found excellent white and purple amethysts and topazes. They are dug out of a fat, reddish, or yellowish earth, and the best sort of these last are those of the deepest violet. In some neighbouring mountains are likewise found gold, emeralds, and other curious stones, but in so small quantity, that they scarce answer the end of searching for. On the shore of the late Silles, near this city, are also found some good topazes.

SOLSONA stands on the river Cardona, in the heart of this province, at the foot of a mountain, and in a pleasant plain, about 60 miles north-west from Barcelona, and near the like distance from Terragon. In regard to objects of commerce, it affords little else but vast quantities of dried peaches, which are packed away hence into several parts.

BALAGUER is pleasantly situate on the river Segre. Between this place and Lerida is a small town named Terroffo, whose situation, whether from the serenity of the air, or any peculiar virtue from it's soil, is reckoned so extraordinarily salubrious, as even to cure mad folks, though ever so raging and furious.

CARDONA stands about 60 miles distant from Barcelona, near which city is a mountain of salt, which yields an annual revenue to the duke proprietor of 30,000 pieces of eight. The salt is transparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white. These are the cities of note in this Spanish province, which have any productions, or commodious situation for commerce.

R E M A R K S.

Mere narratives alone of the trade of this, or the other part of the world, not affording that idea of the true sense and spirit of peculiar courts, in regard to their commercial views and intentions, the reader will observe, that, wherever a suitable occasion naturally offers, I have endeavoured to suggest not only something tending towards the national interests, but what may prove of personal benefit and advantage to practical traders in general.

The system of the Court of Spain having taken a new turn of late years, in relation to the commerce and navigation of that kingdom; and which must soon very sensibly affect all British merchants and traders, who have dealings, in any shape, with that nation, and also importantly affect the trading interest of Great-Britain in general; I judge it no way repugnant to the nature of this work, to apprise the public of what is doing in foreign countries, with respect to trade.

And whatever I shall occasionally represent, or urge upon that head, I hope will be candidly judged of; as being intended in a national, and no other light. When facts are ingenuously stated, and reasoning deducible therefrom modestly and dispassionately enforced, I am willing to flatter myself, that no man, in the three kingdoms, can have reason to be disgusted. If I am mistaken in point of judgment, in giving my humble sentiments upon a great variety of very delicate and complicated points of a national nature, I persuade myself, that I shall meet with candour from the sensible and honest part of mankind, who always make due allowances, when they are convinced of the uprightness of the intention.

It is as little in my power, as in my disposition, to insinuate any thing that might have the least tendency to embroil the public affairs. It is every man's duty to do otherwise, who is a friend to his country and the constitution. It becomes every individual, who professes these principles, and has ever given testimony thereof, to contribute all in his power, not to lessen, but to add to the weight and dignity of his country, when she is injured and oppressed by other nations. And, if this should ever be the case of these kingdoms, long experience hath proved, that drawing the sword, upon every such occasion, is not the way to redress grievances. This can only be done, to good purpose, by the peaceable arts of commerce; for it is this, and this only, that can put us above insults; it is not plunging ourselves into wars, and increasing our incumbrances, that can right us, if we may judge from past experience, but we may always right ourselves, by means of the spirit of commerce wisely conducted.

Every nation hath an equal right with ourselves to make all advantage, by trade, of their lawful territory and natural situation. This is no just cause for anger; but it ought to inspire emulation.

The Spaniards are about to cultivate those arts of trade, which they have long neglected, and been reproached and stigmatized on that account. The consequence of which must be, that they will take less of the British produce and manufacture, as well as less of those of other nations. This will prove a national loss, but not irretrievable. For, if we take less of their products, in proportion, as they diminish the importation of our commodities, will not this prevent any national injury? And if our traders cannot gain so much by Spanish products, when we take less, they must avail themselves by other branches of traffic. If the striking out of any new and important branches of commerce requires public encouragement at their commencement, let traders state their wants; let them properly and dutifully apply to the great representative of the nation, and certainly they will not be denied what is nationally, though they may, what is personally, interesting. Let the arts of commerce, those national, those truly important arts, be but as much cultivated in these kingdoms, as the arts of wrangling, party, civil and religious strife have been; and I could almost presume to prophesy, that, if we lose one branch of trade, we may gain another equivalent: and I hope, nay, I shall zealously endeavour, that this work may prove instrumental to bring the studies of commerce into more general esteem in the nation than hitherto they may have been; the consequence whereof, I may reasonably hope, will be productive of variety of new branches of trade, as well as tend to improve many of the old.

Under the head of BISCAY, I have just opened the scene of Spanish policy, that is soon likely to display itself. What that nation is about to do in Catalonia, as well as other provinces, let the Patriot-Spaniard speak for himself.

• Don Geronymo de Uztariz.

‘I am satisfied, says he, that there is now in the kingdom of Valencia above 2000 looms of silk and wool; in the principality of Catalonia, above 500; and, in the kingdom of Granada, 1000, including both forts; and there are also in other provinces manufactures of silk, though not very considerable; and, in almost all of them, no contemptible number of looms for the several fabrics of wool, such as the middling and coarse cloths, bays, ferges, camblets, droguets, &c. One may, I think, without rashness, suppose the silken and woollen looms, that are now in Spain, to be 10,000. Now these, with the 60,000 new ones that have been imagined to be set up, would amount to 70,000; and one may reckon 14,000, or about $\frac{1}{5}$ part of them to be silk looms: and the remaining 56,000 of fine, middling, and coarse wool, of which last there is no less consumption.

‘I have already remarked, that in every silk and woollen loom, taken together, there might be yearly manufactured to the value of 700 dollars, including the expence of materials and dyeing goods. In this estimate I am moderate, as well to stand clear of every thing that might seem forced, either in the facts, or the reasoning. But, as preciseness is necessary in calculations, I shall here produce that made, a few years ago, by the president and inspectors of the silk manufacture in the city of Seville, which is as follows: ‘That, in every loom of entire tiffue, there is yearly wrought up 100 weight of silk, and 220 ounces of leaf fil-

‘ver or gold, more or less. These manufactures yield 150 yards, which, at the moderate price of 3 doubloons, amounts to 450 doubloons.

‘In each loom for middling tiffue, 150 pounds of silk, and 159 ounces of metal yearly, and these wrought up yearly 190 yards, which, at the rate of 2 doubloons a yard, amount to 380 doubloons.

‘In every loom for brocades, 200 pounds of silk, and between 70 and 80 ounces of metal, which are manufactured annually into 300 yards, and, at a doubloon and a half per yard, make 450 doubloons.

‘In a loom of double taffeta, there is used 280 pounds of silk annually, which wrought up produce 1800 yards, and, at the rate of 10 reals de vellon, will amount to 300 doubloons.

‘In every loom of single taffeta, is expended 200 pounds of silk yearly, with small difference, and they yield above 3000 yards, which at the rate of 6 reals de vellon, are worth 300 doubloons.

‘In every loom of plain or striped sattins, there is used yearly 200 pounds of silk; which woven yield 1200 yards, and at the rate of 16 reals a yard, one with another, the whole amount will be 300 doubloons.

‘In every loom of damask, there is yearly expended 280 pounds, which wrought up produce 1200 yards, and at the rate of 29 reals, one with another, are worth 400 doubloons.

‘Though some persons, continues our writer, may be a little jealous of these calculations; and willing to reduce them even $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$, it must be acknowledged, that after this reduction, there will be manufactured annually in every loom, one with another, to the value of a 1000 dollars, including the price of the materials. So that in the 14,000 looms appropriated to silk, out of the 70,000 for this commodity and wool, there would be manufactured to the amount of 14 millions of dollars; not forgetting that there is a fluctuation in the prices from year to year, according to the quantity of silk and fruits, and from other accidents, that usually raise and fall the markets.

‘From the information of people of experience, and to be relied upon, we find that in every woollen-loom, one with another, allowing for the difference between fine, middling, and coarse cloths, there can be yearly manufactured to the value of above 700 dollars, including the materials. Hence there would be annually wrought up in the above 56,000 woollen looms, to the amount of 39 millions, which, added to the 14 millions produced by the silk manufactures, would make 53 millions of dollars.

‘It may be observed, indeed, that all positions, founded on principles that are not quite determinate, are liable to some uncertainty: however, they do not fail of affording light, by their approaches to truth; especially, when some of the principles whereon they are founded are certain.

‘From what I shall offer elsewhere upon the number of inhabitants in Spain, it will be found that it contains near 7,500,000 souls; and though there be many of these that yearly expend in manufactures of silk and wool, or of both sorts, above 100 crowns, without any regard to linnen, it is also known, that the greatest part of the inhabitants of both sexes are found to be dressed in middling and coarse cloths, and that every suit lasts them about two years.

‘And when we consider that the country people, and mechanics, take up for a suit six yards of ordinary cloth (which is narrower than the fine) this, at 15 reals a yard, will amount to six dollars, and that two dollars more will be necessary for linings, the whole commodity will cost eight dollars yearly; and, upon supposition a suit of cloaths shall wear two years, there will be expended by every individual four dollars a year. But, as it is also certain that many of these wear a cloak and a cap, the annual expence of every one of this class may be stated, in these commodities, at five dollars.

‘Nor should it be unobserved, that younger boys and girls, of the lower class, will not expend, in cloaths, four dollars yearly; the same, also, will happen to a great number of women, exclusive also of linnen; but, in consideration there are many of both sexes that yearly expend in commodities of silk and wool from 20 to 100 dollars, and more, I am persuaded that, for every one of the 7,500,000, one with another, we may fairly calculate their annual expence, in both commodities, at four dollars and a half, which, for the whole, will amount to something above 33,000,000 of dollars: and, if we deduct this sum from the 53,000,000, the supposed value of the fabrics manufactured in the above 70,000 looms, there would remain to us, of both commodities, the value of 20,000,000. And, by means of this overplus, one may, I think, furnish his majesty's Indies both with the silks they are in want of, and also the fine cloths that go thither from Europe, since they have no occasion for ordinary cloths, by having them in plenty from their own fabrics. Nay, I am apt to believe, that, after the necessary supplies from Spain and the Indies, there will still remain considerable quantities of the above silks and fine cloths, for exportation to several kingdoms and coun-

tries in Europe, especially those of the north, that yield no silk, and but very little of fine wool. By this, and other wise provisions, we should accomplish the grand point of selling others more commodities and fruits than we buy. For, even by the single provision of setting up the 60,000 looms above mentioned, there would be, after supplying the kingdom of Spain, and the Indies, so many goods left, as would suffice, and even be more than a ballance for the spices, linnens, Sacalao*, and other cured fish, we are obliged to have from foreign parts, for our fast-days; though the last article from abroad might be considerably reduced, by taking such steps as shall be proposed in another place †.

* See the articles BISCAY and Spain.

† These we shall occasionally shew, with humble expedients proposed, to guard against any injury that this nation may sustain thereby.

After the supposed exportation of our silks and woollen cloths, we should still have the benefit of our wines, brandies, oils, raisins, and other fruits, that are more than we consume ourselves, and go abroad in considerable quantities, besides a great many small wares, that might be made of the excellent iron of Biscay, and other provinces, both for home and foreign consumption; and great quantities of chrystal and soap, that might be manufactured in these kingdoms, by means of the sofa and barrilla*, which they abound with, and are acknowledged to be of such superior quality, that these two ingredients are eagerly desired by all nations in Europe, and in preference to all other sought after, and exported from Spain.

* A new manufacture of Castille soap, according to the real Spanish manner of making it, some of the ingredients whereof are said to be sofa and barrilla, is lately set up in this kingdom, and is said to meet with extraordinary encouragement. This, I have been well informed, has been introduced into the nation, by a late Turkey captain of a merchantmar, who many years used that trade with great reputation. See SOAP.

Moreover, the quicksilver, copper, tin, and other profitable metals, which his majesty's dominions yield in great plenty, merit our consideration; as also, that in many parts the soil is peculiarly adapted to the growth of flax and hemp, materials very advantageous, and will furnish us with rigging and sail-cloth, both for our own, and the supply of other countries.

By these natural means, and which the constitution of these kingdoms renders very practicable, there would not only be prevented the extraction of many millions of gold and silver, but there might come in from foreign countries a considerable quantity of money.

But, should we succeed no farther than to detain all, or a moiety of the treasures that come from the Indies, and have hitherto gone directly to other kingdoms, Spain serving them only for a passport, we should then have that plenty, increase of people, strength, and other advantages, we are now destitute of, by the desertion and decay of the manufactures above-mentioned, and which it is in our power to revive, enlarge, and improve, by granting some indulgences, and making a judicious reform of the duties upon exports and imports. For, though the commodities now exported from Spain are few, there would then go abroad large quantities; and, were they to pay no higher duty than $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of their value, the customs would yield more than at present. Nay, as the country would be rendered more populous by means of the manufactures, there would ensue an increase of the revenue, arising out of the more frequent sales and purchases, and a large consumption of commodities and fruits: and, what is a natural consequence, a better cultivation and produce from our lands, and an improvement in all mechanic arts. To all which ought to be added, as a sure and settled principle, that though the treasury should not be so visibly augmented, and go hand in hand with the wealth of the subjects, it would not be possible, under the obligation and tender regard we have for the king, to leave him poor, while we ourselves are rich.

Moreover, let us always recollect, when we think of this essential point, of re-establishing and enlarging our manufactures, that we ought not to be discouraged by the language of certain low-spirited persons, that believe there is not sufficient number of people in Spain to execute this grand project; for it shall be demonstrated, that, by means of those that now are here, and such as commerce will always bring along with it, there will be a sufficient number for this, and other provisions for the relief of the kingdom. This is a sketch only of what is about to be done in Spain; and ought it not to rouse and alarm us? What other extraordinary measures that nation is meditating, which may prove detrimental to the British trade, shall appear in its proper place.

CATERGI, is the name of the public carriers in the Grand Signior's dominions. There is a remarkable particular to be observed with regard to them, which is, that whereas in

France, and every-where else, the merchants, or travellers, give earnest to those who are to carry them, their baggage, or merchandizes; in Turkey it is the carrier who gives earnest to the merchant, and others, as a security that he will certainly carry their goods, or not set out without them.

CATHNESSHIRE, in Scotland, is also called the shire of WEIK. It is the most northern of all Scotland, has the ocean on the east; Strathnaver and Sutherland, from which it is divided by Mount Orde, and a range of hills as far as Knocklin, and by the river Hallewdale, on the south and south-west; and on the north it is divided from the Orkney Islands by Pentland Frith. It comprehends all the country beyond the river Ness, and the loch into which it flows; and all the tract to the east of the Mountain Orde was anciently called Cateynesse, and afterwards Cath-nessie. It is 35 miles from north to south, and about 20 in breadth: Templeman, who extends it about six miles more in both, gives it an area of 690 square miles. Here are a few woods of birch, but they are little more than coppices.

In the forest of Moravins and Berridale, is great plenty of red-deer and roc-bucks, and they have good store of cows, sheep, goats, and wild fowl. At Dennet there is lead, at Old Urke copper, and iron ore at several places; but grazing and fishing are the chief supports of the inhabitants.

The shire is much indented by the many windings and breakings of the shore. The whole coast, except the bays, consists of high rocks, and many promontories at the west end of the shire, pointing north to the opening of Pentland frith.

The sea here is very dangerous, even in calm weather, except at stated times, by reason of the many vortexes, owing to the repulse of the tides from the shore, and their passage between the Orkney Isles. The inland country is mountainous, but, towards the coast, it is low, and produces corn enough both for the natives and for exportation; but, the soil being very moist and clayish, their harvest is late, and the corn not so good as that of Ross and Sutherland. Their firing is turf, for want of coal, yet all other necessaries are cheap. There is plenty of pasture in the fields and vallies, with good fowling and hunting in the mountains, and fishing in their rivers and lakes, as well as the sea.

The shire is also populous, and has many small towns and villages. Provisions, especially corn, cattle, and fish, are so plentiful here, that it is said to be the cheapest market in the world, and that a man may live better upon 50l. a year in this country, than he can in the south upon 200l.

The people here are so industrious, that, in some places, particularly from Weik to Dumbeth, which is about 12 miles, where there is no harbour, or bay, but one continued tract of rugged hard rocks, yet they have forced several harbours by art, and have made various laborious conveniencies, for the purpose of salting and drying fish for the market, which turn to as good account as their lands in general do.

WEIK, is a royal burgh, and market-town. It stands on the east side of the country, at the mouth of Murray Frith, where it falls into the German Ocean, and has a tide-harbour for small vessels; but it is not much frequented, as not being so safe as another about a mile to the north-east.

THURSO, which lies opposite to it, on the west side of the shire, is a secure place for ships of any burden to ride in. A small river runs by the east side of it, called the Water of Thurso, in which there is a good fishery for salmon, which keep in this river all the year long; so that they are to be had even in the winter-season, by breaking the ice. They take several horse-loads at a time, either by going into the water with nets, or by the contrivance of creels, with barred doors, carried from one side of the water to the other, and so made, as to let in the fish, and there to keep them. At one draught of the net they sometimes take above 300 fine salmon.

CATTLE, a collective word, which signifies the four-footed animals, which serve either for tilling the ground, or for food to men. They are distinguished into large or black cattle, and small cattle: of the former are horses, bulls, oxen, cows, and even calves and heifers; amongst the latter are rams, ewes, sheep, lambs, goats, kids, &c.

Cattle are the chief stock of a farm: they who deal in cattle are stiled graziers.

L A W S of England in regard to cattle.

The keeping, feeding, and selling of cattle, being regulated in this nation by several acts of parliament, we shall give here an abstract of those acts.

Stat. 3 and 4 Edw. VI. cap. 19. sect. 1. No person shall buy any oxen, steers, runts, kine, heifers, or calves, but only in open fair or market, and shall not sell the same again alive, at the market or fair where he bought the same, upon pain of forfeiture of double the value.

Seçt. 2. Provided that it shall be lawful for all persons to buy oxen, &c. out of fair or market, for provision of their household, team, or dairy.

Seçt. 3. No butcher shall buy fat oxen, steers, runts, kine, heifers, calves, or sheep, and sell the same again alive, upon pain of forfeiture of every such ox, &c.

Seçt. 4. Every butcher may buy fat oxen, steers, runts, kine, heifers, calves, and sheep, out of fair or market, so that such
butcher

butcher sell not the same again alive. The one moiety of all which forfeitures shall be to the king, and the other moiety to him that will sue for the same. This act, which was to endure to the end of the next parliament, was continued indefinitely by 3 Car. I. cap. 4. and 16 Car. I. cap. 4.

Stat. 2 and 3 Phil. & Mar. cap. 3. sect. 2. Every person which shall keep or feed above six-score sheep for the most part of the year upon his several pastures, or farms apt for milch kine, and wherein no other person hath common, shall yearly, for every three-score sheer sheep, keep one milch cow, and shall rear up yearly for every six-score sheep one calf, upon pain of forfeiture for every month 20 s. for every cow fo not kept, and twenty shillings for every calf not reared.

SECT. 3. Every person which upon his several pastures shall keep above 20 oxen, runts, schrubs, steers, heifers, or kine, shall, for every 10 beasts, keep one milch-cow, and rear yearly, and keep for one whole year, one calf for every two milch-kine, upon the pains afore-rehearsed, except the calves die within the year: the one half of which forfeitures shall be to the king and queen, and the other half to the party that within one year after the offence will sue for the same in the courts of record, or before the justices of peace, at their general sessions.

SECT. 4. This act shall not bind any person to keep milch-kine, nor to breed calves, for such sheep, or other beasts, as he shall keep to be spent in his own house. This act to endure for seven years: but was made perpetual 13 Eliz. cap. 15.

Stat. 7 Jac. I. cap. 8. sect. 2. The statute 2 and 3 Phil. and Mar. cap. 3. shall extend to all grounds apt for milch-kine, and not to be laid open to common at any time of the year.

Stat. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. sect. 1. Importation of cattle is a public nuisance, and shall be so adjudged; and if any great cattle, sheep, or swine, or any beef, pork, or bacon (except for the necessary provision of ships, in which the same shall be brought, not exposing the same to sale) shall be imported, it shall be lawful for any constable, tithingman, headborough, churchwardens, or overseers of the poor, to seize and keep the same eight and forty hours, in some public place where such seizure shall be made; within which time, if the owners, or any for them, shall make it appear unto some justice of peace, by oath of two witnesses, that the same were not imported from beyond the seas, the same shall be delivered: but, in default of such proof, the same to be forfeited, one half to the use of the poor of the parish, the other half to his use that shall seize the same.

SECT. 3. Nothing in this act shall hinder the importation of cattle from the Isle of Man, so as the number of the said cattle do not exceed 600 head yearly, and that they be of the breed of the Isle of Man, and be landed at the port of Chester.

SECT. 4. This act to continue seven years: made perpetual by 32 Car. II. cap. 2.

Stat. 20 Car. II. cap. 7. sect. 3. Any inhabitant of the liberties, parishes, and places, where importation of cattle, beef, &c. shall be, may take the cattle and goods so imported, and, after seizure, shall deliver them to the constable, tithingman, headborough, churchwardens, and overseers of the poor, &c. to be kept and disposed in the manner in this act, and in the act 18 Car. II. cap. 2. mentioned.

SECT. 4. If no seizure shall be made by the officers or inhabitants of the liberty, &c. where such cattle or goods shall be first imported, then such liberty, &c. and the inhabitants thereof, neglecting to make seizure, shall forfeit 100 l. for the use of the house of correction within the county, or liberty: and the monies so forfeited, and other forfeitures which are to accrue to the poor, shall be accounted for, as the overseers of the poor are to account by the statute 43 Eliz. cap. 2.

SECT. 5. Every vessel, with all her tackle, in which any cattle, beef, &c. shall be imported, and out of which they shall be put on shore, shall be forfeited; and it shall be lawful for any person, within one year after such importation, to seize the vessel, and make sale thereof to the best advantage; and one half of the monies shall be to the use of the poor of the parish where the same shall be seized, the other half to his use that shall seize the same. And it shall be lawful to any justice of peace of the county, or chief officer of the port-town where such importation shall be, or where any of the cattle, beef, &c. so imported shall be brought, by warrant to cause to be apprehended all the masters and seamen having charge of, or belonging to such vessel, and every other person employed in the landing, or taking care of the said cattle, beef, &c. and them to commit to the common jail for three months.

SECT. 6. As often as it shall happen that any cattle, beef, &c. after the first seizure, shall be found in any other parish, or place, it shall be lawful for the constable of such other parish, or place, to seize and dispose the same as forfeited; the one moiety to the use of the poor of such other parish, the other to the use of such officer who shall seize the same; any former seizure in any other place notwithstanding.

SECT. 7. If any action, &c. be prosecuted for any thing done by colour of this or the aforesaid act, and it shall not be proved to the jury, that the cause of such action, &c. did

arise within such county where such action is laid, the defendant shall be found not guilty.

SECT. 8. If any action, &c. shall be prosecuted for any thing done in pursuance of this, or the aforesaid act, the persons sued may plead the general issue, and if the plaintiff, &c. shall be nonsuited, &c. the defendants shall have treble cost.

SECT. 10. If any persons shall wilfully and fraudulently agree to evade the forfeitures upon importation of cattle or goods in this act specified, and the same shall be put in execution, every such person thereof indicted, or presented within one year after such offence, and being convicted, shall incur the pains contained in the statute of præmunire, 16 Rich. II. cap. 5. Stat. 22 Car. II. cap. 13. sect. 6. There shall be paid, for every ox or steer that shall be exported, 1 s. and no more.

SECT. 7. It shall be lawful for any person to export cows or heifers, paying for each 1 s. and also to export swine or hogs, paying for each hog 2 d.

SECT. 8. It shall be lawful for any person to export, by way of merchandize, horses or mares to any part in amity with his majesty, paying for each 5 s.

Stat. 32 Car. II. cap. 2. sect. 3. Any person may seize cattle and goods imported contrary to stat. 18 Car. II. cap. 2.

SECT. 5. Every seizer of such cattle, sheep, or swine, shall, within six days after conviction, cause the same to be killed; and the hides and tallow shall be to the use of the seizer, and the remainder shall be distributed amongst the poor of the parish by the churchwardens and overseers, upon notice to be given them by the seizer.

SECT. 6. In case the seizer, or the churchwardens and overseers, shall fail in their duties in the execution of this act, every of them shall forfeit 40 s. for every one of the great cattle, and 10 s. for every sheep or swine; one moiety to the poor of the parish, and the other to the informer; to be levied by distress and sale of goods, by warrant of a justice of peace where the offence shall be committed, upon confession of the party, view of the justice, or oath of one witness; and, for want of distress, the offenders to be committed to the common jail for three months, without bail.

SECT. 8. No mutton or lamb shall be imported, subject to the like seizures and penalties as are appointed against the importation of beef, pork, or bacon.

SECT. 10. If any great cattle, sheep, or swine, shall be seized in pursuance of this, or the aforesaid act, and afterwards shall be removed into, and found alive in any other parish or place, the same shall be liable to the same seizure, and the seizer and poor of the place have the like benefit, and the proof be incumbent upon the owner, as if such cattle had never before been seized.

SECT. 11. If any English, or other cattle, driven or intermixed with Irish cattle, shall be seized together with them, such cattle so intermixed and seized shall be deemed Irish.

CAUDEBEC, a sort of hats, thus called from the town of Caudebec in Normandy, where they manufacture a great many of them. They are made of lamb's wool, of the hair or down of ostriches, or of camel's hair. See **HATS**.

CAVIARY, **CAVEER**, or **CAVEAR**, the spawn or hard roes of Sturgeon, made into small cakes an inch thick, and of a hand's breadth. These are salted and dried in the sun. The Italians settled at Moscow drive a very great trade in this commodity throughout that empire, because there is a prodigious quantity of sturgeons taken at the mouth of the Wolga, and of the other rivers which fall into the Caspian sea.

After the caviary has been salted and dried, it is sent up that river to Moscow, whence it is distributed throughout all Russia; and is in great esteem by the Muscovites, because of their three lents, which they keep with a superstitious exactness.

There is also a pretty large quantity of it consumed in Italy; and they begin to be acquainted with it in France, where it is reckoned no despicable dish on the best tables.

The French and Italians get the caviary from Archangel, a port in Moscow; but they seldom get it at the first hand: they commonly buy it of the English and Dutch, but especially of the latter, who drive the greatest trade in Moscow. Good caviary should be of a reddish brown and dry. It is eat with oil and lemon-juice.

The best caviary of Moscow is made with bolluca, a fish from about eight to ten feet long, which is caught in the Caspian sea. This caviary is by far preferable to that which is made of the sturgeon's roes, and is delicious, when fresh made.

There is likewise a great deal of caviary brought from the Black Sea, particularly from Afoph and Kilia, two towns of great trade; the one situated at the mouth of the Tanais or Don, and the other near the mouth of the Danube. This caviary is made of the hard roes of several fishes, particularly, of the sturgeon. That which is sold at Constantinople comes chiefly from Afoph, from whence there is sent, one year with another, to that capital of the Turkish empire, about ten thousand butts or hogheads, each butt weighing 7 quintals and a half.

As caviary is not rated in France, it pays there a duty of importation at the rate of 5 per cent. of its value, according to

the estimate which is made in an amicable manner, agreeable to the last article of the tariff of 1664.

CEDAR. The cedar of mount Libanus (or Lebanon, as it is called in our English translation of the bible) is famous in the Holy Scripture. This is reckoned one of the first and largest trees in the world: it grows to a prodigious height; is thick, straight, and raised pyramid-wise; its bark is even and smooth; its wood very hard, beautiful, solid, inclining to a brown colour, and, as it were, incorruptible: with this precious timber was built Solomon's temple and his palace. We read also in the Holy Scriptures, how many cities this king of the Jews gave to king Hiram, in payment for the cedar-timber, which he sent him for that magnificent structure, without being yet able to satisfy him to his mind.

The cedar-tree pushes out branches at the distance of 10 or 12 feet from the ground. They are large, and at a distance from each other. Its leaves are pretty much like those of rosemary. It is an ever-green, and lives very long, but dies, as soon as its top is cut off. The leaves stand upright, and the fruit hangs down; that fruit is a small cone, like that of the pine-tree, except that its rind is thinner, smoother, and more open. The seed is like that of the cypress-tree.

There are still some cedars on mount Libanus, but in small number, above and to the east of Biblos and Tripoli. There are none to be seen any where else on those mountains. But it is very probable, that there were a great many more formerly, since their timber was used in so many considerable works. There are some cedars also growing in some parts of Africa, in the isle of Cyprus, and in that of Crete or Candia. Josephus, the Jewish historian, asserts, that Solomon planted so large a quantity of cedars in Judea, that they were as numerous as the sycamore-trees, which are very common in that country.

They used that timber not only for beams, and for the boards which covered the buildings, and made up the ciplings of the apartments, but they put it likewise into the body of the walls, so that there were, for instance, three rows of stone, and one of cedar-wood. They also made statues of it, when they would have them last a long time. It is used to make fine turners and inlaid work, and in some floors and ceilings of royal palaces, and other stately edifices; but, in those places where it grows, it is employed in land and sea-buildings, like common timber.

During the hottest season of the year, there runs naturally, and without any incision, from the trunk and large branches of this tree, a white, clear, and transparent resin, which is called cedar-gum, or masticine-manna, which hardens and forms itself into grains like mastic. The largest trees do hardly yield six ounces of it a day.

When the gum has done running of itself, they make incisions into the tree, from whence issues afterwards an unctuous liquor, which dries, as it runs along the trunk of the tree. This is the resin of cedar, which is to be sold at the druggists shops; it is of a fine yellow colour, friable, lucid, transparent, and of a good smell.

Lastly, the cedar furnishes also a third sort of drug, called turpentine, or resin of cedar: it is a liquor clear, like water; of a strong penetrating scent, contained in small bladders or vesicles, which the excessive heat of the sun causes to rise on the trunk of the tree. These gums and resins of cedar are seldom to be met with in France.

Mr Miller observes, that what we meet with in the Scripture of the lofty cedars, can be no ways applicable to the stature of this tree; since, by the experience we have of those now growing in England, as also from the testimony of several travellers, who have visited those few remaining trees on mount Libanus, they are not inclined to grow very lofty, but, on the contrary, extend their branches very far: to which the allusion made by the psalmist agrees very well, when he is describing the flourishing state of a nation: they shall spread their branches like the cedar-trees.

Ranwolf, in his travels, says, there were not at that time (i. e. anno 1574.) upon mount Libanus, more than 26 trees remaining, 24 of which stood in a circle; and the other two, which stood at a small distance, had their branches almost consumed with age; nor could he find any younger trees coming up to succeed them. These trees, he says, were growing at the foot of a small hill, on the top of the mountains, and amongst the snow. These having very large branches, they do commonly bend the tree to one side, but are extended to a great length, and in so delicate and pleasant order, as if they were trimmed and made even with great diligence; by which they are easily distinguished from fir-trees. The leaves, continues he, are very like to those of the larch-tree, growing close together in little bunches, upon small brown shoots.

Maundrell, in his travels, asserts, there were but 16 large trees remaining, some of which were of a prodigious bulk; but that there were many more young trees of a smaller size: he measured one of the largest, and found it to be twelve yards six inches in girth, and yet found, and thirty-seven yards in the spread of its boughs. At about five or six yards from the ground it was divided into five limbs, each

of which was equal to a great tree. What Maundrell has related was confirmed to Mr Miller, by a worthy gentleman of his acquaintance, who was there in 1720, with this difference only, viz. in the dimensions of the branches of the largest tree, which that gentleman measured, and found to be twenty-two yards diameter. Now, whether Maundrell meant 37 yards in circumference of the spreading branches, or the diameter of them, cannot be determined by his expressions, yet neither of them will agree with the abovementioned gentleman's account.

Monfieur le Bruyn reckons about thirty-five or thirty-six trees remaining upon mount Libanus, when he was there, and would persuade us it was not easy to reckon their number. He also says, their cones do some of them grow dependent; which is abundantly confuted by the abovementioned travellers, as also from Mr Miller's own experience; for all the cones grow upon the upper part of the branches, and stand erect, having a strong woody central style, by which it is firmly annexed to the branch, so as with difficulty to be taken off; which central style remains upon the branches, after the cone is fallen to pieces, so that they never drop off whole, as the pines do.

The wood of this famous tree is accounted proof against all putrefaction of animal bodies (but see the end of this article). The saw-dust is thought to be one of the secrets used by those mountebanks, who pretend to have the embalming mystery. This wood is also said to yield an oil, which is famous for preserving books and writings; and the wood is thought, by lord Bacon, to continue above a thousand years found. It is likewise recorded, that, in the temple of Apollo at Utica, there was found timber of near two thousand years old. And the statue of the goddess, in the famous Ephebian temple, was said to be of this material also, as was most of the timber-work of that glorious structure.

This sort of timber is very dry, and subject to split; nor does it well endure to be fastened with nails; therefore pins of the same wood are much preferable.

Dampier tells us in his voyages (vol. I. p. 29.) that there are cedars in St Andreas, a small uninhabited island, near that of Providence, to the westward of it, in 13 degr. 15 min. north latitude, and from Portobello north-north west, about 70 leagues. Jamaica also is well stored with cedars of its own, chiefly among the rocky mountains. Those of St Andreas grow likewise in stony ground, and are the largest that ever Dampier knew, says he, or heard of; the bodies alone being commonly 40 or 50 feet long, many 60 or 70, and upwards, and of a proportionable bigness. The Bermudas are also well stored with them; so is Virginia, which is generally a sandy soil. Our author saw none in the East-Indies, nor in the South-Sea, except on the isthmus of Panama. There is also plenty of straight large cedars in the Maria's, three uninhabited islands in north latitude, 21 deg. 40 min. 40 leagues distant from cape St Lucas in California.

They make in America periagoes and canoes of cedar, and these are the best of any: they are nothing but the tree itself, made hollow boatwise, with a flat bottom; the canoe is generally sharp at both ends, and the periago at one only, with the other end flat. But what is commonly said of cedar, that the worm will not touch it, is a mistake; for our author asserts, that he has seen of it very much worm-eaten. As Dampier has given us no particular description of the cedars he mentions, we cannot determine whether they be of the same kind with those of mount Libanus, or with those mentioned in the next article.

CEDAR of Phœnicia, otherwise called **SMALL CEDAR**, **OXYCEDRUS**, is a kind of cedar, which grows in Phœnicia and Cilicia; it is pretty much like the juniper-tree, for which reason some give it that name.

There are three sorts of this tree, according to Lemery, which have different names in Latin. The trunk and branches of the first sort are crooked and knotty; its wood is reddish, and yields a smell like that of the cypress-tree; its leaves are narrow, pointed, tougher, and sharper than those of the juniper-tree, always green, and like those of the cypress-tree. Its catkins have several small scales, and at the foot there are some membranaceous cods or pods, full of dust. The fruit grows upon the same foot with the catkins, but at a distance from them; it is a berry, which, as it ripens, grows yellow, somewhat fleshy, odoriferous, of a pleasant taste, each of which contains commonly three ligneous and hard stones, round on top, and flattened on the other side; each stone includes an oblong seed. In hot countries there issues from this tree a gum, which is called vernix.

The second kind, called *Cedrus minor altera*, differs from the first in this, the tree is not so tall, and the berries are larger.

The third species is called *Cedrus Hispanica procerior, folio maximo*. The taller Spanish cedar, with very large leaves. It grows much higher than the other sorts; its berries are larger, and of a black colour.

These cedars grow in hot countries, and in the plains along the Mediterranean, in Italy, Spain, Provence, and *Languedoc*.

doc. They are ever-greens; their wood is odoriferous; their leaves are good for the stomach; and their berries, which are called cedrides, are a cordial.

They extract from the cedar-wood, by the retort, after the common manner, a black oil, which is thought to be the true oil of cada, otherwise called cedria; instead of which, as it is very scarce, they use the oil extracted from the large and small juniper-tree, or the clear oil of the pitch, which has kept the name of oil of cada. The true oil of cada is a sovereign remedy for the cure of a morpew; it is likewise used with good success for curing the scab, or itch, in horses, oxen, or other cattle.

From the trunk of the oxycedrus is extracted, by incision, a very clear and transparent gum, which is the true sandarac, but is seldom to be met with in France, or elsewhere, where they substitute in its stead the gum of the juniper-tree.

CEDRA, or CEDRAT, a kind of citron-tree, the fruit of which has a very agreeable smell. That name is also sometimes given to the citron it produces.

These trees grow plentifully in Italy, where they make a liquid comfit with the small citrons, or cedrats, which they preserve intire, and a dry sweet-meat with the large cedrats, which they cut into quarters to preserve.

Cedrat-water, which is in high esteem in France, on account of its excellent perfume, and perhaps too because, it is very scarce, is made with the zests, or small thin pieces, cut from the surface of the peel of the fruit, before it be quite ripe; by squeezing these zests they express the juice out, which they receive on a piece of glass, from whence it runs into some vessel that is held under it. Some call it Barbadoes-water, but improperly: for cedrat is the pure juice of the citron, or lemon-peel; whereas Barbadoes-water is a mixture of brandy, or other spirits rectified, and not the pure cedrat-water, or juice.

CENSAL, a word used on the coast of Provence in France, and in the ports of the Levant. It signifies the same thing with the word broker; that is to say, one whose business is to procure to merchants and traders the buying and selling of their commodities, and who intervenes also sometimes in other mercantile transactions, as negotiating bills of exchange. See **AGENT,** and **BROKERS.**

The merchants and traders commonly pay one half per cent. to the censal for brokerage.

Most of the censals of the Levant, particularly they who act as brokers at Grand Cairo, are Arabs by nation. The contracts they make between the European merchants and those of the country, are intirely carried on with shew and grimace: it is a perfect comedy, when the censal would oblige an European merchant to pay to his countrymen the price demanded at first for any commodity, or, at least, to abate very little of it.

When the European has made his offer, which is always below the price demanded by the seller, the Arabian censal pretends to fall into a violent passion, he bawls and howls like a madman, or enthusiast, and comes up to the merchant, as though he would seize him by the throat, and strangle him, though he never touches him. In case this first scene does not succeed to his wishes, he quarrels with himself, tears his cloaths, beats his breast soundly with his fist, and, rolling himself on the ground, he cries out, like a furioso, that an honourable merchant is insulted, that his wares were not stolen, to be so unconscionably undervalued, and disposed of at so low a price. Finally, as the European merchant, who is used to that burlesque way of trading, continues sedate and unmoved, and keeping to his first offer, the censal becomes quiet also, and, giving his hand to the merchant, embraces him very close, as a token that the bargain is struck, and concludes the farce with saying, *Halla quebar, Halla quebir, i. e. God is great, God is very great:* which words he pronounces with as much coolness and tranquillity, as though he had not just before counterfeited all the contortions and howlings of a man possessed with an evil spirit.

CENT, signifies properly a hundred, being an abridgment of the word centum; but it is often used in commerce to express the profit or loss arising from the sale of any commodity: so that when we say, there is 10 per cent. profit, or 10 per cent. loss, upon any merchandize that has been sold, it is to be understood that the seller has either gained or lost ten pounds on every hundred pounds of the price at which he bought that merchandize, which is $\frac{1}{10}$ of profit, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of loss, upon the total of the sale.

To gain 100 per cent. (or cent. per cent.) in trade, is the doubling of one's capital: to lose 50 per cent. is to lose one half of it.

CENT, is also used in the trade of money, and signifies the benefit, profit, or interest of any sum of money, which is laid out for improvement. Thus we say, money is worth 4 or 5 per cent. upon exchange; that is to say, it brings 4 or 5 pounds profit for every hundred pounds laid or lent out.

CENT, is also used with regard to the draughts, or remittances of money, made from one place to another. Thus we say, it will cost $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to remit money to such a city.

When we say that a broker, or exchange-agent, takes one eighth per cent. fee or perquisite, for the contracts or bargains that are made by his means and interposition, it is to be understood that there is to be paid to him the eighth part brokerage of a pound, which is 2 s. 6 d. for every hundred pounds he caused to be negotiated. The one eighth per cent. is commonly paid by both the contracting parties; that is to say, by him who gives, and by him who receives, the money; so that the brokers get $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for every bargain, which amount to 5 s. or $\frac{1}{2}$ of a pound, for every 100 l. and 2 l. 10 s. for every 1000 l.

When an agent, or factor, sets down at the bottom of an invoice, which he sends to his principal, 2 per cent. commission, it signifies that he takes, or charges for his trouble in transacting the business, and advancing his money, so many times two pounds, as there are hundreds of pounds in the sum total of the invoice. It must be observed, that the so much per cent. for commission is taken on the whole amount of the invoice; that is to say, both on the principal price of the commodities bought, and on the charges and expences incurred on account of the same, as duties paid, portorage, package, postage of letters, &c.

In the books, and other writings of merchants, bankers, and traders, the so much per cent. is set down by abbreviation: for instance, 2 p^r c, or 2 p^r c^t; which signifies 2 per cent.

CERUSE, or CERUSSE, otherwise called **CALX of LEAD.** It is white lead reduced into powder, and diluted with water on porphyry. They make it into a paste, of which they form, in moulds, small loaves, or cakes, of a pyramidal figure, which they dry afterwards, the better to carry them abroad. The workmen wrap them up in blue paper, rather than in any other, to make the ceruse appear whiter.

The painters use ceruse both in oil and water colours, with gum-water, and it makes a beautiful white. It is also the chief ingredient used in the paint for the ladies.

Ceruse is a dangerous poison, when taken inwardly; it has even bad effects externally, of which the ladies should take the greatest care, since it spoils the eye-sight and the teeth of those persons who use it for beautifying the face; and, besides a great many other inconveniences it occasions, it seems to hasten old age, by making the wrinkles appear on the face sooner than they would otherwise do.

The Venetian ceruse is esteemed the best sort of all, yet there is the least consumption of it, which is owing, perhaps, to it's being very dear. They use at Paris, and in all France, as well as in other foreign countries, hardly any other ceruse but that of England and Holland. The former is the worst sort, the latter is something better. They are both made with white lead and white chalk; and, the chalk of England being less white, and the English mixing more of it with the ceruse than the Dutch do, is the reason of their different degrees of goodness. To judge of it's quality, it must be chosen very white, both within and without, fine, clean, soft, and friable. That is the worst kind which breaks the easiest, as wanting the due texture and adhesion. See **WHITE LEAD.**

CESSION. It is a merchant's or trader's giving up, in cases of bankruptcy, or yielding to his creditors all his goods, both moveable and immoveable, either voluntarily, or by a sentence of a court of justice, to avoid a warrant for seizing his person, which they otherwise might obtain against him. There are two sorts of cession, the voluntary and the judicial.

In France the voluntary cession is, when a merchant, or trader, finding himself incapable to pay his creditors intirely, yields and makes over to them all his effects whatsoever, which cession must be consented to, and voluntarily accepted by his creditors: this is performed by a deed, which is called the contract of cession of goods.

He who makes a voluntary cession is obliged to give to his creditors a true account of all his effects and goods, both moveable and immoveable, without the least exception, and to get his contract of cession made with those who signed it voluntarily, allowed and authorized by a court of justice, and to have it declared common to those who refused to sign it.

Though this voluntary cession be accepted by the creditors, it is nevertheless infamous to him who made it; because it is looked upon as a real bankruptcy, which renders that person incapable of ever obtaining a public employment, unless he afterwards intirely pays his creditors, and obtains letters of rehabilitation in Chancery.

A debtor, who has made cession of his goods to his creditors, who accept voluntarily, without being forced to it, is discharged from all debts generally, nor can they have any action against him, nor any demand on the goods or effects he may have acquired after such cession.

The judicial cession is that which is made by a merchant, or trader, who is actually kept in prison by his creditors, and who, being absolutely incapable to satisfy them, petitions a court of justice for leave to make cession. This judicial cession is certainly compulsive on the part of the creditors, since

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the debtor is commonly allowed the benefit of a cession by an order from the judges, notwithstanding the opposition made by the creditors to prevent it; which renders this cession more infamous still than that which is voluntary.

He who makes cession is obliged to make it before the judges-consuls of the place of his residence, the court sitting; and, in case there be no consuls, before the common assembly of the town; and this he is obliged to do bareheaded, personally, and not by proxy, or attorney, unless in case of sickness, or for some other lawful reason: he is obliged to declare his name, surname, quality, and dwelling-place, and that he was admitted to make cession of all his goods; which declaration is to be published by the recorder, and wrote in the public table, agreeably to the ordonnance given at Moulins by Charles VIII, the 28th of December, 1490, art. 34; to that given at Lyons by Lewis XII, in June, 1510, art. 70; to that of Lewis XIII, of January, 1629, art. 143; and to that of Lewis XIV, of March, 1673, tit. 10, art. 1.

According to custom, he who makes cession ought to be conducted by a tipstaff, or other officer of justice, to the public place, on a market-day, there to publish, in the presence of such officer, the cession he has made, of which publication the officer is to draw up a verbal process.

There are some cases wherein a man cannot be admitted to enjoy the benefit of cession: as (1.) In case of a fraudulent bankruptcy.

(2.) For the remainder of an account of guardianship; which is an adjudged case, by a decree of the 17th of May, 1608.

(3.) When a foreigner had not obtained letters of naturalization, or a declaration to that purpose, art. 2. of tit. 10, of the ordonnance of 1673.

(4.) A natural-born Frenchman against a foreigner; thus adjudged by three decrees, of the 18th of April, 1566, 5th of December, 1591, and 17th of August, 1598.

(5.) For public money.

(6.) For false sale. Decree of February the 8th, 1611.

(7.) They who have money intrusted with them by order of a court of justice.

(8.) For harvests of corn. Decree of the 28th of March, 1583.

(9.) They who by an agreement with their creditors have obtained a delay of payment, and have received some remittances from them. Decree of the 11th of February, 1611.

(10.) They who have obtained letters of respite. Decree of the 8th of February, 1611.

(11.) And for wine sold by a citizen in his cellar. Decree of the 11th of July, confirmed by another decree of the 12th of April, 1612.

(12.) A debtor cannot renounce, or give up the benefit of cession, by a bond entered into with his creditors. Decree of the 22d of November, 1599.

(13.) The goods acquired by a judicial cessionary, after his cession, either by inheritance, gift, or otherwise, are always bound to his creditors, to the full payment of what remains due to them: but yet they cannot attach his body.

Formerly, he who made cession was obliged to wear a green cap, which was to be bought by his creditors; and if he were met with abroad by any of his creditors, without having the green cap on his head, such creditor had power to put him in prison again. This has been adjudged by several decrees: nevertheless this custom has been abrogated, particularly with regard to such cessionaries who have acted bona fide, and without fraud.

The ordonnance of Lewis XIII, made in January, 1629, declares, That they who shall make cession, because they have been ruined by losses in trade, and who shall be found honest, shall not be subject to infamy: yet, notwithstanding the declaration in this ordonnance, this kind of cession does still pass for dishonourable in the general opinion of men; and they who made such cessions are never chosen to any public post or office: so that one may say that cession is a kind of civil death; but yet, when a cessionary has entirely paid his creditors, he may be reinstated, by letters from the sovereign. See the article **BANKRUPTCY**.

CESSIONARY, he who accepts the cession, or transfer of any thing, or to whom it is made.

CESSIONARY, is also a merchant, or any other person, who yields or makes over all his goods and effects to his creditors, either by the authority of a court of justice, or voluntarily. See above **CESSION**.

CHALDRON, a dry measure used in England for coals; it contains twelve sacks, or 36 bushels heaped up, according to a bushel which is sealed and kept at Guildhall in London. The chaldron should weigh 2000 pounds.

CHAMBER, is said, especially in France, of those places where some assemblies are held, either for the administration of justice, or for treating of other business either public or private. The grand chamber, the chambers of inquests and requests, the chamber of accounts, and several others, established in the palace of Paris and elsewhere, are of the number of the first. The chambers of commerce, the chambers of assurance, the royal or syndical chamber of the bookfellers, are of the last sort.

We shall hereafter give an account of the chief chambers which relate to trade, to merchants, to bodies and companies of arts and trades, both in general and particular.

CHAMBER is said, not only of the place where some assemblies are held, but also of the assemblies themselves.

CHAMBER of Commerce, is an assembly of merchants and traders, where the affairs relating to trade are treated of.

The general establishment of chambers of commerce, in several of the chief cities in France, was made the 30th of August, 1701; but the particular establishments were not made 'till some years after, and most of them were established at different times, as the interests of commerce made absolutely necessary. There were, however, before the above mentioned year, some cities in this kingdom, that enjoyed the privilege of having a chamber of commerce. The city of Marseilles, amongst others, had one established several years before, in imitation of which, that of Dunkirk, which is also anterior to the general establishment, was erected by an edict of Lewis XIV, in the month of February 1700.

The chamber of Dunkirk is composed of a president and four counsellors, two of whom are chosen amongst the echevins, actually in office, and two amongst the most eminent merchants and traders, who have already borne the office of echevin, and that of pensionary.

Of the nature of these commercial establishments.

These six persons meet twice a week in one of the rooms of the town-house, in order to confer together on the most proper measures requisite to be taken, to make the trade of their own town flourish, to increase both the inland and foreign trade of the whole kingdom, and to receive all information and proposals useful to any branches of traffic whatsoever; of all which they keep a register, as well as of their own resolutions: of which they send extracts every three months to the intendant, if he be on the spot, or, in his absence, directly to Court, on any pressing emergency.

It is also the president of this chamber, or, in default of him, the eldest of the consuls, who gives certificates for the exportation of such merchandizes, as cannot be exported without them.

The establishing a royal council of commerce at Paris, in the year 1700, occasioned the setting up of chambers of commerce in the other chief towns of the kingdom, in 1701.

In the first scheme of that council, the king thought proper to compose it of six commissaries or deputies from his council of state, and of twelve of the chief merchants of Paris, and of the provinces; namely, two of that capital, and one of each of the following cities, viz. Lyons, Roan, Bourdeaux, Marseilles, Rochelle, Nantz, St Malo, Lisle, Bayonne, and Dunkirk; to whom was afterwards added, by a decree of the council of September that same year, a deputy from the province of Languedoc, and consequently of the city of Montpellier.

To the end that these merchants might be thoroughly informed of all that relates to the trade of the several provinces for which they are deputed, his majesty afterwards judged it necessary to establish these distinct chambers of commerce, with which they might correspond, and which should furnish them with memorials, and all propositions which the council was maturely to weigh and consider.

So wise and national a design gave occasion to the decree of the council, given the 30th of August, 1701, which indeed was only a preliminary to the establishment of the chambers of commerce; by which it was ordered, that the merchants and traders of Lyons, Lisle, Roan, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, St Malo, and Bayonne, as well as the province of Languedoc, should send, on the 15th of October following, their opinions concerning the most proper and most advantageous method of establishing such chambers in their respective cities. Marseilles and Dunkirk were not named in the decree, because there was already a chamber of commerce established in each of these cities.

Of the **CHAMBER of COMMERCE** in the city of Lyons.

This is the first of all the chambers that were established, by virtue of the decree of the 30th of August, 1701.

The general assembly of the provost of the merchants, and of the echevins, both of those actually serving, and of those who had served that office before, together with the chief traders chosen by the four bodies of merchants, being held the 20th of February 1702, and their resolutions being sent to Court, the king issued a decree, dated the 20th of July that same year, for the establishment of the chamber of commerce in that city.

By that decree, the chamber was composed of the provost of the merchants, of one echevin being a trader, of an excellent merchant, of a merchant draper, of two bankers, or two silk merchants, of a merchant grocer, or a merchant of gold lace, and of a master-weaver of the company of the silk-workers, having actually looms at work; all these, together, were filed the Directors of the chamber of commerce.

In the absence of the provost of the merchants, the echevin is chairman, and, in the absence both of the provost of the mer-

chants and of the echevin, the exconsul takes the chair. The chamber meets once a week in the town-house.

The general assembly for the elections is held every year, on the 15th of December; and in this assembly they chuse four new directors, so that every one remains but two years in office, nor can any one be continued but for two other years. The election of a deputy to the royal council of commerce at Paris is made jointly by the corporation of the city, and the chamber of commerce, which have both the same secretary.

To defray the charges of the chamber, they take yearly 30,000 livres, out of the common cash of the city, 8000 of which are designed for the salary of the deputy to the council of commerce, and 2000 for that of the secretary: the rest is employed in paying the expences of the office; in distributing two silver medals to each of the directors, at the end of every meeting; and giving also a gold medal weighing five Louis-d'ors to every one of them going out of office, as also to the deputy, when he ceases to perform the functions of that post.

There were two particular chambers of commerce established in the year 1703. The one the 19th of June at Roan, and the other the 29th of December at Toulouse.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE at Roan.

This is composed of the prior, two judges consuls in office, the procurator syndic, and five merchants or traders, who have altogether the title of syndics of the commerce of the province of Normandy.

This chamber meets once a week in the consular house.

The election of new syndics is made every year in December; two new syndics are chosen one year, and three the next, and thus alternately; so that every syndic continues at least two years in office; he may even be continued two other years, but never for any longer time.

The nomination of a deputy to the ROYAL COUNCIL OF COMMERCE is made jointly by the chamber, and by those who have borne the offices of judge, consuls, and syndics. The secretary, who must be a merchant of skill and abilities, or at least must have been in trade, is chosen every other year, and may be continued.

The deputy's salary is settled at 8000 livres per ann. and 4000 are designed for that of the secretary, for pens, ink, and paper, for fuel, candles, &c. as also for the distribution of two silver medals to each of the syndics, at the end of every meeting, and for a gold medal, to them and to the deputy, when they go out of office.

Towards settling a fund for these expences, the same decree establishes a tariff of certain duties, which are to be paid, not only at Roan, but throughout the whole province of Normandy; and one of the syndics is appointed treasurer, for the receiving and distributing the money arising from those duties, and he is accountable to the chamber only.

Finally, no contract made upon the exchange is of any force, 'till it has been proposed to the chamber, and approved by it.

Of the CHAMBER of COMMERCE at Toulouse.

This is composed of seven persons, besides the secretary; namely, the prior of the exchange, who is chairman; the two consuls of the exchange for the time being; and four merchants, either wholesale dealers or retailers, either noblemen or others, who are styled deputies.

The noblemen, when any are elected into these commercial institutions, sit on the prior's right hand, and in his absence the eldest of them takes the chair.

The meeting of the chamber, wherein the syndic of the province of Languedoc has a right to sit, when he pleases, is kept in the house of the exchange once a week.

Two of the deputies are changed yearly; they may be continued for two other years, but not against their inclinations; and they who have been deputies once, may be chosen again after some years interval; in case of an equality of votes, the election is determined by drawing lots.

The contracts made upon the exchange have no authority 'till they are approved by the chamber.

Lastly, the states of the provinces of Languedoc pay yearly a sum of 600 livres, both for the secretary's salary, and for the other charges and expences of the chamber. But the decree, by which this chamber is established, mentions neither the deputy to the royal council of commerce, nor his salary.

Of the CHAMBER of COMMERCE of Montpellier.

This was established by a decree of the king's council of state, given the 15th of January, 1704.

The number and qualities of the persons who compose it, their name, rank, and functions, the place and days of their meetings, the election of the deputies, the sum which the states of the province furnishes yearly, for bearing the expences of the chamber; in short, all that relates to it's authority and prerogatives: is so much like what we have related of the chamber of Toulouse, that I judge it superfluous to enter into further particulars. We need only add, that, if the decree does not mention the deputy to the royal council of com-

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merce, it is, because the king consented, according to the resolution of the states of the province of Languedoc of the 12th of January, 1703, that the syndic-general of the said province, whose turn it should be to be sent as deputy to the court, should also perform the functions of deputy to the royal council of commerce, though he were no trader; with liberty, however, to the states, to appoint, when they should think proper, a merchant to fill up the place of deputy of the province to the royal council of commerce.

Of the CHAMBER of COMMERCE at Bourdeaux.

This is one of the last that was instituted. The decree of the council, by which it's establishment was ordered, is dated the 25th of May, 1705.

It is composed of the judges and consuls of that city, together with six merchants actually trading, or who have followed trade, and had due experience therein, they being subjects of the king, or naturalized: they are intitled Directors of the commerce of the province of Guyenne.

They have a secretary to register their resolutions; and one of the directors is appointed treasurer, to receive, out of the general income of the province of Guyenne, 4086 livres per ann. which were before paid yearly by the king, for annual wages, granted to the bodies and companies of merchants and traders of the city of Bourdeaux, and have been appropriated by the general assembly of the said bodies and companies, held the 5th of September, for defraying the charges and expences of the chamber.

That sum is employed in paying the secretary's salary, in providing pens, ink, and paper, fire, and candles; silver medals; two of which are given to each deputy every assembly-day, which is held in the house of the exchange; and in gold medals for the directors going out of office; and for the deputy to the royal council of commerce, when he has executed his office.

The directors are chosen yearly, three at every time: all the other rights, functions, prerogatives, and authority of this chamber, particularly with regard to the agreements made upon the exchange, are like what has been related more at large in the account of the chamber of Toulouse.

Of the CHAMBER of COMMERCE at Rochelle.

This is one of those whose establishment was delayed the longest. It was made in 1710, by virtue of a decree of the council, dated the 21st of October, and given upon the resolution of the assembly of the merchants of that city, and by the advice of Monf. Begon, intendant of justice and of the finances, within that district.

The chamber consists of a director, four syndics, and a secretary, who are all to be elected, except the first nomination, which is made by the king.

Thirty merchants of that city are summoned together every year, to chuse the director and two syndics; so that the director continues one year in office, and each syndic two years.

The secretary, who is appointed by the chamber, is changed every other year, and may be continued. They must all be merchants actually trading, or who have been in trade, fifteen years at least*.

* Does not this article in particular, among various others couched under this head, indicate the most judicious and tenderest care of the commerce of France?

The chamber meets but once a week, in the consular house. To this chamber, together with thirty merchants summoned for that purpose, belongs the right of appointing a deputy to the council of commerce, established at Paris. And to the chamber also, but without the assistance or intercourse of the other merchants, belongs the right of approving the agreements made upon the exchange, that they may be in force.

The charges of the chamber and the secretary's salary are settled at two thousand livres per ann. and the deputy's salary, as well as the funds for defraying all these expences, are left to the king's will, who orders them as he thinks fit. Lastly, the director, syndics, and deputy, receive, at their going out of office, a gold medal worth 60 livres, and at every assembly are distributed, to all who are present, two silver medals weighing 6 penny-weights, each.

The intendant of Rochelle has a right to assist at those assemblies when he pleases, and to take the chair.

CHAMBER of COMMERCE in the city of Lille.

This was not established 'till the 23d of July, 1714. The unfortunate events of the last years of the war in regard to the succession of Spain, the famous siege of that city, which was taken in 1708 by the army of the princes confederated against France and Spain, after a very long and bloody defence, had prevented Lewis XIV. from bestowing sooner on this city that mark of his favour, and of his being well pleased with the zeal and loyalty of it's inhabitants. But, as soon as this important city had been restored to France by the treaty of Utrecht, a chamber of commerce was immediately established there, the plan of which had been formed so soon as the year 1701.

That chamber is composed of a director, who is chairman, and four syndics, who were appointed the first time by the king. Two new syndics are chosen every year, in the room of two who go out of office, so that every syndic continues two years in place.

None can be chosen director, unless he has been a syndic.

At the meetings, the syndics of noble extraction have the precedence of the others.

In case they who are summoned to vote at the elections be chosen themselves, they are obliged to accept the office, unless they have a lawful excuse.

The chamber meets in the town-house or Guildhall of the city every Thursday, from ten in the forenoon till twelve.

For the election of a deputy to the royal council of commerce are summoned, besides the director and syndic, twenty eminent citizens.

The mercantile contracts, made upon the exchange, cannot be of force till approved by this chamber.

The charges of the secretary's salary, and for fire, candles, postage, &c. wherein are comprized the distribution of two silver medals, made every assembly-day to the director and syndics, and that of a gold medal of the value of 60 livres to the director and syndics, and to the deputies, when they go out of office, are settled at 2000 livres per ann.

The deputy's salary is left to the king's pleasure, and the sum appointed to him, as well as the above-mentioned 2000 livres, are charged upon the stock and income of the city.

Lastly, the director and syndics, as long as they are in office, enjoy the same exemption of duties, as the magistrates and other members of the government, with regard to the provisions they spend in their families*.

* Is not this very encouraging to these gentlemen duly to attend the public service of trade, in those useful capacities?

REMARKS ON THOSE CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE IN FRANCE.

The institution of these chambers of commerce in France, for the benefit of trade, had been attended with all the success that could be wished for by that kingdom. And, indeed, the more minutely we shall trace this politic state, in the pursuit of her trading interests, the more, I am persuaded, must every man, of the least knowledge in public affairs, admire the wisdom of their councils, and be the less surprized at the progress of their commerce and navigation before the late DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

As no great designs take effect in kingdoms, without being first started and espoused by personages of superior abilities and zeal for their country's interest; so this was the case in regard to those commercial establishments, which may be gathered from the following memoirs:

Cardinal Richlieu's advice to Lewis XIII. in relation to naval power and trade.

'A great state must never resent an injury, without being able to revenge it; and therefore England being situated as it is, unless France is powerful in ships, the English may attempt whatever they please to our prejudice, without the least fear of a return. They might hinder our fishing, disturb our trade, and, in blocking up the mouths of our rivers, exact what toll they please from our merchants. They might land without danger in our islands, and even on our coasts. Finally, the situation of the native country of that haughty nation not permitting them to fear the greatest land forces, the ancient envy they have against this kingdom, would apparently encourage them to dare every thing, should our weakness not allow us to attempt something to their prejudice.—Nature seems to have offered the empire of the sea to France, by the advantageous situation of her two coasts, equally provided with excellent havens, on the ocean, and on the Mediterranean. Britany alone contains the finest in the ocean; and Provence, which has but 160 miles extent, has many larger and safer than Spain and Italy together, &c.—It is a common, but a very true saying, that, as states are often enlarged by war, so they are commonly enriched in time of peace by trade. The wealth of the Hollanders, which, properly speaking, are only a handful of men, reduced into a corner of the earth, in which there is nothing but waters and meadows, is an example and proof of the usefulness of trade, which admits of no contestation. Though that country produces nothing but butter and cheese, yet they furnish all the nations of Europe with the greatest part of what is necessary to them. Navigation has made them so famous, and so powerful throughout the whole world, that after having made themselves masters of the trade of the East-Indies, to the prejudice of the Portuguese, who had been long settled there, they have cut out a great deal of work for the Spaniards in the West-Indies. In England, the greatest part of those, whose circumstances are the least easy, maintain themselves by common fisheries; and the most considerable drive a greater trade in all the parts of the world, by the manufactures of their cloth, and by the sale of lead, tin, and sea coal, which are productions of

their country. The kingdom of China, the entrance into which is allowed to nobody, is the only country in which that nation has no place settled for their trade.

'Trade will be the easier for us, in that we have a great number of seamen, who hitherto have been obliged to seek out employment among our enemies, having none at home, and we have made no other use of them hitherto, but to get salt-fish and herrings. But having wherewith to employ our mariners, instead of being constrained to strengthen our enemies, by weakening ourselves, we shall be able to carry into Spain, and other countries, that which they have hitherto brought to us, by the assistance of our men who serve them, &c.—Thus far the cardinal: and the following preambles will demonstrate the force of this mighty genius, since France has benefited by his foresight and counsels, all that he himself did so prophetically wish, where he says to his prince, 'If my spirit, which will appear in these memoirs, can, after my death, contribute any thing towards the regulation of this great state, in the management of which your majesty has been pleased to give me a greater share than I deserve, I shall think myself infinitely happy.'

Translation of the preamble of an edict of Lewis XIV. given at St Germain en Laye, in the month of March 1673, concerning commerce.

'Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all present and to come, health. As trade is the spring and fountain of the public abundance, and of the plenty of particular persons, it has been our care, for many years, to render it flourishing in our kingdom: having, for that effect, established several companies amongst our subjects, by whose means they are provided with the commodities of the remotest countries, which formerly they only received by the intromission of foreign nations; and having also caused a great number of ships to be built and armed for the advancement of commerce and navigation, and employed the force of our arms both by land and sea, to maintain its freedom: these things having in every respect the success we expected, we have thought ourself obliged to provide for their continuance, by necessary regulations, &c. For these causes, &c. we have said, declared, and ordained, &c.'

An arret of the king's council of state, for establishing a council of commerce, June 29, 1700; from the registers of the council of state.

'The king having at all times been sensible of what importance it was to the welfare of the state to favour and protect the commerce of his people, as well within the kingdom as out of it, his majesty has, on divers occasions, issued several edicts, ordinances, declarations, and arrets, and made many useful regulations upon that subject: but the wars which have intervened, and the multitude of indispensable cares which took up his majesty's thoughts, till the conclusion of the last peace, not allowing him to continue the same application thereto; and his majesty being more disposed than ever to grant a particular protection to commerce, to shew his esteem of the good merchants and traders of his kingdom, and to facilitate to them the means of making commerce flourish, and extending it: his majesty judges, that nothing can be more capable of producing this effect, than the forming a council of commerce, which shall be wholly attentive to the examining and promoting whatever may be most advantageous to commerce, and to the manufactures of the kingdom. Which his majesty being desirous to settle, the report of M. Chamillart, counsellor in ordinary of the royal council, comptroller-general of the finances, being heard; the king, being in his council, has ordained, and ordains, that, for the future, a council of commerce shall be held, at least once every week; which shall be composed of M. Dagueffeau, counsellor in ordinary of state, and of the royal council of the finances; of M. Chamillart, counsellor of the said royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances; of the count de Pontchartrain, counsellor to the king in all his councils, secretary of state, and of his majesty's orders; of M. Amelot, counsellor of state; of M. d'Hernothon and Bauyn d'Angervilliers, counsellors to his majesty in his councils, masters of requests in ordinary of his household; and of twelve of the principal trading merchants of the kingdom, or such who shall have been a long time engaged in commerce: that, of this number of trading merchants, two shall always be of the town of Paris, and that each of the other ten shall be taken from the towns of Rouen, Bourdeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Rochelle, Nantes, St Malo, Lisle, Bayonne, and Dunkirk. That in the said council of commerce shall be discussed, and examined, all the propositions and memorials which shall be sent to it: together with the affairs and difficulties which may arise concerning commerce, as well by land as by sea, within the kingdom and out of it, and concerning works and manufactures; to the end that, upon the report which shall be made to his majesty, of the resolutions which shall have been taken thereupon in the said council

‘ council of commerce, his majesty may order what shall be most advisable. His majesty’s will and intention is, that the choice and nomination of the said trading merchants, who are to be of the said council of commerce, shall be made freely, and without clandestine caballing, by the corporation-magistrates of the town, and by the trading merchants in each of the said towns. That those who shall be chosen to be of the said council of commerce, be men of known probity, and of capacity and experience in matters of commerce; and that for this purpose the town-magistrates, and the trading merchants, of the towns abovementioned, shall assemble in the month of July next, in each respective town-house, to proceed to the said election: so that the trading merchants, thus elected and named, may be able to arrive at Paris, or where the court shall reside, by the end of September following, to begin their functions the first day of October. That the said elections shall be for one year only, and shall be renewed yearly, in the manner above mentioned; with a proviso, that the time of service in the said council may be prolonged, if it shall be judged proper so to do. His majesty ordains, that the forenamed comptroller-general of the finances shall nominate two persons interested in his majesty’s farms, to be called to the said council, when the nature of affairs shall require. And, for secretary of the said council of commerce, his majesty has nominated M. Crau de la Boulaye, counsellor to the king, corrector in ordinary in the chamber of accounts; who shall take care to keep an exact register of all the propositions, memorials, and affairs, which shall be brought before the said council; as also of the resolutions which shall be taken therein; copies whereof he shall deliver, according as he shall be ordered by the said council. Done in the king’s council of state, his majesty present, at Versailles, the 29th day of June, 1700. Signed Philypeaux; and sealed.’

Translation of the preamble of an edict of the present king of France, dated at Fontainebleau in the month of October, 1727.

‘ Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all present and to come, greeting. The care which the late king, our most honoured lord and great-grandfather, took for the increase of our islands and colonies, the pains we ourself have taken, after his example, since our accession to the crown, the expences already incurred, and those which we are at annually for those islands and colonies, with a view to maintain and secure the said islands and colonies, and to increase the navigation and commerce of our subjects, have had all the success we could expect from them; inasmuch that our islands and colonies, which are considerably increased, are capable of supporting a considerable navigation and commerce, by the consumption and sale of the negroes, goods, and merchandize, which are brought to them by the ships of our subjects, and by the cargoes of sugars, cocoa’s, cottons, indigoes, and other products of the said islands and colonies, which they there take in exchange, in order to import the same into the harbours of our kingdom, &c. For these causes, &c.’

Further REMARKS.

It would exceed the bounds of the article I am upon, to give the reader any just idea of the measures taken, from time to time, by the deputies of the council of trade in France, and of their judicious memorials, occasionally presented to the royal council. Nor would they appear in their proper light, by being given in a mere historical way, in a collective view only, without taking into consideration, at the same time, such essential circumstances as tend fully to display and illustrate their utility and importance. Wherefore, we shall reserve those transactions for their proper heads, in order to give them their due weight, consistent with our narrative of facts recorded throughout this work.

I cannot, however, but take notice of an anecdote that has lately come to my knowledge, in regard to the proceedings of this useful body in France.—A gentleman of known character and honour, and who many years enjoyed a post of considerable trust and profit under the crown, thought it might be of some service to the interests of the trade of this nation, to make some of the proceedings of the council of commerce in France public in the English language; and, accordingly, he translated them with that intent, and presented them to some of the principal people then in the administration, judging that they might be as acceptable to them in particular, as he intended them to be to the public in general.—But, to his great surprize, was told, that they must by no means be made public; and, therefore, they were suppressed for above 20 years, and but a small part of them has ever yet been made public, before the whole were incorporated through this dictionary.—Is it not extraordinary that any thing which might have a tendency to the interests of our traffic should be stifled?—The application of the ministers of France, from Richlieu to the present day, to the care of trade, is not only unquestionably glaring and manifest, but the good effects of their regu-

lations abundantly confirm it to the whole world. ‘ The surprizing success of the French in navigation (to which, in our fathers days, they were almost absolute strangers) is principally owing, says a judicious writer, to the excellent laws and ordonnances which have of late years been established in that kingdom, for the regulation of all maritime affairs; in which their summary and easy method of proceeding has been found to be very beneficial to all that have had occasion to be concerned in it. For, the government finding that the only means to have a powerful navy, was to encourage trade and navigation amongst private persons, nothing was omitted that could in any manner tend to the advancement of commerce.—And, indeed, if we consider the prodigious increase of the naval strength of France, we must acknowledge that they have been extremely industrious in promoting trade: and, if we examine the means they have used, we shall find them to be such as seldom, if ever, missed of the desired success, because particular care is taken to remove all manner of impediments that might obstruct the progress and improvement of navigation*.—I hope no man of sense will take amiss what I here say to the advantage of the laws and constitutions of France, as if I thereby seemed to have less respect than I ought to have for those of England: though the French are enemies to us, we should not be so much enemies to ourselves as to reject the use of good laws, merely because they are in force amongst them, or have been devised by them. Whatever our practice may be, I can assure you, that they are never the less taken with good laws, for being enacted in bad governments: for, on the contrary, they have, in the matter of trade, consulted all the laws and statutes in force in any place of Europe; of which, retrenching what was superfluous or inconvenient, and supplying what was deficient with proper regulations for every subject, they have certainly compiled the most complete system of laws for trade and navigation that ever Europe saw. Nor would it, in the least, be any dishonour to us to follow their example, in things so worthy of imitation, since the world acknowledges the reasonableness of that useful maxim,

‘ Fas est & ab hoste doceri.’——

* They take care that their laws and ordonnances are as well executed as wisely adapted.

The establishment of the lords commissioners of Trade and Plantations, in this kingdom, is certainly a noble institution, and such, perhaps, from whence the chambers of commerce in France, as well as that of the royal council, for the regulation of trade, might probably have been derived. It hath, however, with all humble submission, been greatly lamented, by many hearty friends to the interest of our trade, that we have not some other kinds of establishment for the same laudable purposes to act in subordination to the BOARD OF TRADE, by laying, from time to time, before their lordships, during the recess of parliament, what may be requisite for the consideration of the legislature annually, relative to concerns of trade and navigation.

For the better encouraging of the trade of this kingdom, says the ingenious Mr Cary, late merchant of Bristol, in his Discourse on Trade, addressed to the Speaker, and to the honourable the House of Commons, I think it well worthy the thoughts of a parliament, whether a standing committee, made up of men well versed therein, should not be appointed; whose sole business it should be to consider the state thereof, and to find out ways to improve it; to see how the trades we drive with foreign kingdoms grow more or less profitable to us; how, and by what means, we are out-done by others in the trades we drive, or hindered from enlarging them; what is necessary to be prohibited, both in our exports and imports, and for how long time; to hear complaints from our factories abroad, and to correspond with our ministers there, in affairs relating to our trade, and to represent all things rightly to the government, with their advice what courses are proper to be taken for its encouragement; and generally to study by what means and methods the trade of this kingdom may be improved, both abroad and at home.

If this was well settled, the good effects thereof would soon be seen; but then great care must be taken, that these places be not filled up with such who know nothing of the business, and thereby this excellent institution become only a matter of FORM AND EXPENCE.

In the management of things of much less moment, we employ such who are supposed to understand what they undertake, and believe they cannot be carried on without them; whilst the general trade of the nation (which is the support of our all) lies neglected, as if the cogs that direct its wheels did not need skill to keep them true: TRADE REQUIRES AS MUCH POLICY AS MATTERS OF STATE, and can never be kept in a regular motion by accident; when the frame of our trade is out of order, we know not where to begin to mend it, for want of a set of experienced builders, ready to receive applications, and able to judge where the defect lies.

‘ Such

Such a committee, as this, will soon appear to be of great use and service, both to the parliament in framing laws relating to trade, and also the government, in the treaties of commerce they may make with foreign nations.

As to the first, it has sometimes been thought, that, when that great and glorious assembly, the parliament of Great-Britain, hath meddled with trade, they have left it worse than they found it; and the reason is, because the laws relating to trade require more time to look into their distant consequences than a session will admit; whereof we have had many instances.

To begin with the French trade; in the 22d Car. II. a new impost was laid on wines, viz. 8l. per ton on the French, and 12l. per ton on the Spanish and Portuguese: this difference (with the low subsidies put on their linnens by former acts, in respect to those of other places) was a great means of bringing the ballance of that trade so much against us, that the parliament, in the 7th and 8th of Will. III. thought fit to make an act, which, in effect, prohibited all trade with that nation for 21 years, by laying a great duty on the importations thence, in order to prevent a correspondence, 'till the trade should be better regulated.

In the 14th Car. II. logwood was permitted, by act of parliament, to be imported, paying 5l. per ton duty: the same act repeals two statutes of queen Elizabeth, against importing and using it in dyeing here, and sets forth the ingenuity of our dyers, in finding out ways to fix the colours made with it; and yet, at the same time, gave a drawback of 3l. 15s. per ton on all that should be exported: whereby foreigners use it so much cheaper in their manufactures than ours can here; which proceeded from a too hasty making that law, and being advised, or rather abused, by those who regarded more their own interest than that of the nation.

By an act made 1 Jac. II. an impost of 2s. 4d. per cent. was laid on muscovado sugars imported from the plantations, to be drawn back at exportation. The traders to the plantations stirred in this matter, and set forth, That such a duty would discourage the refining them here, by hindering the exportation of refined sugars, which was then considerable, and carry that manufacture to Holland and Flanders; but the commissioners of the customs prevailed against them, and the bill passed: the fatal consequences whereof soon appeared; for the exporters of muscovado sugars drawing back 2s. 4d. per cent. by that act, and 9d. per cent. by the act of tunnage and poundage, foreign markets were supplied with refined sugars from other places, cheaper, by about 12 per cent. than we could furnish them hence; by which means we were beat out of that trade: and, though the duty of 2s. 4d. per cent. was not continued, on the expiration of that act, by the parliament 2d Will. and Mar. as they did the 3d. per pound on Tobacco, the bad effects thereof being then apparent, yet it is difficult to retrieve a lost trade, trading nations being like expert generals, who make advantages of the mistakes of each other, and take care to hold what they get.

By a statute 4th and 5th Will. and Mar. 20s. per ton was laid on lapis calaminaris dug here and exported, on an information given to the house of commons, that it was not to be had any where else; the merchants, concerned in exporting that commodity, made application, and set forth, That such a duty would bring in nothing to the crown, but be a total bar to it's exportation; yet the act passed, and we were like to have made a fatal experiment; for, 'till the statute of the 7th and 8th of the same king, which reduced the duty to 2s. per ton, the exportation ceased; and, in the mean time, those places which had been discouraged from digging and calcining it, because we understood them, set again to work, and supplied the markets where we vend our.

What injury was done by the act made in the 9th and 10th Will. III. for the more effectual preventing the importation of foreign bone-lace, &c. doth sufficiently appear by the preamble of that made in the 11th and 12th of the same reign, for repealing it, three months after the prohibition of our woollen manufactures in Flanders (which was occasioned by it) should be there taken off.

I mention these things with great submission to the judgment of that glorious assembly, the wisdom and strength of the nation; and to whom I only presume, with all humility, to offer my thoughts, that it would very much tend to the putting matters of trade into a true light before them, if they were first referred to a body of men, well versed in the true principles thereof, and able to see through the sophistical arguments of contending parties, to be by them considered, and well digested, before they received the sanction of a law.

And, as to foreign treaties, I do not think our trade hath been so much bettered by them as it might have been, for want of such a committee; the representations made by private merchants (who generally differ according as their interests clash with each other) tending rather to distract, than to inform the government; which would not be, if their first applications were made to an experienced com-

mittee, who had judgment enough to subtract out of them what was proper to be offered; by which means, our demands might be rendered short and comprehensive.' See the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, MARINE LAWS, ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICAL ARTS.

CHAMBER of Assurance, or Insurance, is a society, or assembly, of several persons, merchants, traders, bankers, and others, to carry on the business of insuring. See ASSURANCE. Policies and contracts of assurance, or bottomry, had been many years used in France, and long experience had sufficiently proved how useful they were to trade and navigation, and especially to such as undertake long voyages; since, by paying a small sum of money for insuring their ships and goods, they prevented great losses, and even sometimes their intire ruin: yet, before the year 1668, this business of insuring was not carried on but in the maritime towns of France, and it was then judged most advantageous to settle it in the capital. There were indeed, before that time, some meetings of assemblies of insurance: but, as they were held only by private persons, and were not authorized by the king's letters patents, they had but little credit, and their policies were neither many, nor for considerable sums.

It was, therefore, by a decree of the council of state, dated the 5th of June the same year 1668, that Lewis XIV. then reigning, granted leave to the merchants, traders, insurers, and insured, and other persons of the city of Paris, properly qualified, who, for some time passed, had begun to meet for transacting the business of insurance and bottomry, to continue their meetings, and even to set up an office, which was to be filed the office of insurance: over the door of which should be put the following inscription: The chamber, or office, of insurances and bottomries, established by the king; and, on the 16th of the same month, the lieutenant-general of the police ordered, by a sentence, that the said decree of the council should be registered in the rolls of that court.

This chamber was not brought at once to a degree of perfection; but, in 1671, the partners, or associates, to the number of above 60, of the richest merchants, bankers, traders, and citizens of Paris who had a great credit in trade, made in their general assembly, held the 4th of December, a regulation, which was authorized by a decree of the council, given the 10th of the same month, and registered in the rolls of the police by a sentence of Mons. de la Reynie, lieutenant-general of the said police, the 16th of the same month of December.

This regulation contains, in 23 articles, the whole government, or administration, of the Chamber of Assurance.

The four first articles related to the establishing of the general and particular offices; the last of which is styled the chamber of council.

The fifth settles to the number of five the particular commissaries, or judges, for the affairs referred to it by the general office, in which number are included the judges, who report the cases in a summary way; and to nine for affairs a little more considerable; all which judges, however, are to be named by the president, and consented to by the parties concerned.

The sixth orders the general assemblies to be held on two Fridays in the month, every fortnight; and the eleventh treats of the particular assemblies which are to meet on the other Fridays.

By the seventh it is ordered, that a catalogue shall be made of the insurers and insured, with their names and dwelling-places, to be put in the hall of the chief office.

The eighth settles the distribution of silver medals, to be given to 30 of the most ancient, who shall be present at the general assemblies, at the rate of four to each, there being no distribution to be made in the particular assemblies, according to the exception set down in the eleventh article.

The ninth and tenth appoint the president, and treat of the meetings of the insurers and insured.

The 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 18th, and 21st regulate the functions of the register; the manner of keeping the books; the order to be observed in drawing up and closing the policies; the carefulness, diligence, and disinterestedness, with which the register ought to deliver the deeds and extracts of the chamber; his correspondences with the sea-port towns, and his own, his cashier's, or under-cashier's assiduous attendance at the office.

The 17th orders the judges appointed by the chamber to conform their sentences not only to the conditions set down and determined in the policies, but also to follow in every thing the ordonnances, regulations, ways and customs, of the sea.

The 20th declares by whom the oath is to be administered, when required.

The 22d contains regulations concerning the prayers and masses to be said for the insurers and insured after their death.

Lastly, by the 23d, the chamber appoints a register, and resolves that his majesty shall be humbly petitioned to order, the authorizing of this regulation, by a decree of the superior council.

The chamber added afterwards several other articles to these regulations, and explained and amended some others: and all those regulations, wherein the public was concerned, were authorized by decrees of the council.

There is a decree of the 13th of September, 1672, for leaving the insured at liberty to chuse their debtor; it orders, also, that the policies be distributed among the insurers with prudence and honesty.

Another decree of the 26th of August, 1673, forbids the insurers and insured to carry the disputes arising among them, on account of policies of insurance and bottomry, before the ordinary courts of justice; but obliges them to chuse arbitrators, among those who compose the chamber, to be their judges.

There is a third edict, of the 11th of January 1675, relating to the insurances made on a friend's account, and for finding out, when required, the true names of the persons for whom any thing was insured.

Things continued in that condition 'till the year 1683, when the chamber judging, by the few policies they made out, that it was proper to establish the company upon another footing, devised several projects for setting up another society, upon the same foundation of the former. But there passed three years before this society was quite formed, when it was established by virtue of an edict of the king, given in the month of May, 1686, and registered that same year in parliament, the 30th of the same month; by which edict was erected and regulated a general company for insurances and bottomries in the city of Paris.

That edict of creation contains, in 29 articles, the conditions under which the king was pleased to establish this new company. The chief of these articles are, the second, which settles the number of associates, or partners, at 30 only; the fourth, which orders that the company shall have a capital fund, or stock, of 300,000 livres, divided into 75 actions, or shares, of 4000 livres each, and regulates the time during which the company is to continue at six years; the tenth, which orders that the policies of insurance shall contain a clause, by which the parties concerned submit themselves to an arbitration, in case of any dispute. The 14th mentions the appeals from the sentences of the arbitrators, and orders that they shall be finally determined by a counsellor of state, the lieutenant-general of the police, and the provost of the merchants. The 18th declares, that they who shall enter into the partnership and commerce of insurance, shall not be degraded from their nobility. The 22d establishes and settles the fees of the register. The 25th forbids all persons, but such as are members of the company, to carry on any commerce of insurance and bottomry in the city of Paris. The 27th leaves the merchants traders, and other private persons of the cities of Roan, Nantes, St Malo, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Marseilles, &c. at liberty to continue the business of insuring, but only upon the same footing as it was before the date of the edict. Lastly, the 28th gives the partners leave to draw up amongst themselves such articles and rules as they shall think proper for the management of the affairs of their partnership, on condition, nevertheless, to get them authorized by a decree of the council.

In consequence of the last mentioned article, the partners made a contract among themselves, on the 20th of May, which contains the terms and regulations under which they enter into partnership; these are set forth in 43 articles, the most important of which are as follow:

By the first, the company settles the number of the partners at 30, and it's duration at six years.

The second establishes the stock of 300,000 livres, ordered by the edict.

The sixth and twelfth regulate the election of five directors, their power and meetings.

In the 13th it is agreed that the general assemblies shall be held on Tuesdays every week; and, in the 14th, that the directors shall meet every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

The 16th treats of the books to be kept, of which there are to be seven.

In the 24th they speak of arbitrations.

In the 28th mention is made of the general account of the ships, on which the company shall have lent money, or made insurances, which is to be drawn up every year in December.

The 29th treats of the dividend of 10 per cent. to the profit of the partners, which is to be paid every year, on the 5th of January.

The 30th, 31st, 32d, and 33d articles explain the value and quality of the actions, or shares.

The 34th, 35th, 36th, and 38th treat of the cash and the cahier.

Lastly, by the 44th the company retains the liberty of making, for the future, new resolutions and by-laws, as occasion shall require, and to get them authorized.

This first regulation, having the force of a contract, was approved, and the execution of it ordered by a decree of the council, given the 6th of June, 1686. See the article ASSURANCE.

CHAMPAGNE, a province in France, is bounded on the north by Hainault and Luxemburg; on the east by Lorrain

and Franche Comté; on the south by Burgundy; and, on the west, by the Ile of France, and by Soissonnois. It lies between the 47th degree and 30 minutes of latitude, and the 50th degree and 10 minutes; and from the 3d degree of longitude east of London to the 6th. It's form is like that of the section of a pyramid, the basis of which lies towards Burgundy, and is about 40 leagues long: it's point, situate towards the Low countries, is 15 leagues; and it's height, from the borders of Burgundy to the Netherlands, about 45 leagues. It is watered by the Seine, the Marne, the Aisne, the Aubre, the Vesle, and several others of less note. The Meuse, or Maes, has it's spring in this province; but it soon runs into the duchy of Bar, which it crosses from north to south, and returns into this province, and passes by Sedan and Charleville; whence it runs through the county of Namur, bishopric of Liege, and duchy of Guelderland, into Holland, where it falls into the sea near the Briel.

The air here is extremely wholesome, the soil dry and chalky; so that it produces but little wheat, much rye, and chiefly an excellent sort of light wine, the most delicate in all France, well known under the name of Champagne. There are here very good pastures, and the country contains very large plains. It is bordered in many places with noble forests and mountains, affording not only great variety of game, but mines of iron and metals, of divers kinds. The chief trade of the inhabitants consists in corn, wine, and iron, which is transported to other parts of the kingdom by means of their rivers, several of which are navigable.

CHAMPAGNE Proper contains,

1. TROYES, the capital city of the province, situate on the Seine, 20 leagues distant from Paris to the south-east, 23 from Rheims to the south, 20 from Dijon to the north-west, and 10 from Sens to the east. It is an ancient city, and one of the most considerable for it's manufactures, which consist in linnen cloths, fustians, dimities, ferges, druggets, tanning of leather, bleaching of wax, &c. Their trade formerly was so considerable, that several foreign princes would accept of no other securities for the sums they were to be paid by the French kings, but those of the merchants of Troyes*: but the trade hereof, in regard to their manufactures, being removed to other parts of France, that city is not near so splendid as heretofore, which is frequently the case of many cities and trading towns in other nations, as well as France.

* Does not this shew the dignity and importance of merchants to a trading nation? See the article COMMERCE.

2. CHAALONS, or CHAALOONS SUR MARNE, is another city of trade, pleasantly situated, in an agreeable plain, on the river Marne, about 17 leagues distant from Troyes to the north, and 28 from Paris to the east. There are two small rivers, or brooks, which run through this city, and fall into the Marne, a little beyond it. It is divided into three parts, viz. the city itself, the island formed in it by the river Marne, and the borough.

They have a pretty good trade here for oats, which they send to Paris. Formerly they sold very considerable quantities of wine; but that branch of trade is now removed to Rheims. Some years ago they set up a manufactory of shalloons, and other thin woollen stuffs, which sell very well, both within the kingdom and in foreign parts.

3. AY, is also situate on the river Marne, and remarkable only for the excellent wine produced in it's neighbourhood, and which is greatly esteemed, both in France and in other countries.

4. RHEIMS, or REIMS, situate in the middle of a plain, where the river Vesle washes part of it's walls, which are extended in compass about an hour's journey. It is distant 25 leagues from Paris to the north-east, ten from Soissons to the east, 22 from Troyes to the north, and 8 from Chaalons to the north-west.

The chief trade here is that of wine, and of several thin woollen stuffs, or mixed with silk, manufactured in this city.

RETHELOIS, or MAZARINY, lies near the borders of Luxemburg, and the country of Liege, in the northern part of Champagne. Part of this country is covered with woods, where there are a great many forges, for the manufacture of iron; the rest abounds in pastures, and is watered by various rivers, the most considerable whereof is the Aisne.

RETHEL, or RETEL, the capital of Retheois, lies on the river Aisne, 7 leagues distant from Rheims to the north, 9 from Rocroy to the south, and the same from Sedan to the south-west. They make here the same sorts of stuffs as at Rheims, but they are not reckoned of so good a quality.

SEDAN, stands on the east side of the river Meuse, near the borders of Luxemburg, 9 miles distant from Rethel to the north-east, and 5 from Charleville to the east. It is one of the keys of the kingdom, and, consequently, of the utmost importance.

They make here a great quantity of woollen cloths, which are as much esteemed as those of Holland, and of which they have a considerable traffic; they also make ferges and thread laces: but these manufactures are not so considerable as be-

fore the most cruel and perfidious persecution * of the protestants, and the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

* Ought not these wicked religious principles to give the true friends of liberty, the Protestants of this kingdom, as well as those of all others, the highest detestation of a French government, who will sacrifice not only the liberty, but even the trade of their subjects, for the Church's sake? which shews that this neighbouring nation only encourages trade to enrich the subjects for a time, that they may possess the more to be fleeced of, when it is the will and pleasure of their grand _____.

PERTHOIS, or PERTOIS, is situated along the banks of the river Marne, between Campagne Proper and the duchy of Bar. Its chief cities are,

1. **VITRI-LE-FRANÇOIS**, situate on the river Marne, 7 leagues above Chaalons. This city stands on a plain; it is very populous, and has a considerable trade, chiefly in corn, which renders it very opulent. It is the seat of a bailiwick, a prebendal court, and a granary for salt. The Marne, which here begins to be navigable, is of great advantage to the inhabitants, to transport their corn to Paris.
2. **ST DIZIER, or DISIDERIPOLIS**, is situated in a plain, on the river Marne, 6 leagues from Vitri-le-François to the east. Besides the Marne, this city is watered by another rivulet, which springs about two leagues higher, towards Bar-le-duc. On the south and north of this place there are large forests, which afford timber for all vessels on the Marne, which are built at St Dizier, in the neighbourhood of which there are also a great many forges for the iron manufacture; all which afford a pretty good trade to this city. There is also here a granary for salt.

There are some other small towns and cities in this province, which would be tediously disagreeable to enumerate, since they carry on little trade to be taken notice of.

CHARTER-PARTY, an instrument or writing drawn between merchants and masters of ships, or between the owners and merchants, containing the several articles or particulars of their agreement, in regard to freight, and the carriage of merchandizes by sea.

See the form of a charter-party of affreightment, at the end of this article.

A charter-party is made in consequence of the affreightment of a ship, and the freight is the money agreed to be paid for the carriage of merchandizes by sea.

Ships are freighted either by the ton, or by the great; and, in respect to time, the freight is contracted for at so much per month, or at a sum certain for the whole voyage. If a ship freighted by the great shall be cast away, the freight is lost; but, if a merchant agrees by the ton, or at so much for every piece of goods, and by any accident the ship is cast away, if part of the goods are saved, some are of opinion, that she ought to be answered her freight pro rata: and, when a ship is insured, and such a misfortune happens, the insured commonly transfer these goods over to the assurers, towards a satisfaction of what they make good, by virtue of their subscriptions.

If a ship is freighted after the rate of 20 l. per month, that she shall be out, to be paid after arrival in the port of London; and the ship is cast away coming from the Downs, but the lading is all preserved, the freight, in this case, shall be paid: for the money becomes due monthly by the contract, and the place mentioned is only to ascertain where the same is to be paid; the ship is intitled to wages, like unto a labourer or mariner that serves by the month, who, if he dies in the voyage, his executors are to be answered pro rata. Besides, the freight is due by intendment of law, on the bringing up of the commodities to the port of London, and their delivery there, and not of the ship. Mol. Jur. Maritim. 224, 225.

A contract is made between a merchant and a master of a ship, that, if he carries the merchant's goods to such a port, he will then pay him so much money for freight: in making the voyage the ship is robbed by pirates, and part of her lading lost, and afterwards the remainder is brought to the port of discharge: here the sum agreed on for freight is not due, the agreement not being performed on the part of the master, and this is a conditional contract. But it is otherwise by the civil law; for, thereby, the same is a danger of the seas, which, if not expressed in naval agreements, yet is naturally implied, and there was no default in the master or his mariners: and had these goods, which the pirates carried away, been thrown overboard in stress of weather, it would not have worked a disability in the master to receive the sum agreed on; because, both by the common law, and the law marine, the act of God, or that of the enemy, shall not have an effect to work a wrong in actions private: but a pirate is esteemed an enemy in our law. 1 Brownl. 21. 1 Co. Rep. 97.

It was covenanted by charter-party, that a ship should return within the river of Thames by a certain time (danger of the seas excepted) and after in the voyage, within the time for the return, the ship was taken upon the sea by pirates, so that the master could not return to the river Thames at the

exact time mentioned in the agreement: here, in the case of Pickering and Berkley, it was resolved, that this impediment was within the exception; and the words, danger of the seas excepted, intend as well any danger upon the seas by pirates and men of war, as dangers of the seas by shipwreck, tempests, or the like. And in this case, before judgment was given, a certificate of merchants was read in court, by order of Roll justice, that the taking by pirates are amongst merchants accounted perils of the sea. Stiles's Rep. 132. 2 Roll. Abridg. 248.

If in case of a freight a time is fixed and agreed on between the merchant and a master of a ship, &c. for the commencement and finishing of the voyage; it may not be altered by the supercargo, without a special commission from the merchant: if it be agreed, that the master shall sail from London to any part abroad, in two months, and freight is accordingly agreed on, though the master doth not arrive at the port within the time, if he begins the voyage during the two months, the freight shall become due. So where an agreement is made for the ship to sail the first fair wind, or opportunity, and does not, yet afterwards breaks ground, and arrives at her port, the freight will be due; for departure intitles the master to the freight, and to say the ship did not depart with the next wind, is but a circumstance, which, in strictness of law, is not traversable: but, if a master shall weigh anchor, and proceed in his voyage, after a certain time agreed on for his departure, he is liable to make good all casualties at sea, and misfortunes whatsoever. Paich. 2. Car. I. Poph. 161.

In mutual covenants between a master of a ship and a merchant, wherein the master of the ship covenanted to sail with the first fair wind to Barcelona, and that the mariners should attend with a boat to relade the ship, and then he would return with the first fair wind to London, and there unload and deliver the goods; and the merchant covenanted to pay him so much for freight, and so much a day during his staying in port there for demurrage; and declared that he failed at such a time with the first fair wind, and so on according to the agreement: to this the merchant pleaded, as to the freight, that the ship did not return directly to London, but went to Alicant and Tangier, and made divers deviations, whereby the goods were spoiled; and, as to the demurrage, the same was occasioned by the negligence of the mariners, in not attending with the boat to relade the ship.—But the plea was held insufficient, and the plaintiff, the master of the ship, had judgment; for the covenants are mutual and reciprocal, upon which each hath his action against the other, and cannot plead the breach of one covenant in bar of another; and therefore the merchant, the defendant, ought by action to recover his damages sustained. 3 Lev. Rep. 41. Hill. 13 Car. II. If the freighter of a ship shall put on board prohibited or unlawful merchandizes, by which the ship is detained, or the voyage impeded, he shall answer the freight contracted for: and when a ship is out at sea, and taken by an enemy, if afterwards she be retaken by another ship in amity, and restitution is made, whereupon she proceeds in her voyage, the contract for freight is not determined; for, though the taking by the enemy divested the property out of the owners, yet by the laws of war that possession was defeasible, and, being recovered in battle afterwards, the owners became re-invested: so that the contract, by fiction of law, is of the same validity, as if the ship never had been taken; and the entire freight becomes due accordingly. Styles 220. 7 R. 2. Statham Abr. 54.

Where a ship is freighted out and in, no freight is due 'till the whole voyage is performed; so that, if the ship be cast away coming home, the freight outwards as well as inwards becomes lost: but if goods and merchandize are fully laden aboard, and the ship having broke ground, the merchant after that on consideration resolves not to adventure, but will unlade again; by the law marine the freight is deferred. If a ship in her voyage happens to become unable to perform it, without any fault in the master, or the master or ship be arrested by some foreign prince or state, the master may repair his ship to make her capable of the voyage, or may freight another ship: and, if the merchant will not agree to the same, then the freight will be due for so much as the ship hath earned, for otherwise the master is answerable for all damages that shall happen. And therefore, if the ship to which the goods are translated perish, the master must answer; but, if both the ships perish, then he is discharged: and if the ship be in a sinking condition, so that there is an extreme necessity, the goods may be put into any empty vessel passing by, which in all appearance seems sufficient; and, if that ship sinks or perishes, he is there excused. Leg. Oleron. and Rhod. Trin. 9 Jac. I. B. R. 1 Brownl.

If part of the lading be on shipboard, and, through some misfortune happening to the merchant, he has not his full lading aboard at the time agreed, the master is at liberty to contract with another, and shall have freight by way of damage for the time those goods were on board; for these agreements are in law upon a condition precedent, and any failure as to compleat lading will determine the same, unless afterwards affirmed by the master's consent: this is the highest justice, that

that the ship and master should be free in these cases; and that by the delay of the merchant, on shipping a small quantity of goods, the master may not lose the season of the year, or be defeated of the opportunity of passage. Moll. 218, 219. And, on the other hand, if the vessel is not ready, and part of the goods are on shipboard, the merchant may ship the remainder of his goods aboard another vessel, and discharge the first master; and may also recover damages against such master or the owners for the rest, which is grounded upon the like reason as the former: though, by the marine law, chance, or some other notorious necessity, will excuse the master; but then he loseth his freight till such time as he breaks ground, and until that time he sustains the loss of the ship. But, if the fault be in the merchant, he is to answer for the damage to the master and the ship; or, according to the Rhodian laws, shall be obliged to provide for the ship's crew ten days at his own charge; and, after that, shall pay the full freight: and, if there be any damage afterwards, the merchant must run the risk of that, and not the master or owners. By our common law, it seems to be otherwise; for, so long as the master hath the goods on shipboard, he is to see them forth-coming. Leg. Oleron. c. 21. Mich. 10 Car. I. 3 Cro. Rep. 383. 2 Cro.

Where a ship is not ready to take in, or the merchant not ready to lade aboard goods, the parties are at liberty; but nevertheless the person damnified on either side may bring an action against the other, to recompense and make satisfaction for the detriment sustained: it has been held, that, by the common law of England, the party thus damnified by action of the case shall recover damages on the agreement; and by the naval laws of Rhodes, if there be an agreement, and earnest given thereon, but no writing made, and the same is broke by the merchant, he loseth his earnest; and if it be broke by the owners of the ship, or the master, they forfeit double the earnest given. Leg. Rhod. art. 19.

If any ship or vessel is freighted from one port to another, and so to divers ports, on what is called a trading voyage, this is all but one voyage, if it be in conformity to the charter-party or agreement: and generally the touching at several ports by agreement imports not a diversity, but a voyage entire; but, if the ship otherwise puts into any other port than what she was freighted to, the master, by the laws of Oleron, shall answer damage to the merchant; unless he be forced in by storm, enemies, or pirates, and then he must sail to the port agreed at his own expence. And where a master freights out a ship, and afterwards privately takes in other goods, unknown to the first laders, he shall lose his freight; and if here it falls out, that any of the freighters goods for the safety of the ship shall be cast over-board, the rest of the merchandize shall not be subject to the average, but the master out of his own purse shall make good the same, Leg. Oleron, Leg. Naval. Rhod. c. 25. See AVERAGE.

Leakage occasioned by storm may in common cases come into an average: and if freight be taken for an hundred tons of wine, and twenty of them leak out, so that there is not above eight inches from the buge upwards, the freight notwithstanding becomes due; and one reason thereof is, because from that gauge the king can demand his customs; but if they be under eight inches, in the opinion of some, the freighters may chuse to resign them to the master for freight, and thereby be discharged: but most persons conceive otherwise, and hold, that if all the wine had leaked out, (if there was no fault in the master) there is no reason the ship should lose her freight; for the freight arises from the tonnage taken, and in some places abroad, particularly at Bourdeaux, the master is not allowed to stow the goods, but it is done by a particular officer appointed for that purpose. Hill. 26 & 27 Car. II. in B. R.

In case a ship shall be freighted for two hundred tons, or any other number of tons more or less, adding or thereabouts, this addition is commonly understood to be within five tons, the moiety of the number ten, whereof the whole number is compounded. If a charter-party is made, reciting the ship to be of the burthen of one hundred and fifty tons, and freight is agreed for at a sum certain, to be paid at her return; the sum agreed shall be paid, though the ship falls short of that burthen; and, if no burthen is expressed, the sum must be paid: but, if a ship freighted by the ton shall be found less than the burthen mentioned, there shall be no more paid than for the real tons. Lex. Mercat. Malines, 100. And the lading of a ship, in construction of law, is bound for the freight, which, in point of payment, shall be preferred before any other debts to which the goods so laden are liable, though such debts as to time were precedent to the freight; and the actions touching the same the law construes favourably for the ship and the owners. Where a merchant unadvisedly takes freight, and contracts with a mariner that is not a master of a ship, he has no remedy against the owners if a loss ensues: but the mariner may be subject to an action. 3 Keb. Rep. 444. 4 Inst. 146.

A master of a ship is not bound to answer freight to the owners for passengers, where it appears that they are not able to pay: and if freight be contracted for the transport-

ing of women, and they happen in the voyage to be delivered of children on shipboard, no freight becomes due for such children. If any passenger dies aboard, the master of the ship is obliged to inventory his effects; and, if none lays claim to them within a year, the master becomes proprietor of the goods, but defeasible. Moll; 221.

If freight be contracted for the lading of certain cattle from Dublin to West-Chester, and some of them die before the ship's arrival there, the whole freight shall be paid, as well for the dead as the living: so where slaves, &c. are sent aboard generally, and no agreement is made for lading or transporting them. But if a contract be for transporting slaves or cattle, or that the master shall have so much for every head or passenger, there arises due no more freight than only for such as are living at the ship's arrival at her port of discharge, and not for the dead. Ibid.

Freight is governed by the contract, when reduced into a writing, commonly called a charter-party, executed between the owners and merchant, or the master in behalf of himself and owners, or himself and the merchant, or between them all: in which the master or owners generally covenant to provide a pilot, and other officers and mariners, and all things necessary for the voyage, and for the taking in and delivering out of the lading: And the charter-party doth settle the agreement of the parties, and what is to be paid by the merchant for the freight, as the bills of lading do the contents of the cargo; [see BILLS of Lading] and binds the master to deliver the goods in good condition at the place of discharge; and, for performance, the master obliges himself, ship, tackle, and furniture, to see the same done and performed. Lex. Mercat. Malines, 99. The common law always construes charter-parties, as near as may be, according to the intention and design of them, and not according to the literal sense of traders, or those that merchandize by sea, but they must be regularly pleaded. And, if the master of a ship enters into a charter-party for himself and owners, the master in that case may release the freighters, without advising with the owners: though if the owners let out to freight such a ship whereof A. B. is master, and he only covenants at the bottom and subscribes his name, here his release will not bind or affect the owners of the ship, but their release on the other hand shall conclude the master; and the reason is, for that he is not a proper party to the indenture of charter-party. Trin. 29 Eliz. B. R. 2 Inst. 673.

If without agreeing for the freight, by charter-party, any goods are put on board, the master shall have freight according to custom; and if the goods shall be sent to the ship secretly, without the master's knowledge, the same may be subjected to what freight the master thinks fit. And as to the masters's answering for any goods and merchandize, when coffers, packs, or vessels, or other marked goods are delivered close packed or sealed, and afterwards shall be received open and loose, the master is to be charged for it, until on due trial he be acquitted thereof; also he must answer for the damage which rats do in a ship to any merchandize, for want of keeping a cat, as well as any other damage. Lex Mercat. Malines, 102.

And, concerning the marking of goods, both the common law and the civil law have great respect to it, in relation to the settling the property of the merchandize in the right owner; so that if one man shall use the mark of another, to the intent to do him damage, or bring him into any trouble, action of the case lies. 2 Cro. Rep. 471. But this relates more to home trade in general, and to ascertain the goodness of commodities, than to goods usually freighted to sea.

A Charter-party of affreightment is drawn in the following form:

This charter-party indented, made, concluded and agreed upon, this day of, &c. in the year of our Lord, &c. between A. B. of, &c. mariner, master, and owner, of the good ship or vessel called, &c. now riding at anchor at, &c. of the burthen of 200 tons, or thereabouts, of the one part, and C. D. of, &c. merchant of the other part, witnesseth, That the said A. B. for the considerations herein after-mentioned, hath granted and to freight let unto the said C. D. his executors, administrators, and assigns, the whole tonnage of the hold, stern-sheets, and half deck of the said ship or vessel called the, &c. from the port of London to, &c. in a voyage to be made with the said ship, in manner hereafter mentioned, (that is to say) to sail with the first fair wind and weather that shall happen after, &c. or before, &c. next, from the said port of London, with the goods and merchandize of the said C. D. his factors or assigns, on board to, &c. aforesaid (the dangers of the seas excepted) and there unlade and make discharge of the said goods and merchandizes, and deliver all the said goods in good condition, and as they were delivered to him; and also shall there remain with the said ship the space of 21 days, and take, into and aboard the same ship again, the goods and merchandizes of the said C. D. his factors or assigns, and shall then return to the port of London with the said goods, in the time, &c. limited for the end of the said voyage: In consideration whereof, the said C. D.

for

for himself, his executors and administrators, doth covenant, promise, and grant, to and with the said A. B. his executors, administrators, and assigns, by these presents, that he the said C. D. his executors, administrators, factors, or assigns, shall and will well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said A. B. his executors, administrators, or assigns, for the freight of the said ship and goods, the sum of, &c. (or after the rate of 4l. of, &c. the ton, for every ton of goods and merchandizes that shall be unladen, of and from the said ship, or at the rate of, &c. monthly, accounting the months as they shall fall out in the kalendar, for every month that the said ship shall be in performing the said voyage, and so in proportion for a shorter time than a month, to commence from, &c. and continue 'till the ship's return to, &c.) within 21 days after the said ship's arrival, and goods returned and discharged in good condition at the port of London aforesaid, for the end of the said voyage: and also shall and will pay for demurrage (if any shall be by the default of him the said C. D. his factors or assigns) the sum of, &c. per day, daily and every day, as the same shall grow due. And the said A. B. for himself, his executors and administrators, doth covenant, promise, and grant, to and with the said C. D. his executors, administrators, and assigns, by these presents, that the said ship or vessel shall be ready at the port of London, to take in goods by the said C. D. on or before, &c. next coming: and the said C. D. for himself, his executors, &c. doth covenant and promise, within ten days after the said ship or vessel shall be thus ready, to have his goods put on board the said ship, to proceed on the said voyage; and also on the arrival of the said ship at, &c. within ten days, to have his goods ready to put on board the said ship, to return on the said voyage. And the said A. B. for himself, his executors, and administrators, doth further covenant and agree, to and with the said C. D. his executors, administrators, and assigns, that the said ship or vessel now is, and, at all times during the said voyage, shall be, to the best endeavours of him the said A. B. his executors and administrators, and at his and their own proper costs and charges, in all things made and kept stiff, staunch, strong, well apparelled, furnished and provided, as well with men and mariners, sufficient and able to sail, guide, and govern the said ship, as with all manner of rigging, boats, tackle, furniture, provision and appurtenances, fitting and necessary for the said men and mariners, and for the said ship during the voyage aforesaid. And lastly, for the performance of all and singular the covenants, grants, articles, and agreements, herein contained, on the part and behalf of the said A. B. his executors or administrators, to be done and performed, the said A. B. binds himself, his executors and administrators, and especially the said ship, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, unto the said C. D. his executors, administrators, and assigns, in the penal sum of 1000l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, by these presents. In witness whereof the parties above-named have to this present charter-party interchangeably set their hands and seals, the day and year first above written. For more matter upon this head, see the articles FREIGHT, COMMANDERS of Ships, SHIPPING, MARINE AFFAIRS.

In regard to the peculiar forms of charter-parties, it must be observed, that they are various, like other legal written instruments, according to the conditions of the agreements made upon these occasions.

Some of the principal ordonnances of France, in regard to charter-parties, are as follow, viz.

I.

All articles for freighting of ships shall be reduced into writing, and agreed to by the merchants that freight, and the master or owners of the ships freighted.

II.

The master shall observe the orders of his owners, when he freights the ship at the place of their residence.

III.

The charter-party shall contain the name and burthen of the vessel, the names of the master and freighters, the place and time of the lading and unlading the freight, the time the vessel is to stay at the respective ports, and the convention about demurrage; to which the parties may add such other conditions as they please.

IV.

The time of the lading and unlading the goods shall be regulated according to the custom of the respective ports, except it be determined by the charter-party.

V.

If a ship be freighted by the month, and the times of the freight be not regulated by the charter-party, it shall only commence from the day that the ship shall sail.

VI.

He who, after having received a summons in writing to fulfil the contract, refuses it, or delays it, shall make good all the loss and damage.

VII.

But if before the departure of the ship there should happen an embargo, occasioned by war, reprisals, or otherwise, with

the country whither the ship is bound, the charter-party shall be dissolved without any damages or charges for either party, and the merchant shall pay the charges of lading and unlading his goods; but, if the difference be with one another, the charter-party shall be valid in all it's points.

VIII.

If the ports be only shut, and the vessels stopped by force for a time, the charter-party shall still be valid, and the master and merchant shall be reciprocally obliged to expect the opening of the ports and the liberty of the ship, without any pretensions for damages on either side.

IX.

However, the merchant may, at his own charge, unlade his goods during the embargo, or shutting up of the port, upon condition either to lade them again, or indemnify the master.

X.

The master shall be obliged, during the voyage, to have aboard the charter-party, and the other necessary deeds concerning his lading.

XI.

The ship, rigging, and tackle, and the freight of goods laded, shall be respectively, affected by the conventions of the charter-party.

CHEMISTRY, as defined by that great master thereof, Boerhaave, is an art which teaches the manner of performing certain physical operations, whereby bodies cognizable to the senses, or capable of being rendered cognizable, and of being contained in vessels, are so changed, by means of proper instruments, as to produce certain determined effects, and, at the same time, discover the causes thereof, for the service of various arts.

REMARKS.

This being a branch of business of great extent in itself, as well as beneficial to various arts and trades, it is necessary to be taken notice of in a work of this nature. We shall, therefore, treat the subject in a manner suitable to our general design. To which end, I shall not trouble the man of business with what he may find in other authors, if his curiosity should lead him further than I would presume to give him an idea of. Such people of business who have not had something of a taste for philosophic arts, which tend to promote general traffic and navigation, may think this a part of knowledge useless to them in their commercial province, and therefore despise it.

To disabuse and undeceive traders upon this occasion, we need only enter a little into the nature of chemistry, and it's important utility to a great variety of arts and trade will glaringly display itself.

The whole of chemistry may be comprehended under the art of resolving bodies into their principles*, and of constituting new compounds from those principles, by means of fire, air, water, earth, and particular menstruums: so that the one may properly enough be distinguished by analytical, the other by synthetical chemistry; the former reduces bodies to their component matters, the latter puts these component matters together again, in various manners, and thereby forms a large set of new productions, that would be absolutely undiscoverable in nature, without the interposition of this art. Such productions, for instance, are brandy, soap, glass, vitriol, &c.

* By principles the found practical chemist does not understand the original particles of matter, whereof all bodies are, by the mathematical and mechanical philosophers, supposed to consist. Those particles remain undiscernable to the sense, though assisted with the most finished instruments; nor have their figures and original differences been determined by a just induction. Leaving to other philosophers the disquisition of primary corpuscles, or atoms, whereof many bodies and worlds have been formed in the fancy, we shall only say, that genuine chemistry contents itself with grosser principles, which are evident to the sense, and known to produce effects in the way of corporeal instruments. These principles are sufficient to answer the end of practical chemistry, which consists in experiments, and the explanation of facts, and sensible objects. But, when once men leave the oracles of sense, and introduce metaphysical speculations into chemistry, it is then the art becomes a corrupt fountain of hypothesis and illusion, which ever has, and ever will, only distract, instead of justly instructing mankind in matters of solid use and advantage.

To become, therefore, the useful and judicious chemist, the rule is, to keep close to information of the senses, the laws of induction, and the use of material and sensible principles. —These sensible principles, as far as we know them, are expressed by the common words water, earth, salt, sulphur, and mercury.

Though these definitions may be inadequate, yet they afford significant marks, whereby they may be readily known and distinguished for ordinary use. Just definitions can only be drawn from a full and perfect discovery of the nature and properties of bodies, which does not seem to be in the power of man to know; nor do we meet with these principles in a pure and perfect state, unmixed with other bodies. When they appear to the senses to be thus far purified, they are the principles we mean, or what are emphatically called chemical principles, though they may be every one of them destructible in that form; but then they cease to be chemical principles.

To explain our meaning by experiments, so as to be understood by those who have never been conversant with these things, (for there is no mystery in them) people of the plainest sense are the best turned to understand plain truths, founded on the plain and unquestionable authority of their senses.

The experiments I have pitched on being the most familiar I could meet with, I shall make choice of them. The attentive reader will easily discern their application to other subjects.

E X P E R I M E N T I.

That vegetables are resolvable, by fire, into four of the chemical principles, viz. water, oil, salt, and earth.

Take two pounds of wormwood, cut small, and put it into a glass retort, in a small sand-heat; distil with degrees of fire, and a frequent change of receivers, and you will obtain (1.) an aqueous liquor; and (2.) an oil. Taking out the remainder, and burning, or calcining it, in the open air, it will turn to a grey kind of ashes; which, boiled in fair water, will, (3.) communicate a salt thereto. Let the solution stand at rest for some time; decant the clear liquor, and evaporate the superfluous water, and the salt will be obtained in a dry form; and (4.) there will remain, at the bottom of the water, an earthy substance, wherein the ashes were boiled.

This experiment, being duly attended to, is very instructive, and shews that the chemical principles, before-mentioned are not imaginary, or fictitious things, but things palpable, and evident to the senses: for we have here a water, an oil, a salt, and an earth, all afforded us by a vegetable subject.

This experiment may be made general, without much variation: for all the vegetable subjects, hitherto examined in this manner, resolve themselves into the same general principles; they differ only (1.) in respect of the kind of salt, which in some is more volatile, in others more fixed; in some acid*, in others alkaline†: and (2.) In the nature or particular properties of the oil; which, in some plants, is more thin and fluid, in others more gross and viscous, &c. But all the principles thus obtained agree to the general definitions above laid down. So that there appears to be no vegetable in nature but what is thus resolvable into water, oil, salt, and earth.

* By acids are meant all those things that taste sour; as vinegar, tartar, juice of crabs, lemons, &c. spirit of nitre, spirit of salt, &c. and which, when mixed with a due proportion of alkali, constitute a natural body, wherein neither acid nor alkali prevails; whence it alters not the colour of syrup of violets.

† Alkali, is a word of extensive signification, and chemically denotes a large tribe of bodies: for all bodies may be chemically considered under three tribes, or as being either alkalies, acids, or neutrals. Alkalies have this essential property, that, when mixed, or united with acids, they constitute neutrals. But a more common indication of an alkali is, that it turns syrup of violets green, as an acid turns it red; whilst the admixture of a neutral body does not alter the colour of that syrup. Thus pot-ash, salt of tartar, and all fixed vegetable salts, as likewise all volatile animal salts and spirits, are artificial alkalies; as chalk, the testaceous bodies, &c. are natural alkalies. Thus, in the vegetable kingdom, onions, leeks, garlic, mustard, &c. are alkaline; as sorrel, wood-sorrel, the juice of lemons, oranges, verjuice, &c. are acid. Their difference, also, is manifest from the taste, when the habit of thus distinguishing them is required.

To obtain these principles pure, we must (1.) Separate all the oil that may chance to remain suspended in the water. This is effected in a considerable degree by the filtre; which, being kept continually filling up, so as that the lighter oil may not come in contact with the paper, the aqueous part is thus transmitted tolerably free from oil. (2.) But still there may remain some small proportion of oily and saline matter therein. If the saline matter be acid, the way to destroy it is, by mixing a little chalk, or any pure and fixed alkaline salt, with the liquor; whereby, also, more of the oil will be set at liberty: so that, being now filtered again, and gently distilled with a soft heat, the aqueous part will rise much purer and pass for water in the judgment of the senses. (3.) If the plant were alkaline, and an alkaline salt abounds in the liquor, let it be made neutral with one that is acid; and thus, again, the water may be separated pure, by means of the filtre, and redistillation. This is the method of manifesting to the senses that the chemical principle water is naturally lodged in, and may be separated from, all vegetable substances.

In order to procure the sulphur or oily principle pure, and the unctuous matter obtained by this general process may be washed from its adhering salts, and grosser earth, in warm water, barely by shaking them in a glass together; then separating the oil from the water, by means of the common separating glass*, where, if the oil be specifically heavier than water, it sinks to the bottom, and may be suffered to run

out first; if specifically lighter, it floats at top, and may, by the finger applied to the bottom of the glass, or other contrivance, be kept behind, when all the water and feculent parts are run from it.

* Separating glass, is a bellied glass, open at top, and ending in a hollow stem below; so that a mixture of oil and water being poured into it, and suffered to rest till they separate, the water may be separated from the oil.

To obtain the saline principle pure; (1.) If it be of the volatile urinous kind, the matter may be dissolved in water, and made to pass the filtre, then set, in a gentle heat, to sublime; for it will thus rise, and leave the water behind, as being much more volatile than that. (2.) If it be required still purer, the best method hitherto known is, to sublime it from finely pulverized chalk; then to saturate it with a clean spirit of sea salt, so as to convert it into a true sal-ammoniac, which being mixed with salt of tartar, and now again set to sublime, the volatile salt will thus rise again highly purified, so as long to retain it's whiteness. (3.) But, if the saline matter obtained be of the fixed kind, the method of purifying it is, to dissolve it in fair cold water; suffer the solution to subside, then decant the clear liquor, and evaporate it in a clean iron pan, or glass vessel, till, with continual stirring, it becomes dry and white. (4.) Or, to purify it still further, and render it perfectly white, let it be put into a clean crucible, and exposed for a while amidst the flame of burning charcoal, without melting.

Lastly, to obtain the earthy principle in it's purity, let it be thoroughly calcined, boiled in several waters, to get out all it's salt, and then dry it over a clear fire, or in the sun. And, when these several operations are performed in perfection, it is then we obtain what we properly mean by the chemical principles of vegetables.

And though it be not always necessary for the purposes of chemistry, or the common calls of life, to bring these principles to the degree of purity here mentioned, yet there are many cases that absolutely require them to be so purified; otherwise the operations wherein they are employed may easily miscarry, which we desire should be noted, as one considerable reason of the failure of particular experiments and operations, both in chemistry itself, and many of the chemical arts, of glass-making, distillation, &c.

The uses of this experiment

are numerous; we shall touch on a few of them. (1.) We may learn from it, that these chemical principles abound in different quantities in different vegetables, or in the same, at different seasons or times of growth. For instance, olives, almonds, mace, &c. contain such an over-proportion of oil, to the other principles, that it may be copiously obtained barely by pressure. The vine, in the spring, affords a larger proportion of fixed alkaline salt than at any other season; and the same holds of the wood usually burnt for pot-ash. And thus we find that the aqueous and saline principles preside in vegetables in the spring, but the oily in the summer and the autumn; that all young plants abound more with water than such as are full grown: and that oil is most plentifully contained in the oldest trees, and those of the colder climates: whence we are directed to the proper times and seasons, and places, for felling the timber designed for pitch, pot-ash, fuel, and charcoal, &c. This, duly attended to, may be of great advantage to our plantations.

By applying this experiment to different vegetables, it has been found that vegetables are naturally distinguishable into two grand tribes, viz. the acid and the alkaline; the first affording a volatile acid, the other a volatile alkali, upon dry distillation. Thus guaiacum, cedar, box, cinnamon, cloves, sorrel, mint, balm, &c. afford an acid; but garlick, leeks, onions, horse-raddish, scurvy-grass, mustard, &c. afford an alkali; which, when rectified, is hardly distinguishable from that of animal substances, so as nearly to resemble the spirit and salt of hartshorn.

This experiment also shews us the methods of making, or procuring, tar, charcoal, fixed salt, and elementary earth, from vegetables; four capital particulars in useful arts and trades. Tar is the scorched oil of unctuous wood, forced out by fire, as the gross oil is in the present experiment. Charcoal is wood burned close to blackness. Soap, a mixture of fixed salt and oil; glass, a mixture of earth and fixed salt; and elementary earth makes all the tests and copels for the refining of gold and silver. See REFINING.

The present experiment shews, also, the nature of vegetable fumes; whereby, in the way of animal curation, fish and flesh are long preserved free from putrefaction or corruption: for wherever green wood, or any acid vegetable matter is burned, the acid particles go off with the smoke, and in this form penetrate and lodge in animal substances exposed thereto; whereby this smoke acts upon them in the same manner as the fume of spirit of sea-salt, or nitre, would do. And whether it be not a nitrous acid which thus tinges the hams, herrings, &c. red in drying, may deserve examination.

This experiment shews that the force of fire is not sufficient to reduce a vegetable substance to ashes, without the help of air; and that so long as the fixed oil, which causes the blackness, remains in a vegetable coal, it will afford no fixed salt by decoction in water: whence we have a rule in the making of pot-ash, and all the fixed salts whatever, to a greater advantage, by thoroughly calcining the subject, so as to leave no fixed oil behind. This may prove a matter of great use, both at home and in our plantations.

And hence we are, also, instructed in the physical nature of a vegetable coal, and see how it may have such considerable effects upon metals, in the nature of a flux, since we find it contains a fixed oil, firmly united to the matter of a fixed alkali: whence, to use this coal, as a flux, is the same thing as to use a fixed salt, intimately united with a fixed oil, which may operate powerfully upon ores, as we shall shew under the articles METALLURGY, and IRON.

E X P E R I M E N T II.

That animal matters are resolvable, by fire, into the four chemical principles, water, oil, salt, and earth.

Take four pounds of animal bones, that have been well boiled, to separate their marrow, or fat, and then thoroughly dry them, and break them into small lumps: put them into an earthen retort, to which lute a glass receiver, and distil with a degree of heat, in a naked fire. There will first come over, in drops, an aqueous limpid liquor, which reserve apart, by changing the receiver; then, increasing the fire, there will come over white fumes, a volatile salt, and a quantity of oil. When the vessel is cool, the bones will be turned black in the retort; but, being calcined in a naked fire, with the admission of the free air, they are turned white: then, boiling these white ashes in water, you will find, by evaporation, that they communicate no fixed alkaline salt thereto.

This experiment is general, or succeeds, with little variation, in all other animal subjects, whether they be flesh, blood, serum, fish, birds, whites of eggs, horn, hair, hoofs, silk, or the like; the principal difference being only that these substances respectively contain more or less earth, water, salt, and oil.

The uses and application of this experiment.

The principles separated by the present experiment appear to be, in general, the same with those before gained from the vegetable subject: they may be separately purified and made elementary, after the same methods as are there directed. Thus, by comparing the productions of both processes together, we shall find that we have a water, an oil, a salt, and an earth, in both cases. But in this case all the salt is volatile, the ashes containing no fixed salt at all: whence this appears to be the principal chemical difference between vegetable and animal subjects, that the vegetable kind yield a fixed salt by calcination; and the animal kind one that is volatile by distillation. But this holds only of the acid species of vegetables; for the alkaline species yields little or no fixed salt upon calcination: so that, between the alkaline tribe of vegetables and the whole animal kingdom, there seems to be little difference, neither in this, or any other chemical respects.

But, though some difference should be found between the animal and vegetable oils, as there is thought to be in the making of soap, and some other instances; yet the principles of animal and vegetable subjects may be justly reputed the same, as both equally agree to the general definitions of water, oil, salt, and earth, when their several principles are reduced to the same degrees of purity.

And hence some advantages might be derived to useful arts and trades, by making the subjects of one kingdom serve instead of those of the other, when one is cheaper than the other. Thus a volatile spirit and salt, like those of hartshorn, may be drawn from the alkaline species of vegetables, and all putrified plants; at least from bones purged of their fat by boiling in water. So solid soap is made of vegetable oils as well as of animal fats; and a volatile animal, and a volatile vegetable salt, may be each separately converted into sal-ammoniac, at a cheap rate.

Whence we learn, that the correspondent animal and vegetable principles may, in many cases, be used for one another, so as to render volatile salts and oils cheaper, and lessen the expence attending their use in particular arts and trades; which is the great end we aim at, by familiarly leading the reader into some knowledge of this art, upon the right and fundamental principles thereof.

E X P E R I M E N T III.

That certain mineral, or metallic bodies, may contain four of the chemical principles, viz. sulphur, salt, earth, and mercury.

Take two ounces of native cinnabar, reduced to fine powder, and mix it with six ounces of quick-lime; put the whole into an earthen retort, and distil into a basin of water; you

will find a quantity of running mercury at the bottom thereof.

The matter remaining behind in the retort, being boiled in a lixivium of pot-ash, and the solution precipitated with alum, thus lets fall a fine kind of brimstone, called lac sulphuris, which will sublime into true flowers of brimstone, that may be melted and run into a roll. This brimstone also being burned, in the common method, under a glass bell, resolves into an acid liquor, leaving an unflammable terrestrial matter behind; which, being treated as an ore [see ORES] sometimes affords a small proportion of metal, either of iron or copper.

The use of this experiment.

This is very instructive, and might lead to considerable discoveries. It shews, that a true running mercury may lie concealed in metallic ores, or stony earths, where those who have no knowledge of this art, would not suspect; for native cinnabar is but an ore of mercury, consisting, as we see, of two different matters, sulphur and quicksilver; which are separable by distillation with quick-lime, or iron filings, and sometimes by long boiling in a strong alkaline lixivium. This experiment might be profitably applied, perhaps, to marquisites, mundics, and various other mineral substances, and stony sulphureous matters, that are rejected as worthless.

We may also observe, from this experiment, that, as common brimstone resolves itself into an acid liquor, and an earthy matter, we find that certain mineral metallic substances will, by a proper analysis, afford the four chemical principles abovementioned, viz. running mercury, sulphur, salt, and earth. But it is not supposed to hold universally, that all mineral substances should afford a running mercury upon their analysis; but such of them only as are properly metallic. Upon the whole, therefore, it may be concluded, that the five principles, viz. water, earth, salt, sulphur, and perhaps mercury, are the true chemical principles of vegetable, animal, and mineral substances.

Of synthetical chemistry, or the art of recomposing bodies after their analytical dissolution.

This is extremely difficult to effect universally; yet it may be done in some cases, so as that the recomposed body shall be perfectly undistinguishable, by the senses, from that which had never been separated by the fire. And, if the art of chemistry were perfect, it would be able thus to recompose, at least in some tolerable manner, all the bodies it divides. But, this branch of chemistry being rather of philosophical* than ordinary use, we shall only give one instance of it in regard to brandy, which will convey an idea to our meaning.

* It would, however, shew an extreme perfection and power in the art of chemistry, to be able to do this; and prove, either that bodies might be taken to pieces by the fire, without altering, or injuring their natural parts; or, at least, that any accidental alteration, brought upon them by the analysis, might easily be rectified, or abolished, by a recomposition.

E X P E R I M E N T.

Brandy resolved into it's component parts, and recomposed.

(1.) To a pint of brandy let be added half a pound of dry salt of tartar; then set the containing glass in a gentle heat of sand, where you will observe the salt to dissolve into a liquor, by attracting to itself the water of the brandy, leaving a spirit of wine floating on the top. This spirit was decanted upon a little more dry salt of tartar, and found that this second salt scarce relented. Then, pouring the spirit into a glass receiver, it was distilled gently over, and thus obtained a highly rectified spirit of wine. (2.) In the same manner was distilled the saline solution, left behind upon decanting the spirit; and thus obtained the water of the brandy in considerable purity, leaving the salt of tartar in a dry form behind. (3.) Lastly, were mixed the spirit and the water together; and the brandy was found recomposed, without any considerable alteration. See BRANDY, RUM.

It's use.

From hence we may judge of the recomposition of wine, after it's spirit, or brandy, has been distilled from it; and, also, of the recomposition of vinegar from it's spirit and residuum; both by means of a new fret, or a slight fermentation: and, if the operation in these cases be dextrously performed, the recomposition will be just and perfect. To perform many operations of this kind complete, proper intermediate substances are requisite, which are either fermentable, or in a fermenting state; such as a little new wine, sugar, juice of the grape, or the like; for these substances, coming to work on the liquor, lay hold both of their aqueous, spirituous, and saline parts, so as to bring them into the state of mixture, or arrangement, wherein their perfection, as wines and vinegars, depends. And how far this method of recomposition may be extended, seems hitherto little considered.

In the present experiment for the recomposition of brandy, there are two constituent parts concerned, viz. alcohol and phlegm, which renders the separation and combination so much the easier and more exact; nor is there any occasion here for an intermediate substance, to procure, or recover, the natural union, because alcohol readily mixes with water, barely by shaking, and this as intimately as is necessary to the constitution of brandy.

This experiment shews an useful method of obtaining spirit of wine from brandy, without distillation; and may be practised to great advantage in the large way of business, by adding pot-ash to the brandy once distilled, and brought to a size commonly called three-fifths, that is, three parts alcohol and two of water: for the pot-ash so employed is easily recoverable, without much loss, barely by boiling the lixivium in an iron pot, where, being made dry, it will serve for the same purpose again. This slight experiment may prove of eminent service where large parcels of brandies are to be rectified in a small compass of time.

R E M A R K S.

It is not our intention, under this general head, to give any thing of a system of chemistry; but the application of it to a great number of important arts and trades will appear throughout this work, as, indeed, it has done already, and that in such a light as will not only lay a foundation for the improvement of numerous branches of trade already established, but tend to the investigation of new arts and new trades: for chemistry, skilfully applied, may be justly said to be the great parent of numberless branches of commerce, and numberless arts, whereby to render them more beneficial to those therein concerned.

So that chemistry, thus adapted to the interest of the men of business, will free it from that disesteem it has met with from many, which has proceeded from a want of knowing it's proper office, extent, and usefulness; and from the frequent misapplication of it to things of a delusory or phantastical nature, whereby well intentioned persons have been egregiously imposed upon, by artful and designing villains; who, under the confident pretence of superlative knowledge in this art, have extorted money from the unexperienced, and have proved themselves as superlatively ignorant in the art, as infamously detestable in their conduct*. This is the abuse of the art.

* And here I am free to acknowledge, that I was, some years since, shamefully imposed on by one of those chemical jugglers, who go to and fro seeking whom they can devour. As it may be a useful precaution to guard others against the like imposition, it may not be unacceptable to relate the case. I was interested in partnership with an eminent merchant of the city of London, in a large manufacture of lead, which was settled in the north of England. The persons, who had induced us to this undertaking, making extraordinary pretensions to superior skill in the arts of smelting and refining of that metal, we were prevailed on to follow their directions; who put us to no little expence in buildings, suitable to their intended schemes of operation.—The gentleman with whom I was concerned, and myself, being, at that time, quite ignorant in matters of this nature, we relied on the extraordinary judgment of our smelter and refiner, whom we soon found to be only pretenders, and intended to live upon us, as long as they could carry on their delusion.—From this, and some other circumstances of gross deceit in the same way, upon my partner and self, I was, from that time, determined to make chemistry, both in theory and practice, one branch of my study; and accordingly I consulted lord Bacon, Boyle, Boerhaave, Shaw, Geoffroy, Lemery, &c. and the transactions of all the philosophical societies of Europe; and, at the same time, added practice to my theory, from the best information I could obtain. These measures have led me to such a discernment in this branch of philosophy, as I flatter myself, will enable me not only to point out the means to prevent others being imposed on, but to shew how this art may be applied to the advancement of several important branches of trade, according to the sentiments of those who have excelled herein. In the mean time, I shall only desire the reader to pay what regard he thinks proper, to the following short rules for his conduct in this art, the substance of which is given us by that great master thereof, the learned Dr Shaw.

Let the first rule be, with care and diligence, to observe the processes used by nature, in the production of all those things we would endeavour to imitate: for nature, as a most expert chemist, employs the very instruments which men also employ, viz. fire, water, air, and earth.

To illustrate this rule by an example; it appears, by numerous instances, that there is an acid or saline liquor naturally contained in the bowels of the earth; which acid, there mixing with various kinds of earthy matters, as a menstruum, changes their natures, or makes them appear under different forms. Hence common brimstone, allum, the native vitriol, &c. seem to have their origin.

For by an exact scrutiny, and attentive consideration, it appears, that, when this general acid dissolves a certain bituminous earth, it makes brimstone; when a chalky earth, allum;

when iron or copper, vitriol, &c. And accordingly, by using the same kind of general acid (which may be procured by burning brimstone under a glass bell) in the same manner as nature seems to employ it, we can likewise, by art, produce brimstone, allum, or vitriol, when and where we please: And thus, if we could universally discover the processes and instruments which nature employs in the production of her effects, we should have certain rules for imitating her.

Our second rule is, to gain a habit of transferring, diversifying, enlarging, and improving an experiment, till it ends in some certain discovery, either of light to the understanding, or of use in life; one of which points all just experiments will end in, when duly prosecuted, and judiciously weighed and considered.

For unsuccessful experiments are no less instructing than those that succeed, which ought to be well remarked. The head must in all cases co-operate with the hands; so that the mind should be ever casting about to discover the causes of failure, as well as of success. This is a sagacity which may be procured by use, and turned into a habit of invention and discovery: so that no single experiment shall be performed, but some advantage will be immediately derived from it; nor no experiment be made, without some solid grounds of hope for success.

The third rule to make this art to turn to advantage, with regard to the improvement of any branch of trade that we may have in view, is, to prosecute experiments in an orderly series; and to let the inquiry suit the genius and temper of the enquirer, so that it may be prosecuted by him with vigour and pleasure.—This hath been the practice of the greatest masters in this art.

Thus, if any one should be averse to the use of fire and furnace, he may still improve chemistry and arts, or perform many serviceable chemical operations, without much apparatus or expence, or without the utensils and instruments commonly employed in that art: which may therefore be as conveniently practised within a study or a parlour, as in a laboratory. For there are many chemical enquiries, that may be prosecuted without the use of fires and furnaces: and even such dispositions as are more delighted with speculation than practice, may greatly contribute to the improvement of chemistry, by sorting, ranging, and digesting experiments into tables; shewing what they prove, and how far they reach; how far they fall short, and how they may be carried farther: others might, to advantage, employ themselves upon drawing things of use in life, from the experiments already known and published: and, lastly, others might from a due consideration of experiments, deduce new directions and rules of practice for producing in a sure and constant manner, much greater effects than are usually hoped for.

CHEESHIRE, or the county palatine of CHESTER, is divided from Lancashire on the north, by the river Mersee; has a corner of Yorkshire on the north-east, Derbyshire and Staffordshire on the east and south-east; Shropshire and part of Flintshire on the south, and Derbyshire, the west of Flintshire, and the Irish sea on the north-west corner, where a Chersonese, sixteen miles long and seven broad, is formed by two creeks of it, which receive all the rivers of the county.

The air of this county is reckoned healthy, being more serene and mild than that of Lancashire, and the soil for the most part good. On the borders of Staffordshire and Derbyshire 'tis full of risings, though the hills are not of any great height. There's a peculiar sort of ground in this shire, which the inhabitants call mosses, a kind of moorish boggy earth, very fat and stringy, out of which are cut turfs in form of bricks, and dried in the sun for fuel.

The chief rivers are the Dee, the Weaver, and the Mersee. The Dee abounds with salmon, and springs from two fountains in Wales, and is observed never to overflow by rain, but by the south-west wind. It enters this county at Grafton, and runs north to Chester, where it falls into the Irish sea by Park-Gate, which is the southern creek of the Chersonese. The Weaver rises in Shropshire, and, after a course of eighteen miles from south to north, makes an angle at Nantwich, turns west, and runs into the northern creek of the Chersonese, as does also the Mersee, which runs from the north-east.

Besides rivers, this shire has a great number of meres and lakes, which abound with carp and tench, trout, eels, &c. Here are so many parks, that few gentlemen of any considerable estates are without them; and the forests of Delamere and Macclesfield are very wide, and for the most part very woody.

The product of this county is more particularly cheese and salt. It's cheese is commended as the best in England, except such as have tasted the Cheddar cheese of Somersetshire. But all the cheese that passes for Cheshire at London, and other places, is not made in this county; for great part of it comes out of Wales, where some pretend the goats, as well as the cows, are milked for that use.

The county affords great plenty of corn, flesh, fish, and of the most delicate salmon. It drives a considerable trade, not only by importing, but by returns, as having within itself salt-pits, mines, and metals. The grays of this county, says Camden,

Camden, has a peculiar good quality; so that they make great store of cheese, more agreeable, and better relished, than those of any other parts of the kingdom, even when they procure the same dairy-women to make them.

CHESTER, or, as 'tis commonly called, **WEST CHESTER**, from it's western situation, to distinguish it from many other Chesters in the kingdom. 'Tis a large, fine, well built city, and full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by it's neighbourhood to the Severn and to Ireland, carry on a very considerable trade; so that the shopkeepers here have good business, look with cheerful countenances, and the gentry are remarkably hospitable. They have great fairs here every year, to which abundance of merchants and tradesmen resort, but particularly from Bristol and Dublin.

NANTWICH is remarkable for it's salt springs, which in some places, says Dr Jackson, are not above three or four yards deep, but the pit in this township is full seven. In two places at Nantwich, the springs break up so to the meadows, as to fret away not only the grass, but part of the earth, which has a salt liquor oozing, as it were, out of the mud. The springs are about three miles from the sea, and generally lie along the river Weaver; yet there is an appearance of the same vein at Middlewich. Under the article **SALT**, we shall shew the whole process, with such remarks as may be useful.

CHILI. This kingdom lies along the coast of the South-Sea, from the 25th to the 45th degree, 30 minutes of south latitude; and from the 65th to the 73d 20. of longitude west from London, comprehending the whole country so called by the Spaniards, and not being confined to that only settled by them. It is bounded on the north by Peru; on the east by Tucuman, a province of Paraguay, and part of Terra Magellanica; on the south by part of the same Terra Magellanica; and on the west by the South-Sea. It's greatest length, from north to south, amounts to 1230 English miles. It's breadth is various; it may be said to extend 120 leagues from east to west, though in many places it is not above 20 or 30 leagues broad, which is in the general it's extent from the sea to the Cordillera mountains, or Sierra Nevada de los Andes. Some writers give it a different extent, which, by no means, consists with the nature of our work, to descend into tedious criticisms about.

As this country lies to the south of the equinoctial line, the seasons are opposite to those in the opposite part of the hemisphere, though not exactly.—The weather in the general is steady and constant, without sudden changes all the spring, summer, and autumn. In winter there are, indeed, degrees of heat and cold, as the days differ in length and shortness, according to the degrees of longitude and course of the sun, which causes the same variations as in Europe, though in opposite months.

Few of the fruits of Peru, Mexico, and of all the continent of America, will thrive according to Ovaglie, though they bring thither plants, seeds, or settings, these countries being within, Chili without the tropics: for which reason the fruits of Europe take very well in Chili, and bear extraordinarily. The wines are noble and generous.—The Muscadell is esteemed the best.

This country abounds with mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, and lead. Of the copper of Chili are made all the great guns for Peru, and the neighbouring kingdoms. There is no great call for lead, for quicksilver less, Peru affording tolerable quantities. The silver mines are not very much wrought, because those of gold are wrought to more profit. They are so plenty, and so rich, that from the confines of Peru, to the extreme parts of the kingdom, as far as the freights of Magellan, there are few parts wherein they do not discover some. All travellers, who have given any account that may be relied on, greatly extol the riches of this part of the world; the same is done by those who have navigated the freights of Magellan, though with too much exaggeration.

The other produce of this country consists in cattle of all kinds, of which they send a great many mules to Potosi; tallow, hides, and dried fish, they export into Peru; cordage and tackling, with which all the ships in the South-Seas are furnished from Chili; for hemp grows no where about these parts but in Chili. Cocoa nuts grow wild here in the mountains, and in great plenty. Almonds, and other the garden products that do not grow in Peru, are carried thither with handsome profit.

The district called **IMPERIAL** is a bishopric, and contains several cities, sea-port towns, and other places. Imperial, which gives name to the bishopric, lies in south latitude 38. 30. and longitude 72. 15. west of London. It stands in one of the most agreeable situations of the whole country, on a pleasant river called the Imperial, from the city. It is about 130 miles distant from Conception, 10 or 12 from the sea, and 33 from the city of St Jago. All the territory of the city of Imperial is very fruitful, bearing corn, and all sorts of fruit and pulse, though the black grapes do not ripen so kindly as the white ones and muscadines. The country is partly hills and partly vallies: the former are of easy ascent, with good pasture and shelter for cattle. The land does not

seem to require much watering, it having frequent and large dews that fertilize it.

The river Imperial is large, and runs a great way up into the country, and the banks of it are well inhabited by Indians: but it's mouth affords no good harbour for shipping of any burthen, for the flats there are within three fathoms and a half of depth.

LA CONCEPTION, otherwise called **PENCO**, is seated at the edge of the sea, at the bottom of a bay of the same name, on the east side of it, in lat. 36. 42. 53. and in long. 73. west of London. It has on the east high mountains, from which come two little rivers, that run across the town. Fruits of all kinds are here so plentiful, that they are obliged to thin them, otherwise the branches would break, nor could the fruit come to maturity. The country in which the town of Conception is seated, abounds in all things, not only to supply the necessaries of life, but also containing infinite wealth, according to Frezier.

OTORNO, an inland town, on the northern bank of the river Rio Bueno, about 45 miles from Baldivia, towards the south-east, and as many from the sea-coast to the east. The country about it is not fruitful, and produces hardly any of the necessaries of life. But it is very rich in gold mines; for which reason the town is populous. De Noort tells us, that this town is in about 42 degrees of south latitude, is larger than Baldivia, has a Spanish governor, and that they make here woollen stuffs and linnen cloths.

CHILOE, a considerable island on the coast of Chili; lies in south latitude 44. or rather from 42 to 44. The south part is divided from the continent by a narrow sea, and the continent there makes a bay. The coast is very subject to tempestuous weather, especially in March, for then the winter begins, and people cannot put to sea; so that they must winter there contentedly, 'till the return of summer.

Excepting wine, this island produces all necessary refreshments and provisions; and there are also large quantities of amber-grease found here. About this island there are forty more, which take their names from it.

VILLA RICA is about 10 miles distant from the Cordillera mountains, is seated on the western bank of a lake, called Malabauguen by the Indians, which is three leagues long from east to west, and two broad from north to south. The soil about this city is very fruitful: it is a clay ground, of which they make very good bricks. Most of the inhabitants of this town work in wool, and make very good cloth and linnen waistcoats.

ANGOL, or **VILLA NUEVA DE LOS INFANTES**, is about 100 miles from Conception to the south-east, and about 32 from the Cordillera. It stands in a very large open plain; the land is very fertile, fruits ripen very well; there is good wine, and good store of raisins dried in the sun, figs, and other dried fruits; and vast quantities of tall cyresses, which yield a very sweet-scented wood, of which they make a gum-lack.

LA SERENA, or **COQUIMBO**, lies in south latitude 29. 54. 10. and in longitude 73. 35. 45. west from the observatory at Paris. The river Coquimbo runs winding through this town, almost every-where fordable, supplying it with water, and refreshing the adjacent meadows, after having run from the mountain, where, in it's passage, it fertilizes variety of vales, whose soil refuses no sort of tillage.

Peter Valdivia, who made choice of this pleasant situation for a retreat in the passage from Chili to Peru, being charmed with the deliciousness of the climate, he called it la Serena, to which it had more right than any other place in the world, the name signifying the serene, there being here continually a serene and pleasant sky.

The discovery of the mines of Copiapo, and the vexations of the chief magistrates, have contributed towards unpeopling this part of Chili. Though these mines are near 100 leagues from Coquimbo by land, several families are gone thither to settle, which hath left this place so bare of people, that there are not above 300 men fit to bear arms, not including the neighbourhood. The fertility of the soil, however, keeps abundance of people in the adjacent country, whence they bring corn annually to load four or five ships, of about 400 tons burden, to send to Lima. They also supply St Jago with a large quantity of wine and oil, esteemed the best along the coast. These provisions, together with some few hides, tallow, and dried flesh, are all the trade of that place, where the inhabitants are poor by reason of their slothfulness, and the few Indians they have to serve them.

In winter, when the rains are somewhat plentiful, gold is found in almost all the rivulets that run down from the mountains, and would be found all the year, if they had that help. About 10 leagues to the eastward of the town, are the washing-places of Andacol, the gold whereof is said to be 23 carats fine. [See the article **GOLD**.] The works there always turn to great advantage, when there is no want of rain. The inhabitants confidently affirm, that the earth breeds; that is, that gold is continually growing; because, 60 or 80 years after it has been washed, they find almost as much gold as they did at first. In that same vale, besides the washing-places, there are on the mountains so many gold mines, and some of silver,

silver, that they would employ 40,000 men, as Frezier was informed by the governor of Coquimbo; and they proposed to set up mills there, but wanted labourers.

The copper mines are also very common, three leagues north-east from Coquimbo. They have wrought a long time at a mine, which supplies almost all the coast of Chili and Peru, with utensils for the kitchen. It is affirmed, that there are also mines of iron and quicksilver.

COPIAPO, lies about 175 miles to the north of La Serena. There are gold mines directly above the town, and others at two or three leagues distance, whence they bring the ore on mules to the mills, which are within the town. In the year 1713, there were six of those mills they call trapiches, says Frezier, and they were making a seventh of that sort, which they call the royal engine, with hammers and pounders: by means of these, properly applied, they are able to grind ten times as much as by the trapiches; that is, six chests a day, each chest yielding 12 ounces more or less. It must yield two there, they say, at least, to pay the cost. The ounce of gold is sold here for about 12 or 13 pieces of eight each.

Besides the gold mines, there are about Copiapo many mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead, which they do not work. There are also considerable quantities of loadstone and lapis lazuli, which the people in general do not know to be of any worth. There is, 14 or 15 leagues from Copiapo, a place where there are many lead mines. On the high mountains of Cordillera, there are mines of the finest sulphur; it is taken pure from the vein, without needing to be cleansed. All the country here is full of mines of sal gemm. Saltpetre is no less plentiful, being found in vales an inch thick on the ground.

DE LA MOCHA is an island that lies a small distance from the coast, almost opposite the mouth of the river imperial. The natives are inveterate enemies to the Spaniards, from whose cruelty they fled and peopled the island. Sir John Narborough places this island in latitude 38. 30. and says, that the Spaniards told him there is gold here, but the natives will not part with it.

St MARY'S island, is situate almost over-against the town of Conception, not many miles from the shore. It abounds with fruit-trees, corn, potatoes, sheep, and hogs.

JUAN island, or that of John Fernando, lies in latitude 34. 45. about 200 leagues from the main, according to Dampier; but Capt. Sharp places it in 33. 40. It is full of hills and pleasant vallies, which, if manured, would probably produce any thing proper for the climate. The woods afford divers sorts of trees, some large and good for timber, for building, but not fit for masts.

CHINA. The vast, ancient, and opulent empire of China is situate on the most eastern verge of the Asiatic continent. It is bounded on the north by east and west Tartary, from which it is divided by a prodigious wall of 1500 miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inaccessible mountains. On the east it is bounded by the eastern ocean, on the west by part of the Mogul's empire, and India extra Gangem, from which it is parted by ridges of other high mountains, and sandy deserts; and on the south, partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochinchina, and partly by the southern ocean, or Indian sea, which flows between it and the Philippine islands. It is of such great extent, that it reaches in latitude from 20 to almost 43 degrees; so that it's length from south to north is about 1400 miles. But, if we take China in it's utmost extent, either in length or breadth, the former must be taken, from it's north-eastern frontier of Xai-yven in the province of Lyaouton, unto the last city of the province of Youn-nam, called Chyen-tyen, Kioun-min-fou; and then it's greatest length will be about 400 German, or 1600 English miles; and if to these be still added the island of Hay-nan, which belongs to China, and lies on the south of the province of Quan-tong, two degrees more must be added to it's extent, and it must then be reckoned from the 18th degree instead of the 20th; so that it's utmost length, including that island, will be 1800 miles. It's breadth likewise may be reckoned to a much greater extent; and, if it be measured from the town of Nimpo, a seaport in the province of Che-kien, to the utmost boundaries of Su-chuen, it will amount to 315 German, or 1260 of our miles.

In general, the country is mostly temperate, except only towards the north, where these parts are intolerably cold, not so much from their situation, as from the ridges of mountains that run along them, and are excessive high, and commonly covered with deep snows.

As China extends itself through so many different climates, and is in some parts mountainous, and in others champaign, the soil must differ accordingly: yet such expert and diligent masters of agriculture are the people there, that they leave no spot uncultivated. As they abound with artificial canals and reservoirs for watering and fertilizing their low lands, so they have been no less industrious with respect to their high ones: first, by levelling a great many of them, wherever the labour and number of hands could compass it to advantage. Secondly, by levelling and flattening the very summits of many of their mountains, in order to make them bear variety of

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grain, pulse, &c. And, thirdly, by dividing their declivities into so many flat stages as they could conveniently bear; by which means the waters, whether of rain and dew, or of the springs that come down from the tops, have a proper time to soak into the ground, and to nourish the seed sown, instead of rooting it up, and washing it down, as they do in other countries, by the violence of their descent along their natural declivity. It is no small delight to travel through the lower vallies, and behold those sides of the mountains cut into such number of terraces one over the other, and all covered up to the top with variety of corn, fruits, &c. These mountains are nothing near so hard and stony as our's are, but rather of a soft porous nature; and, what is still more surprizing, may be dug with ease some hundreds of feet deep: so that the salts which transpire through these pores, prove a constant and excellent manure to these artificial grounds. But, where the mountains are rocky, they content themselves with planting them with all sorts of fruit, and other trees, according to the nature of the ground. They are no less curious and careful in improving every sort, by such manure as is proper to it; by which means, as well as by their abundance of water, and warmth of the climate, their ground yields them in some countries two, and sometimes three plentiful harvests in a year.

The product of the country is corn and grain of all sorts, and in great plenty; and very rich pasture grounds, whereon they breed prodigious quantities of cattle; silk, cotton, honey, wax, fruits of all sorts that we have in Europe, and several others that are not known here, and all exquisite to the sight and taste. They have oranges, grapes, figs, pomegranates, ananas, and many others in as great perfection, as in any part of India: game is in great plenty and variety; particularly bears, boars, buffaloes, deer of several kinds, whose furs are a profitable commodity: besides these, they have great numbers of elephants. Tygers are here very numerous and fierce, and extremely dangerous, these seeking their prey commonly in large droves. The leopards, and other wild creatures, are here in great quantities, besides various kinds, which are not to be found in many other countries. The musk-cat, which carries that noble perfume in a kind of bladder under it's navel, is caught here, and is in great esteem: as for horses, camels, oxen, swine, and other creatures, which are common with us in Europe, they have them in no less abundance there, particularly mules, which are here wild, and fitter to eat than for other uses. Birds, such as eagles, cranes, storks, birds of paradise, pelicans, peacocks, pheasants, geese, swans, ducks, and a numberless variety of others. As for fish, there can be no doubt but that the multitude of rivers, canals, and lakes, as well as the sea that runs along the south-east coast of the country, must supply them with the greatest plenty and variety of it. Besides those, most of the great and rich people have large canals and ponds filled with them for their own use: but those who are most curious in these kinds of fish-ponds, adorn them with one particular kind, which they call the gold and silver fish, because of their colour.

This strange and beautiful species is about the length of one's finger, and thick in proportion: the male is of a delicate red from the head to the middle, and from thence to the tail of a bright colour, which by far exceeds the finest gilding: the female is white, and hath a tail like a nosegay; which, with part of it's body, shines like polished silver. They generally swim near the surface of the water, and give a most exquisite brightness and variety to it, and multiply so fast, that if care be not taken of their eggs, which float upon the water, the whole surface will be covered with them: but they are exceedingly tender, and easily killed, by heat or cold, strong smells, thunder, or the report of a cannon. The way of preserving these eggs, is to take them gently out of the water, and put them in small vessels, well sheltered from wind, rain, and cold, 'till they are hatched by the sun, and grown to about an inch in length; when they may, with safety, be removed into their primitive reservoirs, where they are justly admired as a wonder of nature.

The Chinese silks are not only the finest and most valued in the world, but they have them in such abundance, as to suffice this whole populous nation for cloathing and household furniture, and to admit of prodigious exportations into foreign countries. They have likewise plenty of sugar, tobacco, and oil extracted, not from olives, but from seeds: vast quantities of olives, of a different kind from our's, yet of a fine taste, though either unfit to produce, or not thought worth extracting oil from them: excellent wines, some extracted from grapes, others from rice, others from quinces and other fruits, palm and other trees: camphire, ebony, sanders-wood, oak, pine, and other lofty and straight trees, are found in great abundance, especially on those mountains which are not otherwise cultivated. These are so fine and straight, that they serve for all sorts of buildings both at land and sea. The emperor builds all his ships with the finest of them, and hath them brought in prodigious quantities from all parts, some of them above 900 miles distance, partly by land and partly by water, in such long floats as reach several miles in length. Some of them are of such height and thick-

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ness, that they are used for columns in his palaces, and other public buildings. The timber merchants carry on a prodigious trade therein: they cut off all the superfluous branches, and fasten 80 or 100 of the trees together; and they that have the care of conveying them from place to place, build them little houses upon the float, and exercise their trade, dress their victuals, &c. upon them. These are afterwards sold at proper places for building of ships, barges, and other vessels, as well as for houses in the cities and towns. The low country abounds with variety of canes, junks, bamboes, &c. of exquisite beauty; with vast quantities of medicinal roots, such as china-root, rhubarb, gen-sen, and many more; and, among a vast variety of shrubs, that so much esteemed of late in Europe, called tea, of which we shall speak presently. The mountains abound with variety of metals and minerals; among the former, they have several mines of gold and silver, but which their emperors suffer not to be dug, but only permit such, as have a mind, to gather what particles of the former are washed down by the rivers, and are found sticking on the banks, or caught by fleeces, and other strainers, laid across the water; for we are told there are vast quantities of these brought down from the mountains, and that there are great multitudes of people, who live wholly upon this business; and that they find even some of that metal among the sand and mud of those rivers.

As for the common pretence, that their monarchs will not have these mines of silver wrought, because the people should not be forced to such slavish work, it is a mere illusion: it is more likely that they either keep them in case of need, or rather, perhaps, to keep down the price of labour, which would rise in proportion to the quantity of circulating money. Whereas by this policy, I have been informed, that their workmen in general have not above five farthings sterling per day; which makes such immense quantities of their produce and manufacture circulate throughout the world.

Their mountains have also mines of copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, &c. which are digged and manufactured in great quantities; and with great neatness and curiosity; besides which, they have some others, which are mixed in a peculiar manner, and which are kept as a great secret among them: such for instance is that so famed one, called tonbaga, or donbaga; which is of the colour of very pale brass, or dull kind of tin, but to which they ascribe several extraordinary virtues; particularly those of expelling poison, stopping hæmorrhages, and the like, by the bare wearing of a ring or necklace made of it.

Their mountains in some parts afford likewise plenty of pit-coal, and variety of minerals. But, of all the products of this country, the tea is that which deserves most of our notice, as 'tis become so favourite a commodity among us. The Chinese neither drink it in the manner we do in Europe, nor any thing near so strong, but use it only as their common drink. It is reckoned, among them, a singular diluter and purifier of the blood; a great strengthener of the brain and stomach, and promoter of digestion, perspiration, and other secretions; particularly a great diuretic, and cleanser of the reins and urethra. They drink it in great quantities in high fevers, in some sorts of cholics, and other acute diseases; think it a sure though slow remedy against chronic ones, from it's admirable quality of sweetening and diluting the blood.

There are several kinds of tea which grow in China, some finer, smoother, and more fragrant than others, according to the soil they grow in, but all originally the same; and these are called by different names, either from the towns or provinces where they gather it; as that named fingo, which is a most elegant sort, and much in use in China among the richer sort of people. Others are denominated from their peculiar sort of colours or qualities; as particularly the vovi, or as others call it, bohi, or bohe, [bohea tea] so called, not from the mountains of Fokyen, where the best of that sort is said to grow, but from it's brown or dark colour. The last is the most esteemed in China, both for it's taste, flavour, and medicinal quality; and is given in great quantities to sick people and valetudinarians. See the article TEA.

The most considerable of their rivers are, (1.) The Ky-am, or blue river, or, as others interpret it, the Son of the sea, which rises in the kingdom of Tibet, near the frontiers of the Mogul's dominions, about 34 degrees 50 minutes S. latit. and crosses the country from east and west, passing through Su-chan, Hun-quam, and Nan-kin, and falls into the sea three leagues below Kiam-nin, over-against the island of Commin. It begins it's course southward, then turns eastward, through the whole country, 'till it falls into the sea east of Nan-kin, in latitude 32, from a course of about 2100 miles; or, as Le Compte hath computed, 1200 miles in the whole. Near it's mouth it is computed about half a league in breadth, and it's course rapid and dangerous. It hath many islands in it, which yield a great revenue to the emperor, and produce great quantities of bulrushes, which supply the want of other fuel.

2. The Ho-ambo, or the Yellow River, is so called, because after rains especially it is of that colour, and extremely muddy. It hath it's rise near the extremity of the mountains,

which divide the province of Su-chan from Tartary, near the frontiers of the Mogul; and, continuing it's course along the great Chinese wall, runs twice through it into China, between the provinces Xanfi and Xenfi. It runs next through that of Hanam, and, after having crossed part of that of Nan-kin, and a course above 1900 miles, it at length discharges itself into the eastern sea, not far from the mouth of the Ky-am, in latitude 34. The stream thereof is so swift and strong, that the vessels which are towed up against it, require a great number of men or horses.

There are many other great rivers of the same nature, alike rapid and muddy; some of which have great cataracts of vast height, and make a noise like continued claps of thunder.— There is one always as red as blood, another that glitters by night, occasioned by the great quantity of precious stones contained in it, for which it is stiled the pearl-river. There is a third near Fomin, which turns blue in harvest, at which time the inhabitants are used to dye that colour. We are told of another near Pan-gay, whose waters are so light, that they will bear no timber: those of another near Chung-tien, are said to be sweet-scented, and that called Kin-xa, or Golden river, is so named, on account of the great quantity of gold sand it has. There is one in the province of Fokien, whose water is green, and is affirmed to turn iron into copper, which they will believe who are witnesses of it; that called Xo, or Cho, is said to cure divers diseases; but the most remarkable is, one that yearly rises upon a certain day, with such a prodigious high tide before the city of Hang-cheu, that multitudes of people crowd from all parts, to see so surprising a phenomenon, which neither their own, nor European philosophers, 'tis said, have yet accounted for.

These waters being almost every-where brackish; they are forced to correct them with tea.— They supply the people in the inland part with salt, which is made, by paring off the superficial earth of the muddy shores, drying it in the sun, rubbing it small, and throwing it into a pit, which they cover with salt water, and afterwards draining it into jars, and boiling it 'till they bring it to a proper consistency: but, in the maritime parts, they make salt of sea-water, after the usual way. Their mountains also produce many salts, excellent quarries of stone, some of marble, so curiously variegated with landskips, &c. as if drawn by design with a pencil. Several other sorts are esteemed for their fine colour and hardness, some of which bear a noble lustre like diamonds; and others, when burnt, yield a metal, of which they make swords and other weapons. We are told of others of a precious kind, shaped like a swallow, others of great efficacy in divers diseases.— The province of Quangli is famed for a yellow earth, which has the virtue of expelling poison, and, by outward application, to cure the bite of venomous creatures. Some sorts of earth they have of a fine vermilion colour, and others of a delicate white, which the ladies use for paints. In several places of the empire, they press a sort of lime from the bark of a tree, which is tough like pitch, and which, when mixed with proper colours, serves to paint their houses, cabinets, and other utensils, and hath a fine lustre and smoothness like glass. The lime is what they call giran, but is more commonly known amongst us under the name of japan-work, because that which comes from Japan far exceeds any that is made in China, both in lustre and hardness, as well as in the fine variety of paintings upon it. This secret the Chinese are so jealous of having discovered by foreigners, that they have poisoned several, and some of our nation, whom they suspected to have pried too closely into it.

Besides the common bees-wax, they have another sort, the clearest and whitest in the world; which is produced by an insect no bigger than a flea, on the top branches of some particular trees, where these little creatures lay their eggs, which in the spring turn into small worms. The proprietors of these trees gather this wax and make it into cakes, which are quite transparent. The inhabitants of Xantung put these worms into large canes, and sell them to the adjacent provinces, and make a considerable profit of them.

The Chinese are doubtless a very ingenious and industrious people, as appears by all their fine manufactures daily brought into Europe; such as their wrought silks, cabinets, and other japanery, their curious porcellane; though in this they are excelled by the Japanese, and are still likely to be more so by the Saxons and Germans, where a new manufacture of that kind is lately set up, which exceeds them both, especially in the beauty of the painting. The admirable cultivation of their land, their great and many canals, and variety of magnificent structures, are further testimonies of their genius and industry: to which we may add, what seems now generally agreed on all hands, that they have had the use of the mariner's compass, of gun-powder, and the art of printing, for many centuries: insomuch that there are not those wanting who have affirmed, that they were all three brought from thence into Europe, either by Paul the Venetian, or by some other channel. And, indeed, with respect to the last, whoever considers that the first essays of Faustus, who invented, or rather improved that art, were done upon wooden blocks, in the same way as has been done in China from time immemorial,

immemorial, will be apt to own, that theirs gave the first notions to Europeans, though they have since so infinitely surpassed them. They are likewise masters of several arts and sciences, though not to the perfection we are; but they value themselves extravagantly, and despise others highly, which is a great blemish to their characters.

PE-KE-LI, **PE-KIN**, or **PEKIM**, is the metropolis of this empire, and signifies the northern royal residence, in opposition to Nankin, which is the southern one. This city hath, from time immemorial, been one of the principal of the empire, though under different appellations, which we leave others to enter into. This, and the province under it, are esteemed the most populous of all the rest, the latter, according to the royal registers, containing 418,900 families, or 3,450,000 souls, who pay yearly tribute to the emperor, besides those that are exempt from it, as officers, soldiers, priests, monks, &c. and their families.

The province of Pe-ke-li, however, is far from being the most fertile or delightful; though the greatest part be flat, plain, and arable, yet some of it is quite barren, and others sandy and gravelly, and produce but small crops of any sort. The air is healthy, but cold and keen in the winter, from the dry north winds that blow thither from the bleak regions of Tartary; inasmuch that the rivers are frozen deep enough for the heaviest carriages to go over them.

Though this province produces little of its own, in comparison of the rest, yet it hath plenty of every thing it wants brought to it from other provinces, not only on account of the court, but by express orders from the emperor.

Pekin now consists of two large cities, besides suburbs, viz. the old and the new; the former may be called the Tartarian city, because wholly inhabited by the Tartars, who drove the Chinese out of it; and the latter the Chinese city, they being mostly of that nation who reside in it.

Ham-chew, and some other neighbouring cities of this province, are near as large and populous; and Nankin is still more spacious, and more peopled: inasmuch, as Le Compte says, you have scarce got out of one city, which you would think the largest in the empire, but you are in another equally large; so numerous and opulent are the cities of China! And what is extraordinary is, the incredible plenty and cheapness of all things in this vast metropolis. All manner of merchandizes and treasures of the Indies are transported hither from all parts, by means of the Eastern Sea, and the royal canals. Several thousands of royal ships, besides a prodigious number of others, belonging to private persons, are continually employed in supplying both court and city with every thing that can be wished for, either for convenience or luxury; and though situate in a barren country, yet, from its surprizing abundance, hath given rise to a proverb, That, though nothing grows about Pekin, yet it never knows the want of any thing.

XANTUM, **XANTON**, **XANTONG**, **SHANTON**, the next province to Pekin, lies on the south-east of it. Its climate is much milder, and soil more fertile, and bears such plenty of corn, and other grain, rice, pulse, &c. that the crop of one year is sufficient for several years' sustenance to its inhabitants. It breeds, also, great multitudes of cattle, and abounds with wild and tame fowl, fish, &c. and produces a great quantity of silk, of which, besides the common sort, that is spun by the worms, they have another kind, which is found upon bushes and trees, and is spun by a creature not unlike our caterpillars; and of both these they drive a considerable trade, by means of the great river Ci.

XANSI, or **SHANSI**, another province, is situate on the west side Pekeli. It is far from being as considerable as either of the former, but is full as fertile, and as populous in proportion to its extent. It is in some parts very mountainous, but intersected with fertile plains, whilst the hills abound with variety of fruit, and other trees, and forests of great extent and use. They have here, also, plenty of vines, whose grapes make a good liquor; but they chiefly dry the grapes, in order to send them into other parts of China.

XENSI, or **SHENSI**, is a province contiguous to that of Xansi, and full west of it. It is the largest in the whole empire. The soil is rich and fertile, in arable and pasture lands; the latter breed numerous herds of large and small cattle; but, as there often happens a scarcity of rain, the drought is apt to breed vast flights of caterpillars, grasshoppers, and other insects, which do infinite damage to their productions. It is adjoining on the west to the kingdom of Thebet, which extends itself quite to the Mogul's empire. A great intercourse and commerce is carried on by that means with the merchants of those countries, especially with the city of Zunning, which makes it a place of very considerable traffic.

The climate of this province is, in the general, serene and healthy; the soil is so well watered by rivers, brooks, and artificial canals, as well as by the vast number of hands employed in it, that it produces plenty of every thing, either for life or pleasure. Here are rich mines of gold; which, though according to the policy of the Chinese, are not permitted to be opened, yield great quantities of that metal to numerous families, who are employed in gathering that only which is

washed down by their rivers, and of which we have had occasion to speak before.

HO-NAN province. The climate is so temperate and serene, and the soil so fertile, and well-watered, that it abounds with corn, rice, fruits, and all kinds of necessaries for life and delight, and might be stiled, say some, a kind of terrestrial paradise. There are, indeed, some high mountains scattered, but these have their peculiar produce: some are covered with a fine variety of lofty trees, others abound with metals or minerals; so that there is scarce a spot that is not turned to great advantage. It is famed for a lake, which draws great numbers of those who follow the silk manufacture, its delicate waters giving it an imitable lustre.

NAN-KIN, or **NANG-KING**, is a province which, both for its situation, fertility, opulence, and commerce, and for having been formerly the imperial residence, is inferior to few in the empire. This is the more probable, if we consider the commodiousness of its harbours on the sea-coasts, and the great rivers that run through, or contiguous to it.—To all which we may add the vast number of merchant-ships, or, indeed, rather of whole fleets, that resort thither from all parts of Asia. There are few mountains in the whole province, except towards the south; all the rest is fruitful champagne, abounding with all necessaries and luxuries of life. It also produces prodigious quantities of silk and cotton; which employ such a vast number of hands, that, in the city of Xan-gay, and in the towns and villages under it, they reckon no less than 200,000 weavers in the latter of these manufactures. And their artists are so ingenious, that it is observed of this province, That whatever is worked in it, either of silk, cotton, &c. and bears the stamp of it, sells at a much higher price than what is done in other parts of the empire.

Nan-kin, Nang-king, the metropolis, and formerly stiled the stately, opulent, and non-fuch, &c. stands in latitude 32, and east longitude from Pekin 2. 20. and is by far the largest and most populous in all the Chinese empire, though its decay is very visible since the removal of the imperial city, and grand courts and tribunals to Pekin, and much more so, since it came into the hands of the inveterate Tartars.

The territory about the city is not only very fertile and delightful, but abounds with superb fructuaries, which heighten the prospect of the delicate orchards and gardens wherewith it is surrounded. This opulent city, besides the ordinary tribute, sends every year to the emperor at Pekin, with a view to ingratiate itself to the Tartarian monarch, five ships, laden with the finest silks, cloths, and other manufactures; which ships are so respected by the mariners, that all others lower their sails to them. There are other vessels that constantly go from hence with fine fish to the emperor, covered with ice to keep it fresh.

Suchen-fu, or, as others call it, Chien-chew, is another capital in this province; which is so populous and rich, that travellers, at first view, are apt to think it the biggest and most opulent in the whole country. Neither is it agreed which has the preference, this or Nan-kin. Le Compte says, that a man who will stand but a few minutes by the water-side, and behold the vast multitudes that come and go to buy merchandizes, or pay the customs, would imagine it to be a fair, to which the whole Chinese empire was crowded. The emperor's fleet, which consists of 9,999 yonks, or vessels, passes annually from this port to Peking, to carry the tribute, in money and merchandize, of the southern provinces thither.

This city carries on a vast trade, not only with most cities in China, but also with Japan, from which it is parted only by a narrow channel. The brocades and embroideries made in this city are the most in request, they being not only the finest but the cheapest, in proportion to their quality.

CHE-KY-ANG is reckoned the next maritime province to that of Nan-king. It is little inferior to any in the empire, with respect to advantageous situation, extent, populousness, or opulence. The whole country is so beautifully variegated with hills, vales, and fruitful plains, watered, fertilized, and enriched with such great numbers of canals, and large and small rivers, that it abounds with whatever can be desired. It is populous to a prodigy, and so well cultivated, that there is no spot but is turned to advantage. The very mountains are adorned with unspeakable variety of trees, but especially of the mulberry kind, over which hang an infinite number of silk-worms, that a surprizing quantity thereof is produced; inasmuch that they export vast quantities thereof to Japan, the Philippine Islands, to India, and even to Europe, besides what is consumed by its numerous inhabitants; which is still in such abundance, that two or three suits of silk cloaths will hardly cost so much as one of wool. To this we may add, that as they have found, by long experience, that the silk-worms which feed on the tenderest leaves yield the finest silk; so they take the most care to have a constant supply of young mulberry-trees for that purpose, and produce the largest quantity of that which they can sell the most of to foreign nations: so wise and politic are these people in conducting their trading interests.

Hang-chew, the first metropolis of Chekyang. Its situation for

for trade is so advantageous, especially on account of its vast number of canals and noble rivers, that it drives a very considerable commerce in several manufactures, especially in its silk, which is esteemed the finest in the world. This city has seven others of the second and third rank, which are likewise very rich and populous.

Nimpo, another celebrated capital of Chekyang, stands on the confluence of the rivers of Kin and Yaw. The entrance into the port is somewhat difficult, especially for large vessels, there being but 15 feet of water at the bar in the spring-tides. It suffered greatly in the late wars, but hath recovered itself since, and keeps a good garrison. About 20 leagues off at sea, is the island of Chew-shaw, whose port is pretty good, but not conveniently situate for trade. Here it was our English put in at their first arrival, not being able, at first, to find their way to Nimpo, among so many islands as were along the coast. It was formerly much frequented by the Portuguese; it drives a great trade at present with Japan; and it was partly on that account that our English East-India company once endeavoured to have established a commerce with that town. They drive a great trade here in salt-fish and flesh.

SHUSAN, or CHEW-SHANG, lies over-against Nimpo, about 10 leagues east from it. It is well-built and inhabited, since the Chinese fled thither from the Tartars, upon their invasion of China. It hath no less than 72 cities, situate along the coasts, or within the bays, all well-peopled, and driving pretty considerable commerce. The principal one, called also Chew-shang, is walled and populous, and it is the place where our East-India company traded, as they were not allowed to go with their ships to Nimpo. This trade began anno 1700 with this town, which has a very safe and convenient bay, and lies in latitude 30. 5.

KIAN-SI is a large and fruitful province, well-peopled, and the plains supply the inhabitants with all the necessaries of life. The country abounds with rivers, large and navigable, particularly that of Cau, which divides it in the midst. The vast number of its canals and lakes afford plenty of fish, which is extremely cheap. The mountains of this province are no less rich in some commodities or other, some being covered with wood, others producing gold, silver, lead, iron, and tin, besides variety of useful minerals, simples, and medicinal herbs. The silk is here fine, and manufactured in large quantities. Rice is no less plentiful and excellent, and the wine made of it is much admired by the Chinese.

Nang-chang-fu was once a famed and opulent city, 'till destroyed by the Tartars, though it hath, by degrees, recovered some part of its former grandeur, by means of its fine canals and rivers, which facilitate its commerce, particularly that of its China ware, wrought at Zau-chew-fu, a city under its jurisdiction, and which is in greater request than what is made in other parts of China. Its peculiar beauty consists in its extraordinary whiteness, yet without shining, and its having neither blue, nor any colours painted upon it, so that strangers cannot be mistaken about it. This peculiar excellency is allowed to be owing to that of the water*, the same materials not producing the like, when mixed with any other. The territory about it is rich, and well cultivated every-where. They breed a prodigious number of hogs, which are brought hither for sale.

* If this be true, our China-makers should duly attend to the purification of their water. Though the water may something contribute to this, yet I am inclined to think that this delicate whiteness depends upon quite other principles, and that this is only thrown out by the subtle Chinese, as a blind to the Europeans. See the article PORCELAIN.

HU-QUENG, or HU-QUAM, is another inland province, adjoining on the west to Kian-si. It is very large, and little inferior to any in fertility, healthiness, and opulence, it being a flat rich soil, intersected with numerous fine rivers, which facilitate its commerce, as well as fertilize the land.—The province is so rich and fruitful, as to be stiled the granary of China, the land of fish, rice, corn, &c. inasmuch that its numerous inhabitants transport vast quantities of those commodities annually into other provinces. But the greatest produce here is cotton, which grows, and is manufactured in vast quantities. It hath also very noble pasture-grounds, on which they feed a prodigious number of cattle.

The mountains have mines of excellent crystal, some metals and minerals, particularly talc; to say nothing of the numberless pines that grow on them, and are in universal use among all the Chinese architects, in their most stately buildings. Gold is found here also among the sand, which their rivers and torrents wash down from the hills; and which last have also mines of iron, tin, tuttenage, &c. There are great quantities of paper made from the numerous bamboos that grow in the low lands; and in the plains are seen surprizing quantities of those little worms which produce the wax, in the same manner as the bees do the honey.

Vu-cheng-fu, the metropolis of the whole province, is a very large populous city, and resorted to by a great number of ves-

sels, which drive a considerable commerce with it. It at present vies with most cities of China for largeness, wealth, and magnificence. The circumadjacent territory is rich and fruitful, and abounds with rivers and canals. It is terminated at some distance by mountains, that produce a fine crystal, and others covered with stately trees. Besides these, there may be said to be a forest of masts of trading vessels, ranged along the river Kyang; besides others of smaller size, which extend themselves several miles on each side, inasmuch that there are seldom reckoned fewer than 8 or 10,000; and it is remarkable, that the river Kyang, though above 150 leagues from the sea, is here full three miles wide, and deep enough to bear the largest ships.

Vu-cheng is not only the capital of the whole province, but of the northern district; and being seated, as it were, in the center of the whole empire, hath an easy communication with every part of it.

SEN-CHEU is another large and fruitful province, extending westward to the mountains of India. It abounds with rice, cotton, silk, and, in the general, is exceeding fruitful. Its mountains, besides variety of woods, yield several mines of quicksilver, tin, &c. Here, also, are produced large quantities of rhubarb, China-root, and other medicinal drugs.

There are divers other capital provinces in China; but, as the produce and manufactures in general are much the same, it is needless to dwell longer upon them. We shall, therefore, only say something to their shipping, and their coasting-trade, deferring their trade to Europe 'till we come to the respective European nations interested therein, under the articles of their various trading companies, as EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. and FRANCE, for a communication of trade between that empire and China, by the means of caravans. See CARAVANS.

The Chinese shipping, says the Abbe Lambert, differ as much from ours as their dress. They pretend to have had it from the remotest antiquity, and that some thousand years ago they had sailed over all the Indian seas, and discovered the Cape of Good Hope, though they then knew nothing of the compass, whatever they did afterwards. They have ships of all ranks, but so different in make from ours, that they are chiefly fit for rivers, but not so good for sea. They use a vast number of flat-bottomed barks, of a prodigious size, some of which, called floating villages, have a great many houses and families on board, who follow their respective occupations, and seldom or never go on shore. Those belonging to the emperor, nobles, and governors of provinces, resemble castles, and are divided into grand apartments, for all the uses of state and convenience.

The largest Chinese vessels of war are from an 150 to 300 tons burden. They are, properly speaking, but flat boats, with two masts. They do not exceed 80 or 90 feet in length, and 60 or 70 in breadth. The masts, sails, and rigging of these vessels are ruder than their build; for their masts are made of trees, no otherwise fashioned than by lopping off their branches.

These vessels have neither mizen-mast, bowsprit, nor top-gallant-mast. All their masts are the main-mast and the fore-mast, to which they sometimes add a small top-gallant-mast, which is not of great use. The main-mast is placed almost where we place ours, and the fore-mast is on the fore-castle. The proportion of the one to the other is generally as two to three, and that of the main-mast to the vessel is nearly so, being generally more than two-thirds of the length of the vessel. Their sails are made of mats of bamboo, a kind of cane common in China [see BAMBOO] strengthened every three feet by an horizontal rib of the same wood. At top and bottom are two pieces of wood; that above serves as a yard; that below, made in form of a plank, more than a foot broad, and about six inches thick, retains the sail, when they want to hoist or furl it. These vessels are by no means good sailors; however, they hold more wind than the Europeans. This is owing to the stiffness of their sails, which do not yield to the wind: but, as the construction of them is not advantageous, they lose the advantage they have in this point over ours.

The Chinese do not caulk their ships with pitch, as in Europe; their caulking is made of a particular gum, and is so good that the vessel is kept dry by a well or two in the hold: they have as yet no knowledge of the pump. Their anchors are not iron, as ours, but are made of a hard and weighty wood, which they call iron-wood. They pretend that those anchors are much better than those of iron, because, say they, those last are subject to bend, which never happens to those of wood.

They have neither pilot nor master. The steersman conducts the ship, and gives orders for the working. However, they are pretty good sailors, and good coasting pilots; but very bad ones in the main sea. They steer by that point of the compass which leads directly to the place they are bound to, without minding the shoals the vessel receives. This negligence, or rather ignorance, proceeds from their not making long voyages.

China, 'till of late, might be looked upon as a monarchy wholly severed from the rest of the world; neither suffering strangers to set foot into it, nor their subjects to visit foreign parts. They drive, indeed, a great and constant traffic among themselves; every province being ambitious of communicating it's products and manufactures to the other, in order to keep all hands profitably employed. This had been their policy, even from the remotest times of their monarchy; but, at present, they have thought better of it, and, by opening a commerce with other countries, have increased the means of enriching their own. They now not only suffer, but encourage, both near and distant nations, particularly Europeans, to come and trade with them, and bring them their most valuable commodities; and, at the same time, allow their own people to disperse themselves into a great number of foreign parts, whither they carry their silks, porcelain, japan, and other curious manufactures and knickknacks, as well as their tea, medicinal roots, drugs, sugar, and other produce. They trade into most parts of India; they go to Batavia, Malacca, Achem, Siam, &c. especially to the islands of Japan and Manillas, which are but a small distance from them; and from which they bring, among other things, great quantities of silver and gold; and that which comes from Mexico to the Philippine Islands, by the Pacific Ocean, is carried to Canton, and thence dispersed through the whole empire. No wonder then if it is so opulent and powerful, when all the four parts of the globe contribute to make it so.

The Chinese, from remotest antiquity, exported the growth and commodities of their country, chiefly raw silk, wherein it abounds, all over the East. It is from thence they were, by the Greeks and Romans, called Seres. They traded particularly to the kingdoms and islands situate beyond Sumatra and Molucca to the east. Since the late Tartarian conquest, many of them, unwilling to conform to the orders issued by their conquerors, to shave their heads after the manner of the Tartars, left their native country, and settled in the same kingdoms and islands which, 'till then, they had frequented only as traders. They had, also, from time almost immemorial, carried on a commerce with Japan, though but small, and with few yonks. For, under the reigns of some former emperors, China was, as Japan now is, shut up, and kept from all commerce with foreign nations, and the inhabitants strictly forbid, under severe penalties, to export the growth of the country, or to have any communication with their neighbours. Nevertheless, those who lived along the sea-coasts, and in the neighbouring islands, found means, though with some difficulty; and in private; to fit out a small number of yonks, and now and then to pass over to the kingdoms and islands which lay nearest, whereof Japan was one. Things stood thus, when the late Tartarian conqueror of China, and his successor, the now reigning monarch of that mighty empire, thinking that it would very much conduce to the honour of his subjects, and to the advantage of his dominions, for the future, to permit a free and undisturbed commerce, resolved to suffer his subjects to trade abroad, and to give foreigners free access to his dominions.

The Chinese have, ever since, exported the produce and commodities of their country to a much greater quantity than before, and enlarged their trade and commerce, as with most eastern nations, so particularly with their neighbours the Japanese, by whom they had been all along received as welcome guests, and tolerated, because of the affinity there is between the religion, customs, books, learned languages, arts and sciences of both nations. Formerly they frequented the harbour of Osacca, and others less secure, because of the frequent cliffs, rocks, and shoals, which rendered the whole navigation that way exceedingly difficult and dangerous, and wholly impracticable for ships of any bulk. The Portuguese, some time after, shewed them the way to that of Nagasaki, which is not only more secure, but was, in many other respects, much more advantageous. The resort of merchants to this place, who came from all parts of the empire to trade with the Portuguese, was too great not to engage the Chinese to put in there, preferably to other places. At last, orders coming from court, importing that the harbour of Nagasaki should be, for the future, the only one open to foreigners in all the Japanese dominions, fixed them there. Ever since, the Chinese, as well those who live in China, as others who were, by the late Tartarian conquest, dispersed into the neighbouring countries and islands, beyond the Ganges to the east, traded to Nagasaki, either upon their own account, or that of their principals, for some time, with all the liberty they could possibly desire.

They came over when, and with what number of people, yonks and goods, they pleased. So extensive and advantageous a liberty could not but be very pleasing to them, and put them upon thoughts of a surer establishment; in order to which, and for the free exercise of their religion, they built three temples, according to the three chief languages spoken by them, each to be attended by priests of their own nation, sent over from China. The number of Chinese, and Chinese yonks, soon increased to that degree, as made the suspicious and circumspect Japanese extremely jealous of them. For, to mention only some late instances, there came over to Nagasaki,

in the years 1683 and 1684, at least 200 Chinese yonks a year, every one with no less than 50 people on board, (at present they are not permitted to have more than 30 hands on board each yonk) so that no less than 10,000 people came over from China to Nagasaki every year. Some of the largest yonks, besides the necessary hands, brought over numbers of passengers, and other private persons, who came to trade upon their own account; and several of them had from fifty to four-score, and sometimes 100 men on board.

Whoring, which is strictly forbid in China, being openly permitted in Japan, many young rich persons came over to Japan, purely for their pleasure, and to spend some part of their money with Japanese wenches, which proved very beneficial to this town. Not long ago a Tartarian mandarin came over with a very numerous retinue, and in quality of admiral of a small fleet of six yonks; but he was obliged forthwith to return to China; for the Japanese gave him to understand, that their country would not bear any other commanders and mandarins but such as were natives of it. The liberty which the Chinese for some time enjoyed in this country, was too great to continue long without alteration, and it quickly came to a fatal end.

The Japanese had notice given them that the Jesuits, their mortal enemies, who had been banished from Japan for ever, were favourably treated at the court of the then reigning Tartarian monarch of China, by whom they had liberty granted them to preach and propagate the gospel in all the extent of his vast dominions: some books relating to the Roman catholic religion, which the fathers of the society had found means to print in China, in the language of that country, were brought over to Japan, among other Chinese books, and sold privately; which made the Japanese apprehensive, that, by this means, the Christian religion, which had been exterminated with so much trouble, and the loss of so many thousand persons, might be revived again in the country. Some suspicion of Christianity was thrown even on the importers of these books; and, if they were not looked upon as actual converts, they were thought, at least, to be favourably inclined to the Roman catholic religion. For these several reasons, which were of great moment with so jealous and apprehensive a nation, it was proposed at court to reduce the extensive liberty of the Chinese to a narrower compass, and to put them much upon the same foot with the Dutch, both with regard to their trade and way of life. The thoughts of the court tending at first to alter the state of the Chinese trade, and afterwards to shut up their persons, as they had done the Dutch at Desima, and to make their settlement subject to the same rigorous regulations and narrow inspection which ours labour under, were strongly supported by the arrival of the mandarin above-mentioned, and the daily increase of the Chinese and Tartars suspected of Christianity, the very worst thing they could have been suspected of. And as to the first, I mean the regulations concerning their trade, that same year 1685, in which the Dutch had been reduced to the sum of 300,000 thails, or 300 chests of silver per annum, the court thought fit to limit, also, the Chinese to a certain sum, beyond which none of their goods should be sold. This sum is not to exceed 600 chests of silver, that is, 600,000 shumome, or thails, and according to the Dutch way of computation, 21 tons of gold.

It was ordered, at the same time, that the goods that might be reasonably supposed to yield 600,000 thails, should be brought over on board 70 yonks at furthest, and this according to the following division, made by the Japanese themselves: 17 yonks from the province Hoksju, or Foktsju; 16 from Nankin; 5 from the city and province of Canton; 5 from Nesa; 4 from Sintsjeu; 4 from the island Aymo, or Aymman, and the coast of the neighbouring continent of China; 3 from Kootz, or Kootsja; 3 from the kingdom of Siam, or Sijam; 2 from the kingdom of Tunquin; 2 from Cammon; 2 from the kingdom of Cambotga, or Cambodia; 2 from Takkafagga, otherwise Tafwaan, upon the island Formosa; 1 from Fudafam, situate below Kakttsju; 1 from Kootsji, or Cofijnina; and 1 from Tani, which is one of the most considerable of the Kuiku Islands: besides some others. After this manner the Japanese have thought fit to divide the allowed number of yonks among the Chinese, settled in the several kingdoms and islands above-mentioned. They admit also one from Siakkatarria, or Batavia, and one from Proking, or Deking; which two last should be either added to the foregoing, to make up the number of 70, or else admitted in lieu of such as staid too late, or were cast away in their voyage; and yet, notwithstanding the great accuracy and nice circumspection of the Japanese, the Chinese will frequently impose upon them. Thus, for instance, some of the yonks that come to Nagasaki early in the year, after they have disposed of their cargoes, return to clean, and to be new painted and varnished; then they take in another cargo, and other hands on board, and so make the voyage twice the same year, without the Japanese being able to discover the cheat. Others go to the province Satsuma early in the year, as if they had been cast thither by chance, or stress of weather; dispose of what goods they can, then haste back to take in a new cargo, and so go up to Nagasaki. If in going to Satsuma they

are met by the Japanese guard de coasts, which, by order of the government, cruise in those seas, to hinder the natives from carrying on a smuggling trade, they will then alter their course, as if they had been, against their inclinations, cast out of it, and proceed directly on their voyage to Nagasaki, as the only harbour foreigners are permitted to put into.

As to the second of the two above-mentioned points, which the court had in view with regard to the Chinese nation, I mean to shut them up, as they had done the Dutch at Desima, that was not put in execution till three years after; for they as yet enjoyed ample liberty, till the year 1688, when the fine garden of Sije Sfigu Feso, late steward of the imperial lands and tenements about Nagasaki, was assigned them for their habitation. This garden was pleasantly seated, almost at the end of the harbour, not far from the shore and town. It had been maintained with great expence, as the emperor's own property, and was curiously adorned with a great number of fine plants, both native and foreign, the professor himself having been a great lover of botany. Upon this spot of ground several rows of small houses were built, to receive the Chinese, every row covered with one common roof, and the whole surrounded with ditches, pallisades, and strong, well-guarded, double gates. All this was done with so much expedition, that the same place which, at the beginning of February, was one of the pleafantest gardens, had already, towards the latter end of May, the horrible aspect of a strong prison, therein to secure the Chinese, who, into the bargain, must pay ever since a yearly rent of 1600 thails for it. Whenever they come to Nagasaki, they must live here; and so great is their covetousness and love of gain, that they suffer themselves to be as narrowly watched, and as badly, if not worse accommodated, than the Dutch are at Desima. However, there are some remarkable differences to be observed with regard to the accommodation of the Dutch and Chinese. These are, 1. The Chinese are not allowed the favour of being admitted into the presence of the emperor, as the Dutch are once a year; but, instead of this, they face the trouble and charges of a journey of three months, and of so many presents which must be made to his imperial majesty and his ministers. 2. They have victuals and provisions brought and offered them to sale at the very gates of the factory; whereas we must be at the expence of maintaining a whole company of commissi- oners for victualling, all natives of Japan. 3. Being looked upon as private merchants, and withal increasing the bad opinion the Japanese have of them, by the frequent disputes and quarrels arising among them, they are not treated with so much civility as we are, by their inspectors, guards, and interpreters, who made no scruple now and then to cane them, by way of punishment for small misdemeanors. 4. They have no director of their trade constantly residing there, as the Dutch have; but, when the sale of their goods is over, they go on board their yonks, leaving in the mean time their houses empty.

They have three sales a year, at three different times; one in the spring, when they dispose of their cargoes of twenty yonks, another in the summer for thirty others, and another in autumn again for twenty. What other yonks come over beyond this number, or after the sale is over, must return without so much as being suffered to unlade. Their cargoes consist in raw silk from China and Tonquin, and all sorts of filken and woollen stuffs, which are likewise imported by the Dutch. They also import sugar from several parts of the East-Indies, calamine-stone from Tonquin, for making of bras or brazier's wares; turpentine (from wild pistachio-trees); gum, myrrh, agate, and calamback-wood, from Tsiampa, Cambodia, and the neighbouring countries; the precious camphire of Baros from Borneo; the precious Chinese root Nifin, or Ninfeng (wild sugar-root) from Corea, several other drugs and medicines, simple and compound, from China, besides several philosophical and theological books printed in China. As to these books, it happened, that some relating to the Christian religion, which were composed and printed by the Jesuits in China, slipped among the rest. When this was first found out by the Japanese, they obliged the proprietor of the books to testify in the most solemn manner, that he was not a Christian himself, and that he did not bring over those books designedly, and knowing what they were; then, to make him more circumspect for the future, they sent him back with his yonk and whole cargo, without permitting him to dispose of any one part of it. Upon this it was ordered, that for the future all the books whatsoever, imported by the Chinese, should be first examined, and one of each kind read and censured, before they should have leave to sell them. This office of censors, with a competent yearly allowance, hath been given to two learned men of this town; one whereof is father Prior of the monastery Siutokus, who is to read and censure all ecclesiastical books; the other is Sjutos, philosopher, and physician to the Dairi, as he styles himself, who is to read and censure all the philosophical, historical, and other books. This latter gentleman resides at Tahajamma, and wears long hair, which he ties together behind his head, as the custom is among the philosophers, physicians, and surgeons of the country.

The proceedings, at the sale of the goods imported by the Chinese, being nearly the same with the Dutch, I need not add any thing to that description. It must be observed only, that as the voyage of the Chinese is shorter than that of the Dutch, and not exposed to so many dangers, nor liable to so great an expence, the government in consideration of this hath laid a much greater duty upon all their commodities, viz. 60 per cent. to be paid by the buyer, for the benefit of the several officers concerned in the management of the Chinese trade, and of other inhabitants of Nagasaki, amongst whom this money is afterwards distributed. This great duty is the reason, why their profits are not so considerable as that of the Dutch, the buyers, by whom the duty is to be paid, being not willing to offer great prices for them. It has been ordered besides, ever since the reduction of that trade, that the money paid in for their goods should not be exported, as it was done formerly, in copper or silver money, but should all be laid out again in copper, and manufactures of the country; so that they are not now permitted to export one itzebo, or one farthing of Japanese money.

As soon as a yonk has disposed of that part of her cargo, which in the distribution hath been assigned her for her portion, the funaban (or guard-ships, which as soon as she comes into the harbour are posted on both sides of her) attend her out of the harbour, till she gets to the main sea. The day before her departure, the Chinese Neptunus, or sea idol, was fetched from the temple, where he was kept from the time of the yonk's arrival, and is with great pomp and ceremony, under the sound of timbrels and other musical instruments, carried on board. This idol is unknown in Japan, and not worshipped by the Japanese. Chinese sailors carry him along with them in all their voyages, and make great vows to him, when they are in danger. Every evening a gilt paper is lighted before him, and thrown into the sea as an offering, with ringing of bells, and playing upon musical instruments. If they made a good voyage, particularly if they escaped some considerable danger, they play wejjangi, or comedies, at night in the open street, for his diversion. They are likewise said to sacrifice to him swine and other animals, the flesh whereof they afterward eat. For this reason they never sacrifice cows to him, because they have a great veneration for this animal, and religiously abstain from eating its flesh. The Chinese merchants returning commonly with a good quantity of undisposed books on board, they are frequently followed by Japanese smugglers, who buy the remainder of their goods at a low price: but these unhappy wretches are almost as frequently caught by the Japanese cruisers, and delivered up to justice at Nagasaki, which constantly proves severe and unmerciful enough to them.

There is another company of merchants from the Kiuku, or Siquejo islands, who are permitted to carry on a particular trade to the province Satzuma. By the Kiuku, or Siquejo islands, must be understood that chain of islands, which run down from the south-west coast of Satzuma, towards the Philippine islands. The inhabitants speak a broken Chinese, which evinces their original descent from China. The Chinese at all times traded to these islands. After the late Tartarian conquest of China, many came over with their families to settle there, and were well received by the inhabitants, as old acquaintance and countrymen. Some time ago these islands were invaded and conquered by the prince of Satzuma, under whose subjection they still remain. Though they look upon the prince of Satzuma, as their conqueror or sovereign, to whose bugjos, or lieutenants, they pay some small part of the produce of their fields, by way of a tribute, yet they will not acknowledge the supremacy of the Japanese emperor. They send over every year a present to the Tartarian monarch of China, in token of submission. Though they might be looked upon, in some measure, as subjects of the Japanese emperor, yet they are, as to their trade, treated like other foreigners. They are ordered to go to the harbour of Satzuma, and not to presume to frequent any other in the Japanese dominions. The import and sale of their goods has been likewise limited to the yearly sum of 125,000 thails, beyond which nothing should be sold. Nevertheless they dispose of much greater cargoes, through the connivance of the Japanese directors of their trade, who are themselves no losers by it. The goods imported by them are all sorts of silks and other stuffs, with several other Chinese commodities, which they bring over from China on board their own yonk; some of the produce of their own country, as corn, rice, pulse, fruits; ovamuri, a strong sort of brandy, made out of the remainder of their crop; takaragai and fiamagai, that is, pearl-shells, and that sort of small shell called cowries in the Indies, which are brought chiefly from the Maldive islands to Bengal and Siam, where they go for current money. Out of those which are imported into Japan by the inhabitants of the Kiuku islands, upon the shore whereof they are found in great plenty, is prepared a white check varnish, which boys and girls paint themselves withal. They likewise import a sort of large flat shells, polished and almost transparent, which the Japanese make use of instead of windows, and to shelter themselves against rain and cold; some scarce flowers and plants in pots, besides several other things.

REMARKS.

The port of Canton has not been long in repute with our India company, but the merchants of Madras have some years preferred it to Amoy, where they experienced the extravagant demands, charges, and abuses of the Mandarins, ready to swallow up the whole profits of a voyage.—Here, [at Canton] a whole fleet may be freighted without danger of overstaying the monsoons for a cargo, which is highly beneficial to the company.

In this trade, 'tis proper to conceal your money. The advantage received from it is keeping the hoppers and their officers from exactions, the knowledge of your riches might induce them to, it being in their power to retard or expedite your affairs.

Nothing is of so weighty consideration in this traffic, as the judicious making of contracts.—To mix, as was formerly the case, $\frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ silver with your goods, is inconsistent with the company's interest, many of the company's supercargoes having experienced, that the same things could have been bought with the money only.—Therefore a downright sale, though you cannot get the full value of them in barter, is the best way to be free from the vexations you will otherwise labour under.—Here observe, lead, which is a material commodity, and the only one the company used to gain by, is always esteemed as ready money.

China ware, pictures, fans, and lacquered ware, are better bought out of the shops than in contract, unless you can stay till a parcel is got ready; for these it is proper to reserve a considerable sum of money, more than will clear the other contracts and investments.—By no means flint yourself in cash, but rather keep too much, than less than will serve your occasions.

Your factory being free for every one to bring in his goods, you must expect to be daily visited by the greatest sharpers in China: some with one thing; some another to sell; wherefore, to deal with them, you should have your wits about you, till you have detected two or three of the ringleaders, which, for the future, will check their roguish spirits, and intimidate others from imposition.—There is nothing like punishing a Chinese in his pocket.—Unroll and measure the silks, which are sometimes of two or three colours, and are often deficient in their dimensions.—Never weigh your silver by their dotchins, for they have usually two pair, one to receive, the other to pay by.—In weighing, see the beam is not longer on one side than the other, and take an equal number of draughts of both scales.—Some have two holes in the ends of the beam, or notches for the scales to hang in; which, as they use them, will augment or diminish the weight, as suits their interests.—In others the ends are to be let out, or drawn in imperceptibly, which has the same fraudulent effect.—But the least perceptible artifice of this kind is, when the nut, or center of the beam wherein it hangs, is made to slide; a quarter of an inch added to one, and taken from the other side, will make a sensible alteration.—In the dotchin, an expert weigher will cheat 2 or 3 per cent. by placing and shaking the weight, and minding the motion of the pole only, without any other help.—To detect these, the best way is to try every thing by your English weights, without the assistance of any but your own people.—In fine, balance the scales often, and they will not stick wax on the bottom of them, which otherwise they may attempt to do.

In package be very wary: if you trust to them, it may be ill done, the goods changed, or short in tale.—They have heretofore shewn no little dexterity in imitating chests, boxes, and canisters, in shape, mark, and even in seals, and finding means to change them for the originals; and there is always reason to suspect new inventions of this kind, they being wonderfully fruitful in these arts of deceit.—The Europeans having been so often bit by these superlative sharpers, too much care cannot be taken of them.

In all payments take receipts, and mention on them where the Chinese live, who receive the money;—which will make them cautious how they deviate from their agreements, and put bad goods upon you. For, though they may be rogues enough in their hearts, they don't care to appear so in writing. Tea grows in China, Tonquin, and Japan, but it is seldom exported from the latter; perhaps for want of skill to cure it, or that it is not so good in quality.—From Canton it is a profitable commodity to all parts of the world, where they have the knowledge of it, especially green tea.—Bohea is of little worth among the Moors and Gentoos of India, Arabs and Persians; probably, because they have not been used to it; that of 45 tale would not fetch the price of green tea of 10 tale a pecul. Yet many virtues are ascribed to the bohea.—There are several ways to know the good from the bad, which the buyer should be well experienced in.—It ought to smell and taste well, look all of a colour, and be very dry, crisp and brittle.—The best opens soonest in hot water, and, the oftener it colours it, the stronger and better it is.—Small blackish leaves and dirty are signs of a bad sort.

Single, or common green tea, is a small lead-coloured leaf; the best sort has a fresh strong flavour peculiar to itself.—For trial, chew it, and, the greener it is, the better it is.—Or, put

an equal quantity of several sorts into different sizable pots of water, and that which holds longest of a pale amber colour, may justly be preferred, for the worst turns brownish.—Afterwards put fresh water to it, 'till it has quite lost its virtue, and then if none of the leaves turn brown, or dark-coloured, you may depend on the goodness of it; the contrary shewing it to be old, ill cured, and on the decay.

Imperial or bing tea, is a large loose leaf, of a very light green, when chewed; and, being infused, leaves the water very pale: it yields a pleasant smell, but not so strong as the singloe; it is the lightest sort of all, and takes up a great deal of room in a ship.—If it once loses its crispness, 'twill never recover; a pecul of tough or damp tea in China is not worth the freight in England.

'Tis not enough to know and purchase the best tea: for, without good management in its package and stowage on board of ship, all your care may be rendered fruitless.—The company are so thoroughly sensible of this, that they are very particular in their orders to their supercargoes about it.—The following paragraph of their real instructions contains all that is necessary on that head:

'Tea is a commodity of that general use here, and so nicely to be managed in its package, to preserve its flavour and virtue, that you cannot be too careful in putting it up: take special care, therefore, it be well closed in tutenague, then wrapped up in leaves, and so put into good tubs of dry well seasoned wood, made tight and close enough, to preserve it from all manner of scent, which it is very subject to imbibe, and thereby become of no value here: but you must be sure that the wood of your tubs have no scent, whether sweet or unfavoury, that will spoil the tea; so will camphire, musk, and all other strong-scented commodities: wherefore no such smell must come into the ship, at least near the tea. For the like reason, take care the tutenague be well cured of the smell of the foldering oil before using. Bring no tea in small pots, 'twill not keep. Be sure the tea you bring be very new, and the best of its sort, remembering that, in this and every other commodity, the worst pays as much freight as the best, and many times the same custom. Keep the tea in the coolest place of the ship; what is put in the hold, open the hatches in fair weather to give it air, as often as you have opportunity; but you will see, by the captain's instruction, we have required that our tea be stowed between decks, abaft the after hatch-way with a bulk head, and a little gang-way made for passage, which do you see done accordingly; it being now peace, we are resolved to dispense with our old orders, in this particular, of stowing no goods between decks, when so great an advantage will accrue, as the preserving the tea, a very considerable article in the profit and loss of that commodity.'

Quicksilver is best tried by straining through a white cloth, three or four times double, or shamoy leather; the best leaves no dross nor filth behind.—Or set a little in a spoon over the flame of a candle, and it will soon evaporate, leaving a white, yellow, or black spot; and, as it excels in the former, so is it pure and free from lead, or other mixtures. Vermillion in cakes is not to be counterfeited, but it may be foul; the best is clean, flaky, and of a shining or glittering crimson colour, extraordinary heavy, and in large bright pieces, or lumps, two or three inches thick; never purchase it in powder, it being liable in that state to great adulteration. China-root should be large, found, and weighty, without worm-holes, white or reddish within; there's no difference with respect to colour, in point of quality.

The best rhubarb is firm and solid; what comes from China is often deficient in both.

Tonquin musk in cod is of a dark brown or liver colour, strong-scented, and appears in small round grains. If it proves gritty between the teeth, 'tis a certain sign of its bad quality, and an extraordinary weight gives grounds for a suspicion of roguery. A bodkin or scoop will best discover the mixture of sand, lead, or other ingredients used to augment the weight.—If 'tis mixed with goat's blood, 'twill not flame in burning like the genuine musk, which leaves whitish or grey ashes, instead of those that are dirty and dark.—Old and decayed musk the Chinese rarely offer by itself; therefore examine the parcel well, that none of a faded colour be intermixed.—It should not be quite dry, and, if very moist, 'twill lose much in weight; wherefore both extremes are to be vigilantly guarded against.—Upon the whole, 'tis seldom a beneficial article in this branch of trade: for, considering the prime cost, loss in drying, China duty, freight, custom in England, the company's charges, and the price 'tis generally sold at in London, there's oftener loss than gain to be got by it.

Raw silk is so nice a commodity, that 'tis no easy matter to judge within 4 or 5 per cent. of its true value. It should be carefully observed, that both inside and out perfectly agree, that it be un gummed, neither damp or in any respect discoloured. Great delicacy should be used in the package to preserve it, and the closer it is, the greater advantage you'll have in the freight.

Wrought silks are cheap and good, of innumerable sorts, fashions, flowers, and prices: as damasks, fattins, taffaties, paunches, pelongs Tonquin and Canton, gelongs, gawse, gold-flowered damasks, velvets, palampores, embroideries, &c. Sattins and damasks should be of brisk lively colours for the European markets, and of flowers no ways resembling European figures; and care should be taken that they are full weight, according to agreement.

Tonquin pelongs are the finest; those made at Canton are longer and broader. White paunches ought not to owe the beauty of their whiteness to brimstone, which may be tried with a strong fillip of the finger. Gillongs are a kind of silk crape, used by the officers of the army and navy for neck-cloths in time of war, but not in constant demand.

Gilt-paper-flowered-silks make a fine show till they are worn in the rain, or damp with sweat: the small-flowered, and where the paper does not appear much on the backside, are most valuable. The velvets of China are of different lengths and breadths, and often rotten with age, especially black.—Palampores and embroideries are estimable for their largeness, fineness and figures, for the purchase of which there are no accurate directions to be given; the judgment of the buyer must determine him.

Nanquin goods are generally well made, and hold out the lengths; nor need you suffer in others, provided you merit the character of a careful man at first coming among those traders; otherwise, he that is ignorant of the qualities will be certainly bit.—Pack every fort in chests by itself; set the rolled pieces up an end; wrap them all in paper; leave a note of the contents on the top, and burn your mark on both sides of the cover.

Copper in bars, in the form of sticks of sealing wax, is better than in plates; but the Japan copper is best of all: though in Gombroon and Muskat the merchants make no difference. The closer and redder it looks within, on being broke, the better it is. There is no trusting to outward appearance: for, being heated red-hot, and quenched in common urine, it will receive a high red colour, that may deceive you. It is usually packed a pecul in a chest, covered with mats, and bound with split rattans.

Allum; the best is clear, dry, and free from dirt.

China camphire, is in small, white, transparent grains, a little bigger than sea-sand; which being close packed, and heated in the ship's hold, coagulate into a lump before it comes home. In chests or tubs it will waste; therefore the best way to bring it is in China jars, or tutenague.

Sugar and Sugar-candy are forced into head, belly, and foot, which bear each a price proportionably greater than the other. Cochinchina affords of the latter the best in the world, being white, and as clear as crystal.

These are commodities a little experience will gain a thorough knowledge in, and prevent imposition.

Fans are in the greatest perfection at Nanquin, from whence they are brought to Amoy, and this market, for sale. There are great quantities made all over China; yet there is a sensible difference in the workmanship. The people of Amoy, having had the longest and greatest commerce with us, know best what will please, and accordingly employ the finest workmen in the provinces, and provide it against the arrival of the English ships: for which reason not only the best fans, but the best pictures, toys, and lacquered ware have always been brought from that port: but, of late years, their best lacquer-men have been drawn to Canton, which has rendered this a mart, more famous than ever the other was, for good workmanship of these kinds, as it has always likewise excelled in the silk manufactures. Before you set out, learn what size and fashion is most taking, and provide yourself accordingly. Pictures are valued for the liveliness and briskness of the colours, and variety of figures. Odd fancies commonly hit the general taste; and the Chinese do not seem to have any taste for pieces of gravity.

Lacquered ware should be without specks, smooth, and of so shining a black that you may easily see your face in it, the figures in raised work, and well executed; the bottoms, sides, and corners sound; and nothing should be chosen but what is useful: the gold work should not come off with slight rubbing, nor the substance of bowls, basons, &c. be too thick. The finest, indeed, comes from Japan, but at so dear a rate, that it rarely turns to account, any more than the coarsest, which our own artists can greatly excel: therefore the best China is advisable. Pack it tight in chests, or boxes, lest it receive damage by the ship's motion; for the smallest part worn or rubbed off, makes a great alteration in the value.

Porcelan, or China ware, is so tender a commodity, that good admonitions are as requisite for package as purchase. The best of this also comes from Japan, which the fine Nan-kin ware so well imitates, that it must be a man of judgment and experience to distinguish one sort from the other.

The Japan porcelan is heaviest, of the coarsest grain, and free from specks, or risings in the bottom; has five or six regular knobs, in large pieces, which are never observed in the other; and the gold and colours are delicately laid on: but the ground is seldom so white as the fine China. There is

but little of it to be found in the shops, it being generally too dear for our market. However, the following sorts, or what we call Nanquin japan, will turn to good account.—Try every piece with a small stick, to discover the cracks, and take nothing of that which has the least fire-flaw or discolour; otherwise you may agree to be allowed so much in the whole, or per cent. for damage.

For more matter upon this head, in regard to carrying on the East-India trade in general to the best advantage, we shall represent it under those various heads to which we have heretofore referred. See our MAPS of Asia.

CHOCOLATE, which is diluted in warm water, in order to make a nourishing liquor, is a paste, whose chief ingredient is the powder of cacao-nuts, which are taken out of a long shell shaped like a cucumber; and to these nuts there is an additional mixture of some particular drugs. The Mexicans, in whose country the cacao-tree grows in the greatest abundance, take the nuts and mix them with Indian corn, and such sugar as they extract from their canes, adding a few seeds of rocou, which are coloured with the finest vermilion in the world. They grind all these ingredients between a couple of stones, and work the mixture into a paste, which they eat dry, when they are hungry, and dissolve it in warm water, when they want to quench their thirst.

The Spaniards, who find this composition very beneficial and acceptable, and know it to be a commodity of sure consumption, are so industrious to bring it to perfection, and make it extremely valuable, that at present a small garden, planted with cacao-trees, is worth above twenty thousand crowns to the proprietor. Complaints are made, that the Spaniards mix with the cacao-nuts too great a quantity of cloves and cinnamon, besides other drugs without number. The grocers at Paris use few or none of these ingredients, and have much less regard for musk and ambergrease, which a number of people are fond of to infatuation; they only chuse out the best nuts, which are called Caracca, because they are brought from the ports adjoining to the city of Caraccas in Terra Firma of America; with these nuts they mix a very small quantity of cinnamon, the freshest vanilla*, and the finest sugar, but very seldom any cloves; and they now have the art of making such chocolate as is universally esteemed.

* Vanilla is a shell full of a luscious juice, and little black seeds of a most agreeable odour. It is gathered in America, and especially in New Spain, from a tree of the same name.

Chocolate, ready made, or cacao-paste, prohibited to be imported after the 24th of June 1724, upon forfeiture, with double the value, and the package, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 2.—Made in Great-Britain, the makers to enter it at the next office in writing, and upon oath; if within the bills of mortality, every week; and in any other part of Great-Britain, every six weeks, upon forfeiture of 50 l. 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 1. Made or sold in Great-Britain, the pound avoirdupois pays 1s. 6d.—To be paid by the maker, if within the bills of mortality, within one week, and in any other part of Great-Britain, within six weeks after entry.—To be under the management of the commissioners of the Excise, and their judgment to be final.—This duty to be levied by the powers, and under the penalties of the laws of excise on liquors; and all penalties to be sued for and recovered by the same ways and means.—The duty not paid within the time limited, the penalty is 50 l. and not to deal till the duty be cleared off, upon forfeiture of treble the value; 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 18.—To be inclosed in papers, containing one pound each, and must be produced at the office where entered, to be stamped, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 19.—Counterfeiting the stamp, or selling it (knowingly) with such a stamp, or affixing stamped papers taken from chocolate that has paid the duty, on such as has not, the penalty 50 l. and twelve months imprisonment, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 22. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 13.—Damaged by lying by, may be opened in the presence of the officer, and the stamps returned; and, after worked over again with fresh chocolate-nuts, be restamped, upon paying duty only for what is added, 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. sect. 14.—But proof must be made before the collector, or a justice of peace, that the duties for the cacao-nuts have been paid, and that the chocolate had been formerly entered, 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. sect. 15.—Upon three days notice, given in writing to the officer of the division, private families may be permitted to make chocolate for private use; provided that not less than half an hundred weight of cacao-nuts be made into chocolate at one time, 11 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 23 and 25.—But, within three days after finishing, must be entered upon oath, brought to be stamped, and duty paid, upon forfeiture of treble the value, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. sect. 24.—By the act of 32 of Geo. II. a further additional duty of 9 d. per pound is laid on chocolate, to be levied and paid as the former duties. See CACAO.

CINNABAR, is the most valuable of all the ores of mercury. It is a moderately compact substance, extremely heavy, and of a bright red colour. It is sometimes found in large masses, some-

sometimes in small spangles, in earths or stones. The places where native cinnabar is produced in plenty are chiefly in Spain and Hungary, and some parts of the East-Indies. For medicinal uses native cinnabar is to be chosen of the brightest red, the heaviest that can be found, and such as has no stony or earthy matter adhering to it. The most experienced naturalists and physicians have for those uses given the preference to the factitious, which is, in effect, the same substance; with this difference only, that the one is prepared by nature, in the bowels of the earth, the other in the laboratory of the chemist. The factitious has this advantage, that the quantity of mercury contained in it is certainly known, which in the native can only be conjectural; and we are sure also of the former, that it contains nothing but mercury and sulphur, which is more than we can always be certain of with regard to the native.

The native cinnabar very easily parts with it's quicksilver, on distillation, with the addition of iron filings, or quick-lime: the sulphur, indeed, is not so easily separated from this mineral; but, if it be boiled in a lixivium of wood-ashes, or rather decrepitated nitre, it will easily be precipitated, by the addition of vinegar. The medicinal virtues of the native or factitious cinnabar, for they are the same thing when the native is pure, are very great. Our ablest physicians have experienced it to be good in epilepsies, and in all complaints of the head and nerves; it is affirmed by some eminent physicians, that it is the most sovereign remedy, even in cases of lunacy, if properly prepared.

It is generally found, in it's pure and fluid state, lodged in the accidental cavities of hard stone, and that often in considerable quantities. There are, also, several species of earth, peculiarly a reddish marl, and a pale brown clay, in which the quicksilver is lodged, and sometimes in the purest crystalline stones.

It is also frequently found in a bluish indurated clay, and sometimes in a greenish, or olive-coloured, talcky stone, in which it runs in scarlet veins. These, and the variety of other appearances of this mineral, whether in spots, stains, or blended among the substance of the matter into which it falls, are of the number of the ores easily known; but there is another wherein there is not the least appearance of redness; this is a greenish, orange-coloured, or blackish stone, for it easily assumes all these colours, and, when broken, has very little brightness, and nothing of the appearance of cinnabar. From all these ores the mercury is easily procured, by distillation in large retorts, with iron filings, or quick-lime, as before intimated.

The process is as follows:

Let the retort be well coated, and of a peculiar form, having the neck very long, and turned down at the end, so that the glass receiver may be applied perpendicularly to it; and the quantity of the ore ought to be what will fill about two-thirds of the cavity of the retort: it should be so placed that none of the fluid adhering to the neck may fall back into the belly, but that every particle collected must necessarily run down into the receiver.

The retort is to be set on a raised hearth, with a suitable bed of sand, to keep it steady; a stone is to be placed at it's front, to support it's neck, and keep the fire from reaching the recipient, and the recipient is then to be applied with cold water in it, the nose of the retort being received an inch or two into the water.

In this state a fire of charcoal is to be made about the retort, at first at a distance, gradually to season it to the fire, but, by degrees, it must be brought nearer: the retort is to be kept slightly red-hot for about an hour: more or less time is to be allowed to this operation, according to the quantity of the ore, and it's richness, the poorer ores requiring a greater heat. When the vessels are cold, the quicksilver will be found at the bottom of the water, in the receiver. This operation may be performed in a sand-heat; but then it is necessary that the bottom of the furnace be kept red-hot during the time, and that the retort immediately touch it; but with this caution it does not do so well as when the several parts of the retort and the ore are equally heated. When there is little or no sulphur in the ore, there needs no addition to it, it running very readily thus out of the retort; but, when it is of the cinnabarine kind, iron or lime must be added, and the fire be made a great deal stronger. See the article MERCURY.

CINNAMON. The cinnamon of our shops is a thin bark, always brought to us rolled up into a sort of little tubules, or pipes; these are from the thickness of a goose-quill to that of a man's thumb, and sometimes larger; and in length they are often two or three feet. The bark itself is also very different in thickness, as well as the rolls, or tubes, it forms itself into. It is sometimes of the thickness of a crown-piece, or more, but usually not thicker than a shilling: sometimes we meet with it as thin as paper. It's surface is tolerably smooth and even, but not glossy: it's texture fibrous, and moderately firm; it breaks, however, tolerably easy, and is not very heavy. It's colour is brownish, with a mixture of red. It

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is of an extremely fragrant and aromatic smell, and of an acrid and pungent but very agreeable taste.

The greatest deceits that are practised in the sale of cinnamon are, the selling such as has already had it's essential oil distilled from it, and been dried again, and the imposing the cassia lignea in it's place. The first of these cheats is discovered by want of pungency in the cinnamon; the second, that the cassia, when held a little time in the mouth, becomes mucilaginous, which the true cinnamon never does. Our cinnamon is the interior or second bark of the tree which produces it: the people who collect it take off the two barks together, and immediately separating the outer one, which is rough, and has very little fragrantcy, they lay the other to dry in the shade, in an airy place, where it rolls itself up into the form we see it in.

It's root is large, and divided into many branches, and it penetrates very deep into the ground: it's bark is of a reddish grey without, and red within: it's smell is like that of camphire, very strong, but the woody part has no smell at all. The trunk is thick, and divides into a multitude of branches: the bark is green at first, but it grows reddish with age, and wraps itself close to the wood, but it is covered with a greyish, loose, and chapped rind: it is of a faintly aromatic taste, while fresh, but acquires a very pungent one in drying: the wood is whitish, firm, and without smell. The leaves resemble those of the bay-tree, but they are larger, being four inches, or thereabouts, in length: they stand on moderately long pedicles, and though of no very remarkable smell while fresh, they become very fragrant in drying, and have the true smell of the cinnamon-bark; by which they are distinguished from the malabathrum-leaves, which otherwise greatly resemble them. The flowers are small and whitish; they stand in clusters at the end of the branches, and are succeeded by little berries, of an oblong figure, green at first, but afterwards bluish, and spotted with white: these stand in little hollow greenish cups; they consist of a thin rind, inclosing a soft greenish pulp, of an austere, astringent, and subacid taste, under which is an oblong, thin, and brittle stone, containing a kernel of the same shape, and of a reddish colour.

The tree grows in Ceylon so plentifully, that the woods and forests are full of it. The bark intended for use is taken from the branches of three years growth, or thereabouts. They take it off in spring and autumn, when the quantity of sap between it and the wood makes it loose. The branches thus stripped remain bare two or three years; but afterwards they acquire a new covering, of the same kind with the former. There is a thin membrane very observable on the inner surface of the cinnamon, when fresh taken from the tree, and which even is distinguishable with us, if carefully enquired after. This is truly a third bark of the tree. It is of a vastly more acrid taste than the rest, and is what alone contains the oil of the drug. Hoffman, who was at the pains of separating some of it, found that it yielded, on distillation, six times as much oil of cinnamon as the common cinnamon taken in the gross.

The ancients have treated very largely of a drug which they call cassia, and of another very nearly allied to it, which they call cassia. Many have supposed their cinnamon and cassia to be the produce of two different trees; that their cinnamon is now wholly unknown to us, and that their cassia was the same with what we now call cinnamon. Their accounts of these spices are but little to be depended upon: they only received them from merchants, unwilling, perhaps, as well as unable, to give them true information about the origin of a drug of such value. It appears, upon the whole, that our cinnamon, and their cinnamon and cassia, are all three of the same kind. Their own accounts of their cassia prove it to be the same with our cinnamon; and, from the same accounts, it is also easy to learn, that their cassia and cinnamon were the produce of the same tree, but that the cinnamon was the smaller branches, cut off and sold to them, wood and bark together; and their cassia, the bark of the somewhat larger branches of the same tree, stripped off and sold separate.

The trade of cinnamon seems to have been carried on a great while in this double manner, till at length it was found better to strip even the smaller branches, and to bring over only the bark, which is the custom continued to this day; only we have changed the terms, and made the word cinnamon applicable to, and expressive of the bark, instead of the name cassia, by which they called it.

The ancients had several kinds of cassia, differing in colour, degree of pungency, and other circumstances, which they called asyphie, mold, and gifer, and by other names. Their cinnamon they also distinguished, in the same manner, into the mosilitic, the mountain, the black and the white cinnamon. But all these are not to be supposed to have been the barks of different species of the cinnamon-tree; they were only different in trifling accidents, and were no other than the strippings of the same species of tree, some of the larger, and others of the smaller branches, and some from the trees of one part of the east, and others from those of another. There

is as much difference, even now, between the cinnamon of Ceylon and that of Malabar and Java, between that which grows in good soil, and that of bad, and between that of the cultivated, and that of the wild trees, as between the several kinds of cinnamon described by the ancients under their various names.

All the virtues attributed by the ancients to their cinnamon are found in ours: it is an astringent in the primæ viæ; but, in the more remote seats of action, it operates as an aperient and alexipharmic: it stops diarrhœas, and it promotes the menses, and hastens delivery: it strengthens the viscera, assists concoction, dispels flatulencies, and is a very pleasant cordial. It may be given in powder, from 10 grains to 20; but it is more frequently given in form of decoction, tincture, or infusion. Besides it's being an ingredient in many of the compositions of the shops, it is in such esteem as to be given in form of a simple and spirituous water, a tincture, and an essential oil.

CIRCULATION, in it's common acceptation, signifies the act of moving round, or in a circle. The light wherein I shall consider this article, as consistent with the tenor of our work, is as follows:

R E M A R K S.

The circulation of all the goods and commodities in a state is carried on by undertakers, and all at an uncertainty.

The farmer who sows his corn, and feeds his flocks upon his farm, does not know what price the commodities will bear, since they may be scarce or plenty in a state, according to the goodness or badness of the season: if there be a great plenty, there will be too much for the consumption of the year, and an overplus to serve the next year; and so the farmer's commodities will be cheaper: if there be a scarcity, they will be dear. Thus the farmer is an undertaker, who carries on his business at an uncertainty.

The consumption of the farmer's commodities not being in his village only, but a good part of it in the nearest city, he cannot go to the city, and sit down there, to retail his commodities, without neglecting the business of his farm: nor will the proprietors of the city, or the artisans and mechanics, and others there, buy so much of his commodities as they will consume in their families in a year; their families may increase or decrease within the year, and they may consume sometimes more, sometimes less, of each commodity, and few or none of them are able to lay up a year's provision for their families: so that several others set up for undertakers, and give a certain price for the farmer's commodities, and resell them at an uncertain price. Such are the merchants of corn, wool, wine, butchers, tanners, &c. and all these undertakers work at an uncertainty; and bankruptcies happen frequently among them. It is impossible for any of them to know the consumption of the city he is in, because he cannot know the increase or decrease of the inhabitants within the year, and because the same families consume sometimes more and sometimes less of each kind in a year; and, because of the rival undertakers in the same trade, some find more favour and confidence from their customers than others.

In like manner the undertaker who has bought the farmer's wool at a certain price, is not sure of the price he shall have for it from the undertaker of the woollen manufacture. That price may vary in proportion to the plenty or scarcity of wool, with regard to the demand for it's consumption; and this consumption cannot be previously known or computed. In several families they do not know themselves how long the fancy will hold them to wear the same cloaths, nor what sort of cloth they will wear next. The undertaker of the manufacture runs the same hazard, besides that of the change of mode, and fashion, which may occasion his having several unfashionable stuffs lie upon his hands, to be sold off at under prices.

The retailers and shopkeepers of all kinds are also undertakers, and sell at an uncertainty; what encourages and maintains them in a state is, that their customers, or the consumers, chuse to give something more to find what they want ready to their hand, when they have the fancy or means to buy, than to make a provision of those things at the first hand; for, some of the consumers want means to make a yearly provision beforehand, and few care to confine their fancy, which is so liable to vary, when, for a small addition of price, they may please themselves, and determine their humour in a shop, at the very time they come to the consumption. Thus no body cares to bespeak cloth for his family at the manufacturer's a year beforehand, when he may, for a small matter more, please himself, when he has occasion, at a woollen-draper's shop. The undertakers become consumers and customers one in regard to the other: the woollen-draper to the wine-merchant, or brewer, and the wine-merchant to the woollen-draper; and thus is carried on the indefinite circulation of traffic in societies.

The other undertakers, as mine-adventurers, merchants of all kinds, whether adventurers or shop-keepers, undertakers of public houses, coffee-houses, pastry-cooks, hackney coaches, &c. subsist by undertaking at an uncertainty, and proportion

themselves in number to the demand of the consumers and customers. If there be too many hackney coaches with regard to the customers who employ them, some of them must break, or put down their coaches; if too few, new ones will be erected.

The master tradesmen, or undertakers, who keep journeymen at work, as shoe-makers, tailors, peruke-makers, &c. and the undertakers of their own labours, as tinkers, chimney-sweepers, water-carriers, &c. subsist also at an uncertainty, and proportion themselves in number to the demand, and to their customers. If a water-carrier keeps an account of what he earns in one year (suppose 20 l.) and in another year (suppose 15 l.) it will answer the same thing as if he were said to have 20 l. wages from his customers in one year, and 15 l. in another: but, as he is an undertaker, his wages are uncertain.

The like may be said of higher undertakers of their own labour, or science, as painters, physicians, lawyers, &c.

From these inductions and explications, which may be applied, with a little variation, to all orders of men in society, it appears, that every body in a state is either an undertaker, or at wages, though their ranks and functions be very different. The courtier, who has a pension, the general, who has pay, and the servant, who has wages, fall under the same denomination: all others in a state are undertakers, or subsist at uncertain wages.

But the prince and proprietors of land alone are independent in a state, and those from whom the subsistence and riches of all other ranks of men flow. And, whereas the land is commonly in the hands of the gentry and nobility, it is not surprizing that the notion of gentlemen and noblemen has ever had so great an influence in the world.

But if any undertaker, or person at high wages, has saved wealth; that is, if any has a magazine of corn, wine, wool, lead, tin, copper, silver, gold, or any other commodities or goods that have an intrinsic value, or constant vent, he may so far be esteemed wealthy and independent, though he has no land. With these he may buy all conveniences of life, and make a better figure than if he had a small portion of land, and may even become a land-proprietor: but these goods are more variable in their value than land, and more in danger of being lost; and it should not be forgot, that they have been acquired, one way or other, by the weight and influence, or at the expence of the proprietors of lands. From all that has been said, I think it appears, that the machine of circulation of traffic in a society, which is principally concerned in eating, drinking, cloathing, and the other conveniences of life, is carried on among us in Europe by undertakers, all at an uncertainty; and that, though political societies and cities seem, from the indefinite numbers of people of different ranks, stations, and occupations which compose them, to have something wonderful and incomprehensible in their œconomy; yet it seems that the grand machine is commonly carried on with uncertainty, and that every thing finds it's own proportion, well or ill, according to chance or caprice, without any peculiar intellectual conduct, whereby the society of commerce and circulation is governed.

Of the CIRCULATION of money.

In consequence of what has been said under the article of CASH, we shall further add, in regard to the circulation of money; That we may consider the money which goes out of the land-proprietor's pocket, and is spread into the several rivulets of barter in circulation; out of which it is again gathered into the farmer's purse, to make another quarter's payment to the land-proprietor, according to what has been urged under the head of cash, as before intimated.

If, pursuant to our example, the farmer has paid 1500 ounces of silver to the proprietor, and he pays out 115 ounces a week, while, on the other hand, the farmer gathers together 115 ounces a week, there will be but 115 ounces, properly speaking, in motion; and at six weeks end, when the proprietor has but 750 ounces left, the farmer will have collected together the other 750 ounces: so that the whole 1500 ounces (with 115 ounces that are every week in circulation) are always kept up, and only paid and put in motion once a quarter.

But this seldom happens to be the case in a state; for money is spread out into the little channels of trade without rule or proportion, and likewise gathered together without any proportion. These same 1500 ounces are often paid away by several people to the land-proprietor, as soon as he has received them, and are not accumulated again together till near the end of the quarter, when the farmer receives them in a lump from the corn-chandler, woollen manufacturer, &c. in exchange for his commodities, which enables him to pay the landlord another quarter's rent. In this interval of time, these 1500 ounces may have gone to and fro in an hundred rivulets of barter, and helped on the circulation of the other two rents, as well as the principal rent they are understood to make the payment of.

This would, methinks, make it probable, that a less proportion of money, even than that which we have supposed,

might carry on the general circulation and barter necessary in a state: the following argument seems to strengthen the same notion.

All barter that are made by evaluation in a state, require no ready money. If the woollen-draper sells the baker 100 ounces of silver value of cloth, and the baker supplies the woollen-draper with the like value in bread, both at the market, or current price, it is so much bartered without money. Of these barter by evaluation there are several carried on in a state where trade, credit, and honesty flourish [see the Article *BARTER*] there are many of them used in the country, as well as in the cities: but I am to observe they could not be carried on, if the barter against money at markets, and the alterations, which fix the par between money and commodities, did not first naturally find out the price of things: so that, when in a village a certain quantity of corn is bartered and exchanged for a certain quantity of iron, the evaluation is made of the corn and of the iron, according to the prices they bear at the nearest market.

The more barter are made by evaluation in a state, the less ready money generally seems requisite to carry on the circulation. If the woollen-draper supplies the wine-merchant with the cloth necessary for the consumption of his family, at the current price; and the wine-merchant supplies the woollen-draper with the wine his family consumes, also at the current price; and if they trust one another in accounts, when they come to settle their said accounts, at the year's end; all the money required to carry on this trade will be the sum which pays the difference.

The barter by evaluation are most carried on by the undertakers and master tradesmen, and between the farmers and labourers, and others who assist them: so that they seem principally to help the circulation of the two last rents; whereas the circulation of the first rent must be always carried on by ready money, except when the land-proprietor consumes part of his farmer's commodities in kind, and allows it out of his rent, as is much practised in Italy. The Milanese nobility have a quantity of hay sent in by their farmers, in part of their rent, for the maintenance of their coach-horses, &c. and a quantity of wheat, which they exchange with the bakers for the bread they consume in their families, besides wine, &c. and these evaluations help out the circulation of the first rent.

From what has been said, it should seem to be inferred, that honesty and confidence in dealings in a state keep forward the barter by evaluation, and, consequently, make money go farther in circulation; and experience tells us, that, when credit fails, the circulation is clogged, and money grows scarcer.

Another circumstance, which helps circulation greatly, is goldsmiths and banks, as the bank of England, that of Amsterdam, of Venice, of Genoa, &c. These prevent a great sum from being kept in private hands without motion, and accelerate circulation.

These reasons seem to confirm that the circulation in a state may be carried on with less money than what I have laid down under the article *CASH*: but the following reasons may, perhaps, seem to counter-balance them in some measure.

Provident saving people, of all ranks and orders, lay up money, some to enable them to marry, some to give portions to their children, and all against an evil day; and this money they keep up till it makes a sum fit to bring them an interest. Several covetous and fearful people lay up and bury money: the money and estates of minors and of pleading parties, deposited in the hands of the lawyers, makes no small sum; to which it may be added, that not only several proprietors, but also that several undertakers, servants, and workmen, have always some money, more or less, in their hands, which are never so empty but that a part of the old money still remains, after they have received the new.

It is very difficult to make an estimate of such articles, but they sufficiently prove, in general, that a considerable sum of the circulating money in a state may be esteemed to lie always without motion. If a gentleman makes it his remark, that he never had less money in his hands than 20l. at any time through the whole year, it is plain he might have kept the same individual 20l. by him without motion all that year; and that so much may be esteemed to have lain by without circulation. It also happens that several large payments are made between undertakers, as well as at the terms farmers pay their rents, though these may very well be made out of the money required for the circulation of the two last rents. Upon the whole; I should think my conjecture, from what has been said under the article *CASH* and here, is not very wide; viz. That the money which carries on the whole circulation of a state, is near the quantity of one third part of all the annual rents of the proprietors of the land; where the proprietors have one half or two thirds of the produce of the land, and where the circulation is not much helped by barter and by evaluations, the quantity of the money must certainly be greater.

CITRON, a fruit which comes from hot countries: the bark is yellow, wrinkled, and of an agreeable smell.

We shall speak of them here only with relation to the commerce therein, and the traffic made of their juice or bark.

The most part, whether sweet or sharp, that are sold in France, are got by druggists and grocers from some parts on the river Genes, amongst others, from St Remo, or from some of the cities in the kingdom of Sardinia, as Nice and Mentone; whence they are brought by sea to Marseilles, and afterwards sent to Paris, and elsewhere.

At St Remo and Mentone the vent of citron is not without the consent of the council of the city, and that twice a year, at most thrice, according as the crop proves, but usually in May and September.

They sell those only that will not pass through an iron ring, the size of which is regulated by public authority; the rest are rejected as too small, and used only for the juice, which is brought to Avignon and Lyons in barrels, for the dyers. Great quantities of the juice are brought from Sicily into France, for the same use; but they bring but few citrons, being not in much esteem.

As to the citrons brought from Nice, there is not that care taken about them; but who will, may buy them, according to time and quality, be they big or little.

They sell two sorts of the oil of citron; the one, which is much esteemed, and called the essence of cedar, which is made of the citron-peel, or of their rind rasped; the other, which is a common oil, greenish, clear, and fragrant, is made of the lees at the bottom of the casks, in which the citron-juice is set to fine. Fifty pounds of the lees, which are called also *baechas*, usually produce but three pounds of oil. The perfumers make use of these oils, especially the essence of cedar. The vinegar of cedar, which the perfumers also use, and is much esteemed in France, is the juice expressed from a certain kind of citrons half ripe, which come from Borghere, near St Remo.

Small candied citrons, dry and moist, and great citron-peels, also candied, are brought from the Madeiras. The small citrons should be tender, green, and fresh; the great peels should be chosen new, in little slices, clear and transparent, green on the out-side, well glazed within, plump, easy to cut, and not pricked.

It is said that numbers of negroes are employed at Martinico in candying citrons.

Citronnate is the citron-peel candied, and cut into pieces, to be sent abroad. *Sorbec* is made of the citron-juice and sugar: the best comes from Alexandria.

Syrup of lemons is the same thing with *syrup of citron*. By the druggists it is called simply *syrup of citrons*; but the apothecaries sell it by the name of *syrup of lemons*.

There are at Tonquin two sorts of citrons, or lemons, yellow and green; but both so sharp and acid, that it is impossible to eat them without prejudice to the stomach. However, they are not useless to the Tonquinese, any more than to the other Indians; for they not only use them, as we do aqua fortis, to clean copper, tin, and other metals, which they intend to prepare for gilding, but also for dyeing, especially silks.

Another use they make of them is to whiten linnen; and they put it in all their *lixivia*, particularly for fine stuffs, which gives them an admirable whiteness and beauty, as may be observed chiefly in all the cotton stuffs which come from the states of the Mogul, and are whitened, as we Europeans imagine, with the juice of those sorts of lemons.

CIVET, a kind of perfume, which bears the name of the animal 'tis taken from, and to which 'tis peculiar.

The civet-cat is a little animal not unlike a cat, excepting that its nose is more pointed, that its claws are less dangerous, and has a different cry.

'Tis known to be a quadruped common in Africa, the Indies, Peru, Brazil, New Spain, Guinea; that Belon, and after him some moderns, among others M. Perrault, in his *Memoirs of Natural History*, acknowledge the civet-cat to be the hyena of Aristotle, and have called it the odoriferous hyena: others take it for a kind of wild cat, and call it *felis zibethica*, because the perfume it bears the Arabians call *zibet*; whence it has its French name *civette*. The Guinea civet pretty much resembles that of the Levant, but what they call occidental civet is nothing like it.

Castellus, Fallopius, Thomas Bartholine, and even M. Perrault, have spoken but superficially of the bag and perfume of that animal. 'Twill therefore be after the observations of M. Morand, in the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences* for the year 1728, that we can talk knowingly hereon, and more justly than M. Savary; of which we shall select the most remarkable particulars.

The bag is situated between the anus and pudenda of the animal, much in the same manner as the beavers carry their castoreum. It hangs outwardly between the thighs of the civet-cat. 'Tis pretty large. In short, 'tis a cavity inclosed in a thick cover, and hath a long opening without resembling the vulva.

The whole thickness of the covering is formed by an infinity of small grains, which are the glandules through which the odorous liquor is filtered. Viewing these grains with a microscope,

croscope, M. Morand hath discovered, that they are accompanied with an infinite number of follicles, or little purses, that contain the liquor already filtered. In that liquor, which is singular, are little hairs here and there without order. They have no roots visible to us, nor are united with each other.

The cavity of the bag is possessed by two kinds of clews of short silk, soaked in the odorous liquor, which looks like a white oil.

On compressing the substance of the covering, there oozes through the pores, or rather excretory ducts of its internal membrane, an odorous oil, which falls into the cavity of the bag; it comes out, not by separate drops, but in a continued stream.

We are not sufficiently acquainted with the nature of the civet-cat, to know on what occasion it emits its oil, or what use it makes of it; but we see the mechanism is intended to prevent a perpetual flux; the silken clews doing the office of a sponge, which holds the liquor it has imbibed till expressed from it.

There is a great trade of civet at Calicut, at Bassora, and in other parts of the Indies, and in Africa, where the animal that produces the perfume is found. Live civet-cats are to be seen also in France and in Holland, but 'tis said by some, they have been only brought from the Levant. The French seldom keep them but as a rarity. As to the Dutch, who keep a great number, they draw the civet from them for sale, and 'tis what furnisheth a part of that brought from Holland.

Before these animals had been seen in Europe, and observation made on the manner of extracting the perfume, 'twas commonly believed, on the relations of some travellers, to be only the sweat of the animal, when irritated; and those who love the instructive and diverting amusement of travels, may perhaps remember to have read some, who confidently affirm, that they shut the civet-cats in iron-cages; and that, after having beat them a long time with rods, they gather with a spoon, through the bars of the cage, and from between the thighs of the animal, the sweat or foam, which the anger and agitation have there produced; and that, without such precaution, the animal would give no perfume.

Experience hath shewn us the falsity of this relation; and 'tis now no longer doubted, that the civet is an unctuous and thick liquor, found naturally in a bag, which that species of Asiatic, or African cat, hath between the anus and pudenda, as we have mentioned before.

Civet must be chosen new, of a good consistence; that is to say, neither too hard nor too soft, of a white colour, a strong and disagreeable scent. In fine, since in the Levant, without seeing it extracted itself, we run a risk of having so sophisticated civet, we may well not expect to have it more pure in Europe: neither are we to give much credit to those little inscriptions, whether printed or written, which the Dutch usually put on the pots of civet, as a certificate of their fidelity, and the purity of the perfume: besides, it being very difficult to discover the fraud, the safest way is not to buy it but of dealers of known reputation.

'Tis little used in medicine, but very much by the confectioners and perfumers, who ought not, however, to use it but with moderation, lest in lieu of an agreeable odour, they excite the contrary.

CLACKMANNANSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north by the Ochill-Hills, on the south by the frith of Forth, on the east with part of Perthshire, and on the west with part of Stirlingshire. 'Tis a plain fertile country towards the Frith, but the rest is fitter for pasture, though that below the Ochill-Hills abounds both with pasture and corn. About Alloa and Clackmannan there are many coal-pits, which, together with their salt, they export in great quantities, not only to Edinburgh, but even to England, Holland, and France: for it yields the best and most coals of any part of Scotland, and is that we distinguish in England by the name of Scotch coal.

'Tis watered with the river Devan, which runs six miles through the shire.

CLACKMANNAN, the burgh or chief town, stands on a rising ground, the castle whereof is a stately dwelling, with fine gardens and inclosures. But,

ALLOA, or **ALLOWAY**, is the most considerable town, and is a sea-port, the last in the Forth, where that river falls into the arm of the sea, called the Firth.

It has a very considerable trade, with several good ships; and divers manufactures are erected there, all relating to the business of navigation and commerce: as (1.) Sail-cloth, which is made here full as good as the Holland's duck, and better than the canvas or sail-cloth of Russia, or Poland. (2.) A large rope-walk and warehouse of naval stores for the hemp and tar, &c. imported from Russia, Livonia, Norway, &c. from which last, also, deals are imported; and here are four saw-mills employed in cutting and slitting them. Moreover,

R E M A R K S.

A factory was lately settled at this place for the merchants of Glasgow, who, not being very far distant by land-carriage,

have erected warehouses for stowing their tobacco, sugar, and other goods of their importing from the British colonies in America, to be ready for re-exportation to Holland, Hamburg, Bremen, the Baltic, London, or wherever else they are wanted; and also for stowing such commodities, as they import from Sweden, Russia, Livonia, &c. till they are demanded elsewhere: so that Alloway bids fair, in time, to be the chief mart-town of all the inland parts of Scotland, and one of its most considerable sea-ports; for the river here is as broad as at London-Bridge, the water deep, and the tide flows so strong, though it be so far from the sea, that ships may lay their sides to the wharf, which is at some distance from the town, and deliver and relade with the least difficulty imaginable.

There are salt pans all along this shore for boiling of salt, which is fetched away in great quantities, by ships that bring other goods from Bremen, Hamburg, the Baltic, Norway, &c.

CLAYS, are earths pretty coherent, weighty, and compact, stiff, viscid, and ductile, while moist; smooth to the touch, not readily diffusible in water, and when mixed, not readily subsiding in it.

Of the white, tough, heavy clay.

This is very beautiful, and when pure perfectly white, heavy, and of a fine texture; when moist, it is ductile, stiff, and viscid; when cut, leaves a kind of shining surface; when dry, it becomes tolerably hard, and of a smooth and even superficies, except where made irregular by heterogeneous bodies that are mixed with it. Being examined by the microscope, if clean and pure, it appears of a regular, firm texture: but in the mass it discovers a mixture of adventitious particles of sand, fragments of shells, &c.—Makes a brisk ebullition with aqua fortis.—It burns with a tolerable heat to a snow-white colour, and pretty hard, but vitrifies in a violent fire to a kind of green substance.—This earth was anciently found on the shores of Egypt, Syrene, and the island of Crete.

It was esteemed in painting among the antients. At present it seems to be little sought after, perhaps, for want of knowing its quality.

Of the light, friable, white clay.

This is of a snow-white, and does not contract that yellowness from the air, which other white clays do on their surface. 'Tis dry and not ductile, while in the stratum; it is of a smooth superficies, soft to the touch, and stains the fingers in handling; it slowly diffuses itself in water, adheres pretty firmly to the tongue, and leaves a grittiness between the teeth.—It makes no effervescence in aqua fortis.—In a moderate fire it burns to an additional hardness without much change of colour, but in a violent one it gives a pale green glass.

Much of it is dug in the isle of Wight, and is used for tobacco-pipes; though not having a due tenacity, it requires another coarse earth to be mixed with it; which is

The hard, heavy, white clay.

This is a dense, ponderous, compact earth, of a dull white, and pretty close texture, of a smoothish surface, and not easily breaking between the fingers; it melts slowly in the mouth, and is not easily diffusible in water; it burns to a white colour, and very hard; in a violent fire it gives a foul green glass. This also is dug in the Isle of Wight, and divers other parts of England, and is chiefly used in pipe-making.

The white tough clay

Is a firm and stiff matter, very compact and ponderous; it is viscid, and cuts with a shining surface, which is smooth and even, though not glossy; it does not adhere to the tongue, and is difficultly diffusible in water. It makes no effervescence with acids, and, in the fire, burns to a yellowish-grey, without any tendency to redness, but in a violent fire affords a deep green glass.

It makes an excellent brick of a remarkable strength and hardness, and of a pale grey; but, like other fine clays, it requires much more working than the ordinary loams used in brick-making do; and, if not well worked, will crack and shrink in the drying, so as not to be saleable; for which reason 'tis seldom worked, notwithstanding the excellence of the brick it makes: but 'tis probable that it might be used for making clinkers for the pavement of stables, &c. and the floors of ovens, which might turn to a better account than making of bricks.

Of the smooth greyish-white clay.

This is very hard and dry, of a close and fine texture, and considerable weight; while in the stratum, it is of a pale grey, hard, not tough or viscid, but crumbling into separate clods in the digging; when dry, it becomes paler and whiter, and of a smooth shining surface; pretty readily diffusible in water, and, separated by that means, deposits a small quantity of fine, but very hard matter.

It generally lies near the surface, and over other clays; there is great plenty of it in various parts of the kingdom, and, though hitherto it may not have been much used, yet it seems capable of making a coarse earthen-ware fit for gardener's pots, and other such-like uses.

Of the heavy grey clay.

This is hard and brittle, of an equal texture, and weighty; while in the stratum it is of a dusky bluish colour, but dry, hard, and crumbling into thin, flat pieces, as if composed of distinct strata; when dry, it is a compact mass, of a pale bluish ash-colour, and a smooth and shining surface. In the fire it crackles and flies into thin flakes of a pale yellowish-red; in a violent fire it gives a whitish glass. 'Tis frequent in many parts of the kingdom, and may deserve trying for various uses.

Of the soft, grey, alkaline clay.

This is an impure matter, moderately heavy, and of a loose texture; in the stratum it is of a dusky grey, and more or less streaked with a pure yellow clay; it cuts pretty regularly into masses, with a smooth surface; when dry, it becomes a little paler in colour, and of a rough surface. It difficultly dissolves in water, and deposits a small quantity of a pale yellow sand. It raises a violent ebullition with aqua fortis, and burns to a considerable hardness, and a fair reddish colour: in a violent fire 'tis converted into a pale bluish-green glass.

Many parts of the kingdom afford it, and in Staffordshire in particular 'tis used in the potter's ware, though not unmixed with other forts.

The soft, ash-coloured, heavy clay.

This is a loose substance, of a coarse irregular texture, and considerably weighty. It is of a deep dirty ash-colour, variegated with a mixture of a coarse deep yellow clay: it is not very stiff or viscid, yet cuts pretty evenly with the spade, and shews an equal surface; when dry, it is of a paler colour, not very hard, but of an irregular rough surface; it easily breaks between the fingers, and does not stain the hands; it is more readily diffusible in water than most other clays. It makes no effervescence in aqua fortis; in a moderate fire it acquires a reddish-brown colour, without much hardness; in a violent one it is converted into a coarse green glass. It is found in various counties in England, and used in Staffordshire by the potters: but this and the former earth are neither of them alone fit for the potter's use; they are mixed with some of the purer and stiffer clays to break their texture, and make them easier to work.

Of the smooth, purple and white, indurated clay.

This species is composed of extremely fine particles, of a firm, equal, and regular texture, and of a great weight. While in the stratum, 'tis very hard, and will not cut even with the spade as most of the clays will, but breaks irregularly into lumps of different shapes and sizes, and becomes harder by lying in the air. It is of a perfectly fine, smooth, and glossy surface, softer to the touch than any of the other earths, and does not stain the fingers in handling, but drawn along a woollen cloth, or any other rough substance, leaves a very whitish line, fine and clean: it is in colour white, beautifully veined with purple of different degrees of deepness; it is of so fine a structure of parts, that, if cut into thin pieces, it is in some degree transparent. It is very difficultly diffusible in water; examined by the microscope, it appears one regular and uniform mass, a little more opaque in the purple parts than in the white, and so perfectly equal in all its parts, that the best glasses can discover no blemish in its texture. It burns to a great hardness and white colour, and in a violent fire to a pure white glass. It is dug in many parts of Cornwall, Devonshire, and the neighbouring counties. Several celebrated naturalists and experimental philosophers have recommended this in particular, for imitating the fine porcelain-ware of China: but, as it is liable to vitrification, I am afraid of itself it will ever fail in the trial: it may very probably make a very fine and delicate earthen-ware, and, by mixture with other suitable earths, may probably make an ordinary sort of porcelain.

The smooth, green and white, indurated clay.

It is the hardest of all the earths. While in the stratum, it is too firm to be dug with spades, and, when it has laid some time in the open air, becomes of an almost stony consistence. 'Tis of a compact and regular texture, considerably heavy, and of a very smooth and shining surface; in colour 'tis of a greenish-white, with a greater or lesser admixture of green; it does not stain the fingers in handling, but, drawn along a rough surface, leaves a fine slender white line. It is more transparent than the last described, and more difficultly diffusible in water than even that; it makes no effervescence with acids, acquires a great degree of hardness, and almost perfectly white colour in the fire; and yields in a violent one a coarse greenish glass, with a faint cast of the purple.

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The ancients had it principally from Egypt, but 'tis now found plentifully in Italy, Germany, Saxony, and the island of Sardinia, but no where more so than in France, particularly about Briangon, whence 'tis there commonly called the Briangon chalk.

The ancients had it much in esteem in medicine, but 'tis in no use that way among the moderns.

The pale yellow viscid clay, with blue spots.

This is a perfectly fine and very valuable clay, of a compact texture, and considerable gravity. In the stratum 'tis of a pale yellow colour, and veined with blue of a tough viscid texture; and easily cuts through with a spade, and shews of an equal and glossy surface. When dry, 'tis moderately hard, of something paler colour than while in the stratum, and of a smooth even surface. It is pretty easily diffusible in water; in a moderate fire it burns to a great hardness, and very beautiful red, and in a violent one runs to a coarse bluish-green glass.

In Staffordshire they account it one of their best earths, and use it in mixture for their pots; and in Northamptonshire they work it alone for the finest and thinnest, as mugs, dishes, &c. it being a very fine tough sort of clay, ductile to a great degree, and taking the glaze well: the same is in various other counties in England.

The dusky, bluish-brown, tough clay.

This is a very useful earth, of a stiff and compact texture, and very weighty; in the stratum 'tis of a dusky blackish-brown colour, considerably hard, yet cutting even with the spade, and of a glossy surface, generally sprinkled with small shining particles; when dry, it becomes of a paler colour and very hard, and the glittering particles are more visible; it diffuses slowly in water; in a moderate fire burns to a fair red colour, and in a fierce one vitrifies to a deep green substance.

It is dug in most counties in England; it is used in Staffordshire among the potters, but it's principal use is in the making of tiles, for which 'tis esteemed so excellent, as to have excluded the use of any other clay; it containing no sand makes it endure the weather better than the brick earths; and it's tough texture makes it bend into all the necessary forms for tiling.

The hard, pale, brown clay.

This is a hard, yet less heavy clay, than most of the preceding; it is of a rough but firm structure, generally full of shining particles; in the stratum it is of a dusky brown, and is very firm and hard, not to be cut even through with a spade, but breaking into irregular masses; when dry, it becomes very pale, almost of a stony hardness, of a rough surface, not staining the hands; it is very difficultly diffusible in water; it burns to a great hardness, and a ferruginous red, or rather purple; in a violent fire it becomes a pale green glass.

'Tis dug almost all over the kingdom, and makes in Staffordshire a very valuable kind of strong vessels, with an admixture of some of their tougher clays.

The hard, tough, whitish-blue clay.

This has been affirmed by some to be the earth of which the fine China ware is made. It is an extremely fine and beautiful earth, of a very pale bluish-white, remarkably ponderous, and of a compact and even texture. It is soft to the touch; not to be broken between the fingers, does not stain the hands, but, drawn over a rough surface, leaves a fine slender white line: thrown into water, it makes no ebullition, but slowly diffuses, and in time wholly breaks in it, and is reduced to a substance like thick cream, at the bottom of the vessel. In the fire it burns to a snow-white; in a very violent one it generates a pale bluish-white glass.

It is dug in some peculiar parts of China, but, it is said, is not common there; and, where the pits are, is kept a great secret from all foreigners; it is now said to be the earth of which the fine ware of that kingdom is made, and seems likely to be a very noble clay for some such use; but probably that ware is not made of any one substance alone, but of a mixture of various, and those also, perhaps, meliorated in an artificial manner.

R E M A R K S :

Many may think it trifling to dwell so long upon an article of so little consequence to trade, as they may imagine that of clays. But, if they are pleased to consider the extensiveness of the pottery-art alone, they will not find this matter a contemptible subject. 'Tis well known the great advantage the Hollanders have reaped by their Delft-ware; and the advances we have made, in our own nation, have proved of no inconsiderable benefit to the concerned and the public, in not only having prevented the importation of Dutch wares, but the consumption of the China amongst the mass of the people.

That the nature of earths and clays is well deserving our regard, may be urged from the unspeakable advantage the Chinese and the Japanese have reaped thereby, for ages past; and this universal manufacture could only have taken its rise from the knowledge of such, who did not think matters of this nature below their contemplation; judging, doubtless, that nature affords nothing but what may be of some utility to mankind. The Europeans, in consequence of the advantages reaped by the Indians, have made successful attempts of the like nature; and we find that Dresden has beat China or Japan, and that the same manufacture is lately established in France, with all suitable public encouragement, and, as we are informed, is likely to outdo the Saxons. Nor have our own countrymen being negligent in imitating the ware of China; and although they have not had the honour of those national encouragements, that the monarchs of France and Saxony have given to their manufacturers, yet it must be acknowledged, they have made extraordinary advances, and it is to be hoped they will meet with the encouragement of the government as well as the people.

From what has been observed, it must naturally occur to the land-proprietor, that he may frequently experience as great benefit to be made by clays, marls, loams, &c. as he may by his lands, considered in an arable or pasture state.——

This has been experienced by many. And, if what has been said be duly attended to, there can be no difficulty in making a judgment of the value of all sorts of clays: the familiar use of his senses, common water, a crucible, and aqua fortis, to which he may add a microscope, if he pleases, will enable him to make a right judgment in matters of this nature, which will more fully appear, throughout the course of this work.

Clays being well burnt, have been found by late experience to make a fertile manure.

CLERK, in the way of trade and business, is one who exercises any function with the pen. Persons under this reputable denomination being numerous, they may deserve more notice, in a work of this kind, than that of a mere general description of the nature of their office.

R E M A R K S.

Introductory to which general character, I would refer the reader to the articles **ACCOUNTANT** and **BOOK-KEEPER**; the latter of which having relation, more particularly, to the clerks of merchants and traders in general, I shall now make a few observations on those belonging to another class of people of business: I mean those gentlemen, who are placed in the public offices belonging to the crown revenue.

Although the whole plan of the management of business in these great offices is wisely regulated, and every part of the whole executed, according to such regulation; and although the clerks of every distinction are tied down to adhere invariably to certain established rules, forms, and usages, in order to preserve that uniformity, connection, and check with and upon each other, for the prevention of fraud, and the facilitating of the public business; yet every gentleman, who enters into such a situation, should not, methinks, look upon himself in the light only of a transcriber of common forms and precedents: for I think this is much below the character of one in this station, though, at first, it may only be an inferior one. I would therefore, with all respect to these gentlemen, take leave to recommend, especially to the more juvenile class, not only a desire to become masters of that branch to which they may be allotted, but to gain as much knowledge as they can of those other branches, which may have a more immediate and necessary connection therewith. For, as the public business must be conducted according to strict form, so an expertness in all the forms that have a direct dependency on each other, will render a clerk highly acceptable to his superiors; who, for their own ease, will often advance such a young gentleman, by reason of his qualifications, to serve them in more capacities than one: this has proved the case of many, who have had nothing but their merit to recommend them.——But many of these places being filled by the younger sons of gentlemen of distinction, if they become friends enough to themselves to add accomplishment to the weight of their family-interest, such a situation may prove far more to their honour and interest, than otherwise it might do. For, although mere interest will too often place a man in a post that he is no way qualified for, yet these people are never suffered to be the stamina that support the execution of the public affairs; 'tis the intelligent, experienced clerk, secretary, accountant, or commissioner, that must hold the rudder or business cannot go on: and such will maintain their places, let ministers be changed ever so often, till they forfeit them by misconduct. So that, however interest may get the better of merit, yet merit has very often got the better of interest, in the capacities I am speaking of.

And if the great offices of the kingdom were looked upon by gentlemen of condition, in the light of proper nurseries to their younger sons, in order to initiate them gradually into public business, they might, I am inclined to believe,

answer a good end; provided they had a previous, suitable erudition, to make the most advantageous use of their situation.—The same observations will hold good also, in regard to all great corporations, where good clerkship is required: the nature, and accomplishments for which, in every capacity, will appear throughout this work.

CLOCK-MAKER is the workman who maketh clocks.

The clock-makers in Paris make one of the communities of arts and trades. They received their first statutes in the year 1483, about the end of the reign of Lewis XI, which were confirmed to them in 1544, by Francis I; in 1554, by Henry II; in 1572, by Charles IX; and, in 1600, by Henry IV.

Those statutes are divided into twenty-four articles, the most essential of which we shall take notice of.

The apprenticeship is eight years, during which each master can take but one apprentice; and he may take a second, after the expiration of the seventh year of the first apprentice.

If a master's son is bound as an apprentice to another, and not to his father, he is to finish and complete the time for which he has bound himself.

None can be received as master, who hath not made some master-piece of workmanship, which, at least, ought to be an alarm clock; and fulfilled the time of his indentures, and produced a discharge from the master whom he served. Master clock-makers are not to efface or change the names on pieces of clock-work, not of their own making, on pain of confiscation and fine.

Jewellers, to whom it is permitted to traffic in all sorts of merchandizes, may not, however, buy or sell any clock-ware, which hath not been previously inspected and marked by the wardens of the said company, with permission to the said wardens to inspect at the houses of all, and those who are within the privileges of the royal palace.

Masters are permitted to make, or cause to be made, all sorts of clock-work, be it in gold, silver, or other metal, as they shall find convenient, without being examined or molested by the master goldsmiths, on pain of 1500 livres fine on those who shall encroach on their rights, agreeably to the decree of council of the 8th of May, 1643; with prohibition, according to the said decree, to every master or journeyman goldsmith, or any other, to intermeddle, in the traffic or sale of any workmanship of that profession.

To determine the works pertaining to the art of clock-making, and which 'tis lawful for the master clock-makers to make or cause to be made; it is enacted by the last article of the said statutes, that every movement having the pinion of a wheel, and going by spring and by counterpoise, is reckoned a branch of this profession.

In the year 1707, the offices of comptroller-visitors of weights and measures, and of the registers of the company, were incorporated. By the letters patent of those re-unions, the king granted to the company several new articles for their regulation. By the first, the rights of the four annual visitations are reduced to 30 sols each, 7 sols 6 deniers of which belonged to those jurats who should be employed as inspectors.

The jurats are to render an account of their office 15 days after they shall have quitted it, and the election of the new ones to be annually 15 days after the feast of St Elloi, in presence of the elders, and other masters, according to custom.

Conformable to the regulations of arts and trades, 'tis lawful for all masters of the said company to settle themselves in some city, borough, and place of the kingdom, as to them shall seem good, particularly at Lyons, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Caen, Tours, or Orleans, and there, with full liberty to exercise their profession, on producing only their reception into the fraternity of the city of Paris.

All masters of the company are prohibited to lend their name to any journeyman or retailer whatsoever, for the exercise of the said profession, on pain of 150 livres fine; and, in case of failure, they are liable to deprivation of the freedom, if it shall be so adjudged by the lieutenant of the police.

All journeymen foreigners, refugees, and others working in pretended privileged places, are obliged to withdraw from thence eight days after the publication of these presents duly registered, and to repair to work in the houses of lawful masters, with prohibition to the said journeymen to work in a room, and to have furnaces, on pain of corporal punishment.

Beside the master clock-makers, of whom we have spoken, there are at Paris two other sorts of clock-makers; the one, which are officers of the king's chamber; and the other, which have apartments in the galleries of the Louvre. These are not subject to the inspection of the jurats, and have, moreover, the privilege of taking apprentices, who are intitled to the freedom, and may be received as others, with this difference only, that they are exempt from the payment of fees.

As to those of the galleries of the Louvre, they are artificers, whether French, or strangers, skilful in clock-making, to whom the king grants an apartment in the galleries of his castle of the Louvre, where they enjoy many prerogatives, by virtue of letters patent from Henry IV, who was the first

of the kings of France that honoured useful arts, even to the lodging in his palace workmen of distinguished ingenuity.

As the body of clock-makers is very considerable at Geneva, consisting of about 600 masters, it may be worth while to see what are their statutes, or ordinances.

There shall be two lords of the council, commissioner-inspectors of this art, to preside in all their assemblies, whether general, of the whole body, or of the jurats only, as well as in those for delivering in the accounts, and disposing of their money, and to authorise their resolutions.

There shall be four jurats chosen from amongst the citizens, or burgeses, masters of the art, two of whom, who shall have been therein two years, shall go out of the office, and two new ones shall be chosen in their stead; and to this end the jurats, and those who shall have officiated in that capacity, shall name four masters, viz. two which shall have already passed the office, and two who have not; and these shall be presented to the body convoked for that purpose, to be by them chosen by a majority of voices.

The office of jurats is to see that the ordinances relating to the art are duly observed, and to take care there be no trespass; wherefore, they are obliged to visit the artificers, at least four times a year, with power to seize their work, that is not agreeable to the present ordinances, to make their report of it to the lords commissioners, and to punish the trespassers, according to the exigence of the case.

No one shall be received as apprentice to this art, who is not a citizen, burges, or native of the city, and full twelve years of age, and upon paying the usual fees.

Apprentices may not discontinue their apprenticeship, without lawful cause, on pain of serving their time over again.

Workmen who are not masters, may not work but with those who are, nor make any piece of new work, or mend other for their own account, on pain of forfeiting them, and 25 crowns fine; one third to the informer, one third to the box, and the remainder to the lords commissioners and jurats; nor may the masters permit their workmen to work any where but in their own dwelling-house, or to work on their own account, on pain of fine at pleasure.

Whosoever would be received master, shall address himself to the lords commissioners and to the jurats, that at his request they may assemble the body of masters, to appoint him a master-piece of workmanship which shall be an alarm-clock, or a repeating one; unless on good consideration he be dispensed with by the council, and only a plain watch required, which he is to make within four months, at one of the jurats own houses; and he shall not make any other piece of work, or discontinue that without permission, on pain of fine at discretion.

No journeyman may present himself to be received master, unless he be a citizen, burges, or native of that city, full twenty-four years of age, and hath wrought two years as journeyman, from his apprenticeship and his being registered, excepting the sons of masters disposed to make their master-piece in a repeater, who may be admitted at the age of twenty-one, unless for some consideration of merit, or other reason, it shall seem good to the lords commissioners to grant a dispensation.

Whosoever has made his master-piece of workmanship, shall address himself, as-above, to the lords commissioners and jurats, that they may assemble the body of masters, to whom he shall present his work for their examination; and, if found worthy to be admitted a master, shall pay for his reception 21 crowns, 5 of which go to the lords commissioners, 5 florins to the company's box, and the rest to the four jurats, and those four who last quitted their office, without any other expence on that occasion.

If any citizen or burges, who shall be established out of the city, in any place distant therefrom above 20 leagues, and shall return thither to work as a master, he must produce the testimonials of his freedom from the place where he has been admitted thereto, with due approbation of his conduct, and that he is at least 40 years of age; in which case he shall be acknowledged as a master, without producing a master-piece of workmanship, on paying the usual fees.

Journeyman and apprentices, who shall have wrought in places or cities not distant above 20 leagues, may not return thither to work, without it's being made known to the lords commissioners and jurats, in order to their payment of 25 crowns fine, prohibiting all masters to give them work, on pain of fine at discretion.

Masters, who shall instruct more than one of their children in their profession, may not, during the time of their apprenticeship, take any other apprentice.

All masters or privileged persons, who employ any servile servant, are enjoined not to permit them to work at their trade, or to teach them to perform any part thereof appertaining to the art, on pain of 20 crowns fine, one third to the informer.

No master may take for his journeyman any who have served their time in neighbouring places, within 20 leagues round, on pain of 10 crowns fine, and loss of his freedom.

No master shall seduce or allure by promise, money, or otherwise, the servant of another, on pain of 10 crowns, and of costs and damages.

No one shall buy of apprentices or journeymen any work begun or finished, nor lend them money on it, on pain of 25 crowns fine, and loss of what they have given for it.

No master may receive an apprentice, who hath not his discharge in due form; nor the journeyman of another master, without his consent, or without it's being well known and approved, on pain of fine at discretion.

All workmen of the said art, as also all engravers, gilders, and others concerned in clock-making, are prohibited to work, or cause to work, with those who are not masters, on pain of 25 crowns fine, and moreover, for those who are masters, loss of their freedom.

All masters, having work ordered, shall be obliged to deliver it well performed, and in good condition, within the time agreed upon, on pain of 25 florins forfeiture for every watch, and, in case of failure, suspension of freedom for a year.

Whosoever shall have pledged or sold any works which shall be entrusted with him, shall be punished as the case requires, and even with loss of freedom.

All persons, as well of the said art, as others, whosoever they be, are prohibited to cause to be made and buy, directly or indirectly, any foreign piece of finished clock-work, white, or gilt, or to bring into the city to deal therein, under any pretence whatsoever, on pain of forfeiture, and 100 crowns fine, and to masters loss of freedom, and severer punishment in case of failure; nor are they to send any furniture, or any kind of materials tending to finishing the work, on the like penalties. All masters to whom they shall offer them, or who shall see exposed to sale foreign works, either gilt or not, of any kind, are enjoined to seize and carry them to the lords commissioners, to be adjudged according to that article, excepting large pendulums, not comprised in the aforesaid rule.

Also all who are not citizens, burgeses, or masters of the said art, are prohibited to negotiate in the city any clock-work, on pain of forfeiture, and 10 crowns fine; none but citizens and burgeses being permitted to keep open shop.

All masters are also prohibited to settle themselves out of their district, in neighbouring places, to work there, on pain of privation of freedom.

It is also prohibited to make or use any box or equipage of gold or silver, without the stamp of the lords commissioners, and which is not of the fabric of that city; as also to use any which have not the master's name, on pain of forfeiture and fine of 25 crowns to those who trespass: prohibiting others on like penalty, to put on watches any dial-plate, which hath not the said stamp, excepting enamelled dial-plates, the use of which is permitted.

All masters, journeymen, and others, are prohibited to instruct, or cause to be instructed, their wives and daughters in the trade of clock-making, on pain of loss of freedom to masters, and 50 crowns fine to others.

All women and girls are likewise prohibited from working in clock-making; the fine 50 crowns, and forfeiture of their works and utensils; they being only permitted to do the drudgery, make the needles, pillars, chains, keys, and to divide the wheels and the fuses, and to gild the watches.

Very express prohibitions are made to all citizens, burgeses, natives, or inhabitants, tutors or governors, and to all, who have government of children, not to put them apprentices to the trade of clock-making without the city, the distance of 20 leagues round, on pain of 500 florins fine, and, on default thereof, to cause their children to return within the time shall be assigned them by the lords commissioners, who preside over the said profession, to be punished as the case shall require.

No persons are to concern themselves in the brokerage of clock-making, without permission first had and obtained from the lords commissioners; the said brokers shall give 100 crowns security, and take oath to perform their office faithfully, not to trade on their own account, alone or in company, nor to favour one to the prejudice of another; and, in case any foreign piece of work fall into their hands, to deposit the same with the lords commissioners.

R E M A R K S.

Laws of England relating to CLOCK-MAKING.

Stat. 9 and 10, Will. III. c. 28, §. 2. no person shall export, or endeavour to export out of this kingdom, any outward or inward box, case, or dial-plate, of gold, silver, brass, or other metal, for clock or watch, without the movement in or with every such box, &c. made up fit for use, with the maker's name engraven thereon; nor any person shall make up any clock or watch, without putting their name and place of abode or freedom; and no other name or place, on every clock or watch, on penalty of forfeiting every such box, case, and dial-plate, clock and watch, not made up and engraven as aforesaid, and 20l. one moiety to the king, the other to them that shall sue for the same.

That

That the mechanic arts in general have been productive of very great benefits and advantages to commerce and navigation, will be denied by no one, who is at all acquainted with subjects of this nature: and although the world is highly indebted to the skill, ingenuity, and experience of the practical workmen themselves, for the extraordinary advances they have made therein; yet it is equally certain, that workmen are not less indebted to the mechanic philosopher; to the student, who has speculatively conceived, in the mind, what the artizan executes with the hand: nor would the mere theory of the mechanic, or any other arts, profit society, if we had not dexterous artificers to reduce to manual practice what the philosopher hatches in his study: so that in the mechanic, as well as other arts, the theory and practice should ever be united, for the useful purposes of trade and commerce.

But it is rare, very rare, indeed, that both the theoretical and practical knowledge unite in one and the same person. Yet we have experienced this not to be unexampled with regard to the business of clock and watch-making, in these two incomparable artists, the late Tompion, Graham, &c. and the living Ellicot, and others, who have done honour to this nation in their profession, and rendered the clocks and watches of England in higher estimation throughout the world, than those of any other nation. And yet the perfection to which these great artists have arrived, does not appear to be owing to any peculiar laws for the public regulation, or any public rewards for the encouragement of their art. Genius's, indeed, of the first rank, may soar above all difficulties, without being spurred on by political instigation; but this is the case of but few, in comparison to the whole body of our mechanics and artificers; and, therefore, we have seen that, in France and Geneva, very extraordinary care is taken to bring up this class of people, that their workmanship may do honour to their country, and promote it's commercial prosperity. Whether, therefore, to prevent any degeneracy among British artificers, and to excite them to emulation to excel in these and such-like arts, whereupon our traffic is founded, may not one day call for due attention from the wisdom of the nation, is humbly submitted. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

Monsieur Savary pretends to match the French watch-makers against the English.—He asserts, that, if the English be in any condition to dispute with them, they owe it entirely to the great number of French workmen, who took shelter here, upon the revocation of the edict of Nants.—That three fourths of the watches, made in England, are the work of Frenchmen.—From what authorities he says this, we know not: but it need not be told Englishmen that it is false; there not being one French name, that we know of, among all our celebrated watchmakers: nor, in the body of watchmakers, is there one eighth part French, according to Mr Chambers.—There are, I am very sensible, many French refugees, as well as many Germans, who are extraordinary artists in various principal branches of the watch-making business.—But I never heard of any great masters amongst them here, that have obtained the character equal to those whose names I have mentioned.—If there were, and they had come to my knowledge, I should not be wanting in paying all regard due to their merit, because I look upon those protestant foreigners, who have taken up their abode among us, as part of ourselves, and have greatly contributed to advance the trade of the nation, as I shall shew hereafter.

It is certain the French prefer our watches to their own; inasmuch that, to have them with the more ease, a number of English workmen were invited, or rather inticed, over in 1719, and established with great countenance at Versailles, under the direction of the famous Mr Law.—But the establishment, though every thing promised well for it, fell to the ground in less than a year's time.—M. Savary imputes it's fall, intirely, to that strong prejudice of the French people, in behalf of the English workmen, and to the opinion, that the watches did not come from England. But the truth is, the workmen sent over, being most of them men of loose characters, grew dissolute, quarrelled with the priests, insulted the magistrates, and were dismissed of necessity.

CLOCK-WORK. It is probable that in all ages some instruments or other have been used for the measuring of time; but the earliest we read of is the dial of Ahaz. Some pretend to give a description of this dial of Ahaz: but, it being mere conjecture, and little to my purpose, I shall not trouble the reader with the various opinions about it. Among the Greeks and Romans there were two ways chiefly used to measure their hours. One was by clepsydræ, or hour-glasses; the other by the solarium, or sun-dials. They had also a vessel, having a little hole in the bottom, which was set in the courts of judicature, full of water; by which the lawyers pleaded. This was, says Phavorinus, to prevent babbling, that such as speak ought to be brief in their speeches.

As to the invention of those water-watches (which were, no doubt, of more common use than only in the law-courts) the invention of them is attributed, by Censorinus, to P. Cornelius Nafica; the censor Scipio Nafica, Pliny calls him, and says, That he was the first that measured, by water, the hours of the night, as well as the day; and that clock he dedicated within doors, in the year U. C. 595; which time fell in about the time of Judas Maccabæus, about 150 years before Christ. The other way of measuring the hours, with sun-dials, seems, from Pliny and Censorinus, to have been an earlier invention than the last. Pliny says, 'That Anaximenes Milesius, the scholar of Anaximander, invented dialling, and was the first that shewed a sun-dial at Lacedæmon.' Vitruvius calls him Milesius Anaximander. This Anaximander, or Anaximenes, was cotemporary with Pythagoras, says Laërtius, and flourished about the time of the prophet Daniel.

But enough of these ancient time-engines.

There were other horological machines, which, whether pieces of clock-work or not, I leave to the reader's judgment.

The first is that of Dionysius, which Plutarch commends for a very magnificent and illustrious piece. But this might be only a well delineated sun-dial.

Another piece is that of Sapor, king of Persia. Cardan saith it was made of glass; that the king could sit in the middle of it, and see it's stars rise and set. But, whether this sphere was moved by clock-work, or whether it had any regular motion, does not clearly appear.

The last machine I shall mention, is one described by Vitruvius, which seems to be a piece of watch-work, moved by an equal influx of water.

Among divers feats which this machine performed (as sounding trumpets, throwing stones, &c. one use of it was, to shew the hours (which were unequal in that age) through every month in the year.

The inventor of this famous machine, Vitruvius says, was one Ctesibius, a barber's son of Alexandria; which Ctesibius flourished under Ptolemy Euergetes, says Athenæus, l. 4. and, if so, he lived about 140 years before our Saviour's days, and might be cotemporary with Archimedes.

Thus having given a short account of the ancient ways of measuring time, we shall say something more particularly of watch and clock-work; which is thought to be of a much later invention than the forementioned pieces, and to have had it's beginning in Germany, within less than 200 years. It is very probable that our balance-clocks, or watches, and some other automata, might have their beginning there; or that watch and clock-work (which had long been buried in oblivion) might be revived there: but that watch and clock-work was the invention of that age purely, might be proved false, if we were disposed to enter into a detail of that matter.

Some general rules and directions for the calculations necessary in making these machines, according to Mr Derham's Artificial Clock-Maker.

§. 1. For the clear understanding of which, it must be observed, that those automata, whose calculation is intended, do by little interstices, or strokes, measure out longer portions of time. Thus the strokes of the balance of a watch measure out minutes, hours, days, &c.

Now to scatter those strokes among wheels and pinions, and to proportionate them, so as to measure time regularly, is the design of calculation. For the clearer discovery of which, it will be necessary to proceed leisurely and gradually.

§. 2. And in the first place you are to know, that any wheel, being divided by it's pinion, shews how many turns that pinion hath to one turn of that wheel. Thus a wheel of 60 teeth, driving a pinion of 6, will turn round the pinion 10 times in going round once: $6)60(10$.

From the fufee to the balance the wheels drive the pinions; and, consequently, the pinions run faster, or go more turns, than the wheels they run in. But it is contrary from the great wheel to the dial-wheel. Thus, in the last example, the wheel drives round the pinion 10 times; but, if the pinion drive the wheel, it must turn 10 times to drive the wheel round once.

§. 3. Before I proceed further, I must shew how to write down the wheels and pinions; which may be done either as vulgar fractions, or in the way of division in vulgar arithmetic. For example: a wheel of 60, moving a pinion of 5, may be set down thus, $\frac{60}{5}$; or rather thus, $5)60$; where the uppermost figure, 60, or numerator, is the wheel, the lowermost, or denominator, is the pinion: or, in the latter example, the first figure is the pinion, the next, without the hook, is the wheel.

The number of turns which the pinion hath in one turn of the wheel, is set without a hook, on the right-hand; as, $5)60(12$; i. e. a pinion of 5, playing in a wheel of 60, moveth round 12 times in one turn of the wheel.

4)36(9
5)55(11
5)45(9
5)40(8
17

A whole movement may be noted thus, $\frac{17}{11}, \frac{55}{9}, \frac{45}{8}, \frac{40}{5}$, 17 notches in the crown-wheel: or rather, because it will be easiest to conceive, as you see here in the margin: where the uppermost number, above the line, is the pinion of report 4, the dial-wheel 36, and 9 turns of the pin of report: The second number, under the line, is 5, the pinion; 55 is the great wheel, and 11 turns of the pinion it driveth: The third numbers are the second wheel, &c. the fourth the contrate-wheel, &c. and the single number 17, under all, is the number of the crown-wheel.

By the §. 2. before, knowing the number of turns which any pinion hath in one turn of the wheel it worketh in, you may also find out how many turns a wheel or a pinion hath, at a greater distance; as the contrate-wheel, crown-wheel, &c. for it is but multiplying together the quotients*, and the number produced is the number of turns. An example will make this matter plain: let us chuse these three

5)55(11
5)45(9
5)40(8

numbers here set down; the first of which hath 11 turns, the next 9, and the last 8. If you multiply 11 and 9, it produceth 99, for 9 times 11 is 99; that is, in one turn of the wheel 55, there are 99 turns of the second pinion 5, or the wheel 40, which runs concentrical, or in the same arbor with the second pinion 5: for, as there are 11 turns of the first pinion 5, in one turn of the great wheel 55, or (which is the same) of the second wheel 45, which is on the same spindle with that pinion 5; so there are 9 times 11 turns in the second pinion 5, or wheel 40, in one turn of the great wheel 55. If you multiply 99 by the last quotient 8 (that is, 8 times 99 is 792) it shews the number of turns which the third and last pinion 5 hath: so that this third and last pinion turns 792 times in one turn of the first wheel 55. Another example will make it fill more plain. The example is in the margin.

8)80(10
6)54(9
5)40(8

The turns are 10, 9, and 8: these, multiplied as before, run thus, viz. 10 times 9 is 90; that is, the pinion 6 (which is the pinion of the third wheel 40, and runs in the second wheel 54) turns 90 times in one turn of the first 80: This last product 90, being multiplied by 8, produces 720; that is, the pinion 5 (which is the pinion of the crown-wheel 15) turns 720 times in one turn of the first wheel of 80 teeth.

* By the quotients I commonly mean the number of turns; which number is set on the right hand, without the hook, as is shewn in the last paragraph; which I note here now, once for all.

§. 5. We may now proceed to that which is the very ground-work of all; which is, not only to find out the turns, but the beats, also, of the ballance, in those turns of the wheels. By the last paragraph having found out the number of turns which the crown-wheel hath in one turn of the wheel you seek for, you must then multiply those turns of the crown-wheel by it's number of notches, and this will give you half the number of beats in that one turn of the wheel; half the number of beats, I say, for the reasons in the following sixth section. For the explication of what hath been said, we will take the example in the last section: the crown-wheel there has (as hath been said) 720 turns to one turn of the first wheel: this number, multiplied by 15 (the notches in the crown-wheel) produces 10,800, which are half the number of strokes of the ballance in one turn of the first wheel 80. The like may be done for any of the other wheels, as the wheels 54 or 40: but I shall not insist upon these, having said enough.

I shall give but one example more, which will fully and very plainly illustrate the whole matter. The example is in the margin, and it is of the old 16 hour watches, where-

4)32(8
5)55(11
5)45(9
5)40(8
17

in the pinion of report is 4, the dial-wheel 32, the great wheel is 55, the pinion of the second wheel is 5, &c. the number of notches in the crown-wheel are 17; the quotients, or number of turns in each, are, 8, 11, 9, 8: all which being multiplied, as before, make 6,336; this number, multiplied by 17, produceth 107,712; which last sum is half the number of beats in one turn of the dial-wheel. The half number of beats, in one turn of the great wheel, you will find to be 13,464: for 8 times 17 is 136, which is the half number of beats in one turn of the contrate-wheel 40; and 9 times 136 is 1,224, the half beats in one turn of the second wheel; and 11 times 1,224 is 13,464, the half beats in one turn of the great wheel 55: and 8 times this last is 107,712, before named. If you multiply this by the two pallets, that is, double it, it is 215,424, which is the number of beats in one turn of the dial-wheel, or 12 hours. If you would know how many beats this watch hath in an hour, it is but dividing the beats in 12 hours into 12 parts, and it gives 17,952, which is called the train of the watch, or beats in an hour. If you divide this into 60 parts, it gives 299, and a little more, for the beats in a minute: and so you may go on to seconds and thirds, if you please.

Thus I have delivered my thoughts as plainly as I can, that I may be well understood, this being the very foundation of

all the artificial part of clock-work; and, therefore, let the young practitioner exercise himself thoroughly in it, in more than one example.

§. 6. The ballance, or swing, hath two strokes to every tooth of the crown-wheel: for each of the two pallets hath it's blow against each tooth of the crown-wheel; wherefore a pendulum that swings seconds, hath it's crown-wheel only 30 teeth.

The way to calculate, or contrive, the numbers of a piece of watch-work.

Having, in the last section, led on the reader to a general knowledge of calculations, I may now venture him further into the more obscure and useful parts of that art: which I shall explain with all possible plainness, though less brevity than I could wish.

§. 1. Two wheels and pinions, of different numbers, may perform the same motion: as a wheel of 36 drives a pinion of 4, all one as a wheel of 45 drives a pinion of 5, or as a wheel of 90 drives one of 10; the turns of each are 9: therefore,

§. 2. In contriving a piece of work, you may make use of one wheel and one pinion, or many wheels and many pinions, provided that the many wheels and many pinions have the same proportion that the one wheel and one pinion have; an example or two of which will make the matter plain. Suppose, instead of a wheel of 1,440 teeth (too large a number for one wheel) and a pinion of 28 leaves, you had rather make use of three wheels and pinions, you may make use of three wheels of 36, 8, and 5, and of three pinions of 4, 7, and 1; which, being multiplied together continually, make the two sums; viz. 36 times 8 is 288, and 5 times that is 1,440; and 4, 7, and 1, so multiplied, makes 28, the very sum of the one wheel and one pinion.

Or you may, by section one, make use of different numbers, which will perform the same motion, although they reach not the same numbers. As, in the wheel 1,440 and pinion 28, there are $51\frac{1}{7}$ turns, now any number of wheels and pinions that will effect the same number $51\frac{1}{7}$ turns, will perform the same motion as that one wheel and one pinion. Future examples will make all plain.

In placing the wheels and pinions it matters not in what order they are set, nor, indeed, which pinion runs into which wheel; only for beauty and convenience they place them orderly, according to their different sizes and numbers.

§. 4. If in breaking your train into parcels (of which presently) any of your quotients should not please you; or if you would alter any other two numbers, which are to be multiplied together, you may vary them by this rule: divide* your two numbers by any other two numbers, which will measure them, and then multiply the quotient by the alternate divisors; the product of these two last numbers, found, shall be equal to the product of the two numbers first given. Thus, if you would vary 36 times 8, divide these by any two numbers that will evenly measure them, as 36 by 4, and 8 by 1: the fourth part of 36 is 9, and 8, divided by 1, gives 8; multiply 9 by 1, the product is 9; and 8, multiplied by 4, produceth 32: so that, for 36 times 8, you shall have found 32 times 9. The operation is in the margin; that you may see, and apprehend it the better. These numbers are equal, viz. 36 times 8 is equal to 32 times 9, both producing 288. If you divide 36 by 6, and 8 by 2, and multiply as before is said, you will have, for 36 times 8, 24 times 12, equal to 288 also.

* Outhred Autom. §. 23.

If this rule seem to the unskilful reader hard to be understood, let him not be discouraged, because he may do without it, although it may be of good use to him that would be a more compleat artist.

§. 5. Because in the following paragraphs I shall have frequent occasion to use the rule of three, or rule of proportion, it will be necessary to shew the unskilful reader how to work this useful rule.

If you find three or four numbers thus set, with four spots after the second of them, it is the rule of proportion; as in this example: 2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; i. e. as 2 is to 4 :: so is 3 to 6. The way to work this rule, viz. by the three first numbers to find a fourth, is, to multiply the second number and the third together, and divide their product by the first. Thus 4 times 3 is 12, which 12, divided by 2, gives 6, which is the number sought for, and stands in the fourth place.

You will find the great use of this rule hereafter; only take care to bear it in mind all along. But, if there should be occasion for any farther instructions in the rule of three, I refer the reader to the article ARITHMETIC.

§. 6. To proceed. If, in seeking for your pinion of report, or by any other means, you happen to have a wheel and pinion fall out with cross numbers, too big to be cut in wheels, and yet not to be altered by the former rules, you may find out two numbers of the same, or a near proportion, by this following

lowing rule, viz. as either of the two numbers given is to the other :: so is 360 to a fourth; divide that fourth number, as also 360, by any aliquot parts, as 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 15 (each of which numbers does exactly measure 360) or by any one of those numbers that brings the quotient nearest to an integer, or whole number. Thus, if you had these two numbers, 147 the wheel, and 170 the pinion, which are too great to be cut in small wheels, and yet cannot be reduced into less, because they have no other common measure but unity: say, therefore, according to the last paragraph, as 170 is to 147, or, as 147 is to 170 :: so is 360 to a fourth number sought: in numbers thus, 170 : 147 :: 360 : 311; or, 147 : 170 :: 360, or 416. Divide the fourth number and 360 by one of the foregoing numbers, as 311 and 360 by 6, it gives 52 and 60. In numbers it is thus: $6 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 311 \\ 360 \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{l} 52 \\ 60 \end{array}$.

Divide by 8 it is thus, $8 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 311 \\ 360 \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{l} 39 \\ 45 \end{array}$. If you divide 360 and 416 by 8, it will fall out exactly to be 45 and 52. $8 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 360 \\ 416 \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{l} 45 \\ 52 \end{array}$ wherefore, for the two numbers 147 and 170, you may take 52 and 60, or 39 and 45, or 45 and 52, &c.

§. 7. I shall add but one rule more before I come to the practice of what hath been laid down; which rule will be of perpetual use, and consists of these five particulars:

1. To find what number of turns the fusee will have, thus: As the beats of the ballance in one turn of the great wheel, or fusee (suppose 26,928) is to the beats of the ballance in one hour (suppose 20,196) :: so is the continuance of the watch's going in hours (suppose 16) to the number of the turns of the fusee 12. In numbers it will stand thus:

$$26,928 : 20,196 :: 16 : 12.$$

By section 4, you may remember, that you are to multiply 20,196 by 16; the product is 323,136. Divide this by 26,928, and there will arise 12 in the quotient, which must be placed in the fourth place, and is the number of turns which the fusee hath.

2. By the beats and turns of the fusee to find how many hours the watch will go, thus:

As the beats of the ballance in one hour are to the beats in the turns of the fusee, so is the number of the turns of the fusee to the continuance of the watch's going. In numbers thus: 20,196 : 26,928 :: 12 : 16.

3. To find the strokes of the ballance in one turn of the fusee, say, As the number of turns of the fusee is to the continuance of the watch's going in hours, so are the beats in one hour to the beats of one turn of the fusee. In numbers it is thus:

$$12 : 16 :: 20,196 : 26,928.$$

4. To find the beats of the ballance in an hour, say thus: As the hour of the watch's going is to the number of turns of the fusee, so are the beats in one turn of the fusee to the beats in an hour. In numbers thus:

$$16 : 12 :: 26,928 : 20,196.$$

5. To find what quotient is to be laid upon the pinion of report, say thus: As the beats in one turn of the great wheel are to the beats in an hour, so are the hours of the face of the clock (viz. 12, or 24) to the quotient of the hour-wheel, or dial-wheel, divided by the pinion of report, i. e. the number of turns which the pinion of report hath in one turn of the dial-wheel. In numbers thus:

$$26,928 : 20,196 :: 12 : 9.$$

Or rather, to avoid trouble, say thus: As the hours of the watch's going are to the number of the turns of the fusee, so are the hours of the face to the quotient of the pinion of report. In numbers thus: 16 : 12 :: 12 : 9. If the hours of the face be 24, the quotient will be 18; thus:

$$16 : 12 :: 24 : 18.$$

N. B. This may be made serve to lay the pinion of report on any other wheel: As the beats in one turn in any wheel are to the beats in an hour, so are the hours of the face, or dial-plate of the watch, to the quotient of the dial-wheel, divided by the pinion of report, fixed on the spindle of the aforesaid wheel.

CLOTH, in traffic, signifies a manufacture made of wool, wove on the loom; the expression is applicable also to other manufactures made of hemp or flax, &c.-but, in a more particular sense, it implies a web or tissue of woollen threads interwoven, some whereof, called the warp, are extended in length from one end of the piece to the other; the rest, called the woof, disposed across the first or breadthwise of the piece. Cloths are of divers qualities, fine or coarse.

The goodness of cloth consists in the following particulars. (1.) That the woof be of a good quality and well dressed. (2.) It must be equally spun, carefully observing that the thread of the warp be finer and better twisted than that of the woof. (3.) The cloth must be well wrought, and beaten on the loom, so as to be every-where equally compact.

(4.) The wool must not be finer at one end of the piece than in the rest. (5.) The lifts must be sufficiently strong, of the same length with the stuff, and consist of good wool, hair, or ostrich-feathers, or, which is still better, of Danish dog's-hair. (6.) The cloth must be free from knots and other imperfections. (7.) It must be well scoured with fuller's earth, well filled with the best white soap, and afterwards washed in clear water. (8.) The hair or nap must be well drawn out with the teazel, without being too much opened. (9.) It must be shorn close, without making it threadbare. (10.) It must be well dried. (11.) It must not be tenter-stretched, to force it to its just dimensions, (12.) It must be pressed cold, not hot pressed, the latter being very injurious to woollen cloth.

The manner of manufacturing in France white cloths which are intended for dyeing.

The best wools for the manufacturing of fine cloths are those of Spain, particularly those of Segovia. To use those wools to the best advantage, they must be scoured with a liquor composed of three parts fair water, and one of urine. After the wool has continued long enough in the liquor to soak and dissolve the grease, it is drained and well washed in running water. When it feels dry, and has no smell but the natural one of the sheep, it is said to be duly scoured.

After this it is hung to dry in the shade, the heat of the sun making it harsh and inflexible. When dry, it is beat with rods upon hurdles of wood, or on cords, to cleanse it from dust and the grosser filth; the more it is thus beat and cleaned, the softer it becomes, and the better for spinning. After beating, it must be well picked, to free it from the rest of the filth that had escaped the rods.

It is now in a proper condition to be oiled, and carded on large iron cards, placed slopewise. Olive-oil is esteemed the best for this purpose; one fifth of which should be used for the wool intended for the woof, and a ninth for that designed for the warp.

After the wool has been well oiled, it is given to the spinners, who first card it on the knee with small fine cards, and then spin it on the wheel; observing to make the thread of the warp smaller by one third than that of the woof, and much compacter twisted, there being greater inconvenience in twisting it too loose than too tight: to which end, the latter should be spun with the band open, or uncrossed, and the former with it crossed.

The thread thus spun, reeled, and made into skeins, that designed for the woof is wound on little tubes, pieces of paper, or rushes, so disposed, as that they may be easily put in the eye of the shuttle. That for the warp is wound on a kind of large wooden bobbins, to dispose it for warping. When warped, it is stiffened with size, the best of which is that made of shreds of parchment, and, when dry, is given to the weavers, who mount it on the loom.

The warp thus mounted, the weavers, who are two to each loom, one on each side, tread at the same time alternately on the treddle, first on the right step and then on the left, which raises and lowers the threads of the warp equally; between which they throw, transversely, the shuttle from the one to the other. And every time that the shuttle is thus thrown, and a thread of the woof* inserted within the warp, they strike it conjointly with the same frame wherein is fastened the comb or reed, between whose teeth the threads of the warp are passed, repeating the stroke, as often as is necessary; in some cloths no less than twelve or thirteen times, viz. six with the warp open, and seven shut.

* One of the most useful inventions, perhaps, known in human society, is that of weaving with the warp and woof. The warp, which the Latins call the stamen, is the base and foundation of the stuff: it consists of a number of long twisted threads extended on a loom, some whereof are raised up, and others depressed alternately, in order to receive and catch hold of another thread called the woof, which is thrown through them by means of a shuttle, an instrument with two points, and in the figure of a boat. Weaving with the warp and woof is more expeditious than that of any other way; it is also most convenient and the fittest to be diversified, according to the exigency of the seasons, and the taste of nations and particular persons. Hence proceeds that infinite number of different kinds of linnens, woollens, serges, cloths, camblets, taffetas, damasks, velvets, and other stuffs, whose names vary according to the materials they are made of, and the different mixtures of the threads.

It is observable, that, the more the threads of the woof are struck against each other, the closer the cloth is: hence it becomes enabled to sustain the violence of the fulling-mill, as well as of the teazel, or fulling-thistle, without fretting or opening. The weavers having continued their work 'till the whole warp is filled with woof, the cloth is finished: it is taken off the loom, by unrolling it from the beam whereon it had been rolled, in proportion as it was wove; and now given to be cleaned of the knots, ends of threads, straws, and other filth, which is done with little iron nippers.

In this condition it is carried to the fullery, to be scoured with urine, or a kind of potter's-clay, well cleansed and steeped in water, put along with the cloth in the trough, wherein it is filled.

The cloth, being again cleared from the earth or urine, by washing it well in water, is returned to the former hands, to have the lesser filth, small straws, and almost imperceptible knots taken off as before: then it is returned to the fuller, to be beat and fulled with hot water, wherein a suitable quantity of soap has been dissolved for the occasion. The soap most esteemed is the Castile, or the white soap of Genoa. After fulling it is taken out to be smoothed, or pulled by the lifts lengthwise, to take out the wrinkles and crevices occasioned by the force of the mallets or pestles falling on the cloth, when in the troughs.

The smoothing is repeated every two hours, 'till the fulling be finished, and the cloth brought to it's proper breadth; after which it is washed in clear water, to purge it of the soap, and given wet to the carders, to raise the hair or nap on the right-side, with the thistle or weed; wherewith they give it two rubs or courses, the first against the grain, the second with the grain.

After this preparation the clothworker takes the cloth, and gives it it's first cut or sheering. After which, the carders resume it, and, after wetting, give it as many more courses with the teazel as the quality of the stuff requires; always observing to begin against the grain of the hair, and to end with it; as also to begin with a smoother thistle, proceeding still with one sharper and sharper, as far as the sixth degree.

After these operations the cloth, being dried, is returned to the clothworker, who sheers it a second time, and returns it to the carders, who repeat their operation as before, 'till the nap be well ranged on the surface of the cloth, from one end of the piece to the other.

It must be observed, that it is absolutely necessary the cloth should be wet, while in the hands of the carder; to which end it is sprinkled with water from time to time.

The nap finished and the cloth dried, the clothworker gives it as many cuts as he thinks requisite, for the perfection of the stuff. It must be observed also, that all the sheerings must be on the right-side except the two last, which must be on the other; and that the cloth cannot be too close for sheering.

The cloth, thus wove, scoured, napped, and shorn, is sent to the dyer. Which performed, it is washed in fair water, and the worker takes it again, wet as it is; lays the nap, with a brush, on the table, and hangs it on the tenters; where it is stretched both in length and breadth, sufficiently to smooth it, set it square, and bring it to it's proper dimensions, without straining it too much; observing to brush it afresh, the way of the nap, while a little moist on the tenters. When quite dry, the cloth is taken off from the tenters, and brushed again on the table, to finish the laying of the nap: after which it is folded, and laid cold under a press, to make it perfectly smooth and even, and give it a gloss.

The gloss is given by laying a leaf of vellum, or cap-paper, in each plait of the piece, and over the whole a square plank of wood: whereon, by means of a lever, the screw of a press is brought down, with the degree of force judged requisite, with regard to the quality of the cloth. In France and Holland, none but scarlets, greens, blues, &c. receive this last preparation, blacks being judged better without it.

Lastly, the cloth being taken out of the press, and the papers removed, it is in a condition for sale or use.

With regard to the manufacture of mixed cloths, or those wherein the wools are first dyed, then mixed, spun, and wove of the colours intended, the process, except in what relates to the colour, is mostly the same with that just represented.

The method of adjusting the mixture, is by first making a felt or flock of the colours of the intended cloth, as a specimen: the wool of each colour is weighed, and, when the specimen is to the manufacturer's mind, he mixes, for use, a quantity in the same proportion; estimating each grain of the specimen at 20 pounds weight of the same wool, in the cloth to be made.

Thus, for example, if he would mix three colours, viz. coffee-colour, feuille-mort, and the pale blue, the first to be the prevailing colour, he weighs the quantity of each: for instance, 70 grains of the first, 25 of the second, and 20 of the third; then multiplies each by 20 pounds of wool; and, thus, again, 1400 pounds for the coffee-wool, 500 pounds for the feuille-mort, and 400 for the pale blue.

The wools of the specimen, thus weighed, are mixed, oiled, carded, moistened with clear water, rubbed with black soap, and in this state wrought a long time with the hands, 'till they be reduced into a piece of felt used by hatters.—It is then rinsed in water, to purge out the oil and soap; and, when dry, the nap is carded out with the teazel; then shorn again 'till the ground appear, and the several colours be discoverable.—Lastly, wetting it a little and pressing it, he examines it well, and, if he is not satisfied with it, makes another felt; if he is, he proceeds to mix his wools: when fo

done, it is beat on hurdles, cleaned, oiled, carded, spun, wove, &c. as in the white cloth.

For those who would chuse to have a connected idea of the usual terms of woollen manufacturers, will find them in what follows, ranged according to the order of the operation.

The wool is washed,

Either in heaps, in standing water; or in the coyridle, in running water;

Or in tubs full of river water.

To prepare the bath or suds, is to let the wool soak in water, 'till it has thickened the water in the tub, by discharging it's greasiness and salt in it. Thence it is, that infects seek clean wool, and will not touch that which retains it's natural moisture.

Wool in the greafe, is that which still preserves it's natural greasiness. This is better for keeping, because the moth will not get into it.

A washing of wool, is a heap of wool, taken out of the tub, and set to drain in the air.

To wash the wool alive, is to wash it on the sheep's back before sheering.

The sheers are scissars made of one piece of steel, which forms the bow and two blades. The bow is a semicircle, from whence the two blades stretch forward. These are pressed close to each other, and cut the wool under the workman's fingers, and then fly back by the spring of the bow.

A tod of wool is what is cut off of the skin of the sheep, beginning at the legs, and ending at the head.

A fleece is the tod gathered up into a socket. Out of trade, a fleece sometimes signifies a sheep-skin, with the wool on.

The pushes are wool finer than the rest, which shoot out by little tufts in different places. They are plucked off the sheep before sheering.

In the province of Berry this last name is given to the wool, which is taken off the thighs.

The breechings are those, which are so hard and clotted, that they are of the consistence of felt. They are also called clottings, because the beast, especially when sick, dirt, and clots them, by lying much on one side.

Pelled wool is that, which comes off from scabby sheep.

Sprazeley or crudly wool is the young hungry wool, which shoots out before the old is shorn.

Locks or breeching are long white hairs, as stiff as badger's hair.

All these sorts of wool are bad or rejected. Yet they ought not to be thrown away as useless. They are used in very coarse works, such as ordinary rugs.

Clipping is cutting off the coarse ends of the wool, before it is washed. These ends are called locks.

The fleece-wool is that, which hath been shorn off the sheep, while alive.

The lamb's wool is that cut off lambs.

The glover's-wool is the wool which the leather-dresser takes off the skin, after the sheep is killed.

The fell-wool is the wool stripped off sheep, which died of some distemper. The use of this sort is prohibited.

In sorting Segovia wool it is distinguished into first, second, and third. The same order is observed in the sorting of Spanish wool in general.

As to the other sorts of wool, the only distinction that is made, is into the high wool, which is the longest, and is generally reserved for combing; and the low wool, which is usually carded. However, the long wool, when it is to make cloth, is also carded, because it does better so than when combed.

Fine wool unscoured is only fit for the market, and not for working. In order to work it, in some cases they begin by washing and combing it; in others, by getting out the greafe by boiling, in order to wash and comb it afterwards: and there are other cases still, in which it is first dyed, then carried to the river, and thence to the comber.

The scouring boiler, or copper, has a cross-bar on it, to support the wool taken out of the water. There are also poles to stir the wool, pestles to pound or beat it, hooks to draw it out, baskets to hold and carry it to the river, where the cleaning of it is finished.

Common wool, which has been washed on the sheep's back, ought, before working, to be carefully examined, picked off the locks or clipped, and cleansed of all refuse.

In some manufactories, wool is wrought whole; in others, it is dyed before working.

For dyeing wool, the same utensils are requisite as for scouring.

The ingredients are the preparatory and colouring materials. Setting the copper is to put the necessary ingredients into it. Handling the wool is to open it, by stirring it with the poles, in order to make every part of it take the colour equally.

Increasing the boiling is to enlarge the fire.

Cooling the wool is to spread it out in the air.

If the wool has been only grounded or galled; that is, if it has only had it's first dip, or the first tincture of galls, cop-

peras,

peras, or other ingredients, whether preparatory or colouring; then it must be brought in from the airing to the copper, to be there revived by a second dip, which brightens the dye; or to be lowered by a new mixture, which either diminishes its lustre, or gives it another teint; or, in fine, to give it a deeper cast of the same colour.

To beat the wool, whether dyed or white, is to spread it on a hurdle, and to open its texture, by whipping it with switches, in order to make it fit for combing, or carding and spinning.

For combing wool they use

A little furnace, which serves to warm the combs,

A vice and hook to fix combs,

A pair of combs, which are two little boards, almost square, stuck with teeth of iron wire, some a little longer than the others. Each comb has its handle.

A hammer, to put in and take out these teeth.

A brass hollow tube, to mend them when out of order.

A file, to point them when blunt.

A windlas, to twist the wool soaked in soap-water, before it be put in the comb.

A tub, in which the soap is dissolved.

To comb wool, is to comb the wool that has been sprinkled with oil, in order to wash it afterwards.

A certain quantity of wool is given by weight to the workmen.

A beating is a parcel of wool beaten on the hurdles.

A sliver is a proper quantity of wool put into the teeth of the comb.

To discharge it, is to take out the sliver, after having moved the right comb backward and forward on the left, and the left on the right.

The carding is the quantity of wool that sticks to each comb, and is sufficiently combed, after a certain number of movements of one comb on the other. There are always two cardings, as well as always two combs.

A distaff is two cardings joined together, which make up a sufficient quantity for the distaff.

The short wool, which cannot be wrought together, by combing, is not lost. It goes to the card.

To brimstone the wool, is to suspend the several skins over the brimstone room.

The brimstone stove is a little stove well closed, and cemented at top, to whiten the wool by the fumes of brimstone burning in a pan.

When dyed wool is combed, they begin by mixing it, according to the taste and skill of the master workmen.

The different colours are effaced by the judgment in mixing them, whereby there results a new colour.

The comb follows a certain rule, in the quantity of each colour he takes for each combing. On which depends the uniformity of the colour required.

Carded wool is broke in a different manner from combed wool. It passes through two tools, called cards, which are two little quadrangular pieces of board, three or four times as broad or tall, with a handle to each, and thick-set with small crooked wires. The cards are changed, beginning by the widest, and ending with the closest, in order to break the wool, and mix the colours the better.

Spinning is of two sorts.

Twisted thread is spun by the spindle or little reel, from combed wool, and serves for the warp, which is the ground of the little stuffs. The name of warp is also given to the threads running lengthwise in a piece of cloth, and which make the ground of it.

The slack-spun is made by the great wheel from carded wool, and is called the woof or shute. The woof crosses the threads of the warp, and may be called shute, with regard to a stuff that has a pile.

The thread of the work in cloths is generally called back-thrown, because being made from carded wool, as well as the woof, it is likewise spun by the great wheel, but with the circumstance of crossing the wheel-string: which has a double good effect, viz. to make a thread somewhat better twisted, and stronger, and give it a different twist from that of the woof; whereby they thicken better in the fulling-mill.

Stuffs may be divided into three sorts, tammy, serge, and cloth.

Tammy, or stuffs of two tammies, are made of thread of warp upon thread of warp, that is, the warp is of twisted thread, and the woof of the same, both made from combed wool. Serge is made of slack-spun, or carded wool, on a warp of tammy, or combed wool.

Cloth is made of the two last threads, that is, both the warp and woof are of the thread spun from carded wool, and very little twisted, in order to make a more substantial and woolly stuff.

These three fundamental sorts are subdivided into a vast number of others, according to certain qualities added to them, and different ways of working.

To weave is to work at the loom, or to make stuff. One weaver is sufficient to make tammy and serges; because, as these little stuffs are not wide, the same workman can throw

his shuttle with his right-hand between the threads of the warp, and receive it with his left, in order to throw it the contrary way. But cloths and blankets, being very wide, are wrought by two weavers, one of whom throws the shuttle, the other receives and throws it back; and they go on thus alternately with as much regularity, as if the work was done by the two hands of the same man.

The loom is composed of several parts, whereof the chief are the loom-posts and cross-bars.

The three rolls or rollers, viz. the little one, the cane one.

The warp is at first fastened at one end of the loom, on the least of these rollers, and at the other end is rolled on the second cylinder, which is thicker, and is called the cane-roll: according as the warp is filled with woof, the stuff is to be rolled under the loom in the knee-roll; and at the same time the same length of the thread of the warp is unrolled off the cane-roll, as that of the stuff rolled on the knee-roll.

The batten is a large moveable frame, suspended on two pins at the top of the loom, to move freely backwards and forwards, under the workman's hands, who, after every throw of the shuttle, or thread of the woof, strikes in this thread, more or less, with the batten or reed.

The reed or comb is made of two rods, with a long row of teeth of reeds, or brass wire. It is placed at the lower part of the batten. Every thread of the warp passes singly, between two teeth of the reed: that so the batten may move without breaking the threads, and strike in the woof equally, without leaving any part of it irregular.

The lams are behind the reed. Each lam is composed of two verges, or laths, whose length should be the width of the stuff, and of little strings, stretched from one verge to the other, which are called leishes. In the middle of each leish there is a loop, or little ring, of thread, horn, or glass, to receive one of the threads of the warp, which pass through the loops of one lam; and between the leishes or threads of the other lam; and those which pass through the loops of the second lam play freely between the threads of the first, so as to be able to descend, while the other ascends: and thus these two lams being, near their ends, fastened to a common cord, passed round a pulley at top, and at bottom to another cord, which supports a treddle, lying under the workman's feet; if he lowers the fore-lam with his left foot, the other lam must rise up: the reverse happens upon a contrary motion.

If there are a greater number of lams, to vary or figure the stuff, certain parcels of threads are thus raised and lowered at a time, whereby divers openings are made, to receive the throw of the shuttle. As often as the foot is changed, and the warp receives a new throw of the woof, the batten closes it, more or less, according to the quality of the stuff. When the increase of the stuff hinders the play of the batten, there is as much of the warp rolled off the cane-roll, as of the stuff rolled on the lower great cylinder.

Concerning the manner of guiding the threads of the warp, through the rings of the jack, on the warping-mill; of managing the separation of the threads of the portee; of uniting several portees into one chain; and of making one entire warp of them all; of brushing, or moistening it with size, to make the threads glide easier in working; of mounting it on the loom, by fastening it in a groove of the little roller; of passing the threads in good order through the teeth of the reed, and then dividing these same threads, and making some of them go through the loops of one lam, and between the leishes of the next, and others between the leishes of the first, and through the loops of the second; of fixing and maintaining the divisions of the threads, by the insertion of several rods, which prevent their mixing; of facilitating, in fine, the unwinding and play of the warp and woof, by the usual precautions, and proper tools: these operations are easily comprehended at first sight. But their number is so great, that, if the workmen did not use great dispatch, by every one constantly plying to his own part, sheep's wool either would never be converted into clothing, or would bear too high a price for the common people*. Let us not remain unacquainted with what shews the greatest industry, after the play of the lams.

- * Since such exquisite dexterity in the manual operation is required by all any way practically concerned in the woollen manufacture, do not all our national advantages, arising from the woollen manufacture, depend upon our maintaining a succession of the best artists and manufacturers, who are to act in every part hereof? for they are not bred in a few years. Ought not the wisdom of the nation to be alarmed at those daily artifices which are used to decoy and infligate our artists and manufacturers out of the kingdom, to the emolument of other countries, and the certain ruin of this? And can any thing effectually do this, but giving them all due and reasonable encouragement to prevent their forsaking the kingdom?

The shuttle is a piece of hard wood, that runs tapering to a point at both ends, and has a cavity in the middle, called the box, or chamber, for receiving the quills.

The quill is a small pipe of reed, on which a proper quantity of the thread of the woof has been wound, and which plays on the shuttle-pin.

The shuttle-pin is an iron wire, which runs through the quill, and with it is set in the chamber of the shuttle. It is put in, secured, and taken out, by the different action of a spring at the end of the chamber, where the shuttle pin is placed.

As the shuttle runs through the warp, the thread of the woof, which slips through a hole, or eye, in the side of the shuttle, and has been fastened to the lizier, must run off the quill, which runs round as the shuttle goes on. When this quill is emptied, another is put in it's place; and the ends of the threads of the two quills are laid close to one another, without knotting, only taking care to manage the throw of the shuttle, so as to be sure of keeping both those ends of the woof together.

The head of the piece is some few inches of the stuff, made with a different sort of woof from the rest. The names of the workmen and place are wrought in it, in France especially: and afterwards the lead-seals are put to it, which are, or ought to be, a testimony of it's being examined, and found to be of good materials, and of the breadth and quality required by the laws for the respective sorts.

The temple is composed of two flat notched rulers, secured one over another by a sliding ring, and having pins and points at their ends. The workman fastens the two ends, full of points, or spikes, to the two liziers, or lifts, which are the outer threads of the width of the stuff, and by bringing the verges, or laths, more or less forward, he keeps the stuff constantly of an equal breadth.

If he did not take care to temple his stuff, the woof would shrink unequally, and bring the threads of the warp nearer together in some places, and in others farther asunder; but, by removing his temple from time to time, to keep it near the last throws of the woof, he strikes the woof in upon a square, and so as to make it receive the stroke of the batten equally in every part.

The workman continues to throw the shuttle, to temple, and to wind off, alternately. When he is come to the end of the piece, he takes another sort of thread for the woof, as he had done at beginning it, and makes a stripe of a different colour, for the names and seals, as above. These two ends are called the head and the fag-end.

To steam a little stuff, as is done at Amiens, Rheims, and Le Mans, is to render it supple, by exposing it to the steam of boiling water, in a square kettle, or copper, where it is laid, still on it's roller, with other pieces. This operation disposes it for dressing well.

The fullery is a water-mill, for working great mallets on stuffs, either to cleanse them, or thicken them to the consistence of felt.

The stocks, or fuller's pots, are hollow vessels, to hold the stuffs, which are continually turned under the strokes of the mallets.

The leavers, or prominent bars, are the ends of pieces of timber, that run through the axle-tree, or arbour of the wheel, and which, as they pass, catch the heads of the mallets, raise them up, and let them fall, as they go off.

To earth the stuff, is to rub it with fuller's earth.

To beat it in the earth, is to full the stuff with the earth on it, letting a water-cock run on it at the same time.

To scour cloth, is to full it, after soaping it with black soap, which carries off all spots.

To clean stuff, is to full it without water, 'till it has acquired the utmost thickness it is capable of, and beyond which it runs into a pap.

When stuffs come from the fulling-mill, they are aired, that is, hung out.

The pieces brought from off the poles, or tenters, ought to be made up, that is, properly folded on a table; then gummed at every fold, by sprinkling the backside with a solution of gum arabic in water.

To stretch the stuff, is to pass it from one roller to another, keeping it constantly of the same breadth, over a braiser, by means of an iron bar, on which it slides; whereby the heat penetrates, and breaks it's stiffness: and, by thus passing several times from one roller on another, it is rendered pliant in every part alike.

There are some stuffs that are unrolled and rolled without fire: but it is always allowed to such as are to be dressed very well.

The effects of this stretching are, 1. To smooth, or take out the bad folds; 2. To gum the whole piece equally, by the fire's spreading the moisture every-where, which evaporates, and leaves the gum behind. 3. To stretch the whole in an uniform manner, which is of great consequence in the wear of stuffs.

They are folded near a good fire.

They are leaved, by putting a leaf of pasteboard hot, between every two folds.

They are put between two thick boards of box, which take in the whole pile of folds.

They are left 10 or 12 hours in a strong press: and this is repeated three or four times.

They are visited for the last time; and, after drawing out the two ends, called the head and fag-end, the lead-seals,

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tickets, and other marks are put on, which denote the quality, breadth, length, dye, and other things prescribed by the laws. Then they are put into the press again, and stitched, by securing the folds loosely with thread, run through the liziers.

There are some other practices, peculiar to different manufactories; but they all tend to the same end.

Cloth is not stretched on the rollers; but, after having been fulled, teazled, tentered, or hung on the rack, shorn twice, cottoned, and the pile laid smooth one way, it is gummed, or folded on leaves, put to the press, the leaves are changed, and, instead of thick coarse pasteboards, other thinner and smoother, called cards, are put between the folds: it returns to the press, or else to the calenders, which gives it it's last gloss.

Of some of the principal laws of England, with regard to the manufacture of woollen cloth.

The woollen manufacture has, for several ages, been the care of this kingdom; inasmuch that near a hundred several acts of parliament have, from time to time, been made to support, regulate, and encourage it.

Clothiers shall pay their work-folks in ready money, and not in wares, on pain of forfeiting treble damages, or sums due to such work-folks; and shall deliver them wool according to due weight: forfeiture on every default 6d.

Every justice of peace, constable, &c. to hear and determine such complaints, with power to commit the offender, 'till the party aggrieved be satisfied. 17 Edw. IV. c. 1.

By stat. 1. Geo. I. c. 15. the penalty of clothiers imposing goods on their work folks in lieu of money, is 40s. justices of peace, and head officers, to appoint and swear officers, for the due observing of the stat. of 3 and 4 Edw. IV. c. 6. concerning the well ordering of cloth, with power to search accordingly: forfeitures to be divided between the king and overseers.

No overseer, duly chosen, to refuse the office, on pain of 40s. and once every quarter to make due search, on pain of 10l. None shall interrupt overseers in their office, on pain of 20l. None shall take advantage of the forfeitures given by this act, unless suit be commenced within one year after they accrue. 3 and 4 Edw. III. c. 2. Cloths faulty in weight or measure, exposed to sale by retail, forfeited; to be divided into three parts, the first to the king, the second to the justice, and third to the informer. Persons not trying cloths to be bought and sold, and not seizing and presenting them, if faulty, forfeit double the value of the cloth.

Note, All statutes repugnant to this repealed. Two justices of the county, and chief magistrates in corporations, empowered to hear complaints. 3 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 6.

Two justices in counties, and chief officers in corporations, to appoint and swear overseers and searchers for faulty cloth. Justices may search after and seize ropes, winches, and engines used for stretching northern cloths: who oppose, forfeit 10l. 39 Eliz. c. 20. and, by 21 Jac. I. overseers may do the like.

All penalties for want of length, breadth, or weight, to be equally divided into three parts; one to the searchers, and two to the poor of the parish. See stat. 21 Jac. I. c. 18. how to be recovered. These penalties under power of justices of peace.

Two justices in a county, and chief officer if in a corporation, with another, may order satisfaction (double value by 1 Ann.) or the offender to be whipped and put in the stocks. A sorter, carder, comber, spinster, or weaver of wool, found guilty by confession, or oath of one witness, of embezzling or detaining wool, and the receiver, is liable to the same punishment. 7 Jac. I. c. 7.

Justice negligent in appointing overseers, or otherwise, in his duty, according to 39 Eliz. forfeits 5l.

Justices have power to determine these offences in their sessions; and to be convicted by justices of assize, upon proof of two witnesses, if negligent.

Two justices may call before them any suspected of making deceitful cloth; who is found guilty shall forfeit 5l. or suffer imprisonment, 21 Jac. I. c. 18.

Overseer, when chose, on refusal, forfeits 5l. and to be committed 'till paid, by 39 Eliz. c. 20. He must search once a month for defects in the northern cloths, 39 Eliz. c. 20. And must fix a leaden seal to each cloth, containing the length and breadth, which exempts from further search. And any other person taking away such seal without warrant, and convicted by oath of two witnesses, or verdict, forfeits for the first offence 10l, for the second 20l; one part to the king, another to the informer, and the third to the poor of the parish; and the offender to stand in the pillory, 39 Eliz. c. 20. Any person, besides the overseer, fixing a seal without a warrant, is liable to the same penalties. A searcher may enter any house, or other place, to find bad cloth, and, if he find any, shall stamp the word (faulty) on the seal; but he must not search cloth searched before, on pain of 5l. See stat. 12 Car. II. c. 22. relating to the manufacture of bays at Colchester.

Yorkshire cloths must be of lengths and breadths prescribed by 7 Ann. c. 13. and 1 Geo. I. c. 15. on penalty of 20s. conviction before one justice, by oath of the overseer of cloth, or any other witness.

Owner of every fulling-mill shall affix a seal of lead, with his name, and length and breadth of cloth, when wet, on penalty of 20s. Every person who takes off, defaces, counterfeits, or alters the figures on the seal of the cloth before fold, or that stretches or strains cloth when wet, more than allowed by the act, or occupier of the fulling-mill causing to be milled in any one stock, at the same time, more than one whole, or two half broad-cloths, forfeits 20s. conviction as before, penalty to the poor of the parish, where, &c. and informer. Not paying in seven days, to be levied by distress and sale; or sent to the house of correction; information in ten days; appeal to quarter-sessions, &c. 7 Ann. c. 13.

By 10 Ann. c. 16. all mixed or medley broad-cloth shall be measured at the fulling mill, after it is milled, by the master of the mill, who shall first take oath (refusal 20l. penalty by 1 Geo. I. c. 15.) before some justice, that he will truly perform such measuring (the justice to give him a certificate of his having so done) and shall fix to it, before carried away, a seal of lead, and rivet the same, with his name stamped, mentioning in figures the length and breadth, for which the owner shall pay him a penny. The numbers so stamped to be a rule of payment to the buyer, except any part be damaged, and taken off, and then the rest to be again measured, sealed, &c.

If the master of the mill refuse or neglect to affix such seal, or any person afterwards take it off, deface, or alter the figures before the cloth is fold; and if the buyer refuse to accept the same, according to such measure; the offender, convicted on oath, forfeits 20s. (by 1 Geo. I. c. 15. 20l.) for each cloth.

No clothier, fuller, &c. after such cloth is fully wet, sealed, and stamped, shall stretch it above one yard in twenty yards length, or above one nail in a yard in breadth, on penalty of 20s.

Every mill-man to keep in his mill a table, or board 12 feet long, and 3 feet wide, whereon the cloth shall be crested, and laid plain, with the length of a yard marked thereon, with one inch more, viz. 37 inches long, and in default thereof he forfeits 10l.

Every clothier, cloth-maker, &c. shall make payment in money for work done, and not impose goods or wares, on forfeiture of 20s.

Offences herein to be heard and determined by one or more justices where committed (the justice not to be concerned in the matter of the complaint) on oath of one witness; all penalties are one half to the informer, and the other to the poor of the parish. Payment, refused for fourteen days after conviction, to be levied by distress; or the offender committed to gaol, or house of correction, 10 and 12 Ann. c. 20, 21.

This act not to extend to any cloth made or manufactured in the county of York, nor to invalidate any of the powers contained in the stat. 7 Ann. for ascertaining the lengths and breadths of woollen cloth made in the county of York.

All mixed or medley cloth shall, at the buyer's instance, be put into water, and then measured by two indifferent persons, one chosen by the buyer, the other by the seller; if they cannot agree, a third to be chosen; he refusing, the keeper of Blackwell-hall, in London, to determine it, being first sworn before some justice to admeasure truly; if not in London, then by the magistrate or chief officer of such place where, &c. as aforesaid; 6d. for measuring to be paid by the buyer: if not the length or breadth mentioned on the seal, every such clothier, &c. to forfeit the sixth part of the value, conviction on oath before one justice. Owner or mill-man of any fulling-mill, refusing to take oath for true admeasuring cloth, &c. or to fix a seal of lead, with his name, &c. or to enter in a book in manner aforesaid, forfeits 20s. to Christ's Hospital, if in London; if elsewhere, to the poor, &c. Note, the forfeiture of 20l. dischargeth the forfeiture of 20s. buyer of, &c. to give two days notice to the seller, that his cloth shall be wetted for proof or admeasurement.

Mixed or medley broad-cloths to be stamped with the watch-measure, or seal of the master, &c. by whom wetted. Clothier selling such cloth, before sealed and stamped as aforesaid, forfeits the 6th part of the said cloth.

Persons aggrieved may appeal to quarter-sessions, who may finally determine and give costs. Not to affect any factor or his agent, only employed in the sale of, &c. All persons concerned in the woollen manufacture to pay their servants in money, not in goods or wares, on penalty of 40s. to be recovered and disposed as before. Yorkshire cloths, called, &c. shall be of such measure, &c. See the act, on penalty of 20s. and 40s. penalty for any person to put any other name on his cloths than his own, 1 Geo. I. c. 15. Any justice, overseer, &c. may search for tenters, &c. for the first offence he may deface them, for the second sell them, 48 Eliz. c. 10.

Justices, on information, must execute this law in seven days, on penalty of 5l. Clothiers refusing to pay wages assessed at

the sessions, and convicted before two justices, forfeits 10s. to the party grieved, 1 Jac. I. c. 8.

By stat. 12 Geo. I. all contracts, &c. and all by-laws, in unlawful clubs and societies, between wool-combers or weavers, on any account relating to their craft, are illegal and void; and any concerned, keeping up such combination, being convicted on oath, shall be sent either to the house of correction, not exceeding three months, or to the common goal.

By stat. 13 Geo. I. no maker of mixed medley or white cloth shall use any warping-bars, but only of the measure and length following, viz. every long warping-bar to be in length three yards three inches, and no more; and every round warping-bar four yards and four inches round, and no more; the thrums at the end of the bars not to exceed 18 inches in length, on forfeiture of 10l.

Every maker to give out wool, yarn, &c. by weight, at the rate of 16 ounces to the pound, and to receive back the same by the same weight without fraud, on forfeiture of 10l. No clothier shall use any ends of yarn, wefts, or other refuse (stocks and pinions only excepted) by working them up again, on pain of 3l.

Prosecutions to be heard by two or more justices—and the penalties levied by distress under their warrants, or the offender committed, not exceeding three months, or 'till satisfaction is made.

All disputes relating to work, wages, &c. between clothier and weaver, to be heard by two or more justices, where the dispute shall arise, who are to summon the parties, examine, &c. and give such satisfaction and costs, as to them shall seem reasonable, to be levied by distress, &c.—

Persons aggrieved may appeal to next quarter-sessions, on six days notice given in writing of such appeal; the orders and costs there given to be final, and levied by distress, &c.

On information on oath, that any persons are (or are suspected to be) guilty of any of the said ill practices, any two or more justices are to issue out their warrants to any constable, &c. directing to enter any house, or other suspected place, to search for and examine all bars and weights used by any clothier or maker of woollen cloths; who forfeit 5l. on interrupting such officer in the execution of his office. Any peace-officer by warrant may search any end-gatherer, his bag, or other convenience, for ends of yarn, wefts, &c. which if found (stocks and pinions only excepted) he shall carry him before one or more justices where he shall be found, and on conviction shall be deemed a dangerous and incorrigible rogue, and punished as directed by stat. 12 Ann.

Every maker shall pay the weaver according to the number of yards that the chains are laid on the warping-bars, on forfeiture of 5l.

Every owner of tenters or racks in the counties of Gloucester, Wilts, and Somerset, shall measure his tenters, &c. and mark in figures the true length in yards upon the top bar; and on the fore-side, each yard 36 inches, to which shall be added one inch in lieu of the over measure, on pain of 5l.

Justices for the said counties, in their Easter quarter-sessions to chuse certain skilful men for inspectors yearly, allowing each not exceeding 30l. per annum, which inspectors shall, at reasonable times, inspect every mill, shop, &c. of clothiers, mill-men, and others, and to measure every tenter, and cloth before it be carried thence; stamping his name on a lead-seal, to be furnished by the maker, and fixed on every cloth, registering the clothier's, or other person's name, the number, length, &c. of every cloth made in their divisions: clothiers, makers, &c. refusing the inspector's entrance, forfeit 10l. and an inspector acting against his oath 20l.

Every maker of mixed or medley woollen broad-cloth shall pay to the inspectors 2d. a piece for every cloth he makes, before the cloths are sent away from the mills; and the inspectors, every three months, must pay the money to the treasurer of the county, to be applied by direction of the quarter-sessions, towards the salaries of inspectors; every mill-man, sending home cloths not inspected, forfeits 40s. for every piece.

This act not to make void any powers given by charter, or act of parliament, to the corporation of clothiers in the city of Worcester.

Every prosecution for clothiers paying their labourers, in any other manner than in money, shall be commenced within three months next after the offence committed.

Any person, sued in pursuance of this act, may plead the general issue, and give this act, and the special matter, in evidence; and if the plaintiff be nonsuited, &c. or a verdict be for the defendant, he shall recover treble costs.

Yorkshire cloths.

Stat. 4 and 5 P. and M. c. 5. contains variety of directions and penalties; but they are recoverable by action, &c. Stat. 39 Eliz. c. 20. was made for the counties north of Trent, and directs, sealing, length, breadth, and weight, and prohibits overstraining, or deceitful stretching or tentering. And overseers appointed by the justices, to visit houses, &c. where cloths are; and if not found sealed, &c. they are forfeited, and the overseers may seize, and present them to the justices

justices at the quarter-sessions, to be disposed as the statute directs.

By stat. 7 Ann. c. 13. any clothier in Yorkshire making, or exposing to sale, broad-cloths, which, after well scoured and milled, shall be less than five quarters and a half within the lifts, and an end or half-cloth less than 23 yards in length, and a long or whole cloth less than 46 yards in length; and whole thick kerseys, and whole thick plains, less than 17 yards and an half long, and three quarters and a half broad, when fully wet; forfeits 20s. for every inch wanting in breadth; and for every yard the long cloths shall exceed 46 yards, and the half cloths 23 yards; and for every half yard the thick kerseys, and thick plains, shall be shorter than 17 yards and an half. Mill-man in Yorkshire, not fixing a seal of lead riveted and stamped, with his name at each end of the cloth; before it is carried from the mill, containing the number of yards and inches in the cloths, in length and breadth, when wet, scoured and milled; or if any other person take-off, deface, counterfeit, or alter the figures, before the cloth is exported, or sold to retailers, or stretch a piece of cloth more than an inch in breadth in a quarter of a yard, or piece of broad-cloth more than a yard in length in 20 yards, or the whole thick kerseys, and whole thick plains, more than half a yard in every 17 yards and a half; or any fuller, milling or fulling in one stock, at the same time, more than one whole broad-cloth, or two half broad-cloths, shall, for every offence, forfeit 20s. The conviction to be on oath of any searcher of cloth for Yorkshire, or of one witness before a justice, &c. who is neither a merchant or trader in the woollen manufacture. The forfeiture, not paid within seven days, to be levied by distress and sale of goods, by warrant of the justice, &c. before whom the offender was convicted; half to the informer, the other to the poor of the parish, &c. or to be sent to goal, or house of correction. The penalties to be inflicted within ten days after the offence committed or discovered.

By stat. 1 Geo. I. c. 15. all Yorkshire cloths, called whole thick kerseys, whole thick plains, huggabags, and broken-quilled kerseys, not to be under 18 yards in length, or less than three quarters and an half broad, by the standard yard-wand, when fully wet, and to be sealed as Yorkshire cloths are directed by the act 7 Anne, and under the same penalties.

Any clothier, &c. selling cloths wanting one inch in breadth, or half a yard in length, forfeits 20s; or stretching them above an inch in a quarter of a yard, or above half a yard in length, forfeits the like; or fixing other mark than his own christian and surname, and place of residence, forfeits 50s. to be levied as mentioned in that act.

Penalties to be inflicted within twenty-one days.

By stat. 11 Geo. I. every woollen broad-cloth made in the West Riding of the county of York, whether it be an end or half cloth, or a long or whole cloth, being well scoured and fully milled, to be five quarters and half by the standard yard-wand in breadth, within the lifts in the water, being fully wet; and every such cloth, called an end, not to exceed in length 24 yards, nor a whole cloth 48 yards.

Any clothier convicted of making or selling cloths not of the said breadths, or which exceed the said lengths, shall for every inch short of breadth, and yard exceeding in length, forfeit 20s. But cloth in some parts of it (not exceeding one fifth of the whole length) falling short in the breadth, without wilful default of the maker, may be sold without incurring any penalty.

All woollen broad-cloth shall be measured at the fulling-mill, after 'tis fully milled, scoured, and thoroughly wet, by the master of the mill, who is to take an oath to measure it truly, who shall rivet a seal of lead, to be furnished by the clothier, at each end of the cloth, with his name at length, and the length and breadth of the cloth in figures, for which he shall be paid 2s. a quarter. Mill-man, failing herein, forfeits 5l. If a buyer suspect the cloth, in six days after delivery, he may, on two days notice to the seller, wet the cloths four hours, and cause to be measured by two indifferent persons, or a fit person nominated by the next justice, to be sworn; and, if found deficient one fifth in length, the seller shall forfeit one sixth part of the cloth to the poor; and the buyer at liberty, within three days, to return the cloth to the seller, and be repaid all the money and charges ascertained on his oath, and recoverable by warrant from one or more justices, not dealers in woollen cloth.

Any clothier not weaving his name and place of abode at length into the head of his cloth, or exposing to sale without such mark, or altering the seals, &c. forfeits 5l.

Every woollen broad-cloth shall be dressed in all parts alike, and every cloth-dresser's name affixed in lead, on pain of 5l. Owners of tenters to mark the lengths in figures on the top bar of every tenter, on forfeiture of 5l. for every tenter not so numbered.

Justices may appoint searchers, with a salary not exceeding 15l. per ann. who may, by direction of a justice, enter in the day-time into any mill-house, shop, &c. to search for cloth over-stretched, and measure any they suspect; resisting them is 10l. penalty, and 5l. to the owner, if the searcher discover any frauds.

Every searcher to be sworn to act to the best of his skill; if contrary, shall forfeit 20l. But he is not to examine cloth packed up for exportation, unless by warrant on oath of witnesses on suspicion of fraud; if none be found, the informer to pay the merchant 5s. for each cloth so unpacked.

None who have not served seven years (clothiers widows and persons marrying them excepted) shall make any broad-cloths in the said West Riding, on forfeiture of 10l. for every month.

None shall use cards of iron-wire or other metal in dressing cloth, on pain of 50l. but information to be within twenty days. And all convictions for offences to be on oath of one or more witnesses, by one or more justices. The penalties to be divided between the informer and poor of the parish; not paid within ten days, to be levied by distress, &c. under warrant of the justices, or be committed to the house of correction.

Persons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter-sessions on ten days notice.

All actions to be brought in Com. Ebor. and not elsewhere. Persons sued may plead the general issue, &c. and recover treble costs.

By stat. 11 Geo. II. every maker of narrow woollen cloth, within the West Riding of Yorkshire, to weave the initial letters of his name on every piece he makes (white kerseys and half thick excepted;) and, when fully wet, to be measured at the fulling-mill both by the millman and searcher. Each of whom shall affix a seal of lead, with name, length, &c. on pain of 20l. to the master, and 5l. to the millman and searchers respectively.

Every piece of the said cloth shall be measured by the maker, after 'tis brought from the mill, before it be put on the tenters; if short of the measure stamped at the mill, to be re-measured and re-stamped by the millman, on penalty of 5s. Any dealer in such cloth, after August 1, 1728, stretching the same more than one inch in a yard in length, and two inches in three quarters of a yard in breadth, to forfeit for the first half yard in length, or inch in breadth, 10s. for every half yard, or half inch, 20s.

Any person taking off, defacing, or counterfeiting the seals, or letters woven in the cloth, before sold or cut by the retailer, or exported, forfeits 40s.

A sum not exceeding 2d. for every piece, to be ascertained by the quarter-sessions aforesaid, to be paid by the maker, to whom the justices shall appoint, for defraying the expence of obtaining and executing the act, as the justices shall appoint. And the millman, searcher, or other person appointed, may detain the cloth, 'till such money be paid; and, on non-payment for eight days, may sell what will satisfy the same.

All offences against this act shall be inquired of by a justice of the Riding, on oath of a credible witness, and notice first given to the party accused; the penalties of conviction, the charge of it being first deducted, to go one half to the informer, the other to the treasurer of the Riding for the purposes of the act. And, if not paid within ten days, to be levied by distress, &c. or be committed to the house of correction for one month.

Prosecution against millman, &c. to be in eight days, and against clothier, &c. one month, and all prosecutions for penalties in one month after the offence.

Persons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter-sessions, who may allow costs, and their order to be final.

Clothiers may make their narrow cloths of what length and breadth they think fit.

Such cloths made in the said West Riding, as are milled in the counties of Lancaster, Chester, or Derby, must be brought to the next fulling-mill, &c. under the penalty above. Actions must be commenced in Com. Ebor. and all persons, &c. may plead the general issue; and, if judgment be against the defendant, the penalty to have treble costs, to be deemed a public act.

See the stat. 14 Geo. II. touching the better regulating of officers in the cloth trade, and the better ordering of cloth in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

For more matter on this head, see the article WOOL.

R E M A R K S.

To avoid being prolix, I shall not particularize the various pensions, indulgences, and other extraordinary encouragements, that have liberally been given in France, from time to time, to engage many skilful masters and artificers of various kinds, who have undertaken to set up fabrics of cloths, &c. that now flourish in that kingdom; for the improvement of which it appears from an arret of 1664, that Lewis XIV. yearly appropriated a million of livres; (which, according to the value of money at that time, was considerably more than at present;) exclusive of indulgences in the customs, and several other ways.

I have, says M. Savary, already had occasion, more than once, and shall hereafter be obliged, to speak of several masters, that have made themselves famous in France, by setting up different sorts of manufactories. This would be a proper place to take notice of the many persons, em-
nent

ment for undertakings of this kind, since the French turned their thoughts this way, and particularly since the reign of Henry IV. but, as they are very numerous, I shall attempt only to give some account of two, who are so much distinguished in their profession, and to whom France is so far obliged, that they no longer envy the beautiful cloths, black as well as other colours, that are made in Spain, England, and Holland, since they themselves have set up this fabric, and raised it to the utmost perfection. One of these is Nicholas Cadeau, to whom the manufacture of Sedan owes its birth and perfection; the other Joffe Vanrobais, who set up that of Abbeville, which has been, and still is, in high reputation.

The former, a native of France, entering into partnership in the year 1646, with John Binet and Yves de Marseilles, two merchants of Paris, rich and able as himself, obtained a patent granted at Fontainebleau, for his new manufacture, in the month of July the same year.

1. By this patent, the partners obtained the privilege of being, for the space of 20 years, the sole directors of the manufacture of woollen cloths, black as well as all other colours, that should be made after the fabric and manner of Dutch cloths.

2. The three directors and their children, that were already, or should hereafter be born, were made nobility, and honoured with all the titles and privileges the noble families of FRANCE enjoy.

3. A special commission was granted to them and their issue, during the 20 years of their patent.

4. Their foreign workmen were declared denizens, and both the French and foreigners discharged from all taxes, subsidies, quartering of soldiers, &c. and the same immunity was also extended to the houses or lodgings of the directors, and every place, where the fabrics should be carried on.

5. The cloths made in their manufactory were exempt from being visited by the civil officers, or the masters and wardens of the trading companies; and the king reserved to himself the right of judging all offences against this ordinance, if any should happen.

6. They were allowed to set up a brewery for malt liquor, both for the use of themselves, their family and clerks; and also to sell it to their workmen without paying any excise, tax, &c. during the said 20 years.

7. Lastly, his majesty, willing to add profit to these honours, not only gave an annual pension of 500 livres to each of the three directors during life, but also granted them the sum of 8000 livres yearly, during the 20 years of their patent. This he gave as a donation to them and their heirs, to relieve the great expence such an establishment could not fail to engage them in at first.

One may say, that the success went far beyond the hopes we at first conceived of this new manufactory. The cloths which go under the name of Sedans, from the city where the fabric was set up, may justly be esteemed the most beautiful of the kind, if those of Abbeville, I am going to speak of, had not a party, that contend at least for an equality.

The exclusive privilege of the Sieur Cadeau was upon the point of expiring, when Mynheer Joffe Vanrobais, a Dutch merchant, made a proposal to set up a new manufacture of fine cloths, at Abbeville in Picardy, in imitation of those of Spain and Holland.

The patent he obtained in the month of October 1669, contains the following remarkable clauses.

1. That he should set on foot 30 woollen looms, with as many fulling-mills as should be necessary, and procure 50 Dutch workmen to be employed in the manufactory.

2. That there be granted passports to the workmen, and an exemption from the duties, for the looms, cloths, wool, and other necessaries in this establishment.

3. That proper places be assigned him for erecting two fulling-mills, one of them a wind-mill, the other a water-mill, and such buildings as should be wanted for the fabric, and to lodge the workmen, with full liberty to chuse the said workmen, even dyers, braisers, carders, sheerers, &c. and without any of the companies having power to disturb him under a pretence the said workmen are not free.

4. That he himself, his children, partners and workmen, that are foreigners, be declared denizens of France, and exempt from all taxes, subsidies, city imposts, and quartering of soldiers.

5. That he be allowed to build, at his own expence, for the use of his family and workmen, a brewery exempt also from excise, or other taxes.

6. Lastly, to encourage this establishment, and defray in part the expences the projector would be at in setting out, the king not only gave him, as a free donation, the sum of 12,000 livres paid at one time, and the quantity of eight minots of salt for every year of the 20, which his patent contained, at the price sold to the merchants, but also 2000 livres for every loom he should set up within the three first years. However, these last sums were granted him but as a loan, and were to be repaid without interest.

Joseph Vanrobais, having punctually fulfilled his engagements, obtained, in 1681, a renewal of his patent for 15 years longer, in his name, and that of Isaac Vanrobais, his eldest brother, on condition of setting up 50 looms instead of 30, and, in consideration of this, the king made him a free gift of 20,000 livres, over and above the 80,000 livres which the loan amounted to, that had been lent him during the three first years of his former patent.

In 1698, a third renewal was also granted for 10 years to Mess. Isaac and Joseph Vanrobais, brothers and sons of the projector, who had mounted 80 looms in their manufactory. In short, the looms in this manufactory exceeding 100 in the year 1708, and Joseph Vanrobais, in partnership with his brother Isaac's widow, ambitious of raising new buildings, and extending farther this happy and great establishment, which has not perhaps its like, obtained the same year a continuation of their patent for 15 more, with new privileges and immunities for themselves, their workmen and partners. The king also, in favour of the partners, gave the nobility leave to enter this association, without its being any imputation upon their honour.

Thus far the author extends his account touching the woollen manufactories of Sedan and Abbeville. As to the tapestry, and other curious manufactures that have been set up, and still continue in the Gobelines, he speaks thus:

By the name of the Gobelines, we mean a manufactory established in Paris, at the end of the suburbs of St Marcel, for the fabric of the royal tapestry and furniture.

The house where this manufacture is now carried on, was built by two brothers, whose names were Gobelines, that first brought to Paris the secret of that beautiful scarlet dye, which has preserved their name, as well as the little river Bievre, on whose banks they erected their building, and which ever since has scarce been known at Paris by any other name, than that of the river Gobelines.

In the year 1667, this place changed its name from the folly of the Gobelines, which it had hitherto borne, to that of the royal hôtel des Gobelines, by virtue of an edict, Lewis XIV. published the same year, in the month of November.

The promoter of this establishment was most Monsr. Colbert, superintendant of the buildings, gardens, arts, and manufactures of France, of whom it is not possible to say too much, or give too high a commendation, in a Dictionary of Commerce, since he has done so much to make it flourish in this kingdom, and to spur on the French to extend it to foreign countries, even to the most distant nations.

The royal palaces he had quite rebuilt and ornamented, particularly the Louvre and the Thuilleries, the latter of which had been finished under his direction, and the magnificent and inimitable front of the other was almost raised, put this minister, who was always attentive to the glory of his king and country, upon thinking how to procure furniture, suitable to the grandeur of the superb buildings the king had ordered to be erected.

With this view Monsr. Colbert collected together some of the most able workmen of the kingdom in all sorts of manufactures and arts, particularly painters, tapestry-weavers, engravers, goldsmiths, and workers in ebony. He invited also into France many of the above professions, who were most famous in foreign countries. For these he obtained honourable privileges and considerable pensions; and, in order to render the establishment he projected more secure, prevailed upon the king to make a purchase of the hôtel des Gobelines for the manufactory, and to prescribe such rules, as would insure the continuance, and settle the management of it.

The edict of 1667, which we have mentioned above, gave the finishing hand to this project, by the 17 articles it contains.

After the preamble of the edict, in which is inserted that of Henry IV. in 1607, for setting up a manufactory of tapestry in the same suburbs of St Marcel, and the declarations and rules laid down in consequence of it, the king ordains and decrees,

1. That the manufacture of tapestry and other works be established in the hôtel, called des Gobelines, and the houses and parts depending upon it, and belonging to his majesty; and that over the principal gate be set up a marble with this inscription under the arms of France, THE ROYAL MANUFACTORY OF THE CROWN-FURNITURE.

2. That the said manufactures, and whatever depends upon them, be under the conduct and administration of the Sieur Colbert, superintendant of the buildings, arts, and manufactures of France, and his successors in that office.

3. That the particular direction of it be under the care of the Sieur le Brun, in quality of director, and, in case of a vacancy, under another director of abilities and skill in the art of painting, appointed by the superintendant of the buildings, to form designs for the tapestries, sculpture, and other works, to see them put in execution, and have the conduct and inspection of the workmen.

4. That

4. That the superintendent of the buildings, and the director under him, take care to supply the manufactory with good painters, masters in the art of tapestry, goldsmiths, founders, engravers, lapidaries, carvers in ebony and wood, dyers and other good workmen in all the arts and crafts established in the said hôtel.
5. That there be every year drawn out and stated an account of the masters and workmen by the said superintendent, in order to their having their wages and stipends settled, and paid by the treasurer of the buildings.
6. That there be maintained in the said manufactory 60 children at the expence of his majesty; and, for the support of each of them, that there be paid to the director 250 livres, by the said treasurer, in the space of five years; viz. in the first year 100 livres, the second 75, the third 30, the fourth 25, and the 5th 20 livres.
7. That the children, from their admission into the said house, be put into the seminary of the director, over which he shall appoint a master-painter under himself, who shall have the care of their education and instruction, with an intent, that they shall be afterwards put apprentice to the masters of the several arts and trades settled in the said hôtel.
8. That the said children, after an apprenticeship of six years, and four years service more in the said manufactories, even apprentices to goldsmiths, though they shall not be sons of masters, be qualified to take and keep a shop in their several arts and trades, both in Paris, and any other town in the kingdom, without being obliged to undergo an examination, or do more than present themselves before the masters and wardens of their respective arts and trades, for admission into the company without any charge, upon a single testimonial of the said superintendent of the buildings.
9. However, that such of the said children as shall have been employed for a year in the manufactures of the said hôtel, with the consent of their fathers and mothers, and shall after that time go away without leave from the superintendent, be incapable of being free of the trade, at which they had been employed in the hôtel.
10. That the workmen who shall have been employed six years together in the said manufactories, be admitted in like manner to be masters in the usual form as above, upon the certificate of the superintendent of the buildings.
11. That the workmen employed in the said manufactories be distributed in houses near the hôtel des Gobelines, and that 12 of the said houses which they shall inhabit, have centinels, and be exempt from quartering soldiers.
12. That foreign workmen employed, and actually serving in the said hôtel, happening to die, possess the privilege of natives, and their effects go to those that shall legally inherit; and that such of the said foreign workmen as shall have laboured there for ten years, be also reckoned true and native French, notwithstanding they shall have left the manufactory after the said term; and their inheritance be disposed of as above, without any need of letters of naturalization, or other proof than an extract of the present edict, and a certificate from the superintendent of the buildings.
13. That all the said workmen be exempt from warden-ships, charges, watch and ward of the city, and other public or personal offices, so long as they be employed in the manufacture, unless it be their own choice.
14. That they be equally exempt from all taxes and imposts, even though they should have gone out of places taxable, and in which they had even been assessed.
15. That it be allowed the director to set up breweries in proper places to supply the workmen with beer, without any obstruction from the company of brewers, or being obliged to pay any tax.
16. And that the workmen may not be interrupted in their labour by law-suits, which they, their families, or domestics, may have in several or different jurisdictions, his majesty appoints the masters of the hôtel for the time being, to take cognizance of them upon the first action; and, after an appeal, the parliament of Paris.
17. Lastly, all merchants and other persons, of whatever quality or condition they may be, are prohibited from buying or importing the tapestries of foreign countries, or to sell or vend any foreign manufacture, except what was at that time in the kingdom, under the penalty of confiscation of the same, and a fine of half the value of the tapestry confiscated.
- It is from this royal manufactory des Gobelines, that so many curious works of all sorts have proceeded, which serve for ornament to Versailles and Marly, royal palaces that will always raise the admiration of foreigners, and be fine monuments of the grandeur of that potent prince for whom they were built, furnished, and ornamented. In this hôtel there have been also educated so many able workmen who have gone out of it since its first foundation, and been distributed all over the kingdom, and especially in the capital, where they have advanced the polite arts to

so high a degré, that the French scarce any longer envy or lament the curious works of the Greeks and Romans. One may say also, that tapestries were advanced to the highest perfection during the superintendance of Monsi. Colbert and Monsi. Louvois; and it is a point in doubt, whether England or Flanders have produced any thing superior to Alexander's battles; the four seasons, the four elements, the royal palaces, and the history of the principal acts of Lewis XIV. from his marriage to the first conquest of Franche Compté, wrought at Gobelines; from the designs of the famous Monsi. Le Brun. The same may be said with justice of the tapestries Monsi. Louvois caused to be made during his superintendency, after the most beautiful originals in the king's cabinet, of Raphaël, Julio Romano, and other famous painters in the schools of Italy, which he caused to be drawn in larger dimensions by the most able French painters, such as La Fosse, the two Coy-pels, father and son, Jouvenet, Perfon, and many others that were at that time.

By these and the like wise and profound measures, France has been enabled to supplant Great-Britain and Holland in the manufacture of cloth, which they have certainly carried to a very extraordinary perfection.

The care and thoughts the ministers of France have employed for promoting their own manufactories, and turning every article of their commerce to the national advantage, is so very remarkable, that more rational methods could not have been taken, if they had been bred merchants, and their hearts wholly set upon regulating their commerce: whereas, with us, it hath been rare to find any who would allow themselves the time to think properly on these subjects; inso-much that when many things have been proposed, which would apparently tend to the advantage of our commerce, they have been laid aside as things not worthy of notice. But I am in hopes, that my poor labours in the public service may somewhat contribute to induce persons of distinction to pay a little regard to a subject, which can only give a permanent value to their landed estates, and render their monied property secure to their posterity.

Of the measures which have been taken of late years in Spain, to encourage the making of cloth, and other of the woollen manufactures.

The reader will observe, that, in many parts of this work, I have kept a watchful eye upon whatever is doing in foreign countries, that may prove any way detrimental to the trade of these kingdoms. 'Tis therefore that I have endeavoured, as occasion offered, to point out what is doing at present in Spain, in regard to commerce, and to shew how far we may be affected by such measures. But, as nothing of this kind can be suddenly brought to perfection, it may be necessary to take a succinct review of the foundation of what is now hatching in Spain, to the high injury of this nation.

The late king of Spain, October 23, 1718. was pleased to dispatch the following decree to the council of the finances: Don John de Goyeneche, having represented, that by great industry, and at a considerable expence, he had founded in his own town of Olmeda de la Cebollo, several fabrics of cloths, buffs, shamois-leather, hats, and other commodities, that are usually imported from abroad, as also in New Baztan, and that he had done all this at his own charge: praying that an indulgence might be dispensed, for a time, to the said town and its jurisdiction, in the royal taxes which it is now charged with, for the better improvement and continuation of them, I thought proper to send a person of integrity and confidence to the said town of Olmeda and its district, to examine into the pretensions of this memorial; and as it has been found, that, in the said town of Olmeda, there were on foot 26 looms, which annually manufacture to the amount of 50,000 yards of cloth, resembling that which comes from France for the cloathing of the troops; that he had imported the said looms from that kingdom at his own charge, for the use of the principal manufacturer, granting him freely the materials, building him a house, and providing all the necessary utensils; that he has also set up six other looms, for the fabric droguets and scarlets, such as those of Valdemero, in which are employed many persons of both sexes, introducing and communicating these arts to the natives of SPAIN; and has laid the foundation of a good building for an hospital, and another for a seminary, which he offers to endow for the reception and education of boys, to be employed in the said fabrics; that, in the place called New Baztan, he has built 22 substantial houses of stone and mortar, a very spacious church, and a house contiguous; and has also a distillery for brandy and hungary-water; a fabric for buff, shamois leather, soldiers hats, both middling and fine, with all proper utensils, tan-pits, and other things necessary to support these manufactories, allowing, at present, all the profits to the manufacturer; and that he has, at the same time, set up looms for silk handkerchiefs, ribbons, and girdles, such as are made in Valencia, having drawn over the principal manufacturers, with their wives, chil-

dren, and families from France, and the North, and collected together all such as he found useful in Spain, with great industry, labour, and expence, and settled various other trades, making such provision as ought to be in a town well supported and regulated, by transporting thither, at his own charge, families of peasants, giving them a sufficiency to live upon, and supplying them with tools for the cultivation of those lands that were barren and deserted; that he is building an inn, for the better entertainment of travellers; and, at the same time, has repaired the road to Madrid, making a new way for carriages, and shortening it where it could be done, and has built a bridge over the river Tajuna, all at his own charge; as also a chapel, where the workmen, who live remote from the town, may hear mass; and has raised several plantations for the refreshment and advantage of the whole; that the village of Olmeda, exclusive of the workmen, contains 18 families, and, for their poverty, are rated but at 13 and a half, and pay annually, for their composition, to the royal revenues, 30 doubions, besides the alcavalas and cientos, which concern the said Don John de Goyeneche; and as I am desirous of shewing the grateful acknowledgments due to the zeal, expence, and industry which have raised this new town, and the said fabrics, to the general benefit of these kingdoms, and my interest, and that others may be encouraged to imitate an example so laudible and useful, I have resolved, that to the said village of Olmeda de la Cebolla, to the town of New Baztan, and all other places within it's jurisdiction, no augmentation be made, nor shall be made, to the taxes paid by the whole district at this time, during the term of 30 years, in order to establish, confirm, and improve these fabrics, and the new town which has been settled there. It shall be examined by the council of the finances; and, when it appears what sum they annually pay to all the revenues, taxes, and duties, the instruments necessary for putting it in execution, shall be dispatched.

His majesty, February 14, 1719, vouchsafed to issue out another decree, respecting the same manufactories, as follows:

In consideration that Don John de Goyeneche had founded in the village of Olmeda, and in New Baztan, and it's jurisdiction, various fabrics and manufactories; I was pleased, by a decree of October the 23d last year, to order that the said village, and it's jurisdiction, should not, for thirty years, be charged higher to the royal duties than what they were found actually to pay at that time; and now I have resolved, that neither the natives of this kingdom, who shall apply themselves to the manufactories which the said Goyeneche has introduced in Olmeda, New Baztan, and it's jurisdiction, nor the innkeepers and shopkeepers that supply them with provisions, shall find the said occupation any impediment, or bar, to their obtaining the honourable employments of the republic, which can be enjoyed by the state, or degree, of labradores; and that all the manufactures of the said fabrics be, at the same time, exempt for thirty years from the alcavalas, cientos, and other duties, in every city, town, or place, where the first sale of them shall happen, and enjoy also an immunity from the duties of ports, custom-houses, and tolls; and this exemption from the alcavalas, cientos, &c. is to be understood, and observed in the form, and under the restrictions, the same was indulged to Don Joseph Aguado, for the cloths of his fabric in Valdemero; and it is also my intention, that the said immunity extend to duties of importation upon all the utensils that shall be wanted for the several fabrics, the bran, and paffel for dyeing, beaver-skins and camels-hair for hats, and fish-oil for making buff, but to be also dispensed under the same restrictions it was granted to the said Aguado. And, at the same time, I have granted to the said Don John de Goyeneche, the privilege of purchasing, at prime cost, any materials of wool, silk, skins, &c. that he shall want for his fabrics, or manufactories, and which shall have been bought up for exportation, but not such as shall have been bought for other manufactories, or by natives of these kingdoms for their own use; but upon condition, that it be within the space of one month after those goods shall have been bought, which he shall thus take at prime cost; and for which Goyeneche is obliged to pay the price, with cost and charges, to the very city, town, or place, where they shall be at the time of his claiming them. It shall be examined by the council of the finances, who shall dispatch the orders that are proper for putting it into execution, as far as relates to them.

By means of these, and other encouragements dispensed by his majesty, have been established, enlarged, and improved, these fabrics, in the manner explained in various parts of this work; and a greater progress is still expected from the warm zeal and vigorous application of Don John de Goyeneche in this important concern, who, in conducting it, has shewn more regard for the public, than his own private interest; for it is certain, that, in the first years of such establishments, the expence runs higher than the gains, as many have found by experience.

His majesty, in his royal palace of Balfain, was pleased to grant the city of Valladolid an indulgence for their manufac-

tures, mentioned in the following decree, dispatched July 18, 1722, to the council of the finances:

The board of trade, by virtue of an order, in which I had enjoined them to consider of ways and means to revive the trade of these kingdoms, and prevent that which foreigners carry on in the Indies, has represented to me, that some improvement has been made to it by the city of Valladolid, which proposes to make an addition to their present manufactories of 50 looms annually, for 20 successive years, to each of the fabrics of gold, silver, silk, and wool, provided, during such time, no alteration be made in the sum charged upon the city to the alcavalas, cientos, and millones, and that it continue upon the footing, and pay to these duties, revenues, and taxes, the same it did in the year 1713, when the city, and the places united with it, were distinguished from the general farm of the province, by the separate composition and contract which the city and it's companies made, both for the payment of the alcavalas and cientos (which, to the end of the same year 1713, was a stated sum, by virtue of the privilege it had for that purpose) and for an equivalent to the millones; and as it has in view the important affair of re-establishing manufactories in these kingdoms, in order to revive it's trade, and that the commodities consumed in it may no longer be supplied by foreigners, and that they be also prevented from introducing their goods into the Indies; for, if those provinces be once supplied by goods made in this kingdom, it will follow, they will no longer send them from other places; being desirous, at the same time, that the said city of Valladolid, by means of new fabrics, may recover itself out of the ruinous situation it at present labours under, and which has been owing to the decayed trade, and the unhappy circumstances of the times. Having conformed in every thing to this provision as the said board of trade has proposed it to me, I have resolved, that, in consequence of it, the council of the finances, and court of the millones, do make due provision, that from the 1st of January of this present year, to the end of that which comes in 1741, and comprehends 20 years, for which this indulgence is to continue in force, that no demand be made upon the said city for itself, and the places that are incorporated with it, for the alcavalas, cientos, and millones, above what it was charged in the said year 1713, by the contract at that time made for the payment of them, by the same cities and it's companies, under the express condition, that, to obtain this advantage, and continue it for the time abovementioned, it be obliged to lay before that council, and the court of the millones, at the end of every one of the said 20 years, sufficient proof of having fulfilled it's part, by erecting the looms it has proposed to do, in the form and manner to which it shall be obliged by the said board of trade. It shall be laid before the council of the finances, and the court of the millones, in order to be carried into execution.

This provision of his Catholic majesty has so happily succeeded, that those very manufactories, encouraged by his gracious indulgence, and cherished by an easy and ready market for their commodities, owing as well to their goodness and reasonable price, as the advantageous situation of Valladolid, in the center of Old Castille, and some other provinces, have already been considerably enlarged and improved.

Though his majesty has granted several other privileges and indulgences in favour of different manufactories, I forbear to take notice of all of them here, not so much from their being so very numerous, but, as they are very much alike, a repetition may seem idle; and, therefore, I shall only hint at some of these, and other provisions of his majesty, directed to the same end.

In Madrid has been set up a manufacture of tissues, lute-strings, and other silks, no less curious in the workmanship, than in the colours and mixtures, in imitation of the fabrics at Lyons in France; and this new manufacture has produced such as her majesty was not ashamed to wear.

This happy and successful establishment in Spain has been owing to workmen, and a famous dyer, from the said city of Lyons, procured by his majesty, at the charge of his own royal revenue, and to the encouragement of a house, and supplies of money, which he ordered to be advanced in the infancy of the undertaking, giving also a monthly pension of 15 doubions to the master-dyer, and another of 12 doubions to the head manufacturer.

Without the gates of Madrid has been raised also a fabric of prime tapestry, in imitation of those of Flanders, by a master and workmen, whom his majesty procured from that country, at the charge of the treasury; and they continue in this important manufactory, working for his royal palaces, having the encouragement of houses, work-shops, and indulgences, which his majesty has granted them. And, notwithstanding there be not in either of the fabrics a sufficient number of masters and workmen, for the considerable consumption of this kingdom, yet the main difficulty has been surmounted, which is settling and bringing the manufacture to the perfection already mentioned; for it is an easy thing to enlarge, or add to what is already established upon a good footing. By this plain fact, in the very face of the

court; many persons might be undeceived, says the sage Spaniard, Uztariz, who believe and propagate a notion (upon what grounds I know not) that in this kingdom we cannot arrive at the perfection we have seen in these and other manufactures, either on account of the delicacy of the work, as if there was neither genius to invent, nor hands to execute, in Spain; or for the colours, as if his majesty's provinces did not really supply the principal and best materials for them; or from our water, which they suppose not proper for them, even when both the declaration of foreign artificers, and experience, shews it to be very fit for dyeing all sorts of colours; and it is also certain, that notwithstanding foreigners introduced these curious fabrics, many Spaniards now join in them, and already make them in equal perfection.

The grand fabric of fine cloths at Guadalaxara is wholly owing to the vigilance and protection of his majesty, though there has not been yet, in the management of it, the good œconomy which is requisite, and has been directed by several of his majesty's orders. But one great point has been obtained, that many of the good workmen employed in these manufactories are Spaniards, and some who have been bred up in them, have dispersed into other parts of the kingdom, which is the principal advantage resulting from the arrival and introduction of foreign masters and workmen: therefore no scruple ought to be made of bearing the expence of their journey, and their first settlement. And it well deserves our notice, that it has been found by experience in Guadalaxara, and other parts, that the Spanish women, and even the very young girls, spin wool better and quicker than the mistresses of foreign families that instructed them, and were brought over for that purpose.

By means of a patent, continues the same Spanish Don, and supplies from his Catholic majesty to Don Joseph de Aguada, knight of the order of Calatrava, for the fabric of cloth in Valdemero, we have also gained the point of manufacturing them in that town, as fine as those of ENGLAND, and of good colours and mixtures, as is manifest from the approbation they have received from his majesty, who has worn them upon several occasions.

Further REMARKS:

Upon the whole, in regard to the manufacture of woollen cloth, it is notorious, that France has long since not only supplied themselves, but have, more or less, supplanted us in several of the capital markets of Europe, where we had much larger vent for that species of manufacture.—And we have also seen from the testimony of an able Spaniard himself, that his Catholic majesty is actually pursuing the steps of France; and that not only in this grand particular, but in great variety of others. [See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, and SPAIN].

Nor has the cloth manufacture of this nation a little suffered of late years, and is likely to suffer more and more by these potentates: there are many others, likewise, that we used far more largely to supply therewith than we do at present; the Swedes and the Danes, the Austrians and the Prussians, have followed the example of the Hollanders, and settled manufactures of this kind, to our unspeakable detriment; and our exports of cloth to Russia do not increase.

Before we obtained the woollen manufacture in this kingdom, the Flemings we know had the whole in their hands, by means of our wool [see the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS]; and, as it shifted hands from them to us, so we should not be too sanguine in flattering ourselves with the impossibility that it should ever change hands again, from us to others: it may, at least, be divided among a number of hands, and that will prove equally detrimental to us. The spirit that at present prevails throughout the whole world for manufactures and commerce in general, should not suffer this nation to sleep in a dull security of preserving the interests of trade, without vigilantly pursuing them. When we see the impending danger, and are thoroughly convinced of it's injurious consequences, I make no doubt but we have wise and upright, and active and powerful men enough in the kingdom, who will bestir themselves in behalf of commerce, and will throw in the whole weight of their power to assist, and give dignity to every administration that is resolute to promote it.

CLOVE. The clove is a fruit gathered, while unripe, and dried for use. It somewhat resembles a nail in figure; of a rough surface, and dusky brown colour, and has on the top a round body, the bigness of a pepper-corn. It's smell is extremely fragrant and aromatic, the taste acrid and pungent. The largest and darkest-coloured are to be chosen, and which feel oily, when pressed.

They were not known to the ancient Greeks, but the Arabians were well acquainted with them.

The tree producing them is peculiar to the Molucca Islands, where the Dutch cultivate great quantities, whence most of the European markets are supplied. It grows upwards of 20 feet in height, and it's leaves resemble those of the bay-tree in shape.

The cloves are gathered from October to the middle of February, partly by the hand, and partly by means of long twigs, with which they strike them off. They are laid on hurdles, as soon as gathered, and a small fire made under them; and afterwards dried in the sun.

When fresh, they give a fragrant thick oil, on pressure; on distillation, a vast quantity of an aromatic oil, part light and yellowish, which comes first over, but the remainder reddish, and sinks in water.

Cloves are much used in foods, and make an ingredient in most family wines, or spirituous cordials. In medicine they are carminative, and are good against all cephalic disorders from cold causes. They strengthen the sight, and will alone cure many kinds of head-achs. They are also cardial, and good against crudities of the stomach; as also provocatives to venery, and alexipharmic: the dose from three grains to six or eight, but are seldom used singly, or in their crude state. There is an essential oil made from them, per descensum, possessing all their virtues, and much used, both in external application to carious bones, and as a remedy for the tooth-ach, and internally as an ingredient in the rougher cathartic pills.

The antophylli, or ripe cloves, are rarely in the shops; the Dutch preserving them, while fresh, with sugar, as a sweet-meat, and are fond of them after meals, to promote digestion.

CLOUGH, or DRAUGHT, in trade, an allowance generally of two pounds in every 100 weight, for the turn of the scale, that the commodity may hold out weight, when sold by retail.

COACH, a commodious vehicle for travelling, so well known in this kingdom to need no description. Their invention was owing to the French, about the reign of their Francis I. They have, like other things, been brought to their present perfection by degrees: at present they seem to want nothing, either with regard to ease or magnificence. Lewis XIV. of France made divers sumptuary laws for restraining the excessive richness of coaches, prohibiting the use of gold, silver, &c. therein; but they have been neglected.

Coach-making, with the variety of carriages for the like use, is an ingenious business, the greatest part of it not being very laborious, and never more in use than at this time, some of our nobility and gentry even now taking pride in driving themselves.

They were incorporated into a company in the year 1677, in the reign of king Charles II. and have a stand in St. Paul's Church-Yard, in which they sit to attend the lord mayor of London on the day of his installation.

COAL. That which we call pit-coal is an inflammable fossil, a solid, dry, opaque substance, found in large strata, splitting horizontally more easily than in any other direction, of a glossy hue, soft and friable, not fusible, but easily inflammable, and leaving a large residuum of ashes.

Of the hard, dusky, black coal.

This is one of the species of coal in common use in London, and many other parts of the kingdom, and is called Scotch coal, though that name is not strictly applied to this species alone; but the following kind, more distinctively called Welch coal, is often sold under the same denomination. It is a considerable firm and compact substance, of a moderately close texture, and pretty heavy: it is naturally of a rough, rugged, and dusky surface, and is usually seen in flat masses, though it naturally constitutes large and continued strata; but, being of a laminated structure in these, it naturally breaks into masses of this shape in the digging, and these more readily split, or break horizontally, than in any other direction, though by no means regularly or evenly in that. It is rough and harsh to the touch, and of a rude and rough surface: it is of a very strong and deep black, but not at all glossy, and, when broken, is much less so than any other coal.

It makes no effervescence with acids.

Examined by the microscope, it appears of a tolerable compact and close texture, of an irregularly laminated structure, and considerably bright.

It is very readily inflammable, and burns briskly, giving a bright white flame, and burning away very quick into ashes, not into cinders, in the manner of the common coal. This is owing to its being more purely bituminous, and regularly inflammable, the masses of the common coal becoming extinct before they are half consumed, these never going out till they are wholly burned away.

It is dug in great quantities in many parts of the kingdom; about Limington there is so much of it, and such quantities are sent from thence, that in many places it is called Limington coal.

The hard glossy coal.

This is a species of coal sometimes sold in London under the name of Scotch coal, but known in many parts of this kingdom under the name of Welch coal, and is much esteemed for it's burning with less smoke than any other kind.

It is a very firm and compact body, of a close, even, and regular texture, and considerably heavy; it is of a tolerably smooth

smooth surface, and soft to the touch, and is usually brought to us in moderately large and irregular flat lumps. In the earth it composes very large and thick strata, which being of a laminated structure, it naturally falls into masses of this shape in breaking. It is the hardest of all the species of coal, but it is not nearly so hard as the ampelites: it breaks more easily horizontally than in any other direction, though not regularly or evenly in that, and, when fresh broken, is very bright and glossy, and of a very fine deep black.

It makes no effervescence with aqua fortis.

Examined by the microscope, it appears of a very remarkable even texture, and of a laminated structure, being composed of numerous small and thin plates, or flakes, laid closely on one another, and each of these of many other, much thinner and finer; the microscope shews, however, some parts of these thinner flakes to be much purer, blacker, and more glossy than the rest.

It is dug in vast quantities in Wales, and in many parts of England; it is very readily inflammable, and burns with a bright, vivid, white flame, and almost wholly without smoke, but does not consume so fast as the former species, or burn away at once to ashes, but makes cinders, like the common. It is so remarkable for its burning without smoke, that, in some parts of the kingdom, and in general in Wales, they make malt with it without previous burning.

The friable glossy coal.

This is a substance extremely well known, being the common firing of London, and of the greatest part of the kingdom. It is dug in different degrees of purity and goodness in different places; and the finest of this kind is known, among the dealers in coal, by the name of Tanfield-Moor coal, the place where it is dug.

It is a friable substance, of a smooth and even texture, and but moderately heavy, being much lighter than either of the former species, though heavier than the cannel, or ampelites: it is of an irregular and uneven surface, and usually comes to us in large thick masses, in various shapes, but not remarkably flat. It constitutes immense strata in the earth, and is in those of an irregularly-laminated structure, and thence is naturally raised in broad and flat, rather than any other shaped pieces; but these are so brittle, that they are easily broken transversely, and, therefore, seldom retain long their original flat form. It is smooth on the surface, and somewhat soft to the touch, and is of less hardness than any other coal: it breaks with a tolerable even, and very remarkably bright surface, and is of a fine deep shining black. It makes no effervescence with aqua fortis.

Viewed by the microscope, it appears of an irregular laminated structure, and close texture, and of a very remarkable brightness.

It is very readily inflammable, and does not burn soon to ashes.

It is dug about Newcastle in England, whence it has its name of Newcastle coal, and in vast plenty in a great many other parts of the kingdom.

Of charcoal.

Another species of coal is that which we distinguish by the name of charcoal, and which may be properly said to be an artificial kind of fuel. The process whereby it is made is by calcining or charring of wood, in a kind of occlusion; for, the fuel being so covered with earth, as only to admit of the inflammability of the wood, the sulphur, that would otherwise evaporate, becomes in a great measure fixed on the same body, and thereby renders the fuel of considerably greater strength, than the crude wood of itself would be: this is owing to saving the oleaginous quality of the fuel, which in crude wood goes off. It is therefore that this is made use of in divers metallic operations, with more success than the crude wood can be. This is an article of considerable advantage to many English gentlemen, whose estates consist in wood lands.

Of the trade of charcoal in France.

All the charcoal sold in the city of Paris is brought thither, either by land or water, and the carriage, as well as the general traffic therein, are under divers regulations, the chief of which are as follow:

The coal, designed for Paris from the neighbouring provinces, must be carried directly thither, without stopping elsewhere, by the way for sale.

Being arrived at Paris, or where-else intended, the price thereof is fixed from three days to three days; the meters, on arrival of the coal, being obliged, for that purpose, to consult the magistrates.

The dealers therein are obliged to sell what comes by water in their boats, by their wives, children, and servants, and not by agents.

All wet charcoal is prohibited to be sold, or that which is too small, or otherwise defective, without being examined by the proper officer.

Charcoal, or the smaller sort of coal, must be sold separately, the price of which also must be fixed by the magistrate: A certain number of boats only are permitted to expose their commodity to sale, at one and the same time. The dealers herein are obliged to have their coal equally good in all parts, to prevent imposition.

Of pit-coal.

This is a merchandize in which there is a great trade in France. The locksmiths, farriers, and other artificers, who are obliged to heat their iron to hammer it on an anvil, can't do without it. In England it is the common firing. Places where it is mostly got in France are in Auvergne, the mines of Brassac, near Brionde, in the same province; St Stephen in the forest, the Niverneze, Bourgogne, Concourson in Anjou, the neighbourhood of Mezieres and Charleville. (In 1740, were discovered at Doué, near Saumur, mines of coal that promise greatly. M. D. Janfac laid the plan of different ways for conveying it on the Loire.)

Great quantities of it come also from foreign countries, as out of Hainault, and the country of Liege.

England furnishes a considerable quantity of it, which comes usually by way of Rouen. This last is most esteemed; tho' many pretend, that what comes from the mine in Auvergne is not inferior to it; and others give the preference to that of Hainault, because it is fatter, and burns longer.

There are certain officers appointed in the parts of Paris where coals are sold and uttered, called sworn coal-meters.

Beside those who trade by wholesale in pit-coal at Paris, there are two other sorts of dealers in it; the one called retail home-dealers, the other foreign dealers, who, as soon as their merchandize is disposed of, return home for a fresh loading: the former reside in the city, and there retail the coal, of which they have boats loaded in the provinces by their agents, who send them to Paris.

The difference of trade, carried on by these two sorts of dealers, consists herein, that the former have permission to keep store-houses, to deposit their coal in for sale: whereas the foreign dealers are obliged, as soon as they arrive at certain wharfs and havens, to sell directly, without landing. But these have the preference of the others, as to the sale at the wharfs, the burges-dealers not being permitted to expose their coal to sale, till the foreigners have sold; which, however, is no otherwise to be understood, than as there is a sufficiency of foreign merchandize to supply the city.

By a general regulation of both the prices, that which is set at the first exposing it to sale, is not to be augmented; and that if, during the sale, any dealer makes abatement, he shall be obliged to sell at that abated price.

By an order of council of the 6th of September, 1701, concerning merchandizes of English, Scotch, and Irish growth, the customs inwards for coal coming from those countries, are fixed at 30s. the barrel, conformable to the order of the 3d of July, 1692, for all sorts of coal coming from foreign countries.

Pit-coal from Flanders and Hainault, and passing through the provinces of Champagne and Picardy, have been included in the same order of the 3d of July. But, the masters of the forges of those two provinces having represented the great prejudice that had accrued from it, the king, by a decree of the 19th of June, 1703, enacted, that, for the future, the customs inward on coals coming from Flanders and Hainault, should be to the magistrates of Picardy and Champagne, but 10s. the barrel of 300 pound weight, instead of 30s.

Stone-coal.

This, which some very improperly confound with pit-coal, though they have nothing common, but their inflammability, is a mineral stone, dry, and sulphureous, divers quarries of which are found in many provinces of France, particularly in the Nivernois and Bourbonnois. It is a kind of blackish pumice-stone, but more close, less spongy, and much harder and heavier than the true pumice-stone. It is commonly sold in great pieces, somewhat like the Holland's turf, but of a less regular figure. The fire it makes is lively, and lasts pretty long; but the vapour is hurtful, and of an insufferable smell to those who are not used to it. It serves for almost all the same uses as pit and charcoal; and the trade in it is not inconsiderable, where the other two sorts are scarce.

Wood having become very scarce and dear at Paris in 1714, some boat-loads of stone-coal were brought, which presently sold very well at the wharfs, the people crowding thither; and even many good houses made trial of it in their stoves and anti-chambers; but the malignity of its vapours, and sulphureous smell, soon gave them a distaste to it; and, the sale of the first boats not succeeding, the new dealers in it brought no more to supply Paris. The wholesale vend of it is by the quintal, and it is retailed by the pound.

It is some time since stone-coal has been discovered in the neighbourhood of Laufanne in Switzerland; and used there, instead of wood, in the salt-pits.

Some of the laws of England relating to the coal-trade.

Keels in the port of Newcastle are to be measured by commissioners, before carriage of coals, on pain of forfeiture, 9 H. V. c. 10.

The sack of coal to contain four bushels of clean coal. 7 Ed. VI. c. 7.

Sea-coals brought into the river Thames and sold, to contain thirty-six bushels heaped to the chaldron, and one hundred and twelve pounds the hundred, on pain of forfeiture. The lord-mayor of London, &c. may set rates or prices upon coals sold by retail. Retailers refusing to sell at those rates, officers may enter wharfs, &c. by force, and make sale at the rates appointed, 16 and 17 Car. II. c. 2. Extended to all counties, 17 Geo. II. c. 35.

Commissioners to be appointed by the king for measuring and marking of keels, boats, carriages, &c. for coals in Newcastle. Keels, &c. carrying coals before measured and marked, to be forfeited, with the coals; removing or altering marks, to forfeit 10l.

Coals imported to pay 5s. per chaldron duty, and culm 1s. and coals sold by the ton, 5s. per ton; to be paid at the place of importation. Two mariners allowed to every hundred ton of shipping, free; pressing them to forfeit 10l. Nine ships of war to convoy the coal-trade, 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 1.

This statute takes off the duties supra, and imposes a duty of 5s. per ton, or 7s. 6d. per chaldron for coals sold by measure, to be paid by the importer for coals brought from Scotland, or any parts beyond sea. For coals laid on board in English ports 3s. 4d. per ton, and 5s. per chaldron, and 1s. per chaldron for culm shipped in this kingdom, 9 and 10 W. III. c. 13.

Coals exported in foreign bottoms to pay 10s. per chaldron, in British bottoms only 3s. per chaldron, 6 Ann. c. 22.

This act grants an additional duty of 3s. per ton, and 4s. 6d. per chaldron for foreign coals, and 3s. per chaldron for water-born coals, appropriated to a lottery, 8 Ann. c. 4.

Welsh coals, &c. exported to Ireland, &c. to pay 1s. per chaldron; to the plantations, 2s. Coals imported from foreign parts, 2s. per ton, and 3s. per chaldron; carried from port to port, 1s. 4d. per ton, and 2s. the chaldron. Granted for 32 years, 9 Ann. c. 6.

Contracts between coal-owners, masters of ships, &c. for restraining the buying of coals, &c. are void; and parties to forfeit 100l. factors, 50l. masters of vessels, 20l. certificates to be made of lading, &c. For false ones to forfeit 10l. Selling coals for other sorts than they are, to forfeit 50l. Not above fifty laden colliers to continue in the port of Newcastle, &c. on pain of 50l. Work-people in the mines not to be employed who are hired by others, under the penalty of 5l. 9 Ann. c. 28. By 12 Ann. c. 17. is granted a duty of 1d. per chaldron for coals and culm, and 2d. for every ton of shipping coming into the port of London (except those colliers, fishing vessels, &c.) for the repair of Dagenham breach. No buyer of coals to act as agent for any master or owner of a ship importing coal, under the penalty of 200l. And coal-owners selling one sort for another, or any particular coals in preference of others, shall forfeit 500l. Coal-sacks to be sealed and marked, and be four feet and two inches long, and twenty-six inches broad, on pain of 20s. And sellers of coals shall keep a bushel edged with iron, and sealed and stamped, and put three bushels to a sack; using other measures, to forfeit 50l. Penalties above 5l. recovered by action of debt; and under, before justices of the peace, &c. 3 Geo. II. c. 26. The price of coals not to be enhanced in the river Thames, by keeping turn on delivery, &c. on pain of 100l. 4 Geo. II. c. 30.

The lord-mayor and court of aldermen are empowered to set the price of all sea-coals imported into London, and ports adjacent, for one year; and persons selling coals out of any vessel, yard, or warehouse, for a higher price, shall forfeit 36s. per chaldron, to be levied by distress, by warrant of two justices, &c. And if any person, vending coals at Newcastle, refuse to put on ship-board a loading of coals, on tender of payment of the price there, he is liable to the forfeiture of 100l. recoverable by action or information, 11 Geo. II. c. 15.

For preventing frauds in the admeasurement of coals within the city and liberty of Westminster, that part of the duchy of Lancaster adjoining thereto, the parishes of St Giles in the Fields, St Mary le Bon, and such part of the parish of St Andrew Holborn, as lies in the county of Middlesex, two principal land coal-meters are appointed, who are to take an oath for the due execution of their office, and appoint a sufficient number of labouring coal-meters to attend at wharfs and warehouses to measure out coals there, who are also to take an oath for the due execution of their office. A lighter-man is not to break bulk, but in the presence of a meter or the consumer. All contracts for coals, directly from any lighter to the consumer (not being less than five chaldron) shall be for pool-measure, and loaded separately in the craft, and delivered without being measured, unless the buyer desire it. Coals sold for wharf measure, to be measured in the

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presence of a labouring coal-meter, as by stat. 16, 17 Car. II. The seller to pay 2d. per chaldron to the labouring coal-meter, and the like to the principal land coal-meter, who are to deliver tickets of the names of the buyer, seller, quantity, and price of the coals, day, &c. which ticket is to be delivered by the carman to the consumer, who is thereupon to pay for the metage. Carman altering, or not delivering the ticket, forfeits 5l. Carts loaded with above eight bushels, sent without such ticket, the sender to forfeit 50l. and the driver 5l. Meter making false tickets, or false measure, rendered incapable of acting as a meter, and to forfeit 5l. No quantity above eight bushels to be delivered, but in the presence of a meter; and, if the buyer shall be dissatisfied with the measure under this act, the coals, on acquainting the seller or carman during the delivery, and before he is discharged, may be re-measured by a sea-coal-meter; the carman, on notice in writing of the buyer's being dissatisfied with the measure, shall not depart till a sea-coal-meter can be produced, 19 Geo. II. c. 35.

R E M A R K S.

The coal-trade of England, that is, carrying coals from Newcastle, Sunderland, Blith, and other adjacent places in the north; as also from the Firth of Edinburgh in Scotland, and other places thereabouts, to the city of London, and to the port towns on the coast all the way, as well on this side of Newcastle north, as up the channel as high as Portsmouth west, is a prodigious article, and employs abundance of shipping and seamen; inasmuch that, in a time of urgent necessity, the colliery navigation alone has been able to supply the government with a body of seamen for the royal navy, able to man a considerable fleet at a very short warning, and that without difficulty, when no other branch of trade would do the like.

Likewise the Whitehaven collieries in Cumberland, belonging to the honourable Sir James Lowther, Bart. furnish several counties in Ireland with coals, and constantly employ upwards of 2000 seamen; which also is a noble nursery for the royal navy of this kingdom. The port of Swansey in Wales supplies the coast of Devonshire, and other counties thereabouts.

The pit-coals sufficiently supply not only all the ports, but by means of those ports, and the navigable rivers, all the adjacent counties, very far inland, between the port of Newcastle and the river Thames; as Whitby, Scarborough, Hull, with the port of Grimsby as for the Humber, the Hull, on which the town of Hull is situated, the Ouse, and even all the rivers thereabouts, they are indeed an exception to this course of the trade, and are principally supplied by boats from the inland counties of Derby and Nottingham, by the Trent; and from the town of Wakefield, by the Calder, to the very city of York, upon the Ouse; from whence also all the rest of the rivers and towns on that side are furnished. But this is but of late years, and since the river Calder was made navigable, and a duty laid on the Newcastle coals.

The many thousands of men employed under-ground in these collieries, as well as those employed in the land-carriage, render this, as a domestic branch of traffic, still the more important to the kingdom. Nor are these all the national benefits, which arise from the coal-trade; large quantities hereof being annually exported both to France and Holland. And it must be observed, that the riches, acquired to these kingdoms by this branch of trade, are like those treasures, which are obtained out of the sea by our fisheries, they being all certain real profit, without any loss to the kingdom, and giving employment to prodigious numbers of our people.

Further R E M A R K S.

The waste and destruction which has been of the woods in Warwick, Stafford, Worcester, Hereford, Monmouth, Gloucester, Glamorgan, Pembroke, Shropshire, and Sussex, by the iron works, is not to be imagined. The scarcity of wood is thereby already grown so great, that where cord-wood has been sold at five or six shillings per cord, within these few years, it is now risen to upwards of twelve and fourteen shillings; and in some places is all consumed.—And, if some care is not taken to preserve our timber from these consuming furnaces, we shall certainly soon stand in need of OAK to supply the royal navy, and also of shipping for the use of the merchant; to the great discouragement of ship-building and navigation, upon which the safety and figure of these kingdoms, as a maritime power, depend.

It is generally allowed, that, within about these seventy years, Ireland was better stored with Oak-timber than England; but several gentlemen from hence, as well as those residing there, set up iron works, which, in a few years, swept away the wood to that degree, that they have had even a scarcity of small stuff to produce bark for their tanning, nor scarce timber for their common and necessary uses.

Their distress has been so great, that they have been forced to send to England and elsewhere for bark, and to Norway, &c. for building timber; and suffer their large hides to be exported

to Holland, Germany, and Flanders, where, to a great loss in that manufactory, they have been tanned.

Now, if the quantity of bar-iron, which is at present made in England and Ireland, could be manufactured in large works with our pit-coal, or some peculiar sorts thereof, these iron-works would be transplanted to the pit-coal, or the coal brought to the iron-works, and the growth of our woods, for a time, be duly promoted.—Or, for the sake of these gentlemen's estates, which may consist in woodlands, and are contiguous to furnaces already erected, those furnaces might be obliged to consume such a quantity of wood, in conjunction with the pit-coal, in the manufacture of iron, as would do no injury to the wood-land estates, and prevent that scarcity of wood and oak, which is now complained of.

Moreover, if this discovery was made, as England, Scotland, and Ireland would, by means thereof, be enabled to supply themselves with the general manufacture of iron, from the ore to the bar, this would prevent, we apprehend, from the proviso before-mentioned, the wood-land gentlemen from sustaining any injury by so useful a discovery; and the estates of the pit-coal owners would be enriched in proportion to the additional consumption of this kind of fuel throughout the three kingdoms.

Encouragement, indeed, has been given to our plantations, for the making of pig and fow-iron; but we do not think that this measure has yet operated so successfully, as to diminish our importation of the quantity of foreign bar-iron: nor are our woods sufficient to supply the three kingdoms with this manufacture, made even from the American pig and fow, provided they were able at present, amply to supply Great-Britain and Ireland therewith. So that the discovery of making bar-iron from the pit-coal fuel, or in conjunction with what wood-fuel we have among ourselves, still seems very desirable; provided, by means thereof, it can be made near as cheap as it is imported from foreign countries.

But since such a discovery cannot be carried into execution in great works, without being known to every one; and since also, that a common patent, in a manufacture of this kind, is more liable to be invaded and violated, than some of a different nature, by others who would envy so great a discovery, wherein they were not interested: *Quere*, therefore,

1. Whether it might not become the wisdom of the nation to grant some reasonable public reward and encouragement, by act of parliament, to whomsoever shall make the discovery, by the means of pit-coal fuel to supply England, Scotland, and Ireland with bar-iron, so cheap as it is imported from foreign countries? And, *Quere*,

2. Whether such pretended discoverer, or discoverers, should not be obliged to make, or rather cause to be made, in his or their absence, 500 tuns, or more, of such bar-iron, before he or they are intitled to any part of the public reward whatsoever, that shall be given by parliament for that purpose?

COBALT. It is a kind of marcasite, or grey mineral, of an obscure white, somewhat resembling a French-plate, and the pyrites, though somewhat more obscure, and contains a white arsenic, and fixed earth; it changes into a blue glass, when mixed with flint, and stony cinders. Bismuth is also drawn from it; and that kind of azure, which painters use with white-lead, for a blue, and that serves to give the requisite bluish cast to starch. It is said also to contain usually some copper, and a little silver. There are many mines of it in Germany, particularly in Saxony, in the territories of Schneebourg, and of Annebourg; it is found also in Alsace and the Dauphinat.

On the outside of the mines of cobalt is found a kind of mineral, of the colour of the streaked rose, called the flower of cobalt.

The best way to distinguish this mineral, is to turn it into glass; for the glass of the pyrites is black; of copper, red; of silver, white; whereas that made with cobalt is sapphire.

Cobalt being taken out of the mine, the heterogeneous matter is separated from it with a hammer; it is calcined in a vaulted kiln, large, and flat at bottom, stirring it continually; that the fire may thoroughly pervade it, and separate the arsenic; this is done 'till it ceases to smoke. Then they calcine very pure and choice flints, which, while hot, are cast into cold water, to render them malleable, after which they beat and reduce them to powder. With three parts of these and one of stony cinders to make it run, they usually mingle one part of calcined cobalt; this mixture is put into great pots, and set in a furnace to be turned into glass, a very strong fire being made for 8, 10, and even 12 hours; the mixture being diligently stirred, that it may be equally fluid throughout; when it is as fluid as it will be, they take it out with an iron ladle, and cast it into a copper full of cold water. The glass, being thus rendered more friable, is broke by a hammer that goes by water, and is afterwards passed through a brass sieve: what won't pass is broken a-new, and reduced to a very fine powder. They wash it afterwards, to separate the sandy and other heterogeneous particles, as also what whitish, ash-coloured powder, called eschel, and a blue powder called blank tarbe. It is afterwards put into vessels for sale: and, as there are different sorts, so the prices likewise are various; and the vessels have different marks, as O. C.

for the ordinary sort, M. C. for the middling, F. C. for the fine, F. F. C. for the finer, and F. F. F. C. for the very finest sort, which is exceeding valuable and scarce. See ARSENIC.

COCHENEAL is a drug used in dying and medicine. It is a body of an irregular figure, but always oblong, convex on one side, and a little concave on the other; it has several transverse furrows, like the incisures on the backs of insects. It is very light, and so friable, as easily to crumble between the fingers. Its colour is a pretty deep purple, and a strong crimson internally. It is chiefly brought from Mexico.

There are two sorts of it; the martigne, which is esteemed the finest, both for dying and medicine; and the wild, which is less valuable. This difference, in the same animal, is occasioned only by the extraordinary care that is taken of the one, by being supplied with food of a proper kind; the other living in a wild state of nature, without the like care.

Though this drug hath long been in use, yet its history, like that of many others, is not yet, perhaps, fully known. It, being collected at Mexico, at a certain season of the year, from a particular plant, was long thought to be only the seed of that plant; and those who discovered it to be an animal, were laughed at. This was the case of Pomet, who despised Plumier, who first declared it of the animal kind. So much of it, however, hath been discovered, by expanding its parts in water, and otherways examining it by microscopes, that it is an insect, having six legs, and a proboscis destined for extracting the juice of the plant whereon it subsists.

Reaumur was the first who ascertained to what class of the animal nature this insect belonged. This author, after establishing his class of gall-insects, creatures that the least of all other animals appear to be such, establishes a second class, nearly approaching to the former, but one degree, at least, above them, in their approaches to the characters of animal life, found in other living creatures.—These he calls progall-insects. They pass a great part of their life fixed immovably to some part of a plant, as the gall-insects do, but they never lose their figure like these creatures, but may always be known for animals.—Of this class is the cocheneal judged to be, an insect of such consequence as an article of commerce, that it is not left to breed and propagate at random, but the nicest management is applied to every season and circumstance of its multiplication.

The plant on which the cocheneal is found, and raised by the Spaniards, is described by botanists under the name of opuntia major. It is composed wholly of leaves of an oval thick body, joined end to end, and running into ramifications by means of new ones, which grow out side-ways.—The flower is moderately large; the fruit resembles our fig in shape, it is full of a crimson juice, which tinges the urine crimson after eating it. To this purple juice, the cocheneal owe their delicate colour; the same insects having been observed by Plumier on other plants, and on all these without colour. The Mexicans plant the opuntia all around their habitations, for the sake of the cocheneal, which they propagate thereon with great care, and make several collections in the year.

Upon the approach of the rainy season, the collection of cocheneal is over for that year; then they take care for the next year's store. From the caution of the Spaniards in this respect, we are, in a great measure, let into the history of this insect. At the coming on of the wet season, they cut off the pieces of the opuntia, on which there are any considerable number of these animals, which are not yet arrived at their maturity.—They house them, and preserve them from all mischief.—The opuntia, like the other succulent plants, remain fresh a long while after it is cut from the root or stem; the pieces thus cut off remain succulent for the rainy season; at the end of this time, the insects are found so well grown, that they are ready to bring forth their young.

The people now prepare for the multiplying these for the next year's crop; they make a small kind of nests in the shape of those of birds, either of moss, or of the thready matter of their cacao-nuts, or any other like substance; into each of these nests they put 12 or 14 of the insects, and they then carry them out, and place them between the leaves of the opuntia's, the plantations of which they take care to have, at that time, in very good order.—The thorns of the opuntia make these nests easily fixed, and in this manner they people their whole plantation in a few days; though the quantity is not small that they place on them; for these very cocheneals of the nests make their first crop, which is gathered not long after. They place generally two or three of these nests, that is to say, they allow between 30 and 40 insects to the jointing of every leaf of the plant to the next. The free air has such an effect on these insects, that, within three or four days after their being exposed to it, they bring forth their young in the nest. Every mother produces several thousands of these, which are at that time as small as the minutest mite. The young insects leave the nests after a little time, and run about the plant; they soon after, however, fix themselves, some on one part, some on another of it; but

but they always chuse the most succulent part, and those which are least exposed to the wind. They remain fixed to the place they choose, never stirring from it 'till they have acquired their full growth, and are themselves ready to bring forth young. In all this time they never erode the leaves of the plant; they only suck part of it's juices, by means of their proboscis.

In the colder countries, where the cocheneal insect is raised, they always cover with matting, for some time, the plants on which they have placed the nests, and where the young insects have fixed themselves.

So defenceless an animal, as the cocheneal in it's fixed state, must needs be a prey to a number of other creatures: there are multitudes of insects that feed on them: but the people who raise them are at infinite pains to keep the plants clear of all hostile insects. There are many crops of cocheneal in a year. The first is, that of the parent animals placed in the nests; this is a gathering made very easily; the creatures never leave the nests they were placed in; when they have brought forth their young, they die there, and there is no more trouble necessary than the taking the nests off the plant, and shaking them out.

The second gathering is of the insects, which had been brought forth by these, and have fixed themselves on the several parts of the plants, as before mentioned.

This is about three months after the former; in this time, a little more or less, according to the favourableness or badness of the season, these young insects have acquired their full growth, and many of them are bringing forth their young. The Indians dislodge these from the plants, by means of a little hair pencil, tolerably stiff, and fixed in a wooden handle, brushing them off by this means, and catching them as they fall.

They are very careful, in this second gathering, not to strip the plants wholly of the insects; they carefully leave a great many of the old ones, and they never disturb the young already produced by the others. The third crop is furnished by these young ones, and those which are brought forth by the parent animal, they leave there.—This happens at about three months end, at which time their young ones are found to be full grown, and are gathered as the former, leaving a store behind, as in the former gathering. Not long after this third gathering of the cocheneal, the rainy season usually comes on. The young insects brought forth by those they leave on the plants at the third gathering, are what they find on the leaves, which they at this time cut off and preserve, during the wet season, in their houses, to be placed in nests on the plants, as soon as this is over, and to furnish three or four successive crops the ensuing year.

They make a last gathering, at the time when they cut off the leaves for housing: they cut off only so many as they judge will be sufficient for the real produce; but the rest of the plant is also full of the insects, and there are yet on it many of the old, or parent animals, which they left there on the third gathering. The Indians, when they have housed what quantity they like, make a gathering of these: they are not at the pains of dislodging them singly with a pencil, as the others; but they brush over the whole plants in a careless manner, so that there fall off many fragments of the spines, &c. with the cocheneal, which are mixed with the old cocheneal and the young of various sizes: this is of much less value than the other more carefully picked cocheneal. The Spaniards call this granille.

The parent animals of the former gatherings would, if not prevented, live many days after they were dislodged from the plant, and would bring forth their young, which, being very small and nimble, would get away in great quantities, and a great part of the weight of the cocheneal would be lost. To prevent which, the Indians, as soon as they have finished their gathering, destroy the creatures.

They have several ways of killing them: some do it by plunging the basket in which they are into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the sun. Others have a sort of ovens built in a coarse way, on purpose for this occasion; they put the cocheneal into these, as soon as gathered, and give just such a heat as is enough to kill them. These ovens they call temercales.

The Indian women have also a kind of flat stones, under which they kindle a fire, and then place them on their cakes, or loaves, of maize bread: these they call comales; and some use these to kill the cocheneal insects in the same manner.

The difference in colour of the cocheneal we receive, is principally owing to the different methods thus used to kill the insects, and to the different degrees of heat the Indians venture to give them. The cocheneal, while living, is usually covered with a cottony, or downy matter, in the manner of gall-insects. Those which are killed by means of hot water lose a great part of that powder in the operation. Those, on the contrary, which are killed in the temercales, or ovens, retain this powdery matter, and become of a greyish colour, mixed with crimson; and, finally, that which is dried on the comales, or baking-stones, runs a great hazard of being burned, and generally becomes blackish. The Spaniards, who are very nice in their distinctions of the cocheneal, call

that which has been killed in water, and lost it's greyness, *reneidera*; that which has been killed in the temercales, they call, from it's marbled appearance, *jaspeado*; and the last, which is generally over-baked and blackish, *negra*.

The dead parent animals of the first crop of the year, which they take out of the nests they had put them in, lose much more of their weight in drying than any of the succeeding crops; four pounds of these dry to one pound; of the others, three pounds fresh generally afford a pound dry.

The impregnation of the cocheneal insect is the same with that of all other insects of the gall-insect and progall-insect class. All the creatures which we have been describing as fixed on the opuntia, and as gathered from cocheneal, are females. The males of the same species are different animals; they are little flies, no way resembling the cocheneal, though produced by the same mothers. The extreme smallness of the young cocheneals prevents any body's observing that some of them have wings, or rudiments, at least, of wings at that time; and, as they afterwards grow up and appear so very different from the rest, they are supposed to be creatures of another kind, accidentally fallen on the same plants.

The people who take care of the cocheneal, all agree in observing, that, at the time when that insect is grown to it's full size, there are always seen on the same plants a number of little winged creatures, which they call butterflies; but it is easy for such incurious observers to mistake a fly with wings not transparent, and these so large as to cover the whole body, as is the case of the male kermes insect, for a butterfly. These flies are much smaller than the cocheneals, and are seen continually marching among, and walking over them: they all have a firm belief, that these flies make the cocheneals conceive; and, indeed, the whole is so analogous to what happens for the impregnation of the kermes, that there is little room to doubt but that the Indians are in the right.

The quantity of cocheneal brought annually into Europe is immense: it is computed that there is not less than eight or nine hundred thousand weight annually imported from Spanish America.

It is a singular circumstance attending cocheneal, that it is not liable to decay. People who have made collections of insects, know how difficult it is to preserve them, let whatever art be employed; other less insects get into their bodies, and eat them. On the other hand, cocheneal preserved in a box, with no particular care at all, will keep ever so long unhurt, and, after ever so great a time, is as fit for all purposes either of dyeing or medicine as at first.

Mr Neufville procured some cocheneal which had, by all accounts, remained in the storehouse whence he had it 130 years, and which was then perfectly good. And Mr Marchand of Paris produced before the royal academy some cocheneal, put up by his father in a box, the date on which shewed that it was 60 years before, and which was as good as any cocheneal of the last year.

Cocheneal is esteemed a great cordial, sudorific, alexipharmic, and febrifuge. It is also greatly used by the painters and dyers, the high crimson colour it affords being scarce equalled by any thing, and making, according to their different management of it, all the degrees and kinds of red.

R E M A R K S.

As this nation expends such large sums annually with the Spaniards in this article, should it not excite us to it's cultivation in our own colonies, if possible? I am well informed, that an eminent merchant of the city of London received a letter not long since from Cales, in Spain, that gives an account the Spaniards intend to prohibit the importation of British linnens into Old Spain. And the other measures that court is now taking, in order to promote their own trade and navigation, at the expence of that of Great-Britain, certainly ought to alarm this nation, and put us upon every measure to take less of foreign products and manufactures, since we are likely daily to sell less of our own.

Further R E M A R K S.

Since, by the late DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, we have so greatly extended our acquisitions in America, especially on the continent; and, amongst the rest, the late SPANISH FLORIDA is ceded to the crown of Great-Britain: it is now judged, that some of our own possessions will furnish us with this very important article, used in the scarlet dye, and other kinds of red dyes. See DYEING.

COCHINCHINA, or WEST CHINA, as the name implies, or the CHINESE COCHIN, was so called by the Portuguese, to distinguish it from Cochon in the Malabar coast. Including Chiampa on the south, which, though reckoned part of Cambodia, is a province, or at least tributary to Cochinchina, it extends from north latitude 11 degrees 30 minutes, to 16 degrees 10 minutes, being, according to Moll, 300 miles from north to south, and 150, where broadest, from east to west. It is bounded on the north by Tonquin; by the sea of China on the east; the Indian Ocean on the south; and on the west by Cambodia, and a ridge of mountains, inhabited

by a savage people, called Kemois, who live independent of any government, because their hills are inaccessible. Cochinchina was formerly a part of the kingdom of Tonquin, but since is become a separate kingdom.

As it lies upon a flat, as well as Tonquin (though it is reckoned more temperate, as being more open to the sea) it is annually overflowed in the like manner; consequently the seasons are the same, and the soil equally fruitful in rice, which needs no manure but the mud left by the inundations from the mountains of the Kemois, which renders it so fruitful, that they have three harvests in a year. These inundations happen once a fortnight; at which time they have their greatest fairs and markets, because they can easily transport goods from one place to another by their boats.

Father Borri, the Jesuit, says, they have sugar-canes, and the same fruits as in India, all the year round, particularly oranges, ananas, bananas, melons, the can, gnoc, glacca, and durion, delicious fruits, peculiar to this and the neighbouring countries.

The country produces no grapes, and, therefore, instead of wine, they drink arac, or a liquor distilled from rice. They abound with wild and tame cattle, fowl and fish. They make a sauce of salt fish steeped in water, which they barrel up in great quantities; it tastes like mustard, and serves as a whet to their rice. They make the same use of arac and betel as the other Indians, and they have some tobacco. They have vast woods of mulberry-trees, which run up as fast as our hemp. Their silk is not so fine as the Chinese, but stronger. They have the best timber in the world, particularly a sort which abounds in the mountains, and is called the incorruptible tree, because it never rots under earth or water, and is so solid that it serves for anchors: one sort is black, and another red. They are exceeding tall, straight, and so big, that two men can scarce fathom them.

They have, also, on the mountains of the Kemois, a tree of a most fragrant scent, which is supposed to be the same with lignum aloes. This, being reckoned the best product of the country, is engrossed by the king, and is sold here from five to 16 ducats a pound. It is highly valued both in China and Japan, where the logs of it are sold for 200 ducats a pound, to make pillows for the king and nobility; and, among those Indian nations which continue to burn their dead, great quantities of it are consumed in the funeral piles. The young trees called aquila, or eagle-wood, are every one's property, which makes the old ones, called calamba, so scarce and dear. They have oak and large pines, for the building of ships; so that it is to the Chinese of much the same service as Norway is to England. In the general, they have the same kind of trees and plants, and the same sort of animals, as there are in Tonquin.

They have mines of gold, as well as of diamonds; which they do not esteem so highly as pearl. They make great account also of their coral and amber. In all the provinces there are great granaries, and large quantities of rice in them, which is frequently above 30 years old. One of the greatest rarities in these parts, especially in grand entertainments, is a ragout made of the eatable birds-nests, which some say are only found in Cochinchina, and others, in four islands only that lie on its coast. Those delicate birds-nests making a large article of trade in this part of the world, we have taken notice of it under its proper article.

R E M A R K S.

The merchants of Tonquin, Cambodia, China, Macao, Japan, Manilla, and Malacca, trade hither with plate, which they exchange for the commodities of the country. The Portuguese are the most favoured here of any Europeans. The natives sell not only a vast quantity of silk and aquila-wood, as already mentioned, to the Chinese, but the latter fetch from hence abundance of timber and plank for ship-building. The Cochinchinese themselves not being inclined to travel, seldom fall out of the sight of their own shore, but purchase many trifles from foreigners, at great rates, particularly combs, needles, bracelets, glass pendants, &c. They are very fond of our hats, caps, girdles, shirts, and other cloaths, and, above all, set a great value on coral. The country has many large inlets of the sea, and above 60 convenient landing-places, which nevertheless, says captain Hamilton, are not much frequented by strangers. The Dutch having formerly put off some false dollars at Quinhon, in payment for silks, and other China stuffs, the people seized their factors, and put one of them to death; for which, the next time the Dutch came upon this coast, they burned a town, and put the inhabitants to the sword.

Their coin is round pieces of brass, with the king's arms and ensigns stamped on them, and a hole through the middle, which serves to string them, as they do by thousands, every thousand being worth two crowns.

It is divided into five provinces, exclusive of the kingdom of Champi; viz. Limuva, Cachiam, Quangum, Quignan, or Pulocambi, and Renam; and in this order, they lie south of one another.

Captain Hamilton says, the sea-coast is 700 miles in extent, from the river Cambodia to that of Quambin, and that it is very deep. According to him, it is a country much larger and richer than Cambodia, the inhabitants more brave and convertible. The Cochinchinese draw one half of the customs and taxes raised in Cambodia by commerce and merchandizing; but they give little encouragement to strangers to trade with them: so that they send their gold, raw silk, and drugs, to dispose of chiefly to Cambodia, and some to Canton, Johore, and Batavia.

M. Choisi, in the Journal of his Voyage to Siam, says, there are kings tributary to the king of Cochinchina. The king formerly gave leave to the merchants in China and Japan to build a city at Faifo, and on a bay, latitude 16, longitude 108; which is divided into two parts, each under its own government and laws; some call it Haifo, and place it in the province of Caccian, or Cacchian, and say it is the principal port frequented by foreigners, there being a fair here for about four months every year, to which the Chinese import very considerable quantities of plate, as the Japanese do of silk; from whence the king draws a large revenue by customs and imposts, and the people reap vast profit.

Borri says the bay stands on two inlets to the sea, which are at first three or four leagues distant from one another, till, having run seven or eight leagues, they join in one stream, where the vessels meet that come in both ways.

When the Dutch first came hither, the Portuguese at Macao sent an embassy to the king of Cochinchina, to desire him to exclude them from his country, as mortal enemies to their nation: but the Dutch having landed, while the ambassador was at court, and sent presents, which were well received, the king granted them a free trade; whereupon the Portuguese ambassador charged him with breach of his word, and stamped on the ground, to shew his resentment. Mean time, the king had ordered the Dutch to land their goods against the fair as well as the Portuguese; but, while they were on the river in boats, the king's galleys destroyed most of them, alleging the Dutch were notorious pirates, and he forbade them his country any more. On the other hand, he offered the Portuguese, to whom he had been a constant friend, three or four leagues of the fruitfulest part of his country Touron for building a city; which, according to our author, would be of the greatest consequence to the Portuguese, for the defence of such ships as passed toward China, and for harbouring a fleet, to be kept in readiness against the Dutch, who pass this way to China and Japan.

Other cities and towns mentioned by travellers are, (1.) Caccian, a royal seat in the province of that name, and resorted to by the Chinese for trade. The Sanfons place it 35 miles south-east of Faifo, and the bay of Tonquin; and Borri six or seven leagues from Touron. (2.) Sanfo, formerly a mart-town, but now decayed, because its harbour is choaked with sand. (3.) Neoceman, which Borri says is five miles long, and half a mile broad, in the province of Pulo-Cambi.

In the way to the kingdom of Chiampa, we come to a country to which Martiniere gives the name of the Desert of Cochinchina, comprehending part of the kingdom of Cambodia, which has the mountains of the Kemois and Chiampa on the south. Chiampa has the sea on the east and south, and the town which gives name to it on the sea-coast, in latitude 11 1/2.

There are several islands on the coast, of which captain Hamilton says, those nearest the shore are not dangerous. But as they have no commerce, we shall take no notice of them. **C O D + F I S H.** is so well known that I shall not spend words to describe it.

It is excellent food, when fresh, and being well prepared and salted, will keep some time. Salted cod is the chief branch of the trade of salt-fish, which is very considerable throughout Europe and America.

There are two sorts of it, the one called fresh, or white-cod, and the other dry, or prepared, and sometimes melwel, or kneeling, which is the same sort of fish, but differently salted and prepared for keeping, and what the Dutch call stock-fish.

Fresh Cod.

The fishery thereof is in the bay of Canada, on the great bank of Newfoundland; and on the isle of St. Peter, and the isle of Sable. The fishery elsewhere is inconsiderable. The vessels used are double-decked, and carry from 100 to 150 tons, and bring from 30 to 35,000 cod at most, for fear of spoiling before brought to France, especially those first caught, unless salted with great care.

They are fitted out, besides the necessary provision, with utensils for the fishery.

Those of 100 tons have commonly from 20 to 22 hands, including the master and boys; and those of 150 tons 25 hands: and so of others in proportion.

The most essential part of the fishery is, to have a master who knows how to cut up the cod, one who is skilled to take the head off properly, and, above all, a good salter, on which the preserving of them, and, consequently, the success of the voyage, chiefly depends.

It is said the Biscayans*, fishing for whales, discovered first the greater and lesser Cod-Bank, a century before Christopher Columbus's expedition, as well as Canada, and the new-land of Bacalao, or Cod-Fish; and that it was a Biscayan Newfoundland who first reported it to Columbus, according to several cosmographers.

* See the article BISCAY, and Remarks thereupon.

Others ascribe the discovery of it to a native of St Malo, named James Cartier, who is said, in effect, to have directed the Britons to it. But, be this as it will, it is certain, since this discovery, all the European nations that trade by sea have esteemed a discovery of this important nature the most certain and advantageous branch of trade.

This great bank is about 25 leagues from Newfoundland, about 150 long, and 50 broad.

The merchants of the sands of Olone, in Lower Poitou, interest themselves most of all the French in this fishery, and with the most success, though their city be small, and haven bad, having had some years 100 vessels.

Other places are Bourdeaux, Marenne, Rochelle, Pornic in the duchy of Retz, Granville, Havre de Grace, Dieppe, Hornfleur, and other places on the coast of Normandy; but these last trade little in time of war, because of the risque there is in going out and in, the Channel being commonly full of privateers.

The accustomed wages of the master and crew are one third of the fish they bring.

The best, fattest, and largest cods are those caught on the south of the great bank; and are, therefore, chiefly reserved for Paris, where there is a great consumption of them. Those caught on the north side are commonly small, and sell for much less.

The best season is from the beginning of February to the end of April; the fish, which in the winter retire to the deepest water, coming then on the banks, and fattening extremely.

What is caught from March to June keeps well; but those taken in July, August, and September, when it is warm on the banks, are apt to spoil soon.

Some vessels sail from France in September, and return in January, for the Lent markets; but they run the risque of bad voyages, not only on account of the gales in the Newfoundland seas, which are commonly very boisterous, but that the fish, also, being much spent by the rigour of the weather, quit the great bank, which, during the milder seasons, they frequented; so that only few are then to be found, and those mostly very lean and indifferent.

The voyage is made sometimes in a month or six weeks, at others not under four or five months. When Lent draws on, and the fishermen have got half, or two-thirds of their lading, they hasten back, those who first arrive getting to the best market; so that often they return with less.

Some are lucky enough to make a second voyage, while others are still fishing, and forced to return with a small lading at last.

Every fisher takes but one at a time; the most expert will take from 350 to 400 in a day; but that is the most, the weight of the fish, and a great coldness on the bank, fatiguing very much. It is salted directly: when the head is taken off, and it is opened and gutted, the salter stows them in the bottom of the hold, head to tail, in beds a fathom or two square, laying layers of salt and fish alternately, but never mixing fish caught on different days. When they have lain thus three or four days, to drain off the water, they are replaced in another part of the ship, and salted again; after which they are no more meddled with.

They are differently sorted, according to the places where they are delivered and sold.

At Nantes are four sorts: first, the great cod, the 100 of which should weigh 900 pounds; secondly, the middling cod, the 100 not weighing above 600 pounds; thirdly, the small cod; and, fourthly, the refuse cod.

The sorting at Rochelle and Bourdeaux is much the same as at Nantes; only they do not reckon the small cod among the refuse, whereas at Nantes they do.

At Nantes, and most other ports in France, fresh cod is counted and sold at the rate of 124, or 62 couple, the hundred; but at Orleans, and in Normandy, they give 132 cod to the hundred: at Paris only 108.

The greatest quantity comes from Nantes, the river Loire most conveniently transporting them to other cities; and they are very cheap there, except in war time.

Fresh cod is also imported into France from Holland and Iceland, in March, April, and May, in barrels weighing from 250 to 300 pounds, the one salted dry, the other in pickle: the first are best, because the pickle, being apt to change, spoils the fish.

The barrelled cod is commonly thick, and cut in pieces; it is called sometimes cabillaud; what comes from Iceland is less than that from Holland. A last consists of 12 barrels.

Dried cod-fish.

In this commerce vessels of all burdens are used in France, but they are commonly large. As they can be dried only in

the sun, the vessels depart from March to the end of April, that they may have the summer for their work.

These vessels carry out meal, brandy, biscuit, pease, beans, syrup of sugar, some stuffs, cloths, and a few other goods, which they truck with the inhabitants of the French colonies for their dried cod, their roes, and their oils.

The reddest is usually most in esteem.

They bait their hooks with herrings, of which great quantities are taken on the coast of Placentia.

Most of the vessels that go to the coast of Petit Nord return usually to Marseilles, and the ports in Italy and the Levant; where having sold their fish, they take in goods, either on their own account or on freight.

The wages here are the same as those of the fresh cod-fishery, viz. one third of the fish they bring, with this difference, that if advance is made to the crews of the other fishery, it is discounted, at a rate agreed on between them, deducting the principal and interest from the amount of their share.

Those who go to Petit Nord have also one third; and, when the fish is sold in the Levant, and the vessels return laden to the west, they pay them by the month, from the day they begin to take in their second lading.

The cod designed for salting, though of the same kind with the fresh cod, is much less, and, therefore, fitter for keeping, the salt more easily penetrating it. The fishery of both is much alike; but this is most expensive, as they carry more hands, and are longer out; but they use one half less salt.

As the masters arrive, they unbri their vessels, leaving only their mates, with seven or eight men, and go on shore to work in a tent, covered with branches of trees, and some sails, and on a scaffold of great trunks of pines, 12, 15, 16, and often 20 feet high, commonly from 40 to 60 feet long, and about one third in breadth. Here the chief work of salting is performed.

When the fish hath taken salt, they wash and hang it to drain on rails; when drained, it is laid on kinds of stages, which are small pieces of wood fixed across, and covered with branches of trees, having the leaves stripped off, for the better passage of the air.

When they begin to be dry, they lay them ten or twelve thick, to keep in the heat, increasing the heap every day to 20 or 25: then they are carried to the shore, where they are laid thinner, and turned every day. Lastly, they salt them again, beginning with those first salted, and pile them in great heaps, where they remain till they lade them on board.

They pile them in the vessel on branches of trees, laid upon the ballast, and round the ship, with mats, to keep them dry.

The Biscayans are accounted the most expert of all others in this fishing; wherefore the merchants of Bayonne and St John de Luz send hither several ships, beside what go from Rochelle, Nantes, and St Malo.

It is sold in most places by weight, excepting what is too moist and broken, which is sold by tale; as also in the ports of Normandy, where it is sold at the rate of 66 couple, or 132 cod, to the 100; at Paris, also, as the fresh cod is.

There are four kinds of merchandize belonging to the cod-fish, in which there is some traffic, viz. the zounds, the tongues, the roes, and the oil drawn from the livers. The first is salted at the fishery, together with the fish, and put up in barrels from 6 to 700 pounds. The tongues are done in like manner, and brought in barrels from four to 500 pounds.

These are in no great esteem at Paris, or any other part of the kingdom; the chief consumption being in Burgundy and Champagne.

The roes are also salted in barrels; they serve to throw into the sea to take fish, especially pilchards, and are greatly used on the coast of Bretagne, where that fishery is considerable. The oil comes in barrels, from 4 to 520 pounds. Much of it is sent to Geneva: it is also used in France by the tanners, and even to burn, when the oil of nuts and train-oil is scarce. An excellent kind of little cod, not unlike what they call lingue, is caught on the north of Scotland, towards the coast of Buchan, at a place called Battrag. It is salted and dried in the sun, on the rocks, and sometimes in the chimney.

It is mostly consumed where caught, and in other neighbouring places.

REMARKS.

We have here a sketch of the trade of France with regard to the fishery of cod on the banks of Newfoundland; from whence we may make a tolerable judgment of the advantages which have derived to the navigation and commerce of that nation by this fishery, since the remarkable era of the treaty of Utrecht*, which gave them the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and drying their cod upon stages there: from which, if they had been then excluded, Great-Britain would have preserved such a proportion of this trade in her own scale, as was then thrown into that of France; which would have made no little difference, in point of benefit, to the trade of this kingdom. See the articles FISHERIES, NEWFOUNDLAND.

* The article of the treaty of Utrecht, whereupon the French ground.

ground their privilege of fishing at Newfoundland, and of drying their cod upon stages there erected.

Art. 13. The island called Newfoundland, with the adjacent islands, shall, from this time forward, belong of right wholly to Britain; and, to that end, the town and fortrefs of Placentia, and whatever other places in the said island are in the possession of the French, shall be yielded and given up, within seven months from the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, or sooner, if possible, by the most Christian king, to those who have a commission from the queen of Great-Britain for that purpose. Nor shall the most Christian king, his heirs and successors, or any of their subjects, at any time hereafter lay claim to any right to the said island and islands, or to any part of it to them. Moreover, it shall not be lawful for the subjects of France to fortify any place in the said island of Newfoundland, or to erect any buildings there, besides stages made of boards, and huts necessary and usual for drying of fish; or to resort to the said island beyond the time necessary for fishing and drying of fish. But it shall be allowed to the subjects of France to catch fish, and to dry them on land, in that part only, and in no other besides that, of the said island of Newfoundland, which stretches from the place called Cape Bonavista, to the northern point of the said island; and, from thence, running down by the western side, reaches as far as the place called Point Riche. But the island called Cape-Breton, as also all others, both in the mouth of the river of St Lawrence, and in the gulph of the same name, shall hereafter belong of right to the French; and the most Christian king shall have all manner of liberty to fortify any place or places therein.

By means of an indulgence of this, that was weakly or wickedly granted to the French by this treaty, they have ever since exceedingly increased their fishery to Newfoundland, as well on the coast as on the great bank: the consequences whereof, to our misfortune, we have too sensibly felt. But, as if the privilege of fishing was not enough to have granted them, they obtained, likewise, that, in the fishing season, they may resort to the very island of Newfoundland itself, and erect stages, &c. to cure and dry their fish there.

In the tenth year of the reign of Charles I. liberty was granted to the French of curing and drying fish at Newfoundland, but they paid a tribute for so doing. Since the peace of Utrecht, they not only paid no tribute, but, by their neighbourhood at Cape-Breton, obliged us to keep a garrison at Newfoundland, to prevent our being surprized there.

R E M A R K S.

But the case is widely altered between GREAT BRITAIN and FRANCE, since by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, the French are now absolutely deprived of the powerful fortifications of Cape-Breton, and of the possessions of all CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES; and are now entitled to no possessions contiguous to Newfoundland, except the very small islands of ST PETER's and MIQUELON, and which the VIth article of the Treaty says, 'The king of Great Britain cedes the Islands of ST PIERRE and MIQUELON, in full right, to his Most Christian Majesty, to serve as a shelter to the French fishermen; and his said Christian Majesty engages not to fortify the said islands, to erect no BUILDINGS upon them, but merely for the convenience of the FISHERY, and to keep upon them a guard of FIFTY MEN only for the police.'

GREAT BRITAIN enjoying by the said treaty, at present, the FULL RIGHT OF POSSESSION, of all other places adjacent to the Newfoundland fisheries, and France possessing only the before-mentioned two very small islands, and those under such restrictions and limitations as the treaty has provided; there does not seem any great likelihood that it will soon be in the power of the French to disturb the British subjects in this part of North America.—We seem to have nothing to dread from France in those parts but their SMUGGLING-TRADE; and the same treaty having restrained them from fishing within a certain distance from the coasts, a proper care taken on our parts to keep Guarda Costas there, may pretty effectually prevent such practices. A vigilant look-out to oblige the French, at first, to adhere inviolably to the treaty, will deter them from any very detrimental practices of this sort: and if they should here grossly deviate from the sense of the treaty, it seems now to be in the power of this nation to chastize them for so doing, without much expence at any time, and that, perhaps, by depriving them of the right of fishing at or near Newfoundland at all. I cannot therefore but be of opinion, that so wise and politic a kingdom will be cautious in the steps they shall take, lest they should hereafter be for ever excluded from the Newfoundland fisheries.—This will prove a check upon them. For they are so extremely sensible of the prodigious advantage of this fishery, and so very intent upon pursuing it, that, from their first attempts to make themselves considerable at sea, they have had it perpetually in view.—They first obtained leave to fish, upon paying a duty of 5 per cent. Afterwards they got that acknowledgment relinquished.—Not content with this, they went further still; they procured a cession to

be made to them of the island of Cape Breton, a maiden fishery, that had scarce ever been touched before; whereas that of Newfoundland is greatly exhausted, and also several islands in the gulph of St Lawrence. Still discontented, they further obtained the liberty of curing and drying their fish, setting up stages, and resorting to our island of Newfoundland, during the time it is of any use to resort thither, that is, during the fishing season.—They, indeed, delivered us up the possession of Placentia, and some other places in Newfoundland; but they took care to have a much better place yielded to them in lieu thereof; with this extraordinary favour to them more than to us, that they have the liberty granted them to frequent our island of Newfoundland, and erect stages, &c. but we had not the privilege allowed us of doing the same on any of their islands, or on the island of Cape Breton, which they had express permission granted them to fortify, as they pleased.

GREAT BRITAIN having now possessed herself of CAPE BRETON, and all the strong places in these parts of America, the case is quite changed from what it was.—The importance of CAPE BRETON alone to the FRENCH NEWFOUNDLAND fisheries appearing by the following letter, it may not be amiss to insert it.

Copy of a letter written by Mons. de Pontchartrain, to Mons. the duke de Gramond, from Fontainebleau, September 19, 1713.

'I have received, Sir, the letter you did me the honour to write me the 3d of this month, with two letters that were directed to you by the inhabitants of St Jean de Luz and Sibour, upon the subject of their fishery of dry fish. From the account I have given the king of their demand, his majesty directed me to write, by his order, to Monsieur the duke d'Aumont, his ambassador extraordinary at London, to ask of the queen of Great-Britain a permission for them to go the next year to Placentia, and the liberty to continue their fishery in ALL the ports and harbours upon the coast of Newfoundland. I shall give myself the honour to acquaint you with Monsieur the duke d'Aumont's answer. I agree with you, Sir, that the country of la Bour will suffer very much, should they be deprived of their liberty of carrying on their fishery of dry fish; and you will be persuaded of the attention I have to procure to the merchants that drive this commerce, the means to continue them in it, when I have informed you, that the king sent from Rochford, in the month of May last, one frigate to go and lay the first foundation of an establishment in the island of Cape Breton, where fish is MUCH MORE ABUNDANT than at the island of Newfoundland, and where one may take the fish, and manage the drying thereof easily. This frigate arrived, June 26, at Placentia, from whence she was to continue her course for Cape Breton, to which place I have caused to be transported 100 men, to begin the settlement. His majesty will send, in the beginning of the year, three ships, to transport thither the garrison of Placentia, and the inhabitants of the island of Newfoundland, and to put the last hand to the establishment of that port. The merchants of this kingdom may then send all such ships as they shall think fit to order, for the fishing of dry fish, and for the oils that are made from the fish on the said island. This favour ought to animate the merchants that drive this commerce, to carry it on with vigour, from the advantage they will draw from it. This is all I have been able to do in their favour. I desire you to be persuaded of the great sincerity wherewith I have the honour to be.—See AMERICA and FISHERIES, &c.

COFFEE, whose good effects are universally esteemed, is the berry of a small tree, which formerly was known in no country but the kingdom of Yaman in Arabia; and as the seeds, which are found in the heart of the fruit, are qualified to clear the head, and relieve it from sleepiness, when they have been infused in water, the Arabian monks are said to be the first who made use of them, that they might be able to perform their nocturnal devotions without drowsiness. This artificial drink came easily into repute among those nations that frequently invent new liquors to regale themselves instead of wine, which the law of Mahomet has prohibited among them. Some Turkish doctors at first opposed the introduction of this liquor, and declared it to be too spirituous, and almost as inebriating as wine itself; but the mufti soon removed this difficulty, and coffee was vindicated from the imputation of any vinous quality, and was allowed to be lawful liquor. It was then publicly drank at Constantinople and Cairo, from whence it has been transmitted to us about 60 years ago.

It is a great pity that this useful and popular seed cannot be sown, with any success at least, in our southern provinces, say the French; but it will not succeed either there, or in any other part of the kingdom, by reason it should be sown immediately after it has been gathered. It was formerly imagined, and several people are still persuaded, that the Arabians of Brokka drenched the berries in a brine, or some lixivious liquor, before their exportation, to prevent their being sown with any success, and that they themselves might not be deprived

deprived of the profit of this plant, by it's propagation in other regions. But, since some of the trees have been transported to the Isle of Bourbon, as well as to Batavia and Holland, and likewise from Holland to France, where they have been cultivated in a successful manner, we have been convinced that the seeds of this plant will never prosper, if their plantation be delayed ever so little. Those that were gathered at Amsterdam, and sent to Paris, were unsuccessful; but all such as were gathered at Amsterdam, or in the king's gardens, from little trees which had been planted there, proved very thriving, when care was taken to set them the moment they were gathered.

The coffee-tree may be seen in the royal garden of France, where it's height does not exceed five or six feet, and it's stem is about an inch in thickness; but it rises to the height of 40 feet in Arabia and Batavia, though it's thickness seldom exceeds five inches. It is always covered with flowers and fruit. It shoots out, through the whole length of it's stem, a growth of branches, which are exactly opposite to each other, and in different pairs, one of which crosses the other. The leaves, which resemble those of the common laurel, are also ranged in couplets; at the bottom of these spring the fragrant flower-branches, which have a near similitude to those of jafmin, and have five chives in their center. The berry, or fruit, which appears after these, is not much unlike a hard cherry in it's colour and shape: the flesh, which is not disagreeable, serves as a tegument to a couple of shells, each of which contains a seed. One of these is frequently abortive, because it's due fecundity is seldom imparted to it in the flower season; the other grows stronger, and receives a better nourishment. Some persons infuse all the fruit, after it has been dried;

others chuse the shells; but the best and most useful method is only to infuse the berries, when they have been moderately roasted in a vessel of varnished earth, which is always preferable to one of brass or iron. The berries are judged to be sufficiently roasted when they begin to assume a violet hue, and discharge an oil of an agreeable scent. The coffee which is newly ground has always the most virtue; and, when it is infused in boiling water, it loses fewer of it's volatile parts than when it is immediately poured into cold water. When the heat of the fire raises the powder to the edge of the coffee-pot, it is precipitated with a few drops of cold water.

It is the opinion of our best and most experienced physicians that coffee promotes digestion, and corrects sharp humours, when it is drank after meals. Several persons prefer it in the morning, for it's dissipation of vapours, and other disorders of the head, and for imparting a liveliness to the spirits. Every one knows how much the repose of the night is hazarded by the repeated use of this liquor in the same day, and what precautions are taken to correct the bitter flavours of it's salts with milk and sugar, and bread; sugar is a constant ingredient, bread is proper when this liquor is drank in a morning, and milk is necessary for thin constitutions, which would otherwise be injured by the salts.

Those which are reckoned best, are the small and greenish berries, and especially those which dispense an agreeable scent, and are transmitted to us from Cairo by the way of Marfeilles: they are much more esteemed than the large and inodorous species, which is transported to us over the ocean.

The island of Jamaica affords very good coffee; and other of our island colonies would afford very good, was due care taken to cultivate it.

COIN.

Sir Isaac Newton's TABLE of the assays, weights, and values of most foreign silver and gold coins, actually made at the Mint, by order of the privy-council. With notes and explanations, shewing the methods of keeping accounts in those cities, on which negociations in bills are usually made; and a calculation of the real or intrinsic par of exchange.

FOREIGN SILVER COINS.

	Assay.	Weight	Standard Weight.	Value.
	dw.	dw. gr.	dw. gr. mi.	d.
The piaster of Spain, or Seville piece of 8 reas, now reduced to 10	W. 1	17 12	17 10 2	54
The new Seville piece of eight	W. 1½	14	13 21 15	43.11
The Mexico piece of eight	W. 1	17 10 ½	17 8 14	53.83
The Pillar piece of eight	Stand.	17 9	17 9	53.87
The Peru piece of eight, coarser, but of uncertain alloy	—	—	—	—
The old ecu of France, or piece of 60 sols Tournois	W. 1	17 12	17 10 2	54
The new ecu, or piece of 5 livres, or 100 sols	W. 1½	19 14 ½	19 11 12	60.39
N. B. The ecu of France should be 2 dwts worse by law.	—	—	—	—
The cruzado of Portugal, or ducat worth 400 reas, now marked and raised to 480 reas	W. 2	11 4	11 1 13	34.3
The patacks, or patagons, of Portugal, worth 500 reas; now marked and raised to 600	—	—	—	—
The ducaton of Flanders, or piece of 60 sols, or patars	B. 4½	20 22	21 8 2	66.15
The patagon of Flanders, or cross dollar, or piece of 48 patars	W. 12	18 1	17 1 13	52.91
The ducaton of Holland, or piece of 63 stivers	B. 3	20 21	21 3 15	65.59
The patagon leg dollar, or rix dollar of Holland, or piece of 50 stivers	W. 14	18	16 20 17	52.28
The three guilder piece of Holland, or piece of 60 stivers	W. 2	20 8	20 3 12	62.46
The guilder florin, or piece of 20 stivers	W. 2	6 18 ½	6 17 1	20.08
The ten shelling piece of Zealand, or piece of 60 stivers	W. 2	20 6	20 1 13	62.21
The lion dollar of Holland, or ⅓ of the ducaton	W. 44	17 14	14 2 7	43.07
The ducaton of Cologne	B. 3	20 18	21 — 15	65.02
The rix dollar, or patagon, of Cologne	W. 13	18	16 22 14	52.53
The rix dollar, or patagon, of the bishop of Liege	W. 12	17 22 ½	16 22 5	55.48
The rix dollar of Mentz	W. 6½	18 8	17 19 18	55.27
The rix dollar of Franckfort	W. 9	18 8	17 14 4	54.53
The rix dollar of the elector Palatine of the Rhine and Bavaria, before 1620	—	—	—	—
The rix dollar of Nuremberg	W. 6	18 10	17 22 1	55.55
The old rix dollar of Lunenburg	W. 10	18 11	17 15 2	54.65
The old rix dollar of Hanover	W. 8	18 12	17 20 2	55.03
The double gulden of the elector of Hanover	W. 7	18 18	18 3 16	56.29
The gulden of the Elector of Hanover, or piece of ⅔	B. 17½	8 10	9 1 18	28.14
The half gulden of the elector of Hanover, or piece of ⅓	B. 17½	4 5	4 12 19	14.07
The gulden of the duke of Zell, or piece of 16 gutz grosh	W. 43	11 2	8 22 12	27.07
The gulden of the bishop of Hildesheim, or piece of 24 manen grosh, now raised to 26	W. 40½	11 22	9 17 17	30.21
The rix dollar of Magdeburgh	W. 10	18 12	17 16 1	54.27
The gulden, or guilder, of Magdeburgh	W. 44	11 14	9 6	28.67
The old rix dollar of the elector of Brandenburg	W. 9	18 13	17 19 1	55.17
The old gulden of Brandenburg, now raised from 24 to 26 manen grosh	W. 43	12 4	9 19 9	30.41
The gulden of Brandenburg, or piece of ⅔	W. 43	11 3	8 23 6	27.81
The half gulden of Brandenburg, or piece of ⅓	W. 43	5 13	4 11 14	13.09
The gulden of the elector of Saxony, or piece of ⅔	W. 41	11 3	9 1 14	28.12
The old bank dollar of Hamburg	W. 8	18 9	17 17 4	54.92
The old rix dollar of Lubec	W. 8½	18 16	17 22 17	55.54
The four mark piece of Denmark, of coarser alloy	W. 61	14 8	10 9 10	32.23
The four mark piece of Denmark, of finer alloy	W. 21	11 13 ½	10 11 5	32.45
The eight mark piece of Sweden	Stand.	20	20	62
The four mark piece of Sweden	W. 58	13 12	9 23 7	30.92
The two mark piece of Sweden	W.	6 19	—	—
The old dollar of Dantzick	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The old rix dollar of Thorn near Dantzick	W. 12	18 8 ½	17 8 15	53.85
The rix dollars of Sigismund III. and Vladislaus IV. kings of Poland	W. 10	18 9	17 13 14	54.04
The rix dollar of the late emperor Leopold	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The rix dollar of his predecessor Ferdinand III.	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The rix dollar of Ferdinand, archduke of Austria	W. 10½	18 5	17 8 7	53.78

The

C O I N

	Assay.	Weight		Standard Weight.		Value.
		dw.	gr.	dw.	gr.	
The six dollar of Bafil	W. 7½	18	18½	18	3 6	56.24
The six dollar of Zune	W. 13	18	1	16	23 13	52.65
The old ducat of Venice, with the words Ducatus Venetus upon it; a piece of 6 old livres, afterwards raised, I think, to 6 livres 4 fols de picoli	W. 23½	14	15	13	1 17	40.50
The half ducat	W. 23½	7	7½	6	12 18	20.25
The new ducat, with the no. 124 upon it, signifying 124 fols, or 6 livres 4 fols de picoli		18	2			
The half thereof		9	1			
The crusado croifat, or St Mark of Venice, with the no. 140 upon it, signifying 140 fols, or 7 livres de picoli		20	6			
The half crusado of the same form		10	3			
The quarter crusado of the same form		5	1½			
Another coin of Venice	W. 46	17	10	13	19 8	42.08
The piece of two Jules	B. 6	3	15	3	17 7	11.05
The ducat de banco of Naples, or piece of 5 tarins, or 10 carlins, or 100 grains	W. 3	14	0½	13	1	40.43
The half ducat	W. 3	7	0½	6	12 10	20.21
The tarin, or fifth part of the ducat	W. 3	2	19½	2	14 12	8.09
The carlin, or tenth part of the ducat	W. 3	1	9½	1	7 6	4.04
The escudi ecu, or crown of Rome, or piece of 10 Julios, or 100 bayoches		20	14½			
The teston of Rome, or piece of 3 Julios	W. 1	5	21½	5	20 17	18.32
The ducat of Florence and Leghorn, or piece of 7 liras, or 10½ Julios	B. 8	20	3	20	20 6	64.62
The Julio of Rome		2	5			
The piafter ecu, or crown of Ferdinand II. duke of Tuscany	W. 1	17	12	17	10 2	54
The piafter ecu, or crown of Cosmus III. present duke of Tuscany, whose monies are about 4 per cent. lighter than those of his father; this piece is 8½ Julios	W. 1	16	18	16	16 4	51.69
The croifat of Genoa, or piece of 7½ liras	B. 7	24	15	25	9 11	78.74
The ecu d'argent of Genoa, or piece of 7 liras 12 fols						
The piafter ecu, or crown of Milan		17	21			
The Philip of Milan, a piece of 7 livres		20	20			
The livre, or 20 fols piece of Savoy		3	22			
The 10 fols piece of Savoy		1	23			
A roupee	B. 16½	7	10	7	23 4	24.07
A gout gulden, or florin d'or, a Dutch coin of 28 stivers	W. 75	12	19	8	11 5	26.26
Another gout gulden	W. 48	11		8	14 18	26.73
Another	W. 48	12		9	9 15	29.15

G O L D C O I N S U N K N O W N.

	Assay.	Weight.		Standard Weight.		Value.
		car. gr.	dw. gr.	dw. gr.	mi.	
The old Louis d'or	W. 0 0½	4	8	4	7 8	16 9.3
The half and quarter in proportion	W. 0 0½	2	4	2	3 14	8 5
The new Louis d'or	W. 0 1½	5	5 2/3	5	3 18	20 0.6
The half and quarter in proportion	W. 0 1½	2	14 2/3	2	13 19	10 0.3
The old Spanish double doubloon	W. 0 0½	17	8	17	5 12	67 1.4
The old Spanish double pistole	W. 0 0½	8	16	8	14 16	33 6.7
The old Spanish pistole	W. 0 0½	4	8	4	7 8	16 9.3
The new Seville double pistole		8	16 1/8			
The new Seville pistole		4	8 1/8			
The half and quarter in proportion						
The doppia moeda, or double moeda of Portugal new coined	W. 0 0¼	6	22	6	21 12	26 10.4
The doppia moeda as they come into England	W. 0 0¼	6	21 1/4	6	21 7	26 9.9
The moeda of Portugal	W. 0 0¼	3	11	3	10 16	13 5.1
The half moeda	W. 0 0¼	1	17 1/2	1	17 8	6 8.5
The Hungary ducat	B. 1 2	2	5 1/2	2	9 7	9 3.6
The ducat of Holland, coined at Legem Imperii	B. 1 2	2	5 1/2	2	9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Campen in Holland	B. 1 2	2	5 1/2	2	9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of the bishop of Bamberg	B. 1 2	2	5 1/2	2	9 3	9 3.2
The double ducat of the duke of Hanover	B. 1 2	4	10 1/2	4	17 9	18 4.8
The ducat of the duke of Hanover	B. 1 2	2	5 1/4	2	8 18	9 2.7
The ducat of Brandenburg	B. 1 2	2	5 1/4	2	9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Sweden	B. 1 2	2	5 1/4	2	9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Denmark	B. 1 2	2	5 1/4	2	9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Poland	B. 1 2	2	5	2	8 12	9 2.1
The ducat of Transylvania	B. 1 1½	2	4 3/4	2	7 6	8 11.6
The sequin, chequin, or zacheen of Venice	B. 1 3½	2	5 3/4	2	10 7	9 5.7
The old Italian pistole	W. 0 0¼	4	6 1/2	4	6 11	16 7.6
The double pistole of pope Urban, 1634		8	14 1/2			
The half pistole of Innocent II, 1685		2	4			
A double pistole of Placentia		8	10			
A double pistole of Genoa, 1621		8	16			
A double pistole of Milan		8	13 1/2			
A single pistole of Milan		4	6 3/4			
A pistole of Savoy, 1675		4	8 1/2			
Double ducats of Castile, Genoa, Portugal, Florence, Hungary, and Venice	B. 1 2½	4	11	4	18 18	18 7.7
Single ducats of the same places	B. 1 2½	2	5 1/2	2	9 9	9 3.8
Double ducats of several forms in Germany	B. 1 1	4	11	4	17 1	18 4
Single ducats of the same places	B. 1 1	2	5 1/2	2	8 5 1/2	9 2
Double ducats of Genoa	B. 1 2	4	11	4	18 6	18 6.5
Single ducats of Genoa, Befançon, and Zurich	B. 1 2	2	5 1/2	2	9 3	9 3.2
Pistole of Rome, Milan, Venice, Florence, Savoy, Genoa, Orange, Trevou, Befançon	W. 0 0¼	4	6	4	5 17	16 6.7
A Barbary ducat, with Arabic letters on both sides in square tablets, without any effigies or escutcheon	W. 2 1½	2	16 1/2	2	9 6	9 3.5

N. B. The gold coin having been valued when guineas were at 21s. 6d. they are here reduced to the present standard of 21s.

A TABLE shewing into how many shillings a pound weight of silver hath, at several times, been coined; from Mr Lowndes, and Bishop Fleetwood. Very useful for the readers of Mr Rapin's History of England.

Years.	Fineness.	Shillings. d.
28 E. I.	— 11 oz. 2 dw.	— 20 — 3
20 E. III.	— 11	— 22 — 6
27 E. III.	— 11	— 25
9 H. V.	— 11	— 30
1 H. VI.	— 11	— 37 — 6
4 H. VI.	— 11	— 30
24 H. VI.	— 11	— 30
49(39) H. VI.	— 11	— 37 — 6
5, 8, 11, 16,	} — 11	— 37 — 6
24 E. IV.		
1 R. III.	} — 11	— 45
9 H. VII.		
1 H. VIII.	— 11	— 45
34 H. VIII.	— 10	— 48
36 H. VIII.	— 6	— 48
37 H. VIII.	— 4	— 48
1 E. VI.	— 4	— 48
3 E. VI.	— 6	— 72
5 E. VI.	— 3	— 72
6 E. VI.	— 11	— 60
2 Mary	— 11	— 60
2 Eliz.	— 11	— 60
19 Eliz.	— 11	— 60
43 Eliz.	— 11	— 62

Which standard has continued ever since.

For the computation of foreign monies into sterling money, see the articles EXCHANGE, ARBITRATION, and all the chief STATES and EMPIRES in Europe, under their ordinary denomination, as FRANCE, HOLLAND, &c. &c.

An explanation of the foregoing tables of COINS.

For understanding the use of this table, it is to be observed, That the English pound Troy contains 12 ounces; one ounce 20 pennyweights; one pennyweight 24 grains; and one grain 20 mites.

The present English standard for gold coin is 22 carats of fine gold, and two carats, or $\frac{2}{3}$, of alloy.

The silver coin contains 11 ounces two pennyweights fine silver, and 18 pennyweights of alloy, in the pound.

The first column of the preceding table expresseth the fineness of the assayed piece; the letter B signifying better, and W worse, than the English standard.

The second column, the absolute weight of the piece.

The third column, it's standard weight, or it's quantity of standard metal.

The fourth column, it's value in English money.

For example: in the second article of silver coin, the new Seville piece of eight is $1\frac{1}{2}$ pennyweight in the pound worse than the English standard weight, 13 pennyweights, 21 grains, and 15 mites of sterling silver; and is in value 43.11 decimal parts of a penny.

In the royal mint a pound of standard gold is cut, or divided, into 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ parts, each a guinea, at which rate a guinea will weigh 5 pennyweights, nine grains, .4382 parts.

They were first coined in king Charles 2d's reign, and went for 20 shillings, and had their name from the gold whereof they were, being brought from that part of Africa called Guinea, which the elephant on them likewise denotes.

By the par of exchange is meant, the precise equality between any sum or quantity of English money, and the money of a foreign country, into which it is exchanged, regard being had to the fineness as well as to the weight of each.

And because this paper may be of use to others besides merchants, who desire to know the state of our foreign trade, or our situation as to transactions in money with other countries; seeing the exchange with them, unless where subsidies are paid to princes abroad, armies or fleets maintained, or the dividends or sale of our stocks belonging to foreigners may have influence; I say, the course of exchange indicates the state of our commerce, as truly as the pulse does that of the human body; and, for the use of such gentlemen, there is here subjoined an account (in those countries with whom we exchange) of the several denominations in which accounts are kept, as likewise the real course of exchange, from Castaign's Paper, as it stood March 28, 1729.

In Holland, or the Seven United Provinces, accounts are kept in guilders, stivers, and penings, or grofs. One guilder being equal to 20 stivers, and one stiver to 16 penings, or two grofs; six of their guilders they reckon equal to one pound, or 20 schillings Flemish, on which last the exchange between London and those countries is always computed, and not on the guilder, though they are, by the above account of the several denominations, easily reduced one into the other. The real species are the rix dollar, valued at 50 stivers; the ducatoon = 63 stivers; but, though this be the current value of that piece, it is received at the bank of Amsterdam only at 60 stivers, which makes the difference, called agio, really of 5 per cent. between bank and current money.

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The par of exchange between English and Dutch money is easily found, thus, as, by Sir Isaac's table, the ducatoon of Holland is worth intrinsically 65.59 d. English, which is received at the bank, as has been already said, at 60 stivers, or three guilders, and consequently is equal to 10 schillings Flemish; therefore, by the rule of three, as 65.59 d. English is to 10 s. Flemish, so is 240 d. in a pound English to a fourth number, which will be found to be 36.59 s. Flemish; and so much bank money at Amsterdam should be received for one pound, or 240 pence sterl. This is the real par: and whatever is received more or less than this, is gain or loss to England. In this, and the other calculations of the par, regard is had only to the coined silver of the several countries, and not to the accidental price, or value, that silver in bullion may be, for this never is long the same.

In Flanders, or the Ten Provinces, accounts are kept either as in Holland, or in pounds, schillings, and pence Flemish. One pound Flemish = 20 schillings, and one schilling = 12 pence; the rix dollar here only 48 stivers. In reducing the money of this country into that of Holland, you are to observe, that one pound Flemish, as it is called, is = to six guilders, and, of consequence, one schilling Flemish = six stivers, or 12 grofs, one stiver being = two grofs.

Antwerp having been formerly the chief city of trade of the whole Seventeen Provinces, we exchange even upon Holland to this day in Flemish money. In some parts of Flanders they divide the shilling into patars, instead of pence, six whereof go to a shilling.

In Hamburgh, accounts are kept in marks lubsh; a mark is = 16 schillings; a schilling is = 12 pence, or deniers: a rix dollar is = three marks, or 48 schillings lubsh: but there is a difference between bank money and Hamburgh currency; bank money is 16 per cent. better. In exchange for London, they give so many schillings and groots Vlamish for a pound sterling, 8 July, 1740, 34 schillings, two groot Vlamish, which is bank money, and makes 12 marks 13 schillings banco.

Leghorn. They keep their accounts in crowns of gold, which is divided into 20 folds, each fold into 12 deniers. A crown of gold, which they mark thus C , is divided otherwise into 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ liras; and a dollar, or piafter, of exchange, is = six liras, a ducat = seven liras.

Venice. They have two sorts of ducats, one banque, and the other courant, the latter 20 per cent. worse, or as the agio rules, than those called bank ducats; each of them are divided into 124 soldi, or 24 grofs, or six liras four sols, for they account likewise by liras, soldi, and picoli, as we do in pounds, shillings, and pence; so that they have two sorts of liras, though each divided in the same manner; one lira di gros is = 10 ducats. A sequin being = 17 liras, and worth, by Sir Isaac's table, 9 s. 5.7 d. sterling. Say therefore, If 17 liras give 9 s. 5.7 d. what will 7 liras 8 soldi a ducat of bank give? Answer, 49.492 d.

Genoa. Accounts are kept in liras, sols, and deniers, summed by 20 and 12, as we do, which are reduced into dollars, or piafters, of 96 sols.

In France, accounts are kept in livres, sols, and deniers; one livre is = 20 sols, and one sol = 12 deniers.

In exchanging with that country we pay so many pence sterling for their crown, by which crown is always meant 3 livres, or 60 sols, though they have not always any coined piece of silver precisely of the value of 3 livres; therefore this ideal or nominal crown, is to be distinguished from the coined, or real piece of silver, which passes likewise under the name of a crown, or ecu, but, for distinction's sake, is called un ecu d'argent, or ecu blank, or a crown of so many livres, for this crown in specie may be double that of account, or exchange, and then, consequently, the crown in exchange is paid in France by the half of that real or specie crown.

The exchange between France and other countries varies more than any other, owing to the frequent alteration of their coin, which is done by the king's arret, wherein he declares and orders, how many crowns in specie, or livres, sols and deniers, are to be coined at his mints out of the mark, as they call it, or eight of their ounces of silver; but this mark is only 7 oz. 17 pwt. 12 gr. English weight; which, at 5 s. 2 d. is worth only 1.2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling.

By the arret in France, of 15 June, 1726; the king orders, that there should be coined out of the mark 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ crowns, each crown to pass for 6 livres; that is, the mark, when coined, to pass for 50 livres 5 sols: from whence we have this equation, that 50 livres 5 sols French are intrinsically worth, or = 1.2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$; from thence the par of exchange on the crown, or 3 livres French, may be deduced; for, if 50 livres 5 sols be = 1.2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, whatever is paid more or less than this is loss or gain, and, consequently, as the course of exchange then was, by the account subjoined from Castaign's Paper, France had the advantage of about 10 per cent. This shews their ignorance who, in books printed on this subject, pretend to note the par of exchange with France, as if their coin always remained the same; whereas there is no other way than by an actual assay, and weighing their species at the time, or seeing the king's arret: and indeed that exchange is so variable, that I have known it, within the space of but a few years, from 5 d.

7 C

English

English to near 60d. for their crown of three livres; the first indeed was payable in their bank-notes, then in great discredit, viz. Anno 1720.

In Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, and all Spain, accounts are kept in maravedies, 34 of which is = to a rial, and 272 to a piafter, or piece of $\frac{8}{3}$ rials new plate, or 10 of vellon. The pistole of gold is = to 4 pieces of $\frac{8}{3}$. A rial of plate is worth 34 maravedies of vellon; so that those two terms of plate and vellon, in Spain, not only signify the different metals of silver and copper, but the difference in accounts of money, for the piece of $\frac{8}{3}$ which is only = 272 maravedies of plate, is = 510 maravedies of vellon; so they say a rial of plate, or a rial of vellon; a maravedie of plate, or a maravedie of vellon; though the last is only a small copper coin.

Another observation to be made on the exchange with Spain, is, the alteration in the augmenting their specie; the dollar or piafter, which formerly went for 8 rials, being now raised to 10; so that London exchanging upon the piece of eight of 8 rials on that country still as formerly, the alteration in the course of exchange should be in proportion thus, if 10 rials of plate, or a dollar, be worth 54 d. sterling, what is 8 rials worth? Answer, 43.2 d.

Lisbon. Accounts are kept in reas, whereof 1000 go to what they call a millrea, which is no real coin but money of account; a crusado of silver is 480 reas. But, as most payments are made in gold and few or none in silver, the moeda being worth only 26s. 10.4d. the rule to find the par will be as follows, if 4800 reas, for so many are in a moeda, give 26s. 10.4d. what will 1000 or one millrea give? Answer, 5s. 7.166d. which is near 2 per cent. in our favour.

The following table needs no explanation to merchants, but, to such as are not, they are to be informed, that it is a copy of a paper usually printed twice a week, by an eminent exchange-broker, or by one who is daily informed by the several dealers in exchange, of the current prices of the monies of the several countries we deal with in that way, and is looked upon to be very exact.

2. There are different ways among merchants of negotiating bills of exchange, according to the custom of the countries abroad on which they are drawn; for example, if a bill is demanded on Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, or any other of the seventeen provinces, or on Hamburg, the negotiation is always meant to be on the pound sterling, and then the question or bargain to be made is, how many schillings and pence Flemish are to be received in those parts for each pound sterling, and as this varies according to the demand, and one receives sometimes more, sometimes less, it is termed, by some writers on this subject of exchange, giving the certain for the uncertain, though not so properly. On other countries it is the reverse of this, for a piece of a certain value or denomination is stipulated to be delivered abroad, and the agreement to be made is, how much English money is to be paid here for that piece of foreign coin; thus we exchange with France on their crown or three livres Tournois, with Spain on their piece of eight, with Portugal on their millrea, &c. as may be seen in the paper subjoined.

Lastly, It is to be observed, that the value or prices of English money towards the left-hand are the rates at which bills were actually negotiated on the exchange of London the post-day of that date, and that the column towards the right-hand is the par or intrinsic value, by which may be known at any time which has the advantage, this or the country we exchange with.

Course of exchange by Castaign's paper, 28 March, 1729, the intrinsic or par at 5s. 2d.

	Flem. s. d.	Par.
Amsterdam, } for 1 l. sterl.	{ 34 6	- - 36.59
Rotterdam, }	{ 34 7	- - 36.59
Antwerp, }	{ 35 3	- - 35.17
Hamburg, }	{ 33 7	- - 35.17
	Engl. d.	d.
Madrid, &c. for a p. of 8	43.5	Par also in Engl. 43.2
Genoa, for a dollar	54.75	- - 54
Leghorn, for a dollar	51	{ whereof 2s. 7s. } 54
		{ 1 worth 54, } 54
		{ the other 51.69 }
Venice, for a ducat of bank	48.625	- - 49.492
Paris, for a crown, 3 liv.	32.5	- - 29.149
Lisbon, for a millrea	66	- - 67.166

Of the augmentation and diminution of COIN in denomination.

Under the article MONEY, I shall endeavour to shew the effects of the increase and decrease of the actual quantity of circulating money in a state; what I propose to consider, at present, is the nominal increase and decrease of money, as it hath been commonly practised in France.

Let the ounce or crown of silver in France be at 4 livres, and then let a recoinage be made with a new stamp; let an edict be issued, ordering the new stamped ounce to pass for 5 livres in payments, while the old stamped ounce shall con-

tinue to pass but for 4 livres, and in a month or two to be decreed and made bullion, to be received only at the mint, like other bullion, at 4 livres the ounce.

If the general balance of trade be at this time against France, this disposition of the coin will prove soon inefficual; for, as in this case there is money due to foreigners, the money-exporters will at first give 4 livres 5 sols in new money for an old crown, or for an ounce of bullion; and then 4 liv. 10, 4 liv. 15, 4 liv. 17, 6, because the old coin is as good in foreign countries as the new, and so the intention of the edict for the recoinage will be null and eluded: for, although the ignorant people may at first keep to the tenor of the edict, yet, as the money-exporters offer them more for their old coin than the mint, they will sell it under the rose, or make evasive bargains against the law.

This will be the case, if the general balance of trade be against France at the time of the recoinage; but, if the balance be in favour of France, a good part of the old coin will be carried to the mint, according to the intention of the edict, to be recoined; for, though several money-proprietors will lock up the old species, and chuse to keep it by them without interest for a year or two, rather than lose 20 per cent. of their weight, yet, as there is no demand for the old species for exportation, those who do not lock it up, have no way to employ it, but to carry it to the mint: all undertakers and consumers must do so for the necessary exigences of barter, and the foreigners who have money payable in France, having none of the new stamp, must send their bullion to the mints in France by their correspondents, to pay their debts. Let us suppose 10,000,000 ounces of silver of 4 livres, or 40,000,000 of livres, carried on the circulation in Paris before the recoinage; that 2,000,000 ounces are locked up, and that 8,000,000 ounces are gradually recoined at the mint; these 8 millions, new stamped at 5 livres, will make 40,000,000 of livres in circulation, and consequently a livre will go as far now as before, though it be one fifth part lighter: but, if about a year after the old coin is also raised to 5 livres the ounce, and the money locked up comes into circulation, there will be then 50,000,000 of livres in circulation, though still no more than 10,000,000 of ounces of silver, and consequently commodities will be dearer in denomination, or in livres, though still of the same price as before, in weight of money.

Let us again suppose the coin to be diminished by an edict 1 sol, or 1 per cent. monthly for 20 months, when the ounce, or coin of 5 livres, shall be reduced to 4 livres, these will be, and commonly are, the consequences.

The undertakers of the foreign trade will, from the facility they find of borrowing, as they fancy, without interest, bring in large quantities of foreign commodities for the consumption of two or three years sometimes, and at high prices, so raised and enhanced by the greatness of the demand: on the other hand, the undertakers of the French commodities will raise the price of them, and chuse to keep their goods by them, rather than sell them for a species that diminishes monthly, unless they can raise the price in proportion to the fall of money. Thus not only the foreign commodities, but also the home commodities in France, rise extravagantly in their price, during the diminutions; and this dearthness of the French commodities makes the foreigners buy as little of them as possible.

From these two operations it is plain, the balance of trade ought to turn against France, during the time of the diminutions, and 'tis remarkable, that the exchange with foreign places, in these circumstances, is 8 to 12 per cent. to the disadvantage of France: so violent is the demand for the exportation of money. In the mean time, the French public funds rise in value, and the king is enabled, by the fear people have of losing by the diminution, to borrow good sums upon which he is content to lose the diminutions himself; but, in order to retrieve part of that loss, he commonly makes a recoinage and augmentation, about the end of the time fixed for the diminutions.

At this juncture, the money in the king's coffers is locked up, 'till it can be issued in the new augmented coin. Several money-proprietors not only keep up their sums at this time, but also long after the augmentation, rather than exchange them for new money at 20 per cent. loss in the weight. Great sums, as we observed, have been exported in the payment of the balance of trade, and consequently the scarcity of money in France at the close of the diminution, and beginning of the augmentation, is so great, that barter and trade are in perfect convulsions.

'Tis not surprizing, that, in these circumstances, all commodities grow vastly cheap in France; they have foreign commodities for the consumption of several years, and their own commodities unexported by foreigners, and lying on their hands, are in great plenty. On the other hand, money, though lighter since the augmentation, is excessively scarce, and the king issues it out of the mint for the payment of his troops, officers, &c. barely for their sustenance. So that the increase of the money in denomination does not answer, even nominally, the diminution of it's quantity by exportation and hoarding.

Now the foreigners, finding the French commodities cheaper by 50 or 60 per cent. than before, will buy large quantities of them, while the French, on the other hand, want to buy nothing from the foreigners, and so the balance of trade, which was against France during the diminutions, turns in it's favour about the time of the augmentations.

And this turn, it should seem, ought to bring back into France the money exported, but it is to be considered, that the French bought the foreign goods at high prices, and now sell their goods at very low prices; and so, upon the whole of these operations, the French are great losers. On the contrary, the French undertakers bought foreign commodities for the consumption of several years, and the foreigners who fear to lose by the diminutions in their own country, do not go so far, and their undertakers or merchants only buy reasonable large quantities, without over-trading themselves by borrowing of money. And thus it happens the balance of trade against France is strong and violent at the time of the diminutions, but the balance, which turns in favour of France at the time of the augmentations, is slower and more regular. Though the new species after the augmentation is current at 20 per cent. above the price of the old species and bullion, at the mints in France; yet the foreigners will send bullion to be recoined in the French mints at 20 per cent. loss in the weight, because they have no new coin to send, and that they find the French commodities from 50 to 60 per cent. cheaper than before, out of which they can afford to lose the 20 per cent. tax at the mint.

It has been observed, that the Hollanders, who, in the time of the diminutions, sold the French merchants tea and spices, have had the same commodities sent back to them after the augmentation, for about $\frac{2}{3}$ of the original cost in Holland, and that the tax of the mint has come out of the said $\frac{2}{3}$ sent in specie to Paris from Holland.

From what has been said, it seems pretty apparent, that the king may levy a tax of 20 per cent. or more upon all the money carried to the mint, and that a great part is carried in that disadvantage, when the balance of trade is in favour of France.—That, if an augmentation on recoinage is made after diminutions, the balance of trade will be naturally in favour of France.—And that the said tax at the mint is levied at the expence of the French subjects only, and not of foreigners, who find the cheapness of French commodities an advantage, not only proportionable to the said tax, but considerably exceeding it. And experience shews, that foreigners who travel in France, find their account better to spend their money there; while the tax of 20 per cent. is levied at the mint, than when the old and new coin are at the same price, and the balance of trade equal or in favour of France. For, in this case, all the money in France enters into circulation, and enhances the price of commodities.

Nor does the tax at the mint only fall upon the French subjects, but it hurts them in the balance of trade, when the new coin is counterfeited in foreign parts, and sent into France. For, in this case, the foreigners get 20 per cent. from the French subjects for nothing, and yet have their commodities at low and cheap prices. And so much as they get by falsifying the French new coin, diminishes the sum due to the French nation in the balance of trade.

'Tis easy to conceive, that while the balance is due to France, and the tax of 20 per cent. levied at the mint, the rule of foreign exchange with France must be taken from the par of the price of bullion at the mints in France, ounce for ounce, and not ounce for ounce of new coin; this tax, being a force and restraint on trade for the time it is practicable, makes an exception to the rule of exchanges we have laid down elsewhere in one respect; though, as an ounce of silver in bullion or old specie is worth in France so much at that time, an ounce, sent from a foreign country thither, will be just worth the same, and the exchange will be fixed upon that par, and consequently the rule of exchanges, laid down in this work, will stand universally true. See the articles **BALANCE of Trade, CASH, CIRCULATION, EXCHANGE, MONEY.**

However, the mischief of this restraint on trade, as we have observed, falls wholly upon France; and it must surprize every one, who maturely considers the matter, to hear, that even a minister of the finances in France should alledge, that this tax was a mighty advantage France maintained against foreigners, who were forced to pay 120 ounces for every 100 ounces they owed in France: and suppose it might be continued as long as the French government thought fit. But, if the inductions we have made were not sufficient to prove the mistake of these notions, it would be sufficient to prove the error in the first of them, from this single fact; That France is always lower and in greater distress at the times it makes that seeming advantage by foreign trade, than at any other time, all other circumstances being equal.

Now it seems to be a matter of surprize, that whereas the augmentations and diminutions in France were so constantly practised for above 30 years, and that France lost considerably in all these operations, as has been explained; and that many other ways of levying money for the king would be less prejudicial to the subject; I say, it seems surprizing,

that the effects of these operations have not proved more fatal to France than they have appeared to be.

But it is to be observed, that bankruptcies in France occasioned by the diminutions, whereby foreigners have often lost greatly, have frequently saved France very large sums: nothing clears a balance due to foreign nations faster, than the bankruptcy of the undertakers and dealers concerned in it. In the year 1715, there were 19 foreign dealers in 20 broke in France. Of 27 dealers for foreign parts in the little city of Rochelle, 24 were broke in that year. And, of about 200 bankers at Paris, not above three or four stood it. After the South-Sea frenzy in England, the bankruptcies saved the nation above four millions of ounces, which otherwise must have been made good to foreigners.

But this is a sorry way of clearing the balance of trade, and 'tis apparent upon the whole, that the diminutions and augmentations in France, not only contribute to the impoverishing the kingdom, but keep it commonly under great uneasinesses, difficulties, and distractions.

Of the augmentation or diminution of the COIN in denomination, to fix a par between GOLD and SILVER.

The proportion of the value between gold and silver, has varied in different ages and countries; according to the quantity of these metals.

Before the discovery of the plate mines in the West-Indies, an ounce of gold in Europe was equal in value to ten ounces of silver; but, since silver has been brought in great quantities out of New Spain, it was found in the alterations at market in Spain, that an ounce of gold was equal to 16 ounces of silver, and the value of gold and silver was fixed by law in that proportion; and the same rule was kept to nearly in the other countries of Europe, allowing some small differences for the conveniencies of barter, and the management of some directors of mints. The East-India trade brought in gradually some little variation in this par, by exporting silver and bringing home gold; and, since that, the discovery of the Brazil gold mines has influenced it still more.

In Japan, the proportion of gold to silver is 1 to 8, in China 1 to 10, in the Mogul empire 1 to 12, and so westward as you come nearer to the silver mines, as 1 to 13, to 14, &c. But, as the quantities of gold began to increase in Europe beyond the proportion of those of silver, this last metal grew again in request, and sold in the alterations at anagio or profit against gold (upon the foot of the par of 1 to 16) of 2, 3, 5, 8 per cent. The French, in order to have a larger quantity of silver in circulation, as it is fitter in barter than gold, fixed the proportion of their gold coin to their silver coin in 1700, as 1 to 15: but the English let the old par remain, and the coins to find their own proportion in the alterations at market: but then, finding the inconveniencies of this in barter, where silver passed in coin for less than it did at the market; and, consequently, observing that no silver remained in circulation but such as was worn, in order to preserve some for the common circulation and barter, they set themselves to consider of fixing a new par between gold and silver.

This might have been easily done, perhaps, if they had agreed to give silver coin that value by law, which it found at market by theagio given for it in exchange for gold; and if the ounce of standard silver, which sold for 5 s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. had been coined to pass at a proportionable price by law, having regard to avoid fractions.

And in regard the same causes, which raised anagio upon silver, long subsisted, they might reasonably, for that time, have put the coin at 5 s. 6 d. by law, since it was nearly worth that at market.

But, instead of that, it was determined by Sir Isaac Newton's representation to the treasury to lower gold, and in consequence guineas were reduced from 21 s. 6 d. to 21 s. This reduction did not bring the proportion near enough, and the mischief was only a little eased but not cured; and no silver for a long time was coined at the Tower, but some South Sea shillings under the old standard, which was, 'tis conceived, very necessary, and ought to have been done at first.

Though the reduction of gold was not so natural, perhaps, as the raising the value of silver (or rather giving silver in coin the value it had at market); yet it would have equally answered the end of fixing the par necessary between these metals, if the reduction had been great enough. But still it would have been, as in effect it was, a disadvantage to England, with regard to foreigners.

The foreigners remitted all their money in the English funds in gold or guineas at 21 s. 6 d. If they sent any part in silver, they had the market-price for it, 5 s. 4 d. to 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; and, if we suppose their capitals in the English funds to amount to no more, at that time, than only 5 millions sterling, they paid for them in guineas at 21 s. 6 d. or something equivalent, 4,651,163 guineas; and they received for them at 21 s. 4,761,904 guineas, which was a clear loss of 110,741 guineas.

If it should be objected that foreigners remitted their funds by bills of exchange, it might be answered, that would have been

been the same thing as remitting them in guineas of 21s. 6d. since that operation would have hindered the exportation of so many guineas at 21s. 6d. or so much silver at 5s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce; and I have taken notice of this frivolous objection, because some grave writers have used it on the like occasions. If it should be objected, that silver is the true old money of England by law, and as such ought not to be altered, I answer in that case, that gold ought to have been merchandize as in China, and not money by law: if that had been the case in England, guineas would not have passed at market for above 20s. 8d. and there would have been no need of fixing any par between these metals; but, as the case stood, guineas were money at 21s. 6d. and nobody could refuse them at that price: and, as silver grew in request above the value or proportion given it by law, it is humbly submitted, whether or no a law ought not to have been made to give it that value, which the market gave it. And all laws for fixing the proportion of gold and silver were made in consequence to the market-price in all ages, for there was no other rule but the market-price whereby to find their proportion.

The lowering of gold was, indeed, for the advantage of the revenue, the landed men, and the proprietors of the stocks; and seems only to have been to the disadvantage of the farmers and others, who had payments to make in weightier money than before, and of the English nation in general with respect to foreigners.

The proportion between gold and silver, in England, is $15\frac{1}{3}$ to 1. The English gold coin is 22 carats fine, and $44\frac{1}{2}$ guineas are cut out of a pound Troy: the silver coin is 11 ounces 2 penny-weights fine; that is, there are 18 penny-weights of alloy in the pound Troy, and 62 shillings are cut out of the pound. Whence the value of the pound weight of fine gold will amount to 50l. 19s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling, and the value of the same pound weight of fine silver to 3l. 7s. and somewhat more than a farthing, viz. 67.027s. Consequently fine gold is to fine silver as $15\frac{1}{3}$ to 1, whereby it appears that gold is higher, and silver lower rated in England, than in any other nation in Europe.

In Spain and Portugal, indeed, the proportion of gold to silver, in their coin, is as 16 to 1; but, as this high price of gold carries away their silver, and there is, on that account, for the most part a premium of 6 per cent. on payments in silver, it comes to the same thing, as if gold was to silver there really as $15\frac{1}{3}$ to 1. So that we may say, without exception, gold is higher valued in England than any where else in Europe. The consequence of which is the draining the kingdom of it's silver; and therefore 'tis humbly submitted, if it may not be highly necessary some how to remedy such an evil.

Some, indeed, have observed, that laws, which fix and settle the proportion between gold and silver coins, are very prejudicial: to support which they reason thus, For as metals themselves, say they, vary here in value weekly as the proportion changes abroad, one or other of our coins must be carried away with loss to the nation, as is often the case with our silver coins; as for example: A pound of standard silver is coined into 62s. so that one pound and $\frac{1}{2}$ thereof makes 63s. and exchanges for three guineas. By Castaign's paper of February 3, 1740, standard silver was at 5s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce, which makes, for 1 pound and $\frac{1}{2}$, 68s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$, being above 5s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$, which is more than the currency; almost 9 per cent. loss to us, and gain to foreigners, who carry away our silver coin. Can we wonder at the scarcity of it, when we make it so profitable an article to be carried away? Mr Locke observes, in his Considerations, &c. p. 167: 'If your law set it, i. e. the proportion of gold to silver, at 15, when it is at the free market rate in the neighbouring countries as 16 to 1, will they not send hither their silver to fetch away your gold at $\frac{1}{16}$ loss to you? Or, if you will keep it's rate to silver as 15 to 1, when in Holland, France, and Spain, it's market value is but 14, will they not send hither their gold, and fetch away your silver at $\frac{1}{14}$ loss to you? This is unavoidable, if you will make money of both gold and silver at the same time, and set rates upon them by law in respect of one another.'

Sir Isaac Newton's Representation relating to the coin of England, in the year 1717.

An attempt was made this session of parliament to lower the value of guineas. Mr Aislable, then chancellor of the Exchequer, having taken notice of the great scarcity of silver coin, occasioned chiefly by the exportation of silver and importation of gold, proposed, that a speedy remedy might be put to the growing evil, by lowering the value of gold species. Upon this the king was addressed for the representations made by the officers of the mint, to the treasury, in relation to the gold and silver coins. Accordingly Mr Lowndes presented to the house several papers relating to the coins, and particularly Sir Isaac Newton's representation to the lords of the treasury; which being referred to before, we presume it will not be unacceptable to the reader:

'In obedience to your lordships order of reference of August 12, that I should lay before your lordships a state of the

gold and silver coins of this kingdom in weight and fineness, and the value of gold in proportion to silver, with my observations and opinion, and what method may be best for preventing the melting down of the silver coin; I humbly represent, that a pound weight Troy of Gold, 11 ounces fine, and 1 ounce alloy, is cut into $44\frac{1}{2}$ guineas; and a pound weight of silver, 11 ounces 2 pennyweights fine, and 18 pennyweights alloy, is cut into 62s. and, according to this rate, a pound weight of fine gold is worth 15 pounds weight, 6 ounces, 17 pennyweights, and 5 grains of fine silver, reckoning a guinea at 11. 1s. 6d. in silver money. But silver in bullion exportable is usually worth 2d. or 3d. per ounce more than in coin. And, if at a medium such bullion of standard alloy be valued at 5s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce, a pound weight of fine gold will be worth 14 pounds weight, 11 ounces, 12 pennyweights, 9 grains of fine silver in bullion. And, at this rate, a guinea is worth but so much silver as would make 20s. 8d. When ships are lading for the East-Indies, the demand of silver for exportation raises the price to 5s. 6d. or 5s. 8d. per ounce, or above; but I consider not those extraordinary cases. A Spanish pistole was coined for 32 reas, or 4 pieces of 8 reas, usually called pieces of eight, and is of equal alloy, and the 16th part of the weight thereof. And a doppio moeda of Portugal was coined for ten crusadoes of silver, and is of equal alloy, and the 16th part of the weight thereof; gold is therefore, in Spain and Portugal, of sixteen times more value than silver of equal weight and alloy, according to the standard of those kingdoms; at which rate, a guinea is worth 22s. 1d. But this high price keeps their gold at home in good plenty, and carries away the Spanish silver into all Europe; so that at home they make their payments in gold, and will not pay in silver without a premium. Upon the coming in of a plate-ship, the premium ceases, or is but small; but, as their silver goes away and becomes scarce, the premium increases, and is most commonly about 6 per cent. which being abated, a guinea becomes worth about 20s. 9d. in Spain and Portugal.

In France, a pound weight of fine gold is reckoned worth 15 pounds weight of fine silver; in raising or falling their money, their king's edicts have sometimes varied a little from this proportion, in excess or defect; but the variations have been so little, that I do not here consider them. By the edict of May 1709, a new pistole was coined for 4 new lewisses, and is of equal alloy, and the 15th part of the weight thereof, except the errors of the mints. And by the same edict, fine gold is valued at 15 times it's weight of fine silver, and at this rate a guinea is worth 20s. 8d. $\frac{1}{2}$. I consider not here the confusion made in the monies in France, by frequent edicts to send them to the mint, and give the king a tax out of them; I consider the value only of gold and silver in proportion to one another. The ducats of Holland and Hungary, and the empire, were lately current in Holland among the common people in their markets and ordinary affairs, at 5 guilders in specie, and 5 stivers, and commonly changed for so much silver monies in three guilder pieces, and guilder pieces, as guineas are with us, for 21s. 6d. sterling; at which rate a guinea is worth 20s. 7d. $\frac{1}{4}$. According to the rates of gold to silver in Italy, Germany, Poland, Denmark, and Sweden, a guinea is worth about 20s. and 7d. 6d. 5d. or 4d. for the proportion varies a little within the several governments in those countries. In Sweden, gold is lowest in proportion to silver, and this hath made that kingdom, which formerly was content with copper money, abound of late with silver, sent thither (I suspect) for naval stores. In the end of king William's reign, and the first year of the late queen, when foreign coins abounded in England, I caused a great many of them to be assayed in the mint, and found by the assays *, that fine gold was to fine silver in Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, Italy, Germany, and the northern kingdoms, in the proportions above-mentioned, errors of the mints excepted.

* See the foregoing table of Sir Isaac Newton's assays, weights, and values, of foreign silver and gold coins.

In China and Japan, one pound weight of fine gold is worth but 9 or 10 pounds weight of fine silver; and, in the East-Indies, it may be worth 12. And this low price of gold, in proportion to silver, carries away the silver from all Europe.

So then, by the course of trade and exchange between nation and nation in all Europe, fine gold is to fine silver as $14\frac{2}{3}$, or 15 to one; and a guinea, at the same rate, is worth between 20s. 5d. and 20s. 8d. $\frac{1}{2}$, except in extraordinary cases, as when a plate-ship is just arrived in Spain, or ships are lading here for the East-Indies, which cases I do not here consider. And it appears by experience as well as by reason, that silver flows from those places where it's value is lowest in proportion to gold, as from Spain to all Europe, and from all Europe to the East-Indies, China, and Japan; and that gold is most plentiful in those

those places, in which it's value is highest in proportion to silver, as in Spain and England.

It is the demand for exportation, which hath raised the price of exportable silver about 2 d. or 3 d. in the ounce above that of silver in coin, and hath thereby created a temptation to export or melt down the silver coin, rather than give 2 d. or 3 d. more for foreign silver; and the demand for exportation arises from the higher price of silver in other places than in England, in proportion to gold, that is, from the higher price of gold in England than in other places, in proportion to silver, and therefore may be diminished by lowering the value of gold in proportion to silver. If gold in England, or silver in the East-Indies, could be brought down so low as to bear the same proportion to one another in both places, there would be here no greater demand for silver than for gold to be exported to India: and, if gold were lowered only so as to have the same proportion to the silver money in England, which it hath to silver in the rest of Europe, there would be no temptation to export silver rather than gold to any other part of Europe: and, to compass this last, there seems nothing more requisite, than to take off about 10 d. or 12 d. from the guinea, so that the gold may bear the same proportion to the silver money in England, which it ought to do by the course of trade and exchange in Europe; but, if only 6 d. were taken off at present, it would diminish the temptation to export or melt down the silver-coin, and by the effects would shew hereafter, better than can appear at present, what further reduction would be most convenient for the public.

In the last year of king William, the dollars of Scotland, worth about 4 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, were put away in the north of England for 5 s. and at this price began to flow in upon us; I gave notice thereof to the lords commissioners of the treasury, and they ordered the collectors of taxes to forbear taking them, and thereby put a stop to the mischief.

At the same time, the louis d'ors of France, which were worth but 17 s. and three farthings a-piece, passed in England for 17 s. 6 d. I gave notice thereof to the lords commissioners of the treasury, and his late majesty put out a proclamation that they should go but at 17 s. and thereupon they came to the mint, and 1,400,000 l. were coined out of them; and, if the advantage of 5 d. one farthing a louis d'or sufficed, at that time, to bring into England so great a quantity of French money, and the advantage of three farthings in a louis d'or to bring it to the mint, the advantage of 9 d. halfpenny in a guinea, or above, may have been sufficient to bring the great quantity of gold which hath been coined in these last 15 years, without any foreign silver.

Some years ago the Portugal moldores were received in the west of England at 28 s. a-piece; upon notice from the mint that they were worth only about 27 s. 7 d., the lords commissioners of the treasury ordered their receivers of taxes to take them at no more than 27 s. 6 d. Afterwards, many gentlemen in the west sent up to the treasury a petition, that the receivers might take them again at 28 s. and promised to get returns for this money at this rate, alledging, that when they went at 28 s. their country was full of gold, which they wanted very much: but the commissioners of the treasury considering, that at 28 s. the nation would lose 5 d. a-piece, rejected the petition. And, if an advantage to the merchant of 5 d. in 28 s. did pour that money in upon us, much more hath an advantage to the merchant of 9 d. halfpenny in a guinea, or above, been able to bring into the Mint great quantities of gold without any foreign silver, and may be able to do so still, 'till the cause be removed.

If things be let alone 'till silver-money be a little scarcer, the gold will fall of itself; for people are already backward to give silver for gold, and will, in a little time, refuse to make payments in silver without a premium, as they do in Spain, and this premium will be an abatement in the value of gold: and so the question is, whether gold shall be lowered by the government, or let it alone 'till it falls of itself, by the want of silver-money?

It may be said, that there are great quantities of silver in plate, and, if the plate were coined, there would be no want of silver-money: but I reckon that silver is safer from exportation in the form of plate than in the form of money, because of the greater value of the silver and fashion together; and, therefore, I am not for coining the plate, 'till the temptation to export the silver-money (which is a profit of 2 d. or 3 d. an ounce) be diminished: for, as often as men are necessitated to send away money for answering debts abroad, there will be a temptation to send away silver rather than gold, because of the profit, which is almost 4 per cent. And, for the same reason, foreigners will chuse to send hither their gold rather than their silver.

Mint-office, Sept. 21, 1717. All which is most humbly submitted to your lordships great wisdom,

ISAAC NEWTON.

As this is a point of no little importance to the interests of commerce, I would not willingly omit any useful matter, that may give due light into it; and therefore shall quote the sentiments of the celebrated Marquis Belloni, merchant and banker at Rome, in his Dissertation on Commerce, which has been published since the commencement of this work.

1. Though, says he, we have already shewn what is understood by the proportion between gold and silver, and how that was settled at it's first institution; yet, as it is a matter of the greatest consequence to trade, and, when not duly regarded, may greatly distress a state; it is necessary to dwell longer on this subject, and observe the various cases, in which the alteration of this proportion cannot fail to produce some remarkable effects.—When gold and silver assumed the form of money, both these metals had affixed to them a determinate value: and though, in former ages, the proportion between them was so settled, that every ounce of gold was equivalent nearly to 12 ounces of silver; yet afterwards, when America was discovered, gold came to be of such esteem, that the ounce was equal nearly in value to 15 ounces of silver.—This was occasioned, we may believe, by the greater increase of silver from the mines. As this regulation was founded on the greater or lesser quantity of one of these metals, the present proportion of 1 to 15 does not seem so well adjusted as might be wished. Because, from the present scarcity of silver, which is owing to the great sums of that coin that are carried to the East-Indies, the custom of working large quantities of silver into plate, and to the decrease in the produce of the mines, the price of gold seems to be raised too high; and it were much to be wished, that it were reduced to it's just proportion.

2. The equality between gold and silver being duly adjusted, all other interior kinds of money, of the same standard, would be subjected to the same rule, whereby many inconveniencies and mischiefs would be prevented. For it is not possible to disregard this proportion, but the certain loss of the one or the other of the species must ensue; since, either of them being raised in its extrinsic value, the other will be carried out of the kingdom, or wrought into plate. But, before we explain the effects, which proceed from the want of this proportion, it may be proper to refute a certain opinion, prevalent in most countries, which is, that, in regulating the current value of money among ourselves, we ought to have regard to the practice of neighbouring countries.—This is a mistake of too capital a nature, that it is of the last consequence to have it quite obliterated from the minds of men. And, though some endeavour to establish this error by the similitude of a river, which, raised above it's banks by the additional water of a land-flood, overflows two states, and thereby obliges that which lies on the lower ground, for it's own security, to keep a watchful eye over that which lies highest, and on the banks of the same river; it may be answered, that this similitude has no relation to the present purpose; and that, setting aside the case of which we took notice, that it would be the interest of all Europe to alter the proportion that now obtains between the two metals, that are the materials of money, in all other particular circumstances no variation ought to be admitted therein. And it is very easy to demonstrate, that, in regulating the current value of the coin of a kingdom, it is of no moment to regard the conduct of neighbouring states.

3. For if we suppose, for example's sake, a kingdom in which the values of the metals are so adjusted, that, according to the common system of kingdoms, the gold and silver are rated in a due proportion to each other; and that, with respect to trade, it is also upon an equal footing with foreign countries: if, I say, matters are thus settled within the kingdom, I do not see what reason it can have to apprehend any disadvantage or injury from it's neighbours.—On the contrary, if the circumstances of a neighbouring country, in consequence of having it's money-system regulated by a wrong proportion, could have any influence on this kingdom, it must certainly be to it's benefit rather than otherwise. If we suppose, that in a neighbouring principality the money-system is so regulated, that either of the two species is rated too high in respect of the other; it will follow, that the species which is estimated below the just proportion, will remove out of this principality, and be carried in great quantities into the neighbouring kingdom, in lieu of the species that will go into the former, as the price of the money that has the greatest intrinsic value. To make this matter more intelligible by an instance, let us suppose, that in any place the money-system is so constituted, that gold is estimated at a lower rate in respect of silver, than the just and exact proportion between these metals doth admit; in this case, the gold will go out of that country, and at the same time that it moves into another, and draws the silver-money from thence, it will carry into the latter a profit equal to the difference between the price the gold is rated at in the former, and it's true intrinsic value. And, if the kingdom that receives this great advantage, be also supposed to adopt the usual practice of estimating foreign money, at no more than

the simple price of gold or silver in bullion, as the rules of a well regulated mint require, it will also gain an additional profit from the metal itself so imported. But whereas, at the same time that this kingdom reaps so much profit, it will be exposed to one particular inconvenience, viz. that, while it abounds with gold, it will, in some measure, labour under a scarcity of silver, it will be no difficult matter to remedy any disadvantage, that by this means may be occasioned to trade: for, by bringing down the foreign gold in this same kingdom to the proportion which prevails in the neighbouring states, the end will be attained.

4. But, because this affair of money is a matter of such importance, that it ought not to be passed over in a superficial manner, but be thoroughly examined into, before we proceed to other things relating to the necessity of a proportion in commerce; it will be proper to make some reflections on the custom whereby, to keep the money of a kingdom within itself, it has been ordered and enforced by laws, that no money be carried out of the kingdom. And, because it is my intention to lay down, with candor and sincerity, what may be of the greatest use to promote commerce and good economy in states and kingdoms, I must say, yet without design to offend against the reverence that is due to the regulations of those that are at the helm of affairs in states and republics, that this prohibition, if other prudent measures, proper to promote the end, be not employed, will not prove an effectual remedy. See the articles *BALANCE OF TRADE, CIRCULATION, CASH.*

5. And, seeing the design is to prevent the exportation of money, another method, in my opinion, ought to be pursued, and that is, rather to have recourse to SUCH EXPEDIENTS AS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO PRESERVE THE BALANCE OF TRADE [and this, I will humbly presume to say, is the whole tenor and design of this Universal Dictionary of Trade and Commerce, to Great-Britain and Ireland, and it's Colonies and Plantations in America, and it's settlements in the East-Indies and Africa] since it is most certain, that, whenever the commerce of a state stands upon this equal footing, it's money must of consequence continue in it; but, when the equilibrium is disturbed, and the balance is against the state, it's money must be carried to foreign nations to pay for the excess of goods imported, above those that have been exported; and, to conclude, if the balance of trade is in it's favour, the money must not only continue in it, but also increase and multiply. [See the articles *GREAT BRITAIN, BRITISH AMERICA, MONEY, EXCHANGE.*] Since then, this is the true state of the matter, and that from the three cases we have proposed, the effects already intimated must necessarily follow; it is very evident, that the remedies which consist merely in prohibiting the exportation of money, do not reach the cause and root of the distemper, nor prevent the evils that spring from the prevalence of a PASSIVE COMMERCE. [See the article *BULLION.*]

6. And, to give a more convincing proof of the truth of this, let us suppose a kingdom, whose passive commerce is greater than it's active, and that the subjects are so obedient to their prince, that they carry not one farthing out of his dominions: what will follow in such a case? Supposing that the balance of trade is against that kingdom, and that it has contracted a debt to foreigners; unless these foreigners, by a strange and unexpected generosity, should think proper to remit the whole of that sum of money, which they have a right to exact, for the excess of the commodities imported above the value of the goods exported out of that kingdom; the price of exchange will, in this event, rise so high to the prejudice of the subjects thereof, that if money be not exported in great quantities, and no other means be left for paying the debt but that of exchange, the subjects will be reduced to such distress, for want of commodities to dispose of for relieving their credit, that, to cancel the debts they have contracted for goods, they will be obliged to return those very goods which they have purchased for their own consumption. While, on the contrary, strangers, who have contracted any debt in that kingdom, or want to raise money for purchasing goods, will have the advantage of exchanges as much under par, as the subjects of the said kingdom will find them raised above it in other markets, to the benefit of foreigners. In this situation of affairs, if the sovereign of that kingdom shall exert himself to stop the course of money, which will naturally go out of his dominions, and rather chuse to apply a direct, though unnatural, remedy to this evil, which is but an effect of the passive commerce his subjects are engaged in, and the active trade carried on by foreigners, than to think of proper means to cut off the cause and root of the distemper, every one sees to how little purpose his pains will be bestowed. From all which we are put under an indispensable necessity to conclude, that there is not a better, nor more certain means, to keep money from going out of a kingdom, than to take particular care, that commerce with other kingdoms be constantly kept upon an equal footing at least, and that an exact and true proportion be preserved between gold and silver.

7. This opinion of ours, with regard to the provision which ought to be made for money, is confirmed by that celebrated

expression of the famous M. Colbert of France; for this great man used to say, That whenever a kingdom has the *BALANCE OF FOREIGN TRADE AGAINST IT*, and is engaged in a passive commerce, supposing it were possible, that, in such a case, a wall could be drawn quite round it, to prevent the exportation of money; if the *LEAST HOLE* is left in that wall, we ought to conclude, that, by this very hole, the money would find it's way out.

8. Since we have already proved, that these two things, to wit, the keeping of commerce constantly in equilibrium, and maintaining an exact proportion between gold and silver, are essential points of good conduct, with regard to the preservation of money; and sufficiently shewn how, by the prevalence of passive commerce, money comes to move out of a kingdom into other states; we must now proceed to examine how, without the influence of a particular state of commerce, we shall here suppose to be in equilibrium, a mere variation from the just proportion that ought to be observed between gold and silver, with respect to other nations, may be the occasion of very great disadvantages to a kingdom in the affair of money. Suppose then, that in a particular kingdom, we imagine, a money-system prevails, that shall raise the gold above it's real value, and that in this regulation, instead of the common proportion of 1 to 15 that now obtains, an ounce of gold is allowed to be equivalent to 16 ounces of silver: since such an alteration would raise the gold $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. above it's value, and reduce the silver to just so much below it's worth: it is evident, that this increase of the current price of gold would naturally cause the silver to be exported out of that kingdom; and, as gold would be imported in it's stead, and increase greatly, the nation must unavoidably lose $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of all the silver that would be thus exported.

9. On the other hand, should the silver-money be raised above it's value, so that 14 ounces should be esteemed equivalent to an ounce of gold; while the proportion should stand thus, the silver-money would not only continue in the kingdom, but also increase greatly, and the gold coin would be exported in the same proportion, and the nation would lose upon it $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Moreover, from either of these variations, two absurdities would follow; the one is, that both the prince and the people would lose of that part of their monied-property $6\frac{2}{3}$, if the above disproportion should fall upon the gold coin; and $7\frac{1}{2}$, if it should fall upon the silver. The other inconvenience would be, that there would be no specie to circulate in the kingdom but either gold only, or silver only, according as the one or the other of these metals should happen to be estimated above it's true proportion.

10. As we have separately considered two evils in commerce, the one when the balance thereof is against a kingdom, and the other when the exact proportion between gold and silver is not duly regarded, and have shewn what loss may be sustained by means of either singly, without the concurrence of the other; let us now examine of what dangerous consequence these two disorders may prove to the public stock, when they meet together in the same kingdom. Let us then suppose a state is in such a situation, that it lies under the weight of a passive commerce with foreign nations, and, at the same time, in it's regulations with regard to money, matters are so disposed, that, neglecting the common proportion of 15 ounces of silver to 1 of gold, they allow 16 ounces of the former for one of the latter: it is certain, that, in such a disposition of affairs, this kingdom will be exposed to two great disadvantages; whereof that will certainly be the greatest, which proceeds from it's having the balance of trade against it; for, thereby, the foreign exchanges will rise high, by which means the money of that kingdom will be carried into other states in greater or smaller quantities, as this balance of trade is more or less against it: the other disadvantage will be, that, by reason of the extravagant price of gold, the silver will be carried out of the kingdom. Moreover, a disadvantage arising from the first of these causes will be, that this kingdom will lose so much of it's effective cash, as will amount to the price of all those commodities which are brought from abroad, above the proportion of the goods that are exported out of it; and a second, proceeding from the like cause, will be, that in this loss will be comprehended another, by which the kingdom, on account of the difference of the price, arising from the disproportion of gold above silver, will lose $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. and to the former two we may add a third loss, consisting in the scarcity of silver coin, which is most commonly used in domestic trade.

11. On the other hand, if the silver money is raised above it's intrinsic worth, the same consequence will follow with respect to gold coin. For, if we suppose a regulation made, by which 14 ounces of silver, and no more, shall be accounted equivalent to an ounce of gold, immediately after it's value is thus diminished, the gold coin will be carried out of the kingdom; and, besides the loss the kingdom sustains by the balance of trade being against it, such kingdom will lose likewise by the exportation of gold $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. over and above the scarcity of gold it will labour under.

12. Besides, whether the disproportion supposed to be introduced into the money-system affect the gold or silver coin, in

in either case the kingdom will suffer alike: to avoid which disadvantages, reason should seem to require, that these two metals be regulated in their proportion, according to that system, which ought to serve as a constant and universal rule to all, and is the general practice of the kingdoms of Europe; that is, to fix unalterably the proportion between gold and silver, taking the measure thereof, with respect to more or less, from the most considerable and distinguished parts of Europe; it being proper to take our rules in this matter from such, and, indeed, several kingdoms have already taken those proper methods, to prevent the scarcity of silver.

13. And because it seems to be of some use to consider all the possible circumstances of a kingdom, which, for example's sake, we are allowed to suppose, that we may inquire into the consequences that will follow from each of them; in order to satisfy the desires of those who have a curiosity to know the various effects of the several conditions of any state, let another situation of a kingdom be proposed.—Suppose then that this kingdom, by having the balance of trade against it, is subjected to a passive commerce with foreigners; but, with regard to its regulations in the affair of money, suppose them to be such, that the just proportion is observed between the two metals: how would we know what will follow from this situation of affairs? This will be a new sort of disorder, and worse, perhaps, than any other; since it is manifest, that both the gold and silver will be equally carried out of such a kingdom; whence so great loss and detriment will follow, that it will be proper to shut up the mint, and coin no more money. For, as the balance of commerce is supposed to be against the nation, it will keep the exchange high, in proportion to the excess of the passive above the active commerce of the state: and, as gold and silver bullion must be purchased abroad, which can only be done by exchange, these materials will cost more than the money to be made out of them; for though, with respect to money, it is the prerogative of the prince to determine the weight, fineness, and value, not only of gold, but also of silver coin; yet he has not the right of fixing the price of those metals in bullion, this privilege belonging solely to commerce, which also regulates the course of exchange. Wherefore from hence, and what has been already said, it may very plainly appear how the coining of money, in such circumstances, must be attended with inevitable loss.—It now remains that we shew, how it may come to pass that, supposing a kingdom has the balance of trade against it, and that the proportion which ought to obtain between the two metals is not observed in it, money may, notwithstanding, continue to be coined, for some time, without disadvantage. For,

14. Suppose that, in this variation from the true proportion between the two species, the gold happens to be overvalued; in this case, as has been often observed, it will follow of consequence, that the gold will remain in the kingdom, and the silver will be carried out of it, in greater or less quantities, according to the greatness of the balance of commerce that is against it, and the degree of the supposed variation from the proportion that ought to subsist between the two metals. Mean time, because the silver coin will bear a greater price abroad, and will be exported to pay the debt contracted to foreigners, for want of commodities to compensate those that were imported; the balance of trade being thus discharged, by the silver so exported, the exchanges will be kept low, and, by means thereof, gold may be purchased to be coined into money.—But this will cost no less than, in the first place, the loss of all the silver coin, and, after that, of the gold also, if the balance of trade still continues against the nation; and then, the exchanges rising still higher and higher, the kingdom will fall daily into greater and greater distress. And what we have said of gold may, with the same justice, be said of silver, if it is raised above its worth; since, from the overvaluing of silver, the same kind of effects will follow which have been observed already, when we supposed gold to be raised above its just rate.

15. But, because what we have hitherto offered will be of little use, if, after having discovered the sources of national loss and distress, we cannot fall upon the means for applying proper remedies: wherefore, that these observations may not serve merely to gratify a vain and fruitless curiosity, we shall, throughout the course of this practical and political Dictionary of Commerce, humbly propose expedients for bringing into a proper method those things that may be amiss in a state, or at least not altogether consistent with good order and government; which, possibly, may be capable not only of satisfying the desires of such as want to have a thorough knowledge of commerce, but also furnish proper hints to those who may be zealous to establish, upon a solid foundation, and, at the same time, strengthen and improve the riches and power of a nation. See the articles ARBITRATION of Exchanges, BALANCE of Trade, BRITAIN, of GREAT-BRITAIN, CASH, CIRCULATION of Money, EXCHANGE, MONEY, and such other heads to which from those we shall refer.

The laws of England relating to COIN.

By 20 Ed. I. merchants are prohibited from trafficking with

money, and importing clipped coin, &c. on pain of forfeiture.

Gold or silver plate, or coin, not to be exported without licence, on pain of forfeiture. Search to be made for false coin imported. 9 Ed. III. c. 1.

Money not to be impaired in weight or alloy. 25 Ed. III. c. 13.

No coin to be current but the king's own, and any person may refuse foreign coin. 27 Ed. III. c. 14.

Foreign coin not to be current in England, but to be melted down. 17 Rich. II. c. 1.

Coin or plate found in the custody of persons ready to pass the seas, or in any ship, to be forfeited to the king. 2 Hen. IV. c. 5.

By 3 Hen. V. c. 6. it was first made treason to clip or file money.

Gold to be received in payment by the king's weight. 9 Hen. V. c. 11.

Mint-master to keep to his assay, and receive silver at the true value, on pain of double damages. 2 Hen. VI. c. 12.

Coins of gold and silver to continue current notwithstanding some of them are cracked or worn, but not if they are clipped. Monies clipped to be exchanged at the Mint. Coin transported to Ireland above 6s 8d. or Irish coin imported above 3s 4d. to be forfeited. A circle to be made round the outside of money. 19 Hen. VII. c. 5. Halfpence and farthings to have stamps; and, when the bullion is under 100l. the owner to have a tenth part in halfpence. 14 and 15 H. VIII. c. 12.

Counterfeiting, impairing, &c. of coin, or foreign coin made current, is made high treason, by 14 Eliz. c. 3, 4. and 18 Eliz. c. 1, 7.

Silver coin melted down to be forfeited, and double value. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 31.

Gold and silver delivered into the Mint, to be assayed, coined, and delivered out, according to the order and time of bringing in. A duty of 10s. per ton on wine, beer, &c. and 20s. for brandy imported, granted for the expence of coinage, which is not to exceed in officers, &c. 3000l. per annum. 18 Car. II. c. 5.

The 25th Car. II. c. 8. directs the levying of the duties supra, &c. and the 18th Car. II. revived and continued by 1 Jac. II.

The 3d, 5th, and 12th of Will. III. c. 7. continue the two former.

Refusing to receive cracked money in payment, to forfeit 5l. 4 and 5 Will. & Mar. c. 16.

Advancing unclipped money to forfeit 10l. for every 20s. Buying or selling clippings or filings, 500l. penalty. Persons melting coin to be imprisoned six months, besides forfeiture, &c. Persons apprehending money-coiners, clippers, &c. to have 40l. reward; and guilty persons discovering two others to be pardoned, &c. 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 17.

Persons bringing plate to the Mint to be coined, not to pay for coinage; but to have the same weight of money delivered out. Persons keeping public houses to have no manufactured plate but spoons. Molten silver, or bullion, not to be shipped off without a certificate from the lord mayor, that oath has been made it is foreign bullion, under the penalty of 200l. and officers may seize the bullion as forfeited. Gold or silver not exceeding 200,000l. may be exported by a licence. Guineas not to go for more than 22s. 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 19.

Hammered silver coin brought to the Mint to be received at 5s. 4d. per ounce. Receivers of taxes, &c. to receive money at 5s. 8d. per ounce 'till such a time, afterwards at 5s. 2d. only. Coin not clipped within the innermost ring to be received in tale, and not by weight. 8 Will. III. c. 2. Monies received by the Mint, &c. at 5s. 4d. per ounce, and 5s. 8d. per ounce, to be delivered back to the bringers in, and receivers, &c. to be paid into the exchequer with an allowance of the deficiency in recoining; silver plate, &c. to contain 11 ounces and 10 penny weights of fine silver in every pound, and to be marked with the two first letters of the worker's name, on pain of forfeiture. Plate received at 5s. 4d. per ounce to be melted down. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 7. 8.

By 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26. it is high treason to make any stamp, die, mould, &c. for coining, except by persons employed in the Mint, &c. conveying such out of the Mint, the same; colouring metal resembling coin like gold or silver, or marking it on the edges, is likewise treason; and mixing blanchéd copper with silver, to make it heavier, and look like gold, or receiving or paying counterfeit milled money, is felony. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26.

Hammered silver coin may be refused in payment, as not being the lawful coin of this kingdom. 9 Will. III. c. 2.

Any person may cut, break, or deface pieces of silver money suspected to be counterfeit, or diminished otherwise than by wearing; but if they appear to be money, &c. shall stand to the loss. 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 21.

No person to make or coin any farthings or halfpence, or pieces to go for such, of copper, under the penalty of 5l. for every pound weight. 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 33.

By 4 and 5 Ann. c. 22 the lord treasurer is impowered to issue,

issue, out of the monies arising by the coinage duty, the sum of 500*l.* above the sum of 3000*l.* allowed yearly for the use of the Mint.

The 7 Ann. c. 24. makes 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26. perpetual; and continues 18 Car. II. c. 5. for seven years.

On a scarcity of silver coin, for remedy, guineas were sunk to 2*s.* by proclamation. 3 Geo. I.

The coinage duty on wine, beer, &c. and brandy imported, is continued; and the Treasury to cause money to be applied for defraying the expences of the Mint; so as with the coinage duties it exceed not 15,000*l.* a year for England and Scotland. 4 Geo. II. c. 12. 12 Geo. II. c. 5. 19 Geo. II. c. 14.

Persons counterfeiting broad pieces of gold, or uttering them knowingly, to be guilty of treason. 6 Geo. II. c. 26.

Washing, gilding, or altering the impression of any real or counterfeit shilling or sixpence, or brass-money, to make the one pass for a guinea or half-guinea, or the other for a shilling or six-pence, is high treason. Knowingly uttering false money, for the first offence six months imprisonment, for the second two years imprisonment, and the third felony without benefit of clergy. If any person, knowingly uttering false money, shall have about him any other false money, or within ten days after utter any other false money, he shall suffer a year's imprisonment; and coiners of halfpence or farthings to suffer two years imprisonment, &c. 15 Geo. II. c. 28.

COLONIES. Under the article **BRITAIN**, or **GREAT-BRITAIN**, and that also of **BRITISH AMERICA**, I have considered the plantations in certain lights, consistent with the interest of the nation in general, as well as that of our planters and merchants concerned in the commerce of those plantations in particular.—I shall here consider them in other lights, consonant to the same principles.

REMARKS.

It has been a matter of doubt with some, whether our colonies in America have not proved prejudicial to Great-Britain; and a moot point with others, whether any advantage to it. It is certain, that a country which takes no care to encourage an accession of strangers, will, in a course of years, find plantations of pernicious consequence.—The colonies in America have proved highly detrimental to the Spaniards; but this is owing to the nature of their government; the Inquisition frights away strangers, their monasteries prevent marriages, and there is no provision at all to repair what their colonies drain them of: whereas the Hollanders, who send out greater numbers every year than the Spaniards, are not depopulated by it; their constitution inviting more over to them than they send abroad; and in the British colonies all foreigners may be made denizens for an inconsiderable charge; whereby many of all nations are encouraged to settle and plant in our Indies; the crown thereby gains subjects of them and their posterity, and the nation gains wealth by their labour and industry. There is also reason to think, that, for some years, the plantations have sent, of their offspring, and the persecutions abroad have brought over to his majesty's dominions, as many people as went from them. Wherefore, we may safely advance, that our trade and navigation are greatly increased by our colonies, and that they really are a source of treasure and naval power to this kingdom, since they work for us, and their treasure centers here.

It is true, indeed, if a breach of the act of navigation, or any other beneficial act relating to our plantations, should be connived at, or broke through in any particular that would prove injurious to the kingdom, even our own plantations may become more profitable to other nations than to this; but, while the governors, and the other officers under the crown, whose business it is to take care hereof, do their duty, they can never prove detrimental to the nation.

By insisting that no breach in the navigation, or other act of the legislature, should be made, which has been enacted for the mutual benefit of England and her colonies, I would not have it inferred, that I am against permitting the inhabitants of our colonies to trade with each other, or that they should be prohibited to trade to the colonies of foreign nations, or carry their product, according as the law at present tolerates, directly to foreign countries. For, by our colonies trading, under judicious national restrictions, with those of other nations, we, in some measure, render foreign colonies and plantations the colonies and plantations of Great-Britain; which brings me to observe, that all laws in our southern plantations which lay high duties on sugar, indico, ginger, and other West-India commodities, imported into them, when impartially considered, will be found not only prejudicial to them, but to the general trade and navigation of their mother kingdom; and therefore it is our interest, and should be our care, that no laws laying such duties should remain in force, or be passed for the future. For

The inhabitants, by carrying on a trade with their foreign neighbours, do not only occasion a greater quantity of the goods and merchandizes of Europe being sent from hence to them, and a greater quantity of the product of America to be sent from them hither, which would otherwise be carried from, and brought to Europe by foreigners, but an increase

of the seamen, and navigation in those parts; which is of great strength and security, as well as of great advantage, to our plantations in general.

The commodities they bring from the countries wherewith they trade, whether indico, cocheneal, logwood, and other dyeing-woods, cotton-wool, saffaparilla, and other drugs, &c. are such as are either re-exported from Great-Britain, or useful to us in working up our own manufactures, or such as we should need, and must send for, at a much dearer rate, from the mother-country of those people with whom our's may trade in America.

And though some of our colonies are not only for preventing the importation of all goods of the same species they produce, but suffer particular planters to keep great runs of land in their possession uncultivated, with design to prevent new settlements, whereby they imagine the prices of their commodities may be affected; yet if it be considered, that the markets in Great-Britain depend on the markets of all Europe in general, and that the European markets in general depend on the proportion between the annual consumption and the whole quantity of each species annually produced by all nations; it must follow, that whether we or foreigners are the producers, carriers, importers, and exporters of American produce, yet their respective prices in each colony (the difference of freight, customs, and importations considered) will always bear proportion to the general consumption of the whole quantity of each sort, produced in all colonies, and in all parts; allowing only for the usual contingencies that trade and commerce, agriculture and manufactures, are liable to in all countries.

If this be admitted, then it must certainly be the true interest of our colonies, as well as of their mother-kingdom, to enlarge their settlements, and to suffer the produce of foreign plantations, in English shipping, to be imported to and exported again from Great-Britain; for narrow-limited notions in trade and planting are only advanced by, and can only be of use to, particular persons, but are always injurious to the public interests, in preventing the full employment of our own people, and giving our rivals and competitors in trade the opportunity of employing greater numbers of theirs, producing greater quantities of merchandizes, and underselling us at foreign markets.

If a trade should be carried on, by which the product of our colonies (except liquors and provisions) should be sold to foreigners, and our colonies, in return, receive the goods and merchandizes of any foreign country in Europe, for consumption among them, it would certainly be greatly prejudicial to the trade and navigation of Great-Britain; but this is pretty well provided against by the act of navigation, and other subsequent acts, and, if not sufficiently so, the wisdom of the nation will doubtless occasionally enact such laws as shall prove effectual in this respect.

The produce of our American colonies may be considered under two heads, viz. those that produce commodities of a different nature to this kingdom, and those that produce commodities of the same nature.—Those under the first class, are Virginia, Maryland, Barbadoes, Antego, Montserrat, Nevis, St Christopher's, and Jamaica, whose products are tobacco, sugar, indico, cotton, ginger, and sundry kinds of drugs and dyeing woods.—Those under the second class, are New England, New York, Carolina, Pennsylvania, &c. whose products are beef, pork, bread, beer, pease, rice, &c. cod-fish, mackerel, &c. masts, boards, staves, &c. furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, train-oil.—The product of the first is of a different nature to what is produced from the lands of Great-Britain; and, of the quantities thereof imported, such a part has been annually re-exported, as hath proved one great means of the balance we have had from abroad, with those countries which take large quantities of our plantation commodities. The produce of the other is not of a different nature, unless rice, train oil, &c. and might be sent, indeed, to our sugar-colonies from Great-Britain.

But, however the countries under the latter head may interfere with the produce of this kingdom, yet it is certainly highly the interest of Great-Britain to preserve, increase, maintain, and encourage it's colonies on the continent of America, since the French, as I have shewn under the article **BRITISH AMERICA**, have settled, and are daily increasing their colonies and plantations upon the same continent, and contiguous thereunto, as if they aimed either at wresting them out of our hands, or so awing them as to render them of little use to us. [This was the case of France, with regard to Britain, before the **DEFINITIVE TREATY** of 1763.] See **AMERICA**. And, if these colonies should ever fall into French hands, it will not be possible, I apprehend, to maintain a ballance of trade and power in America; and who will imagine that we can maintain them, after that, in Europe?

The value of tobacco from Virginia and Maryland, annually imported from thence, exclusive of the customs, is computed at 600,000*l.* about two-thirds of which are re-exported; and the like value of the sugars, indico, ginger, cotton, &c. annually imported from our island colonies, is 1,300,000*l.* about one-third of which is also re-exported.

It is computed, likewise, that there is exported from Great-Britain and Ireland, to the several colonies belonging to the

crown in America, to the value of 850,000l; and that the importations from them all, including silver and gold, &c. are to the value of 2,600,000l. so that, over and above what we send to our colonies in our manufactures, produce, and foreign commodities, we have a ballance, in return thereof, to the value of 1,750,000l. which centers and remains among us, and is not like such a ballance in foreign trade, as must be carried out again directly in money, or in bills of exchange, to any other part of the world.

It is true our northern colonies do not make us returns of themselves in proportion to what they take annually from us, and yield commodities of little value, and yet have most drained us of people; but, if it were otherwise, the trade of our island colonies could not, perhaps, be carried on to so great advantage to their mother-country; for those soils which produce the most estimable commodities, are not so proper to cultivate for corn, beef, pork, pease, &c. But, if they were, their hands are much more beneficially employed for the interest of Great-Britain. Besides, the southern plantations, in time of war, would be destitute of many necessaries, or obliged to employ their hands in planting provisions, &c. were it not for the vicinity of the northern colonies.

It may be said, indeed, that these provisions might be furnished from Great-Britain, but at so dear a rate, as would, perhaps, much discourage those plantations; for, besides their being all considerably dearer, so some kinds of them could neither be so good nor so fresh.

Though our northern colonies may furnish our southern with provisions, which might be sent from hence, yet they make it ample compensation by taking from it variety of manufactures, all sorts of cloaths and furniture, much oftener renewed, and as good as the same number of people could afford to have at home. Whether, therefore, the northern colonies are beneficial to Great-Britain or no, depends on making a right ballance between the commodities we send thither, and the provisions we might send to the southern colonies, if they were not supplied by the northern.—But the present course of trade seems most nationally advantageous, by reason that the provisions which we might send to Barbadoes, &c. would be the unimproved product of the earth, as grain of all kinds, or salt beef, pork, &c. whereas the goods we send to the northern colonies, are such whose improvements may be justly said, one with another, to be near four-fifths of the value of the whole commodities, as apparel, household-furniture, &c.

If our northern colonies should pretend to set up manufactures, and so cloath, as well as feed, their neighbours and fellow-subjects in the southern colonies, their nearness and low price would give them such advantage over this nation, as might prove of pernicious consequence. But this fear seems remote, unless they are discouraged from raising provision, &c. and materials in general for variety of manufactures; as were the people of Virginia and Maryland, for some time, in planting tobacco, by the high impositions laid upon its importation into this kingdom; who, in several counties in these colonies, made shoes, stockings, hats, linnen and woollen goods, not only for their own, but the use of their neighbours. Which it is our interest to prevent, and to encourage them in planting, and such other branches of trade as interfere with the trade of other countries, not with that of our own.—THIS SEEMS TO BE THE NATURAL WAY TO RENDER COLONIES USEFUL TO THEIR MOTHER-COUNTRY; AND A NEGLECT IN THIS GREAT POINT TO MAKE THEM QUITE OTHERWISE.

Those who may be any way doubtful whether our colonies and plantations have been, or still are beneficial to these kingdoms, should consider what the condition of this country was before we had any plantations: in regard to which I think it may be truly affirmed, that it was very low and despicable. In the victorious reign of Edward III. there was a ballance of trade struck, and delivered into the Exchequer, by which it appeared, that the exports of one year exceeded the imports by 1.255,214 : 13 : 8; which, for that time, was a large sum. At the time queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced 36,000l. a year.—At the Restoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution.

The people of London, before we had any plantations, and but very little trade, were computed at about 100,000.—At the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increased to 150,000, and are now about six times that number.—In those days we had not only our naval stores, but our ships from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linnen, and a thousand other things, came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugar; all the products of America were poured into us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East-Indies, at their own price.—In short, the legal interest of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our lands 10 or 12 years purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small, and the whole shipping of the nation much infe-

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rior to what now belongs to the northern colonies only.—These are certain facts. But, as soon as we began to extend our trade, and to make plantation-settlements abroad, the face of our affairs changed; the inhabitants of the city of London doubled before the end of the last period, and were again doubled before the end of this; our shipping increased in a still greater proportion; we coined, within 20 years after that queen's death, about five millions at the Tower; in 20 years after that seven millions, and in the next 20 years eight millions; which are indubitable proofs, that we had gained a prodigious ballance of trade in our favour.

The next matter to be considered is, what our condition has been since we have established colonies and plantations? And, with respect to this, I may venture to affirm that it has altered for the better, almost to a degree beyond credibility.—Our manufactures are prodigiously increased, chiefly by the demand for them in the plantations, where they at least take off one half, and supply us with many valuable commodities for re-exportation, which is as great an emolument to the mother-kingdom as to the plantations themselves.

Instead, also, of taking the quantities of foreign commodities from other nations, as we were wont to do, we actually, by means of our plantations, export those very goods, and sometimes to the very same nations from whence we formerly imported them; sugar, rum, tobacco, are the sources of private wealth and public revenue, which would have proved so many drains, that would have impoverished us, had they not been raised in our own colonies.—It is now no longer in the power of the Russians to make us pay what they please for hemp and flax.—The Swedes cannot, as they have heretofore done, compel us to pay their own price, and that too in ready money, for pitch and tar; [see the article NAVAL STORES] nor would it be in their power to distress us, should they attempt it, by raising the prices of copper and iron.—Logwood, and other dyeing woods, are sunk 75 per cent.—Indico, and other materials for dyeing also, are in our power, and at moderate prices.—In fine, the advantages are infinite that redound to us from our American empire, where we have, at least, a million of British subjects, and between 1500 and 2000 fail of shipping constantly employed; and they will daily increase in consequence of our NEW AMERICAN acquisitions, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. [See the article AMERICA.]—Such have been the fruits, such is the condition of our plantations, and let any man doubt of the benefits resulting from them to this nation, if he can.

When our colonies were in their INFANCY, they were some burden to this nation; and this must ever be the case of all plantations at their first settlement. But the national benefit has proved so unpeakably greater, when compared with the FIRST EXPENCE, or any other since to protect them, that it bears no manner of proportion, and is almost beyond the power of computation. Past experience, therefore, shews how impolitic it is to desert infant colonies, whose establishment has been undertaken upon well-grounded motives, for the sake of a few thousand pounds beyond what might be expected, when they are likely to repay their mother-country in a ten thousand-fold degree.—Lord Bacon some where says, That nothing is more mean and ignominious to a nation, than to desert an infant colony, whose establishment has been undertaken upon just and reasonable expectations. See the article BRITISH AMERICA.

The next point to be taken notice of is, the improvements and additional benefits that may be still made in, and accrue from, our plantations. We ought, in this respect, to consider of what great extent that country is which we at present possess in the new world, to which this island does not bear greater proportion than the county of Norfolk to the whole kingdom of GREAT-BRITAIN and IRELAND conjointly considered, since our new acquisitions. Whence we may conceive what room there is for improvements in so vast a tract of territory.

Some of our settlements on the continent, indeed, such as CANADA, New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, are tolerably well peopled; Nova Scotia* is not yet well settled; New Britain is an extensive country, and capable of being turned to our advantage. It is so far from being settled, that it is scarce known to us. The same may be said of all the country bordering on Hudson's-Bay.

* CANADA and it's dependencies must necessarily take reasonable time to well people.

As to the southern continent colonies, as the Carolinas and Georgia, and the FLORIDAS, EAST and WEST, must inevitably prove unpeakably beneficial to GREAT-BRITAIN. See BAHAMA-ISLANDS, FLORIDA, and MEXICO.

The islands of Bermudas and Barbadoes are pretty well peopled, as also most of the Leeward Islands; but there are several islands to which we have as good a title as to any of these, that are not settled at all, though, from the nature

of their climate, soil, and situation, they are superior to most of those of which we are possessed, as shall be shewn hereafter*.

* Hereby I meant the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, which are at present happily annexed to the crown of England, except St Lucia; and, in lieu of that, we have obtained the islands of GRANADA and the GRANADINES.

The noble island of Jamaica, which of itself would enrich any country to which it belonged, is not duly cultivated. So that our colonies may become a greater source of treasure than hitherto they have given us.

To accomplish which end, the measures are obvious.—The first is, improving such of our colonies as are already well settled; the next, providing for the thorough planting such as are at present but very indifferently, or scarce at all, peopled.—In respect to the first, nothing seems more advantageous than providing every colony with some staple commodity, which does not interfere with other of our colonies, and which Europe, and the rest of the world, stand in need of.—This would make the inhabitants of those colonies easy, and render them certainly instrumental to promote the solid interest of their mother-kingdom.

Virginia and Maryland are possessed of the tobacco trade; in which, if any case, encouragement, or advantage, can be granted them, most certainly they deserve it. [See the article TOBACCO.] With respect to New England, Pennsylvania, New York, and the Jerseys, effectual ways and means should be found to augment their commerce with England directly, by promoting their desire and ability to furnish us with all kinds of naval stores, and with what iron we are not able to furnish ourselves, but are obliged to take from foreign nations. See the article IRON.

There was, as to pitch and tar, a considerable bounty given, and for many years, indeed, produced no effect, which, for a time, might possibly countenance an opinion, that the friends to the plantations were too sanguine in their notions on that head; but experience shewed the contrary. For, the circumstances of the public making it necessary to try how far this might be practicable, it very soon appeared that the thing could be easily done; and, upon sending over persons well experienced in the methods of making pitch and tar, the people in the colonies soon fell into it, and such quantities were imported, as not only supplied our wants, but enabled us to supply those of several neighbours; and then, upon a supposition that the trade was effectually established, the bounty was discontinued. And what was the consequence of this measure? Truly, the importation of these commodities from Prussia, Sweden, and Norway, was revived; for the people of those countries, building large bulky ships, peculiarly proper for transporting these commodities, by navigating these ships cheaper than we can do ours, are thereby able to undersell our countrymen in the colonies, by three or four shillings in a barrel: so that, to preserve this trade, there grew a necessity of granting a new bounty upon pitch and tar from America, or laying a new duty upon what was imported from the north. See the article PITCH and TAR.

The same may be said with regard to iron, of which, at present, we import near double as much from Sweden and Russia, as is sold to all the rest of Europe, for which we pay mostly in ready money; yet no question can be made of the practicability of bringing the best part of the iron we want from our plantations; which should, by all means, be done, if it can, 'till we are capable amply of supplying ourselves, by the means of our pit-coal fuel, if a discovery of that nature should ever be made. See the articles COALS and IRON.

In regard to hemp and flax, it is supposed that the Russians exported to England, and all other parts, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be so valuable a product for merchandize with them, there seems to be a much greater prospect of it's being so to ourselves, by raising them effectually in our plantations, because they will not be subject to any land-carriage, but shipped immediately from the place of growth; because land is cheaper in our plantations, than in the south parts of Russia. The climate, being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is supposed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

With respect to the products of sugar and tobacco, 'tis matter of fact, according to Sir Josiah Child, that every white man employs four at home, that is to say, finds them work to supply him with utensils requisite for his work. Now, if sugar and tobacco employ such a number of hands, at home, certainly every person employed in the plantations, in raising and dressing of hemp and flax, must, by his labour, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by sugar and tobacco, for they are manufactured in the plantations: the refining the sugar, and cutting the tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled excepted. Whereas flax and hemp are materials for employing all idle hands; and, of consequence, the poor's rates will soon be abated, and the nation, in a little time, will find what they yearly save thereby, will be more than sufficient to encourage the people to begin that employment to effectual purpose.

And, if once we come to be supplied with hemp and flax by the aforesaid methods, every place will be filled with flax-dressers, and the overseers of the poor in every parish, where the wool-spinning trade is not carried on, may very easily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; for many inconveniences have attended one manufacture interfering with another; besides, there will be an intercourse of trade created, by one part of the kingdom supplying the other with distinct manufactures. This will contribute to give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an universal cheerfulness to every body: for the poor are never happier, than when they have full employment; and, when they are employed, riches are diffused throughout the whole nation.

Certain it is, that there is no want of timber of every sort, for HOUSES, no less than SHIP-BUILDING, in our British North American colonies, the whole taken into consideration, since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. Our NORWAY TRADE has too long drained this kingdom of immense sums of specie, for DEAL-BOARDS, TIMBER, SPARS, BAULKS, and some IRON; they take from us OUR GUINEAS, OUR CROWN PIECES, and BULLION, and but little of our TOBACCO, and a few coarse woollens of no value. The Danes supply not only GREAT-BRITAIN, but HOLLAND, FRANCE, and SPAIN, with so great a quantity of FIR-TIMBER, DEALS, &c. that they do not load therewith so few as 2000 ships a year, and return seven-eighths, at least, of the value, in ready money; and they carry away, perhaps, the greatest quantity of our current coin of any trade whatever; they coveting chiefly our crown and half-crown pieces, which pass more current in Norway than they do in England itself. For the supply of Britain and other nations with the several species of timber beforementioned, the Danes build large bulky ships; and why may not we at present, by means of our North American colonies, supply ourselves with that timber we have so long taken from the Danes, at the expence of a ballance of trade to the disadvantage of this nation, of no less than between 3 and 400,000 pounds per annum.

To the products of hemp and flax, we may add, that potatoes, cocheneal, silk, and cotton, are the produce of East Florida in particular; which will prove a very easy and profitable employment for women and children, as indigo, rice, and other valuable commodities, will be raised by the strength of the men. So that the reader will easily discern, that there is no difficulty at all in the way of enabling these northern colonies to pay us for our manufactures, and therefore nothing should prevent their setting heartily about it.—The same observations will, in a great measure, hold good with regard to our southern island-colonies, such as the planting in great plenty coffee, tea, cacao, indico, and the shrub that produces cocheneal [see these articles]; but, above all, we should by no means forget silk, for reasons that have already been given under the article BRITISH AMERICA: at present we shall only observe, that there is great and extraordinary conveniency attends the cultivation of the last-mentioned commodity; that as it is proper for the same soil and climate, as hemp and flax, so they may be both carried on together; the silk harvest, as it is called, being over before the hemp and flax are ripe. For more matter upon this head, see the article SILK.

As to our sugar-islands, though they have already a staple commodity of very great value, yet this should not hinder us from considering how that commodity may be still rendered more useful, both to the planters, and to Great-Britain in general; and how far also other things are capable of being improved in these islands. It was the opinion of Sir Josiah Child, that sugar may be made as much the commodity of this nation, as the gold and silver of Peru and Mexico are the peculiar treasures of Spain. The reasons he gives are very cogent, but it is certain that we have not yet fallen upon the right method of reducing his doctrine into practice, since, instead of exporting one half of the sugar we bring home, as we formerly did, we do not, at present, export much above one sixth, and this, not from any diminution in the general demand, but because new markets have been found, at which foreigners can buy cheaper. The French, in particular, have so greatly improved their sugar-islands, as to have done us great injury in this capital branch of trade at foreign markets;—which, I am afraid, was owing to our sugar-trade labouring too long under many very great difficulties and discouragements, both at home and abroad.—Indeed, the wisdom of the legislature has removed many of them; but, when the channel of any branch of trade has been diverted, it is no easy matter to bring the same into it's former current. To effectuate this, however, all hands should be set to work, and all arts tried; and, 'till these succeed, our sugar-planters should endeavour to bring other commodities to market. But, how the sugar-trade of our colonies may be greatly advanced, I shall endeavour to shew under the article SUGAR.

It has been computed, by some, that there is not less than a million and a half of white people in our plantations, which computation has been judged by others somewhat of the
highest;

highest; perhaps it may be so, but, without doubt, it would be our interest to have two millions of white people there, and more, and no Negroe-slaves at all; for, with all submission to better judges, I cannot help thinking the slave-trade as nationally disadvantageous, as it is inhuman, cruel, and unchristian-like. See NEGROES and AFRICAN TRADE. Nor do I apprehend, that rendering our colonies populous in whites, instead of blacks, would either drain the British dominions, or at all endanger the dependency of our colonies upon their mother kingdom. On the contrary, I am of opinion with those, who have thought, that the increase of people in the plantations, as it would increase our American trade in general, so it would certainly increase the number of our people at home, and that the methods proper to be taken for the better peopling our colonies, and improving them, would infallibly render them more dependent on their mother-kingdom.

Though the general proposition, that the number of the people is the riches of a country, be true, yet it is true only of industrious and useful people; and it is in this sense, and this only, that the number of people in Holland is quoted as an example: so that, if there be in any country numbers of people useless, they are so far from contributing to the wealth of that country, that they are one great cause of it's poverty. Now, it is certain, that though this nation might become more powerful and more rich, by being more numerous in people than it is; yet there is not any more probable means of accomplishing this, than by employing our useful hands, which, perhaps, may be easier done abroad, in our plantations, than at home. We have prodigious numbers of vagabonds throughout the kingdom, who live no one knows how; there cannot therefore be any cruelty in sending these people, where they shall be compelled to labour, and thereby maintain themselves, and become useful to others. Many people are daily convicted of small crimes, and, from the ignominy of the conviction and punishment, rendered desperate, and come to the gallows: it would certainly be good policy, as well as charity, to put them in the way of honest labour, before they become superlatively wicked.—Multitudes are, from time to time, released out of prison by acts of grace, and many private acts of benevolence, which set them at liberty; but, at the same time, leaves them in a little better condition than the liberty of starving; and who can say, that it would not be highly laudable to find out means for giving these people bread as well as freedom?

I make no doubt, but there are people enough in these kingdoms, who have liberal hearts as well as weighty purses, and who would be glad of an opportunity to raise a proper fund for sending these people abroad; not like transports or negroes, but like unhappy Britons, with due provision for their comfortable maintenance in their passage, and a proper reception in the places they are sent to.—This, as it is a very natural, so it bids fair for a very effectual way to ease our poor's rates, prevent robbers and murderers, stock our colonies with labourers, and enlarge the trade of the nation.

Colonies, in the EAST or WEST INDIES, says the judicious Mr Magens, so far as they take off the useful and laborious, weaken and divide the mother-country; however, some make even this a question, as the sparing of certain numbers, who cannot find means of doing much, is the cause of others living better when they are gone, and of marrying and propagating their species more freely, as is rarely the case of men in distressed circumstances. But, not to extend this argument farther, it is certainly true, that where-ever large colonies are to be planted, it is more politic to encourage foreigners, than to transplant too many of the natives: but it may be justly observed, that both England and France have many people that do more harm than good at home, and may either of them spare some thousands annually, and strengthen themselves by it at home and abroad; but it must be admitted, that industrious foreigners are a happy acquisition.

Spain admits none, or rarely any foreigners in America; and that country being rich and charming to it, multitudes of the natives resorted thither; and the Spaniards, at the best not being a very prolific people, they have much weakened and exposed their country; by which means, they who were formerly dreaded for their power, are now simply respected for their wealth, and in no other manner have any influence on the affairs of Europe.

But, in doing this, great consideration should be used, that there be nothing in it of shame, and as little of compulsion as may be. The terms ought to be such, as may encourage people in distress to accept them, and the accepting them might be in the nature of a supercedas to all criminal prosecutions, not of a capital nature. They should be sent abroad for a term of years, or 'till they could repay a certain sum of money to the corporation intrusted with the management of this scheme, and considerable rewards should be given to such as behaved well, and gained a competent settlement during the time limited for their remaining abroad; and, if to this, certain honorary preferments were added, it might answer very good purposes. These are the outlines only of a great design, perhaps, not unworthy the attention of the

legislature, who, possibly, may think a tax on public diversions, and divers other particulars, a reasonable fund for such a service; there being nothing more just, than that luxury should contribute to relieve necessity; and that those who are able to be idle, should be made willing to help those that must work.

No trades deserve so much our care to procure and preserve, and encouragement to prosecute, as those that employ the most shipping; although the commodities carried be of small value in themselves, as a great part of the commodities from our colonies are. For, besides the gain accruing by the goods, the freight in such trades, often more than the value of the goods, is all profit to the nation; and they bring with them a great access of seamen and naval prowess, the natural strength and security of this kingdom.

Colonies and plantations are both strength and riches to their mother-country, while they are obliged inviolably to regard her laws: and while ours have British blood in their veins, relations in Great-Britain, and a true sense of the invaluable blessing of British liberty, and can get by trading with us; the stronger and greater they grow, the more the crown, as well as the kingdom, will gain by them; nothing but our arbitrary treatment of them, and our misgovernment, can make them otherwise than beneficial to the nation in general.

In former times, those who were intrusted with the chief power in our colonies, have granted such large tracts of land, as well to themselves as others, that many planters have been, and are at present, prevented from enlarging their plantations, whereby the increase of settlers has been prevented, and people in general discouraged from going thither as formerly. It has long been really matter of sad complaint, that in most of our colonies there is no land, though in most of them such vast quantities uncultivated, left near any settlement, that is unpatented, or not granted to some particular person; which may deserve the attention of the public wisdom, whether we consider the loss that has already ensued, and must ensue to this kingdom, by such large tracts of land remaining uncultivated; and which the proprietors either cannot or will not settle and plant, or sell, but on most exorbitant terms; which assuredly must be repugnant to the intention of the crown; for these grants of land were certainly given to be cultivated, and not to be monopolized, in order to raise their value upon other industrious planters, whose lands might be contiguous to them, and would gladly cultivate them so, as to render them beneficial to the nation as well as themselves.

Numbers of men are to be preferred to the largeness of dominions; 'tis the increase of hands, and the right employment of them, as we have observed, wherein consists the prosperity and happiness of our nation; and sure it is an egregious invasion on the liberty and property of other British subjects, that persons who have great tracts of land in America, will neither settle or sell but on the most extravagant conditions; and therefore is it not highly reasonable, that such shall be obliged by the laws to do either the one or the other; whereby industrious planters who would increase their plantations, or others who would become such, may be enabled to do so on reasonable terms?

The grants of such great tracts of land have too often been procured on very easy terms, and frequently upon wrong suggestions; many hold some thousands of acres a piece, and those largely surveyed; some patents are said to contain double the quantity of land mentioned, or intended to be granted; whence it is that so many thousand acres are taken up, but not planted.—This drives away the inhabitants and servants bred up only to planting, into parts where their labour is not so profitable, either to the crown or to the kingdom, as it would be in our colonies, especially in those not producing commodities that are of British growth: besides, such practices are the chief cause, that some have had no better success, or made no greater progress in settlements, and therefore is a grievance that calls aloud for immediate redress.—The French suffer nothing of this kind in their plantations: however so little I may approve of some of the maxims of the French constitution, yet the care of their trade and plantations may deserve our notice; they oblige every ship or vessel, bound to any of their colonies, to carry such a number of persons, in proportion to it's tonnage or freight, passage free; not permitting any person to take up more land than he shall plant or manure in a limited time, or is necessary for him to his planting; and furnishing persons who will become settlers, with negroes, and all materials and requisites wanting in making settlements, and only obliging them to repay the public out of the produce, one third of what is produced, 'till thereby the sum advanced be fully repaid.—These, among many other wise measures, have occasioned the rapid progress that the French have made in their American commerce. See FRENCH AMERICA.

The general good of the community is ever to take place of that of any particular persons; and therefore, if these large tracts of land in the hands of any of his majesty's subjects, which remain uncultivated, were but settled, the benefit to Great-Britain would prove ineffably great; for it would not only be an encouragement to our necessitous people chear-

fully to resort thither, but add proportionate strength to our colonies, greater variety to their productions, and enable them to sell as cheap as our American competitors at foreign markets; all which will prove, not only the grand preservative, but the general increase of our whole plantation commerce in the new world.

As the increase of people must necessarily occasion an increase in the consumption of all kinds of manufactures, so, the greater any country's demands are for them, the greater will be it's trade; and the more will the mother-country, as well as the plantations, become opulent and powerful.

The want of falling into measures somewhat adequate to those of the French beforementioned, together with the false and narrow notions entertained by too many of our planters and others, in regard to the engrossing of immense quantities of land, and keeping them barren and useless, are highly detrimental, and may, in time, be absolutely ruinous to the British interest in America, if the utmost policy is not exerted, to render both our new and old American colonies prosperous.

Although some American land-proprietors and planters imagine, that, the fewer the settlements are, the better will the produce of their plantations sell; yet, as this is a principle that must render our plantation-products dearer and dearer, can any measures more effectually tend to enable our rivals in the American trade to supplant us at foreign markets? Are not these planters and land-proprietors laying the certain foundation of ruin and destruction to our American interest, and consequently to their own properties in the end?

Would they lay aside such notions and schemes, which have been, and still are, pernicious and destructive, and fall upon effectual measures for the increase of people, and better settlement of their countries, their own interest would not only be the better secured and promoted, but those of their mother-kingdom. I would by no means be understood, as proposing to level the property or rightful possessions of any persons interested in our plantations; my intention is only to shew the necessity of refraining such methods as have been formerly practised, of taking up large tracts of land, and to compel those who have taken them up, either to settle or sell them; so that these practices may no longer prove a bar to the industry of others, and that our colonies may prove a lasting revenue to the crown, an inexhaustible fund of treasure to Great-Britain, and the certain means of multiplying our seamen and increasing our navigation.

It is certain, that from the very time Sir Walter Raleigh, the father of our English colonies, and his associates, first projected these establishments, there have been persons who have found an interest in misrepresenting or lessening the value of them. When the intention of improving these distant countries, and the advantages that were hoped for thereby, were first set forth, there were some who treated them not only as chimerical, but as dangerous: they not only insinuated the uncertainty of the success, but the depopulating the nation, if it should be contrary to their expectation. These, and other objections, flowing either from a narrowness of understanding or of heart, have been disproved by experience, which hath shewn, that what was then proposed was practicable in itself, profitable in it's consequences, and attended with none of those evils, which those pusillanimous or ill-intentioned people apprehended, or pretended so to do.

The difficulties which will always attend such kind of settlements at the beginning, proved a new cause of clamour, and ever will; many malignant suggestions were made about sacrificing so many Englishmen to the obstinate desire of settling colonies in countries, which then produced very little advantage. But, as these difficulties were gradually surmounted, those complaints vanished.—No sooner were these lamentations over, but others arose in their stead; when it could be no longer said that the colonies were useless, it was alleged that they were not useful enough to their mother-country; that, while we were loaded with taxes, they were absolutely free; that the planters lived like princes, while the inhabitants of England laboured hard for a tolerable subsistence.—This produced customs and impositions upon plantation-commodities, which, if grievous to the plantations, must turn to our disadvantage as well as theirs, and consequently become detrimental to both.

At present there is a great change in the face of affairs in these parts of the world, which has produced a change in the sentiments of those who are settled there, and ought likewise to produce a change in our conduct.—The principal point in this change was, the surprising growth of the French power in America, before the last DEFINITIVE TREATY, and their arduous and unwarrantable attempts daily to augment their strength there, in order to have gained the balance of trade and power into their own hands, in this part of the world; which appeared from the true and undisguised state of the case, as I have given it under the article of BRITISH AMERICA, and which I shall further corroborate under the article FRENCH AMERICA, and in divers other parts of this work, that have a connection with each other.

If we had considered, that in the reign of Charles II. when France had very little trade, and her colonies were of no

great consequence, she was then almost a match for all Europe beside, and that too when the maritime powers were in the most flourishing condition; we might have easily foreseen to what a height her power would increase with the addition of colonies and commerce.—But we did not sufficiently provide against an evil, which of all others we ought most to have apprehended.

The very thing that had hitherto hindered us from conceiving as we ought to do of our danger in this respect, would have convinced us, if we had viewed it in the right light, and reasoned upon it as became us. If we experience that, in conjunction with the greatest powers upon the continent, we have not been able, for these sixty years past, to set any bounds to the ambition of France in Europe, what limits were we like to set to her power in America, when it came to bear any proportion there, to what she has attained here, but by giving an effectual check to her career of commerce and power in the new world, as we seem to have done by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763?

The nature of their government, though it makes their subjects less happy, renders their colonies the more formidable, and enables the prince to protect them more effectually, and to grant them, from time to time, greater encouragements; so that we need not wonder they have overcome so many difficulties, or that the trade of the French islands should be so much more considerable now, than it was at the peace of Utrecht.—We may likewise be assured of this, that, the more their trade increases, the more it will be encouraged; because of the steady and uniform conduct of the French ministry, to emulate each other in the care and protection thereof.

As to our apprehensions in regard to the French colonies, time has shewn they were but too well founded; our settlements on the continent, as I have shewn, were surrounded by them; the correspondence between Canada and Louisiana was in some manner settled; and, though a little more time might have been requisite to perfect the designs they had formed on that side; yet, if we had not obtained the peace we have done by the DEFINITIVE TREATY, they would have in few years perfected them, and then we should have found our circumstances very uneasy. This must appear plain and certain to every man, who will turn his thoughts to what we have urged throughout this work: we should not therefore admire, that those who both felt and saw it, expressed themselves with some warmth upon this topic.

REMARKS.

Before I conclude this article, it may be useful, I apprehend, to obviate some objections that have been too frequently made against due encouragement being given to our British colonies; one of which is, that, if they should be encouraged, they would grow, shake off the English government, or attempt an independency of this kingdom.

To dissipate fears and jealousies of this kind, we desire it may be observed,

1. If we consider the situation of our colonies, which now stretch all along the coast of NORTH AMERICA, and are separated from each other by great rivers, a very little to guard those passages would make it impracticable for people the most desperately inclined to unite in one body.

2. As the subsistence of these colonies is the supplying chiefly our sugar plantations with flour, biscuit, pipe-staves, fish, and other provisions, the prohibiting them that commerce would soon prove their destruction, there being above 800 vessels belonging to the province of New England only, that are employed in the coasting and fishing trade.

3. It is to be considered, that our colonies are under different governments. Maryland and Pennsylvania have their respective proprietary governors, and the Jerseys and New York also their distinct governors.—New England has also a distinct government from the rest, &c. Is it easily practicable, therefore, for those different governments to form a design of defection from England, without being discovered, and betraying one another?

New England has formerly, indeed, shewed an uncommon stiffness, very different from that regard they ought to have had for their mother-country, or a true sense of the protection and tenderness which have been extended to them; but, we apprehend, what has heretofore been done, was rather owing to the personal cavils and machinations of some men who affected popularity, than to any general intention to aim at independency. It is certain, that the most judicious and opulent amongst them highly detested such proceedings.

But, if New England should ever presume to attempt to be independent of this kingdom, the stopping their supplying the sugar islands, and their coasting and fishing trades, would so distress them that they would not long be able to subsist, and the share they possess of that trade would fall into the hands of the other colonies, which would greatly enrich them, and, perhaps, irrecoverably impoverish New England. But, if some turbulent men should ever be capable of raising a spirit of defection among them, a squadron of light frigates would entirely cut off their trade; and, if that did not effectually

effectually answer the end, the government of England would be compelled, contrary to their lenity, to do what other nations do of choice, viz. place standing forces among them, to keep them in subjection, and oblige them to raise money to pay them. These things are not suggested from the least apprehension, that these people will ever be so infatuated, but to shew the consequences that may reasonably be presumed to follow from so rash and impolitic an attempt.

Some persons have heretofore insinuated that this colony might one day put themselves under the protection of some foreign potentate; which must be either France, Spain, or Holland. In regard to the two former, the spirit of persecution which prevails under their government, without any other reason, seems sufficient to dissipate apprehensions of this kind. Moreover, the despotic power of those nations differs so greatly from the mild and gentle government of England, that the very persons who should be unhappily spirited to raise such disturbances, would themselves tremble at the thoughts of a change from the happy state of freedom and liberty, to that of arbitrary will, persecution, and tyranny: so that there could be no hopes left but from Holland; and, as we lie between them and New England; it is not very likely that such an enterprize should prove successful; nor would a change of this nature any ways meliorate the condition of these people.

Although fears and jealousies of this kind should be absolutely groundless, yet there are some who have apprehended mischiefs of another nature, that may ensue from giving effectual encouragement to our plantations for the raising of hemp, flax, pot-ash, pitch and tar, indico, silk, iron, &c. &c. &c. for that, as soon as they shall be established in the methods of producing these rough materials, they will certainly set up those manufactures with which we now supply them, and thereby deprive us of those advantages we are intitled to reap from their establishment.

But it is to be hoped, that the parliament of England will ever keep a watchful eye over our plantations, in regard to a matter of such important concernment to this kingdom; for, if these attempts are not effectually restrained, they will ever occasion such heart-burnings between our colonies and their mother-country, as may, and certainly will, prove injurious to both. But keeping our planters to the raising such materials for our British manufactures, as we are necessitated to take at present from foreign nations and their colonies, will effectually prevent jealousies and misunderstanding between Britons and her American brethren, and give mutual strength, riches, and power, to both.

Are not such the natural means to render these kingdoms, and her plantations, more and more independent of other states and empires, with respect to their maritime and commercial interest? And do we not daily experience the necessity of such policy being steadily and vigorously pursued?

Have not most of the nations of Europe interfered with us, more or less, in divers of our staple manufactures, within half a century, not only in our woollen, but in our lead and tin manufactures, as well as our fisheries? Shall not the British colonies be effectually encouraged to raise raw silk for our British manufacturers to work up, when his Prussian majesty, it seems, is about to do so in his German dominions, which are destitute of those benefits and advantages for the purpose, that our colonies enjoy? Shall we be obliged to take hemp and flax, and other naval stores, from foreign countries, when our own colonies, if effectually promoted, will certainly afford us all that we want? Shall we import iron, pot-ash, indico, cocheneal, dyeing woods, cacao, coffee, and drugs of various kinds, of foreign nations, when we can have them within ourselves? Shall our linnen manufacture; in Scotland and Ireland be cramped, or labour under any disadvantages for rough materials suitable to their manufactures, when our British America is able to produce them, either in one colony or another? Why should we not encourage the building of large bulky ships in our plantations, such as are used by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import part of our timber, if we cannot the whole, from our continent colonies?

Let our plantations have every encouragement, that will interfere only with the commercial interests of foreign nations, and with those more especially who have rivalled and supplanted us in the sugar, and other our plantation branches of trade; and they will be far more beneficially employed, than to think of setting up the manufactures of their mother-kingdom, or shaking off their dependency: nothing, I am persuaded, will induce them to either of these, but the want of being promoted, in due subserviency to the interest of Great-Britain.

These kingdoms, with it's dependencies, is doubtless as well able to subsist within itself, as any nation in Europe: we are as happily situated, all our territories considered together, as any nation in the whole world, and a constitution superior to any throughout the globe; we are blessed with an industrious and enterprising people, accomplished for all the arts of commerce, war, or peace: we have provisions in abundance, and those of the best sort, and are capable of raising more than sufficient for double the number of inhabitants: we have

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the best materials for cloathing, and stand in need of nothing, either for use or luxury, but what we have at home, or might have from our colonies (which will demonstrably appear throughout this undertaking: so that we might create such an intercourse of trade among ourselves, and between us and our plantations, as would maintain a prodigious navigation, even though we traded to no other parts. See the articles AMERICA, BRITAIN, GREAT BRITAIN, PLANTATIONS.

And, if our colonies, by means of all the encouragement which they require, became as populous in white people as they are capable of, and were not permitted at all to interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain, would they not import an additional quantity of manufactures from us, proportionate to the number of their inhabitants; and which they would be enabled to pay for, by means of those rough materials wherewith they furnished England, Scotland, and Ireland? And although, in consequence of taking these particulars before enumerated from our own plantations, we should take less of the same from foreign countries; and, although these countries should retaliate upon us, and take less of British products and manufactures; yet we should gain as much, if not more, by encouraging of our plantations, rather than those foreign nations; because we, at present, pay a great annual ballance to many of these countries, which ballance being saved, that would absolutely center within ourselves and our colonies. Nay, 'tis reasonable to believe, that our plantations, being brought to such a flourishing state and condition, would enable us to supply, in part, other foreign countries with their productions.

Nor would our maritime power, and the number of our seamen, be diminished by this policy; for our constant navigation to and from our own colonies would, perhaps, prove as good a nursery for our royal navy, as that we carry on with those foreign nations, from whom we take such commodities as might be raised in our own plantations: and, as our naval power is the grand bulwark whereon we must ever rely, to maintain our happy independency, as a free and a trading people, why need we be afraid to disoblige other nations, by taking less in value in their commodities than they do of ours? Which maxim, we humbly conceive, ought to be the pole-star, whereby the government of our plantations should be steered. However, it would not be politic, perhaps, to put our plantations upon raising the whole of these commodities, which we at present take from other countries, wherewith we drive a trade nationally beneficial; but what objection can be made against raising those materials in our own colonies, which we now take from these countries with which we carry on a commerce nationally disadvantageous? In order to judge of the real imminent danger our colonies and plantations were in before the PEACE, see the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA; and the articles FRANCE and SPAIN. And, that we may take a view of this important subject in every light it will admit of, we shall re-consider it under the article PLANTATIONS, SUGAR COLONIES.

For the regulation of the trade of our British Colonies, the following act of parliament passed in the year 1763, which being very important, we judge the whole of it requisite to be given.

An Act for granting certain duties in the BRITISH COLONIES and PLANTATIONS in America; for continuing, amending, and making perpetual, an act passed in the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, (intituled, AN ACT FOR THE BETTER SECURING AND ENCOURAGING THE TRADE OF HIS MAJESTY'S SUGAR COLONIES IN AMERICA;) for applying the produce of such duties, and of the duties to arise by virtue of the said act, towards defraying the expences of defending, protecting, and securing, the said colonies and plantations; for explaining an act made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles II. (intituled, AN ACT FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF THE GREENLAND AND EASTLAND TRADES;) and for altering and disallowing several drawbacks on exports from this kingdom, and more effectually preventing the clandestine conveyance of goods to and from the said colonies and plantations, and improving and securing the trade between the same and Great Britain.

Whereas it is expedient that new provisions and regulations should be established for improving the revenue of this kingdom, and for extending and securing the navigation and commerce between Great-Britain and your majesty's dominions in AMERICA, which, by the peace, have been so happily enlarged: And whereas it is just and necessary, that a revenue be raised, in your majesty's said dominions in America, for defraying the expences of defending, protecting, and securing the same; we, your majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, being desirous to make some provision, in this present session of parliament towards raising the said revenue in AMERICA, have resolved to give and grant unto your majesty the several rates and duties herein

after mentioned; that, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, there shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his majesty, his heirs and successors, for and upon all WHITE OR CLAYED SUGARS, of the produce or manufacture of any colony or plantation in America, not under the DOMINION OF HIS MAJESTY, HIS HEIRS AND SUCCESSORS; for and upon INDICO, and COFFEE OF FOREIGN PRODUCE or manufacture; for and upon all WINES (except French wine); for and upon all WROUGHT SILKS, BENGALS and STUFFS, mixed with silk or HERBA, of the manufacture of PERSIA, CHINA, or EAST INDIA, and all CALLICO, painted, dyed, printed or stained there; and for and upon all FOREIGN LINNEN CLOTH called CAMBRICK and FRENCH LAWNS, which shall be imported or brought into any colony or plantation in AMERICA, which now is, or hereafter may be, under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs and successors, the several RATES and DUTIES following; that is to say,

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of such foreign white or clayed sugars, one pound two shillings, over and above all other duties imposed by any former act of parliament.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of such foreign indico, six pence.

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of such foreign coffee, which shall be imported from any place except Great Britain, two pounds nineteen shillings and nine pence.

For every ton of wine of the growth of the Madeira's, or of any other island or place from whence such wine may be lawfully imported, and which shall be so imported from such islands or places, the sum of seven pounds.

For every ton of Portugal, Spanish, or any other wine, (except French wine) imported from Great Britain, the sum of ten shillings.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs, mixed with silk or herba of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East India, imported from Great Britain, two shillings.

For every piece of callico, painted, dyed, printed, or stained, in Persia, China, or East India, imported from Great Britain, two shillings and six pence.

For every piece of foreign linnen cloth called Cambrick, imported from Great Britain, three shillings.

For every piece of French lawn imported from Great Britain, three shillings.

And after those rates for any greater or lesser quantity of such goods respectively.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said 29th day of September 1764, there shall also be raised, levied, collected, and paid, unto his majesty, his heirs, and successors, for and upon all coffee and pimento, of the growth and produce of any BRITISH COLONY OR PLANTATION IN AMERICA, which shall be there laden on board any British ship or vessel, to be carried out from thence to any other place whatsoever, except Great Britain, the several rates and duties following; that is to say,

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of such British coffee, seven shillings.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of such British pimento, one halfpenny.

And after those rates for any greater or lesser quantity of such goods respectively.

And whereas an act was made in the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intituled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar colonies in America, which was to continue in force for five years, to be computed from the 24th day of June 1733, and to the end of the then next Session of parliament; and which, by several subsequent acts, made in the 11th, the 19th, the 26th, the 29th, and the 31st years of the reign of his said late majesty, was from time to time continued; and by an act made in the first year of the reign of his present majesty, was further continued until the end of this present session of parliament; and although the said act hath been found in some degree useful, yet it is highly expedient that the same should be altered, enforced, and made more effectual; but in consideration of the great distance of several of the said colonies and plantations from this kingdom, it will be proper further to continue the said Act for a short space, before any alterations and amendments shall take effect, in order that all persons concerned may have due and proper notice thereof: Be it therefore enacted, by the authority aforesaid, that the said act, made in the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intituled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar colonies in America, shall be, and the same is hereby further continued until the 30th day of September 1764.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from the 29th day of September 1764, the said act, subject to such alterations and amendments as are herein after contained, shall be, and the same is hereby made perpetual.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That

in lieu and instead of the rate and duty imposed by the said act upon molasses and syrups, there shall, from and after the said 29th day of September 1764, be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his majesty, &c. for and upon every gallon of molasses or syrups, being the growth, product, or manufacture of any colony or plantation in America, not under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs or successors, which shall be imported or brought into any colony or plantation in America, which now is, or hereafter may be, under the dominion of his Majesty, his heirs or successors, the sum of three pence.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the said rates and duties hereby charged upon such foreign white or clayed sugars, foreign indico, foreign coffee, wines, wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, callico, cambricks, French lawns, and foreign molasses or syrups, imported into any British American colony or plantation, shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid, in the same manner and form, and by such rules, ways, and means, and under such penalties and forfeitures, (not otherwise altered by this act) as are mentioned and expressed in the said act of parliament, made in the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, with respect to the raising, levying, collecting, and payment of the rates and duties thereby granted; and that the aforesaid duties hereby charged upon British coffee and pimento, exported from any British colony or plantation, shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid, in the same manner and form, and by such rules, ways, and means, and under such penalties and forfeitures, as are mentioned and referred unto in an act of parliament made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles the second, intituled, An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland trades, and for the better securing the plantation trade, with respect to the raising, levying, collecting, and payment of the rates and duties thereby granted upon the several goods therein particularly enumerated; and that all powers, penalties, provisions, articles and clauses, in those acts respectively contained and referred unto, (except in such cases where any alteration is made by this act) shall be observed, applied, practised, and put in execution, for the raising, levying, collecting, and answering the respective rates and duties granted by this act, as fully and effectually, as if the same were particularly and at large re-enacted in the body of this present act, and applied to the rates and duties hereby imposed; and as fully and effectually, to all intents and purposes, as the same could have been at any time put in execution, for the like purposes, with respect to the rates and duties granted by the said former acts.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That, if the importer of any wines shall refuse to pay the duties hereby imposed thereon, it shall and may be lawful for the collector, or other proper officer of the customs where such wines shall be imported, and he is hereby respectively required to take and secure the same, with the casks or other package thereof, and to cause the same to be publickly sold, within the space of twenty days at the most after such refusal made, and at such time and place as such officer shall, by four or more days public notice, appoint for that purpose; which wine shall be sold to the best bidder, and the money arising by the sale thereof shall be applied, in the first place, in payment of the said duties, together with the charges that shall have been occasioned by the said sale; and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to such importer, or any other person authorized to receive the same.

Provided also, That if the money offered for the purchase of such wine, shall not be sufficient to discharge the duty and charges aforesaid, then, and in every such case, the collector or other proper officer, shall cause the wine to be staved, spilt, or otherwise destroyed, and shall return the casks or other package wherein the same was contained to such importer.

And it is hereby declared and enacted, That every piece of callico intended to be charged with the duty herein before mentioned, if of the breadth of one yard and a quarter, or under, shall not exceed in length ten yards; and if above that breadth, shall not exceed six yards in length; and that every piece of cambrick and French lawn shall contain thirteen ells each, and shall pay duty for the same in those proportions for any greater or lesser quantity, according to the sum herein before charged upon each piece of such goods respectively.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all the monies which, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, shall arise by the several rates and duties herein before granted; and also by the duties which, from and after the said 29th day of September 1764, shall be raised upon sugar and paneles, by virtue of the said act made in the sixth year of the reign of his said late majesty king George the second, (except the necessary charges of raising, collecting, levying, recovering, answering, paying, and accounting for the same) shall be paid into the receipt of his majesty's exchequer, and shall be entered separate and

and apart from all other monies paid or payable to his majesty, his heirs or successors; and shall be there reserved, to be from time to time disposed of by parliament, towards defraying the necessary expences of defending, protecting, and securing the British colonies and plantations in America.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the tenth day of September 1764, upon the exportation of any sort of wine (except French wines) from this kingdom to any British colony or plantation in America, as merchandize, the exporter shall be paid, in lieu of all former drawbacks, a drawback or allowance of all the duties paid upon the importation of such wine, except the sum of three pounds ten shillings per ton, part of the additional duty of four pounds per ton, granted by an act made in the last session of parliament, intituled, An act for granting to his majesty several additional duties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain duties upon all cyder and perry, and for raising the sum of three millions five hundred thousand pounds by way of annuities and lotteries, to be charged on the said duties); and also except such part of the duties paid upon wines imported by strangers or aliens, or in foreign ships, as exceeds what would have been payable upon such wines, if the same had been imported by British subjects, and in British ships, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding; which drawback or allowance shall be made in such manner, and under such rules, regulations, penalties, and forfeitures, in all respects, as any former drawback or allowance, payable out of the duties of customs upon the exportation of such wine, was, could, or might be made, before the passing of this act.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That upon the entry of any such wine for exportation to any British colony or plantation in America, and before any debenture shall be made out for allowing the drawback thereon, the exporter shall give bond, with sufficient security, to his majesty, his heirs and successors, to be approved of by the collector, or other principal officer of the customs at the port of exportation, in treble the amount of the drawback, payable for the goods, that the same and every part thereof shall (the danger of the seas and enemies excepted) be really and truly exported to, and landed in, some British colony or plantation in America; and that the same shall not be exported, or carried to any other place or country whatsoever, nor reloaded in any part of Great Britain, Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or either of them: and such bonds shall not be delivered up nor discharged until a certificate shall be produced, under the hands and seals of the collector, or other principal officer of the customs at the port or place where such goods shall be landed, testifying the landing thereof: and the condition of such bond shall be, to produce such certificate in eighteen months from the date of the bonds (the dangers of the seas and enemies excepted).

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the first day of May 1764, no part of the rate or duty, commonly called the old subsidy, shall be repaid or drawn back, for any foreign goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe or the East Indies, which shall be exported from this kingdom to any British colony or plantation in America, (wines, white callicoos, and muslins, only excepted); any law, custom, or usage, to the contrary notwithstanding.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the tenth day of September 1764, upon the exportation of any sort of white callicoos or muslins, except as herein after is mentioned, from this kingdom to any British colony or plantation in America, besides the one half of the rate or duty commonly called the Old Subsidy, which now remains and is not drawn back for the same; there also shall not be repaid or drawn back the further sum of four pounds fifteen shillings for every hundred pounds of the true and real value of such goods, according to the gross price at which they were sold at the sale of the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies, being the third part of the net duties granted thereon respectively by two several acts of parliament, the one made in the eleventh and twelfth year of the reign of king William the third, intituled, An act for laying further duties upon wrought silk, muslins, and some other commodities of the East Indies, and for enlarging the time for purchasing certain reverfionary annuities therein mentioned; and the other made in the third and fourth year of the reign of queen Anne, intituled, An act for continuing duties upon low wines, and upon coffee, tea, chocolate, spices and pictures, and upon hawkers, pedlars, and petty chapmen, and upon muslins; and for granting new duties upon several of the said commodities, and also upon callicoos, China ware, and drugs; any law, custom, or usage, to the contrary notwithstanding.

Provided always, and be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That until the first day of March 1765, upon the exportation from this kingdom, to any British

colony or plantation in America, of such white callicoos or muslins only as were sold on or before the 25th day of March 1764, at the sale of the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies, such and the same drawbacks shall be allowed as are now payable upon the exportation of the said goods.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any merchant or other person shall, from and after the first day of May 1764, enter any goods for exportation to parts beyond the seas, other than to the said British colonies or plantations in America, in order to obtain any drawback not allowed by this act upon the exportation of such goods to the said British colonies or plantations; and the said goods shall nevertheless be carried to any British colony or plantation in America, and landed there, contrary to the true intent and meaning hereof, that then and in such case the drawback shall be forfeited, and the exporter of such goods, and the master of the ship or vessel on board which the same were loaden and exported, shall forfeit double the amount of the drawback paid or to be paid for the same, and also treble the value of the said goods.

And it is further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said first day of May 1764, if any goods not allowed to draw back any part of the old subsidy, or any other duty by this act, shall be entered for exportation from this kingdom to any other place beyond the seas, except to some British colony or plantation in America, in every case where the exporter is required, by any law now in force, to swear that such goods are not landed or intended to be landed in Great Britain, Ireland, or the Isle of Man, there shall also be added to, and included in, the oath upon the debenture for such goods, "any British colonies or plantations in America."

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, no rum or spirits of the produce or manufacture of any of the colonies or plantations in America, not in the possession, or under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs or successors, shall be imported or brought into any of the colonies or plantations in America, which now are, or hereafter may be, in the possession, or under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs or successors, upon forfeiture of all such rum or spirits, together with the ship or vessel in which the same shall be imported, with the tackle, apparel, and furniture thereof, to be seized by any officer or officers of his majesty's customs, and prosecuted in such manner and form as herein after is expressed; any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

And it is hereby further enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, nothing in the before recited act made in the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, or any other act of parliament, shall extend, or be construed to extend, to give liberty to any person or persons whatsoever to import into the kingdom of Ireland, any sort of sugars, but such only as shall be fairly and bona fide loaden and shipped in Great Britain, and carried directly from thence in ships navigated according to law.

And for the better preventing frauds in the importation of foreign sugars and paneles, rum and spirits, molasses and syrups, into any of his majesty's dominions, under pretence that the same are the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British colonies or plantations, it is further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, every person or persons loading on board any ship or vessel, in any of the British colonies or plantations in America, any rum or spirits, sugars or paneles, molasses or syrups, as of the growth, product, or manufacture of any British colony or plantation, shall, before the clearing out of the said ship or vessel, produce and deliver to the collector, or other principal officer of the customs at the loading port, an affidavit signed and sworn to before some justice of the peace in the said British colonies or plantations, either by the grower, maker, or shipper of such goods, or his or their known agent or factor, expressing, in words at length, and not in figures, the quality of the goods so shipped, with the number and denomination of the packages, and describing the name or names of the plantation or plantations, and the name of the colony where the same grew, or were produced and manufactured; which affidavit shall be attested, under the hand of the said justice of the peace, to have been sworn to in his presence, who is hereby required to do the same without fee or reward: and the collector, or other principal officer of the customs to whom such affidavit shall be delivered, shall thereupon grant to the master, or other person having the charge of the ship or vessel, a certificate under his hand and seal of office, (without fee or reward) of his having received such affidavit pursuant to the directions of this act; which certificate shall express the quality of the goods shipped on board such ship or vessel, with the number and denomination of the packages: and such collector or other principal officer of the customs shall also, (without fee or reward) within thirty days after the sailing of the ship or vessel,

vessel, transmit an exact copy of the said affidavit to the secretary's office for the respective colony or plantation where the goods were shipped, on forfeiture of five pounds.

And it is further enacted, That upon the arrival of such ship or vessel into the port of her discharge, either in Great Britain, or any other port of his majesty's dominions, where such goods may be lawfully imported, the master, or other person taking the charge of the ship or vessel, shall, at the time he makes his report of his ship or cargo, deliver the said certificate to the collector, or other principal officer of the customs; and make oath before him, that the goods so reported are the same that are mentioned in the said certificate, on forfeiture of one hundred pounds; and if any rum or spirits, sugars or panesles, molasses or syrups, shall be imported or found on board any such ship or vessel, for which no certificate shall be produced, or which shall not agree therewith, the same shall be deemed and taken to be foreign rum and spirits, sugar and panesles, molasses and syrups; and shall be liable to the same duties, restrictions, regulations, penalties and forfeitures, in all respects, as rum, spirits, sugar, panesles, molasses and syrups, of the growth, produce or manufacture of any foreign colony or plantation would respectively be liable to by law.

Provided always, That if any rum or spirits, sugars or panesles, molasses or syrups, shall be imported into Great Britain from any British colony or plantation in America, without being included in such certificate as is herein before directed; and it shall be made to appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his majesty's customs at London or Edinburgh respectively, that the goods are really and truly the produce of such British plantation or colony, and that no fraud was intended; it shall and may in such case be lawful for the said respective commissioners to permit the said goods to be entered, upon payment of the like duties as such goods would be liable to if this law had not been made.

And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles the second, intituled, An act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation, and several subsequent acts of parliament which are now in force, it is, amongst other things directed, that for every ship or vessel that shall load any commodities, in those acts particularly enumerated, at any British plantation, being the growth, product or manufacture thereof, bonds shall be given with one surety to the value of one thousand pounds, if the ship be of less burden than one hundred tons, and of the sum of two thousand pounds if the ship be of greater burthen; that the same commodities shall be brought by such ship or vessel to some other British plantation, or to some port in Great Britain: notwithstanding which, there is great reason to apprehend such goods are frequently carried to foreign parts, and landed there. And whereas great quantities of foreign molasses and syrups are clandestinely run on shore in the British colonies, to the prejudice of the revenue, and the great detriment of the trade of this kingdom and its American plantations; to remedy which practices for the future, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, that from and after the 29th day of September 1764, bond and security in the like penalty shall also be given, to the collector or other principal officer of the customs at any port or place in any of the British American colonies or plantations, with one surety, besides the master of every ship or vessel that shall lade or take on board there any goods not particularly enumerated in the said acts, being the product or manufacture of any of the said colonies or plantations; with condition, that in case any molasses or syrups, being the produce of any of the plantations not under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs and successors, shall be laden on board such ship or vessel, the same shall (the danger of the seas and enemies excepted) be brought, without fraud or wilful diminution, by the said ship or vessel, to some of his majesty's colonies or plantations in America, or to some port in Great Britain; and that the master or other person having the charge of such ship or vessel, shall immediately upon his arrival at every port or place in Great Britain, or in the British American colonies and plantations, make a just and true report of all the goods laden on board such ship or vessel, under their true and proper denominations; and if any such non-enumerated goods shall be laden on board any such ship or vessel, before such bond shall be given, the goods so laden, together with the ship or vessel and her furniture, shall be forfeited, and shall and may be seized by any officer of the customs, and prosecuted in the manner herein after directed.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That every master, or person having the charge of any ship or vessel, shall, before he departs from any British colony or plantation where he receives his lading, take a certificate, under the hands and seals of the collector or other principal officer of the customs there (which certificate such officers are hereby required to grant without fee

or reward) that bond hath been given pursuant to the directions of this or any other act of parliament as the case shall require; and the master, or person having the charge of such ship or vessel, shall keep such certificate in his custody till the voyage is completed; and shall then deliver the same up to the collector or other chief officer of the customs, at the port or place where he shall discharge his lading, either in Great Britain or in any British American colony or plantation, on forfeiture of one hundred pounds for each and every offence.

And it is hereby further enacted, That if any British ship or vessel, laden as aforesaid, with any goods of the produce or manufacture of any British colony or plantation in America, or having on board any molasses or syrups, the produce of any foreign colony or plantation, shall be discovered by any officer of his Majesty's customs, within two leagues of the shore of any British colony or plantation in America, and the master or person taking charge of such ship or vessel shall not produce a certificate, that bond has been given, pursuant to the directions of this or any other act of parliament, as the case may require; or if he shall not produce such certificate to the collector or other chief officer of the customs where he shall arrive, either in Great Britain or any British American colony or plantation, such ship or vessel, with her tackle, apparel and furniture, and all the goods therein laden shall be forfeited, and shall and may be seized and prosecuted as herein after is directed.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the said bond directed to be given by this act, with respect to such non-enumerated goods, shall continue in force for one year from and after the completion of the voyage; and in case no fraud shall appear within that time, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his majesty's customs, or any four or more of them, to direct the said bond to be delivered up.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, all coffee, pimento, cocoa nuts, whale fins, raw silk, hides and skins, pot and pearl ashes, of the growth, production or manufacture of any British colony or plantation in America, shall be imported directly from thence into this kingdom, or some other British colony or plantation, under the like securities, penalties and forfeitures, as are particularly mentioned in two acts of parliament, made in the twelfth and twenty-fifth years of the reign of king Charles the second, the former intituled, An act for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation; and the latter intituled, An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland trades, and for the better securing the plantation trade, or either of them, with respect to the goods in those acts particularly enumerated; any law, custom or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, no iron nor any sort of wood, commonly called lumber, as specified in an act passed in the eighth year of the reign of king George the first, intituled, An act for giving further encouragement for the importation of naval stores, and for other purposes therein mentioned, of the growth, production or manufacture of any British colony or plantation in America, shall be there laden on board any ship or vessel, to be carried from thence, until sufficient bond shall be given, with one surety besides the master of the vessel, to the collector or other principal officer of the customs at the loading port, in a penalty of double the value of the goods, with condition, that the said goods shall not be landed in any part of Europe except Great Britain; which bonds shall be discharged in the manner hereafter mentioned; that is to say, for such of the said goods as shall be entered for, or landed in Great Britain, the condition of the bonds shall be, to bring a certificate in discharge thereof, within eighteen months from the date of the bond; and within six months for such of the said goods as shall be entered for, or landed in any of the British colonies or plantations in America; which respective certificates shall be under the hands and seals of the collector or other principal officer of the customs, resident at the port or place where such goods shall be landed, testifying the landing thereof; and for such of the said goods as shall be entered for, or landed at, any other place in America, Africa or Asia, to bring the like certificate, within twelve months, under the common seal of the chief magistrate, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants residing there; or such bond or bonds shall be discharged, in either of the said cases, by proof upon oath made by credible persons, that the said goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the seas.

And for the better preventing frauds, in the importation or exportation of goods that are liable to the payment of duties, or are prohibited, in the British colonies or plantations in America, it is further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th Day of September

1764, no goods, wares or merchandizes, of any kind whatsoever, shall be shipped or laden on board any ship or vessel in any of the British colonies or plantations in America to be carried from thence to any other British colony or plantation, without a sufferance or warrant first had and obtained from the collector or other proper officer of the customs at the port or place where such goods shall be intended to be put on board; and the master of every such ship or vessel shall, before the same be removed or carried out from the port or place where he takes in his lading, take out a cocket or cockets, expressing the quantity or quality of the goods, and marks of the package so laden, with the merchants names by whom shipped and to whom consigned; and if they are goods that are liable to the payment of any duty, either upon the importation into, or upon the exportation from the said colonies or plantations, the said cocket or cockets shall likewise distinctly specify, that the duties have been paid for the same, referring to the times or dates of entry and payment of such duties, and by whom they were paid; which cocket or cockets shall be produced by the master of such ship or vessel, to the collector or other principal officer of the customs, at the port or place where such ship or vessel shall arrive, in any of the British colonies or plantations in America, before any part of the goods are unladen or put on shore: and if any goods or merchandizes shall be shipped as aforesaid without such sufferance, or the vessel shall depart and proceed on her voyage without such cocket or cockets, or the goods shall be landed or put on shore before such cocket or cockets are produced at the port or place of discharge, or if the goods do not agree in all respects therewith, the goods, in any or either of these cases, shall be forfeited and lost; and any officer of his majesty's customs is hereby empowered to stop any such ship or vessel, bound as aforesaid, which shall be discovered within two leagues of the shore of any of the said British colonies or plantations in America, and to seize and take from thence all the goods which shall be found on board such ship or vessel for which no such cocket or cockets shall be produced to him.

And whereas British vessels arriving from foreign parts at several of the out ports of this kingdom, fully or in part laden abroad with goods that are pretended to be destined to some foreign plantation, do frequently take on board some small parcels of goods in this kingdom, which are entered outwards for some British colony or plantation, and a cocket and clearance thereupon granted for such goods, under cover of which the whole cargoes of such vessels are clandestinely landed in the British American dominions, contrary to several acts of parliament now in force, to the great prejudice of the trade and revenue of this kingdom; for remedy whereof, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That, from and after the first day of May 1764, no ship or vessel shall, upon any pretence whatsoever, be cleared outwards from any port of this kingdom, for any land, island, plantation, colony, territory or place, to his majesty belonging, or which shall hereafter belong unto, or be in the possession or under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs or successors, in America, unless the whole and entire cargo of such ship or vessel shall be, bona fide, and without fraud, laden and shipped in this kingdom; and any officer of his majesty's customs is hereby empowered to stop any British ship or vessel arriving from any port of Europe, which shall be discovered within two leagues of the shore of any of the said British colonies or plantations in America, and to seize and take from thence, as forfeited, any goods (except as herein after mentioned) for which the master, or other person taking the charge of such ship or vessel, shall not produce a cocket or clearance from the collector or proper officer of his majesty's customs, certifying, that the said goods were laden on board the said ship or vessel in some port of Great Britain.

Provided always, that this act shall not extend, nor be construed to extend, to forfeit, for want of such cocket or clearance, any salt laden in Europe, for the fisheries in New England, Newfoundland, Pennsylvania, New York and Nova Scotia, or any other place to which salt is or shall be allowed by law to be carried; wines laden in the Madeiras, of the growth thereof; and wines of the growth of the western islands, or Azores, and laden there; nor any horses, victuals, or linen cloth, of and from Ireland, which may be laden on board such ships or vessels.

And it is hereby further enacted, That if any person or persons shall counterfeit, raise, alter or falsify any affidavit, certificate, sufferance, cocket or clearance, required or directed by this act; or shall knowingly or willingly make use of any affidavit, certificate, sufferance, cocket or clearance, so counterfeited, raised, altered or falsified, such person or persons shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of five hundred pounds; and such affidavit, certificate, sufferance, cocket or clearance, shall be invalid and of no effect.

And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the ninth

year of the reign of his late majesty king George the second, intituled, An act for indemnifying persons who have been guilty of offences against the laws made for securing the revenue of customs and excise, and for enforcing those laws for the future; and by other acts of parliament since made, which are now in force, in order to prevent the clandestine landing of goods in this kingdom, from vessels which hover upon the coasts thereof; several goods and vessels, in those laws particularly mentioned and described, are declared to be forfeited, if such vessels are found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the shore of this kingdom, without being compelled thereto by necessity or distress of weather; which laws have been found very beneficial to the publick revenue: And whereas, if some provision of this sort was extended to his Majesty's American dominions, it may be a means of preventing an illicit trade therewith, and tend to enforce an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles the second, intituled, An act for the encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation; and another act made in the seventh and eighth years of the reign of king William the third, intituled, An act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuses in the plantation trade, so far as those laws do prohibit any goods or commodities to be imported into, or exported out of, any British colony or plantation in America, in any foreign ship or vessel; to which end therefore, be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any foreign ship or vessel whatsoever shall be found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the shore of any land, island, plantation, colony, territory or place, which shall or may be in the possession, or under the dominion of his majesty, his heirs or successors, in America, and shall not depart from the coast, and proceed upon her voyage to some foreign port or place, within forty-eight hours after the master or other person taking the charge of such ship or vessel shall be required to do, by any officer of his majesty's customs, unless in case of unavoidable necessity and distress of weather, such ship or vessel, with all the goods therein laden, shall be forfeited and lost, whether bulk shall have been broken or not; and shall and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of his majesty's customs, in such manner and form as herein after is expressed.

Provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to any ship or vessel belonging to the subjects of the French king, which shall be found fishing, and not carrying on any illicit trade, on that part of the island of Newfoundland which stretches from the place called Cape Bonavista to the northern point of the said island, and from thence running down to the western side, reaches as far as the place called Pointe Riche.

And in order to prevent any illicit trade or commerce between his majesty's subjects in America, and the subjects of the Crown of France, in the islands of Saint Pierre and Miguelan, it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any British ship or vessel shall be found standing into, or coming out from either of those islands, or hovering or at anchor within two leagues of the coasts thereof, or shall be discovered to have taken any goods or merchandizes on board at either of them, or to have been there for that purpose, such ship or vessel, and all the goods so taken on board there, shall be forfeited and lost, and shall and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of his majesty's customs; and the master, or other person having the charge of such ship or vessel, and every person concerned in taking any such goods on board, shall forfeit treble the value thereof.

And to prevent the concealing any goods in false packages, or private places, on board any ship or vessel arriving at any of the British colonies or plantations in America, with intent to their being clandestinely landed there, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, all goods which shall be found concealed in any place whatsoever on board any such ship or vessel, at any time after the master thereof shall have made his report to the collector, or other proper officer of the customs, and which shall not be comprised or mentioned in the said report, shall be forfeited and lost, and shall and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of the customs; and the master, or other person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, (in case it can be made appear, that he was any wife consenting or privy to such fraud or concealment) shall forfeit treble the value of the goods so found.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any goods or merchandizes whatsoever, liable to the payment of duties in any British colony or plantation in America, by this or any other act of parliament, shall be laden on board any ship or vessel outward bound, or shall be unshipped or landed from any ship or vessel inward

bound, before the respective duties due thereon are paid, agreeable to law, or if any prohibited goods whatsoever shall be imported into, or exported out of any of the said colonies or plantations, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this or any other act of parliament, every person who shall be assisting or otherwise concerned, either in the loading outwards, or in the unshipping or landing inwards, such goods, or to whose hands the same shall knowingly come after the loading or unshipping thereof, shall, for each and every offence, forfeit treble the value of such goods, to be estimated and computed according to the best price that each respective commodity bears at the place where such offence was committed; and all the boats, horses, cattle and other carriages whatsoever, made use of in the loading, landing, removing, carriage or conveyance of any of the aforesaid goods, shall also be forfeited and lost, and shall and may be seized and prosecuted by any officer of his majesty's customs, as herein after mentioned.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any officer of his majesty's customs shall, directly or indirectly, take or receive any bribe, recompence or reward, in any kind whatsoever, or connive at any false entry, or make any collusive seizure or agreement, or do any other act or deed whatsoever, by which his majesty, his heirs or successors, shall or may be defrauded in his or their duties, or whereby any goods prohibited shall be suffered to pass either inwards or outwards, or whereby the forfeitures and penalties inflicted by this or any other act of parliament relating to his majesty's customs in America may be evaded; every such officer therein offending, shall, for each and every offence, forfeit the sum of five hundred pounds, and be rendered incapable of serving his majesty in any office or employment, civil or military. And if any person or persons whatsoever shall give, offer, or promise to give, any bribe, recompence or reward, to any officer of the customs, to do, conceal, or connive at any act, whereby any of the provisions made by this or any other act of parliament, relating to his majesty's customs in America, may be evaded or broken, every such person or persons shall, for each and every such offence, (whether the same offer, proposal or promise be accepted or performed or not) forfeit the sum of fifty pounds.

And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the seventh and eighth years of the reign of king William the third, intituled, An act for preventing frauds and regulating abuses in the plantation trade, all governors or commanders in chief of any of his majesty's colonies or plantations are required to take a solemn oath, to do their utmost, that all the clauses, matters and things contained in that act, and several other acts of parliament therein referred to, relating to the said colonies and plantations, be punctually and bona fide observed, according to the true intent and meaning thereof. And whereas divers other good laws have been since made, for the better regulating and securing the plantation trade, be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all the present governors or commanders in chief of any British colony or plantation shall, before the 29th day of September 1764, and all who hereafter shall be made governors or commanders in chief of the said colonies or plantations, or any of them, before their entrance into their government, shall take a solemn oath, to do their utmost that all the clauses, matters and things, contained in any act of parliament heretofore made and now in force, relating to the said colonies and plantations, and that all and every the clauses contained in this present act, be punctually and bona fide observed, according to the true intent and meaning thereof, so far as appertains unto the said governors or commanders in chief respectively, under the like penalties, forfeitures and disabilities, either for neglecting to take the said oath, or for wittingly neglecting to do their duty accordingly, as are mentioned and expressed in the said recited act made in the seventh and eighth years of the reign of king William the third; and the said oath hereby required to be taken, shall be administered by such person or persons as hath or have been, or shall be, appointed to administer the oath required to be taken by the said act made in the seventh and eighth years of the reign of king William the third.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That all penalties and forfeitures herein before mentioned, which shall be incurred in Great Britain, shall and may be prosecuted, sued for and recovered, in any of his majesty's courts of Record at Westminster, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland respectively, and (all necessary charges for the recovery thereof being first deducted) shall be divided and applied, one moiety to and for the use of his majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to the feizer or prosecutor.

And it is hereby further enacted and declared, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, all sums of money granted and imposed by this act, and by an act

made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles the second, intituled, An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland trades, and for the better securing the plantation trade, as rates or duties; and also all sums of money imposed as penalties or forfeitures, by this or any other act of parliament relating to the customs, shall be paid, incurred or recovered, in any of the British colonies or plantations in America; shall be deemed, and are hereby declared to be sterling money of Great Britain; and shall be collected, recovered and paid, to the amount of the value which such nominal sums bear in Great Britain; and that such monies shall and may be received and taken, according to the proportion and value of five shillings and six pence the ounce in silver; and that all the forfeitures and penalties inflicted by this or any other act or acts of parliament relating to the trade and revenues of the said British colonies or plantations in America, which shall be incurred there, shall and may be prosecuted, sued for and recovered, in any court of record, or in any court of admiralty, in the said colonies or plantations where such offence shall be committed, or in any court of vice admiralty which may or shall be appointed over all America (which court of admiralty or vice admiralty are hereby respectively authorized and required to proceed, hear and determine the same) at the election of the informer or prosecutor.

And it is hereby further enacted, That all penalties and forfeitures so recovered there, under this or any former act of parliament, shall be divided, paid and applied, as follows: That is to say, after deducting the charges of prosecution from the gross produce thereof, one third part of the net produce shall be paid into the hands of the collector of his majesty's customs at the port or place where such penalties or forfeitures shall be recovered, for the use of his majesty, his heirs or successors; one third part to the governor or commander in chief of the said colony or plantation; and the other third part to the person who shall seize, inform and sue for the same; excepting such seizures as shall be made at sea, by the commanders or officers of his majesty's ships or vessels of war duly authorized to make seizures; one moiety of which seizures, and of the penalties and forfeitures recovered thereon, first deducting the charges of prosecution from the gross produce thereof, shall be paid, as aforesaid, to the collectors of his majesty's customs, to and for the use of his majesty, his heirs and successors, and the other moiety to him or them who shall seize, inform and sue for the same; any law, custom or usage to the contrary notwithstanding; subject nevertheless to such distribution of the produce of the seizures so made at sea, as well with regard to the moiety herein before granted to his majesty, his heirs and successors, as with regard to the other moiety given to the feizer or prosecutor, as his majesty, his heirs and successors, shall think fit to order and direct, by any order or orders of council, or by any proclamation or proclamations, to be made for that purpose.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if the produce of any seizure made in America, shall not be sufficient to answer the expences of condemnation and sale; or if, upon the trial of any seizure of any ship or goods, a verdict or sentence shall be given for the claimant; in either of those cases, the charges attending the seizing and prosecuting such ship or goods, shall and may, with the consent and approbation of any four of the commissioners of his majesty's customs, be paid out of any branch of the revenue of customs arising in any of the British colonies or plantations in America; any thing in this or any other act of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said 29th day of September 1764, no person shall be admitted to enter a claim to any ship or goods seized in pursuance of this or any other act of parliament, and prosecuted in any of the British colonies or plantations in America, until sufficient security be first given, by persons of known ability in the court where such seizure is prosecuted, in the penalty of sixty pounds, to answer the costs and charges of prosecution; and in default of giving such security, such ship or goods shall be adjudged to be forfeited, and shall be condemned. And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any ship or goods shall be seized for any cause of forfeiture, and any dispute shall arise, whether the customs or duties for such goods have been paid, or the same have been lawfully imported or exported, or concerning the growth, product or manufacture of such goods, or the place from whence such goods were brought; then and in such cases, the proof thereof shall lie upon the owner or claimer of such ship or goods, and not upon the officer who shall seize or stop the same; any law, custom or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, in case

any information shall be commenced and brought to trial in America, on account of any seizure of any ship or goods, as forfeited by this or any other act of parliament relating to his majesty's customs, wherein a verdict or sentence shall be given for the claimer thereof; and it shall appear to the judge or court before whom the same shall be tried, that there was a probable cause of seizure, the judge or court before whom the same shall be tried shall certify, on the record or other proceedings, that there was a probable cause for the prosecutor's seizing the said ship or goods; and in such case, the defendant shall not be intitled to any costs of suit whatsoever, nor shall the persons who seized the said ship or goods be liable to any action, or other suit or prosecution, on account of such seizure; and in case any action, or other suit or prosecution, shall be commenced and brought to trial against any person or persons whatsoever, on account of the seizing any such ship or goods, where no information shall be commenced or brought to trial to condemn the same, and a verdict or sentence shall be given upon such action or prosecution against the defendant or defendants, if the court or judge, before whom such action or prosecution shall be tried, shall certify in like manner as aforesaid, that there was a probable cause for such seizure; or the plaintiff, besides his ship or goods so seized, or the value thereof, shall not be intitled to above two pence damages, nor to any costs of suit; nor shall the defendant, in such prosecution, be fined above one shilling.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any action or suit shall be commenced either in Great Britain or America, against any person or persons, for any thing done in pursuance of this or any other act of parliament relating to his majesty's customs, the defendant or defendants in such action or suit may plead the General Issue, and give the said acts and the special matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon, and that the same was done in pursuance, and by the authority of such act; and if it shall appear so to have been done, the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants; and if the plaintiff shall be nonsuited, and discontinue his action, after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared; or if judgment shall be given upon any verdict or demurrer against the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants shall recover treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same, as defendants have in other cases by law.

COMMANDERS, or CAPTAINS of trading ships, are such head officers, as have the chief direction and command of merchant-men, as well with respect to the proper security of the cargo, as to the part of navigating the vessel.

R E M A R K S.

As the success of merchants, in their foreign adventures, depends on the security of the navigation of shipping, so too much precaution cannot be taken in regard to the qualifications of their commanders: and that not only in relation to their skill and experience in the art of navigation, but their honour and honesty, late, as well as past experience having shewn, that they are not always proof against fraud and corruption; though, for their number, and the peculiarity of their employment, there is not, in the general, as the great Mr Locke has observed, a more upright body of men in the three kingdoms. See the articles ASSURANCES and AFFIDAVIT, with REMARKS thereon.

But, besides integrity and knowledge in navigation, I would desire leave to recommend it to those gentlemen, that some knowledge in accounts is what they should by no means be deficient in. For want of which, they too frequently give great trouble and vexation to their merchants and owners, and, perhaps, may have very often injured themselves as well as their employers.

Nor is it useless to the captains of trading vessels to be acquainted with the peculiar forms of transacting business with consuls, notaries, &c.

Another most essential qualification also to these gentlemen is, that of the art of navigation; which seeming to be rendered more concise and easy than any thing I ever met with, from the following discovery, which fell into my hands lately, and has not (as I have been informed) yet been made public, in the shape it now is, I have been requested to submit the same to the public consideration, and particularly in a short address to all commanders of ships, &c. which, as the art of navigation is perfectly compatible with a work of commerce, I judge it may not prove unacceptable; and more especially so, as it contains another attempt to discover the longitude at sea. This, indeed, has been so long attempted in vain, that many are of opinion, that it will scarce ever be discovered. Whether what follows is really any advance that way or not, is submitted to general consideration; and more particularly to the fair and candid trial and experience of all **COMMANDERS** and **MASTERS** of SHIPS, as well in the service of the royal navy, as that of merchants; and it is most humbly requested by the author, and many public-spirited gentlemen, that those who shall have tried and experienced at sea the

truth of the proposition (if there be any truth in it) would be generous enough to communicate the same by letter, post paid, to the author, the Rev. Mr. Richard Locke, to be left at Mr. R. Horsfield, bookseller in London. It is furthermore humbly desired, that such gentlemen, who shall be pleased to give themselves this trouble, would sign their names and places of abode, that the author may personally pay his duty to them for the trouble they may have given themselves.

The title of the work is as follows: *The New and Universal Problem to discover the Longitude at Sea, further explained and illustrated.* In which is geometrically demonstrated, that not only the Longitude and Course, but also the Distance run, is corrected by the same observation of Latitude and Distance run. With a general challenge to all the Mathematicians in the world to confute it, or shew any other Method of discovering the Longitude at Sea, that may be depended upon. By Richard Locke, a Clergyman and Reader to the Hon. Society of Lincoln's-Inn.

A paper printed in the London Evening Post, January 24, 1751. To the Hon. the Commissioners appointed to inspect the Longitude, and to the Public in general, this Problem for finding the Longitude at Sea is humbly submitted by the author, Richard Locke.

Whereas the author having made three several voyages to America, with a view, in a great measure, to discover the longitude: the first was with a good watch and an instrument to take true time, which he did to a great exactness: the second was by an eclipse of the moon, with an equal certainty; but neither of these methods can be depended upon at sea: and the third, by a problem, by which the longitude, in the dead reckoning, is corrected by the same observation that the latitude is, and to the same certainty, without any regard to lee-way, currents of the sea, or variation of the compass: and, because it is a problem of universal benefit to mankind, I shall communicate the practical part to the public, reserving the explication and demonstration of this, and the other two methods, to a more convenient opportunity.

There are few that use the seas, but know how to correct the latitude in the dead reckoning, by an observation: as if the latitude, in the dead reckoning, is less than in the observation, they add the difference to the latitude, and hence find the longitude, by adding the same proportionable difference; and, if less, by subtracting in both cases; which is very erroneous, and quite contrary to the truth: for, if the dead reckoning is found less than in observation, 'tis plain the course was taken too much, and distance too little, by reason of the lee-way, currents of the sea, or variation of the compass: subtract therefore the difference from the longitude, this will give the true course answering to the observed latitude, and hence the true longitude: but if less, as when the course is too little and the distance too much, from the same causes, add the difference to the longitude, and it will give the true longitude and latitude. To instance in numbers; suppose, in the dead reckoning, the latitude is found to be 10 leagues and the longitude 15, but by an observation the latitude is found 15, subtract the difference from the longitude, and, adding it to the latitude, it will make the longitude 10, and the latitude 15; this, according to the usual way of correction, would have made the longitude 20: but, if the latitude in the dead reckoning is 15, and only 10 in the observation, and the longitude 10, add the difference to the longitude, and the true latitude is 10, and longitude 15; which, according to the common correction, would have been only 5, probatum est, and which may easily be demonstrated by the problem. And the author hopes, that as he hath freely thus imparted his scheme to the public, if it is found true in general practice, as it is in speculation, and as he hath found it in practice himself, he shall be intitled at least to some advantage of the promised reward; as it hath been very difficult and expensive to him in the discovery, by study, travelling, and hindering him in his temporal affairs; and he further desires those who may make a trial of it, to be careful in working up their latitude and departure, and especially of making observations; for, as much as they miss in observing the latitude, so much they will miss in the longitude, and no more, as he hath experimentally found, in the last voyage to America. *Laus soli Deo.*

Jan. 23, 1750-1.

RICHARD LOCKE.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

Having put out an advertisement in the London Evening Post of January 24, 1751, concerning a new universal problem to find the longitude at sea; wherein I only mentioned the practical part, and what I had found to be true, in a voyage from Virginia to England, without giving any explication or demonstration of the problem, reserving these things for a more convenient opportunity: but finding that this method could not give that satisfaction to the public as must necessarily be expected in a matter of so much consequence to the world; and

and besides this discovery of a method to find the longitude at sea, capable of demonstration, is what hath, for many ages, employed the ingenious and inquisitive part of mankind, though they generally looked too high, by searching for that among the stars which can only be had here upon this earth. Led by these motives, I was resolved to publish the explication and demonstration of this problem, and let it take its fate in the world, as every one is at liberty to examine it; and this will put an end to those difficulties, and especially questions, that have been proposed to me about it; for now it must stand or fall, as by time and experience it shall be found true or false.

The great reward promised for a discovery of it hath encouraged many ingenious attempts, and, no doubt, but very much improved the practical part of navigation; for a prospect of reward is a certain spur to industry; and I cannot deny but that it was a great inducement to me, to be at some expences, and to bear with those many difficulties, as I must necessarily be exposed to, in study, and travelling to make those experiments, as I shall now freely impart to the world, and only reserve to myself the first and last shift of life, which is hope.

Having always a great desire to mathematics, from my first studying them in a college here in England, I applied myself to the study of the longitude, and published a pamphlet of it, some years ago; after that I was introduced in the company of the famous Dr Halley, and I proposed the scheme to him; he asked me, if I had been to sea to try it? I told him I had been to Italy by sea, but not with a design of discovering the longitude: I was thoroughly satisfied with the question, and designed then not to concern myself any more about it; but meeting with some disappointments in the affairs of life, which is but the common fate of all mankind, I was again resolved to go abroad, and try my fortune in other parts of the world; and, in a great measure, with a view to make some new discovery about the longitude.

The first voyage that I made was from Portsmouth to Antigua, as chaplain of a man of war. I had then no other view of discovering it but by a very good watch, and a double equinoctial dial, to take true time, by which I could find the time at sea as well as at land. At Portsmouth I put my watch to the true time of the sun, and made no other observations before we came into 29 degrees of latitude: I first made the observation for latitude, and by the same instrument, some time after, I took the hour of the day, and found it 42 minutes after 2 o'clock; the watch stood then at 14 minutes after 4; the difference of time was 1 hour, 32 minutes, equal to 23 degrees of longitude west, as the time of the day was before the time of the watch; and, when we made Antigua, I found the difference between the watch and observed time to be 3 hours, 56 minutes, equal to 59 degrees of longitude west. By this trial I found the longitude might easily be discovered by this method, if it was possible to find a regular movement to discover true time; but this hath been hitherto impracticable, and I am apt to think will always be so.

Some time after this I made another voyage to America, and lived for some years at a town called Lancaster, in Pennsylvania; and, February 13, 1747, I observed a total eclipse of the moon, which began there a little after 10 o'clock, and ended about as much before 2, the 14th day in the morning; hence I concluded, that the middle of the eclipse, or full moon, was about 12 o'clock, or midnight; in this eclipse at London I found, by tables made for that meridian, that the opposition, or full moon, was February 14, at 52 minutes after 4 o'clock in the morning. These 4 hours 52 minutes in time are equal to 73 degrees 15 minutes in degrees, which answers very near to the computed difference, which is reckoned to be 75 degrees, equal to 5 hours in time; but this method cannot any way be depended upon to find the longitude at sea, as there are so few eclipses of the sun or moon. Some, indeed, have imagined, that, if the place of the moon could be calculated and observed to a great exactness, it would be a great help towards the discovery of the longitude at sea: but even this would be impracticable, and not to be depended upon; for the moon doth not always appear; and its motion, or recession from the sun, is so little, that it doth not amount to above 30 seconds, equal to two minutes in time, in one hour, which is equal to 15 degrees in longitude, and that is but two seconds for one degree, that it is impossible by any instruments to make such nice observations, especially at sea, where the ship is always in motion: and there are no other observations by which it may be done, unless by the satellites of Jupiter, and these are invisible without the help of telescopes, which are in that case wholly useless at sea.

Wherefore we must necessarily have recourse to mechanical principles; and, as distances in surveying, and all mechanical operations, are measured on land: so, by proper methods, it might be done to as great certainty, or at leastwise as much as shall be necessary, at sea. There have been several methods invented and made use of; but what seems to be the best, is that of the log-line and half-minute glass, commonly used by the English; and by this problem it is demonstrated, that, if the true distance is given, the longitude, or easting and westing, may be found with as much certainty as the latitude is by observation, without any regard to the variation of the

compass, lee-way of the ship, or currents of the sea; because it is corrected by the same observation that the latitude is. The demonstration is founded on the principles of Euclid. Upon these considerations, and meeting with some disappointments, it put me upon a third trial of finding the longitude in a mechanical way; and having got an instrument made, something like a sinical quadrant, with moving labels, by which triangles both plain and oblique may be calculated, much sooner than by logarithms or scales, and much better, as I thought, than by the tables of latitude and departure; I was resolved to make a third voyage to America, with a design to end my days there; but God, in his good providence, was pleased to order it otherways. In the voyage I wholly depended upon the distance run, without any certain method of correcting it; only allowed 50 feet between each knot, and the glass to be 30 seconds. Upon asking how the log-line was divided? I was told by 45 feet, and the glass was 30 seconds, to keep the dead reckoning before the ship; and from hence I concluded to subtract 10 miles out of every 100, and 100 miles out of every 1000, which is according to the proportion of 45:50. A little before we made the land, I told the mate that we were 660 leagues west from the Lizard; he seemed to take little notice, and rather laughed at it; but a surgeon on board the ship, hearing me, laid a bottle of wine upon the reckoning, and got it: the journal I have by me, I made it, according to their division of the log-line, to be 3300 miles from the Lizard to Cape Henry in Virginia, and, subtracting 100 out of every 1000, made it just 3000 miles, or 1000 leagues. The reckoning was so exact, that they gave it out in Virginia that I had found the longitude, though I had no other method at that time than what is mentioned before, which was wholly to depend upon the distance run, allowing the divisions of the line to be 50 feet, and the glass 30 seconds.

I was settled in a parish in Virginia; but my health was so much impaired by age, and the change of climates, that I could not well perform such long tedious journeys as are required in their parishes; and meeting with other difficulties and persecutions, and especially the great scarcity of food and raiment; besides the great number of negroes that are there, which has made it a mere nest of thieves, and renders the country very disagreeable; and, having at the same time discovered this problem, I thought it would be very envious in me to conceal a thing of so much benefit to the public, as it was by the goodness of God freely discovered to me. Upon these considerations, I thought it was better to come home than to live in misery there; and in the passage, to make a thorough trial of it. I only took the distances as entered in the log-book, without examining into the glass or log-line, not doubting but that, as I corrected the latitude by observation, so I could correct the longitude by this problem, which I found to answer beyond expectation; for I made it just 3003 miles from Cape Henry to the Lizard, or 1001 leagues, as I have now the journal by me, which was but three miles difference between going and coming, though I was sensible, by the observations of latitude, that their log-line and half-minute glass were very much out, as well as keeping bad courses.

And, by this last voyage, I find that not only the latitude is corrected by the observation, but also the longitude and distance are corrected by this problem, to the same certainty, as I made no allowances for the distance run, as in the other voyage. This is what is evident in speculation, and will appear so upon a close examination of the problem; but I cannot expect that the truth and usefulness of it should depend upon this one voyage, but upon the general experience and practice of the world.

I must own I was advised not to publish it, before I had some promise of a reward; but to whom could I apply, that would take any notice of a bare proposal, after so many attempts as have been made, and all to no purpose? And if this should prove true in practice, as it is in speculation, and as I have found it in practice, I doubt not of the generosity of my country; they certainly will allow me some premium, or it will be a great discouragement to posterity ever to attempt any thing for the public good.

Speramus quæ volumus, sed quod accederit, feramus.

I cannot deny but formerly I published several attempts about the longitude; but I had not then that experience and trial as I have since had in this, though I always imagined that it might be done some such way, as I published it in a Miscellany of Mathematics; wherein I attempted the squaring of the circle, and found out a new and nearer proportion than of 7:22, which is 8:25, or that 3 diameters $\frac{1}{2}$ are equal to the circumference, and a problem to double, triple, &c. the cube, the correction of time, and in it likewise a method to find the distance run, without the help of an half-minute glass, &c. And this distance run, and a good observation of latitude, are all the requisites that are necessary in navigation, for every thing else is corrected by this problem, to a mathematical certainty, and even the distance by a good observation. But time and experience tries all things. *Laus Deo.*

RICHARD LOCKE.

An

suppose FD taken from KD, and added to AK, then AI and IE are equal to AK and KD, by axiom 2, and 3 Euclid 1, and the squares of AI and IE equal to the square of AE; but the squares of AI and IE are greater than the squares of AK and KD, by the lemma or coroll. hence their root, or the hypothenuse AE is longer than AD.

This makes no alteration in the problem, but only naturally corrects the distance at the same time the longitude and course are also corrected by the problem, and it is what makes the triangles in the traverse equivalent to spherical triangles; for these hypothenuses AE, AD, AG, &c. which are parts of the radii of circles, increase and decrease by means of the squares and powers of lines, as the chord BC, &c. of the quadrant; though the lines including the right angle, as AK and KD, AI and IE, &c. whose squares are equal to the squares of the hypothenuses AD, AE, &c. are always equal to the whole radius, or AB, and hence equal to one another, as AK and KD, &c. are equal to $AB = AI$ and IE , &c. (See the fig.) Hence, the greater the difference is between the observed and imaginary latitude, the greater are the errors in the course and distance, as is evident from the nature of triangles and power of lines, as they are here explained and applied.

8. But to proceed, and apply this to the traverse, as corrected by an observation, and this new problem; for what answers in a single triangle, will answer likewise in a traverse of never so many triangles; for as distances cannot always be measured upon one course, by reason of contrary winds, wherefore they have recourse to the compass, to find the angles of the several courses, and, by the distances, to calculate the longitudes and latitudes, and, adding them together, to make one general reckoning, which is called a traverse.

But the variation of the compass, the lee-way of the ship, currents of the sea, beside bad steering, render the angle of the course very uncertain, and consequently not to be depended upon at sea.

And there are two cases, in which the latitude is affected by these errors; which are, that the latitude in observation is either more or less than the latitude in the traverse, or dead reckoning.

And these are the two cases which are to be corrected by the new problem and the observation of latitude, with respect to longitude, course, and distance; for, if the latitude by the observation is the same as the latitude in the traverse, it is evident, that the course and distance were true, as the latitude in the traverse is calculated from them, and from what was said in the single course, by the 47. Eucl. 1.

9. In the first case, when the observed latitude is more than the imaginary one, let AKD be the imaginary triangle, AK the latitude, AD the distance run, and DAK the angle of the course, the longitude KD is found by case 1. of plain triangles, or by prop. 47. Eucl. 1. But suppose, by observation, the latitude is found to be more, or at $I = AI$, to make the squares of the observed latitude and longitude equal to the square of the distance, subtract the difference of the latitudes, or FD equal to KI, from KD the longitude, and add it to AK the latitude, then AI is the latitude, as by observation, and $IE = KF$ the corrected longitude, for their squares are equal to the square of AE, the true distance run; but as the squares of AI and IE, or IB, are greater than the squares of AK and KD, or KB, by the lemma, hence their root or distance AE is longer than AD, though the lines AK and KD are equal to AI and IE; and hence the longitude, course, and distance, are corrected by the observation of latitude and distance run: and, as the true course is IAE, it is evident, the course DAK in the traverse was taken too much, and distance AD too little.

Case 2, which is the reverse of the former: let the latitude in the traverse be less than the latitude in the observation; as suppose AIE the triangle, AI the latitude, AE the distance run, and EAI the angle of the course, by which the longitude IE is found by case 1. of plain triangles, or by prop. 47. Eucl. 1. But suppose, by observation, the latitude is found to be at K, or equal to AK, to make the squares of the observed latitude and longitude equal to the square of the distance, subtract IK the difference between the observed and imaginary latitude, and add it to the longitude IE, or make KD equal to KI and IE: hence AK is the latitude, according to observation, and KD the corrected longitude, their squares being equal to the squares of AD; and hence AD is the true distance run: but as the square of AK and KD, or KB, are less than the squares of AI and IE, or IB, though the lines are equal by the lemma, hence their root, or the distance AD, is less than the distance AE; hence the longitude, course, and distance, are corrected by the observation of latitude, and distance run; the true angle of the course was DAK; and hence it is plain, the computed course EAI was too little, and distance run AE too much.

10. A farther illustration of this new problem will appear, by shewing the absolute impossibility of determining the longitude at sea, or even at land (for the longitude might as well be found at land as at sea, by the distance and difference of latitude) without the help of this universal problem, since it

cannot be done by observation at sea, so as to be depended upon, as mentioned in the introduction; and that this method is equivalent to an observation of longitude.

There are but two ways of correcting a traverse by the observation of latitude, either by the lines of the triangle, or by the angle of the course. To correct by the lines, is what is done by this new problem, but the angle of the course is so uncertain, as mentioned before, that there can be no dependence upon that method, as will further appear, by comparing both methods in the two cases, when the latitude is more or less; and by this will be made a proper application of this new problem to practice.

Case 1. When the latitude in observation is less than the latitude in the traverse, let BAC (fig. 44) or S. by W. = 11 deg. 15 min. be the imaginary course, and let AC the distance run, be given 10 miles: hence, by case 7. of trigonometry, or by the tables of the difference of lat. and dep. the lat. AB is 9,8, and the long. BC, 1,9 miles, or in integer numbers 9 and 2: but suppose, by observation, the latitude is found to be at D, or equal to AD 1,9 or 2 miles, according to the common method of correction by the angle, the triangles ABC and ADG being similar, hence $AB : BC :: AD : DG$, or $9 : 2 :: 2 : 4$ tenths, and hence the distance run, AG, is only 2, 2, which is impossible, for that was given 10 miles.

But to correct it by the new problem, or the lines, subtract the difference between the latitude in observation, and the latitude in the traverse, or DB from AB, and add to it the longitude BC, or make DE equal to DB and BC, hence AD is the lat. according to observation, DE the longitude corrected by the problem, and AE equal to AC the distance run, as was given: for AB and BC are equal to AD and DE, for DB and BC are equal to DE by construction, and AD is common to both: hence AE is equal to AC the given distance run. In numbers, subtract 7, the difference of the latitudes, from 9, the remainder 2 is the observed latitude; add that 7 to 2 the longitude, it makes 9 for the corrected longitude, and hence the distance run is 10, as was given. The course is found, by case 5, to be W. by S. = 78 deg. 45 min. These propositions are universal, and will answer in all courses.

In the second case; when the lat. in observation is more than the latitude in the traverse, let the course be EAD, W. by S. = 78 deg. 45 min. AE the distance run 10 miles: hence by case 7. of trigonometry, or by the tables of the diff. of lat. and dep. DE the longitude in integer numbers is 9 miles, and AD the latitude 2 miles. But suppose, by an observation, the latitude is found to be AB, or 9 miles, according to the common method of correction, or by the angle, as the triangles are similar, $AD : DE :: AB : BF$, or $2 : 9 :: 9 : 40 \frac{1}{2}$, and the distance run AF is 42, which is impossible, for the distance run is only given 10 miles. But, to correct it by the problem, subtract BD the difference between the observed and imaginary latitude from DE the longitude, and add it to DA the imaginary lat. and the lat. is AB according to the observation, and the longitude BC, as corrected by the observation and distance run; for AB and BC are equal to AD and DE, hence $AC = AE$ is the true distance, as was given, the angle of the course S. by W. = 11 deg. 15 min.

In numbers, subtract 7, the difference of the latitudes, from 9 the longitude, and add it to 2 the latitude, which makes the latitude 9 according to the observation, and the longitude 2 as corrected by the observation and distance run: hence the distance is 10, as was given by 47. Eucl. 1. the angle of the course is found, by case 5. of trigonometry, to be S. by W. = 11 deg. 15 min.

In the first case, the longitude corrected according to the common method, in only failing 10 miles, is above 8 miles too little; and, if it had been 100 miles, it would be above 80 miles too little. In the second case, it is above 30 miles too much; and, if it had been 100 miles, it would have been above 300 miles too much; and not the least error in correcting it according to the problem.

This is the uncertainty of determining the longitude by the common method, and, without some correction, the art of navigation in determining the longitude is useless, or mere guess-work, since it cannot be found by observation, as the latitude is: though this correction, by the observation and the problem, is equivalent to an observation of longitude; for the longitude, course, and distance, are corrected by the same observation as the latitude is, as must evidently appear upon a close examination of the problem, by the principles of Euclid.

The truth and usefulness of this universal problem depends only upon two mechanical principles of making a good observation of latitude, and measuring the distance run, without any regard to currents, lee-way, or variation of the compass, for these are corrected to a mathematical certainty, as any one acquainted with mathematical reasoning, and especially as applied to navigation, in this new and universal problem, might easily perceive.

And thus a ship might be carried round the world, even without a compass, if they can but make proper observations of lati-

latitude, and measure a good distance, and mis no more in longitude, or easting and westing, than they do in latitude, by the help of this problem, with the observation of latitude, and the distance run: for should they lose their compass, or should it prove erroneous, as it frequently doth, let them make an imaginary course, and by the distance run calculate an imaginary triangle; and, if the imaginary latitude is more than the observed one, subtract the difference from the imaginary latitude, and add it to the longitude; if less, subtract the difference from the longitude, and add it to the latitude, and this will give the true latitude and longitude of the ship, according to the observation of latitude and distance run; for, by the problem, the observed latitude, and corrected longitude are always equal to the longitude and latitude in the traverse. This problem is universal for all courses, as I had some trial of it in a voyage from Virginia to England. Upon the 28th of November, 1750, being on board the Gloucester, captain Whiteing commander, by the reckoning corrected by the problem, we were 2988 miles east from the capes of Virginia, in long. 69 deg. 18 min. the latitude, by observation, 49 deg. 24 min. I told the captain we were certainly near the longitude of the Lizard; they flily maintained, that we were several degrees, at least 7, to the west of the Land's End; within a few hours we made the easternmost point of the Lizard, and it is well we did, for we had a great storm from the S. W. that night; and I do really think, that I missed no more in longitude than in observation of latitude, though there was a very bad dead reckoning kept the whole voyage. But,

12. What is meant by the longitude in the problem, is only the miles of easting or westing, or the departure from the meridian. To turn these miles into degrees of longitude, requires a different method; the latitude is at once determined by the observation, because the motions of the sun and stars are regular from the east to the west, and the lines of latitude are parallel and equidistant round the globe in both hemispheres; but the lines of longitude decrease in both hemispheres from the equator, till they meet in the poles, which makes the longitude different in every degree of latitude.

By miles here are meant geometrical miles, of 69 + English miles to one degree on the equator, equal to 60 geometrical miles, and may be found, by proportion, without the help of Mercator's tables: for, as circles are to one another as the squares of their diameters, their segments are in the same proportion by 2 Eucl. 12; hence the quadrant 90: is to the square of one degree of longitude on the equator:: as the complement of the latitude: is to the square of one degree in that latitude. For instance, to know the miles of one degree in the latitude of 50 deg. square the 60 equatorial miles, and by proportion 90: 3600:: 40: 1600, the square root is 40, the miles to one degree in the latitude of 50 deg. and dividing the miles of easting or westing by the miles of one degree of longitude, if in the same latitude, will give the degrees of longitude. But, if in different latitudes, divide by the miles of the middle latitude; two instances will be sufficient to shew the use of it in all cases.

For suppose two places in the latitude of 50 to be 3400 miles distant, the miles of longitude in that latitude are 40; by which divide the 3400 miles, the difference of longitude is 85 degrees. The reverse is to find the miles between two places 85 deg. distant in the latitude of 50 deg. multiply the 85 by 40, and it gives 3400 miles.

Let the other instance be of two places in different latitudes, as the Lizard in the latitude of 50 deg. and Cape-Henry, in Virginia, in the lat. of 37 deg. the miles of long. at the Lizard are 40, and at Cape-Henry 46 to a degree; these added are 86, the half is 43: the distance between the two places is about 3000 miles, which divide by 43, the degrees are 69 deg. 33 min. The reverse is to find the miles by the deg., multiply the 69 by 43, and add the 33 miles; it gives 3000 miles, the departure or longitude.

I shall conclude with instances in both cases; as when the latitude is more or less in the traverse than in the observation, in which will be shewn the method made use of in working the traverse, and correcting it by an observation of latitude; by which means the easting or westing of the ship is known to as much certainty by the distance run, and the problem, as the northing or southing is known by the observation of latitude; and this is all that is necessary to carry a ship to any part of the world. The latitude and departure are found by the 7th case of plain trigonometry, when the course and distance are given, or by the first case of plain sailing in the mariner's new calendar; or it may be done by proportion, without tables or scales, by squaring the distance; and 90 or the right-angle: is to the square of the distance:: as the course: is to the square of the longitude, or complement of the course is to the square of the latitude: the square root is the longitude or latitude. I shall put down part of the traverse that I made from Virginia to England, as mentioned before. On the 26th of November we were 2716 miles east from the capes of Virginia, long. 63 deg. 17 min. lat. by observ. 50 deg. 28 min.

Day	Course	Dist.	Long.				Lat. by Observ.	Corr ^d	D:.
			E.	W.	N.	S.			
26	S. E. by E.	134	110			70	50°, 28'	2716	63°, 17'
27	S. E. by E.	28	23						
	E. S. E.	8				15			
	E. by S.	80	78			3			
	E. S. E.	15	14			2			
28			232, 4			104	49°, 24'	2988	69°, 18'

The longitude was 232 miles east, and the latitude in the traverse 104 miles south. By observation, the latitude the 26th was 50 deg. 28 min., and the 28th 49 deg. 24 min., their difference is 64, and subtracted from 104, is 40 miles less than in the traverse; wherefore, according to the problem, add 40 to the longitude 232 = 272, and this, added to 2716, is equal to 2988 in deg. 69, 18, which was the time I told the captain that we were near the longitude of the Lizard, and made the eastern point a very few hours after; but, if the correction had been made according to the common method, the reckoning would have been 80 miles less, besides other corrections that were made through the whole voyage: for, every time we had an observation of latitude, I always corrected the longitude by that observation and the problem; and it is probable, had I not made these corrections, the reckoning might have been as short as theirs was, and we should not have endeavoured to make the land, which must have been of very dangerous consequence from the great storm we had from the S. W. that night. *Laus soli Deo.* But, if the difference between the two observations had been more than the latitude in the traverse, the difference must have been subtracted from the longitude, and added to the latitude; for the latitude in the traverse must always be made equal to the latitude by observation.

Thus in a traverse by the problem, the latitude is corrected by observation, and by the latitude the longitude is corrected, and by the observed latitude and corrected longitude the true distance is found out, by squaring the longitude and latitude, and extracting their square root, which gives the true distance by the lemma. *Laus soli Deo.*

I shall conclude with this *Laus soli Deo*, and a challenge to all the mathematicians in the world to confute it, or shew any other method of determining the longitude at sea, to be depended upon with any certainty: and I affirm, that this method is quite new, and never published by any author before the 24th of January, 1751, when I first published it in the London-Evening-Post. I experimentally know this to be true and easy: and if it cannot be confuted, or shewn to be defective in any material point, the reward in honour, confidence, and justice, belongs to the discoverer. See **LONGITUDE.**

COMMERCE being the subject of this work, it may be necessary to say something on this head; not by way of declamation, which is as needless as haranguing learnedly on the benefit of air, rain, and sun-shine, when nature requires them; but in order to shew, that the province of a trader is not so contemptible a class of the community, as some would affect to make it.

A general complaint of the decay of trade, and a humour in many of the better sort of people, to make awkward and ill-grounded excuses for breeding their children up to it; together with a tendency to prefer what is called the professions, as law, divinity, and physic, to merchandize; should induce us to examine on what foundation this way of judging was erected. And, the more it is looked into, the less cause will there be for so feeble a way of thinking; for there is not only less likelihood for a man to raise himself to any degree of eminence in the professions, than by trade; but also that the road to honour and preferment is as open, where the merit is equal, in trade, as in law, divinity, or physic; and that many more estates of consideration* are acquired, and even with less obloquy, from the one than from the others.

* Mr Locke observes, that trade is a surer and shorter way to riches, than any other. *Locke's works, vol. ii. p. 8. folio.*

Supposing an eminent trader arrives only at the office of lord-mayor; in that capacity alone he becomes right-honourable, and invested with the sacred character of a judge, both in capital and civil matters, and precedes even the chancellor, and all other judges and officers of the crown*. Also, in case of an interregnum, is the chief magistrate in the realm †.

* The high rank of mayor is not merely confined to the city, for at a coronation, which is our prime ceremony of distinction, the mayor walks next but one to the prince of Wales.

† Upon the death of the king, the lord mayor is said to be the prime person of England. For when king James I. was invited to come and take the English crown, upon the

death of queen Elizabeth; Sir Robert Lee, then lord-mayor, subscribed in the first place, before all the great officers of the crown, and all the nobility. Seymour's Survey of London, vol. ii. pag. 35. And late instances of this kind happened on the abdication of king James II, when the mayor committed, by his warrant, the lord Jefferies to prison, then chancellor of England, and a peer of the realm. About which time also, Sir John Chapman, mayor of London, committed Sir Robert Wright, lord chief justice of England, to the gaol of Newgate, which fully evidences the great eminence of this office. See the history of that time. English Baronetage, Ed. 1741, vol. v. p. 106.

And wife and great traders have arrived at the dignity of lord-chancellor, have been created peers of the realm, knights of the garter and bath, bannerets, and privy-counsellors. Which is as much as can be affirmed either of lawyers or divines, and more than can be proved, perhaps, in one single instance, of the followers of physic.

Trade, by the constitution of our country, both with respect to its public and private, its ancient and modern, its general and particular, laws, is certainly no degradation whatever; and it may with strict truth be affirmed, that commerce is that alone, by which our nation supports its head, and what renders us of that consequence with foreign powers as we are. And if the following trade had here ever degraded (which, in effect, it never did) yet it is conceived that the brave stand, which was lately made by the citizens of London, to support the credit and honour of the nation, and the protestant succession, should be a sufficient cause alone to make traders esteemed by all degrees, as gentlemen of worth; and not only so, but as a people and body of men, the most respectable and fittest to be encouraged of any in these realms, and a full proof to all intents and purposes, that merchandize is a worthy and honourable employment.

It would greatly exceed the limits to which I am confined, to enter into the antiquity and honour of trade among the Egyptians, Jews, Greeks, and Romans. Wherefore, we shall only examine on what footing of honour trade stood with our ancestors; and how it is now, or should be esteemed with us.—To begin with the legislative power, there is no body of people, who have so large a share allotted in it as traders. Our house of commons consists of knights and burgesses; but the former, who are to consider the landed-interest, are but few, when compared with the latter. There are no more than two allowed for any county, for many* only one; but most trading towns send one or more burghers to parliament, to look to their trading interest; and these the law (which is termed right and reason) intends to be such in the respective towns as live there, and understand the interest, and are concerned in the benefit of the manufacture established in that burgh or town †, for which they are chosen; and not strangers, who, perhaps, are too often elected for their money.

* The counties send 80 knights, the cities 50 citizens, and the boroughs 334 burghers.

† In the proclamation for calling a parliament in 1620, advice is given first to call their eyes on knights and gentlemen, that are a light and guide in their county; then, on eminent lawyers, and substantial citizens and burgesses; such as are interested, and have a portion in the estate. And not to disvalue or disparage the house with bankrupts, and necessitous persons that want long parliaments only for protection; with lawyers of mean account and estimation; young men, that are not ripe for grave consultations: mean dependants on great persons, that may be thought to speak under their command; and such-like obscure and inferior persons. Lord Bacon's works, vol. iv. page 707. See also Statute, 1 Henry V. ch. 1.

This was the just scheme of our wise ancestors, and doth evidently prove how high a value is set on trade by the constitution of our government: nor is this all, for it shall be shewn, that trade doth neither by the laws of the land, or honour, in the least detract from gentility; but, on the contrary, that great traders have frequently been admitted by our princes into the upper house of parliament; that they have been appointed privy-counsellors for their wisdom; and have, as observed, been created not only knights, but baronets, knights of the garter, and bath, bannerets, barons, and earls; which must fully demonstrate that trading was not only formerly, but is, even now, of the greatest consequence to the English nation; and never did, or can, by our laws or customs, detract from any man or family; but, on the contrary, that a great part of our nobility are immediately descended from great traders.

Vertegan, the English antiquary, in his Titles of honour*, mentions, that in old times, if a merchant so thrived, that he was able to cross the seas thrice, he was ever after reputed a right-worthy Thein, and capable of higher advancement; so that from hence it appears, that traffic, at that time of day, ennobled its followers, who were not so before: and, till lately, every man who had 40 l. a year in land, was qua-

* Page 367.

lified to be a knight, and from thence came the term of knight's fee with us. But as king Charles basely misused this law in his wants †, compelling every man, who had that qualification, to become a knight, or to compound; it was, for that cause, ranked among the chief grievances of his reign, and therefore was abolished by act of parliament at the Restoration, as may be found in the histories and statutes of those days.

† Clarendon, speaking of this abuse, says, 'By this ill husbandry, the king received a vast sum of money from all persons of quality, or, indeed, of any reasonable condition, throughout the kingdom, upon the law of knight-hood; which, though it had its foundation in right, yet, in the circumstances of proceeding, was very grievous; and no less projects of all kinds, many ridiculous, many scandalous, all very grievous, were set on foot.' Clar. vol. i. page 67.

The learned Camden* observes, that Richard II. advanced Michael de la Pole, a merchant, to the honour of earl of Suffolk, and made him chancellor of England. He was the son of William de la Pole, the first mayor of Kington upon Hull; who, upon account of his great wealth, had the dignity of a banneret conferred upon him, and was also made second baron of the exchequer by Edward III. 'However,' says Camden, his being a merchant did no how detract from his honour. For who knows not that even our noblemens' sons have been merchants? nor will I deny that he was nobly descended, though a merchant.'

* Camden's Britannia, page 376.

This Michael de la Pole was also knight of the garter, as Vincent*, in his Review of Brooke, observes; and that he could not have been so, at that time of day, by the statutes of the order, had he not been a gentleman of three descents, as he was, being the son and grandson of a knight, but that knight a merchant. 'From whence, says he, it follows, that Mercatura non derogat nobilitati; that is, Trade is no abatement of honour.'

* Page 700.

As it here may be asked, What constitutes a gentleman with us? so the reply is easy: being a gentleman is being intitled to bear arms*. And Mr Camden observes, that the distinction of a gentleman of coat-armour (or an upstart) and a gentleman of blood, is the bearing of arms from the grandfather; and that he who bears arms from his grandfather is, to all intents and purposes, a gentleman of blood; for which cause it is requisite, by the statutes of the Bath, that every knight, before his admission, proves that he is so qualified; which done, it carries with it, if his merit be equal to the thing, a passport also to the order of the Garter.

* Notitia Anglicana, p. 24. also judge Doddridge's Honour's Pedigree, p. 147. Smith de Repub. Angl. & Fortescue, fol. 82.

Guillim, in his chapter of Gentlemen, says, They have their beginning either of blood, as that they are born of worshipful parents; or that they have done something, either in peace or war, whereby they deserve to bear arms, and be accounted gentlemen. He farther says, chap. 24. If a gentleman be bound an apprentice to a merchant, or other trader*, he hath not thereby lost his gentility; and he desires it may be remembered, for the honour of trade, that Henry VIII. thought it no dishonour to him, when he quitted his queen, to take to his wife Anne, the daughter of Thomas Bullen, sometime mayor of London. To which may be added the thought that the first William, who founded our royal race, was only the grandson of a tanner.

* 'A young gentleman, whose father had been an apprentice in London, but of a good family, was insulted in company for this very thing, as if he was no gentleman born, implying that his father's apprenticeship had corrupted his blood. The father was stirred at this not a little, and was determined to have this matter fully sifted: for which purpose, Philpot the herald set himself to study this point, deeming it very fit to be resolved. And, in his book called the City's Advocate, he determines, that an apprentice in London is no dishonour nor degradation, but rather an honour and degree; and that it is very foolish to embase honest industry with disgraceful censure, and unjust not to encourage it with praise and worship, as the ancient policy of England did, and doth, in constituting corporations, and adorning the companies with banners of arms, and especial members thereof with notes of nobility.' Strype.

We shall now give the names of divers considerable traders, who have been advanced to high honours, or posts of trust, by our respective princes; which may be found in the following list, mentioned by Seymour, in his Survey, vol. ii. page 74.

Sir John Blunt, mayor of London, made knight of the Bath with Edward prince of Wales, 34th of* Edward I.

* See Wotton's Baronets, vol. iv. p. 675.

Sir Godfrey Fielding, mercer, and mayor of London 1452, was made of the privy council to Henry VI. and Edward IV. Sir Thomas Coke, draper and mayor, 1462, the 5th of Edward IV. was made knight of the Bath, and afterwards a banneret, by that king.

Sir Matthew Philip, goldsmith, and mayor 1463, was made a knight of the Bath, and a banneret, the 10th of that reign. In 1464, Sir John Gilliot, merchant, lord mayor of York, was made a knight of the Bath *.

* See a catalogue of the mayors of York, printed by Step. Buckley, 1664, p. 28.

Sir Ralph Joffine, draper, and mayor 1465, made knight of the Bath, and afterwards a banneret *.

* Stow, page 419.

Henry Weaver, sheriff of London, 1461, made a knight of the Bath *.

* Stow's Ann. page 419.

Sir John Young, grocer, made a banneret in the field.

Sir William Home, fadler, and mayor 1487, made a banneret by Henry VII.

Sir John Percival, merchant-taylor, and mayor 1490, made a banneret by Henry VII.

Sir John Shaw, goldsmith and mayor, made a banneret by Henry VII.

Sir John Allen, mayor, 1528, made a privy-counsellor by king Henry VIII. *

* Baker's Chronicle, page 296.

Sir Thomas More, who was sheriff of London about the year 1513, was afterwards chancellor of England, and of the privy-council to Henry VIII. *

* See Hollinghed's History, vol. ii. p. 341, 711, 938, &c.

Sir William Acton, made a knight and baronet, when sheriff of London, 1628.

Sir Thomas Adams, mayor 1646, made a knight and baronet; and, since that time, many great traders in every reign have been advanced to that dignity: which may serve to shew, that trade with us is oftentimes the high road to honour. And now it shall be demonstrated also, from Dugdale, and others, that many great traders have even been created peers of the kingdom, and that divers antient peers are descended from great traders.

It is affirmed by some historians, that Robert Harding, who was created baron Barkley by king Henry, was a citizen of Bristol *.

* Baker's Chronicle, p. 58. and Dugdale's, vol. i. p. 351.

Thomas Legge, citizen and skinner of London, was twice mayor thereof; he married Elizabeth, one of the daughters of Thomas Beauchamp, earl of Warwick: which shews, that, even in those dainty times, the first nobility thought it no degradation to match themselves with eminent traders. This Thomas Legge was direct ancestor to the earl of Dartmouth *.

* Collins's Peerage, vol. iii. page 100.

Sir Michael de la Pole, merchant, was created earl of Suffolk, chancellor of England, and knight of the garter *.

* Vincent on Brooke, p. 700. and Rapin, vol. iv. p. 406.

Sir Stephen Brown, grocer, twice mayor of London, in 1438 and 1448, and ancestor to the lord viscount Montague *.

* Seymour's Survey, vol. ii. p. 72 and 74. also Wotton's Baronets, vol. iii. p. 5.

Thomas Bullen, grandson of Jeffery Bullen, mercer, and mayor of London, created viscount Rochfort, and earl of Wiltshire and Ormond.

Sir William Holles, mayor in 1539 *, whose great-grandson, Sir John Holles, was created earl of Clare, and afterwards duke of Newcastle.

* Stow, in his Survey of London, says, that William Holles, who built Coventry-Crois, was a baker; but Mr Gervase Holles, his grandson, denies it. In Seymour's list of the mayors of London, though the trades of most of the other mayors are specified, his is omitted. However, it is agreed on all hands, that he built Coventry-crois, and was the great-grandfather of the earl of Clare. Concerning this difference it is of little importance, for, the lower his beginning was, the greater his merit thereby appears. See Dugdale's Warwickshire, vol. i. p. 143.

Sir Edward Osborne, clothworker, and mayor of London 1583, and ancestor of the present Duke of Leeds. This Sir Edward Osborne jumped out of a window on the bridge, into the Thames, to save his master's daughter's life, who was afterwards his wife *.

* See this story at large, attested by the duke of Leeds, in Seymour's survey of London, vol. ii. p. 78.

Sir Baptist Hicks, mercer of London, created lord Hicks and viscount Camden, the 4th of Charles I. was ancestor to the

present earl of Gainsborough *. Wotton, in his Baronetage, observes, that this Sir Baptist Hicks was one of the first citizens that kept a shop after his knighthood; upon which, in 1607, he had some dispute with an alderman about it, and also a contest for precedence, standing on his knighthood; which matter came at last to be decided by the earl marshal.

* Dugdale's Baronetage, page 462.

Sir Ralph Dormer, mercer, was mayor of London in 1529; of which family was Dormer earl of Carnarvon, as is also the present lord Dormer *.

* Dugdale's Bar. p. 428. see also Collins's Peerage, vol. iv. page 97.

Thomas Cromwell, earl of Essex, and knight of the Garter, son of Thomas Cromwell, a blacksmith of Putney.

Sir William Capell, draper, and mayor of London in 1503, was ancestor to the present earl of Essex *.

* Seymour's Survey, vol. ii. p. 79. and Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 466.

Sir Richard Rich, mercer, and mayor of London 1441, and ancestor of the Riches, earls of Warwick and Holland, and the baronets *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 387.

Sir John Coventry, mercer, and mayor of London 1425, and ancestor of the present earl of Coventry *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 460.

Lionel Cranfield, merchant of London, was by James I. for his great abilities, made master of the requests; afterwards master of the king's wardrobe, then master of the wards, a privy-counsellor, lord-treasurer, and earl of Middlefex *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 466.

Sir William Fitzwilliams, a merchant-taylor, and servant some time to cardinal Wolsey, was chosen alderman of Breadstreet ward in London, anno 1506; and, going afterwards to dwell at Milton in Northamptonshire, he entertained there the cardinal, his former master, then in his misfortunes; for which being questioned by the king, he answered, that he had not done it contemptuously, but because he had been his master, and partly the means of raising his fortune: with which answer the king was so well pleased, that he knighted him, and made him a privy-counsellor. In his last will he gave to king Henry VIII. his large ship, with all her tackle; to Sir Thomas Writheley his collar of the garter, together with his best George, set with diamonds; and to his brethren, the merchant-tailors, his best standing cup. He died anno 1542, and his will was proved the 16th of February that year. This eminent citizen of London, at his death, was knight of the garter, lord-keeper of the privy-seal, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and was the immediate ancestor to earl Fitzwilliams. See Seymour, vol. i. p. 240. also Stow's Survey of London, p. 89.

To this list may be added many more instances, but these may suffice, as England has few better houses amongst the nobility than some of those noble families; and many of which titles still live in their descendants.

Trade is so far here from being inconsistent with the character of a gentleman, that trade in England makes gentlemen, and has peopled this nation with nobles and gentlemen too: for, after a generation or two, the children of traders, or at least their grand-children, come to be as good gentlemen, statesmen, parliament-men, privy-counsellors, judges, bishops, and noblemen, as those of the highest birth and the most antient families; and nothing too high for them: thus the late earl of Haverham was originally a merchant, the present earl of Tilney's grandfather the same, as well as the great-grandfather of the present duke of Bedford, and numberless others. And why should not commerce, as well as law and divinity, or the sword, be a road to the highest honours? Is the grandeur of this nation owing to wars? This has not so much as helped it: what conquests have we made abroad? what new kingdoms are added to the British empire? We have reduced no neighbouring nations, nor extended the possession of our monarchs into the states of others: we are butted and bounded as we were in queen Elizabeth's time: the Dutch, the Flemings, the French, are in view of us, as they were then; we have subjected no new provinces or people to our government; with few exceptions we are almost for dominions where king Edward I. left us; nay, we have lost all the dominions which our antient kings for some hundreds of years held in France; such as the rich and powerful provinces of Normandy, Poitou, Gascony, Britany, and Aquitain; and, instead of being enriched by war and victory, we have, on the contrary, been torn in pieces by civil wars and rebellions, as well in Ireland as in England, and that several times to the ruin of the richest families, and the slaughter of our nobility and gentry; nay, to the destruction even of monarchy itself, and this many years at a time, as in the long bloody wars between the houses of Lancaster and York.

These things prove abundantly that the present greatness of the British nation is not owing to war and conquest; and

that it can be owing to the profession of law, or divinity, no one will say: what can it be owing to then but to our trade and commerce?

The splendor, the power, and dignity of Great-Britain, being thus raised by trade, it must be unaccountable folly and insatiation to lessen that one article in our esteem, which is the only fountain from whence we all, take us as a nation, are raised, and by which we are enriched and maintained. The Holy Scriptures, speaking of the riches and glory of the city of Tyre, which, at that time, was the emporium of the world for foreign commerce, from whence all the silks and fine manufactures of Persia and India were exported all over the western world, say, that her merchants were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth: and, in another place, By thy traffic thou hast increased thy riches. And certain it is, that nothing but our traffic has increased our riches, and given that illustrious splendor to our British nobility and gentry.

As all things are preserved, and brought to a greater degree of perfection, by the same means by which they were first established; so, without due attention to the interest of trade, when all nations are, more or less, plucking at that share we have, must not this nation dwindle in wealth and power, while it's neighbours are rising in both? To what degree this nation is really declining, and others increasing in commerce, hath already appeared in this work, beyond contradiction, from facts and testimonials not to be overthrown by any declamatory artillery of the subtlest sophists; and the same will be more and more glaringly conspicuous throughout this undertaking. And,

When the nobility and gentry of these kingdoms are pleased to consider the honour of trade, and how numerous and how distinguished the noble and honourable families are that have rose to the highest dignities thereby, in wealth, and in knowledge, of the nation's true interest; when others of our illustrious nobles and gentry, who have been advanced to the pinnacle of grandeur by other channels than those of commerce, shall also be pleased to consider, that it is trade alone which gives a value to their landed estates, and adds to the glory of their sovereign, as well as of themselves; none among them, I am persuaded, can treat a subject of such consideration with indifference, nor look upon trade in a contemptuous light.

For, after all the machinations and intrigues of politics that these kingdoms have, or can pursue, experience ever has, and ever will evince, that a tenacious regard to our commercial interests, both at home and abroad, will prove the great pillar of the state.—And I am glad, I rejoice, to find this confirmed in the present sentiments of a great and able minister, whose long experience in public business has brought him to a thorough knowledge of this great truth; and, therefore, in the breeding up one of his own sons, has not only given trade the preference, but endeavoured to inspire our young nobility to pursue studies which tend to the promotion of the national commerce.

This hath been lately done in a pamphlet in favour of the woollen manufacture, said to be written by the right honourable Horatio Walpole, sen. Esq; intitled, The complaints of the manufacturers, relating to the abuses in marking the sheep, and winding the wool, in a letter to the marquis of Rockingham; who, though a young nobleman, but lately of age, exerted himself, the first time of his appearance in the house of Lords, in a very distinguished manner, in favour of the WOOLLEN MANUFACTURERS of this kingdom; an example, which the honourable author of the before-mentioned treatise, from a true zeal to the commercial interests of his country, recommends to others of our young nobility.

And here I cannot but observe, that this young nobleman follows the example of his renowned ancestor, the memorable earl of Strafford, who laid the first foundation of the linnen manufacture in Ireland, by sowing great quantities of flax for feed, and setting up several looms at his own expence, to invite the Irish to follow that trade without prejudice to England; which has proved, and is at this day, the greatest benefit and support of that whole kingdom.

As commerce, from what has been observed, has proved the source of all the blessings which this nation enjoys, and the rise of so many great families, and of great numbers more, as I could easily shew; so, the more country-gentlemen breed their younger children * to it, the likelier such families are to be continued, and become useful to the public.

* Mr Locke, after recommending it to people to bring up their children to some trade, adds, 'But if the mistaken parents, frightened with the name of trade, shall have an aversion to any thing of this kind in their children, yet he recommends the teaching them merchants accounts, as a science well becoming every gentleman.' Locke's Works, vol. ii. page 95. folio.

The importance of an idle, useless, younger brother, is very finely set forth by Mr Addison, in his character of Will Wimble, who greatly laments the folly of some great families *,

* Lord Bacon assigneth the true cause of this, in saying, That nobility of birth commonly abateth industry; and he that is not industrious envieth him that is. Bacon's Works, vol. iii.

that had rather see their children starve like gentlemen, than thrive in a profession or trade, that they think is beneath their quality. 'This humour, says he, fills several parts of Europe with pride and beggary †; but it is the happiness of a trading nation, like ours, that the younger sons, though incapable of any liberal art or profession, may be placed in such a way of life, as may, perhaps, enable them to vie with the best of their families.' 'When I have, continues he in another place, been upon the Exchange, I have often fancied one of our old kings standing in person, where he is represented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy concourse of people with which that place is every day filled. In this case, how would he be surprized to hear all the languages of Europe spoke in this little spot of his former dominions, and to hear so many private men, who in his time would have been the vassals of some powerful baron, negotiating like princes, for greater sums of money than were formerly to be met with in his royal treasury!

† Lord Bacon saith, That trade enableth the subject to live plentifully and happily; and that the realm is much enriched of late years by the trade of merchandize. Bacon's Works, vol. iii. pages 329, 573, and 580. And elsewhere he styles the merchants *vena porta*; and says, 'If they flourish not, a kingdom may have good limbs, but will have empty veins, and flourish little.'

'Trade, without enlarging the British dominions, has given us a kind of an additional empire; it has multiplied the number of our riches, made our landed estates infinitely more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them an accession of other estates, as valuable as lands themselves.' And in another place he says, 'It is the great advantage of a trading nation, as there are very few in it so dull and heavy who may not be placed in stations of life which may give them an opportunity of making their fortunes. A well-regulated commerce is not like law, physic, or divinity, to be overstocked with hands; but, on the contrary, flourishes by multitudes, and gives employment to all it's professors. Fleets of merchantmen are so many squadrons of floating shops, that vend our wares and manufactures in all the markets of the world, and find out chapmen under both the tropics.'

The learned bishop of Cambray gives us also his sentiments on this subject, in the character of Narbal, in his account of the Phœnicians *, by whom it is supposed the learned archbishop meant the English. 'You see, says he, the power of the Phœnicians, who have rendered themselves puissant to all their neighbouring nations, by the grandeur of their fleets. Trade, which they carry to the furthest quarters of the earth, has so enriched them, that they surpass the most flourishing people in glory.' And again, instructing Telemachus how to establish a flourishing trade in Ithaca, 'Do, says he, as those people do, receive, with kindness and with ease, all strangers; let them find in your harbours safety and convenience, free from restraint, and never suffer yourself to be overcome, at any time, either with pride or avarice; the true way to get much is never to be too covetous, and even-sometimes to forego gain. Make yourself beloved of all strangers, and even bear with slight inconveniences from them; fear to excite jealousy by your pride; be steadfast to follow the laws of commerce, which are simple and easy; and suffer not your subjects, on any account, to infringe them. Keep a strict hand over the fraud, negligence, or vain glory of the merchants, which ruins commerce, in ruining the traders themselves; and, above all things, never attempt to confine commerce to your own proper interest.'

* Vide Les Avantures de Telemaque, lib. 3. p. 36.

This may be sufficient to shew, how clearly, this great prelate saw the advantage accruing from a free trade; and his countrymen, the French, have very greatly increased theirs, by following many of these wise maxims, to our infinite disadvantage.

But even foreigners themselves make a very great distinction and difference in our favour, betwixt an English trader, and those of other nations. To this effect writes the baron de Polnitz *, a person well known in most of the courts of Europe: 'In England, says he, the nobility intermarry with traders daughters, as they do in France; however, a great distinction should be made between the one and the other. In England, merchants are sometimes sprung of the greatest houses in the kingdom: and it has often happened, that younger branches of noble families, who have been brought up to trade, by the right of succession have become peers. And frequently it falls out, that, when a lord espouses a merchant's daughter, she may be his cousin, or at least a lady of a good family.'

* Memoirs de Baron de Polnitz, vol. iv. p. 237.

'What is the true origin, says the ingenious Abbé Le Pluche, in order to support the spirit of commerce in France, of the splendor and honours which attend the condition of noblemen? Is it not the just and well-grounded persuasion of their being born to promote the public good? 'Tis, indeed,

indeed, in that view; that new honours and new rewards are bestowed upon the man who has preserved a town, a body of troops, a corporation, or the life of a single citizen, dear to his country. It is prudence and activity that raise a man out of the common class, when his virtues have been exerted for the good of the state. For scorn attends the bravest man, who is only a pyrate or a duellist. What regard ought we not then to entertain for a gentleman, who, with capacity, attempts the establishment of an advantageous colony, or the advancement of those in a languishing condition? Desist as we now begin to be of large timber for ship-building, what gratitude should we not be bound to have for one, who would make it his task to carry to Louisiana a sufficient number of either vagabonds or volunteers, there to work the lofty woods which that land is covered with, by stopping, with pile-work and dykes, the inundations of the Mississippi; or by building for us ships upon the spot; or in short, by yearly ballasting, with a number of the finest oaks, the ships that should be sent thither from the stocks of Brest or Rochefort! What value does not the state express for the man, who, at the approach of a great scarcity of corn, embarks with all haste with one or more ships, and timely brings back from the ports of Dantzic or London, or from the coast of Barbary, a first provision of corn, which he prudently causes to be followed by still more abundant supplies! However, it is not necessary, in order to render himself agreeable to the public, that a man should have cut armies to pieces, or given bread to the whole state.

Has he not nourished multitudes, and preserved whole provinces from endless calamities, when he has, by advances of money, or by a wise management, established or maintained three studs of horses, that will help the operations of husbandry, and remount the cavalry; or great forges of an acknowledged benefit; or large manufactures, or plantations of wood in useless grounds; or plantations of madder, of woad, of saffron, of genestrol, of greening weed, of white mulberry-trees, or any other such works, that will supply a multitude of families with employment, and feed a great many others, whom agriculture alone could not sufficiently maintain?

Let us cast our eyes upon the castle of St Gobin*, formerly a heap of ruins, a paltry decayed country-house. It employs now above five hundred workmen within its walls, and gives subsistence without, to five hundred families of the adjacent places, by supplying them with work, or by buying their commodities. Not to mention the money which that manufacture brings us from foreign countries. Possibly a knight-errant will, with indignation, see the abodes of the ancient worthies employed for manual works. The low people of the neighbourhood, obliged to buy wood somewhat dearer than before, will, perhaps, curse an establishment which is the real prosperity of that country. But, can judgments like these bear examination? Public good ought to be the rule of our esteem, as it is the foundation of true nobility.

* A manufacture of iron and blown glasses in France, betwixt Laon, La Fere, and Chauny.

Lewis XIV thought it so, when coming from the end of the Low-Countries to the assistance of Alliance, which was now seized upon, he went several leagues out of his road, purposely to honour with his visit the works of St Gobin, of which he would have the particular account given him. Lewis XV. was of the same opinion, when he granted the finest prerogatives, and the most advantageous distinctions, to the establishers of the manufactures of Abbeville and Sedan. I omit many others. It was not in hopes that the descendants of Messieurs Cadeau and Van Robais should bestow their stocks to buy some indolent post, and at last live nobly by living idly; but rather on condition that these families would continue to maintain thereby an activity truly useful to the state; by multiplying useful correspondences with foreign countries, and by procuring a livelihood to thousands of citizens. The manufacture of Abbeville does alone employ above two thousand five hundred, within the space of a thousand square feet, and imparts its plenty, to all places round about. Our French are now so far from taking any fancy to English or Dutch stuffs, or from sending their money to London to have a pendulum-clock, that our chamber and pocket clock-work is the only one now in use among us; and much valued by the strangers themselves, both for its exactness and neatness. Our woollen cloth and small stuffs are of very common use at Milan, Lisbon, and Cadiz, in all the Levant, and especially in the French and Spanish colonies. Now I would ask, if a gentleman will do less good and honour to France, by making an army of workmen go in good order, and by improving by his observations, a machine much desired, or a staff equivalent to the product of the best lands, than if he had defended a post at war; or got together again the remains of a company dispersed and put in confusion? It is easier to run two or three

risks in one's life, than to maintain by a stubborn unflinching vigilance, and to improve by new experiments, a colony, a stud of horses, or any one of those employments that gives bread to the multitude.

Pray consider, on the one hand, the narrow views of a gentleman's younger son who is poor, and charged with the management of a poultry-yard, or the villainy of a sharper who borrows or pilfers money on all sides to live; and, on the other, the sagacity, the gentility, the elevation of mind, and the whole liberal carriage of a gentleman, who accounts to himself in his closet for the product of a successful employment. He always appears with all the decency suitable to him. Every body courts him: he gives life and shelter to all under his protection. Which of these has degenerated? Doubtless the gentleman who ruins himself by gaming and debauchery. But, on the other hand, how truly the nobility of a Rousseau* or a Jullienne† deserves universal respect! It is by serving the public that we may become dear to it. Thus it is, that our younger children, instead of being a weight upon their elder brothers, might help to support both them and their sisters, and introduce into a family, very often sunk in debts, the assistance and splendor of the most lawfully acquired riches.

* Mr Rousseau, director of a large manufacture of woollen cloth at Sedan.

† Mr De Jullienne, director of the manufacture of woollen cloth at the Gobelins.

But it is not only our noble families that would gain much, by having some branch of the wholesale trade cultivated by their younger brothers. The state itself would infinitely find, in this wise practice, an endless nursery of excellent men. A young gentleman, inwardly urged on by his birth, will leave no stone unturned to keep out of the common class, and will always make the most honourable use of his riches; by affording to the military man, his neighbour, the assistance of a kind advance of money, or by decorating his country with embellishments of the utmost utility. However, it is a known matter of fact, that great enterprizes preceded by good studies, and by travels judiciously employed, are both the school and the trial of all talents.

I have another thing to observe to you, concerning the advantage and the resources of commerce, viz. That noble families, by scorning that kind of commerce to which they are invited both by the king and state, deprive themselves of the occasions of becoming dear to mankind, and leave to merchants the whole advantage of the noblest enterprizes. The sentiments of noblemen grow meaner and narrower together with their circumstances; and it is natural, on the contrary, to see merchants have the greatest views, and raise themselves to the noblest actions, in proportion as their knowledge and wealth increase. This may be proved by both reason and example.

It would be needless to quote instances of the first kind: they are reckoned by thousands. As to the merchants, whose a laudable industry has enabled to serve their country, and at last to fit on a level with the nobility; instead of quoting recent facts known to every one, let us go higher up to remote ages, and borrow our examples from the great. It is with private families as with whole cities, and even republics. The spirit of commerce becomes the source of industry and opulence. Here we may recal the degree of splendor to which the cities of Tyre and Carthage were raised by a set of plain merchants. As long as these towns remained only trading towns, they were active, happy, and agreeable to the whole world. They committed a gross mistake, and worked their own ruin, when the spirit of conquests succeeded to the simple desire of self-preservation. The cities of Genoa and Venice have been raised only by merchants, and the diminution of their former prosperity is barely the decay of their commerce, occasioned by the aggrandizement of that of the Portuguese in the Indies; by the introduction of the English into the Mediterranean: I will add, and by the pageantry of certain families, who put too great a distance between nobility and industry. So long as the counts of Flanders cared and made much of the workers of woollen stuffs, and the undertakers of manufactures of cloth and camlets, nothing could be compared to the wealth of the cities of Bruges and Ghent. The indifference which was afterwards shewn for these works, destroyed them, and threw both towns, already reduced to the product of their lands, which were excellent, into a state of mediocrity, from which they have never recovered. The workmen, loaded with impositions and insults, carried their woollen cloth to England and Antwerp, where they introduced wealth, to which those places were yet strangers; and, to this spirit of traffic, which daily improved, are we to attribute the grandeur and magnificence of London. The face of England is totally changed, first by the fabric of its wool, and afterwards by the multiplication of its shipping. The entire decay

decay of Antwerp came from the retiring of it's workmen
 to Amfterdam, and from the fuppreffing of it's fhipping,
 which is loft together with it's harbour.
 The city of Hamburgh being menaced, as well as all the
 Hans-Towns, with a quick deftruction of it's wealth, by
 the neceffity of fharing the commerce of the Baltic with
 many nations, which had not been feen meddling with
 it before, has had the fkill to extend the feveral branches
 of it's induftry to other feas, and recover it's former
 vigour.
 Holland receives from, and fends embaffadors to, crowned
 heads. It ranks with the moft diftinguifhed ftates, and is
 behind none of them for the plenty of both the neceffary
 and the agreeable, for the boldnefs of it's enterprizes, and
 the wifdom of it's government. And what are the Dutch
 but a fet of merchants, who take a pride in being fuch ?
 Let us, according to the defires of certain fyftematical
 men, bring them back to their primitive condition. We
 fhall find a handful of fifhermen, of cheefemongers and
 foldiers, groping in the dirt of that country, naturally un-
 fit to be inhabited. But that time is over; fince the fpirit
 of commerce has fpread itfelf over that little corner of the
 world, it has affumed another face. The waters have been
 carried off: the grounds of their habitations are daily
 raifed, and rendered firmer and firmer. Their towns be-
 come models of neatnefs and conveniency: the draining of
 the lands has even brought in gardening and husbandry.
 Add to this, multitudes of inhabitants: an eager emulation
 in all arts, the moft perfect marine; and the greateft hon-
 ours paid to the art military and refined politics; all in
 fhort, has been introduced there with commerce, which
 works the prefervation and glory of families as well as of
 whole ftates. I would afk now, if the nobility can do
 greater things, or ever be difparaged by operations of this
 kind ?
 I fhall add but two more instances of the grand views in-
 fpired by commerce and experience. The firft is that of
 James Cœur, a merchant of the city of Bourges, who had
 alone a more extenfive commerce than all the merchants of
 France had together in his time; and by his wife coun-
 fels, as well as by the certainty of his cafh, humbled the
 houfe of Burgundy, infured the crown of France to the
 lawful heir Charles VII, and by him to the branches of
 Valois and Bourbon his fuceffors.
 The other instance is that of the merchants of St. Malo,
 who, being exasperated by the unjuft requeft which the
 congreff of Getrudydenberg made to Lewis XIV, of em-
 ploying his troops to force his grandfon, Philip V, to aban-
 don the crown of Spain, to which the teftament of Charles
 II had called him, joined the profits they had juft made in
 the commerce of the Spanifh colonies in America, and
 brought thirty-two millions in gold to the foot of the
 throne, at a time when the finances had been exhausted by
 a long ferief of unhappy events. Thefe thirty-two millions
 timely diftributed in the mints of France, re-animated the
 war and all payments. The houfe now reigning in the
 kingdoms of France, Spain, and Naples, will never forget
 the agitation it was in at that time, and the happy means
 of maintaining it's rights found in that crisis, in the zeal
 of thofe merchants. If tradefmen have made fo noble a ufe
 of their riches, what helps ought not the ftate to expect,
 when treafures fhall be owing to the cares and ingenuity of
 gentlemen ? The king and the commonwealth, on the
 contrary, have no fentiments, nor any fervice to expect
 from one who thinks his idlenefs a means to keep his no-
 bility; juft as the church has nothing to hope from a be-
 neficed man, who argues upon and weighs the merit of an
 actrefs, or grounds upon principles the beft manner of
 patching a face.
 Pleafures, amufements, and idlenefs, may, among a cer-
 tain fet of people, affume an outside of nobility. But men
 who are as good citizens as they are truly noble, have a
 very different way of thinking. The habit of doing no-
 thing has no other efficacy but that of adulterating our
 fentiments; and the ftate is no lefs grateful for the fervice
 of ingenuity and prudence, than for thofe of courage and
 intrepidity. In fhort, it is the prefervation of the ftate
 which conftitutes our glory.
 I know my own way of thinking, and how to fet bounds to
 my own defires. But I fhould think myfelf equally happy
 as a father, if my advices had rendered my eldeft fon a Tu-
 renne, and made a James Cœur of the youngeft.
 Thus we have an idea of the fentiments of the French in
 regard to commerce, and how follicitous fome of their wifef
 men and warmeft patriots are to promote a fpirit fo ufe-
 ful to the ftate. And,
 Since trade feems to be the moft certain dependency of the
 younger branches of our Britifh gentry, and the leaft pre-
 carious road to fortune, honour, and independency in all re-
 fpects, it is to be hoped, it is to be ardently wifhed and de-
 fired, as well for the interefts of private families, as that of
 the three kingdoms in general, that none will think their
 quality above engaging in it, either in one capacity or an-
 other.

Of the order of MERCHANTS engaged in COMMERCE.

As this clafs of traders is fuperior to that of any other, and
 the employment, as we have feen, is of fo high credit and
 dignity, as to raife thofe concerned in it to the fupreme pofts
 of truft and honour in the kingdom, no one bred to it fhould
 methinks, be deficient in any ufeful or ornamental branch
 of knowledge, that hath a tendency to render the character
 as conspicuously amiable, as it is importantly beneficial,
 to the community. Upon which occafion, I conceive, the
 fentiments of Sir Francis Brewfter, an eminent merchant of
 the city of London, in the reign of king William III, will
 not be unworthy the judicious reader's attention. In his
 Effays on Trade and Navigation, part the firft, in the Pre-
 face, he makes the following obfervations: ' I think it,
 fays he, a mortal diftemper in trade (not to be cured in the
 firft concoction) that we have fo few men of univerfity
 learning converfant in true mercantile employments: if
 there were as much care to have men of the beft heads and
 education in it, as there is in the laws, the nation would
 fetch more from abroad, and fpend lefs in law-fuits at
 home. We have it reckoned up by the infallible author,
 as the glory of a city, That her merchants were princes
 and nobles; their bufinefs and tranfactions in the world,
 with fuch, is more than belongs to any other fet of men:
 would it not then be the honour of a nation, as well as
 profit, to have men of the beft fenfe and learning in the
 foreign negoce of a kingdom? If fuch had been in the
 trade of thefe kingdoms, it feems reasonable to believe, we
 had not loft the moft confiderable navigating trade and em-
 ployment of our feamen.
 It would be an aftonifhing obfervation, to men of any coun-
 try but our own, to fee more heads employed in Weftmin-
 fter-Hall to divide the gain of the nation, than there are
 hands on the Exchange to gather it together. I have fome-
 times thought, that if thefe kingdoms lay under the con-
 fuſion and unintelligibleneſs of underſtanding in trade, as
 the builders of Babel did in languages, we might, without
 the fin of theſe arrogant architects, erect ſuch towers in
 trade, as might overtop the univerſe in that myſtery. We
 fee how all arts and ſciences have been improved in this
 kingdom, within the compaſs of one century, but, amongſt
 them all, the merchant's part the leaſt; and the reaſon is
 plain, men of ſmall learning and moderate underſtandings
 are generally put in it: for, though there are ſome of ex-
 cellent parts and clear heads among them, yet the major
 part are not ſo poliſhed: I ſpeak not this to abate the re-
 ſpect that I ſhall always think is due to the profeſſion, and
 all men in it; but we know it is the vanity of the nation;
 ſcarce a tradefman but if he have a ſon, that a country
 ſchoolmaſter tells him would make a ſcholar, becauſe he
 learns his grammar well, but immediately paſſes the ap-
 probation of his kindred, who judges it pity ſo hopeful a
 youth ſhould be loſt in trade; the univerſity is the only ſoil
 fit for him to be planted in.
 By ſuch diſpoſition of the youth of our nation, many a
 good tradefman is loſt, and poor ſcholars in every reſpect
 made; and, if this humour prevails in mechanics, and
 men of ordinary quality, much more, and with better
 pretenſions, it affects our gentry; to be ſure the eldeſt ſon
 is above trade, and, if the younger be of a quaint and flu-
 dious temper, they are thought fit for the law, not many
 for the pulpit; which, I confeſs, I likewise think a miſ-
 take in our gentry: had we more of them in the clergy,
 we ſhould have fewer to deſpife, that might be better buil-
 ders of houſes than of the church.
 But, to return to what I obſerve of the improvement in
 all the employments in the kingdom, I ſee none that have
 arrived to that vaſt increaſe as thoſe in the law: this, per-
 haps, is accounted an evil; but I will not quarrel with the
 long-robe; I hope it will be no offence to wiſh them
 amongſt us, but not with their bar-gowns; they would, in
 my opinion, look better in a COUNTING-HOUSE than in
 the TEMPLE; and had the humour of our anceſtors run
 that way, as much as it did for the law, there might have
 been as great an enlargement in maritime traffic and na-
 vigation, as there is now of the laws: I preſume none will
 ſay, that they began with equal numbers; trade had the
 primogeniture, and ſet forth with the employment of the
 people, before there could be work for lawyers; and I be-
 lieve thoſe of the beſt value amongſt them do not think
 their growth and gain contribute to either, in the advan-
 tage of the nation; though, without the profeſſion, there
 can be no ſecuring property; but perhaps the numbers make
 more work than there would be, if they were leſs. Ham-
 burgh, though a place of great trade, allows but two: and,
 though our foreign plantations are filled with men of no
 better principles than they leave behind them, yet they
 have few among them who raiſe their fortunes by the law;
 for which no reaſon can be given, but that there is not a
 foundation and nurſery for that profeſſion, to breed up men
 of learning and ingenuity in.

I have been the longer on this subject, because there seems to me an expedient in this matter; and that is, to make such provision for noblemen and gentlemen's children, as may be equally reputable with the Inns of court, for young gentlemen to come to from the universities, and, with less charge than their expence in seven years studying the law, become expert in trade.

To be thus managed: in each maritime city and considerable part of the kingdom; to have a college built, in which there may be some persons of experience in trade, to teach and direct in the mystery of it, to all parts of the world: and, that they may have the practice as well as theory, that every person entering himself into the society, may be obliged to bring in a thousand pounds stock, which will make a capital, perhaps, of 20 or 30,000 l. sterling, to traffic with in thirty cities, &c. in the kingdom: they to be obliged to spend five years in this society, and at the end of that term to receive the principal they brought, allowing the casualty of profit and loss as it happens: going thus out, they will be entered in trade, and probably have a fund to begin with; and by this means trade will fall into the hands of gentlemen, persons of learning and consideration in the nation; and likewise preserve from misfortunes numbers that now miscarry in their studies of the law, through ill conversation, and having no employments.

To this project (a word now traduced to contempt, though in itself of good signification both for peace and war) I foresee two objections that will be made, and they are these:

First, This will make too many merchants.
 Secondly, That this will leave no room for younger brothers, that have nothing to prefer them in the world, but a small sum to put them apprentice to a merchant, by which they often raise their fortunes in the world.

To the first I answer, That the evil of having too many merchants, is, in the numbers that are bred up from apprentices, many of which, coming into business without funds, strain their credit, which, to keep above water, they are forced to venture at all ways that have but a probability of success, to keep themselves in business; and then, to comply with their credit, often sell to loss, which, in the end, brings them to misfortune, and that begets an opinion that there are too many traders; whereas the true reason is the want of stock, not number of merchants.

The second objection, That this will hinder merchants from taking apprentices, is in part answered in the first, that their numbers prejudice trade: but there is a further consideration in this matter, and that is, two sorts of youth stand candidates for a mercantile education; gentlemen with a capital, others of less quality, with none. I think it will admit of no question which shall be preferred; and that the other may be more profitably employed for the nation and themselves, in trades that require more labour and less stock.

But, after all I have said, my wishes are greater than my expectation, to see trade thus courted in a kingdom, that treat it as some do their wives, considering them no farther than to the production of a legitimate posterity, reverting their cares and delights for a mistress; so the humour of this age seems to incline, whilst foreign commerce is neglected, and men's thoughts and designs run after offices and employments in the state; to pay which, spider-like, the nation spins out her bowels to catch flies; and the simile goes farther, such food turns into poison, where it feeds men faulty in their morals; and such too often supplant better men, or find ways to be preferred before them. To say this will be no offence to deserving men; and, for others, I shall only desire them to suspend their resentments, until they hear what I have to say elsewhere, and then they will have more reason, because it will come in my way to be more particular, when I come to speak of the trade of Ireland; in which there have of late been such notorious demonstrations, how ill men in offices and places of trust may ruin and destroy a kingdom, as admits of no defence. I have, for this, the authority of both houses of parliament, in their addresses to the king: and the infallible author tells us, that he who hath said to the wicked, Thou art righteous, the people will curse, nations shall abhor him.

R E M A R K S.

Of the gentleman's knowledge in trade.

The gentleman, who has made the knowledge of trade one branch of his study, will be capable of judging for himself, which of his family have the best turned genius to engage with credit and honour in the practice thereof, and in what capacity therein a son may render himself the most conspicuous. This is no little advantage, as well as satisfaction to a family; for it is not always safe to rely on the loose and indifferent advice of others, in matters whereon the interest and happiness of families depend. And,

If all the principal classes of commerce be stocked with the younger branches of persons of the best families and fortunes; and the heads of those families also become the zealous patrons and advocates of trade, in the several capacities of magistrates, senators, judges, and nobles; the interests of trade will never be neglected, or Luke-warmly espoused: the commerce of the nation will never be left to traders themselves, to cut out national branches, at the hazard of their own fortunes, and by dint of their own sagacity: no, all the able heads in the kingdom will be constantly engaged, ambitiously engaged in the guardianship of our trade and navigation; because the study of it will convince them, that nothing else will prove a permanent support of them and their families; which will multiply the number of our nobles and gentry, and, what is most desirable, will lastingly uphold their dignity and independency.

There is no branch of knowledge but may, if duly applied, contribute so to form and embellish the human mind, as to render men the more serviceable to society: and whoever is desirous to be useful, and to distinguish himself in any eminent capacity, will make his natural and acquired abilities subservient to that chief end, and set no greater value on any accomplishment, than as it is conducive to that, or some other end, beneficial to his country or his family.

What end can men, of the first rank and condition, propose to themselves better than that of making millions of their fellow-creatures happy? And what, in a land of liberty, like this, can answer that glorious intention better, than the promotion of commerce; every man's property here being duly secured, when thus acquired?

If the comprehensiveness of the subject, and the difficulty in understanding many very complicated points, relating to the interest of trade, can be any motive to applications of this kind; I am apt to believe, this study will furnish more knotty and intricate problems, than many are aware of. Certain I am, that upon trial it will be found no easy task to reduce knowledge of this kind to its demonstrative principles, and to be capable of applying these principles, according to the occasional exigencies of the state. We have, indeed, humbly endeavoured at something of the former; how we have, and shall be able to succeed, is submitted to the candid and judicious. *Humanum est errare; at errores feliciter retractare vere divinum est.*

I have endeavoured to make practical trade, and its natural circulation in a state, the foundation of what is suggested argumentatively; for I judge it as irrational and absurd to reason upon trade, without making the practice of traders the basis thereof, as to philosophize without experimental knowledge; the theory and practice (or rather the political and practical consideration of trade) should go hand in hand, as well as the theory and practice in other sciences; for practical trade, and facts arising consequentially from its national circulation, must be the touchstone of all political researches: that is to say, in other words, the theory of trade, considered in a national light, must be founded in the practical ways and method of carrying it on.

Nor is this two-fold knowledge of trade of use only, as we humbly conceive, to the heads of our greatest families, and to these younger branches, who may fall into any trading employment, but it may prove of no little utility, honour, and advantage, to such younger sons of our most distinguished families, who are designed for any posts of honour in foreign countries; such as consuls, presidents, and ambassadors, &c. or to such who may be invested hereafter with the high character of Plenipotentiary, in order to negotiate treaties of commerce with other powers, wherein the interest and honour of the kingdom, as well as the glory of our sovereign, is always nearly concerned.

C O M P A N I E S.

The origin of the companies of the city of London, viz. the principal twelve, of the time of their being incorporated, and by what kings and queens: as likewise the names of all the other companies.

1. The mercers (though then trading for the most part in stuffs of the native growth) were enabled to be a company, and permitted to purchase 20 l. per annum lands, in the 17th year of king Richard the second's reign, Anno Domini 1393.
2. The grocers (though at that time greatly inferior to what they now are) called pepperers before, were incorporated, by the name aforesaid, in the 20th year of king Edward III, Anno Dom. 1345.
3. The drapers, for the most part woollen, were incorporated in the 17th of king Henry VI, Anno 1630, having been a fraternity from the time that king Ed. III. so earnestly promoted the woollen manufacture, by admitting the Flemings, and other nations, the free use of manual operation within his dominions: that so his subjects might learn the craft, and not be beholden to other nations, to work the growth of our own country, and pay them extraordinary rates, by the advance of exportation and importation, for what might be otherwise ordered to the advantage and glory of our own nation, by fet-

ting many thousands of poor people on work, otherwise incapable of getting whereby to subsist.

4. The fishmongers (a vocation no less advantageous to this kingdom by their encouragement of the fishing-trade) were, in former times, two companies, viz. stock-fishmongers, and salt-fishmongers; but, in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII, Anno 1509, did bear their arms as at present they do, and in the 28th year of that king, Anno 1536, were united and incorporated in one body without distinction.

5. The goldsmiths (an ancient craft, so I may rightly term it, for formerly those that sold worked likewise their own plate) were incorporated and confirmed in the 16th year of king Richard II's reign.

6. The skinners had the favour to be incorporated in the first year of the reign of king Edward III, Anno 1327, and were made a brotherhood in the 18th year of king Richard II's reign.

7. The merchant-tailors had their first patent of arms granted by Sir Thomas Holne, clarencieux king at arms, being then called taylors, and linnen-armourers, viz. in the 21st of king Edward IV, Anno 1480; and since incorporated by Henry VII, by the name of merchant-tailors, viz. in the 17th of his reign, Anno 1501.

8. The haberdashers, or hurrers, formerly so called, were incorporated a brotherhood of St Catharine, in the 26th of Henry VI, Anno 1447, and, by the name of merchants haberdashers, confirmed in the 17th year of Henry VII.

9. The falsters had their arms, and, as many suppose, were confirmed in the 20th year of Henry VIII, 1530, being a company of good esteem.

10. The iron-mongers had the favour to be incorporated in the 3d year of king Edward IV, Anno 1462, at which time they were greatly increased, and the mines of our nation much improved.

11. The vintners, formerly called wine tunners, were incorporated in the reign of king Edward III, after he had conquered all Normandy, and by that means ingrossed most of the French vintage; but were not confirmed 'till the 15th of Henry VI.

12. The cloth-workers had their arms granted by Thomas Benolt, clarencieux, in the 22d year of Henry VIII, but the time of their incorporation is uncertain.

Those that remain, are these, whose names I shall only recite; the dyers, brewers, leatherfellers, pewterers, barbers, furgeons, armourers, white-bakers, wax-chandlers, tallow-chandlers, cutlers, girdlers, butchers, fadlers, carpenters, cordwainers, painters, curriers, mafons, plumbers, innholders, founders, embroiderers, poulterers, cooks, coopers, bricklayers and tylers; bowyers, fletchers, blacksmiths, joiners, plaisterers, weavers, fruiterers, scriveners, bottlemakers, and horners; stationers, marblers, wool-packers, farriers, payiers, lorimers or loriners, brown-bakers, wood-mongers, upholsters, turners, glaziers, clerks, watermen, apothecaries, and silk-throwsters.

All of these are fraternities, and most of them incorporated, and have charters of privilege, and large immunities, though, in the days of our forefathers, many of them were not known, not having brought their several trades and crafts to perfection, for many of which they were obliged to be beholden to strangers; but the natives of this kingdom being naturally ripe-witted, and of a toward genius, soon became arts-masters, and out-did their teachers; so that, at this day, no nation under heaven can exceed them (if the materials be alike) in all respects.

But having given the reader an account of the respective companies, whose industry at home improved, to a miracle, what is brought to them from distant lands, I shall proceed to give a relation of the respective merchants, whose traffic by sea first enriched the land, whilst the land finds them wherewithal to drive on their commerce with all nations, from whence any valuable merchandize was brought. But, before this, I think it would be necessary to relate the first incorporation of the merchants of the staple, who once were the chiefest boast, and most profitable to this nation: nor, indeed, less profitable to others, as France, Flanders, Holland, Saxony, and many other countries, the chief mart being established at Calais, a little before taken from the French, by king Edward III, the profit of our English wool then chiefly obliging the Flemings to join with us, against their potent neighbour.

Of the first Companies that were established in this kingdom for the benefit of foreign trade.

However injurious companies with joint stocks, and incorporated with exclusive privileges, may, at this time of day, be reckoned to the nation in original; yet it is certain, that they were the general parent of all our foreign commerce, private traders upon their own bottom being discouraged from hazarding their fortunes in foreign countries, 'till the methods of traffic had been first of all settled by joint stock companies. From this principle it is, that we find several nations now that are endeavouring to improve their trade, and establish

or increase maritime power, by the means of joint stock companies.

The bodies of merchants that were at first incorporated for those purposes in England, were as follow:

1. The merchant-adventurers were incorporated by king Edward IV, from which time they traded with good success 'till the reign of queen Elizabeth, who, for a further encouragement of their industry, not only confirmed, but enlarged their privileges.

2. The merchants of Russia or Muscovy, having improved their trade and commerce in that remote kingdom, to the enriching their native country, were incorporated by king Edward VI, greatly encouraged by queen Mary, and had their confirmation, with an enlargement of their privileges, from queen Elizabeth.

3. The merchants of Elbin were incorporated by queen Elizabeth, and by her greatly encouraged; she, like a wise queen and patroness of trade and navigation, well knowing, that by traffick alone the kingdom could be enriched, her revenues improved, and she rendered formidable to her aspiring neighbours: but, by some disgust, the trade of Elbin was transplanted to Hamburg, and other free ports and cities.

4. The Turkey merchants, or merchants of the Levant, were likewise incorporated by the same princess, and were confirmed in their privileges by king James, with large additions.

5. The merchants of Spain, or more properly Spanish merchants, or such of our nation as traded to Spain, were incorporated by queen Elizabeth.

6. The East-India merchants were also incorporated by that princess, Anno 1600.

7. In the latter end of queen Elizabeth's reign, and the beginning of king James's, the Eastland, Greenland, and French merchants, were settled in companies and traded with great success, building many ships, continually employing several thousand persons in the management of their affairs, exporting commodities of our own growth, and importing the productions of other countries.

8. There were likewise a company of Virginia, or West-India merchants, whose great industry and sagacity tended to the first settling and improvement of our colonies in America. And most nations that make any considerable figure in trade at present, made use of the like kind of policy, in the first establishment of their foreign traffick.

But, since the trade of this kingdom and the number of traders have increased, and the methods of assurance of shipping and merchandize, and navigation to all parts of the known world, have become familiar to us, these companies, in the opinion of most men, have been looked upon in the light of monopolies; and, therefore, their privileges have from time to time been lessened, in order to establish an absolutely free and general trade; and experience hath shewn, that the trade of the nation has advanced, in proportion as monopolies have been laid aside.

But, whether it may, or may not, be for the national interests of trade, to continue some species of companies, with exclusive privileges, such as the late Royal Assiento, &c. we shall consider, when we come to speak of the constitution, nature, and state, of the several trading companies, under their respective names, which now exist in Great-Britain, and other parts of the world. See these several companies, as the EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, the TURKEY COMPANY, &c. See also the articles MONOPOLIES, CREDIT, PUBLIC CREDIT, STOCK-JOBING.

R E M A R K S.

As Sir Josiah Child is esteemed the ablest advocate for some kind of trading companies with joint stocks and exclusive privileges, I judge it necessary to quote his sentiments thereupon at large; intending to give them a thorough examination under the articles of those respective companies which he speaks of that are in being. Sir Josiah's sentiments are as follow:

' Companies, says he, of merchants, in his time, are of two sorts, viz. companies in joint stock, such as the East-India company, the Morocco company, which is a branch of the Turkey company, and the Greenland company; the other sorts are companies who trade not by a joint stock, but only are under a government and regulation; such are the Hamburg company, the Eastland company, the Muscovy company.

' It has for many years been a moot case, whether any incorporating of merchants be for public good or not.

' 1. That for countries with which his majesty has no alliance, nor can have any, by reason of their distance, or barbarity, or non-communication with the princes of Christendom, &c. where there is a necessity of maintaining forces and forts (such as East-India and Guinea) companies of merchants are absolutely necessary.

' 2. It seems evident to me, that the greatest part of those two trades ought for public good to be managed by joint stocks.

3. It is questionable to me, whether any other company of merchants are for public good of hurt.

4. I conclude, however, that all restrictions of trade are nought, and consequently that no company whatsoever, whether they trade in a joint stock, or under regulation, can be for public good, except it may be easy for all or any of his majesty's subjects to be admitted into all or any of the said companies, at any time, for a very considerable fine; and that if the fine exceed 20l. including all charges of admission; it is too much, and that for these reasons.

1. Because the Dutch, who thrive best by trade, and have the surest rules to thrive by, admit not only any of their own people, but even Jews, and all kind of aliens, to be free of any of their societies of merchants, or any of their cities or towns corporate.

2. Nothing in the world can enable us to cope with the Dutch in any trade, but increase of hands and stock, which a general admission will do; many hands and much stock being as necessary to the prosperity of any trade, as men and money to warfare.

3. There is no pretence of any good to the nation by companies, but only order and regulation of trade; and, if that be preserved (which the admission of all that will come in and submit to the regulation, will not prejudice) all the good to the nation that can be hoped for by companies is obtained.

4. The Eastland, besides our native commodities, consume great quantities of Italian, Spanish, Portugal, and French commodities, viz. oil, wine, fruit, sugar, succads, shumack, &c. Now in regard our east country merchants of England are few, compared with the Dutch, and intend principally that one trade out and home, and consequently are not so conversant in the aforesaid commodities, nor forward to adventure upon them, and seeing that by the company's charter, our Italian, Spanish, Portugal, and French merchants, who understand those commodities perfectly well, are excluded those trades, or at least, if the company will give them leave to send out those goods, are not permitted to bring in the returns; it follows, that the Dutch must supply Denmark, Sweden, and all parts of the Baltic, with most of those commodities; and so it is in fact.

5. The Dutch, though they have no Eastland companies, yet have ten times the trade to the eastern parts as we; and, for Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where we have no companies, we have yet left full as much, if not more trade, than the Dutch. And for Russia and Greenland, where we have companies (and I think established by act or acts of parliament) our trade is in effect wholly lost, while the Dutch have, without companies, increased theirs to above forty times the bulk of what the residue of ours now is.

From whence may be inferred,

1. That restrained limited companies are not alone sufficient to preserve and increase a trade.

2. That limited companies, though established by act of parliament, may lose a trade.

3. That trade may be carried on to any part of Christendom, and increased without companies.

4. That we have declined more, at least have increased less, in those trades limited to companies, than in others where all his majesty's subjects have had equal freedom to trade.

The common objections against this easy admission of all his majesty's subjects into companies of merchants, are,

Object. 1. If all persons may come into any company of merchants on such easy terms, then young gentlemen, shopkeepers, and divers others, will turn merchants, who thro' their own unskilfulness will pay dear for our native commodities here, and sell them cheap abroad; and also buy foreign commodities dear abroad, and sell them here for less than their cost, to the ruin of themselves, and destruction of trade.

I answer, First, Caveat emptor, let particular men look to themselves, and so doubtless they will in those trades for which there are now companies, as well as they do in others for which there are no companies.

It is the care of law-makers first and principally to provide for the people in gros, not particulars; and, if the consequence of so easy an admission should be to make our manufactures cheap abroad, and foreign commodities cheap here, as is alledged, our nation in general would have the advantage both ways.

Object. 2. If all should be admitted, &c. shopkeepers, being the retailers of the same commodities the company imports, would have so much the advantage of the merchant, that they would beat the merchant wholly out of the trade.

I answer, First, We see no such thing in Holland, nor in the open trades, viz. France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and all our own plantations; neither can that well be; for to drive a retail trade, to any purpose, requires a man's full stock, as well as his full attendance, and so does it to drive the trade of a merchant, and therefore few can find stock and time to attend both; from whence it follows, that of the many hundreds which in my memory have turned

merchants, very few continued long to follow both, but commonly, after two or three years experience, betook themselves wholly to merchandizing, or returned to the sole exercise of their retail way; but whether they do or do not, concerns not the nation in general, whose common interest is to buy cheap, whatever appellation the seller has, whether that of a mere merchant, gentleman, or a shopkeeper.

Object. 3. If shopkeepers and other unexperienced persons may turn merchants, &c. they will through ignorance neglect buying and sending out our native manufactures, and will send out our money, or bills of exchange, to buy foreign commodities, which is an apparent national loss.

I answer, that shopkeepers are, like all other men, led by their profit, and, if it be for their advantage to send out manufactures, they will do it without forcing; and, if it be for their profit to send over money or bills of exchange, they will do that, and so will merchants as soon and as much as they.

Object. 4. If any be admitted, &c. what do we get by our seven years service; and the great sums of money our parents gave to bind out apprentices to merchants, &c. and who will hereafter bind his son to a merchant?

I answer, the end of service, and giving of money with apprentices, I have always understood to be the learning of the art or science of merchandizing, not the purchasing of an immunity or monopoly to the prejudice of our country; and that it is so, is evident from the practice, there being many general merchants that are free of no particular company, who can have as large sums of money with apprentices, as any others that are free of one or more particular companies of merchants; and many merchants that are free of particular companies, to whom few will give any considerable sums of money with apprentices, the proportion of money given with apprentices not following the company a merchant is free of, but the condition of the master, as to his more or less reputed skill in his calling, thriving, or going backward, greater or lesser trade, well or ill government of himself and family, &c.

Object. 5. If all should be admitted on such easy terms, will not that be manifest injustice to the companies of merchants, who, by themselves or predecessors, have been at great disbursements to purchase privileges and immunities abroad, as the Turkey company and the Hamburg company have done?

I answer, that I am yet to learn that any company of merchants not trading with a joint stock, such as the Turkey, Hamburg, Muscovy, and Eastland companies, ever purchased their privileges, or built and maintained forts, castles, or factories, or made any wars at their own charge; but I know the Turkey company do maintain an ambassador and two consuls, and are sometimes necessitated to make presents to the Grand Seignior, or his great officers; and the Hamburg company are at some charge to maintain their deputy and minister at Hamburg; and I think it would be great injustice that any should trade to the places within their charters, without paying the same duties or levations towards the company's charge, as the present adventurers do pay; but I know not why any should be barred from trading to those places, or forced to pay a great fine for admission, that are willing to pay the company's duties, and submit to the company's regulation and orders in other respects.

Object. 6. If all may be admitted as aforesaid, then such numbers of shopkeepers and others would come into the society of merchants, as would by the majority of votes so much alter the governors, deputy, and assistants, of the respective companies, that ignorant persons would come into those ruling places, to the general prejudice of those trades.

I answer, Those that make this objection, if they be merchants, know there is very little in it; for that it is not to be expected that twenty shopkeepers will come into any one company in a year, and therefore can have no considerable influence upon the elections; but, if many more should come in, it would be the better for the nation, and not the worse for the company, for that all men are led by their interest; and it being the common interest of all that engage in any trade, that the trade should be regulated and governed by wise, honest, and able men, there is no doubt but most men will vote for such as they esteem so to be, which is manifest in the East-India company, where neither gentlemen nor shopkeepers were at first excluded, neither are they yet kept out, any Englishman whatsoever being permitted to come into that company that will buy an action, paying only five pounds to the company for his admission, and yet undeniable experience has convinced all gainsayers in this matter; that company, since it's having had so large and national a foundation, having likewise had a succession of much better governors, deputies, and assistants, than ever it had upon that narrow bottom it stood formerly; when none could be admitted to the freedom of that company for less than a fine of fifty pounds; and the success has been answerable, for the first company settled upon that narrow-limited interest, although their stock was

larger than this, decayed and finally came to ruin and destruction; whereas, on the contrary, this being settled on more rational, and consequently more just, as well as more profitable principles, has, through God's goodness, thriven and increased to the trebling of their first stock.'

CONNAUGHT, a province in Ireland, is separated from the province of Leinster on the east by the Shannon, which also parts it from Munster on the south and south-east; has the province of Ulster, and a part of the Western-ocean, on the north and north-west; and the main ocean on the west. It is 130 miles in length, from Cape Lean, the most south point of Thomond, to the north parts of Letrim; about 84 in breadth, from the east point of Letrim to Black-Harbour in the west part of Mayo; and about 500 in circumference, containing, according to Mr Templeman, an area of 6072 square miles.

In some places it is verdant and agreeable, in others gloomy and dangerous, being pretty thick set with bogs and woods, and the air not so clear as elsewhere, by reason of the vapours and foggy mists. The soil is fruitful enough, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of considerable note besides the Shannon. The chief are, 1. May, in the county of Mayo, which, for a little way, divides it from Sligo, and falls into the ocean by Mayo and Killala. 2. The Suc, divides Roscommon into Galloway, and falls into the Shannon, near Clonsfert. 3. The Drofos, a river in the county of Thomond, which falls into the Shannon east of Clare; and, 4. Gyll, a small river in Galloway, which runs into the bay of that name.

GALLOWAY, the county, has part of Roscommon, King's County, and Tipperary (from which last it is parted by the Shannon) on the east and south-east; the main ocean on the west; Mayo, Meath, and Roscommon, on the north and north-east; and Thomond on the south: it being much of a warm, lime-stone soil, which rewards the industry both of the husbandman and the shepherd; it abounds in general with corn, pasture, and cattle.

Galloway, the county town, stands on an island, by the fall of the lake Corbes, or Lough Corrib, into the bay of it's own name. It is a very strong, neat, rich city, the capital of all the west part of Ireland, and the third, if not the second, city of the kingdom; nor is it inferior to any of the rest in wealth, it being so well seated for commerce, not only to France and Spain, but to the West-Indies, on a large, safe, and delicate harbour, called the bay of Galloway, capable of a vast fleet of ships, that it has been esteemed as the greatest place of trade in all the kingdom. The buildings, especially the public structures, are generally of stone, handsome and lofty, built almost round, in form of towers, and inhabited by a set of substantial merchants and shopkeepers as most cities in the three kingdoms, in proportion to it's magnitude; and the merchants in general here have a considerable share of commerce to most of the trading parts of Europe. The harbour, indeed, lies a little way off from the city, so that the goods are delivered by lighters; but it is so small a distance, that it is no obstruction to the commerce.

Galloway Bay, which runs above 30 miles up the country, has innumerable harbours and roads on every side, and is one of the noblest entrances in the world, were there, say some, a suitable conflux of ships and trading towns; but there does not seem any great occasion for more than what belongs to Galloway itself. It is sheltered at the mouth of the south isthmus of Arran, through which are three passages for ships, besides the north passage at the mouth of the bay. In the season here is a very considerable herring fishery.

Among it's many harbours, is that particularly called Batter-bay, as fine an harbour as most in Europe for it's extent. It is four miles in length, is narrow, but has a very safe entrance. It is a mile, in some places two miles broad, a deep channel, 10 or 12 fathom water, and not less than five fathoms to the shore on both sides. It has good anchorage, without any rock or shoal; but here are no towns, no ships, no trade, which is the fate of all this coast.

MAYO COUNTY, has a sea upon the west and north; is bounded on the south and south-east by the county of Galloway; by Roscommon on the east; and on the north-east by Sligo. It is mountainous and rough on the sides next the sea, but in other parts has pasturage, and it is well stocked with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey, and watered with many large and diverting lakes and rivers.

In the north-west corner of the county there is a sort of peninsula, joined to the main land by a narrow isthmus, on the north side whereof lies Broad-haven, which is a bay with a good harbour. About seven miles cross the bay lie two islands, safe against winds, but not frequented, except when ships are forced in by a tempest. There is a good salmon fishery in a river which falls into a bay north of these islands.

ROSCOMMON COUNTY, has Mayo and Galloway, with the river Suc between them, on the west; King's County, and part of Galloway, on the south and south-east; Sligo and Letrim on the north and north east; and Longford, East Meath, and part of King's County, on the east, together with part of Letrim, from which it is separated by the Shannon. This

county is for the most part a champain and fruitful county, which, with little cultivation, yields plenty of corn, grass, and is well stocked with cattle.

SLIGO, or SLIGO COUNTY, lies full upon the sea to the north and north-west, where it is also bounded by the river Trobis, which springs from the Lough Ern in Ulster. It has Mayo on the west; part of that county, and Roscommon, on the south; and the county of Letrim on the east. It is divided from the two last mentioned counties by the Curlew Mountains, and the river Suc. Great part of this county is mountainous and boggy; but it's lower grounds and bottoms have a good soil, both for the ploughman and the grazier.

Sligo Town, is a borough, or market town, and the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ships of 200 tons may come up to the town-key. The town is populous, but not large; nor is the trade here considerable, though much better than many of the other places beyond it.

LETTRIM COUNTY, has Sligo, and part of Roscommon, on the west and south-west; Donnegal-Bay on the north; Longford and Leinster on the south-east; and the counties of Fermanagh and Cavan, in Ulster, on the east and north-east. It is a wild mountainous country, and full of rank grass, which feeds an infinite number of cattle; and Camden, even in his time, says above 120,000 have been grazing in this narrow county at one time; and, since, their number is said to have greatly increased.

CONSULS; among the Romans they were chief officers, yearly chosen, to govern the city of Rome: but long since abrogated. Our consuls abroad take care of the affairs and interests of merchants there, where they are appointed by the king, as at Lisbon, &c.

A trial before them was formerly the dernier resort; and merchants courts, called prior and consuls, established in France, Italy, and Germany, to determine causes in the most summary way, to avoid interruption of traffic; and this authority at Roan was very great and extensive.

By the laws of France, he that shall obtain letters patent to be consul in the Levant, and other trading sea-ports of the Mediterranean, under the Grand Seigneur, is to make intimation of it in the assembly of merchants where he is established, to be recorded in the offices of the consulship and admiralty, &c. and shall take the oath required. They are to call to the assemblies they shall hold, all the merchants of their nation, captains and patrons, upon the place; and, as to their jurisdiction, they are to conform to the customs and treaties made with the princes where they reside; to keep exact memoirs of their proceedings, and send once a year to the secretary of state for maritime affairs.

By the treaty of Utrecht between Great-Britain and Spain, the consul residing in the king of Spain's dominions shall be named by our king, with as full power as any former consul. The estates of the English dying intestate in Spain shall be inventoried by him, and intrusted with two or three merchants, for security and benefit of the proprietors and creditors. The statute 9 Geo. II. c. 25. enacts, That it shall be lawful for persons appointed by the consul at the ports of Cadix and St Mary's in Spain, with the majority of the British merchants and factors there, to receive from all English and Irish ships, trading there, any sums of money not exceeding one rial plate per ducat, on the freight of goods and merchandize (except tonnage goods) there imported, and on all tonnage goods, not exceeding two rials plate per ton; and all their bills of lading shall specify to pay the same, under denomination of contribution, as by act of parliament, &c.

And all British or Irish commanders trading to the said ports, and delivering there, shall, within ten days after their arrival, deliver a manifesto upon oath, specifying the particulars of the cargo, and to whom consigned; which oath is to be administered by the consul, or whom he shall appoint, and the clearances outwards detained by him, 'till payment of the money is made; and, any departing without his clearances, the consul, on such master's return to any port in the king's dominions, may have an action at law against him for the said money.

All monies raised to be applied to the relief of shipwrecked mariners, and other distressed persons, his majesty's subjects, and other charitable uses, as appointed by the consul, &c.

The consul shall, also, as occasion requires, call a general meeting of the British merchants and factors; the majority of whom shall order all matters relating to the premises.

The 10th Geo. II. c. 14. is for collecting at the port of Leghorn certain small sums, usually contributed by the merchants trading there, for relief of shipwrecked mariners, captives, &c. appointed by the consul and majority of the merchants there.

The money to be one third of a livre per ton, or bale, on goods imported, payable by all British masters trading there, which they shall be reimbursed by their freighters, or those to whom the goods are consigned, or the receivers; and masters, not specifying the payment in the bills of lading, shall be answerable for the same: and, where no such bill appears, or the tonnage is not settled, to be valued by two indifferent merchants there, one to be chosen by the consul, the other

by the commander, within ten days after unlading; and, if they do not agree, an umpire, being a British merchant, shall be chosen, to determine the valuation in three days, and then such money to be paid.

Of the consuls of the FRENCH NATION more particularly.

Article 1. No person to call himself consul of the French nation in foreign countries, without having our commissions, which shall not be granted to any under the age of thirty years.

2. The consulship becoming vacant, the most ancient of the deputies of the nation in office, for the time, shall officiate, 'till we take order about it.

3. He that shall obtain our letters to be consul in the sea-port towns and places of trade in the Levant, and other places of the Mediterranean, under the Grand Seignior, shall cause intimation thereof to be made in the assembly of merchants where he is established, and cause them to be recorded in the chancery and offices of the admiralty, and chamber of Marseilles, and shall take the oath required.

4. We enjoin the consuls to call to the assemblies which they shall hold for the affairs of commerce, and of the nation in general, all the French merchants, captains, and patrons upon the place, who shall be obliged to assist thereat, under pain of an arbitrary fine, applicable to the redemption of captives.

5. The artificers and seamen, settled in those ports, shall not be admitted to such assemblies.

6. The resolutions of the nation shall be signed by those which have assisted at them, and put in execution by order of the consul.

7. The deputies of the nation shall be obliged, after their time is expired, to be accountable to the consul for the monies they have handled, and for their intermissions for the common interest, in presence of the new deputies, and the most eminent merchants.

8. The consul shall send, every three months, to the lieutenant of the admiralty and the deputies of commerce of Marseilles, a copy of the deliberations taken in the assemblies, and of the accounts given in by the deputies of the nation, to be imparted to the aldermen, and considered by them and the deputies of commerce, if need be.

9. The consuls shall keep exact and faithful memoirs of the important office of their consulships, and shall send them once a year to the secretary of state for maritime affairs.

10. We forbid the consuls to borrow, in the name of the nation, any sums of money of Turks, Moors, Jews, or other persons, under any pretence whatsoever; and even to assist those of the nation, except by virtue of a general resolution in writing, which shall contain the reasons and the necessity of it; if otherwise, they shall pay it themselves.

11. We forbid, under pain of extortion, to levy greater duties than those allowed them, or to exact any at all of the masters and patrons of ships, who shall only come to an anchor in the ports and roads of the places of their establishment, without lading or unlading any goods.

12. And as to their jurisdiction, as well in matters criminal as civil, the consuls shall conform themselves to the customs and the treaties made with the sovereigns of the places where they reside.

13. The decisions of the consuls shall be executed by provision, in matters civil, in giving bail; and definitively, and without appeal, in criminal matters, if there be no corporal punishment to be inflicted; the whole providing that they be given in presence of the deputies and four eminent men of the nation.

14. And, where the crime deserves a corporal punishment, they shall prepare the process, and send it, with the criminal, in the first ship belonging to any of our subjects returning into our kingdom, to be judged by the officers of the admiralty of the first port where the ship shall break bulk.

15. The consuls, after making enquiry, and with advice of the deputies of the nation, may banish out of the places of their establishment the French that are of a scandalous life and conversation. We enjoin our captains and masters to embark them upon the order of the consul, under pain of 500 livres fine, applicable to the redemption of captives.

16. The consuls may put in as well for the exercise of the chancery, as for the execution of their own sentences, and other acts of justice, such persons as they think capable of those posts, to whom they shall administer an oath, and for whom they shall be in a civil sense responsible.

17. The fees for the acts and orders of the chancery shall be regulated by them, with the advice of the deputies of the French nation, and of the most antient merchants; which shall be put up in the most apparent place of the office, and an extract thereof shall be immediately sent by every consul to the lieutenant of the admiralty and the deputies of trade at Marseilles.

18. The appeals from the sentences of the consuls, established as well in the ports of the Levant, as upon the coasts of Africa and Barbary, shall be carried before the parliament of Aix; and all the others, to the parliaments nearest to the places where the sentences are given.

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19. In case of contestation between the consuls and the merchants, either in the Levant, or upon the coasts of Africa and Barbary, for their private affairs, they shall have recourse to the court of admiralty at Marseilles.

20. The consul shall be obliged to take an inventory of the goods and effects of such as die without heirs upon the place, and also of the effects saved from shipwreck; with which he shall charge the chancellor under the inventory, in the presence of two eminent merchants, who shall sign it.

21. But, if the defunct had constituted an attorney to receive his effects, or if any factor present himself with bills of lading for the goods that are saved, the effects shall be delivered to them.

22. The consul shall be obliged to send forthwith a copy of the inventory of the goods of the defunct, or the effects saved from shipwreck, to the officers of the admiralty, and the deputies of trade at Marseilles, whom we enjoin to acquaint them concerned.

23. No instruments written in foreign countries where there are consuls, shall be of any value, if they be not made authentic by them.

24. Testaments received by the chancellor, within the extent of the consulship, and in the presence of the consul and two witnesses, and signed by them, shall be deemed authentic.

The first jurisdiction of consuls, established in France, was that of Thoulouze; the edict of it's establishment in the month of July 1549, in the reign of Henry II; that of Paris was not created 'till 14 years after, in November 1563, by an edict of Charles IX. They were afterwards established in all the other principal trading cities of the kingdom, whose names follow in alphabetical order, with the dates of such creations.

	A	Montpellier, May 1691
Agde	} March 1710	Morlaix
Alby		N
Alençon		Narbonne, March 1710
Angoulesme		Nantes
Arles		Nevers } March 1710
Angers, February 6, 1563		Nîmes }
Auxerre, 1565		Niort
	B	O
Bayeux, March 1710		Orleans, February 1599
Bayonne		P
Beauvais, June } 1564		Paris, November 1563
Bourges, August }		Poitiers, May 1566
Bordeaux, December 1563		R
Brionde, July 1704		Rennes, March 1710
	C	Rheims
Caën, March 1700		Riom
Calais		Rochelle, November 1565
Châlons on the Marne		Rouen
Châlons on the Saone		S
Chartres		Saulieu
Chattelleraut		Sedan, March 1711
Clermont in Auvergne		Semur in Burgundy
Compeigne		Sens, 1563
	D	Soissons
Dieppe		St Malo
Dijon		St Quintin, March 1710
Dunkirk, February 1700		T
	G	Thiers
Grenoble, March 1710		Thoulouze, July 1549
	L	Tours
Langres, March 1711		Troyes
Limoges, August 1600		V
Lisle		Valenciennes
Lyons, December 1595		Vannes } 1710
	M	Vienne }
Le Mans, March 1710		Vire }
Marseilles		X
Montauban, March 1710		Xaintes, March 1710.

The ordonnance of March 1670 declares the edict of their establishment in Paris common for all the seats of judges and consuls of the kingdom, and all other edicts and declarations concerning consular jurisdiction, inrolled in the parliaments. In Paris, and several other cities, is a judge and four consuls; in others a judge and only two consuls.

In Thoulouze, Rouen, and some other cities, they are called prior and consuls.

At Bourges, the judge is called judge-provost.

At Rouen, and in some other places, there is a supernumerary consul, who acts as procurator to the king, but he has no deliberative voice.

Every consular jurisdiction hath it's register and it's cryers.

The judges and consuls of Paris hold their sittings behind St Mederic, in a particular place called the consul's, or consular house.

They give audience there thrice a week, morning and afternoon, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

Their decrees are not of force but in writing. They extend to corporal constraint, and are executory to the amount

of 500 livres, any opposition or appeal whatever notwithstanding; and the appeals, lodged there, go directly to the great chamber of the parliament.

No procurators are suitors to the jurisdiction of consuls, every one may plead his cause there. Even those who cannot appear, or who have not capacity to defend themselves, are permitted to employ whom they think fit.

There are, however, in the consular jurisdictions, persons allowed by the judge and consuls, to defend parties; but they have no other retribution for their salaries and vocations, than what is given them voluntarily, by those who intrust their causes with them.

In order to have a perfect knowledge of the consular jurisdiction, it's privileges, the manner of proceeding there, the matters within it's cognizance, and the persons subject to it, recourse may be had to the edict of Charles IX, of 1563; to the ordonnance of the month of April, 1667, tit. 16; of March, 1673, tit. 12; and to the regulations and orders that have been made concerning it: which is the easier, as an exact collection of them was printed by Dennis Thierry, in 1705, by the care of the judges and consuls of Paris, who have added to it a very useful and clear instruction.

There are four qualifications necessary for the obtaining the consulship at Paris, and in several other places. As 1st, To have been, or to be actually, a merchant. 2^{dly}, To be a native of the kingdom. 3^{dly}, To be an inhabitant of that city. And 4^{thly}, To be of an unblemished character.

The first judge consul ought to be at least 40 years of age, the others 27, on pain of nullity to their elections. It having been thus decreed for all the consular jurisdictions of the kingdom, by order of the king's council of state, of the 9th of September 1673, in conformity to the king's edict of February 1672, which regulates the age of other officers of judicature.

No one may be elected first judge, who hath not before been consul: and the office of each held but a year, and they may not be continued under any pretence whatever.

When any one is elected first judge or consul, there is no dispensation from performing his office; and, on refusal, he may be constrained in the same manner as is practised with regard to other offices of the city.

If any of those in office are necessarily obliged to be absent for some considerable time, they must acquaint the consul, and ask leave; in which case, some elder is chosen to officiate in their absence.

If any die during their consulship, others are elected in their place.

The order and ceremonies used at Paris, in the election of a judge and four consuls of the merchants.

Three days before the election, which is usually held on the eve of Candlemas-day, the judge and consuls in office issue a commission, commanding all the old judges and consuls, masters and wardens of the six companies of merchants, &c. to meet on the eve for the election in the judiciary hall of the consuls, to assist and accompany them in a procession to church, &c. At return from which, the judges and consuls in charge take their seat, and the register or his deputy, having read the commission, call by name the aforesaid persons there assembled, receiving from them, in their caps, billets given to them on return from church, containing the name of each voice; and their oath being taken by the judge in charge, to proceed sincerely at the election, and to chuse persons capable, and of probity; the billets are all balloted, and shuffled in the register's, or his deputy's cap, whence the judge takes thirty, rejecting the rest; which thirty, with the judge and consuls in office, are the electors.

Of these 30 billets, two are drawn, viz. one by the judge, the other by the first consul; and the persons named in them are scrutators of the election, and placed with the register and his deputy, on the seat where they usually write.

Then the acting judges and consuls name, with a loud voice, the persons to whom they give their voice; afterwards the two scrutators give theirs, and then the first of them calls one after another the names in the 28 remaining billets, who are electors: these give their voice, which is written by the register and his deputy, and publickly counted in presence of the scrutators.

When it happens that two of the elected have a like number of voices, their names are written on two billets of equal size, which are balloted in the register's cap; and the first, which is drawn by the judge, hath the preference.

The election being ended, the judge and consuls in charge declare those who are elected; and, being accompanied with the register and cryers, proceed to give an account of the election to the first president, and who appoint them a day, to present the new elected persons to the court, to take their oath.

On the day appointed, they are presented by the procurator-general, or by one of the general advocates, the former judges and consuls quitting their office; who, with the new elected ones, after the oath taken, return to the consular house; where, after mass, the new ones are installed in their

seats by the old ones, who stay with them to assist them that morning.

The week after the election, the judge and consuls issue commissions to the companies of merchants, willing them to elect a certain number of merchants from their body, to attend the consular house in turn, weekly, on the days of audience, and other extraordinary days commanded, to assist them with their advice, in certain particular affairs.

The merchants, thus elected by the companies, are usually named counsellors of the consuls.

These counsellors are to attend regularly in the consular hall, on set days: or they incur a fine, from which they cannot be discharged without legal cause.

Their office is to examine the accounts of the parties in a separate chamber, and to make their report of it immediately before the audience.

Art. 1. The number of judges and consuls, in Paris, shall continue fixed at five, viz. one judge and four consuls, as it hath been 'till now.

2. It being our will, that agreeably to the edict of November, 1563, the judge and consuls, for the time being, do, at the end of the year, assemble to the number of 60 merchants citizens, from the several companies, who, in conjunction with the five in office, and no others, shall elect 30 from among them, who, without leaving the place, shall proceed with the said judge and consuls, first to the election of a new judge, and after of four consuls, two whereof to enter on the office, with two who shall remain of the preceding election; the two others to enter after six months, reckoning from the day of the election, when the two remaining of the preceding election shall quit; neither of them entering on their office, 'till after the oath taken in the great chamber of the parliament, in the usual manner.

3. The judge shall always be chosen, as usual, from among the old consuls, who, as well as the four consuls to officiate with him, shall be of different companies and trades, nor of the same company with those elected at the same time with him, or with whom he shall officiate for the space of six months, according to the last article.

4. That for establishing the order already prescribed, after enrollment of these presents, the judge and consuls, actually in place, convene to the number of 60 merchants of the said city, as prescribed above, to elect in like manner 30, who shall proceed forthwith to the election, as well of a new judge, as of four consuls, which judge shall officiate to the end of January 1729; of the consuls, two shall enter immediately with the two older consuls actually in place, the other two not 'till August of the present year; at which time the two remaining of the election in 1727 shall go out, those who enter in August to remain 'till August 1729, all after taking the oath aforesaid, &c. This form to be used for the future in all elections, injoining our court of parliament to see it done.

Of the prior and consuls of Toulouse.

The city of Toulouse owes the establishment of the merchants exchange, and of the prior and consuls who have the direction of it, to king Henry II.

The letters patent for this creation were given at Paris, in July 1549.

'Till then it's commerce had been in truth very flourishing, much owing to the advantage of it's rivers, the continual concourse of strangers, and, above all, the happy genius and industry of it's inhabitants.

One thing only was wanting to secure and augment a commerce already so great, which was an exchange, where merchants might meet to communicate of their affairs, and a particular jurisdiction to determine their differences, such as at Anvers and Lyons, then the most famous cities of Europe for the riches and extent of their negotiations.

To procure therefore this advantage to Toulouse, Henry II. established there a common exchange, after the form of that at Lyons, and with the same franchises, privileges, and liberties.

By the same edict, a consular jurisdiction was also established, consisting of a prior and two consuls, to be elected every year, for the deciding all differences on account of merchandise, exchanges, assurances, accounts, &c. arising among merchants, to be immediately carried by appeal to the court of the parliament of the said city; the king nevertheless permitting the said prior and consuls to call, to the judgments of proceedings within their cognizance, such persons as they shall think fit.

Moreover, they are permitted, but only with consent of all or most part of the merchants, to improve, assess, and levy, money necessary, as well for the purchase, building, and maintaining a place for the said exchange, as for repairing rivers, havens, and passages.

This edict was registered in the court of the parliament of Toulouse, December 23, 1549.

About two years after, were issued letters patent of the 27th of May 1551, as well for the regulation of the election of prior and consuls of the new exchange, as to confirm the extent of their jurisdiction. It consists of ten articles.

The first imports, that the election be made every year by plurality of voices of the electors, to be merchants dwelling in that city, and other strangers (that is to say, housekeepers) residing at the time of the election.

The same article settles the bounds of the jurisdiction, on the foot of that of conservator of fairs of Lyons, Brie, and Champagne.

The second establishes what is called at Toulouse the council of the retinue, permitting the prior and consuls to take with them such a number of merchants as they shall think necessary, be it twenty and more, to proceed on judgments in relation to merchandizing, and to see to the execution of their decrees.

The third and fourth contain the instruction of processes, and the execution of decrees made in them, as well in the district of the parliament of Toulouse, as elsewhere.

The fifth subjects to the said jurisdiction of the prior and consuls, not only the merchants, but also their factors, correspondents, commissaries sent for traffic, as well within as out of the kingdom, as is practised in the conservation of Lyons; in order to obviate the expences, which would be considerable, were the merchants obliged to pursue their factors, correspondents, and commissaries, in different districts, and before different judges.

The sixth mentions the fines to which the parties sentenced are liable, of which one moiety shall be to the king.

By the seventh, merchants of the exchange are permitted to appoint an advocate or procurator syndic, to have charge of the affairs of the exchange, to conduct their proceedings to the best advantage, as well before the prior and consuls, as any other judges.

The eighth permits, in like manner, the said merchants to meet together for the elections and other common affairs, as often as they please, without being obliged to ask any other permission.

The ninth speaks of merchandizes the growth of Languedoc, Louragais, and other places, particularly woad, for the good culture and dressing of which, the king permits the merchants of the said exchange to send visitors and inspectors, to make their report to the prior and consuls, who on the said report shall take cognizance of any abuses committed.

The tenth and last article ordains the establishment of a register to sign all judgments and decrees of the prior and consuls, which shall be executed as expressed by the letters patent, granted by Francis I. to the city of Lyons, in February 1535, saving the appeal in the dernier resort to the parliament of Toulouse. The nomination of a register was since confirmed to the prior and consuls, by other letters patent of the 15th of June 1551.

The court of the parliament of Toulouse, having made a difficulty of enregistering these last letters in form of regulation, the king gave letters mandatory, the 9th of September 1551, for the said enregistry, which was at length made the 8th of March of the following year, with this restriction, however, that where the proceeding shall be by constraint, arrest, and imprisonment of persons, the said imprisonment shall not take place against their heirs or successors.

After the death of Henry II, Francis II, his son, confirmed to the prior and consuls of Toulouse the rights which had been before granted them. The letters of confirmation are of the 20th of March 1559.

The elections continued almost a century, conformable to the articles of regulation in 1551; but some abuses creeping in since, and divers contests arising on the quality of the candidates, the merchants, who had been principal magistrates, claiming preference of those who had not, the affair was laid before the parliament of Toulouse, and afterwards referred to the council, where, after depending above fifty years, and more than fifteen decrees both of council and parliament, sometimes in favour of the capitouls*, and sometimes of the merchants, who had not been such; a definitive decree of the king's council was at length given in June 1700, enacting,

* The chief magistrates of Toulouse are so called.

That the edict of July 1549, for erecting the exchange of Toulouse, together with the letters patent of 1551, should be executed according to their form and tenor: importing, that all good and loyal merchants inhabiting the said city of Toulouse, whether they have been capitouls or not, should be indiscriminately elected at the changes of the prior and consuls of the said exchange, and that, in case of contest or trespass against the present decree, all jurisdiction hereof to be referred to the parliament of Toulouse, with prohibition to the parties to refer again to the council.

The body of merchants of the exchange, in pursuance of this decree, having petitioned the parliament for leave to meet for the making a new regulation, capable of re-establishing peace among them, as well on the subject of elections, as of other things relating to the police, and jurisdiction of the exchange, of which having obtained permission by a decree of the 11th of December 1700, the general assembly began to be held the 8th of April 1701.

During the three sittings of this assembly, the regulation was

formed, which hath ever since been observed in the exchange of Toulouse.

'Tis composed of 47 articles, which may be reduced to seven classes, viz: 1. Of elections, consisting of 10 articles. 2. Of the retinue, which hath seven: 3. Of precedences, in three articles. 4. Of those who may be, or who are excluded, also in three articles. 5. Of bailiffs—of the king's chapels, in three articles. 6. Of audiences and formalities to be observed in the judgments there given, in 15 articles. 7. Of the syndic, in six articles.

The following is an extract of what is most important in these seven classes.

Of the elections.

That of the prior and consuls is to be on the 28th of November yearly. The nine persons out of whom the three new officers are to be chosen, are to be presented by the prior and consuls in office, and to be principal merchants, trading in their own name, and on their own account, and to be good and loyal subjects, and housekeepers in the city of Toulouse. They are to be chosen indifferently, from among the merchants who have been capitouls, or who have not.

They may not be related, within the degree of the ordonnance, to those who make the nomination, and must have served at the exchange, ten years at least, in quality of judges-counsellors of the retinue.

None may hold the said offices twice successively, at least without consent of the body, had in a general assembly. A merchant may be chosen first consul, without having been second consul, and prior, without having been either first or second.

The election is to be by the general body of principal merchants, and foreigners of the district, who shall be then at Toulouse.

After the election, those who are chosen are to take oath before the prior and consuls, or on their refusal before the judges-counsellors, who hold the next place after them.

None may refuse to accept the charge, or perform the office, after being chosen.

Of the retinue.

There are a certain number of merchants, called judges-counsellors of the retinue, chosen by the prior and counsellors, to assist in rendering justice during their year, and, with their advice, to superintend all affairs, as well of the exchange as of the general body of merchants.

They are to be 60 in number, actually eminent merchants, good and loyal inhabitants of Toulouse, taken from the different companies that compose the general body of merchants of that city.

The prior and consuls are to agree between themselves in the choice of the 60, otherwise they are each to name 20.

The merchants, chosen for the retinue, are to take the oath in the month of their election, unless prevented by absence or illness; on default, they are to be razed out of the list, and others put in their place.

They assist at the exchange, and in the assemblies, as well general as particular, in a gown and band, at least if they have not been priors or consuls; in which case, they have a right to be there in the usual robe of the jurisdiction.

Of the sessions.

Those who have been priors or consuls, precede all other merchants, as well at the exchange, as on every other occasion.

The elder priors take the right-hand of the officiating prior, next to the first consul; and the elder consuls at the left, next to the second consul, both according to the date of their elections: which rules their rank also, when the prior puts to the vote.

Those who have been neither priors nor consuls, observe no rank or precedence, and place themselves indifferently as they enter the assemblies.

Of those who may offer themselves at the election, or who are excluded.

No merchant may be chosen prior or consul, if indebted to the exchange: on the contrary, the creditors of the exchange and body of merchants have a right to stand candidates. The treasurer hath also the same right; but, if chosen, he is to deliver the stock he hath in his hands, to the new treasurer who shall be chosen in his room. As also to deliver his accounts and vouchers to commissaries appointed to examine them; on failure, he is to be suspended the offices of prior or consul, 'till these two obligations are satisfied.

Of the bailiffs or treasurers of the chapel royal.

These are in number four, and serve jointly during the year; they are named immediately after the election of the prior and consuls, each bailiff naming his successor. During their year of service, they have a deliberative voice at the exchange.

They are to be actually tradesmen, or sons of tradesmen, working at their father's trade. The partners of the principal merchants, may also be made bailiffs; all who have been priors or consuls, are excluded. The bailiffs have charge of the service in the king's chapel, and of the distribution of the white wax, usually given to those of the retinue who assist at high mass.

Of the audiences and formalities of judgments.

The audience is to be on all days not holidays, at three o'clock in the afternoon, from Easter to All Saints, and at two from All Saints to Easter.

It holds commonly two hours, and longer, if the case, or the common good, require it.

The prior and consuls are to hold the court, and, in their absence, he who holds the first place after the officers.

The divisions which happen in the audience, may be settled by the first of the judges-counsellors that enters, unless the assembly sees fit to name three merchants for the decision.

The minute-book is to be signed by him who hath been president, and, when judges are to be appointed for any affair, they are to be named by the president.

In case of refusal of some one of the judges, the party refusing must give to the president a memorial, containing his reasons; and, if it relate to an affair of the audience, the parties shall be permitted, after the pleadings and before judgment, to give the reasons of their refusal. This article has been reformed.

The number of judges granted is not to exceed twelve; the third part of whom to be taken indifferently from among the ancient priors and consuls, and the rest of the merchants, without comprehending the prior and consuls in office.

The protests for bills of exchange may be made either by a notary, or a cryer, or serjeant, or by the cryer of the consular jurisdiction; in which protests the said bills of exchange shall be copied, with the orders and acceptances, if any; which shall be left signed to the party, conformable to the ordonnance of 1673, and the edict of August 1664. That, in all the proceedings of the jurisdiction of the exchange, the said ordonnances and edicts be observed.

The articles of that class also mention what is deposited, the inventory of the registers, bundles and papers, which are in the registry of the jurisdiction of the exchange, and also the reference of affairs, whether before a judge-counsellor in the cities of the district, or syndic, or other advocate.

Of the syndic.

The syndic of the exchange of Toulouse, is always taken from among the most eminent advocates of parliament; and he is not to be chosen or changed, when thought proper, but in a general assembly.

In order to the election, the prior and consuls convene three advocates, whom they think fittest for the employ; from these three the syndic is chosen in a general assembly, by a plurality of voices.

By the oath which he takes before the prior and syndic, he promiseth to procure the good, profit, honour, and advantage of the jurisdiction, and to defend it against all opposers. The syndic may not preside in any audience, or judgments of process by report to the assembly of the exchange; wherefore, to avoid strife in point of precedence, he has always his place on a seat at the right side of the table where the reports are made.

Lastly, he is enjoined to act in all affairs of the company as he shall see fit, and under the orders of the prior and consuls. The 47th and last article of the regulation enjoins, that, in the general meetings of the exchange, they shall always carry the current register of deliberations, to enter therein those which shall be taken in the said meetings; which shall be signed by the prior and consuls, declaring those null which shall not be inserted in the register, with prohibition to the register to draw up any otherwise, on pain of being proceeded against according to law.

By consent of the general meeting of the 21st of December 1701, the 10th and 34th articles of the preceding regulation, one of which regulates the sittings, and the second concerns the exceptions of the judges, were reformed; and, with respect to the first, it was ordained that the prior and consuls of each year should precede those of the following; and as to the second, that the causes of the exceptions might be proposed before or after the pleading, at the choice of the parties.

Judges-consuls of Bourdeaux.

The city of Bourdeaux owes the establishment of it's consulship to Charles IX. it was created in 1563, by an edict given at Paris, in the month of December of the same year. The edict consists of 22 articles; one part of which respects the election of the officers of that new jurisdiction, the other it's cognizance. The most-essential of which we shall abridge here.

The first election is by the masters and jurats of Bourdeaux, in a meeting of 50 merchants, convoked for that purpose. The judges elected were only three; of whom one was

called judge of the merchants, and the two others consuls; which hath ever since been observed, with this difference only, that, in the following elections, there have been required only 40 electors.

In order to be elected, he must profess commerce, be a native of the kingdom, and an inhabitant of Bourdeaux.

The change of these three officers is annual, none of whom may be continued more than a year, on any pretence whatsoever.

About the end of the year, the judges-consuls meet, and, being assisted by 40 merchants citizens, proceed to a new election.

In order to which, the 40 convened chuse forthwith 20 to be electors, who, without going from the place, are, with the three officers about to quit, then to name those who are to succeed, on pain of making void the election.

The new elected officers take the oath before their three predecessors.

The judges consuls are prohibited to take or receive any thing, under the pretence of fees, or otherwise, on pain of the crime of extortion.

They name their register, and are permitted to chuse some person of experience to fill that place, a merchant, or other whom they think proper, who is to make his duplicates on paper, and not on parchment, and not to take for his salaries and vacations more than 10 deniers Tournois for every leaf, on pain of corporal punishment. This article hath been since deviated from by a subsequent tarif.

Lastly, their sentences are definitive, and not subject to an appeal, for sums under 500 livres; and those who are subject to them cannot be relieved but in the parliament of Bourdeaux.

By the same edict it is ordained; there shall be established at Bourdeaux a place of exchange, like those of Lyons, Toulouse, and Rouen, to be called the common place of merchants, with the same privileges, franchises, and liberties, as in those cities; and, that the merchants might have a convenient place to meet in, and confer on their affairs, permission is given them to purchase a house, with money raised by impost on the said merchants, as shall be settled by commissaries for that purpose.

The place to be open from nine in the morning to eleven, and from four in the afternoon 'till six; during which time all bailiffs, or sheriffs officers, &c. are prohibited to exercise their functions in regard to civil affairs.

This edict was inrolled in the parliament of Bourdeaux the 27th of April, 1564.

The absence or illness of the judge and consuls often interrupting the sittings of the consulship, against which no provision being made by the aforesaid edict, the king (Charles IX.) ordained by a declaration of the 22d of July, 1566, that, in case of illness, absence, exception, or other lawful hindrance of the said judge and consuls, one of the three officers, assisted by the oldest merchants called to council, or, in defect of the three officers in charge, the two eldest of the merchants, might attend the dispatch of justice, and their decrees be of the same force as if given by the judge and consuls. These merchants are chosen annually by the judge and consuls; they are called the elect of the council, and have the same jurisdiction in the exchange of Bourdeaux as the judges-counsellors of the retinue have in that of Toulouse.

The rights, privileges, and franchises, granted the judge and consuls of Bourdeaux, by letters patents of 1563, 1565, and 1566, were confirmed anew, in 1596, by Henry IV. and they to be exempt, during the year of their office, from all other public offices; and the exchange, and its officers, to enjoy the same power with those of Paris, Orleans, Bourges, Troyes, and Angers.

Lewis XIII. in like manner confirmed the rights of their jurisdiction, especially with regard to the decrees for sums under 500 livres, which are declared subject to no appeal, prohibiting the parliament, and other judges, to molest them, or interfere with their right of decision.

The 22d article of the edict of 1563 had fixed the salaries of the register at 10 deniers Tournois the leaf; but, a century having induced great changes and abuses, M. Dagueffeau, intendant of Guienne in 1668, formed a tarif for it's regulation.

Another was afterwards made in 1682, but by private authority of the judge and consuls only, that occasioned divers contentes: which being represented to the king in council, a new tarif was formed, with prohibition to registers, or other deputies, to take, for the future, more than is therein allowed, on pain of incurring the guilt of extortion.

Since the establishment of the two free fairs of Bourdeaux, the foreign traders that come thither have been accustomed to set out their wares along the streets in such quarters of the city as they should think fit, which caused much confusion. It being represented to the king that it would be more for the good of commerce to re-unite the said foreign traders in some certain place, and that for the future they might not expose their wares but in the court of the exchange; an order was made in 1653, that, during the two fairs held at Bourdeaux,

Bourdeaux, their wares should be set out there, and no where else, being the most commodious place for that purpose.

Which order having been peaceably executed, and the exchange drawing great profit from the rents of the shops, the farmer of the king's revenue, envying the merchants herein, claimed it as part of the demesnes; but the judge and consuls upheld the body of merchants in the property of the said house, and defeated the farmer's claim.

CONSULS, are also officers of the king, appointed by commissions, in the sea-ports of the Levant, on the coasts of Africa, Barbary, Spain, Portugal, and other foreign countries, where there is any considerable trade.

These commissions are not granted to any under 30 years of age.

There is also a vice-consul, deputed by the consul to act in his place, where he cannot be in person.

When the consulship is vacant, the oldest of the deputies then in office, is to officiate as consul, till one be appointed by the king.

He who obtains the king's letters to be consul in any city or place of trade in the Grand Seignior's dominions, and other places in the Mediterranean, is to make publication of it in the meeting of the merchants where he is appointed.

The consul is to call, to the meetings assigned by him for the general affairs of commerce, all merchants, captains, and owners of ships in the ports; who are to assist him herein, on pain of fine at discretion, to be employed for redemption of captives.

Neither artificers nor sailors are admitted to these assemblies; and the resolutions there taken are to be signed by them who have assisted therein, and to be executed by command of the consul.

The deputies of the nation, at the expiration of their time, are to render an account to the council how they have managed the money and common affairs, in presence of the new elected deputies, and of the senior merchants.

Every three months the consul is to send to the lieutenant of the admiralty, and deputies of the commerce of Marseilles, a copy of the consultations in the assemblies, and of the accounts rendered by the deputies of the nation, to be communicated to the sheriffs, and to be by them and the deputies of commerce debated, if necessary.

The consul is to keep an exact and faithful memorial of the important affairs of his consulship, and every year to send it to the secretary of state, who hath the jurisdiction of maritime affairs.

The consul is not to borrow, in the nation's name, any sums of money of Turks, Moors, Jews, or others, under any pretence whatsoever, or even to affect those of the nation, unless by common consent, with the causes and necessity, on pain of paying in his own name.

The consul is also prohibited, on pain of incurring the crime of extortion, to levy greater fees than are granted to him, or to require any of masters and owners of ships, who anchor in the ports and roads of his establishment, without lading or delivering any goods there.

As to the jurisdiction, as well in civil as criminal matters, the consuls are to conform to the customs, and to the capitulations made with the sovereigns of the places of their establishment, and their sentences to be executed provisionally in civil matters, in giving bail; and definitively, and without appeal, in criminal cases, when there is no corporal punishment, provided it be done in concert with the deputies and four eminent persons of the nation; and, when he inflicts corporal punishment, the process is to be drawn up, and sent with the criminal, in the first vessel of the king's subjects returning to France, to be judged by the officers of the admiralty of the first port where the vessel is to unlade.

Till 1722, the police concerning the decrees of the consuls in civil matters, contained in the 13th article of the ordinance in August 1681, had always been observed, and, as much as possible, those decrees issued with the deputies and four eminent persons of the nation.

But the king, being informed that, for the most part, there were consulships where there were not persons capable of assisting in the proceedings, the cognizance whereof belonged to them; to prevent this, his majesty ordained by a declaration, in the said year 1722, That the consuls of the French nation in foreign countries might, for the future, give their sentence on civil matters, in conjunction with the two deputies of the nation, or, on their default, two of the principal French merchants; and their decrees to be put in execution as before.

The consul hath power, on information made, and by advice of the deputies of the nation, to cause all Frenchmen whose lives and conducts are found to be scandalous, to depart from the places of their settlement; and captains and masters of French vessels are to take them on board, on the consul's order, on pain of 500 livres fine, for redemption of captives. The consul hath power to appoint, as well for the exercise of the chancery as for the execution of his judgments, and other

acts of justice, persons whom he shall think proper, who are to take the oath, and for which he is civilly responsible.

The rights of the acts and dispatches of the chancery of the consulship, which have been regulated by the consul, with advice of the deputies of the nation, the extract of which hath been sent to the lieutenant of the admiralty, and to the deputies of commerce of Marseilles, are to be written in a book, and placed in the most public part of the chancery.

The appeals from the sentences of consuls, established as well in the ports of the Levant, as on the coasts of Africa and Barbary, are to be referred to the parliament of Aix; and all others to the nearest parliament.

When contests happen between the consuls and merchants, both in the Levant and on the coasts of Africa and Barbary, on their private affairs, the parties are to apply to the admiralty of Marseilles.

The consul is to make an inventory of the goods and effects of those who die without heirs, as also of effects saved from shipwreck, with which he is to charge the chancellor, at the foot of the inventory, in presence of two eminent merchants, who are to sign with him: but, if the deceased hath appointed an executor to collect his effects, or if a commissioner who takes charge of goods saved, offers himself, the effects are to be delivered again to them.

The consul is to send, as soon as possible, a copy of the inventory of the deceased's goods, or of those saved from shipwreck, to the officers of the admiralty, and to the deputies of commerce of Marseilles, to notice it to the interested persons.

Acts made in foreign countries, where there are consuls, are of no validity in France, if not made legal by them; and wills received by the chancellor within the district of the consulship, in presence of the consul, and of two witnesses, and signed by them, are accounted ratified.

Policies of assurance, bottomries, and all other maritime contracts, may be passed in the chancery of the consulship, in presence of two witnesses, who are to sign.

The chancellor is to have a register, and marked on each leaf by the consul and oldest deputies, in which he is to write the debates and acts of the consulship, to enroll the policies of assurance, the obligations and contracts he hath received, bills of lading, policies of assurances, acts of bottomries, &c. which are deposited in his hands by the mariners and passengers; accounts agreed on by the deputies of the nation; and the wills and inventories of effects left by deceased persons, or saved from shipwreck; and generally, all acts and proceedings made in quality of chancellor.

Masters of vessels who arrive at ports where there are consuls of the French nation, are, on their arrival, to represent the place of their departure, to make report of their voyage, and to take from them, on departing, a certificate of the time of their arrival and departure, and of the state and quality of their lading.

The French consuls are in the nature of ambassadors, or envoys of France, at the courts on which their consulships depend.

It is they who support the commerce and interests of the nation, whose causes they are obliged to undertake on all reasonable occasions.

It is they who are to dispose of the sums given, and presents that are to be made, to the lords and principal persons of the places, to secure their protection, and put a stop to, or prevent, the oppressions or insults shewn to strangers by the people of the country, on every the slightest occasion, to exact something from them. These kind of disbursements are at expence of the whole nation.

The consuls have dues assigned them. In some places their dues are on all merchandize brought and unladed by the French within their district, and on what is imported and exported, and that at so much per cent. of their value. In other places they have so much per cent. on the freight, either at the arrival or departure of the ships; that is to say, of those that load and unload; for those which only anchor in the harbours and roads are exempt from those dues, as before observed.

There are consuls, or vice-consuls, of the French nation, in the principal trading cities of Spain, Italy, Portugal, of the North, and in all or most of the ports of the Levant, and of Barbary.

They continue usually in time of peace only; for as soon as war is declared, and trade stopped, they are to return home. Formerly France had a consul in Holland, and Holland one in France; but, by the treaty of trade and navigation made between those two nations the 20th of September, 1697, no consul is to be admitted on either side for the future.

Most foreign nations, whose trade is considerable, have consuls also, in the same places and ports as the French, especially the English and Dutch, with jurisdiction, &c. something the same as those of France; and, if they were more so, they would prove of far more important service to their respective countries. They are commonly distinguished by adding the name of their nation.

A list of the Consuls and Vice-consuls of France, residing in Spain, Italy, Portugal, the North, and the ports of the Levant, and coasts of Barbary.

SPAIN.	PORTUGAL.
Cadiz	Lisbon
Alicant	Isle of Tercera
Gijon, and the ports of the Asturias	Porto
Minorca, yielded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht	Isle of St Michael
Malaga	Isle of Madeira
Barcelona	Isle of Fayal.
St Andero	The NORTH.
Gibraltar, at present belonging to the English	Elfineur
Carthagena	Berghen in Norway.
Corunna, and the harbours of Galicia	Ports of the LEVANT and BARBARY.
Teneriff, and the harbours of the Canary Islands.	Smyrna
	Seyde
ITALY.	Cyprus
Nice, and the harbours of Comté	Tripoli in Barbary
Naples, and the ports of that kingdom	Sala
Ancona	Athens
Sinigaglia	Naples in Romania
Venice	Ispahan and Persia
Ragusa	Zea in the Archipelago
The island of Corfu	Saillade in Albania
The isle of Cerigo	Aleppo
The isle of Zante	Cance, and the isle of Candia
Genoa, and the ports of the republic	Isle of Negropont
Messina, and the ports of Sicily	The Morea
Rovigno	Durazzo in Albania
The isle of Malta	Cairo
Leghorn	Salonica
Rome	Jerusalem
Cagliari, and the ports of Sardinia.	Tunis
	Algiers
	Naxia, Paros, and other isles of the Archipelago
	Isles of Tine and Miconi
	Lo Cavale.

There was also formerly a consul at Satalia; but, that port not being thought considerable enough to entertain one, the consulship was re-united to that of Aleppo, by an order of council of July 1691.

The same order established one at Jerusalem, where there had been none before. The motives to this last establishment were, to give the French, and all Catholics in that holy city, the succours they might expect from the protection of his most Christian majesty.

It has already been observed, that the consul's dues are in some places on the goods, and in others on the bottoms.

That difference, as also the different qualities of goods from those ports, preventing the uniformity, and, consequently, causing great difficulties in the gathering them, which obstructed the commerce of the French in the Levant; Lewis the XIVth, by the same order of 1691, suppressed all their dues, with prohibition to exact any for the future from merchants and masters of French ships and vessels, under pretence of salary, interpreter, or any other whatsoever, on pain of being guilty of extortion. Permitting them, nevertheless, still to receive the said dues from strangers trading to the Levant, under the banner and protection of France; not for themselves, but for the profit of the chamber of commerce of Marseilles. And, in order to defray the expenses for which the said dues were granted to the consuls, the king enacted, That, from the 1st of January 1692, it should be levied on all merchandizes coming from the Levant, Candia, Archipelago, the Morea, and Barbary, at their arrival in the haven of Marseilles, in regard to vessels that should end their voyage there; and, on those who should end their voyage in Italy, or elsewhere, it should be paid to the deputies of the nation residing in the ports. And, in case the said vessels have been laden in different ports, in the same voyage, then to pay at the rate of those of the ports where they have touched, and where the rates are highest. Excepting, however, ships that touch at Constantinople and Smyrna, who are to pay the new right, in the same proportion they have been accustomed to pay the right of cottimo*, which is to be paid, as before, with the said new right.

* A term of commerce used by the French in the ports of the Levant, signifying a duty imposed by the consul, and applied to the French Levant company.

It is from the produce of this new right the king would have the provision for the consuls assigned; to be fixed at 10,000 livres, and remitted yearly from quarter to quarter, by the sheriffs and deputies of Marseilles, to the deputies residing in the said ports, to be paid and employed conformably to the tarif.

The king enacting moreover, that, in regard to the extraordinary expences, they shall not be fixed by the consuls, but pursuant to a deliberation of the body of the nation, assembled for that purpose in the accustomed manner; prohibiting them to deliver their ordinance of payment otherwise, interdicting in like manner them, their officers, and domestics, to trade directly or indirectly, on pain of privation of their consulship, and 3000 livres fine.

The rights of the French consulships in Spain have also been regulated since the year 1660, by an order of the 20th of January.

For a long time these rights were received by the consuls at the rate of one half per cent. on goods belonging to the king's subjects, coming in or out of the ports of Spain, where the consul resided; they from time to time obtaining, according to their credit and favour, commissions for the payment of this right to them.

But the king being informed that this right could not be exacted in any port of Spain, without sensible prejudice to his subjects trading there; and moreover, that the old custom was, for the consuls to receive only some small sums on every French ship arriving there; revoked and annulled all commissions, 'till that time granted to any consulships of Spain for the right of one half per cent. and prohibiting the bearers of them to meddle with the office of the said consuls; as also them, and all others invested with the office of consuls, to levy the said right, under pretence of those commissions: enacting, that, for the future, the said consuls should receive for their rights as follows, viz.

Those in the ports of the provinces of Biscay and Galicia, 24 rials of plate for every French ship and bark.

Those of the ports of Huelus, Seville, San Lucar de Barameda, Port St Mary, and Cadiz, 70 rials of plate for every ship; and 32 rials for every bark, seytie, and polacre.

Lastly, those of all the ports situated within the streights of Gibraltar, as far as Catalonia, and that included, 36 rials of plate for every ship, and 24 for every bark, seytie and polacre, to be received, on the lading or unlading of the said ships, in manner as had been always practised before the war between the two crowns.

It may not be unacceptable to recite here the ordinances of Lewis XIV. one of July 1686, the other of February the year following, relating to the French consuls in foreign countries.

By the first, the king having been informed that his consuls, residing in the ports of his allies, gave certificates not only to the French dwelling out of the kingdom, but even to foreigners, who by that means sailed securely, without fear of the Barbary corsairs, to whom the king had given peace; which deprived his subjects of the advantage that they ought to have in trade over other nations, who had not those passports; to remedy this abuse, prohibited all French consuls to give such certificates, for the future, on any pretence whatsoever; enjoining his ambassadors and residents in the states where the said consuls are established, to see the said ordinance obeyed.

By the second, the king strictly prohibits all masters and sailors of his subjects ships, being in foreign parts, from going before the judges there, on account of differences they may have with each other, on pain of punishment for disobedience; enjoining them to apply to the consuls there established, who are to administer the most speedy and summary justice to them in their power, and without cost.

Of the nature of the consular power in Spain.

The consulship court in Spain is constituted of a prior and consuls. Before the discovery of the West-Indies, this court of the consulships was erected in the cities of Burgos, Barcelona, Valencia, Saragossa, and the town of Bilbao: afterwards, the trade increasing so considerably at Seville, it was established there under the emperor Charles V. and confirmed by his son king Philip II. under several ordinances. By the first institution, the merchants of Seville trading to the West-Indies were to chuse every year a prior and two consuls; but, experience proving it inconvenient that they should all three come into the employment together, it was ordered, in the year 1588, that he who had been second consul one year, should be first consul the next, and so only a prior and second consul was erected.

The prior and consul here cause proclamation to be made on the second day of the year in the India-House, at the town-hall and exchange, for all those who will be present at the chusing of electors, to appear the next day after the Epiphany in the hall of the consulship, which is in the India-House.

The day after the Epiphany, the judge of the appeals, prior and consuls, meet with all the merchants trading to the West-Indies, at two in the afternoon, at the chamber of the consulship; where, in the presence of a notary, every one delivers in the names of 30 traders, written down, to the judge of appeals, who puts them into a box, to compare them at last.

The president of the India-House may and ought to be present, and then the papers with the names are delivered to him;

him; yet this does not exclude the judge of appeals, without whom no election can be made. Before I proceed to give an account of the form used in the election, it will not be amiss to acquaint the reader, that it has often been put off, for some time, by reason of the prior and consuls in being having some matter of moment to determine, whereof they had full knowledge, and which would take up new ones much time to be duly informed in. But,

This prorogation cannot be made without express order from the council of the Indies. In the year 1608 it was proposed to chuse a prior for two years, and the consuls for three; but this did not take effect. There has also been an attempt made to alter the form of the election, which not succeeding need not be mentioned.

None are allowed to vote but married men, widowers, or housekeepers, who are above 25 years of age, excluding all servants, clerks, and strangers; but, as to these last, neither their sons nor grandsons are allowed to elect, or be elected. The day after the electors are chosen, they are to meet in the same chamber of the consulship, where every one shall swear before the judge of appeals, prior, and consuls, that they will proceed in their election according to conscience, and name such persons as they believe will be zealous for the honour of God, do justice, and study the general good of the community. At least 20 or 30 of the electors must be present to make the election. Having taken the oath as above, every one delivers in the person's name in writing, for whom he votes to be prior, to the president, if there; otherwise to the judge of the appeals, who throws them into an urn, then takes them out again, and, being laid on the table, the secretary counts whether there be as many as electors present.— Then the president, or judge, opens and reads them, the secretary setting down how many votes every man has; and he who has the majority carries the point.

If any two have equal votes, the judge of appeals decides the matter. The prior and consuls of the foregoing year have no vote, unless they be chosen electors. The consul is chosen in the same manner. As soon as elected, the judge of appeals tenders the oath to the new prior and consul, that they will duly exercise their office for the service of God and the king, the advantage of the traders, and do impartial justice; which done, the old ones quit their places, and the new ones take possession of them. The whole transaction is recorded by the secretary, and signed by the president, judge of appeals, late prior and consul, and all the electors present. The electors continue for two years. If any one of them be sick, or absent upon any other lawful account, he may send his vote in writing, sealed up. It is not permitted to chuse father and son, two brothers, two partners, nor those that were prior and consul together some years before, to exercise those employments.

Merchants trading to the West-Indies, who farm or insure the customs, may not be candidates for prior or consul; or, if they farm, after they are in possession of these places, they forfeit them. The prior and consul that go out remain as counsellors to those that come in, and the electors chuse five deputies to assist them in all their business. Those that are chosen prior, consul, counsellor, or deputy, and refuse to stand, are fined 50,000 maravedies, and obliged to serve the office too. They are obliged to sit thrice a week, that is, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, two hours at a time; in winter from nine to eleven, in summer from eight till ten; and, if any of these days be a holyday, the sitting is put off till the next day. The prior and one consul, or the two consuls without the prior, may dispatch the same business as if all three were together, provided they agree in their opinions; for, if they differ, then the prior, or eldest consul of the foregoing year, or the next in authority, is admitted, and has a casting vote. The same is done when two of the three do not agree in judgment. All three ought never to be absent, at once, but, if they are, then those of the foregoing year act as if they were in present possession.

By grants from the emperor Charles V. and his son prince Philip, in his name, the prior and consuls have authority to try all causes relating to merchandize carried to the West-Indies, or brought thence by merchants, companies, or factors; to buying and selling bills of exchange, negotiating assurances, adjusting matters of accounts, freight, or factorage, and all other things belonging to the trade of the Indies or Spain, and in all civil causes about meum and tuum; but, if the trial be criminal, they are to refer it to the chamber of justice in the India-House. And this power is privative, so that any trader may refuse to submit to any then in court, and the prior and consuls shall put a stop to any proceedings of this nature.—Only those are allowed the privileges and immunities of merchants, who trade by sea, and sell by wholesale, which employment is looked upon as honourable; whereas those that sell by retail are accounted mean in comparison to the others, and, accordingly, are excluded from this corporation of traders to the Indies.

This court of consulship, also, is authorized to take cognizance of all bankers, or others, that break. Factors of merchants trading to the West-Indies, though they live out of Seville, may be obliged to appear before the court of

consulship, to give an account of what they have been intrusted with. The prior and consuls are to be respected as the king's judges, and may fine any person that shall fail therein, as far as 30,000 maravedies, provided the person that received the affront does not vote in his own behalf; but, if the affront was more than words, then the court of the India-House shall punish the offender according to law.

The prior and consuls may summon all, or any of the traders, for affairs relating to the consulship, and fine such as shall refuse to come. They are allowed a lawyer, as assessor, with a salary, a door-keeper, or cryer, as also the chusing their alguazil and ecrivano, the ecrivano's of flota's and armada's, but these to be approved of by the president. They have a secretary, and a keeper of the exchange, comptrollers, receivers, and other officers. They may send any person or persons to court about their business, and assign them an allowance all the while they are following of it. They had formerly the chief management of the flota's and armada's, but, at present, only propose what stowage will be requisite. They have a full power to execute all sentences given by them, and, therefore, are allowed an alguazil of their own; and all persons are required not to obstruct, but to be aiding and assisting to them, that their business may be speedily dispatched, without the delays caused by lawyers. From the court of consulship there lies an appeal to the judge by office, or commissioner of the India-House, yearly appointed for this purpose by the king, who, together with two such India merchants as he shall think fit, having sworn to do impartial justice, shall decide the matter, as is usual among merchants, without bills or answers, or any writings of lawyers, but only upon matter of fact made out; and, if they ratify the judgment given, there lies no further appeal; but, if they reverse the former decree, and either party require it, the same judge of appeals is to grant a review, associating to himself two other merchants, who are to be sworn as the two others were, and their resolution is final, so that there is no appeal from their judgment. The appeal from the prior and consuls must be brought within five days after judgment given, and so the second appeal, in case the first judgment be reversed. The judge of appeals, if he think fit, may advise with a lawyer, but is not obliged to it.

The court of consulship is to take an account of ships cast away in the West-India voyage, and to particularize where they were lost, and what plate or merchandize was saved. Then the president and commissioners of the India-House send their orders to the magistrates where their ships were cast away, for securing the effects, which being brought, the prior and consuls shall receive what belongs to the merchants trading to the West-Indies incorporate, to deliver it to them; but that which appertains to other merchants not incorporate, is to be delivered them by order of the chamber of direction. If ships be lost in the West-Indies, the king's officers there take charge of what is saved, or else the magistrates of the place, and return the value to the India-House, where it is delivered to the owners. This court may appoint persons in all the ports of the Indies, to see their ordinances fulfilled. Their papers are to be kept in a chest, with three keys, the prior and each consul to keep one, that none may be taken away without the knowledge of them all. The prior and consuls are subordinate to the India-House, but no way to be molested by the commissioners in the execution of any thing that belongs to them. The court of consulship is ever joined, in all public acts, with that of the India-House, as the body to the head; and, when the prior and consuls come into the chamber of direction, they sit upon the bench up the steps, on the right-hand, and have a bench covered with a carpet in the chapel, to hear sermons; but, when they go to other churches, they have chairs on the right-hand, the comptrollers of haberia's, or the duty for convoys, being on the left, and the visitors sit on the right, below the consuls. When they appear abroad in public, the visitor's coach goes first, then that of the comptrollers of haberia's, then that of the consuls, next the judges, or commissioners, of both chambers, and lastly the president.

All commodities, shipped for the Indies, are to pay one in the thousand, above other duties, for the proper use of the court of consulship, which appoints a receiver for it, who is to give an account of the produce to the president and commissioners, as also of the other revenues coming in, as office-fees, and some settled revenues. Whosoever has traded to the Indies above a year, or sends for the first time to the value of above 1000 ducats, is obliged to pay this one per thousand. The king has granted the court of consulship the perpetual government of the exchange. In all matters relating to trade, generally the commissioners of the India-House take the advice of the prior and consuls, who, upon all occasions, have been very serviceable to the crown, advancing very considerable sums of money, as necessities have required.

REMARKS.

From the foregoing narrative, in regard to the nature of the consular office, as exercised by the English, the French, and the

the Spaniards, it is obvious that their institution is a kind of court-merchant, to determine affairs relating to commerce in a summary way.

With regard to France and Spain, this office, we may observe, is to be considered in a two-fold light, that is to say, in a domestic, as well as a foreign one; but, in respect to England, only in the latter, we having no consular establishment within the kingdom, derived from our own laws and constitution, to settle and adjust matters of dispute and controversy between traders in that easy, unexpensive, and summary manner, that those other nations have judged requisite to institute. Consuls, indeed, who are resident in England from foreign States, act upon the same principles as our British consuls that reside in foreign States; but these are not our own domestic consuls, such as are established in several of the provinces of France, or of the nature of that office, as we have described the same to be exercised in Spain. For these are a species of courts of judicature, established and set apart wholly to consider of, and determine upon, matters of trade and navigation, as well between natives and natives, as between natives and foreigners.

Institutions of this kind, as established in France, certainly answer very good purposes to the trading interests of that kingdom, in two essential respects; (1.) As they prevent tedious litigations at law between traders; and, (2.) As they bring the consular courts familiarly acquainted with the affairs of commerce, which renders their decisions easy to the court, and no way vexatious or expensive to the subject. For, as these determinations are all recorded in these courts, from time to time, when any point occurs that may not have been determined by their predecessors, or which may be a new case, they have from an index of references, immediate recourse to cases, as similar as they can find, and form a judgment therefrom, in the manner that our courts of law make their decisions, from consulting a similitude of cases of their learned predecessors, and weighing them consistently with the fundamental principles of law. But, these consular courts being restrained merely to matters of trade, they become more skilful, judicious, and expert, in this one species of cases, than any court could possibly be, wherein they undertake the decision of cases of every kind. Nor are courts of this nature established only in France and Spain, but, in most other trading nations, merchant-judges are appointed for the trying of merchants affairs summarily. And, perhaps, if such courts were duly established and authorized in Great-Britain and Ireland, they certainly might and would prove highly beneficial, not only according to the opinion of some of the most judicious merchants this-kingdom ever had, but according to the sentiments of our ablest statesmen, who have well understood the nature of trade, and have been for removing all clogs and obstructions to it's prosperity. This matter, however, we shall not here enter into, but defer it's consideration to the article MERCHANT-COURT, where we shall give the sentiments of those who have favoured a design of this nature, shew how these establishments are regulated in foreign countries, and humbly submit our own remarks to the reader's judgment.

As the affairs of our trade, and the interests, rights, and privileges of our merchants and seamen in foreign countries, are ordinarily left to the conduct of our British consuls, they cannot be too well qualified for this province: nor is it of less dignity and honour to our merchants residing in other countries, to our masters of ships, and to our seamen in general, than benefit and advantage to them, and to our trade in general, to have persons of abilities appointed for stations of so great importance to the kingdom. There have been instances of some gentlemen that have been appointed in this capacity, who, being well qualified for their post, and having a happy talent at reconciling differences between their countrymen and foreigners, and supporting their station with a becoming dignity, have prevented great broils and heart-burnings between kingdoms, which might have broke out into a flame, had the proper accomplishments been wanting for such a trust.

Besides, a consul being always on the spot, daily conversant with the practice of trade, and with the traders of those nations, as well as of his own, if he is a man of discernment, he will not be at a loss to discover what difficulties and discouragements the trade of his own nation labours under, and what advantages our rivals may have over us, by an infraction of treaties, which may be winked at, highly to our disadvantage, and greatly to the benefit of our competitors. But a consul of judgment and sagacity, who does not keep at such a distance from practical traders, as an ambassador, may have greater opportunities of knowing our grievances in commerce, and of pointing out the proper way and means to redress them, than one who represents his sovereign in a superior capacity. Wherefore it seems reasonable, that gentlemen of this class should have appointments from the government, as well as those other privileges to which they are intitled, as in Turkey, a certain duty on the goods loaded and unloaded; and others a stipend on the shipping only.

And, with all humble submission to my superiors in judg-

ment, I would beg leave to suggest the following questions.

1. Whether the capacity of a consulship may not be looked upon as a proper preparatory station to that of an ambassador in ordinary at foreign courts, especially where the interest of our trade is always at stake?

2. Whether a gentleman, having acted in this station, in a manner no way derogatory to the interest and honour of his country, may not reasonably be presumed to understand our commercial interests better than one who has never had opportunities of being practically informed in affairs of this nature; and whether a person thus qualified, and by means of a suitable appointment from the government, may not be better enabled to support the dignity of the office than is done in general at present, give proper intelligence, in regard to matters of commerce, either to ambassadors in ordinary or extraordinary, and to the administration, &c. and thereby far more contribute to the interest of trade than they can at present?

3. Whether, if this post was constituted as introductory to a higher station under the crown; it might not prove an inducement to the younger branches of our most noble and honourable families to make the studies of commerce one essential part of their erudition?

4. Whether, if this practice was introduced, many of the sons of those honourable families would not chuse to be bred merchants, in order first to become consuls, and afterwards residents, envoys, ambassadors, &c. at foreign courts?

5. Whether those young persons of great families and distinction would not hereby reap far greater benefits and advantages by travel in this manner into foreign countries (for consulships might be so judiciously shifted from time to time, so as to give a young gentleman of erudition an opportunity of seeing several of the principal nations in Europe, and understanding their trade) and thus, by his travel and experience in the trade of various nations, be able to accumulate such a fund of commercial knowledge, as could not fail to accomplish him to represent his sovereign hereafter, with all desirable dignity and splendor at foreign courts, return to his native country with applause, and become as conspicuous for the care and protection of the trade of his country at home, as he was abroad?

6. Whether this might not prove the means of rendering the name of a merchant as honourable in this kingdom as it ever ought to be, according to what is represented under the article of COMMERCE: and whether, in consequence hereof, we might not hope to see the grand representative of the nation filled with those who understand trade, as well foreign as domestic, and from whom, when they had done with the practice of it, we might expect the soundest judgment, in regard to the commerce of the nation in general, and his majesty the best councils upon those important occasions? See the article MERCHANT-COURT.

CONTRIBUTIONS and AVERAGES, [see AVERAGE.] is commonly used by the law-merchant, for that contribution which is made towards losses sustained, where goods are cast into the sea for the safeguard of the ship, &c. during a tempest: 'tis so called, because allotted after the rate of every man's goods aboard.

By the antient laws and customs of the sea in a storm, on extreme necessity, the goods, wares, guns, &c. may, by consulting the mariners, be thrown overboard for preservation of the ship; and, if they consent not, the master may, notwithstanding, command the casting overboard what goods, &c. he shall think fitting, for safety of the rest, if the danger continues: but, if there be a merchant or supercargo aboard, on request he should begin first; then the mariners, who shall answer double, if they embezzle to their own use. And, if the merchant refuse, the master and mariners may proceed without him, taking care that things of less value and greatest weight be flung overboard: if the ship happen to arrive safe at her port, the master and greatest part of the crew are to make oath, that the goods were cast overboard for safety of the ship; the remainder, whether they pay freight, must come into the average.

All the parties interested are to bear the loss by a general contribution; and a master, or purser, shall contribute for preservation; also the passengers for what they have in the ship; and where they have no goods, in regard they are a burthen to it, 'tis said, an estimate shall be made of their apparel, rings, &c. towards a contribution for the loss; and generally money, jewels, cloaths, and all things (except the cloaths borne on a man's body, or victuals, &c.) are liable to contribution and average. And the goods lost shall be valued, and also those saved; which being known, a proportionable value shall be contributed by the goods saved, towards reparation of those lost; and, if any of the goods saved are spoiled or injured, the same must come into the contribution for the damage received.

If there happen to be plate, &c. in chest or bale, at the time of casting over the goods, and a supercargo aboard, he is to notice it to the master or mariners.

And, as to the estimation in these cases, some have held, that regard is had, not to what might be got by the goods lost, but the damage sustained, and are therefore to be valued only

at what they cost: but others say, they are to be valued at what they might be sold for, when cast overboard. According to the Lex Mercatoria of Malins, this order is to be observed; if cast overboard before half the voyage is performed, they are to be valued at the price they cost; but, if after, at the price of the rest, when sold. And the custom is now general, for the goods saved and lost, to be estimated at what those saved are sold for, freight and other necessary charges first deducted.

If a ship's gear or apparel be lost by storm, 'tis not within the average, unless in the avoiding a danger, as flinging the mast overboard, &c. which is to be made good by the ship and lading pro rata. The laws of Oleron ordain, that in such case the master is first to consult those aboard, who have goods and merchandize in the vessel.

But, if any persons aboard desire the master to put into any port for fear of pirates, and in going out he loses anchors or cables, they shall pay for them.

The goods cast overboard to lighten the ship make no derelict, so as to be forsaken, or wilfully cast away. If such goods shipped in England are taken up by another English ship at sea, an action lies to recover the goods: and any being thrown overboard, and afterwards recovered, the contribution ceases, saving for the damage received. If, before they are recovered, the owner hath had an average, he is to restore the money, deducting for the loss by the damage.

Some sea ordinances require such of the ship's utensils to be first thrown overboard, as are not of the greatest service, then the seamen's chests, and after them other things: yet some things seem to be excepted in some cases, as cannon and other instruments, or provisions to relieve a city in time of war, the law preferring the urgent service of the prince, to the subject's life.

If a ship be indiscreetly laden above the birth-mark, and an ejection happen, no contribution shall be made, but satisfaction made by the ship's master or owners. Or if forbidden goods be put on board, and happen to be the cause of damage, the master shall bear the loss, and may also be prosecuted; or, if he take in things without leave of the freighters, and a storm arise, in which part of their goods are thrown overboard, he only shall answer it; nor shall contribution be had for goods brought secretly on board, unknown to the master or purser, if they are ejected.

If, a ship being taken at sea, the master, to get the ship and lading out of the enemy's hands, engages to pay a sum of money, and surrenders himself as a security, he shall be redeemed at the cost and charges of the ship and lading, according to every man's interest, by a contribution; as also if a pirate takes part to spare the rest; but, if by violence, the rest are not subject to average, unless so agreed by the merchants: though, where an enemy takes goods, the remainder shall be liable to average.

Contribution is to be paid for the pilot's fee, that hath brought a ship into port for her safeguard; and likewise for raising the ship off the ground, when there is no fault in the master. And, if damage be received by two ship's striking against each other, and there be no fault in either, contribution is to be made by a just equality; but, if there be fault on either side, full satisfaction shall be made the merchant injured: if one ship perishes, as the loss cannot be proportioned, there can be no contribution; as otherwise a person might set an old weak ship against a strong one, for an extraordinary recompence. Also this hinders not the owners of a suffering ship from bringing their action to recover damage; but, if done in the night, the party must prove he made out light or fire, or gave other notice, by crying or calling out. As the common law esteems the ship's cargo security for the freight due, so the maritime law adjudges them for the average, till which is settled, the master is not to deliver them; if therefore the merchant will not agree to it when settled, the master may detain the lading; and may bar any action at law in that case, by pleading the special matter.

If a lighter, or the ship's boat, having part of the cargo, perishes, and the ship be saved, contribution is to be made; but, if the contrary happen, none is recoverable.

Where passengers cast goods out of a ferry-boat, in a tempest, to preserve their lives, the owners shall have no remedy; unless the boatman have discharged the boat, against whom they may have an action.

After a general shipwreck is no contribution. An average is paid to masters, for taking care of goods, expressed in the bills of lading. See **BILLS of LADING**.

CONVOYS at sea, and **CRUIZERS**, for the better securing the trade of this kingdom.

A convoy signifies one or more men of war, to accompany and protect merchant-ships in time of war; and cruisers are ships of war appointed to cross the seas to and fro, particularly on the coasts of this kingdom, for clearing the same from enemies.

R E M A R K S

Containing some cases determined in our courts of judicature, relative to **CONVOYS**, &c.

A ship, insured to a certain place abroad, was warranted to

depart with convoy: and, being lost, an action of the case was brought, wherein the jury found a special verdict to this purpose, viz. That the ship departed out of the river Thames under convoy; from which she was separated about the Isle of Wight by bad weather, and put in at Torbay, and was detained there by contrary winds; that the master, expecting to meet the convoy, failed out, but could not meet with her for stress of weather; that the ship was taken by the French, and so lost, &c. Here the question was, concerning the true meaning of those words; viz. Warranted to depart with convoy?

The counsel for the plaintiff insisted, that no more was intended than a departure with convoy, at first setting out; which being provided, and so found by the verdict, they had fulfilled their warranty. And that what the master did afterwards, ought not to prejudice the plaintiff; for the master is in nature of a common carrier, to convey goods from one port to another; but as 'tis here found, he did not misbehave himself, for he came forth to meet his convoy, and did endeavour it, but was hindered by stress of weather. And suppose the words had been, warranted to depart with convoy, and so to continue to the end of the voyage (dangers of the sea only excepted) if the ship should happen to be taken by the enemy, that is a danger at sea; or if the convoy leave her, being commanded another way by the king; or in case she be assaulted and will not fight; the insurers shall lose nothing in either of these cases: for the words signify, that all necessary care shall be taken to preserve the ship which was done in this case.

For the defendant it was said, that by these words, the ship ought to go all the way with convoy, and not from the river only, where there is no danger from an enemy, for that could never be the meaning or intention of the parties, and that she should be left at sea where there is danger. This agreement is but a parole contract, and must be construed according to the minds of the parties, and not according to the strict sense of the words: as, when a person is obliged to secure a thing under such terms and circumstances, the manner of the promise must be observed and pursued. So if a promise be made to deliver goods at London, and for that purpose they are put in a boat, which is afterwards lost, though the party used his endeavour, that shall not discharge him, because, having undertaken the thing on his part, he ought to perform it.

'Tis found by the jury, that the master departed out of the bay, to meet the convoy, which must be to sail with and be protected by her the rest of the voyage. Here was a severance by bad weather: now the ship might have come up to the convoy, or that to the ship; she did not stir till the ship was taken, therefore, the other parties being to provide convoy, here is a breach of the agreement on their side, which will hinder their bringing this action, especially as 'tis an entire agreement, and no precedent condition.

The court declared, that the word depart is only terminus a quo; and, if the ship had departed from London, and came back again by fraud, that had been no departure within the intention of this agreement. But, as 'tis found, the voyage was begun with convoy: the separation afterwards by stress of weather, both endeavouring to save themselves, and afterwards to find each other; and there being no fraud found in the master; judgment was given for the plaintiff. Though it might have been otherwise determined, if the convoy had run from the ship, and by that means she had been taken.

By 6 Ann. c. 13. 'tis enacted, That, for the better preserving ships employed in the trade of Great-Britain, over and above the ships of war for the line of battle, and convoys for remote parts, forty-three men of war shall be employed as cruisers, viz. six third rates, twenty fourth rates, thirteen fifth rates, and four sixth rates, to cruise in such stations as the lords commissioners of the admiralty shall direct; nine to be on the north-east of Great-Britain, and three on the north-west coasts thereof. To be careened at least three times a year, and the seamen not to be turned over to any other ships: but on necessity, any of the said cruisers, by appointment of the lord admiral, &c. to be employed in the line of battle on this side of Cape Finisterre; otherwise to be always used in home cruising, except when they are careening or refitting.

The lord high admiral, or commissioners of the admiralty, to appoint a commissioner of the navy, or other person, to supervise these cruisers, and see all necessaries be immediately provided when they come into port, and, when refitted, to order them to sea again. And they shall send up to the admiralty, within eight days of the meeting of the parliament, an account digested into eight columns, relating to the said ships. And the lord admiral, &c. shall, every year during the war, appoint the aforesaid ships to be cruisers or convoys on this side Cape Finisterre; and, when any happen to be taken or lost, another of the same rate to be appointed to supply it's room.

If any ship of war, privateer, &c. shall be taken as prize, and so adjudged in the courts of admiralty, the officers and seamen, actually then on board, shall, after condemnation, have the sole interest in it to their own use, without being

further accountable; the prize to be sold by those whom they shall under their hands and seals appoint, and the whole produce divided among them as directed by proclamation.

But, if the lord high admiral, &c. shall think fit to take into her majesty's service any such prize-ship, it shall be appraised by officers appointed: and, on producing such appraisement, with a certificate of the delivery of the ship so taken, the commissioners of the navy shall make out bills for paying the full value, to be distributed as aforesaid.

And, for a further encouragement, the treasurer of the navy shall pay, upon bills made forth by the commissioners of the navy, to the officers, seamen, and others, on board any man of war, &c. in such action, § 1. for every man that was living on board the ship taken as prize, at the beginning of the engagement; the number to be proved by the oaths of three or more of the chief officers, &c. belonging to the prize at the time of her being taken, before the mayor, or chief magistrate of the port whither such prize is brought: who is required to administer such oath, and forthwith grant a certificate without fee or reward. On producing which certificate, and a copy of the condemnation, the commissioners shall, within fifteen days, make out bills for the amount of such bounty, payable to the captors, to be divided among them, according to the proclamation.

Nothing herein shall exempt any ships, goods, or merchandize, taken as prize, from payment of customs, or being subject to such restrictions as the same are liable to by the laws of the realm: but, when brought into port, shall be unladen in presence of the custom-house officers for such port, and kept in her majesty's warehouses till appraised and sold. The captors may bring appraisers to view, appraise, and buy them at reasonable times, and, when sold, the customs to be paid before delivery, &c.

All appraisements and sales of such ships and goods to be made by agents named in equal numbers by the commander, officers, and seamen; if the captain appoints one or more persons, then the other officers, or majority, shall name the like number, and all the ship's company, the same number, to act in their behalf. And after sale public notice to be given, of the day appointed for payment of the several shares, after which, if any remain in the agent's hands, or be not legally demanded within three years, it shall go to Greenwich hospital.

And the bills, made out, shall be payable to the agents appointed, to be distributed as abovementioned.

If any officer or seamen shall break bulk on board, or embezzle any of the goods, tackle, &c. he shall forfeit treble the value of all such goods, &c. one third to Greenwich hospital, the other two thirds to the informer.

A proclamation issued pursuant to this act, appointing the distribution of prizes taken, and the bounty for taking ships of war, &c.

By which was ordered, That the net proceed of all prizes, and bounty-money for prisoners taken, be divided into eight equal parts; whereof three eighths to the captain, one eighth shall go to a flag-officer, if actually on board. To the marine captains, sea lieutenants, and master, one eighth, to be equally divided among them. The marine lieutenants, boat-swain, gunner, purser, carpenter, master's mate, surgeons, and chaplain, one eighth. The midshipmen, carpenter's mates, boat-swain's mates, gunner's mates, yeoman of the sheets, coxswain, quarter-master, quarter-master's mates, surgeon's mate, yeomen of the powder-room, and sergeants of marines, one eighth. The trumpeter's, quarter-gunner's, carpenter's crew, steward, cook, armourer, steward's mate, cook's mate, gunsmith, cooper, swabber, ordinary trumpeter, barber, able seamen, ordinary seamen, volunteers by letter, and marine soldiers, two eighths.

Every captain of a man of war, taking any prize, is, as soon as may be, to transmit to the navy-board a true list of the names of all the officers, &c. on board, at the taking of such prize.

And in case any sea captain, inferior commissioner, &c. belonging to any ship of war, be absent at the time of the capture, their share shall be cast into those allowed to the trumpeter, quarter-gunner, &c.

The commissioners of the navy are required, after condemnation of the prize, to examine the before-mentioned list by the ship's muster-book, and see that it agrees in all points, and, upon request, shall forthwith grant a certificate of the truth of any list, to the agents named by the captors; and, on application, are to give the said agents all such lists as they shall find requisite, and to be otherwise aiding and assisting to the said agents as shall be necessary.

And the agents, appointed to make sales of the prizes, shall notice the day and place for payment of the shares, in the London Gazette, that the notification of three years within which the shares are to be demanded, or to go to Greenwich hospital, may be ascertained.

By order of council, made in the reign of king William III, and afterwards confirmed by queen Anne, a method was directed to be observed by the commanders of men of war, &c. in examining and securing the prisoners taken on board pri-

vateers, for the more easy conviction of traitors and pirates, being British subjects, found in privateers belonging to the enemy.

All prisoners suspected as such to be carefully examined, and such as own their country, shall sign their examinations: also three or four of the ship's company shall take particular notice of such as confess themselves born British subjects, or are suspected to be so by their language, or any other circumstances, to the end they may speak positively on a trial.

On taking any privateer, the papers, particularly the commission, and roll de l'equipage, are carefully to be secured, and after particular notice taken of them, and being signed by three or four of the ship's crew, that they may be able to prove the same, if required: they are to be transmitted to the judge of the admiralty at Doctor's-Commons.

If no commission be found, all the prisoners are to be carried before some magistrate as soon as brought on shore, with such witnesses as are thought requisite, who can speak to the manner of capture, &c. and thereupon all the said prisoners shall be committed as pirates.

The captains, officers, and sailors, of all ships appointed to convoy merchants ships or others, shall duly attend upon that charge without delay, according to their instructions; and whoever shall neglect their duty in this case, and not defend the ships and merchandize in their convoys, or shall extort any reward, from any merchant or master of ship for convoying such ships belonging to his majesty's subjects, shall be obliged to make reparation of the damage, as the court of admiralty shall adjudge, and shall be otherwise punished by a court martial. 13 Car. II. confirmed by 22 Geo. II.

Cruisers are commonly the best sailing ships, appointed by the admiralty in certain latitudes, in order to meet with and destroy the enemy; they are commonly of the smallest rates, and must on no account leave their stations during the time for which they are appointed, except obliged so to do by stress of weather, or damage. It was enacted by 6 Ann. that, besides the line of battle ships, forty and three others should be employed as convoys and cruisers for the preservation of the merchants shipping; four of which were to be third rates, sixteen fourth rates, and the rest of competent strength to protect our trade.

See the article ASSURANCE, the latter part, in regard to CONVOYS.

COPIES of Authors. Under the articles **BOOK** and **BOOK-SELLER**, we have endeavoured to shew the reasonableness and equity of a law for the ascertaining of literary property, as an encouragement to men of letters to devote their time to the service of the public, by composing, printing, and publishing their works. And, having referred from those heads to the article of **COPIES**, we shall here conclude what we have to urge further on that matter.

There is not, perhaps, in nature, a principle more just, more unexceptionable, and rational, than that every individual should be intitled to the effects of his own labour and industry; and it is the duty as well as interest of the community to protect him therein: nor can any thing prove a greater obstacle and discouragement to learning and science, than the insecurity and precariousness of this kind of property; and therefore nothing can be more detrimental to civil society, which is upheld by literature, and must degenerate into a state of savage barbarism and brutality without it; which is the condition of all countries, where learning is contemned.

It is not every one, indeed, that stands in need of turning author for gain's sake; people of large and independent fortunes, when they are disposed to serve the public in that capacity, commonly present their copies to booksellers, or to some favourite to whom their worth may be an acceptable present. But these are but very few, when compared to the number of others, who have been obliged to study and publish their performances, from the reasonable and laudable motives of private as well as public interest and advantage. For persons, qualified and solicitous to serve communities this way to any lasting purpose, are seldom engaged in active life for their support and maintenance; nor are such stations rarely compatible with a life of close study, which must be a life of solitude and retirement from that hurry and action required in the ordinary concerns of mankind.

Persons thus naturally turned to contemplation, and spontaneously excluding themselves from all benefits derived from the other ways of subsistence, have they not as good a right to the security of their literary property, as men have to any other kind of property whatsoever? Nay, as property of this kind is liable to be artfully pirated, either by piece-meal, or by curtailings, or enlarging with trifling additions, emendations, and corrections, as they are too often very falsely called; does not being thus liable to public plunder and outrage render literary property precarious enough, though the wisdom of the legislature should interpose to make the strongest law to secure it?

The expence of a person's education, and the many years severe study and application, as well as general conversation, that every man must have the benefit of, before he is capable of producing any work of literature, whereby he can subsist with decency, sufficiently shews how much more hazardous the

the case of such men is, who are desirous to be useful in this capacity, than that of any other class in the community.

To deny subjects, who thus devote themselves to the public service, a due protection for their literary property by the laws, is tacitly to deny the utility of books and literature, to strike at the foundation of all seminaries, colleges, and universities, for the promotion of letters: is it not in effect to declare rather in favour of the life of a savage-negro or Indian, than that of a civilized Briton?

‘Although all learning, as the great lord Bacon observes, should be referred to action, yet we may here easily fall into the error of supposing the stomach idle, because it neither performs the office of motion, as the limbs; nor of sense, as the head; though it digests and distributes to all the other parts; in like manner if a man thinks philosophy and universality but idle studies, he does not consider that all professions are from thence supplied.’ For more matter on this head, see the articles *BOOK* and *BOOKSELLER*.

COPPER-Mines, are in various parts of the world more or less. The most noted are those which Dr Edward Brown gave an account of to the Royal Society. They are as follow: *Hern-Ground* is a little town in Hungary, seated very high between two hills, upon a part of land of the same name, an Hungarian mile distant from Newfol. In this town is the entrance into a large copper-mine very much digged.

I went in through a cuniculus, called *Tach-stoim*. The steep descents are made by ladders or trees set upright, with deep notches or stairs cut in them to stay the foot upon. They are not troubled with water, the mine lying high in the hill: but they are molested with dust and damps.

The veins of this mine are large, many of them cumulate, and the ore very rich: in an hundred pounds of ore, they ordinarily find twenty pounds of copper; sometimes thirty or forty, half copper, and even to sixty in the hundred. Much of the ore is joined so fast in the rock, that it is separated with great difficulty. There are divers sorts of ore, but the chief difference is between the yellow and the black; the yellow is pure copper ore, the black contains also a proportion of silver.

They find no quicksilver here; the mother of the ore is yellow, and the copper ore heated, and cast into water, maketh it become like that of some sulphureous baths.

They separate the metal from the ore with great difficulty. The ore commonly passes 14 times through the furnace: sometimes it is burned, and other times melted, sometimes by itself, and sometimes mixed with other minerals and it's own dross.

There are divers sorts of vitriol found in this mine, green, blue, reddish, and white. There is also a green earth, or sediment of a green water called *berggrun*; there are likewise stones found of a beautiful green and blue colour, and one sort on which turcoises have been found, therefore called the mother of the turcois.

There are also two springs of a vitriolic water, which are affirmed to turn into iron copper; they are called the *Old* and *New Zimcut*; these springs lie deep in the mine: the iron is ordinarily left in the water 14 days; I took divers pieces formerly iron, now appearing to be copper, out of the *Old Zimcut*; they are hard within the water, and do not totally lose their figure, and fall into powder; they will easily melt without the addition of any other substance.

They make handsome cups and vessels out of this sort of copper.

There is a heap of copper ore by *Darwent*, near *Kefwick*; but, I suppose, the weather hath eaten out all the copper that was in it: it is reported by Mr *Davies* to Dr *Lifter*, that the thickness of the vein at *Gouldscope* in *Newlands* was six feet; there are no shafts now in being, either at *Newlands* or *Caldbeck*; there are divers adits, but they are useless, the workmen have wrought down the ore far below them; there is part of an adit wrought at *Caldbeck*, but it is uncertain what it cost finishing; for some stone may be wrought for 20 s. a fathom, and some of it may prove so hard, that it may cost 10 l. a fathom.

A 1000 l. stock will be enough to begin with, to get ore at *Caldbeck* mines, and then there must be melting-houses built, which cost 500 l. or more; and, before copper be made ready for sale at the market, and the work come to pay itself, it will be six or seven years at least, and by that time 10,000 l. will be stock little enough.

The first work that was found, and wrought by the Dutchmen in *Conifon-Fells*, is called *low work*; by an account given to Dr *Lifter*. It hath a stulm or shaft to draw water from the mine. This work was left good, and hath been wrought from the day to the evening end of the said work, forty fathoms, or thereabouts; the seam or vein of copper ore, then left, was above three quarters of a yard thick of good ore; which seam or vein did go from the evening end to the morning end of the said work, and was esteemed 200 fathoms betwixt, wrought as the vein went; and was, when left, all near of a breadth or thickness. The copper ore, in this work, was mixed with some silver or lead ore.

The second work, called *white work*, or *new work*, about forty fathom from the first, was wrought about ten fathom

deep; the seam, then left, was about twenty-two inches of good copper ore.

The third is called *tung-brow*, a little distant from the last, being wrought about thirty fathom, and the seam about two feet thick of the like ore.

The fourth is called *God's-blessing*, or *thurdlehead*, being wrought about thirty fathom, and being from the last mine about a mile, the thickness of the seam of ore above a yard, when left off, and thought to be much of it gold ore.

The fifth, called *hen-cragg*, is a mile from the last, wrought about two fathoms; a small seam, but excellent ore.

The sixth work is called *sumy-work*, at *Lever's-water*, at the water-side; and, a little above that, *Hanch Clocker's work*; a little above that, *George Tower's* and *William Dixon's work*; *Bartle Clocker's work*; near the last, *Richard Tower's work*; then *John Saclock's work*, and *Hanch Mire's work*; being in all seven works, and lie all together, and about a mile from the fifth work above said; and wrought about ten or twelve fathom; the seam of ore about sixteen inches thick; the stone very soft, and the ore very rich, and much of the said ore green. If the turn was drained, it is thought that all these seven works would come into one, and that it would be the best work that ever was in these parts.

The seventh work is called *gray-cragg-beck*, wrought but a little, the seam about eighteen inches thick, of as good ore as any of the other works.

The eighth is called *John Dixon's work* in *Brumfel*, was wrought about two fathom, the seam about twenty-four inches thick, and esteemed the best ore, except *God's-blessing*; it is about half a mile from the last work.

The ninth work is called the *wide work*, or *Thomas Hirn's work*, wrought about 60 fathom, and left a seam above 26 inches thick, when the work was given over, of very good ore. It has a shaft or pump to draw the water away, and it is from the last work about two miles.

The tenth work is called *three-kings* in *Tilburthwait*, being three works, and wrought about forty fathom a-piece, the seam being about fourteen inches of very good ore.

These are all the works that have been wrought in *Conifon-Fells*: most of them have small seams near the copper, of a grey sort of ore in small threads.

There are lately discovered three veins in *Torverwel*, and about ten in other places, and all within two miles of the first work in *Conifon-Fells*, and as hopeful as those that have been wrought in.

When the ore that was got at *Conifon* came to be smelted at *Kefwick*, they found it so much to exceed the copper ore of either *Caldbeck* or *Newlands*, that they let fall these works, and sent the workmen to *Conifon-Fells*; so that there were 140 men kept constantly at the works there; and the ore that they got, did sufficiently furnish and supply the smelthouses at *Kefwick*.

The rate that was given for getting of copper ore, was according to it's goodness, from 8 s. a kibble, to 2 s. 6 d. every kibble being near a horse-load in weight, it being first beaten very small, washed and sifted through an iron sieve, then measured or weighed.

There was near the first work a stamp-house, which went by water, and several persons were employed to bring the refuse from each work, that the miners did throw away, to the stamp-house, where it was stamped, washed, and ordered, and they had 2 s. 6 d. for their pains.

Of the smelting and refining of copper from it's native ore.

Under the article *ASSAY*, I have shewed the most facile methods of making trials in small quantities of all kinds of ores, in order to ascertain their value, either with regard to the purchase, or the sale of them in large quantities. I shall now shew how the copper ores may be managed in the great works, so as to be duly smelted and refined for their copper.

R E M A R K S.

Previous to which, I judge it eligible to take notice of what the learned Mr *Boyle* says in regard to fluxes in general, which are made use of in the separation of metals from their ores: ‘I must not omit, says that great man, that though many, who make trials of ores, value their own flux powders, or such as are cried up by others; yet they commonly seem to expect nothing from those they prefer, more than that they should facilitate the fusion of the ore, as that which being once done, the metalline part will separate by it's own weight, or, as it were, spontaneously. But yet, having purposely examined the matter more nicely, and compared the quantities of metal obtained from two portions, of equal weight, of the same ore, we found those proportions considerably differed; though that which yielded least metal, was fluxed down with a costly and well adapted powder. And I doubt not, but from other metalline ores, a greater quantity of pure metal is obtainable, by some flux powders, that are but little employed, or known, than by others that are much more common and famous. Thus two equal portions of the same lead ore, clear of spar, being the one reduced with a due weight of nitre and tartar fulminated together, afforded me a much less

less proportion of malleable lead, than the other, by means of half, or a quarter the quantity of filings of iron. And, to instance in a much more precious mineral than lead ore, I tried the like with some ounces of good native cinnabar, finely pulverized; by adding to one half a fixed alkali of tartar, and to the other a different flux-powder, we obtained from the former twice as much mercury as we did from the latter, though distilled with a fixed alkali, even of a mineral nature.

These observations of that great experimentalist in philosophy being attended to, it becomes the smelter in large works as well as the small assayer of ores, to consider well what kind of flux is the best adapted to the quality of the ore he is about to work upon. For there are divers sorts of copper, as well as of other ores; that is, the metal may be sometimes mixed with a stony, sparry, sandy, arsenical, or sulphureous matter, &c. for, according to the nature of the heterogeneous matter wherewith the metal is entangled by nature, the metallurgist must accommodate his fluxing materials, otherwise he may be liable either to vitrify part of the metal, or so scorify the same, and lock it up in its impure matter, that he cannot separate it, especially where tons of ore are worked at a time, but at a very great expence, and sometimes, indeed, at the expence of the ruin of his furnace. This I have seen done by some unskilful people, when they have been smelting ores in the great works, something different in their nature to what they had been used to.

Wherefore, in order to make a right judgment what fluxing materials are the best adapted to the nature of the ore, when wrought in the large way, it is requisite that judicious assays be previously made; in order to determine not only which affords the greatest quantity of metal, but which separates the same in the purest manner, and nearest to its desired state of malleability, and also which expedites the fusibility, because of the saving of fuel in the course of the operation: and, without those previous assays, it is by no means adviseable to smelt large quantities of ore, that have never been smelted before by the operators. But persons well experienced in these things will, at the sight of an ore, make a very good judgment, whether it is of the hard or the soft kind, and what methods are proper to be taken therewith, as by mixing various sorts together, or by suiting their fluxing materials accordingly.

Of the general methods of separating copper from its ore.

After a proper assay, the ore is treated according to the substances with which it is mixed. If it abounds with silver, 'tis first gently warmed or calcined, 'till a great part of the sulphur goes off in fume. At Goslaw in Germany, they first break the ore in pretty large lumps, then burn it in an open fire of wood and charcoal; after which they beat it smaller, and warm it twice again: and thus make it fit for the first furnace, where it is melted into a stony red matter, called copper-stone; which, being again roasted and melted, becomes black copper; this they roast again, in order still more to free it from its sulphur, and now it is in a fit state to be nealed for its silver; which they extract, by adding four parts of lead to one of the black copper, then melting them together in a strong fire, and casting the mass into moulds, where it hardens into blocks. These are carried to another furnace, and buried in charcoal; giving only a gentle heat, 'till the lead and silver melt and run away together into the receiver, leaving the copper-blocks unmelted behind, which are thus honey-combed and drained of their silver; but left capable of being brought to tough and malleable copper, by repeated fusion. In the Hungarian mines we have seen, that Dr Brown tells us, they sometimes burn the ore, and sometimes melt it; and this sometimes by itself, and sometimes mixed, with other minerals and its own dross.

The purification of copper chiefly depends upon totally freeing it from its sulphur, which may be done for the more curious uses, by melting it several times with fixed alkali's, nitre, or borax.

After the heterogeneous parts have been thrown off, as before directed, from the proper earth of the ore, the pure metal then remains to be separated from this earth by fusion.

But there are two difficulties, at least one or other of them always found in this affair. For, (1.) This proper mineral earth, how fluxible soever it may prove in gold and silver, yet scarce comes up to the fusibility of the pure metal; but is apt rather to flow thick and sluggish, unless the fire be very intense indeed: but 'tis plain, that, if this substance remains viscous, the molecule of the metal cannot sink through it, in order to form a metalline mass at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only a very small quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vast body of such adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matter of other metals; whence one of these two inconveniences must arise, viz. either that the small quantity of metal cannot well, under so great a load of recrement, come into a little mass; or else, if it could, it must of necessity be so violently agitated and tossed about by the strong fire required to keep so large a bulk of slag in fusion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles among the pappy mass of the scoria.

These two inconveniences have their two remedies. (1.) The first is, to add such substances as promote vitrification, and, at the same time, cause a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such substances are, for the large work, sand, fluxile mud, alkaline salts, tartar, nitre, &c. and, for the small, glass of lead, a little borax, or any compound flux-salt, the basis whereof are commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The second is, to add a metal itself. This is a common way, and seems greatly improveable, if it can be brought to answer the expence. In this case, as a greater mass of metal cannot, by the same fire, be so much agitated and tossed about as a less; or, if it could be agitated as much, yet all its particles would cohere more firmly in a large mass than in a small one; hence, by such an addition of metal, the little mass that would otherwise be with difficulty collected from the several falling particles of the melted matter, is artificially enlarged, so as to cover the whole bottom of the melting-pot; in consequence whereof, all the single metallic particles that fall afterwards, are easily caught and detained below, by the large metalline mass, which there lies ready to receive them.

Copper, being in itself of difficult fusion, requires such a fire as is able to melt its glassy scoria sufficiently thin, at the same time that it is melted itself; and this it does, unless the flints should prove very obstinate indeed. Hence bare fusion, sometimes, without any other assistance, will bring out this metal from its ore, and throw it down into a mass, the scoria here flowing so thin, as readily to suffer the metalline particles to sink through it; but, when the ore is more stubborn, its separation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as abovementioned.

In short, the difficulty of thus separating the metal from its proper earth, is principally found in the ores of silver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin, being very fusible bodies, are much easier melted from their adhering mineral matter. See the articles ASSAY, METALLURGY, ORES.

COPPERAS, COPPERAS STONES, which some call **GOLD STONES**, are found on the sea-shore in Essex, Hampshire, and so westward. There are great quantities in the cliffs, but not so good as those on the shore, where the tides ebb and flow over them.

The best of them are of a bright, shining, silver colour; the next, such as are of a rusty deep yellow; the worst, such as have gravel and dirt in them, of a fadder umber colour.

In the midst of these stones are sometimes found the shells of cockles, and other small shell-fishes, small pieces of the planks of ships, and pieces of sea-coal.

In order to the making of copperas, they make beds, according as the ground will permit; those at Deptford are about 100 feet long, 15 feet broad at the top, and 12 feet deep, shelving all the way to the bottom.

They ram the bed very well, first with strong clay, and then with the rubbish of chalk, whereby the liquor, which drains out of the dissolution of the stones, is conveyed into a wooden shallow trough, laid in the middle of the bed, and covered with a board; being also boarded on all sides, and laid lower at one end than the other, whereby the liquor is conveyed into a cistern under the boiling-house.

When the beds are indifferently well dried, they lay on the stones about two feet thick.

These stones will be five or six years before they yield any considerable quantity of liquor; and, before that, the liquor which they yield is but weak.

They ripen by the sun and rain: yet experience proves, that the watering the stones, although with water prepared by lying in the sun, and poured through very small holes of a watering-pot, doth retard the work.

In time these stones turn into a kind of vitriolic earth, which will swell and ferment like leavened dough.

When the bed is come to perfection, then once in four years they refresh it, by laying new stones on the top.

When they make a new bed, they take a good quantity of the old fermented earth, and mingle it with new stones, whereby the work is hastened. Thus the old earth never becomes useless.

The cistern beforementioned is made of strong oaken boards, well jointed and caulked. That at Deptford will contain 700 tons of liquor. Great care is to be taken that the liquor doth not drain through the beds, or out of the cistern. The best way to prevent the same, is to divide the cistern in the middle, by oaken boards, caulked as before; whereby one of them may be mended in case of a defect.

The more rain falls, the more, but the weaker, will be the liquor; the goodness whereof is tried by weights prepared for that purpose. Fourteen penny-weights is rich; or, an egg being put into the liquor, the higher it swims above the liquor, the stronger it is: sometimes the egg will swim near half above the liquor.

Within one minute after an egg is put in, the ambient liquor will boil and froth, and, in three minutes, the shell will be quite worn off.

A drop of this liquor, falling on the manufactures of hemp, flax, or cotton-wool, will presently burn a hole through it, as also in woollen and leather.

Out of the aforesaid cistern, the liquor is pumped into a boiler

of lead, about eight feet square, containing about 12 tons, which is thus ordered. First they lay long pieces of cast iron, 12 inches square, as long as the breadth of the boiler, about 12 inches one from another, and 24 inches above the surface of the fire. Then crosswise they lay ordinary flat iron bars, as close as they can lie, the sides being made up with brick-work. In the middle of the bottom of this boiler is laid a trough of lead, wherein they put at first 100 pounds weight of old iron.

The fuel for boiling is Newcastle coals. By degrees, in the boiling, they put in more iron, amounting in all to 1500 pounds weight in a boiling. As the liquor waxes in boiling, they pump in fresh liquor into the boiler; whereby, and by a defect in ordering the fire, they were wont to be above 20 days before it was enough; when that is, they try, by taking up a small quantity of liquor into a shallow earthen pan, and observing how soon it will gather and crust about the sides, thereof. But now of late, by the ingenious contrivance of Sir Nicholas Crisp, the work is much facilitated; for, at his work at Deptford, they boil off three boilers of ordinary liquor in one week; which is done first by ordering the furnace so, as that the heat is conveyed to all parts of the bottom and sides of the furnace.

Then, whereas they were wont to pump cold liquor into the boiler, to supply the waste in boiling, whereby the boiler was checked sometimes ten hours, Sir Nicholas's work hath now a vessel of lead, which he calls a heater, placed at the end of the boiler, and a little higher, supported by bars of iron, as before, and filled with liquor, which, by a conveyance of heat from the furnace, is kept near boiling hot, and so continually supplies the waste of the boiler, without hindering the boiling. Thirdly, by putting due proportions of iron from time to time into the boiler; as soon as they perceive the liquor to boil slowly, they put in more iron, which will soon quicken it. Besides, if they do not continually supply the boiling liquor with iron, the copperas will gather to the bottom of the boiler, and melt it; and so it will do, if the liquor be not presently drawn off from the boiler into a cooler, so soon as it is enough.

The cooler is oblong, 20 feet long, nine feet over at the top, five feet deep, tapered towards the bottom, made of tarras. Into this they let the liquor run, so soon as it is boiled enough. The copperas herein will be gathering, or shooting, 14 or 15 days, and gathers as much on the sides as in the bottom, viz. about five inches thick. Some put bushes into the cooler, about which the copperas will gather; but at Deptford they make no use of any.

That which sticks to the sides, and to the bushes, is of a bright green, that in the bottom of a foul and dirty colour. In the end of 14 days they convey the liquor into another cooler, and reserve it to be-boiled again with new liquor.

The copperas they shovel on a floor adjoining, so that the liquor may drain from it into a cooler. The steam which comes from the boiling is of an acrimonious smell.

Copperas may be boiled without iron, but with difficulty; without it the boiler will be in danger of melting. Sometimes, in stirring the earth upon the beds, they find pieces of copperas, produced by lying in the sun.

The common green vitriol, or English copperas, is made at Deptford in the following manner, from pyrites, which are round, ponderous, close stones, of a dusky colour on the outside, but having their inner substance radiated like a star, from the center to the circumference. They originally yield no taste of vitriol, and are found along the shores of Essex, Suffex, &c. When calcined, they yield a fume like that of brimstone, and leave a red calx, containing iron, behind. Exposed to the open air in heaps, for a length of time, they seem to ferment, heave, swell, crack, and fall to pieces, and then yield a white downy efflorescence, of an acrid styptic taste: and thus the white substance of the stone seems to dissolve, and fall to dust, of a saline, vitriolic, and sulphureous taste and smell.

A heap of these stones, two or three feet thick, they lay in a bed, well rammed: where, being turned once in six months, in five or six years, by the action of the air and rain, they begin to dissolve, and yield a liquor, which is received in pits, and hence conveyed into a cistern in a boiling house. The liquor at length being pumped out of the cistern into a leaden boiler, and a quantity of iron added thereto, in two or three days the boiling is completed, care having been taken all along, to supply it with fresh quantities of iron, to restore the boiling, whenever it seems to abate; when boiled sufficiently, it is drawn off into a cooler, with flicks across, where it is left 14 or 15 days, to shoot.

It appears that the diversity of colours in vitriols arises from the difference wherein the salt, or acid, is received; in blue, the salt is joined with copper; in green, with iron; in white, with calamine, or some ferruginous earth, mixed with lead or tin. As to red vitriol, called colcothar, its colour is adventitious, and seems to arise from a calcination which the vitriol undergoes, either by art, or some subterranean fire. This is not only supported by the natural history of vitriol, but seems to be confirmed by numerous analyses made of the

several kinds of vitriol, and the artificial preparation of them upon such principles; so that it may pretty safely pass for a general truth, that all vitriol consists of water, a metalline part, and an acid combined: that the water gives the transparency, or crystalline form; that the acid dissolves the metal, and thus gives the colour; and that all three are thus united together.

It's uses.

The uses of copperas are numerous. It is the chief ingredient in the dyeing of wool, cloths, and hats black, in making ink, in tanning and dressing leather, &c. And from hence is prepared oil of vitriol, and a kind of Spanish brown for painters.

CORAL is a plant of a peculiar structure and figure: it is met with in the shops in small branched pieces: they are of a pale red colour, of a hard and stony nature, very heavy, and have neither smell nor taste.

These are the fragments of the coral plant; the larger pieces are used for other purposes, and are dearer, but these possess as much virtue. The plant grows not only on rocks and stones, but on sea-shells, and on any solid body it meets with at the bottom of the water.

When fresh taken out of the sea, it has much more virtue than after it has been kept for years in the shops.

It is evident, from many experiments, that it is not, as some suppose, a mere terrestrial absorbent; it plainly contains particles of a bituminous, saline, and urinous nature: which, however, are found in greater perfection, when fresh, than after keeping. We use it as an astringent and absorbent in diarrhoeas, the fluor albus, and hæmorrhages, but only in conjunction with other medicines of the same intention.

The best method of preparing a real tincture of coral is, by extracting the red colour with oil of anniseed, then distilling off the greater part of the oil, adding oil of tartar to the remainder, and evaporating the whole to a dry mass, on which spirit of wine is to be poured, to extract the tincture.

We hear of white coral in the shops, which many suppose of greater virtues than the red; but what we meet with under this name, is a species of another sea-plant, the madrepora. The several species of it in the shops, under the name of white coral, are all light and hollow, and marked with holes on the outside. A chemical analysis shews it cannot possess the virtues of the red, whatever people may imagine, for it yields no oil or bituminous matter on distillation, but only a volatile urinous spirit.

Of the CORAL FISHERY.

Red coral is found in the Mediterranean, on the shores of Provence, from Cape de la Couronne, to that of St Tropez; about the isles of Majorca and Minorca; on the south of Sicily; on the coasts of Africa; and lastly in the Ethiopic Ocean, about Cape Negro.

The divers say that the little branches are found only in the caverns whose situation is parallel to the earth's surface, and are open to the south.

In Provence they use two machines in fishing for it. The one, which pulls it from the rocks, is a large wooden cross, in the center of which is a heavy leaden ball, and it is sustained by a very long and strong cord. At each extremity of the cross is fixed a round net. When it is let down into the water, where the divers have found there is plenty of coral, he that guides it pushes one or two arms of the cross into the cavities, which entangles the coral in the netting, and those who are in the boat break it, and draw it out of the water.

The other machine used for drawing coral out of the deepest waters where they fish for it, is a very long beam, at the end of which is fixed an iron ring, a foot and an half in diameter, having a reticular bag, with two round nets on each side. This beam is fastened, by two very long ropes, to the stem and stern of the boat. It is let down to the bottom by means of a plummet fixed to it, and is directed into the deep caverns by the boat's motion. The ring breaks off the small branches on the top of the caverns, and the nets entangle and retain the others. Sometimes they find branches that weigh three or four pounds weight, but it is seldom. The reason they find large branches but rarely, is because they have liberty of fishing too often, that the plants have not time to attain their full growth, which requires some years.

As they fish at random, where they think there is large coral, they break the young sprigs they meet with there, forcing their instruments to and fro, in hopes of getting the large branches, which does not always answer their end: though they commonly prefer a quantity in weight to the bigness of the pieces, because they agree with their masters for so much the pound.

The manner of fishing for coral being nearly the same wherever it is found, it will suffice to instance in that used at the Bastion of France, where a great quantity is got, under the direction of the company established at Marseilles for that fishery.

The fishers, who come yearly at the season to fish for the company, bring nothing but themselves, every thing needful being

being found them, even to the boats and vessels, and delivered to them fitted for sea, with sails, anchors, &c. of all which they are to give an account at their return.

There are seven or eight men to a boat, one of whom is the patron, or proprietor. When the net is thrown by the cafter, the rest work the vessel, and help to draw the same in.

Before the fishers go to sea, they are allowed advance-money, and have store of provision, and cordage for their engines, on terms stipulated.

They are agreed with, also, for the price of the coral, which is sometimes more, sometimes less, a pound; and they engage, on pain of corporal punishment, that neither they nor their crew shall embezzle any, but to deliver it to the proprietors.

When the fishery is ended, which amounts, one year with another, to 25 quintals of coral for each boat, it is divided into 13 parts, of which the proprietor hath four, the cafter two, and the other six men one each; the thirteenth belongs to the company, for payment of the boat furnished them.

The coral-fishing is both fatiguing and dangerous. The fishers, having bound two rafters of wood cross-wise, and fixed leads to them, wind a quantity of hemp loosely about it, intermingled with some large netting. This instrument is let down where they think there is coral, which being strongly entangled in the hemp and netting, they pull it up again; for which even six boats are sometimes required; and if, in hauling in, the rope happens to break, the fishermen run the hazard of being lost.

Large quantities of it are used for necklaces, chaplets, and other like works, to adorn the cabinets of the curious; and several nations have a particular esteem for it, especially the Japanese, who prefer it to any of the most precious stones. Coral is part of the traffic of Marseilles. Bracelets and necklaces of it are made only there and at Genis, and sell very well up the Levant. Beside the red coral and white, which are the most common, there is some also of a rose-colour and flesh-colour, some half red, half white, brown, &c. which last comes from America, the others being commonly found in the Mediterranean, and on the Barbary coast.

There is a kind of wood, called in Europe coral-wood, from the liveness of its colour, much resembling that of coral. It grows in the American islands, chiefly in those called the Windward Islands. Some druggists sell it for saunders, though it hath none of its properties but the colour. It is a fit wood for turners and inlaid work.

There are, also, in these islands, two kinds of trees so called, their fruit being as red as coral, except one little black spot, where the bud is. The grocers and druggists call them red, or American peas; they are extreme bitter, and some pretend that, steeped in lemon-juice, they will solder gold and silver, like borax.

CORASAN, or KHORASSAN, including the kingdom of Balk, has Persian Irak with Astrabad on the west, from which 'tis parted by a large desert; Farfistar, with Segestan, on the south; the Grand Mogul's dominions on the east and north-east, and Ubeck Tartary on the north. It is very populous and fruitful, and produces the best manna in the world.

HERAT is an ancient and considerable city, has a very good trade, being resorted to by the Indian merchants. They make here very fine tapestry, and abundances of rose-water.

CORDAGE; the term is used in general for all sorts of cord, whether small, middling, or great, made use of in the rigging of ships.

Cordage, cable-laid, as the seamen term it, is made with nine strands, i. e. the first three strands are laid slack, and then three of them being closed together make a cable or cablet; the same for tacks, but they are laid tapering.

Cordage, hawser-laid, is made only with three strands.

Cordage, flays, are cable-laid, but made with four strands as cables are with three, with an addition of an heart which goes through the center of them.

The price of cordage and cables at St Petersburg, in 1742, was 1 rouble 20 copecks the poude.

Cordage stiped, is that which, having been put in a tub in a very warm place, hath cast out its moisture.

White cordage, is that which hath not yet been tarred.

Cordage tarred in spinning, is that which is made of rope-yarn ready tarred.

Cordage tarred in the stove, is that which hath passed thro' hot tar in coming out of the stove. Every quintal of cordage may take about 20 pounds of tar.

Cordage re-made, is that which is made of ropes used before. Cordage, when very old, is used for oakum to caulk the seams of ships with.

Change cordage, is that kept in reserve, in case what is in use fails.

When a rope is said to be six inches, 'tis to be understood of its circumference. A rope of 60 threads, is one composed of so many rope-yarns.

Cordage is usually made of spun hemp: the great number of vessels built and fitted out at Amsterdam, either for war or trade, occasion a great commerce of all sorts of cordage necessary for them. All which sells by the schippont of 300 pounds.

The schippont of cordage of neat hemp costs usually 56 florins; that of Koningberg about 58 florins, that of Mulcovy from 30 to 47 florins. Deductions for weight and prompt payment are one per cent. on each.

The quantity of cordage used in rigging a vessel is almost inconceivable. Every rope hath its name and particular use.

R E M A R K S.

As the quantity of cordage is so very extraordinary that is used in our own vessels and shipping both at home and abroad; and as also the quantities used by all the Europeans, Americans, and Asiatics, is immensely great; too much encouragement cannot be given to the growth of hemp in our own colonies and plantations; to the end that we might by that means, at least, amply supply ourselves, if we could not obtain any share in the supply of other nations. See the articles **CABLE**, **COLONIES**, and **HEMP**.

COREA, a kingdom situate on the most eastern part of China, between it and Japan. 'Tis a large peninsula, bounded on the west by the Yellow Sea, on the east by that of Japan, on the south by the Chinese ocean, and on the north by the kingdom of Nienche, which belongs to Tartary.

The country towards the north is but barren, mountainous, and full of wild beasts: but the southern part is rich and fertile, and breeds quantities of large and small cattle, fowl and game of all sorts, as well as silk, cotton, flax, and the like; all which are manufactured there, except silk, which they have not the art of dressing for weaving, but send it unwrought, either to China or Japan, the only two countries they trade with. Some of their mountains produce gold and silver, and their sea pearls and other fine fish.

Their coasts are very difficult of access, being full of shelves, rocks, &c. very dangerous to those who are not acquainted with them.

CORN; hereof are several species, such as wheat, rye, and barley; millet and rice; oats, maiz, and lentils, pease, and a number of other kinds. Each of these has its usefulness and propriety.

R E M A R K S.

Wheat, which is the strongest nourishment, seldom succeeds but in soils that are hot or vigorous, or at least marshy. Rye prospers in a moderate soil, and sometimes is contented with the lightest. Barley, oats, buck-wheat, and millet, thrive in a sandy ground, and will grow in the best soils, if they have been well pulverized.

Strong soils require much cultivation, and are satisfied with a light manure; but lands that are thin, demand a strong manure, and light culture.

Arable lands are generally ranged into three divisions, nearly equal. One is sown before the winter-season, with wheat and rye, or else with meelin, which is a mixture of both. The second must be allowed a winter's fallow, and may be sown in the spring with the smaller grain, as oats and barley, &c.

The third division is suffered to lie fallow, but is not therefore altogether unactive; for, besides some kinds of husbandry bestowed on it, 'tis continually receiving fresh supplies, it acquiring a richness from the snows, and is moistened by the dews and rains; and even the winds impart prolific salts and juices to it. So that its inactivity is a series of preparatives, and an acquisition of materials for new productions.

The first tillage is in autumn, on lands that have produced a harvest of March grain. This operation, only prepares the earth in a proper manner, destroying the sprouting weeds. Some farmers defer it to the end of winter.

The second is in spring, and in some places at Midsummer. The third precedes the season for sowing. Sometimes a transverse ploughing is required besides.

When the seed is sown, the earth is scattered lightly over it, by means of a harrow, in strong soils; but, in light soils, they use a little plough, that the earth may more effectually cover the seed.

Manure is as important as tillage. 'Tis sometimes required for the best lands, and is always necessary to those that are weak. A good soil is not dunged for small grain, but a weak one will not produce it without manure.

Though manure is of various kinds, there being hardly any refuse substance but what is of use herein; none has more prolific qualities, than the soil swept from populous cities; especially those where a great number of kitchens, and dyers of wool, are continually discharging into the streets a fat and oily sediment, which is very beneficial to corn. In short, all matter whatever, capable of producing large quantities of salts, will communicate fertility, when properly disposed upon lands.

Corn for seed should be well chosen, and first steeped in a lixivious liquor: but some husbandmen only mix their corn with bruised lime, and sow both together. The species that are sown before the winter season, are the autumnal wheat, barley, and rye, which last is the food of the poor people, and thrives in the worst soils, and driest years. Starch-corn, or autumnal barley, is sown before the winter season. 'Tis cut in June, and is serviceable to the poor people, 'till harvest supplies them with their winter provision.

The small grains sown in March, are oats and barley, lentils and little round beans. The first is an important article in commerce, being the chief food of horses.

Of the method of preserving CORN.

Corn is very different from fruits, with respect to the manner of it's preservation; and is capable of being preserved in public granaries, for pressing occasions, and of being kept for several centuries.

The first method is to let it remain in the spike, the only expedient for conveying it to the islands and provinces of America. The inhabitants of those countries sow it in the ear, and raise it to maturity by that precaution; but this method of preserving it would be attended with several inconveniences among us. Corn is apt to rot or sprout, if any the least moisture is in the heap. The rats likewise infest it, and the detriment is frequently very great, before 'tis discovered. And our want of straw also obliges us to separate the grain from the ear.

The second is to turn and winnow it frequently, or to pour it through a trough, or mill-hopper, from one floor to another, whence 'tis again raised by a crane, to the upper floor. Being thus moved and aired, every fifteen days for the first six months, 'twill require less labour for the future, if lodged in a dry place. But, if through neglect mites be permitted to slide into the heap, they will soon swarm like ant-hills, and reduce the corn to a heap of dust. This must be avoided therefore, by moving the grain anew, and rubbing the places adjacent with oils and herbs, whose strong odour may chase them away, for which garlic and dwarf-elder are very effectual. They may be likewise exposed to the open sun, which immediately kills them; or a brood of chickens let in, who, 'tis said, will quit the grain to prey upon the mites, as fast as they appear.

When the corn has been preserved from all impurities for the space of two years, and has exhales all it's fire, it may be kept for forty, fifty, or even a hundred years, by lodging it in pits, covered with strong planks, closely joined together; but the safer way is to cover the heap with a thin surface of quick lime, which should be dissolved, by sprinkling it over with a small quantity of water. This causes the grains to shoot to the depth of two or three fingers, and incloses them with an incrustation, through which neither air nor insects can penetrate.

In the year 1707, a magazine of corn was opened in the citadel of Mentz, which had been stored up in * 1578, and the bread made of it proved very good. The Abbé de Louvois, travelling to the frontiers of Champagne, saw in the castle of Sedan, a heap of corn, which had been lodged there an hundred and ten years, and preserved, notwithstanding the moisture of the place, which at first made it sprout above a foot deep. The leaves and first shoots of the stems, wanting air began to rot, and sunk down upon their roots; which glutinous compost, incorporating with the grains beneath, and growing dry, hardened into a very thick crust, which preserved the rest of the heap. Some of the bread made of it was sent to court, and proved extraordinary good.

* *Memoirs de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1708.*

The following observations made by the Abbé Pluche and Mr Needham, and transmitted to our Royal Society, affording some light into the nature of this vegetable, they may not prove unacceptable to many.

Having with the assistance of the microscope, says the Abbé, viewed the smut of corn, I observed the stalks were all spotted and pricked with small burnings: now as the smut happens after a fine rain, followed by a bright sunshine, the cause of this evil is, that the focus of those very small drops is just near them, and on the stalk that supports them: wherefore the sun's rays, collected in this point, must there burn; which dries up the stalk, and prevents the ear from graining.

The second remark is on the corn that grows up into ears, the grains of which are for the most part full of meal, quite black. With the microscope I saw, all around or above these black grains, small long bodies, rolled up, and having each a pedicle; which I found to be the flowers that could not reach their due form, or come forth and ripen; so that the grain being deprived of this help, could not developé it's germ, and produced only a black meal, for want of the unfolding of certain vessels.

The third remark is, the reason that invites thrushes or starlings under the legs of black cattle grazing in a pasture. Not being able to get near them, I observed them at a distance with a good glass. I saw all these birds thrust their heads and half their bodies down into the grass, in such manner that their tails remained erect in the air, as that of a duck upon diving, which makes me think, that those birds seek after worms in the earth; and that they gather about the cattle, because as they are large animals, upon trampling on the ground, they oblige such worms to come forth, as happen to be pressed under the weight of their hoofs.

Upon opening lately the small black grains of smutty wheat, says Mr Needham, which they here distinguish from blighted

corn, the latter affording nothing but a black dust, into which the whole substance of the ear is converted; I perceived a soft white fibrous substance, a small portion of which I placed upon my object-plate: it seemed to consist wholly of longitudinal fibres bundled together; and you will be surprized, perhaps, that I should say, without any the least sign of life or motion. I dropped a globule of water upon it, in order to try if the parts, when separated, might be viewed more conveniently; when, to my great surprize, these imaginary fibres, as it were, instantly separated from each other, took life, moved irregularly, not with a progressive, but twisting motion; and continued so to do for the space of nine or ten hours, when I threw them away.

I am satisfied they are a species of aquatic animals, and may be denominated worms, eels, or serpents, which they much resemble. This, if considered, will appear to be something very singular: but I have since repeated the experiment several times, with the same success, and gratified others with a sight of it.

Of the maxims of France and other parts in regard to CORN.

In France, corn of the growth of the kingdom is reckoned as a contraband commodity; and may not be exported, how plenteous soever the crop, without permission, either general or particular, pursuant to the old or new ordonnances in that behalf made, among others of 1577 and of 1699, on pain of forfeiture, and 500 livres fine.

The general permissions for exportation are usually granted by order of council for a certain time, as specified therein.

There is also another sort of general permissions granted in like manner, but not extending beyond the kingdom; on declaration made to the intendants of the places it is sent to, and certificates of the arrival and delivery there.

In times of dearth and scarcity, as that which happened in France in 1709, other permissions more general are granted for parts within the kingdom, as were the orders of August and September that year, which permitted a free trade in all sorts of grain, even of meal and pulse, as well from city to city, and market to market, as from one province to another throughout the whole kingdom, without being obliged to give notice, or to observe any of the usual formalities.

As to particular permissions, they are passports signed by a secretary of state, bearing the persons names to whom they are granted; the quantity and quality of the corn; the ports by which it is to pass, or to be shipped; the place intended for, and other the like circumstances.

There have been many ordonnances and royal declarations made in France for government of the inland trade herein, and the quality of the persons that may use it.

The most noted and important are those of Charles IX, 1567, Henry III, 1577, and Lewis XIV, 1699; besides a great number of others, mostly in 1709, a year so fatal to France, by the entire loss of all it's corn, as scarce to be repaired by the many wise regulations which the prudence and care of the magistrates caused to be published almost every day.

In the ordonnance of August 1699, amongst other articles, merchants of the kingdom may import corn from foreign countries; and in times of plenty export it, by virtue of general or particular permissions; and all combinations among corn-merchants, whether residing in the same or different cities, are prohibited on pain of 2000 livres fine, and being declared incapable of trading in corn for the future. And all, both merchants and others, are prohibited to enhance or buy corn or other grain, while green and before the harvest, on pain of 3000 livres fine, and corporal punishment; and all such bargains are declared null, even those made six months before the date of the declaration.

Besides these general ones, the city of Paris hath also particular regulations, concerning corn brought thither by water, made in 1672. In which all dealers, trading on the river for the supply of Paris, are prohibited to buy standing corn, on pain of forfeiture to the seller, and fine to the buyer. And dealers may not buy grain or meal within ten leagues of the city.

The dealers, &c. are obliged, immediately on the arrival of their grain or meal, to present their bill of parcels to the sworn corn-meters, who are faithfully to register it, and carry copies every Monday to the recorder of the city. Dealers may not land or house their corn if musty or heated, or if the boat be in danger, but it must remain in the boat 'till sold. Citizens of Paris may put the corn and meal of their own growth, or which is brought for their provision, into granaries.

The magazines of Dantzick are so vast, and always so well filled, that, in some years, 800,000 tons of corn are exported from that city: it's merchants have an exclusive privilege for all the corn of Poland brought into their city, and the Dantzickers are obliged to buy whatever quantity is brought, at a price fixed by the magistrate.

The magazines of Amsterdam are not less considerable than those of Dantzick; few cities having a greater corn-trade, there being even a separate exchange, where many thousand dealers meet every day, that trade only in corn; and hath nothing in common with the general exchange, from which it is distant a quarter of a league.

Corn is very plentiful and so very cheap in China, because they prefer rice for their bread; that a man may buy enough for about a shilling to sustain him a month.

The laws of England relating to CORN.

Corn, the quarter to contain 8 bushels striked, each bushel containing 8 gallons. 15 Rich. II. cap. 4. sect. 1. 11 Hen. VII. cap. 4. sect. 1. 22 Car. II. cap. 13. sect. 1. And grain imported, the old subsidy was increased from the original duty, granted by 12 Car. II. cap. 4, to the following duty per quarter Winchester measure, when they did not exceed the respective prices, opposite to each species, viz.

	Prices.		Duty.
	s.	d.	
Wheat	48	0	5 4
Rye	32	0	4 0
Barley and malt	28	0	2 8
Buck-wheat	28	0	2 0
Oats	13	4	1 4
Pease and beans	32	0	4 0

15 Car. II. cap. 12. sect. 3. But by 22 Car. II. cap. 13. was further increased.

Imported—Justices of the peace for the several counties, at every quarter-sessions, are to give in charge (in open court) to the grand jury, to make enquiry and presentment, upon their oaths, of the common market prices of middling English corn; which presentment is to be made in open court, and certified by the justices in writing to the chief officer and collector of the customs, to be hung up publicly in the custom-house, that the duties may be collected according to the said prices. 5 Geo. II. cap. 12. sect. 1, 2, 3.

In the city of London, the mayor, aldermen, as justices, in the months of October and April, are to determine the prices of middling English corn, by the oaths of two or more honest persons skilled in the prices, being neither cornchandlers, mealmen, factors, or merchants, &c. interested in the corn, but substantial housekeepers, living in Middlesex or Surry, having each a freehold estate of 20 l. or a leasehold of 50 l. per ann. or by such other ways and means as they shall think fit, and to certify the same as above. 1 Jac. II. cap. 19. sect. 3, 4. 5 Geo. II. cap. 12. sect. 4.

But, justices omitting or neglecting to determine the prices, the collector of the customs must receive the duties according to the lowest prices of the several sorts rated by the act of 22 Car. II. cap. 13. 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. sec. 3.

As to wheat, rye, barley, malt, beans, pease, and all other sorts of corn and grain, ground or unground, and bread, biscuit, or meal, they may be exported free of all duties. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. sect. 12. 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 20. sect. 4. 1 Ann. cap. 12. sect. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 27. sect. 1. 6 Ann. cap. 19. sect. 1. 7 Ann. cap. 7. sect. 28.

Exported, the bounty and regulations of

The bounty on CORN exported.		Prices per Quarter Winchester Measure.	Bounty per Quarter Winchester Measure.
		l. s. d.	l. s. d.
By 1 Will and M. c. 12. sect. 2.	Wheat	2 8 0	5 0
	Rye	1 12 0	3 6
	Barley	1 4 0	2 6
	Malt	1 4 0	2 6
By 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 6. 29. sect. 10, 15.	Beer, alias Bigg	1 4 0	2 6
	Malt, made of wheat	2 8 0	5 0
	Oatmeal, when oats do not exceed	0 15 0	2 6

But the excise of 6 d. per bushel must not be reckoned into the price of malt, 13 and 14 W. III. cap. 5. sect. 31. 12 Ann. cap. 2. sect. 3.

When the above sorts of corn, either ground or unground, do not, at the port of exportation, exceed the respective prices in the first column, and shall be shipped on board any British ship, whereof the master, and at least two thirds of the mariners, are British subjects; in order to be exported to parts beyond the seas, the exporter is to be allowed the respective bounties in the second column: provided a certificate in writing, under the hand of the exporter, containing the quantity and quality of the corn, be first brought to the collector of the port, and the truth thereof confirmed by the oath of one or more credible person or persons, and bond be given by the exporter, in the penalty of 10 l. for every ton of oatmeal, or 40 bushels of beer, alias bigg, and 200 l. at least for every 100 tons of all the other sorts (i. e. 8 s. per quarter) that the same shall be exported into parts beyond the seas, and not be re-landed in Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. sect. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. sec. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. sect. 15.

In order to adjust the quantity for which the bounty is to be paid, the corn is to be admeasured by the proper officers of the customs, who, for the greater expedition, may make use of a tub or measure, containing four Winchester bushels; or, if the said corn be intended to be exported in sacks, they are to chuse two out of any number not exceeding twenty sacks, and so in proportion, and thereby compute the whole quantity: but, if exported from London, may be measured by the sworn meters, from whose certificate the searchers may certify the quantity shipped for exportation. 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. sect. 4, 5.

But, with respect to malt, the bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt for exportation; as shall appear by a certificate from the officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. sect. 14, 15.

The aforesaid bounty to be paid by the collector of the port, upon demand made by the exporter: unless he has not sufficient money in his hands, and then (except for bigg and oatmeal) he is to certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, who are to cause the money to be paid by the receiver-general within three months. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. sect. 2. 12 and 13 W. III. cap. 10. sect. 91. 5 Ann. cap. 29. sect. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. sect. 15.

The aforesaid bond, given for exportation, may be delivered up to be cancelled, upon producing a certificate under the common seal of the chief magistrate, in any place beyond the seas, or under the hand and seal of two known British merchants, testifying that the corn was there landed, or upon proof by credible persons, that it was taken by enemies, or perished in the seas, 1 W. and M. cap. 12. sect. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. sect. 10.

Malt, re-landed in Great-Britain, is forfeited, with treble the value, besides the penalty of the bond. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. sect. 15. and since continued yearly with the malt-act.

The bounty on spirits, drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, exported.

	l. s. d.
For every ton of spirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, there shall be paid to the exporter, by the commissioners of the customs, or the proper officers belonging to them, when barley is at 24 s. per quarter, or under; on such proof of the exportation thereof, as is directed by the act of 1 W. and M. for the encouraging the exportation of corn, out of the duties liable to the payment of the bounties on corn exported, 1 l. 10 s. and so in proportion for a greater or lesser quantity.	1 10 0

C O R N

An account of the several sorts and quantities of CORN, which were exported from Christmas 1734 to Christmas 1735: as also from what places and ports, and in what quantities they were exported: together with an account of the bounty that was paid thereon.

Ports.	Barley.		Malt.		Oatmeal.		Rye.		Wheat.		Bounty.		
	Qrtrs.	Bush.	Qrtrs.	Bush.	Qrtrs.	Bush.	Qrtrs.	Bush.	Qrtrs.	Bush.	l.	s.	d.
Arundel	200	—	466	—	—	—	—	—	13,090	—	447	18	1½
Barnstaple	182	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	1	25	15	7½
Beumaris	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	—	10	5	0
Berwick	2,396	—	425	—	—	—	—	—	10,944	—	3,094	1	5
Biddeford	600	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	292	5	148	5	3½
Blackney and Clay	81	—	9,369	—	—	—	18	—	254	—	1,006	10	6
Bridlington	—	—	50	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	5
Bristol	1,127	6	185	3	—	—	—	—	554	5	308	17	6
Bridgewater	628	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	78	10	11½
Chester	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	391	3	97	16	10½
Chichester	603	4	11,339	2	—	—	—	—	8,748	—	3,941	4	4½
Colchester	685	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,510	4	463	6	6½
Cowes	689	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,241	4½	646	11	6½
Dartmouth	2,537	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	313	2	395	9	0
Dover	429	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,015	—	1,057	8	9
Exeter	7,693	4	—	—	1,279	4	—	—	1,134	2½	1,405	4	2½
Falmouth	335	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	728	—	223	18	9
Harwich	622	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,200	—	377	15	0
Hull	—	—	8,063	—	—	—	—	—	3,732	4	2,231	0	0
Ipswich	864	7	394	—	—	—	—	—	2,282	5	728	6	3
Liverpool	9	4	—	—	7	4	—	—	991	2	249	18	9
Lynn Regis	5,747	6	17,411	2	—	—	549	4	6,778	3	4,534	4	6
Malden	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	600	—	150	0	0
Milford	51	—	—	—	583	5	—	—	2,796	4	778	9	0¼
Minehead	285	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	702	7	211	7	6
Newhaven	898	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,088	7	384	9	8½
Padstow	118	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	770	—	207	5	0
Penzance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	150	—	37	10	0
Plymouth	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100	—	25	0	0
Poole	690	—	87	3	10	13	—	—	1,159	3	389	18	7
Portsmouth	2,190	2	8,245	1	—	—	—	—	16,876	4½	5,523	11	3
Sandwich	349	—	3,595	3	—	—	—	—	2,485	7½	1,085	18	7½
Shoreham	4,890	—	2,842	7	—	—	—	—	3,007	4	1,821	6	1
Southampton	3,013	2	2,358	—	—	—	—	—	9,443	3½	3,098	4	9½
Stockton	333	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	12	6
Wells	292	—	60,247	—	—	—	217	—	210	2	6,849	15	7
Weymouth	—	—	226	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	28	5	3½
Witbich	216	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	659	—	191	16	3
Whitehaven	42	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	6	10½
Whitby	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	4½	3	17	11½
Yarmouth	9,802	1	92,374	7	—	—	494	—	5,938	3	13,629	17	10½
London	8,914	6	2,101	6	39	6	51	—	59,784	2	16,429	5	2½
Totals	57,520	31	219,781	71	1,920	61	1,329	41	153,343	51	72,433	12	7½

Custom-House, London,
8 Mar. 1735.

Exam. J—n O—d, Ac' Gen.

By barley	7,190	0	11½
By malt	26,434	18	0½
By oatmeal	240	1	10½
By rye	232	13	3
By wheat	38,335	18	6

Total 72,433 12 7½

An account of the true market-price of wheat and malt at Windsor, for above 100 years. Began and published by William Fleetwood, bishop of Ely, from 1646 to 1706; and since continued in the same manner to the year 1752.

Years.	Wheat per quarter.			Malt per quarter.			Years.	Wheat per quarter.			Malt per quarter.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1646	2	8	0	1	9	0	1700	2	0	0	1	11	4
1647	3	13	8	1	17	0	1701	1	17	8	1	4	0
1648	4	5	0	2	0	0	1702	1	9	6	1	8	0
1649	4	0	0	2	2	0	1703	1	16	0	1	3	4
1650	3	16	8	1	18	6	1704	2	6	6	1	8	0
1651	3	13	4	1	9	0	1705	1	10	0	1	6	0
1652	2	9	6	1	8	0	1706	1	6	0	1	2	0
1653	1	15	6	1	8	0	1707	1	8	6	1	3	4
1654	1	6	0	1	0	8	1708	2	1	6	1	8	0
1655	1	13	4	1	0	0	1709	3	18	6	1	13	4
1656	2	3	0	1	4	0	1710	3	18	0	1	16	0
1657	2	6	8	1	8	4	1711	2	14	0	1	15	4
1658	3	5	0	1	9	4	1712	2	6	4	1	10	8
1659	3	6	0	2	8	8	1713	2	11	0	1	7	0
1660	2	16	6	1	12	8	1714	2	10	4	1	9	4
1661	3	10	0	1	13	4	1715	2	3	0	1	10	8
1662	3	14	0	2	2	0	1716	2	8	0	1	8	0
1663	2	17	0	1	12	8	1717	2	5	8	1	5	4
1664	2	0	6	1	10	0	1718	1	18	10	1	4	8
1665	2	9	4	1	8	4	1719	1	15	0	1	6	8
1666	1	16	0	1	6	0	1720	1	17	0	1	11	4
1667	1	16	0	1	2	8	1721	1	17	6	1	8	4
1668	2	0	0	1	4	0	1722	1	16	0	1	2	8
1669	2	4	4	1	7	4	1723	1	14	8	1	3	8
1670	2	1	8	1	6	6	1724	1	17	0	1	10	0
1671	2	2	0	1	5	4	1725	2	8	6	1	8	0
1672	2	1	0	1	2	0	1726	2	6	0	1	8	0
1673	2	6	8	1	4	0	1727	2	2	0	1	8	0
1674	3	8	8	1	14	0	1728	2	14	6	1	12	0
1675	3	4	8	1	14	0	1729	2	6	10	1	15	4
1676	1	18	0	1	6	0	1730	1	16	6	1	7	0
1677	2	2	0	1	8	0	1731	1	12	10	1	0	5
1678	2	19	0	1	8	8	1732	1	6	8	1	5	8
1679	3	0	0	1	6	8	1733	1	8	4	1	2	8
1680	2	5	0	1	2	8	1734	1	18	10	1	2	8
1681	2	6	8	1	4	8	1735	2	3	0	1	2	8
1682	2	4	0	1	8	0	1736	2	0	4	1	4	0
1683	2	0	0	1	8	8	1737	1	18	0	1	6	8
1684	2	4	0	1	5	4	1738	1	15	6	1	8	0
1685	2	6	8	1	8	0	1739	1	18	6	1	6	0
1686	1	14	0	1	5	4	1740	2	10	8	1	12	0
1687	1	5	2	1	4	0	1741	2	6	8	1	12	8
1688	2	6	0	1	2	0	1742	1	14	0	1	10	8
1689	1	10	0	1	0	0	1743	1	4	10	1	8	8
1690	1	14	8	0	19	4	1744	1	4	10	1	4	8
1691	1	14	0	0	17	4	1745	1	7	6	1	3	4
1692	2	6	8	1	4	4	1746	1	19	0	1	2	4
1693	3	7	8	1	10	0	1747	1	14	10	1	2	8
1694	3	4	0	1	12	0	1748	1	17	0	1	3	4
1695	2	13	0	1	12	0	1749	1	16	0	1	5	4
1696	3	11	0	1	8	0	1750	1	12	6	1	5	4
1697	3	0	0	1	8	0	1751	1	18	6	1	5	4
1698	3	8	4	1	12	0	1752	2	1	10	1	7	4
1699	3	4	0	1	19	4							

N. B. In this computation you are to know, that in every year there are two prices of corn, the one at Lady-Day, the other at Michaelmas; both which are put together, and the half is taken for the common price of that year. In the price of malt, the tax of 6 d. per bushel is not charged, which is an addition of 4 s. to every article of the malt, from the commencing of the malt-tax.

R E M A R K S.

The bounty which has been allowed upon corn making, at present, a topic of conversation among the landed and trading interest, in regard to it's continuance, or otherwise; and, being likely to be brought before the parliament the ensuing session, it may not be unuseful to give a state of the argument, as it hath hitherto passed without doors pro and con. In a treatise said to be written by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. on the causes of the decay of our foreign trade, he observes, That the laws which give a bounty on exported corn, fish, and flesh, are very prejudicial to our manufactures. For, 'Wages depending on the high or low price corn, fish, and flesh bear, the bounties on their exportation serve only to feed foreigners cheaper than our own people, to run away with our trade: the pretence of encouraging tillage by a bounty on corn can have no weight now, since our great improvements in husbandry, much less if we erected magazines in every county, against times of scarcity: foreigners never buy provisions 'till they want them, and then they must have them, whether we give bounties or no.' The British Merchant, vol. ii. p. 247, says, 'If we were to become a province to France, we should be obliged to give a bounty on wool, as we do on our corn, that France might

'have it cheaper than our people.' And, in p. 400, 'he computes the value of the manufacture in our woollen goods in general, at three times the value of the wool. — Now I appeal to all men of sense, whether it be not much more prejudicial, in this case, to feed the workmen cheaper, than to sell cheaper the materials; the manufacture being as three to one in our woollen trade only, a bounty on exported wool, though absurd and destructive, stops there: but bounties on exported corn, fish, and flesh, serve to feed the French cheaper than our own people, to run away not only with our woollen, but also with our silk, linen, and iron manufactures, and every thing else we can undertake, all trade, all navigation. Is not this conduct most absurd, most destructive? Could we have acted more servilely; had we become a province to France; or, rather, is not this the way to make us so? All attempts to confine our wool at home must prove vain, until our people are eased of taxes, monopolies, and ill-judged laws, equally with or beyond foreigners; for, while the French can underwork us so much, they can afford to give vast prices for our wool; and what effect any prohibition will have against vast profits, the reader may judge,' &c.

In confirmation of this strain of reasoning, it has been further urged, That, should the public employ one man a whole year in a piece of work, to be sent abroad, and given away, this would plainly be to lose the value of one man's labour; but the loss would be exactly the same, if twelve men should be so employed for a month; or if one twelfth part of the whole year's work should be given away.

Supposing then, that the bounty makes the price of our corn abroad less by one twelfth part than it would otherwise be, it is evident that the nation gives away one part in twelve of all the labour employed in growing this corn, and exporting it, and of the rents of the land on which it grows. To give a bounty on corn exported, is, therefore, nothing less than to hire our people to work for foreigners, not for the beneficial purposes of selling to them goods of all kinds perfectly manufactured, and at their market-price, but to make a necessary of life the cheaper to their manufacturers, seamen, and labourers of every kind.

There are two reasons for the continuance of the bounty, which seem to be most specious: one is urged by the farmer and land-owner, the other by the trader; each of them neglects the interest of the other, and mistakes his own. The farmer says, that, without a bounty, no corn will be exported; and that, without an exportation, he could not pay his rent. But he here neglects the interest of trade, which requires that corn, and all provisions, should be as cheap as possible: for whatever makes them dear, must make labour dear also, and must lessen the sale of our manufactures in foreign markets. And, if the farmer thinks this of no importance to him, he mistakes his own interest: his particular trade, as well as others, requires that labour should be cheap; and the general trade of the nation cannot be hurt, but he must suffer with it: for, if our trade decreases, the number of our people must decrease also; and nothing can support the farmer's business in any country but a great number of inhabitants: this enables him to join together the trades of farming and grazing: his cattle improve his ground, and make it produce more corn, and at less expence, than any other method of husbandry. But he will never feed cattle where he cannot sell them; and he cannot sell them where there are not people to eat them. This will explain the improvements which have been made in our lands since the Revolution.

As our trade, and the number of our people, have increased, the farmer has found a greater demand for beef, mutton, butter, &c. and the stock which he keeps to answer this great demand, manures his land without expence; and, by enabling him to grow on all his lands grass and corn alternately, makes the crops of both more plentiful. Hence it is, that common fields have been inclosed, barren heaths converted to tillage, old pastures broken up, and the farmers in general enabled to pay their advanced rents. Thus all the improvements in farming, and the value of our lands, depend on the increase of trade; and the bounty allowed on the exportation of corn can never be of service to the farmer or the land-owner, if it is prejudicial to the trader.

Let us see, therefore, what the trader says to it.—He objects, that, by taking away the bounty, and, consequently, making our corn cheap, the industry of the common people will be lessened. To give this objection the more weight it is said, that the traders in our manufacture-towns find the greatest difficulty in carrying on their business, upon every extraordinary call from abroad, for our manufactures: that the workmen proportion the value of their labour to the demands for the manufactures; and, when the price of three days labour will maintain their families a week, will not work six days; and, if the necessaries of life were to be had at a cheaper rate, the case would be still worse. It must be allowed, that this is true with regard to all labour in England, where a monopoly is given to every kind of manufacture, and the traders are not allowed to employ such hands as they think fit and able to work for them, but are confined to such only as the law has qualified: but it is very manifest, that, in all countries where

where industry is not refrained, the price of provisions must affect the price of labour. And, This will always be diminished, when the necessaries of life grow cheaper; and the objection shews not that the increase of the price of corn, by a bounty on it's exportation, is beneficial to trade; but that there is another evil in our law, which we should endeavour to remove: the evil consists in the various difficulties and discouragements which are put upon industry. Many trades a man may not lawfully exercise, who has not served an apprenticeship: others he may not join together: at others he may not work within the limits of a corporation. It would be endless to enumerate all the laws of this kind: we need only observe of them, that every effect they can possibly have must be detrimental to trade: for every man, if not refrained by law, would pass from one employment to another, as the various turns in trade should require, and would always be employed in the business for which he was best fitted, or in which he was most wanted. In this case, either all trades would have a sufficient number of workmen, or would equally want them; and the consequence of such a general want would be nothing else but drawing hither great numbers of foreigners; whereas our present restraints often put it in the power of workmen to demand higher wages than their work deserves, and thus prevent the sale of our manufactures abroad.

There is no complaint more common among our merchants, than that foreigners underwork us in almost every kind of manufacture; and can we be surprized at it? when the general tendency of our laws is to make labour dear at home, and cheap abroad; when we either forbid our people to work, or oblige them to work in some disadvantageous manner; when we lay all our taxes on trade, or, which is still worse for trade, on the necessaries of life; and when we contrive to feed the labourers, manufacturers, and seamen of foreign countries, with our corn, at a cheaper rate than our own people can have it? To raise the price of corn at home, in whatever manner it is done, is the same thing as to lay a tax on the consumption of it; and to do that in such a manner as lessens the price of it abroad, is to apply this tax to the benefit of foreigners. If then we consider the mischiefs that the bounty on corn does to trade and farming, in their true light, we may venture to pronounce, that a general excise on all the bread we eat, could not be attended with more pernicious consequences.

Others, who have endeavoured to maintain the reasonableness of taking away the bounty, argue from this principle, That the price of wheat in England has been lower since the bounty was granted than before, and compare the prices of wheat, as they stood from the several mediums taken upon different numbers of years, since the bounty was first allowed in the year 1689, with the prices found from mediums, taken upon equal numbers of years before the bounty took place; which estimation is taken from the foregoing account of bishop Fleetwood, which is generally esteemed accurate.

The price of wheat per quarter, upon a medium taken on 43 years, from 1646, being the first year the account commences, to 1688, the year before the bounty was allowed, appears to be at the rate of - - - - - l. 2 : 10 : 8
 From the medium taken on 43 years, from 1689, being the first year the bounty was allowed, to 1731, the price of wheat per quarter appears to be - - - - - l. 1 : 18 : 0

An annual loss to the farmer since the bounty took place - - - - - l. 0 : 12 : 8

From 1699 to 1688, being the last 20 years before the bounty was allowed, the price of wheat per quarter was, at a medium, - - - - - l. 2 : 6 : 2

From 1726 to 1745, being the last 20 years in this account, the price of wheat, at a medium, per quarter, was - - - - - l. 1 : 17 : 9³/₄

An annual loss to the farmer in price since the bounty took place - - - - - l. 0 : 8 : 4¹/₄

The medium on wheat from 1649 to 1668, being 20 years, was per quarter - - - - - l. 2 : 12 : 8¹/₂

The medium from 1706 to 1725, being 20 years, was per quarter - - - - - l. 2 : 4 : 9

An annual loss to the farmer in price since the bounty took place - - - - - l. 0 : 7 : 11¹/₄

The medium on wheat for 14 years, from 1675 to 1688, was per quarter - - - - - l. 2 : 5 : 4¹/₄

The medium of wheat for 14 years, from 1732 to 1745, was per quarter - - - - - l. 1 : 15 : 6¹/₂

An annual loss to the farmer in price since the bounty took place - - - - - l. 0 : 9 : 9³/₄

Moreover it is observable, that, from the year 1689, being the year when the bounty was first granted, to the year 1745, when the account ends, containing the space of 57 years, the farmer has received annually 8 s. 5 d. per quarter less for his

wheat than it bore, one year with another, for 43 years preceding the year when the bounty was first allowed. If the prices of barley, and other kinds of corn, had been stated in the bishop's account; we might have been enabled to have made the same computations on them, which would have shewn how the mediums stood upon them; and it is reasonable to believe that they would appear, upon such estimate, to be lowered considerably in the prices, since the bounty.

If the freight from London to Holland be deducted, which is 1 s. 5 d. ¹/₂ per quarter, out of 2 s. 6 d. which is the bounty per quarter, the remainder, being 1 s. 0 d. ¹/₂, is the encouragement given to the merchant to export barley; which encouragement is at the rate of 1. 7 : 7 : 11 per cent. So likewise with regard to wheat; when the price of wheat is at 1 l. 4 s. per quarter, deducting the freight, which supposed to be 1 s. 5 d. ¹/₂ per quarter, out of the bounty of 5 s. per quarter, the remainder, 3 s. 5 d. ¹/₂, is the encouragement given by the bounty per quarter to export wheat, which, in the way of trade, is at the rate of 1. 14 : 15 : 1 per cent. So that in the case of barley it appears, that, whatever the corn-merchant will allow out of this 1. 7 : 7 : 11 per cent. to tempt the foreigners to buy our corn, that allowance, whatever it be, whether at the rate of 2, 3, or 4 per cent. will be the advantage that every such foreigner will have, in his manufactory of barley of English growth, over the English manufacturer of the same commodity at every foreign market.

And 1. 14 : 15 : 1 per cent. we see, is the encouragement which the bounty on wheat gives to the merchant: whatever proportion of this encouragement, whether it be 5, 6, 8, or 10 per cent. he may chuse to allow out of this to the foreigner, just so much cheaper will the foreigner be enabled to work, and sell his manufacture, than an Englishman can.

What is still more grievous in this case is, that we always find it very difficult, if not impossible, in all cases where there is any considerable degree of disproportion in the price of a foreign manufacture and our own, to prevent, by any penal laws, such manufacture from being run in upon us.

That the running of the foreign manufacture of this kind has increased upon us ever since the bounty took place, appears from the many laws which have been made, ever since that time, to prevent the foreign manufacture of this kind from a vent in our home-market.

If this be a true representation of the ill effects of this bounty besides the loss occasioned by it to the nation in general, how great is that which it immediately brings on the farmer? and how can we, without taking off this bounty, pretend to make any regulation for raising the price of spirituous liquors, to prevent the melancholy effects that arise from the excess in the use of them?

But, if the bounty be withdrawn, a check will be given to the introduction of any such foreign-manufactured liquors; and we may then venture, properly and safely, to lay some further additional duty upon our own, which will increase their price, and, consequently, it will be easier to suppress that general depravity and debauchery in these liquors that so universally prevails among the poor, even among our mechanics and manufacturers.

If, notwithstanding what has been urged, that the farmer has sold his wheat at the annual rate of 8 s. 5 d. per quarter less, since the bounty was allowed in the year 1689, than he did before for the course of 43 years preceding that time, it may be said, that Holland, or any other particular country, will be furnished with corn from other parts of Europe, instead of buying our's and so continue their manufactory of spirituous liquors: and that, as the English manufacturers of this kind have never yet gained any vent at a foreign market, it is a mere chimæra to expect they ever should gain vent.

In answer to this, it may be said, that, when the price of corn in England is lower than it is in Holland, and in other foreign market or markets, our corn will have a vent at such foreign market or markets, without the assistance of a bounty; and that, in fact, Holland buys our corn for no other reason than because it buys it cheaper, or as cheap, as it does of any other country: and all other countries that purchase it of us are moved by the same considerations: that, in fact, corn has been, of late years, produced in England with as little, or less expence, than in any part of Europe, notwithstanding the many disadvantages under which farming labours from several laws, meant, indeed, for it's encouragement, but, in truth, very injurious to it's true interest*.

* Such, for instance, is reckoned, by some, the law prohibiting the importation of great cattle, which raises their price excessively, and is, therefore, a palpable hindrance to the farmer's purchasing such numbers of them as he could conveniently fatten, or otherwise make a profit of; which he now loses; and this loss is accompanied with another, that of their manure, which annually lessens his crops of corn. — The farmers also nearly and sensibly feel the want of a free market at home, which Smithie'd certainly is not. — The prohibition on raw hides is likewise thought to be an injury to the farmer, as it discourages the manufacture of leather at home, and promotes it abroad; and, consequently, lessens the farmer's price for raw hides, and considerably lessens the

the number of hands in England, which as necessarily decreases manufactures of this and other kinds; and manufactures are ultimately the support of farming.

To say, as some do, that because possibly we never have had any vent for our manufacture of spirituous liquors in any foreign markets, that therefore we can never arrive at such perfection in goodness and cheapness as to gain one, seems groundless, and only a mere ipse dixit, unless it can be proved that our laws, in regard to trade, direct such regulations as give a fair trial to the industry and capacities of the people: but we have not yet made any such effectual trial, nor is it, perhaps, possible to make it as long as the bounty shall remain. Our British distillery is arrived at great perfection; and what lengths they might go, under proper regulations, is not easy to say.

Thus I have candidly and impartially stated the argument for withdrawing the bounty. I shall now attempt to do equal justice to the other side of the question, and submit the whole to the judgment of those who may make a national use of it. The demonstration which is said to be given of the prejudice of this bounty to the national wealth, is not convincing from the comparison drawn of giving away the labour of a man, nor is it a just simile: for it is not true that the bounty is given away to foreigners; it is our own land-owners, and our own people at home, who receive all the benefits of it: for it is by means of the bounty alone that we are enabled to supply foreign markets as cheap as other corn-countries do; without it we should not have sold near so much to the French even this year; they having purchased very large quantities elsewhere, and at cheaper rates, notwithstanding the bounty. And, when the merchant here makes an estimate of the advantage of exporting corn, from the state of markets abroad, he would very rarely find encouragement for the undertaking without the bounty, by which he esteems the cost so much lessened; for there are divers charges of collecting and shipping grain, of freight and sale, &c. that greatly enhance the price, and make it come dearer to the consumer. Wherefore, it is by means of the bounty alone that our lands are improved, common fields inclosed, barren heaths converted to tillage, and old pastures broken up; and it is the bounty alone that enables the farmer to pay his advanced rent, though some ascribe all these benefits to quite a different, and altogether an insufficient cause. The bounty was wisely designed by our ancestors, to make England the chief granary of Europe; and the event has verified their excellent discernment, by bringing in millions of money into the kingdom, which we could have never had reason to expect, while other countries, without this bounty, could have underfold us. And, as the riches of a nation depend upon the multitude of inhabitants usefully employed; so, without these improvements of the land, there must have been less work, and would, consequently, have been less people in the kingdom. Since then it is the bounty which has so much increased the value of our lands, according to the intention of parliament, in wisely granting it, the withdrawing it must have the contrary effect; for then the farmers must be undone, and the corn-trade be absolutely lost to the kingdom, or there must necessarily be a reduction of rents of more than 30 per cent. which will scarcely be relished by the land-owners, even if totally exempted from the land-tax, which does not seem very likely soon, if ever to be the case. Nor would such a declension in the value of lands fail to make strange havoc in the kingdom; for, though the bounty has greatly increased the value of lands, yet every purchaser of land buys that advantage; and, as the bounty is of more importance to the land than would be, perhaps, even a total exemption from a land-tax, though the balance in the present situation is greatly in favour of the revenue: it seems, therefore, for the general interest of the nation, that the old laws be continued; and as they have so much increased the trade and riches of the nation, it is wisdom to know when we are well in so important a circumstance, and not attempt an alteration, lest the point should be mistaken, and other nations get this trade out of our hands: for, without the bounty, we have little reason to expect but a very small share of it, unless in times of very extraordinary plenty at home, and of extreme want abroad, which may but seldom happen together.

We find already that several neighbouring nations, and some of our most distant provinces, are vying with us in this branch of trade. Denmark, Hamburg, Dantzick, and the Baltic, have, for some years past, furnished very large quantities of corn to the places where it has been wanted, and at much cheaper rates than could be had from us, notwithstanding the bounty; and our own plantations in America not only supply much to Spain and Portugal, but even come so near to us as Ireland and the Bay of Biscay, and undersell us at these places; not to mention what a flourishing trade this is in Sicily, Naples, the Levant, Morea, &c.—So that all these countries, if we resign to them this part of our commerce, will grow more potent by sea and land; and British America may also contribute to the ruin of Great-Britain. Wherefore, upon any reduction of the bounty, the corn-trade must decline in England, and a gradual neglect of tillage at home will encourage it more and more abroad;

which may, in time, subject us to the misery of seeking foreign supplies even for our own use; which was a case that should not be forgotten, when a few years since our crop failed, and we imported large quantities from abroad. Does it not therefore become the wisdom of the nation to strive, by every prudent measure, to secure the corn-trade to the kingdom? For may not any false step upon so tender and delicate an occasion open a wide door to poverty and distress?

It is an experienced truth, and therefore become an universal maxim, that those who can furnish cheapest a commodity of equal goodness, will have the trade; but, from what has been said, in favour of withdrawing the bounty, the corn-trade is represented only as subservient to all others, and to bear scarce any proportion to the manufactures, though perhaps the corn-trade, considered in its full extent, is as considerable a branch as most of them; and, if not the first, may, we apprehend, be accounted the second most valuable branch belonging to the kingdom. If we reflect a little upon the extent of it, we shall, perhaps, find the tract of land dependent thereon is the most considerable part of the nation, and the same also of the inhabitants and people therein employed. And, I believe, there is not any one branch of foreign trade, which is so beneficial to the interest of navigation, for the bounty is well and wisely confined to the employment of our own shipping; 'tis a bulky commodity, and therefore employs the more vessels. Were we to take a survey of all the out-ports great and small, upon the coasts of this kingdom, we should be surprized to see how the number of ships and vessels are increased, which have no other dependence than the corn-trade; and, if there is an increase of shipping, there must also be an increase of mariners, which all agree to be the best security of the kingdom. The employment of these ships and mariners necessarily occasions business among various sorts of mechanics and artificers ashore: in short, 'tis certain, that a multitude of families have their sole dependence on the employment of shipping in the corn-trade, and, when any stagnation happens, the consequences are soon evidently experienced.

Was the bounty on corn withdrawn, it might then be loaded on foreign shipping as well as our own, and a preference would be given to them, for what share of this trade we might have remaining, because they will generally carry it much cheaper than our's, and this would prove a fatal stroke to our navigation. Is it not, therefore, as material that we should study to preserve the corn-business, as any other of equal importance to the nation, and not suffer other countries to undersell us; which, without the bounty, they certainly can and will do?

Beside, we do not conceive that the exportation of corn has any material influence upon the manufactories of the nation, the chief of which are situated generally in the interior parts of the kingdom, where the exportation can have very little effect upon the price. These are not countries that generally produce abundance of corn, and therefore the people more easily conceive mistaken notions about sending it out of the kingdom.—And, though our manufacturers merit a tender care and regard, yet the interest of the farmer is not to be neglected. Is all the sea-coast, whose chief dependence is on the exportation of corn, to be totally undone for want of other employment?

'Tis an experienced truth, that cheapness and plenty do not always encourage industry in the poor. But a permanent change on the price of provision must affect the price of labour: yet the change that is sometimes wrought in the price of corn by large exportation, is not permanent, but accidental and temporary; and such there must of necessity always be in the price of provisions, if from no other cause than the difference of our crops at home; for large demands for corn abroad are not permanent, and therefore it is that the exportation (though a seeming paradox) makes it cheap at home; for, our lands being improved, people sow all they can upon the presumption of an exportation, which else there would not be encouragement to do; and, as the foreign demand is precarious, so it often happens, that we have large stocks in the kingdom, and little or no vent for it: the price of corn may, indeed, for a season advance, through the heat of the circulation for foreign markets; as is the case, more or less, in most other merchandizes; but experience proves, that corn is only dear for a continuance, when the crop has proved light at home: a deficiency this way will soon overbalance the largest exportation ever known, and the farmer must then sell his corn at a dearer rate, or can't pay his rent, as estates are now in general let. When we have a plentiful crop, wheat is and will be cheap, and large stocks left even after the greatest exportation. What then would be the consequence, if no bounty was allowed to encourage the exportation, and especially as our plenty often happens, when there is no great demand for it abroad? 'Tis certain, therefore, that, by the exportation of corn, there is no permanent advance of the price, but, on the contrary, there are often accidental changes, when it is thereby lowered; and, to make it appear that the price of bread is not, on an average, at any unreasonable price for the labourer, wheat has not, for the last seven years, met at more than 26 s. 6 d. per quarter

Exchequer measure, and that in a place of considerable exportation; nor is it conceived, that a small advance of bread would be perceptible in the sale of any piece of goods manufactured and sent abroad.

Moreover, if great cheapness of corn be most advantageous to the kingdom, why is it that the legislature does not freely suffer it to be imported, when it may, but that such liberty would be destructive to the landed interest of the kingdom? 'Tis observable, that very opposite and contradictory arguments have been offered against the bounty on corn. From the foregoing account of bishop Fleetwood, of the market-price of wheat at Windsor, it is said, that the price has declined ever since the bounty has been allowed; from whence is inferred a swelling account of the farmer's loss, and of the prejudice it has been to his interest; not considering, that the annual product of the land has been much more considerable. So that what has been said against the bounty, has been argued from self-contradictory principles, which serve to corroborate what has been urged in favour of its continuance; for, at the same time it has improved our lands by encouraging the exportation of corn, it has also made corn the cheaper to the manufacturers, &c.

Some have proposed to lessen the bounty on wheat and augment it on flour; but 'tis conceived that this would be of no service, though the more can be manufactured at home would be certainly best; but some countries abroad impose a larger duty on flour than on wheat, and Holland even prohibits it; in others flour is not so saleable a commodity; in Spain they will scarce touch it, if they can have wheat; besides, flour is a merchandize more subject to spoil in hot countries, and therefore such an alteration would not be prudent to make.

The doctrine of allowing bounties, upon various species of goods, has by long experience proved to be of advantage to the nation, and therefore should not in any instance be altered, without the most mature deliberation: such are the bounties on British made sail-cloth, the British manufactures of silk, fish, and flesh, naval stores, British made gun-powder, on British spirits drawn from corn, British refined sugar, British and Irish linnens, &c.—None of these articles seem to be of that consequence to the nation, as the great article of corn; and therefore, if the wisdom of the nation shall judge it found policy to continue these, our representatives will hardly be induced, we humbly apprehend, to withdraw that upon corn, which so nearly and sensibly must affect the whole landed interest of the nation. And wherefore do we allow drawbacks upon the re-exportation, even of foreign commodities, but for the general benefit of our navigation, the freight being all clear gain to the kingdom? Are not these drawbacks a kind of bounties allowed upon foreign merchandizes, and can we therefore, consistently with ourselves, withdraw the bounty, which has long been experienced to be so nationally beneficial? Has not the wisdom of the legislature taken care, that this commodity shall be shipped on board British ships, whereof the master, and at least two thirds of the mariners, are to be British subjects? Is not this greatly for the encouragement of the British navigation?

When the bounties that were granted upon the raising of pitch and tar in the British plantations, had pretty well enabled us to supply ourselves with these commodities, they were withdrawn, and these trades soon returned again to the hands of the Swedes and Russians; which obliged us to renew the bounties, or to give up the trade.

With regard to any deficiency that may have happened in the funds, which have been appropriated for the payment of these bounties on corn, and for which the debentures have been duly and legally made out, we are surprized, that any doubt can be made of the payment thereof, upon proper and becoming application; nor is it less extraordinary for people to suggest, as some have done, that, if there is no such deficiency, the public money must have been alienated, and applied to other purposes than intended by parliament; for no person or persons in this kingdom, I am apt to believe, would dare thus to misapply the public money, when it may be so easily detected.

CORNWALL, is bounded by the English channel on the south, St George's channel on the west, Bristol channel on the north, and is parted from Devonshire on the east by the river Tamar, and is in circumference about 150 miles.

It's chief rivers are the Tamar and Hamel. The air is clear and healthful, but sharp; and, being almost encompassed with the sea, subjects it to violent flaws of wind. Though mountainous and rocky, it hath all kinds of soil, the vallies affording plenty of pasture; and the land near them well cultivated, being manured with a sea-weed called ore-wood, and a fat sort of sand. Here are the best slate tiles, which are not only used in England, but exported in great quantities; as also the moor-stone for facing windows, doors, and chimnies; which, when polished, looks as well as the Egyptian granite. It abounds with tin and lead-mines, and along with the tin a yellow ore is dug, called mundic, yielding good copper.

In their rivers and bays are trout, lobsters, oysters, soles, &c. but they profit most by their pilchards (called the Spanish ca-

pon) because served up by them, dressed with oil and lemon, as a dainty: pilchards are saved three ways, viz. by fuming, pressing, or pickling, which employs great numbers of women and children, to the great relief of their necessity.

Their chief metal and manufacture is tin. When the ore is brought above ground in the stone, 'tis broke with hammers, then carried to the stamping-mills, which makes it ready for other mills, that grind it to powder: when washed and cleared from earth, &c. 'tis melted into pigs of three or four hundred weight, marked with the owner's name, and the value set upon it at the coining-house. The stamp is the seal of the duchy of Cornwall. The tanners are regulated by laws called Stannary. Since the Norman conquest, the tanners had from time to time new offices and privileges granted them: one is, that no Englishman in that duchy shall pay custom for exporting Cornish cloth, granted them in consideration of their paying 4 s. for the coinage of every hundred weight of tin, whereas Devonshire pays no more than 8 d. They have also the freedom to take sand out of the sea, and carry it to any part of the county for manure. The coinage towns are Leskard, Lewwithiel, Truro, Helfton, and Pensance. And the tanners are reckoned at least 100,000.

This county, though so remote from the royal residence, sends no less than 44 members to parliament, which is but one less than what represents all North Britain; and almost double the number returned from the whole principality of Wales, or from any of the counties of England, some of which are much larger, if not three times more populous and wealthy than it.

LAUNCESTON, the chief town, is a populous trading place, and gives title of viscount to the prince of Wales.

LESKARD is one of the largest and best built towns in the county, and has, perhaps, the greatest market and trade, especially in all manufactures of leather.

LESTWITHIEL is a well built town. It's chief trade is the woollen manufacture.

TRURO is a branch of the port of Falmouth, and stands at the conflux of two rivets, that almost encompass the town, and form a large wharf. It's chief trade is shipping off tin and copper ore, which last is found in great quantities in the mountains betwixt this and St Michael's, and is much improved since the mills erected near Bristol, &c. for the battery-ware. It's mayor, who is chosen out of the aldermen, has large privileges, being also mayor of Falmouth; and the keyage of goods, laden and unladen there, belongs to this corporation.

BODMIN almost in the center of the county, has a good corn and flesh-market.

HELSTON is a large, populous, trading town; several tin ships take in their lading here. King John gave it the liberty to build a Guildhall, to pay no toll but in the city of London, to be impleaded no where but in their own borough, and to enjoy the privileges of Launceston-Castle.

SALTASH is but a league from Plymouth dock. The inhabitants trade much in malt and beer. It has several large privileges over the haven belonging to it.

WESTLOW has a trade in pilchards, &c. but not so considerable as at Eastlow.

PENRYN is a neat built town, well watered with rivulets, and has an arm of the sea on each side, with a good custom-house and key. This, and other towns near it, drive so considerable a trade in drying and vending pilchards, and in the Newfoundland fishery, that here are many merchants.

TREGONY is on the same river. It's chief manufacture is serge.

ST IVES, though now a poor harbour, being almost choaked up with sand, has thriven much by trade with pilchards and slates. Not far from it are some copper-mines.

POWEY is a populous and pretty town, and has many flourishing merchants, who have a great share in the pilchard fishery.

KELLINGTON is not inferior to the better half of the Cornish boroughs for buildings and wealth. It's chief trade is the woollen manufacture.

FALMOUTH is by much the richest and best trading town in the county, and larger than any three of it's boroughs that send members. 'Tis well built, and it's trade much increased since the establishment of the packets between this place, Portugal, and the West-Indies.

The custom-house for most of the towns in this county is established at this town, where the duties are very considerable.

HELFOED is a harbour where the tin ships often load, and here are many vessels in the pilchard trade.

PENSANCE, the farthest town of any note in the west of England, is well built and populous, having many ships belonging to it. Veins of lead, tin, and copper, are said to be seen here, even to low-water mark, and in the very sea.

PADSTOW lies convenient for trade with Ireland. It's chief trade, besides that in slate-tiles, is the herring fishery. New Island, here, is noted for good camphire and sea fowl.

COROMANDEL, in the Mogul empire. This coast stretches south-west from the bay of Bengal, or rather the

limits of Golconda to those of Madera. Most of the country is plain, and they have but few mountains or trees. So fruitful it is in rice, that 'tis said to have took its name thence; yet sometimes, for want of the usual rains, the famine is such, that the natives sell themselves for food. They have multitudes of sheep with no wool, but a little hair.

They have scarce any thing curious about them but their looms for weaving several sorts of fine silks, callicoos, and muslins; their chief manufacture, for which the Europeans deal with them, and their cotton cloth, which is reckoned the finest in the Indies; yet they work in sorry dark huts like hogsties. Not only European goods are in request here, but all sorts of spice and gold, which they understand very well.

The English and Dutch have so many forts, factories, and other settlements on this coast, that they may be said to possess the whole; yet they are subject to the Great Mogul, who has numbers of his subjects in all the places they possess.

The chief places of any trade as they lie from north to south, are,

1. **PETTIPOLY**, which lies a league up a pretty large river. It is the largest harbour on this coast, but the bar has some shallows scarce passable but by small vessels. The printed and dyed stuffs of this place are highly valued. They have also good indigo here.

2. **KISNIPATAN**, a little more southward, on a good large river, formerly bought good store of cotton cloth of the English factories, but greatly decreased since: as also Armegon.

3. **CARRERA**, on a large river, is noted for a plant used in dyeing; as are also Caletour and Penna, two small places near it.

4. **PALIACATE**, at the mouth of a river of that name, 9 leagues north from fort St George, and 140 miles south from Pettipoly, is a chief factory of the Dutch, to which all their others on this coast are subordinate. The pagans here trade in painted and white callicoos, and other linnen. The Banians and Jews are the chief traders. Here the Dutch refine what saltpetre they bring from Bengal, and make gunpowder for their other factories. Great quantities of cotton-stockings are knit here, and exported to all the European factories in India.

5. **FORT ST GEORGE, OR MADRAS PATAN**, put in possession of the English East-India company, by one of the pagan princes, above sixscore years ago, ratified by the king of Golconda, to whose sovereign the company pays 7000 pagodas (worth about 9s. each) per ann. for the royalties and customs; by which 'tis said they gain four times the sum, the whole amounting to 30,000 pistoles at least. It is a place of the utmost importance to the company, for its strength, wealth, and the great annual returns it makes in callicoos and muslins. The governor here presides also over all the settlements on the Coromandel coast, and the west coast of Sumatra; the person, who is said to preside at Bencoolen, being but a deputy-governor there. He is also captain of the first company of soldiers.

It is divided by some into three, though they are properly only two towns, viz. the English or White Town, and the Black City, on the north side of it, called by the Moors, Madras, or Chinnepatan.

The number of houses, in the whole White Town, is not much above 120; they are neat, and have Italian porticoes and rows of trees before their doors.

The Black Town or City is much the largest, and is more than a mile and half in compass.

The river by which it is washed, falls at the distance of half a mile into the sea; but, before the wet season, the bar is cut to widen its passage, or it would overflow the country. It runs thus with a great stream two months in the year, after which the bar closes of itself, and forms a peninsula three miles round, which feeds numbers of sheep and hogs, and some cows; but the soil is so poor, notwithstanding the charge the company has been at to improve it, that the cattle would starve, had they no other sustenance.

They trade from hence to all parts east of the cape of Good Hope; but the greatest ships use the Mocha, Persia, and Surat market, with Bengal and China commodities, and touch by the way on the Malabar coast, for pepper, cacao-nuts, coyre, and several drugs, the produce of that coast.

The European goods that sell best here, are lead, wine, beer in casks or bottles, ale, cyder, cheese, cloth-hats, fine ribbands, gold and silver lace, thread and worsted stockings, and all other sorts of haberdashery.

Returns are made to Europe in all the product of the Indies, particularly cotton cloth and muslins, which are cheaper here than at Surat, but dearer than in Bengal.

6. **ST THOMAS**, about two leagues south of fort St George. 'Tis inhabited by weavers and dyers, and noted for the best coloured stuffs in India: but there is no factory here, and the people poor, the trade being removed to Madras.

7. **COBELON**, six leagues south of fort St George. **SADRASPATAN**, thirty miles south of fort St George, is a small Dutch factory; the town is populous, but the houses mean; it stands in a healthful country and fruitful soil.

CONYMERE, formerly an English factory, 'till transferred to fort St David.

PONDICHERRY, is one of the most eminent factories belonging to the French.

The chief revenues of the company arise from customs of 5 per cent. on goods imported and exported by sea; choultry, or land custom, of two and a half per cent. on cloth, provisions, &c. brought in from the country; which, when exported, pay two and a half per cent. more; anchorage duty, passes, coinage, &c. which all together are very considerable; for the mint alone brings above 1000 pagodas a month into the company's coffers, at one half per cent. for coinage of gold, and two per cent. for silver. The bullion that comes from Europe, &c. is coined into roupies, which are stamped with Persian characters, declaring the Mogul's name, year of his reign, and some of his epithets. They also coin gold into pagodas of different denominations and value. The Moors have also mettass, or toll-houses round the city, where they receive about seven per cent. on all goods that pass by them, except what is for the French, who only pay the choultry above-mentioned. Besides the neighbouring villages which the merchants or others farm of the company, at certain rents, amounting in the whole to near 1300 pagodas a year, the scavenger, fishing-farm, wine licence, &c. are equally advantageous to it. Another considerable branch of the company's profit is the tobacco and betel farm, which is a small duty laid on those commodities, and leased out to the black merchants for 8000 pagodas per ann. And another branch is the arrack farm, or the sole licence of making Pariar arrack, for which they are paid 3600 pagodas a year. The common people prefer this to the best Batavia or Goa arrack, only because it is more heating. 'Tis observed, that these three last-mentioned commodities, whence such vast profit arises, are all consumed by the inhabitants, who are no less within the company's bounds than 300,000 souls.

TEGNAPATAN belongs to the Dutch, as also **CARCAL** and **TIREPOLIER**.

The principality of **GINGI**, extending 160 miles from east to west, and 80 in breadth, abounds in rice, salt, and fruits, but so stocked with people, that they are forced to have provisions from other countries. It exports, to other parts of the Indies, linnen and woollen stuffs; importing chiefly spices, sandal-wood, Chinese silks, velvets, fattins, &c. It has but two towns, and both within land, viz.

1. **GINGI, OR CHENGIER**, its capital, is said to be very populous, and three times as big as Rotterdam, well fortified, and lies in a pleasant valley by a fine river.

2. **CIDAMBARAN**, about 46 miles N. W. from Gingi, of chief note for its stately pagods.

The principality of **TANJAOR**, on the south of Gingi, extends 139 miles from east to west, and 73 along the coast. The Europeans find it very unhealthy, but trade greatly here in rice, painted callicoos, dye-woods, &c. for which they give bars of silver in exchange.

1. **FORT ST DAVID** is a strong fort and factory belonging to the English. It is of great profit to the company, because of the rents they have here, and the great quantities of callicoos and muslins carried hence to Europe. The country is healthful, pleasant, and fruitful, and watered with several rivers, which serve as walls to fortify the settlement.

2. **PORTO NOVO**, a Dutch factory. The country is fertile, pleasant, and healthful, and produces good cotton cloth, which is either sold at home, or exported to Pegu, Tanacerim, Queda, Jehore, and Atcheen, or Sumatra.

3. **TRANQUEBAR**, a fortress and colony of the Danes. It is said to be one of the largest towns in the Indies, next to Batavia, but their trade is inconsiderable.

4. **NEGAPATAN** belongs to the Dutch. The colony affords little besides tobacco and long-cloth.

5. **TANJAOR**, the capital, is an inland town; but we have no exact account of it.

MADURA, commonly called the **FISHING-COAST**, or **PEARL-COAST**, because of the oyster-fishery, which produces great quantities of pearl, but they are small, not comparable to the true oriental pearl, in the gulph of Persia. It is said no less than 60,000 people are employed in this fishery, and guarding the vessels.

This country belongs now to the Dutch. It bears no herbs or plants, but thistles or houseleeks.

Its only inland towns of note are,

1. **MADURA** the capital.

2. **TICHERAPALI**, one of the most famous places in India. The most remarkable on the coast are,

1. **TENDY**, whence many hundreds of cattle are yearly transported to the island of Ceylon, to which they cross in four or five hours.

2. **TUTUCORIN**, a Dutch factory. A great quantity of cloth is wove in this town. The best lime in the East-Indies is made here, of oyster-shells. The Dutch colony here superintends the pearl-fishery, which is said to bring their company at least 20,000l. a year.

3. **MANAPAR**, another Dutch factory, standing on a high ground, about a mile from the sea.

4. **PERIPATAN**, one of the chief towns on the coast, and the capital of the Maravas and Paravas, a barbarous sort of robbers, so called.

MARAVA, is a large kingdom, tributary to that of Madura. One quarter of this country is emphatically called The Robbers County, where they come out of their forests 5 or 600 in a night, to plunder where they can. All endeavours used by their prince to check them have hitherto proved ineffectual. In the year 1709 only, they laid waste above 500 considerable settlements:

The greatest trade here is in fish, which they carry up the country, to exchange for rice, and other necessary provisions, of which the fishing coast is quite destitute; the whole coast, for about twelve leagues, being covered with a kind of brambles, and a dry burning sand, except a forest about five or six leagues in length, infested by tigers.

CORSICA, is an island of the Mediterranean, situate between that of Sardinia and the southern coasts of Italy. It's greatest length is computed to be about 110 Italian miles, and it's breadth about 80. It hath the state, city, and sea of Genoa on the north; Sardinia on the south, from which it is parted by a strait about eight small miles over; the Tuscan Sea, and Naples toward the east; and the Mediterranean on the west.

It is at present divided into four districts, or provinces, each subdivided into cantons, called by the natives pieves.

The island is, in general, so woody and mountainous, and the ground so dry and stony, that few things grow in it, but by dint of labour. Some parts of it, indeed, produce good corn, wines, figs, almonds, &c. and some pasture-grounds breed, also, quantities of cattle, and their forests plenty of deer and other game, as their coasts do fish, which is very good, particularly the ton, a kind of sturgeon, and a small fish, called sardinas. Some good coral is likewise found about them.

The island, however, is but thinly peopled, by reason of it's unwholesome air, and it's more disagreeable government under the Genoese.

The Corsicans are represented as uncivilized, brutish, cruel, and revengeful; insomuch that the name of Corsair, which signifies a pirate, or rover, is thought to be derived hence; but it must be confessed they are bold and valiant, and, for the most part, very good soldiers, on which account they are usually among the Pope's guard.

Places of any note in the island are those which follow:

I. In the northern province, or district, called **DI ANO LI MONTI**.

BASTIA, the capital of the island, situate on the north-east part of it. It has a good harbour, defended by a fort, and is also the residence of the Genoese governor.

SAN FIORENZO is a small but convenient sea-port, with a good haven, situate on the north side of the island, on a gulph of the same name.

NEBIO, once a fine city, but now reduced almost to the condition of a village. It stands about a mile from the north coast and from the castle of St Fiorenzo, and about 11 north-west from Bastia.

CENTURI stands on the utmost northern cape, overagainst the island Centuria, to which it gives name. It is now inconceivable, and thinly inhabited.

MARIANA, anciently a famed city and Roman colony, hath now nothing left but it's noble ruins, still to be seen on the eastern coast, about 15 miles south of Bastia.

II. In the southern part, or **DI LA LI MONTI**, **BONIFACIO**, situate on the most southern verge of the island, and is a very strong and well-peopled city. It stands on a high rock, and hath a very convenient harbour. It stands in latitude 41. 20. 9. 35. east, and about 25 miles south-west from

PORTO VECCHIO, a noble spacious sea-port, capable of containing a good number of large vessels, which is sheltered on several sides from the wind. It is easily discovered at a distance by a high mountain, craggy, and indented on the top, a little to the south of which is the haven. But the entry, especially on the north side, is somewhat dangerous, by reason of several rocks even with the surface of the water. The town itself hath nothing new worth speaking of.

CASA BARBARICA is a small sea-port on the same coast, only famed now for the coral which is gathered in that sea, in great quantity, and of a good sort.

III. On the eastern side, or **LATO DI DENTRO**, **ALERIA**, a very ancient bishopric, but the air was so unhealthy, that it's inhabitants were forced to abandon it, so that it is now in ruins.

CORTE is a strong and well-peopled city, built on a rock, and defended by a stout castle.

ACCIO, **VENACO**, **ALESANO**, &c. have nothing worth further notice.

IV. On the western side, or **LATO DI FUORI**, **ADDIAZZO**, on the western coast, south of the gulph of the same name, projects into the sea in form of a peninsula. It is by some esteemed the capital of the island, is well peopled, and much resorted to by the Genoese merchants. It's territory rich and fertile, especially in wines of an exquisite taste, for which Carceri and Mezana, besides about 30 other vil-

lages are famed, and some of them, that are near the coast, walled in, by reason of the Corsairs which infest it.

CALVI is a strong town, situated on a craggy high hill, and fenced about with good outworks. It's inhabitants are called Calves.

The gulph of Calvi is large and deep, but hath some dangerous rocks before it, but which may be easily avoided, because the town, which stands very high, is a sure land-mark for steering into it.

BALAGNA, **SAGONA**, **ORNANO**, and a few other places, have nothing worth mentioning in regard to trade.

R E M A R K.

However small the trade of this island may be, at present, by reason of those contentions and heart-burnings between them and the Genoese, if once it comes under the dominion of another potentate, as is not impossible, perhaps, a little time would put a new face upon their affairs, to the no great advantage, very probably, of any powers who have an interest in trading to the Mediterranean.

COTTON-TREE, is of three kinds: one creeps on the earth, like a vine; the second is like a bushy dwarf-tree; and the third is as tall as an oak: all three, after producing beautiful flowers, are loaded with a fruit as large as a walnut, whose outward coat is entirely black. When fully ripe, it opens and discovers a down, extremely white, which is the cotton. They separate the seeds from it by a mill, and then spin the cotton, and prepare it for all sorts of fine works, as stockings, waistcoats, quilts, tapestry, curtains, &c. With this they likewise make muslin, and sometimes mix the cotton with wool, sometimes with silk, and gold itself.

The finest cotton comes from Bengal, and the coast of Coromandel.

The trade herein is very great, and it is distinguished into cotton-wool and cotton-thread.

The first is brought mostly from Cyprus, St John d'Acre, and Smyrna. The most esteemed is white, long, and soft. Those who buy it in bales, should see that it has not been wet, moisture being very prejudicial to it:

The crop of cotton in wool is very considerable about Smyrna, and more than in any other part of the Levant. The grain is sown in July, and reaped in October: the finest is that of the plain of Darnamas, the price of which is usually from six to seven piasters the quintal of 44 oco's.

The charges of a bale of cotton-wool, weighing 230 rottons, at seven piasters the quintal, amount to two piasters 39 apers. Of cotton-thread, that of Damas, called cotton d'once, and of Jerusalem, called bazas, are the most esteemed, as also that of the Antilles Isles.

It is to be chosen white; fine, very dry, and evenly spun. The other cotton-threads are, the half-bazas, the remes, the beledin, and gondezel; the payas and montafiri, the geneguins, the baquiers, the josselaffars, of which there are two sorts.

Those of India, known by the names of Tutucorin, Java, Bengal, and Surat, are of four or five sorts, distinguished by the letters A, B, C, &c. They are sold in bags, with a deduction of one pound and a half on each, for those of Tutucorin, which are the dearest, and two pounds on each bag of the other sorts.

For those of Fielebas, Smyrna, Aleppo, and Jerusalem, the deduction at Amsterdam is eight in the 100 for the tare, and two in the 100 for weight, and on the value one per cent. for prompt payment.

The onattee, or silk cotton, which grows in Persia, is the produce of a shrub, the fruit of which is large and long, in the form of green lambruches; when ripe, it opens and discovers a fine and light silk, which the wind easily disperses, if the fruit be not gathered before it is entirely opened. The seed resembles small lentils, each having a kind of tail, consisting of glossy filaments, of which they make mattresses.

Cotton of Siam.

A kind of silky cotton in the Antilles so called, the grain having been brought from Siam. It is of an extraordinary fineness, even surpassing silk in softness. They make hose of it there, preferable to silk ones for their lustre and beauty; they sell there from ten to twelve, and fifteen crowns a pair: but there are very few made, the work taking up much time; so that what are made is more for curiosity, than as a branch of traffic. The mill, used in the Antilles Isles for separating the cotton, is a long square frame, consisting of four beams, about four feet high, joined together by eight cross-pieces, four above, and four below; two long spindles, channelled, which cross the frame, and turn round contrary ways, by means of some treddles, on which the workman puts his feet, and of two handles on the sides. Before the frame is a moveable board, eight inches broad, and as long as the mill, placed overagainst the spindles. On this board the workman, who sits before it, puts the cotton in a pannier, placed at his left-hand, to spread it to the right on the spindles, when he puts them in motion.

The space between the spindles being wide enough to give passage to the cotton, which they draw in turning round, but not to admit the seeds, separates them, the cotton falling into a bag that hangs under the mill, and the seed falling to the ground,

ground, between the workman's legs. To direct the cotton into the bag, there is a board under the spindles like that above them, inclining towards it.

A good workman will cleanse from 55 to 60 pounds in a day.

The manner of packing cotton, as practised in the Antilles.

The bags are made of coarse foile de vitree, of which they take three cils and a half each: the breadth is one cil three inches. When the bag has been well soaked in water, they hang it up, extending the mouth of it to cross picces of timber, nailed to posts fixed in the ground, seven or eight feet high; he who packs it, goes into the bag, which is six feet nine inches deep, or thereabouts, and there presses down the cotton, which another hands to him, with hands and feet, observing to tread it equally every-where, and putting in but little at a time. When the bag is full, they sew it up. The bag should contain from 300 to 320 pounds of cotton. The best time to pack cotton is in moist and rainy weather, so it be done under cover. The tare abated in the Antilles is three in the 100.

R E M A R K S.

Cotton being a production applicable to a great variety of manufactures, it cannot be too much cultivated in our own plantations that will admit of it. And whether it may not become a material ingredient in a variety of more articles of trade than what it has yet been applied to in this nation, may well deserve to be considered.

COURLAND, a duchy. This country, called also **KURELAND**, is by some reckoned one of the divisions of Lithuania. It has the gulph of Riga, and the river Dwina, on the north; the Baltic Sea on the west; Samogitia on the south; and Lithuania on the east. It is about 190 miles from north-west to south-east, but the breadth not proportionable, being but 80 where broadest, and not above 20 in the eastern part. It is a plain fruitful country, abounding with corn and honey, though in some parts fenny, and full of lakes and rivers. It was formerly tributary to Sweden, but since to the Poles: for, though it had it's own duke, yet he paid homage to the king of Poland. On the banishment of count de Biron to Siberia, the states chose for their duke prince Lewis-Ernest of Brunwick-Wolfenbuttle.

It is a populous country, but liable to be harrassed when there is a war between the Poles and the Muscovites, or Swedes. They dry their wheat and barley with wood in the straw, and then thresh it, which makes the Dutch prefer it to the corn of Poland, because it preserves it better. Their chief commodities are oats, flax, hemp, yarn, honey, wax, linseed, tar, masts, timber of all sorts, pot-ashes, tallow, goat-skins, &c. which are carried to Riga, Libaw, Windaw, and Memel, to be exported. They have plenty of black cattle and horses, and have many commodities from Riga. One of their ways of husbandry is, where there is a valley, to let the water in to lie upon it for three or four years, and to stock it with fish, which renders the ground so soft and fat, that, when it is drained, it requires but one easy plowing; the first two years they sow it with barley, and the third with oats.

The air is clear and healthy; and, though the winters are severe and tedious, and the summers not very long, yet the excellency of the soil, the cool summer nights, refreshing dews, and succeeding hot days, ripen both their summer and winter corn.

It's principal rivers are the Dwina, the Aa, and the Windaw. There are several lakes here appropriated to the public, called Free Seas, where any noblemen throughout the duchy, though he has no estate near them, has liberty of fishing.

Places of most note are,

1. **WINDAW**, at the mouth of the river aforesaid, near the Baltic. Here formerly the states of Courland held their assemblies, which made it populous; but it is now much decayed, being only supported by building ships for the duke, and by it's trade in pitch, tar, wax, &c. It hath usually a garrison of Poles, but under command of the duke.
2. **LIBAW**, lies on the coast, has a good road and harbour, where the duke's ships are also built, and has the greatest trade of any of his towns.
3. **PILTYN**, on the river Anger, is a palatinate, and the seat of the bishop of Courland.
4. **MITTAW**, on the river Mussa, 32 miles south of Riga, the capital of the whole duchy, and the seat and burial-place of it's dukes, who have a magnificent castle, fortified by two bastions, encompassed by marshes, and has always a strong garrison. The town is meanly built, but well fortified, and large, containing about 12,000 inhabitants. The Aa, on which the castle stands, passes by this city to the Dwina, with a deep channel, which might be navigable, if the people of Riga had not, for their own interest, choaked up the mouth of it.
5. **DAUSKE**, is another strong town, on the same river, with a castle built on a rock, which has a large garrison.

CREDIT, and first of **PRIVATE CREDIT**, in regard to matters of trade.

The ordinary credit practised among persons engaged in commerce of every kind, especially in the smaller way of dealings, is a matter so well known, that we may pass over any obser-

vations on this point, and proceed briefly to consider those kinds of credit which are used among traders of a superior class. These may be reduced under two heads, the borrowing money on credit and the buying and selling commodities on credit.

R E M A R K S on the consequences of long credit in private trade.

Every considerable trader ought to have some estate, stock, or portion of his own, sufficient to enable him to carry on the traffic he is engaged in.

The most judicious traders, like bankers, are always careful to keep their dealings within the extent and tether of the capital, so that no disappointment in their returns may incapacitate them to support their credit.

Yet traders of worth, judgment, and œconomy, may sometimes lie under the necessity of borrowing money, for the carrying on their business to the best advantage; as, when the merchant has commodities on his hands, which he is willing to keep for a rising market, or on account of monies owing him, which he cannot get in in time, wherewith to answer the exigencies of his affairs, or for the payment of customs, &c.—On these occasions, the taking up money at interest is no disreputation, but a great convenience to the carrying on his traffic: but then the borrower ought to be so just to his own reputation, and to his creditors, as to be well assured that he has sufficient effects within his power to pay off his obligations in due time.

But, if the trader shall borrow money to the extent of his credit, and launch out into trade, so as to employ it with the same freedom as if it were his own proper stock; such a way of management is very precarious, and will be attended with dangerous circumstances; for, as trade is liable to unforeseen accidents, if such a trader shall meet with losses or disappointments, and bring his credit into doubt, this may and will draw the demands of all his creditors upon him at once, and render him incapable of drawing in so much of his scattered effects as will pay his debts, and thereby will ruin his credit, although he might believe that he had more than enough to satisfy all the world.

As, therefore, a wife man will trade so cautiously as not to hazard the loss of his own proper estate at once, much more should an honest man be careful not to involve the estates of other men in his personal trading adventures; but he that knows he has lost his own fortune, and endeavours to recover it by trading with the stocks of other men, can have no pretence to the character of either wife or honest.

The dealing for goods on credit was, probably, at first introduced by the trusting of young beginners, whose chiefest, or, perhaps, only stock, might be the opinion of their capacity, industry, and honesty; and, as this is continued to retailers, and such who trade for small sums, it may be reckoned a commendable and useful practice in trade; but whether the practising this in the way of great wholesale traders, in so large a manner as is common in England, may be advantageous to trade, is a consideration that will admit of great doubt.

This maxim we may, however, advance with some confidence, That merchants ought never to purchase their goods for exportation upon long credit, with intent to discharge the debt by the returns of the same goods; for this has an injurious influence upon trade several ways, whereof divers instances may be given. It tends to force trade, and glut the foreign markets with greater quantities of merchandize than is ordinarily required, whereby the price of the commodities comes to be abated, to the prejudice not only of the fair trader, but also of the trade of the nation in general.

When the price of goods is lowered, the manufacturers commonly endeavour to make them worse in quality, that they may be able to sell them at lower prices, and that brings them into disesteem, and, by degrees, stagnates the sale, and transfers the trade to other countries, who supply the same markets with better commodities, because they do not over-stock them. And here it may be remarked, that, for the preventing so great an evil, all our manufactures ought to be strictly kept up to a staple, or test, to warrant their reputation.

He that buys goods for time, must consequently pay the dearer for them, and, as is before observed, must force a sale abroad, that he may have the returns in time, to answer his credit; and if, by the falling the markets, the money-dealer gets little or nothing, he, to be sure, must sell for loss: and, if he makes his returns by merchandize, his necessities compel him to sell his importation immediately, for the raising present money, which oftentimes turns to loss also: so that this way of traffic is not only highly injurious to trade in general, but such traders most commonly undo themselves, and involve others in their ruin.

It should seem, therefore, to be an established principle among merchants, that, when they have occasion to make use of their credit, it should always be for the borrowing of money, but never for the buying of goods, wherein their greatest care ought to be exercised, that they may be purchased at the best hand. Nor is the large credit given to our wholesale traders a prudential or justifiable practice in trade. Previously to entering upon this point, it may be requisite to observe, that it is not used in any other trading nation to that extent as it is in England.

England. If any imagine that the custom of the Dutch contradicts this assertion, because they give three months time upon all contracts, they will find that this credit is only in notion, but nothing less in practice; for the merchant always expects his money, when called for, and allows the buyer 1 per cent. for prompt payment: but, if any dealer should insist upon the time, and refuse to pay 'till the three months are expired, though he may not be sued 'till that time, he loses his reputation, and must expect no more credit.

Nothing is more apparent, than that the original, natural, and genuine way of trade, must have been to buy and sell for ready money, and that the selling large quantities of goods on trust has been superinduced through ill custom, which, with us, by long usage, is become so habitual, that we scarcely attend to the danger and inconveniences, or endeavour to reform it. To give a clear view of this matter, we may observe an instance how it was introduced, and how rectified in a foreign country.

The usual way of vending goods in Spain for the expence of the country, was by the traders of the inland cities, who came to the sea-ports, and purchased with their ready money, from the factors of the several nations residing there; but they never thought of such a thing as the asking for credit, 'till the factors, being overstocked with goods, would persuade them to take more, and pay for them the next journey: thus by degrees, they run into a trusting trade, which continued for some years; but the inland traders being hereby also enabled to give credit to their under-dealers, fell to be more and more behind in their pay, and, being pressed by their factors, most of them, who had lived comfortably while they traded upon their own stocks, came to be ruined by adventuring upon trust; the factors disobliged their principals by contracting great losses by bad debts, whereby many of them lost their business; new factors were sent over, and positive orders given by the principals, to sell none of their goods but for ready money: thus the trade was reduced to it's origin state, and so it long continued, and all parties prospered.

If we look at home, we shall find this mischief radicated in the whole course of our trade, to a degree beyond comparison in any other nation, the greater part of our inland traders, who deal for very great sums, continuing to manage their business in this way; and, though many of them who act with extraordinary prudence and circumspection obtain considerable estates, yet, if they account the slowness of their returns, together with the losses which accrue by the bad debts of such whom they trust again, they might, perhaps, have made far greater improvements, if this way of trusting and being trusted had never been introduced.

On the other hand, it is so natural for young men to aim at the way of living and trading like the wealthy masters whom they have served, that finding credit so easy, and their acquaintance large among the country chapmen, they launch out into trade far beyond the power of their own stock; and, though they may hold it for a time, yet when they meet with disappointments and losses from their under-dealers, and come to fault in their own credit, how many have we seen ruined? and how great the losses they have brought on their creditors? Whence it comes to pass, that the number of bankrupts in England is greater than in other trading countries. As the injury to our trade by this kind of dealing is very manifest, nor an easy task to shew wherein it is at all helpful, it seems to be merely a vice in trade; which, if it could be removed, the trade of the nation would certainly become more flourishing in general, and more beneficial to the individuals therein concerned.

If any should imagine, that this great credit contributes any thing to the promoting and enlarging of trade, this notion will appear groundless, when it shall be considered, that it adds nothing to the vent and consumption of commodities; for there will remain no less occasion for consumption, if this excess of credit were lessened; the only effect thereof being, that it enables people to overstock themselves with goods, and consequently this lies a dead weight on the whole trading stock of the nation, and cramps the merchant in his trade, by the tedious length of the returns.

If it should be further argued, that the lessening of this sort of credit would be a great hindrance to young tradesmen, who begin with small stocks; let it be observed, that men usually place their sons to trades, suitable to the portions they design to give them; and, when they shall receive less credit from the merchant, they will give less credit in their sales with a good grace, and so will continue to hold a share in trade proportionable to their stock, which is as much as the prudent and honest man should aim at: nor can there be any doubt, but, under such a regulation, more tradesmen would thrive, and fewer would miscarry, than under the present misgoverned excess of credit: and, if the want of competent stocks should discourage small shopkeepers, and tend to lessen their numbers for the future, the youth of incompetent fortunes might be bred up to employments, not the less useful to the state; let the younger sons of gentlemen with handsome capitals turn shopkeepers, and others manufacturers and artificers, who are the fundamental stamina of all our commerce.

That there is a possibility of reforming this ill custom, in respect of the buyers, is apparent, from the practice of the East-India company, who make the trader pay for the goods bought, before he receives them; yet we see this is no obstruction to the currency of vending their commodities through the nation. As a multitude of sellers, indeed, cannot be brought to an universal concert in their business, like those who trade upon a joint stock; on their part it will be a work of more difficulty and time, but that should be no discouragement to the attempt.

However, 'tis probable, that some natural courses might be fallen upon, which would by degrees prove effectual for the remedying this corruption in trade; and therefore, to contribute something towards so good a design, I'll take leave to revive the sentiment of Mr Higgs, a very eminent merchant of the city of London, upon the like occasion, who lived in the latter end of king William the III's time: 'Suppose, says he, that the seller of merchandize who gives credit, should require his debtor to give a note under his hand, upon the same paper with the bill of parcels, promising to pay the sum therein mentioned at the time agreed, with interest for any forbearance after due, and that he should get the same to be registered and attested in any court of record, at the seller's direction, upon delivery of which attested note, the debtor shall receive the goods bought; and, in case of non-payment at the time, or to the creditor's satisfaction, he might, without the trouble of suing in the common way (since the bill of parcels and registry make any further proof or trial needless) take out execution, and levy the whole, or what part of the debt remained unpaid, upon the goods of the debtor, when he pleased.

We know, indeed, that the acknowledging of judgment, in the manner now practised, is effectually the same with what is here proposed; but, as that is become a word of terror, and what men in good credit will not submit to, it may be requisite to institute something with a milder appellation in the stead of it, though it may not be the less effectual: and, if upon the first introduction, it can but be brought into common practice, time will familiarise it, and none who desire credit, would scruple compliance; in order to which, it would greatly facilitate the general introduction of this laudable practice, if no judgment was to be valid between trader and trader, but what should be obtained upon trial in open court, and that such registered notes should have preference before all other contracts; but more especially, if no proof for debts upon dealing between tradesmen for the value of above 20 l. were admitted, except what should be registered: was some such provision as this made by law, people in general would easily come into it, and few creditors would trust their goods to buyers, who should refuse to comply with such a security, as could alone subject them to be under the power of the law. This would most certainly make people more cautious in over-buying themselves, bring them to some punctuality in their payments, and, as few men of good estates would care to hamper themselves with such severe obligations, would be likely to bring back the bulky part of dealing, to the old laudable way of buying and selling for ready money.

If the necessitous sort of people should think, that this shortening of credit would prove a grievance, let such consider, that 'tis their improvidence which makes and keeps them poor; if they buy at trust, they must pay for it at one time or other, or be in danger of a gaol; and they know that they pay much more for trust, than if they bought for ready money; so that the paying, at first, will save them what they are obliged to pay at last: this, under the name of saving, is the same as getting; for this difference in price is money merely wasted, because they neither eat, nor drink, nor wear the more for it; and, after all, they need not fear the want of credit for their necessary provision; such credit for a week or two (and they can want no more, when wages is well paid) will always be given to those who maintain an honest reputation.

In the like manner may the rich be argued with: if they run into debt, 'tis their luxury and improvidence that brings and keeps them under such difficulties; it cannot be an unacceptable service to suggest, how they may get rid of these voluntary taxations: let them pay ready money for all they buy, which would save many a gentleman more than the amount of his involuntary taxes: but, perhaps, some are already in debt, and think they can't live without continuing so: let them retrench their expences for a year or two, 'till they get one half year's rent of their estates before-hand, and this would enable them, if they can be content to live upon their own estates, to keep out of debt for ever after: if their incumbrances are too heavy to be so soon discharged, 'tis most prudent to mortgage their estates (if selling absolutely should not be the more eligible) for so much as would clear them, and put them in stock for half a year's expence.— This would answer the end, and induce general oeconomy: if they are so wisely determined as to see the end of their estates, borrowing money, to buy all their superfluities at the best hand, is still the best husbandry, because that would hold out the longest.

Thus, after the difficulties which at first attend general alterations of any kind, are over, all degrees of people will find their account in it; money will become more plenty in circulation; rents will be better paid; improvident people will be induced to frugality; which is the first principle conducive to national as well as private riches.—Tradesmen, who have stocks of their own great or small, would make larger improvements for their families, as well by means of their quicker returns, as by preventing the many losses, which they have been used to sustain from bad debts, as likewise from lessening their number, because then such as have no stock, must live no longer upon the public, but will be obliged to apply themselves to labour, or such other employments as are suitable to their condition; whereby they will become much more useful in their generation.

CREDIT, or PUBLIC CREDIT. The prosperity of the trading as well as the landed interest of these kingdoms always depending upon the flourishing state of the public credit, the reader would naturally expect, consistently with the scope of this work, that an article of such concernment should not be omitted.

To set this matter in a due light, it is necessary to enquire what is meant by the public credit of the nation.

First, Credit may be said to run high, when the commodities of a nation find a ready vent, and are sold at a good price; and when dealers may be safely trusted with them, upon reasonable assurance of being paid.

Secondly, When lands and houses find ready purchasers; and when money is to be borrowed at low interest, in order to carry on trade and manufactures, at such rates as may enable us to undersell our neighbours.

Thirdly, When people think it safe and advantageous to venture large stocks in trade and dealing, and do not lock up their money in chests, or hide it under-ground. And,

Fourthly, When notes, mortgages, and public and private security will pass for money, or easily procure money, by selling for as much silver or gold as they are security for; which can never happen, but upon a presumption that the same money may be had for them again.

In all these cases, 'tis abundantly the interest of a nation, to promote credit and mutual confidence; and the only possible way effectually to do this, is to maintain public honour and honesty; to provide speedy remedies for private injustice and oppression; to protect the innocent and helpless from being destroyed by fraud and rapine.

But national credit can never be supported by lending money without security, or drawing in other people to do so; by raising stocks and commodities by artifice and fraud, to unnatural and imaginary values; and consequently, delivering up helpless women and orphans, with the ignorant and unwary, but industrious subject, to be devoured by pickpockets, stock-jobbers, and bubble-mongers; a sort of vermin that are bred and nourished in the corruption of the state.

This is a method, which, instead of preserving public credit, destroys all property; turns the stock and wealth of a nation out of the important channels of trade and commerce; and, instead of nourishing the body politic, produces only ulcers, eruptions, and often epidemic plague-fores: it starves the poor, misguides and impoverishes the rich, destroys manufactures, ruins our navigation, and raises general murmurs and disquietudes, which often terminate in nothing less than insurrections, &c.

An idea of the public credit being, at present, in the ordinary acceptation, confined to the state and condition of the public funds, debts, and money-transactions of the nation, we shall, under this article, refrain ourselves to these considerations, and give a short sketch of the essential parts of their history, from the death of queen Anne to the present time, which will be a retrospect sufficient under this general head.

After two such bloody and expensive wars, as those were of king William and queen Anne, it was full time to think of effectual ways and means to lessen those heavy national debts and incumbrances we had incurred, and to cultivate the arts of peace and traffic, which alone could put public affairs in a flourishing condition.

To which end, no expedient appeared adequate to that great work, 'till the irredeemable debts were brought into a state of redemption, in order to reduce the high interest of the public creditors, and appropriate the savings thereby made, to the establishment of a substantial fund to sink the principal debt. This was done, effectually done, by those wise and salutary measures, and the sinking fund for that purpose, in consequence thereof, had it's being and existence. And, to such a height was this fund raised in the year 1727, by the reduction of interest of the principal part of the national debts, from 6 to 5, and afterwards from 5 to 4 per cent. in conjunction with the increase of the duties of those funds, whose surplussages constituted the sinking fund, that it amounted to no less than 1,200,000 l.

Here was presented the most desirable prospect that could be wished, for discharging our national debts; the whole of which being reckoned at about 50 millions, at 4 per cent. we will suppose; by the inviolable application of this fund to the pay-

ment of such debts, would have absolutely discharged the same, in so short a term as 25 years and 1 month, without reducing the interest of the public creditors lower than to 4 per cent. So that by this time, from the efficacious operation of this fund, had it been no otherwise applied, it would have paid 50 millions of debt.

Let it be supposed, that the exigences of public affairs required, as fast as the old national debt was discharging annually by the said sinking fund of 1,200,000 l. when the interest of the funds was at 4 per cent. to contract annually a fresh debt, even of the same sum of 1,200,000 l. the question I would beg leave to put is, whether, under such circumstances, it was more for the interest of the nation, and the support of public credit, that this, 1,200,000 l. of fresh debt, should be taken out of the sinking fund, and applied to the current service, or that the said 1,200,000 l. should have been raised by fresh loans, upon NEW FUNDS, created for the payment of the like annual interest thereof?

To many this may appear to be the same thing to the nation; for, say they, if the nation pays off one year 1,200,000 l. of the public debt, by means of the sinking fund, and contracts a fresh debt of the same sum of 1,200,000 l. by fresh loans upon NEW FUNDS, wherein is the difference to the public? This question, indeed, is very natural to be asked; but reason and the power of numbers will shew a very great difference, in point of interest to the kingdom. For, if 1,200,000 l. was annually raised for 25 years and 1 month together, by fresh loans upon new funds, the fresh principal debt which the nation should hereby contract, would be 25 times 1,200,000 l. which is 30 millions, and for the odd month we will say the $\frac{1}{12}$ part of the said 1,200,000 l. which would have made the whole fresh principal debt to have been 30,100,000 l. To which, if the interest of the 1,200,000 l. is paid annually, as we suppose the sinking fund to be paid annually to discharge the old debt of 50 millions, at the same rate of interest, being 4 per cent. the annuity to be paid for interest of the fresh debt of 1,200,000 l. will be 48,000 l. which, in 25 years and 1 month, will amount to the sum of 1,304,000 l. This interest money being added to the foregoing principal fresh debt of 30,100,000 l. will make the sum total 31,304,000 l.

But, as a sinking fund of 1,200,000 l. steadily and inviolably applied for 25 years and one month, will discharge a debt of 50 millions, and the raising of 1,200,000 l. per ann. a fresh debt upon new funds, will contract a principal debt of no more than 30,100,000 l. in the same term of 25 years and one month, together with interest paid, which makes the whole no more than 31,304,000 l.: so much as the difference is between 50 millions of money, and 31,304,000 l. is what the nation would have saved, by preferring the one method of raising of the money to the other; and that amounts to no less a national saving in 25 years and one month, than the round sum of EIGHTEEN MILLIONS, SIX HUNDRED AND NINETY SIX THOUSAND POUNDS.

As this may a little surprize people, who are unacquainted with the power of numbers, I shall endeavour to explain this mystery; which will be seen through in an instant, by any tolerable arithmetician, when I only say, that, in the case of applying the annual sinking fund of 1,200,000 l. inviolably to the payment of the old debt of 50 millions, the nation would have reaped the benefit of compound interest; whereas in the raising annually of a fresh principal debt of 1,200,000 l. upon new funds, the nation pays only simple interest for the said principal debt, as it is contracted.

For the reader is desired to observe, that the annual income of the sinking fund, in this manner applied, to the discharge of the 50 millions of the principal of the public debts, increases yearly, in the same manner and proportion, as a principal sum put out and continued at compound interest, or interest upon interest, at such a rate of interest as the principal sum to be paid off is supposed to carry: that the increase of the sinking fund, in every year, is made by the interest of that principal sum, which was paid off the year next before it; and that the whole of the increase of the sinking fund, in any one year from the beginning, to apply the same in discharge of the principal debt of 50 millions, is the sum of the interest of all the principal sums that have been in the year before paid off by it; and that the whole of the debt proposed to be paid off by a sinking fund, in this manner applied, will be completely discharged the year before the sinking fund itself is increased, by the addition of the whole interest of the debt to be paid off.

If then the preceding computations can stand the test, it will appear, that the above sinking fund, in this manner increasing, by the addition of the interest of the principal sums in every year paid off, and consequently by additions in every year greater than those made to it in the year before, would have been sufficient, not only to have discharged the whole even of our present debts, but any probable addition that should in the mean time be made to them, by fresh loans on new invented funds, in a few years after the present debts would have been discharged; and that the time required for the discharge of our debts, increased by an addition in the manner before represented, would by no means have been lengthened

ened out, or the payment of the whole of our debts by the sinking fund retarded, in proportion to the addition to, or increase of the debt itself: the total payment of our debts becoming by no means desperate by such a permanent sinking fund, upon account of any determined additional debt, unless such additional debts are supposed to be continued increasing in every year in the same, or a greater proportion to one another, than that in which the additions yearly made to the sinking fund shall increase.

See the articles INTEREST, and COMPOUND INTEREST, where all the cases, and varieties arising upon calculations of this kind, shall be fully shewn and illustrated by examples. It would, however, be true, that if at any time, on the discharge of any part of the principal debt, the interest were not added to, and applied to the farther discharge of the remaining debt, but another equal or greater principal sum

should be borrowed on the same annuity, the progress of a sinking fund would, by such measures, be stopped, if the same sum were borrowed; and, if a greater sum was borrowed, it would be put backwards: but, as long as these measures should not be taken, or such a sinking fund diverted to any other purpose than the discharge of our debts, the effectual payment of them, is, by this expedient, by no means to be despair'd of, from the increase of them by fresh loans on new duties.

To such who are not well enough acquainted with numbers to discern the reason of what has been said, with regard to the efficacy of the sinking fund, the following tables may be useful, they representing how such a fund of a million only, would have operated upon a debt of 50 millions, by being reduced from 6 to 4 per cent. from the year 1727; and also how a sinking fund of 1,500,000 l. would have operated upon the like debt, had it then been reduced to 3 per cent.

COMPUTATIONS at 4 per Cent.

	Payments made at Mid-summer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1728	1,000,000	0	0	1,000,000	0	0
	40,000	0	0			
1729	1,040,000	0	0	2,040,000	0	0
	41,600	0	0			
1730	1,081,600	0	0	3,121,600	0	0
	43,264	0	0			
1731	1,124,864	0	0	4,246,464	0	0
	44,994	11	2			
1732	1,169,858	11	2	5,416,322	11	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
	46,794	6	10			
1733	1,316,652	18	0	6,632,975	9	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
	48,666	2	3			
1734	1,265,319	0	4	7,898,294	9	5 $\frac{1}{8}$
	50,612	15	2			
1735	1,315,931	15	6	9,214,226	4	11 $\frac{7}{8}$
	52,637	5	5			
1736	1,368,569	0	11	10,582,795	5	10 $\frac{3}{8}$
	54,742	15	2			
1737	1,423,311	16	2	12,006,107	2	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
	56,932	9	5			
1738	1,480,244	5	7	13,486,351	7	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
	59,209	15	2			
1739	1,539,454	0	10	15,025,805	8	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
	61,578	3	2			
1740	1,601,032	4	0	16,626,837	12	7
	64,041	5	9			
1741	1,665,073	9	10	18,291,911	2	5
	66,602	18	9			
1742	1,731,676	8	7	20,023,587	11	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
	69,267	1	1			
1743	1,800,943	9	9	21,824,531	0	9 $\frac{3}{4}$
	72,037	14	9			
1744	1,872,981	4	6	23,697,512	5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	74,919	4	11			
1745	1,947,900	9	6	25,645,412	14	10
	77,916	0	4			
1746	2,025,816	9	11	27,671,229	4	9
	81,032	13	2			
1747	2,106,849	3	1	29,778,078	7	10 $\frac{1}{4}$
	84,273	19	3			
1748	2,191,123	2	5	31,969,201	10	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
	87,644	18	6			
1749	2,278,768	0	11	34,247,969	11	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
	91,150	14	1			
1750	2,369,918	15	0	36,617,988	6	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
	94,796	15	0			
1751	2,464,715	10	0	39,082,703	16	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
	98,588	12	4			
1752	2,563,304	2	4	41,646,007	18	7
	102,532	3	3			
1753	2,665,836	5	8	44,311,844	4	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
	106,633	9	0			
1754	2,772,469	14	8	47,094,313	19	0
	110,898	15	9			
1755	2,883,368	10	6	49,977,682	9	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
	115,334	14	9	22,317	10	5 $\frac{3}{4}$
1756	2,998,703	5	4	50,000,000	0	0
	1,296	14	8			
	3,000,000	0	0			

COMPUTATIONS at 3 per cent.

	Payments made at Mid-summer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1728	1,500,000	0	0	1,500,000	0	0
	45,000	0	0			
1729	1,545,000	0	0	3,045,000	0	0
	46,350	0	0			
1730	1,591,350	0	0	4,636,350	0	0
	47,740	10	0			
1731	1,639,090	10	0	6,275,440	10	0
	49,272	14	0			
1732	1,688,363	4	0	7,963,803	14	0
	50,650	17	4			
1733	1,739,014	1	4	9,702,817	15	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
	52,170	8	5			
1734	1,791,184	9	9	11,494,002	5	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
	53,735	10	8			
1735	1,844,920	0	6	13,338,922	5	7 $\frac{3}{4}$
	55,347	12	0			
1736	1,900,267	12	6	15,239,189	18	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
	57,008	0	6			
1737	1,957,275	13	0	17,196,465	11	2
	58,718	0	6			
1738	2,015,993	13	6	19,212,459	4	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
	60,479	16	2			
1739	2,076,473	9	8	21,289,032	14	5
	62,544	4	1			
1740	2,139,017	13	9	23,428,050	8	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
	64,170	10	7			
1741	2,203,188	4	5	25,631,238	12	7 $\frac{3}{4}$
	66,095	12	11			
1742	2,269,283	17	4	27,900,522	10	0
	68,078	10	3			
1743	2,337,362	7	8	30,237,884	17	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
	70,120	17	5			
1744	2,407,483	5	1	32,645,368	2	10
	72,224	9	11			
1745	2,479,707	15	1	35,125,075	17	11
	74,391	4	7			
1746	2,554,098	19	8	37,679,174	17	7 $\frac{3}{4}$
	76,622	19	4			
1747	2,630,721	19	1	40,309,896	16	8 $\frac{3}{4}$
	78,921	13	2			
1748	2,709,643	12	3	43,019,540	8	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
	81,269	6	2			
1749	2,790,932	18	5	45,810,473	7	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
	83,727	19	9			
1750	2,874,660	18	2	48,685,134	5	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
	86,239	16	8	1,314,865	14	5 $\frac{3}{4}$
1751	2,960,900	14	10	50,000,000	0	0
	39,999	5	1			
	3,000,000	0	0			

Thus it appears, if what has been said be duly attended to, that, if the sinking fund of 1,200,000 l. interest at 4 per cent. had been sacredly applied to the payment of the old debt of about fifty millions, in the year 1727, and we had contracted a million of fresh principal debt every year from that time, upon new funds at 4 per cent. interest, the nation would now, in the year 1752, have been no more than 24,000,000 l. in debt; which would have disburthened the kingdom of a national debt of above fifty millions: and this, we humbly conceive, would have proved an infinitely better support to the public credit, than all the schemes and projects that have been broached from the time of the establishment of the sinking fund to this day.

We know, by lamentable experience, what effects tampering with the funds in the year 1720 had on the public credit; and we also know, that no service whatever was done to the public credit by the scheme of reduction of interest proposed in the year 1736. For, although the title of a pamphlet now before me, reported to have been written by the honourable gentleman who proposed that scheme, says, Reasons for the more speedy lessening the national debt, and taking off the most burthenfome of the taxes: yet, with all humble submission to the judgment of that great man, the contrary we see is demonstrable; for no measures can ever expedite the payment of the national debt so soon as a permanent sinking fund, without the diminution of taxes. For if, according to that scheme, the nation had saved 1 per cent. upon fifty millions, and had taken off taxes to the amount of 500,000 l. per annum, how could such measures have put the national debt into a more expeditious way of redemption, than by adding the saving of 500,000 l. per annum to the sinking fund, and to have invariably applied the whole money that ever the sinking fund produced to that purpose?

The primary and fundamental principle of reducing the interest of the public creditors, was in order to establish and increase the sinking fund from time to time, with intent to accelerate the payment of the principal debt, and to be a certain security to the national creditors, that their principal debt was in a fair way to be paid; nay, was as certain and secure of being paid, as their interest itself. This was the grand pillar upon which the public credit was fixed by the establishment of a sinking fund; and, 'till the sinking fund is effectually redeemed, and sacredly and inviolably applied to the payment of our national debts (which, we have seen, might have been greatly advanced by it, and yet the nation have borrowed money by fresh loans upon new funds) the public credit of this kingdom can never be settled upon its right basis, let whatever other projects be hatched, under that specious colour. Beside, did it not cost the nation above three millions in the public accounts, in order to put the old national debt into a state of redemption? To attempt, therefore, to render the debt again irredeemable for 14 years, as was proposed by the scheme of 1736, was not that undoing what had cost the nation so much money to bring about.

The grand principle upon which the reduction of interest was first founded, was, as before observed, for the establishment of a sinking fund, for a security to the public creditors that their principal should certainly be paid; but, if the public creditors had been told that all the savings by the reduction of their interest was to be applied to the current service, I am persuaded they would never have acquiesced to have made their irredeemable debts redeemable, and, consequently, their interest could not have been reduced at all. And, indeed, if the long and short annuities, &c. had been continued in their original state, perhaps, the public credit of the nation would have been in a better condition than it has been since the sinking fund was otherwise applied, than it seems, in the opinion of many, to have been first intended.

The great argument for the reduction of interest has been the large sums that are paid to foreigners for interest of that proportion of the national debt which is due to them. But if the sinking fund had been applied only to the payment of the old debt before 1727, and all new debts that we have contracted since had only been amongst ourselves, and all foreigners had been excluded from becoming creditors of the nation, this would have effectually prevented any money going out of the kingdom for the payment of interest to foreigners; and, had the public credit been duly supported by a permanent sinking fund of a million and an half, and we had raised a new debt of a million a year, among ourselves, such would have been the flourishing state of the public credit, I am inclined to believe that we should not have had occasion for one shilling of the money of foreigners. This, also, would have preserved the Dutch course of exchange always in our favour, instead of the contrary, which has been the case ever since we have been millions indebted to foreigners; and I am afraid that this is a greater disadvantage to our commerce with Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and many parts of Germany, than most people are aware of. See the article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN. All tampering with the funds, in order to reduce the interest lower and lower, we humbly conceive is not the natural way to support the public credit in a flourishing condition, unless these savings are applied to an inviolable sinking fund for the payment of the principal debt. Nor is the occasional high

price of stocks a conclusive argument, as some would have us believe, of the good plight of the public credit, because this may be easily brought about by art, to answer temporary purposes, and at length to reduce the interest of the public funds, even to nothing.

Let us suppose, upon the existence of a large sinking fund, when the interest of the public creditors was 4 per cent. that a minister of great abilities has the management of the Treasury, and a great influence on the directors of the Bank of England, who have a thorough confidence in his veracity, as well as discernment; that he endeavours to reduce the interest of the public creditors, with a view to increase the sinking fund, in order to sink part of the national debts. If the affairs of the nation run smoothly, and without any fears, we conceive such a minister will be able to effect this reduction, without bringing any additional sum of money into the nation; that is, without the nation being the richer to induce it to give real cause for such a reduction of interest. If the minister directs the Bank to strike Bank notes for large sums (promising, or engaging, in the name of the legislature, to indemnify the Bank in case of any sudden call for ready money) for which no ready money has been deposited, directs these notes to be offered for stock, and effectually proposes good parcels of stock to be bought gradually, the stocks will rise in the alterations, and the owners of the stock who sold it finding the price to continue high, and not being in the channels of commerce to make an interest otherwise of their money, will want to buy in again, rather than let their bank notes lie idle.

They will, perhaps, try to lend out their money upon mortgages; but the notion of a reduction of interest, and the increase of the number of lenders, occasioned by the operation, will make those who mortgage their estates demand money at 4 per cent. and all this while there will be no occasion for ready money, but for the interest of the stocks, and of the mortgages (for here we do not suppose new mortgages, but a paying off of old mortgages seems to require ready money, and will increase the number of borrowers, and raise interest) for the capitals in both may be paid in bank bills: and so, while this game is slowly and dextrously managed, the high prices of stock go gradually diminishing the interest of the public creditors; and when the minister has, by these methods, reduced the interest under 4 per cent. in the public funds, mortgages, and great payments, he will be able to get in the bank notes he ordered to be struck, by selling the stock bought, and leaving it, perhaps, in the hands of the first owners at a higher price.

By offering reimbursement, the minister may easily bring the proprietors of redeemable funds to take 2 per cent. instead of 4 per cent. and be satisfied with the same funds at that price. And thus, by increasing the saving fund, he may effectually pay off some part of the capital, and so diminish the debt, and increase the number of lenders.

The like ends may be attained by an able minister, if he can, by his own example, and assurances of lowering interest, engage such as have by them large parcels of bank notes, to buy stocks upon such encouragement, and borrow bank bills of others to buy stocks, and keep them in their hands 'till those who sold them want to buy in again at high prices.

All this, I say, an able minister may do by means of credit, without any sensible alteration in the increase, or circulation, of the species of the nation, which will not be much influenced by these operations; only, indeed, here and there some of the specie-lenders of the first class, seeing a general notion of the reduction of interest by the example of that in the funds, will more readily give way to the alterations. But this will not affect the fish-women of Billingsgate, who pay a shilling a week interest for a guinea; nor will the wool-merchant sell his wool to the hatter for time the cheaper; and all the lowest undertakers, who are the sources of interest, will continue in our speculation much as they did before; and, by that time the minister's operations are at an end, and the owners of stocks sit down with them at an interest of 3 per cent. the proportion of specie lenders and borrowers being not at all altered, the interest of hard money will appear to be still 4 per cent. upon good security, and the stocks will consequently return to their proportion, and fall accordingly. For, if interest can be had for specie on good security at 4 per cent. the owner of stock, who at this time has but 3 per cent. will sell out, and draw in the value of his stock in specie, to lend it; and the sale of stock will consequently fall the price of it.

From what has been said it is pretty plain, from the foregoing considerations, that banks and credit have a vast influence upon the rise and fall of stocks and public funds, where a project is laid for the raising of their price, when there is no additional sum of specie required: but they have not so great an influence upon the general circulation, and barter of a nation, which is mostly gathered from minute payments into large sums, and from such sums distributed into minute payments, all which require specie.

In the South-Sea time, 1720, the capital of South-Sea stock was at 1000, and those of the bubbles, at the then high rates, were computed to amount to 800 millions sterling; and the half-yearly interest of the South-Sea capital, at 1000, would have

have required ten millions sterling, which was, perhaps, more than all the circulating money then in England.

Yet credit and paper-circulation kept this mighty fabric up, so long as no more specie was required in circulation than usual; but, when the prospect of so much imaginary wealth made people increase their expences greatly, and bring in great quantities of foreign commodities for their luxury (both which articles were to be answered by ready money) the machine tumbled in a few months. This example justifies what has been suggested, that, in particular cases, as in that of buying and selling of stocks, banks and credit may produce surprizing effects, where the management may not require any additional circulation of specie.

If a minister should, by means of the credit of a bank, try to reduce interest in a nation forcibly from 4 to 2, by offering to lend bank notes to all people at 2 per cent. he may probably unhinge his whole project; and whereas several in that case, who are diffident of the success, sell out their stock, and call in their specie, they stop the channel of circulation, and cause such a call on the Bank, as will soon blow it up. This was the case at Paris in 1719 and 1720, though the scheme there was not wholly for reduction of interest; but, the other operations at Paris not relating to our present purpose; we shall not now examine the causes of the miscarriage there.

If then the lowering of interest is effected by artificial contrivances, such as Mr. Locke calls the shuffling of property from one hand to another, and which, as he observes, will put our affairs into disorder: if so, none of these advantages that necessarily flow from a natural low interest, can be expected: instead of it's being the significant symptom of a prosperous situation of our affairs, it will not a little contribute to bring us into a consumptive condition. 'The nation may look well,' said a great man in the house of commons, to all outward appearance; the national interest of money may be lower than ever it was, and may continue so for some time, and yet that nation may be in a galloping consumption; and it is to be feared, that, if some people are not stopped in their career of tampering with the funds, they will at length give such a blow to the public credit, as cannot be easily, if ever effectually restored. Nor can any measures lastingly preserve it, but the steady redemption of the sinking fund; for certainly it can never be sound policy to mortgage that fund, on which alone we depend for our redemption.

National wealth and power, and, consequently, the good state of public credit, consist in numbers of people employed in trade and manufactures, and in magazines of home and foreign commodities, wherewith to supply other nations, and thereby increase our navigation. It is only the solid advancement of our commerce, and so regulating the same as to preserve the general balance in our favour, that can prove the effectual and permanent means of upholding the public credit of the kingdom. The fall, therefore, or rise of interest, as Mr Locke again observes, causing neither more or less land, money, or commodities, than there was before, cannot contribute to this, that being a NATURAL AND NECESSARY CONSEQUENCE ARISING THEREFROM; that is to say, the lowness of interest is not the cause, but the effect, of riches. This that great man confirms in another place, where he says, That the lowness of interest in Holland is not the effect of politic contrivance in the government to promote trade, but as the consequence of the great plenty of money. So that the flourishing state of trade does not depend on the lowness of interest, but as it is a means of supplying the trader with money proportional to the demands of trade: wherefore, it is not forcing down the interest of money by any unnatural measures, that will promote commerce, which alone can maintain the public credit upon a substantial basis; and, before schemes are hatched for the reduction of the interest of the national creditor still further and further, in order to force people into trade, as is pretended by some, ought they not first to cut out new branches of trade, wherein the public creditors may beneficially employ their money? When this is the case, the interest of money will reduce itself.

Some people, it seems, give out that there is to be no end of the reduction of interest: if so, numbers of the public creditors must break into their principal, or starve. The interest we pay to foreigners is doubtless a grievance; and will not what we have humbly suggested, lay the ax to the root of that grievance? Let the sinking fund be absolutely freed from it's incumbrances, and inviolably applied to the payment of our present debts; and, if we run more into debt, let it be to ourselves only, and then it will matter not whether the interest be further lowered or no; for, in that case, the more interest-money the public creditors received, the more would be the spending-money of the nation. But, if the interest is reduced so low that the public creditors have little or no money to spend, must not trade suffer in proportion, or must not thousands and thousands of the public creditors be undone, by subsisting on their principal?

Upon the whole it appears, we humbly conceive, that the diverting the sinking fund from the payment of those national debts which were contracted before the year 1716, was a very unluckily mistake in the public measures. That it was not done intentionally I have very good grounds to believe,

but really from not considering the weight of what is humbly submitted to the public attention; and, although the emergencies of state have occasioned this fund of redemption to be applied to the current service, yet I am willing to flatter myself, that one day it will be disburthened from it's incumbrances; and I could wish, I could rejoice, that the present administration, or any other, would in earnest undertake this desirable work, being convinced that they would reap as great glory by redeeming the sinking fund, and applying it to the payment of the increased debt, as their predecessors had honour in it's first establishment. And,

If that once comes to pass, what will this nation have to fear either from the haughty insults of the Spaniard, or the undermining machinations of the French? For, as the sinking fund would steadily go on discharging our present debts, so, whenever the emergencies of the government required further loans, within the limits of what sum should be annually discharged; such loans being made upon new funds, what power could ever presume to trifle, or maltreat these kingdoms? Our sovereign, and his ministry, would have such weight and influence at every court in Europe, that the name of a Briton would be revered over the whole globe.—And, when our present national debts were absolutely discharged, and those taxes taken off from our trade that have been appropriated for the payment of the interest and principal of our debts, we shall be enabled to afford our produce and manufactures so cheap at foreign markets, that no nation will be able to rival and supplant us.—We shall then be able to support the sovereignty of the seas, and the balance of power in reality; dissipate all schemes both at home and abroad, that shall be hatched for the destruction of this the best of constitutions, for preserving the liberties and properties of all who live under it.

But if, on the contrary, no efficacious measures shall be taken to procure and preserve to the kingdom a proper fund, to sink the national incumbrances; if the public credit of these kingdoms is never to have a steady and invariable fund to support it, by convincing the whole world that, though our debts are great, yet that we can certainly and easily pay them, even though we should be forced into a fresh war: when this comes once more to be the state of these kingdoms, men of the highest honour and integrity will cheerfully enter into the service of their king and country, and the nation will be able liberally to reward them for their zeal in their country's interest; which brings to my mind the generous sentiments of Mr Hutcheson, who somewhat says, if I remember right, That; rather than ministers of state should have any motives to induce them to retard the payment of the national debts, he would propose every able and honest minister who would zealously promote their discharge, should be allowed by parliament half a million, or more, for himself and his family, that he might have no temptation to obstruct a work of so great emolument to the kingdom, and so honourable to himself.

But if, says the same gentleman, a conduct contrary to this be held, will it not give just reason to suspect, that there is nothing less in view than the discharge of the public debts? and that all that is intended by the designed lessening of interest, is only to provide new funds for such debts as the ill management of a ministry shall think fit to bring upon the nation! And so a fund of three millions, which, at the rate of six per cent. per annum, is sufficient to answer the interest of a debt of fifty millions, at the rate of five per cent. per annum, will be sufficient to answer the interest of a debt of sixty millions, and, at the rate of four per cent. per annum; to answer a debt of seventy-five millions, &c.

And in this manner a designing ministry may be able to increase the national debt to a moiety more than it at present is, without raising any new taxes on the people: but, if the debt should once increase to so monstrous a bulk, by reduction only of interest to so low a rate, and without any new provision of funds, will there be afterwards a possibility for the discharge thereof? And it is very easy to guess what the consequence would be, if the nation once saw that they were to groan, not for a few years, but for ever, under so insupportable a load: therefore it is impossible to hope, that the proprietors of the funds will concur in the lessening their own present income, if they have any grounds left them to suspect that this will be so far from securing to them the repayment of their principal, that, instead thereof, it may be a most effectual method intirely to defeat the same.

Among the many advantages that accrued to this kingdom by the happy revolution in 1688, the parliamentary settlement of the revenues and expence of the nation is not the least to be valued. Before that period of time, the incomes and issues of the public revenue were intirely in the disposition of the crown, and so blended together, that our liberties were precarious at home, and we could never be sure that the kingdom was in such a posture of defence, as to be safe from foreign invasions; but now, by annual sessions of parliament, the care of settling and providing ways and means of making annual supplies for the navy, guards, and garrisons, lies upon the legislature; and we need not be apprehensive that any minister can be able to hurt the constitution, or endanger the safety of the nation, by misapplication of the public money,

without censure : the state of the navy is laid before the houses of lords and commons every winter, and made out in the most exact and authentic manner from the proper officers.

King Charles II. suffered the fleet of England to moulder away to nothing ; and King James II. made a shift to get a standing army, without the consent of parliament ; which, if it had been false to God and their country, might have been a sufficient instrument to have subverted the constitution of the government : but the good providence that watched over the liberty of the nation, permitted that weak prince to attempt a force upon the conscience, before he had secured the sword or the purse. Now, since the revolution, provision is made by parliamentary grants of money, from year to year, for maintaining a settled number of land forces, and no more than are absolutely necessary for the support of the honour and dignity of the crown, and for the security of the kingdom at home, and from any sudden insult from abroad. As these forces are kept up by consent of parliament, and are very regularly and well paid, they are not likely to be any way dangerous to our liberties : all hazards in future times of this nature are prevented, by the present disposition of the revenues of the kingdom.

But, that we may pass a right judgment upon the public revenues, let us look as far back as the year 1721, when they fell into the channel in which they have ever since so happily continued. The credit of the nation was at that time upon the brink of ruin ; the unfortunate sufferers by the South-Sea scheme were become formidable even to the government itself, being joined by the Jacobites and malecontented pretenders to patriotism ; and these men (as we have frequently found by experience) are like Sampson's foxes, linked close together by the tails, though their heads stand different ways. And, indeed, it cannot be otherwise, when the joint work of them both was to inflame : besides, at this critical time, several of the robbers and highwaymen of the year 1720 cunningly joined themselves with the hue and cry, which did very much contribute to the hurry of the pursuit, and increase the noise, the fury, and clamour : yet, notwithstanding all the difficulties of this too general calamity, which the year 1720 brought upon us, the scene soon changed, under the prudence and moderation of a steady direction : a clear head and an honest heart worked through all these difficulties, public credit revived, and money was soon borrowed at very low interest, to carry on the current service of the government ; stocks have had no other rise or fall than what was occasioned by the management of the gamesters of the alley, in which the credit of the kingdom is no more concerned, than it is in the question, who wins or loses at the Bath or Newmarket.

Care has been taken duly to pay the interest to the creditors of the public ; and, as we have no reason to despair of the establishment of a permanent sinking fund, so the public creditors will then be as secure in the payment of their principal, as they are at present of their interest.

It is true, says Sir J—B—, in the year 1736, in defence of his scheme for the reduction of interest, some modern politicians have run upon a notion, and several persons are weak enough to believe, that the not paying off the public debt will engage people the more to preserve the present government. This policy, indeed, of theirs would hold good, if it could be made out that the public creditors are stronger, and more in number, than those concerned in the payments to the public. But it rather seems to hold in sense and reason, That the throne of that prince, in a free nation, must be most firmly established, whose affairs will permit him to ask, or who desires to collect, the fewest taxes from his people. See the articles DUTIES, FUNDS, INTEREST, NATIONAL DEBTS.

Here then we find that the sentiments of this honourable gentleman were very clear and express in regard to the necessity of the discharge of the national incumbrances ; and, from the title of his reasons given in vindication of his scheme, it seems to be intended rather to accelerate, than retard, that great work : which, to comprehend, I am quite at a loss, as it proposed, if I understand the design right, the taking the same annuity off in taxes as was intended to be saved by the reduction of interest : which taking off taxes that were appropriated by parliament for the inviolable payment not only of the interest of the public creditors, but, in the judgment of many great men, for the redemption of their principal debt also, could never expedite and hasten the discharge of the debts ; nothing can ever do that, but the taking off taxes, in consequence of such payment, in an honourable and parliamentary way. Nor could these taxes, we apprehend, without consent of the public creditors, and consistent with the faith of parliament, have been taken off, till the principal debt for which they were mortgaged was justly and duly discharged. For, when the public creditors lend their money upon any certain fund which may be proposed, to induce them to such loans, do they not always consider, whether such funds are likely to prove effectual in answering the conditions offered to them ? If the fund offered to them is liable to fail of good security for the due and regular payment of their interest, they are never readily induced to part with

their property upon such a precarious foundation. Nor, if such fund is subject to be annihilated, or any way alienated from its primary intention, will people lend their money upon it ?

In regard to all funds, therefore, that have been, or shall be appropriated by parliament, as a security for the payment of the annuity of the national creditors, it can never be consonant to the faith of parliament either to take them off, or otherwise apply them, without the concurrence of those creditors to whom such funds have been, or shall be mortgaged, for their security : wherefore it is the sense of parliament that these funds should not be temporary, but perpetual, till the redemption of the principal. Nay, we further humbly conceive and it has been the sentiment of some of the greatest men in the kingdom, that such funds are as inviolably bound for the repayment of the principal debt, as the interest ; and, therefore, the funds proposed ought always to have afforded a sinking fund, that would have discharged the debt in a reasonable number of years, and not only a scanty annuity : had this been always the case, with respect to all the debts that we have gradually contracted, as secure provision would have been made for the repayment of the principal, as for the interest.

And till a certain and clear, unincumbered, and permanent sinking fund, for the payment of the national debts, in a reasonable number of years, does take place, it is my humble opinion that the public credit of this kingdom will never be bottomed on a solid foundation ; seeing our PUBLIC DEBTS are almost trebled since the reign of queen Anne.

As our funds, indeed, are at present circumstanced, 'Public securities, as the ingenious Mr Hume observes, are with us become a kind of money, and pass as readily at the current price as gold and silver. Wherever any profitable undertaking offers itself, however expensive, there are never wanting hands enough to embrace it ; nor need a trader, who has sums in the public stocks, fear to launch out into the most extensive trade ; since he is possessed of funds, which will answer the most sudden demand that can be made upon him. No merchant thinks it necessary to keep by him any considerable cash. Bank stock, or India bonds, especially the latter, serve to all the same purposes ; because he can dispose of them, or pledge them to a banker, in a quarter of an hour ; and at the same time they are not idle, even when in his scrutore, but bring him in a constant revenue.

In short, our national debts furnish merchants with a species of money, that is continually multiplying in their hands, and produce sure gain, besides the profits of their commerce. This must enable them to trade upon less profit. The small profit of the merchant, renders the commodity cheaper, causes a greater consumption, quickens the labour of the common people, and helps to spread arts and industry through the whole society.

There are also, we may observe, in England, and in all states, that have both commerce and public debts, a set of men, who are half merchants, half stock-holders, and may be supposed willing to trade for small profits ; because commerce is not their principal or sole support, and their revenues in the funds are a sure resource for themselves and their families. Were there no funds, great merchants would have no expedient for realizing or securing any part of their profit, but by making purchases of land, and land has many disadvantages in comparison of funds. Requiring more care and inspection, it divides the time and attention of the merchant ; upon any tempting offer or extraordinary accident in trade, it is not so easily converted into money ; and as it attracts too much, both by the many natural pleasures it affords, and the authority it gives, it soon converts the citizen into the country gentleman. More men, therefore, with large stocks and incomes, may naturally be supposed to continue in trade, where there are public debts : and this, it must be owned, is of some advantage to commerce, by diminishing its profits, promoting circulation, and encouraging industry*.

* On this head, I shall observe, without interrupting the thread of the argument, that the multiplicity of our public debts serves rather to sink the interest, and that, the more the government borrows, the cheaper may they expect to borrow ; contrary to first appearance, and contrary to common opinion. The profits of trade have an influence on interest.

But, in opposition to these two favourable circumstances, perhaps of no very great importance, weigh the many disadvantages that attend our public debts, in the whole interior oeconomy of the state : you will find no comparison betwixt the ill and the good, that result from them.

First, 'Tis certain, that national debts cause a mighty influence of people and riches to the capital, by the great sums which are levied in the provinces to pay the interest of those debts ; and perhaps too by the advantages in trade above-mentioned, which they give the merchants in the capital above the rest of the kingdom. The question is, Whether, in our case, it be for the public interest, that so many privileges should be conferred on London, which has already arrived at such an enormous size, and seems still increasing ?

increasing? Some men are apprehensive of the consequences. For my part, I cannot forbear thinking, that, though the head is undoubtedly too big for the body, yet that great city is so happily situated, that it's excessive bulk causes less inconvenience, than even a smaller capital to a greater kingdom. There is more difference betwixt the prices of all provisions in Paris and Languedoc, than betwixt those in London and Yorkshire.

Secondly, Public stocks, being a kind of paper credit, have all the disadvantages attending that species of money. They banish gold and silver from the most considerable commerce of the State, reduce them to common circulation, and by that means render all provisions and labour dearer than otherwise they would be.

Thirdly, The taxes, which are levied to pay the interest of these debts, are a check upon industry, heighten the price of labour, and are an oppression on the poorer sort.

Fourthly, As foreigners possess a share of our national funds, they render the public in a manner tributary to them, and may in time occasion the transport of our people and our industry.

Fifthly, The greatest part of public stock being always in the hands of idle people, who live on their revenue, our funds give great encouragement to an useless and inactive life.

But, though the injury that arises to commerce and industry from our public funds, will appear, upon ballancing the whole, very considerable, it is trivial in comparison of the prejudice that results to the State, considered as a body politic, which must support itself in the society of nations, and have various transactions with other states, in wars and negotiations. The ill there is pure and unmixed, without any favourable circumstance to atone for it. And 'tis an ill too, of a nature the highest and most important.

CROATIA was once divided between the Hungarians and Turks; but is since subject for the most part to the emperor of Germany, who has the title of king of Croatia.

The present boundaries of this province, are the river Save on the north and north-east, which parts it from Slavonia; Bosnia on the east, Carniola on the west; and Morlachia on the south and south-west.

It is above 80 miles in length either way. It pays above twice the sum that Slavonia does to the emperor's extraordinary subsidies. The soil is fruitful in wine, oil, &c. as well as all necessaries for life, where 'tis cultivated; but being a frontier province, like Slavonia, labours under the same inconveniencies. The people, called Croats, are of a good stature, valiant, hardy and good soldiers, especially the horsemen, who are so famous, that they are entertained in most of the courts of Germany as their horse-guards. Chief places are,

1. **CARLSTADT**, near the frontiers of Carniola, is a strong fortress, and always well furnished with a good garrison and stores, maintained by the Carniolans, to whom it is a bulwark against the Turks.

2. **SISEG**, or **SISAKEN**, stands on the Save, 33 miles east of Carlstadt.

3. **CASTANOWITZ**, a strong castle, consisting of three towers, and a wall according to the antient manner of fortifications.

CUMBERLAND is bounded on the east with Northumberland and Durham, on the south-east with Westmoreland, on the south with a small part of Lancashire, has the Irish sea on the west and south-west, and Scotland on the north and north-west, and is 168 miles in circumference.

The air is sharp but agreeable, and the soil affords good pasture to great flocks of sheep, whose flesh is particularly sweet and good; it's plains abound with corn, and it's lakes with wild fowl and fish, which last they have in plenty also from the ocean.

The county abounds with rivers, and those bodies of waters, called by the inhabitants meres. Chief rivers are the Derwent, famous for the salmon-fishing, and the Eden, besides several others of lesser note. The south part of the county, called Copeland, abounds with rich veins of copper; and at Newlands, and other places among the mountains of Derwent-Fells, some rich veins of copper, not without a mixture of gold and silver, were discovered in former ages. Here is also abundance of black-lead, as also mines of coal, lapis calaminaris, and lead ore.

CARLISLE, is pleasantly situate between three fine rivers, abounding with fish. 'Tis a sea-port, but without ships, merchants, or trade; yet wealthy and populous, and the key of England on the west sea, as Berwick upon Tweed is on the east sea.

COCKERMOUTH is a populous trading town, with a harbour for vessels of good burthen, and a castle.

RAVENGLASS, in that part of the shire called Copeland, is a well built town, and has a good fishery.

WHITEHAVEN, so called from the white cliffs near it, which shelter the haven from tempests, is a populous rich town, chiefly beholden for it's improvement to the Lowther family, from which Sir John Lowther, Bart. took his title of distinction; and his son, the present Hon. Sir James Lowther, has now a very great estate here. He has been at a vast charge to

make the harbour more commodious, and to beautify the town, the trade of which is chiefly in salt and coal, with which it furnishes Ireland and part of Scotland; as it did the latter also with tobacco and sugars before the union. In time of war or cross winds, 'tis common to see 200 sail at once go off for Dublin, laden with coals. And Sir James Lowther, Bart. in particular, is said to send as many coals to Ireland, and the Isle of Man, as bring him, at least, 20,000 l. a year.

KESWICK, was long ago noted for mines of black-lead, and is inhabited by miners, who have water-works by the Derwent for smelting the lead, and sawing of boards.

WORKINGTON, is a noted place for the fishing of salmon, which, like those of Carlisle, are carried from hence, fresh as they take them, to London; where, by travelling night and day, and changing horses, they arrive sweet and good.

PENRITH, vulgo **PERITH**, is a large, populous, well built town, noted for tanners, and reckoned the second in the county for trade and wealth. It has a good weekly corn-market, and a much greater for cattle, every Tuesday fortnight, from Whitunday to the first of August.

CURRENCY, or **PAPER-CURRENCY**, in regard to the British colonies in America.

On the first settlement of these colonies, an English crown was 5 s. in denomination, but the trade there was carried on chiefly by exchanging one commodity for another, and with little or no silver or gold: sugar, tobacco, and rice served as a medium for trade in some of the plantations.

In Barbadoes, the merchants kept their books, and the public officers received their fees in sugar, fixed as a standard at 12 s. 6 d. per 100 weight; so that the exchange, between that island and England, varied in proportion to the price of sugar in England, and 100 l. in Barbadoes was sometimes worth 105 l. to 108 l. sterling in England.

As the American commerce flourished, foreign silver and gold coins were introduced, and became a medium for trade; and bills of credit, commonly called paper-money, or paper-currency, were remitted to some colonies by their governments, to be discharged by a tax, or otherwise, at certain times to come, which added to their medium of trade and circulation, and answered the intention of these colonies, whilst they kept within due bounds.

As the said silver coins went by tale, and were not milled, they were clipped to such a degree, that the exchange to England varied in proportion, and the paper-currency also varied in value, and was depreciated in several of the colonies, occasioned by their remitting more than their trade and property could bear, or from some other mistaken conduct; and, in some other of the colonies, such paper-money, notwithstanding it's under value, went in discharge of prior contracts, made when such money was of a greater value; and instead of varying in denomination in proportion to it's intrinsic value with silver, the principal standard in other countries, they varied the nominal price of silver in proportion to the value of their paper-money: so that an ounce of silver that formerly went for 6 s. 8 d. has since gone for 28 s. money of New England per ounce, and for 42 s. money of Carolina per ounce: whereby, in process of time, almost every province, as well as the islands, varied more or less in their currency, and consequently in their respective exchange between Great-Britain, the center of it's plantation commerce, and these colonies, which put the whole American trade upon a state of uncertainty and into such confusion, that no trader could tell how to value his debts after they were once contracted.

Her majesty queen Anne, by her royal proclamation bearing date the 18th of June 1704, did publish and declare, 'That, from and after the first day of January next ensuing, no Seville, Pillar, or Mexico pieces of eight, though of the full weight of 17 pennyweights and an half, should be accounted, received, taken or paid, within any of the colonies or plantations, as well those under proprietors and charters, as under her majesty's immediate commission and government, at above the rate of 6 s. per piece current money, for the discharge of any contracts or bargains to be made after the first day of January next; the halves, quarters, and other lesser pieces of the same coin, to be accounted, received, taken, or paid in the same proportion; and that the currency of all pieces of eight, of Peru dollars, and other foreign species of silver coins, whether of the same or baser alloy, should, after the first day of January next, stand regulated, according to their weight and fineness, according and in proportion to the rate before limited and set for the piece of eight of Seville, Pillar, and Mexico; so that no foreign coins of any sort be permitted to exceed the same proportion, on any account whatsoever.'

In the 6th year of the said queen Anne, an act was passed for ascertaining the foreign coins of her majesty's colonies and plantations in America, whereby it was enacted, 'That if any person within any of the said colonies or plantations, as well those under proprietors and charters, as under her majesty's immediate commission and government, should, after the first day of May 1709, for the discharge of any contracts or bargains to be hereafter made, account, receive, take, or pay any of the several species of foreign

‘ silver coins mentioned in the before recited proclamation, at any greater or higher rate, than at which the same is thereby regulated, settled, and allowed, to be accounted, received, taken, or paid; every such person so receiving, accounting, taking, or paying the same, contrary to the directions therein contained, shall suffer six months imprisonment without bail or mainprize, &c. and shall likewise forfeit the sum of 10 l. for every such offence, &c. But with a proviso, that nothing in the proclamation should extend, or be construed to compel any person to receive any of the said species of foreign silver coins, at the respective rates in the said proclamation mentioned. By the above-mentioned regulation, silver at 17 dwts. 12 grs. for 6 s. is equal to 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ per ounce.’

And there is a further proviso in the said act of the 6th of queen Anne, whereby it is declared, ‘ That nothing in the said act contained shall extend, or be construed to restrain her majesty from regulating and settling the several rates of the species of foreign silver coins, within any of the said colonies or plantations, in such other manner, and according to such other rates and proportion, as her majesty, by her royal proclamation for that purpose to be issued, shall, from time to time, judge proper and necessary, or from giving her assent to any law hereafter to be made in any of the said colonies or plantations; but that such farther regulations may be made, and such assent given, in as full and ample manner to all intents and purposes, as the same might have been done in case this act had not been made, and no otherwise, any thing before contained to the contrary hereof in any wise notwithstanding.’

The changing the value of current money in any country, must certainly make a considerable change in any mens properties, unless due care is taken to proportion and ascertain the old currency with the new intended currency.

But this not being fully provided for by the said proclamation or act, although they extended only to contracts made after a certain day to come after the proclamation, yet as the contracts, made before that time, remained under a state of uncertainty and difficulty, few of the colonies have, or could, without much loss and confusion, observe this intended regulation.

Barbadoes, indeed, struggled through it with much difficulty and loss to many of its inhabitants, and observe it to this day. The money-holders lent their money just before the regulation took effect, for several months without interest; the borrowers paid it their creditors, some with loss and some without; so it passed from hand to hand, and exchange, between England and that island, fell from 60 to 25 per cent. which proved a great loss to several, and particularly to those who contracted debts, while such exchange was at 60 per cent. and paid them when it was reduced to 25 per cent. and also to those who had light clipped money upon their hands. However, since this regulation, this colony has had an extensive credit, because every creditor is sure his money will be of equal value when it is repaid: and the exchange, between that island and London, became about 30 per cent. which is near the proportion between 5 s. 3 d. the value of an ounce of silver in England, and 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ the value of an ounce of silver in Barbadoes.

The exchange of the Leeward islands plays at about 60 per cent. and that of Jamaica at about 40 per cent. and varies from time to time, according to the nominal value they put upon their gold and silver, and other incidents.

Carolina for the same reasons, and from a large emission of paper-money, raised their exchange to 700 per cent. advance, and New England to upwards of 400 per cent. advance, which proved a great loss from time to time, to such as had given credit in and to those provinces; but, as such loss happened gradually, it was not felt so severely as at first view it may appear, and the price of silver and exchange in New England varied but little for several years.

New York, the Jerseys, and Pennsylvania allow 8 s. 6 d. to 9 s. for an ounce of silver, and their exchange is from about 65 to 70 per cent. Maryland allows 10 s. to 11 s. per ounce, and exchange there is at about 100 per cent. advance. Bermudas is much as Barbadoes, and Virginia is at 6 s. 8 d. per ounce, and exchange there is about 25 per cent.

Now, for the better regulating all money and exchange throughout his majesty's colonies and plantations in America, it may be proposed, that there be an equal and fixed price for silver throughout all those colonies and plantations; and that all contracts or bargains, from some certain day to come, be made for such money, and such money to be accounted, received, taken, paid, sued for and recovered accordingly. And no recovery to be made for any money of different sorts or denominations that shall be contracted for after such time, except for such money, and at such prices as shall be herein after mentioned. This will naturally be called sterling money, proclamation money, or new money, and what is now current, be it what it will, will be called old currency, or old money. In order to prevent any loss or inconvenience by such a regulation, to any creditor, debtor, or money-holder, it may be supposed, that the standard of silver should be fixed at 5 s. 3 d. per ounce, the price of silver in pieces of eight or

bars; then 100 l. new money would be equal in value to 130 l. old currency in Barbadoes and Bermudas; and 140 l. old currency in Jamaica, 160 l. old currency in the Leeward Islands 500 l. old currency in New England, 165 l. old currency in New York, the Jerseys, and Pennsylvania, 125 l. old currency in Virginia, 200 l. paper-money in Maryland, 800 l. paper-money in Carolina. Or in such proportions as the currency of the several and respective colonies shall really bear to either of the undermentioned prices of silver, as may be found most agreeable; viz.

6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ per ounce, which is equal to 6 s. for 17 dwts. 12 grs. the price regulated by queen Anne's proclamation, confirmed by an act of parliament in the 6th year of her reign.

5 s. 6 d. per ounce, the price ascertained for payment of the duties on foreign sugar, rum, and molasses, imported into the British plantations in America, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13.

5 s. 3 d. per ounce, may be accounted the price of silver in pieces of eight or bars.

5 s. 2 d. per ounce, is the price of English silver coin or sterling.

Notwithstanding such a regulation, there would still be a small exchange in the several plantations, in proportion to the risk, charge, and other incidents, attending the transporting money from one country to another; but every one, for the future, may expect an equal value upon the repayment of the money he shall credit, lend, or trade for in the plantations, without having the value of his property depreciated by any law or custom, while it is in other people's hands; which is the principal design of the proposition.

And gold must and will always bear a value in proportion to such a standard of silver: [see the article BULLION] but it is however proposed, that all gold coins, and other commodities, do pass for the satisfaction of all contracts made, or to be made, before such a period of time, at the several and respective rates or prices, and in like manner as they now pass in each and every colony respectively. And should there be a necessity for creating and issuing out bills of credit, commonly called paper-money, to answer a medium of trade, or any extraordinary emergency in any of the plantations, there might be provisos, that some reasonable sums, to be limited, may be issued or emitted, provided there be a fund sufficient to answer an interest on all bills of 20 s. value or more; and likewise gradually to pay off, discharge, and sink the same within a limited time. But that nothing in any act, to be made in any of the said plantations or colonies, extend, or be construed to compel any person to receive any such bills of credit or paper-money in discharge of any debt, or to allow or account the same a legal tender, unless such acts shall have first received the royal approbation.

Now suppose order should be taken, that all bargains and contracts that shall be made after the first day of January next, in any of his majesty's plantations or colonies in America, be made, received, paid, and recovered, conformably to the act passed in the 6th year of the reign of queen Anne, intitled, An act for ascertaining the rates of foreign coins in her majesty's plantations in America: and that all bargains and contracts, made or to be made, in the said plantations or colonies before that time, be paid, received, and recovered, at the current value or rate that the current monies, of any kind or nature soever, actually bore on the first day of February last, in the said plantations or colonies respectively, in proportion to 6 s. for 17 dwts. and 12 grs. or 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{3}$ per ounce, the price of silver ascertained by the said act. And that the rates or value of all such current money, as it stood on the said first day of February, be settled and ascertained by the governor and council of each province or colony respectively, or by some other authority.

This regulation would be no ways prejudicial to any debtor, creditor, legatee, annuitant, or any other person whatsoever; since the money of all sorts current, or that may hereafter be emitted as above proposed, will pass at its respective value, according to contract, to a fixed standard of silver, in like manner as moidores, guineas, and other coins, or as India bonds, and other public securities, now pass in Great-Britain.

On the other hand, suppose the said proclamation and act should be attempted to be put in execution, without any regard to contracts made before such an attempt, the greatest confusion must ensue in some of the colonies; since, in New England and Carolina, every debtor, to comply with that act, without some further proviso, must pay the value of 4 or 500 guineas for every 100 guineas he contracted to pay, or stands chargeable with, by means of any legacy, annuity, or otherwise, even if it was but a few months before: or, to speak in other words, he must pay four or five times as much as he ought to pay. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, and MONEY.

R E M A R K S.

The several provinces on the continent of North America, and also the Leeward Islands, and Jamaica, subject to the crown of Great-Britain, have ever since their being settled, or subject to the said government, or at least within these seventy years last past, varied greatly in the way of reckon-

ing their monies or currencies, from what has been by law established in England or Great-Britain. The currencies in the colonies have fluctuated and varied so much, that they have differed greatly both as to time and place, seldom being the same in two different provinces at a time, and often changing value in the same place. In some of the provinces, they have deviated so much from sterling money, in the way of reckoning their monies, and run on to such a degree of depreciation, that two shillings sterling hath become equal to one pound nominal currency, or one pound sterling equal to ten pounds. At Boston, in New England, they run on in a continual course of depreciation in the space of 47 years, in an irregular progressive advance, from 133 l. currency for 100 l. sterling to 1100 l. currency for 100 l. sterling.— A state of all the degrees of depreciations in the respective years the variations or changes happened, from the year 1702, to the year 1749, together with the value of silver, both by the ounce and dollar, that correspond with the said depreciation, are set down in the following table.

Years	Exchange	Oz. of Silv. Cur.		Dollar Ster.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.
1702	133	6	10½	4	6
1705	135	7	0	4	6½
1713	150	8	0	4	7½
1716	175	9	3	4	7
1717	225	12	0	4	7½
1722	270	14	0	4	6½
1728	340	18	0	4	7
1730	380	20	0	4	7½
1737	500	26	0	4	6
1741	550	28	0	4	5
1749	1100	60	0	4	8½

Their money having thus run on to 1100 l. currency for 100 l. sterling, or 11 for one, a stop was put to the farther depreciation of the money of the province of Massachusetts Bay, in the year 1750, by a remittance in money sent over from England, to the amount of 183,000 l. sterling, to reimburse the expence that province had been at in the reduction of CAPE BRETON in the French war 1740; the money was mostly composed of Spanish dollars. Their depreciated paper money, or province bills, were called in, and paid off, at the rate of 45 shillings currency for each dollar, and the bills burnt and destroyed; and a law made, by which the par of exchange with that province and England is fixed at 133½ l. currency for 100 l. sterling, and the dollar at 6 s. the same currency. This change was a pleasant event, especially to them who have correspondence with that province; but I have been informed, that tho' they are obliged to keep their accounts agreeable to the said law, yet since that time they have for some years negotiated their bills with England in old tenor, or the old currency; and that so late, as within these six years last past: but it has been since said that the practice is now entirely laid aside.

The currency of Rhode Island has run on in a course of depreciation, from the year 1744 to the year 1759, from 450 l. to 2300 l. currency for 100 l. sterling—an amazing depreciation indeed, which makes the trade carried on by that province (which is pretty considerable) perplexing to themselves and their correspondents; but I am informed, they are endeavouring to put a stop to such a mad depreciation, and to put their currency under some regulation, which it is to be hoped by this time is effected.

The currencies of several of the provinces have at times gone backwards and forwards in varying their exchanges with England; some seem to be fixed, and others in a variable situation. The parts of exchange with the several provinces are at present, or lately were,

Boston, in New England - - -	133½	South Carolina -	700
New York, and East Jersey } 175 or 171½		Georgia - - -	100
Pennsylvania, and West Jersey - } 165 or 160½		Jamaica - - -	140
Virginia - - -	125	Barbadoes - - -	135
Maryland - - -	145	Nevis and Montserrat - - -	175
North Carolina	145	Antigua and St. Christophers - }	165

By late information from Quebec and Montreal, as also from Halifax in Nova Scotia, Anapolis, and the bay of Fundy, the rate of their currencies may be fixed at 108, 109, or 110; the several species of money current in all these respective places, at present indicate, that these must be the equitable rates of exchange, the dollar passing in them all for 5 s. the pistole for 18 s. the English guinea for 22 s. 6 d. the johannes or 36 s. piece for 38 s. 6 d. and the moirdore for 29 s. in their respective places, at Quebec and Montreal the New York traders, which supply the places with provisions, deal with the inhabitants in New York currency, in receiving dollars at 7 s. 6 d. and gold in proportion. But these exchanges and values of money in specie in those places may be no standard for after times, as they may probably soon vary.

A question naturally will arise, How hath it come to pass, or what is the reason, that the several currencies of the British colonies have differed so much one from another: both in respect to time and place, and still do differ, from what is by law established in England?

In answer to which, I hope the following reasons will, in a great degree, be satisfactory. The several provinces in their infancy had but little trade, and consequently little money. The tools, utensils, and necessaries for planting, they were at first supplied with from Britain, involved them in debt, before they were able to raise goods for exportation to pay their creditors; and the goods they first raised were often so ordinary in quality, or so little in quantity, that they were able to export to a foreign market, that the net proceeds of the same often turned out poorly, by which means the planters remained continually in debt to the British merchants, and occasioned the balance of trade to be always against them; and having neither goods nor cash sufficient to remit their creditors, the consequence has been, that many bad debts have been made, and great losses sustained, as the merchants of Great-Britain have but too fatally experienced.

When the northern colonies became more thriving, and by the produce they raised, were enabled to supply the sugar islands with provisions, as flour, biscuit, salt, fish of several sorts, horses, live sheep, hogs, geese, &c. besides what is called lumber, viz. timber, staves, heading, and hoops, &c. they drew money from thence: the only sources they at first, or even at present can be furnished with a supply of money: (the remittances made thither in the last and present wars excepted) the money they imported from the islands, together with their produce, were not sufficient to supply their creditors in Britain, which prevented the cash staying with them, and obliged them to ship it off with their other merchandize towards paying their debts here, which obliged the provinces to create and issue bills of credit, commonly called paper money, to circulate in trade among themselves, gold and silver being as much a merchandize as any they dealt in. The trade of the northern colonies continuing for many years in a bad state, and the balance with Britain always against them, occasioned the ready money they had amongst them to be picked up by the merchants and factors residing in America, acting for their correspondents or employers in Britain; and cash or bullion being a certain remittance, preferable to bills of exchange or produce, which were very precarious, the bills being often sent back protested, and the goods coming to a bad market: this made the merchants and factors rival each other in purchasing gold and silver, and from time to time raised the price; and in proportion as the nominal value of the same advanced, the price of bills and the rates of their currencies kept pace with it, and proportionally depreciated as the nominal value of the specie advanced, compared with the value of money in Britain.

This is evident, by casting an eye on the table of the course of depreciation of the currency of Boston, inserted in the preceding pages; wherein it appears, that the nominal prices of silver the ounce in that province, for the space of 47 years, was always nearly proportionable to the depreciated rates of exchange in the periods of time the said currency varied: and it is not to be doubted, but the change of the value of money preceded the alteration of the exchange.

From what has been said it may naturally be inferred, that in whatsoever province in British America, whose trade does not import them so much cash from one quarter as the demand is upon them from another, or in other terms, which have the balance of trade against them, their currency will be unstable, and subject to depreciation. As contrary causes always produce contrary effects, so in the affair under consideration it appears, that the islands and provinces that have a flourishing trade, and an influx of money to answer foreign demands upon them, that their currencies have fixed for a long time in one state.

In the island of Jamaica, in consequence of its great and valuable productions, and the cash it imports from the neighbouring fountain heads; the Spanish islands and continent, has preserved its currency in one state for many years: has never had the use of paper money, nor even copper, their current money being all gold or silver, neither has the price of bills varied in above 20 years, always being at 140. And it is much the same in the other sugar islands, except the price of their bills are subject to vary. New York and Pennsylvania currencies seem fixed for the same reason: and it is to be hoped, more of the provinces will be able to keep their currencies from further depreciating.

It may be of use to some readers to note, that to whatever degree of depreciation the currencies of the colonies have been at, the denomination of pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings, have been retained, altho' they have none of the money amongst them of these denominations.

Since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has taken place, and such extensive new acquisitions have been thereby ceded to the crown of Great-Britain; it is not to be doubted, but our American affairs, will meet with all due attention from

the government of their mother country : and there are, perhaps, few points that may merit consideration more than the preservation of an uniformity and SAMENESS OF CURRENCY amongst the whole of our colonies. See BRITISH AMERICA, the latter end of that article.

CUSTOMS. The old subsidy, or subsidy inwards, first granted by the act, 12 Car. II. cap. 4. and continued, as to one half, to August 1, 1708, by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4. and as to the other half, for ever, by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 1. This is a tax of 6l. per ton upon some wines, and 4l. 10s. upon others, and on perry, rape, cyder, and vinegar, imported into the port of London by British subjects in British ships, navigated according to law ; and, upon all other goods so imported, it is a tax of 5l. per cent. ad valorem ; as to which I shall now in general observe, that, when goods are to pay any tax according to the value, that value is to be ascertained by the two books of rates, or, if not there rated, by the oath of the importer, or by the price at a public sale ; and, when goods are valued by the oath of the importer, the officer may take the goods, paying the importer the price he puts upon them, with 10l. per cent. profit, and the produce at a public sale, after all disbursements for duties, &c. is to be paid to the crown, for the use of the sinking fund.

2. The petty custom, or alien's duty, payable by alien or denizen importers, granted and continued by the same acts, and is a fourth more than the former.

3. The additional duty granted and continued by the same acts, being an additional duty of 3l. per ton on some wines, and 4l. upon all others ; and a moiety of the neat old subsidy by way of additional duty upon all wrought silks, except East-Indian ; and upon all linnens, except Irish and calicoes ; and 1d. per pound on tobacco of the British plantations.

4. The one per cent. inwards, granted by the act, 14 Car. II. cap. 11, and continued by the said two acts of queen Anne, being a tax of 1l. per cent. ad valorem, upon all goods imported from any place in the Mediterranean beyond Malaga, in any British ship that hath not two decks, and carries less than 16 guns mounted, with two men for each gun, and ammunition proportionable. The design of this tax is to oblige our merchants to make use of defensible ships, in order to prevent our seamen's being made slaves by the Barbary pirates ; but ships exporting British fish are excepted.

5. The composition on petty seizures, which is an indulgence allowed by custom to our custom-house officers ; for one moiety of all goods, seized and condemned, belongs to the crown, and must be paid or secured, before the officer can have the goods to sell ; but when the duty of the goods seized does not exceed 40s. the officer is allowed to compound with the collector.

II. That, which I before called the second branch of the customs, I shall now divide into two ; the first of which is called the subsidy outwards, first granted by the said act, 12 Car. II. cap. 4. and continued to March 8, 1742, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, being a tax of 5l. per cent. upon all goods exported, with several original exceptions ; and now most goods are exempted, except dying goods, and several others necessary in our manufactures ; and except leather, white woollen cloths, and coals, which pay particular duties after mentioned.

III. The one per cent. outwards, being the same, and first granted by the same act, with the one per cent. inwards ; and continued by the said 3d money-act, Anne, to the same time.

IV. The duty on tanned leather exported, being a duty of 1s. per hundred first granted by the act, 20 Car. II. cap. 5. and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, continued for 32 years, from March 8, 1710.

V. The impost on wine and vinegar, first granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 3, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, continued for ever ; being an additional tax of 8l. per ton on all vinegar and French wines, and 12l. a ton on all other wines.

VI. The impost on tobacco, first granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 4, and by the last-mentioned act of queen Anne, continued for ever ; being an additional tax of 3d. per pound on tobacco of the British plantations, and 6d. upon all foreign tobacco.

VII. The coinage-duty, first granted by the act, 18 Car. II. cap. 5, and by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 1, continued to the end of the first session of parliament, after March 1, 1715-16, being an additional tax of 10s. per ton on all wines, vinegar, cyder, beer, brandy, and strong waters, imported.

VIII. The coal-duty, first granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 15, and by the 4th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 2, continued to September 29, 1716. It was at first 1s. 6d. per chaldron or ton on coals imported, or brought coast-ways into the port of London ; but, by the act which continued it, was reduced to 1s. and it was first appropriated to the building of St Paul's, London ; and by the 2d act, to the finishing that church, and repairing St Peter's, Westminster.

IX. The impost 1690, first granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 2, and by the said 8th money-act of

queen Anne continued for ever. It is an additional tax of fifty-five different kinds, upon as many different sorts of goods imported, many of which are necessary in our manufactures, such as pot-ashes, brimstone, candles, cordage, drugs even for dyers use, unwrought iron, oil, hempseed, raw silk, starch, steel, beaver-wool, wood, &c. and the tax is generally at least 5 per cent. ad valorem.

X. The impost 1692-3, first granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. II. sess. 4, and by the said 8th money-act of queen Anne continued for ever. It is likewise an additional tax of 72 different kinds, upon as many different sorts of goods particularly named ; and upon all other sorts of goods, not particularly rated in the first book of rates, except mum, and except goods particularly charged with this or the said impost 1690 ; it is a general additional tax of 5l. per cent. ad valorem. By this tax likewise, many sorts of goods that are necessary in our manufactures, are particularly charged ; such as rough amber, wood-ashes, lamp-black, dyeing-woods, except those particularly excepted ; elephants-teeth, rough flax, furs, goats-hair, rough hemp, hides, incle, indigo, iron, leather, rosin, salt not used in curing fish, tar, tow, &c. and all French goods in general, except wines (hereby particularly charged with 8l. per ton) brandies, vinegar, and salt, are charged with a duty of 25l. per cent. ad valorem.

XI. The salt-duty, first granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 5, and by the 7th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 1, continued for ever. It is an additional tax of 3d. a gallon upon all salt imported, and was put under the management of the commissioners of excise ; but as it is paid upon importation, and collected by the officers of the customs, I state it as a branch of our customs.

XII. The new duty on spice and pictures, first granted by the 5th money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 6, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 1, continued for ever. It is an additional duty of 5l. per cent. ad valorem, upon pictures, cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs ; and upon tea 1s. coffee 6d. cocoa 6d. and chocolate 1s. per pound.

XIII. The second 25 per cent. on French goods, first granted by the 5th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 1, from February 28, 1695-6, to February 28, 1716-17 ; being an additional duty of 25l. per ton on French wines ; 30l. on single, 60l. on double French brandies ; 15l. on French vinegar, and 25l. per cent. ad valorem on all other French goods ; so that, by this and the said 9th branch, all French goods were subjected to a duty of 50l. per cent. over and above all other duties ; but I do not know by what odd contrivance Dunkirk was, soon after the beginning of the late king's reign, allowed to be a port, and all sorts of French goods, except wines, allowed to be imported thence as Flemish ; though, by the treaty of Utrecht, it was expressly stipulated, that the harbour should be filled up, and never again restored. Surely, our commissioners of the customs would not have ventured to have done so, without orders from some persons in a superior station !

XIV. The new duty on coals, culm, and cinders. This and the next branch were at first both granted together ; but, as they were afterwards divided and appropriated to different purposes, I must now state them separately. Both these branches were first granted on coals and culm, by the 3d money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 3, and extended to cinders by the 2d money-act, W. III. parl. 2. sess. 1, being an additional duty of 7s. 6d. per chaldron ; and 5s. per ton on coals imported, and 3s. 4d. per ton on coals carried coast-ways from one port of England to another ; 1s. per chaldron on culm, and 5s. per chaldron on cinders. This duty having been continued to September 30, 1710, three fifths of it were from thence continued to September 30, 1742, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 2.

XV. The additional duty on coals, culm, and cinders, first granted as before-mentioned ; and, as to the other two fifths, continued to March 8, 1742-3, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1.

XVI. The new or further subsidy, first granted by the 5th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 3, and by the 2d money-act of the last parliament of king William, and first of queen Anne, continued to her for life ; being an additional tax upon wines, and all goods imported equal to the old subsidy, with very few exceptions.

XVII. The new duty on whale-fins, first granted by the 12th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 3, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, continued for ever ; being an additional tax of 3d. per pound weight on those imported by the Greenland company, and 6d. per pound on those imported by the others.

XVIII. The other duty on salt, first granted by the 11th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 3, and thereby at once granted for ever, being an additional duty of 7d. per gallon on all salt imported. This duty was likewise to be under the management of the commissioners of excise, but I state it as a branch of our customs, for the same reason I have already given, with respect to the former duty on salt.

XIX. The 15 per cent. on muslins, first granted by the 2d money-act, W. III. parl. 2. sess. 2, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 1, continued for ever, being an additional

ditional tax of 15 l. per cent. ad valorem on muslins, under which general name are comprehended twenty-five different sorts of goods imported from the East-Indies. This tax was at first laid upon almost all other sorts of Indian manufactures; but they were soon after prohibited to be worn in Great-Britain, and freed from this tax.

XX. The excise on foreign liquors, imported, shall be taken notice of under the article EXCISE.

XXI. The duties called *prifage* and *butlerage*, the former of which is payable by all natives, importers of wine, except the merchants of London, Southampton, Chester, and the Cinque Ports, being one ton, if ten tons, or more, and under 20, be imported; and two tons, if 20 tons, or more, be imported by one ship; and the latter is payable by all foreigners, importers of wine, in lieu of *prifage*, being 2 s. per ton on the quantity imported; which duties belong by custom hereditarily to the crown.

XXII. A new additional duty upon coals imported into the port of London, first granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. sess. 1, from May 15, 1708, to May 15, 1716, being an additional tax of 2 s. per chalders or ton, and appropriated to the same purpose, as the 8th branch of the customs before-mentioned. This tax, together with the said 8th branch were continued to the 28th of September 1724, and, from the respective times of their expiration, appropriated to the building fifty new churches, by the 9th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1.

XXIII. The one third subsidy, first granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. sess. 2, and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4, continued to March 8, 1806-7, being an additional tax upon all wines and merchandize imported, equal to one third of the old subsidy.

XXIV. The additional duty on spice and pictures, and new duty on drugs, first granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. sess. 3, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 1, continued for ever. By this branch an additional duty of 5 l. per cent. ad valorem is laid upon all spice, and 20 l. per cent. on all pictures (for sale or private use) imported; on drugs 10 l. per cent. ad valorem on some, and 4 l. per cent. on others; on coffee, tea, and chocolate, an additional duty equal to that in the eleventh branch; on China ware 12 l. per cent. as sold at the public sale; and on white calicoes, not charged as muslins, or Indian dimities, and on all other manufactures of cotton, 15 l. per cent. as sold at the public sale.

XXV. The two thirds subsidy, first granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. sess. 3, and by the same act with the former continued for ever; being an additional tax on all wines and merchandize imported, equal to two thirds of the old subsidy; but several sorts of goods are exempted from this duty.

XXVI. The duty on white woollen cloths exported, being a duty 5 s. per piece, granted without limitation of time, by an act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4, as mentioned in part.

XXVII. The new duty on pepper and raisins, and a further new duty on spice, first granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 2, to continue for thirty-two years from Lady-Day 1710, by which an additional duty of 1 s. 6 d. per pound was laid on all pepper imported (long pepper was afterwards excepted) 5 s. per hundred weight on raisins, 3 s. per pound on snuff, not of our plantations, and on spiceries, viz. nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, and mace, a new duty equal to all the duties then payable upon them.

XXVIII. The new duty on candles imported, first granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 2, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, continued for ever; being an additional duty of 4 d. per pound on wax, and a half-penny per pound on tallow-candles imported.

XXIX. The duty on coals exported, granted for 32 years, from March 8, 1710-11, in lieu of all former duties, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, being a duty of seven different kinds upon coals exported.

XXX. The additional duty on candles imported, first granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, to continue for 32 years from March 25, 1711, being a new additional tax equal to the former.

XXXI. The new duty on hides, skins, &c. imported, first granted by the 6th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, to continue for 32 years from June 24, 1711, being an additional tax of twenty-one several particular kinds, upon twenty-one particular sorts of hides and skins named in the act, and upon all others not named, or pieces of hides or skins, or manufactures consisting mostly of leather, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem; and upon parchment 6 d. per dozen, and upon vellum 1 s. per dozen.

XXXII. The new duty on hops imported, first granted by the 7th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1, for four years from June 1, 1711, being an additional tax of 3 d. per pound on all hops imported.

XXXIII. A new duty upon rock-salt exported to Ireland, after June 11, 1711, being a duty of 9 s. per ton; but the exporter is allowed the draw-back for the former duty, upon shewing a certificate of its having been paid. It was first imposed for thirty-two years from the above day, by the 10th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1.

XXXIV. The new duty on soap, paper, &c. imported, first

granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 2, to continue for 32 years on soap, from the 10th of June 1712; on paper, from the 24th of June 1712; and on linnens striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed after the manufacture, from July 20, 1712. By this branch an additional duty of 2 d. per pound is laid upon all soap imported; additional duties of fifty several kinds are laid upon so many sorts of paper particularly named, and upon all sorts of paper not named, 20 l. per cent. ad valorem; and upon the linnens above described, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem. Books, prints, and maps imported, were likewise by this act loaded with an additional duty of 30 l. per cent. ad valorem; but this tax was afterwards abolished.

XXXV. The additional duty on hides, skins, &c. imported, was first granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 2, to continue for thirty-two years from Aug. 1. 1712, on hides, &c; from July 1, 1712, on wire; and from June 16, 1712, on coffee, tea, and drugs, except drugs for dyeing, and turpentine from the plantations. By this branch new additional duties of twenty-one different kinds were laid upon twenty-one sorts of hides and skins particularly named, and on all others not named, on all pieces, and on all manufactures mostly of leather, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem. And the following additional duties were laid upon the following goods imported, viz. on parchment, 2 s. per dozen; on vellum, 3 s. per dozen; on starch, 2 d. per pound; on coffee, 1 s. per pound; on tea from the East-Indies, 2 s. per pound, and from any other place, 5 s. per pound; and on drugs 20 l. per cent. ad valorem. How cruel is it to tax so highly even the sickness and diseases of the people!

XXXVI. The new duty on coals exported, first granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 5. sess. 1, to continue for thirty-two years from August 2, 1714, being an additional duty of 5 s. per chalders on coals exported on foreign bottoms, and 3 s. on those exported in British bottoms. This was so far a wise regulation; but the duty was not high enough, because the duties upon coals brought to London still exceed those on coals exported.

XXXVII. The new duty on sail-cloth, imported, first imposed by an act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 3, for seven years from July 21, 1713, being an additional duty of 1 d. per ell.

XXXVIII. The additional duty on soap, paper, &c. imported, first granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 5. sess. 1, to continue for thirty-two years from August 2, 1714, being an additional duty upon soap and paper imported, of half the duty imposed by the 30th branch, upon the linnens there described, an additional duty of 15 l. per cent. ad valorem, and a new additional duty of 2 d. per pound on starch.

To this long list I shall add two other branches of customs, which I have not before-mentioned, because they are seldom, if ever, brought into any account; and the first will never, I hope, produce any thing considerable; but the last is now, I believe, considerable, and will, I hope, be every year more and more so. The two I mean are,

XXXIX. A duty of 5 s. per ton on all French ships, imposed by the act, 12 Car. II. cap. 18, to continue as long as the duty of 50 sours per ton, or any part thereof, on British ships, is continued in France; and for three months after. But, whether Dunkirk ships have been obliged to pay this duty, I know not.

XL. Is what we usually call the plantation duties, imposed by the act, 25 Car. II. cap. 7, for ever; being duties of several kinds upon several sorts of goods, shipped in our plantations, and not to be brought to England. To these we should likewise add,

XLI. The Barbadoes duty, which is a duty of 4 l. 10 s. per cent. payable in Barbadoes, and the Leeward Islands, on goods exported from thence, every shilling of which is now brought home; instead of being applied towards the support of those islands, as it was at first designed, when granted by the people there.

R E M A R K S.

These were our custom-duties subsisting at the end of queen Anne's reign; what additions upon additions have been made since, may be seen in Saxby's Book of Rates. But without enumerating all of them, which are too tedious, we may see, what a maze our merchants must be in about them, when they come to their computation. If likewise we consider the many exceptions, and exceptions from exceptions; the many regulations, and regulations of regulations, for collecting those customs, we must conclude it no easy matter for any merchant in this country to be master of this branch of his business, if he be what we call a general merchant.

In order to lead persons desirous to be well acquainted with the methods of calculating the duties of customs, as they are represented in Saxby, the best BOOK OF RATES at present extant, we refer to the conclusion of every letter throughout this work, where this business is sufficiently treated of to understand the present state of those duties, and indeed any future variations to which they may be liable.

But why we have not included a book of rates ready computed, see the end of letter A, and it's conclusion, called a SHORT ENQUIRY, &c.

Of some determined cases in law relating to the business of the Customs.

Every merchant shall have free liberty to break bulk in any port allowed by law, and to pay custom for no more than he shall enter and land; provided the master, or purser, first make declaration upon oath, before any two principal officers of the port, of the true contents of his ship's lading, and shall after declare upon oath, before the customer, collector, &c. or any two of them, the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the other port where bulk was first broken, and to whom they did belong.

A merchant brought 80 tons of bay-salt to a port in England, and out of that ship sold 20 tons, and discharged the same into another then in the same port, without being actually put on shore; for the rest, being 60 tons, the master agreed for the customs, and landed them: those 20 tons, though always water-borne, were yet adjudged to pay; the discharging them out of the ship amounting to as much as laying them on land, the same being done in port, and the king would otherwise be defrauded. But a ship carried in by storm, and part landed, to preserve the vessel, before the duty paid, is not subject to a forfeiture. Coke, 12 part. fol. 17, 18. Plowden, 9. Fogassia's case.

2. All foreign goods (except wines, currants, and wrought silks) first imported, shall be again exported by any English merchant within 12 months, and those exporting such goods, shall have allowance, and be repaid by the officer that received the same, one moiety of the subsidy that was paid at first, on due proof made by certificate of the due entry, &c. after all which duly performed, the moiety first paid inwards shall, without delay, be repaid, as also the whole additional duty of silk, linnen, and tobacco, as before directed. If the officer refuse to pay, whether the merchant-exporter may not bring an action against him upon the debt created in law, as he that hath a tally may do? Hobart, 270. Lutw. 215, 221. 14 Hen. VII.

3. And if there be any agreement now in force, formerly made with merchants strangers, or their factors, or shall hereafter with any merchant, or factor, for foreign goods, to be brought into the port of London, or any other of this kingdom, or principality of Wales, and to be exported again by way of composition: all other merchants his majesty's subjects shall be admitted into the same, and not excluded any privilege granted the stranger by any private agreement, under the same condition and restriction as the merchant-stranger. Rolls Abridg. 599.

4. Every merchant, as well English as strangers, shipping any kind of wines that have formerly paid all duties inwards, shall be allowed them, except to Englishmen 20 s. per ton, and the stranger 25 s. per ton, on due proof of the entry and payment inwards, and of the shipping to be exported, as above.

5. Any merchant, denizen, or stranger, exporting Spanish, or foreign wool, shall have liberty so to do, with this further condition, of not exporting them in any other than English shipping, on pain of confiscation. 12 Car. II. cap. 32. 14 Car. II. cap. 18.

6. Every merchant, English or stranger, that shall ship or export currants formerly entered, shall be allowed those subsidies paid inwards, except 1 s. 6 d. for every hundred weight to the English, and 1 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to the stranger, on due proof, as in the second article.

7. If any merchant, having duly paid all duties inwards for foreign goods, and, by reason of bad sale, be forced to keep the same, or any part, after the space of a year, he may ship the same for exportation, without further duty, on proof the same was entered, and subsidy paid inward.

8. Every merchant importing wines, on due entries of the same, shall be allowed 12 per cent. for leakage.

9. Every hoghead of wine that shall be run out, and not full seven inches, shall be accounted for outs, and pay no subsidy. And by some it is conceived, no freight shall be paid for the same; but that should seem hard, as the fault may be in the casks, or ill stowing (of which, by custom, the master has no charge, especially French wines, but it belongs to certain officers beyond seas, from whence they are imported) besides the goods, empty or full, take up tonnage in his ship. Boyce vers. Cole, senior and junior. Hill. 27 Car. II. in B. R.

10. If any wines prove corrupt, and fit only to distil into hot waters, or to make vinegar, the owner shall be abated in the subsidy according to his damages, by discretion of the collectors and one of the principal officers.

11. Any tobacco, or other goods imported, receiving damage by salt water, or otherwise, so as to prejudice the sale, the principal officers of the Custom-House, or any two of them, may chuse two indifferent merchants, who shall certify and declare, on their corporal oaths, the damage they have received, and diminution of value, according to which abatement is to be made. There is a book at the Custom-House in which is a general value set on all goods, among which is tobacco.

By an act 12 Ann. cap. 8. §. 8. there is to be no allowance for damaged tobacco; but, on refusal of the duties, the tobacco is to be burned.

12. All merchants-strangers, who do pay double subsidy for lead, tin, woollen cloth, shall also pay double for native ma-

nufactures of wool; and for all other goods, inwards or outwards, 3 d. in the pound besides the subsidy. Nor can such merchants-strangers land their goods before they have agreed for the customs, notwithstanding charta mercatoria.

13. Merchants, trading into the port of London, may lade and unlade their goods at any lawful keys, &c. between the Tower and London-Bridge, and between sun-rising and setting, from the 10th of September to the 10th of March; and between six in the morning and six in the evening, from the 10th of March to the 10th of September, giving notice to the respective officers to attend, who, on refusal, forfeit for every default 5 l.

14. The merchants of York, Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, and their members, shall be allowed free of custom two of the northern cloths and kerseys in 10 to be shipped in those ports in the name of double wrappers, as formerly allowed them there.

15. The merchants of Exeter, and other western parts, shall be allowed, free of subsidies, one perpetuana in 10 for a wrapper, and three Devons dozen in 20 for wrappers, to be shipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnstaple, Lyme Regis, or the members thereof.

16. All merchants transporting any sort of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as also all bays and cottons, shall be allowed one in 10 for a wrapper, free of custom.

N. B. All these several allowances are not by act of parliament, but purely his majesty's gracious benignity towards encouraging the merchants trade.

17. Every merchant shall be allowed, on all other goods liable to poundage, five in the hundred of all the said subsidies of poundage.

18. The officers who sit above in the Custom-House of London, shall attend there from nine to twelve in the forenoon, and one officer in the afternoon, during such time as the officers are to wait at the water-side, for the better deciding all controversies that may happen concerning merchants warrants; all other officers shall attend in the Custom House of every respective port, from nine to twelve, and from two to four.

19. Every merchant, making entry inwards or outwards shall be dispatched in order as he comes; and if any officer put any merchant, or his servant, duly attending and making his entries, to draw any other gratuity than is limited in the act of tonnage and poundage, &c. if the master-officer, he shall, upon complaint, be strictly admonished of his duty; but, if the clerk, he shall be presently discharged of his service.

20. The lord mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, their officers, or deputies, for the offices of package, scavage, baleage, or portage, of any goods of aliens, or their sons born unfreemen, imported or exported into, or out of the city of London, or ports thereof, unto or from parts beyond the seas, concerning receiving or taking any fee or rates heretofore usually taken, may receive the same, any thing in the act of tonnage, &c. or other act, to the contrary notwithstanding.

21. All antient duties heretofore lawfully taken by any city or town corporate, their farmers, &c. for maintenance of bridges, keys, &c. shall and may be received as formerly, any thing to the contrary notwithstanding.

22. The under-searcher, or other officers of Gravesend, may search any ship outward-bound, but not, without reasonable cause, detain them above three tides, on pain of losing their office, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner; nor shall the officers of the out-ports detain any outward-bound ship above one tide after she is laden, and ready to set sail, on like penalty.

23. All timber in balks eight inches square, and upwards, imported from beyond seas, shall be rated according to the measure of timber, the foot square 3 d. for the value, and, according to that rate, shall pay for subsidy 12 d. in the pound, according to poundage; and all under eight inches square, and above five, shall pay as mentioned in the book of rates for middle balks; and all under, according to the rate of small balks.

24. For avoiding oppressions, in exacting unreasonable fees, no officer, or clerk of any Custom-House, shall exact, require, or receive, greater fees than are, or shall be established by parliament, on default to forfeit his office.

25. All fees to be paid to the customer, comptroller, &c. in the port of London, for cockets outwards, shall be paid in one sum, to him who delivers the cocket; and the merchant, after payment of all duties, is to keep his own cocket till he shall ship out his goods so entered, when he is to deliver the same to either searcher, together with the mark and number of his goods.

26. The Custom-House officers shall allow to all persons monies due to them for the half subsidy, and the Algier duty of foreign goods.

27. Any merchant denizen born, having his goods taken at sea, or lost, the duties being paid, or agreed for, may, on due proof, ship from the same port the like quantity, without paying any thing. 27 Ed. III. cap. 13. 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

If the importer pay ready money, he shall be allowed 10 per cent. for what he shall pay down.

28. Ships of war may be entered and searched for unaccus-

torated goods the officers to see none be unladen, or embazzled, on pain of 100l. fine. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. Goods conveyed secretly into ships, and carried away without duties paid, the owners forfeit double value, except coals, which only forfeit double duty.

29. Allowances are to be given merchants for damaged goods, of 5 per cent. on all imported, and 12 per cent. on all wines allowed debentures; but, if less be shipped than is in the certificate, the goods to be forfeited, and the subsidy to be received; and goods shipped out are not to be landed again in England, on pain of forfeiture.

All goods coming out, or carried into Scotland by land, shall pass through Berwick or Carlisle, and pay custom, on pain of forfeiture.

And, although by this act are many allowances, they are restrained to such who traffic in ships.

And, whereas all manner of woollen cloths are prohibited by law to be transported, his majesty was pleased to grant, (by letters patents dated the 24th of February, 27 Car. II.) unto Frances, countess of Portland, full powers for 31 years to license the transporting such goods, notwithstanding such prohibitory laws; which is now put in execution by agreement, and the composition with her deputies at the Custom-House.

CYDER, is the juice of apples, but not of such as are esteemed for common use: it is produced from the most savage classes of this fruit, and from those whose flavour is least agreeable to the palate. Some of them are sweet, others very acid: these latter produce very bad cyder; and the best method will be either to root up the plant, or improve it by grafting. The sweet apples are the only proper fruits for affording an agreeable cyder, which neither offends the palate, nor intoxicates the head: they should be gathered from the tree, but may be shaken down with poles. They are afterwards exposed in heaps to the open air, after which they are carried into the conservatory, where each species is ranged according to its particular degree of maturity, and in order to be pressed, at different times, till the winter be far advanced. The found fruits are first bruised in a large circular trough, under two wooden wheels, placed in an upright position, and whose axle-trees are fastened to a turning beam, drawn round by a horse. Those who are unprovided with an engine of this nature, may bruise the apples with pestles. After which the pulpy substance is conveyed to a press, whose structure corresponds with that of the wine-press; and, to prevent its being scattered, it is disposed into a square bed, four or five inches thick; this is afterwards covered with a surface of straw, which ought to have a small projection over the sides of the heap. A second square of the crushed fruit is raised upon this spread of straw, another lay of which must cover the new square; and this disposition is alternately formed, as long as is judged convenient. Instead of straw, in France, they make use of large hair-cloths, which are more adapted to contain the murc. The great beams of the presses are then lower'd with the wheel, and the juice flows into a vat that is sunk into the earth; whence it is afterwards shifted into vessels, where it is suffered to ferment for the space of 15 days, or three weeks, and it is then stopp'd up.

There is another small press, which prevents the trouble of ranging the several beds of fruit and straw; it is called a box-press, from its shape, and is calculated to contain the several fruits that are to be pressed, whether apples, pears, or grapes. One end terminates in a moveable beam, worked by a wheel and a screw, and the juice flows through the cavities that open in the side.

If we would have cyder in its perfection, and to flower in the glass, we must wait till it has been properly prepared in the vat, and, when it begins to taste agreeably, it must be glued like wine, and may then be drawn off in bottles, which will preserve it much better, and longer, than casks.

The last act relating to cyder containing the tenor of that preceding it, we judge it needless to give the former.

The last act of 1763, relating to Cyder.

Whereas by an act made in the last sessions of parliament, intituled, 'an act for granting to his majesty several additional duties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain duties upon all cyder and perry, and for raising the sum of three millions five hundred thousand pounds, by way of annuities and lotteries to be charged on the said duties: a duty of four shillings per hoghead was, from and after the fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, granted upon all cyder and perry which should be made in Great-Britain, to be paid by the maker thereof, over and above all other duties then payable for cyder or perry; and it was thereby directed, that the amount of the said duty should be paid within the space of six weeks, to be computed from the time of making the charge, in manner therein mentioned, by the officer or officers of excise; and all makers of cyder and perry were thereby authorized to compound for the said duty, after the rate therein mentioned, in respect of the cyder and perry to be consumed in their own private families only, in such manner, with such exemptions, privileges, and advantages, and under such regulations, as are in the said

act allowed and provided: and whereas it would be a great relief to the persons subject to the said duty, or to the composition in lieu thereof, many of whom are industrious persons with large families, if the time for payments of the said duty were enlarged, and the composition of five shillings, authorized to be made by the said act, were lowered: be it therefore enacted by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the fifth day of July one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, in lieu and instead of the time of six weeks, limited by the said act for the payment of the said duty on cyder and perry, the space of six calendar months shall be and is hereby allowed for the payment of the said duty, to be computed from the time of making the charge thereof; and the said duty shall, from and after the expiration of the said six months, be recovered and levied in such manner as the same could or might have been recovered and levied by virtue of the said former act, at or after the expiration of the said time therein limited for payment thereof; and be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, when any person, being a maker of cyder or perry within this kingdom, shall be desirous of compounding for the said duty on cyder and perry, to be consumed in the private family of such person only, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of excise for the time being in England and Scotland respectively, as the case may be, or the major part of such respective commissioners, or such person or persons as they, or the major part of them, shall respectively appoint for that purpose; and, in default of such appointment, then for the collector and supervisor for the district and division within which the person desiring to make such composition doth or shall inhabit (and the said commissioners of excise, and the persons so to be appointed by them, and in default thereof, such collector and supervisors as aforesaid, are hereby respectively required) upon receiving from such person an exact list, signed by him or her, of the several persons of the age of eight years and upwards, whereof his or her family consists (specifying their christian and surnames therein) to compound and agree with every person so delivering in such list, for and in lieu of the duty of four shillings granted by the said act on cyder and perry to be consumed in his or her own private family only, at the rate of two shillings per annum for each person which shall be mentioned in such list, in lieu and instead of the composition of five shillings authorized to be made by the said act; which composition, after the rate of two shillings as aforesaid, shall last for one year, and be renewed annually; and the money arising thereby shall be paid down at the respective times of making the composition; and in case the family of any person making the composition shall be increased at any time during the year compounded for, then every person whose family shall be so increased shall deliver in an additional list, containing the names of the several persons of the age of eight years and upwards added to the family, and shall then also pay down a proportionable composition for the persons so added, videlicet, two-pence for each calendar month that shall be unexpired of the year for which his or her composition was made, for each and every person so added, and like manner fresh lists shall be delivered, and compositions made accordingly every year: and that the monies arising by the said compositions shall be applied in such manner, and for such purposes, as the duties granted by the said act were thereby directed to be applied; and all parts of the said act (not hereby altered) relating to the compositions thereby authorized to be made for the said duty, and also to the persons compounding in pursuance of the power thereby given, and for preventing and punishing all frauds, with respect to the said compositions, and for securing the said duty, shall take effect, and be in full force, applied, and put in execution, with respect to the composition hereby allowed to be made, and to all persons compounding under the authority of this act, and for preventing and punishing all frauds in relation thereto, and for securing the said duty, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purposes, as if such parts of the said act were herein specially repeated, re-enacted, and applied to this present act.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, all and every person and persons, not being a compounder or compounders, who shall intend to make any cyder or perry, at or with any mill press, or other utensil whatsoever, not being the property of such person or persons, but of any other person or persons, whether compounding or not compounding for the said duty, shall, ten days at the least before he, she, or they shall begin to make cyder or perry, make a true and particular entry in writing, at the office of excise next to the place where such cyder or perry shall be intended to be made, of his, her, or their respective name or names; and

and of every mill, press, and other utensil so intended to be employed; and of the name or names of the owner or owners thereof, and also of every storehouse, warehouse, cellar, or other place wherein such maker or makers intend to lay or keep such cyder or perry; and if any such maker or makers shall make use of any other mill, press, or utensil, storehouse, warehouse, cellar, or other place whatsoever, either for the making, laying, or keeping, any cyder or perry, without having made such entry as aforesaid, or any entry thereof, in pursuance of the said former act, he, she, or they, shall respectively forfeit and lose the sum of twenty-five pounds for every such offence: and all and every the officers of excise, shall, at all times in the day-time, be permitted, upon their requests, to enter the mill-house, storehouse, warehouse, cellar, and all other places whatsoever used by any such maker or makers as aforesaid, either for the making, laying, or keeping of cyder or perry, of which notice shall or ought to have been given, in pursuance of this act; and to gauge and take an account of all the cyder or perry which shall be there found, and shall thereof make return or report in writing to the respective commissioners of excise in Great-Britain, or such other person or persons as they shall respectively appoint to receive the same, leaving a true copy of such report in writing, under his or their hand or hands, with or for such maker or makers of cyder or perry: and such report or return of the said officer or officers shall be a charge upon such maker or makers of cyder or perry; and the amount of the duties thereby charged shall be paid by such maker or makers respectively, within such time as is by this act appointed.—Provided always, and be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the said fifth day of July, no owner or proprietor whatsoever of any mill, press, or other utensil for the making of cyder or perry, which shall be let out or lent to any other person for the purpose of making cyder or perry, shall be obliged to give any notice of the letting or lending such mill, press, or other utensil, or of the making cyder or perry therewith, by the person to whom the same shall be so let or lent; any thing in the said former act contained to the contrary thereof in any wise notwithstanding.

And for the better accommodation of such makers of cyder or perry, who shall compound for the duty on cyder and perry granted by the said recited act: be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the fifth day of July, one thousand seven hundred and sixty-four, when any such maker shall intend to sell or dispose of any cyder or perry immediately from the mill pound's mouth, or place where the same shall be made, the officer of excise of the division or place where such makers shall reside, shall, and he is hereby required, during the time of making cyder or perry only, and at no other time, to deliver to, and leave with such maker, if demanded, in writing, a sufficient quantity of blank certificates, numbered one, two, three, and so on in an arithmetical progression, to be filled up by such maker, and subscribed by him or her, who shall express in each of the said certificates that shall be filled up, the exact number of gallons of cyder or perry, intended to be sent therewith, and the number of casks or package containing the same, and the place to which, and the name and place of abode of the persons to whom, such cyder or perry is to be sent, and the time when such certificate is filled up; which certificate (provided it accompanies the quantity of cyder or perry mentioned therein) shall be a sufficient protection for the removal of such cyder or perry, immediately from the mill pound mouth, or place where the same shall be made; and that the officer of excise, at the same time that he delivers any quantity of blank certificates, to any such maker as aforesaid, shall also deliver to such maker a like quantity of blank counterparts of such certificates, bearing the same numbers with the certificates: and such maker is hereby required, whenever he fills up the blanks of any certificate for the removal of cyder or perry, as aforesaid, at the same time to fill up and subscribe the blanks of the counterpart thereof, in all particulars agreeable to the certificate; and such maker shall, at the time of the delivery of the said blank certificates, and counterparts, give a receipt to the officer of excise delivering the same, acknowledging that he or she hath received so many blank certificates, and the counterparts thereof, numbered as aforesaid; which counterparts so filled up, shall be returned by such maker to the respective officer of excise, whenever he shall require the same; and such maker shall then also shew to the officer, all the certificates and counterparts not used or filled up; to the end the officer may then know what number of certificates have been filled up; and such maker shall, at respective times, when he or she shall deliver up such counterparts so filled up, from time to time declare upon oath (or affirmation, if a quaker) to be administered by the supervisor of excise of the division or district where such maker resides, that the several quantities of cyder and perry specified in the several counterparts so directed to be delivered up, contain the whole quantity of cyder and perry which he or she shall have sold or disposed of, from his or her mill pound's mouth, or place where the same was made; and

the respective officers of excise within their several divisions are hereby required, from time to time, from the several counterparts of such certificates so filled up, sworn to, and delivered as aforesaid, to make returns or reports in writing of the several quantities of cyder and perry sold or disposed of as aforesaid, by every such maker respectively, to the respective commissioners of excise in Great-Britain, or such other person or persons as they shall respectively appoint to receive the same, leaving true copies of such report in writing, under his or their hand or hands, with or for such respective maker; and such returns or reports of the said officer or officers, shall be the charges upon such respective makers of cyder or perry: and the amount of the duties thereby charged, shall be paid respectively by such makers, to the respective collectors of excise, within whose collection such makers shall dwell and inhabit; or to such other person or persons as the said respective commissioners of excise shall respectively appoint to receive the same, within the space of six calendar months, to be computed from the time of making such charge: and if any such maker of cyder or perry, shall neglect or refuse to deliver to the officer of excise, when required, all the counterparts of certificates then filled up, or to declare upon oath or affirmation as aforesaid, or to shew to the officer all the certificates and counterparts not used or filled up, or shall sell or dispose of more cyder or perry from the mill pound's mouth or place of making, than is mentioned in such counterparts so delivered up, or shall fraudulently insert in the blank of either counterpart or certificate, a greater or less quantity of cyder or perry than is really sent with such certificate: every such maker offending in any of the said cases, for every such offence shall respectively forfeit and lose the sum of twenty-five pounds: and that no certificate to be filled up by any such maker, shall be in force for the removal of cyder or perry, immediately from the mill pound's mouth or place of making, but between the first day of September and the thirty-first day of December, in each year; and that every such maker shall, every year, within ten days next after the thirty-first day of December in each year, deliver, or cause to be delivered, to the officer of excise of the division or place where he or she resides, all the blank certificates and counterparts thereof which have not been filled up by such maker: and if any such maker of cyder or perry, shall neglect or refuse by the space of ten days next after the thirty-first day of December in any year, to deliver or cause to be delivered, to the proper officer of excise, all the blank certificates and counterparts thereof which have not been filled up by such maker, every such maker shall for every such offence respectively, forfeit and lose the sum of twenty-five pounds.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if from and after the said fifth day of July, any person or persons whatsoever shall assault, oppose, molest, or hinder, any officer or officers of excise, in the due execution of any of the powers or authorities given and granted by this act: and every the party or parties so offending, shall, for every such offence respectively, forfeit and lose the sum of fifty pounds.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any officer of excise shall refuse, or wilfully neglect, to leave a true copy of his report in writing, with the maker or makers of cyder and perry, as this or the said former act directs, or to grant a certificate for the removal of any cyder or perry, upon reasonable request made for that purpose: or if any maker of cyder and perry, authorized and empowered by this present act to compound and agree for and in lieu of the duty granted by the said former act, shall offer to make such compositions and agreement, and if such officer of excise shall refuse, or wilfully neglect, to accept such compositions and agreement as this present act directs; every such officer of excise for refusing or wilfully neglecting, shall for each refusal or neglect, forfeit and pay the sum of forty shillings; which forfeiture and penalty shall and may be sued for, levied, recovered, and applied, in like manner as the other forfeitures and penalties imposed by this, or the said former act, may be sued for, levied, recovered, and applied.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That the several penalties imposed by this act, shall and may be sued for, recovered, levied, mitigated and disposed of, by the same ways, means, and methods, and in the same proportions as any penalty imposed by the said recited act may be sued for, recovered, levied, mitigated, or disposed of: and be it further enacted, by the authority aforesaid, That if any person or persons, shall at any time or times be sued, molested, or prosecuted, for any thing by him, her, or them, done or executed, in pursuance of or by colour of this act, or of any matter or thing in this act containing, such person or persons shall and may plead the general issue, and give this act, and the special matter in evidence, in his, her, or their defence, or defences; and if afterwards a verdict shall pass for the defendant or defendants, or the plaintiff or plaintiffs shall become nonsuited, or discontinue his, her, or their action or prosecution, or judgment shall be given against him or them, upon demurrer, or otherwise; then such defendant or defendants, shall have treble costs awarded to him, her, or them, against such plaintiff or plaintiffs.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

confirmed by oath made on the warrant, to which it must be annexed. The form of which oath must be as follows :

25th of February, 1730.—No. 54.
In the Hope of London, William Wilson master, from Dublin.
Francis Willis.

Five bales, containing seven thousand, five hundred, and eighty yards, plain Irish linnen, as per No. 1 a 5. certificate, dated the 10th instant, hereunto annexed.

William Wilson, master of the above ship, maketh oath, That the five bales of linnen abovementioned were actually laden on board his said ship at Dublin, in Ireland, and that the said bales, and linnen therein contained, are the same which are mentioned in, and were taken on board, by virtue of the certificate from thence, dated the 10th instant, now produced: and that he verily believes, and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the said linnen is of the product and manufacture of the kingdom of Ireland.

Signed—William Wilson.

Jurat' 25^o die Februarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland.

* Wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ferges, bays, kerseys, says, frizes, druggets, shalloons, stuffs, cloth ferges, or any other drapery made of, or mixed with, wool, or wool-flocks, and manufactured in the kingdom of Ireland, may be imported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kingfale, Cork, Drogheda, and New Ross, into Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford-Haven, Chester, and Liverpool, provided notice be first given to the customer or collector, &c. of the port into which the same are intended to be brought, of the quality, quantity, and package, with the marks and numbers, and the name of the ship and master, and the port into which they are imported; and bond be entered into with one or more sufficient sureties, in treble the value of the goods, for the due landing of the same.

* 1 W. and M. cap. 32. §. 6. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 28. §. 5. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 10. §. 10, 14. 4 Ann. cap. 7. §. 1.

The form of which bond must be as follows :

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above bounden Benjamin Forward, hath given notice to the customer or collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Chester, of his intentions of lading, at the port of Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight

B. F. hundred stone of Irish wool (marked and numbered as No. 1 a 80 in the margin) on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master, in order to be imported into the port of Chester, and for which he hath desired a licence accordingly :

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said Benjamin Forward, or his assigns, or any of them, shall not carry the said wool so laden at Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, into any port beyond the seas, but shall duly and truly import the same in the aforesaid vessel, into the port of Chester, or into some of the following ports of Great-Britain, viz. Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford-Haven, or Liverpool, and shall there unlade, and put on shore the same, the dangers of the seas excepted: then this present obligation to be void and of none effect, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Benjamin Forward *.
James Hopkins *.

And, when bond is thus given, the chief customer or collector, &c. of the port, must grant a licence under their hands and seals of office, for the importation of the goods therein specified: which licence must be in the following form :

An account of wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ferges, bays, kerseys, says, frizes, druggets, shalloons, stuffs, cloth-ferges, &c. imported from Ireland into this port, between the 25th of December 1730 and the 24th of June 1731.

Loading ports.	Dates of cockets.	Ships names.	Masters names.	Owners names.	To whom consigned.	Marks and numbers.	Quality of the package	Quantities of wool.	Quantities of wool-flocks.	Quantities of woollen.
Dublin.	18 Feb. 1730	Fortune.	J Hopkins	John Dod.	B. Forward	B F 1 a 80.	80 Packs.	1800 Stone	_____	_____
					Of yarn worsted	No. of wool-fells.				

Port of Chester.

In pursuance of an act of parliament made in the tenth and eleventh years of the reign of king William the III^d, intitled, An act to prevent the exportation of wool out of the kingdoms of Ireland and England into foreign parts, and for the encouragement of the woollen manufactures in the kingdom of England.

We do hereby certify, That Benjamin Forward of Chester hath given notice of his intention of lading at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight

B. F. hundred stone of Irish wool, marked and numbered as in the margin, on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master; to

No. 1 a 80 Loc. Sig.* be imported into the port of Chester, and hath here given security, according to the said act, for the

Loc. Sig.* landing thereof accordingly, the danger of the seas excepted; therefore he the said Benjamin Forward is hereby licensed to lade and import the

same, according to the said act. Witness our hands and seals of office, the 27th day of January 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, C. D. Comptroller.

* And when, by virtue of the aforesaid licence, such wool, &c. arrives at the intended port of Great-Britain, it must be observed whether the cockets granted in Ireland, for the exportation thereof, are wrote on paper (and not on parchment) and are signed by three of the chief officers of the port; and whether the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, are indorsed thereon as the law directs, otherwise the landing must not be permitted; but, if the said requisites are duly performed, entries are to be made, and warrants granted for the landing, as for other goods: and, at the landing the said goods, they are to be carefully viewed and examined by the surveyor and land-waiters, in order that the landing may be certified to the officers of the loading-port in Ireland, after the following manner :

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 7.

Port of Chester. } Know ye, That Benjamin Forward hath landed in this port, out of the ship Fortune of Liverpool, James Hopkins master, from Dublin, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight hundred stone of Irish wool, as appears by the indorsed particulars; which came by cocket from thence, dated the 18th day of February, 1730, mentioning to have there laden eighty packs, containing one thousand eight hundred stone of Irish wool; and for which a licence was granted at this port, the 27th day of January 1730: which said goods were consigned to Benjamin Forward, and delivered by D. E. land-waiter.

Certified the 15th day of March 1730.

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.
C. D. Surveyor.

* This certificate to be made on paper, not parchment, and to express the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers of the goods, which must not be obliterated or interlined.

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 7, 9.

Duplicates of which certificates, with the indorsements thereon, are likewise, from time to time, to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in London.

* And as it is required that a register be kept at the custom-house in London, of all wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland; wherein are to be specified the particular qualities and quantities thereof, the masters and owners names, and to whom consigned; in order to be compared with an account, that is to be sent from the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, every half year. Therefore, besides the aforesaid duplicates, an account of all wool, &c. imported into the respective ports, must be transmitted every half year to the commissioners of the customs, in the following form :

* 1 W. and M. cap. 32. §. 11. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 28. §. 6. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 10. §. 6.

Port of Chester,

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE:

Naval stores imported from the British plantations in America, and trees fit for masts, yards, or bowsprits, imported from Scotland.

* The aforesaid stores imported directly from any of the British plantations in America, or the trees from that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, being intitled to a reward or premium, therefore, in order to procure the same, the following requisites must be performed at the time of importation.

* 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1. 2. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4. 12.

Upon the master's arrival, he must produce to the chief officers of the customs, at the port of importation, the certificate which was granted at the loading port, viz.

If the ship comes from the British plantations.

A certificate under the hands and seals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector of the customs, and naval officer in the said plantations, or any two of them, testifying, that, before the departure of the ship, the person loading the said naval stores, had made oath before them, that the same were, truly and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of the said plantations: and, with respect to the high bounty or premium on tar, the said certificate must likewise express, That it has appeared to them, by the oath of the owner or maker of the tar for which such certificate was granted, that the tar therein mentioned was made from green trees prepared for that purpose, after the following manner; that is to say, that, when such trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was stripped eight feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a slip of the bark of about four inches in breadth having been left on one side of each tree; and that each tree, after having been so barked, had stood during one year at the least, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the said tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith. The form of which certificate is usually as follows:

Port of Boston, in } In the Alice of Hull, Daniel Granger
New England } master, for Southampton.
William Ford.

Four bundles, containing three tons of hemp, of the produce of one of his majesty's plantations in America, as appears to us by the following oath:

Jurat' William Ford, That the hemp abovementioned, by him shipped on board the abovenamed ship, the Alice of Hull, whereof Daniel Granger is master, bound for Southampton, is truly and bonâ fide, according to the best of his knowledge, of the growth and produce of his majesty's plantations a-

* Loc. Sig. bovenamed †. In testimony whereof, we have hereto set our hands and seals of office, at the Custom-

* Loc. Sig. House aforesaid, this eighteenth day of December, in the fourth of his majesty's reign, annoque Domini 1730.

A. B. Collector of the Customs, B. C. Naval Officer.

† When the certificate is for tar, made from trees purposely prepared, in the manner beforementioned, there must then be added after this reference,—And that the said tar was made from green trees, prepared for that purpose, as the law directs.

If the ship comes from North Britain, or Scotland.

A certificate under the hands and seals of the comptroller and collector of the customs, and the naval officer, or any two of them, residing at the port of exportation in North Britain, testifying, that, before the departure of the ship, the persons concerned, or employed, in cutting down such trees, or any two of them, had made affidavit in writing before them, or any two of them, That such trees were truly, and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of North Britain: in which affidavit must be specified the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the name of the proprietor, and the place where the same did grow; and in the aforesaid certificate must be inserted a true copy of this affidavit. The form of the certificate may be the same as that from the British plantations beforementioned, except only in the tenor of the affidavit, which must be formed according to the foregoing directions, and, therefore, it needs not be exemplified.

And, after the goods mentioned in any of the aforesaid certificates are duly landed, the truth of such certificates must be confirmed by the oath of the master, made either upon the back thereof, or upon separate paper, in the following words, viz.

Daniel Granger, master of the ship Alice of Hull, lately arrived from Boston in New England, maketh oath, That the four bundles of hemp within mentioned, were really and truly laden on board his said ship at Boston, a British plantation in America, [or at ——— in Scotland,] and that the four bundles of hemp, which he hath now delivered out of his said ship in this port of Southampton, are the very same goods which he took on board at Boston as aforesaid, and that he knows [or verily believes] every part thereof to be of the growth and product [or manufacture] of the said province, or of some other of his majesty's

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colonies and plantations in America [or of some part of Scotland].

Signed—Daniel Granger.

Jurat' apud Southampton,
7^o die Martii, 1730, coram me A. B. Collector.

Goods for which security may be taken for payment of some of the duties.

As, for the greater ease and encouragement of trade; part of the duties on several sorts of goods are not obliged to be paid down at entry, but security may be taken for payment of the same at certain periods of time, I shall here give the necessary directions which are to be observed in taking such securities, which are as follow:

1. That * all obligations and specialities, made for any cause concerning the king's most royal majesty, or to his heirs, or to their use, &c. must be made to his majesty, and to his heirs (kings) in his or their name or names, by these words, Domino regi, and to be paid to his majesty by these words, Solvendis eidem domino regi, hæredibus vel executoribus suis: and that, for all other obligations taken otherwise, the offender is to suffer such imprisonment as shall be judged by the king and his council: and, likewise, that, if the debt of such obligations is not satisfied in the king's life-time, they are to come, and remain, to his heirs or executors.

* 38 Hen. VIII. cap. 39. §. 2, 3.

2. That the collector is to endeavour, with the privacy and approbation of the comptroller, to take good and sufficient securities, by one, two, or more persons besides the importer, for the several bondable duties; which approbation he may signify; either by being a witness to the bond, or by a proper certificate under his hand, according to the following form:

I do approve of Dennis Dove and Samuel Lloyd, of Southampton, as sufficient securities for the sum of one thousand seven hundred pounds. Dated the third of February, 1730.

B. C. Comptroller.

Thus having premised all that was necessary to be noted in relation to bonds in general, I shall next proceed to exemplify the several particular bonds that are to be taken for the security of the duties on goods and merchandizes imported.

1. A bond for the additional duty on linnens and wrought silk imported.

* Linnens and wrought silks imported, being chargeable with an additional duty of a full moiety of net old subsidy, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down such additional duty, or to give security for the payment of the same within twelve months from the importation: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be after the following form:

* Clauses in the book of rates after linnen and silk.

Noverint universi per presentes, nos A. B. & B. C. singulos de Southamptonia, in comitatu Southamptoniæ, mercatores, teneri & firmiter obligari serenissimo domino nostro Georgio Secundo, Dei gratia, Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, & Hiberniæ, regi, fidei defensori, &c. in centum libris, bonæ & legalis monetæ Magnæ Britanniæ, solvendis eidem domino regi, hæredibus vel executoribus suis: ad quam quidem solutionem bene & fideliter faciendam, obligamus nos & * utrumque [aut † quemlibet] nostrum, per se, pro toto & in solido, hæredes, executores, & administratores nostros & * utriusque [aut † cujuslibet] nostrum, firmiter per presentes. Sigillis nostris sigillat'. Dat' nono die Februarii, anno regni regis prædicti quarto, annoque Domini 1730.

* If but two obligors.

† If more than two obligors.

The condition of this obligation is such, That, if the above-bounden A. B. and B. C. their executors, administrators, or assigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto C. D. collector of his majesty's customs in the said port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majesty's customs in the said port for the time being, for his said majesty's use, the sum of forty-nine pounds, nineteen shillings, and five pence, of lawful money, on or before the ninth day of February, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand, seven hundred, and thirty-one; being for the additional duty of five hundred twenty-six hundred ells of narrow German linnen, imported from Ham-burgh, in the ship Hope of London, whereof Daniel Grove is master, and entered this day at the Custom-House in the port of Southampton, in the name of A. B. then this present obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered
in the presence of

A. B. *
B. C. *

C. D. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

2. A bond for the additional duty on wines imported.

* All wines imported, being chargeable with an additional duty, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down such additional duty, or to give good security for the payment of the same within nine months from the importation: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be performed in the manner before prescribed in the bond for the additional duty on linnens and wrought silk, with this only variation, that, for this duty, the time of payment must be limited to nine months from the importation.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 14.

3. A bond for the impost on wines and vinegar imported.

* All wines and vinegar imported, being chargeable with an impost, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down such impost, or to become bound with two, or more, sufficient sureties, or procure three other persons, to become bound to his majesty for the payment of the same, by three several and equal payments; the first whereof to be made within three months, the second within six months, and the third and last within nine months after the date of the obligation; therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be after the following form:

* 1 Jac. II. cap. 3. §. 3.

Noverint universi, &c.

The condition of this obligation is such, That, if the above-bounded Humphry Hill, George Salter, and Mark Forward, their executors, administrators, or assigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay unto A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majesty's customs in the said port for the time being, for his majesty's use, the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine pence half-penny, of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of April; and the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine pence half-penny of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of July; and also the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine-pence three-farthings, of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of October, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand, seven hundred, and thirty-one; being for the impost-duty of eighteen tons of Spanish wine, filled for sale, imported from Malaga, in the ship Delight of Southampton, whereof David Stone is master, and entered this day at the Custom-House in the port of Southampton, in the name of Humphry Hill: then this present obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

Humphry Hill, *
George Salter, *
Mark Forward. *

4. A bond for $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Impost } 1690^*, \\ \text{Impost } 169\frac{2}{3}\dagger, \\ \text{New duty on whale-fins } \ddagger. \end{array} \right.$

The importers of the several species of goods chargeable with the aforementioned duties, being at their liberties either to pay down the said duties, or to give security for payment of the same within twelve months after the importation, by four equal and quarterly payments: therefore, when it is their choice to give such security, it must be performed in the manner before prescribed in the bond for the impost-duty on wines and vinegar; with this only variation, that as in that bond the total duty was

divided into three equal parts, and three quarterly days assigned for their respective payments; so here the total duties must be divided into four equal parts, and four quarterly days be assigned for the several respective payments.

* 2 Will. and Mar. cap. 4. §. 54.
† 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. §. 6.
‡ 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 45. §. 5.

5. A bond for the new duty on pepper, raisins, &c. imported.

* The importers of the goods liable to this duty being at their liberty either to pay down the said duty, or to give security for the payment of the same within twelve months: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be performed in the method prescribed in the bond for the additional duty on linnen and wrought silks.

* 8 Ann. cap. 7. §. 15.

6. A bond for the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Additional duty} \\ \text{New subsidy} \\ \frac{1}{3} \text{ Subsidy} \\ \text{Impost} \end{array} \right. \text{ on tobacco from the British plantations.}$

The importers of tobacco being at liberty either to pay down the aforesaid duties, or to give security for payment of the same: therefore, when the latter is their choice, they must * become bound, with one or more sufficient sureties, to be approved of by the collector and comptroller of the port, in one or more bond or bonds, for payment of the said duties within eighteen months, to commence at the end of thirty days after the master's report of the ship, or from the entry of the goods within those thirty days, which shall first happen; the form of which bond must be as follows:

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 3.

Noverint universi, &c.

The condition of this obligation is such, That, if the above-bounded Dennis Dove and Samuel Lloyd, their executors, administrators, or assigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majesty's customs in the said port for the time being, for his said majesty's use, the sum of one thousand seven hundred pounds, New subsidy - 318 15 0 of lawful money, on or before the third day of August, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and thirty-two, being for the additional duty, new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and impost, of ninety thousand pounds weight of British plantation tobacco, entered this day in the name of Dennis Dove, having been imported from Virginia in the ship Olive-Branch of Liverpool, whereof Giles Ellis is master, who reported the twenty-eighth day of January last, at the Custom-House in the port of Southampton: then this present obligation to be void, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

Dennis Dove, *
Samuel Lloyd. *

7. A bond for the new duty on salt.

The bonds being made out and executed, according to the aforesaid directions and examples, they are, besides being inserted in distinct columns in the entry-book inwards, to be entered by way of charge on the left-hand side of a separate account, which is to be erected for every importer, in two particular books, which are to be kept for that purpose, the one by the collector, and the other by the comptroller: and, after the bonds are so entered, they are to be immediately locked up in the king's chest, there to remain under the distinct locks of the collector and comptroller, till duly discharged.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Date of Bonds.	Humphry Hill, Principal } George Salter, } Sure- } Mark Forward, } t es. } Dr.	Quantities and Qualities of the Goods imported.	Addition. Duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Impost on Wine.	Impost on Tobacco	Impost 1690.	Impost 1692-3.	Date of Payments, Debentures, &c.	Per Contra—Cr.	Quantities and Qualities of the Goods exported, &c.	Addition. Duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Impost on Wine.	Impost on Tobacco.	Impost 1690.	Impost 1692-3.
1730 15 Jan.		To bonds for goods imported in the Delight of Southampton, David Stone master, from Malaga - - -	{ 18 Tons of Spanish wine filled for sale. }	64 16 0 64 16 0						1731 15 April 15 July 15 October	By cash - - - - By cash - - - - By cash in full - - -					59 0 9 59 0 9 59 0 9			
3 Feb.	Char. Altrom, Principal } Edm. Crowder, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Martha of Pool, John Willis master, from Sweden - - - -	70 Tons of iron					80 10 0 80 10 0		20 March 3 May 2 August 3 Novemb. 3 February	Per Contra—Cr. By a certif. of over-entry By cash - - - - By cash - - - - By cash - - - - By cash - - - -	.30 Iron						4 1 4 16 1 1 20 2 6 20 2 6 20 2 6	
3 Feb.	Dennis Dove, Principal } Samuel Lloyd, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Olive-Branch of Liverpool, Giles Ellis master, from Virginia - - -	90,000 Tobacco	318 15 0 318 15 0	318 15 0 318 15 0	106 5 0 106 5 0		956 5 0 956 5 0		20 March 7 Novemb.	Per Contra—Cr. By debentures - - - By cash in full - - -	lb. 35167 Tobac. 5488 9000	124 11 0 194 4 0 318 15 0	124 11 0 194 4 0 318 15 0	41 10 4 64 14 8 106 5 0		373 13 0 582 12 0 956 5 0		
7 Feb.	Aaron Holt, Principal } Samuel Fell, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Welcome of Hull, Charles Jones master, from Maryland - - - -	4000 Tobacco	14 3 4	14 3 4	4 14 5 1/2		42 10 0		20 March	Per Contra—Cr. By debentures - - - By ballance - - -	lb. 2500 Tobacco 1500 4000	8 17 1 5 6 3 14 3 4	8 17 1 5 6 3 14 3 4	2 19 0 1/2 1 15 4 1/2 4 14 5 1/2		26 11 3 15 18 9 42 10 0		
13 Feb.	George Tims, Principal } William Dod, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Welcome of Hull, Charles Jones master, from Maryland - - - -	8000 Tobacco	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10 1/2		85 0 0		20 March	Per Contra—Cr. By debentures - - -	lb. 8000 Tobacco	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10 1/2		85 0 0		
3 Mar.	Jam. Withers, Principal } Henry Dalton, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells master, from Peterburgh - - -	{ 400 hund. Hemp 200 hund. Tow }						18 6 8 18 6 8	28 March 8 June 6 Septemb. 7 Decemb. 8 March	Per Contra—Cr. By a certificate of damage By cash - - - - By cash - - - - By cash - - - - By cash in full - - -	C. 160 Tow da. 1/2						2 0 0 2 11 8 4 11 8 4 11 8 4 11 8 18 6 8	
1730 22 Mar.	John Sims, Principal } Aaron Wilfon, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for coals brought coastward in the Hope of Lanely, himself master, from Lanely - - - -	43 3/4 Chalders	3 s. Coals 6 11 3	2 s. Coals 4 7 6	N. D. on S.				1731 20 June	Per Contra—Cr. By cash in full - - -	43 3/4 Chalders	3 s. Coals 6 11 3	2 s. Coals 4 7 6	N. D. on S.				
1730 23 Mar.	Jam. Moreton, Principal } George Hew, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for goods imported in the Mary of Bristol, Humph. Kell master, from Cadiz - - - -	{ 90 Weys } { Span. falt }			360 0 0				18 Septemb.	Per Contra—Cr. By cash in full - - -	90 Weys			360 0 0				
24 Mar.	Henry Bicknel, Principal } Thomas Ford, Surety } Dr.	To bonds for falt taken out of the cellars - - - -	{ 25 W. 15 } { B. Bay falt }			101 10 0				20 Septemb.	Per Contra—Cr. By cash in full - - -	{ 25 Weys } { 15 Bushels }			101 10 0				

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

The amount of the several bonds which have been taken, being charged to the debtor-side of each merchant's proper account as before exemplified, and the bonds themselves being repositied in the king's chests; I shall next shew how the said accounts and bonds are to be discharged.

Upon the receipt of the whole, or any part of a bond, either by money, debentures, or certificates of damage or over-entry; the sum received, or to be allowed, must be immediately posted to the discharge of the proper bond, on the right-hand or credit-side of the accounts, wherein they before had been charged debtor; and, if discharged by money, the sum received must be likewise entered by the collector and comptroller in distinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpose, in the method specified at the end of the quarter-book, under the title of, An account of money received in discharge of bonds formerly taken.

And in those bonds where the conditions require the payment to be made at several times, or where any part of a bond is paid before it becomes due, or wherein any part of the goods therein mentioned, have had an allowance for damage, or have been over-entered, or, being intituled to a drawback, have been exported; when such payments are made, or regular debentures or certificates produced, their amounts must be likewise immediately endorsed on the backs of their respective bonds, by way of discharge for so much as they do amount to. The form of which endorsement may be as follows:

20th of April, 1731.

Paid, in part of this bond, six hundred and } sixty-four pounds, five shillings, and four- } pence, by debentures relating - - -	l. s. d. 664 5 4
--	---------------------

Signed Dennis Dove.

Witnesses { A. B. Collector.
 { B. C. Comptroller.

viz.	Additional duty -	124	11	0				
	New subsidy -	124	11	0				
	One third subsidy	41	10	4				
	Impost	373	13	0				
		664	5	4				

And when the bonds are fully discharged, either by payment in money, or by debentures or certificates relating, they are to be delivered up to the obligors.

But, if the payments of the bonds are not punctually made on the days specified in the conditions, the collector is to demand the same; and, if they are not discharged within fourteen days after demand, the bonds must be sent up (more especially in vacation-times, that the benefit of the approaching terms may not be lost) to the proper solicitor of the customs, with a schedule thereof, attested under the hands of the collector and comptroller, in order to be put in suit, for the principal and interest: and, if the obligors are thought to be totally insolvent, a distinct list of such bonds, with a certificate under the hands of the collector and comptroller, of the conditions of the obligors, and the reason of their insolvency, are to be likewise sent to the said

solicitor: and, for the due prosecutions of such bonds that are thought to be recoverable, not only the collector is to keep a constant correspondence with the said solicitor, who will send the process; but also the country-attorney, employed in soliciting the same with the sheriff, must correspond with him, and follow his directions.

And, after bonds are thus sent up to the solicitor to be prosecuted, the collector is not to look upon himself as discharged thereof, and from taking any further care in getting in the money due thereupon; but must use his utmost endeavour to recover the same: and as soon as any money, whether principal or interest, is received upon such bonds, the solicitor is to be acquainted therewith; who, if the whole appears to be discharged, must send down the bond, in order to be delivered up to the obligors.

And with regard to the payment of bonds for customs, or other duties on goods imported, which have elapsed their times, it must be observed, * that the penalties are not to be discharged without full payment of the principal, together with † interest, at 6l. per cent. per annum, to be reckoned from the day on which the principal became due, until the actual payment, &c. unless the treasury, upon representation of the commissioners of the customs, shall think fit to remit it; but interest may not be remitted to any corporation or company trading by charter: and when interest is due on any bond, and there is any money received thereon, such money is first to be applied to the discharge of the interest then due, and the residue towards the principal: and, when any interest is received upon bonds, the same must be entered by the collector and comptroller, in distinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpose, in the method specified at the end of the quarter-book, under the title of, An account of interest received on bonds formerly taken, &c. And the money, as well principal as interest, received upon account of bonds, is to be entered in the proper abstracts, and to be remitted to the receiver-general, in like manner as the money paid upon the entry of goods.

* 4 Ann. cap. 6. §. 26, 27.

† But, with respect to tobacco-bonds, it is the opinion of the attorney-general, That interest is not due thereon, when the tobacco is exported within three years (the time allowed by law for the exportation) from the importation; though, in strictness, the bonds are forfeited, and may be put in suit, if they are not paid, or the tobacco exported in eighteen months. And therefore, when such bonds are become due, the commissioners must be acquainted whether the tobacco is in being and where, and if really intended for exportation; as also whether the sureties are at that time of ability to answer the penalty of the bond.

Lastly, with respect to tobacco-bonds, it must be observed, that if after they have been given as before directed, for payment of the duties at the end of eighteen months; the importer should discharge the whole, or any part thereof, in ready money, before the expiration of the said time, he must be allowed a discount, after the rate of seven per cent. per annum, in proportion to the time unexpired: for the payment of which discount, a certificate must be made out after the following form: but consistent with the alterations that shall happen from time to time.

Dennis Dove.

Date of bond.	Ship and Master's name.	Date of the Ship's Rep.	Quantity of Tobacco.	Addition. Duty.	New Subsidy.	$\frac{1}{3}$ Subsidy.	Impost.	Total.	Time unexpired.							
1730 3 Feb.	{ Olive-branch } { Giles Ellis }	28 Jan. 1730	lb.													
			Enter'd outw. 35228													
			Short landed - 61													
			Debenture for 35167	124	11	0	124	11	0	41	10	4	373	13	0	664
Paid for - 54833	194	4	0	194	4	0	64	14	8	582	12	0	1035	14	8	
Enter'd inw. 90000	318	15	0	318	15	0	106	5	0	956	5	0	1700	0	0	

This is to certify, That Mr Dennis Dove did, on the 7th day of November, 1731, pay the sum of one thousand thirty-five pounds, fourteen shillings, and eight-pence, in full discharge of the above-mentioned bond.

A. B. Collector. B. C. Comptroller.

The discount after the rate of 7 per cent. per annum, to be allowed for the payment of the one thousand thirty-five pounds, fourteen shillings, and eight-pence, above-mentioned, two hundred and sixty-nine days before the expiration of the bond, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eight shillings, and seven-pence.

	l. s. d.						
Viz. {	Additional duty -	10	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$			
	New subsidy -	10	0	4 $\frac{1}{2}$			
	$\frac{1}{3}$ Subsidy -	3	6	9 $\frac{1}{2}$			
	Impost -	30	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$			
		53	8	7			

A. B. Collector. B. C. Comptroller.

This certificate being thus made out, the quantity of tobacco for which the duties are repaid, and the time of payment, are to be noted in the margin of the entry-book inwards, opposite to the respective entry; to prevent the allowance of discount more than once, or to remind the officers that the said discount must be deducted from the drawback, in case any part of such tobacco should be afterwards exported: which being performed, the amount of the said certificate is to be paid to the merchant, taking his receipt for the same, on the back thereof, after the following manner:

Southampton, 10th of November, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of } his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. } their collector in this port, the sum of fifty- } three pounds, eight shillings, and seven-pence, } in full of this certificate - - - - - }	l. s. d. 53 8 7
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Signed Dennis Dove.

Witnesses
B. C. Comptroller.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

But, before these certificates are paid to the merchants, they must be entered in separate books, to be kept by the collector and comptroller for that purpose, after the following form :

No. of certificates.	Merchants names.	Ships and masters names.	Date of the bond.	Date of the Ships report.	When paid duties.	Quantity of tobacco paid for.	Additional Duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Import.	Time elapsed.
1	Dennis Dove	{ Olive-branch } { Giles Ellis }	3 Feb. 1730.	28 Jan. 1730.	7 Nov. 1731.	lb. 54833	10 0 4	10 0 4	3 6 9	30 1 1	269 Days.

And, at the end of each month, these several duties must be added up, and their particular totals transferred to the discharge of the respective duties, in the proper column in the monthly abstracts ; and also, at the end of each quarter, the totals of the three months must be added together, and their amount transferred to the credit-side of the quarterly account-current.

All that I have further to say in relation to bonds, is, that, at the close of each quarter, a true state thereof must be transmitted with the other quarterly accounts ; which state must consist of two parts, viz. bonds formerly taken, and bonds taken in that quarter : the left-hand side, or charge of the former part whereof, supposes accounts to have been before opened, and a former quarterly state to have been transmitted ; and therefore is only a transcript (from such former state) of the total of each merchant's bonds remaining in the collector's hands, at the end of that quarter ; and the right-hand side, or discharge, is formed from the books of the account of money received in discharge of bonds formerly taken ; and the books of debenture, certificates of over-entries, damages and discounts ; the total of which dif-

charges being deducted from the charges, the difference must be inserted in the last column but one, which shews the sums due upon every particular bond, and must be likewise transferred to the last column, unless there be more bonds than one belonging to the same merchant, and then the total of all that merchant's bonds must be inserted in one sum in the said last column ; and, as a proof of the truth, may be confronted with the respective merchant's accounts in the bond-book.

And, as to the latter part of the said state, the left-hand side is only a transcript from that quarter's custom and coal-account ; and the right-hand side must be discharged in like manner as before directed for the former part of this account : and as frequently there will not be any discharge, therefore, in that case, the whole charge must be transferred to the two last columns, under the titles of, bonds remaining at the end of the quarter. But, more fully to illustrate the method of the aforesaid state of bonds, I shall here add an example of the form, being as follows :

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Bills of fight.

When goods come consigned to any merchant, and he has not received any invoice, bill of lading, or other advice, from his correspondent, or happens by any other means to be ignorant of the real quantities and qualities of the said goods, so that he is not capable of making a perfect entry of the same, he must acquaint the collector and comptroller thereof, and desire a bill at sight, or view, in order to have them brought on shore and examined; who, upon the merchant's making oath to the truth of his allegations, and depositing such a sum of money in the collector's hands as may be conjectured to be sufficient to answer the duties, will grant such bill. The form whereof, and the whole method of execution, must be as follows:

23d of January, 1730.

In the Swift of Lyme, Benjamin Lyon master, from Ostend.
Andrew Fountain.

Sight, } 2 cafes }
A.F. } 1 bale } of merchandize, quantity, and quality
No. 1 a 5. } 2 packets } unknown.

Andrew Fountain maketh oath, That neither he, nor any other person for his use, has received any invoice, bill of lading, or other advice, or doth know the contents of any of the goods abovementioned, so as to be capable of making a true and perfect entry thereof, without having them first examined by the officers of the customs.

Signed—Andrew Fountain.

Jurat 23^o die Januarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Sufficient money being deposited to secure the duties, you may permit the goods abovementioned to be landed under your care, and to be brought to his majesty's warehouse, to be there viewed, examined, &c. by the surveyor and the proper land-waiters, who are to endorse the particular quantities and qualities on the back hereof, and return the same to us immediately, that a perfect entry may be made: but the goods are not to be delivered till such perfect entry be made, and his majesty's full duties be paid.

Deposited fifty pounds.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

To }
D. E. Surveyor,
* E. F. Tide-Surveyor,
F. G. } Land-Waiters.
G. H. }

These bills being thus made out, they are to be entered on the left-hand side of a book, to be kept for that purpose, in the method hereafter mentioned; and, if the ship lies in the road, or any great distance from the key, they are to be directed to the * tide-surveyor, as well as the land-surveyor and land-waiters, and put into his hands to fetch them to the lawful key,

where he is to deliver them into the custody of the land-surveyor, and proper land-waiters, endorsing his part of the execution on the back thereof thus:

25th of January, 1730.

Delivered the goods within mentioned, into the custody of
F. G. land-waiter.

E. F. Tide-surveyor.

But, if the ship lies near the key, the land-waiter may send for the goods on shore, as is usual in other cases.

The goods having been carefully examined by the surveyor and land-waiters, they are (as directed in the said bills) to signify how they find them, by endorsing the particular quantities and qualities on the backs of the bills, after the following manner:

Landed by virtue, and in full [or in part] of this fight, forty demi cambricks, plain; one hundred and thirty ells of Flanders linnen, under 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ell; eighty ells of Flanders linnen, above 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, and under two ells, plain; forty yards of Flanders damask napkin, under 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ell; twelve yards of Flanders damask tabling, above two, and under three ells; one hundred and ten yards of thread bone-lace.

Certified the 27th of January, 1730.

D. E. Surveyor,
F. G. } Land-waiters.
G. H. }

These bills, being thus fully executed and completed, are to be immediately returned to the collector, customer, and comptroller, that a perfect entry may be formed therefrom in the king's books, and his majesty's full duties be charged to account, which they are to signify to the surveyor and land-waiters, by inserting the said duties on the bill, underneath their certificate of the execution, and subscribing their names thereto, as is usual in all other warrants: and, in adjusting these bills, after the full duties are deducted from the sum deposited, the remainder (if any) must be returned to the importer.

The duties being thus adjusted and fully paid for the goods, and the same signified on the bills of fight, they are forthwith returned to the surveyor and land-waiters, as a perfect warrant to them, for the delivery of the goods to the importer, which they are to permit accordingly: and, if such perfect warrant is not so returned, they are to demand the same the next day.

And if, at the close of a month, there are any fights standing out unperfected, and, consequently, the money deposited remaining in the collector's hands, such deposits are to be inserted on the back of that month's abstract. The aforesaid bills of fight, and their executions, are, before they are delivered to the officers to whom directed, to be entered in proper books to be kept by the collector, customer, and comptroller, after the following manner:

Date.	Bills at fight.	Sums deposited.	Their execution.	Sums charged for duties.	When charged.
1730	In the Swift of Lyme, Benjamin Lyon, from Ostend. Andrew Fountain.				
23 Jan.	A. F. No. 1 a 5 } of merchandize, quantity and quality 2 cafes } 1 bale } 2 packets } unknown.	50 0 0	40 demi cambricks, plain ; 130 ells, plain Flanders linnen, under 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ell ; 80 ells plain Flanders linnen, above 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, and under 2 ells ; 40 yards Flanders damask napkin, under 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ell ; 12 yards Flanders damask tabling, above 2, and under 3 ells ; 110 yards thread bone-lace D. E. Surveyor, F. G. } Land-waiters. G. H. }	22 8 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	In full, 28 Jan. 1730. No. 31.

Foreign goods returned.

When foreign goods, which have been regularly imported, have been afterwards exported, and are, for want of sale, or the great scarcity of such goods here, &c. desired to be returned, or again imported, into any port of Great-Britain, notwithstanding there is not any law for such re-importation, yet, upon payment of the like duties that were due upon the first importation, (though, perhaps, the goods were exported out of time, and, consequently, were not intitled to any drawback) it is the practice to indulge the merchant in such re-importation, although such goods may be prohibited to be originally imported from that place, upon performance of the following requisites: the first whereof is, to signify to the searcher, &c. the time when, and the ship in which they were exported; who thereupon will have recourse to their books, and, in case they find that such entry outwards was duly made, will grant a certificate, or duplicate thereof, as follows:

In the Hope of Whitehaven, William Hall, for Petersburg.
Edmund Frost.

One thousand pounds of Virginia tobacco, the subsidy inwards whereof was paid, and the other duties secured, by William Tims, the ninth of July, 1728. Dated the third of May, 1729.

The goods abovementioned were regularly shipped off, but four hundred eighty-six pounds of tobacco [for which a debenture hath passed] being part of the above entry, are now returned, in the † Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells master, from Peterburgh, as the merchant is ready to make oath. Dated at the custom-house at Southampton, the 15th of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher,
B. C. Land-waiter.

* To be omitted, if exported out of time.
† Or the same ship and master.

If the goods were entered outwards at any other port, this certificate must be granted by the officers of that port: but, if the cockpit whereby they were shipped be produced, I apprehend that will fully serve the same purpose.

And on the back of the aforesaid certificate proof must be made, by the oath of the merchant, that the goods then returned

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

turned are the same therein mentioned. The form of which proof must be as follows :

15th of March, 1730.—No. 6.

In the Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells master, from Petersburg.

Returned.

E. F. } Forty boxes, containing four hundred eighty-
No. 1 a 40 } six pounds of Virginia tobacco.

Edmund Frost maketh oath, That the tobacco abovementioned is now returned as part of the entry outwards within mentioned, which was formerly exported from hence, and not sold, nor the property changed beyond sea ; but he verily believes it to be the same tobacco which was exported as aforesaid, and no other.

Signed—Edmund Frost.

Jurat' 15^o die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

Whereupon an entry must be made, as for other goods imported, and the duties paid, or secured, being inserted underneath the merchant's oath ; the collector, customer, and comptroller, are to subscribe their names thereto, and direct it to the surveyor and proper land-waiter, as a warrant for their delivery of the goods.

British goods returned.

When goods of the product or manufacture of Great-Britain, which have been exported to foreign parts, are, for want of sale, or any other occasion, desired to be returned into any port of Great-Britain, a bill of store may be granted for the landing and delivering of the same : as a foundation for which, the searcher, &c. must be applied to, for a certificate, or duplicate of the entry outwards, in like manner as before directed for foreign goods, which must be as follows :

In the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights.

Benjamin Jones.

One hundred and a half of haberdashery ware.
Ten dozen of felt, and five dozen of castor-hats.
Four fother of lead.

Dated the 23d of January, 1730.

The goods abovementioned were regularly shipped off ; but four dozen of felt, and three dozen of castor-hats *, being part of the above entry, are now returned in the Welcome of London, George Crisp master, from Leghorn, as the merchant offereth to affirm. Dated at the custom-house in Southampton, the 23d of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher,
B. C. Land-waiter.

* But, if the goods were intitled to, and received any bounty, upon the exportation, there must be added after this reference—for which a debenture has passed—and the bounty must be repaid for the quantity returned, as in the entry inwards.

On the back of which certificate proof must be made, by the oath of the merchant, that the goods therein mentioned to be returned, are of British manufacture, &c. The form of which proof must be as follows :

23d of March, 1730.—No. 76.

In the Welcome of London, George Crisp master, from Leghorn.

Benjamin Jones.

STORE.
B. S.

No. 1, 2. Two boxes, containing four dozen of felt, and three dozen of castor-hats, of British manufacture, returned, being part of a greater quantity formerly exported from hence, per cocket dated the twenty-third day of January, 1730, as appears by the certificate within mentioned.

Benjamin Jones maketh oath, That the hats abovementioned are all of British manufacture, and were formerly exported from

hence as within mentioned, and are now returned as the same, and no other.

Signed—Benjamin Jones.

Jurat' 23^o die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

Whereupon an entry must be made in the books inwards, as for foreign goods imported ; and the collector, customer, and comptroller, having subscribed their names underneath the merchant's oath, the same is to be directed to the surveyor and proper land-waiter, as a warrant for their delivery of the goods.

But, as it may sometimes so happen, that the entry outwards cannot be fixed upon, by reason of the distance of time, the loss of papers or accounts, or several other accidents : therefore, in that case, as there cannot be any other proof, the oath of the merchant only must be deemed sufficient, and may be taken as follows :

In the Welcome of London, George Crisp master, from Leghorn.

Benjamin Jones.

B. S.

No. 1, 2. Two boxes, containing four dozen of felt, and three dozen of castor-hats, of British manufacture.

Benjamin Jones maketh oath, That the hats abovementioned are sent to him this deponent, as part of a larger quantity formerly exported from hence, and that, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, they are all of the manufacture of Great-Britain.

Signed—Benjamin Jones.

Jurat' 23^o die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

An entry must be made in the books inwards, and this oath must be subscribed and directed as a warrant for the delivery of the goods, in like manner as when the particular entry is proved.

Sufferances for landing goods at an unlawful key.

Though foreign goods and merchandizes have been entered, and his majesty's duties duly paid, and a warrant be thereupon granted for the delivery thereof ; yet if the merchant, for his conveniency, is desirous to land them at any other place than the lawful keys appointed by his majesty's commission out of the court of Exchequer, a special sufferance must be granted for that purpose, after the following manner :

In the Gustavus of Stockholm, Hans Gronberg, from Sweden.*

Roger Dove.

Two thousand ninety-six bars, containing forty tons of Swedish iron ; one hundred and twenty barrels, containing ten lasts of tar.

A warrant having been passed by us for delivery of the abovementioned goods, and the importer having signified to us the inconveniency that would attend the bringing the same to the lawful key, we have granted this special sufferance for landing the same at _____

You are, therefore, to permit the same to be unladen into lighters, and afterwards landed at the said place, in like manner, and with the like care, examination, and inspection, as is usual at the lawful key : for which this shall be your voucher.

Dated at the custom-house, Southampton,
the 21st of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

To { D. E. Surveyor,
E. F. } Land-waiters:
F. G. }

But, before such sufferances are delivered to the officers to whom directed, they must be entered in a particular book to be kept for that purpose ; which being only a transcript from the said sufferances, of the names of the ship, the master, the place arrived from, the importer, the particular goods, and the place to be landed at, need not be exemplified.

D.

D A L

DAALDER, a name given by the Dutch to pieces of 30 fols, coined by them, and which are worth one florin, or guilder and half, being equivalent to the small French crown of 3 livres tournois, or 60 fols. Heretofore, according to the old rate of money in that kingdom, the daalder went for 37 fols, 6 deniers.

Daalders are coined also at Hamburg, called daalders lups, or lubs, of 2 marks lubs each. It is worth from 32 to 33 fols of Holland, and from 66 to 70 fols in France. It is used as current money in many other cities of Germany, and in keeping their books of accounts. Formerly they went for 40 French fols. The Hollanders call also every fort of crown a daalder, which is worth no more than 30 fols; they denominate them differently, viz. ryks-daalder, that is to say, an imperial crown.

DACZAJIE, a silver money current in Persia, worth 5 marmoudis; two daczajies make the basaar denaire.

DALLE, a nominal money, used in keeping books of account in many cities of Germany: it is worth 32 fols lubs, which makes 40 French fols; the fol lubs being somewhat more than the fol tournois.

DALLER, or, as we commonly say in English, dollar, a German word, signifying a crown-piece, a kind of silver-money. The Germans commonly pronounce it taller, and the Dutch daalder, or more properly ryx-daalder, to distinguish it from daalder, another sort of silver money worth 30 fols, coined by them. See DAALDER.

The dallers, or German crowns, are coined in many states of the empire, as well as in Holland. Those which the French properly call crowns, and the Spaniards piastres, or pieces of eight, have different marks, according to the stamp of the different sovereignties where they are coined. There are demi-dallers of 30 fols, and quarter dallers of 15 fols.

Dallers are not all of equal weight, and of the same standard. Those of Holland are but 8 deniers, 20 grains fine, and weigh only 22 deniers, 12 grains.

The dallers of Basse, and of St. Gal, are of the same weight with the Dutch ones, but they are 10 deniers, 3 grains fine.

The dallers of almost all the other German cities, weigh as those of Holland, and are one denier finer than those of St. Gal.

The Francfort dallers are of a higher standard than any other, being 11 deniers, 11 grains fine. On the contrary, some of those at Mantone are of the lowest, being only 5 deniers, 32 grains fine. Lastly, there are some that weigh but 21 deniers, as the dallers of Mantone of 1616; others no more than 19, as those of Savoy, called spardins.

It is the Dutch dallers that partly serve for the great traffic carried on by them in the Levant, where that kind of piastre is called asiani, from its stamp, which is a lion. See ASLANI.

If we may believe Sir John Chardin, these dallers are not only of a very base alloy, but he moreover assures us, that the demi-dallers, and, above all, the quarter dallers, which are current in the Turkish ports of the Mediterranean, are almost all counterfeit.

The daller goes at Cavio for 33 meidins in exchange, and for 38, sometimes more in specie, at the rate of 18 French deniers the meidin, or 3 Turkish aspres. They go for much the same at Constantinople, and other parts of the Turkish empire.

DALLER is also money of account, used in some parts of Germany, as, among others, at Augbourg, and Bolzano.

DALMATIA is seated along the coast of the Adriatic sea, or gulph of Venice, having Albania on the south-east, Bosnia on the north-east, Morlachia on the north-west, and the gulph of Venice on the south-west. It extends in length near 200 miles; but its greatest breadth is not above 45. The

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D A L

soil is in some parts mountainous, but otherwise very fruitful, producing corn, wine, oil, honey, and wax.

This country is at present divided into three parts, viz. Venetian Dalmatia, Turkish Dalmatia, and the republic of Ragusa.

The Venetian territories in Dalmatia consist, at present, of these following cities: Zara or Jadera, Nona, Scardona, Sebonica, St. Nicholo, Trau, Spalato, Clissa, Ciclut, and Rifano.

ZARA, or **JADERA**, about 150 miles south east from Venice, is situate on, or rather almost surrounded with, the Adriatic sea, and joined to the continent by a bridge, and is the capital of a county of its name. It is now one of the best fortified places belonging to the Venetians, and the metropolis of Dalmatia.

NONA is another well-fortified town on the Adriatic, and almost encompassed with water. It stands over against the long island of Pago, from which it is parted by a channel about four miles broad. Neither of these are remarkable for any great trade.

SCARDONA, about 30 miles south-east of Zara, though formerly a considerable city, is, at present, considerable for little else but its bishopric, suffragan to the see of Spalato, which was translated hither from the maritime Belgrade, in the year 1120.

SEBONICA is a well-fortified city on the same gulph, and on the opposite side of the river Chersa, from Scardona. Its port is so spacious, that it can contain a large naval fleet. It stands about 40 miles south-east from Zara, 30 north-west from Spalato, and about 190 from Venice.

ST. NICHOLO is a strong fort, and so advantageously situated, that it commands the channel that leads to Sebonica; so that no ship can sail into it, without leave of the governor.

TRAU is a small, but strong town, built upon an island, which joins to the continent, by a bridge on one side, and to the island of Bua at another. But neither of these places have any commerce to signify.

SPALATO is a pretty large, and well fortified city, with a very capacious and safe harbour. It is situate between the two contadas, or territories, of Trau and Clissa. It is one of the sea-ports, where the Turkish caravans unload their merchandize for Venice. [See the article CARAVAN.] It hath a fine lazaretto for ships that perform quarantine [see the article QUARENTINE] and the prospect of the port and city.

CLISSA is remarkable only for a strong castle, standing between two hills.

CICLUT has another fortress, situate on an island formed by the river Narenta. It stands about 55 miles south of Spalato.

RISANO was formerly a commodious port, seated at the further end of a gulph of that name; but that place has been so ruined by the Turks, that the gulph now takes its name from

CATARO, situate on the east-side of it, over-against the farthest point of Italy. This port, together with Castlenovo, and Budoa, are well-fortified places.

The principal islands on this coast, belonging to the Venetians, are,

CHERSO, which has a pretty convenient harbour, is fertile, producing good wine, corn, and oil; at present it is inhabited by a mixture of nations, which are obliging to strangers, and have little or no commerce with the corsairs that infest these parts. It stands between Istria and Morachia, about 12 miles from Fiume to the south, and as many to the east from Fianano.

VELIA is situate on the same gulph with the former. It produces plenty of wine, wood, and silk, and is famous for a small, but fine and fleet breed of horses.

PAGO is so barren, that all the corn that is gathered here, is not sufficient to maintain its inhabitants 3 months in the year; and the wine about as much more. It hath some salt-pits, which yield pretty considerable quantities of that commodity, but, being obliged to pay three fourths of it to the republic, that contributes to impoverish the people.

LESINA, or **LIESMA**, is situate at the farther end of the golfo di Narenta. This country is chiefly inhabited by husband-

men, who cultivate the more fertile parts of it, which, tho' mountainous, produces plenty of corn, wine, olives, saffron, honey, and all sorts of fruit; so that they here abound with all kinds of necessaries for life. They make a considerable gain also, from the vast quantities of fish caught round this island.

There are many other smaller islands which deserve no notice; so that we shall refer to the islands which the Venetians possess on the Ionian and Egean sea, or Archipelago; the chiefest whereof are, as follow:

CEPHALONIA is one of the largest islands that the Venetians have in this sea. It is very fertile, especially in red wines, excellent Muscadine raisins and currants, and delicate oil; wherein all the people here carry on a very advantageous traffic. Here is a spacious port, and well sheltered on all sides, but not good for anchoring of shipping. At the entrance is a large village, where most of the raisin merchants reside. There are also two more ports; the one at Percarda, the other at Luxun; the former for small, the latter for larger vessels. It is under the 38th degree of latitude, and 20 of east longitude.

CORFU is the next considerable island on this coast for bigness, but much more for it's wealth and populousness. It extends itself along the coasts called Della Chimera, from north to south about 50 miles. This island is very salubrious, and well peopled, it being computed to have about sixty thousand souls. It furnishes Venice with vast quantities of salt, and is, besides, very fertile in corn, wine, and oil, and all sorts of fruits, and trees for timber, especially cedar.

ZANT, or the golden island, as it is called, is situate on the same coast, on the south-side of Cephalonia, from which it is divided by a channel about 12 miles in breadth. The country is very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, and a great variety of the most delicate fruits, especially the Muscadine grapes; which, as that sort of wine is pretty common in Italy, they here mostly dry up, and send into England, Holland, &c. with many other commodities; on which account it is said to be a golden island to the Venetians, as all places which afford a good commerce, are much better than mines of gold to the states, to which they belong.

The English and Dutch have here a factory and consul, and a number of merchants and factors for the staple commodities of this place, raisins and currants, which are very fine and cheap: but our nation is esteemed the greatest promoter of that trade, as they destroy more of that commodity, than perhaps, half of Europe besides; which is a great disadvantage to these kingdoms, and therefore behoves us to think of ways and means to provide ourselves with what fruits we stand in need of, in our own colonies; which we have great reason to believe, is far from impracticable. See the articles **WINES**, and **PLANTATIONS**. Zant stands between Cephalonia, and the cape Tornefe in Morea; about 15 miles south of the former, and 12 west from the latter, under the 38th degree of latitude, and 21 east longitude.

MILLO is a small island, situate on the Egean sea, or, as it is commonly called, Archipelago, [see **ARCHIPELAGO**] and is about 60 miles in compass, and of a round figure, well peopled and cultivated, and has one of the largest and most commodious havens in all the Mediterranean. The port of Milo is 6 miles long, 3 broad, and hath a sufficient depth of water for ships of any burthen, but is mostly frequented by pirates. The island is pleasant and fruitful, though mountainous, except a fine plain of about 6 or 7 miles in length; in which is situate Milo, the capital of the island.

The mines of iron here are very advantageous; and one part of the city, called St. Jean di Ferro (St. John of Iron) is mostly employed in manufacturing it, and keeps a perpetual fire for that purpose. This is, perhaps, the only thing that keeps the city tenantable; since, besides the unwholesomeness of the air, it is, in many other respects, made more so, especially from the filthiness of the streets, and the great number of hogs that are there reared and killed.—Notwithstanding all this, the people live here at a high rate, every thing being in great plenty and cheap, from the commerce they drive.

CERIGO is the farthest western island in the Egean sea, or Archipelago, and lies 12 miles to the south of cape St. Angelo in Morea. It is mountainous and barren, and produces hardly corn and wine sufficient for it's inhabitants, but hath plenty of other provisions, which are here very cheap. It hath but one good harbour, which stands on the south-side of it, and can contain above 50 large vessels, and may be shut with a chain.

CIMOLO is a small island, about 18 or 20 miles in compass, and is barren and mountainous. The inhabitants are mostly Greeks, but rude and ignorant, living chiefly on the debauchery of the pirates and corsairs, who frequent it on account of the women, who are here both handsome and kind enough to keep up a constant and advantageous commerce with them.

TURKISH DALMATIA. The Turks have skirts of the upland country, towards the limits of Servia and Bosnia; where the most considerable cities and towns are as follow:

NARENTA is seated on the mouth of a river of the same

name, which falling there into the gulph of Venice, forms a small bay, called the bay of Narenta. This city is 50 miles distant from Spalato to the south-east, and 25 from Ragusa towards the north. It's territory consists of one single valley, about 30 miles long: the river Narenta overflows it, during certain months of the year; which renders the country extremely fruitful, which produces plenty of corn.

RAGUSIAN DALMATIA lies on the sea-coast, partly island, and peninsula, which latter is called Sabioncello, and partly on the main land of Dalmatia, which bounds it on the east, and partly on the north; as the bay of Narenta, and the island of Lesina, do on the north and west, and the Adriatic sea on the south. The country is about 66 miles long, but not proportionably broad. The soil is not over fruitful, but the country is pretty populous.

The chief towns belonging to this republic are,

RAGUSA, **RAGUSI-VECCHIO**, **STAGNA**, **STAGNO PICCOLO**, but they have no extraordinary trade.

To the Ragusians are also subject the following islands:

MELEDA, seated near the peninsula of Sabioncello, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It is about 30 miles in length from east to west; but it's breadth is very unequal, the coast, especially towards the north, being cut by many bays and inlets.

The sea hereabouts abounds with fish, and the soil of this island is very fit for vineyards, producing very heady red wine: it abounds also with orange and lemon-trees; but it does not produce corn enough for the use of it's inhabitants, though they are not much above two thousand. In this island are six villages, with several ports and harbours, the chief of which lie on that coast which looks towards the main land: the whole island is governed by a gentleman who takes the title of Count, and is appointed annually by the grand council of Ragusa.

CUZZOLA is separated from the peninsula of Sabioncello, by a strait about six miles broad, called the gulph of Santa Croce; it's greatest length is of about 40 miles, and it's breadth 10 or 12. Here are five villages very well peopled. The island abounds with forests, which afford great plenty of timber for ship-building. In these forests there is a kind of animal called Zachalia, pretty much like dogs, whose skins serve to make some indifferent furs. This island belonged formerly to the Ragusians, but they have yielded it to the Venetians.

R E M A R K S.

The coasts of Dalmatia and Croatia are full of very good harbours, strong towns, good rivers, and people enough, but not much trade upon the whole. The people are a hardy, military race, not inured to commerce or arts, nor inclined to the sea, or much to ship-building, either for their own trade, or that of others: so that the Venetians are not to expect any great advantage in point of trade from that part of Dalmatia, which is under their dominions, unless it should appear they had changed the genius of the people, and put manufactures into their hands.

The chief benefit the Venetians have from this country, is, that they receive a great quantity of corn and mutton from hence, and some black cattle; but though the coast is the Venetians, the country is not theirs far within the land; it is partly the Emperor's, especially the Croatian side, and a great part of the Dalmatian side belongs to the Turks.

The coast is interspersed with islands which, as well as the inland towns on the continent, are generally well fortified: so that what trade they have is well guarded; and as they are often alarmed, the people are brave, which makes the seamen on this shore be esteemed the best the Venetians have, only they are but few in number: some of them, indeed, are tolerably good sailors, and the Venetians frequently hire them and their ships also for their merchandizing voyages; they being esteemed good pilots, as well as bold fellows.

The fishermen here work in larger boats than usual, because as Venice is the only market for their fish, so the gulph being at the north part of the Dalmatian coast, at least 60 or 80 miles over, they must have good boats, the sea sometimes being very tempestuous.

The seamen here are called Venetians, though they are not so; and the landmen are called Mortagues, though they are both Dalmatians or Croats. But they all speak Italian, or rather a kind of Lingua Frank, common to all the seafaring people in the Levant.

The Venetians make, however, some advantage of trade this way, by furnishing all the people with cloaths and manufactures of all kinds, also with ammunition, and fire-arms, and weapons of all sorts: nor do they suffer any body to trade with the Dalmatians, but themselves and the Ragusians.

The republic of Ragusa is a place of trade, and, as they are a free state, so they have a free trade, as well among the Turks as Christians. The number of their people creates them a trade; but they have no extraordinary commerce westward, and we rarely see a ship or bark of Ragusa on this side the Archipelago, or on this side of Italy.

They trade chiefly among the Turks, and under their protection, and principally when the Venetians have a war with

the Turks; then the peaceable Ragufians are the carriers of that part of the world, for they go and come free on both sides.

The time of war, therefore, is the harvest of the Ragufian commerce; for, as they pass and repass to Constantinople, to Smyrna, Salonichi, to Alexandria, and to Venice, they are hired to all those places by the Venetians, and sometimes by the Turks.

They are also constant traders at the imperial port of Trieste, and bring thither all the merchandizes of the Levant, and the like to Venice: so that they are the proper medium of trade when it is interrupted by a war. They are esteemed excellent seamen, but you hardly ever find them sailing in any ships but their own; nor will they, on any occasion, be hired either as victuallers, tenders, or transports, or for any other business, against the Turks; which is political, they preferring, by that means, the friendship of the Turks; and as they live, as it were, under the Turkish power, they would mistake their interest if they provoked them on warlike conjunctures.

DAMASK, a silk stuff, with a raised pattern, so as that which hath the right side of the damask, is that which hath the flowers raised and fattened.

Damasks should be of dressed silk, both in warp and in woof; and in France $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell in breadth.

They have a stuff in France, which they call the cassart damask, made in imitation of the true damask, but having the woof of hair, coarse silk, thread, wool, or cotton. Some have the warp of silk, and the woof of thread; others are all thread, both warp and woof, and others again all of wool. They are made of three sizes, being either $\frac{1}{2}$ less than half-ell, or full half-ell, or half-ell $\frac{1}{4}$ wide.

They are made, in France, particularly at Chalons in Champagne, and in some places in Flanders, as at Tournay, and the neighbouring parts, and which are intirely of wool. Those of Tournay are $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, and 20 ells long.

Chinese, or India, damasks, are seven, eleven, and twelve ells in length, and from $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ wide. They are called Chinese, because for the most part coming from thence; and India damasks, because bought of the Indians by the company's factors. They are of various colours.

The word **DAMASK** is also applied to a very fine steel, in some parts of the Levant, chiefly at Damascus in Syria, whence it is so called. It is used for sword and cutlafs-blades, and is finely tempered.

Some authors pretend it comes from the kingdom of Golconda in the East-Indies, and that the method of tempering it with allum was invented there, and which the Europeans have not yet been able effectually to imitate.

DAMASKEENING, or **DAMASKING**, the operation of beautifying iron, steel, &c. by making incisions therein, and filling them up with gold or silver wire, chiefly used for adorning sword blades, guards and gripes, locks of pistols, &c.

The name which this art hath preserved shews also whence we had it, pointing out that famous city of the Levant where it was invented, or at least, whose artificers have made the finest pieces of work of this kind.

But, if we owe the invention of this kind of sculpture to Damascus, yet M. Felibien, in his Principles of Architecture, seems to give the honour of perfecting this art to France, and pretends that Curfnet, a cutler at Paris, who wrought in the reign of Henry IV. and lived to the time of Lewis XIV. surpassed all others before him herein. Be that as it will, it is certain there have been since several French cutlers not inferior to Curfnet.

They only damask, at present, the hilts of swords, and some part of the blades; suits of armour, and horse-trappings, were damasked, when they were in fashion; but, if these are at any time made now, they are plain.

Damasking partakes of the mosaïque, of engraving, and of carving. As to the mosaïque, it hath inlaid work; as to engraving, it cuts the metal, representing divers figures; and as in chasing, gold and silver is wrought in relieve.

There are two ways of damasking: the one, which is the finest, is where the metal is cut deep with proper instruments, and inlaid with thick gold and silver wire; the other is only superficial.

In the first the incisions are made in the dove-tail manner, that the gold and silver wire, which is forcibly drove in, may be firmly fixed. In the other, having heated the steel 'till it becomes of a blue, or violet colour, they hatch it over and across with the knife, then draw the design, or ornaments intended, with a fine brass point, or bodkin; which done, they take fine gold wire, and chasing it according to the figure before designed, they carefully sink it into the hatches of the metal, with a tool suitable to the occasion.

Several artificers are permitted by their statutes to adorn their works by damasking; among others, the cutlers, gunsmiths, spurriers, and armourers.

DAMASSE, or **PETITE VENISE**, a kind of wrought linen made in Flanders, so called from the fashion of its large flowers, something like those of damasks: it is used chiefly for tables. A table-cloth and a dozen napkins of this sort is called a damask-service.

There is also a silk stuff so called, which looks like a damask on one side, and on the other is plain.

DANCING-MASTER, he who teacheth to dance.

The reader will doubtless be surprized to find this article in a Commercial Dictionary; nor should we, though Mr. Savary has taken notice of it, was it not to shew the English reader, that every kind of business in France is under suitable regulations; which I have done with a view to convince this nation, that the prosperity and splendor of that kingdom has not sprung from chance, but refined policy.

The statutes of this company are of the year 1658, given, approved, and confirmed by Lewis XIV. enrolled in the Chatelet the 13th of January, 1659, and in parliament the 22d of August following.

The chief, or head of the company, and who governs with the masters of the fraternity, hath the title and quality of king of all the violins, dancing-masters, and musicians, both high and low, in the kingdom. He does not enter on his charge by election, but by letters of commission from the king, as being one of the officers of his household.

As to the masters of the fraternity, they are elected yearly by plurality of voices, and hold the same place in that body for their authority and functions, as the wardens in the other companies.

There are two registries, where the indentures of apprenticeship, and copies of freedom are to be enrolled; that of the king of the violins, and that of the masters of the fraternity. Apprentices are bound for four years, but one year may be given them. The candidates are to perform before the king of the violins, who may summon there 24 masters at his pleasure; but only 10 for the sons, and the husbands of masters daughters: all of them have their letters from this king. The violins of the king's chamber are received by their discretionary warrants; however, they pay the fees.

None who is not a master may keep a ball-room, or school, whether for dancing or instruments, nor give serenades, or concerts at weddings, or public assemblies: even masters themselves are prohibited from playing in taverns and infamous places, on pain of fine to be levied, as by decree of the Chatelet of the 2d of March, 1644, and of the parliament the 11th of July, 1648.

Lastly, the king of the violins is permitted to nominate the lieutenants in every city, for causing the statutes to be observed, receiving and ratifying letters, issuing out all provisional letters on the said king's presentation; which lieutenants are intitled to one moiety of the said king's fees for the reception of apprentices and masters.

R E M A R K S.

'Tis certain, that regulations of this kind, in regard even to the profession of dancing-masters, have not a little contributed to render the French nation famous over all Europe, for excelling in this art, both in theory and practice: indeed, the natural sprightliness and vivacity of these people in general, may administer something to the perfection for which they are so remarkable: yet this alone, without being controlled by suitable regulations, might not have answered the end.

Though various concurrent causes may jointly help to make monsieur surpass others in giving instructions for this ornamental accomplishment, yet all these would hardly have the apparent effect, without something of state policy to countenance, and encourage this gay spirit.

That the court of France, and all the nobility and gentry of that kingdom, seem to have an ambition to attract the eyes of the whole world, from the splendor and elegancy of their dancing, as well as their other belles assemblées, will hardly be doubted by those who have seen them.

Whether the cultivating the arts of gaiety to the degree this nation seems so industriously to do, be merely owing to a natural disposition for the external politesse, or to statecraft, or to both, we shall not enquire: certain it is, this gives such an attractive power to that kingdom, as to draw thither the most illustrious, both young and old, of all nations in Christendom; the one for erudition and travel, the other for pleasure and joyous amusement. Does not this occasion the spending immense sums in France? Nay, it is to be questioned, whether that nation has any single fund that brings more treasure into it, than what proceeds from general sources of this kind. With what contempt is a dancing-master looked on among us, who is not either a Frenchman, or has not been some time in France to gain that air, that je ne sçay quoy of this kingdom? If our itage-dancers are not à la mode de France, our singers and musicians Italians, who that is remarkable either for taste or distinction, would be seen at our public theatres and operas? It matters little to a state, by what ways and means riches are brought into it, provided they are so: if some nations have the knack of fiddling and singing others out of their money; if some have the art of painting or dancing wealth into their public treasury, why are not these measures as laudable and politic to aggrandize states as any other? The money brought into nations by such means, being all clear gain,

gain, without any sort of hazard, why are they less eligible than others?

'Twas not, perhaps, the least material branch of Lewis the XIVth's system of policy, to institute seminaries in the state for education of every kind, and liberally to reward the professors of all sorts, in order to ground the principles of education upon plans better calculated for the improvement of youth than any other, probably, in Europe. Nor has this proved only of unspeakable emolument to the nobles and gentry of that kingdom, by supplying a succession of men of distinguished abilities to manage it's affairs both at home and abroad, with honour and advantage, but these literary establishments have repaid their expence to the crown in a tenfold degree, by the money they have occasioned to be spent by foreigners upon their account.

The French have no occasion to send their youth of figure and condition abroad for education, and therefore it is they travel little themselves, but receive all travelers, and grow wise by staying at home. On the contrary, whether we have occasion or no, 'tis become fashionable to send the sons of our greatest families to foreign universities and colleges. Why are these things so? Will not our own seminaries of literature afford as great benefit, even with regard to polite and ornamental, as well as solid erudition of every kind? If they will not, as they are at present constituted, are they not capable of doing so? Will not the great and generous endowments of Oxford and Cambridge, admit of giving due encouragement to the ablest professors of every kind? They certainly will.

No nation have exceeded Britons in every art and science, in every part of useful or polite literature. Though we may not equal our neighbours the French in the vivacity of the heel, they have never in general surpassed us in the business of the head; and unless now and then in some political strokes, which we must allow to have been masterly: yet this has been the fault of particular ministers, not that of the British genius in general.

Why may not our English universities be rendered the resort of foreigners of distinction, as well as those of any other country? Might not this occasion as much money to be spent in the nation by foreigners, as is now spent out of it for travel, and the like occasion?

That our universities, indeed, did not admit of that universal knowledge that was desirable, his late majesty soon discovered, upon his accession to the crown of these kingdoms: wherefore in his great wisdom, he established professors for the study of modern history and the modern languages. If these institutions should be rendered mere sinecures, and by no means answer the wise and gracious intentions of the king, why is not effectual care taken that they should do so?

Nor is it to be doubted, but such was the discernment of his majesty, that he hoped and desired, that his royal example would be followed, by institutions of the like kind, at every college in Oxford and Cambridge. Had this been the case, there would not by this time, have been any living language in Europe, which might not have been spoken with as much purity and elegance at these English seminaries, as any court in Christendom? By which means, might not our British nobility and gentry, have become as familiar with all the European languages, or with the principal of them, as with their own, and those of the antients? This would have been, we conceive, the natural way to have drawn foreigners, more or less, of the first rank and fortunes, from all the courts of Europe, to our universities; which would have been attended with consequences, that might have greatly promoted the interests of these kingdoms. It would have rendered our language as familiar to these foreigners, as theirs would have become to us; and then why should not the English tongue have become as universal as the French? Which might have been attended with effects not less interesting to us, than that policy has really been to our great rivals. This would have naturally brought the greatest men at all the principal courts, better acquainted with our books and constitution than they at present are; and what might not have been less beneficial to the nation, such acquaintance and familiarity might, by this means, have been cemented between our British nobles and gentry, and those of other nations, as to have in their consequences, highly promoted the interest of these kingdoms, and not less her commercial than any other. For long experience has verified, that no friendships are more inviolable and honourable, than those contracted between fellow-students and collegians: and 'tis certainly more for the benefit of this kingdom, so to form and plan our literary seminaries, that foreigners may rather be inclined to resort hither to spend their money, and be bred amongst us, than for our great men to be bred up in other countries.

DANK, or **DANCK**, a little piece of silver current in Persia, and some parts of Arabia. It weighs the sixteenth part of a drachm.

DANK is also a little weight, used by the Arabians to weigh jewels and drugs, when these last are used in the composition of medicines. It is the sixth part of an Arabian drachm, which is eight grains French weight.

DATES are a fruit somewhat of the shape of an acorn; they are composed of a thin, light, and glossy membrane, somewhat pellucid, and yellowish; which contains a fine soft and pulpy fruit, which is firm, sweet, and somewhat vinous to the taste, esculent and wholesome, and within this is inclosed a solid, tough, and hard kernel, of a pale grey colour on the outside, and within finely marbled like the nutmeg.

For medicinal use they are to be chosen large, full, fresh, yellow on the surface, soft and tender, not too much wrinkled; such as have a vinous taste, and do not rattle when shaken.

They are produced in many parts of Europe, but do not ripen perfectly there: the best are from Tunis; they are also very fine and good in Egypt, and in many parts of the East. Those of Spain and France look well, but are never perfectly ripe, and are very subject to decay.

They are preserved three different ways; some pressed and dry, others pressed more moderately, and again moistened with their own juice, and others not pressed at all, but moistened with the juice of other dates as they are packed up, which is done in baskets or in skins. Those preserved this last way are much the best. Dates have always been esteemed moderately strengthening and astringent; they are prescribed for habitual diarrhoeas, weaknesses of the stomach, and for strengthening the womb; but at present are little used in England, being even left out of the pectoral decoctions, in which they used to be an ingredient.

DAUPHINE, in France, is separated from Lyonnais and Languedoc on the west, by the Rhone, which parts it on the north also from Bresse and Bugey, on the east it has Piedmont, and on the south Provence, and the country of Avignon.

The soil in some parts is very fruitful, but two thirds of the province are barren and mountainous.

It's principal rivers are the Rhone, Durance, Isere, and the Drome.

GRENOBLE is the capital city, the wollen stuffs, of which they make a great many, are but coarse, but their skins and gloves are very much esteemed.

VIENNE was once a very large and famous city, but is at present not above the fourth part of it's former extent; the inhabitants are very expert in making divers sorts of manufactures, particularly plates of iron and steel, paper, &c. by means of mills and engines upon the river Jura.

DEBENTURE, a term in traffic, used at the custom-house, when the exporter of any goods or merchandizes, is intitled by act of parliament to any bounty or drawback on their exportation; and this debenture is a peculiar certificate signed by the officers of the customs, which entitles the trader to the receipt of such bounty or drawback.

REMARKS.

The bounties and drawbacks allowed in this kingdom for the encouragement of trade, making a very considerable part of the business of the customs, and requiring all debentures upon such occasions to be made out correctly, and in due form, according to the several acts of parliament made in that behalf, we have judged it serviceable to all merchants, as well at the out-ports, as at the port of London, to be well informed in what so nearly concerns their interest, left (as was the case the other day with an eminent merchant of the city of London, in regard to a drawback) they should be sufferers for want of duly observing form and time, in the exportation of certificate goods. See the article **DRAWBACKS**.

Of the nature of **DEBENTURES**, and the several essential forms thereof relating to the business of the custom-house, as well at the out-ports as the port of London.

* All merchandizes that are designed to be taken on board for that voyage, being entered and shipped, and all other requisites performed, as we have, and shall represent, at the end of every letter, according to the nature of the goods, and the place to be exported to; before the vessel may depart, the master must deliver to the collector, &c. a content (usually called in the out-ports a report) in writing, under his hand, of the name of every merchant and other person, that shall have laden any goods on board his ship, together with the marks and numbers of the goods; and must publicly, in the open custom-house, upon oath, answer to such questions as shall be demanded of him by the collector, &c.

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 3.

But, before this content or report be sworn to by the master, it must be compared by the searcher, surveyor, and land-waiter, with the merchant's endorsements on their cockets; and, if found to agree, the same must be certified thereon: the form of which content or report, and the execution of what is required to be done, must be as follows;

Port of South- } In the ship Tavistock of London, British
ampton. } built, property all British, about two hundred tons, with thirty-nine men, of which thirty-seven are British men, and two are foreigners, besides Daniel Bright, a British man, master for this present voyage to Jamaica in America.

Marks

D E B

Marks	Numb.	Out.pack.	Inw.cont.	Exporters.
S. G.	1	1 box	lace	Sam. Grimes
W. T.	{ 1 a 3 4 }	{ 3 boxes 1 bale }	fundry goods	Will. Turner
R. G.	9	1 box	fundry goods	Rog. Grainger
J. H.	3	1 trunk	stockings	James Hart
R. A.	{ 1 2 3 a 6 7 a 9 }	{ 1 box 1 cheft 4 casks 3 trunks }	fundry goods	Robert Afhby

C.
Loofe — { 77 2 o iron } Oliv. Seldon
 { 18 o o cord. }

Examined by the cockets, Signed—Daniel Bright.
D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

Supraſcriptam declarationem omni modo eſſe veram, ad ſancta Dei evangelia dictus Daniel Bright Solenniter juravit $\frac{3}{4}$ die Martii 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector or Customer,
B. C. Comptroller.

Or, if the maſter be a quaker, Supraſcriptam declarationem omni modo eſſe veram, dictus Daniel Bright Solenniter declaravit $\frac{3}{4}$ die Martii 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector or Customer,
B. C. Comptroller.

You do ſwear [or, if a quaker, ſolemnly, ſincere, and truly declare and affirm] That the entry or content above written, now tendered and ſubſcribed by you, is a juſt report of the name of your ſhip, its burden, built, property, numbers and country of mariners, the preſent maſter and voyage; and that it further contains a juſt and true account of all the goods, wares, and merchandizes, laden on board your ſaid ſhip for this preſent voyage, together with the particular marks, numbers, quantities, qualities, and properties of the ſame, to the beſt of your knowledge and belief; and that if you have on board any certificate-goods, or goods that receive a draw-back, bounty, or premium from his maſtey on exportation, you will not ſuffer them to be reloaded, or unſhipped in order to be reloaded, in any part of Great-Britain, without the preſence of an officer of the cuſtoms: and that you will not take in any more goods for this preſent voyage, without duly entering the ſame, and adding them to this report. So help you God.

Daniel Bright.

The ſhip being thus cleared, it is to be noted in the margin of the ſhip's entry-book outwards, mentioning the particular day: and, if the maſter ſhould afterwards take in any more goods, they muſt be added to the report, underneath the former goods, thus:

Added the 24th of March, 1730.
B. R. No. 3. 1 Cheſt Glaſs and earthen ware B. Reeves.
Examined by the cockets, Signed—Daniel Bright.
D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

And then the report muſt be ſworn to de novo, inferring the day, under that ſworn to before: the like muſt be repeated as often as any goods are taken in after clearing.
If a ſhip trades in goods for different places, they ſhould be particularly diſtinguiſhed in the report: as ſuppoſe the aforeſaid veſſel had taken in goods for Ireland, Madeira, and Jamaica.

		For Ireland.		
S. G.	1	1 box	lace	Samuel Grimes.
			For Madeira.	
W. T.	{ 1 to 3 4 }	{ 3 boxes 1 bale }	fundry goods	Will. Turner.
			For Jamaica.	
R. G.	9	1 box	fundry goods	Rog. Grainger.

The maſter having cleared, all the cockets are to be delivered to the ſearcher, ſurveyor, and land-waiter, who are to examine the ſhip, to ſee if there be any more goods on board than mentioned in the indorſements of the cockets; and, if there be not, they are to diſcharge the tidemen, and deliver the cockets to the maſter, permitting him to proceed on his voyage.

And, if after a ſhip has cleared for foreign parts, at any one port of Great-Britain, ſhe ſhould proceed to any other to take in more goods, ſhe muſt alſo clear at each of thoſe reſpective ports; and the goods taken in at the former, muſt be ſpecified in theſe ports: as ſuppoſe the fore-mentioned ſhip was to proceed to Chicheſter, in the report muſt be mentioned the goods ſhipped at Southampton, and alſo thoſe taken in there, and ſo at every port.

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Of the aforeſaid reports, two are to be ſubſcribed by the maſter; one of which is to be taken in a book to be kept at the port for that purpoſe; and the other on looſe paper, to be kept on a file, till the end of each quarter, when they are to be tranſmitted to the regiſter-general of all ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, to be examined whether duly ſworn to and attested, and the ſhips navigated according to the act of navigation.

The ſhips being regularly cleared out and diſcharged according to the foregoing directions, and actually failed out of the port on their intended voyages, debentures may be made out from the exporters-entries, in order to obtain the drawbacks, allowances, bounties, or premiums, that are due on exportation of any goods on board: * the which debentures for foreign goods, are to be paid within one month after demand. † And, in making out theſe debentures, it muſt be obſerved, That every piece of vellum, parchment, or paper, containing any debenture for drawing back cuſtoms or duties, muſt, before writing, be ſtamped, and pay a duty of eight pence.

* 2d Rule of book of rates.

† 9 Ann. cap. 23. §. 22, 24.

The forms of the ſeveral kinds of debentures are as follow:

1. A debenture for all corn, except malt.

Port of Southampton. Theſe are to certify, That I Caleb White have ſhipped for Rotterdam, in the Goodfellow of Hull, a Britiſh ſhip, whereof William Miller, the maſter, and two thirds of the mariners, are his maſtey's ſubjects, ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, thirty-eight quarters five buſhels of barley, Wincheſter meaſure; and that the price of wheat, of the meaſure aforeſaid, in the port of Southampton, the laſt market-day, did not exceed forty-eight ſhillings per quarter, of rye thirty-two ſhillings, and of barley twenty-four ſhillings per quarter.

Jurat Caleb White, That the contents of the certificate are true, coram nobis
E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller.

Jurat Caleb White, That the corn here- in mentioned, both for quantity and quality, was really exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and is not reloaded, nor intended to be reloaded in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.
Jurat 26^o die Januarii 1730, coram nobis
E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller.

Witness my hand, the 8th of Jan. 1730,
Caleb White.

See the article CORN.

Bond is taken in the penalty of ſeventy-pounds, that the corn above-mentioned, (the danger of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

The corn above-mentioned, viz. ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, and thirty-eight quarters five buſhels of barley, was ſhipped in the ſaid ſhip on the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th days of January, 1730. Certified the 18th day of Jan. 1730.

A. B. Searcher, B. C. Surveyor,
C. D. Land-waiter.

The veſſel above-mentioned is Britiſh built [or foreign built made free]; the maſter and two thirds of the mariners his maſtey's ſubjects.
E. F. Collector, D. E. Surveyor of the act of navigation.
F. G. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforegoing corn-debenture.

The money to be paid for the corn within-mentioned, purſuant to an act of parliament, for encouraging the exportation of corn, amounts to thirty-fix pounds, three ſhillings, and three farthings } l. s. d.
36 3 0 $\frac{1}{4}$
E. F. Collector,
F. G. Customer,
G. H. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 27th day of January, 1730.
Received of the honourable the commissioners of his maſtey's cuſtoms, by the hands of E. F.—their collector in this port, the ſum of thirty-fix pounds, three ſhillings, and three farthings, in full of this debenture } 36 3 0 $\frac{1}{4}$
Witness
Caleb White,
F. G. Comptroller.

But if the collector has not money ſufficient in his hands, to pay the bounty due to the exporter, for any corn but beer, alias bigg, malt made of wheat, and oatmeal; he muſt certify the ſame to the commissioners as follows:

Theſe are to certify the honourable the commissioners of his maſtey's cuſtoms, that I have not monies ariſing out of the cuſtoms

D E B

customs and duties in this port, chargeable with the payment of the monies for the exportation of corn, sufficient to pay this debenture.

E. F. Collector.

The debenture being produced to the commissioners, their secretary is to examine it, and then signify the same as follows:

I have examined this debenture, and do find the requisites of law duly performed; and, by the foregoing certificate of the collector, it appears that there is not money in that port to pay the same.

G. H. Secretary.

Whereupon the commissioners order the payment as follows:

Custom-house, London, the 3d day of February, 1730. You are, in three months from the date hereof, to pay in full of this debenture, out of the money in your hands, chargeable with the payment of money for the exportation of corn, the sum of thirty-six pounds, three shillings, and three farthings.

To M. N. Esq; receiver-general, and cashier of his majesty's customs. See the article CORN.

H. I. }
J. K. } Commis-
K. L. } sioners.
L. M. }

A debenture for malt.

As to the form of a debenture for malt exported, it will appear, by the following example, to be not much different from that for all other corn; but it is to be noted, that the bounty for malt is not to be computed on the real quantity shipped, as for all other corn, but * after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, as shall appear by a certificate from the officers, with whom the corn to be made into malt for export, was entered; though the barley or other grain, in making, should have exceeded or fallen short of a quantity in proportion to thirty quarters malt, for every twenty quarters corn.

* 12 & 13 W. III. cap. 10. §. 91, &c.

The form of the debenture.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat. A. B. That the malt herein mentioned is not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

14 die Januarii 1730, coram nobis

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

These are to certify, That I A. B. of Southampton, did, on the 10th day of January, 1730, enter for Rotterdam, on the ship Goodfellow of Hull, a British ship, whereof William Miller the master, and two thirds of the mariners, are his majesty's subjects, one hundred and seventeen quarters, and two bushels of malt, Winchester measure; and that the price of malt, Winchester measure, in the port of Southampton, the last market-day, did not exceed twenty-four shillings per quarter.

Witness my hand, the 10th day of January, 1730.

A. B.

Port of Southampton.

Corn-debentures certified to the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs.

When certified.	Date of debentures.	Exporter's nam.	Ship's name and place.	Master's name.	Whither bound.	Species of corn.				Bounty or sum certified.	When duplicates sent to the commissioners.
						Wheat q. b.	Rye q. b.	Barley q. b.	Malt q. b.		
1730 27 Jan.	1730 8 Jan.	Caleb White.	Goodfellow of Hull.	William Miller.	Rotterdam.	9t	—49	—38	5	36 3 0	1730. 23 January

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

2. A debenture for British manufactures of silk.

Port of Southampton.

Anthony Toms did enter with us, the 15th day of March, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller, master, for Rotterdam, twelve pieces, containing 35 pounds of wrought silk, avoirdupois weight, all British manufacture, as appears by certificate under the hand of Anthony Toms.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of seventy pounds, that the wrought silk above-mentioned, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed, or brought on shore a-

The twelve pieces, containing thirty-five pounds of wrought silk above-mentioned, were shipped the 16th of March, 1730. Certified the 9th of April, 1731.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

D E B

Jurat A. B. That the contents of the certificate above-mentioned are true, coram nobis

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

Bond is taken on the penalty of 50 pounds, that the malt above-mentioned (the danger of the seas excepted) shall be exported into parts beyond the seas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the islands of Guernsey or Jersey.

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

By a certificate produced to us from the proper officers of excise (which is hereunto annexed) it appears, that the aforesaid one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt were made from one hundred and five quarters and one bushel of barley [or other grain]: and by an act of 3 Geo. II. the said A. B. is entitled to a bounty or premium of two shillings and six-pence per quarter upon one hundred fifty-seven quarters four bushels of malt, being according to the rate of thirty quarters of malt, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain malted for exportation.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Customer,
D. E. Comptroller.

The one hundred and seventeen quarters and two bushels of malt, above-mentioned, were shipped in the said ship, the 12th day of January, 1730.

Certified the 14th of Jan. 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
G. H. Land-waiter.

The vessel above-mentioned is British-built, the master and two thirds of the mariners his majesty's subjects.

H. I. Surveyor of the act of navigation.

On the back of the foregoing malt-debenture.

The bounty-money to be paid for the malt within-mentioned, amounts to nineteen pounds thirteen shillings and nine pence — } 19 13 9

B. C. Collector, C. D. Customer, D. E. Comptroller.

And, if the collector hath not money in his hands sufficient to pay the bounty, it must be certified to the commissioners, in like manner as for other corn.

And to these debentures must be annexed the excise-certificates, from which the bodies of the debentures were filled up, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.

And when, for want of money, any corn-debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commissioners of the customs; before they are delivered to the exporters, they must be entered in a book to be kept for that purpose, after the following form: and from thence must be transcribed a duplicate in the same form, which must be signed by the collector and comptroller, and transmitted to the commissioners as often as any debentures are made out and certified, in order to be compared with the debentures, when produced for payment.

gain in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat Anthony Toms, That the goods above-mentioned, shipped as here certified, are all British manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the seas, and not landed, nor intended to be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 10^o die Aprilis, 1731, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

3. A debenture for British manufactures mixt with silk.
Port of Southampton.

Thomas Brown did enter with us, the 3d day of January, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers master, for Guernsey, ninety-six stuffs mixed with silk, containing six hundred and forty pounds avoirdupois

D E B

Bond is taken in the penalty of two hundred pounds, that the stuffs mixt with silk above-mentioned, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed, or brought on shore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

poise weight, all British manufacture; and two third parts of the ends or threads of the warp of each piece whereof, either all silk, or else mixed or twisted with silk in the warp, as appears by certificate under the hand of Thomas Brown.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

The ninety-six stuffs mixed with silk, containing six hundred and forty pounds above-mentioned, were shipped the 4th of January, 1730. Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat Thomas Brown, That the goods above-mentioned, shipped as here certified, are all British manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the seas, and not landed, or intended to be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 24^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

4. A debenture for British manufactures of silk only, and mixed with silk.

Port of Southampton.

Charles Coverley did enter with us, the 22d day of January, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, sixteen stuffs mixed with silk, containing ninety-two pounds; forty-three pair of silk stockings, containing twenty pounds avoirdupoise weight, all British manufacture; and two third parts of the ends or threads of the warp of the stuffs mixed with silk, either all silk, or else mixed or twisted with silk in the warp, as appears by certificate under the hand of Charles Coverley.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

The sixteen stuffs mixed with silk, containing ninety-two pounds, and forty-three pair of silk stockings, containing twenty-pounds, above-mentioned, were shipped the 22d of January, 1730. Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat Charles Coverley, That the goods above-mentioned, shipped as here certified, are all British manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the seas, and not re-landed, nor intended to be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 23^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The three last debentures must have the bounty to be paid, endorsed thereon, thus:

The money to be paid for the silk manufactures within-mentioned, amounts to five pounds, five shillings } 5 5 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, 11 April, 1731.

Received of the honourable commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of five pounds, five shillings, in full of this debenture } 5 5 0

Witness
C. D. Comptroller. Anthony Toms.

5. A debenture for British made gun-powder.

Port of Southampton.

Henry Hubbard did enter with us, the nineteenth day of March, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Ben-

D E B

jamin Rogers, master, for Guernsey, forty-four hundred weight, an half, and sixteen pounds of British made gun-powder.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of two hundred and fifty pounds, that the gun-powder above-mentioned, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed or brought on shore again, into any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The forty-four hundred weight, an half, and sixteen pounds of British-made gun-powder above-mentioned, were shipped the nineteenth day of March present. Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat Henry Hubbard, That the gun-powder above-mentioned, shipped as here certified, is all of British manufacture, and is exported to parts beyond the seas, by way of merchandize, and not for the use of the ship in the voyage, and is not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed, in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 24^o die Martii, 1730, coram me

A. B. Collector [Customer, or Comptroller.]

On the back of the said debenture must be endorsed the bounty to be paid, thus:

The bounty to be paid for the British-made gun-powder within-mentioned, amounts to eleven pounds five shillings } 11 5 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* And then the said bounty may be paid by the collector, with the privity of the comptroller, out of the customs, or other duties upon goods imported, taking the exporter's receipt for the same on the back of the debenture, as follows:

* 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1, 4.

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of eleven pounds, five shillings, in full of this debenture } 11 5 0

Witness
C. D. Comptroller. Henry Hubbard.

6. A debenture for British refined sugar.

Port of Southampton.

Paul Hemmings did enter with us, the 9th of February, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller, master, for Rotterdam, one hundred forty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and seventeen pounds, of British refined sugar, being produced from brown and muscovado sugars, imported from his majesty's plantations in America; the duties whereof were duly paid at the time of the importation, as it doth appear by oath of Thomas Crompton, taken before the principal officers of his majesty's customs, at the time of entry outwards. Dated at the custom-house, Southampton, the day and year above-mentioned.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat 24^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The one hundred forty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and seventeen pounds, of British refined sugar above-mentioned, were shipped the 11th of February, 1730. Certified the 24th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the duties to be repaid; and, underneath the same, the exporter's receipt taken for the repayment thereof, as follows:

The new subsidy to be repaid for the refined sugar within-mentioned, amounts to twenty-two pounds, six shillings, and eight-pence half-penny } 22 6 8½
The one-third subsidy to be repaid for the said sugar, amounts to seven pounds, eight shillings, and eleven pence } 7 8 11

29 15 7½

Southampton,

D E B

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of twenty-nine pounds, fifteen shillings, and seven pence half-penny, in full of this debenture

l. s. d. 29 15 7 1/2

Paul Hemmings.

Witness C. D. Comptroller.

7. A debenture for British-made fail-cloth.

Port of Southampton. Aaron Thornton did enter with us, the 27th of January, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers master, for Guernsey, forty bolts, containing one thousand, one hundred, and twenty ells of British-made fail-cloth.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

The forty bolts, containing one thousand, one hundred, and twenty ells of British-made fail-cloth above-mentioned, were shipped the 29th of January last. Certified the 21st of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

Jurat Aaron Thornton, That the fail-cloth above-mentioned was made in Great-Britain, and is actually exported, or shipped to be exported, without any intention to be reloaded in any part of Great-Britain; and that no former reward was made for the same fail-cloth, by virtue of an act of parliament passed in the twelfth year of her late majesty queen Anne.

Jurat 22 die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2.

On the back of the aforefaid debenture must be endorsed the bounty to be paid; and underneath the same the exporter's receipt for the payment, as follows:

The money to be paid for the fail-cloth within mentioned, amounts to nine pounds, six shillings, and eight pence

l. s. d. 9 6 8

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 23d of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of nine pounds, six shillings, and eight pence, in full of this debenture

l. s. d. 9 6 8

Aaron Thornton.

Witness C. D. Comptroller.

8. A debenture for hides and calve-skins tanned, tawed, or dressed.

Port of Southampton.

These are to certify, That Bartholomew Richardson did enter with us, the 16th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, twelve bales of tanned hides and calve-skins, containing one hundred and six hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds, avoirdupoise weight; and hath made oath, that all the tanned hides and calve-skins contained in the said twelve bales respectively (weighing as above-mentioned) were marked with the marks, or stamps, denoting the charging of the duties of one penny and one half-penny per pound, payable for the same by the several acts of parliament made in that behalf, and not with the marks, or stamps, denoting the charging of the duty of one half-penny per pound, as being stock in hand, the 24th day of June, 1711.

Certified this 19th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of one hundred pounds, that all the said tanned hides and calve-skins shall be exported into foreign parts, and shall not be reloaded, or brought on shore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

The one hundred and six hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds, of tanned hides and calve-skins above-mentioned, were shipped the 18th of February last.

Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

E. F. Searcher, F. G. Surveyor, G. H. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

D E B

On the back of the aforefaid debenture must be endorsed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

The two third parts of the old duty payable by the 9th of Anne, to be repaid for the tanned hides and calve-skins within-mentioned, amount to thirty-three pounds, one shilling, and seven pence half-penny.

l. s. d. 33 1 7 1/2

The two third parts of the additional duty payable by the 10th of Anne, to be repaid for the said hides and skins, amount to sixteen pounds, ten shillings, and nine pence half-penny

16 10 9 1/2

Total 49 12 5

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, of the customs.

Note, Hides and calve-skins, dressed or curried, are to be allowed one penny per pound weight. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. Sheep and lamb-skins tanned, tawed, or dressed, are to be allowed two third parts of the duties formerly paid. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 69.

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the customs, the same is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and skins at the port of exportation, who is forthwith, out of the monies in his hands arising from the said duties, to repay the two third parts (as above) of the duties which were before paid; or, in default thereof, the commissioners are to repay the same.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

9. A debenture for manufactures of tanned leather.

Port of Southampton.

* William Turner did enter with us, the 16th of February, 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, four dozen and an half of men's leather-heel shoes, three dozen of women's shoes, fifteen dozen of boys and girls shoes, made of tanned hides and calve-skins, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, and an additional duty of one half-penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the tenth year of her said late majesty's reign.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 4 l. that the shoes above-mentioned, and every part thereof, shall be exported for parts beyond the seas, and not reloaded, or brought on shore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

The shoes above-mentioned, containing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were shipped the 16th of February last.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforefaid debenture must be endorsed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

The old duty payable by the ninth of Anne, to be repaid for the shoes within-mentioned, amounts to one pound and nine pence

l. s. d. 1 0 9

The additional duty payable by the tenth of Anne, to be repaid for the said shoes, amounts to ten shillings and four pence half-penny

10 4 1/2

The total 1 11 1 1/2

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller, of the customs.

* The debenture thus executed, is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and skins, at the port of exportation, or to the commissioners for the said duties; who are forthwith to repay one penny half-penny for every pound, although the marks, or stamps, to denote the payment of the duties, do not appear on such shoes [or other wares].

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 41. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 68.

10. A debenture for gold and silver lace, thread and fringe.

Port of Southampton.

* Roger Grainger did enter with us, the 3d of March, 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread; twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace; ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe; all made since the 1st of July, 1712, and of plate-wire spun upon silk, as appears by the oath of William Brooks.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Bond is taken in the penalty of thirty-eight pounds, that the above-mentioned gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe, shall be shipped and exported, and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

The twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, above-mentioned, were shipped the 6th of March present.

Certified the 19th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the allowance, as follows :

The allowance to be made for the gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe, within-mentioned, amounts to eighteen pounds, nineteen shillings, and ten pence three farthings — } 1. s. d. 18 19 10 3/4

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the customs.

This debenture is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duty on gilt and silver wire, at the port of exportation, who is forthwith to pay the allowance, or, in default, the commissioners of the said duty are to pay it.

11. A debenture for British wrought plate.

Port of Southampton.

* These are to certify, that Joel Crisp did enter with us, the 12th day of January, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, one hundred and fifty ounces Troy of silver plate wrought, all made since the first day of June, 1720, and marked with the mark, or stamp, denoting it not to be less in fineness than that of eleven ounces and two penny-weights of fine silver in every pound Troy, as appears by the oath of Arthur Strong.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 8l. that all the said silver plate wrought shall be exported into foreign parts, and not re-landed again in any part of Great-Britain.

The one hundred and fifty ounces Troy of silver plate wrought, above-mentioned, were shipped the 13th of January last.

Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be indorsed the drawback to be repaid, as follows :

The duty to be repaid for the silver plate wrought, within-mentioned, amounts to three pounds fifteen shillings } 1. s. d. 3 15 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the customs.

* This debenture is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duty on wrought plate, by whom, or by the commissioners of the said duty, the allowance is to be paid.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18.

12. A debenture for printed calicoes.

Port of Southampton.

Robert Ashby did enter with us, the 16th of March, 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, seven hundred and twenty yards square of printed calicoes; the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, to the proper officers appointed to receive the same, after the rate of six-pence per yard square, being printed since the second day of August, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Robert Ashby.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* i. e. on the debenture for the customs.

Bond is taken in the penalty of thirty-six pounds, that the above-mentioned printed calicoes shall be shipped and exported, and not re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

The seven hundred and twenty yards square of printed calicoes, above-mentioned, were shipped the 20th of March present.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

13. A debenture for printed linens and silks.

Port of Southampton.

Robert Ashby did enter with us, the 16th day of March, 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, four hundred yards square of printed linens, and * three hundred ninety-six yards square of printed silk handkerchiefs; the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, to the proper officers appointed to receive the same, after the rate of three pence per yard square for the linen, and four pence per yard square for the handkerchiefs, being printed since the second day of August, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Robert Ashby.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* If the linens or silks are foreign, and printed in Great-Britain, it must be here certified, that the oath is taken, &c. as for calicoes.

Bond is taken in the penalty of twenty-four pounds, that the above-mentioned printed linens and silk handkerchiefs, shall be shipped and exported, and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

The four hundred yards square of printed linens, and three hundred ninety-six yards square of printed silk handkerchiefs above-mentioned, were shipped the 20th of March present.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

On the back of the two last debentures must be indorsed the drawback to be repaid, as follows :

The duty to be repaid for the printed linens and printed silk handkerchiefs, within-mentioned, amounts to eleven pounds twelve shillings — } 1. s. d. 11 12 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the customs.

* The debentures are to be delivered to the exporter, to produce to the collector of those duties, by whom, or the commissioners, the drawback is to be paid, or the security given discharged, if they were only secured.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93. 12 Ann. cap. 9.

14. A debenture for British starch.

Port of Southampton.

Roger Crompton did enter with us, the 13th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, sixty-three hundred weight, three quarters, and twenty-one pounds of British-made starch, making seven thousand, one hundred, sixty-one pounds net; the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, to the proper officers appointed to receive the same, after the rate of two-pence per pound weight, being made since the second

of August, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Charles Owen.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 120l. that the above-mentioned starch shall be shipped and exported, and that the same, or any part, shall not be re-landed in any part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

15. Debentures for British soap, paper, and candles.

The form of these is exactly the same as of that for starch; but the particular goods, the duties paid, and the proof of it, must be inserted according to the following examples, viz.

S O A P.

Twenty-four firkins, and forty-eight half-firkins, containing three thousand seventy-two pounds avoirdupois weight, of British soft soap, the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, after the rate of one penny half-penny per pound, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 26th of January, 1730.

P A P E R.

Four hundred and eight yards square of British stained paper, the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, after the rate of one penny half-penny per yard square, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 12th of January, 1730.

C A N D L E S.

Five hundred pounds of British tallow candles, and three hundred and forty pounds of British wax candles, avoirdupois weight, the duties whereof have been paid for his majesty's use, after the rate of one penny per pound for the tallow candles, and eight pence per pound for the wax candles, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 14th of February, 1730.

On the back must be endorsed the drawbacks to be repaid, as follow:

The duty to be repaid for the starch within-mentioned, amounts to fifty-nine pounds, thirteen shillings, and six-pence } l. s. d. 59 13 6

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller, } of the customs.

Being thus executed, they are to be delivered to the exporter, in order to procure the drawback.

16. A debenture for fish.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat Thomas Fielding, That all the fish herein - mentioned, are British taken, and really exported to, or for, parts beyond the seas, and not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed, in Great-Britain.

Thomas Fielding,
exporter [or his agent.]

Jurat 22^o die Martii,

1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

These are to certify, That Thomas Fielding did enter with us, the 27th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Straights, sixty-eight barrels of salmon, of British taking and curing. Witness our hands, the 9th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

These are to certify, That we have examined the (*) sixty-eight barrels of salmon above-mentioned, each barrel containing forty-two gallons wine-measure, and marked, or branded, with the letters E. A. and find them all to be well cured, and merchantable, and that they were shipped the 1st day of March present.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Assistant-Searcher.

In filling up the searcher's certificate of the shipping and condition of the fish, it must be observed, that the number, size, and species of the fish, must be distinctly expressed, and that, after this mark (*), there must be added as follows, according to the several respective sorts, viz.

—Casks of pilchards, or shads, each cask containing 50 gallons wine measure.

—Hundreds of cod-fish, ling, or hake, each fish containing 14 inches, or upwards, in length, from the bone in the fins to the third joint in the tail, and punched in the tail, according to act of parliament.

—Barrels of wet cod-fish, ling, or hake, each barrel containing 32 gallons, wine measure.

— Hundreds weight of dried cod-fish, ling, or hake, called haberdines.

—Barrels of white herrings, or full, or clean, shotten red herrings, containing 32 gallons, wine measure.

And for salmon, pilchards, shads, herrings, and dried red sprats, must be added, That each barrel, or cask, is marked, or branded, with the letters E. A.

And on the back of the aforefaid debenture must be endorsed the bounty that is to be paid on the exportation, thus:

The premium to be paid for the fish exported, as } l. s. d.
within-mentioned, amounts to fifteen pounds, } 15 6 0
six shillings

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

And, if the collector has proper money in his hands to pay the same, the exporter's receipt must be taken for such bounty, as follows:

Southampton, the 23d day of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of } l. s. d.
his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their } 15 6 0
collector in this port, the sum of fifteen pounds, }
six shillings, in full of this debenture

Witness C. D. Comptroller.

But, if the collector has not sufficient money in his hands on the new duty on salt imported, or on the branches chargeable with the payment of corn debentures, the same must be certified to the commissioners, as follows:

These are to certify the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, That the collector of Southampton has not money in his hands arising by the duty of three pence per gallon on foreign salt, or by customs, out of which the bounties for corn are payable, sufficient to pay this debenture. Witness our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Customer,
C. D. Comptroller.

And when this debenture, with the foregoing certificate thereon, is produced to the commissioners, their secretary is to examine it, and signify the same, as follows:

I have examined this debenture, and do find the requisites of law duly performed; and by the foregoing certificate it appears, that there is not sufficient money in that port to pay the same.

F. G. Secretary.

Whereupon the commissioners will order the payment, as follows:

Custom-house, London, the 27th day of March, 1730.

You are, in three months from the date hereof, to pay in full of this debenture, out of such money as shall then be in your hands, arising by the duty of three pence per gallon on foreign salt imported, or, if the same be deficient, out of the customs or duties chargeable with the payment of the bounty for the exportation of corn or grain, the sum of fifteen pounds six shillings.

To L. M. Esq; receiver-general, and cashier of his majesty's customs.

G. H. }
H. I. } Commissioners.
J. K. }
K. L. }

And when, for want of money, the debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commissioners, duplicates thereof must be drawn out in proper columns, in like manner as before described for corn-debentures, in order to be sent therewith.

17. A debenture for beef or pork.

Port of Southamp.

Jurat John Fowler, That all the beef, herein - mentioned, was salted with foreign salt only (without any mixture of British or Irish salt) for which the duties have been paid, and not drawn back, and

These are to certify, That John Fowler did enter with us, the 20th day of March, 1730, in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Straights, one hundred casks, quantity one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of salt beef, for sale, each barrel containing thirty-two gallons, wine measure, all good and merchantable, and salted with foreign salt only (without any mixture of British or Irish salt) for which the duties have been paid, and not drawn back, and

that the fame is really exported to parts beyond the seas, for sale, and that no part thereof was spent, or intended to be spent, for the ship's use, and was not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed, in Great-Britain.

John Fowler, exporter [or his agent].

Jurat 4^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

not drawn back. Witnesses our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

These are to certify, That we have examined the one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of salted beef above-mentioned, each barrel containing thirty-two gallons, wine-measure, which have been actually shipped for sale; and that all the said beef is good and merchantable, and the casks branded with the letters E. A. Witnesses our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Assistant-Searcher.

And on the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the bounty that is to be paid on the exportation, thus:

The premium to be paid for the one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of salted beef, exported as within-mentioned, amounts to fourteen pounds, thirteen shillings, and three pence

l. s. d. 14 13 3

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

For the payment of which debenture, or the certificate of the want of money, and all other requisites, see the directions before given for the fish exported, the bounty being payable out of the said duties.

18. A debenture for coals.

Port of Southampton.

John How did enter with us, the 18th day of March, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller master, for Rotterdam, twenty-two chalders of coals, Newcastle measure, making forty-two chalders of coals Winchester measure, the coast duties whereof were paid [or secured, &c. as in the certificate] by Benjamin Thorn, the 7th day of January last, as it doth appear by the certificate of the collector of the said duties. And, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, he hath also taken oath before us for the same. Custom-house the day and year aforesaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat John How, that the coals above-mentioned are really exported to parts beyond the seas, and not landed, or intended to be re-landed, in any part of Great-Britain.

The twenty-two chalders of coals, Newcastle measure, making forty-two chalders of coals Winchester measure, above-mentioned, were shipped the 18th and 19th of March present.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat 23^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

On the back must be endorsed the duties to be repaid; and underneath the exporter's receipt. But in computing the duties it must be observed,

- 1. That, if the duties were paid down at entry, the drawback must be repaid in ready money, with the discount deducted.
2. That, if the duties were secured, the bond must be discharged for the amount of the drawback, by endorsing it.
3. That, if the duties were secured at entry, but the bond paid off before the entry outwards, or before the debenture be finished, the drawback must be repaid in money, with or without discount, as was the case of the entry.

The coast-duty of three shillings the chalders, to be repaid for the coals within-mentioned, amounts to six pounds, two shillings, and ten pence farthing

l. s. d. 6 2 10 1/4

The coast-duty of two shillings in the chalders, to be repaid for the said coals, amounts to four pounds, one shilling, and ten pence three-farthings

4 1 10 3/4
10 4 9

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of ten pounds, four shillings, and nine pence, in full of this debenture

l. s. d. 10 4 9

Witnesses C. D. Comptroller.

John How.

19. A debenture for foreign goods.

* As foreign goods imported, and afterwards exported to foreign parts within three years (accounting from the master's report of the ship) are intitled to the drawback of such duties as are by law to be repaid: therefore, when regularly shipped for exportation, debentures must be formed from the certificate of the payment, or security inwards.

In making out the debentures it must be observed, that, if the goods mentioned in the certificate were imported at any other port, separate debentures must be made; and, when shipped, and the exportation duly sworn to, they must be sent to the port, or ports, of importation, to have the duties computed and repaid; and the original certificate must be sent therewith; and, if the duties were paid at London, a duplicate in the following form:

* Second, fourth, sixth, and twenty-sixth rules of the book of rates. 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 23. §. 18. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.

Port of Southampton.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica.

Robert Ashby.

The subsidy, new subsidy, one third subsidy, two thirds subsidy, additional duty, and impost inwards, for seventy-two calicoes, were paid at London by the united company, the 30th of May last, being for the 15 per cent. on calicoes; twenty long cloths at sixty-five shillings per piece, lot FVA, folio 104, sold Lane by the Grantham; as by certificate from London, in the name of Salter and company, dated the 3d of January last. Dated at the custom-house, the 20th of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

To D. E. collector outwards, in the port of London.

Of the aforesaid debentures there are but two forts, viz. one for tobacco, and another for all other foreign goods.

I. Debentures for tobacco.

In the execution whereof, it must be particularly observed, 1. * That debentures for the same quantity may be made in one or more parchments; and therefore it is the practice of London, Bristol, &c. when the bondable duties were secured at importation, to make out a distinct debenture for them, and another for the old subsidy; in most other ports they are usually made on the same parchment, by inserting the money and bonds in different-columns.

* 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 10. §. 5.

2. * That the exporter's oath must be printed, specifying whether he acts for himself, or by commission.

* 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 10. §. 5. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

3. * If exported to any other foreign parts than Ireland, the word Ireland must be added to the oath, after Great-Britain.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 50.

4. * That as no tobacco may be consumed on board ships of war in Europe, but what has paid full duties, and been manufactured in Great-Britain; no drawback is to be allowed for tobacco exported in any man of war.

* 6 Ann. cap. 22. §. 13.

5. * That the eight pounds per hoghead of 350 pounds, or more, allowed for draught at importation, must not be deducted on exportation.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 15.

6. * That debentures for tobacco exported to Ireland must not be paid, till a certificate be produced, testifying the landing thereof as follows:

* 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18.

Port of Dublin.

These are to certify all whom it may concern, That George Hill of this city, merchant, hath landed here, out of the Hope of Dublin, James Butler master, from Southampton, forty-four thousand, seven hundred, fifty-three pounds of British plantation tobacco, which came per cocket from thence in the name of Nicholas Stone, dated the 8th of March last, for * forty-five thousand, seven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of the said tobacco: his majesty's full duties whereof were here paid by the said merchant, the 28th of March last.

Witness our hands and seals of office, this fourth day of April, 1731.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, or Surveyor.

* To be omitted where there is no variation between the quantities shipped in Great-Britain, and landed in Ireland.

Each cocket must have one of these, and must be annexed to the respective debentures, to be transmitted as vouchers; without which the collector will not have credit for the same: but where the subsidy is repaid in money, and the debenture for the bonded duties remains in the merchant's custody, the original certificate must be annexed to the subsidy debenture, and a duplicate of it attested by the collector and comptroller, annexed to the debenture for the bonded duties.

7. * That if, on producing the aforesaid certificate, there appears to be any difference in weight, so as the quantity landed is less than that shipped; the exporter must have an allowance not exceeding two per cent.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 48.

8. That no persons may swear to the exportation, but such as are permitted to swear to debentures for other goods.

A debenture for the old subsidy of tobacco, when the other duties are secured.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler master, for Ireland, forty-five thousand, seven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of British-plantation tobacco; the subsidy whereof was paid inwards by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February last; Aaron Holt, the 7th of February last; and George Tims, the 13th of February last, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, he hath also taken oath [or affirmation] before us, for the same.

Custom-house, Southampton, the day and year above said.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Landed in Ireland as per certificate, dated the 4th day of April, 1731, no more than	44753	The forty-five thousand, seven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of tobacco above-mentioned, were shipped the 9th of March present. Certified the 22d of March, 1730.
Two per cent. of 45728 lb. shipped -	914	

Drawback to be allowed for	45667	* E. F. Searcher, F. G. Surveyor, G. H. Land-waiter.
A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.		

* Second rule of the book of rates.

Jurat Nicholas Stone, That all the tobacco shipped, as here certified, is really and truly exported for parts beyond the seas, on his own account [or on his own and company's account, or on * the account of George Hill of Dublin, for whom this deponent acts in the direction of the voyage] and that none of the said tobacco hath been since landed, or is intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain [Ireland, when not exported thither] or the Isle of Man.

Jurat 10^o die Aprilis, 1731, coram nobis
A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* In London and Bristol, the exporters of tobacco by commission swear, On commission, having the direction of the voyage.

On the back of the aforesaid debenture must be endorsed the old subsidy to be repaid, as follows:

The subsidy to be repaid for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen shillings, and two-pence farthing	142 14 2½
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A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen shillings, and two-pence farthing, in full of this debenture	142 14 2½	l. s. d.
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Witness,

C. D. Comptroller.

Nicholas Stone.

Note, When the bondable duties are likewise paid at importation, they must be specified in the same debenture with the old subsidy, and but one debenture made out for all the duties: but, when secured, there must be a separate debenture in form following:

A debenture for the bondable duties of tobacco.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler master, for Ireland, forty-five thousand, seven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of British-plantation tobacco; the additional duty, new subsidy, one third subsidy, and impost whereof were secured inwards, as follows, viz. for thirty-five thousand, two hundred, twenty-eight pounds, by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February last, out of the Olive-Branch of Ipswich, Giles Ellis master, reported the 28th of January last; for two thousand five hundred pounds by Aaron Holt, the 7th of February last, and for eight thousand pounds by George Tims, the 13th of February last, out of the Welcome of Whitehaven, Charles Jones master, reported the 4th of February last, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards; and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, he hath also taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the same.

Custom-house, Southampton, the day and year above said.
A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

The officer's certificate of the shipping, and the exporter's oath, must be the same as on the foregoing debenture for the old subsidy.

On the back must be endorsed the several duties to be discharged on the bonds, as follows:

The additional duty to be discharged on bonds for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred sixty-one pounds, fourteen shillings, and nine pence	161 14 9	Bonds.
The new subsidy to be discharged for the same, amounts to one hundred sixty-one pounds, fourteen shillings, and nine pence	161 14 9	
The one third subsidy to be discharged for the same, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eighteen shillings, and three pence	58 18 3	
Impost on tobacco to be discharged for the same, amounts to four hundred eighty-three pounds, four shillings, and three pence	483 4 3	
	860 12 0	

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of eight hundred sixty-two pounds, twelve shillings, by endorsement on bonds, in full of this debenture	862 12 0	l. s. d.
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Witness,

C. D. Comptroller.

Nicholas Stone.

But if the officers chuse to make out but one debenture for the old subsidy, and the bondable duties, as is the practice of some ports, it must be in the form following:

A debenture for all duties on tobacco, when the bondable duties are secured.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler master, for Ireland, forty-five thousand, seven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of British-plantation tobacco; the subsidy inwards whereof was paid, and the additional duty, new subsidy, one third subsidy, and impost inwards, were secured as follows, viz. for thirty-five thousand, two hundred, twenty pounds, by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February last, out of the Olive-Branch of Ipswich, Giles Ellis master, reported the 28th of January last; for two thousand five hundred pounds, by Aaron Holt, the 7th of February last, and for eight thousand pounds, by George Tims, the 13th of February last, out of the Welcome of Whitehaven, Charles Jones master, reported the 4th of February last, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards:

D E B

wards: and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, he hath also taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the same.

Custom-house, Southampton, the day and year above said.
A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

The officer's certificate of the shipping, and the exporter's oath, with the remarks of the quantity landed in Ireland, must be the same as on the foregoing debenture for the old subsidy only.

On the back must be endorsed the several duties to be paid in money, and discharged on bonds, as follows:

	Money.	Bonds.
The subsidy to be repaid for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen shillings, and two pence farthing	142 14 2½	
The additional duty to be discharged on bonds for the same, amounts to one hundred sixty-one pounds, fourteen shillings, and nine pence		161 14 9
The new subsidy to be discharged for the same, amounts to one hundred sixty-one pounds, fourteen shillings, and nine pence		161 14 9
The one third subsidy to be discharged for the same, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eighteen shillings, and three pence		53 18 3

D E B

	Money.	Bonds.
The impost on tobacco to be discharged for the same, amounts to four hundred eighty-five pounds, four shillings, and three pence		485 4 3
	142 14 2½	862 12 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen shillings, and two pence farthing in money, and eight hundred, sixty-two pounds, twelve shillings by endorsement on bonds, making together one thousand and five pounds, six shillings, and two pence farthing, being in full of this debenture

Witness
C. D. Comptroller. Nicholas Stone.

And as the bondable duties on this debenture are to be applied towards the discharge of several bonds; therefore it would be proper to annex a scheme of the particular appropriations of the several duties in the following form:

NICHOLAS STONE.

In the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maffer, for Ireland, 45667 pounds of British-plantation tobacco, to be appropriated to the discharge of the following bonds; viz.

Importers.	Date of bonds.	Ships and dates of reports.	Quant. exported.	Add. duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Impost.
Dennis Dove.	3 Feb. 1730.	Olive Branch, Giles Ellis, 28 Jan. 1730	* 35167	124 11 0	124 11 0	41 10 4	373 13 0
Aaron Holt.	7 Ditto	Welcome, Charles Jones, 4 Feb.	2500	8 17 1	8 17 1	2 19 0	26 11 3
George Tims.	13 Ditto	Ditto	8000	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10	85 0 0
			45667	161 14 9	161 14 9	53 18 3	485 4 3

* The 61 lb. of tobacco being the difference between the quantity to be allowed for, and that shipped, is deducted from this article.

With respect to the bondable duties on tobacco, it must be observed, that if it should happen that they have been secured at importation, and the bond be paid off before the debenture be passed, those duties must be paid in money: and if the bond was paid off before due, so that discount was allowed for the time unexpired, it must be specified on the debenture, and the discount deducted.

II. Debentures for all other foreign goods.

In which is to be observed,

1. * That no person may be admitted to swear to the exportation, but the true exporter, either as proprietor, or who, being employed by commission, is concerned in the direction of the voyage.

* 4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 15. §. 13. 6 and 7 W. III. cap. 7. §. 5. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

2. * That debenture for any certificate goods exported to Ireland must not be allowed, till certificate be produced, testifying the landing thereof: one of which certificates is to be required for each cocket, and annexed to the debentures, before the same are passed; and transmitted as vouchers, or the collector will not have credit for the same: but where the subsidy is repaid in money, and the debenture for the bonded duties remains in the merchant's custody, the original certificate must be annexed to the subsidy debenture, and a duplicate of it attested by the collector and comptroller, annexed to the debenture for the bonded duties: and these certificates and duplicates are to be numbered to distinguish whether it be 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. duplicate.

* 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 11. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 5. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 2.

And according to the quantity landed (if less than shipped in Great-Britain) the drawback must be allowed, and for no more.

3. * That a debenture must not be made out for any salt landed in Ireland, unless entered outwards at exportation for some port in Ireland.

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 13.

4. That the collector and comptroller are to give the importers of salt, credit, in their account, for what salt shall be exported to any foreign parts, by debentures.

A debenture for any other foreign goods than tobacco.

Port of Southampton.

Robert Ashby did enter with us, the 16th day of March, 1730, in the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright maffer, for Jamaica.

The subsidy, new subsidy, and one third subsidy inwards, were paid for seven hundred, an half, and ten ells plain, narrow, Germany linen; by James Owen, the 18th of June, 1729; one hundred forty-seven ells plain Holland's linen, under 1 ½ ell wide, by Roger Smith, the 7th of December, and 15th of January last; three hundred weight and an half of currants, and ten pounds of nutmegs, by William Barber, the 4th instant; twenty reams of ordinary paper, being for the new duties, fine fool's-cap, by John Short, the 3d of May, 1729; eight pounds of rhubarb, fourteen pounds of gentian, and seven pounds of scammony, from the place of their growth, by Samuel Hurst, the 8th of April, and 16th of November last; two hundred weight, three quarters, and fourteen pounds of battery; five hundred weight, one quarter, and seven pounds of metal prepared, by Ralph Snow, the 3d of August, and 19th of November last. The two thirds subsidy was likewise paid for, all but linen and currants; the additional duty was paid for linen; the impost 1690 was paid for, all but Holland's linen, nutmegs, battery and metal prepared; the impost 1692-3 was paid for battery, and metal prepared; the new duty was paid for nutmegs, paper, and drugs; the additional new duty was paid for nutmegs, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, he hath also taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the same.

Custom-house, Southampton, the day and year above said.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat Robert Ashby, That the goods mentioned in this debenture, are really and bona fide, exported for parts beyond the seas, on his own account, or on his own and company's account, or * on account of A. B. of The seven hundred, an half, and ten ells plain, narrow Germany linen, one hundred forty-seven ells plain Holland's linen, under 1 ½ ell wide, three hundred weight and an half of currants, ten pounds of nutmegs, twenty reams of ordinary paper, being for the new duties, fine fool's cap; eight pounds of rhubarb, fourteen pounds of gentian, seven pounds of scammony, two hundred weight, three quarters

D E B

Jamaica, for whom this deponent acts in the direction of the voyage] and that no part hereof has been since landed, or is intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain, or the Isle of Man.
 Jurat 23^o die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
 A. B. Collector,
 B. C. Comptroller.

quarters, and fourteen pounds of battery; five hundred weight, one quarter, and seven pounds of metal, prepared above-mentioned, were shipped the 17th of March present.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
 E. F. Surveyor,
 F. G. Landwaiter.

* In London and Bristol, the exporters of goods by commission fwear, On commission, having the direction of the voyage.

On the back must be endorsed the several duties to be repaid; and underneath the exporter's receipt, as follows:

The subsidy to be repaid for the goods with- in-mentioned, amounts to four pounds, four shillings, and one penny half-penny	}	l.	s.	d.
The additional duty to be paid for the same, amounts to one pound, eight shillings, and eight pence		4	4	1 ½
		1	8	8
		<hr/>		
Customs	—	5	12	9 ½
		<hr/>		
The new subsidy to be repaid, seven pounds, nine shillings, and one penny farthing	}	7	9	1 ¼
The one-third subsidy to be repaid, two pounds, nine shillings, and eight pence farthing		2	9	8 ¼
The two-thirds subsidy to be repaid, two pounds, three shillings, and seven pence farthing		2	3	7 ¾
The impost 1690 to be repaid, two pounds, four shillings, and eleven pence three far- things		2	4	11 ¾
The impost 1692-3 to be repaid, one pound, eighteen shillings, and four pence half- penny		1	18	4 ½
The new duty on spice, &c. to be repaid, one shilling		0	1	0
The additional duty on spice, &c. to be re- paid, eleven shillings, two pence three farthings		0	11	2 ¾
The new duty on pepper, &c. to be re- paid, six shillings, and six pence half- penny		0	6	6 ½
The new duty on soap, &c. to be repaid, two pounds, ten shillings		2	10	0
The additional duty on soap, &c. one pound, five shillings		1	5	0
		<hr/>		
		26	12	3 ¾

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the sum of twenty-six pounds, twelve shillings, and three pence three farthings, in full of this debenture

Witness,
 C. D. Comptroller.

Robert Afhby.

On recourse to the entry outwards, from which this debenture was formed, it will appear that there were likewise en-

D E B

tered raffins solis and callicoos, though not inserted in the debenture, because the duties of the former were paid at Pool, and of the latter at London: in such cases separate debentures must be made out, and sent to the respective ports, to have the duties there computed and repaid; and the exportation sworn to, if exported by his order, who sent them from the port of importation; remembering to have a distinct parchment for the duty of 15 per cent. on muslins or callicoos.

All the several kinds of debentures, the forms of which are here given, must, before delivered or paid to the exporters be entered into a separate book, to be kept for that purpose by the collector and comptroller, in the forms preceding.

See the TABLE thereof.

DEBIT, among book-keepers, is used to express the left-hand page of the ledger, to which are carried all articles supplied, or paid, on the subject of an account, or that is charged to that account.

DEBTOR and CREDITOR, an art so called, which is made use of by the most skilful and eminent traders, in order to keep an exact account of all their commercial transactions.

R E M A R K S.

Under the articles of ACCOUNTANTSHIP, BOOK-KEEPER, and BOOKS of MERCHANTS, we have gradually introduced the reader into a knowledge of this useful and important method of account-keeping; to all which we refer: and under the head of BANKING I have, upon a single sheet, exhibited to one view, in a plain practical light, how easily this art is applicable to that branch of business. This I have done in the ledger-form only, judging that the most intelligible, as it is the most essential book of all, and all others only preparatory thereunto. And having given a full account of the nature and use of all books auxiliary to this, under the article BOOKS of MERCHANTS, I shall not repeat what I have there said, but proceed to delineate the whole art of DEBTOR and CREDITOR, according to it's true and fundamental principles, at one view, and that also upon one single sheet for that purpose; which, being comprehended, will enable any person to apply this art to any kind of negoci whatsoever, and that either of a public or private nature.

I am the more readily induced to chuse this ledger-form rather than any other given in the ordinary way by voluminous writers upon this subject, the specimen before given thereof, in regard to the business of banking, having met with so good a reception.

Previous to which, I shall only desire the reader to observe the few following general rules, for his government in the stating of accounts, according to the method of debtor and creditor, or the genuine Italian method, by double entry. As 1. The account unto which any thing comes, or upon account of which any thing goes out, is to be charged debtor for the same, and it's total amount.

2. That account from whence the same comes, is to be discharged thereof, or made creditor for it.

And although this art is of so very extensive a nature as to be applicable to every kind of business whatsoever, where accounts are requisite, that the state of such accounts should justly and truly appear upon the ledger; yet all kinds of accounts that can happen upon this principal book, are reducible to so few a number, as four; and, if I may be allowed an expression borrowed from the mariner, the boxing about of these four distinct species of accounts, suitably to the nature of the transaction, either by way of charge or discharge, or according as these certain accounts shall require to be stated, either as debtors or creditors, comprehends this whole science, notwithstanding the prolixity of authors who have professedly wrote thereupon.

D E B

D E B

A General VIEW of a LEDGER, kept according to the Method of Accountantship by
DOUBLE ENTRY.

CASH - - - - - DR.
Comprehends all money received.

PER CONTRA - - - - - CR.
Comprehends all money paid.

MERCHANDIZE GENERAL - - DR.
Comprehends all merchandize bought.

PER CONTRA - - - - - CR.
Comprehends all merchandize sold.

PERSONAL ACCOUNTS - - - DR.
Comprehends when any persons ought to be debited.

PER CONTRA - - - - - CR.
Comprehends when any persons ought to be credited.

DESIGNS - - - - - DR.
Comprehends all intermediate accounts, such as charges of merchandize, commiffion, voyages, shipping, draughts, remittances, exchanges, profit and lofs, &c.

PER CONTRA - - - - - CR.

EXPLANATION by EXAMPLES.

1. If you buy goods for ready money, you debit **MERCHANDIZE GENERAL**, or **PARTICULAR**, and credit **CASH**.
2. If you sell goods for ready money, you debit **CASH**, and credit **MERCHANDIZE GENERAL**, or **PARTICULAR**.
3. If you buy goods part for ready money, and part on credit, you debit **MERCHANDIZE GENERAL**, or **PARTICULAR**, and credit **CASH** for the sum paid, and the **PERSONAL ACCOUNT** for the sum due.
4. If you sell goods on credit, you debit the **PERSONAL ACCOUNT**, and credit **MERCHANDIZE GENERAL** or **PARTICULAR**.
5. If you sell goods for a part credit, and a part ready money, you debit **CASH** for what you receive, and **PERSONAL ACCOUNT** for what remains due, and credit **MERCHANDIZE GENERAL** or **PARTICULAR** by both.
6. If you order foreign merchandizes to be sent for your own account, you debit **DESIGNS**, or **VOYAGE**, from, &c. to, &c. and credit **PERSONAL ACCOUNT** for the whole cost and charge, as per invoice and insurance, &c. in the foreign money of the country *.

* As your foreign correspondent, in this respect, acts as a factor for you, and you are indebted to him only, according to the invoice, in the money of his country, you must enter this transaction under the head of such personal account thus: A. B. of Lisbon. My foreign account, and credit him in millreas, the money of account in Lisbon, and value such money at the price of exchange; and, when you pay him, either by remitting him, or by his drawing on you, you debit A. B. in the same foreign account, and credit the account of draughts or remittances, 'till you have paid the money, and then debit either of them, and credit cash. And, as you credit his personal account, according as the course of exchange then is, so you debit him according to what you really pay for such foreign money, whereby the difference between the sterling columns of such foreign account will shew whether you gain or lose by the exchange, from the first valuation.

7. If you send a foreign correspondent goods for his account, you debit his **PERSONAL** sterling account, and credit **MERCHANDIZE**.—Or, if you buy the goods on credit, you may credit the seller for what is due, and **CASH**, or **CHARGES** of **MERCHANDIZE** *, for what you expend, and credit **COMMISSION ACCOUNT** for your commission.

* This account of **CHARGES** of **MERCHANDIZE** frequently answers the end of an intermediate account to **PROFIT** and **LOSS**, and may be made an excellent blind upon many occasions; for it is debtor to cash only for what is really paid on that account, but it may be creditor for more, and for commission, &c.—And the difference in the balance passed to profit and loss, or to capital stock, &c.—By this method the profits or losses of traders may be so artfully concealed, to answer temporary purposes, &c. as few can discover but the thorough-paced accountant.

8. If you import goods from a foreign correspondent to sell by commission, you debit **MERCHANDIZE FOR ACCOUNT**, of **SUCH PERSON**, and credit **CHARGES** of **MERCHANDIZE**, for the duties and all incident expences.—And when you make out the account of sales * of those goods, and send the same to your correspondent, you include your commission therein.—And, in your own books, you debit merchandize account of such person to **COMMISSION**, and to the **STERLING ACCOUNT** of such correspondent, and credit, **COMMISSION** account, and such correspondent's **STERLING ACCOUNT**.

* See the article **ACCOUNT OF SALES**, under the article **ACCOUNT**, where are contained some particular remarks upon the making out such accounts.

9. If you send goods to a foreign correspondent to sell for your account by commission, you debit **VOYAGE** to such a place, consigned to such person, and credit **MERCHANDIZE** for the cost, and **CHARGES** of **MERCHANDIZE** for all incident expences.—And send an invoice * therewith.

* An invoice is an account of the cost and charges of the goods sent, for the government of your factor in the sales of such goods. But it being customary among merchants to add 5 or 10 per cent. or more, upon the invoice, in order to induce a factor to sell more to the advantage of his principal, it is seldom much regarded. See the article **INVOICE**.

10. When your factor renders you an account of sales of such goods, you debit his foreign account, and credit the account of **VOYAGE** to him consigned; which you value in the outer column in sterling money, according to exchange, which is rectified afterwards on the balance of the account, as before observed. So that the profit or loss upon such goods, will appear upon the account of voyage, &c. And when your factor remits you, or you draw upon him for the net produce of your goods, you debit the account of **DESIGNS** (i. e. **DRAUGHTS** or **REMITTANCES**) and credit your factor's **FOREIGN ACCOUNT**.—And, when you receive the money, you debit the account of **CASH**, and credit the

account of **DRAUGHTS** or **REMITTANCES**; which concludes the whole adventure.

REMARKS.

If these few instances only are thoroughly comprehended, and the reason of them, the attentive reader will easily observe, that the boxing of these four different kinds of accounts, by way of charge and discharge, to keep the books in a balance, includes the whole art: and any person who represents these four articles before him, they will prove a constant guide in the stating of all manner of accounts, though ever so complicated.

And, when he has made himself a master of the true debtors and creditors, the registering transactions minutely and circumstantially in the waste-book and journal, in order to be posted from thence into the ledger, will be extremely easy. But, lest what has been said should not prove so intelligible as I could wish, I shall make use of another method of explication.

As all transactions in trade are mutual between person and person, so the consideration how those we deal with are to state their accounts, in order to be in conformity with our own, will serve to help the young accountant to the true method of stating of his debits and credits. Example:

If you in England agree with a foreign correspondent to be equally concerned with him in a cargo of merchandize, and consign the same to him for disposal, the first cost, charge and insurance, &c. being 2000l.—Consider, you must either have such merchandize by you, or you must purchase them.—If you have them by you, they must stand debtor in your books for their prime cost and charge, as before shewn.—Or, if you purchase them, they will stand debtor to the seller, if you had credit, or to cash, if bought for ready money, and persons or cash must have credit for the same.—When such merchandizes go out of your possession, reason says that they must no longer remain debtor, as if they still remained in your possession.—If so, when you part with these goods, you are certain that they must have credit.—What then is the proper creditor is the next question? For every debtor must have it's counterpart creditor, to constitute the double entry, and every creditor it's counterpart debtor.

If you part with these merchandizes to be sent by sea to a foreign correspondent for your joint account, reason dictates that such a correspondent cannot be a debtor for the whole, since he is but a half part interested therein. But reason says, as soon as the goods are shipped, that he is answerable for his part, wherefore here is one debtor. Quere, What says plain reason ought to be the other, that both may make up the whole?—The answer is so easy, that it can scarce be mistaken.

DESIGNS must be the other, under the title of voyage to such place, consigned to such a one.—So that, by this method of entry, there will be two debtors to make up the counterpart creditor.—Whence it appears, that when your foreign correspondent, and partner in this adventure, renders you an account of sales for your part, you debit him and credit the voyage aforesaid; whereby the profit or loss arising will appear upon this voyage-account on the ledger.

There is another manner of stating this transaction. Let voyage, &c. in company, &c. be debtor to merchandize for the whole cost and charge of the adventure, and debit your foreign correspondent to the voyage; which method of entry rendering the voyage in company, &c. debtor for the whole, and creditor for one half, leaves that account virtually a debtor only for one half: and, being made creditor for one half, the net proceeds will consequently shew the profit or loss upon this occurrence.

Consider on the other hand, how your foreign correspondent states this affair in his books. Upon writing him that you have shipped such goods for your joint account, he states the affair in his book thus: Voyage from London, in company, &c. debtor to your sterling account, for his half part of the cost, charge, and insurance, &c. and gives your sterling account credit in conformity; which shews the true state of his affairs with you, if he dies before the goods arrive.—On their arrival, he pays duties and other charges.—For which he may either debit the voyage, &c. for his half part, and you for your's in your foreign account, to his account of cash, and credit that account for what money he expends; or he may discharge the voyage account by debiting merchandize in company thereto for his own part, and to the account of cash for the whole he expends, and then debit you to merchandize in company, &c. for your part of the customs and charges 'till sold.—And, when sold, may give you credit by merchandize in company for your half the net produce, exclusive of those duties and first charges.—Or he may place the whole charges to the company account, and credit you at the conclusion for your half the clear net proceeds, &c.

If you order a correspondent at one foreign port to lade goods for another foreign port, and consign them to such a one for your account and risk, how must this account be stated in your books?

'Tis certain that he who sends the goods, according to your order and direction, is your creditor for their cost and charge.—But the person to whom you ordered them to be consigned, cannot

cannot be your debtor before he has received those goods. Here therefore interposes the intermediate account of Designs, under the denomination of voyage from such a place consigned to such a one debtor, and the person who sends the goods is the creditor in his foreign account of money of his own country, as before intimated.

When your correspondent, to whom you have consigned such goods, writes you of the sale, and net produce thereof, you debit him in his foreign account, in the money of his country, and credit the account of voyage, &c. consigned to him. Whereby the profit or loss arising from this adventure will appear upon the voyage account, when the values of the foreign money come to be ascertained in sterling. And as the first correspondent who sent and consigned these goods to the latter by your order, is your creditor, and the other is your debtor; it is natural in the course of business, especially if the exchanges should at such time prove favourable, to order your creditor to draw upon your debtor for his reimbursement, or your debtor to remit to your creditor.—Let which will of these two be the case, you must debit the creditor, or credit the debtor; which keeps both their accounts in a just light in your own books.—Or, if it is more convenient or advantageous for you to remit your foreign creditor, or order him to draw on you, you debit him in his foreign account, wherein he had credit, to draughts or remittances in conformity, and credit either the one or the other, according as the transaction has fell out.—And, when you actually pay the money for such draught, or remittance, you debit one of these accounts to cash, and credit cash, which keeps all the accounts right and in a ballance.

Let it be considered also, in what manner both these foreign correspondents enter these mercantile negotiations in their books.—As that correspondent to whom you gave the first order, is your creditor in your own books; so you are of course his debtor in his books, in your account current in the money of his country, for the cost, charge, commission, and insurance, if not made by yourself, for the amount of the whole invoice of such goods sent for your account.—If then you are a debtor in such correspondent's books, what is it reasonable to make the counterpart creditor?—The answer is mighty natural, from the principles before laid down. Merchandizes going out of his possession, 'tis certain, that account is one creditor to make up a part of the whole; and, as there necessarily accrue charges of merchandize, and commission, &c. these distinct intermediate accounts of Designs will make up the other part.—And when he draws upon you, or you remit him for the whole, he then credits or discharges you, and debits his account of draughts or remittances.—And, when he receives his money for the bill of exchange, he debits his account of cash, and credits draughts or remittances, according as the affair has turned out.

The other correspondent, who has the disposal of your goods, does, upon the receipt thereof, pay the duties, freight, and other incident charges.—For which he debits merchandize for your account, and credits his cash for what he expends upon this occasion.—When he disposes of your goods, as it must be either for ready money, on credit, or for both:—He credits your merchandize account by these respective accounts, and debits them as counterparts conformably thereto.—So that, in order to conclude this account upon his books, he debits the same for all after-charges, and his commission, and credits the account of charges of merchandize, and commission; and, by subtracting the sum total on the debit side from that on the credit, shews him what is due to you for the net proceed of such merchandize.—Which he passes from the debit of your merchandize account to the credit of your account current, upon his rendering you an account of sales for the same.—Or upon his remitting you for the same, or your drawing on him for it, or any foreign correspondent, by your order, he then debits your account current, and credits draughts or remittances, 'till the bill or bills of exchange shall be paid.—And, when actually paid, he debits either, or both of these accounts, if the transaction requires it, and credits the account of cash, which ends this transaction in his books.

By thus considering, how all, and every the different parties with whom you transact business, state their transactions with you in their books, you will, as it were, be naturally led to the stating of any thing that occurs in your own books, even in the most singular and perplexed cases; and that, with the assistance only of those four distinct species of accounts, supposed to exist upon the ledger; nothing happening, which falls not under some peculiar subdivision of the one or of the other.

That nothing, however, may be wanting to render this admirable method of accountantship perfectly intelligible, we shall add to what has been already represented, under the various heads before referred to, a variety of very curious and real mercantile transactions; which will not only very amply exemplify the science, but at the same time exhibit in what manner the practical art of merchandizing is carried on by those, who have been esteemed to be the most skilful therein.

This we shall do, under the article **MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP**, and **LEDGER**; where likewise shall be shewn,

how this method of accounts by debtor and creditor is applicable to the accounts of the nation; and may serve to ascertain indisputably the true and genuine sense of all acts of parliament, that may be hereafter made, in regard to the **FUNDS**, and **PUBLIC REVENUE** of this kingdom; the public and the public creditors always righted, in any future variations, with regard to their property, and many rancorous disputes and altercations, both within doors and without, thereby happily prevented.

Some of the principal laws of England, relating to debt and debtors.

3 Edw. III. c. 23. None to distrain a foreigner in any city, town, &c. for any debt not justly his, on pain of grievous punishment.

2 Rich. II. c. 3. Judgment shall be given against a debtor, who, having made a fraudulent conveyance to defraud creditors, retires into a privileged place, and refuses to appear on proclamation by the sheriff.

3 Jac. I. c. 15. 14 Geo. II. c. 10. Citizens and freemen of London, and others, having debts owing under 40s. to cause the debtor to be summoned to the court of Requests at Guildhall; refusing to appear, to be imprisoned in one of the compters, &c. But this act not to extend to debts for rent, or on real contracts, &c.

4 and 5 Ann. c. 16. In debt on single bill, &c. the defendant may plead payment in bar. And pending an action on bond, &c. the defendant may bring in principal, interest, and costs; and the court shall give judgment to discharge the defendant.

1 Stat. 2 Geo. II. cap. 22. sect. 11. Mutual debts between plaintiff and defendant, or if either party sue or be sued, as executor or administrator, between the testator or intestate, and either party, one debt may be set against the other, and matter given in evidence on the general issue, or pleaded in bar, as the case shall require, if notice be then given of the sum to be insisted on, and on what account due. Made perpetual, 8 Geo. II. cap. 24.

2 Stat. 8 Geo. II. cap. 24. sect. 5. Mutual debts may be set against each other, by being pleaded or in the general issue, though deemed of a different nature, unless either accrue by penalty contained in a bond or specialty. In such cases it shall be pleaded in bar, setting forth what is justly due on either side.

Debt to the king.

1 Mag. chart. 9 Hen. III. cap. 8. and 18. The king's debt not to be levied on lands, when there are goods and chattels to satisfy; nor shall pledges be distrained when the principal is sufficient, and if they answer the debt, to have the debtor's lands, &c.

9 Hen. III. c. 18. King's debtors dying, he shall be served before the executor.

1 Edw. I. c. 19. The sheriff, having received the king's debt, upon his next account shall discharge the debtor, on pain to forfeit treble value; and the sheriff to give a tally to the king's debtor on payment.

28 Edw. I. c. 12. Beasts of the plough not to be distrained for the king's debt, if others may be found.

25 Edw. III. stat. 5. c. 19. Notwithstanding the king's protection, creditors may proceed to judgment against his debtor with a cesset executio, 'till the king's debt be paid.

13 Eliz. c. 3. All lands, tenements, and hereditaments of the queen's accountant, and lands purchased in others names in trust for such, liable to execution, as if found by writing obligatory, &c. and the queen may sell in six months to satisfy the debt, &c.

27 Eliz. c. 3. The queen, &c. may make sale of the accountant's lands, &c. as well after his death, as in his lifetime. But the heir's lands not to be sold during his minority; and, if the accountant or debtor had a quietus in his life-time, that shall discharge the heir of the debt.

7 Jac. I. c. 15. No debt shall be assigned to the king, &c. by any debtor or accountant, other than such as did originally grow due to the king's debtor, &c.

DEBTS of the NATION, or the NATIONAL DEBTS.

Under the head of **PUBLIC CREDIT**, I have observed the connection between the landed, trading, and monied interests of these kingdoms, and how they reciprocally uphold and maintain each other: I have also there endeavoured, and elsewhere, to shew upon what foundation the public credit of the nation really stands; and upon what principles, in my humble judgment, the same may be built upon such a rock, that no temporary blast, coming from domestic or foreign foes, can ever greatly endanger it: which sentiments are grounded upon a sure and certain method of gradually discharging our old debts, in a moderate number of years, by a constant and permanent sinking fund, to be applied, inviolably applied, for that purpose: where also I have suggested, that on all future exigencies of the state, when money is wanted beyond what can be conveniently raised within the year, it should be borrowed within ourselves, and nothing of **FOREIGNERS**, that the nation may not be drained of its current cash for the payment of their interests.

It being my desire to communicate as much useful matter in as narrow a compass as I am able, I have not exceeded the quantity of a sheet and a quarter, upon a subject of such high concernment: within which space the judicious reader will grant, that a subject of this nature could not be exhausted. It is, therefore, we have referred to various other heads, that naturally correspond with the subject, which is not to be avoided in a work digested into this form.—Among the rest, having referred, from the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, to that of NATIONAL DEBTS, I shall pursue the subject in something of a different light, in order further to elucidate the matter, since our NATIONAL DEBTS are near trebled since the reign of Queen Anne.

It is allowed on all hands, that nothing is so great a clog, burden, and incumbrance on our trade, as the taxes with which it is loaded; more especially those which are laid upon our own produce and manufactures: wherefore it is also allowed, that nothing can be more for the general benefit of our whole commerce, than the taking off those taxes which are the most detrimental thereto. But the grand question is, how they can be taken off, consistent with the parliamentary faith, and without injury to the national creditors?

As the bulk of those taxes are settled by parliament as a security to the public creditors, for the due and regular payment of their interest, and, as observed under the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, in the opinion of many of the wisest men in the kingdom, settled also 'till the redemption of the principal debt, how can they be taken off, 'till such debt is justly and honourably paid?

If then those taxes, which are sacredly appropriated for those purposes, and which lie so heavy upon our trade, cannot, without the consent of the public creditors, be annihilated, or alienated, does not the reduction of taxes absolutely depend on the redemption of the principal debts, for which they have been mortgaged? This being the case, are not all schemes and projects to postpone and retard the PAYMENT OF SUCH DEBTS, by rendering them again and again IRREDEEMABLE, calculated to perpetuate those taxes to the end of time, and, consequently, to the effectual ruin and destruction of all our trade and navigation? There can be no greater enemies, therefore, to the general commerce and the public credit of these kingdoms, than such who are brooding low schemes to prevent the gradual payment of the debts of the nation, from that weak and shameful maxim, that it is better for the public creditors to continue PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS only, and never to receive their principal money at all; that is, in other words, it is better for the public creditor, as well as the trade of the whole nation, to labour under the pressure of our present taxes, than that our debts should ever be discharged. Let such who will presume to maintain these principles, weigh what the learned Mr. Hume says upon this subject, and they may possibly be brought a little to their senses.

‘ I must confess, says this ingenious gentleman, that there is a strange supineness, from long custom, crept into all ranks of men, with regard to public debts; not unlike what divines complain of with regard to their religious doctrines. We all own, that the most sanguine imagination cannot hope either that THIS, OR ANY FUTURE MINISTRY, will be possessed of such rigid and steady frugality, as to make any considerable progress in the payment of our debts, or that the situation of foreign affairs will, for any long time, allow them leisure and tranquillity sufficient for such an undertaking*. What then is to become of us? Were we ever so good Christians, and ever so resigned to providence, this methinks were a curious question, even considered as a speculative one, and what it might not be altogether impossible to form some conjectural solution of. The events here will depend little upon the contingencies of battles, negotiations, intrigues, and factions. There seems to be a natural progress of things, which may guide our reasoning. As it would have required but a moderate share of prudence, when we first began this practice of mortgaging, to have foretold, from the nature of men and of ministers, that things would necessarily be carried the length we see; so, now that we have at last happily reached it, it may not be difficult to guess at the consequence. It must, indeed, be one of these two events, either the nation must destroy PUBLIC CREDIT, or public credit will DESTROY THE NATION. It is impossible they can both subsist, after the manner they have been hitherto managed, in this as well as in some other nations.

* In times of peace and security, when alone it is possible to pay debts, the monied interest are averse to receive partial payments, which they know not how to dispose of to advantage; and the landed interest are averse to continue the taxes requisite for that purpose: why, therefore, should a minister persevere in a measure so disagreeable to all parties? For the sake, I suppose, of a posterity, which he will never see, or of a few reasonable, reflecting people, whose united interest, perhaps, will not be able to secure him the smallest borough in England. It is not likely we shall ever find any minister so bad a politician: with regard to these narrow, DESTRUCTIVE MAXIMS OF POLITICS, ALL MINISTERS ARE EXPERT ENOUGH.

‘ There was, indeed, a scheme for the payment of our debts, which was proposed by an excellent citizen, Mr Hutchin-
‘ son, above 30 years ago, and which was much approved
‘ of by some men of sense, but was never likely to take ef-
‘ fect. He asserted that there was a fallacy in imagining that
‘ the public owed this debt, for that really every individual
‘ owed a proportional share of it, and paid, in his taxes, a
‘ proportional share of the interest, beside the expences of
‘ levying these taxes. Had we not better then, says he,
‘ make a proportional distribution amongst us, and each of
‘ us contribute a sum suitable to his property, and by that
‘ means discharge at once all our funds and public mort-
‘ gages? He seems not to have considered, that the labo-
‘ rious poor pay a considerable part of the taxes by their an-
‘ nual consumptions, though they could not advance, at
‘ once, a proportional part of the sum required. Not to
‘ mention, that property in money, and stock in trade,
‘ might easily be concealed and disguised, and that visible
‘ property in lands and houses would really at last answer
‘ for the whole: an inequality and oppression, which never
‘ would be submitted to. But, though this project is never
‘ likely to take place, it is not altogether improbable, that,
‘ when the nation becomes heartily SICK OF THEIR DEBTS,
‘ and are cruelly oppressed by them, some daring projector may
‘ arise, with visionary schemes for their discharge. And as
‘ public credit will begin, by that time, to be a little frail,
‘ the least touch will destroy it, as happened in France; and
‘ in this manner it will die of the doctor*.

* Some neighbouring states practise an easy expedient, by
‘ which they lighten their public debts. The French have
‘ a custom (as the Romans formerly had) of augmenting
‘ their money; and this the nation has been so much fa-
‘ miliarized to, that it hurts not public credit, though it
‘ be really cutting off at once, by an edit, so much of their
‘ debts. The Dutch diminish the interest without the con-
‘ sent of their creditors; or, which is the same thing, they
‘ arbitrarily tax the funds, as well as other property. Could
‘ we practise either of these methods, we need never be
‘ oppressed by the national debt; and it is not impossible
‘ but one of these, or some other method, may at all ad-
‘ ventures be tried, on the augmentation of our incum-
‘ brances and difficulties. But people in this country are
‘ so good reasoners upon whatever regards their interest,
‘ that such a practice will deceive no body, and public
‘ credit will probably tumble at once, by so dangerous a
‘ trial. So great dupes are the generality of mankind,
‘ that, notwithstanding such a violent shock to public cre-
‘ dit as a voluntary bankruptcy in England would occasion,
‘ it would not probably be long ere credit would again re-
‘ vive in as flourishing a condition as before. The present
‘ king of France, during the late war, borrowed money at
‘ lower interest than ever his grandfather did, and as low
‘ as the British parliament, comparing the natural rate of
‘ interest in both kingdoms. And though men are com-
‘ monly more governed by what they have seen, than by
‘ what they foresee, with whatever certainty, yet promises,
‘ protestations, fair appearances, with the allurements of
‘ present interest, have such powerful influence, as few are
‘ able to resist. Mankind are, in all ages, caught by the
‘ same baits; the same tricks, played over and over again,
‘ still trepan them. The heights of popularity and patriot-
‘ ism are still the beaten road to power and tyranny; flat-
‘ tery to treachery; standing armies to arbitrary govern-
‘ ment; and the glory of God to the temporal interest of
‘ the clergy. The fear of an everlasting destruction of cre-
‘ dit, allowing it to be an evil, is a needless digress. A
‘ prudent man in reality, would rather lend to the public
‘ immediately after they had taken a sponge to their debts,
‘ than at present, as much as an opulent knave, even tho’
‘ one could not force him to pay, is a preferable debtor to
‘ an honest bankrupt: for the former, in order to carry on
‘ business, may find it his interest to discharge his debts,
‘ where they are not exorbitant: the latter has it not in
‘ his power. The public is a debtor, whom no man can
‘ oblige to pay. The only check which the creditors have
‘ on it, is the interest of preserving credit; an interest
‘ which may be easily overbalanced by a very great debt,
‘ and by a difficult and extraordinary emergence, even
‘ supposing that credit irrecoverable. Not to mention, that
‘ a present necessity often forces states into measures which
‘ are, strictly speaking, against their interest.

‘ But it is more probable, that the breach of national faith
‘ will be the necessary effect of wars, defeats, misfortunes,
‘ and public calamities, or even, perhaps, of VICTORIES AND
‘ CONQUESTS. I must confess, when I see princes and states
‘ fighting and quarrelling amidst their debts, funds, and pub-
‘ lic mortgages, it always brings to my mind a match of
‘ cudgel-playing fought in a china-shop. How can it be
‘ expected that sovereigns will spare a species of property
‘ which is pernicious to themselves and to the public, when
‘ they have so little compassion on lives and properties, which
‘ are so useful to both? Let the time come (and surely it
‘ will come) when the new funds, created for the exigencies
‘ of the year, are not subscribed to, and raise not the money
‘ projected. Suppose either that the cash of the nation is ex-
‘ hausted, or that our faith, which has been hitherto so ample,
‘ begins

begins to fall us: suppose that, in this distress, the nation is threatened with an invasion, a rebellion is suspected, or broke out at home, a squadron cannot be equipped for want of pay, victuals, or repairs, or even a foreign subsidy cannot be advanced: what must a prince or minister do in such emergency? The right of self-preservation is unalienable in every individual; much more in every community; and the folly of our statesmen must then be greater than the folly of those who first contracted debts, or, what is more, than that of those who trusted, or continue to trust, this security, if these statesmen have the means of safety in their hands, and do not employ it. The funds, created and mortgaged, will, by that time, bring in a large yearly revenue sufficient for the defence and security of the nation; money perhaps is lying in the Exchequer, ready for the discharge of the quarterly interest: necessity calls, fear urges, reason exhorts, compassion alone exclaims: the money will immediately be seized for the CURRENT SERVICE, under the most solemn protestations, perhaps, of being immediately replaced. But no more is requisite. The whole fabric, already tottering, falls to the ground, and buries thousands in its ruins. And this, I think, may be called the natural death of PUBLIC CREDIT: for to this period it tends as naturally as an animal body to its dissolution and destruction.

These two events, supposed above are calamitous: thousands are thereby sacrificed, to the safety of millions. But we are not without danger, that the contrary event may take place, and that millions may be sacrificed for ever, to the temporary safety of thousands*. Our popular government, perhaps, will render it difficult or dangerous for a minister to venture on so desperate an expedient, as that of a voluntary bankruptcy. And, though the house of lords be altogether composed of the proprietors of lands, and the house of commons chiefly, and consequently, neither of them can be supposed to have great property in the funds; yet the connections of the members may be so great with the proprietors, as to render them more tenacious of public faith, than prudence, policy, or even justice, strictly speaking, requires: and, perhaps too, our foreign enemies, or rather enemy (for we have but one to dread) may be so politic as to discover, that our safety lies in despair, and may not, therefore, shew the danger open and barefaced, till it be inevitable. The balance of power in Europe, our grandfathers, our fathers, and we, have all justly esteemed too unequal to be preserved without our attention and assistance. But our children, weary with the struggle and fettered with incumbrances, may sit down secure, and see their neighbours oppressed and conquered, till at last they themselves, and their creditors, lie both at the mercy of the conqueror. And this may properly enough be denominated the violent death of our public credit.

* I have heard it has been computed, that the whole creditors of the public, natives and foreigners, amount only to 17,000. These make a figure at present on their income; but in case of a public bankruptcy, would in an instant become the lowest, as well as the most wretched, of the people. The dignity and authority of the landed gentry and nobility is much better rooted, and would render the contention very unequal, if ever we come to that extremity. One would incline to assign to this event a very near period, such as half a century, had not our fathers' prophecies of this kind been already found fallacious, by the duration of our public credit so much beyond all reasonable expectation. When the astrologers in France were every year foretelling the death of Henry IV. These fellows, says he, must be right at last; we shall, therefore, be more cautious than to assign any precise date, and shall content ourselves with pointing out the event in general.

These seem to be the events which are not very remote, and which reason foresees as clearly almost as she can do any thing that lies in the womb of time. And tho' the ancients maintained, that, in order to reach the gift of prophecy, a certain divine fury or madness, was requisite, one may safely affirm, that, in order to deliver such prophecies as these, no more is necessary, than merely to be in one's senses, free from the influence of popular madness and delusion.

REMARKS before the last war.

According to the judgment of this gentleman, we find he entertains but a very melancholy idea of the state of the monied interest, and the instability of the public credit of this kingdom. However, we cannot help thinking but this learned writer hath

carried his imagination rather too far, it having been shewn, under the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, that such is the efficacious operation of a PERMANENT SINKING FUND, that we need not be under such terrible apprehensions. Nor have we reason to despair of still having such a clear fund, as will be inviolably applied to the discharge of our debts; and which will, in less than half the ordinary age of man, effectually reduce all public debts contracted before 1716, by the wars of king William and queen Anne: nay, if our debts had been even an hundred millions in the year 1727, it will clearly appear, from a further continuation of those computations given under PUBLIC CREDIT, that they would have been absolutely discharged by a sinking fund of one million, only at four per cent. before the year 1770, and, by a sinking fund of one million at three per cent. before the year 1766; whence it will easily be inferred, that if the present debts of the nation were even an hundred, instead of fourscore millions, a sinking fund of a million only, reckoned even at four per cent. would absolutely discharge them in 43 years; and, reckoned at three per cent. in 39 years: and the greater a sinking fund shall be rendered, a debt of so great a magnitude would be discharged in a lesser number of years: so that the monied interest have no reason to consider themselves in a state of desperation, as the learned author before quoted seems to do.

The longer our debts continue, and the longer those taxes continue upon our general trade for the payment of their interest, and redemption of the principal, the longer must our commercial interest languish, and the greater opportunities will other nations have to supplant us therein; whereby the revenue must be proportionably diminished, and then, perhaps, we can have no great foundation for hope that our debts will ever be paid.

I have dwelt the longer upon the nature and powerful efficacy of a DEBT-PAYING FUND, if I may be allowed the expression, because it appears to be the most natural, as well as the most effectual way, that ever was proposed for the payment of our national debts.—It is moreover the most gradual, and a method the least detrimental to the public creditors, of discharging their debts, and, perhaps, the only way we can fall upon to get out of debt to FOREIGNERS, and contract fresh debts only among ourselves, by new loans upon new funds, whenever the emergencies of the state require it. See the article PUBLIC CREDIT.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Since the preceding sentiments, our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES have swelled to such an enormous height, and in so few years, that now the most sanguine for the possibility of their total discharge, are staggered; and many wise men think it impossible that they ever should be so; and consequently the public creditors must become PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS.

Should this prove the case, the whole weight of our TAX-INCUMBRANCES must perpetually remain for the payment of the annuitants. But this the nation will find difficult to bear, without a CHANGE IN THE WHOLE CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL REVENUE; and even was that done, as is not judged impracticable, it would not preserve us from future wars; and if we still go on BORROWING and FUNDING, we certainly must come to our NE PLUS ULTRA at last, and that must be, when we can find no NEW TAX FUNDS, whereby to increase the national incumbrances. How much longer it can be reasonably presumed, that the nation will be able to bear such a system to prevail, requires no great foresight to predict. It can prevail no longer, than that such must inevitably be the WEIGHT OF OUR TAXES upon our WHOLE TRADE AND NAVIGATION (for there they ultimately terminate) as to render our commodities in general so EXCESSIVELY DEAR, that no foreign nation will be in a capacity to purchase them; and when we are disabled from the SALE OF OUR OWN WARES, how long can we be supposed able to buy and import those of other nations? Every man sees that cannot be long.

When this comes to be the case, the first great branch of the PUBLIC REVENUE that will feel it, will be the CUSTOMS. When the foreign sales of our manufactures are stopt, what likewise will be the state of our EXCISES? Must not they as well as the CUSTOMS feel the effects? They most assuredly must. How then can the annuitants be paid their revenues, when we have lost those funds that are mortgaged for that purpose? We shall not be in a condition to pay them, and we then must unavoidably become a BANKRUPT NATION.

Continued from the article of PUBLIC CREDIT.

COMPUTATIONS at 4 per cent.

	Payments made at Mid-summer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1755				49,977,682	9	6 ³ / ₄
1756	2,998,703 119,948	5 7	4 7	52,976,385	14	10 ¹ / ₄
1757	3,118,651 124,746	7 1	11 1	56,095,037	2	9 ¹ / ₂
1758	3,243,397 129,735	9 17	0 11	59,338,434	11	10
1759	3,373,113 134,924	7 10	0 8	62,711,547	18	10
1760	3,508,037 140,321	17 10	8 3	66,219,585	16	6
1761	3,648,359 145,934	7 7	11 6	69,867,945	4	5 ¹ / ₂
1762	3,794,293 151,771	15 15	5 0	73,662,238	19	11
1763	3,946,065 157,842	10 12	5 5	77,608,304	9	4 ¹ / ₂
1764	4,103,908 164,156	2 6	10 6	81,712,212	12	3 ¹ / ₄
1765	4,268,064 170,722	9 11	4 6	85,980,277	1	8
1766	4,438,787 177,551	0 9	11 6	90,419,064	2	7 ¹ / ₄
1767	4,616,338 184,653	10 10	6 9	95,035,402	13	1 ¹ / ₄
1768	4,800,992 192,039	1 13	3 7	99,836,394 163,605	14 5	5 7
1769	4,993,031 6968	14 5	11 0	100,000,000	0	0
	5,000,000	0	0			

COMPUTATIONS at 3 per cent.

	Payments made at Mid-summer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1750				48,685,134	0	6 ³ / ₄
1751	2,960,900 88,827	14 0	10 5	51,646,034	0	5 ¹ / ₄
1752	3,049,727 91,491	15 10	4 1	54,695,761	15	9 ¹ / ₄
1753	3,141,219 94,236	11 11	5 7	57,836,981	7	3
1754	3,235,456 97,063	3 13	1 8	61,072,437	10	4 ¹ / ₂
1755	3,332,519 99,975	10 11	9 10	64,404,957	7	2 ¹ / ₄
1756	3,432,495 102,974	8 17	8 3	67,837,452	15	10 ¹ / ₂
1757	3,535,470 106,064	5 2	11 2	71,372,923	1	10 ¹ / ₂
1758	3,641,534 109,246	8 0	1 7	75,014,457	9	11
1759	3,750,780 112,520	8 8	9 3	78,765,237	18	9
1760	3,863,303 115,899	17 2	0 3	82,628,541	15	9 ¹ / ₂
1761	3,979,202 119,376	19 1	4 10	86,607,744	15	1 ¹ / ₄
1762	4,098,579 122,957	1 7	2 4	90,706,323	10	4
1763	4,221,536 126,646	8 1	6 9	94,927,860	4	10 ¹ / ₄
1764	4,348,182 130,745	10 9	4 6	99,276,042 723,957	15 4	2 ¹ / ₄ 9 ¹ / ₄
1765	4,478,927 21,072	19 2	10 0	100,000,000	0	0
	4,500,000	0	0			

REMARKS:

Some people seem to be quite infensible of the weight of our national debts, and therefore judge lightly of the taxes which they have occasioned, and think to balance all these evils, by highly magnifying the riches of the kingdom in general. This is certainly the way to entail them so long upon the nation, 'till we must inevitably sink under them, and be swallowed up by a neighbouring potentate, who, at this time is consulting effectual ways and means to discharge their debts. And that some efficacious scheme for the same purpose is expedient for this nation, or rather absolutely necessary, I am more convinced than I care to express; for I would not willingly, as a certain great man said upon a similar occasion, give a handle to our enemies to entertain a mean opinion of us. I know we are a rich and wealthy nation, and have great resources; but let us consider what the sacred history reports of the riches of Solomon: his treasure was immense, such as enabled him to build a temple at Jerusalem (according to the computation of learned men) of almost incredible value. Yet his riches have long since vanished, the place where the temple stood, and even Jerusalem itself, that contained it, is scarcely now to be found. God forbid that this should ever chance to be our case, by going beyond our strength, and not thinking, without delay, of effectual ways and means; for the payment of our national debts. For more matter on this subject, see the articles CREDIT, PUBLIC CREDIT, FUNDS, DUTIES, EXCHEQUER, LABOUR, TAXES, STOCK-JOBING; where I shall more particularly consider the effects to the public creditors of paying the debts, and how the least prejudice may be done them, whenever that comes to be the case.

DECLARATION, a term of the custom-house, and of commerce, in France. It contains a particular account, or invoice, of what is contained in the bales, or cases, brought to the offices for entrance inward or outward. By the ordinance of the five great farms of 1687, tradesmen and carriers, on entering goods in France for import or export, are to make declaration of them, which is to contain the quality, weight, number, and measure of the goods; the merchant or factor's name that sends them, and to whom configured; the place of lading and delivery, with the marks and number of the bales. They are to be signed by the merchant or owner of the goods, or his factor, or by the carrier only, and registered by the clerks of the office where made. In a word, 'tis properly a duplicate of the invoices, that remain in the hands of the visitors, receivers, or comptrollers of the customs, for security and justification that they have paid the customs. On these declarations, the clerks give what's called an acquittance of payment. Carriers and conveyers of goods, whether by land or water,

who have not their declarations in hand, are, at their arrival, to declare in the offices, on the register, the number of the bales, &c. their marks and numbers; with charge to make within fifteen days if by land, and six weeks if by sea, a declaration of their goods in full; during which, the bales, &c. are to remain as a deposit in the office.

When a declaration hath been once given, it may not be augmented or diminished, on pretence of omission or otherwise. When the declarations are made, the goods are to be viewed, weighed, measured, and numbered by the clerks; and the customs due to the king, paid according to the tariffs and orders of council. If a declaration be found false in the quality of the merchandizes, they are confiscated, and all of the same invoice, belonging to him who made it, and even whatever else is therewith, if belonging to him; but neither the goods nor what else is therewith belonging to others, unless they are confederates in the fraud. If the declaration be false in the quantity, the forfeiture is only of what's not mentioned.

All that's here mentioned concerning regulations in France, is conformable to the ordonnance of the five great farms, of February 1687, title 2. articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 13. which enact penalties on those who trespass.

Rule for the form and manner in which the declarations of dealers and merchants are to be made for goods imported into, or exported out of the kingdom, or provinces reputed foreign.

The second title of the ordonnance of farms, in February 1687, seems by the cautions to provide against the contests that might arise between merchants and custom-house officers, on the subject of declarations; which, after forty years experience and difficulties daily occurring herein, being found to need explication; the king in council, having caused the memorials of the merchants and farmers to be examined, made a new regulation the 9th of August 1723, to serve for the future, as a certain rule, and to be observed in all ports and offices, both within the limits of the five great farms, and in the provinces reputed foreign.

The letters patents enforcing observance thereof, are of the 30th of September in the same year, and their enrolment in the court of aids the 13th of October following.

The matter of declarations, whether inward or outward, being one of the most important of commerce, we shall here insert the nine articles of which this regulation consists.

I. They shall contain the quantity, weight, number, and measure of the goods; the merchant or factor's name; the place of lading and delivery, with the marks and numbers of the bales in the margin.

II. They shall be relative to the tariff; that is to say, that the master of the vessel, merchant and carrier, shall declare, by weight, goods whose customs are to be paid by weight; by

by measure, those which are so payable; and by number, those that pay by number.

III. Those declarations shall be esteemed entire with respect to goods, the customs of which are paid by the weight, when the weight of these goods exceed not that declared above one tenth, which excess being paid, they shall not be seized or forfeited; but, if it exceed one tenth, that overplus shall be forfeited to the farmer of the revenue with a fine of 300 livres for every offence.

IV. The preceding article shall not extend to iron, copper, lead, and tin, which may not exceed one twentieth of the weight declared, and, on paying the dues for that excess, are not to be seized or forfeited, otherwise to be liable, as by the last article.

V. The declarations of all goods, whose customs are payable by number, shall also be reckoned complete, if not exceeding one tenth of the number declared, on paying for the excess; and the goods not seized or forfeited, otherwise they are liable to the penalties of the third article.

VI. With respect to coarse sugars, syrups, oils, and butters, which are goods subject to waste and leakage, the customs to be on the absolute weight, without obliging the merchants to a declaration; but only to report the declarations of weight made at the place of lading, and to represent the same number of pipes, barrels, &c. in good condition.

VII. Carriers and conveyers of goods by land or water, not having their invoices or declarations at their arrival, shall make them on the register of the number of their bales, &c. with charge to make particular declaration within 15 days, if by land, and six weeks if by sea; leaving their bales the mean while in the office: on failure, the goods to be forfeited, and the carriers fined 300 livres.

VIII. If goods have taken wet in the voyage, and the weight be increased above five in the hundred, deduction shall be made of the excess over and above the natural weight, to verify which, and make the said deduction, the merchant shall produce the invoice; and, if the increase exceed not five in the hundred, the farmer shall not be obliged to make deduction.

IX. The other articles of the second title of the ordinance in 1687 to be put in execution, according to their form and tenor, in what does not deviate from the present regulation.

DEMURRAGE, in commerce, an allowance made to the master of a ship by the merchants, for staying in a port longer than the time first appointed for his departure.

DENBIGHSHIRE is bounded on the south with Montgomeryshire; on the west with those of Merioneth and Caernarvon; on the east with Shropshire and Cheshire; and on the north with the Irish sea and Flintshire. It is in circumference near 118 miles, the air wholesome, but sharp, the hills surrounding it retaining the snow for a long time. The soil is various; the most pleasant, fruitful, and healthy part is the Vale of Clwyd. It's rivers of most note are the Clwyd, Elwy, Dee, and Conway.

The chief commodity here, besides goats, sheep, and black cattle, is rye, commonly called amel-corn, though here are several mines that yield great parcels of lead ore, particularly that called the marquis of Powis's.

DENBIGH, the county-town, has a good trade, and is inhabited by many glovers and tanners.

WREXHAM has a good market for flannel, which the factors buy up, and send to London, it being a considerable manufacture, and the chief employ of the poor through all this part of the country.

DENIER TOURNOIS. A small piece of copper-money, formerly current in France, and so still in some provinces beyond the Loire.

The officers of the mint of France call it general, or denier of price, to distinguish it from what they call denier of weight.

These have been seldom coined in France, since the year 1649, which, with those coined towards the end of Lewis XIIIth's reign, were the work of the famous Varin, and are master pieces, as to money: wherefore the curious keep them among the most rare medals.

They have been sometimes taken for the maille; though this denier, which has also been a current species, was only a part and subdivision thereof, and worth but half the denier.

There are at present in France several little copper-pieces, which, having no proper name, are distinguished only by their value in deniers: such are the pieces of 36, 30, 24, 18, 12, 6, 4, and 2 deniers. The pieces of 4, and of 2 deniers, were coined at Straßbourg, for currency in the province of Alsace, pursuant to the declaration of the 6th of Sept. 1695. Those of 6 deniers were coined in the mints of Aix, Montpellier, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, by the edict of October 1709, and are little current.

DENMARK, one of the most antient kingdoms of Europe, is divided into two parts by the Baltic sea; namely, the Peninsula annexed to the continent of Germany, and the islands. The former, which contains the duchy of Holstein, South-Jutland, or Sleswick, and North-Jutland, is bounded on the west and north by the German ocean;

on the east by that part of the sea called Categate, and the Middle fort Sound; and on the south by the river Elbe. It's greatest length from south to north is about 224 miles; but it's breadth (not including the islands) is not above 74 miles; and in some places much narrower. The islands, which make up the other part of this kingdom, are Zealand, Funen, Langeland, Laland, Falster, Bornholm, and many others of less note.

The air, though very cold in Denmark, is not so sharp as in some places of Germany, though situated much more to the south; the vapours of the sea, surrounding it, melting and dissolving the nitrous particles, carried by the wind from northern countries, before they arrive here.

The soil, though in most places barren and mountainous, has good pastures, which feed vast herds of kine, and an excellent race of horses; but the country in general produces but little corn.

It has no rivers navigable for vessels of any considerable burden. There are lakes which afford a good quantity of fish; and the forests are abundantly stocked with venison of all sorts, and wild fowl in great plenty.

It's commodities for exportation are very few; cattle is the chief, which they sell to the Netherlands: but, as for manufactures, they have so few as not to deserve notice.

SOUTH JUTLAND, or the duchy of SLESWICK.

Chief towns of this duchy are as follow:

1. **SLESWICK**, the capital, seated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley, was formerly a place of very great trade, but it is now almost dwindled to nothing.
2. **GOTTORP**, about six miles from Sleswick to the south-west, of note only for it's fortrefs, and noble palace. Here is a toll-booth or custom-house, where toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that pass from Jutland into Germany, and produces a considerable sum to the king, the toll being some years for above 50,000 head of cattle.
3. **TÖNNINGEN** has a pretty good trade, which increases daily, by means of it's commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder, on which it is situated; it is much frequented by the Dutch for black cattle.
4. **HUSUM** has a harbour capable of small vessels, and every week a market for cattle, the neighbouring country abounding with pastures; in time of war, above 4000 horses have been sold here in a year. In the gulph, on the west of the town, they fish vast quantities of excellent oysters.
5. **FLENSBURG**, so called from the bay or gulph on which it stands, and which is formed by the Baltic. The bay makes a fine haven, where ships of great burden may ride safe, and come up to the very warehouses.
6. **APENRADE** stands on another gulph of the Baltic, sixteen miles north-west of Flensburg. It has a port at the bottom of the bay, much frequented by the Danish fishermen, and has a pretty good trade with the adjacent islands.
7. **HADERSLEBEN** is a good sea-port town, near 20 miles north of Apenrade. The country about it abounds with fruitful corn fields, and excellent pastures, which, with the fish taken out of the lake and gulph near it, render this a pretty flourishing place.
8. **TUNDER** lies in a fruitful soil, and had formerly a considerable trade, now lost, the harbour being choaked up with sand.

NORTH JUTLAND.

The most considerable towns herein are:

1. **REPIN**, a place of considerable trade. Hither are brought almost all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are shipped off, especially for Holland; and they export corn to neighbouring countries, all which afford them great profit.
2. **COLDING**, though it lies commodious for trade, has hardly any but in cattle.
3. **RINCOPING** lies on a bay of the German ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to south, so that ships ride in the port safe from all winds.
4. **AARHUS**, at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate, is a neat pleasant town, well supplied with all necessaries, and has a good harbour.
5. **RANDERS**, on the river Gude also, is a place of good trade, and famous for the best salmon in Jutland.
6. **SCHEVE** has the reputation of breeding the best horses in the north.
7. **SCHAGEN** is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe, than any other town in Jutland, because they touch here in their way to the Sound. It's trade would be far greater, but for the dangerous coast it lies on.

THE ISLANDS OF DENMARK.

ZEALAND, the largest and most fruitful in the Baltic sea, is, in length, about 68 miles, and in breadth about 60. In it are the following considerable cities or towns:

1. **COPENHAGEN**, the capital of the kingdom, is thus called from it's safe and commodious harbour; it's name signifying the merchant's port. And it may be justly reckoned, in all respects, one of the best in the whole world.
2. **HELSENEUR** is about 20 miles distant from Copenhagen to the north, and is defended by the neighbouring impregnable castle

castle of Croonenburg, which commands this side of the Sound, as Helsingburg does the other. Every ship that passes this strait must strike sail at Croonenburg, and come to the town to compound for the custom, under penalty of forfeiting vessel and cargo.

3. FREDERICKSBURG, a small town 20 miles north-west of Copenhagen, is of note only for the stately castle and royal palace that stand near it.
4. HOBBECK, a pretty considerable town, stands at the bottom of a narrow bay, that affords it some trade.
5. KALLUNBURG has a safe harbour, and pretty good trade.
6. KOGE is a small but very populous town, seated on a bay of the Sound. It is enriched by trade, which consists chiefly in corn and fish.

FUNEN is about 36 miles from east to west, and 30 from north to south. It is better peopled than Zealand. The most considerable towns for trade are:

1. ODENSEE, a large handsome town. They brew here excellent beer, reckoned the best in all Denmark.
2. NYBURG, about 13 miles east of Odenfee, has an excellent port, which occasions some trade. Here people embark to pass into Zealand.
3. SCHWINBORG is a pleasant town, and has a large and commodious harbour.

ARROE, LANGELAND, LALAND, and the rest of the smaller islands of Denmark. These have no towns of any considerable trade.

The port of Copenhagen is not only the finest in the Baltic sea, but also one of the most commodious in all Europe. So that the chief trade of Denmark is carried on here, though there is some at Elfsineur. But the trade of either of these cities is small, in comparison of that on the rest of the Baltic. Goods, which sell best in Denmark, are salt, chiefly that of Spain and Portugal, rather than of France; but the wines and brandies of France are the most esteemed. Great quantities of paper are also imported; gold and silver stuff; silk and woollen stuffs, chiefly those of Holland; spices and drugs.

Tallow, hemp, cod, stock-fish, and wheat and rye from Zealand, are the chief commodities they export, timber being prohibited.

The Dutch transport also from Jutland great numbers of lean cattle, which they fatten in their pastures, with considerable advantage.

The French have an advantage over other nations in passing the Sound, that their goods are not inspected; nor need they, if they will not pay the customs 'till three months after, on the master's declaration and bill of lading.

The cities next to Copenhagen for trade, are Ulsted, Christianstadt, Carelsbroon, Saltzbourg, Carelshaven, and chiefly Elfsineur. From all these are exported small mats, fir-planks, pitch and tar, tallow, ox and cow-hides, and deer-skins.

These cities, except the capital, are chiefly traded with by exchange of the merchandize, or with rixdollars carried thither in specie.

Accounts are kept there in rixdollars, marcs, and shillings Dantz. The rixdollar at the rate of 6 marcs, or 4 oorts; the marc 16 schellings, and the schelling 3 penins. The oort is 24 schellings, or one mark and half.

Two Danish marcs of 116 fols Danois, make one marc lubs of 8 fols.

Copenhagen exchanges with Amsterdam, and gives a 107 rixdollars, more or less, for 100 rixdollars banco of Amsterdam. Bills of exchange have ten days of grace.

Frederic IV. in December 1699, enacted, that for the future the new-style should be observed in all his dominions.

Weights and measures of Denmark.

The weight at Copenhagen for heavy goods, is the schippond of 320 pounds. It is divided into 20 liesponds, and each liespond into 161.

The pound is less than that of France and Amsterdam by about $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The ell is one third less than that of Holland, and equal to the English yard.

The 100 feet of Copenhagen make $103\frac{1}{2}$ at Amsterdam.

Real money current at Copenhagen.

The par of the following money is calculated on the rate of the rixdaelder of 6 marcs Danois, amounting to 5 livres of France (in 1751.)

A rose noble is 4 rixdaelders, or 24 marcs Danois, or 20 livres of France.

The ducat, 2 rixdaelders, or 12 marcs Danois, or 10 livres French.

A rixdaelder or daller is 6 marcs Danois, or 5 livres French. It is also 3 marcs lubs, or 48 schellings lubs, or 96 schellings Danois.

The half, or $\frac{1}{2}$ rixdaelder, and the $\frac{1}{4}$ in proportion.

A slicht daller, 4 marcs Danois, or 32 schellings lubs, or 3 livres 6 fols French.

The half or demi slicht daller, and the quarter in proportion. A six marc Danois, 16 schellings lubs or flivers a Danois, in French money 1 livre 13 fols.

The lubs schelin, or schelling of Lubeck, is one schelling Danois, 3 fenins or doubles, in French money 1 fol.

In 1710, the king of Denmark caused pieces to be struck of 12 fols Danois, or 6 fols of Lubeck; not to mention other lesser pieces, and of an inferior intrinsic value by 13 per cent. which occasioned confusion in the agio, and daily business at Hamburg, that money advancing the agio to 25 per cent. to the year 1717, and in 1724 to 33.

In 1726 these pieces were reduced on the part of Denmark, from 6 to 5 fols, and the other small pieces in proportion; and those of 16 to 15. This reduced the intrinsic value as near as possible to that of the good money of Hamburg, which by that means became 2 per cent. better than that of the new current money there.

The crowns of Denmark are 32 fols of banque in fine silver, at Hamburg.

REMARKS.

The passage or freight, called the Sound, is between the isle of Zealand and the continent of Scanie. On the Swedish side is the city of Helsingbourg, with a ruined castle, between which and Elfsineur, all ships trading to the Baltic pass and repass; so that, next to the freight of Gibraltar, it is the most important and frequented.

The loss of Schonen, though it was considerable to the Danes, in regard to the largeness and fruitfulness of the province, yet it was more so, with respect to the dominion of this great passage. For though the Danes, by the treaty of peace, have expressly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ships that pass, except those of the Swedes, yet they do not esteem the security of that title so firm as they could wish; for, not being masters of the land on both sides, they may have the right, but not the power, to assert it upon occasion; and seem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour; their stronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make use of the first opportunity given them to their prejudice.

This toll being very considerable, and having occasioned many disputes, it may not be amiss to insert here an account of the original and nature of it.

It is said to have been at first laid by the consent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a small matter for each ship that passed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coast, for the better direction of sailors in dark nights: hereupon this passage of the Sound became the most used; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well because of the great conveniency of those lights to ships passing in and out of the East-Sea, as because of an agreement made, that no ship should pass the other way, that all might pay their shares; it being unreasonable that such ships should have the advantage of those lights in dark or stormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards maintaining those fires, by passing another way in good weather.

Besides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been so insignificant, considering the small sum each ship was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, solely for the use of their own trading ships, because they were masters of so few, as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other hanse-towns, being the greatest traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches. But there being no fixed rule, or treaty, to be governed by, with regard to the different bulk of the ships belonging to so many different nations, the Danes began, in process of time, to grow arbitrary, and exacted smaller or greater sums, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with, or according to their friendship or discontent with those princes or states, to whom the several ships belonged: therefore the emperor Charles V. to ascertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was signed at Spire on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his subjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltic, and agreed, that, as a toll-custom in the Sound, every ship of 200 tons, and under, should pay two rose-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltic; and every ship above 200 tons, three rose-nobles. A rose-noble is worth about eighteen shillings sterling.

This agreement remained in force, 'till such time as the United Provinces shook off the Spanish yoke; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of those wars, raised their toll to an extravagant rate, the troublesome times not affording the Dutch leisure to mind the redressing such a mischief. However, about the year 1600, they joined themselves with the city of Lubeck, in opposition to such an extravagant toll as was taken from both of them; that from thenceforth the Dutch paid more, or less, as fortune was favourable, or adverse to them, but generally little. In 1647, the first treaty was made

made between Denmark and the United Provinces, as sovereigns, for this toll; and they were obliged to pay a certain sum for each ship. This was to continue forty years; after which, if in the mean time no new treaty were made, that of Spire was to be in force.

This treaty of 1647 expired in 1687, and the Danes agreed to make an interim-treaty, 'till such time as the many differences between them and the Hollanders, in this and other matters, could be adjusted at leisure, and concluded by a more lasting and solemn one.

This interim-treaty, which was but for four years, expired in 1691; so that, no new treaty being made and completed during that time, the antient treaty of Spire remains in force, and no other.

The treaties of the English with Denmark are grounded on those between the Dutch and that kingdom, and have reference to them, with a covenant, that we shall be treated as a nation in the strictest friendship with the Danes.

From this short history of the original of this imposition, it appears how slightly grounded the king of Denmark's title is to this right; which from an easy contribution the merchants chose to pay for their own conveniency, and whereof the king of Denmark was only treasurer or trustee, to see it fairly laid out for the common use, is grown to be a heavy imposition upon trade, as well as a kind of a servile acknowledgment of his sovereignty of those seas; and is purely owing to his taking an advantage of the difficulties of the Hollanders during their wars with Spain, and the connivance of king James I. in prejudice of the English; he favouring the Danes, upon account of his marriage to a daughter of that crown; and, upon these two examples, all the lesser states were forced to submit.

Nor is it conceivable how it could be otherwise brought about; since it is very well known, that the passage of the Sound is not the only one into the Baltic, there being two others, called the Greater and the Lesser Belt; the former is so commodious and large, that, during the wars between the Danes and the Swedes, the whole Dutch fleet chose to pass through it, and continued in it for four or five months together: and the Danish strength at sea never appeared yet so formidable, as to oblige the English and Dutch to chuse which passage it pleased. Besides, the breadth of the Sound, in the narrowest part, is four English miles over, and every where of a sufficient depth; so that the king of Denmark's castles could not command the channel, when he was master of both sides; much less, now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, this pretended sovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded on a breach of trust, as well as on the carelessness of some princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a considerable profit, though much less than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced 240,000 rix dollars per annum; but, since 1645, it has not yielded above 190,000; some years not above 80,000; and, in 1691, it did not extend to full 70,000.

FURTHER REMARKS.

This country has infinite advantage of a sea-coast for the encouragement of navigation; and their king, by that means, has a tolerable good fleet. Yet, as observed, they have only the port of Copenhagen that is considerable. But their whole country does not supply any great matter for merchandizing; they have few of the essential funds of trade; they have neither an extraordinary produce of the earth, nor manufactures among the people: and some have asserted, that they scarce ever loaded one ship with their own productions and manufactures, to any part of the world, except corn, and that not very frequently.

At present, indeed, in imitation of many other powers of Europe, they seem to give more than ordinary attention to the affairs of commerce and navigation, as well in the East-Indies as in Europe; and their merchants begin to increase not only at Copenhagen, but at Altona near Hamburg, who indeed are not, properly speaking, to be called merchants of Denmark, though many of them are Danes, and they are admirably situated for the fisheries great and small; that is, for the herring-fishery, and for the north-sea cod-fishing, which is on their own coast, and for the whole fishery in Greenland; but they do not seem to exert themselves in any but the whale-fishing, and that to no great degree; but, on the contrary, they buy their herrings, and their train oil, and their whalebone of the Dutch: so indolent have they been 'till lately, and so averse to trade, that though the best harponiers, and the best steersmen, and most skilled in the whale-fishing, are found among the subjects of the king of Denmark, particularly in Jutland, Sleswick, Ditmarsen, and those parts; yet they generally go to Greenland, in the service of the Dutch, the Bremers, or the Hamburgers.

Some years since they made a new settlement upon the point of that country we call Greenland, at the entrance of Davis's Straights, and planted some people there. But the trade with the inhabitants seems so inconsiderable, and the climate so severely cold, that we can hardly suppose it will ever en-

courage the people to bear the extremities of the season, for the sake of the profits of it. Their returns from thence are nothing but skins of beasts, bear, fox, seal, deer, some beaver, and a little train oil: the goods they vend are chiefly coarse woollen cloth and flannel, with some linen, all for clothing; the rest is in wrought iron, tools, fire-arms, fishing-tackle, and the like.

The Danes, as they have neither mines or manufactures, are principally employed, either as seamen by the Hamburgers, Lubeckers, and Hollanders, or as countrymen in breeding and feeding of cattle. The country of Jutland is exceeding fruitful in grass, breeds very large black cattle, and good horses. This affords them a quantity of butter, hides, and tallow; and these are the chief of their exportation on that side. The overplus of their cattle are driven lean into Holland, to be fatted there, as the Scots and Welch drive theirs into England for sale.

The fat cattle are sent to Hamburg, Lubeck, and over the Elbe, into that part of Germany called the circles of Westphalia and Lower Saxony, where, it is said, the Danes, some years since, did not sell less than 50,000 head of fat bullocks, besides a great number of horses; but it was a great loss to them when the Dutch prohibited the Jutland bullocks, upon which the king of Denmark forbade their buying horses in his country.

To the dominions of Denmark, as we have before more particularly observed, must be added that of Norway, which, though a separate kingdom, and formerly a very powerful one, governed by a king of its own, is now subject to the crown of Denmark, and in a great measure compensates, by its trade and shipping, the deficiency of Denmark itself.

Though the soil of this country is the most barren of any of the northern parts of the world, yet, by reason of the numberless large woods of fir, which every where cover the ground, and by the prodigious length of its coast, which extends from latitude 58. $\frac{1}{2}$ to the north kyn, or cape, in latitude 71, it is made opulent by exporting their fir timber, deals, masts, yards, spars, baulks, &c. as also pitch and tar, more or less, to almost all the neighbouring nations, especially to those which have any thing of maritime commerce. This trade, also becomes a nursery of seamen to the king of Denmark, whenever he has occasion to man his fleet.

They take no inconsiderable quantity of white fish on their coast, which we call stock-fish, and which the Dutch and Hamburgers constantly buy to victual their ships. They catch, also, abundance of lobsters on their coasts; but this is more generally done by the English and Dutch.

They supply Great-Britain and Holland, France and Spain, with so great a quantity of fir-timber, deals, &c. that they do not thereby load so few as 2000 ships a year, and return seven-eighths, at least, of the value in ready money; and some have complained in England, that they carry away the greatest quantity of our current coin of any trade whatever, they coveting chiefly our crowns and half-crown pieces, which go current in Norway to good advantage, and are frequently seen as plentiful there almost as in England itself, in proportion to the place.

As this branch of the timber trade is generally allowed to be so detrimental to Great-Britain, should we not, by every measure in our power, encourage our own navigation, by building large bulky ships, such as are used by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import part, at least, of our timber from our present extensive new acquisitions in NORTH AMERICA. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS.

REMARKS since the Treaty of 1763.

THE DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763; having annexed CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES, and thereby including all the FRENCH LOUISIANA, contained on the eastern side of the MISSISSIPPI; and since that treaty has likewise secured to us the freedom of navigation on the MISSISSIPPI, through the GULPH of MEXICO, and obtained for us all SPANISH FLORIDA, and in consequence thereof the ports and harbours of MOBILE and PENSACOLA in the same gulph; since now we are possessed of the PORT of St. AUGUSTINE, also in the GULPH of FLORIDA, and that there is ceded to us in AMERICA, all the GULPH and RIVER of St. LAWRENCE, and CAPE BRETON, and we have gained, without restriction, all Acadia and its dependencies, and that there is a final end to all our former disputes and controversies, in NORTH AMERICA, in general, what hinders that we shall not be able to supply ourselves with all the timber we can stand in need of, from these vast continental possessions? That there is timber enough, and of the various kinds wherein we stand in need, in North America, may be seen under our several colonies, as we have described them.—And since we are possessed of the navigation of the river Mississippi, and all its divers branches to the eastward, and of the rivers Mobile and Pensacola, the Ohio, and of many of the great lakes, we can hardly stand in need of water carriage to convey the timber from the several internal parts, where it abounds. If we want people to fell it, should not all measures be taken to people our new acquisitions, for this and other

other important purposes, which these territories will admit of? Are there not protestants enough to be drawn, by reasonable encouragement, from all parts of Europe? There certainly is; and therefore it will be inexcusable, if we do not supply ourselves with all the timber we have occasion for from Norway; and will not this save the nation several hundred thousand pounds per ann. and proportionally improve our American navigation.

DERBYSHIRE is bounded on the east with Nottinghamshire, and a part of Leicestershire, which also bounds it on the south; on the west by Staffordshire, and part of Cheshire; and, on the north, by Yorkshire: in circumference about 130 miles. Its chief rivers are the Dove and Derwent. The air on the east side is wholesome and agreeable; but, in the Peak, sharper, and more variable as to rain and wind. The soil is in some parts well cultivated and fruitful, in others barren and mountainous, hence called the Peak, from a Saxon word, signifying an eminence; but its subterraneous riches in mines and quarries make this tract almost as profitable as the other part, it yielding great quantities of the best lead, antimony, mill-stones, scythe-stones, and grind-stones, marble, alabastrer, green and white vitriol, alum, pit-coal, and iron, for the forming of which, here are forges, which, with the lead and other considerable works, consume such quantities of wood, that the country has little left.

BUXTON WELLS, in this county, are much resorted to for their waters, which create a good appetite, and open obstructions. This bath is of a temperate heat, and recommended by physicians, both for drinking and bathing, particularly in scorbutic or rheumatic complaints.

At **MATLOCK**, a village on the banks of the Derwent, are the smelting-mills, at which they melt the lead ore, and run it into a mould, where it is formed into pigs, and afterwards refined for it's silver: the bellows are kept in motion by water. See the article **LEAD**.

DERBY, the county-town, situate on the west bank of the Derwent, over which it has a very fine stone bridge; well-built, but ancient. The river has lately been made navigable into the Trent. It is a fine, beautiful, and pleasant town, and has more families of gentlemen in it than is usual in towns so remote; perhaps the more, because the Peak, which takes up the larger part of the county, is so inhospitable, rugged, and wild a place, that the gentry chuse to reside at Derby, rather than upon their estates, as they do elsewhere.

REMARKS.

Here is a curiosity of a very extraordinary nature, and the only one of the kind in these kingdoms: I mean those mills on the river Derwent, which work the three capital Italian engines for the making organzine, or thrown silk; which, before these mills were erected, was purchased by the English merchants, with ready money, in Italy; by which invention one hand will twist as much silk as before could be done by fifty, and that in a much truer and better manner. This engine contains 26,586 wheels, and 97,746 movements, which work 73,726 yards of silk-thread, every time the water-wheel goes round, which is three times in one minute, and 318,504,960 yards in one day and night. One water-wheel gives motion to all the rest of the wheels and movements, of which any one may be stopped separately. One fire-engine, likewise, conveys warm air into every individual part of the machine, and the whole work is governed by one regulator. The house which contains this engine is not only five or six stories high, but not less than half a quarter of a mile in length.

The model of this engine is said to have been taken by the brother of the late Sir Thomas Lombe, merchant of the city of London, from the original in the king of Sardinia's dominions, who, under the disguise of a common workman, or by some other artifice, secretly drew the plan thereof upon paper, and then made his escape to England, and communicated the same to his brother Sir Thomas, who acting in concert with him, employed an excellent practical mechanic, one Soracle, a person admirably well skilled in mill-work, and with the aid of the draughtsman, Mr Lombe, they jointly completed the whole piece of machinery; which has proved of no little advantage to the silk trade of these kingdoms in general.

In the fifth year of the reign of George I. a patent passed to secure to Sir Thomas Lombe the sole property of this machine for 14 years, it being looked upon, in this kingdom, as a new invention for the interest of trade; but the requisite buildings and engines, and the instructing of proper persons to work them, took up so much time, that the term of 14 years was near elapsed before Sir Thomas could make any advantage thereof: whereupon he applied to parliament for a consideration from the public; and the parliament accordingly, to preserve so useful an undertaking for the benefit of the kingdom in general, allotted 14,000*l.* to be paid to Sir Thomas, on condition that he should allow a perfect model to be taken of his new-discovered engines, in order to secure and perpetuate the art of making the same.

The preamble to this act sets forth, That Sir Thomas Lombe

did, with the utmost difficulty and hazard, and at a very great expence, discover the art of making and working the three capital engines made use of by the Italians to make their organzine silk, and did introduce these arts and inventions into this kingdom, &c.

Daily experience convincing us that foreigners are prying into every mystery of trade belonging to these kingdoms, and stealing away our very artists themselves; it is certainly for our interest to retaliate upon them, and endeavour to introduce whatever peculiar arts and branches of commerce, wherein they also excel, into our own kingdoms: and if, by the payment of our national debts, and, in consequence thereof, the reduction of our taxes on trade, we can be capable of selling our commodities equally cheap, how can they easily supplant us at foreign markets?

While other trading nations shall be constantly making advances in their traffic, by shorter ways of labour, and every other art that the human mind can possibly investigate, we cannot expect to maintain our ground in the commercial system that now prevails over the world, unless we encourage the like arts. If other nations shall make use of saw-mills for their timber, whereby one man will perform the business of ten, or more, in the manual laborious way; if another nation shall make use of silk or woollen looms for the manufactures of their cloth, &c. whereby the dexterity of one artist can do more than 20 hands can by the means of knitting-needles: will not that nation who joins the art of mechanism to that of labour, be able to make their manufactures surprizingly cheaper than those who prefer the mere corporal drudgery to the gift of science? The great things to be executed by the means of mechanical powers, founded on geometrical principles, are wonderful to the Indian, who is totally ignorant thereof: the application of the mere lever and the pulley would astonish him, and infinitely more the saying of Archimedes, *Da mihi punctum, & terram movebo*. It is true, that, when the machine for stocking-weaving was first invented, it deprived many thousands of their bread pro tempore, who got their living by knitting of that article of apparel: so, likewise, when printing was invented, those who were supported by mere writing were gradually laid aside.—But no one will presume to maintain, that, if other nations fall into these, and such like arts, whereby they greatly lessen the expence of their manufactures, we ought to despise what they embrace.

Nothing certainly is more universally beneficial to commerce in general, than the mechanic arts, which are founded on geometrical principles, and applicable to an infinite variety of engines.—The supreme wisdom, by creating man so little and so weak, had, in all appearance, no other intention than to render him active, ingenious, and industrious. Sensible, therefore, of his indigence, he turns himself every way; he calls to his succour force against force, velocity against gravity, and gravity against velocity, one shock against another. Thus, by the aid of mechanics, this little being, not above five or six feet high, with two arms only, will dispatch as much work as a giant, whom one would imagine to have a thousand. The large and massy bodies with which nature abounds would seem almost to drive him to despair. What would become of him, when any violent tempest arises? How will he cross rapid and deep waters, that obstruct his passage? By the power of mechanics, he keeps nature in subjection; the winds are subservient to his direction, and convey him at pleasure beyond the seas; he erects such edifices as will serve from one age to another; he throws such bridges over rivers, that become of unpeakable benefit to trade, and that posterity will look on with admiration.

The most common machines made use of to supply his want of strength, are the lever; the beam, or ballance, with equal or unequal arms; the pulley, simple or compounded; the fixed or moveable pulleys; the axle-tree and all capstans; the crane and calender; the dented wheel, the screw, the wedge, and mills of all kinds.—The due application of these to the uses of trade is so great, that studies of this kind cannot be too closely pursued in a trading nation. See the article **MECHANICAL ARTS**.

DESIGN, or DESIGNING, in the manufactories, expresses the figures wherewith the workman enriches his stuff, or silk, and which he copies after some painter, or eminent draughtsman; as in diaper, damask, and other flowered silk and tapestry, and the like, &c.

In undertaking of such kinds of figured stuffs, it is necessary, says Mons. Savary, that, before the first stroke of the shuttle, the whole design be represented on the threads of the warp; we do not mean in colours, but with an infinite number of little pack-threads, which being disposed so as to raise the threads of the warp, let the workmen see, from time to time, what kind of silk is to be put in the eye of the shuttle for wool. This method of preparing the work is called reading the design, and reading the figure, which is performed after the following manner:

A paper is provided, considerably broader than the stuff, and of a length proportionate to what is intended to be represented thereon. This they divide lengthwise, by as many black lines

lines as there are intended to be threads in the warp; and cross these lines by others drawn breadthwise, which, with the former, make little equal squares.

On the paper thus squared the draughtsman designs his figures, and heightens them with colours, as he sees fit. When the design is finished, a workman reads it, while another lays it on the simblot.

To read the design, is to tell the person who manages the loom the number of squares, or threads, comprised in the space he is reading, intimating, at the same time, whether it is ground or figure.

To put what is ready on the simblot, is to fasten little strings to the several packthreads, which are to raise the threads named: this they continue to do, 'till the whole is read. Every piece being composed of several repetitions of the same design, when the whole design is drawn, the drawer to re-begun the design afresh, has nothing to do but raise the little strings with slip-knots to the top of the simblot, which he had let down to the bottom. This he is to repeat as is necessary, 'till the whole be manufactured.

The ribbon-weavers have likewise a design, but far more simple than that we have described. It is drawn on paper, with lines and squares, representing the threads of the warp and woof. But instead of lines, of which the figures of the former consist, these are constituted of points only, or dots, placed in certain of the little squares, formed by the intersection of the lines. These points mark the threads of the warp that are to be raised, and the spaces left blank denote the threads that are to keep their situation. The rest is managed as in the former.

DESIGN is also used, in painting, for the first idea of a large work, drawn roughly, and in little, with intention to be executed and finished in large. The art of painting has been, by some of the greatest masters, divided into the design, or draught, the proportion, the expression, the clair-obscur, the ordonnance, the colouring, and the perspective. See the article **PAINTING**.

Design in painting is the simple contour, or outlines of the figures intended to be represented, or the lines that terminate and circumscribe them. Such design is sometimes drawn in crayons, or ink, without any shadows at all; sometimes it is hatched, that is, the shadows are expressed by sensible lines, usually drawn across each other with the pen, crayon, or graver. Sometimes, again, the shadows are done with the crayon rubbed, so as there do not appear any lines: at other times, the grains or strokes of the crayon appear, as not being rubbed: sometimes the design is washed, that is, the shadows are done with a pencil, in Indian-ink, or some other liquor; and sometimes the design is coloured, that is, colours are laid on much like those intended for the grand work. The essential requisites of a design are correctness, good taste, elegance, character, diversity, expression, and perspective. Correctness depends on the proportions, and a knowledge of anatomy. Taste is a certain manner of designing, peculiar to one's self, derived either from nature, masters, or studies, or all of them unitedly. Elegance gives a delicacy that not only strikes persons of judgment, but communicates an agreeableness that pleases universally. The character is what is peculiar to each thing; wherein there must be diversity, inasmuch as every thing has its particular character to distinguish it. The expression is the representation of the parts of a painting, or figure, according to the situation they are in with respect to the point of light.

The design, or draught, is a part of the greatest import and extent in painting. It is acquired chiefly by genius and application, rules being of less avail here than in any of the other branches of the art, as colouring, clair-obscur, expression, &c.

The principal rules given by the best masters that regard design are, that novices accustom themselves to copy good originals at first sight: not to use squares in drawing, for fear of stinting and confining their judgment: to design well after the life, before they begin the practice of perspective rules: in designing after the life, to learn to adjust the magnitude of their figures to the visual angles, and the distance of the eye from the model, or object: to mark out all the parts of their design before they begin to shadow: to make their contours in great pieces, without taking notice of the little muscles, and other breaks: to make themselves masters of the rules of perspective: to observe every stroke as to its perpendicular parallel and distance; and particularly so to compare, and oppose the parts that meet upon, and traverse the perpendicular, as to form a kind of square in the mind, which is the great, and almost the only rule of designing justly: to have a regard not only to the model, but also to the part already designed; there being no such thing as designing with strict justness, but by comparing and proportioning every part to the first.

The rest relates to perspective; as that those objects be seen, at one view, where rays meet in a point: that the eye and object be always conceived as immovable: that the space, or medium between them be conceived transparent: and that the eye, object, and picture, be at a just distance, which is usually double the bigness of the subject, or picture.

REMARKS.

The great utility of the art of design, or drawing in general, being represented in a very just light by the ingenious Mr. Gwyn, in his essay on that subject, including proposals for erecting a public academy, for educating the British youth in drawing, and several arts depending thereon, it may not be unacceptable to many of our readers to quote him upon this occasion.

' In regard, says that gentleman, to the mechanic arts, I would desire every polite reader to assist me with his imagination, and every artist to make the particular application of my general remarks to himself, and his own business: for should I enumerate all I could now think of, to whom drawing is either absolutely necessary, or would be greatly useful, I should incur the charge of a needless prolixity, if not of descending lower than the picture hitherto given of my subject may seem to require. The bailiff, farmer, and all whose business is relative to lands, may include themselves in what we have said of the surveyor; the carpenter, mason, bricklayer, glazier, with some others whose trades have respect to building, might be displeas'd, if put in any other class than that of architects; and real architects, while they find the assistance of these artists necessary to execute their designs; must not be ashamed to shelter their auxiliaries. All whose employment is in the fashioning of earth, wood, metal or stone, or in ornamenting the various utensils of life fashioned from these, must acknowledge that drawing turns greatly to their account, and that, if they can form no designs of their own, they are constantly obliged to copy those of the better artists. Weavers, embroiderers, and others employed in manufacturing of silks or cottons, are obliged, if unskilled themselves, to have recourse to those who profess pattern-drawing*. How much superior to these dependent artists shall we esteem those engravers, who, with great neatness of the burin, have few or no ideas of their own to follow, and are obliged to work after the designs of others in all they perform? Must it not occur to all such, that their great defect is the want of skill in the art of drawing? Can any labour seem too arduous, if by it they may attain this original idea, this animating soul of all their other skill? I leave this thought to the reflection of every one who is sensible of his own deficiency.

* Hence the complaints of persons engaged in those parts of the weaving trade, where design, invention, or, as they term it, fancy, are concerned. These men have long been convinced of the necessity of drawing in those branches, and with great concern lament, that, notwithstanding the perfection to which the silk manufacture is brought in London, particularly in Spital-Fields, our greatest artists, for want of skill to delineate, and thereby improve their own conceptions, are, in the article of brocaded silks in particular, reduced to the necessity either of calling in the assistance of the better-instructed, though not more ingenious, French, who reside among them, or of servilely imitating their less elaborate performances.

' In a word, the astronomers cannot in fancy parcel out the heavens, nor the geographer describe the divisions of the earth that really exist, without some proficiency in the art of drawing. Under the direction of these we place all the artists who work on instruments for the measure of time or space, by whatsoever denomination they are known. Not one of these mechanics but is strictly bound to the rules of exact proportion.

' To navigators, continues this gentleman in another place, who traverse the vast ocean, and whose safety depends upon their knowledge of their situation every moment, the art of drawing is so absolutely necessary, that the neglect of it hitherto has been equally fatal and unaccountable. In the art of war how requisite it is, and how shamefully it has on our part been pretermitted, the recent experience of the four or five years last elapsed, does but too fully demonstrate. We can only hope that the institutions at Woolwich and Portsmouth, by training up a sufficient number of young men in the useful parts of knowledge, of which this of drawing is one of the most essential, may vindicate to our nation, in future wars, as much applause for our military skill, as is now given without reserve to our courage. If we do not imitate our neighbours in an art, which is now become so effectual, as almost to take the place of numbers, weight, and personal prowess, how shall we ever hope again to conquer them in the field, or to maintain our superiority over them on the ocean?

' In the Ordonnance Marine, Lewis XIV. orders, 'That there be professors to teach navigation publicly in all the sea-port towns, who must know designing, and teach it their scholars, in order to lay down the appearances of coasts, and the like. They are to keep their schools open, and read four times a week to the seamen, where they must have charts, globes, spheres, compasses, quadrants, astro-labes, and all books and instruments necessary to teach their art. The directors of hospitals are obliged to send thither, yearly, two or three of their boys to be taught, and to sur-

nish them with books and instruments. Those professors are obliged to examine the journals deposited in the office of admiralty, in the places of their establishment, to correct the errors in presence of the seamen, and to restore them within a month.

King Charles II. who well understood the importance of establishments of this nature, founded such a school in Christ's Hospital, which has produced many eminent proficients. King William established a mathematical lecture, to breed up engineers and officers; which was discontinued, however, after the peace of Ryfwic. The fault of the English has usually been, to neglect the means of teaching military qualifications when the use of them has not been immediately necessary. But the above-mentioned schools, now established at Woolwich and Portsmouth, to teach the arts relating to war, seem to promise a more lasting duration.

It appears from the account, lately published, of the most remarkable voyage of the present age, that the honourable gentleman, since called up to the rank of nobility, who commanded in it, had a true sense of the whole duty of his employment, and looked upon the application of a skill in drawing as no inconsiderable part of it. We must take the sentiments, in the introduction of that work, for the commander's own, though published under another name. They are so full to the point I am upon, and their authority is so much better than my own, that a quotation from them will supply the place of much that I must else have said upon the subject of drawing, with respect to the public.

I cannot, says Mr. Walter, in the right honourable lord Anson's Voyage round the world, finish this introduction, without adding a few reflections on a matter very nearly connected with the present subject, and, as I conceive, neither destitute of utility, nor unworthy of the attention of the public; I mean, the animating my countrymen, both in their public and private stations, to the encouragement and pursuit of all kinds of geographical and nautical observations, and of every species of mechanical and commercial information. It is by a settled attachment to these seemingly minute particulars, that our ambitious neighbours have established some part of that power with which we are now struggling: and, as we have the means in our hands of pursuing those subjects more effectually than they can, it would be a dishonour to us longer to neglect so easy and beneficial a practice: for, as we have a navy much more numerous than theirs, great part of which is constantly employed in very distant stations, either in the protection of our colonies and commerce, or in assisting our allies against the common enemy, this gives us frequent opportunities of furnishing ourselves with such kind of materials as are here recommended, and such as might turn greatly to our advantage, either in war or peace.

For, not to mention what might be expected from the officers of the navy, if their application to these subjects were properly encouraged, it would create no new expence to the government to establish a particular regulation for this purpose; since all that would be requisite would be constantly to embark on board some of our men of war, which are sent on these distant cruizes, a person, who, with the character of an engineer, and the skill and talents necessary to that profession, should be employed in drawing such coasts, and planning such harbours, as the ship should touch at, and in making such other observations of all kinds, as might either prove of advantage to future navigators, or might any ways tend to promote the public service.

Besides, persons habituated to this employment (which could not fail, at the same time, of improving them in their proper business) would be extremely useful in many other lights, and might serve to secure our fleets from those disgraces, with which their attempts against places on shore have been often attended: and, in a nation like ours, where all sciences are more eagerly and universally pursued, and better understood than in any other part of the world, proper subjects for such employments could not be long wanting, if due encouragement were given to them.

This method here recommended is known to have been frequently practised by the French, particularly in the instance of Mons. Frezier, who has published a celebrated voyage to the South-Sea: for this person, in the year 1711, was purposely sent by the French king into that country, on board a merchantman, that he might examine and describe the coast, and take plans of all the fortified places, the better to enable the French to prosecute their illicit trade, or, in case of a rupture with the court of Spain, to form their enterprizes in those seas with more readiness and certainty.

Should we pursue this method, we might hope, that the emulation among those who were thus employed, and the experience, which, even in time of peace, they would thereby acquire, might at length promise us a number of able engineers, and might efface the national scandal,

which our deficiency in that species of men has sometimes exposed us to: and, surely, every step to encourage and improve this profession, is of great moment to the public; as no persons, when they are properly instructed, make better returns in war, for the encouragement, and emoluments bestowed on them in time of peace. Of which the advantages the French have reaped from their dexterity (too numerous and recent to be soon forgot) are an ample confirmation.

And having mentioned engineers, or such as are skilled in drawing, and the other useful practices of that profession, as the properest persons to be employed in these foreign enquiries, I cannot (as it offers itself so naturally to the subject in hand) but lament, how very imperfect many of our accounts of distant countries are rendered, by the relations being unskilful in drawing, and in the general principles of surveying, even where other abilities have not been wanting. Had more of our travellers been initiated in these acquirements, and had there been added thereto some little skill in the common astronomical observations, (all which a person of ordinary talents might attain with a very moderate share of application) we should, by this time, have seen the geography of the globe much correcter than we now find it; the dangers of navigation would have been considerably lessened, and the manners, arts, and produce of foreign countries, would have been much better known to us than they are. Indeed, when I consider the strong incitements that all travellers have to acquire some part, at least, of these qualifications, especially drawing; when I consider how much it would facilitate their observations, assist and strengthen their memories, and of how tedious, and often unintelligible, a load of description it would rid them, I cannot but wonder that any person; that intends to visit distant countries, with a view of informing either himself or others, should be unfurnished with so useful a piece of skill.

And, to enforce this argument still farther, I must add, that, besides the uses of drawing which are already mentioned, there is one, which, though not so obvious, is yet, perhaps, of more consequence than all that has been hitherto urged; and that is, that those who are accustomed to draw objects, observe them with more distinctness than others who are not habituated to this practice: for we may easily find, by a little experience, that, in viewing any object, however simple, our attention or memory is scarcely at any time so strong, as to enable us, when we have turned our eyes away from it, to recollect exactly every part it consisted of, and to recall all the circumstances of it's appearance; since, on examination, it will be discovered, that in some we were mistaken, and others we had overlooked: but he that is employed in drawing what he sees, is at the same time employed in rectifying this inattention; for, by confronting his ideas copied on the paper, with the object he intends to represent, he finds in what manner he has been deceived in it's appearance, and hence in time acquires the habit of observing much more at one view, and retains what he sees with more correctness, than he could ever have done without his practice and proficiency in drawing.

If what has been said merits the attention of travellers of all sorts, it is, I think, more particularly applicable to the gentlemen of the navy; since, without drawing and planning, neither charts nor views of land can be taken; and, without those, it is sufficiently evident, that navigation is at a full stand. It is doubtless from a persuasion of these qualifications, that his majesty has established a drawing-master at Portsmouth, for the instruction of those who are presumed to be afterwards intrusted with the command of the royal navy: and though some have been so far misled, as to suppose, that the perfection of sea-officers consisted in a turn of mind and temper resembling the boisterous element they had to deal with, and have condemned all literature and science as effeminate, and derogatory to that ferocity, which, they would persuade us, was the most unerring characteristic of courage: yet it is to be hoped, that such absurdities as these have at no time been authorized by the public opinion, and that the belief of them daily diminishes.

Since the first publication of this work, the SOCIETY OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE, has been established; and, from the encouragement they have given, the art of DESIGNING has been far more cultivated in this kingdom than heretofore: notwithstanding, this society does not as yet seem to be planned upon the most useful foundation that it might be, see the article ROYAL SOCIETY, the conclusive REMARKS thereon.

DEVONSHIRE, has the English channel on the south, Bristol channel on the north, is divided on the west from Cornwall, by the river Tamar, and is bounded on the east with Somersetshire.

'Tis about 69 miles in length, 66 in breadth, and 200 in circumference, being the largest and most populous county in England, Yorkshire excepted.

The air is mild, except on the hills and dry heaths, where, if sharp,

sharp, 'tis healthful. The soil various, in some parts moorish and barren, in others as fruitful, especially the southern parts, called the Garden of Devonshire.

That part, called the South Hams, is famous for it's rough cyder: and it's tin mines were formerly in great abundance, but there is very little tin dug in this county now.

It's commodities are corn, cattle, wool, &c. and it's manufactures, kerlies, ferges, druggets, perpetuana's, long ells, shalloons, narrow cloths, &c. as also bone-lace.

Chief rivers are Tamar, Tave Lad, Ock, Tame, Touridge, Ex, and Dart.

EXETER, the chief city, and one of the principal in the kingdom for it's building, wealth, extent, and number of inhabitants. The sea flowed up formerly to the very walls of the city, and ships could load and unload at that called the Water-Gate: an advantage they were afterwards deprived of, but have since recovered by the contrivances of sluices and gates, that vessels of 150 tons can now come up to their key. Of all it's fairs, which are seven, Lammas-fair is the greatest, being much frequented by mercers, linen-drappers, haberdashers, &c. from London; and it lasts three whole, and two half days.

As great a trade as is now carried on here, for ferges, and other woollen goods, in which 'tis computed that 600,000l. at least is yearly traded for; yet were the markets for wool, yarn, and kerseys, not erected till the 30th of Henry the VIIIth, before which the merchants drove a considerable trade to Spain and France. There were weavers here before Henry VIII. but Crediton kept the wool-market and cloth-trade. The ferge-market, kept weekly, is said to be the greatest in England, next to the brig-market at Leeds; and that sometimes as many ferges have been sold in a week, as amount to 60 or 80,000l. for, besides the vast quantities of woollen goods usually shipped for Spain, Portugal, and Italy, the Dutch give large commissions for buying up ferges, perpetuana's, &c. for Holland and Germany. That to France is not very considerable, and too much of what there is, is in the hands of smugglers, that mischievous practice being most successful on the south coast of England. 'Tis particularly remarked of this city, that it is almost as full of gentry as of tradesmen, and that there have been more mayors and bailiffs of it, who have descended from, or given rise to, good families, than of any other of it's bigness in England; it's great trade and flourishing state tempting gentlemen to settle their sons here, contrary to the practice in the midland and northern counties; where, according to the vain and ruinous notion of the Normans, trade was left to the vulgar, and gentlemen were not to foul their fingers with it. See the article **COMMERCE**.

From the mouth of the river Ex to Torbay, the shore is full of villages, but nothing remarkable for traffic.

TORBAY is famous for the landing of the prince of Orange, afterwards king of Great-Britain, with his army, in 1688.

DARTMOUTH town and harbour, are five miles west from Berry-Point, which is the west part of land that makes the bay: being on the mouth of the river Dart, a river of a long course and deep channel, and which makes an excellent harbour at this place, able to receive a royal navy. The entrance, indeed, is narrow, but the channel is good; and 'tis commanded by a castle, so placed at the mouth of the river, that nothing can pass but under the very muzzle of it's guns.

The town has a large key, is very populous, and the merchants have here great business, being seated as it were in the center of the pilchard-fishing, which they manage very much to advantage. They also trade considerably with France, Portugal, and to the Mediterranean, and several very good ships belong to the town. They have likewise very considerable trade to Newfoundland.

It is to be observed here, and I speak it now for the whole coast, that in all the towns that lie thereon, beginning at Southampton and reaching the land's end, and even after that into the Severn sea, and so to both sides of that sea, the Welsh as well as English, there are abundance of considerable merchants, who trade independent of London, having two particular branches, which they manage with great success, exclusive of their ordinary correspondence; namely, the pilchard and herring-fisheries, and the Newfoundland fishing. They deal very largely also in other things, as in the ferges and manufactures of Exeter, and of other parts of Devonshire, and especially in copper and block-tin, plentifully found in the mines of Cornwall and some in Devonshire, and hardly any where else in England.

PLYMOUTH, anciently no more than a fishing-town, is now the largest in the shire, containing near as many souls as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to it's port, one of the biggest and safest in England, having two harbours, capable of containing 1000 sail.

It has a good pilchard-fishing on the coast, and drives a considerable trade to the Straights and West-Indies.

BARNSTAPLE has a good trade to America and to Ireland, from whence 'tis an established port for landing wool; and imports more wine and other merchandize than Biddeford, and is every whit as considerable; for, though it's rival cures

more fish, yet Barnstaple drives a greater trade with the ferge-makers of Tiverton, Taunton, and Exeter, who come hither to buy shad-fish, wool, yarn, &c.

HONITON is an ancient borough; the first ferge manufacture in Devonshire was here; but 'tis now much employed in that of lace, and the broadest fort made in England, of which great quantities are sent to London.

ASHBURTON, situated among hills, noted for mines of tin and copper, and has a manufacture of ferge.

CLIFTON DARTMOUTH HARDNESS, has a harbour where 500 sail of ships may ride safe; here live some considerable merchants, who trade to Portugal, Italy, and the plantations, but especially to Newfoundland, and from thence to Italy, &c. with fish. Besides this, a pilchard-fishery is carried on hereabouts, with the greatest number of vessels of any port in the west, except Falmouth.

TIVERTON is an ancient town, noted for the greatest woollen manufacture in the county next to Exeter.

BIDDEFORD is inhabited by wealthy merchants, who send fleets yearly to the West-Indies, particularly Virginia and Newfoundland, and to Ireland, from whence 'tis an established port as well as Barnstaple, for landing wool: forty or fifty sail, belonging to this port, have been employed to fetch cod from Newfoundland: and others are sent to Liverpool and Warrington for rock-falk, which is here dissolved by the sea-water into brine, and then boiled up into a new salt, justly called salt upon salt, with which they cure their herrings.

DIAMOND. Stones of this denomination admitting of a branch of trade of no little extent, we may reasonably enough expect, that the reader would judge it a material omission, if we were to take no notice of them.

The genuine diamond is a pure, hard, solid, transparent, sparkling, precious substance; the most perfect of all the gems of the crystal kind; excelling all other bodies in the lustre of it's reflecting light, and enduring the fiercest fire for a very long time, without melting.

As the size, so is the shape of diamonds irregular. Yet it seems to have one determinate form, into which it naturally concretes, when unimpeded by foreign accidental matter; and so have the various salts; and art can easily obstruct those salts from crystallizing in their natural determinate figure, and give them very different and irregular forms.—What art is capable of doing above ground, we may presume nature may do by accident under it: common crystal and spar, which have their natural specified figures, and angular forms, generate into irregular and shapeless masses.

The diamond is often blemished, with white, yellow, or black spots, which greatly diminish it's splendor, and therefore it's value, whence divers practices have been used to get them out. They are of different colours, white, yellowish, bluish, reddish, &c.

They consist of crystal laminæ, somewhat in the nature of Iceland crystal, so that skilful lapidaries can frequently separate them with the edge of a knife. They are not calcinable by common fire, nor in the focus of a burning-glass, if only the plain flat surfaces be thus exposed to the sun's rays; but, if the edges of the plates are turned to the rays, they split, separate, and run into a kind of glass, which has not the lustre of a diamond.

The diamond, the most readily of all substances, emits fire with steel.

It makes no effervescence, nor suffers any the least change in the most powerful acid menstruums.

The common colour of diamonds being generally known by sight, 'tis not necessary, nor would it be easy, to describe it by words; the most usual colour of these gems is not the only one. That celebrated French jeweller, Monsieur Tavernier, gives an account of a fair diamond that he had, of a very red colour. There are others of a golden yellow, which might be taken for an excellent topaz.

That the real virtues of gems may be probably derived from the metalline, or mineral tinctures, or rather corpuscles that were embodied with the matter of the gem, whilst it was yet fluid, or soft, and afterwards coagulated therewith, appears probable; because some have been really discovered to be impregnated with metalline, and more particularly with ferrugineous particles, if we may credit the great Mr. Boyle's assertion, in regard to an experiment made with his own hands; for he, having taken a moderately vigorous loadstone, and applied it to a diamond of a dull colour, found that it had in it particles enough of a ferrugineous nature, to make it magnetic; and observed, that it would not only suffer itself to be taken up by the strongest pole of the loadstone, but, when that pole was offered within a convenient distance, it would readily leap through the air to fasten itself to it.

Jewellers and lapidaries, and, indeed, the general opinion of mankind, allow, that the goodness of diamonds consists in their water or colour, lustre and weight: the white is esteemed the most perfect colour: their blemishes and imperfections consist in veins, flaws, specks of red or black sand, and a bluish or yellowish cast.

European artists examine the goodness of their rough diamonds, by day-light; the Indians do it by night; in order to which, say: M. Savary, they make a hole in a wall a foot square,

square, and place a lamp therein, with a thick wick, by the light of which they form a judgment of the quality of the stone.

Dr Wall, in the Philosophical Transactions, seems to have fell upon a good method of judging of these gems: a diamond, with an easy slight friction in the dark, with any soft animal substance, as woollen, silk, or the like, appears luminous in it's whole body: if you continue rubbing it for some time, and then expose it to the eye, it will remain luminous for some time. If the sun be eighteen degrees below the horizon, holding up a piece of bays, or flannel stretched tight between both hands at some distance from the eye, and another rubbing the other side of the bays, or flannel, pretty briskly with a diamond, the light is much more splendid and delightful than any other way. But what the doctor judges the most extraordinary is, that a diamond, being exposed to the open air, in view of the sky, gives almost the same light of itself, without rubbing, as if rubbed in a dark room: but, if in the open air, you put the hand, or any thing else a little over it, to prevent it's open and immediate communication with the sky, it gives no light, which is a distinguishing criterion of a diamond.

ROUGH DIAMOND is the stone as nature produces it in the mines.

BRILLIANT DIAMOND is that quite flat underneath, but it's upper part cut in divers little faces, usually triangles, the uppermost whereof terminate in a point.

TABLE DIAMOND is that which has a large square face at top, encompassed with four lesser.

DIAMOND-CUTTER is an artificer who cuts diamonds, is skilled and deals in them. See the more general article **LAPIDARY**.

Of the **DIAMOND MINES**, and trafficking thereof.

The places whence we have diamonds, are the East-Indies and the Brasils; they are found in the former, in the island of Borneo, and in the kingdoms of Vissapour, Golconda, and Bengal. In all these places, they are generally found clear and colourless, yet are sometimes met with, tinged with the colours of the other gems, by the mixture of some metalline particles, as before observed, according to Mr. Boyle.

They are found partly in mines, partly in rivers.

At Raolconda, a town in the East-Indies, five leagues distant from Golconda, and eight or nine from Vissapour, in the province of Conutica, is a diamond mine, discovered not above 200 years ago: therein are found the purest stones, with the most splendid water; but being forced to get them out of the rocks, with a great iron-lever, and many blows, they frequently flaw the diamonds by shivering them, and make them look no better than crystal: which is the reason why there are so many soft stones found in this mine, though they make a great shew.

If a stone be free from flaws, they give it only a turn or two upon the wheel, that it may lose as little as possible of it's weight; but, if it has any flaws, points, or black specks, they cut it into facets, and work the flaw into a ridge to hide it.

The diamond trade at the mines is free and just, and transacted without any talking on either side, the buyer and seller expressing themselves, by taking each other by the hands; and so, in the same place where they are many people, a parcel of goods shall be sold seven or eight times, and no man know it.

At Gahi, or Colour, seven days journey from Golconda eastwards, is another diamond mine; it lies between the town and a mountain; and the nearer they dig to the mountain, the larger stones they find; but there is none on the top.

This mine was found not above an hundred years ago, by a countryman, who, digging his ground to sow millet, found a large diamond 25 carats weight: upon which the rich men in the town fell to digging, and found, as they do to this day, bigger stones than in any other mines, viz. some above 40 carats, and one of 900, which Margimola presented to Aureng-Zeb.

But the mischief of these stones is, that they partake of the quality of the soil, and are few of them quite pure and clean, and free from all blemish; some being black, others red, and others yellow and green. Near Soumelpour, in the kingdom of Bengal, is a river called Gouel, where there are diamonds found mixed with the sand.

In the island of Borneo, which is the largest island in the world, is another river, called Succadan, in the sand whereof they find diamonds, as hard as any in the other mines; but the queen of the mine will permit none to be carried out of it; so that all that come from thence are conveyed out by stealth.

At Rocolconda mine they weigh by mangolins, which are each a carat and $\frac{1}{2}$, and pay in new pagodas, as they do also at Colour.

At Soumelpour mine, they weigh by rahs, which are each $\frac{1}{2}$ of a carat, and pay in roupees.

Of the value of diamonds at those places.

The price of diamonds here is thus to be known: if it be

a thick stone, well squared, and have all it's corners, and the water be white and lively, without specks or flaws, such a stone is worth ten pounds fifteen shillings sterling; or of the same value, if it is cut in facets, which they call a rose-diamond, if it be a fair breadth, and of the same perfection; and, if a stone weighs more carats, it is raised in price. Imperfect diamonds are not above one half of the value of the perfect.

Murfilli, a kingdom northward about 500 miles from Malabar. They have here diamonds in their hills, which they search for after great rains.

Here the diamonds are so scattered in the earth, and lie so thin, that, in the most plentiful mines, 'tis rare to find one in digging, or 'till they have prepared the stuff, and searched purposely for them.

Of the method in general for searching for diamonds in the mines.

The diamonds being frequently inclosed in hard clods of earth, and the new mines in the kingdom of Golconda, in particular, having the earth so fixed about them, they cannot move it sufficiently to discover their transparency, 'till they have prepared the stuff, and searched very vigilantly for them; and was it not for the peculiarity of their form, they would not know them from other stones.

At the first opening of the mine, the unskilful labourers sometimes, to try what they have found, lay the substance on a great stone, and striking thereon with another, to their costly experience, discover they have broken a diamond.

Near the place where they dig they raise a wall, with such rugged stones as they find at hand, whereof all the mines afford plenty, of about two feet high, and six feet over, flooring it well with the same; for the laying of which, they have no other mortar than the earth tempered with water. To strengthen and cement the same, they throw up a bank against the side of it, in one part whereof they leave a small vent about two inches from the bottom, by which it empties itself into a little pit made in the earth to receive small stones, if by chance any should run through.

The vent being stopped, they fill the cistern they have made with water, soaking therein as much of the earth they dig out of the mine, as it can conveniently receive at a time, breaking the clods, picking out the great stones, and stirring the whole with shovels 'till the water is all muddy, the gravelly earth falling to the bottom; after which they open the vent, letting out the foul water, and supply it with clean, 'till all the earthy substance be washed away, and none but a gravelly one remains at the bottom.

Thus they continue washing for several hours 'till ten o'clock in the morning, and then spread the gravelly stuff they have so washed, on a place made plain and smooth for that purpose near the cistern, which being so dried by the heat of the sun at that time of the day, they so vigilantly look, that the smallest bit of a stone can hardly escape them. They never examine the stuff they have washed, but between the hours of ten and three, lest any cloud, by interposing, intercept the brisk beams of the sun, which they hold very requisite to assist them in their search, those diamonds constantly reflecting them when they shine on them, rendering themselves thereby the more conspicuous.

Some of the most expert labourers are employed in searching, he that sets them to work usually overlooking; but 'tis scarce possible, especially where many are employed, to watch them so narrowly, but that they may steal part of what they find, and sell it privately for their own use. If they find a large stone, they do not presently carry it to their employer, but keep on searching, having an eye on him, 'till they observe he takes notice of it, when, with the turn of their hand, they give him a glimpse of it, but deliver it not 'till they have done work, and then very privately; it being the general endeavour to conceal what they find, lest it should come to the knowledge of the governor of the place, and he requires a share; which, in the kingdom of Golconda, is usually practised, without any respect to the agreement made with them. The miners, those that employ them, and the merchants that buy the stones of them, are usually pagans, few or no muslmen following the employment. The labourers and their employers, are Tellingas, commonly natives of, or near the place.—The merchants here are the Banians of Guzzarat, who for some generations have forsaken their own country to take up this trade; in which they have had such success, that 'tis now solely engrossed by them, who, corresponding with their countrymen in Surat, Goa, Golconda, Vissapour, Agra, and Dilu, and other places in India, furnish them with diamonds.

The governors of the mines are also idolaters. In the kingdom of Golconda's dominions, a Tellinga brammee rents most of them, whose agreement with the adventurer is, that all the stones found, under a pagoda weight, are to be his own; all that weight, and above, is to be his for the king's use. But, although this agreement be signed and sealed, he don't mind the performance, but endeavours to engross all the profit to himself, by tyrannically squeezing both merchants and miners; whom he not only taxes very high, but maintains spies

spies among them of their own people. On the least suspicion that they have been any ways fortunate, he immediately makes a demand on them, and raises their tax, else on a false pretence, that they have found a great stone, punishes them corporally, 'till they surrender what they have, to redeem their bodies from torture.

Besides, the excise is so high on all sorts of provisions, beetle and tobacco, which with them are esteemed necessaries, that the price of all things is doubled; by which rigid imposition, there is hardly a man to be found worth five hundred pounds amongst them, most of them dealing by monies taken up at interest of usurers, who reside there purposely to furnish them, who, with the governor, eat up their gains; so that all who can, desert their country, and reside in places where they meet with better treatment.—Both merchants and miners here go generally naked, having only a mean cloth about their middle, and a sash on their heads; they dare not wear a coat, lest the governor should imagine that they have greatly prospered, and are become rich, and make that a pretence to increase his oppressive impositions.

The wisest, when they find a great stone, conceal it 'till they have an opportunity, and then with their wife and children run all away into the Vissapour country, where they are secure against the like tyrannical impositions. The government in the Vissapour country is better; their contracts observed, taxes easier, and no such impositions on provisions; the merchant appears genteel, among whom are several of considerable estates, which they are permitted to enjoy peaceably; by reason whereof their mines are much more populous, and more beneficially wrought than those of Golconda. Among the Portuguese settlements in the East-Indies, many of the jesuits at Goa not only engaged in trade, contrary to the rules of their order, and their duty as missionaries, but even descended so low, as to disguise themselves in the habits of faquirs, or Mahometan monks, that they might have an opportunity of visiting the diamond mines, and purchasing stones there of extraordinary value.

We owe this circumstance to the History of Holland by M. de la Neuville, who tells us, that the Dutch, being extremely piqued at the trouble the jesuits gave them in China, discovered this practice to the governor of the diamond mines at Vissapour, who caught two of these poor reverend fathers, disguised like faquirs, with stones about them to the value of 25,000*l.* which he took from them, and, after whipping them publicly for profaning the habit of these holy men, took such measures, as prevented their carrying on this lucrative commerce in this shape ever after.

Of the BRAZIL DIAMOND MINES belonging to the king of Portugal.

It is about 40 years ago, that some precious stones were brought to the city of St. Sebastian, the capital of the Brazils, taken out of a small river lying westward of that city, which were, at first, judged to be very fine pebbles, but it was not so soon they were brought over to Europe.

About the close of the last general war, these fine pebbles were found in greater quantities; and 'tis said, that some rich planters began to employ their slaves in digging the black heavy earth, on the sides of the mountains, from whence this river descended, and then these stones were found in greater plenty; some of them were very large, but most of them of a black or yellowish cast, which highly prejudiced their splendor, and greatly depreciated their value: yet many of the yellow stones were brought to Lisbon, and sold for topazes.

The king of Portugal afterwards interposed, and the working of these mines was prohibited: which, notwithstanding, did not obstruct their being brought in considerable quantities; for sometimes 'twas reported they were found in this or that river, and not dug from any mine; at other times they were christened with new names, and many sent to St. Salvador, and from thence exported to Europe, under a notion of their coming by the Goa fleet from the East-Indies. This involuntary fraud raised the value, and at length the crown of Portugal became convinced, that such as pretended to great skill in stones had deceived them, and that some of these Brazil diamonds were scarce to be distinguished from the orientals.

Upon this the court altered their measures, and it was permitted by the royal authority to send over rough diamonds in the Rio Janeiro fleet, under certain restrictions; which permission rendering the value of these jewels still more and more apparent, the king of Portugal resolved to put this trade under a new regulation; which commenced in the year 1740, when his Portuguese majesty let these mines to a company at Rio Janeiro, for a certain stipulated annual rent, which is said to be 138,000*crusades*, upon condition, that the said company employ no more than 600 slaves at these mines.

The coming of these stones into Europe, especially at first, sunk the price of diamonds considerably, and has ever since, doubtless, had some influence upon the price.

Of the most estimable diamonds in the world.

The finest diamonds in the world that we know of, are, that known in France by the name of the Great Sancy, one of the stones of the crown, and weighs 106 carats; from which it has its name, which is a corruption of the words cent six: another is that of the grand duke of Tuscany's, which weighs 139 $\frac{1}{2}$ carats; and one belonging to the Great Mogul, weighing 279 $\frac{9}{10}$ carats.

The celebrated jeweller and traveller Mons. Tavernier, according to a rule which he had formed for estimating diamonds, valued that of the Great Mogul at above half a million sterling; others have valued it at above 700,000*l.* sterling. But, there being no fixed and determinate method among the Europeans for estimating diamonds, 'tis no wonder that artists greatly differ; but the East-Indians seem to have one certain and invariable way of valuation, and which does not appear to depend upon any temporary scarcity or plenty of those gems. The judicious Mr. Jefferies, indeed in his late treatise on diamonds and pearls, has endeavoured to introduce the like certain and determined method of valuing this species of jewels, the Europeans having no sure guide to go by, neither the merchants nor the jewellers.

Mons. Tavernier informs us, that the king of Golconda is said to wear upon the crown of his head a jewel almost a foot long, which is said to be of inestimable value. It is a rose of great diamonds, three or four inches diameter, on the top of which there is a little crown, and out of it issues a branch fashioned like that of a palm-tree; but it is round, and the palm-branch, which is crooked at the top, is a good inch in diameter, and about half a foot long. It is made up of sprigs, which are, as it were, the leaves of it, and each of them have at the end a lovely long pearl, shaped like a pear. At the foot of this posy there are two bands of gold in the fashion of table bracelets, in which are incased large diamonds, set round with rubies, which, with great pearls that hang dangling on all sides, make an exceeding fair shew; and these bands have clasps of diamonds to fasten the jewels to the head. Besides this jewel, he hath other considerable pieces, and such numbers of precious stones, that, if there were merchants who could give him the worth of them, he would be the richest king in the Indies.

Of the cutting of diamonds, and the choice of them rough.

A diamond cannot be cut but by itself, and its own substance. In order to polish them, they first rub two against each other, fixed at the end of a stock held in the hand. The dust that comes off by this friction, is used to polish them with; which is done by means of wheels of hardened steel, turned by a mill, and moistened with the diamond dust mixed with olive oil. They use the same dust mixed with water and vinegar, wherewith to cut diamonds; which is done with an iron wire, as fine as a hair.

Instead of sawing, they sometimes in the Indies cleave them, a risk the Europeans do not care to run, lest they should break them; but the Indians do it boldly, and therefore, perhaps, very successfully. Rough diamonds should be chosen compact, of a good form, not glassy, or full of threads and veins, which renders them unfit for cutting: such as these are pounded in a steel mortar made on purpose, and the dust used as above-mentioned.

The glassiness of them is caused by the miners, who, to get them more easily out of the vein, which winds between two rocks, break the rocks with a strong iron crow; which concussion shivers the stones, and makes them appear glassy.

The perfection of a diamond consists in its water, lustre, and weight; its defects are glassiness, reddish or black spots of sand. In Europe, the merchants and jewellers examine them by day-light; but in the Indies they chuse the night-time, making a hole a foot square in a wall, in which they set a lamp with a large wick, at which they view them, held in their fingers. The water they call celestial is the worst of all, and difficultly discerned in a rough diamond: the infallible secret, it seems, practised by the Indians for the discovery, is to examine them in the shade of some bushy tree.

Of artificial diamonds, and various pretended methods of making them, which those may try, if they please, whose interest it concerns.

Art, which imitates nature in so many things, hath attempted it also in this admirable production, but very imperfectly, the best of them being far short of the natural; for which reason they bear no price, in comparison to the other. There is, however, a pretty great trade in them for masquerades and play-house habits.

There is a particular sort of false diamonds, called Alençon diamonds, made of stones, or crystals, found near Alençon, a city of Normandy. The village where they are produced, and which is about two leagues from the city, is called Hertré; the soil is full of glittering sand, and of a hard and grey rock. There are of these diamonds so clean and brilliant, that some are deceived herein.

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On the coast of Medoc also are found certain hard and transparent flints, which, being properly cut, are not to be distinguished, among false diamonds.

The way of making the diamonds of Alençon.

Take an earthen glazed pot, set it on a little furnace, put in it filings of steel, with some vine ashes at discretion, wherein place by one another crystals cut and polished; then pour common water gently on them, which boil during the space of twelve hours, taking care to add boiling water fresh into the vessel, as the water consumes in it by boiling, and take care it boil continually. Then see if your crystals have acquired the colour and hardness you expected: if not, continue the fire some hours longer, and they will be like the true diamonds of Alençon; taking care to repolish them again at the wheel, to give them colour and brightness.

The pretended way to give the true colour and hardness of a diamond, to crystals and diamonds of Alençon.

There are crystals and precious stones, which have neither the colour nor natural hardness of diamonds, and which, some have asserted, may be imitated by art, according to the following process:

Take good Dutch tripoly, and make a paste of it with water out of a smith's forge, wherein you must wrap up the quantity you design of crystal, or diamonds of Alençon cut and polished; then set it in a crucible covered and luted on a gradual fire, where let it stand 'till the crucible becomes red-hot. A little time after take it out, and take out the stones; then polish them again at the wheel, to give them their colour.

To set them in work, take Indian paper, with leaves of tin, like those you put behind looking-glasses; then let them be set by a skilful jeweller, and they will not be distinguishable from some natural diamonds, but by nice discerners.

Another pretended way to harden crystals and diamonds of Alençon.

Crystals also acquire hardness in the paste we are now going to describe, because their humidity exhales, and they become more fixed.

Take barley-meal well sifted, with petroleum, or rock-oil; then cut that paste in the middle, and put all your stones in order, so that they may not touch one another. Then cover your stones with the other half of the paste, and put them in a crucible covered with another, and luted well together, and let it dry. After which, set this crucible in a gradual wheel-fire, from five to six hours, a small fire the two first hours, which increase every two hours, 'till the end of the six: let the whole cool of itself. Then break your crucibles, and you will find your stones mended beyond expectation; which repolish at the wheel, and let them be set by an experienced jeweller.

Another process said to answer the same end as the preceding, and to give a superior lustre.

Although this is said to be an important secret, and may be abused, yet we shall communicate it; because, if true, it will put people upon their guard, and convince them of the necessity of dealing only with people of honour and credit in the diamond way.

Take one pound of loadstone, a pound of quick lime, and half a pound of common sulphur, the whole reduced to powder, and well mixed. With this powder cement your crystals and diamonds of Alençon well cut, in a crucible covered and well luted: being dry, set it in a glass-house furnace, if you have not one ready for the purpose, three days, in a place where the matters may be continually red-hot without fusion; and take care not to take out the crucible all at once, but let it cool gently, otherwise the stones might break. Having broken the crucible, you will find your stones to have acquired an additional brilliancy as well as hardness, and will resemble the diamonds of the old rock, which repolish at the wheel to give the colour, and let them be well set.

A pretended method to make artificial diamonds.

Take of the finest natural crystal, calcined and reduced to subtle powder what quantity you please; fill a pot with it, and set it in a glass-house furnace twelve hours, to be melted and purified: then drop the melted matter into cold water, dry it, and reduce it again to powder; add to that powder it's weight of fine salt of tartar, made according to the process below*. Mix these two powders well, and make little pills of them with common water. Then wipe these pills, and put them into an earthen pot on a strong fire, there to grow red-hot for twelve hours space, without melting. Afterwards put them into a pot in a glass-house furnace, where leave them two days, to be well melted and purified.—Then put the matter twelve hours in the annealing furnace, to cool very gradually. Break the crucible, and you will have a fine

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material for the imitation of diamonds, which cut and polish at the wheel.

* The way of making salt of tartar proper for this occasion.

Those who, in their operations of artificial gems, have made no use of salt of tartar, have, without doubt, been ignorant of the following fine preparation; for if, to that end, you use the ordinary salt of tartar, there is a sulphur and foulness in it, which renders crystal obscure, and consequently would be hurtful in those operations.

To make this salt, you must first calcine your tartar, 'till it becomes grey, and not to perfect whiteness; then dissolve it in the finest clear water to embrace the salt; filter that water, and then evaporate it over the fire, and you will have remaining, at the bottom of the vessel, a white salt. To take away all foulness from this part, dissolve it again in warm water, and evaporate it again over a gentle clear fire: take it from the fire, and cast it into cold water, and you will find it will leave on the surface of the water a thick froth, which you must skim off with a skimmer, that has little holes no bigger than small pins heads: put the vessel again on the fire, and evaporate the water as before.—Take it off the fire, and cast upon it fresh cold water, and skim it well as before. Reiterate this process, 'till you find no more froth; then evaporate the whole over a gentle fire 'till it be dry, and you will have a salt of tartar well purified, which is not so forcible as the other, because it is free from all that unctuousness which causes the fusion. Keep this salt of tartar in a vessel well stopped, and make use of it in crystal as directed.

The following is a rate, or manner of estimating the value of diamonds, said to be drawn up by a person well versed in such matters; but, as Mr Jefferies's rule seems to be more generally regarded, we shall give that also.

Table DIAMONDS.

		Dutch cut.			
		lib.	sh.	lib.	sh. sterl.
A diamond weighing 1 grain, is worth from	1	0	to	1	1
1 1/2	-	1	16	to	1 17
2	-	2	15	to	3 0
2 1/2	-	3	12	to	3 15
3	-	4	15	to	5 0
4	-	7	17	to	8 0
5	-	15	0	to	15 15
6	-	22	0	to	25 0
7	-	30	0	to	34 0
8	-	42	0	to	45 0
9	-	60	0	—	—
10	-	75	0	—	—
12	-	112	0	to	120 0
15	-	187	0	to	220 0
19	-	330	0	to	380 0
24	-	450	0	—	—
30	-	700	0	to	735 0
40	-	1500	0	to	1800 0
50	-	3500	0	to	4500 0
60	-	4500	0	to	5620 0

Antwerp cut.

		lib. sh.		lib. sh. sterl.	
A diamond weighing 1 grain, is worth from	0	15	to	1	18
1 1/2	-	1	6	to	1 10
2	-	2	2	to	2 5
3	-	3	12	to	3 15
4	-	6	0	to	6 7
5	-	10	10	to	11 5
6	-	13	10	to	15 0
7	-	18	15	to	22 10
8	-	24	0	to	26 0
9	-	33	15	—	—
10	-	37	0	to	40 0
12	-	55	0	to	58 0
15	-	112	0	to	130 0
18	-	247	0	—	—
24	-	315	0	—	—
40	-	900	0	to	970 0
50	-	2200	0	to	2300 0
60	-	3500	0	to	4500 0

Mr Jefferies's method of valuing WROUGHT DIAMONDS in conjunction with ROUGH DIAMONDS, out of which they are supposed to be brought.

An example is here given to shew in what manner the value of a wrought diamond, of one carat, is to be found, upon the principle advanced, supposing rough diamonds to be valued at two pounds the carat.

The weight of such a stone must be doubled (on account of half being supposed to be lost in working it) which is considered as it's original weight, making two carats; then multiply the weight into itself, which squares it, and makes 4; lastly, multiply the 4 by 2, that produces eight pounds, which

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which is the value of a stone of one carat wrought or polished, and is equal to the value of the rough diamond of 2 carats, out of which it is supposed to be made. This single instance is here given, to shew the value of rough diamonds in the price of wrought ones; and as a farther explanation of the rule of valuing them, and previous to the offering any other, it is to be observed, that, although two pounds is laid down as the general price of rough diamonds, it is nevertheless to be understood, that rough diamonds differ in their value, according to their different degrees of perfection or imperfection, and according to the loss of weight they may be supposed to sustain in being truly wrought; as it is well known, that some will lose abundantly more than others, arising from their ill forms, and other defects that may attend them, which are so numerous and difficult to be expressed, that what may be said of them would probably not be understood, but by the most experienced traders and manufacturers of them.

This consideration, and that of it's being but of little concern to the public, prevents my saying any thing more relating thereto.

In farther explaining the principle of valuing wrought diamonds, three other instances, besides that already given, will be offered, to shew the operation of the principle in coming at the value of rough diamonds, which it is judged will be sufficient in other cases in this way of proceeding. After that will be offered three more of the same weight, in a different manner of proceeding, but to the same end. Here it may be proper to hint, that all the instances that will be given, are founded upon the price of rough diamonds in general, being put at two pounds the carat, viz. good and bad blended together; so that two pounds is the price of the middle sort only: and it is also to be remembered, that, in manufacturing, half the weight is supposed to be wasted. And as mistakes may be made in calculating the value of particular diamonds, in the ways hereafter prescribed, it is here noted, that the prices of diamonds, from one of one carat, to one of an hundred carats, of this degree of goodness, are contained in the 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16th plates of Mr. Jefferies's Essay; which will prove the truth or falsity of any calculation: and it is also to be observed, that the expense of manufacture is excluded in all the instances that he has given on this occasion, the reasons of which appear in his tract.

Now follow the three instances proposed, to explain this first method of finding the value of any wrought diamonds.

The first INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats weight, the weight must be doubled, on account of half being supposed lost in working it; that replaces it's original weight, which makes 10 carats; then multiply 10 by 10, that squares the weight, and makes 100 carats; and, lastly, the 100 must be multiplied by 2 pounds, the price of one carat; that produces 200 pounds, and is the value of a wrought stone of 5 carats, and the price of the diamond, when rough.

E X A M P L E.	
Multiplied by -	10 pounds
	10 carats
—————	
Makes - - -	100
Multiplied by -	2 pounds
—————	
Makes - - -	200 pounds.

Second INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{2}$, the weight must be doubled, that makes 10 $\frac{1}{2}$; next multiply that weight by 4, to bring it into 4ths, or grains, which makes 41; then multiply 41 by 41, that makes 1681, the square of the weight in sixteenths; therefore divide the 1681 by 16, that brings it again into carats, and makes 105 carats $\frac{1}{16}$; which, multiplied by 2 pounds, produces 210l. 2s. 6d. and is the value of the stone, rough or wrought.

E X A M P L E.	
Carats	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
	4
—————	
	41
	41
—————	
	41
	164
—————	
	Carats
16) 1681	(105 $\frac{1}{16}$
	2
—————	
	1. 210 2 6

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Third INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{4}$, the weight doubled is 10 carats $\frac{1}{2}$; reduce that weight into grains, by multiplying it by 4, that makes 42; then multiplying 42 by 42, that makes 1764, the square of the weight in sixteenths; which divide by 16, that brings them again into carats, and makes 110 carats and $\frac{4}{16}$; which multiply by 2l. that produces 220l. 10s. and is the value of the stone, rough or wrought.

E X A M P L E.	
Carats	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
	4
—————	
	42
	42
—————	
	84
	168
—————	
	Carats
16) 1764	(110 $\frac{4}{16}$
	2
—————	
	1. 220 10

The SECOND METHOD of valuing WROUGHT DIAMONDS in conjunction with the ROUGH DIAMONDS, out of which they are supposed to be wrought.

First INSTANCE.

To find the value of a diamond of 5 carats weight, as in the foregoing cases, so in this the weight must be doubled; that makes 10 carats. As a rough diamond of one carat is valued at 2 pounds, every carat in this stone accumulates 10 times that value; and so every carat in this stone is to be valued at 20 pounds; therefore multiply 10 carats by 20 pounds, that will produce 200 pounds, and is the value of the stone, rough or wrought.

E X A M P L E.

	10 carats
Multiplied by -	20 pounds
—————	
Makes the total	200

Second INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats; the weight doubled makes 10 carats $\frac{1}{4}$; next reckon that weight in the foregoing manner, that makes every carat in this stone worth 20 pounds 10 shillings: so first multiply 10 carats by 20 pounds, that makes 200 pounds; then multiply 10 carats by 10 shillings, that makes 100 shillings, or 5 pounds; next add the value of the 4th of a carat at the rate of 20l. 10s. that makes 5l. 2s. 6d. lastly, cast up these three sums, the total will be 210l. 2s. 6d. and is the value of the stone, rough or wrought.

E X A M P L E.

	10 carats
Multiplied by -	20 pounds
—————	
Makes - - -	200 pounds
10 carats mult. by 10s. makes	5
The value of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a carat at	} - 5 2 6
20l. 10s. is - - -	}
—————	
Makes the total -	210 2 6

Third INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{2}$; the weight doubled makes 10 carats $\frac{1}{2}$; next reckon that weight as in the two other cases, that makes every carat in this stone worth 21 pounds: so multiply 10 carats by 21 pounds, that makes 210l. then add the value of the half carat at 21 the carat, that makes 10l. 10s. lastly, add the two sums together, the total will be 220l. 10s. and is the value of the stone, rough or wrought.

E X A M P L E.

	10 carats
Multiplied by -	21
—————	
Makes - - -	210
The value of the $\frac{1}{2}$ carat	} - 10 10
added, which is	}
—————	
Makes the total - - -	220 10

The instances that have been given of two methods, for finding the value of wrought diamonds, as they stand connected with the rough (out of which they are supposed to be made) it is apprehended, are a sufficient explanation of the principle for valuing rough and wrought diamonds, and prove it's being founded on reason.

Of the method of valuing WROUGHT DIAMONDS, exclusive of any regard to ROUGH DIAMONDS.

As instances have been given of two different methods of attaining the value of wrought diamonds, in which cases the value of rough diamonds, of double their weights, have been jointly considered, they being supposed to be made from such rough diamonds; three instances of manufactured diamonds, of the same weights, will be now offered, to shew in what manner their value may be found, exclusive of any regard to rough diamonds: and as the last method appears the shortest, and most easy to be understood, that method will be made use of on this occasion.

This is to be known, by applying the price they bear manufactured, which has been shewn, viz. that, as rough diamonds are valued at two pounds the carat, a wrought diamond of one carat is worth eight pounds; so to find the value of a stone of that degree of goodness, whatever number of carats are contained in such a diamond, each is to be valued at 8 pounds; and whatever sum they make, must be multiplied by the weight of the diamond. The instances are as follow:

First INSTANCE.

To find the value of such a diamond of 5 carats weight, reckon every carat at eight pounds; then multiply 5 carats by 8 pounds, that makes 40 pounds; so every carat is to be valued at 40 pounds; then multiply 5 by 40, that produces 200. and is the value of such a diamond.

E X A M P L E.

Multiplied by	-	5 carats
		40 pounds
Makes the total	-	200

Second INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{8}$, at the rate of 8 pounds the carat, multiply 5 by 8, that makes 40; then add to that the value of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 8 pounds, that is one pound; so the value of every carat in this stone is 41 pounds; then multiply 5 by 41, that makes 205 pounds; next add the value of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 41 pounds, that makes 5 l. 2 s. 6 d. These two sums cast up reduce 210 l. 2 s. 6 d. and is the value of the diamond.

E X A M P L E.

Multiply by	-	5 carats
		41 pounds
Makes		205
To which is added the value	}	5 2 6
of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 41 l. which is		
Makes the total	-	210 2 6

Third INSTANCE.

One of five carats $\frac{1}{4}$, the value of each carat is 42 pounds; multiply 5 by 42, that makes 210 pounds; Then add the value of $\frac{1}{4}$ of 42 l. which is 10 10

Makes the total - - - 220 10

R E M A R K S.

There being divers curious tables in the ingenious Mr. Jefferies's treatise of diamonds, relating to this new method of computation, I would recommend the perusal thereof to all persons of distinction, who are purchasers of these jewels, as well as dealers therein: and as there have certainly been counterfeit diamonds imposed upon the world, and that gentleman has offered his service to the public, as an agent or broker therein, in order to prevent gentlemen being defrauded; I should think it the interest of people of figure to employ so skilful a person, in a matter wherein they are liable to be greatly deceived. Nay, it has been said, that even a royal personage of this kingdom was shamefully imposed upon in jewels, which gave occasion to the following lines:

But Annius, crafty feer, with ebon wand,
And well dissembled em'rald in his hand,
Falsè as his gems, and canker'd as his coins, &c.
POPE'S Dunciad.

The ingenious Mr. Ellicot, an eminent watchmaker in the city of London, hath given a memorial in the Philosophical Transactions for 1745, on the specific gravity of diamonds, whose climate, size, and transparency differ. These differences produce not on the gravity $\frac{1}{100}$. The specific gravity of the diamonds of Brazil is to that of the oriental ones, as 3513 is to 3517. Some fine stones found in the mountains in the neighbourhood of Baffa, a large town of the isle of Cyprus, are called

Baffa diamonds; they are much esteemed, and may be easily taken for true ones, though the connoisseurs find some difference.

A letter from Mr. John Ellicot, F. R. S. to the president, concerning the specific gravity of diamonds, read July 4, 1745.

As from some experiments I have lately had the opportunity of making, it appears highly probable, that what has formerly been published concerning the specific gravity of diamonds, is not to be depended upon; I hope a short account of these experiments will not be unacceptable, especially as I do not find the least notice taken of the specific gravity of diamonds, in any of the tables published in the Philosophical Transactions.

In the account the honourable Mr. Boyle has given of diamonds (as published by Dr. Shaw, in his abridgment of that gentleman's philosophical works*) he relates it 'as the opinion of a famous and experienced cutter of diamonds, that some rough diamonds were considerably heavier than others, of the same bigness, especially, if they were cloudy or foul; and Mr. Boyle mentions one that weighed 8 grains and $\frac{3}{4}$; which, being carefully weighed in water, according to the rules of hydrostatics, proved to an equal bulk of that liquor, as $2\frac{2}{3}$ to 1; so that, as far as could be judged by that experiment, a diamond weighs not thrice so much as water.' And yet, in this table of specific gravities, that of a diamond is said to be to water as 3400 to 1000, or as 3, 4 to 1; and therefore, according to these two accounts, there should be some diamonds, whose specific gravity shall differ nearly the $\frac{1}{3}$ from others; which, I am persuaded, is a much greater difference than could be expected in any bodies of the same kind, or that which, on a more nice examination, will be found to be in diamonds.

* Page 83. vol. v. new edition of Mr. Boyle's works in folio.

The first diamonds I had the opportunity of seeing weighed, were two very large ones from the Brazils, which were furnished by Mr. Chace, a merchant in Austin-friars: the specific gravities of these were found to be much greater than the heaviest of Mr. Boyle's, the one being as 3518, and the other as 3521 to 1000, and the difference between them less than the one thousandth part. There were two smaller Brazil diamonds weighed at the same time, which indeed were not quite so heavy as the former, the lightest being but as 3501, the other as 3511; but as these were of the same kind, and comparatively small, I judged this difference could not be much depended on. Having had therefore an opportunity, some time since, of a large parcel of East-India diamonds, I chose out 10, which, both in shape and colour, and every other respect, were as different from each other as possible. These being weighed in the same scales and water as the former, the lightest proved to be as 3512, and the heaviest as 3525; the very near agreement of these last with each other, and with the former, though weighed at about eight months distance, makes it highly probable, that so great a difference as appears from the place above-cited, and Mr. Boyle's table, is not to be found in any diamonds whatsoever, much less so great a difference as appears between the lightest of his, and the heaviest of mine, being above $\frac{1}{7}$ of the whole.

I had never made any experiments myself, by which I could form a judgment, how much of the difference between these and former trials might arise from the different tempers and qualities of the waters used; warm water being lighter than cold, and pump-water generally heavier than river-water: but, taking it for granted, that all persons who make such experiments use common and not mineral waters, and waters of the natural temper, and not heated designedly, I am assured by a friend, who has made many careful trials for this particular purpose (an account of which he has promised me he shall lay before the royal society) that the specific gravity of any body will not differ above $\frac{1}{1000}$ at the most, on account of the quality of the water and temper taken together; whereas the heaviest of Mr. Boyle's diamonds, as in his tables, differs from the lightest of mine, by above one thirty-fifth part, which is about six times as much as $\frac{1}{1000}$: and yet I can think of no other way of accounting for the rest of this difference, unless it should arise from the smallness of the diamonds, or any defect in the instruments with which his experiments were made.

The scales in which these diamonds were weighed, turned very sensibly with the two hundredth part of a grain; and, as one of the diamonds weighed above 92 grains, it was capable of being weighed to less than the 18,000th part: several of them were weighed twice over, both in water and air, and the weights found to agree to the greatest exactness; and if to this is added the very near agreement of the weights of the several diamonds, though weighed at different times, and at a considerable distance from each other, I think it highly improbable, that there could be any considerable mistake in these trials; and therefore their specific gravities, as in the following table, may fully be depended on.

I have set down the weights of the several diamonds both in air and water; that, if any mistake should have happened, it may be the more easily rectified.

I am, SIR, with the greatest respect,
Your obedient humble servant,
JOHN ELLICOT.

		In air.	In wa- ter.	Spec. grav.
N	Water -			1000
1	ABrazil diamond, fine water, } rough coat	92,425	66,16	3518
2	ABrazil diamond, fine water, } rough coat	88,21	63,16	3521
3	Ditto, fine bright coat	10,025	7,170	3511
4	Ditto, fine bright coat -	9,500	6,830	3501
5	An East-India diamond, pale } blue	26,485	18,945	3512
6	Ditto, bright yellow -	23,33	16,71	3524
7	Ditto, very fine water, bright } coat	20,66	14,8	3525
8	Ditto, very bad water, honey- } comb coat	20,38	14,59	3519
9	Ditto, very hard bluish cast -	22,5	16,1	3515
10	Ditto, very soft, good water	22,615	16,2	3525
11	Ditto, a large red foul in it	25,48	18,23	3514
12	Ditto, soft bad water	29,525	21,140	3521
13	Ditto, soft brown coat	26,535	18,99	3516
14	Ditto, very deep green coat	25,25	18,08	3521

The mean specific gravity of the Brazil diamonds }
appears to be - } 3513
The mean of the East-India diamonds - } 3519
The mean of both to be - } 3517

DIRECTION-CHAMBER, is a court instituted in Old Spain, for the regulation of divers affairs, relating to their commerce to the Spanish West-Indies.

In order to dispatch the business of this court, the president and commissioners, or judges by office, meet; and if any notable affair occurs, which the president thinks fit to consult the oydores, or lawyers, about, he sends for them, who take their places according to seniority.

So great variety of people repairing to this chamber on business, it was impossible to assign every degree its place; but the general rule is, that the *seinte y quattros*, or aldermen of Seville; *jurados*, another sort of magistrates, &c. sit on the side benches, all others standing below. Any nobleman of Castile, counsellor of the king, or archbishop, have a chair under the canopy, on the president's left-hand; but all others, though admirals, sit on the side benches.

The whole jurisdiction was in this chamber alone, 'till the erecting the chamber of justice in 1563. From their first institution 'till that time, they had full power in all cases relating to affairs of the West-Indies. Suits arising on matters not concerning the king's revenue, may be tried at the parties pleasure, before this or any other court; and so in case of controversies arising after the fleet is cleared, and goods delivered, unless the parties be owners, or masters of ships, pilots, or sailors.

This court has the right of trying those that lose ships, or are the cause of it; and of those that intercept or break open letters sent to the West-Indies. In trials between several owners of one ship, about the sale or freight of her, no appeal is allowed from this tribunal to the council. Factors, not answering their merchants returns, may, by their order, be brought from the West-Indies; and even have been taken out of churches, giving security not to inflict corporal punishment. This chamber takes all sureties, as well for their own officers as for admirals, vice-admirals, and masters of ships trading to the West-Indies, of all which copies are delivered to the solicitor.

If any business occur when the court is not sitting, the commissioners are called together. The president, or in his absence, the eldest commissioner, delivers what has been determined. When any thing is put to the vote, the court is cleared, and the youngest speaks first, but the eldest signs first. If they cannot agree in opinion, and the delay will not be prejudicial, 'tis referred to the king, sending the several opinions to the council. But, if the business requires dispatch, or is not of great moment, most votes carry it; he that dissent may enter his dissent, but must sign the decree, to give it the greater authority.

This court also makes choice of ships, both in the armadas and *flotas*; pays the hire of ships occasionally pressed to make up the armadas; admits those thought fit to make up the *flotas*; appoints masters, licences, passengers, examines all rates and contracts for provisions, &c. passes all orders for payments out of the revenue, &c. as also for freight due to masters of vessels, and for defraying religious persons, that go to the West-Indies on the king's account. He has also in charge making the most of uncoined silver and gold, pearls,

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emeralds, and other commodities of the revenue, fines, salaries of the council, &c. puts up, and disposes all packets of letters from the king, or private persons, and forwards all that come over for the king and council.

The president and commissioners are to look to the receipt of the quicksilver brought from the mine at Almaden, or any other place the king shall direct; to see it well put up, according to order, and to observe that all officers under them obey their respective ordinances, and the instructions given them. The commissioners are to draw up the informations against masters of ships, sailors, and passengers, upon their visiting ships, and to examine witnesses, and then refer the whole to the chamber of justice. All warrants for apprehending any persons, issued by either chamber, must be directed to the alguaziles of the same court. No suits are to be sent up to the council before judgment given; no persons apprehended by this court, who appeal to the council to be discharged, 'till their causes are determined; and the alguaziles may be sent to all parts of the kingdom, not excepting the king's court; where, before they execute their warrants, they are to acquaint the king's attorney-general with them.

Any person upon trial, excepting against a judge of either chamber, is to give in the cause of such exception upon oath, in writing; and, if he proves not his allegations, shall be fined the tenth part of the value of the business depending, if the principal exceed not 300,000 maravedies. The president, and other judges, are to declare the sufficiency of the exceptions, as practised in this and all other courts. This is to be done with due modesty, the party begging leave of the president, or of the judge he excepts against; and the petition is not to be delivered to the *escrivano* or clerk, but to the president; for if the causes of exception alleged be not found sufficient to allow it, though they be proved, the petition is to be torn, and the petitioner fined 3000 maravedies.

DIRECTION, the government or conduct of a thing: it signifies also the employ of a director; as likewise the extent of a director's jurisdiction.

DIRECTION, in the matter of gabels in France, is a certain number of salt granaries deposits, and controlls, united under one and the same management, and depending on the same chamber of direction.

They are seventeen in number, which are, Paris, Soissons, Abbeville, St. Quintin, Chalons, Troyes, Orleans, Tours, Anjou, Laval, Le Mans, Berry, Moulins, Rouen, Caen, Alençon, and Dijon.

DIRECTION, in France, is said also of a meeting of many creditors, to compromise a debtor's affairs, as well among themselves as with him. 'Tis so called, because, to avoid confusion and for the sake of good order, they nominate and chuse, by plurality of voices, a few persons to direct them.

DIRECTOR, he who presides in an assembly, or directs and conducts an affair.

We shall speak here only of the directors whose offices relate to trade and mercantile concerns. The chief of these are, the directors of companies, and of the chambers of commerce, [see the article **CHAMBER OF COMMERCE**]; the directors of the five great farms of France, those of the aids and gabels, and the directors of creditors' in the failures and bankruptcy of merchants.

The directors of trading companies in France,

Are usually considerable persons, chose by plurality of voices from among the proprietors or stock-holders, who have a certain quantity of actions in the company's stock, and who are presumed to have most probity, reputation, and experience, in the trade the company carries on.

'Tis not always necessary for them to profess trade, and they are often chosen from among the magistrates and officers of the finances; but it must be confessed, that, howsoever knowing and ingenious directors of this stamp may be, they are far from being so well qualified for the office as skilful, wealthy, and experienced merchants; and 'tis perhaps, in the opinions of good judges, owing hereunto, that many companies established in France, where this election of directors not merchants, is more common than elsewhere, have miscarried.

Their number is often regulated by letters patents, or royal charters, in the states wherein the settlement is made. Sometimes the interested parties or stock-holders, are left to their liberty of chusing as many as they think necessary. It seldom happens that the prince names all of them, but he often appoints some, especially at the first establishment of a trading company.

The Dutch East-India company, which has been a model for most others, hath sixty directors, divided into six chambers; twenty in that of Amsterdam, twelve in Zealand, and seven in each of the chambers of Delft, Rotterdam, Horn, and Enchuyfen.

The French India company, established in 1664, had twenty-one, twelve of the city of Paris, and nine of the other most important and trading cities of the kingdom.

These directors, meeting in a certain number on a day appointed by letters patents, debate on the company's affairs, draw up regulations, subscribe letters, receive the accounts,

make the sub-divisions, sign ordonnances of payment for the cashier's discharge; and lastly, determine concerning the police to be observed, whether among them in Europe, or in the counting-house, lodges, forts, and colonies, where they have deputies residing to carry on their trade, and to regulate their forces for it's security.

It belongs also to the directors or deputies chosen from among them, to appoint the number of vessels, the purchase of them, their fitting out and cargo, the times of their going out, the places they are to touch at in their voyage; and, lastly, the number of officers and sailors, and of the merchants, sub-merchants, writers, and deputies, who are to have care of the merchandizes.

They also, on the return of the ships, receive and examine the journals of the captains and pilots, the bills of lading, purfers accounts; hear the complaints of the crews, and pay them their wages: and, lastly, cause the goods to be laid in the company's warehouses, advertise the public by their bills of the days and hours of their sale, in which the goods are disposed of to the last and highest bidders.

Here might be added more of their functions, but, besides that such an enumeration would be tiresome, these which are the principal, may seem to give a sufficient idea.

Most companies in France allow their directors certain fees of presence, as they are termed, to render them more assiduous in the meetings, and to prevent their affairs suffering, by their not meeting to the number settled by the regulations. In France 'tis customary, beside these dues of presence, to distribute silver medals with the company's arms and device to the directors present, with increase on the part of those absent. Beside these directors who reside in Europe, and there superintend the general oeconomy of the trading companies, they are also in the principal places of Asia, Africa, and America, where they trade, and are distinguished by the title of directors-general, and, by an honourable abbreviation, generals; such is the general of the French company at Pondicherry, the Dutch general at Batavia, and the Danish at Tranquebar.

The English give them the quality of presidents; they have two of them in the East-Indies, one at Surat, and the other at Bantam. But this last has not resided there for some time. These directors-general absolutely dispose of all the company's effects, regulate their trade, establish new counting-houses, command all the merchants, sub-merchants, commissioners, and even captains of ships, make presents to princes and their ministers, send ambassadors to them, make treaties of commerce with them, declare war, &c. in all which they are, indeed, subordinate to the European directors: but, as those orders are long in coming, that it would be frequently dangerous to wait for them, they are a kind of sovereigns, that may do every thing in their masters names, only on advising them thereof when done, either to receive confirmation, or an order to give account of it, according as they are satisfied or otherwise with their conduct.

'Tis true, these generals have usually a council; but which they either do not consult, or seldom follow it's advice: so that it may be said, that although the success of a trading company seems to depend on the assembly of the directors in Europe, who give the orders, it depends still more on the director-general, who is to execute them abroad.

We speak not here of particular directors, who act, whether in Europe or out of it, by order of the directors-general, because they are but deputies, and little different, as to their office, from the directors of the customs, farms, aids, and gabels, of whom we shall speak in another place.

Directors of the chambers of commerce in France. See the article **CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE**.

The decrees of the council of state of Lewis the XIVth, for erecting those chambers in some cities of France, gave the quality of directors, to merchants composing some of those chambers.

In some chambers they are called syndics, and in others deputies.

They are merchants chosen yearly, by plurality of voices, in the different bodies of merchants of the cities, where such chambers are established; they meet once or twice a week in the hall of the city, or other place, appointed by the decrees for erection, there to debate on affairs of trade, and to answer memorials and consultations sent them by the deputy, which each **CHAMBER** keeps at Paris, near the **ROYAL COUNCIL OF COMMERCE**. They also ratify and confirm, or invalidate all contracts in trade, made on the places of exchange in those cities; none of which may be received among the merchants and bankers, unless approved and authenticated by the chamber.

Every meeting-day, silver medals are distributed to them, and a gold medal to each at going out of their office. The number of medals, and the weight and value thereof, are different, according to the different decrees of their establishment.

R E M A R K S.

Under the article **COMPANIES**, we have considered the na-

ture of them in general, and referred to other heads, in order more particularly to elucidate some essential circumstances relating thereto, which, I humbly conceive, may deserve the public attention.

Being at present upon the directors of trading companies, it may not be altogether useless to dwell a little upon this matter. Previous to which I shall take leave to recommend the reader to the articles **ACTION**, **BUBBLE**, and **ASSIENRO**, which will render what I have further to observe the more intelligible.

Although certain exclusive trading companies may not have proved so much to the interests of the national commerce, as if those branches of trade had been, or at least were at present, free and open to all his majesty's subjects; yet some companies, peculiarly circumstanced, may possibly prove beneficial, under certain temporary restrictions and regulations; in order to cut out, by dint of a joint stock capital, such a commerce as could otherwise never have taken place at all, private adventurers neither being able or willing to run the risque necessary upon such commencements.

But, when these new branches of trade have been well established, and the primary adventurers have reaped a reasonable compensation for their hazard, it may not be, at certain points of time, less national to lay them aside, than it was politic first to establish them. And one great reason for this may be, not only the nature and constitution of the company, but the executive management of their affairs, by those who are appointed their governors and directors. For, although the constitution of a company be ever so wisely and nationally devised, yet, if corruption once creeps into the public management, there is seldom any end of it, 'till it draws on, and terminates in a catastrophe generally calamitous.—Some of these may, perhaps, spin out their state of corruption, by a regular succession of villains to a long day; and therefore the evil appears the less flagrant and nefarious, by being so artfully concealed, as only to steal gradually, and, as it were, insensibly, upon the public; whereby the property of such companies changing hands so often, and every new proprietor losing only a little, the malignancy of the corruption has been stifled; and though it has not, from the length of time, appeared with so flagitious an aspect, yet it has not in reality been the less enormous.

What renders evils of this kind the more universally injurious, is, that by far the greater majority of the proprietors are widows and orphans, and other persons, who are not sufficiently knowing in the affairs of public companies, to effectually detect any scenes of iniquity that may be carrying on.—Nay, experience hath evinced, that many of the directors themselves have been excluded from the grand secret, which was hatching by the superlative harpies, to enrich and aggrandize themselves on the ruin of thousands: and, if those within doors, who have set at the board of direction, have sometimes been egregiously deceived by their brethren, 'tis no wonder, that all without doors have too often been their dupes and bubbles.

Wherefore, it is not only the right and national constitution of a public trading company that is necessary, the upright conduct and management of their affairs is vigilantly to be inspected. For, if the directors of such companies are either weak or wicked, they may be instrumental to the greatest public calamity, as hath proved the case. Is it not the interest, therefore, of the most sagacious proprietors, to make themselves masters, not only of the nature and constitution of such corporations, but of the conduct of their successive directors? If those who are the most skilful and experienced, will not take this trouble upon them; if they will not duly attend the general courts, and studiously inform themselves of whatever passes, can they expect that the widow and the orphan, and those that are unborn, should take care of their interest for them?

Nor are the qualifications of integrity and ability the only ones requisite in such a director; due attention and application to the public business is equally necessary; for acts of neglect and omission may be as detrimental to the proprietors, as those of commission; and although some should think, that they may not deserve that degree of punishment, yet they merit such as is adequate to their criminal conduct: nay, it may be a moot point with the casuist to determine, whether acts of omission, especially in cases where the welfare of thousands is concerned, are not equally culpable with those of commission; for the weight of interest, honour, and reputation of such, may prove wire-draws to numbers to embark in these corporations, who would never have done so, if the high character, credit, and disinterestedness of some of the managers, were not the inducement: and, if these neglect their duty, why are they not as criminal as those who commit acts of supererogation, to enrich themselves by the public plunder?

DIRECTORS OF CREDITORS, are persons of ability and probity, chosen in France by votes of the creditors, to inspect and examine the debtor's affairs, and to procure as far as possible, by common methods of justice, the payment of what's due to each in particular.

These kind of directions are chiefly used in the failure or bankruptcy of some trader or merchant, whose affairs are in a bad situation; but who, though unfortunate, is of integrity, and puts himself in the hands of his creditors, without concealing any of his effects.

If the failure is considerable, the directors chosen are, for their own security, to cause the act of their nomination to be confirmed, in the consular jurisdiction, if there be one at the place; if not, in such other jurisdictions as are where the failure happens; and to have chose, by the same assembly that names them, a notary to receive the acts of the deliberations, which shall be made by the general assemblies of the creditors, of which they are likewise to note the place, days, and hour of sitting, that none may have cause of complaint, or plead ignorance.

The powers usually given them by the creditors, are:

To proceed to make a schedule of all the effects, both active and passive; and of registers, bundles of letters, and other papers of their debtor.

To see and examine the estate they shall have produced, his books and records, and to see if they are within the terms of the ordonnance made for that purpose. See **BANKRUPT**.

To cause his wares and moveables to be sold, and to deposit the money in the hands, either of the notary of the direction, or of some other responsible person.

To sue for, and recover all the active debts.

Lastly, to examine the contracts of constitutions, transactions, obligations, letters, bills of exchange, and other vouchers, of those who pretend to be creditors, in order to report all these things to the general assemblies.

The principal obligations of the directors are, not to make advantage of their power, and the confidence reposed in them, but to use it for the good and advantage of all the creditors in general.

To admit no one to the meetings who is not a creditor, or at least charged with a letter of attorney, by some one whose credit is indisputable.

To bring the opposing parties to a consent at the opening of the seals, and to appoint the senior to act in behalf of all.

To examine, in proceeding to the inventory of the goods, the pieces that are claimed, to be restored to their owners, in case they are acknowledged to be such as they ought, according to the observed custom in such cases.

The schedule of goods, moveables, and papers being made, to examine the book and memoirs, to see if they are conformable to the estate of his effects given in.

To cause the bankrupt to give an account of his actions, that is to say of his losses, and whether they proceed from shipwrecks, bankruptcies of his debtors, and other such-like events, merely unfortunate.

To examine exactly the credit of such creditor, their hypothec and right to the goods of the bankrupt, even of the wife's right, to avoid all surprize, too common on these occasions.

To view attentively the dates of the sales of immoveables, cessions of active debts, bills of exchange drawn, or orders passed by the bankrupt; to see if they be not made to suspected persons, and within too short a time of his failure.

To draw out a true state, in debit and credit, of all his effects, active and passive.

Lastly, to give an account, and make an exact and faithful report, by one of the directors at the general meeting of the creditors, of all their observations and discoveries, not severely exaggerating any thing against the debtor, or favouring him through false pity; not making any overture either for or against him, but leaving to himself the liberty of making his proposals, and to the creditors of accepting them, by a remittance, or time, or of treating him with rigour by sale of his effects, and dividing to themselves the produce.

DIRECTORS GENERAL of the five great farms of the gabels, and aids, &c. in France, are chief commissioners, who have the direction of these farms, each in the districts appointed them by the general farmers. They have not the inspection of each other; but each hath the general direction of his district; whence the quality of directors general hath been given equally to all, being not accountable to any but the general farmers.

They are to make a circuit at least once a year, in all the courts under their directions; they examine and take the receivers accounts, registers of comptrollers, and inform themselves of the conduct of others employed, whom they may, in some cases, even deprive of their authority, till it shall be otherwise ordered by the superiors.

There is also, in the custom-house of Paris, a general director of accounts, to whom are sent all the accounts of the general directors, to be examined, and put in condition to be settled by those who are charged with that office by the farmers general.

DISCOUNT, a term used among traders, merchants, and bankers. When by the two former, it is used sometimes on occasion of their buying commodities on the usual time of credit, with a condition that the seller shall allow the buyer a certain discount, at the rate of so much per cent. per annum, for the time for which the credit is generally given,

upon condition that the buyer pays ready money for such commodities, instead of taking the time of credit. Also traders and merchants, frequently taking promissory notes for monies due payable to them, or order, at a certain time, and sometimes having occasion for money before the time is elapsed, procure those notes to be discounted by bankers, or other monied men, before the time of payment; which discount is more or less, according to the credit and reputation of the person who drew the note, and the indorser, or indorsers, &c. Bills of exchange also are discounted by bankers, and the bank of England; wherein consists one article of the profits of banking. See **BANKING**.

The Sieur de la Porte informs us, that they make a distinction in France with regard to money due for the purchase and sale of commodities, and on account of raising money by discounting bills of exchange; the latter being computed upon the principles of common interest, by so much on the 100l. and that occasioned by commodities, on the hundred pound and the discount added together: but, bills of exchange being far more frequently negociable on the account of the sale and purchase of merchandize, than by the way of mere banking, either of a foreign or domestic nature, there seems to be no reason for this distinction.

REMARKS.

This affair of discount being too generally mistaken, it may be necessary to say something upon the subject.

Dr Harris, in his Lexicon, tells us, that the discount for one day is asserted to be the 365th part of a year: however this mistake came, I know not; but his two folio pages of tables of discount, being constructed upon the same principle, are likewise erroneous, as are all those which have been since built thereupon.

The most accurate tables of discount extant in our language, that I have met with, are those of Mr. Smart, which are founded upon the following true principles of decimal arithmetic. See **ARITHMETIC**.

To find the annual discount of one pound, at 2 per cent. divide .02 by 1.02; and 2½ per cent. divide .025 by 1.025; at 3 per cent. by 1.03; at 3½ per cent. .035 by 1.035, &c. and the several quotients will be the discounts required.

And thus the discount of one pound for one year is found, at the several rates following, viz.

At 2 per cent. the discount is found to be	.0196,0784,5237
2½ - - - - -	.0243,9024,3902
3 - - - - -	.0291,2621,3592
3½ - - - - -	.0338,1642,5121
4 - - - - -	.0384,6153,8462
4½ - - - - -	.0430,6220,0957
5 - - - - -	.0476,1904,7619
6 - - - - -	.0566,0377,3585
7 - - - - -	.0654,2056,0748
8 - - - - -	.0740,7407,4074
9 - - - - -	.0825,6880,7339
10 - - - - -	.0909,0909,0909

The discount of one pound, for one year, being multiplied by any principal sum, the product will be the annual discount of that principal.

EXAMPLES.

What is the discount of 100l. for one year, at 5 per cent?
The discount of one pound for one year, at 5 per cent. is .0476,19, &c.
Which multiplied by the principal sum

The product will be 4,7619, &c.

Answer, l. 4 : 15 : 2¼.

So that he who allows 5l. for the discount of 100l. for one year, at 5 per cent. (than which nothing is more common) wrongs himself; for he ought to receive so much money as, at 5 per cent. interest, will amount to 100l. in one year, which less than l. 95 : 4 : 9¼ will not do.

What is the discount of 9342 l. at 4½ per cent. for one year?

The discount of one pound for one year, as above, at 4½ per cent. is .0430,62, &c.
Which multiplied by the principal sum = 9342

The product will be 402,2852, &c.

Answer, l. 402 : 5 : 8¼.

Thus the annual discount of any sum is found, by one multiplication.

The discount of one pound for any number of days is found thus, viz. first, find in the table of simple interest [see **INTEREST TABLES**] what is the interest of one pound, for any given number of days, at any given rate: then say, by the

the common rule of three, As 1 l. and the interest so found, is to 1 l. so is 1 l. to a fourth number, the arithmetical complement of which said fourth number, will be the discount of 1 l. for the same number of days, at the same rate. Or, to express it otherwise, divide unity by 1 l. and the interest thereof, and the arithmetical complement of the quotient, will be the discount required.

EXAMPLE at 5 per cent.

1 l find 1 l. and the interest thereof, for 1 day, to be	1.0001,3699
2	1.0002,7397
3	1.0004,1096
4	1.0005,4795
5	1.0006,8493
	&c.

Then divide unity by

1.0001,3699	} And the quotient will be	9998,6303	} The arithmetical complement of which is	1.0001,3697	} And is the discount of one pound for	1
1.0002,7397		.9997,2610		.0002,7390		2
1.0004,1096		.9995,8921		.0004,1079		3
1.0005,4795		.9994,5235		.0005,4765		4
1.0006,8493		.9993,1554		.0006,8446		5
1.0008,2192		.9991,7876		.0008,2124		6
1.0009,5890		.9990,4202		.0009,5798		7
1.0010,9589		.9989,0531		.0010,9469		8
1.0012,3288		.9987,6864		.0012,3136		9
1.0013,6986		.9986,3201		.0013,6799		10
1.0136,9863		.9864,8649		.0135,1351		100
1.0273,9726		.9733,3333		.0266,6667		200
		&c.				

And thus the tables of discount may be constructed for use. With respect to the various discounts and allowances granted by several acts of parliament to merchants, importers and exporters, see the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE at the end of letter A, concerning the manner of computing the DUTIES of customs, and deducting the several discounts: and see, also the conclusive part of letter A, following the RULES, ORDERS, and DIRECTIONS, &c. relative to the custom-house discounts.

DISCREDIT, loss or diminution of the credit any thing had before. This word is in France, says Mr. Savary, very new, the use of it not having been introduced into commerce but since the year 1719, when the decrees of the council of state used it to express the loss sustained by the actions of the India company, bank-bills, and the little currency they had with the public.

The term was invented in opposition to that of credit, which signifies the favour that trading bills, as well public as private, are wont sometimes to have suddenly, according to the conjunctures, in the negotiations between merchants and bankers.

DISTILLATION. The arts here to be considered are those of malt-distilling, rectifying, and compounding.

EXPERIMENT I.

The method of distilling malt-wash, or a fermented mixture of meal and malt for spirit.

Fill two thirds of a still, first moistened by the steam of boiling water, with malt-wash; immediately clap on the head, and lute it down, there will soon run a spirituous inflammable liquor.

Thus is obtained what the malt-distillers call a malt low wine; what comes over, after the spirit falls off from being proof, is called faints.

This experiment may be rendered general, with slight variation, for, if any wine, beer, or fermented liquor from sugar, treacle, fruits, &c. be thus treated, it affords a spirit, differing only according to the nature of the subject.

But none of them will afford the least inflammable spirit without a previous fermentation.

The requisite cautions for success are, (1.) That the fermentation be well performed. (2.) That it be gently distilled, with a soft, well-regulated fire. (3.) That the grosser oil, apt to rise along with the spirit, be let out by flannel under the nose of the worm. These cautions observed, the low wines will be pure and vinous.

All the spirit being thus obtained, there remains in the still what they commonly call bottoms, generally given to the hogs.

EXPERIMENT II.

The method of simple rectification, or distilling the lower wines into proof spirits for sale.

The lower wines of the last experiment, distilled in a bath-heat, give a higher rectified spirit than before; which being let down with fair water, to a certain size or standard, called proof, which the malt-distillers understand by proof-goods, or their rectified malt-spirit.

The inconveniences of this art, on account of the many large vessels required, which increase the labour and price of the commodity, might, perhaps, be remedied by the introduction of a new art, subservient to the malt-distillers, and confined to the boiling down the malt-wort to a rob: wherefore we recommend it to those who are skilled in this branch of distillation, to try whether a spirit superior to that of treacle

may not be procured from the rob of malt, prudently prepared and fermented.

EXPERIMENT III.

The art of a rectifier; by which the proof-goods are made into a cleaner spirit, for the finer uses of the compounder and apothecary.

If three ounces of a mixture of tartar and nitre, calcined to a blackness, be added to two gallons of the common proof-spirit of the last experiment, and all that will run in an uninterrupted stream be drawn over with a bath-heat. This spirit, made proof with fair water, is the common saleable proof-goods of the rectifying distiller, when he works to a truth. If it be desired still cheaper, one of the best methods is, to dilute the strongest part, that comes over first, with a large proportion of water, and draw off the spirit gently again in balneo, making it up proof with fine soft water. But this gives the spirit a nauseous and disagreeable flavour; nor do the rectifiers know any good method for the purpose, being little apprehensive that it is the oil of the malt residing in the spirit which causes all their trouble; or that it is the essential oil of the subject which gives to malt-spirits, brandies, rums, and arracks, their particular flavour: for if, by separating it, the spirit could be rendered flavourless and tasteless, it would be susceptible of any by the addition of other essential oils, so as to resemble either French brandy, rum, or arrack.

The chemists have helped them to a tolerable expedient for covering the imperfections which they cannot cleanse, viz. by adding dulcified spirit of nitre; a small proportion whereof gives an agreeable vinosity to a hoghead of spirit: but this has its inconvenience; for the flavour is apt to be lost, when the spirit is kept in a cask, though successful, if well stopped down in a glass.

The art of the rectifier might be set aside as useless, if the original malt-distiller could make his spirits perfect at a second operation, as we judge it might, and would recommend as an improvement, first, the brewing in perfection; secondly, the keeping their wash, after the manner of stale beer, 'till it has entirely lost its malt flavour, and acquired a pungent acid vinosity; and, thirdly, leaving out the lees, to distil with a well-regulated fire. It is scarce to be conceived how agreeable a spirit may be thus procured from malt, at the very first distillation.

EXPERIMENT IV.

The method of examining proof in spirits, and detecting the invalidity of the common way of judging of the purity, genuineness, and goodness of brandies, rums, and arracks.

The common method, by striking a phial of common proof-spirit against the palm of the hand, is a mere fallacy and deception.

To prevent being imposed upon in this way, we might have recourse to the hydrostatical balance: a gallon of alcohol is computed to weigh seven pounds and a half, and a gallon of water eight pounds; whence the compound gravity of an equal mixture of both may be assigned. See the article BRANDY.

One of the best methods to prevent being imposed on, is to acquire a habit of judging by the taste and smell.

The best method of making cordial or compound waters.

Infuse a pound of fresh citron-peel in two gallons of good mellasse spirit; draw off the spirit gently by the still, with care to avoid the faints; then making up, as they call it, with soft water, so as to leave the liquor proof, add half a pound of fine sugar: and thus is procured a genuine citron-water.

This is general, and shews the usual methods of making all the compound or cordial waters, by those called compounders, and also by the apothecaries.

The perfection of this branch of distillation depends upon the observance of a few rules, easy to be complied with; which we shall here lay down, as judging them of consequence to the improvement not only of the art of the compounder, but also of a branch of pharmacy and medicine.

(1.) To use a well-cleansed spirit, freed from its own essential oil. For, as the spirit is to be impregnated with the essential oil of other ingredients, it ought first to have deposited its own.

(2.) To suit the time of previous digestion to the tenacity of the ingredients, or the ponderosity of their oil. Thus rhodium-wood and cinnamon require longer digestion than calamus aromaticus, or lemon-peel: sometimes, also, cohobation proves necessary, as particularly in making the strong cinnamon-water.

(3.) To suit the fire, or strength of the distillation, to the ponderosity of the oil intended to be raised with the spirit. Thus cinnamon water should be distilled off brisker than the spirit of mint or baum.

(4.) That a due proportion of only the fine essential oil of the ingredients be thoroughly united with the spirit, so as to keep out the grosser and less fragrant oil.

This may be chiefly effected by leaving out the saints, and making up to strong proof with fine soft water, in their stead. And on the observance of these four easy rules, the perfection of the art of compound distillation seems to depend. The addition of fine sugar, being of little moment, may be used or omitted occasionally. And, if these directions be observed, there will be no need of fining down cordial waters with allum, whites of eggs, or the like, as they will be presently bright, sweet, and pleasant-tasted, without farther trouble.

REMARKS.

1. We learn from our present enquiry, that inflammable spirits are produced by vinous fermentation.
2. That the action of fermentation produces such a change in the wash, as renders it separable by fire into several portions of matters, besides the inflammable spirit, specifically different from what the liquor would have afforded without fermentation.
3. That, at different times of distillation, there comes over a liquor of different properties, viz. first, an extremely acrid, aromatic, and biting one, which goes off by degrees, and ends in acidity.
4. That the art of malt-distilling may be considerably improved, (1.) By reducing the brewing and fermenting parts to one operation; (2.) by distilling slow; and, (3.) by keeping out the gross oil of the subject.
5. That this art may be further improved, by fermenting a clear, well brewed wort, and keeping it to be stale.
6. That the perfection of the art of malt-distilling requires the assistance of a new one, to produce a kind of treacle from malt.
7. That the essential oil of the vegetable subject is what gives to all spirits their particular odours and flavours.
8. That the finest and most efficacious part of this oil, always rises first in distillation.
9. That the purity of the spirit, merely such, greatly depends on their being cleaned first of their essential oil, next of the phlegm.
10. That brandies are a mixture of one half water, and the other alcohol; and, therefore, their water may be commodiously left behind, upon exportation or carriage.
11. That the perfection of rectification depends upon finding out a simple method of separating all the oil and water from a spirit.
12. That a sure method of determining the strength of brandies, is by deflagration, or burning away their alcohol; then examining the remaining phlegm by weight or measure.

DISTILLER, he who distilleth, or worketh in that part of chemistry, which, by means of fire, raised to certain degrees, separates, and draws, from mixtures, waters, spirits, essences, and extracts.

Physicians and apothecaries cannot dispense without most of the chemical operations performed by distillation; and many artisans require for their work oils, strong waters, and divers other drugs, that are distilled by the alembic.

Distillation, so useful both for health and trade, may nevertheless be very contrary to both, by the ill use that is easily made of it; for, as it supplies excellent remedies for the conservation of life, and drugs for several manufactures, so likewise the deadliest poisons are prepared by it, and waters that change and dissolve metals for purification.

To prevent the ill effects of an operation otherwise so necessary, several ordinances, decrees, and regulations, have been made, especially for the city of Paris, where no one is permitted to have furnaces, alembics, retorts, recipients, and other vessels and utensils proper for that part of chemistry, without letters obtained from the king, or permissions from the magistrates, or, lastly, unless he be received master in the company of distillers there established.

The royal ordinances, and regulations of the police, permitting those only to distil who have obtained letters, are ancient, and have been often renewed; but, with respect to the company of distillers, it is new, having not subsisted a century.

Of the company of distillers at Paris.

The decree of the court of coins, which erected that company into a sworn body, and gave the statutes, is dated the 5th of April, 1639: the masters are there styled masters of the art and craft of distillers of strong waters, brandy, and other waters, spirits and essences, circumstances and dependences, in the city and suburbs of Paris.

They consist of 25 articles. Two jurats, called also wardens of the craft, of whom one is elected every year, are to see to the performance of them, in conjunction with the two eldest bachelors.

These jurats have a right to visit not only masters, but all who practise chemical distillations, and others who keep furnaces and laboratories for distilling, masters and refiners of the Mint excepted. Besides these visits of the jurats, they are made, from time to time, by two officers of the court of coins, expressly deputed for those extraordinary visits.

No one may exercise the trade of a distiller, unless he is master, nor be received master, unless he has served his apprenticeship.

Apprentices may not be bound for less than four years, and must afterwards serve two years as journeymen, before they take their freedom.

Each master can take but one apprentice at a time.

Every apprentice, not a master's son, must perform a master-piece of work before he can receive his freedom; a master's son, however, is to produce vouchers of his four years service, either with his father or some other.

The master-piece is made in presence of the jurats, and a counsellor of the court of coins.

Beside what relates to distillation, the candidate is to be examined, whether he can read and write, and to shew by certificate that he is 24 years of age. Masters sons are not exempt from these two articles, no more than from the new examen, that all are to undergo, when they appear at the court to take the oath.

Widows, continuing such, may have furnaces, and keep journeymen, but not bind apprentices.

Master distillers are permitted to distil all sorts of strong waters, oils, spirits, and essences, except aqua regia, which all persons, of what quality soever, are prohibited to make or sell, lest it should be used to diminish the coin, without altering the impress.

The masters are obliged to keep a register of the quantity of strong waters they vend, and of the quality, names, and abode of the persons to whom sold, and not to sell more than two pounds at a time, without permission of the court, unless to the masters of the Mint, and to the refiners.

They may not lend their furnaces, nor suffer foreigners to work at them at home, without permission likewise obtained, and are even obliged to give notice to the court of coins, of persons whom they know to have a laboratory and furnaces, without having had letters or permission.

Foreign merchandizes are to be brought by the merchants to the company's court, to be viewed; no distiller of Paris may buy them, nor foreign dealer sell, before such inspection.

Lastly, all contests relating to the said trade, the visitations of jurats, masters, apprentices, and journeymen, are to be referred to the court of monies, to which alone the cognizance is reserved, on pain of 500 livres fine.

Distillers in brandies, and spirit of wine, is one of the qualifications that the master vinegar-makers of Paris take in their statutes.

A short history of the laws of England in regard to Distillers.

Stat. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 4. A distiller shall not keep any private pipe, stop-cock, &c. by which liquors fit for distillation may be conveyed from one back, or vessel, to another, under the penalty of 100l. and officers of the excise, with a constable, &c. may dig and break up the ground, or other place, to search for such pipes, &c. which shall be seized as forfeited, &c.

6 Geo. I. cap. 20. Distillers to make an entry of all warehouses for keeping brandy, on pain of 20l. and forfeiture of the liquor; and no brandy shall be sold but in places entered, under penalty of 40s. a gallon.

2 Geo. II. c. 17. An excise duty of 5s. per gallon to be paid by distillers for all mixed or compound waters called gin, geneva, &c. and entries made of stills and still-houses, on pain of forfeiting 20l. Retailers of these liquors, selling less than a gallon, to take out a licence at the chief excise-office, and pay 20l. yearly, or shall forfeit 50l. But waters used by apothecaries, and arrack, rum, citron-water, Irish usquebaugh, &c. are excepted.

3 Geo. II. cap. 7. Cyder, &c. used in distilling strong waters, shall be exempted from the duty of excise; but distillers, using it in any other way but distillation, are liable to 5l. penalty.

6 Geo. II. cap. 17. Duty on compound waters or spirits, and French brandy, &c. taken off, and other duties granted, of 1s. and 2s. a gallon, to be raised in the same manner as excise upon beer, &c. and distillers or others may export spirits drawn from corn of Great-Britain, without other mixture, and, on oath that duties are paid, shall be allowed a drawback of 4l. 18s. per ton, &c.

9 Geo. II. cap. 23. No person to retail brandy, rum, or geneva, by any name, in less quantity than two gallons, without first taking out licences, and paying 50l. to the next office of excise, &c. on penalty of 100l. and persons retailing these spirituous liquors to pay a duty of 20s. per gallon: such retailers are to make a true entry of all their warehouses, shops, cellars, &c. under the penalty of 20l. and 40s. for every gallon of liquor concealed; and officers for the said duties have power to enter warehouses, and take an account thereof.

If any person who sells goods, wares, or provisions by retail, do give away any spirituous liquors to servants, &c. it shall be deemed a retailing them: and no person shall hawk, or sell brandy, &c. about the streets, highways, or fields, in any wheelbarrow or basket, or on a bulk, stall, or shed, &c. on pain of 10l. being convicted before a justice; and, not pay-

ing it, to be committed to the house of correction for two months.

This act shall not extend to physicians or apothecaries, &c. as to any spirituous liquors used in medicines, nor to charge with duties aqua vitæ retailed in Scotland: and persons who have been distillers seven years, may exercise any other trade, &c.

10 Geo. II. c. 17. Forfeitures imposed on unlawful retailers of spirituous liquors, &c. to be recovered and mitigated as by laws of excise, except otherwise ordained by 9 Geo. II. cap. 23.

And, where offenders cannot pay fines, the commissioners to advance rewards for information; and such offenders to be whipped.

11 Geo. II. cap. 26. The occupiers of any house, or place, where spirituous liquors are sold, if privy thereto, to be judged retailers, and forfeit 100l. and persons to the number of five that, in a riotous manner, assemble to beat or wound informers, or rescue offenders, shall be guilty of felony, and transported: and, if any officer of the peace refuses to be aiding in execution of these acts, he shall forfeit 20l. to be levied by distress and sale.

16 Geo. II. cap. 8. The duties laid by stat. 9 Geo. II. cap. 23. are repealed. No person shall retail any distilled spirituous liquors, without first taking out a licence from the commissioners of excise, &c. and paying 20s. yearly, under the penalty of 10l. or to be committed to the house of correction, and kept to hard labour for two months. These licences are to be granted only to persons who keep taverns, victualling-houses, inns, coffee-houses, or alehouses.

17 Geo. II. cap. 17. But if such tavern-men, &c. shall afterwards, during his licence, exercise the trade of a distiller, grocer, or chandler, or keep a brandy-shop for sale of spirituous liquors, his licence shall be void, and he forfeit 10l. for every offence.

19 Geo. II. cap. 12. Additional duties to be paid on spirituous liquors over and above what is already payable.

For every gallon of low wines, or spirits of the first extraction, drawn from foreign materials, 3d. drawn from wash made of malt, 1 d. drawn from brewers wash, a half-penny; drawn from any other English materials, three-farthings; for every gallon of spirits made of wine or cyder imported, 3d. made of any other materials, three half-pence. Low wines drawn from molasses only, and spirits drawn from such low wines, not subject to this additional duty.

20 Geo. II. cap. 39. Distillers within the bills of mortality, may have licences for retailing spirituous liquors, on payment of 5l. yearly. Distillers in partnership to have but one licence. Distiller not to have a licence, unless inhabiting within the city of London, paying church and poor's rates for the value of 20l. per ann. and, inhabiting in any parts of the bills of mortality, he pay those rates for the value of 10l. per ann. Distiller retailing but in his own shop, and in more than one shop, or permitting tipping in his shop, house, or any place thereunto belonging, forfeits 10l. and every person found tipping there shall forfeit 20s.

DORSETSHIRE, has Somersetshire and Wiltshire on the north; Devonshire, and some part of Somersetshire, on the west; Hampshire on the east; and the English Channel on the south; and is about 150 miles in circumference.

It is esteemed one of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom. The air is somewhat sharp on the hills, mild and pleasant on the coast, and healthy almost throughout. The soil in the vallies is rich, both in pasture and arable, and the downs and hills feed an incredible number of sheep, some of the largest and finest brought to Smithfield market, both for flesh and wool: It produces hemp and flax, and great quantities of cloth are made here, both woollen and linen; and is famous for it's plenty of excellent stone, in the quarries at Portland and Purbeck; in the last of which marble has been found sometimes. Many kinds of useful earth are dispersed up and down the country, particularly the best tobacco-pipe clay, about Pool and Wareham, and exported to London, Chester, &c.

It's principal rivers are the Stower, Frome, Piddle, Lyddon, Dullish, and Allen, whence they are supplied with all sorts of river-fish, as from their ports with sea-fish; and the rocks on the coast abound with samphire and eringo.

DORCHESTER, the shire-town, has almost lost the broad-cloth manufacture, for which it was once so famous, and it's serge-trade is not very considerable; but the townsmen make great profit by their sheep, of which no less than 600,000 are said to be fed within six miles round the town. It is observable, that their downs abound with thyme, and other aromatic herbage, so nourishing that their ewes generally bring two lambs; for which reason they are bought up by the farmers of the east part of England, and even Banstead Downs, so famed for good mutton, are supplied hence.

LYME-REGIS is a fine harbour in the Channel, with a key inferior to none in England. It had formerly a very flourishing trade to France, Spain, &c. and the customs amounted some years to 16,000l. but it stands on such a high steep rock, that the merchants are forced to lade and unlade their goods at a place called the Cobb, a quarter of a mile from it,

which costs a great deal to maintain; and that part of the town which lies at the foot of the rock is so low, that at spring-tides, the cellars, &c. are overflowed 10 or 12 feet, to the great damage of the inhabitants.

WEYMOUTH is a place of some trade still, though not so considerable as formerly, the high duties on French goods having spoiled it in this, and all the ports on the south of England; where a clandestine one too much prevails. The Newfoundland trade thrives here; and it's wine trade is also considerable.

POOL is a populous and rich town, being one of the most considerable ports in the west of England. Here is plenty of good fish, particularly large oysters, which, it is observed, have more and bigger pearls, than any others in England; great numbers of them pickled are sent not only to London, but to the West-Indies, Spain, Italy, &c.

DOVER-PIER and **RYE-HARBOUR**.

Duties for the repair of Dover-Pier and Rye-Harbour.

By 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 5. granted from 1 May 1709, to 1 May 1709.

By 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 7. continued from 30 April 1709, to 1 May 1718.

By 4 Geo. I. cap. 13. thence continued to 1 May 1727.

By 9 Geo. I. cap. 30. continued from 1 May 1723, to 1 May 1744, unless the harbours be repaired and secured sooner.

This duty was first granted for raising 30,100l. towards the repair of Dover-Harbour only: but by 9 Geo. I. cap. 30. and 10 Geo. I. cap. 7. is, from the 1st of May 1723, to be collected for, and appropriated to, the repair of Dover and Rye-Harbours in the following manner, viz.

	The duties.	
	Dover.	Rye.
Sea-coals, for every chalders, and grindstones, for every ton	—	—
The tons or chalders to be accounted according to the entry of goods at the custom-house.	0 0 0 1/2	0 0 1
All other goods, for every ton of the burden of the ship	—	—
	0 0 1	0 0 2

Which duties are payable by the master or owner of every ship or vessel, of the burden of twenty tons or upwards, and not exceeding three hundred tons, for every loading and discharging within this realm, for, from, to, or by Dover, or coming into the harbour there (even if such ships are but transient ships, which put into port, and lie for winds or orders, without making any report, yet take in stores and provisions) not having a cocket (or certificate) testifying the payment before that voyage; except such vessels as are laden with Purbeck or Portland stones, or ships belonging to the ports of Weymouth, Melcomb-Regis, and Lyme-Regis, producing certificates made upon oath before the respective mayors, under the corporation's common seal, That their owners are inhabitants of those corporations, or ships, English built, and manned according to the act of navigation, belonging to Great Yarmouth, producing certificates made upon oath before the bailiffs, under the seal of the office, That the owners, or the major part of them, are inhabitants of the said corporation; or ships belonging to Ramsgate, producing certificates, made upon oath before the mayor of the corporation, of which the said port is a member, That the major part of the owners are inhabitants thereof. But coasters or fishermen are not to pay these duties oftener than once in any one year, unless they shall at any time discharge or load any goods, from, or to, foreign parts; in which case, they must pay only for such foreign voyages.

The Dover duty is to be paid to the customer or collector of the customs, or their deputies, and the Rye duty, to such persons as the mayor and jurats of Rye shall appoint (which is generally the collector of the customs) in the port where the ship shall set forth or arrive, before the loading or unloading of the goods: therefore, at the time of entry of any ship, inwards, outwards, or coastwise, and before the entry of the goods, the said collector or receiver must demand and receive the same: unless the vessel be a coaster, and the master or owner does produce a certificate, whereby it shall appear, that the duties have been paid within twelve months. And, in order to discover the true burden of every ship, according to which these duties ought to be paid, upon her arrival at, or departure from, any port, the collector must require the same to be confirmed upon the oath of the master or owner in the following manner:

James Bell maketh oath, That the burden of the ship the Providence of London, whereof he is master [or owner] now bound for [or lately arrived from] Rotterdam, doth not exceed eighty tons.

Signed—James Bell.

Jurat apud Southampton, 9 die
Jan. 1730, coram me
A. B. Collector.

According

According to which burden, the collector is to demand and receive the duty of the matter or owner; and, upon receipt thereof, must testify the same by a certificate under his hand, in the following form:

Port of Southampton.
These are to certify, That James Bell hath this day paid the Dover-Pier duty of one penny per ton, and the Rye-Harbour duty of two pence per ton, for the ship Providence of London*, burden eighty tons, whereof he [or B. C.] is master for [or from] Rotterdam. Dated the ninth of January 1730.

A. B. Collector.

* If the vessel be a coaster or a fishing vessel, there must be here added—being a coasting or fishing vessel.

So that if such vessel shall put into any other port, during that voyage, to load or discharge any goods, it may appear to the collector there, that these duties have been already paid: and, unless such certificates can be produced, the duties must at all times be demanded and received.

Upon the receipt of any money for these duties, a fair and true entry thereof must be forthwith made, in a proper book to be kept for that purpose; from which, at the end of every quarter, must be transcribed an account, in order to be forthwith transmitted to Mr. —, who, by the warden and assistants of Dover-Harbour, and by the commissioners and trustees of Rye-Harbour, is desired, authorized, and appointed to

Port of South- } An account of all ships and vessels which have laden or discharged any goods in this port, to, for, from, or
ampton. } by Dover; and the duties towards the repair of Dover and Rye Harbours; collected in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731, for such of the said vessels as are liable thereto.

Number of entry.	Dates of entry.	Shipsnames.	Of what place.	Masters names.	Burden of the ships per makers oath.	Chalders of coals, or tons of stone.	From whence.	Whither bound.	Dates of certificates of coasters or fishermen, or exempt ships, and by whom granted, or other reasons of non-paym.	Duties.		
										Dover.	Rye.	
1	9 Jan.	Providence	London	J Bell	80	No.	Rotterd			l. s. d.	l. s. d.	
										0 3 4	0 6 8	
2	25 Jan.	Industry	Hull	C Cowley	16	119 coals	Newcastle			0 4 11½	0 9 11	
3	3 Feb.	Reward	Cowes	G Howard	150		Liverpool	Under burden		0 0 0	0 0 0	
4	17 Feb.	Change	Bristol	W. Web			Jamaica			0 12 6	1 5 0	
5	5 March.	Delight	Ramsgate	I. Bell			London	Exempted per certificate of A. B. mayor of C. dated 3 Febr. 1722		0 0 0	0 0 0	
6	16 March	Diligence	Lynn	I. Hopkins	150		Streights			0 12 6	1 5 0	
7	22 March	Hope	Pool	V. Thornton			Bristol.	Paid at Bristol 12 Dec. last, as per certificate of A. B. collec.		0 0 0	0 0 0	
										Dover —	1 13 3½	6 7
										Rye —	3 6 7	
										Total —	4 19 10½	

And, at the bottom of the aforesaid account, in the book, must be formed an account current of that quarter's collection, in the following form, viz.

The commissioners of the Dover and Rye-Harbour duties.

30 Jan.	To remittance to Hen. Selwyn, Esq; receiver-general of his majesty's customs, per bill of A. B. on B. C. at ten days after sight	Dr.	1 5 0
28 Feb.	To ditto, per bill of C. D. on D. E. at twelve days after sight		2 0 0
24 Mar.	To ditto, per bill of E. F. on F. G. at ten days after sight		1 13 6
	To poundage on the receipt of this quarter		0 7 6
			5 6 0
	To balance due from the collector, or be carried to next quarter's account		0 5 0
			5 11 0

Per Contra		Cr.
By ballance from last quarter's account	—	0 11 1½
By the receipt of this quarter as by account above		4 19 10½
		5 11 0
		A. B. Collector.

But, on the transcript or duplicate, which is to be transmitted to Mr. —, the title of this account current must be changed, by making the collector debtor for what the commissioners are here made creditors, and creditor for what they are here made debtors. And, at the bottom thereof, the truth of the said account must be confirmed by the oath of the collector, customer, or other person, who actually made the collection, in the following manner, viz.

A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, maketh oath, That the above state of the collection of the duties, payable for the repair of Dover and Rye-Harbours, as now rendered and subscribed by me, contains a just and true account of all the money collected for those duties, at this port, during the said quarter; and that the several disbursements, therein charged, were actually paid, and were absolutely necessary for the service of that revenue.

Jurat apud Southampton, 27 die Martii, 1731, coram me
A. B.
B. C. Comptroller.

For the penalties on neglecting or refusing to collect these duties, or putting the laws in execution, &c. I must refer to the several acts which granted and continued the same, as quoted at the beginning of this head.

DOWNNS, a road near the coast of Deal, in Kent, through which shipping pass in going out and returning home, and frequently make some stay; here also squadrons of men of war commonly rendezvous.

REMARKS.

Concerning foreign ships unloading wines, &c. in the Downs. By an act 12 Car. II. for the increasing shipping and navigation, it is enacted. &c. That no wines shall be imported into England, in any ship whatsoever, but in such as do truly and without fraud belong to the people thereof; except such foreign ships as are the built of that country of which the said wines are the growth, under the penalty of loss of ship and goods, provided that, for prevention of frauds in concealing alien's goods, all wines imported in any other ship or vessel, than which doth truly and without fraud belong to England, shall be deemed alien's goods, payable stranger's customs.

By

By the said act it is further provided, That no foreign built ship shall be deemed to pass as a ship to England belonging, or enjoy the privilege of such a ship or vessel, until such time that he or they, claiming the said ship to be theirs, shall make it appear to the chief officers of the customs, that he or they are not aliens; and shall have taken an oath before such officers, that such ship or vessel was, bona fide, without fraud, bought for a valuable consideration, and that no foreigner hath any share therein; and that upon such oath he or they shall receive, under the hand and seal of the said officers, a certificate, whereby such ship or vessel may for the future pass, and be deemed as a ship belonging to the said port, and enjoy the privilege of such a ship or vessel.

By the act of frauds, 14 Car. II. for the better increase of shipping and navigation, it is enacted, That the officers of the customs, in all the ports of England, shall give an account to the collector and surveyor, &c.

By the act of tonnage and poundage, it is enacted, If any wines, goods, or other merchandize, whereof the subsidies aforesaid, are, or shall be, due, shall at any time after be shipped, or put into any boat or vessel, to the intent to be carried into parts beyond the seas, or else to be brought from parts beyond seas, into any port, place, or creek of this realm, and unshipped to be landed, and the customs not paid, or lawfully tendered, they shall be forfeited. 12 Car. II.

By the act of frauds it is enacted, That if any goods or merchandize shall be laden, or taken in from the shore, into any bark, &c. to be carried aboard any ship or vessel outward bound, for foreign parts, or laden or taken in from or out of any ship or vessel arriving from foreign parts without the warrant, and the presence of one or more officers of the customs, such bark, hoy, &c. shall be forfeited and lost, and the master, &c. knowing and consenting, shall forfeit the value of the goods so shipped. 12 Car. II.

A merchant having imported French wines into the Downs in a foreign built ship, the proprietors thereof having not performed the requisites enjoined by the said act of navigation, in order to the making the said ship free, and to enjoy the privilege of a ship belonging to England, and hath taken the wines out of the said ship, and embarked the same into English built barks or hoys, which have brought the same into the port of London, or otherwise, intending to relade the said wines upon some other ships riding in the Downs, bound for some other foreign parts.

Quære I. Whether these wines being so imported, doth not render ship and goods liable to forfeiture?

Admitting the Downs are not within any port, as I suppose they are not, then I conceive the bare carrying of the ship and goods thither, makes no forfeiture; for the words of the law are, that no wines shall be imported into England, &c. into any ship whatsoever, but what belongs to the people of England, are the built of the country, &c. Now, admitting the ship was not a privileged ship to import wines, yet I conceive the ship not coming into any port, nor into England (which I do not take the Downs to be as to the purpose) is not forfeited within the words of the law; and it being a penal law, I think will not be extended by equity to create a forfeiture, though the fact seems to bear evasion of the true event of the law. The opinion of Edward Ward, Esq;

Quære II. Whether the unloading of the said goods in the Downs, upon either of the said cases, be an unshipping within the act of tonnage and poundage?

I conceive the Downs are neither port, place, or creek of this realm, within the act of tonnage and poundage; and the unshipping there without paying or compounding, is no forfeiture for the reasons aforesaid. The same learned gentleman's opinion.

Third quære, If not forfeited on either clauses, then, whether the said wines are not liable to pay aliens duty, according to the other clause aforesaid?

The clause in the act of navigation that imposes aliens duties on wines brought in foreign ships, extends only to wines imported in to any ports or places of England; and it seems the meaning of the act was, that wines for which aliens duties are to be paid, are such as are imported in foreign ships, into some town or port, in regard it gives aliens duties, also, in this case, to the town or port of importation; and I conceive the Downs, in that case, is not any port or place of England; and, when the wines are imported into the port in an English vessel, the demand of aliens duties is not warranted by the words of the law; for, though the greatest part of the voyage is in a foreign-built ship, yet the aliens duties are not due by the words of the act, but upon importation into the port by a foreign vessel, which might have been otherwise, had the duty been imposed on wines brought from France, &c. in foreign-built ships: then it would have been reasonable, that the greater part of the voyage in a foreign ship should have made the wines liable to aliens duties; but here the duty arises, and takes its commencement, upon the importation into England in foreign ships, which is not in the case; and, therefore, I much doubt whether aliens duties be due or no, as this case is, though it is an evasion of the law. The same learned lawyer's opinion.

Fourth quære, Whether the said hoy, or bark, taking out

the said goods without the presence of an officer, the same be forfeited by the said clause in the act of frauds?

I conceive the clause in the act of frauds refers to ship any goods within a port, which this ship was not; and so the words, coming in and arriving from foreign parts, seem to import: for, when a ship is in port, she cannot unlade any goods without a warrant, or officer; but that, I conceive, doth not hold when the ship is at sea, and not in port; for then no officer has any thing to do to go on board her; and where a warrant, or presence of an officer, is not necessary, there is no forfeiture of the bark, &c. so that within the case, I conceive, the bark is not forfeited within the clause.

But, upon the whole matter, I conceive it very fit, as this case is, to have a judicial determination of the matter. For as, on one hand, the words of the laws are not transgressed, so, on the other, the true intent and meaning of the law is evaded: and I am of opinion, if the fact of the case was done with a fraudulent intent to evade the laws, that aliens duties in the case put ought to be paid; but, if the wines were not originally intended to be brought into England, but to be carried to some other place, and by stress of weather, in any other accident or justifiable cause, were brought into England; that, in such case, neither forfeitures nor aliens duties ought to be answered.

March 30, 1675.

Edward Ward.

When Sir Richard Temple, Sir Edward Deering, Sir George Downing, Sir William Lowther, Charles Cheyney, Esq; Francis Millington, Esq; and John Upton, Esq; were commissioners of the customs, several projects were thought of to enlarge the ports of this kingdom, and give the custom-house officers a power to collect the king's duties, even in some places out at sea; and a draught of his majesty's commissioners for approving and confirming ports and keys, &c. was drawn, wherein certain persons were impowered 'to repair (to use the words of the draught) unto our said port of Sandwich, to Dover and Rochester, Feversham and Deal, members of the said port, and to search, find out, and survey the open places thereabouts, and to assign and appoint all such, and so many place or places, to be keys, or wharfs, for the landing or discharging, lading or shipping any goods, wares, or merchandize, within our said port, or the said several members thereof, &c. and to set down, appoint, and settle the extent, bounds, and limits of the said port, and the members thereof, &c.'

This commission was shewn to the most noted lawyers then living; and, there being something in their opinions that relates to the maritime sovereignty of the kings and queens of England, it is thought fit to let the reader see what was the judgment of such eminent council in so weighty a case, which had some reference also to an act of parliament.

Sir Robert Sawyer's opinion.

Because some doubt may arise whether such part of the main sea as is limited to be within the precincts of the port, may be taken in by virtue of the act of parliament, I have added a clause of declaration by the king's prerogative, not relative to the act, which will not be so effectual, unless these were to pass under the great seal; but, in case that way should be thought too chargeable, it may be of advantage to let the clause be inserted, and the Exchequer seal, few persons being able to discern the different operations of the two seals.

Robert Sawyer.

Sir William Jones, attorney-general, his opinion.

I am of opinion, that it will be no advantage to have this clause of the prerogative royal, nor that it will make it better to have it under the great seal: for I think no declaration under the great seal can make, that the open sea, which is out of England, shall be part of a port; but I think, if this commission under the Exchequer seal, pursuant to the act, will not do it, it cannot be done at all.

William Jones.

Edward Ward, Esq; his opinion.

I conceive this may be a proper form for such a commission; but as to the validity of it in extending the port into any part of the main sea, and subjecting thereby all persons to the duties and penalties of a port, that shall come within that part of the sea which is made part of the port, I take it to be a doubtful case.

Edward Ward.

DRAWBACKS, are certain duties, either of the customs or of the excise, that are allowed upon the exportation of some of our own manufactures, or upon certain foreign merchandize that have paid a duty at importation.

Some of the principal laws relating thereunto.

In regard to foreign goods re-exported—
The time for the allowance thereof extended to three years, from the date of the report of the master at the time of importation, after the 24th of June, 1721. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.
For

Allowances and abatements upon, or out of any duties now in force, to continue 'till those duties cease. 3 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 40.

The oaths of the merchants importing and exporting, required to obtain the drawback of foreign goods; affirming the truth of the officer's certificate of the entry, and due payment of the duties, may be made by the agent, or husband, of any corporation or company, or by the known servant of any merchant, usually employed in making his entries, and paying his customs. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 14.

Not to be allowed for any foreign goods exported to the Isle of Man. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 21.

Foreign goods entered outwards.—If less in quantity or value be fraudulently shipped out than is expressed in the exporter's certificate, the goods therein mentioned, or their value, are forfeited, and no drawback to be allowed for the same. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 12.

Foreign goods exported by certificate, in order to obtain the drawback, not shipped or exported, or reloaded in Great-Britain (unless, in case of distress, to save them from perishing, which must be forthwith signified to the officers of the customs) are to lose the benefit of the drawback, and are forfeited, or their value, with the vessel and boats, horses, carriages, &c. employed in the reloading thereof: and the persons concerned in the unshipping or reloading, or to whose hands the goods shall knowingly come, or by whose privity, knowledge, or direction, they are reloaded, are to forfeit double the amount of the drawback. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 12. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 16. To be sued for within five years after commission of the offence.

The seizure of the horses, or other carriages, and the vessels or boats, if of the burthen of 15 tons, or under, may be adjudged by two or more justices of the peace, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 16, 17. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 4.

Officers of the customs conniving at, or assisting in any fraud relating to certificate goods; beside other penalties, are to forfeit their office, be rendered incapable, and to suffer six months imprisonment, without bail or mainprize. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 17.

Masters, or other persons belonging to any ship a assisting in, or conniving at, the fraudulent reloading of such goods, besides other penalties, are to suffer six months imprisonment, without bail or mainprize. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 17.

Bonds given for the exportation of certificate goods to Ireland, must not be delivered up, nor drawback allowed for any goods, 'till a certificate under the hands and seals of the collector, comptroller, and surveyor of the customs, or any two of them, of some port in Ireland, be produced, testifying the landing: the condition of the bond being to produce such certificate in six months from the date thereof. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 15. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3.

Such certificate, not produced in time, the commissioners of the customs may put the bonds in suit. Ditto.

Frauds committed in the exportation of tobacco, or any other goods, discovered to any officer of the customs, or any person (except the exporter) such person to have one half of the officer's or prosecutor's share of what shall be recovered, the charge of prosecution being first deducted, the commissioners of the customs to cause such charges to be equally paid by the crown and prosecutor. Persons aiding the exporter in such frauds, discovering their offence, shall be acquitted. 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 7. See the article DEBENTURES, where the essential custom-house forms upon these occasions are very amply represented, for the benefit of traders, as well as the officers of the crown.

Whoever would see the variety of laws and circumstances, wherein DRAWBACKS on the re-exportation of merchandize are allowed, should consult the Index to Saxby's Book of Rates; from whence he must have recourse to the several acts of parliament, which may be occasionally needful to the merchant.

R E M A R K S.

The intention of our laws in allowing of drawbacks seems to be twofold, (1.) To encourage the exportation of such of our manufactures as are liable to duties, to the end that they be sold cheaper to foreigners; and, (2.) That such foreign merchandizes that may have been imported, and have continued here for three years from the date of the master's report of their importation, may be sold in other foreign countries so cheap as to induce foreigners to purchase them; whereby the nation gains the advantage of their freight, which is so much clear profit to the kingdom; and the merchant also gains, otherwise he would not be at the trouble to traffic in such certificate goods.

The wisdom of the legislature, in regard to drawbacks and bounties, is very conspicuous; such policy having a tendency towards rendering this kingdom the marine carriers of Europe, and thereby approximating something towards the nature of a free port. And long experience having evinced, that these re-

strictive encouragements have proved greatly instrumental to the employment of our shipping, and increase of our seamen; there may not be manifested so great policy in withdrawing, as there was at first of establishing them for the benefit of commerce. If this principle of encouragement was carried greater lengths, instead of being contracted, as has for some time been rumoured that it will be, it might prove of no little further benefit to our navigation. See the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBENTURES, DUTIES, FUNDS, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], NAVIGATION, SHIPPING.

DROGMAN, or DRAGOMAN, or DRUGERMAN, a name given in the Levant to the interpreters kept by the ambassadors of Christian nations residing at the Porte, to assist them in treating of their masters affairs. The consuls have them also, as well for their own use, as for that of the merchants of their nation trading there.

They being absolutely necessary in the Levant trade, and the good success of it depending in part on their fidelity and skill, Lewis XIV, in 1669, enacted, by an order of council, that, for the future, the interpreters in the Levant, residing at Constantinople, Smyrna, and other places, should be Frenchmen, and appointed by an assembly of merchants, in presence of the consuls, before whom they should take the oath, drawn up in writing in the chancery of the ports.

The same order enacted, that every three years six boys, from eight to ten years of age, inclinable to go, should be sent thither, and committed to the care of the Capuchin friars of the convents there, to be instructed and qualified for the office of drogman, or interpreters.

A year after another order was made, enforcing, and, where necessary, explaining the first, and enacting, that, in each of the three first years, six boys should be sent, that there might, in less time, be a sufficient number for the service of the nation, without being obliged to have recourse to foreigners.

The pensions of each of these boys were settled at 300 livres, to be paid by the chamber of commerce at Marseilles, on the duty of half per cent. called cottimo. This last order was of the 31st of October, 1670.

R E M A R K.

Whoever considers the difficulties and impositions to which foreigners are liable in their way of personal traffic, in nations whose language they are unacquainted with, will readily discern the necessity and wisdom of the above regulation, in regard to preserving a succession of interpreters, upon whose fidelity and skill the French traders may rely, in the whole course of the Levant trade. See the article CONSULS.

DRUGGETS, a stuff sometimes all wool, and sometimes half wool, half thread, sometimes corded, but usually plain.

They are often called, in France, pinchina's, though they have very little affinity with the true pinchina's that come from Toulon or from Chalons in Champagne.

The places in France where most druggets are made, are, Le Lude, Amboise, Partenay, Niort, Rheims, Rouen, Darnetal, Verneuil au Perche, Troyes, Chaumont en Bassigny, Langres, and Chalons in Champagne.

Very fine druggets, but of a particular fashion, are made also at Bedarieux in Languedoc, and in many neighbouring villages. These druggets are sold in Germany. The druggets of Lude are entirely of wool, without cording; they are half-ell wide, and the length of the pieces from 40 to 50 ells, Paris measure, which is to be understood also of all the other lengths and breadths of druggets hereafter mentioned.

At Amboise are made two sorts of druggets, entirely wool, the one corded, the other plain. The corded, called in the country petits draps, are two-thirds wide, and from 30 to 40 ells long; the plain ones are half-ell wide, and from 50 to 60 ells long.

The druggets of Partenay are not corded: their width is half-ell, and length from 40 to 55 ells: some are all wool, and others have the warp thread.

The druggets of Niort are all of wool, some corded, some plain, half-ell wide, and from 40 to 50 in length. The corded are most esteemed, being generally very close and strong.

The druggets of Rheims are not corded: they are half-ell wide, and the length from 35 to 40 ells. They are commonly all of prime Segovian wool, finely spun, which makes them superior in quality to all other sorts of druggets made in France, which are, for the most part, made of the wool of the country, coarsely spun.

At Rouen they make three sorts of plain druggets: the one all of wool, half-ell wide, from 25 to 67 ells long; another, which is often called berluche, or breluche, has the wool of wool, and the warp of thread, of the same length and breadth with the other: this sort comes nearest in quality and price to those of Verneuil au Perche. The third sort, commonly called espagnolettes, are entirely of wool, with a nap on one side, and sometimes on both, which makes them very warm: they are $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell wide, and from 60 to 80 ells long. They are

of different qualities; some very fine, all of Spanish wool; others coarser, only mixed with Spanish wool; and others all of country wool, which are the coarsest and least esteemed. They are all wove white, and afterwards dyed of different colours.

The druggets of Darnetal are in every respect like those of Rouen.

At Verneuil au Perche, the druggets are half-ell wide, from 42 to 65 ells long, the warp of thread, and the woof of coarse wool of the country. They are of very low price, and chiefly consumed in Beaulieu, Orleans, and the parts about Paris, being worn by the peasants.

The druggets of Troyes are corded on one side, the woof of wool, the warp of thread; they are half-ell wide, and their length from 35 ells to 46; they are not much more esteemed than those of Verneuil, already spoken of.

At Chaumont in Bassigny they are altogether like those of Troyes, excepting that the pieces contain from 35 ells to 60. The druggets of Langres are in every thing like those of Chaumont.

Chalons in Champagne supplies druggets corded, all woollen; some five-eighths, others two-thirds, of an ell wide, from 16 to 35 ells long. These are also called espagnolettes, and of very good quality.

Scarce any but the espagnolettes of Rouen and of Darnetal, and some threaded druggets, are dyed in the piece; the others are dyed in the wool; that is to say, the wool they are composed of is dyed of different colours, and mixed, before it is carded, spun, or wrought in the loom.

Those are called threaded druggets that have the woof of wool and the warp of thread.

The corded druggets are wrought with the shuttle on a loom of four marches, as the serges of Mouli, Beauvois, and other like stuffs corded.

As to the plain druggets, they are wrought on a loom of two marches, with the shuttle, in the same manner as cloth, camlets, and other like stuffs not corded.

According to the 20th and 22d articles of the general regulation of the manufactures, in August 1669, druggets are to be of two lengths and breadths, viz. half-ell wide, and 21 ells long, and seven-twelfths wide, and from 35 to 40 ells long; but, by the regulation of the 19th of February 1671, all druggets for the future are permitted to be made only half-ell wide. The order of the council of state in 1698, for regulating the manufactures of the province of Poitou, amongst other articles, hath six relating to the lengths and breadths of druggets made in that province.

And that of August 1718, regulating the woollen manufactures of the generality of Bourgogne, hath five articles to the same purpose, for druggets of that province.

DRUGS, a general term for goods in the druggists and grocery way, especially for those used in medicine and dyeing.

Drugs for Dyers.

Of these there are two principal sorts; drugs that do not give any colour of themselves, but prepare the stuff to make the dye, or make the colours more lively and strong, and drugs that colour.

Of the first sort are allum, tartar, arsenic, realgal, salt-petre, nitre, sal gem, sal ammoniac, common salt, mineral salt, salt of crystal, of tartar, agaric, spirit of wine, urine, pewter, bran, starch, lime, and common ashes, &c.

Some of the colouring drugs are woad, indigo, scarlet-wood, logwood, iron-wood, &c. scarlet-grain, cocheneal, madder, goat's-hair, greening-weed, favoury, chimney-foot, &c.

All these drugs, both the colouring and the non-colouring, are used only by the dyers of the great dye, as they are distinguished in France, except the greening-weed, which the other dyers may make use of in their blacks and greys.

There are other drugs used in common by both, which colour either faintly, or very much; as the root, bark, and leaf of the walnut-tree, the rind of the nut, gall-nuts, sumach, and copperas, &c.

Dyers of the small dye may also use India-wood and verdigrease, which the others are prohibited.

Drugs prohibited all dyers in France are, Brazil-wood, rocou, bastard saffron, turnsole, orcanette, filings of iron and copper, ironmongers, cutlers, and grinders dust, old rodoul and old sumach.

As to fustic-wood, yellow wood, trantanel, malherbe, and alder-bark, they are permitted only in the provinces that have not the convenience of getting better drugs.

The principal drugs in medicine.

These make the greatest part of the wholesale trade in the druggists and spicery way; some are produced in France, but the most part is brought from the Levant and the East-Indies. The chief drugs imported into this kingdom are from the East-Indies, and are as follows: allum, china-root, camphire, rhubarb, musk, vermilion, soy of Japan; ketchup, stick-lack, rosam aloes, shell-lack, borax, lapis lazuli, galangal, benjamin, aquila-wood, cambogia, putchuck, or costus dulcis; dragon's blood, cubeb, cardamums, olibanum, chengue, salt-petre, aloes hepatica, bezoar-stone, lignum aloes, cassia,

Goa stone, opium, unicorn's-horn, civet, frankincense, tamarinds, turmeric, rock-salt, saffron, myrrh, manna, renes, tacamac, ambergrease, dammer, coyr, cowries, chank, nux vomica, snake-stone, cassia lignum, assa-fœtida, dry ginger, long pepper, tyncal, sago, lapis tuzæ, worm-feed, galbanum, gum elemi, ammoniacum, tragant.

Pomer's General History of drugs, Lemery's treatise thereon, and Geoffroy's Medical Essay, ought not to be overlooked by the curious, no more than by merchants concerned in the trade of drugs.

DRUG is used also to signify things of little value, exposed to sale.

DRUG; what is so called by the fan-makers is a composition of gum Arabic, and some other ingredients, used by them to lay leaves of gold or silver on their fans, or to cover them with either of those metals in powder.

They use it, also, to paste together the papers, gawzes, tafeta's, and other like matters used by them for their fans.

The masters make a great mystery of this composition, though it seems to be nothing else but the gum, and a little honey dissolved in water. They apply it with a very fine sponge.

DRUG signifies also a salt, or cinder of glass, used by some in bleaching cloth.

One Alexander Le Grand having introduced the use of it in France, and his drug, which he had brought out of Lorrain, being seized by the master and wardens of the grocers company there; the affair being carried before the lieutenant-general of the police, and many trials made of the good and bad effects of that salt, the said Le Grand, and all others, were prohibited to sell it for bleachings and lyes, and all laundresses to buy or use it, on pain of 300 livres fine, the said drug being found corrosive, destructive of the linen, and capable of hurting the health of those who use it. This sentence passed the 15th of March, 1710, was confirmed by order of the council, the 23d of September following, prohibiting all persons to import from Lorrain, or elsewhere, into France, the drug called salt, or cinders, of glass, on pain of forfeiture both of merchandize, and of horses and carriages used in the conveyance, and a fine of 3000 livres.

REMARKS.

Nothing giving a greater lustre, and, therefore, reputation, to woollen manufactures of every kind, than the excellency of the dyes, which give the colours; we find that the French have been more strict and curious in their public regulations relating to the qualities thereof, than any nation whatsoever. See the article **DYEING**.

Laws of England relating to drugs in general.

I. Stat. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 34. §. 2. For recompense to such who may have any loan upon the duty on tin reduced, the old subsidy to be received for drugs imported from the place of their growth in English shipping, shall be according to the full value of the species in the book of rates, and not according to the abatement to one third; and for all drugs otherwise imported, treble such value.

II. Sect. 3. This shall not lay a further duty on drugs used in dyeing.

Made perpetual by 7 Ann. cap. 7. §. 26.

III. Stat. 3 Ann. cap. 4. §. 8. There shall be paid to her majesty upon callicoes, China ware, and drugs (except drugs for dyeing) imported, over and above all other duties, the rates upon callicoes, &c. mentioned in the act; and upon all drugs (dyeing drugs excepted) rated in the book of rates, 10 per cent. according to the values charged; and for unrated drugs (dyeing drugs excepted) four per cent. of the true value: and by unrated drugs are meant clove-bark, Jesuits-bark, callabasha, cassenna, fechia, brugiata, grana Germanica, gum mountjack, jessamine ointment, lapis hyacinthi, oil of anniseeds, oil of caraway-seeds, oil of cinnamon, oil of cloves, oil of balsam of copavia, oil of juniper, oil of lignum Rhodium, oil of peony, oil of saffras; pomatum, sal tamaricæ, and all chemical salts; drake-root, terra dulcis, turpentine of Germany; all chemical preparations, physical oils, and medicinal drugs (except drugs used for dyeing, and coffee, tea, chocolate, cocoa-paste, and cocoa-nuts). And dyeing drugs, by this, or other acts, exempted from duties, are aqua fortis, argol, annotto, allum, orchelia, cocheneal, cream of tartar, copperas, gum Arabic, gum Senega, stick-lack, cake-lack, madder roots, or rubca tinctorum; saunders red, sal ammoniac, sal gem, turnsole, verdigrease, isinglass, plantain, litharge, bay-berries, anti-mony, pomegranate-peels, arsenic, agaric, sena, galls, indico, litmus, madder, orchal, saffore, shumac, cassumba; logwood, Brazil-wood, Braziletto-wood, Nicaragua-wood, fustic, red-wood, Japan-wood; woad, weld, valonia-grain, or scarlet powder; grain of Seville in berries, and grains of Portugal, or rota; English berries from the plantations, French berries, and salt-petre.

IV. Sect. 9. The duties upon the said unrated drugs imported from India, and other places within the limits of the East-India company, shall be ascertained according to the prices, upon sale at the candle, as by stat. 2 Ann. cap. 9. and the value

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of such unrated drugs imported from other parts shall be affirmed by the oaths of the importers.

V. Sect. 10. The said duties upon unrated drugs imported from parts not within the limits of the East-India company, shall be paid by the importers upon importation.

VI. Stat. 7 Ann. cap. 8. §. 12. Jesuits-bark, farfaparilla, balsam of Peru and Tolu, and all other drugs of the produce of America, may be imported from her majesty's plantations in America, in ships regularly manned and navigated, paying the same duty as if they were imported from the place of their growth.

VII. Stat. 1 Geo. I. cap. 43. §. 3. Sena imported shall be liable to the duties charged by the act of tonnage and poundage, and the acts for increasing the same, and the duties laid by other acts, as if the exemption for drugs used in dyeing had not been.

VIII. Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 10. It shall be lawful to import all drugs herein after enumerated, which are used for dyeing, viz. agaric, annotto, antimonium crudum, aqua fortis, argol, arsenic; bay-berries, Brazil-wood, Braziletto-wood, cocheneal, cream of tartar; fustic; galls, gum Arabic or Senega; indico, ifinglafs; litmus, logwood; madder, madder-roots; Nicaragua-wood; orchal, orchelia; pomegranate-peels; red-wood; safflore, sal ammoniac, sal gem, Sappan-wood, red saunders, shumac, sticklack; turnsole; valonia and verdegreafe, without paying any custom (salt-petre excepted), so as entry be first made thereof in the custom-house, and so as the same be landed in presence of the proper officer, and that such importation be according to the rules in 12 Car. II. cap. 18. for encouraging navigation; and, on failure of the said conditions, the said goods shall be liable to the duties.

IX. Sect. 11. On all foreign goods used for dyeing, which shall be imported duty free by this act, and shall be again exported, there shall be paid a subsidy of poundage upon the value of 20 s. according to the rates hereafter mentioned, the sum of 6 d. viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Agaric trimmed, per pound	-	-	0 6 8
Agaric rough	-	-	0 1 8
Annatto	-	-	0 1 0
Antimonium crudum, per hundred weight	-	0	6 8
Aqua fortis, the bottle four gallons	-	2	5 0
Argol, per hundred weight	-	1	3 4
Arsenic, per pound	-	0	0 1 7
Bay-berries, per hundred weight	-	0	4 5 3
Brazil, or Furnambac-wood	-	1	15 0
Braziletto, or Jamaica-wood	-	1	1 8
Cocheneal, per pound	-	0	6 8
Cream of tartar, per hundred weight	-	2	0 0
Fustic	-	0	5 0
Galls	-	2	0 0
Gum Arabic, or gum Senega	-	0	10 0
Indico, per pound	-	0	3 4
Ifinglafs, per hundred weight	-	1	13 4
Litmus	-	1	0 0
Logwood	-	2	0 0
Madder	-	1	10 0
Madder-roots, per pound	-	0	0 4
Nicaragua-wood, the ton	-	8	0 0
Orchal, per hundred weight	-	2	0 0
Orchelia	-	1	0 0
Pomegranate-peels	-	0	13 4
Red-wood, or Guinea-wood	-	1	10 0
Safflore, per pound	-	0	1 0
Sal armoniac	-	0	0 6 2
Sal gem	-	0	0 2 3
Sappan-wood, per hundred weight	-	0	10 0
Red saunders	-	1	6 8
Shumac	-	0	13 4
Stick-lack, per pound	-	0	0 4
Turnsole	-	0	0 2 7
Valonia, per ton weight	-	7	0 0
Verdegreafe, per pound	-	0	0 6 2

Which subsidy of 6 d. on exportation, shall be raised, &c. as the subsidy of poundage on goods exported by any law of the customs.

X. Sect. 12. The produce of the subsidy hereby granted (charges of management excepted), shall be appropriated to the same uses as the poundage on other goods exported.

See Saxby's BOOK OF RATES for DUTIES ON DRUGS imported.

DUMBARTONSHIRE, or LENNOX, in Scotland, is bounded on the south with the rivers Clyde and it's Firth, with Argyleshire on the north-west; on the west it has Loch-Lung, on the north are the Grampian hills, and on the east Menteith and Sterlingshire. The lower part, which lies to the east, is very fruitful in corn, and the hilly breeds numerous flocks of sheep. It has a noble herring-fishery, in two bays that break into it, from the mouth of the Clyde. The Loch-Lomond, that spreads itself under the mountains, 24 miles in length and 8 in breadth, abounds with fish, particularly one delicious sort, called pollac, of the eel kind, peculiar to it, and the banks are lined with fishermen's cottages.

DUMFRIESHIRE, in Scotland, has on the west Galloway and Kyle; on the east Solway Firth, and the marshes of Scotland and England; on the north part of Clydidale, Tweeddale, and Tiviotdale; and on the south the Irish sea.

The soil in general is fitter for pasturage than corn, yet the mountains with which it is encompassed, are fruitful in corn. **DUMFRIES**, the chief town, is a pleasant and thriving place, called by some the Liverpool of Scotland; it's market and fairs for cattle, which are held on Candlemas, Holyrood, and Martinmas-days, each a week, are the best in all the south of Scotland.

DUNOIS. This little province in France, bounded on the east by Orleans, on the south by Blaisois, on the west by Vendomois, and on the north by the Lesser Perche, is about 10 leagues in length, and 7 or 8 in breadth: and is watered by four rivers, viz. the Loire, Convoye, Egre, and Hierre.

CHATEAU-DUN, on the Loire, is the capital of the country. They make cyder here, and in some parishes of the district are manufactories of woollen stuffs, which they sell at Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

DURHAM, or the county palatine or bishopric thereof, has Yorkshire on the south, Northumberland on the North-west, Cumberland and Westmoreland on the west, and is washed on the east by the German ocean, being about 107 miles in circumference.

The air is sharp, and the soil various, but upon the whole not to be reckoned the most fruitful; yet 'tis thick set with towns, and very rich in mines of coal and lead.

It's chief rivers are the Tees and Were, the latter of which runs into the sea at Sunderland, a port much frequented by colliers.

DARLINGTON is one of the most noted places in the north of England, for the linen manufacture; particularly that sort called huckabacks, great quantities of which, some ten quarters wide, are sent yearly to London, &c. they being made no where else in England. Some fine linen cloth is also made; the water of the Skern, on which it stands, being so famous for bleaching of linen, that quantities have been sent hither from Scotland for that purpose.

STOCKTON is a well built town, of great resort and business, two leagues up the Tees from it's mouth.

SOUTH SHIELDS in this county, so called, to distinguish it from North Shields in Northumberland, is of great note for it's salt-works, here being above 200 pans for that purpose, which are said to consume near 100,000 chaldron of coals yearly.

BERNARDS-CASTLE, on the north side of the river Tees, is an ancient and well built town. The manufactures here are stockings, bridles, reins, and belts.

MARWOOD is a little town lower on the same river, noted also for the stocking manufacture.

SUNDERLAND stands on the south bank of the river Were, and is a populous well built borough and sea-port: but the harbour having a shallow and difficult entrance, the ships mostly take in their loadings of coals, which is the principal commodity shipped here, in the open road.

DUTCH AMERICA. The only colonies which the Dutch have at present in America, are, Surinam, Aprowack, Berbice, and Boron, all situated on the continent of South America, Aruba, and Curacao; three islands, which are amongst those called Sotvento, or under the wind; and, lastly, Saba, St Eufacia, and half of St Martin's, three of the lesser Antilles.

A memorial drawn up in 1721, concerning the trade which the Dutch carry on with the Spaniards in America.

The Dutch had formerly a much greater number of colonies in America than they have at present. They had in Guiana Viapoco, Aprowack, Surinam, Berbice, and Steperche.

The first of these colonies were entirely destroyed in 1677, by a squadron of French men of war, commanded by count d'Etrées, afterwards marshal of France. Aprowack and Steperche were neglected, and the inhabitants removed to Surinam; so that the Dutch have now only Surinam and Berbice in that part of the world.

Among the Antilles, they have Aruba, St Eufacia, Curacao, and some other small islands.

The whole trade that is carried on in their colonies amongst the Antilles, both to America and to Africa, is in the hands of a company established by letters patent, by which an exclusive privilege was granted to it, together with an exemption from all duties of importation: it is called the Company of the West.

This company has but one third part of the trade; of the two remaining thirds, one belongs to the city of Amsterdam, and the other to the heirs of Mynheer Van Somerdyk; but the whole trade is managed by the company.

Private persons may obtain licences from the company to trade in America, on paying two per cent. on the commodities they carry thither, and five per cent. on those they bring back in return.

The declaration of the merchandizes, both in going and coming, is to be made at the company's office, after which they are free from all duties, as if they belonged to the company.

This trade is of two sorts, viz. that which is carried on from Holland with the inhabitants of the colonies, and that which is carried on with the Spaniards. The latter is properly the subject of this memorial.

The company employs several ships, sending some from Holland with commodities proper, both for the maintenance of the colonies, and for the trade with the Spaniards; and others from the castle of St. George del Mina, one of their chief settlements on the coast of Africa, laden with negroes for their own colonies, and for those of the Spaniards.

It is to be observed, that none but the company's ships have a share in this last branch of trade, no licence being ever granted to private persons for carrying on the negro trade.

When these last ships, of which there are seldom above two or three every year, are arrived at Curacao, the Spaniards of the main land of America, and those of Porto Rico and Hispaniola, go thither in pirogues, which are a kind of long barks, to buy the number of negroes they have occasion for, chusing always the healthiest and strongest. Those which they refuse, and which are stiled Macron negroes, are kept partly for the service of the Dutch colony at Curacao, and partly for that of Surinam, whither the company sends them. When the Spaniards neglect to fetch the negroes, the company carries them to the Spanish plantations, but with the precautions hereafter mentioned, that they may not be surprized in carrying on a contraband trade, prohibited under very severe penalties by the ordonnances of the king of Spain; and yet so constantly and so safely continued by the collusion of the king's officers.

As to those commodities which are brought in the company's ships sailing from Holland, as soon as they arrive, they are deposited in the warehouses which belong to the company in the island, 'till there be a favourable opportunity to dispose of them; that is to say, 'till they have entered into some correspondence, either with the governors of some sea-port towns, or, in case they be too stiff, or insit upon too high a perquisite for their connivance, with some private persons, who agree about a harbour or road, to carry on their trade, whither they send their barks, with such commodities as they have a mind to give in exchange; particularly a great many piasters, or a good deal of gold or silver, either in ingots or in bars. Yet, after what manner soever this is carried on, it seldom happens but the king of Spain's officers have some share in the profits of this contraband trade; even they who affect outwardly the greatest severity to prevent it, do secretly employ their confidants to trade for their account: so that private persons are very often only the factors or commissioners of those officers.

The merchandizes proper for this trade, are fine linens, cambrics, printed cottons of several colours, common lace made at Antwerp after the fashion of Spain, hard ware, fine and coarse, made at Nuremberg and Liege, a great quantity of spices, particularly of cinnamon, all sorts of woollen manufactures made at Lisle, Valenciennes, Abbeville, Leyden, and Haerlem; cloth and thread for sails, cordage for shipping, white and yellow wax, hats, all sorts of stuffs, gold, silver, and silk ribbons, French brandy in casks, or in thick glass bottles, and some other merchandizes.

It must be observed, with regard to stuffs and ribbons, that it is no matter whether they be new or old fashioned, they being always new for the Spaniards when they arrive from Europe: so that the company never buy of the manufacturers but such gold and silver stoffs as are out of fashion, even such as will no longer serve even for the trade of Germany.

All that we have hitherto said of trade, relates only to that which the company herself carries on. As for the licensed ships, which commonly take in their lading at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, or in Zealand, besides their cargo, which consists in the above-mentioned merchandizes, they are armed with several guns, and carry a greater number of seamen than the company's ships, that they may be able to defend themselves in case they be surprized in any foreign port or road; for they only touch at Curacao to get intelligence, and to get on board some person acquainted with the places where they are to cast anchor, in order to dispose of their commodities with the greatest dispatch and security.

But, when they have finished their trade, they are used to go back to Curacao, in order to complete their cargo with the produce of that island, as sugar, indico, cotton in the wool, wood for dyers, hides, and salt, which last is made in the salt-pits of Curacao.

Besides gold and silver in ingots, bars, or coin, which this trade with the Spaniards affords, the Dutch also get from them a great deal of cocheneal, hides, cacao, vanilla, tobacco of Verina, quina-quina, or jesuit's bark, and saraparilla, &c.

This is the state of the trade which the Dutch West-India company, and the private persons who are licensed, carry on with the Spaniards in America; and this trade, the profit of which the English of Jamaica, the French of St. Domingo, and the Danes of St. Thomas, share with the Dutch, has not a little contributed to the prejudice of the commerce both of Cadiz and the other cities in Old Spain, which drive a trade with America; and of the European merchants, who are

concerned in that trade with the Spaniards. For it is an easy matter to perceive, that since the four above-mentioned nations have used themselves to carry on that trade, and furnish yearly the inhabitants of Spanish America with so prodigious a quantity of European merchandizes, which they formerly received only by way of Old Spain, the galleons and flota's cannot come back so richly laden as they used to do.

R E M A R K S.

As the author of this memorial explains but very superficially after what manner that contraband trade is carried on, we judge it will prove some satisfaction to the reader to find, in this place, what a French writer (father Labat) says of it, in his curious and entertaining account of the French islands in America, of which a new edition was published in the year 1742. *Nouveaux voyages aux isles de l'Amerique*, Tom. VII. chap. 9.

The trade of the European nations with the Spaniards in America.

All European nations are forbidden to go and trade with the Spaniards, under any pretence whatsoever. The Spaniards seize without mercy all the vessels they can meet with, whether they find them at anchor on their coasts, or meet with them at some distance, because they suppose that they are there with no other view but to trade; and the finding on board either merchandizes manufactured in their dominions, or any Spanish money, is to them a full and sufficient proof of such illicit trade.

But yet, these are laws which people know how to evade many ways. Here follow some instances of these evasions.

When the master of a vessel would enter into some of their harbours to trade there, he pretends to be in want of water, wood, or provisions. He sends a petition to the governor by an officer, who sets forth the ship's occasions: at other times it is a mast that is sprung, or a leak in the vessel, that can neither be found nor stopped, without unlading the ship, and setting her on one side. They prevail upon the governor to believe what they would have him, by the obliging application of a considerable present: after the same manner they blind the other officers, whose assistance they may have occasion for; and then they get leave to enter the port and unlade the ship, in order to find out the leak, and to put the ship in a condition to continue her voyage.

They observe many formalities. The merchandizes are carefully locked up in a warehouse, and the door by which they are put in is sealed: but they take care that there be another door, through which the merchandizes are taken out in the night time, and their place filled up with chests of indico, cocheneal, vanilla, with silver in bars or coined, with tobacco, and other American commodities. And, as soon as this trade is finished, the leak is found to be stopped, the mast repaired, and the ship in a condition to sail.

But all this alone is not sufficient; an expedient must be found, that they who have bought the European merchandize, may sell them again. For that purpose, the master of the ship represents to the governor and to his officers, that he wants money to buy the provisions he has occasion for, and to pay for what he was furnished with, in order to repair his vessel, and humbly begs leave to sell some merchandizes to the amount of what he is to buy, or pay for.

The governor and his council agree to it, with such grimaces or shew, as they think proper to make, and the master sells a few chests or bales of merchandize, to the end that the rest of the cargo, which these gentlemen or their agents have bought, may be sold publicly, without giving occasion to complaints; because it is always supposed that it is no more, but what the Spaniards got leave to buy from those foreigners. Thus the largest cargoes are commonly sold.

As for those that are less, and with which the English, French, Dutch, and Danish barks are commonly laden, they carry them to small harbours, far distant from any town, or to the mouth of some river. They give notice to the inhabitants by letting off a gun, and they who have a mind to trade come in their canoes, to buy such merchandizes as they have occasion for.

This trade is chiefly carried on in the night-time; but the Europeans must be constantly upon their guard, always armed, and never suffer more people to come on board, than they are able to drive back again, if they attempted to insult them. There is never any credit given in this part of commerce, they deal only for ready money, or for merchandizes delivered on the spot.

They commonly make an intrenchment before the cabin, or under the forecable of the bark or vessel, with a table, on which they expose their merchandize to view. The cap-merchant or factor, with other people armed, are within the intrenchment with small arms; they put also some others above the cabin, or in the forecable; the rest of the crew, well armed, remain upon deck with the captain, or some other officer to receive and entertain the persons who come on board, to make them drink, and conduct them back with civility; and, if they be people of some distinction, or who buy a great deal, to salute them with some guns at their departure. They are very fond of that honour, and one may be sure to lose nothing by it.

But, notwithstanding all this, the European traders must be upon their guard, and take care that they be always stronger than the Spaniards; for, if they meet with an opportunity to seize upon the vessel, they seldom miss it; they plunder the ship, and sink it afterwards with the whole crew, that there may be no person left to reproach them with their perfidy. To conclude, one must keep a watchful eye upon the Spaniards hands, for they are very nimble-fingered.

Further R E M A R K S.

The Dutch, however they have extended themselves in other parts of the world, and carry on a most beneficial commerce with Africa and Asia, have, upon the whole, had but indifferent success, in point of possession, in America; which may not, upon the whole, be detrimental, since they have so large territories in Asia. They had once, indeed, a considerable footing there; upon which a West-India company was formed, about the year 1636 to 1652; and, by an extraordinary step in politics, got one of the best colonies in the world for trade into their hands; they had even the greatest part of the Brazils, if not all of it, in actual possession, and maintained it for several years; which, had they held 'till now, with all the great improvements since made, and possessed the prodigious mines of gold discovered there, they had been superior in trade to every nation in the world.

But the Portuguese in Europe having revolted from the Spaniards in 1640, to whom they had been subject for above half a century, they also meditated a revolt from the Dutch in the Brazils, which they effected in 1645, and drove them out of the whole country.

This struck so great a blow to the Dutch trading interests in America, as to break their West-India company. They have still the name of a company, and good encouragement from the States-General; are concerned in divers branches of trade, particularly that of Africa; yet they stand but on a very slight foundation, when compared with the original company.

This misfortune to the Dutch in America, was followed by another, which was the loss of the colony of New Amsterdam, now called New York; and which was taken from them by the English in 1665, and afterwards conceded to England by the treaty of Nimegueu.

We have seen from what remains to the Dutch in America, that they have no great share of power there; nor is the course of their trade with other of the colonies belonging to any potentates in that part of the world, little better than a contraband trade, if what Mons. Labat and other travellers tell us be fact; yet they seem to carry on what trade they have here very quietly and unmolestedly: nor do they seem any way disposed to submit the sovereignty of the American seas to the Spaniards, or any other power; and therefore will not suffer their shipping to be searched any where upon the high seas, under pretence of illicit trade. But if their ships are caught in the ports of New Spain, carrying on any contraband trade, they do not scruple to submit to the Spanish laws upon such occasions. That traders of this and of all nations endeavour, by every subterfuge, to evade being taken in port, is little to be doubted; nor does it seem any way improbable, but such like artifices as have been intimated by father Labat, are really practised. And, if the Spanish viceroys, governors, or other inferior officers, appointed by the crown of Spain to reside in America, will connive at, promote, and encourage this commerce, so lucrative to themselves, as well as to the others concerned; it seems scarce possible for those princes, whose subjects are thus decoyed to trade with the Spaniards, ever to prevent it. But there does not appear any such difficulty on the side of the court of Spain; for, if they make their laws in Old Spain so severe and rigorous as to deter their own subjects, as well those in power as otherwise; this smuggling trade would, in New Spain, meet with as great a check, as it has lately done in England, from the wisdom and justice, as well as from the good execution of our laws relating thereunto.

Wherefore, in regard to this matter, which hath for so many years created heart-burnings between the courts of London and Madrid, in particular, it appears that the court of Spain itself is to blame, for not taking effectual measures to prevent smuggling in their own colonies, and not the court of London, out of whose power it absolutely is to prevent their subjects carrying on such a trade, if the Spaniards themselves will decoy the British subjects into it.

No reasonable Spaniard, not even the most zealous Spanish patriot, would presume to assert before the face of the impartial world, that it is more in the power of the British nation to prevent their subjects from carrying on this commerce by sea, than it is in the power of the Spanish nation to prevent the same by land in Spanish America. And, if this is really the true and candid state of this important case between the two nations; if it is easy, very easy, by proper laws duly executed on the side of the court of Spain, to prevent this contraband trade in America: and if, as it certainly is, it be next kin to an impossibility, on the side of the court of England, to prevent their subjects from being allured into this gainful trade, may we not, without the least

partiality towards our own nation, say, that the blame really lies on the side of the Spanish, and not on that of the British court?

That the court of England have done all on their side to cultivate a friendship with the Spanish nation, the whole world is witness of; nay, that they have condescended to do more to oblige that court since the treaty of Seville than all Europe beside, is not to be disputed: as an Englishman, therefore, as a lover of the Spanish nation, may I not be allowed to ask on this important occasion, upon what principles of reason and justice, the court of Spain can put the labouring oar upon the court of London?

To prevent this evil, this smuggling trade on the side of the British subjects, where is the reason, that this nation should submit to the search of their shipping on the high seas of America? When the ships of the French and the Dutch, &c. are caught in this illicit trade, and their cargoes and vessels seized and confiscated, in the ports of New Spain, by the faithful officers of that crown, we never hear of any complaints or remonstrances to the court of Spain about it on the side of these states, nor clamours made by the mercantile people upon such occasions: the reason whereof is, that it is allowed to be the universal law of nations, for all trading states to acquiesce in those laws which are made to prevent smuggling, and thereby to secure the legal revenues. But it is neither consistent with the laws of nations, nature, nor common justice, for any one maritime nation, in times of peace, to be required to submit to the search of their shipping upon the high seas, under pretence of their having been concerned in an illicit trade; for this is usurping absolute dominion over the high seas, without any colour of reason: it is more particularly so in regard to the British shipping, when they are obliged to submit to such a search in their going to, or returning from, our own colony of Jamaica; it being absolutely necessary for the security of their navigation only, by reason of the winds and currents, and upon no other pretence whatsoever, to keep as close to the Spanish coast as possible, both in the Windward Passage, and in the Gulph of Florida. For proof of which, see the article ANTILLES ISLANDS and SPANISH AMERICA.

If the court of Spain, therefore, should still prove inflexible enough, to insist upon this point, and even under any kind of restriction or limitation whatsoever, it hardly seems possible, that any lasting friendship should subsist between the two nations. No Spaniard of judgment or candour will presume to say, that the court of England is to blame, they having already manifested a greater condescension and cordiality towards that kingdom, to induce them to give up this unreasonable claim, than they could ever expect. And, if they should continue so refractory, as still to insist upon a matter, which is so apparently unreasonable, it can proceed from no other motives, but to extort still greater concessions from the court of England than what they have, for peace sake, hitherto granted. But this, perhaps, will scarce ever be complied with; the British nation will be under the disagreeable necessity of ever breaking friendship with a power, whose usurpations they can see no end of, even after concession upon concession.

It must certainly be bad policy in the court of Spain to be eternally wrangling with a nation, to whom they are more beholden than to any other in the world beside, for the great consumption of their produce; and especially so, as our exports to the Spanish nation are declining, by reason of their having set up woollen and other manufactures of their own. But we hope that the Spaniards will be wise enough to acquiesce in the moderate and reasonable demands of the British court, and not again compel them to such measures, as may one day prove fatal to Spain, notwithstanding hitherto they have come too well off. For more matter upon this head, see the articles LOGWOOD and SPANISH AMERICA.

The DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY. This company established itself in 1621, and its charter was dated the 10th of June the same year, with an exclusive privilege to carry on, for the term of 24 years, all the trade of the African coasts, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope: and in America, from the south point of Newfoundland, through the Straights of Magellan, of Le Maire, and others, as far as that of Anian, as well in the north as south seas.

The directors were divided into five chambers; twenty for that of Amsterdam, twelve for Zealand, fourteen for every chamber of the Meuse, and of the north quarter, and fourteen likewise for that of Friesland.

The government, or general direction, was intrusted with nineteen directors, taken out of every chamber, in proportion to its contribution to the joint stock; eight for Amsterdam, which advanced $\frac{1}{3}$ ths; four for Zealand, who were there for $\frac{1}{3}$ ths; and two for each of the three others, who contributed only $\frac{1}{4}$ th a piece: the nineteenth director was chosen by the States General, who had even a right to name several, as they thought fit.

The 4th of June 1647, the company renewed their charter for 25 years; but were scarce able to hold out the time of

this last grant, by the immense losses and expences occasioned by undertakings successful at first, but ruinous in the event.

Such was, amongst others, the taking the bay of Todos los Santos, Fernambouc, and the best part of Brazil from the Portuguese; an extraordinary success, and of immense profit to the company, if it could have supported it; but, as it engaged them afterwards in expences beyond their strength, it reduced them to a weakness, from which they could not recover: although, in 1629, their admiral, Peter Hain, had brought into Holland the Spanish plate fleet, which was immensely rich; and their hopes of possessing the rest of Brazil appeared so well grounded, that Maurice, count of Nassau, disdained not to be their general in that new conquest.

This company's weakness, which it was in vain attempted more than once to unite to that of the East-Indies, caused it's dissolution at the expiration of it's charter; and, the 20th of September, 1674, a new company, composed of antient partners and their creditors, obtained letters patents from the States, and entered into the same rights and establishments with the former, which it hath enjoyed successfully enough, conducting itself always with honour.

It's first stock was about six millions of florins; and it's principal settlements were, one at Cape Verd, and the other on the gold coast of Guinea, for the African coasts; and those for America, at Tobago, Curacocoa, and in the New Low Countries, situate between Virginia and New England.

Dutch company of Surinam.

The Zealanders having possessed themselves of the colony of Surinam from the English, during the wars between England and Holland, the states of Zealand, in 1682, yielded their part of that conquest, to the Dutch West-India company, who, on the 23d of December the same year, obtained letters patents of the States for that acquisition. Since that time, the colony is divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the city of Amsterdam, another to the West-India company, and the third to the illustrious family of Somersdyck in Holland. Of these three proprietors the company of Surinam consists, the conduct of which is committed to ten directors; five on the part of Amsterdam, four for the American company, and one for the house of Somersdyck.

This company, as already observed, makes part of the West-India company.

By their charter, which consists of thirty-two articles; are regulated the rights due to the company, the franchises and privileges of the colonies and planters; the number of military officers and municipal magistrates, the sovereign council, the criminal and civil jurisdictions, and, in short, the whole police concerning both old and new inhabitants.

The rights referred to the West-India company, are those of liffage for ships going in and out of Surinam, at the rate of 3 livres the last; the right of weight on merchandize at the rate of 2½ per cent. both out and in, and the capitation payable in sugar, both on white and black, at the rate of 50 pounds of sugar the year: beside these three rights, the company enjoys the exclusive privilege of trading in negroes, with obligation to furnish the colony yearly with such a number of slaves as it shall require, which shall be sold publicly, and presented two and two to the buyers, without distinction of rich or poor: the payment to be at three times, from six months to six months, according to the clauses and conditions agreed on between the company's factor and the inhabitants. The franchises of the colonies and planters consist, first, in a free settlement in the colony with their family, cattle, and goods, provided they are subjects of the States-General, and with liberty of leaving it when they shall think fit, to return to Holland or settle elsewhere.

2dly, In being subject to the imposition of no right but those before specified, except cases of extreme necessity, whether for the good of the state in general, or that of the colony in particular.

3dly, In paying no more for their freight and passage from Europe to America, than 30 florins for every person above 12 years, including their maintenance, and only 15 florins for all under that age.

4thly, In liberty of shipping their effects on board such vessels as they shall think fit.

5thly, That the ships employed by the company in the negro-trade, may not ship goods homewards to the prejudice of other ships, but only such effects as belong to them, and proceed from the sale of negroes, or the company's rights and imposts.

6thly, Merchants, being arrived there with their ships and merchandize, may settle in places they shall find convenient for their trade, provided, however, it cause no inconvenience to the inhabitants, nor prejudice to the company's rights.

7thly, The governor and council to be sworn to maintain all the colonies and merchants in the abovesaid privileges.

With regard to the government, it shall be in the hands of the council of state, composed of the governor and ten coun-

fellors; which last may be augmented as the colony fortifies itself, to the number of forty, the governor at the choice of the company, but always with the approbation of L. H. P. and the counsellors at first by plurality of voices of the inhabitants, and afterwards at the nomination of the counsellors themselves, when they are thirty in number.

Though the governor is to have the chief authority both in civil and military affairs, they may not, however, be determined but in the council, and by plurality of voices, and then only in conformity with the company's orders.

Justice, in criminal cases, shall likewise be within the cognizance of the governor and council of state. Civil justice shall be administered by the governor, assisted with six counsellors, chosen out of the inhabitants, three of whom shall quit the office in two years: all which counsellors, as well those of the council of state as others, shall exercise their office without fee or reward.

Neither the governor, nor his council, may charge the colony with other imposts or rights than those above-mentioned, without the company's approbation. With which, nevertheless, they may exact some small sums for maintenance of ministers for the service of the church, schoolmasters, and the like, as they shall judge necessary and useful.

Lastly, As the colony may possibly become a charge to the West-India company, the directors of the said company shall at all times be permitted to withdraw, in which case the state is to take charge of, and give order in the affair.

Merchandize imported from Surinam.

It's greatest trade consists in sugars, worth commonly from 7 or 8 dutes, to 12 or 15 the pound; also small candied citrons and oranges, some rococo, vanilloes, which are large and plump, but not so good as those from the Spanish West-Indies. In 1718, they began to plant coffee here, which succeeded to a wonder, and is in no less esteem than that of the Levant.

The DUTCH COMPANY of the NORTH. This company has not an exclusive privilege; private persons have equal right, also, to trade in the parts of it's concession; and the advantage received by it's letters patents consists only in some privileges, of no great consequence.

There are also in Holland companies for the Baltic Sea, for the fishery of Nova Zembla, Davis's Streights, and Groenland; but these fisheries are not thereby interdicted to those who will undertake them: all the difference between the company's fisheries and those of private adventurers is, that these last may not go ashore to cut up their fish, and melt their fat, being obliged to cut their whales up, and bring them to Holland in pieces to be melted.

The DUTCH LEVANT COMPANY. There is not, properly speaking, a Levant company in Holland: but the commerce carried on by private persons is so considerable, and of such great consequence to the commonwealth itself, that the States-General have not disdained to take charge of it, and to establish there an order and regulations, which all Dutch merchants in that trade are obliged to observe.

And for this purpose the States have appointed at Amsterdam a chamber of direction, composed of six deputies and a register, all merchants, who, under authority of the burgo-masters, have charge of all things relating to the navigation and commerce of the Mediterranean Sea; particularly that which they maintain with equal profit and reputation at Smyrna and Constantinople.

It is this company that nominates the consuls of the Levantine ports, which it is, nevertheless, obliged to present, and submit to the approbation of the States-General. It decides, also, the number and force of the convoys necessary to secure the navigation of the merchant-men; and determines the differences that may arise between merchants on the subject of trade; and hath even a right, when needful, to add new regulations to the old ones, but they are of no validity 'till confirmed by the States-General.

DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

A short history of the Dutch East-India company.

This company was first undertaken by nine merchants only of Amsterdam, who subscribed no more than 70,000 guilders for a capital stock. They were called the new company.

In the year 1595, they fitted out four ships, having in all 62 guns and 238 able seamen. Being well victualled for so long a voyage, and well furnished with ammunition, they sailed from the Texel the 2d of April, 1595.

They were particularly instructed to avoid trading in any place where the Portuguese had their settlements and factories; more especially where they had any forts, that they might avoid falling into the hands of the Spaniards, and likewise to avoid, as much as possible, being embroiled with the Portuguese.

They arrived at the Cape of Good Hope the 2d of August, from whence they went to Madagascar and the island St Mary, and, stretching away to the south east, they touched no where more 'till they came to the island of Sumatra, leaving the coast

of Malabar, the island of Ceylon, the coast of Coromandel, and the bay of Bengal (in all which they are now so powerful) on the left-hand, for fear of the Portuguese.

On their arrival on the coast of Sumatra, on the 11th of June, 1596, they commenced traffic with the Arabian and Chinese merchants, and began a trade with the natives, particularly in pepper and other spices, which they found were brought to the port of Bantam, as to a kind of mart.

The natives behaved to them with great courteousness and civility at first: but the Portuguese there being surprized to see the Hollanders in these seas, where they had never heard of them before, they were not a little irritated, nor neglected any insidious measures to incense the king of the country against them, which soon occasioned a prohibition of traffic between them; and, indeed, were in danger of being surprized by the perfidy of the natives, who, under pretence of friendship, invited them among them, and murdered thirteen of their men, among whom was their principal commander, captain Molenaer, and two of their supercargoes. They, however, discovered the treachery time enough to save the rest and their ships; the Indians having laid their plot, in concert with the Portuguese, so as to have surprized the ships also.

By the loss of men from their first setting out, they were so weakened, as to be under the necessity of reducing their four ships to three, and accordingly burnt one, the better to man the rest. With this force they left Bantam, and touched again on the island of Borneo, discovering the coasts as they passed; and, having traded in several places to advantage, they came to the isle of Baly, to the east of the island of Java. Here they were so well received, that two of their men, by the consent of the others, and at the request of the king of the country, staid behind, with intent to cultivate the friendship begun; being assured by their countrymen, that they should return the next time they came. Here they took in several merchandizes, such as the country produced, and such as other Indian vessels frequently brought thither, as China goods, silk, spices, and pepper: here especially, they found great plenty of rice, which was no little comfort to them, their bread being all spent. They stored all their ships with this rice, and took in a large quantity more than they could consume, which they carried home as merchandize. Being thus pretty well freighted, they set sail to return to their own country, whither they arrived the 4th of August the same year; having, in less than five months, made their voyage from the farthest part of the isle of Java. A passage so extraordinary, as has hardly been ever done since. And, although they made no extraordinary profit, yet they were far from being losers by the voyage; so that the next year the company resolved to prosecute the trade again. While they were preparing for the second expedition, there started up another set of merchants, seven in number, and they began to fit out three ships for the same purpose: but the States, to prevent confusion in the beginning of the trade, obliged them all to join in one company, and forbid any other to interfere for that year. From this union of nine merchants only, sprung the first East-India company of Holland. The ships for the second voyage were six in number.—The admiral of this fleet, which was the richest and strongest that ever had put to sea from their coasts on any single expedition, was Jacques de Neck, the vice-admiral Wybrant Warwijck: these were appointed for their distinguished probity, courage, and experience, in marine and merchandizing affairs: besides whom, they had seven supercargoes, who, with the two admirals and the captains, were constituted the council. One of these captains was the famous Heemskirk, who, endeavouring to find out the north-east passage to China in the year 1596, wintered with all his company on the northernmost part of Nova Zembla: and the pilot of the whole fleet was our countryman, the famous John David, an Englishman, who first proposed the design.

This fleet was admirably provided, as, indeed, was the first, with the stoutest and ablest seamen that could be had; and, as much as possible, they chose all unmarried men, that no home affections might make them backward in any hazard, or hasty to return before their commanders should require it. Knowing also, that the Portuguese were determined to attack them wherever they found them, they chose such ships as were not only strong and able to bear the sea, but good sailors, and which would work well in an engagement, if put to the necessity of fighting: in short, they were fitted out as ships of war, with plenty of proper arms and ammunition, &c.

They likewise carried such cargoes of merchandize as might prove gainful in traffic; besides which, they carried also 2,300,000 pieces of eight in specie, most of which had been taken from the Spaniards in an attack upon their galleons, in their return from New Spain: so that, in this voyage, they bought the Spaniards out of the trade with their own money.

This fleet sailed the first of May 1598, and passed the Cape of Good Hope July 10; from whence, without delay, they went for Madagascar, where they took in fresh water and provision in spite of the Portuguese, who had a small fort in

St Augustine's bay, but durst not stir out of it. Hence they made for the coast of Malabar, and resolved to shew themselves to the Portuguese wherever they should have occasion; accordingly they arrived on the coast some leagues to the southward of Goa, traded with the natives, pursued, making discoveries of the foundings, harbours, and roads, and coasted the whole country of India, the island Ceylon, the bay of Bengal, and came at last to the Straights of Baly, on the south-east of Java, where they had left their two men. Thus they became a terror to the Portuguese, braved them wherever they came, though they did not offer to attack them; and, in about two years and one month, they returned into their own country very richly laden, with about six millions and one half of guilders in merchandizes, having settled two factories, one on the island of Java, the other in Sumatra. From this time they continued to send ships every year, and at length seized upon that spot of ground and port, where they have now built the famous city of Batavia, the glory of the Indies, and the strength of the Dutch interest in that part of the world. The same company sent out four ships more after them the next year, before they had any account of the success of their main fleet; which testified the satisfaction they had in the practicability of the undertaking, and the assurance of the profit, in case of their safe return.

In the year 1600, the Zealanders set out on the like adventure, but lost the first ship they fitted out on the coast of England, being overfet about five days after putting to sea, and all her men drowned. This, however, did not discourage the Zealanders; they pursued their design upon their own foot, till the year 1604; when they also were taken into the general company: and thus this company have gone on successfully to this day.

As by means of this company they grew rich at Amsterdamb, from the conflux of merchants from Flanders, so in proportion they increased their trade: and, as the East India trade occasioned a great increase of their other commerce, so, when the Indian merchandizes were brought home, they exported them again to all parts of the world where they had any trade, particularly to the Baltic; to Muscovy, and other places in the North, and especially up the Rhine, the Maese, the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, into all parts of Germany and France.

As to their East-India trade in general, and its increase to the present time, it is no easy matter to make a computation how extraordinary it hath, from time to time, contributed to enrich the Hollanders in general: that they bring home great treasure every year is not to be disputed.

In regard to the extent of their commerce in the Indies, and the number of their factories and settlements there, they have the fort and watering-place at the Cape of Good Hope, in latitude $36\frac{1}{2}$ south of the Line; a settlement maintained not for trade, but for relief and supply of their ships in their passage out and home, as St Helena is to the English in our East-India trade.

They have also the island Mauritius, so christened in honour of Grave Maurice, who was, at the time of its discovery, their great champion against the Spaniards. This lies between the island of Madagascar and the coast of Malabar, or the Persian gulph; and is, as the Cape, not used for traffic, but chiefly for watering, taking in fresh provisions, and other relief to their ships on the voyage. It is in the latitude of 16 degrees 35 minutes south.

With respect to their commerce, they have a factory at Mocha, in the freight of Babelmandel, just within the entrance of the Red Sea, called, on that occasion, the gulph of Mocha. And here they trade, as we do, for coffee and some few drugs only: but in coffee here and at Batavia, where they had planted it, they trade far more largely than any other nation.

Their other settlements in the Persian gulph, and on the coast of Malabar, from Surat, on the south of the river Indus, to Cape Comeron, in which space they have the following several factories, viz.

Gombroon in Persia, latitude	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	} These are on the shore properly called India.
Ormus, in the gulph	27 $\frac{4}{4}$	
Choule, near Bombay	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Rigapore Dunde	18 $\frac{31}{4}$	
Bassaloco, alias Baynenar	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Bodven	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	} These are on the coast of Malabar.
Cannanore, the first factory of the Dutch on the coast of Malabar, latitude	11 $\frac{50}{4}$	
Pamari	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Crananera	10 $\frac{20}{4}$	
Cochin, a very strong settlement		
Porchatt, by the Portuguese called Labra de Porcha	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Carnapole	9	
Quilon, or Caylon	8 $\frac{45}{4}$	
Cape Comeron	7 $\frac{25}{4}$	

Beside these factories, they have the whole trade of the great island Ceylon, the chief product whereof is cinnamon and their chief factories in relation thereto are at Colombo and Mantel,

Mantell, on the west side of the island; at Calapetene, in an island on the same shore; at Jetrapatan, on the north point of the island; and Point Pedro on the same, being the extreme land north.

From Ceylon they enter the bay of Bengal, and trade on the coast of Coromandel and Golconda, up to the river Ganges, where they have several factories in common with the English, and some that are wholly their own. Hence they go on to the coast of Siam, the great island of Sumatra, and the peninsula of Malacca, called the Indian Chersonesus, or the Straights of Sincapore. This, and the Straights of Sunda, are the entrance into the Indian Ocean, or the seas of China and Borneo, and lie between the south end of the island Sumatra and the west end of Java, called Java-head, on one hand; and between the south part of Malacca, or the said Indian Chersonesus, and the north-west part of Borneo.

Their factories and settlements on the coasts of Coromandel and Golconda, and the kingdom of Bengal, which are separately their own, are as follow:

On the coast of Coromandel, from latitude 10 $\frac{1}{2}$, to latitude 22 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Negapatan, in latitude	- - -	11 degrees
Porta Nova	- - -	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sadrappatan	- - -	12 40-minutes
Cabelon	- - -	12 50
Pullacat	- - -	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Caletore	- - -	14 $\frac{1}{2}$
Petipoly	- - -	16 10
Muffalapatan	- - -	16 20
Balafore		
Pipley, on the river Pipley	} All in or near the same latitude.	
Basnagul, on the river Ganges		
Huguli, on ditto		
Patana, on ditto		
Dacca, on ditto		
Bengal	- - -	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
Aracan	- - -	21 $\frac{1}{2}$

From hence they have the trade of the great islands of Java and Borneo; and beyond them eastwards, of the Moluccas, or Spice Islands; which trade is wholly theirs, without any competitors: they had also a share of the trade northward to China, the island of Formosa, and Japan; but they lost it afterwards.

On the north-east-side of the isle of Java, in the latitude of about 7 degrees south, stands the spacious and royal city of Batavia, wholly built by the Dutch, where their governor and council of the Indies reside, and where, they tell us, they are more strong, though not more populous, than in Europe; which, compared with the enemies who are in condition to offend them, may be true, but not otherwise.

Their settlements in these parts, that is, beyond the Straights of Sunda east, and north, are not (as in the fore-mentioned places) under other kings and governments, but were got by forcible entry and conquest: we mean the islands of Java, Borneo, Madure, and Celebes, and the Spice Islands.

From these several countries they import the following merchandizes: from Mocha, coffee, and some few drugs; from the coast of India, Malabar, Coromandel, and Golconda, all kinds of Indian manufactures, such as wrought silks, calicoes, mullins, with other great variety of manufactures of cotton and flax; also shell-lack, stick-lack, red-wood, salt-petre, a great variety of drugs [see the article DRUGS], dye-stuffs, &c. From Borneo, and the coast of Malacca, pepper, and some gold and diamonds [see the article DIAMOND]. From Bengal, and the river Ganges, raw silks and wrought silks, of divers kinds, with diamonds, indico, lahore, cowries, &c. From Sumatra, Java, and Batavia, pepper, coffee, the last planted in Java, by the Dutch themselves. From Ceylon, cinnamon, and some few drugs, salt-petre, and pearl. From Banda, Gilolla, Ternate, Amboyna, &c. spices, viz. nutmegs, cloves, mace, &c. From China, raw silks, wrought silks, Japan and China ware, tea and arrack.

The Dutch carry out considerably more European goods to India than the English, because the number of their people there, especially in their great settlements at Batavia, Borneo, and the Summer Islands, are prodigiously increased, and require greater quantities for consumption.

R E M A R K S.

From this succinct state of the Dutch East-India company, we may form some judgment of the weight and influence of this republic in Asia; which, when compared with any other single European power that have trade and settlements there, they are far superior: some have not scrupled to assert, that their commerce and power there is little inferior to all the other Europeans conjunctively; but this, we are inclined to think, is carrying the point much too far.

The island of BORNEO, which the Dutch possess in this part of the world, is not only the largest in Asia, but in the world

itself, a very few excepted, being near 12 degrees, that is, 700 miles in length, from north to south; and 10 degrees, or 600 miles in breadth; the form almost circular, or rather elliptical. The Portuguese Jesuit, Vintimeglia, who describes it, says it measures 1650 Italian miles in circumference: so that it is certainly the largest island in Asia, not excepting even that of Japan itself.

This island lying in the very centre of heat, the equator passing just over it, we might expect it, like Africa, to be scorched up, and given over to uninhabited drought and barrenness; but, on the contrary, we are surprized to find it infinitely populous, being not only filled with native inhabitants, but thronged with strangers of all the trading nations round it, such as Chinese, Japonese, Siamites, Malayans, Macassars, and Javanes, or Batavians, besides Europeans, as Dutch, Portuguese, and some few English. In a word, Borneo invites her neighbours by the most powerful arguments of commerce; a product inimitably rich [the spices,] and, in some respects, not to be equalled in quantity in the whole world.

Here, also, are the most exquisite diamonds. The diamonds of Golconda are, indeed, wonderful in themselves, and the diamonds are not found here either in that manner, or that quantity: but then, on the other hand, the diamonds at Borneo are of the finest and most perfect water, truly brilliant: in short, here are the most admirable diamonds in the whole globe, nor is the quantity small that they find here.

As this is a product of the concealed part of nature, the surface might be a crust for all this, as it is in Africa, where the mountains are fruitful in gold, and the rivers spangle with the dust of it; and yet the soil scarce yielding food for man or beast. But in Borneo, though with the sun in the zenith, you have the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, the hills covered with flourishing woods, the meadows and fields enriched with fragrant and medicinal vegetables; the trees yielding the most odoriferous and salubrious gums and drugs: they have here the finest and best camphire in the world; the best cassia, of divers sorts; excellent pepper, and the best rice in all the eastern parts of Asia. They have very good cinnamon, though not so exquisite as that of Ceylon, and several other valuable spices, particularly cloves. They have, besides these, numberless variety of fruits, necessary for the sustenance of human nature: and, for manufacturing, here is no end of the production of cotton: they have, likewise, more honey and wax than there is in any other place in India. Here the Dutch in particular, and the Malayans and Chinese, have their several factories and colonies, all different; the first being Christians, the second Mahometans, the last Pagans.—The Hollanders are masters of the very best parts on the coast: they call the largest and most populous city Borneo, after the name of the island: it is a large, populous, and well-situated town, the streets spacious, and well watered.—This place is the seat of commerce; the harbour safe, deep, secure from winds, without rocks or shoals that have any danger attending them, and is able to receive the largest ships.

East of Borneo lie the Spice Islands, which, together with that of Batavia and Ceylon, may justly be called the Dutch empire in the islands of the Indies. It is true, in Batavia and Ceylon they are not sole lords; but it is not because they have not power to possess the rest, but because they have the dominion of trade, which is sufficient to them, and more they have no occasion for: however, in those we are about to speak of, they may be said to be absolute lords of the place, without any to interfere with them. As

The island of CELEBES, on the east of Borneo. This is not, indeed, called one of the Spice Islands, but it produces a great quantity of spices; and the Dutch, for that reason, think it worth while to keep the possession of it. They have a very considerable trade with the people of Borneo and China: but the Dutch are absolute masters of the place and trade too. The town is very strong, having divers good forts to guard the entrance into the harbour; and the Dutch maintain a good garrison here against all events.

The Nutmeg Islands are BANDA, PULO-WAY, PULO-RIN, NERA, GUMENAPE, GULIGIEN.—The Clove Islands are TERNATE, FIDORE, MOTIR, MACHIAM, BACHIA, all subject entirely to the Dutch, and strengthened with forts and castles.

AMBOYNA also produces cloves, and is subject to the Dutch; yet neither does this, or several others where cloves are produced, commonly pass for any of the Spice Islands. The English had formerly a factory in this island, and, by that means a share with the Dutch in the spice trade; and, perhaps, in time might have obtained a firmer footing there; nor is it unlikely that the prospect of increasing their interest, in that valuable branch of commerce was one of the reasons which moved the Dutch to the horrid massacre of the English: which scene I chuse to pass over in silence.—I shall only observe that the English, by this act of cruelty, were outed of their factory, and, in consequence, of the spice trade, which is now as it were wholly engrossed by the Dutch. The Dutch are absolute lords of these Spice Islands; nor can any other nation have any business here, there being no inhabitants

habitants but mere natives to buy any thing, who are poor and few; and these have nothing to sell but spices, which no body can publickly dispose of but the Dutch governor.

The island of JAVA, also merits our particular attention, as well for it's important situation, and being the greatest colony the Hollanders have in these parts, as for the city of Batavia, built by them, and which is now the metropolis and center of all their commerce, and of all their strength in the Indies.

Java is situate in the latitude of 6 to 9 degrees south. It lies opposite to the south-east end of Sumatra; and the passage of the sea, which runs between, is called the Streights of Sunda, the breadth between being about five or six leagues.

On the north side are a great variety of good harbours, creeks, and rivers, and two very noted towns, or cities, viz. Bantam and Batavia. The former is properly an Indian city; it was the capital city of the chief kingdom of the Javans, and which was once the most famous in the island. The English, for many years, had here a flourishing factory, especially for pepper, but quitted it for that of Bencouli, which has been much more advantageous to our English East-India company.

The harbour is good, and much frequented: it is ordinary to see in this port at a time 3 or 400 sail of Chinese junks, and barks of Siam and Pegu, as also of Bengal, some to buy, others to sell; for the produce of the place is very well suited to the commerce of these countries, here being constantly a loading of pepper of rice, for any ships that come, as also a great plenty of all sorts of fruits common to the Indies.—They have also abundance of cattle, and their beef is good, and will take salt well, notwithstanding the heat of the climate.—The Dutch here too have obtained the sovereignty of the whole place.

But the glory of this island, and of all the European settlements in the Indies, is the city of Batavia, the center, as said, of all the strength of the traffic of the Dutch in this part of the world; where they are so powerful, and have so many subjects, so many islands, kingdoms, principalities, and dominions depending on them, and are so able to support, protect, and employ them, that it is to be admired that any other European nation should have so much as a footing in the Indies, and that the Dutch do not supplant and drive all the European factories out of this quarter of the world. The number of ships they are able to fit out here, the number of seamen they are able to raise, and the number of natives they have trained up to the sea, are so great, that no nation in Europe can produce a strength at that distance able to cope with them. This appeared on several occasions in their wars with the Portugueze, wherein, by plain force, they drove them out of all the best factories in the Indies, except Goa, where they are, indeed, so well fortified, that no power south of the Line can ever supplant them.

At the city of Batavia is seated their government civil and military: here are their magazines, as well naval and marine, as for armies and land expeditions: and from hence, upon any emergency, they fit out ships of war as they find needful, without the expence and hazard of sending them from Europe.—Nay, here they are able to build ships, as well as to repair their old men of war, at a cheap rate, of what bulk and force they please. And for these purposes they have rope-walks to make cordage, forges to make anchors, foundries to cast their cannon, mills to make gunpowder: so that they can never be suppressed for want of ammunition, or be obliged to wait for supplies from Europe, as all other European powers and factories must do in such cases.—Batavia is the general magazine of the Indies, as Amsterdam is of the United Provinces.

This city of Batavia, when the Dutch came thither, was no more than an Indian village, encompassed with a kind of palisade of bamboo-canes. The Dutch pitched on it for the advantage of it's situation, all other considerations aside, not regarding the low, watery, and fenny lands about it, or it's being subject to inundations by the river, which runs into the sea here, passing through the middle of the city. These things the Dutch being used to, and by experience accustomed to provide against, they presently made subservient to the city, by cutting channels, drains, and canals, to carry off the water upon any land-floods, so they turned the currents as they pleased. And, in regard to storms from the sea, there lie in the offing 17 or 18 islands, which keep off the winds, and break the waves, when the sea would otherwise come rolling in: so that the sea between these islands and the port is always secure, and makes the road a good harbour, and as safe riding, as if the ships were in a mole: and this harbour is able to receive 1000 sail of ships at a time, beside floops and barks, and other small craft, which go into the river, and lie with their heads close under the shore, fastened to piles.

Besides the strength of the city, which is very considerable, and more than sufficient to resist any force which, in that part of the world, could be raised against it; they have five very strong forts at a distance, whereby all the flat country, for several leagues about the city, is protected against the inroads of the natives. This is necessary, they having abun-

dance of sluices within these forts, some for stopping and turning of waters when floods happen, so as to prevent injury to the city; and others for useful manufactures, as powder-mills, sugar-mills, corn-mills, paper-mills, saw-mills, &c.

In the beginning of the Dutch settlement here, the Javan kings often attacked them, and particularly the king of Bantam once besieged them in a formal manner, with a very great army, being joined by the English with seven or eight stout ships; by which the city, then being in it's infancy, was reduced to great extremity. But, in the height of their distress, their fleet from the Molucca's, consisting of 17 men of war, and 1200 soldiers on board, came to their relief; upon which the English ships retired to Bantam, and, the Dutch succours being landed, they sallied upon the Javans, routed their whole army, and drove them from the siege with a horrible slaughter: since which they have made themselves too strong to be attacked; nor would a regular army of 40,000 men (Europeans) be able to subdue this single city, it being generally well stored with provisions, and having a good garrison; and being surrounded with water, no approaches could be made, or attacks formed against it, in the ordinary way of military conduct.

CEYLON is a large island, lying off the south coast of the Mogul's country. It is known to Europe for little but the production of cinnamon, though it yields also pepper and ginger, but not in the like quantities. As the coast is chiefly our business, we shall only observe, that the Dutch are fully masters of the sea-coast, and thereby of all the trade and product of the island: nor is the possession maintained with any difficulty; for the Dutch, who leave the natives wholly to themselves, are concerned only to secure the cinnamon, and keep other Europeans from them.

The Portugueze were here, as they had been of most of the sea-coasts of the Indies, lords of this whole country; nor were they so easily dispossessed here as in other places, but defended themselves bravely many years, 'till, about 1664, they were effectually supplanted by the superior power of the Dutch, and forced to surrender their possession, which they had held above 150 years.

On the extreme point of this island due north is a large piece of land, about eight leagues long, and four or five broad; 'tis a peninsula, surrounded by the sea on all parts, except on the south-east corner, where it is joined to the rest of the island by a narrow slip, not half a league over. In the rest of the island, the Dutch have only their fortified posts, and some small dependent places adjacent, leaving the government of the country wholly to the natives: but here the whole place is their own, and they have not only a strong fortification at the north end of it, called Point Pedro, fronting that part of the sea which looks towards the coast of Coromandel, but they have several other forts also. They have another strong fortress on the south-west part of the peninsula, called Jaffnapatam; it is built square with four regular bastions, and a large ditch with a counterscarp: the Dutch take great care to preserve it, maintaining a strong garrison always in it.

Besides this peninsula, the Dutch have the city of Punta Galla on the south part of the island. This was the capital city under the Portugueze government, and is so still under the Dutch; being large, well built, populous, and strong. 'Tis the seat of the Dutch governor, and, as the fortifications are all good, here is a strong garrison kept too. The situation of this town is also such, that it is strong by nature near the sea, and almost surrounded with it: the harbour is good, and the ships moor almost on shore. The Dutch have besides four strong forts, viz. Negumbo, Columbo, Balecalo, and Trinquemale: the two first on the west side of the island, the next on the east-side, and the last to the north-east, all sufficiently strong, to defend themselves against the natives, and secure their commerce.

Further REMARKS on the Dutch East-India company.

It may deserve consideration, from what a small beginning this mighty power and commerce of the Dutch in the Indies originally sprung: it was set on foot by nine merchants only, and but with a few thousand pounds sterling: but, indeed, the rise of the Dutch in Europe is not less extraordinary, they having arose only from a few fishermen. As this manifests what wonders are to be wrought by industry, parsimony, and commerce steadily and wisely pursued and conducted; so it must prove a powerful argument to set a foot any new commercial undertakings, although in their infancy they may meet with great difficulties and discouragements, which is the case of most notable enterprizes at their commencement.

By these observations, I have, at present, more particularly in view the establishment of the British fisheries, which, at length have happily taken place in these kingdoms: and, as we have conviction before our eyes, that one of the greatest trading states in Europe took it's origin from the fisheries alone, have we not the utmost reason to hope for and expect very prosperous consequences, from this noble and pub-

lic-spirited undertaking? No nation being more happily circumstanced to carry on this branch of commerce, we can have no reason to doubt, but we shall have our share in this article of traffic over the whole world: and, if this great and national design is conducted by a succession of gentlemen of worth, honour, integrity, and abilities, no way inferior to those worthy patriots who have been so distinguishedly zealous in promoting our fisheries, we need be under no apprehension of malversation in the management of their affairs. To leave this short digression, and return again to the Dutch East-India company.

This company is governed by sixty-five directors, divided into different chambers; twenty for that of Amsterdam, which alone possess one moiety of the stock; twelve in that of Zealand; which held one fourth; fourteen in those of Delft and Rotterdam, which together furnished one eighth; and a like number for those of Enchuyfen and Hoorn, which likewise together made the other eighth.

Seventeen directors were yet taken out of sixty-five for the common affairs of the six chambers, and that in the same proportion; eight for the chamber of Amsterdam, four for that of Zealand, two for those of Delft and Rotterdam, and two for Enchuyfen and Hoorn: for the seventeenth, he was taken alternately from Zealand, the Meuse, or North Holland. 'Tis by this second direction, that the number, equipment, and departure of the ships are regulated.

The company hath a right to contract alliances with princes, whose dominions lie east of the Cape of Good Hope, and in Magellan's Streights, all along and beyond them; to build forts and place governors and garrisons there, and to appoint officers of justice and police, but the treaties are made in the name of the States; in whose name also, the officers, both military and judiciary, are sworn.

At the expiration of every charter, the company is obliged to renew it, which it hath already done five times since the first grant. These cost the company considerable sums.

The grant of 1698 was confirmed since about the end of 1717, by proclamation of the States-General, prohibiting all their subjects to send their ships, or to sail within the limits granted the company, or to trade directly or indirectly, or to associate themselves with foreigners for trade, or to make use of their ships.

Nothing could have been concerted with more wisdom or prudence, than the police and discipline, by which every thing in that company is regulated, whether with regard to the election of the directors of the six chambers, or the government of envoys, and the returns of ships, or the choice of the sixteen particular directors, the sale of merchandize, and the repartitions of profits; or, lastly, the politique of these sovereigns of one part of the great Indies, whom nevertheless we reproach in this last respect, for their jealousy against other nations, sometimes a little bloody, and a religion weak enough to yield, as occasion requires, to the interests of their commerce: it must however be confessed, that they are not without apologies for both these complaints.

'T would be difficult to remark all the counting-houses, factories, residences, or commercial settlements, in which they maintain merchants and factors; there being no place, any thing considerable for trade, from the bottom of the Persian gulph to the coast of China, on which they have not settlements.

While the Dutch navigators meditated a passage by the north to the kingdom of Calay, and from thence to China, Cornelius Houtman, a Hollander, who had been a long time in the Portugueze service, a man as curious as laborious, was taken by the Turks; and, having a long time in vain solicited those of his nation for redemption from slavery, he addressed himself to some merchants of Amsterdam, proposing, that if they would pay the sums required for his ransom, he would acquaint them with all he had learnt concerning the commerce of the Indies, and with the course they must keep in the voyage.

These merchants, struck with the proposition, made not the least hesitation to grant Houtman's request, enjoining him secrecy as to the sum required for his ransom: he was set at liberty, arrived in Holland, made his report to his benefactors, and encouraged them to form a company, who resolved, in 1595, to send four vessels to the Indies, keeping the route called the Portugueze.

If we read with attention the different relations of the wise, prudent, and courageous manner, in which those illustrious merchants have acted, to form the finest establishment in the world, we cannot but be struck with the abilities of those first founders, who could surmount the numberless obstacles that lay in the way of their enterprize. What must their labour and resolution not have been, to settle themselves in so remote a country, where they had not a foot of land; a country inhabited by their most powerful enemies, who had been in possession of it a century and a half? What must not our admiration be, that a few private merchants should have laid the foundation of a company at present so formidable? The princes and kings of the world will here find lessons of consummate policy; they will here learn, moreover, if they doubt it, that there is nothing more advantageous or glorious

to a state, than a commerce well understood and directed; and that the way the Dutch made use of to conquer their enemies, was rather to attach them to the company by the proffered advantages of traffic, than by force of arms, which they never used, but to preserve the dominion they had acquired by commerce.

'T was on the 20th of March 1602, that the States-General summoned to the Hague the principal merchants of Amsterdam and Zealand, who had been interested in that first enterprize; and, after hearing their report, the States resolved to abolish all the petty societies formed 'till then, that there might be but one only body, and that, from that time, no private person should trade between the Cape of Good Hope and the East-Indies, to the prejudice of the company; with liberty, however, to all those who would interest themselves in the company, to whom for that effect they granted letters patents dated that same day; and, in the treaty of peace, made at Munster in 1648, it was specially resolved,

That the king of Spain might not extend his limits in the East-Indies, but that he should be bounded by what he then possessed; that the conquests which might be made by the United Provinces, should remain to them, whether over the natives of the country, or over the Portugueze, whatever the event might be of the war then subsisting between Spain and Portugal.

The protection, granted by the States-General to the company, was no sooner known, than every one was for interesting himself in that commerce; so that, in a very short time, they formed a capital stock, which, with that of the preceding petty societies, amounted to 6,459,840 florins, bank money.

Amsterdam advanced	—	3,674,915
Zealand	—	1,333,882
Delft	—	470,000
Rotterdam	—	177,400
Hoorn	—	266,868
Enchuyfen	—	536,775

Total Fl. 6,459,840 Banco.

This which is called the old capital of the company has profpered so considerably, that it began to divide,

The year 1605 in July	15	} per cent. in money.
1606 in March	75	
1607 in July	40	
1608 in April	20	
1609 in June	25	
1610 in August	50	
1612 in Decem.	57½	
1615 in August	42½	
1616 in Febr.	62½	
1620 in April	37½	
1623		} 25 per cent. in cloves.
1625 in August	20	
1627 in March	12½	
1629 in January	25	} per cent. in money.
1631 in January	17½	
1633 in Decem.	20	
1635 {		
March	20	} per cent. in cloves.
May	12½	
August	12	
1636 {		} per cent. in money.
March	25	
Novem.	12½	
1637 {		} per cent. in money.
March	15	
Novem.	25	
1638 {		} per cent. in cloves.
October	19	
Novem.	25	
1640 {		} per cent. in money.
January	15	
Novem.	25	
1641 {		} per cent. in cloves.
Febr.	15	
Novem.	25	
1642	Decem. 90	} per cent. in money.
1643	January 15	
1644	Novem. 25	
1644	Decemb. 20	} per cent. in cloves.
1646 {		
January	22½	
Decem.	25	
1648	January 25	} per cent. in money.
1649	January 30	
1650	January 20	
1651	January 15	
1652	January 25	
1653	January 12½	
1654	June 15	
1655	January 12½	
1656	Decemb. 27½	
1658	Decemb. 40	
1661	Novemb. 25	} per cent. in money.
1663	Novemb. 30	
1665	January 27½	
1668	June 12½	
1669	July 12½	
1670	June 40	
1671 {		
June	45	
July	15	
1672	June 15	

D U T

The year 1673	June	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	per cent. in bonds on Holl.
1676	February	25	per cent. in money.
1679	January	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	per cent. in bonds on Holl.
1680	January	25	} per cent. in bonds on the company.
1681	January	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	
1682	July	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	
1685	February	40	
1686	May	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	} per cent. in money.
1687	April	20	
1688	April	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	
1689	April	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	
1690	April	40	
1691	August	20	
1692	April	25	
1693	April	20	} per cent. in obligations.
1694	April	20	
1695	Novemb.	25	
1696	June	15	
1697	June	15	
1698	June	15	
	Sept.	15	
1699	June	20	
	Decem.	15	
1700	July	25	
1701	May	20	
1702	May	20	
1703	May	25	
1704	June	25	
1705	May	25	
1706	May	25	
1707	April	25	
1708	May	25	
1709	May	25	
1710	May	25	
1711	May	25	
1712	May	15	
1713	May	30	
1714	May	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	
1715	April	40	
1716	May	40	
1717	May	40	
1718	May	40	
1719	May	40	
1720	May	40	

2602 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

By the calculation here made, we see, that, during 63 years, the company hath divided 1749 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. which amounts to about 22 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of the capital stock one year with another. The prosperity this famous company enjoys, is owing to the wise administration of the 65 directors:

- 18 for the city of Amsterdam,
- 12 for Zealand,
- 7 for the city of Delft,
- 7 for Rotterdam,
- 7 for Hoorn,
- 7 for Enchuyfsen,
- 1 for Haerlem,
- 1 for Leyden,
- 1 for Dort,
- 1 for Tergow,
- 1 for the province of Guelderland,
- 1 for the province of Friesland,
- 1 for that of Utrecht.

} These seven directors residing at Amsterdam.

65

Each of these directors is charged with certain affairs in the cities, or factories, of their division, called chambers; as for example, the chamber of Amsterdam, the chamber of Rotterdam, &c. None may hold the office of director, unless he hath at least 6000 florins in the company, reckoning from the primitive stock, which makes nearly the 1076th part of the said capital. These 6000 florins are worth about 50 or 55,000 florins. Besides these directors, the nobility have a deputy-director in South Holland, and in the other provinces. Independent of these directors and deputies, there are, besides, eight principal participating deputies, viz.

- 4 for the city of Amsterdam,
- 2 for Zealand,
- 1 for South Holland,
- 1 for North Holland.

They have a deliberative, but not a conclusive voice, in certain assemblies to which they have a right of admittance. There are moreover in the body two advocates, who assist at the general assemblies, and at those at Amsterdam. Their office in the company is nearly the same with that of the grand pensioner in the states of Holland.

All these different directors have each their deliberative voice in the chamber of their city: but it is the general assembly that regulates all the important affairs of the company; it is held usually three times a year.

The first of these assemblies regulates the sale of spices, and the dividends to be made by the company.

D U T

The second is to deliberate on the answers to be made by the company to letters received from the Indies.

The third regulates the sales made in October and November, and the number of ships to be fitted out, and sent to the Indies the current year.

All these sorts of assemblies are called the assemblies of 17, and they are composed of

- 8 directors for the city of Amsterdam,
- 4 for Zealand,
- 1 for Delft,
- 1 for Rotterdam,
- 1 for Hoorn,
- 1 for Enchuyfsen,

16; and the seventeenth is deputy in turn of one of the four small chambers.

Beside that assembly of 17, there is also a general assembly held every year at the Hague: it is composed of

- 4 directors of Amsterdam,
- 2 of Zealand,
- 1 of Delft,
- 1 of Rotterdam,
- 1 of Hoorn,
- 1 of Enchuyfsen.

10

This assembly of 10, generally examines the letters and papers received from the Indies, and forms a rough draught of an answer, which is afterwards sent to the assembly of 17, to resolve upon what they shall judge convenient.

Every director hath some particular charge; four of the city of Amsterdam are appointed to have care of the store-houses, as also to buy the merchandize which the company is for sending to the Indies, and to take care of the merchandize unfold: three or four others set over the finances, and to receive and deliver the company's revenues: seven others perform what is necessary for fitting out the ships; and a very small number of them are authorized to transact the secret affairs of the company.

We shall not finish this article without observing, that the company maintains and employs usually in its store-houses more than 1200 workmen, as well for the building as fitting out ships; 50 workmen are yearly employed in picking and cleaning the spiceries.

What is here related gives us a sufficient idea of the riches of that company in those parts where it took its rise; which, however, are small in comparison of those they have acquired in the Indies, and of their power at Batavia, a city which surpasses those of Europe in beauty, and the grandeur and power of their general there, who, we are assured, commands upwards of 50,000 men, exclusive of the fleets at his disposal.

We are yet to explain the manner in which the capital stock was divided. We have remarked, that it was originally 6,459,840 florins, bank money, which was divided into shares of 500 livres gros, at six florins each; so that each share amounted to 3000 florins; these were called capital actions, or, simply, actions of the India company. They are bought and sold as stocks are in England, at a higher or lower price, according to the dividends the company think fit to make, who, we are assured, always make a reserve of immense sums, as a provision against those losses which have often happened to it, without being observed by the public; a wise and prudent precaution, which has, and will support, the credit of that illustrious company, and deserves to be an example, in this respect in particular, to all other trading companies in Europe.

Upon the whole, one of the reasons why the Dutch East-India company flourishes, and is become the richest and most powerful of all others we know of, is its being absolute, and invested with a kind of sovereignty and dominion, more especially over the many ports, provinces, and colonies it possesses in those parts: for it appoints magistrates, admirals, generals, and governors; sends and receives embassies from kings and sovereign princes, makes peace and war at pleasure, and by its own authority; administers justice to all, appoints tribunals to judge in their name, with plenary power, and no appeal; punishes and remits offences; bestows rewards becoming the dignity of kings; settles colonies, builds fortifications, levies troops, maintains numerous armies and garrisons, fits out fleets, and coins money.

And, though there is acknowledged a dependance upon the States-General, it may be said they seldom exert their power; and, while the Republic preserves the right of sovereignty, it tacitly leaves the exercise and possession of it to the merchants of this company. These vast powers were, and still are, requisite to cherish and preserve this flourishing branch of trade; and the proprietors justly merited them: for, by their own vigilance, fatigue, and expence, they have conquered and preserved all the countries they possess in those parts of Asia, and their fortresses on the coast of Africa, for refreshment, refitting, and protection of their ships.

This

This company, we have seen, was raised and projected upon the spoils of the Portuguese, and afterwards at the expense of the English. And to what a degree this corporation might raise its power and influence in Asia, and, consequently, in Europe, were there not other potent and opulent European trading companies, to maintain a kind of balance of commerce and influence against them, is not easy to say. Experience has shewn, that there is no little danger in trusting them with the upper hand, either in the Indies or Africa; the affair of Amboyna will never be forgotten, no more than their tyranny and cruelty to the English African company formerly, which was the first, and, perhaps, the principal cause of their ruin. Quære, therefore,

Whether those judge the best in regard to the trading interest of these kingdoms, who are for supporting the united East-India company of England in their present privileges and immunities, and even for enlarging them; or those who are for annihilating that company, and laying the trade absolutely open?

In order to form a just, candid, and dispassionate judgment of this matter, we have given the short history and state of the Dutch East-India company: in its place, we shall give a succinct history and state of the French East-India company, and of those of the other potentates who carry on a commerce to that part of the world. For, without the intelligent reader hath those points fairly laid before him, we humbly conceive that it is not possible for him to make a true judgment of the question. Our business, therefore, is to lay all requisite facts only before the reader, that he may not be misled in a matter of this high importance and concernment to the trade and maritime power of the kingdom in general. See the articles EAST-INDIA COMPANY, FRANCE, PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE, SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

DUTIES, in regard to trade, are those imposts, or taxes, which are laid on merchandizes at importation or exportation, which are commonly called the duties of customs; the taxes of excise, also, are frequently distinguished by the duties of excise.

R E M A R K S.

We shall here consider duties in another light than what we have hitherto done, under synonymous heads.

The principles on which all duties and customs should be laid on foreign merchandizes which are imported into these kingdoms, are such as tend to cement a mutual friendship and traffic between one nation and another; and, therefore, due care should be taken in the laying of them, that they may answer for good an end, and be reciprocal in both countries: they should be so laid as to make the exports of this nation, at least, equal to our imports from those nations wherewith we trade; so that a balance in money should not be issued out of Great-Britain to pay for the goods and merchandizes of other countries; to the end that no greater numbers of our landholders and manufacturers should be deprived of their revenues arising from the product of the lands, and the labour of the people, by foreign importations, than by exportations to such countries.

These are the national principles, upon which all our treaties of commerce with other countries are to be grounded: and, as all states and empires are daily making their utmost efforts for the advancement of commerce, and to prevent the importation of our manufactures into their kingdoms: as such-like measures are the most effectual restraints and prohibitions upon our commerce, these seem no other way to redress the grievance, than by retaliating upon them, and supplying ourselves, at least, with their commodities in a degree of proportion diminished equal to what they have lessened in ours. For, if this policy is neglected, and traders are left to act at random, according to their own will, nothing is more certain than that they are taking steps gradually to ruin the nation, notwithstanding the duties of customs should be daily encreased, by these augmented imposts. So that the additional encrease of the custom-house revenue is not an infallible criterion of an encrease of national commerce and treasure.

But one fundamental branch of the support of the royal revenue depending on the good plight and augmentation of the duties arising on customs, it is no wonder that, ever since those duties have existed, every measure has been taken to improve and encrease them. But let every judicious man consider upon what principles of policy can this part of the public revenue possibly be encreased? Does not this encrease of revenue arise from the encrease of foreign imports? And, as the importation and consumption of these imports diminish, will not the custom-house revenue decline?

Now, since the encrease of the consumption of foreign productions and manufactures, among us, has an inevitable tendency to impoverish our own nation, and enrich others, the greater care that is taken to encrease and improve the custom-house branch of the revenue, **UNLESS BY THE PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING**, can it have any other effect than to hasten the ruin, rather than promote the opulence of the kingdom? unless our exports in value keep pace with our imports. As

our exports, however, do not, according to the constitution of the public revenue, afford an encrease of the duties of customs any way proportionate to our imports, men in power have not those inducements to rouse and stimulate them so much in regard to the one, as they have in regard to the other.

In regard, likewise, to our duties of excise, let it be candidly considered, how far they may affect the general commerce and wealth, and power of the nation. Are they not laid even upon those necessaries of life which affect the labour of the husbandman and the farmer, and, consequently, the country gentleman, as well as the artisan, mechanics and manufacturers of every class, throughout the whole kingdom? The public, as well as the personal royal revenue of our sovereign himself, doth also greatly depend on the keeping up, if not encreasing, the product of the excise funds; and the very being and existence of these funds depend upon clogging and encumbering our native productions and manufactures: as this is the case, no one will presume to say that the constitution of this, any more than the custom-house branch of the revenue, is so laid as necessarily to advance that commerce and navigation, which alone can support and uphold the state. It is true there are drawbacks allowed of the excise-duties upon the exportation of some commodities to foreign countries; such as on beer, ale, &c. yet the duties on soap and candles, and other the necessaries of life, that are consumed in our mechanic and manufactural arts, are not drawn back, but render the workmanship of those artists dearer, in proportion to the weight of these taxes; which must unavoidably prove detrimental to our traffic, as it occasions other nations to undersell us. See the article **BONDING OF CUSTOM-HOUSE DUTIES**.

As our intent is only to set things in that single point of view which relates to trade, I shall consider excises in no other light at present than as taxes on commodities, but attempt to shew the augmentative faculty of all such taxes, and the great prejudice they do to trade; for, whatever raises the necessaries of life, raises labour, and, of course, the price of every thing that is produced by labour. How our excises do really encumber our traffic will appear presently, they trebling themselves almost to the people for what they raise to the government; and it is to be greatly feared it would appear much more, if we could go to the bottom of the incumbrance; for it is to be considered that tradesmen in a country, by their mutual dependance on each other, are like wheels in a machine, in which, if one is touched, the others are affected.

Amidst so many trading movers, to what degree the oppression is encreased, is not easy to say; nor can we be started at the largeness of such computations; for, being circulated chiefly among ourselves, and going out by dribblets, we hardly perceive them, but yet are surprized to find wages and necessaries grow dearer and dearer, because few use themselves to consider the immensity of such collected advances in such sums: if, however, we compare the difference of the prices of necessaries between England and France, we shall find that difference obviously accounting for the prodigious amount of the consequences of our taxes; nor can it be a trifle that makes such a fruitful country, as England is, so dear, and its trade declining: for our working people, being forced to purchase the necessaries of life dear, must work dear to live, until their willing working hands are tied up by foreigners, who live less taxed, and, of course, work cheaper; so that they must, and do, undersell us at all markets for manufactured goods, where they come in competition with us, and, in time, must and will stop all such exports.

And we may appeal to the judgment of every honest man conversant in trade, whether he does not experience our trade to decline year after year, more especially our woollen trade, which has been estimated to be as necessary to us as bread is to the life of man; for our dearer goods must lie unsold, or be sold with loss, which must stop, or break our merchants; they, our clothiers and weavers, &c. they, their journeymen, who must either starve, turn beggars, thieves, or fly to our enemies, and help them to ruin us the faster; which has certainly happened too much of late years. See the articles **ARTIFICER and MANUFACTURERS**.

Oppress trade, and the generality of the common people become miserable, and burdensome to the rich; every accidental slackening of trade encreases that wretched number.—A poor man, by the severity of weather, the dead time of year in his particular trade (for all trades have such times) sickness, or various other accidents, cannot work, but, having saved ten good shillings, is determined to allow himself only bare necessaries, which, if untaxed, might cost about 4 d. per day; his money then will hold 30 days.

But if necessaries are advanced, by the consequences of our taxes, 2 d. per day on his consumption, in that case 6 d. per day is only equal to the above 4 d. for his maintenance, and he can then hold out but 20 days, and is forced the earlier by 10 days (in which possibly he might get employment) to starve, beg, or steal.

Absolute starving, we must hope, seldom or never happens among so humane a people as the English; but want of necessaries may so impair a poor man's health, that he may never recover it, and then an useful subject, part of the riches of the nation, is lost.

Begging but 10 days learns the poor man an idle way of life, that few ever get rid of, and then, instead of an useful, he becomes a burthensome, and, oftentimes, a villainous subject.

From stealing, whereby he becomes the bane of society, and, not contented with injuring his neighbour in his property, he is prompted sometimes to take away life; and in both cases he exposes himself to be cut off by the hand of justice: every way a loss to the nation.—In all these cases, the poor man may have a large family of children, adding misery to misery. Encourage but trade, by enabling the poor to work as cheap as our neighbours, and their children will be trained to labour, become industrious and useful subjects, live comfortably as journeymen, or perhaps, as masters, and contribute their assistance to add more power to the nation, and help to ease the rich of their taxes; for, the greater number of individuals there are in a country capable of paying, the less the tax will be on them, if equally laid. It is the interest of the rich to permit the poor to get money for their support; for, by preventing them, they bring the greater weight on their own shoulders, because these oppressions do not stop with the poor, but extend, like a plague, to the rich and the noble, whose fortunes inevitably moulder away by them.—These are the chief causes of the declining condition of their tenants, that great encrease of the poor's tax under which the nation now labours, and which, in some places, hath not been less than 8s. in the pound, and must, by degrees, inevitably sink the value of landed estates, until one ruin involves all. See POOR. How to disencumber our trade from pernicious taxes, see the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, i. e. NATIONAL DEBTS, EXCISE, FUNDS, TAXES, TRADE.

To shew, says the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. how excises, customs, and salt-duties, encrease the expences of the people, and, consequently, ruin our trade, the following account may not be improper.

First, the duties themselves.
The net produce of the taxes following was, before the war, computed to be, one year with another, as under:

Excise, about	1,280,000
Customs, about	1,700,000
Salt, about	150,000
	<hr/>
	4,650,000
The charges of raising these duties are about 10 per cent.	465,000
	<hr/>
	5,115,000

Secondly, the advanced price of those goods the above duties are laid on.
Woeful experience teaches us, that a very small duty laid on commodities raises the prices of them considerably to the consumer, beyond the gross duty.
By the fees given to officers, the tyrants of traders.
By tradesmen's loss of time in attending upon excitemen, or at custom-houses: a trader's time is his bread.
By taking away a quarter part of our trader's stocks for duties, and forcing them to take as great profits on $\frac{2}{3}$ of their stocks laid out in goods, in order to live, as they would on the whole, if duty-free.
By tradesmen's profits on the duty and advances in all the hands that all taxed goods come thro' to the consumer; as for example:
Suppose there should be no other tax but that on leather, let us see how many advances that would make on the price of shoes.
The grazier lays (1), on the beast he fats, his advanced price of shoes; he sells to the butcher, who takes (2) his profit on the grazier's advanced price of the beast; and raises (3) on the hide his advanced price of shoes; he sells to the tanner, whose journeymen raise (4) their wages, on account of the advanced price of shoes. The tanner pays (5) the tax of 2d. per pound on leather, takes (6) his profit on the before-mentioned five advances, and raises (7), on the tanned hide, his advanced price of shoes. He sells to the leather cutter, who takes (8) his profit on the before-mentioned seven advances, and raises (9), on the hide he cuts, his advanced price of shoes. He sells to the shoemaker, whose journeymen raise (10), their wages, on account of their advanced price of shoes. The shoemaker takes (11) his profit on the before-mentioned ten advances, and raises (12), on the shoes he makes, the advanced price of the shoes he wears; he sells to the consumer, with all these twelve advances, highly magnified beyond the bare duty.
So much for the tax on leather only: but the grazier, butcher, tanner, leather-cutter, and

shoemaker, use soap; that soap, like leather, is taxed, and, like that leather-tax, must be raised: but that caused twelve advances on our shoes; true; place, therefore, twelve advances more on shoes for the soap-tax. These tradesmen use candles; twelve advances more for the tax on them; and the same for every other tax on necessaries.
All which, duly considered, might be computed at above cent. per cent. on the gross produce of the duties; but, though the large duties cause some farther advance on all the goods they are laid on, charged with profit upon profit through every hand they pass, yet, as they keep not pace with the small duties, and all calculations appear fairest, when moderate, I chuse to abate in the advances, and to set them only at 50 per cent.

The amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on	2,557,500
Let us see how this 7,672,500l. circulates through the people, advances the prices of our goods, consequently ruins trade.	<hr/>
	7,672,500
	<hr/>

First, This dearthness of all necessaries, which raises the first cost of goods, must advance the price of all labour.

The Spectator, No. 200, computes that the people without property, who work for their daily bread, do consume $\frac{2}{3}$ of our customs and excises; therefore they pay $\frac{2}{3}$ of them and their consequences. As these people live but from hand to mouth, whatever is laid on them they must, therefore, shift off, or they cannot live; and, since these various taxes have been projected, they must earn enough, when they do work, to pay the taxes, the advanced price of taxed goods, and the advanced prices of all other necessaries, viz. meat, bread, cloathing, or whatever they can use, not only for the consumption of the days they are employed, but for those also that they are not; therefore, they are the cause of raising the wages of the working people $\frac{2}{3}$ of 7,672,500l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, which makes

	5,115,000
Secondly, This dearthness of all necessaries forces the master-tradesmen to raise on their customers the taxes and advances on their consumption.	

The above Spectator allows $\frac{1}{3}$ consumption of our customs and excises to people with property; but, as these may be divided into two classes, viz. those in trade, and those out of trade, and the proportion consumed by each not being ascertained by any author, I shall compute them at half and half: therefore the master tradesmen, or people with property in trade, viz. merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, farmers, wholesale dealers, and retailing shop-keepers, must each lay on the goods they consume, whether food, cloathing, or utensils, their $\frac{1}{3}$ consumption of 7,672,500l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes

	1,278,750
Thirdly, Tradesmen's paying advanced prices on their goods must have advanced profits: for, whether they lay out their stocks of money in goods that bear their natural value only, or goods that bear double value by taxes, still a living profit must be obtained on the stocks they employ.	<hr/>
	6,393,750

For the wages of the manufacturer, the mechanic, the labourer, and the expences of the master-tradesman, being of necessity raised, the first cost of goods must be so too; and, considering the various tradesmen's hands that goods pass through from the workman, or labourer, to the consumer, charged with profit upon profit by each of them (which, in the little trades, must be very great, otherwise, their returns being small, they could not live) the advance thereby occasioned may, at a moderate rate, be computed at 50 per cent. to the consumer, on the above two articles, which raise the first cost of goods, and makes

	3,196,875
People with property, out of trade, their $\frac{1}{3}$ of 7,672,500l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes	<hr/>
	1,278,750

Total advance
This is part of the amount of the consequences of raising 4,650,000l. for the government, by our present manner of taxing goods.

	10,869,375
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Our other taxes are, the land-tax, the grofs produce, at about 4 s. in the pound, is about - - - 1,960,000
 The stamps, windows, post-office, &c. their computed grofs produce about - - - 500,000
 The poor's tax is computed, on a middling rate to equal the land-tax, but must be much more when trade is reduced, and the price of provisions high: however, to reckon it at no more than the land-tax, or - - - 1,960,000
 General amount of all our taxes, and part of their consequences before the late war - - - 15,289,375
 Let us now see the amount of our taxes with regard to our expences. The British Merchant vol. i. p. 165, computes our people at seven millions, and their expences at 7 l. per head; but, as necessaries are grown dearer since the year 1713, when he wrote, and the number of people encreased, I shall compute the people at eight millions and their expences at 8 l. per head, which makes our total expences annually 64,000,000
 Of which 64,000,000, the people pay for the taxes, and their consequences, as above - - - 15,289,375
 Which being subtracted, their expences, if untaxed, would be only - - - 48,710,625

15,289,375 l. charged on 48,710,625 l. is a tax of above 31 per cent. on the expences of the people, which must add a prodigious artificial value to our goods, consequently render them less saleable, and ruin our trade.

If it be asked, Whether foreigners, for what goods they take of us, do not pay on that consumption a great portion of our taxes?

The answer is, that it must be admitted they do; but, if that was originally intended and expected to continue the same as at the first laying on our taxes, it will be the strongest argument against them; for, as our taxes on necessaries are proved to be so burdensome and extensive, by raising the prices of our goods, foreigners take less of them yearly; and, when the demand is reduced, the people, having less work, find less money to pay, and yet have their taxes proportionably encreased on them as they lose their trade: for, as the government abates neither expences or taxes, and, if one method of taxing fails, another is tried, what foreigners cease to pay we must: or, in other words, the less trade and money, the more taxes; and, the more our taxes are, the less and less trade and money we know we must expect. Is not this like adding to a horse's burden, and diminishing his meat? And must we wonder if he sinks under his load? Perhaps figures may explain this still clearer, by stating a similar account through 30 years.

Suppose that in the year 1710 all our taxes, and part of their consequences, were as they are now, viz. 15,289,375 l. that foreigners paid then $\frac{1}{5}$ of them, and our own people $\frac{4}{5}$; that foreigners going to cheaper markets since, have ceased taking goods from us yearly in proportion to 1 per cent. only on their former $\frac{1}{5}$ part of our taxes, and their consequences, the account every five years will stand thus:

	Foreigners paid of our taxes, &c.	Our own people paid
Antio 1710	l. 2,184,196	l. 13,105,179
1715	2,074,987	13,214,388
1720	1,965,778	13,323,597
1725	1,856,569	13,432,806
1730	1,747,360	13,542,015
1735	1,638,151	13,651,224
1740	1,528,942	13,760,433

By this it plainly appears in what manner our present taxes drive away our trade, and burden our people, who had, by this account, 655,254 l. more to pay in 1740, than they had in 1710, with $\frac{1}{5}$ less trade to pay it with.

To conclude this head. Two of our greatest authors clearly foresaw, at the laying on our numerous excises, customs, &c. that these unhappy consequences must necessarily follow; and their arguments are a full proof of what has been already advanced.

Mr. Locke, in his Considerations, &c. p. 90, says, That, for raising three millions on commodities, and bringing so much into the Exchequer, there must go a great deal more than three millions out of the subjects pockets; for a tax of that nature cannot be levied by officers to watch every little rivulet of trade, without a great charge, especially at first trial; but, supposing no more charge in raising it than of land-tax, and that there are only three millions to be paid, it is evident, that, to do this out of commodities, they must to the consumer be raised $\frac{1}{4}$ in their price, so that every thing to him that uses it must be a quarter dearer. Let us see now who, at the long-run, must pay this quarter, and where it will light: it is plain the merchant and broker neither will nor can, for, if he pays a quarter more for commodities than he did, he will sell them at a price proportionably raised; the poor labourer and handicraftsman cannot, for he just lives from hand to mouth already, and all his food, cloath-

ing, and utensils, costing a quarter more than they did before, either his wages must rise with the price of things, to make him live, or else, not being able to maintain himself and family by his labour, he comes to the parish.

And afterwards he proves, that, in the home-consumption, the whole burden falls on land at last.

Dr. D'avenant, in his Essay on Trade, vol. iii. p. 30, asserts, That, as to manufactures, high excises in time of peace are utterly destructive to that principal part of England's wealth; for if malt, coals, salt, leather, and other things bear a great price, the wages of servants, workmen, and artificers, will consequently rise, for the income must bear some proportion to the expence; and, if such as set the poor to work find wages for labour, or manufactures advance upon them, they must rise in the price of their commodity, or they cannot live; all which would signify little, if nothing but our own dealings among one another, were thereby affected: but it has a consequence far more pernicious in relation to our foreign trade, for it is the exportation of our own product that must make England rich. And in page 31, But the consequence of such duties, in times of peace, will fall most heavily upon our woollen manufactures, of which most have more value from the workmanship than the materials; and, if the price of this workmanship be enhanced; it will, in a short course of time, put a necessity upon those we deal with, of setting up manufactures of their own, such as they can, or buying goods of the like kind and use from nations that can afford them cheaper. That this is matter of fact, see articles SPAIN, FRANCE, HOLLAND, PRUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK, &c.

Further REMARKS.

The preceding observations having been made before the late war, when the PUBLIC DEBTS of the kingdom did not exceed 80 millions, and our DUTIES and TAXES in general were proportionate to such principal PUBLIC DEBTS; the evils hereby lamented have encreased, as our PUBLIC DEBTS have since done; and to what an enormous height they are now brought, and to what a degree the nation is incumbered, in consequence thereof, our trade and navigation must inevitably feel, sensibly feel, for some time, till we experience the prosperous effects of the late DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and the most efficacious operations of the SINKING FUND, for our gradual redemption from such an immense load of national taxes and new duties of excise and customs. See DEBTS, NATIONAL DEBTS, REVENUE, TAXES.

DWINA, a principality in the empire of Russia, having the White-Sea on the north, and the principality of Ruberamiiski on the south.

The river Dwina, or, as it is in some places called, the Suchana, rises in the province of Jerslaw, passing within 30 miles of the lake Bielejezero, in the province of Bielejezero, and in the latitude of 57 degrees 40' minutes north. It runs west for about 40 miles, and then turns north for at least 40 more; during which course it passes within 30 miles of the said lake; which lake emptying itself into the great river Wolga: here it was that a navigation was said to be designed by the late Czar Peter the Great, to begin from the Dwina, and to be carried into that lake, and so into the Wolga, by a canal of only 30 miles in length.

From this part the river turns away east, and, being encreased with several small rivers; forms a sufficient stream so as to bear boats tolerably large, but especially floats of timber, with which they supply the carriage to Wologda, the first city of note upon the river Dwina, and which has been thereabout 60 miles navigable.

From this city of Wologda to Jerslaw, on the Wolga, is about 70 miles by land. Here the goods which formerly came from England to Archangel, and were to go to Astracan on the Caspian Sea, and so to Persia, used to be landed: and, being carried upon camels to Jerslaw, were then embarked on board their great ballatoons upon the Wolga, and went down that river above 2000 miles to Astracan.

WOLOGDA is a large, ill-built, but populous city, upon the Dwina, about 120 miles from it's head; it was always a town of great trade before the building of Petersburg, because of the navigation to and from Archangel, which conveyed merchants goods by two such great rivers.

From Wologda the Dwina goes on to Tosopiloez and Cheleleb 60 miles; thence to Strelitz, where the Strelitz guards were first raised; thence passing through several populous towns, it runs on to Osterough, in latitude 60; then, turning it's mighty channel to the north-west, it runs, by innumerable, populous, and some fortified places, to Archangel.

Though it must be a long way about, yet it is to be observed that the Russian and Muscovite merchants and travellers, who undertake the passage from Moscow to China by land, come all this way, viz. to Jerslaw by the Wolga, in boats; and then, hiring horses to carry their baggage to Wologda, they their take boat again, and go near 400 miles north-east down the river Dwina; then they land, and buy horses and camels, and so go away east about 600 miles more, to Tobolsky, upon the river Tobol. See the article RUSSIA.

DYEING. Somewhat a-kin to painting is the art of dyeing, which gives the most beautiful colours to silk, cotton, linen, and woollen, for apparel in general; and also affords us hangings, flags for shipping, and innumerable other particulars, for home, as well as foreign consumption. This art depends chiefly on three things, viz. 1. Disposing the surface of the stuffs to receive and retain the colours, which is performed by washing them in different lyes, digesting, beating them, &c. in which human urine putrified, a sharp salt of athes, divers soaps, and galls of animals, are of principal use; by means whereof, the viscous gluten of the silk-worms, naturally adhering to their threads, is washed and cleansed from them, and thus they become fitted gradually to imbibe the colours.

By these also, the greasy foulness, adhering to wool and flax, is scoured off. In every article of which, the use of chemistry is sufficiently conspicuous. The 2d is, So to grind the colours, as that they may enter the body duly prepared, and preserve their brightness undiminished; in which chemistry also is known to be of singular importance, as appears from the manner of dyeing scarlet, discovered by Cornelius Drebbel, citizen of Alemaar; a man extremely well skilled in chemistry (which recommended him to the king of England) and enumerated among the superlative philosophers of those times.

Among other of his experiments, he left an account of one concerning the method of dyeing wool with a bright flame colour; which method his son-in-law, Kufflaar, afterwards putting in practice, raised an immense fortune by it. Spirit of nitre is found to heighten and improve the rich colour of cocheneal, into the brightness of burning fire; but then it's acrimony corrodes and damages the wool, which is prevented by dulcifying it with tin: after which it neither hurts wool nor silk, yet retains all it's lustre and vivacity. The third consists in having beautiful colours, wherein the use of chemistry likewise is obvious. I once shewed some colours, says the learned Boerhaave, which I had prepared from solutions of copper, to some skilful maffer-dyers, who were surprized with the beauty of them, and would have given any money to have been able to give colours of such brightness to their stuffs, &c. and no wonder, since the blue, violet, and green of copper, which may be raised or weakened at pleasure, afford so agreeable a variety, that a person who could dye woollen, silken, linen, or cotton cloths therewith, would gain an immense estate.

A short account of what is done in particular trades, by the art of dyeing or colouration, according to Sir W. Petty.

1. There is a whitening of wax, and several sorts of linen and cotton cloths, by the sun, air, and reciprocal effusions of water.
2. Colouring of wood and leather by lime, salt, and liquors, as in staves, canes, and marble leathers.
3. Colouring of paper, viz. marbled paper, by distempering the colours with ox-gall, and applying them upon a stiff gummed liquor.
4. Colouring, or rather discolouring the colours of silks, tiffanies, &c. by brimstone.
5. Colouring of several iron and copper works into black, with oil.
6. Colouring of leather into gold colour, or rather silver leaves into gold by varnishes, and in other cases by urine and sulphur.
7. Dyeing of marble and alabafter with heat and coloured oils.
8. Colouring silver into the brass colour with brimstone or urine.
9. Colouring the barrels and locks of guns into blue and purple, with the temper of small coal heat.
10. Colouring of glass (made of sands, flints, &c.) as also of crystals and earthen ware, with the rusts and solutions of metals.
11. The colouring of live hair, as in Poland, horse and man's hair, as also the colouring of furs.
12. Enameling and annealing.
13. Applying colours, as in the printing of books and pictures, and as in making of playing cards, being each of them performed in a several way.
14. Gilding and tianing with mercury, block-tin, sal armoniac.
15. Colouring metals, as copper with calamy into brass, and with zink or spelter into a golden colour, or into a silver one with arsenic: and of iron into a resemblance of copper, with Hungarian vitriol.
16. Making painters colours, by preparing of earth, chalk, and slates; as in umber, ochre, Cullen earth, &c. as also out of calces of lead, as ceruse and minium; by sublimates of mercury and brimstone, as in vermilion; by tinging white earths variously, as in verdeter, and some of the lakes; by concrete juices or fæculæ, as in gambugium, indico, pinks, sap-green, and lakes: as also by rusts, as in verdegrease, &c.
17. The applying of these colours by the adhesion of ox-gall, as in the marble paper, aforesaid; or by gum-water, as in limning; or by clammy drying oils (such as are the oils of linseed, nuts, spike, turpentine, &c.)

18. The watering of tabbies.

19. The last we shall name is the colouring of wool, linen, cotton, silk, hair, feathers, horn, leather, and the threads and webs of them with woods, roots, herbs, seeds, leaves, salts, limes, lixiviums, waters, heats, fermentations, macerations, and other great variety of management: an account of all which is a short history of dyeing.

The materials used in this art of colouration are,

Iron and steel, or what is produced from them, in all true blacks (called Spanish blacks) though not in Flanders blacks, viz. they use copperas, steel-filings and slippe, which is the stuff found in the troughs of grind-stones, whereon edge-tools have been ground.

They also use pewter for Bow dye scarlet; viz. they dissolve bars of pewter in the aqua fortis they use, and make also their dyeing kettles or furnace of this metal.

Litharge is used by some, though acknowledged by few, perhaps, to add weight to dyed silk; litharge being a calx of lead, one of the heaviest and most colouring metals.

Antimony is much used to the same purpose, though we know there be a very tingent sulphur in this mineral, which affordeth variety of colour, by the precipitations and other operations upon it.

Arsenic is used in crimson upon pretence of giving lustre, although those who pretend not to be wanting in giving lustre to their silks, do utterly disown it's use.

Verdegrease is used by linen dyers in their yellow and greenish colours, although of itself it strike no deeper colour than of pale straws.

Of mineral salts used in dyeing, the chief is allum; the true use thereof seems to be in regard to the fixation of colours.

1. It may be also used to make common water a fit menstruum for extracting the tingent particles of several hard materials; for allum is used with such materials which spend easy enough, as Brazil-wood, logwood; &c. And withal, that the stuffs to be dyed are first boiled in allum liquors, and the allum afterwards cleared from the said stuff again, before any colour at all be applied.

2. Whether it be used to scour the fordes, which may interpose between the coloranda and the dyeing stuff, and so hinder the due adhesion of the one into the other, the boiling of several things first in allum seeming to tend this way. But I find this work to be done in cloth and rugs, by a due scouring of the same in the fulling-mills with earth, and in silk with soaps, by which they boil out the gums and other fordes, hindering or vitiating the intended colours.

3. Whether allum doth intenerate the hairs of wool, and hair stuff, as programs, &c. whereby they may the better receive and imbibe their colours? Unto which opinion I was led, says Sir William, by the dyers; saying, that, after their stuffs were well boiled in allum, they then cleared them of the allum again: but we find the most open-bodied cottons and silks to have allum used upon them, as well as the harder hairs. Nor is allum used in many colours, viz. in no wood or indico blues; and yet the stuffs, dyed blue, are without any previous inteneration quickly tinged, and that with a slight and short immersion thereof into the blue fat.

4. Whether it contribute to the colour itself, as copperas doth to galls, in order to make a black; or as juice of lemons doth to cocheneal in the incarnatives, or as aqua fortis, impregnated with pewter, doth in the Bow scarlet, changing it from a red rose crimson to a flame colour. This use is certainly not to be denied to allum in some cases; but we see in others, that the same colours may be dyed without allum as well as with it, though neither so bright, lively, or lasting.

5. Wherefore, fifthly, I conclude (as the most probable opinion) that the use of allum is to unite the cloth and the colour, as clammy oils and gum-waters do in painting and limning; allum being such a thing, whose particles dissolved with hot liquors will stick to the stuffs, and pitch themselves into their pores; and on which the particles of the dyeing drugs will also catch hold, as we see the particles of copperas, and other crystallizing materials, do of boughs and twigs in the vessel, for crystallization.

A second use I imagine of allum, is the extracting or drying up of some such particles, as could not consist with the colour to be struck; for we see allum is used in dressing of alutas, or white leather, which it drieth, as the salt of hending doth in ox-hides, and common salt in preserving flesh meat; for a sheep-skin newly flayed could not be coloured as brasils are, unless it were first dressed into leather with allum, &c. which is necessary to the colour, even although the allum be, as it is, cleared out of the leather again, before the colouring, with bran, yolks of eggs, &c. Wherefore, as accidentally it makes a wet raw skin take a bright colour, by extracting some impeding particles; so doth it also out of other materials, though, perhaps, less discernably. Another use of it is, I suppose, to brighten a colour: for, as we see the finest and most glassy materials make the most orient colours, as feathers, flowers, &c. so certainly if boiling cloth in allum incrustate it with a kind of glassy particles, the tinging them yields more brightness, than tinging a scarrous

brous matter. Analogous hereunto, I take the use of bran and bran-liquors to be; for it yielding a most fine flour (as we see in making starch) this I conceive, entering the pores of the stuff, levigates the superficies, thus making the colour more beautiful, as we see all woods to be gilded are first smoothed over with white colours.

And, indeed, all other woods are thus prepared by priming, before the ultimate colours be laid on.

The next mineral salt is salt-petre, not used by ancient dyers, and but by few of the modern: and that not 'till the wonderful use of aqua fortis (whereof salt-petre is an ingredient) was observed in the Bow scarlet: nor is it used now, but to bright colours, by back-boiling them, for which argol is more commonly used. Lime is much used in working blue fats.

Of the animal family are used cocheneal, urine of labouring men, kept 'till it be stale and stinking; honey, yolks of eggs, and ox-gall. The three latter so rarely, that I shall say little more of them here, only observing of urine that it is used to scour, and help the fermenting and heating of wood; and also in the blue fats instead of lime: it discharge the yellow, and is therefore used to spend weld withal.

Dyers use two sorts of water, viz. river and well water. The last, which is harsh, they use in reds and other colours wanting refringency, and in dyeing materials of the flacker contextures, as in callicoe, fustian, and the several species of cotton works. But 'tis naught for blues, and makes yellows and greens look rusty.

River water is more fat and oily, and therefore used in most cases, and must be had in great quantities for washing and rinsing their cloths after dyeing.

Water is called by dyers white liquor, but a mixture of one part bran and five of river water, boiled an hour, and put into leaden cisterns to settle, is what they call liquor absolutely. This, when it turns sour, is not good, which will be in three or four days in summer: this liquor, besides the afore-named uses, contributes something, I conceive, to the holding of the colour; for it is used to mealy dyeing stuffs, such as mather is, being the powder of a root; with which the flour of the bran being joined and made glutinous by boiling, I doubt not, but both sticking upon the villi of the stuff, the mather sticks the better for the starchy pastiness of the bran flour.

Gums have been used by dyers about silk, viz. gum arabic, dragant, mastic, dragon's blood. These tend little to the tincture, no more than gum in writing-ink, which only gives it's consistence; so gum may give the silk a glossiness: and, lastly, to increase weight; for if an ounce of gum, worth a penny, can be incorporated into a pound of silk, it produces three shillings, the price of an ounce of silk.

Having spoken thus far of some of the dyeing stuffs, I shall insert a catalogue of most dyeing materials.

The three peculiar ingredients for black, are copperas, filings of steel, and slippe.

The refringent binding materials, are alder-bark, pomegranate-peels, walnut rinds and roots, oaken sapling-bark, and saw-duft of the same, crab-tree bark, galls, and sumach. The salts are allum, salt-petre, sal armoniac, pot-ashes, and stone-lime, unto which urine may be enumerated as a liquid salt.

The liquors are well and river water, wine, aqua vitæ, vinegar, lemon-juice, and aqua fortis, honey and molasses.

Ingredients of another class, are bran, wheaten flour, yolks of eggs, leaven, cummin-seed, fenugrec-seed, agaric, and fenna.

Gums are, gum arabic, dragant, mastic, and dragon's blood. The smecticks, or abstersives, are fuller's-earth, soap, linseed-oil, and ox-gall.

The metals and minerals are pewter, verdegrease, antimony, litharge, and arsenic.

The colourings are of three sorts, viz. blue, yellow, and red, of which logwood, old fustic, and mather, are chief.

The blues are woad, indico, and logwood: the yellows, weld, wood-wax, and old fustic: the reds, are red-wood, brasil, mather, cocheneal, safflowers, kermes-berries and sanders; the arnotto and young fustic for orange-colours.

In cloth-dyeing, wood foot is of good use.

Red-wood must be chopt into small pieces, then ground in a mill as corn is. 'Tis used in dyeing cloth and rugs of the coarser sort: the colour is extracted by long boiling with galls. It makes a kind of brick colour red, and holdeth much better than brasil. The cloth is to be boiled with it, so that it is only for such as are not prejudiced by much boiling.

Brasil is chopt and ground like red-wood: it dyeth a pink-colour or carnation, for which 'tis used with allum; and, with addition of pot-ashes, for purples.

Brasil steeped in water giveth a claret colour, which a drop or two of lemon-juice, or vinegar, turneth to the colour of Canary sack, agreeing herein with cocheneal. This colour soon staineth, as may appear by the change so small a quantity of an acid liquor makes upon it.

Mather, used to the best advantage, dyeth on cloth a colour nearest to our Bow dye, or new scarlet, as safflower doth in silk, so that the bastard scarlets are dyed with it. This

colour endures much boiling, and is used both with allum and argol: it holdeth well.

Mather is used with bran liquor instead of white liquor.

Cocheneal is also used with bran liquor in pewter-furnaces, and with aqua fortis for the scarlet dye, called in grain. Rags dyed in the dregs are called turnsole, and used to colour wines, cocheneal being esteemed rather cordial than unwholesome. Any acid liquor takes off the intense redness of this colour, inclining it to an orange, flame, or scarlet colour: with this colour also the Spanish leather and flocks are dyed which ladies use. The extract of it makes the finest lake.

Arnotto dyeth of itself an orange colour, is used with pot-ashes upon silk, linen, and cottons, but not cloth, as not penetrating into a thick substance.

Weld dyeth a deep lemon colour. Painters pink is made of it.

Wood-wax dies the same as weld, being used in greater quantities. 'Tis used for coarse cloths, and is set with pot-ashes or urine.

Fustic is chopt and ground as the other woods.

The young fustic dyeth a kind of reddish orange colour; the old, a hair colour, with several degrees of yellowness between: 'tis used with slaked lime. The colours dyed with old fustic hold extremely, and are not to be discharged, will spend with salts or without, and will not work hot or cold.

Soot of wood. This containeth in itself both a colour and salt, wherefore nothing is added to extract it's colour, which of itself is the colour of honey; but the foundation of many others upon wool and cloth, for to other things 'tis not used.

Woad being chopt and ground is made into balls, and dried in the sun.

English woad is accounted the strongest, 'tis tried by staining white paper or a lined wail with it; if the colour be a French green, it is good.

'Tis used with pot-ashes called ware.

Lime, or calke, which is a strong lime, is used to accelerate the fermentation of the woad.

The making and using woad is one of the most mysterious, nice, and hazardous operations in dyeing: it is one of the most lasting colours, and the foundation of so many, that the dyers have a certain scale to compute the degrees of it by.

Logwood maketh a purplish blue, and may be used without allum: being now used with galls, 'tis less fading than formerly.

General observations upon DYEING.

1. All materials (which of themselves do give colour) are either red, yellow, or blue; so that out of them, and the primitive fundamental colour white, all that great variety which we see in dyed stuffs doth arise.

2. That few of the colouring materials (as cocheneal, soot, wood-wax, woad) are in their outward and first appearance of the same colour, which by the slightest distempers and solutions in the weakest menstrua, the dye upon cloth, silk, &c.

3. That many of them will not yield their colours without much grinding, steeping, boiling, fermenting, or corrosion by powerful menstrua, as red-wood, weld, woad, arnotto, &c.

4. That many of them will of themselves give no colouring at all, as copperas or galls, or with much disadvantage, unless the cloth, or other stuff to be dyed, be as it were, first covered or incrustated with some other matter, though colourless beforehand, as mather, weld, brasil with allum.

5. That some of them, by the help of other colourless ingredients, do strike different colours from what they would alone, and of themselves, as cocheneal, brasil, &c.

6. That some colours, as mather, indico, and woad, by reiterated tinctures, will at last become black.

7. That, although green be the most frequent and common of natural colours, yet there is no simple ingredient, now used alone, to dye green with upon any material; sap-green being the nearest, which is used by country people.

8. There is no black thing in use which dyes black, tho' both the coal and soot of most things burnt or scorched be of that colour; and the blacker, by how much the matter before it was burnt was whiter, as in ivory black.

9. The tincture of some dyeing stuffs will fade even with lying, or with the air, or will stain even with water, but very much with wine, vinegar, urine, &c.

10. Some of the dyers materials are used to bind and strengthen a colour, some to brighten it, some to give lustre to the stuff, some to discharge and take off the colour, either in whole or in part, and some out of fraud, to make the material dyed (if costly) heavier.

11. That some dyeing ingredients or drugs, by the coarseness of their bodies, make the thread of the dyed stuff seem coarser; and some by shrinking them smaller, and some by smoothing them finer.

12. Many of the same colours are dyed upon several stuffs, with several materials; as red-wood is used in cloth, not in silks; arnotto in silks, not in cloths, and may be dyed at several prices.

13. That scouring and washing of stuffs to be dyed, is to be done with special materials; as for example with ox-galls, sometimes fuller's-earth, sometimes soap, this latter being in some cases pernicious, where pot-ashes will stain or alter the colour.

14. Where great quantities of stuffs are to be dyed together, or where they are to be done with great speed, and where the pieces are very long, broad, thick, or otherwise, they are to be differently handled, both in respect to the vessels and ingredients.

15. In some colours and stuffs the tingent liquor must be boiling, in other cases blood-warm, in some it may be cold.

16. Some tingent liquors are fitted for use by long keeping, and in some the virtue wears away by the same.

17. Some colours or stuffs are best dyed by reiterated dippings into the same liquor, some by continuing longer, and others a lesser time therein.

18. In some cases, the matter of the vessel wherein the liquors are heated, and the tinclures prepared, must be regarded, as the kettles must be pewter for Bow dye.

19. There is little reckoning made how much liquor is used in proportion to the dyeing drugs, it being rather adjusted to the bulk of the stuffs, as the vessels are to their breadth: the quantity of dyeing drugs being proportioned to the colour higher or lower, and to the stuffs both; as likewise the salts are to dyeing drugs.

Concerning the weight which colours give to silk (in which 'tis most taken notice of, being sold by weight, and a commodity of great price): 'tis observed, that one pound of raw silk loseth four ounces, by washing out the gums and natural mordants.

That the same scoured silk may be raised to above thirty ounces from the remaining twelve, if it be dyed black with some materials.

The reason of this is, because all gravitating drugs may be dyed black, being all of colours lighter than that: whereas, perhaps, there are few or no materials, wherewith to increase the weight of silk, which will consist with fair light colours.

Of a thing truly useful in dyeing, especially of black, nothing encreases weight so much as galls, by which black silks are restored to as much weight as they lost by washing out their gum: nor is it counted extraordinary that blacks should gain about four or six ounces in the dyeing, upon each pound.

Next to galls, old fustic increases the weight about $1\frac{1}{2}$ in 12.

Mather about one ounce.

Weld half an ounce.

The blue fats, in deep blues of the fifth stall, gives no considerable weight.

Neither doth logwood, cocheneal nor arnotto: nor even copperas, where galls are not.

Slippe adds much to the weight, and giveth a deeper black than copperas itself, which is a good excuse for the dyers that use it.

Dyers in France, of the great and good dye.

These have been ever distinguished from those of the lesser dye, as may be seen by a regulation made by the provost of Paris in November 1383, but, for a long time before that of 1669, there was no difference as to the masters of the two companies; for, if the latter engaged in dyes of a price and quality that did not belong to them, those of the great dye thought it not beneath them to work in the lesser dye.

In the regulation of 1669, are several articles common to both companies, though formed chiefly as statutes for the great dyers, the other company not being confirmed 'till ten years after, by letters patents in 1679.

Those new statutes of 1669 contain 62 articles, which may be reduced to four classes or titles.

The first, in tentarticles, treats of the separation and establishment of the two companies, their difference, wardens, drugs permitted and prohibited, &c.

The second prescribes manner and fashions, according to the colours and qualities of the stuffs.

The third regulates the work of the lesser dyers.

And the fourth and last class treats of the police of the master-dyers, their widows and apprentices.

We shall here extract only what is most important in the first and two last of these classes.

At the time of the regulation in 1669, there were in Paris but three dyers of the great dye in woollen stuffs: to form a body somewhat more considerable, it enacted, That three dyers of the lesser dye should be nominated by the lieutenant-general of the police, to work for the future at the great dye, performing, however, their master-piece of workmanship by those who should be chosen.

They were afterwards separated from each other, not being permitted the same wardens to govern them, nor to intermeddle in each other's craft.

A warden is to be elected yearly, to see to the performance of the new statutes granted to the masters of the great dye; who, 15 days after his election, at the company's expence, is to tender, in presence of the officers of police, and masters and wardens of the drapery, 12 pieces of cloth of Valogne

or Berry, and four pieces of silk, of colours requisite for patterns of unmixed ones.

It treats next of drugs and ingredients allowed or prohibited to both. See DRUGS.

The eighth article is of stuffs which may be dyed in the great dye only.

The ninth and tenth, which are the last of the first class, treat of the scouring of cloths dyed black, and of the erecting fulling mills: it treats also of some preparations of blacks. The third class begins with stuffs appertaining to the lesser dye, and prohibits master clothworkers and others to use any fat but hogs-lard. It afterwards distinguishes the cloths of each dye; enacting, that all woollen designed for tapestry, shall be of the good dye as prescribed for cloths. 'Tis also prohibited to use, in the dyeing woollens by the lesser dye, alder-bark, filings of iron or copper, or Indian wood.

In regard to inspections and marks, one of the most essential points of the regulation enacts four sorts; those of the drapers with the dyers; of the jurat dyer with the masters of the company; those of the masters and wardens for foreign merchandizes unladen at the halls; and, lastly, of the same persons for goods carried to fairs.

The drapers inspection of the dyers, is to be by a draper who hath gone through the office, commissioned hereunto by the drapers company; to which, not only the masters of the great dye are subject, but even their warden; during the fifteen days his commission lasts, he examines not only the drugs and ingredients, but also the stuffs dyed, marking them with the name of the cities where dyed, and with the dyer's name and quality of the stuff.

The wardens inspection differs not from that in other companies.

The third inspection is that of the masters and wardens of the drapers in the halls, and was designed, as well to see if the woollen stuffs of French manufacture have the proper marks, as to examine if foreign woollen stuffs were of the good dye, and to make them accordingly. To facilitate this important inspection, all goods not designed for fairs, are to be brought directly to the halls, and there remain three days; prohibiting all drapers, mercers, &c. on pain of forfeiture, and 1000 livres fine, to receive any into their houses, shops, or warehouses, 'till inspected and marked.

Lastly, the inspection and mark made at fairs are the same.

The police of the company of master dyers, which makes the fourth class, consists:

1st, In that none may receive his freedom, 'till after four years apprenticeship, and serving three years as a journeyman. 2dly, No master may take more than one apprentice at a time, whom the master, eight days after his apprenticeship, is to oblige to perform a trial or master-piece of dyeing, in presence of the warden in office, to be afterwards enrolled in the journeymen's roll.

3dly, Apprentices may not, during their apprenticeship, absent themselves without due cause, so deemed by the officers of police, on pain of erazement out of the company's books, without they will submit to serve a new apprenticeship.

4thly, Journeymen, after four years apprenticeship and three years service, may not be received masters without special privilege, or a master-piece of workmanship performed in presence of the warden and two ancient masters; which is to be composed by the candidate of three balls of Languedoc wood, from which, properly prepared, he is to draw a blue dye, and use it in cloths, and this during six days, and no longer; but masters sons are not obliged to this, but only to trial of a good dye during two days.

5thly, Masters widows may continue the business, but not take new apprentices; the said widows, as also masters daughters, make journeymen free by marriage.

Besides these five particulars, there are two others regulating the days of meeting, viz. those of the chamber for the affairs of the company, and the general yearly meeting; in which last reports are made of trespasses committed that year, to prevent and punish which proper remedies are consulted.

By the 56th article of these statutes, master-dyers are permitted to have in their houses tenters, on which to extend and dry their stuffs when dyed, provided, however, they reach not beyond one half of the street, and that the stuffs on them come not within three fathoms of the ground.

A new regulation in France for dyers marks.

By the 58th article of the regulation already mentioned, all master-dyers of woollen stuffs are to have a small anvil, with their name engraved on it, that the inspector applying his lead to the ends of the stuffs, may impress the dyer's name on it.

They are, moreover, not to put on their leads the words manufactures royale, unless intitled to it by letters patents. Some dyers, however, especially those of the borough of Darnetal, not content with the simplicity of the usual mark, by a manifest trespass, using gilded lead with pompous impressions, without permission obtained, the king, to stop this, ordained the execution of the statutes a-new, with very express prohibitions, on pain of forfeiture, and 500 livres fine.

There are three orders of council of the year 1725, concerning

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cerning the dyers. The first of which permits them to dye black with the walnut-tree root, light stuffs not fuled, under certain conditions.

The second permits, in like manner, the dyers of Languédoc, Auvergne, &c. to dye cadis and cordelats, of half ell and under, with the lesser dye.

The third prohibits all dyers and others to send, or encourage the sending, out of the kingdom, dyed silks fit to make stuffs of.

In regard to dyers of the lesser dye in France.

Their statutes are ancient.

All the sworn companies being obliged by the ordonnance of Orleans to reform their statutes, and take new letters patents of confirmation; these dyers obtained letters of Charles IX, in 1575, since confirmed by Henry IV, in 1604, and by Lewis XIII, in 1618, and lastly by Lewis XIV, in 1679, the letters patents being inrolled in parliament in 1680.

Amongst other things common to all other patents, it in particular enacts, That they are, in their art and craft of the lesser dye, to use gall, copperas, alder-bark, Indian wood, orchel, brassil, and dyer's weed, to soften the blacks, as also to dye in black; mufe, triftamic, &c. which properly distinguish that company from others, to whom those sorts of drugs are prohibited.

The statutes confirmed in 1679, consisting chiefly of the articles already given, in speaking of the great dyers, we shall insert here only the most essential, and peculiar to those of the lesser dye.

The apprenticeship is to be four years indifferently with masters of either dye, and the service afterwards three years with those of the lesser dye.

The master-piece of workmanship consists in four pieces of dye, two of cloth, and two of light stuffs: the cloths to be black. Of the small stuffs, one is to be dyed in castor, and the other in brown bread, or bran, but without partaking of the greater dye.

Master's sons to serve only two years apprenticeship, and the same time as journeymen, either with their father or a stranger; and, at reception to their freedom, are held only to a single trial, which is to a piece of cloth black, and a piece of light stuff at their option. Journeymen marrying masters daughters or widows, have the same exemption from a master-piece of workmanship.

No journeymen or apprentices may dye on their own account, on pain of exemplary punishment.

Lastly, besides the inspections of their own wardens, they are subjected to those of the wardens of the company of the great dyers.

Before the year 1679, dyers in silk, woollen, and thread, claimed also a right to visit those of the lesser dye, in conjunction with the masters of the great dye.

Dyers in silk, wool, and thread.

Though these be considered as one company only, yet in some respects they may be accounted as three different ones, only re-united in one body.

In effect, the masters are not indifferently permitted to dye silk, wool, and thread, nor even to dwell and work together. The dyeing each of these materials forms different professions, which have their masters, apprentices, master-pieces of skill, drugs, &c. and, if one of these three freedoms is chose, may not have liberty to pass in the two others.

These three trades, thus united, are in some sort considered as dyers of the great dyes, as they are to use the best drugs in many of their dyes.

Their first statutes are very antient, but mostly repealed by the regulation of 1669.

The new regulation has 98 articles, some of the most essential are as follow:

The 1st, after re-uniting them in one company, restrains the silk-dyers to dye and sell silk only, and so of the other two; and every master to be received, for the future, is to perform his master-piece of workmanship only in one of the three dyes wherein he shall chuse to work.

The 2d treats of the election of wardens, half of whom are always to be master silk-dyers, and the other half woollen and thread-dyers: so that, of four wardens, two of them are to be for the silk-dyers, one for the woollen, and the other for the thread dye.

By the 3d, the general visitations of the wardens are fixed at four in the year, to which the silk-throwsters are also subject. Beside trespasses and faults in dyeing which the wardens are to observe in their circuits, and report as the case requires, they are also to take the names of the dyers, their sons, apprentices, and journeymen, to know if they have been registered in the company's books.

The 83d enacts, that none may use the trade, that has not been apprentice and journeyman the due time, performed a master-piece, and been received master.

By the 84th article, every master is to have a punch graved on one side, with the name and arms of the city where he

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lives; without which marks, they may not sell or deliver any dyed stuffs, nor any persons receive them, on pain of 100 livres fine for every trespass, and forfeiture of the goods not marked.

The 85th requires every dyer to keep a register of the silks, woollens, and threads, &c. delivered them to dye.

The goods which the silk-dyers may sell by wholesale or retail, are all sorts of silks raw and dyed, &c. Those of the woollen dyers, are woollens dyed, and canvasses proper for tapestries; the thread-dyers, all kinds of linen thread, mohair and cotton, marking thread, &c.

The 87th is concerning tenters in the street, and is the same as the 56th of the great dye.

By the 88th, their weights and measures are to be those used in the place of their abode.

By the 89th, they have the privilege of preference on goods dyed by them, that may have been seized and sold, but only for the two last years.

The four following articles relate to apprenticeships, journeymen, master-pieces, freedoms, and widows privileges.

The apprenticeship is four successive years with one master, who may take but two apprentices at a time, the second to be bound two years after the first. The service as journeyman is two years, foreigners excepted, who must serve four years before they can be free.

Widows may continue their profession, and continue apprentices taken by their husbands, but not bind any anew.

The 94th article prohibits masters to use more than one shop or workhouse, as also to lend their name to others to hold them in their stead.

The four last articles relate to the particular meetings of the company, the custody of records and papers, fines, and the general meeting.

The particular meetings are fixed too once a month, with liberty, however, to the wardens, to convoke extraordinary ones, if necessary.

The papers, records, &c. are to be put, an inventory of them being first made, into a chest, with two keys, deposited in the company's chamber; one of the keys to be kept by one of the wardens of the silk-dyers, the other alternatively by those of the woollen and thread-dyers.

The fines and confiscations belong one moiety to the king, one quarter to the wardens that seize, and the other to the poor.

The general meeting is exactly the same in all respects, as that of the great dyers, with this only difference, that, in the room of the wardens of the drapery, a mercer and silk-worker are called to it.

These statutes of 1669 were observed without alteration till 1691, when, exigencies of state having obliged Lewis XIV to seek for supplies by the creation of many new offices, wardens were created for all the companies in Paris: which offices having been since re-united and incorporated, that of the silk, woollen, and thread-dyers, among others requested an incorporation, and proposed to raise money for the finances: on account of which, they increased the fees of binding apprentices and taking freedoms, annual visitations, and enrollment of journeymen in the company's register.

The same thing happening in 1694 and 1701, for the incorporation and re-union of the offices of auditors of company's accounts and such-like, a new augmentation was made of the same fees.

Lastly, two edicts in 1704 having created the offices of comptroller-visitators of weights and measures, and of registers to enroll all acts concerning the police of the companies of arts and trades, the dyers obtained a re-union by letters patents of 1707, consisting of ten articles; four of which augment their fees, the others relate to discipline, permitting the wardens to receive six masters without quality. Children born before their fathers freedoms, are obliged to one single trial only. All masters of the company of Paris are intited to freedom in all cities of the kingdom, namely Lyons, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Toulouse, Caen, Orleans, Tours, and Amiens. The wardens may visit privileged, or retired into privileged places. Though masters may have but one shop, they may, however, establish a calender in another house, with restraint to work only in their dyeing trade. Finally, all masters are prohibited from bringing to their houses, or shops, anywoollens not unladen at the chambers to be visited by one of the wardens, and the fee paid at the accustomed rate of two sols six deniers the bale.

The 6th article of the new regulation enacts, that conformable to the import of all other patents of re-union of offices and augmentation of fees, when the company shall be reimbursed a sum they have advanced to the state, no other than the old and accustomed fees shall be exacted.

DYER in leather, an artificer who colours skins, either on the one side or the other, in the cold or hot dye.

HAT-DYER, is said of master-hatters, who give themselves particularly to the dyeing of hats. Though there be in effect but one freedom in this company, the masters seem to be divided into three distinct professions, the one making the hats, the others dyeing them, and the third fitting up and selling them. See HATS.

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Of the encouragements proposed to be given in SPAIN with regard to the art of DYEING.

Though the company, or trade, of good dyers in silk and wool, says a patriot Spaniard, are but few every where, it is to be considered, that, upon this art or mystery, we depend for one of the most essential recommendations of our woven goods, and what procures them the readiest vent both at home and abroad; for it will turn to small account that the materials are good, and well wrought up; unless the mixture and colours be answerable, and grateful to the eye of the purchaser. It may be said, that a piece of cloth, or any other sort of goods, ill dyed, is much the same as if it was very much stained.

The importance of a good dye is also confirmed by experience. The great esteem and universal market the silks of Lyons have obtained in all parts of the world proceeds more from the liveliness of the colours, and a happy fancy in disposing of them, than all other things put together. As then we can give due encouragement to dyers for a trifling reward, being few in number, and by this means secure one of the principal perfections these goods want to recommend themselves, and come to a good market every where, I esteem it our interest to let nothing be charged upon master-dyers in the provinces of the crown of Castille, for any thing relative to this craft, to the alcavalas, cientos, millones, or any other taxes, even to make up the composition of the place they live in, or upon any other account, and that they pay only the imposts upon provisions and commodities, which they shall purchase and consume, as all other families do.

It will also be proper encouragement to let them buy, free of all duties, a certain portion of dyeing ingredients, and also their coppers, and other vessels and utensils necessary to the craft; and that the master be exempt from quartering, &c. soldiers, and troublesome offices: and in large cities, where there are various manufactories, I would have them allowed a house capable both of receiving their family, and exercising their trade, at the charge of the arbiters and proprios of the said towns; a trifling expence, and would yield vast benefits to the treasury, and the cities themselves. For we may depend upon this, that, let there be ever so many good manufactures, they cannot be preserved, and all the pains and charge we have been at in raising many of them will be miserably defeated, if we shall still be in want of good dyers; for those we have at present are few, and most of them not masters of their business. But 'tis to be understood, that a title to these privileges and advantages is, giving satisfactory proofs of their ability in the trade, and in an examination before the visitors of the said fabrics, by order of the intendant, or corregidor, whom it shall concern; and with their assistance, or their deputies, in order that their claim may be fairly made out.

In regulating and carrying into execution the immunities and indulgencies already proposed, it may happen that time and experience oblige us, in prudence, to make some alterations; for it is often the case, even in dispositions that have been resolved upon after a consultation of the ablest tribunals, and determined by princes and republics of the greatest wisdom, as appears from the many laws, statutes, ordinances, and other national regulations, collected together in the body of statutes, where we frequently, and from time to time, find several variations, amending some, explaining others, repealing many, and making all such new laws as shall be judged proper, just as the times make necessary, and events arise in the course of things. It will, therefore, be no surprize, if the regulations or proposals, which a zeal for the service of his majesty, and the interest of the public, have put me upon, may, in many instances, be reformed for the better. But, that these indulgencies dispensed by his majesty may not be received as inviolable privileges, and it may appear not quite so harsh, and with an air of novelty, when on this very account some alterations should be made, it will be very proper that, in the very patents which his majesty shall grant, both for the immunities and other encouragements above-mentioned, there be inserted this provisionary clause, For the present, and during my pleasure.

The laws of England relating to DYERS.

Stat. 23 Eliz. c. 9. §. 3. No cloths, kerseys, bays, frizadoes, hosen, or other things in nature of cloth, shall be maddered for black, unless first grounded with woad only, or with woad and ancle, alias blue indico, unless the madder be put in with

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fumach or galls. And no person shall dye cloth, &c. upon pain of forfeiting the value of the thing dyed, one moiety to the queen, and the other to him that will sue for the same.

§. 4. It shall be lawful to dye gall-black, fumach, or plain black, wherein no madder is used.

§. 5. Every dyer dyeing cloths, &c. maddered, and not woaded, shall, before delivery, fix a seal of lead to them, with the letter M, on pain of forfeiture, for every yard, &c.

3s. 4d. And any person selling cloths, &c. maddered and not woaded, without notice first given to the buyer, shall forfeit double the value of all such cloth, &c. to the party who shall sue for the same.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 26. Any person may import logwood, alias blockwood, to use in dyeing.

§. 27. Provided such importation be according to the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. and paying a subsidy to his majesty; as provided in the act of tonnage, &c.

13 Geo. I. c. 24. §. 1. Any person within England, Wales, or Berwick, dyeing black any bays, or other woollen goods, as madder-blacks, not being dyed throughout, with woad, indigo, and madder only, or dyeing any cloths, long-ells, &c. for woaded blacks, not being woaded throughout, shall forfeit for the same as follows, viz.

For every long Booking bays, containing 70 yards, 44 s.

For every Colchester bays, or short bays, containing 35 yards, 22 s. and so in proportion for bays, or other woollen goods.

For every cloth dyed black, not being woaded throughout, containing 44 yards, 40 s.

For every piece of bays fally dyed as aforesaid, containing 70 yards, 30 s.

For every Colchester, or short bays, containing 35 yards, 12 s.

For every perpetuana, or stuff, fally dyed, 4 s. and so in proportion for any other woollen goods discreetly dyed for woaded blacks.

§. 2. All woollen goods, truly maddered black, shall be marked with a red and a blue rose; and all woollen goods truly woaded black, with a blue rose: and any person counterfeiting the said marks, or fixing such to any goods fally dyed for maddered or woaded blacks, forfeits 4 l. for every piece of goods so marked.

§. 3. Any person, using logwood in dyeing blue, shall forfeit 40 s. for every piece so dyed, containing 44 yards, and 22 s. for every long piece of Booking bays, containing 70 yards; and 12 s. for every Colchester, or short bays, containing 35 yards; and 4 s. for every perpetuana, or stuff, containing 24 yards; and so in proportion for all other woollen goods.

§. 4. All persons occupying the trade of dyeing woollen manufactures within the city of London, or ten miles compass, shall be subject to the inspection of the company of dyers of London; and the master, wardens, and court of assistants of the said company, may appoint searchers within the said limits; and, out of the said limits, justices, at their quarter-sessions, may appoint such searchers; who, taking to their assistance a constable, or other peace-officer (who are required to be assisting) may, at all reasonable times in the day-time, enter the shop, or workhouse, of any persons using the trade of dyeing, to search all cloths, and other woollen goods; to be dyed black or blue; and any person opposing forfeits 10 l.

§. 5. All offences against this act, where the forfeitures exceed 5 l. may be recovered by action of debt, &c. in any court of record at Westminster; and, where the penalties shall not exceed 5 l. the matter shall be heard and determined by two or more justices for the county, city, &c. where the offence shall be committed (such justices not being concerned in the matter of the complaint) which examination shall be upon oath of one witness: and all forfeitures by this act within the city of London, and ten miles distance, shall go one moiety to the informer, and the other to the company of dyers; and, beyond such compass, the whole shall go to the informers; and any offenders refusing to pay, if not exceeding 5 l. in 20 days after conviction, the justices before whom they were convicted may issue warrants for levying the same by distress and sale of goods, or commit the offenders to hard labour for three months.

§. 6. All prosecutions for offences against this act shall be commenced within 40 days, and prosecuted without wilful delay; and persons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter-sessions, and the determination shall be final, and costs allowed.

§. 7. If any suit be commenced for any thing done in execution of this act, the defendant may plead the general issue; and, if the plaintiff be nonsuited, &c. the defendant shall recover treble costs. And this act shall be a public act.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter C.

A sufferance for the landing and examining of passengers baggage and wearing apparel.

IN the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Rotterdam.

Moses Wharton.

Four portmanteaus }
Three boxes } Containing baggage and wearing apparel, linen and woollen.
Three trunks }

You may permit the goods above-mentioned to be landed, and examined upon the lawful keys, unless the proprietor, or his agent, desire them to be sent back to the warehouse: and, after examination, you are to certify on the back of this sufferance how you find the said goods, enumerating the particulars; and,

if any customable goods be found among them, not concealed, you are to take care the duty thereof be paid; but, if prohibited, or concealed, they will be liable to seizure. Dated at the Custom-house, Southampton, the 17th day of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller,

To { D. E. Surveyor,
E. F. } Land-waiters.
F. G. }

Secondly, before these sufferances are delivered to be executed, they must be entered on the left-hand side of a particular book, to be kept by the collector for that purpose, in the following form:

Sufferances for passengers baggage and wearing apparel.

The sufferances granted.						Their Execution.		
Date of the sufferances.	Passengers names.	Ships names and places.	Masters names.	From whence.	Outward pack- age.	When exam- ined.	The several species of the goods.	By whom ex- amined.
1730.								
17 Jan.	Mof. Wharton.	{ Providence } of London }	James Bell	Rotterdam	{ 4 Port- manteaus 3 Boxes 3 Trunks }	18 Jan.	{ 30 ells plain holland li- nen, under 1 1/2 ell; 1 lb. 1/2 Dutch wrought silk; papers and books of ac- counts; 3 lb. tea; 1 In- dian damask gown and petticoat; certain old wearing apparel. }	{ D. E. Surveyor. E. F. } Land- F. G. } waiters.

Thirdly, The sufferances being thus entered, they are to be delivered to the officers to whom they are directed, who are carefully to examine the goods, and then report the particulars of each passenger's baggage on the back, thus:

18 Jan. 1730. Examined four portmanteaus, three boxes, and three trunks, and found them to contain thirty ells plain hollands linen, under 1 1/2 ell; one pound and a half of Dutch wrought silk; certain papers and books of account; three pounds of tea; one Indian damask gown and petticoat; certain old wearing apparel.

D. E. Surveyor.
E. F. } Land-waiters.
F. G. }

And they are to be returned to the collector, &c. for their further directions; who, under the officer's endorsement, are to direct all such apparel and baggage as appear to be worn, and to belong to the passengers, to be delivered without any entry, if not of prohibited goods: but such cloaths, or small parcels, as have not been worn, and are customable, must be entered, and the prohibited prosecuted. The direction must be as follows:

The linen and silk to be entered; the tea, gown, and petticoat to be prosecuted; and the rest delivered.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

Lastly, The examination, or execution, is to be entered on the right-hand side of the book, where the sufferances were entered when granted; and then to be returned (with perfect warrants for the goods liable to duties) to the officers they were directed to, who may, by virtue thereof, deliver the goods to the owner; and, with their executions, to be entered in the land-waiter's books, and preserved, in order to be jerked with the several perfect warrants granted for that particular ship.

The foregoing are directions for the entering of all sorts of goods and merchandize imported from foreign parts, under all circumstances; the method to be observed in the examination and delivery of them is as follows:

When entered, and the warrants, &c. granted for the landing and delivery, produced to the land-waiters (to be appointed by the collector, by noting their names in the report-book, or a particular one for that purpose) they are to accept it as an authority to permit the landing and delivery, but may not examine the goods on board, but order them on shore at the merchant's charge: certifying the entry to the tidelmen on board the ship, before they permit them to be unladen. The certificate to be as follows:

In the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Rotterdam.

O. R.

No. 1, 2 Two fats
3, 4 Two bags
5 to 44 Forty bolts
45 One box
46 One cafe
47 One bale

21st of January,
1730.

A. B }
B. C } Land-waiters.

To the officers on board the said ship.

And, if there is sufferance to permit landing them at any other place than the lawful keys, it must be mentioned in the order thus:

Sufferance for _____

By virtue of the order the tidelmen on board are to let the goods be brought on shore, and to deliver them to proper land-waiters, who are to attend at landing them, to examine, taste, weigh, measure, gauge, number, &c. according to the nature thereof; and to take an account of the quantities and qualities, in order to adjust the duties to be paid: but, that land-waiters may be prepared to take an account of the examination and delivery, when the ship is reported, a blank book is to be delivered to each whom the collector shall appoint to see such ship discharged; the title to be as follows:

Custom-house, Southampton,
8th day of January, 1730.

This book, containing twelve leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of the lading of the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Holland, reported the 8th day of January, 1730.

B. C. Collector.

And as to ships that do not report, &c. every land-waiter must have a general pocket-book delivered to him, to enter all warrants directed to him for delivery of goods. The title as follows:

This book, containing one hundred leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of all goods landed out of such ships as do not report.

B. C. Collector.

In the landing, examining, and delivery of all goods and merchandizes, it must be carefully observed,

1. That none be landed or delivered without a proper warrant; otherwise they are liable to seizure.
2. That no more be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, upon examination of such dry goods as pay duty by tale or measure, the importer appears to have endorsed short, they must be seized: but, in case of short entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land-waiters

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waiters must give the merchant an account in writing, that he may make a post or additional entry of it, before the goods be taken off the keys: unless the quantity short entered be very small, which may be entered in a book kept for that purpose in the custom-house, that the collector may know the quantity and quality, to demand the duties of the merchant; which the land-waiters are to see posted the next day at farthest, though, in strictness, they are not to give any credit; and to prevent it,

the surveyor must, 14 days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector, and comptroller a list of all ships cleared the preceding month, with the post entries that were standing out six days after the ships were cleared; who are to enquire into the reasons, and charge the officers concerned in giving such credit, and send their answers to the commissioners, with their observations.

The form of the post-entry book may be as follows:

When posted. In the Providence of London, James Bell master, from Rotterdam.

George Hunt.

Post on No. 17.
20th of February, 1730.
Juniper berries.

C. qrs. lb.	
Delivered	3 · 3 : 14
Entered	3 : 0 : 4
Short	0 : 3 : 10

C. D. Land-waiter.

27th of February, 1730.
In the Providence aforesaid.

Daniel Fuller.

Post on No. 25.

Crop Madder.	Old Iron.	Broken Glafs.	Pearl Barley.
C. qrs. lb.	Tons C. qrs. lb.	C. qrs. lb.	C. qrs. lb.
Delivered	5 · 17 : 3 14	23 : 1 · 0	9 : 0 : 7
Entered	5 : 00 : 0 : 00	20 · 0 : 0	8 : 0 : 0
Short	- 3 : 2 : 7	0 : 17 3 : 14	3 : 1 · 0

C. D. Land-waiter.

3. That the account of all goods must be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books, or loose papers.

4. That the marks and numbers of all casks, &c. must be carefully observed, and placed to the proper merchant's accounts; and each day's work compared with the account taken by the merchant, his servant, cooper, &c.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the warehouse, without bill of lading, or other warrant, or consent of the surveyor, under his hand and the land waiter's book.

6. That, upon any mistake in taking account of any goods, the land-waiters are not to erase their books, but strike the pen through the error, and make true figures, &c. and write the reason.

7. That the land surveyor duly attend at the water-side, and frequently every day inspect the land-waiters.

8. That, after payment of the new duties, and before delivery of any hides and skins liable to those duties, the same are to be stamped with a hammer and stamp, to be kept, when not in use, under separate locks of the collector and comptroller.

9. That, after payment of new duties, and before delivery of linens chequered, striped, printed, painted, stained, or dyed, they are to be stamped with a proper seal, to be kept as before; and after entry and being stamped, the land-waiter is to keep an account in his book, which is to be marked by the land-surveyor.

10. If, on examination of goods at delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, the following regulations must be observed, to procure repayment; and tho' he should be over-entered on some, and short on others, the one must not be deducted from the other, but a post-entry be made for what is short, and the over-entry obtained as before-mentioned, being as follows:

1. On the face of the warrant, at bottom, must be certified the quantity over-entered thus:

The merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown silk.
B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

On the back of the warrant the merchant, his servant, or agent, must make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occasion of the over-entry, thus:

James Crofs maketh oath, That neither himself [if the goods were taken up by a servant or agent, there must be likewise added, nor A. B. the proprietor] nor any other person for him, or to his use, did to his knowledge or belief, receive any more than three hundred twenty-seven pounds of the within mentioned, nor had any more landed out of the within mentioned ship, and that this over-entry was occasioned by a * mistake in casting up the invoice.

Signed—James Crofs.

Jurat 16th die Martii, 1730,
coram me D. E. Collector.

* Or any other occasion, as may be the case.

Underneath which oath must be certified as follows:

Upon examination, as also by affidavit above, we find the merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown silk.

B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

Certified the 16th of March, 1730.

A. B. Surveyor.

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Whereupon a certificate must be made out, in order to repay the duties for the goods so over-entered, as follows:

This is to certify, That James Crofs did enter and pay custom inwards in the ship Endeavour of Bristol, William How master, from Leghorn, the 7th day of February, 1730, for three hundred and sixty pounds of thrown silk; and we the officers under-written did examine the goods at the delivery out of the said ship, and found no more than three hundred and twenty-seven pounds: so that the said merchant has over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown silk; and, for further manifestation of the truth thereof, he hath made oath, That neither he, nor any other person to his use or knowledge, had any goods so ever-entered aboard the said ship, or in any place landed, without payment of custom. Dated at the custom-house, Southampton, the 16th of March, 1730.

A. B. Surveyor,
B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

On the back whereof must be wrote the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt, thus:

The subsidy to be repaid for the goods over-entered as within mentioned, amounts to one pound, six shillings, and one penny half-penny	} 1 s. d. 1 6 1½
The new subsidy to be repaid, amounts to one pound six shillings and one penny half-penny	} 1 6 1½
The ¼ subsidy to be repaid for the same, amounts to eight shillings and eight pence half-penny	} 0 8 8½
The ⅔ subsidy amounts to seventeen shillings and five pence	} 0 17 5
The impost 169¾, amounts to one pound, five shillings, and nine pence farthing	} 1 5 9¼
	5 4 1¾

D. E. Collector, E. F. Customer, F. G. Comptroller.

Southampton, 17 March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of D. E. their collector in this port, the sum of five pounds four shillings, and one penny three farthings, in full of this certificate

James Crofs.

Witness
F. G. Comptroller.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards must be discharged for the over-entered goods, by writing them off in the margin of the book: and the whole entered in books to be kept for that purpose by the collector and comptroller, as hereafter shewn.

11. That all goods are to be entered as found: if therefore on examination of any * poundage goods, except tobacco, they appear to have received damage, &c. so as to prejudice the merchant in the sale of them, proper allowances must be made, but never in consideration of the meanness; but, if the merchant is not satisfied with the allowance, then the collector, and any other principal officer with him, may appoint two in-

* 11th Rule of the book of rates.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

different merchants upon their oaths, to adjust the allowance: the form of the oath as follows:

A. B. and B. C. of Southampton, soap-makers, do severally make oath, That they have viewed and examined the damaged soap imported by Henry Shaw, in the Welcome of London, George Crisp master, from Leghorn, entered the 3d of March 1730, and that according to the best of their skills and judgments (being experienced in the nature and value of such goods) they do adjudge and believe, that the said soap is lessened one fifth part of its true value by the damage it has received.

Jurat apud Southampton, 11 die Martii 1730, coram nobis
 C. D. Collector.
 D. E. Comptroller.

Whereupon the officers or other persons who have adjusted the damage, are to certify the same on the back of the warrant, thus:

We have viewed sixteen chests, containing forty one hundred, three quarters, and seven pounds of hard soap, landed by virtue of this, and one other warrant, bearing date the tenth instant, and do find the same damaged, and decayed by salt water, or otherwise, that we judge the quantity of one fifth part fit to be allowed for damage. Certified the eleventh of March 1730.

A. B. Surveyor. B. C. } Land-waiters, &c.
 C. D. }

Which allowances for damage must be always made upon the keys, or in the king's warehouse, immediately after the landing of the goods, and before taken into the merchant's possession: and the quantity allowed not deducted from that short entered (if any) but a post entry made for it; and a certificate for repayment of the goods allowed for damage, as follows:

We whose names are underwritten, being officers thereunto appointed by the commissioners of his majesty's customs, do attest and certify, that we have viewed sixteen chests, containing forty-one hundred weight, three quarters and seven pounds, of hard soap, part of twenty-four chests, containing fifty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and seven pounds of hard soap, entered by Henry Shaw, in two warrants passed in the custom-house, the third and tenth days of March present, in the ship Welcome of London, George Crisp master, from Leghorn, and do find them so damaged and decayed, that we do judge the quantity of * one fifth part to be a reasonable allowance for damage, [† and increase of weight;] and accordingly did endorse the same upon the original warrant aforesaid; which, upon allowance thereof by the collector, is to be cancelled. Dated at the custom-house, Southampton, the twelfth day of March 1730.

A. B. Surveyor. B. C. } Land-waiters.
 C. D. }

* Or sometimes a certain quantity is allowed upon the whole, as one, two, &c. hundred weight, &c.

† If the goods deserve it and the allowance be upon that account.

On the back must be wrote the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt, thus:

The subsidy to be repaid for the damaged goods within mentioned, amounts to one pound three shillings and ten pence	}	l. s. d.
		1 3 10
The new subsidy amounts to one pound three shillings and ten pence	}	1 3 10
The one third subsidy amounts to seven shillings and eleven pence farthing	}	0 7 11 ¹ / ₄
The two third subsidy amounts to fifteen shillings and ten pence three farthings	}	0 15 10 ³ / ₄
The new duty on soap, &c. amounts to seven pounds sixteen shillings and one penny	}	7 16 1
The additional duty on soap, &c. amounts to three pounds eighteen shillings and an halfpenny	}	3 18 0 ¹ / ₂
		15 5 7 ¹ / ₂

D. E. Collector. E. F. Customer. F. G. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 14th of March 1730.

Received of the honourable the commissioners of his majesty's customs, by the hands of D. E. their collector in this port, the sum of fifteen pounds five shillings and seven pence halfpenny, in full of this certificate

Witness
 F. G. Comptroller. Henry Shaw.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the said certificate, must be discharged for so much goods as were allowed for damage, by writing off in the margin of the book: and the whole entered in particular books kept for that purpose.

12. That though no allowance be made to the importers of tobacco, for damage or quality, yet if, on delivery, any part appears to be damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or secure the duties, he may refuse the whole, or separate the damaged part (but not the stalk from the leaf) by cutting off from the hogheads, &c. what he refuses to enter, &c. which any three or more principal officers may cause to be burnt or destroyed: and a certificate of it be made out as follows:

These are to certify, That Dennis Dove of Southampton, merchant, did, on the third day of February 1730, enter one hundred and fifty hogheads of British plantation tobacco, in the ship Olive Branch of Liverpool, Giles Ellis, master, from Virginia, containing ninety thousand pounds: and, whereas the said Dennis Dove hath separated, from nine of the said hogheads, one thousand three hundred fifty-two pounds of damaged tobacco, and delivered the same to the proper officer to be burnt, and desires to be allowed one halfpenny for every pound of such damaged tobacco, for which he refuses to pay or secure the full duties, pursuant to an act in the ninth year of his late majesty, For the better securing and ascertaining the duties on tobacco: 'tis hereby further certified, That we have viewed the said tobacco, and, according to the best of our judgments, it hath received damage on board, or by some accident since the ship's arrival, by which the merchant is intitled to the said allowance; which is not made in consideration of any other damage, or for meanness of the tobacco, and does not exceed thirty shillings for all the tobacco in any one of the said nine hogheads; as limited by the said act. Dated at the custom-house, Southampton, the eighteenth day of February, 1730.

A. B. Surveyor.
 B. C. } Land-waiters.
 C. D. }

The chief laws relative to the DAMAGES of goods imported.

DAMAGES on goods imported (except tobacco and wines) are to be adjusted by two indifferent merchants upon oath, to be chosen by the principal officers of the customs, &c. See the RULES, ORDERS, and DIRECTIONS, concerning the regulations of the business of the custom-house, signed by Harbottle Grimstone, Bart. Speaker of the house of Commons, at the end of letter A, rule II.

The chief laws relating to DEAL-BOARDS.

DEAL-BOARDS, fir-timber, may not be imported from the NETHERLANDS, or GERMANY, on forfeiture of the ship and goods, 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. II. §. 23. except deal-boards, fir-timber, fir-planks, and masts of the growth of Germany, which may be imported from thence only by British, in British built ships, owned by British, upon payment of the like duties, as if from Norway, 6 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 1, 4, 3.

DEBENTURES. See the article DEBENTURES.
 DENMARK. The trade thither free to all persons, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 6.

DIAMONDS, jewels, pearls, and precious stones, to pass free inwards and outwards without warrant or fee, 6 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 1.

DISCOUNTS allowed the importers, on payment of the duties. See the rules, orders, and directions at the end of letter A, &c.

DRAWBACKS on foreign goods. See the article DRAWBACKS, and the latter end of letter A.

DRUGS. See Book of Rates, and the latter end of the letter A.

DUTIES in general. See the latter end of letter A.

DYEING-GOODS exempted from the new, one third and two third subsidies, and the additional duty on spice, &c. are allum of all sorts, antimonium, (except crudum) British berries from the plantations, cakelack, cassumba, copperas of all sorts, French berries, grain, or scarlet powder, grains of Portugal or rota, grains of Seville in berries, litharge of all sorts, platina, salt-petre, weld, woad, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. §. 8. 1 Geo. I. cap. 43. §. 3. Which may be imported free of all duties, provided entry and other requisites of law be performed as before, are agaric, annotto, antimonium crudum, aqua fortis, argol, arsenic, bayberries, brasil-wood, braziletto wood, cocheneal, cream of tartar, fustic, galls, gum arabic or gum feneca, indico of all sorts, isinglass, litmus, logwood, madder of all sorts, madder-roots, Nicaragua-wood, orchal or orchella, or archelica (or Spanish weed) pomegranate peels, red wood, saffore, sal armoniac, sal gem, sapan wood, red saunders, shumack, ticklack, turnsole, valonia, verdigrease; but on failure of the aforesaid requisites, are to pay as formerly. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. §. 8. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 10.

Foreign dyeing-goods, liable to duty outwards. See Book of Rates.

E.

E A R

E A R

EARTH, a due knowledge of the nature hereof, administering matter for the benefit of divers kinds of traffic, it may be useful to give the man of business such an idea thereof, that he may possibly reap some advantage by it. See AGRICULTURE, HUSBANDRY, FARMING.

Our knowledge of the earth reaches but little below its surface. So far as men have ever dug, it appears a compage of numerous solid substances, ranged in a disorderly manner, seemingly to us; which may be physically necessary, to afford different partitions or beds, of soil, gravel, clay, stone, coal, marcasites, ores, gems, &c. each serving as a matrix to the other, and all affording no inconsiderable articles for commerce.

By the ordinary use of the word earth, is meant the soil, mould, or coat, wherein vegetables grow. This coat, which reaches but a small depth, is the seat of vegetation; and an analysis of this earth, or garden mould, may not a little contribute to some beneficial improvements in agriculture.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take two pounds of fresh, black, and rich garden mould, and stir it well in two quarts of fair water, gently warmed; then let the grosser part settle to the bottom, and filtre the liquor through cap-paper, and you will find that it will pass considerably muddy, or impregnated with the finer parts of the earth, which it would not easily deposit upon many days standing in a quiet place.

REMARKS.

The design of the experiment is to obtain a proper liquor for discovering the matter which the earth affords to plants in vegetation, or the natural juices and natural salts of garden mould; because nothing seems capable of rising in vegetation, but what is soluble in moderately warm water, and will pass the pores of paper, somewhat in the same manner as it does the natural absorbing vessels, or strainers of a plant. Whence the filtered liquor, in the preceding experiment, may be examined chemically; as by evaporation, or the way of trying mineral waters, &c.

In regard to the methods of assaying CLAYS, COAL, MARCASITE, ORES, GEMS, &c. see these respective articles.

EXPERIMENT II.

A general analysis of common water.

There being few species of earth from which some degree of an aqueous quality is not distillable; and water being an auxiliary instrument to vegetation in conjunction with garden mould, it may be useful to those, who would aim at improvements in agriculture of any kind, to give the analysis of this active fluid body, as united with earth, rather than as separately considered.

Common water, being put into the exhausted receiver of the air-pump, throws up numerous bubbles and explodes; and, therefore, contains what may, by way of distinction, be called æther, or spirit.

It contains also a merely aqueous part, distinct from æther, and the earthy sediment, as appears from distilled common water.

It contains a dry solid matter, which is either earthy or saline, as appears upon a full evaporation; and from the insides of tea-kettles, which, after long use, are lined with a stony matter, that beats off in flakes, or crusty pieces.

That water is accounted best and wholesomest, which is lightest, most spirituous, and freest from earthy sediments; and these properties are usually found in pure rain water: this being naturally distilled from the ocean and rivers, or by the sun's heat raised up into the atmosphere, from whence it is returned, much after the manner of distillation.

Neither can the qualities of earth be duly considered, abstractedly from its constant attendant, the atmosphere. This is a kind of dry fluid, no less essential to the earth than the moist one. It seems as heterogeneous as the earth or water, though more rarified. It is dissimilar in its parts, like the

body of the earth; and has something analogous to beds, of particular portions, abounding with different kinds of effluvia, according to the difference of the countries and places, over which it extends. Thus over mount Ætna, or other vulcano's, it must necessarily be impregnated, after the manner of certain mineral waters, with the fumes of burning minerals; over the island Ceylon, with aromatic effluvia; over London with the smok of sea-coal, &c.

EXPERIMENT III.

A general analysis of the air, as having a close connection with the earth.

That the air is an elastic fluid, appears by its distending bladders, and breaking glasses in the exhausted receiver of the air-pump. 2. That it is essential to life, appears by animals dying without it. 3. That it may receive invisible influence or alteration, as well as visible effluvia, appears from its becoming poisonous by passing through fire, and by containing gross smok, and the fine particles of fermenting or putrefying bodies: and 4. That it is naturally a compound, appears by the water it deposits in dry salt of tartar, and by changing the colours of various bodies.—The earth and air continuing inseparably conjoined, the one must necessarily participate of the qualities of the other.

Of the earth in regard to vegetation.

The earth's surface is generally found covered with verdure, or a vegetable coat, and in some places with sand, dust, and mud.

Under this superficial coat, there usually lies a bed of mould, or under-turf earth, of different depths, from one foot to two, three, or more, in different places. This mould, or under-turf earth, is the proper matrix of vegetables.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take four pounds of fresh, black, and crumbly garden mould, esteemed the best sort, and what has lain some time exposed to the atmosphere, and not been exhausted in vegetation. Elixate the same in fair boiling water, 'till all that is capable of dissolution, and imbibition by the water, may be so.

Having thus obtained a lixivium, or solution, filtre the same through thick double paper, in order to obtain it transparent, at least free from any gross terrestrial parts, that might otherwise lodge therein.—This solution contains all the parts of the subject that are soluble in boiling water.

To bring these parts to a closer juxtaposition, that they may manifest themselves to the senses, and particularly to the taste, exhale away the more aqueous fluid in the form of a vapour, and compare the concentrated solution, with a portion of the former that remained unevaporated, and you'll find it taste more saline.

To gain a fuller information, evaporate a portion still higher, and set it to crystallize, to see if any salt would shoot, which will administer great insight into the qualities of the earth you would assay. See the article ASSAY, in regard to mineral earths.

To a part of your filtered solution, you may add the syrup of violets, to discover whether the solution be acid, alkaline, or neutral.

Wash the remaining terrestrial matter in several waters, every time decanting the upper muddy liquor, after a little standing, in order to procure the pure sand contained in the mould, which will still more and more enlighten your judgment in its nature and quality.

REMARKS.

Experiments of this kind discover a method of resolving the matrix earth of vegetables into its constituent parts, without altering their natural form and properties. Whence it should seem, that a true judgment might be formed of mould, both in general and particular, and a rule be obtained for their artificial mixture or composition. For example, if you had any mould from the Spice Islands, where

either the clove or the cinnamon grows; or from any part of Asia, where the tea grows, or America, where the cacao is produced; we might be directed, by this analysis, to mix up a mould that should resemble it, for producing these vegetables in England. But, to render these experiments successful, no less regard must be had to the state and ingredients of the atmosphere, than to the state and ingredients of the soil.

To render these simple experiments still the more instructive, for discovering the principles of vegetation, and the nature of earths and plants, it were proper to compare them with a similar analysis of certain vegetable subjects.

Thus by bruising a tender plant, elixating all its soluble parts with warm water, exhaling the humidity, and setting the remainder to crystallize, you'll obtain the native saline parts of the plant, in the form of a solid salt, which appears either of the tartareous or nitrous kind, according to the nature of the plant.

And, though any alkaline plant, as cresses, were watered in its growth with a solution of nitre, which upon distillation affords much acid spirit, the plant would still prove alkaline: and the same holds of every plant and salt hitherto tried. Whence there appears to be a power in plants of changing any other salt into their own; which is also the case of animals. And hence we likewise find, upon experience, that composts, abounding in sea-salt, nitre, or urinous salts, all agree to promote vegetation.

But, as there may be certain more fixed parts naturally contained in mould, than will dissolve in boiling water; and as these parts may possibly be loosened, digested, and rendered capable of ascending into vegetables, by the long continued action of the sun and atmosphere; it may be useful to try some other analysis of the same subject.

EXPERIMENT II.

The analysis of garden mould by fire.

Weigh two pounds of garden mould of the kind before described, and put it into an earthen retort; commit it to a naked fire, working by slow degrees of heat into a glass receiver; at last keeping the retort ignited, for some time. There will come over (1.) a water; (2.) an oil; and (3.) a volatile spirit almost like that of hartshorn; and (4.) there will remain behind a dry caput mortuum, or apparently fixed earth.

Elixate part of the caput mortuum, and dry it, and by trituration reduce the same into a simular powder, with design to put each parcel into a separate pot, and expose them to the open air for a twelvemonth, to try whether they would then prove fertile.

By comparing this process with the same performed upon a vegetable, an animal, and a mineral substance, it appears, that one simple fixed earth is the basis of all animal, vegetable, mineral, and earthy matters; or the true flamen, support, and skeleton of flesh, bone, wood, metals, and earths, &c. being of itself of a fixed and unalterable nature.

Of bolar earths.—See BOLE.

These earths are divisible into two species, according as they are more or less tenacious; in which light loam and clay may represent them all. And even these two seem only to differ in respect of fineness or coarseness of their component parts, which renders them more or less tenacious and adhesive.

EXPERIMENT III.

(1.) Mix common loam into a mass with water, then dry it, which will shew that, compared with clay, it would easily crumble and fall into powder. But (2.) beating some loam fine in a mortar, and mixing it well with water, it will cling like clay, and when dried adhere much more tenaciously than before.

REMARKS.

This experiment shews, that loam and clay, or all the bolar earths, are nearly the same thing, when their component parts, or gravelly and sandy matters, are reduced to the same degree of fineness: it supplies us also with a rule for the improvement of the art of pottery, and the imitation of China ware. [See PORCELAIN, and POTTERY.] This rule is to grind or beat the earths employed, to an extreme degree of fineness; accordingly porcelain has been imitated in Europe, by tobacco-pipe clay, and other earths exceedingly fine ground, mixed into a paste with water, and properly dried and baked.

Under bolar earths, may be ranged all the hungry garden earths, all the sandy field earths, all the clay or marly earths, and all the mixtures hereof.

Of saline earths.

By which are meant all those wherein any quantity of acid, alkaline, or neutral salt is contained.

Upon strict examination, no earth, perhaps, would be found without some proportion of salt; which is generally thought to be the principle that cements all earths together. And the following experiments seem to shew some reason for the opinion.

EXPERIMENT IV.

That a saline matter may give tenacity and firmness to earth.

(1.) Slack quick lime with a sufficient quantity of water, to bring it into a kind of paste. (2.) Suffer the moisture to exhale gradually, and the lime will acquire a stony hardness. (3.) Pour a larger quantity of water upon another parcel of quick lime than suffices to make it into a paste, decant the wall, and you'll find it saline. (4.) Elixate the remaining matter with several quantities of fresh water, to extract all the salt of the lime. (5.) Dry the calx thus deprived of its salt, and you'll find it has lost its tenacity, and will become crumbly or dusty.

REMARKS.

This experiment shews the nature and composition of lime, which, mixed with sand, makes the common mortar for building. We see it is the alkaline salt contained in the lime, and either extricated, or produced, in calcining the lime-stone, that occasions the mortar to concrete and harden; and, where the salt is in its full proportion, the lime is strongest, and the mortar hardest and most durable. This saline principle in lime gives it an advantage over chalk, as a compost for lands exhausted of their natural salts in vegetation: for the alkaline salt of the lime, by strongly attracting the humidity of the air, as all salts do when they begin to run per deliquium, whereby they swell, dilate, crumble, and open the earth wherein it is mixed, in order more kindly to administer the virtues contained both in the earth and the air to the roots of vegetables in general; whence it is observable, that the atmosphere has the freer action thereon, while the alkaline salt of the lime becomes of a nitrous fertilizing quality.

Under the general head of saline earths may be reckoned all those that are calcined, or burned in the fire; as all the kinds of lime, pot-ash, salt of tartar, foot, &c. these being but mixtures of salt and earth.

Of sulphureous earths:

Such as coal, bitumen, brimstone, crude ores, marcasites, brass lumps, mundics, or the like: for, though these may be distinguished in respect of lesser differences, yet, in general, they are all a composition of sulphur, unflammable earth, and a small proportion of metal.

The analysis of sulphureous earths by an example in mundics.

EXPERIMENT V.

Take half a pound of Cornish mundic, reduced to fine powder, and put it into an earthen retort; which, placed in a naked fire, fit on a capacious receiver, and lute the junctures well with a mixture of loam and horse-dung.—Give degrees of fire, up to the strongest.—Let all cool, and take off.—You will find a small proportion of an acid liquor, exactly like the spirit of sulphur by the bell, at the bottom of the receiver, and a considerable quantity of flowers of sulphur sublimed to the top.

The caput mortuum being taken out, and fluxed with half its weight of clean iron filings, will afford a metallic reguline substance. Whence we see that marcasites chiefly resolve into sulphur, and a more fixed earthy part; which, being treated in the assay as lead only, yields a proportion of metal. And hence, perhaps, all the pyrites, brass lumps, marcasites, and mundics, are but cruder kinds of ore; and, if they could be brought to full maturity, they would prove real ones. These marcasites, upon long lying in the open air, attract the moisture thereof, and hence grow hot, in some measure dissolve, from an efflorescence on the surface; and, by degrees, turn into a vitriol, of the same kind with the metal they contain.

Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green, or martial; if copper, blue, or cupereous: and on this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, now practised in several parts of England. Moreover,

From the heating, fuming, and firing of these sulphureous earths, by the moisture of the air, we may learn, perhaps, the origin of hot baths, mineral waters, damps and fires in mines: for it is found that a pile of these sulphureous earths, being barely moistened, will at first smoke, and at length take fire, and burn like glowing coals.

This experiment likewise shews the method of examining these marcasites (which have been frequently taken for rich ores both in England and elsewhere) and of extracting their metal they may contain, after having first separated their sulphur. Many skillful metallists have been imposed on by the specious shew of these marcasites, they having usually a great specific gravity,

gravity, and some of them a greater than real ones: so that they may possibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, and unfixed state. But, to bring this matter to the test, requires more than ordinary knowledge in metallurgy. See the articles METALLURGY, ASSAY, MARCASITE.

Of stony earths.

That ignition may destroy the tenacity, or cohesion, of stony earths, shewn in alabaster.

Reduce about a couple of pounds of soft alabaster to fine powder; put it into a flat iron pan, and apply a soft heat, that the matter may not glow, yet remain too hot to be touched; by which means the powder will be brought to flow, or run, something like quicksilver; and, being gently stirred, will boil and bubble. If you let it continue thus, with a soft heat, it will run off the spatula, held almost horizontally.—Remove it from the fire to grow cold; put it into a glass, kept close stopped, in a dry place, as gypsum, or calcined alabaster.

A quantity of the gypsum thus prepared, being brought into a pappy consistence with water, the humid mass will soon become so hard and rigid, as to ring, or afford a clear sound, when struck with the finger, or any more solid instrument.

But a parcel of the same powder, kept in a state of ignition for some time, before it is taken out of the calcining pan, and being mixed with water, it will acquire a loose, friable consistence, or a much less degree of tenacity than the other.

The unignited sort, also, by being kept in the open air, loses of it's coagulating virtue; and, when once consolidated with water, will become unfit for the like purpose again.

Thus all the stony earths that do not vitrify in the fire are, by ignition, reduced to fine powder: so may flints themselves, by being often ignited and quenched in water. Thus white marble, or crystal, is reduced to a powder, fit for the making of pure white glass.

This experiment also shews us an earthy matter, apparently fluid over the fire, that will harden in water; and will serve to direct a further enquiry after cheap bodies, that will grow still harder under water, which might prove of great service in bridge-works, water-works, and the like.

The present use of this preparation is for taking off faces, impressions, and figures, and the stopping of leaky pipes or vessels, that transmit or contain water.

The several earths hitherto mentioned constitute an opaque aggregate of distinct qualities; such an one whose parts are not commoveable by the subtle motion of light; but there is another species of earths, that come into a tenaciously cohering aggregate, and admit of an intense and inherent motion of their smallest constituent parts.

Such are gems; some whereof are homogeneous, and perfectly transparent, as the diamond, ruby, sapphire, jacinth, emerald, &c. to which may be added various kinds of sands and glasses, those commonly called metalline fluors, and the white class of crystals.

There are other gems, that are coloured, whose transparency is partly obscured by the interposition of a small quantity of exceedingly fine opaque matter; which, sometimes proving larger in quantity, totally obscures the stones, renders them opaque, and possessed of firmness, and of exceedingly bright polish. See the article GEMS.

There are some again, as it were, unequally mixed of these two. Of this kind are all the coloured gems in general; of the second, the turquoise, the opal, the onyx, the carnel, the red jasper, &c.—And of the last, the variegated jasper and agate.

These transparent earths, whilst under a tremulous motion in their aggregate generation, are struck upon by the rays of light, which they again throw off in the same angle; whence proceeds the splendor of transparent gems, viz. from the light thus reflected on their surface.

These diaphanous earths have this tremulous property in common with sonorous earths, as approximating thereto, either in the individual tenuity of their whole substance, or some principle thereof: for, as the corpuscles that are capable of being impelled by the light of the sun, moving the rays of the air, must needs be greatly attenuated; so these corpuscles, which, in the aggregate, are movable by so subtle a tremulous, or undulatory motion, as to vibrate the physical lines of the air, must also necessarily be exceedingly minute. But such bodies as are either transparent, or, if opaque, the most attenuated metals, which, being concreted into an aggregate, are so intimately combined, that a ray of light can scarce descend below their surface, but it is immediately repelled, as may be demonstrated to the senses from optics.

A due knowledge of those gems depends upon two principal things, viz. their hardness and their colour. Their hardness is commonly allowed to stand in this order: the diamond first, as most compact of all; after which follow the ruby, the sapphire, the jacinth, the emerald, the amethyst, the garnet, the carnel, chalcodon, the onyx, the jasper; after these succeed the agate, porphyry, and marble. This difference, however, is not regular and constant, but frequently varies.

Good crystals may be allowed to succeed the onyx, but the whole class of metalline glassy fluors seems to be still softer.

In point of colour, the diamond is valued for it's transparency, the ruby for its purple, the sapphire for it's blue, the emerald for it's green, the jacinth for it's orange, the amethyst for it's violet, the turquoise for it's azure, the carnel for it's carnation, the onyx for its tawny, the jasper, agate, and porphyry for their vermilion, green, and variegated colour, and the garnet for it's transparent blood-red.

All these gems, as they are sometimes found coloured, or spotted, along with their transparency, so are they sometimes perfectly limpid and colourless; in which case the diamond-cutter knows how to distinguish their several species, from their different degrees of hardness upon the mill. See the article DIAMOND.

For the cutting or polishing of gems, the fine powder of the fragments of those that are next in degree of hardness is always requisite to grind and wear away the softer; but, as none of them are harder than the diamond, this can only be polished with its own powder.

Mr Boyle has many curious observations upon this subject of gems, in speaking of diamonds that shone in the dark; where he finds that such diamonds as are left with small asperities, or inequalities, upon their surface, through an imperfection in the polishing, have all of them this faculty, viz. of shining luminous in the darkest places.

As to the thing that gives the colour to gems, there are many different opinions, or rather conjectures. Whatever it be, it is certainly a real substance, that variously reflects the light in it's motion. But that this body should be copper, for instance, which gives the fine blue to sapphire, or to lapis lazuli, because it gives the like colour to spirit of sal ammoniac, seems the less probable, as this colour does not absolutely depend upon the copper, but upon the property of the spirit therewith united: for the same copper turns an acid spirit of a green colour; and, with glass, sometimes makes a green, sometimes a red, sometimes a blue, and sometimes a black.

Upon no better foundation also, perhaps, stands that opinion of the garnet, as receiving it's colour from iron; because that metal exhibits such a colour in it's glass: for iron does not produce such effects quatenus iron per se, but as iron differently prepared; and such preparations thereof are no where to be found natural: for instance, the crocus martis with vinegar, &c.

It may be further observed of the solar earths, that they are a kind of aggregate, consisting of numerous other lesser aggregates, or sensible molecules; or, indeed, that they commonly are no more than a rude heap, or heterogeneous mass, containing many of the earths abovementioned, both opaque, transparent, and metalline.

Whence it is no wonder that iron, for instance, by modern experiments, has been easily made out of common loam: for, as iron is an heterogeneous body, tempered up with much opaque and much vitrescible earth, alone with some metalline parts; it is not at all improbable either that the two first earths, which are found to exist plentifully in loam, should be readily combined by the addition of the third; or that all of them, being present together, should be joined by a suitable operation, and separated from the other parts that do not unite therewith.

Upon the same foundation depend those extractions from emery, blood-stone, and the crocus of iron itself, whereby gold receives an augmentation; what is thus extracted, now putting on a metalline form along with the gold; and preserving it upon moist trials, 'till at length, by the accession of the metalline complement, they every one become permanent and perfect gold*.

* See Becher. Miner. Arenar. page 909—927.

To separate those several earths that are so blended, is a work of no little art, particularly to get the opaque, calcareous, or homogeneous solar earth, clear of that which is transparent and vitrescible. But it is much less labour to separate the metalline parts from them both.

The best way, possibly, of separating the finer earthy particles from the larger sands, is by washing, which also easily gets the smallest metalline parts away from those of the same size, and that in a stricter sense are called earthy.

Under this head of earths may be ranged those artificial tenacious clays called lutes, which are commonly opposed to the violence of the fire, to hinder the escape of subtle substances, and are very necessary in chemical operations.

Earths of this kind are either designed for the making of earthen vessels, such as retorts, crucibles, &c. or for coating over vessels of glass, so as to defend them in a naked fire, or for the stopping of junctures, orifices, or cracks, of receiving, preserving, and distilling vessels, in those parts that are farthest from the fire.

There are some natural clays found fit, whereof to form vessels for distillation, sublimation, calcination, and reverbation, as being well contempered with a sufficient quantity of a tenacious substance, so as to require no previous preparation for the hand of the potter, who is to give them their figure.

There are other clays that require to be artificially tempered, to fit them for this purpose. Thus those that when dry cohere but loosely, may be mixed with a suitable proportion of iron scales, or filings; and those that remain soft in the fire, with powdered flints or glass. Sometimes, likewise, a little litharge is found proper, as giving the vessels a greater degree of tenacity.

For crucibles, and other pots for the melting of metals, the native Hessian earth is to be generally preferred, or that of Austria; but the Hessian being sandy, and the Austrian martial, this is soonest preyed upon, and destroyed by salts and antimony, and that by lead.

But as lead, and the glass of lead, immediately break, or run through all sorts of the common crucibles, those who have occasion for violent fires should study the nature and quality of such earths as will the best stand the fire, and will not vitrify by the sulphur of ores, or the penetration of fluxes. In regard to which, nature alone, perhaps, affords no distinct species of earth that will effectually answer such purposes: whence we must call in art and philosophy to our aid; and those who are the best acquainted with chemical analysis will have the advantage over those who are ignorant therein.

Of metalline earths:

For there are reasons to judge, that even metals themselves are but a species of earths*, as they both burn into ashes, and melt into glass; whilst their metalline ductile form appears owing to nothing more than a certain proportion of sulphur, or oil, they contain; which, when burned out, leaves them terrefractal calces, or certain metalline earths, of a nature peculiar to each metal. Thus we may divide earths into two general tribes, viz. the friable and the malleable. We have gone through the former species, the other we shall speak of under the article MINEROLOGY.

* See Becher's *Physica Subterranea*.

R E M A R K S.

It would be very tedious, and of no great significance, to enumerate all the particular differences of these earths, either friable or otherwise, or those that are used medicinally, or in any other application. Those that are the most essential we have noticed, and shall do so, so far as we judge consistent with the nature of our work.

From the foregoing enquiries we learn, that the atmosphere, with its constituent parts, is a chief instrument in promoting the fertilization of the earth, whereby all vegetables, and thence all animals are fed, supported, and maintained; that the mould for vegetation may, in some measure, be supplied with the air at different times, and afterwards, by lying immediately under the turf, receives whatever richness, or fine matter, descends from above, in the form of dews, rains, snow, hail, or other more subtle and invincible conveyance: and that this invigorating substance, soaking through the upper turf, may be thereby defended from the winds and heating sun, as by a screen, for being exhaled too soon again. Thus the atmosphere appears to exercise a kind of renovating power, so as to supply even exhausted and barren soils with fresh vigour and animation, and fit them for the production of new crops. Which considerations point out a good rule for recruiting withered and exhausted vegetables, by exposing them to a kindly atmosphere, rather than by bare watering of them, which might only serve to injure and corrupt them the sooner.

Hence some capital directions may be formed for the improvement of husbandry, horticulture, and the raising and improving of fruit and forest trees, by finding the nature, composition, and ingredients of the soil, wherein each kind of grain, plant, and tree, is most nourished and delighted:

That it is possible, by rational experiments, to discover the best kind of steepings for grain and seed, and the best kinds of composts and manure for land; according to the nature, or present exigence of the soil, or the fruit intended to be produced; or any one particular salt, oil, or property to be introduced, either into the ground or the seed:

That water, as well as fire, may prove a useful chemical analyzer in some cases:

That composts, before they can produce their effects, must, in some degree, approach to the nature of the soil they are designed to improve:

That by earths are understood such gross substances as are of themselves insoluble in water, and indestructible in the fire, yet with fixed alkali melt into glass, or with any unctuous matter assume the form of a metal, according to their respective natures; and, consequently, that even earths, though apparently exhausted simple bodies, have yet their respective or peculiar properties and effects:

That the most fixed part of earth has many instrumental efficacies, not only as floating in the air, and as forming the bed, or matrix, of vegetables, but also in constituting the solid parts, or stamina, of all vegetables, animal and mineral substances, and affording us all our vessels of glass, stone, wood, and metal; our furnaces, crucibles, and retorts; and being,

perhaps, in itself, the most fixed and unchangeable body in nature:

That a high degree of trituration, or reducing the particles of certain solar earths, clays, and stony earths, to an extreme fineness, may contribute to the improvement of pottery. For which purpose, trituration, sifting, subsidence in water, and decantation, might be used to great advantage. See the article POTTERY.

That the making of lime may be improved, for the purposes of buildings, manure, and water-works, by a due choice of the materials, and a suitable calcination.

That some considerable use and improvement might, with proper skill and application, be made in the business of brass lumps, marcasites, mundics, and infinite other species of mineral bodies. See MINEROLOGY and METALLURGY.

That marcasites, or other minerals, by attracting the moisture of the air, may be the efficient cause of subterraneous fires, hot springs, damps in mines, mineral waters, &c.

That the matter of metals may possibly be loose, immature, or unconcocted, in certain mineral matters; so as in the fire to evaporate with the volatile sulphur, or other unctuous unfixed parts of the mineral, unless detained, and brought to greater perfection, either by nature or art.

That fire may have the same effect as air or time, on certain stony matters, and make them loose, crumbly, and incoherent.

Further R E M A R K S.

On the usefulness of the knowledge of all kinds of earths to the country gentlemen in general.

Under the articles ASSAY, BOLE, and CLAYS, we have already shewn how highly profitable the knowledge of all earths may oftentimes prove to gentlemen of landed estates in general; that they may oftentimes have a much larger share of property within the compass of a few acres, than in some thousands, and yet be totally ignorant of the matter, for want of a little turn and application to studies of this nature. And from the simple and familiar experiments we have exhibited, will appear, that there is neither any great trouble or expence attending researches of this nature. Whence one should presume that gentlemen, for their own sakes, for the interest of their posterity, would attend more to the contemplation of nature, and practical lucrative philosophy, than they are generally wont to do.

As I have no little desire to be of all use, according to the best of my small abilities, to this great class of the community, I shall not be wanting in any pains to lay before them, in such a manner as to give them the least trouble and most satisfaction, yet a good relish for those advances and improvements that have been made by philosophic experimentalists, which have been made not less for the interests of land than traffic. For, however much persons of great landed estates may depend upon mere practical, laborious men, for their care and improvement of them; yet speculation is not the less requisite; I mean, speculation grounded on a repeated series of rational and infallible experiments; for, without this, speculation tends to as little use in regard to the improvement of lands and trade, as enthusiasm, visionary schemes, and metaphysical controversy, have done to the advancement of religion and sound politics.

In regard to the choice of land stewards, it may deserve the consideration of people of distinction, whether such servant, having something of a knowledge in what we have represented under this article, and a general taste for studies of this kind, might not frequently prove highly beneficial to a gentleman's estate? And, if a gentleman himself had a turn for studies of this nature, he would easily direct such a course of experiments to be made, though he should not chuse to trouble himself about them. If what has been urged on my part upon this matter, for the benefit of the landed gentlemen of these kingdoms, should fail of the desired weight and influence, permit me, candid and generous reader, to recommend and enforce what hath been humbly submitted, in the words of the great and learned bishop Spratt, in his *History of the Royal Society*.

For the improvement of these arts of peaceable fame, the gentlemen of England have, indeed, another privilege, which can scarce be equalled by any kingdom in Europe; and that is the convenience and benefit of being scattered in the country. And in truth, the usual course of life of the English gentlemen is so well placed between the troublesome noise of pompous magnificence, and the baseness of avaricious fordidness, that the true happiness of living according to the rules and pleasures of uncorrupt nature, is more in their power than any others. To them, in this way of life, there can nothing offer itself which may not be turned to a philosophical use. Their country-seats, being removed from the tumults of cities, give them the best opportunity, and freedom of observations. Their hospitality, and familiar way of conversing with their neighbourhood, will always supply them with intelligence. The leisure which their retirements afford

afford them is so great, that either they must spend their thoughts about such attempts, or in more chargeable and less innocent diversions. If they will consider the heavens, and the motions of the stars, they have there a quieter hemisphere, and a clearer air, for that purpose. If they will observe the generations, breedings, diseases, and cures of living creatures; their stables, their stalls, their kennels, their parks, their ponds, will give them eternal matter of enquiry. If they would satisfy their minds with the advancing of fruits, the beautifying, the ripening, the bettering of plants; their pastures, their orchards, their groves, their gardens, their nurseries, will furnish them with perpetual contemplations. They may not only make their business, but their very sports, most serviceable to experimental knowledge. For that, if it be rightly educated, will stand in need of such recreations as much as the gentlemen themselves, from their hunting, hawking, fishing, and fowling, that is able to receive as much solid profit as they delight.

On both these accounts the English gentry has the advantage of those of France, Spain, Italy, or Germany; who are generally either shut up in towns, and dream away their lives in the diversions of cities; or else are engaged to follow their princes wills to foreign wars.

Nor do they only excel other nations in such opportunities, but our own nobility of all former times. First, they are now far more numerous, and so more may be spared from the civil business of their country. Besides this, they are now bred up and live in a quite different fashion. The course of their ancestors lives was grave and reserved; they conversed with few but their own servants, and seldom travelled farther than their own lands: this way served well enough to keep up their state and their port, but not to help their understandings. For the formalities of life do often counterfeit wisdom, but never beget it. Whereas now they are engaged in freer roads of education; now the vast distance between them and other orders of men is no more observed; now their conversation is large and general; now the world is become more active and industrious; now more of them have seen the use and manners of men, and more apply themselves to traffick and business than ever.

This alteration has been caused in our memory, either by so many families being advanced to the highest degrees of nobility for their excelling in the arts of the gown; or by their frequent intermarriages with citizens; or by the travels of the king and the royal family; or else by the civil war itself, which is always wont to be the cruellest tyrant, or the best reformer; either utterly to lay waste, or to civilize and beautify, and ripen the arts of all countries. And still we have reason to expect, that this change will proceed farther for the better, if our gentlemen shall more descend to engage in commerce, and to regard the philosophy of nature.

Nor ought our gentry to be averse from the promoting of trade out of any little jealousy, that thereby they shall debase themselves, and corrupt their blood: for they are to know, that traffick and commerce have given mankind a higher degree than any title of nobility, even that of civility and humanity itself. And, at this time especially above all others, they have no reason to despise trade as below them, when it has so great an influence on the very government of the world. In former ages, indeed, this was not so remarkable. The seats of empire and trade were seldom or never the same. Tyre and Sidon, and Cadiz and Marseilles, had more traffick, but less command than Rome or Athens, or Sparta or Macedon. But now it is quite otherwise. It is now most certain, that, in those coasts whither the greatest trade shall constantly flow, the greatest riches and power will be established. The cause of this difference between the ancient times and our own, is hard to be discovered: perhaps it is this, that formerly the greatest part of the world lived rudely, on their own natural productions: but now so many nations being civilized, and living splendidly, there is a far greater consumption of all foreign commodities; and so the gain of trade is become great enough to over-balance all other strength: whether this be the reason or no, it matters not, but the observation is true. And this we see is sufficiently known to all our neighbours, who are earnestly bent upon the advancing of commerce, as the best means not only to enrich particular merchants, but to enlarge the empire.

The next thing to be recommended to the gentlemen of England, has a near kindred with the other, and that is the philosophy of nature and arts. For the want of such an easy course of studies, so many of them have miscarried in their first years, and have ever after abhorred all manner of sober works. What else do signify the universal complaints of those, who direct the education of great mens children? Why do they find them so hard to be fixed to any manner of knowledge? Their teachers, indeed, are wont to impute it the delicacy of their breeding, and to their mother's fondness. But the chief cause of the mischief lies deeper. They fill their heads with difficult and unintel-

ligible notions, which neither afford them pleasure in learning, nor profit in remembering them; they chiefly instruct them in such arts, which are made for the beaten tracks of professions, and not for gentlemen. Whereas their minds should be charmed by the allurements of sweeter and more plausible studies, and for this purpose experiments are the fittest. Their objects they may feel and behold, their productions are most popular; their method is intelligible, and equal to their capacities; so that in them they may soon become their own teachers.

Nor are they to condemn them for their plainness, and the homely matters about which they are often employed. If they shall think scorn to foul their fingers about them on this account, let them cast their eyes back on the original nobility of all countries. And if that be true, that every thing is preserved and restored by the same means which did beget it at first, they then may be taught, that their present honour cannot be maintained by intemperate pleasures, or the gawdy shews of pomp, but by true labours and industrious virtue: let them reflect upon those great men, who first made the name of nobility venerable. And they shall find, that amidst the government of nations, the dispatch of armies, and noise of victories, some of them disdained not to work with a spade, to dig the earth, and to cultivate with triumphing hands the vine and the olive. These, indeed, were times, of which it were well if we had more footsteps, than in ancient authors. Then the minds of men were innocent and strong, and bountiful as the earth in which they laboured. Then the vices of human nature were not their pride, but their scorn. Then virtue itself was neither adulterated by the false idols of goodness, nor puffed up by the empty forms of greatness, as since it has been in some countries of Europe, which are arrived at that corruption of manners, that perhaps some severe moralists will think it had been more needful for me to persuade the men of this age to continue men, than to turn philosophers.

But in this history I will forbear all farther complaints, which were acceptable to the humour of this time, even in our divine and moral works, in which they are necessary. I therefore return to that which I undertook, to the agreeableness of this design, to all conditions and degrees of our nobility. If they require such studies as are proportionable to the greatness of their titles, they have here those things to consider, from whence even they themselves fetch the distinctions of their gentility. The minerals, the plants, the stones, the planets, the animals, they bear in their arms, are the chief instruments of heraldry, by which those houses are exalted above those of the vulgar. And it is a shame for them to boast of the bearing of those creatures they do not understand. If they value the antiquity of families and long race of pedigrees, what can be more worthy their consideration, than all the divers lineages of nature? These have more proof of their ancient descent than any of them can shew. For they have all continued down in a right line, from cause to effect, from the creation to this day. If they shall confine themselves to the country, they have this for their cheap diversion. If they return to the city, this will afford them in every shop occasions to INFORM THEIR JUDGMENTS, AND NOT TO DEVOUR THEIR ESTATES. If they go forth to public service, to the leading of armies or navies, they have this for their perpetual counsellor, and very often for their preserver. There are so many natural and mechanical things, to be accurately observed by the greatest captains, as the advantages of different arms and ammunitions, the passages of rivers, the freights of mountains, the course of tides, the signs of weather, the air, the sun, the wind, and the like; that, though I will not determine the knowledge of nature to be absolutely necessary to the great office of a general, yet I may venture to affirm, that it will often prove a wonderful assistance and ornament to the course of glory which he pursues.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY. See COMPANIES.

The laws of England in regard thereto.

No person may trade thither, 'till sufficient security be given to the commissioners of the customs, that all the goods caused by them to be there laden, shall be brought, without breaking bulk, to some port of England: which security the English East-India company are to give under their common seal, after the rate of 2500 l. for every 100 tons they are let at, for every ship by them sent out, according to the form prescribed. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 68.—6 Ann. cap. 3. sect. 1. But the South-Sea company may, by consent of the East-India company, under their common seal, send yearly to Madagascar four ships to take in negroes to be transported to Buenos Ayres, having first given security to the East-India company, not to trade for any other goods. 13 Geo. I. cap. 8. sect. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7. 3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 15.

The goods imported from thence, must be brought to some port of Great-Britain, and be there unladen, and be openly and publicly sold by inch of candle, upon forfeiture of their

value. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 68.—6 Ann. cap. 3. sect. 2.

The united company and corporation impowered by these acts, are to have the whole, sole, and exclusive trade to and from thence, and to and from all places between the Cape of Good Hope and freights of Magellan for ever: but subject to redemption of parliament by three years notice, after the 25th of March 1780; upon the expiration whereof, and repayment to the said company of the capital stock or debt of 4,200,000 l. and all arrears of annuities payable in respect thereof, their right and title to such trade are to cease and determine. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 80.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 9, 10, 11, 12. 17 Geo. II. cap. 17. sect. 2, 3, 14.

The trade and corporation of the united company continued, although their fund should be redeemed. 10 Ann. cap. 28. sect. 1.—17 Geo. II. cap. 17. sect. 12, 15.

Persons not qualified, going or trading thither, forfeit the ship and goods, and double the value thereof: one fourth part to the seizer or informer, and the other three fourths to the use of the company, who are to bear the charges of prosecution. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 80.—13 Geo. I. cap. 8. sect. 3.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 9.—17 Geo. II. cap. 17. sect. 12.

Any of his majesty's subjects (not lawfully authorized) going to, or being found in the East-Indies, shall be guilty of an high crime and misdemeanor, and may be prosecuted within six years, and, being convicted thereof, shall be liable to such penalty as the court shall think fit. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 1.—7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 1.—9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 6.

Every person so offending may be seized and brought to England, and committed to the next county goal, by any justice of peace, 'till sufficient security be given, by natural born subjects or denizens, for their appearance to answer the prosecution, and not to depart out of the kingdom without leave. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 2.—9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 7.

Persons trading or going thither, under foreign commissions, forfeit 500 l. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 3.

The South Sea company's trade to any of the limits to which they are intitled, not to be prejudiced by these acts. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 5.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 15.

Goods traded for contrary to law, forfeited with double the value. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 3.

Contracts for ships in foreign services, to trade thither, void. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 2.

Goods not belonging to the company, or persons licensed by them, shipped on board ships bound thither, or taken out of ships from thence, before their arrival, forfeited, with double the value; the master, privy thereto, forfeits 1000 l. and all his wages. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 4.

Bills of complaint may be exhibited against illegal traders, for discovery thereof, and recovery of the duty, and 30 per cent. to the company. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 5.

Officers not to prosecute for forfeitures and penalties, without the consent of the directors of the company. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 7.

The Levant company's trade to the Levant seas, not to be prejudiced by these acts. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 8. 3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 16.

Goods, of the product of the East-Indies, may not be imported into any place belonging to the British crown, unless shipped from Great-Britain, on forfeiture of ship and goods, or their value: officers of the customs conniving thereat, or delaying prosecution, forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 9.

None of his majesty's subjects may contribute to, or promote the establishing, or carrying on any foreign company trading to the East-Indies, from any part of the Austrian Netherlands, or any other place, upon forfeiture of their share in such company, with treble the value: one third part thereof to the use of his majesty, and two thirds to the use of the company, if they inform or sue, otherwise one third part of such two thirds to the use of the informer or suer. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 2.

Bills of complaint may be exhibited for the discovery of offences, and recovery of the single value only, one third part for the use of his majesty, and the other two thirds for the use of the company. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 2.

But, if a common informer declares his intention of prosecution at law, and instead thereof, the directors shall chuse to have it commenced by bills of complaint, they are to allow him one third of the aforesaid two third parts. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 3.

Any of his majesty's subjects accepting of any share in trust, or knowing any other subject to have any interest or share in any foreign company, not discovering the same to the united company, within six months, shall forfeit treble the value of such shares, or one year's imprisonment. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 4.

But making a voluntary discovery to the directors in writing, within the time afore limited, to have a moiety of the forfeiture. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 5.

The forfeitures and penalties inflicted by the acts of 9 and 10 Will. III. 6 Ann. 5 Geo. I. and these acts may he pro-

secuted by the attorney-general; the united company, or any officer of the customs: one third part to be for the use of his majesty, one third to the use of the company, and the other to the use of the officers. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 6.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 9.

The united company may export stores, provisions, utensils of war, and necessaries for their garrisons and settlements, free of duty, provided the duty would not have exceeded 300 l. in any one year. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. sect. 13.

A capias in the first process, may be issued for offences against any act for the encouraging and securing the lawful trade thither. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 8.

The duty of 5 l. per cent. for the maintenance of ambassadors, &c. is, after 29 September 1714, repealed for goods imported from thence by the English company. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 75, 76, 77.—6 Ann. cap. 17. sect. 8.

Wrought silks, Bengals and stuffs, mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of East-India, China, or Persia, and calicoes printed, painted, stained, or dyed there, prohibited to be worn in Great-Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the half subsidy. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 1, 10.

Such goods to be imported into the port of London only, and there regularly entered, upon forfeiture, and 500 l. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 3.

After entry, to be secured in proper warehouses, approved by the commissioners of the customs; and not to be taken thence, but in order for exportation, and until sufficient security be given accordingly.

Such security may be discharged, upon certificate under the common seal of the chief magistrate, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants, at the place where landed, testifying the same, or upon proof that the goods were taken by enemies or perished at sea. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 2.

Such bonds not prosecuted within three years, nor judgment obtained within two years after prosecution, void. 8 Ann. cap. 13. sect. 24, 25.

Officers refusing to deliver them up accordingly, are to pay damage and treble damages. 8 Ann. cap. 13. sect. 24, 25.

Proprietors may affix one lock to every warehouse, and may view, sort, or deliver such goods for exportation, in the presence of the warehouse-keeper, who is to attend at all seasonable times. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 8.

Found in any place other than in the aforesaid warehouses, are forfeited, and upon seizure must be carried to the next custom-house, and, after condemnation, are to be publicly sold by the candle for exportation, the buyers giving security accordingly: one third part of the produce of such sale to be paid to the king, and the other two thirds to the seizer or prosecutor. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 2.

The persons knowingly harbouring or selling such goods, are likewise to forfeit 200 l. one third to the king, two thirds to the prosecutor. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

The place of the manufacture disputed, the proof to lie upon the owner. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 4.

Warehouse-keepers are to enter in a book every chest, bale, and number of pieces therein contained, brought into, and carried out of the aforesaid warehouses; and every six months transmit to the commissioners of the customs, upon oath, an exact account thereof, and of what are then remaining, in order to be by them laid before the parliament in the first week of every session. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 6.

Within one month after the aforesaid account has been transmitted, the commissioners are to cause the books and warehouses to be inspected, and the account examined; and, if it appears that any goods have been illegally delivered, the warehouse-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 500 l. and be disabled from any public employment. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 6.

East-India unrated goods, calicoes, China ware, and drugs of the product of East-India, or China, landed or taken out of any ship before entry, and security of the duties, or without a warrant from the officers, are forfeited, or their value, two thirds to the use of his majesty, who is to bear the charges of prosecution, and one third to the seizer, or suer. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. § 8. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. § 11.

Wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk, or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, or calicoes painted, dyed, printed, stained there, imported into this kingdom, and secured in warehouses (pursuant to 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10.) and appearing, upon examination by the proper officer, to be stained or damaged, or unfit for foreign markets, unless cleaned and refreshed, dyed, glazed, or calendered, may, by leave of the commissioners of the customs, be taken out to be so manufactured, under the care and in the custody of an officer, appointed by them, bond being first given in double the value, to return them again within the time the commissioners shall think reasonable to limit.

The officer to be paid for his trouble by the person at whose request the goods are taken out; and any dispute arising about his allowance, is to be determined by the commissioners. 15 and 16 Geo. I. cap. 31. § 9.

The warehouse-keeper, in the account of the goods received into, and delivered out of the warehouse (which he is directed to keep, and transmit to the commissioners upon oath every six months, by 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10.) is to insert an account of all goods delivered out to be cleared, &c. in pursuance of this act, and of what is returned to the warehouse, with the days and times when, and of what is remaining in the care and custody of the officer of the warehouse. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 21. § 10.

Any officer entrusted with the care and custody of the goods delivered out, and not returning them again to the warehouse, is to forfeit the value of the goods, and 500 l. and be forever disabled from any public employment for the future. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. § 11.

East-India goods prohibited.

* Wrought silks, Bengal, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, and calicoes painted, dyed, printed, or stained there, which have been seized as forfeited, being, after condemnation, to be sold for exportation only; therefore the exporter, besides passing an entry as for other goods, must, before shipping, give security for the due exportation.

* 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

25th of February, 1730.—No. 32.

In the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller master, for Rotterdam,

Thomas Brooks.

Three pieces of Indian taffeties	} Condemned in Michaelmas term 1730, and for the due exportation whereof security is given.
Four Indian damask night-gowns	
One piece of cherriderry	
Nine remnants of chints	
Seven pieces of pelongs	

A bond for the exportation of prohibited East-India, &c. goods.

Noverrint univerfi, &c.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III. intitled, An Act for the more effectual employing the poor, by encouraging the manufactures of this kingdom, it is, amongst other things, enacted, That all wrought silks, Bengais, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, and all calicoes painted, dyed, printed, or stained there, which shall be seized as forfeited by virtue of that act, shall be carried to the next custom-house, and, after condemnation, shall be sold for exportation: and whereas the above-bounded Thomas Brooks did, on the 28th day of January last, buy, at a public sale at the custom-house of the port of Southampton, three pieces of Indian taffety, four Indian damask night gowns, one piece of cherriderry, nine remnants of chints, seven pieces of pelongs, seized by A. B. and condemned in his majesty's court of Exchequer in Michaelmas term 1730, (being of the species and manufacture in the said act mentioned) and this day entered outwards in his name, on board the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller master, for Rotterdam.

* Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if, in pursuance of the said act, the said goods, and every part thereof, shall be really and truly exported into parts beyond the seas, and no part thereof be reloaded, or unshipped, with intent to be reloaded in any part of Great-Britain: and, if the above-bounded Thomas Brooks and William Miller shall likewise bring a * certificate under the common seal of the chief magistrate, in any place or places beyond the seas, or under the hands and seals of two known English merchants upon the place where the said goods shall be landed, testifying, that such goods, and every part thereof, were there landed; or, in case such goods shall be taken by enemies, or perish in the seas, shall make due proof thereof by credible persons, before the commissioners of his majesty's customs: then this obligation to be void, or else to remain in full force and virtue.

11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

But, if the goods are to be exported to Ireland, then that part of the bond which is inserted after this mark *, must be made as follows:

And whereas by a clause in an act made in the fifth year of the reign of his late majesty, intitled, * An act against the clandestine running of uncustomed goods, and, for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the customs, it is enacted, That no bond given for the exportation of coffee, tea, or other certificate goods exported to Ireland, shall be delivered up until a certificate shall be produced under the hands and seals of the collector, comptroller, and surveyor of the customs, of some port in Ireland, or any two of them.

* 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. § 5. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. § 8.

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if, in pursuance of the said acts, the said goods, and every part thereof, shall be really and truly exported into some port in Ireland,

and no part reloaded or unshipped with intent to be reloaded in any part of Great-Britain: and, if the above-bounded Thomas Brooks and William Miller shall likewise, in six months after the date hereof, produce a certificate under the hands and seals of the collector, comptroller, and surveyor of the customs, of some port in Ireland, or any two of them, where the said Goods shall be landed, testifying that the said goods, and every part thereof, were there landed; or shall make proof by credible persons, before the commissioners of his majesty's customs, that such goods were taken by enemies, or perished in the seas: then this obligation to be void, or else to remain in full force and virtue.

Thomas Brooks, *
William Miller. *

Sealed and delivered in presence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

A short history of the East-India company.

This company is the most flourishing trading company in the kingdom, as likewise one of the greatest in Europe for wealth, power, and immunities; which appears by the ships of burden they constantly employ, the beneficial settlements they have abroad, their large magazines and storehouses for merchandizes, and sales of goods at home, with the particular laws and statutes made in their favour.

This corporation was originally formed towards the latter end of the reign of queen Elizabeth, their charter bearing date in 1599. Their charter was renewed by king James I. and also by Charles II. in 1662, who added largely to their privileges.—This is the foundation of the company, and was confirmed by king James II.

The subscriptions, or shares, in this company, were only of 50 l. originally; the directors having a considerable dividend, to make in 1676, it was judged eligible to add the profits of the stock, instead of withdrawing them; whereby the shares were doubled, and became advanced from 50 l. to 100 l.

The first capital of this company was no more than 369,891 l. 5 s. which, being doubled by this expedient, amounted to 739,782 l. 10 s. which, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be 1,703,422 l.

The company sustaining losses by the Dutch in India, and by the Great Mogul, began to decline at the Revolution.—The war with France put it into so desperate a condition, that, appearing scarce epoffible to be supported, a new one was erected.

The rise of this new company was occasioned by the great ease of the old one being taken into consideration by the parliament, which ease had been depending some years.—Because of it's intricacy, it had been first referred by the parliament to the king, and by him back to the parliament again in the year 1698; when the old company offering to advance 700,000 l. at 4 per cent. for the service of the government, in case the trade to India might be settled on them, exclusive of all others, the parliament seemed inclined to embrace their proposals.

In the interim, however, another body of merchants, of whom Mr Sheperd was the chief, and who were supported by Mr Montague, chancellor of the Exchequer, proposed to the house of commons to raise two millions, at 8 per cent. upon condition that the trade to India might be settled on the subscribers, exclusive of all others: they proposed also, that these subscribers should not be obliged to trade in a joint stock; but, if any members of them should afterwards desire to be incorporated, a charter should be granted to them for that purpose.

The parliament judged this new overture not only to be more advantageous to the government, but also very likely to settle this controverted trade on a better foundation than it was on before: wherefore a bill was brought in for settling the trade to the East-Indies, according to those limitations, and some further resolutions.—In consequence of which, the old East-India company presented a petition against this bill; which, notwithstanding, was passed in favour of the new company, who obtained a charter of incorporation, dated September 5, 1698, by the name of 'The General Society intitled to the advantages given by an act of parliament for advancing a sum not exceeding two millions, for the service of the crown of England.' Whereby the sum total of all the subscriptions was made the principal stock of the corporation; and the new company became invested with the same privileges as were granted to the old company by the charter of king Charles II. However, the old company was by the act indulged with leave to trade to the Indies until Michaelmas 1701.

The fund of this new company became so considerable, and subscriptions were carried on with such facility, that, in less than two years, the company put to sea 40 ships equipped for it's commerce; which was double the number employed by the old company in the most flourishing times of it's traffick; and they sent annually, at least, a million sterling in specie to the Indies, whereas the old company had never sent above 500,000 l.

The two companies subsisted a few years in a separate state, when, having a due regard to their common interests, and for the prevention of several inconveniences that might otherwise have happened, both to themselves and the nation in general, they agreed upon several articles for their union.

Accordingly, in the year 1702, a new charter of union was granted the two companies by queen Anne, under the name of The United company of Merchants trading to the East-Indies, which was essentially the same with those of king Charles and king William; because, by the union they adopted all the regulations made for the government of the old company: so that the united company should rather be deemed the old company continued, than a corporation erected upon a different establishment. Which charter being since expired, another, with new powers, was granted them, 'till 1730; and, in the 17th year of king George II. was continued until the 25th of March, 1780; when, on three years notice, and repayment of the capital stock borrowed by the government, and the annuities, the company's right to the sole and exclusive trade to the East-Indies is to cease and determine.

To the 2,000,000. advanced by the new company to William III. the united company, in the 6th year of queen Anne, lent the government 1,200,000. more, which made their whole loan amount to 3,200,000. being, what may properly be called, the capital stock of the company: the first loan of 2,000,000. was secured by the government, out of the duties upon salt, and the additional stamp duties, granted in the 9th and 10th years of William III. chargeable with the payment of 160,000. as a yearly fund for paying the Interest at 8 per cent. but by the act of the 3d of George II. this annuity of 160,000. was reduced to 128,000. and transferred as a charge upon the aggregate fund; and, in 1749, it was reduced to 3 ½ per cent. until Christmas 1757, and after that to 3 per cent. But, besides this 3,200,000. there is a million more due by the public to this company, being lent by them at 3 per cent. in the said 17th year of king George II.

In regard to the œconomy and policy of this company, all persons, without exception, are admitted members thereof, as well foreigners as natives, men and women; with this circumstance, that 500l. in the stock of the company, gives the owner a vote in the general courts, and 2000l. qualifies him to be chosen a director. The directors are 24 in number, including the chairman and deputy chairman, who may be re-elected for four years successively. They have salaries of 150l. a year, and the chairman of 200l. The meetings, or courts of directors, are to be held, at least, once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires.

Out of the body of directors are chosen divers committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business; as the committee of correspondence, committee of buying; committee of the treasury, committee of warehouses, committee of shipping, committee of accounts, committee of private trade, committee of the house, and committee to prevent the growth of private trade.

This company is not only granted an exclusive privilege of trade to the Indies, and other extraordinary concessions from the government, by their charter, but there are several acts of parliament made in it's behalf, whereby all the British subjects are restrained from going to the East-Indies, but in virtue of a licence granted by the company, to such who are called free merchants, and trade in the Indies from port to port.—The British subjects, likewise, are prohibited from procuring, or acting under any foreign commission, for sailing to, or trading there; or from subscribing to, or promoting any foreign company, for trading there, under severe penalties.

R E M A R K S.

Under the article **DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, the reader will please to observe, that we have shewn what extraordinary power and dominion that republic hath obtained in Asia, in consequence of that noble and glorious establishment; and which hath not a little contributed to augment the empire of that state in Europe also. From considering what has been said, under the articles **FRANCE**, **PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, and that of the **EAST-INDIA TRADE** in general, we shall be able to make a tolerable judgment, whether it is, or is not, interesting for England to continue to uphold and maintain their share in this commerce, by means of a well constituted company, with the like, or more extensive privileges and immunities, than what the present East-India company of this kingdom enjoys. And, without having a pretty minute and circumstantial account of the state of the trade of the other European potentates in Asia, and all the emolument and empire they derive therefrom, we cannot, it is presumed, be capable of judging, as we ought, of this important matter. Some have not scrupled to suggest, that the trade of the East-Indies is a losing trade to Europe in general; and even, that no nation ever gains by it. If this be the case, it is something extraordinary, that all the principal European potentates should be so insensible to their interest, as zealously to cultivate and promote a traffic that is detrimental to them;

it is still more to be admired, if this is such a losing and injurious trade, that, nevertheless, new states are ardently struggling to obtain a footing in it: they all carry the same on too, by the same means; that is to say, by joint-stock exclusive companies, with such privileges and immunities as shall give them a degree of weight and influence, in that part of the world, in some measure proportionate to those which other European powers possess; in order to maintain such a balance of trade and interest among the natives, as may prevent any one potentate engrossing the whole to themselves. For, was the whole of this commerce in the hands of any one European state, however ruinous some may imagine this trade to be, it seems more likely to enable such state to gain the universal empire, and mastery over all Europe, and thereby give law to the whole world.

Wherefore, it seems to be for the interest of all the chief powers of Europe, not to permit any one of them to obtain too great an ascendancy in this traffic, but to endeavour to take some share therein. The question then lies, which are the most eligible measures for a state to pursue to that end? While all other nations make use of powerful joint-stock corporations, and those endowed with weighty immunities and encouragements from their respective states; it does not seem politic, in any of the rest, to reject the like measures; it does not appear very likely, that a regulated company, without a joint-stock, should so effectually ballance the weight of many others in the Indies with large joint capitals and exclusive privileges; much less, perhaps, would they be capable of making any head against them, or participating of any tolerable share of that commerce, provided the trade was absolutely free and open to all the subjects of any one trading state, with a regulated company, without a joint trading-fund, and without a degree of strength and dominion, by forts, castles, &c. something proportionate to those of other powers: no trading nation, without those advantages in India, could be upon an equality with those who possessed them; and consequently could not be supposed to carry on so lucrative a commerce. The better to illustrate my meaning, permit me to make use of a familiar comparison, derived from the present military system, that is about to take place all over Europe: the king of Prussia, if I remember right, was the first prince who introduced a new military discipline in his armies, with a view, on occasion, to give them superior advantages thereby over an enemy, in the time of action.—When other powers, who are upon the quiver, were sensible of the inequality they might have in combat with armies, disciplined in a manner so highly superior it seems, do we not find that the other powers of Europe are striking into the same military exercise, in order to be upon an equality, in regard to discipline? And, if the same principle is not pursued, with respect to the commercial interest of states; if those who are inferior, in point of policy in conducting any branch of trade, to others, can never expect to be equal to them in prosperity therein: on the contrary, they must, and will ever be behind-hand with those in success, who are beforehand with them in power, wisdom, and good conduct.

The principle objection against our East-India company is, that it exports our silver; but, as it has been shewn under the article **BULLION**, and it's references, and will be further shewn, under the head of **MONEY**, that it is for the interest of the kingdom to allow a free exportation both of gold and silver, the force of this objection, we apprehend, is pretty well obviated.

Money, as a proper medium, is certainly absolutely necessary to the carrying on trade, for, where that fails, men cannot buy, and trade immediately stagnates; credit, which is to supply that defect, is only the expectation and assurance of money, when it is demanded: nevertheless, it is a great mistake, perhaps, though a very common one, to think, that money is the cause of a good or bad trade; since it is not money that so much influences trade, as it is trade that discovers the money, which is the medium whereby trade is the more conveniently managed, but not the sole source from whence it arises: thus, when trade is quick and brisk, then money, the medium, is more in view than when it is otherwise; and then, by changing hands oftener, an hundred pounds makes as great an appearance in commerce as a much greater sum.

No private trader, or company, sends money or bullion to other countries, but with a view to gain the more by it. It was a maxim of the wise prince Ferdinand the First, great duke of Tuscany, who raised the trade of his subjects to an incredible height from nothing, to lend them money, and permit them to send the same out of his dominions, in the way of commerce. Mr. Mun, a very skilful and eminent English merchant, tells us, that he himself experienced the duke's liberality, upon the like occasion, who lent him no less than 40,000 crowns gratis, although he knew that he should send the whole away, and that in specie too, to Turkey, to purchase merchandize; the duke being well assured, says he, that in the course of that trade, the same would return again, according to the Italian proverb, with a duck in the mouth. This judicious old gentleman further informs us, that, by this policy, the duke encouraged trade to such a degree, that

of his own knowledge, Leghorn, which was only a poor little town, became a fair and strong city; being, in his time, become the most famous place of commerce in all Christendom. Well, but if this commerce, by the re-exportation of the merchandizes we import from thence, is not only beneficial to the company, but to the general trade and navigation of the kingdom by our re-exportation of East-India merchandize; yet it will be asked, whether it would not prove highly more so, if it was laid absolutely free and open to all his majesty's subjects; experience manifesting, that freedom of trade, and the annihilation of all monopolies, will ever produce greater increase and prosperity: This maxim, in the general, is allowed to be sound policy; but in the case before us, it seems to be a matter of no little doubt, in relation to the trade of the East-Indies. For,

Although the government should be at the expence of supporting and maintaining forts and castles there, or laid a duty upon the trade on all imports or exports, ad valorem; yet, it is greatly to be feared, that such measures would not enable the British nation to maintain that weight of influence, dignity, and commerce, that either the Dutch, the French, or the Portuguese, at present do: nay, such is the peculiar nature of this traffic, that a mere military force, capable only of supporting forts and garrisons, might, from the peculiarity of their conduct, be more liable to destroy, than cultivate and cement commercial friendships, upon a footing equal to those who wisely constitute a proper trading interest, at the head of their military, which is absolutely requisite upon these occasions.

A regulated company, duly supported by a British government, might certainly be very well devised for the temporary support of a general freedom of trade; but, that the nation could permanently preserve such a distant commerce, any thing like what the meanest of our rivals therein do, I have never yet seen satisfactorily proved to the kingdom; and, until it is, I must, for my own part, always be an advocate for the continuance of the East-India company, rather with additional power, privileges, and immunities, than any diminution of those which they at present possess. Nay, with all deference to the judgment of our superiors, in matters of this nature, I must confess, that I am at a loss to discern the disadvantage that could arise to these kingdoms, if our East-India company were equally powerful in Asia, even with that of the Dutch; which I have lately shewn to have been, and still continues to be, attended with unpeakeable commercial emolument to the Hollanders. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY. It is frequently said, that our East-India company does not trade and exert themselves to the full extent of their charter; but that, if private traders had the un-restrained liberty to drive this trade to the full latitude it would admit of, they would leave no part of the Indies untraded to; especially all that are within the limits and jurisdiction of the British rights.

In regard to the company's not prosecuting this commerce to its extent, as is pretended that the same will admit of, it cannot proceed from a deficiency of capital or credit; and what reason have we to believe, that they should be backwards in augmenting their gains to the utmost degree in their power? A company, it is said, cannot trade at so small an expence, and therefore cannot afford to trade for so small profit, as private traders can. This is allowed to be true, in the general; but, before this matter comes to be considered, the previous question is, whether we should enjoy any share at all in this trade, if not by virtue of the company's forts and settlements? The extensive correspondence, and high credit of this company in the Indies, will certainly capacitate them to traffic in every corner of that part of the world, within their rights and privileges, where they can be gainers; and to do so where they must be losers, would shew little regard to the interest of the proprietors: but the point, if I am rightly informed, lies here; such branches of trade, by which the company either cannot gain at all by, or are not so gainful as others they prefer to engage in, are actually carried on by private British merchants, under the company's licence and authority; nor is the company very scrupulous, to my certain knowledge, in granting such licences to persons of reputation; they have readily granted one to a gentleman I had the honour, a few years since, to recommend to some of the directors of that company.

We are aware of the difference between a general freedom to carry on a trade from Europe to the East-Indies by British subjects, and a licence to carry on a coasting trade only in the Indies; but those free merchants who do obtain such licences, and only traffic in such of our own commodities as the company shall export, very amply supply most, if not all places therewith, which are actually within the jurisdiction of the company, and sometimes, perhaps, without it. It is true there are some duties paid to the company, in aid of supporting their forts and settlements; but considerably more, we may presume, would be laid, for that purpose, upon all free British traders from Europe, should that commerce be ever made free and open to all his majesty's subjects.

From what we have urged, we would not be understood to so much as insinuate, that the toleration granted to those licensed

merchants, can be attended with such advantages to our private traders, as they might possibly reap, under the circumstances of an unrestrained free and open traffic to Asia from Europe, and all other parts of the world: the difference, we believe, would be very great, as well in point of interest to the kingdom in general, as to the separate traders in particular. But what is to be dreaded is, that if we should be induced to lay so distant a trade open, while our formidable rivals therein carry the same on by joint-stock companies, with great public encouragements, privileges, and immunities, we should lose all that therein whatsoever. However, when other European nations lay their East-India trades entirely open to their respective subjects, we may venture, I presume, to follow their example without hazard; and 'till then, it seems, in my humble judgement, to be as weak and absurd, as it would be to send a body of unarmed and unammunitioned men into the field, against the like number, well supplied with artillery, arms, and ammunition.

To pursue this point a degree further, in regard to the continuance of this company.

The trade to the East-Indies is of such a nature, that it is of the last consequence to the nation to have, from time to time, distinct accounts of its state and condition: which could not be so well, or at least not so easily received, if it was not managed by a joint-stock company; as on the other hand, the necessary instructions and regulations could not, with such facility, be any other way conveyed. The conduct of all other nations, who, whenever they have adventured to interfere in this trade, have constantly put it under the management of such a company. And whoever shall consider how things are to be distributed and conducted in the Indies, and what a connection and dependency there is between the commerce of the several countries included within the extent of the East-India company's charter, will easily discern, that if the whole trade were in the hands of a disjointed number of separate traders, and not under the management and direction of a body of men, conversant and thoroughly experienced therein; and not only capable of giving judicious directions, but duly impowered to see those directions carried into execution; it does not seem very probable that this commerce should continue prosperous, or even that it should at all subsist.

It may also be conceived, that, if the possession of the forts and settlements were in the crown, and the management of the trade only in the hands of the company, it could not but be attended with numberless inconveniences, as, indeed, experience shewed, in the reign of king Charles II. when Bombay came to the crown by his marriage with the Infanta of Portugal; and, therefore, both that island, and the island of St Helena, have been granted to the East-India company, for the sake of public convenience.

We may likewise discover, from the disorder of the company's affairs in that reign, and in the reign of king James, that it is highly detrimental to this commerce, and to the benefits resulting from thence to the nation, that the company should be immediately under the power of the crown, so as to stand indebted for all encouragement, and to have no other resource in case of grievances, than what they can draw from royal power; for this on the one hand renders trade precarious, and, on the other, interests a great body of people in the support of the prerogative, which might be attended with consequences injurious to the constitution.

Experience has effectually shewn the mischiefs which flowed from the subsistence of two East-India companies at the same time; so great they were, that both companies soon became sensible, that nothing, but the union of their interests, could possibly afford a proper remedy. Yet we conceive, that the laying this trade open, which is what hath been often contended for, would be a scheme big with still greater evils and inconveniences, because it would be at the bottom a multiplication of companies, all acting upon separate interests, which would certainly be perpetually clashing and interfering with each other, and give the powerful and united trading interest of other nations opportunities to destroy them all, and for ever extirpate Britons from the whole Asiatic traffic. So that as all other countries carry on this trade by joint-stock opulent companies, endowed with weighty privileges by their respective states, there does not seem any other way for us to preserve the trade; we must either support the East-India company, or resolve to give up our commerce to the East-Indies, there being no middle course for us to steer; and, from a just sense of this, we may presume it was, that so much has been done by parliament in favour of this company, and so many new powers granted them.

But, notwithstanding this, it is for the interest of the public as well as of the proprietors of the company, that a watchful eye should be had over this company, lest those privileges and immunities should be abused; lest the commerce should not be conducted as well for the interests of the nation, as that of the constituents of the corporation. And, if any reasonable measures can be suggested for the advancement of these reciprocal interests, they should be laid before the legislature: if the company do not extend their traffic to that pitch their charter will admit, whereby the nation and proprietors may

receive the full benefit intended by such a constituted company: if this is owing to want of greater powers and immunities than what they at present possess, it is for the interest of the public that these powers should be enlarged: or, if it can be made appear, that many beneficial branches of trade may be carried on within the limits of their charter, even by separate traders, which the company do not think worth their while to intermeddle with: if this, I say, can be fully made appear, there is no reason why the nation should lose the benefit thereof, if they can be proved to be nationally, as well as privately beneficial. But, if on the other hand, such branches of the East-India trade, as the company do not engage in, would prove detrimental rather than otherwise to the kingdom, the public is still the more indebted to the company for neglecting such trade.

Upon the supposition that private traders could make it appear, that they could vend in the East-Indies much larger quantities of our native British commodities than the company do, and that without importing much larger quantities of India produce and manufactures, in consequence thereof, for home consumption, and with more and more far gainful re-exportation: if that proportion of East-India commerce, said to be neglected by the company, can be proposed to be carried on by private traders to the interest of the nation, and no way detrimental to the company, why do not private traders apply to parliament with such proposition? If such proposition was no way injurious to the interests of the company, and such traders would chuse to trade to certain places, and to a certain degree from Europe, under the licence and protection of the company, there is no reason to believe, but a British parliament would be induced to pay all due attention to such proposition; provided such separate traders would make some reasonable allowance to the company for such their licence and protection.

But, if these branches of trade, proposed to be carried on by private traders, should prove no additional advantage to the nation, but only take so much profit out of the scale of the company, as they at present bring into the kingdom, where would be the greater national emolument by such proposition? As many of the gentlemen who are in the direction of that honourable company, have, by their long experience and residence abroad, obtained a perfect knowledge of the East-India commerce; so, if any greater advantages can be proposed to be made by the company, in conjunction with those of the public, we may presume, from the known honour, integrity, and judgment of these gentlemen, they would not neglect them. But, if there should be any beneficial branches of commerce capable of being carried on by the company, and which may have escaped the cognizance of these honourable gentlemen, I am persuaded that they would not be unmindful, if any thing should be candidly laid before them for the interest of the trade of the company, in conjunction with that of the nation, and private traders also.

If, upon due examination, it should be found practicable for the company to open a direct and immediate correspondence, in order to take off a greater quantity of our commodities, as hath been suggested, either by the Cape of Good Hope or by the Straights of Magellan, or by any other reasonable measures, with the southern continent; it is reasonable, that any thing of this kind should be properly recommended to the company; and, if found unexceptionable, in the opinion of competent judges, they should be obliged to make such attempts; or, if they refused, that any private persons might be allowed to undertake them, and have suitable encouragements given them by the public. For it must be allowed, that this, and all other companies, are but so many corporations endowed with powers in trust for the public, for which they are, and must be accountable to the public; and also be liable to such alterations, extensions, and restrictions, as may render them more serviceable to the public.

The popular objections against this company, are as follow: The first is grounded on the exportation of bullion, which is stated thus: the common measure of all things in a commercial way, is silver, and consequently the great criterion of the wealth of the nation, is her drawing this common measure from other nations; but the East-India trade is carried on by exporting this real, this intrinsic wealth, as it is called by some, which never returns, but is employed to bring back things that are not necessary, but mere instruments of luxury.

Before we proceed to answer this objection, which has been done in some measure en passant, it may be requisite previously to observe, that the necessaries of life are in every country, at least in every habitable country: and it is to what some call luxury, that all trade whatever is owing: so that, if we admit this principle, we should not only drink sage instead of green tea, but make use of honey instead of sugar. We should, in short, endeavour to cultivate and improve the produce of our own country, live upon it, and leave all the rest of the world to shift for itself.

How just a maxim this would be, for people who inhabit an island, and how reasonable it is for those who derived most of the blessings they enjoy from trade and maritime power to talk thus, we leave the reader to judge. But, if once we set this objection so far aside, as to allow that trade is a commendable thing; that it gives bread to myriads of the human

species, and makes the country wherein it flourishes rich and happy; the particular trade to the East-Indies becomes as defenceable as any other: for, if exporting of bullion does not impoverish the nation, then there is no weight at all in the objection: that it does not under the circumstances of the present East-India trade, may be thus further urged, in corroboration of what we have said under these heads to which we have referred at the beginning of this article.

When the first charter was granted to the East-India company, this evil was foreseen, and properly guarded against by a proviso, that the company should be obliged to bring in as large a quantity of bullion as they carried out, in the interval between the voyages made, at the risk of the company. In reality, therefore, there never was any foundation for this complaint, that the quantity of silver in this kingdom should be diminished by the East-India trade. But, by degrees, and as this commerce increased, instead of impoverishing, it has greatly increased the wealth of this nation, by bringing in on one hand large quantities of silver for the Indian merchandizes re-exported, and detaining here on the other as great sums of money, that must otherwise have been exported for foreign produce and manufactures; which would have been worn here, if we had not been better and cheaper supplied from India.

It has been formerly objected, that the wearing of India piece-goods prejudiced our own woollen and silk manufactures; but this in a great measure has been cured by the laws passed for that purpose. It may not be amiss, however, to observe, that these manufactures are chiefly to be encouraged, which contribute to exportation; since it is certain, that the cheaper people can be clothed here, let that clothing come from where it will, the cheaper they can afford to work: and, it is the cheapness of labour, that is the great point to be studied in a trading nation; for, if we can under-work other nations, we shall infallibly undermine their trade, and extend our own.

Another objection is, that even the exportation of Indian goods is disadvantageous to the nation, because it is conjectured to lessen the consumption of our own manufactures in those countries to which the produce of India is exported: a very strong objection this, at first view, and yet fallacious at the bottom. For this objection supposes what is manifestly false; it supposes that it depends upon our exportation, whether the inhabitants of those countries to which we send them, shall wear the manufactures of the Indies or not: but it is notorious, that, if we did not, the Dutch or the French would supply them therewith; and would not this have the same effect as to the exclusion of our manufactures? Wherefore the true state of the question turns here, whether we shall take their money, or their goods, for Indian commodities, or whether we shall submit to let them lay out that, or part with those for Indian commodities, which we might supply to other people? Is not the truth of this still further confirmed, from the ardent endeavours of all those powers, who are struggling to have a direct correspondence with India, in order to obtain greater quantities of the goods of that country; and does not this manifestly prove, that the appetites of those people for these things were so strong, that it was no way in our power to check or correct them?

The sole objection then against this commerce, that has any real weight, seems to lie here, that it is against the interest of the western to correspond with the eastern part of the world. The reasons brought to prove this are only plausible, far from conclusive.—It is said, that the balance of trade is against us; that we import the commodities and manufactures of India, and export silver to pay for them.—That this drains Europe to such a degree, as that, since the discovery of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, the Indians have gained from the Europeans upwards of two hundred millions in silver; which immense sum they possess, while all that we have received from it, is long since lost and consumed.—This say some zealous and sanguine writers, who generally overshoot the mark of truth, sufficiently proves, that it would be for the benefit of the western part of the world, if they had no commerce at all with the eastern; and that it would be an advantage to Europe in general, if the commerce to the Indies were totally abolished.

Admitting this to be true, how does it concern and affect us? are we the legislators of Europe! have we the *sic volo sic ju-beo* in our power, to compel the Dutch to dissolve their company, and recall their subjects from the Indies? Can we forbid the French to trade to the East-Indies, or even the powers of Portugal, Sweden, and Denmark, &c.? Would they not all, and very justly too, laugh at us all for our presumption? Must we not then be content to take the world as it lies before us, since the humour of trading to India cannot be extinguished? We, as a trading nation, must endeavour so to manage that humour, and so to conduct that commerce, as that both may turn to our advantage. It certainly is for our interest not only effectually to maintain and support the acquisitions made by our company in that part of the world, but to enable the company to enlarge and extend their power and commerce; while the rest of the world have a taste for these commodities, we must engage the company to take off as
large

large a quantity of our own produce and manufactures as is possible: let us also duly encourage the exportation of such goods and manufactures as the company brings home, as being of great consequence to the trade of the nation: let us at all events, and by whatever means it can be done, prevent the smuggling of Indian commodities into these kingdoms; for such as promote that practice, are the greatest enemies to our commerce, and cannot gain a single shilling without robbing the nation of five.

Upon the whole, it seems evident that our commerce to the East-Indies is one great wheel that moves many other; nor does there appear to be any reason for dissatisfaction at seeing it managed by an exclusive company, which is now constituted on a very good basis for the national interests; and, though our commerce thither is carried on in this shape, yet it is certainly beneficial to the kingdom in general.—Nor do the objections against the company appear to be of that weight, as some warm people, who seem, I am afraid, to be too much misled by the word monopoly, imagine; for 'tis certainly more eligible, that a body of our own subjects should engross the advantages arising from this trade, than that other nations should monopolize the whole to themselves, and leave us no share therein: and there is infinitely more reason to believe that this would be the case, if this trade was laid open, than while it continues in the hands of a powerful and opulent company, whose affairs are wisely, equitably, and honourably conducted.

It imports us, at this juncture more than ever, to be well informed, and clearly convinced as to these things; because most certain it is, that there never was a conjuncture when the thorough understanding of them was of so great consequence to the public interests.

In our considerations upon the nature of this trade, it should never be forgot, that, since the Europeans have carried it on, their shipping and commerce in general have been much extended; from the time the Portuguese discovered the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, the face of Europe has been entirely changed, and this nation in particular, has grown infinitely more considerable in comparison of other parts of the world, than it was before we engaged in this commerce. And,

If the trade of the East-Indies has carried out some millions of our silver wealth, may we not reasonably enough ask, how we came by those millions? Has it not been from America and the Western Indies! And, how came these to be discovered? Was it not by searching out a new passage to the East-Indies? If, therefore, by carrying on the commerce of the East-Indies, we have fallen upon another commerce, which has not only supplied silver sufficient for the East-India trade, but likewise brings in annually an immense treasure besides, there can be no pretence for imagining that Europe in general has been, or ever can be, a loser by carrying on this traffic. Providence seems to exclude these narrow notions, and, by dividing the treasures of the world in such a manner as to make commerce the interest of all nations, has provided effectually against this imaginary evil of trading, 'till we have nothing wherewith to trade.

Besides, the Europeans owe many other great advantages to this commerce in the East; it being the great support of the maritime power of Europe, and making us masters of all the other parts of the globe; who, if it had not been for this maritime power, might long since have been masters of us. Let any man consider the wide difference, in point of dominion, number of subjects, and whatever else contributes to magnificence and power, between the little republic of Holland, and the great empires of Turkey, Persia, and India; and remember, that this commerce has rendered a company, in that little republic, formidable even to all those great and mighty empires, and capable of maintaining herself, and protecting her concerns against them all: these facts being duly attended to, do they not irrefragably demonstrate the high importance of this commerce, and that it was a very wise and right measure to promote and encourage it? Can there be a clearer and stronger demonstration than this, which is founded on experience as well as reason? Might not the point be safely rested here, without further consideration? See the Article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the Article FRANCE, and EAST-INDIA TRADE in general.

Before we leave this point, we'll take leave only to observe, that, if the interest, weight and power of our East-India company can be further promoted in Asia than it is, it certainly must prove proportionably to the benefit and advantage of the public in general, as well as of the corporation in particular. Nay, if ever the time should come, from a change in the circumstances of the European commerce, that it may be judged expedient, by a British legislature, to lay this trade absolutely open, the more the British interest is advanced by the company before such a change should take place, would it not tend the more to the interest of private traders in general, when they should take possession of that traffic? That it certainly would, no man who considers the matter with candor and dispassion, will gainsay.

The Dutch have done every thing to increase their dominion in Asia; and, having prodigious numbers of the native inhabitants under their power, have introduced the European customs, modes, and habits among great numbers of them. By which means they have obtained not only a greater vent for European manufactures in general amongst the native Asiatics than any other state that trades there, but as great a quantity, perhaps, as they all do together.—Could our East-India company be effectually enabled to bring the natives, in like manner, under their controul and authority, what immense quantities of our British commodities and manufactures might we not also vend in this EASTERN COMMERCE? Could this be done before the trade should be laid open, what unspeakable emolument would arise to private traders, and to the kingdom in general, in consideration of such additional prosperity to the company?

Further REMARKS, how far the East-India company may be instrumental to increase the trade of the nation.

The mere establishment of forts, settlements, and factories upon the sea-coasts, do not seem to be so well calculated for an extensive commerce, as having populous colonies under dominion; which are governed by principles and maxims subservient to the interest of the mother-country. But, however impracticable it may appear to some, to increase the power of our East-India company in Asia, and thereby render them capable of exporting far greater quantities of our native produce and manufactures than they at present can; yet there is one very great advantage that this company, I apprehend, may be instrumental to procure to these kingdoms, before ever it's annihilation shall be thought of; and which, perhaps, never can be accomplished, not effectually accomplished, but by the means of so powerful and opulent a company.

The matter I would humbly presume only to suggest at present, is simply this, viz.

That whereas it is allowed on all hands, that the INLAND TRADE to AFRICA hath hitherto been but very triflingly cultivated by any, or all the European powers, who are therein interested, in comparison to the extent the same will admit of: and whereas the principal obstruction hereunto, seems to be the great attention that these powers have chose to give to that unnatural, unjust, cruel, and barbarous commerce, commonly called the SLAVE TRADE, and the little regard that has been given to a natural, just, humane, and civilized commerce, with those people; and whereas the trade to Africa, with respect to these kingdoms, seems even yet to remain unsettled, as being again, according to report, to be brought under the consideration of parliament: it is humbly proposed:

(1.) That every branch of the trade to Africa, excepting that which is commonly called the slave-trade, shall be given to the East-India company by act of parliament, with an exclusive privilege for — years; with such other encouragements and immunities as to the wisdom of the legislature shall seem meet.

(2.) That the forts and castles in Africa, and every thing thereto appertaining, which belongs to the public, be vested in the East-India company, and the annual support which is now allowed by parliament to the present African company, shall be granted to the said East-India company, in order the better to enable them to support and maintain these forts and castles already erected in Africa.

(3.) That any one or more of those forts upon the coast of Africa, except Cape Coast-Castle upon the Gold-Coast, or James Fort in the River Gambia, be vested in the private and separate British traders, in order the better to accommodate them, in their carrying on the slave-trade; which forts shall be duly maintained and supported by the East-India company, at the stated sum of 10,000*l.* per annum.

(4.) That the whole slave-trade be left in the hands of the separate British traders; and that the East-India company shall have no toleration whatsoever to interfere therein, with the interest of the separate British traders.

(5.) That every other branch of the African Trade shall be solely under the controul, direction, and management of the said East-India company.

(6.) That the East-India company, when possessed of these additional powers and privileges, shall be distinguished by the name of The Royal East-India and African Company, or by whatever other appellation the wisdom of parliament may judge the more eligible.

(7.) The one half of the commodities ad valorem, to be vendid in Africa by the said Royal East-India company, shall be of British produce and manufacture, and the other half of the produce and manufactures of the East-Indies.

(8.) That the said Royal East-India and African company shall be obliged to erect — inland forts and factories at their own expence, in order to facilitate trade between the most interior parts of Africa and the sea-coast.

REMARKS.

If the whole African trade, except that part commonly called the slave trade, was absolutely vested in the East-India company,

pany, upon some reasonable terms and condition, there is no doubt to be made, but that trade would, by means of so powerful and wealthy a company, be carried on to the very center of that great extended and populous country: and what immense quantities of our own, as well as of the East-India commodities, might be vended among these people, is not easy to say; especially if these negro people could be gradually civilized, and brought generally to wear, and otherwise consume the European and Indian commodities. But it can never be expected, without the erection of interior forts and factories; and those duly maintained and upheld by a powerful company, with a large joint trading stock, that this trade will ever be increased to the degree it is capable of. And, as it would be the interest of this company to cultivate the inland commerce to the utmost extent, as having no manner of concern with the slave trade, there is all reason to believe, that where we now export twenty shillings worth of commodities to Africa, we might then perhaps export one hundred pounds worth. There are considerable quantities of the East-India goods at present sent to Africa; but, if that company were so settled there as to increase the commerce in that part of the world, to the degree it is certainly capable of, the consumption of those would certainly, as well as that of British commodities in general, increase beyond imagination. And we very well know, that those people have the valuable commodities of ivory, gums, dyeing woods, gold, &c. &c. and doubtless, when the trade came to be extended to the degree it will admit of, there would be discovered an infinite variety of trafficable particulars, with which the Europeans at present are totally unacquainted.

So well constituted a company, supported for half a century only, with such powers and privileges as before intimated, or with such others as shall make it for the interest of the company to drive the inland trade to its utmost height, would be instrumental, we may reasonably believe, to make Britons, as well acquainted with the interior territories of that extended country, as they at present are with the coast only. So that if the wisdom of the nation should, at any time hereafter, judge it for the public interests to deprive this company of its exclusive Asiatic privilege of trade, and lay the trade quite open; would not the separate traders and the public in general, reap unspeakably greater advantage by the commerce of Africa, than they ever possibly can do, if some powerful company does not undertake the establishment of this very extensive and gainful branch of commerce?

Nor do we apprehend that separate traders can have the least reason to complain, or object against the establishment of such an extended commerce into the heart of Africa, as may easily be effectuated by virtue of so well constituted a company, and perhaps, by no other measures whatsoever.

Having endeavoured, to the best of my power and ability, to inform myself, in regard to what has been urged against every kind of trading company that has existed in this nation; I am not unapprized of what may be objected against my own proposition, and particularly what may be offered from the consideration of the miscarriage of the late Royal African company: from which some probably may please to argue, that it is impossible for any kind of African company long to subsist, without annihilation of their trading capital.

But, with all deference to the judgment of those who are pleased to think so, I would beg leave to submit a short paragraph or two to their impartial reflection.---With respect to this late company, it must be observed, that they were never bottomed upon a parliamentary constitution; that they were ever in the precarious situation of depending only upon the royal prerogative, without any parliamentary sanction. 'Tis no wonder, therefore, that they could never raise above the capital stock of a hundred thousand pounds; the bulk of which was soon sunk in the purchase, repairs, and erection of forts and castles; in consequence of which, they had so trifling a stock left wherewith to trade, that it was not possible, under all these disadvantages and discouragements, they should ever make a tolerable progress in this commerce, any way proportionate to the apparent extent it is capable of. Where is the admiration, therefore, that a company, erected upon so sandy a foundation, should never be able to support its head, and at length sink?

As this trade has yet never had a fair trial, by means of a company founded upon parliamentary authority, no man can presume to say, that what has never been tried will miscarry. See the articles DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, FRANCE, and BULLION.

REMARKS.

The following case, containing some argument that tends to explain and illustrate the nature and computation of the custom-house duties, in regard to East-India commodities, I judge it may be useful to record the same in this work.

De Term. Sanct. Hill. 10 Annæ.

In the EXCHEQUER.

Sir Edward Northey, Knt. her majesty's attorney-general, on behalf of her majesty, plaintiff; and the united com-

pany of merchants of England, trading to the East-Indies, defendants.

The information sets forth, That, by the laws and statutes of this realm, there are several customs, impositions, and other duties payable to her majesty, her heirs and successors, at the custom-house, upon goods, wares, and merchandizes, imported from Persia, China, or the East-Indies: in all those duties, there is a distinction between the gross duties and net duties. The gross duty is the sum per cent. given or granted by the several acts of parliament, which direct small allowances to be made thereout to the merchants for prompt payment; and, those allowances being deducted, the remainder is the net duty payable to the crown: all which duties are to be collected and levied in such method, and with such abatements and allowances as are thereby prescribed, viz. where any of such commodities are particularly rated in the book of rates, there the said duties are to be collected and levied according to such rates. But where any of the said commodities are not mentioned or set down in the said book of rates, nor any value put upon them, there the value of such goods according to which the duties are to be paid (except coffee) are to be reckoned according to the gross price at which such goods shall be sold openly and fairly, by way of auction, or by inch of candle; making such allowances only out of the same, as are provided by an act made 2 Annæ reginæ, intituled, An act for granting to her majesty an additional subsidy of tonnage and poundage for three years, and for laying a duty on French wines, and for ascertaining the value of unrated goods, imported from the East-Indies (which act, by another act 4 Annæ, is continued for ninety-eight years). By which act it is enacted, That, out of the value of the said goods so to be ascertained by the price at the candle, there should be a deduction and allowance made of so much as the net duties, payable to her majesty for the same goods respectively, do amount unto (except the duty of 5l. per cent. payable to the queen for the use of the company) and of so much as the company, bona fide, shall allow for prompt payment to the persons, who, at such sales, shall buy the said goods at times (which is usually reckoned at 6l. 10s. per cent. upon the gross price) and also upon the whole values of the said goods so to be ascertained, by the price at the candle, there shall be deducted and allowed 6l. for every 100l. for the company's charges in keeping such goods, from the time of importation 'till the sale by the candle; and in that proportion for a greater or lesser value. By which said clause, the values of such unrated goods, according to which the duties are to be collected, must be such values as remain after the three deductions and allowances before-mentioned, are made out of the gross price or value at which the goods are sold by the candle; and, when those allowances are deducted out of the gross price, the duties are to be collected and paid for the remaining sum.

The allowance of the net duties is appointed to be only of such net duties as are payable to the crown, that is, what the crown actually receives for the same goods respectively; which, for an example, in the case of China ware, are computed at 29l. 19s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$, in every 100l. gross value. Therefore, deducting the 29l. 19s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$, together with 6l. 10s. for prompt payment to the buyer at the time, and 6l. for charges in keeping the goods 'till sale, making in all 42l. 9s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$ out of each 100l. gross value of China wares sold, the remaining sum, according to which the duties are to be reckoned and collected, will be 57l. 10s. 4d. $\frac{1}{2}$, and no less; and, according to that proportion, the crown is intitled to receive for duties, in every 100l. gross value of China wares sold, the said sum of 29l. 19s. 7d. $\frac{1}{2}$; and so pro rata for a greater or lesser value, as appears by the specimen No. 2. following, as was annexed to the information.

By other acts of parliament, there is a duty of 15l. per cent. laid upon muslins and callicoes, over and above all other duties; which duty is to be reckoned according to the gross price at which such goods are sold: and if the same be paid to the crown within twenty days after the sale (such sale being made within twelve months after the importation thereof) there is a discount of 5l. per cent. allowed, which reduces the said 15l. to 14l. 5s. per cent. and therefore, to ascertain the other duties chargeable upon that commodity, there must be a reduction of the said 15l. to 14l. 5s. per cent. out of every 100l. gross price, as well as of the said other three allowances of 6l. 10s. and 6d. and of the other net duties, actually paid to the crown, computed at 19l. 0s. 11d. which said four allowances, making together 45l. 15s. 11d. being deducted out of each 100l. gross price, the remaining sum, according to which the said other duties are to be collected for callicoes and muslins, will be 54l. 4s. 1d. and no less. And the information further sets forth, that, between the 8th of March, 1703, the time the said act of parliament commenced, and the 12th of February, 1711, the defendants had imported into this kingdom great quantities of unrated goods from the East-Indies, and other parts, liable to pay the several duties charged upon the same, which they had long since sold, and refused to pay the crown the duties for the same, according to the computations in the following specimens, No. 2 and 4, which the attorney-general annexed to the information,

formation, and prayed that they might be taken as part thereof; and that the defendants took advantage of the practice formerly used by the officers of the customs, who, in computing the said duties, had deducted more out of the gross price for the net duties than what ought to be deducted; by means whereof, the crown received less for the said duties than what ought to have been paid; and that the defendants insisted, that no more ought to be paid to the crown for such unrated goods than what arises from the gross price thereof, upon sale by the candle, after a deduction made not only of the net duties payable to the crown for the same goods, but of the duties for the gross price at the candle, amounting to 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. which was deducting duties upon such duties, and also upon the said allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. making in all 64 l. 12 s. 6 d. which being deducted out of 100 l. the gross price of China ware, reduces the same to 35 l. 7 s. 6 d. and the duties then arising from such reduced value, amounted to no more than 18 l. 8 s. 9 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; by which method of computation, the duties for every 100 l. gross value of China ware, would be less by 11 l. 10 s. 10 d. than what ought really to be paid, according to the true method of computation, as appeared by the following specimen, No. 2. compared with the defendants specimen following, No. 3. which was also annexed to the said information.

And the attorney-general further set forth, That, in the instances of callicoes and mullins, the defendants insisted on the like deduction of duties upon duties, and also of duties upon the said allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. thereby reducing the 100 l. gross price at the candle to 38 l. 2 s. 3 d. and that the duties arising from that reduced value amounted to no more than 13 l. 7 s. 10 d. by which means the duties, payable to the crown for every 100 l. gross value of callicoes and mullins, would be less by 5 l. 13 s. 1 d. than what ought to be paid, as appeared by the specimen following, No. 4. compared with the defendants specimen, No. 5. following, which was also annexed to the information; and that, likewise, in all other cases of unrated goods imported from the East-Indies, the defendants insisted upon the like manner of deducting the duties, and reducing the gross price, so as the crown lost a considerable proportion of the duties which ought to be received.

And farther setting forth, that the commissioners and officers of the customs had required the defendants to pay to the crown the duties of such unrated goods imported by the defendants within time aforesaid, as the same had been computed in the method before set forth, viz. reckoning the duties of 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, to be due for every 100 l. gross value of China ware, and 19 l. 0 s. 11 d. to be due for every 100 l. gross value of callicoes and mullins, beyond the 15 l. or 14 l. 5 s. per cent. as it should happen, and so pro rata for a greater or lesser value, and also reckoning the duties of the other unrated goods according to their respective proportions; but that the now defendants had refused to account with the crown for the duties of China ware, callicoes and mullins, or any other unrated goods, upon the foot of the said computation, or to pay the monies due or payable to the same; by reason whereof several great sums of money, exceeding in the whole 20,000 l. were still due and unsatisfied to the crown from the defendants, for the duties of such unrated goods.

Wherefore it was prayed by the information, that the defendants might account with her majesty for the duties of the said unrated goods, according to the specimens No. 2 and 4, following, and that the method thereby proposed, of collecting the duties upon unrated goods, by making a deduction out of the gross price of such sum only, for net duties as the crown actually received for the same goods respectively, might be established by the decree of the court.

To which information the defendants put in their answer, and thereby insisted, That the duties of the unrated goods had been always paid by them according to the specimens, No. 3 and 5, following, which they apprehend to be according to the obvious meaning of the said act, 2 Annæ reginæ, and to the ancient and known practice of the custom-house in collecting the duties; and, according to which, all merchants in England had paid customs upon unrated goods, and that the method of computation insisted on by the attorney-general would be attended with great difficulties and delays.

And farther, that several goods had been sold by them at the public sales by the candle, part whereof did not belong to the defendants, but were for the account of private persons, who had liberty to trade to the East-Indies, and of whom they received no more for their customs than what the same amounted to by the old method of computation, which was publicly known and allowed, by the officers of the customs; and that the sum which was universally taken and understood, at the time of sale, to be the duties for those goods, was the rule for the drawback upon the exportation thereof; and that, if the duties had been then known to be higher, the drawback must have been so likewise, and that would, in some measure, have raised the price (though not equal to the advance of the duties) as well of the goods for domestic consumption, as of those for exportation; so that it would be a manifest loss to the defendants, if, by a new construction,

they should be made liable to a higher duty, and hoped they should not be obliged to the intricate way of computation proposed in the information, but that they might account for the duties according to the ancient method.

And the said defendants farther insisted, that, where callicoes and mullins had been exposed to sale openly, by auction, or by inch of candle, within twelve months after the importation thereof, and the said goods, for want of a market, could not be sold within that time, and had been sold afterwards, that, in such case, upon payment of the duty of 15 l. per cent. on such goods, within twenty days after the time of sale, the defendants were intitled to the allowance of 5 l. per cent. in the act mentioned, although such sale happened to be after the expiration of the said twelve months.

The attorney-general having replied, and the cause being at issue, divers witnesses were examined, as well for the queen as for the defendants; and the cause came on to be heard February 10, 1714, when the court took time to give their opinions therein: and, the cause coming again to be heard on the 25th of the same February, the court unanimously declared, that the deduction, or allowance, which was to be made to the defendants, for duties payable to her majesty out of the gross price, at the candle, of unrated East-India goods, should be the very same, and no other, than that which the defendants should pay to her majesty for the same goods respectively; and that the methods insisted upon by the defendants, for ascertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the said unrated East-India goods, and, as the defendants in their answer had set forth, had been to that time used by the officers of the customs, were not according to the direction of the said act of parliament of the second year of her late majesty's reign, but erroneous, and liable to great absurdities; and that the methods insisted upon by the attorney-general, in his information, for ascertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the said unrated goods, and contained in the specimens No. 2 and 4, following, were the right and true methods for ascertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the said unrated goods, pursuant to the direction, intent, and meaning of the said act of parliament; which said two specimens the court did ratify and confirm, and decree to be observed and practised by the officers of the customs, as the true and right methods for ascertaining the values, and computing the duties of unrated East-India goods, agreeable to the directions of the said act of parliament.

And the court farther declared, that the allowance of 5 l. per cent. made to the defendants, ought not to be made out of the said duty of 15 l. per cent. charged upon mullins and callicoes, but where the sale thereof should be made within twelve months after the importation of those goods; and the said duty of 15 l. per cent. paid within twenty days after the time of such sale, according to the directions of the said act of parliament, in such case provided, and not otherwise.

And the court thereupon did order and decree, that the defendant should account with her majesty for the duties due to the crown for the several unrated goods, which had been by them imported since the 8th of March 1703, according to the specimens No. 2 and 4 following, confirmed by the court, for such sums of money as should appear to be due according to those specimens, over and above what had been already paid by them; and it was referred to the deputy remembrancer of the said court, to take the said account, according to the directions and declarations aforesaid, and to report what was thereupon due from the defendants to her majesty; but the defendants were therein to account for the duties of their own goods only, and not for the duties of such goods as should appear to belong to private persons, who had liberty, or were licensed or permitted by the defendants, to trade to the East-Indies.

In the taking of which account, the deputy was to make the defendants all just allowances, and to be armed with a commission for examination of witnesses, for proving such account.

Pursuant to this decree, a charge was exhibited before the deputy remembrancer on behalf of the crown, containing an account of the difference of the duties payable for goods which had been imported by the defendants, according to the former method of computation, and of the duties payable by the method established by the decree, amounting to the sum of 26,222 l. 1 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; in which account the defendants were charged only with the duties of goods imported between the 28th of November 1705, the time of the arrival of the first ship after they were constituted a company, and 7th of September 1713. And a further charge was afterwards exhibited before the deputy on the crown's behalf, for the duties of tea for home consumption, which had been omitted in the first charge, amounting to the sum of 4029 l. 10 s. 2 d. so that the whole charge upon the defendants amounted to the sum of 30,251 l. 11 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. The defendants, after great delays, gave in their discharge, containing an account of the duties of goods imported by them which were not their own goods, but belonging to private persons, who had liberty, or were licensed or permitted by the defendants to trade to the East-Indies, amounting to the sum

of 6846 l. 4 s. 4 d. which, by the decree, they were not to account for, and which they craved an allowance of, out of the duties charged upon them in the charge given in on the crown's behalf.

Upon these charges and discharges divers witnesses were examined before the deputy on both sides, and so great a progress was made in the account, that the deputy was ready to prepare a draught of his report; but, the defendants after all these proceedings and length of time, thought fit to appeal from the said decree to the house of Lords.

I cannot but observe, that this cause, says the reporter, was defended in the face of the most certain of all sciences, the mathematics. It is also against the express words of the act, deducting the queen's net duties, and they deduct the gross duties. And it is also against the meaning of the act, that the subject should pay duty for the queen's duty. And the result of their computation is, that all the parts are not equal to the whole: and that, the more duty is laid on, the less the queen receives, because you deduct more than you pay; for, the higher you lay the duties, the deductions are the greater. The defendants insisted the queen's method was intricate, and framed on fictitious numbers by the operations of algebra, above common capacities. The very title of the act gives an additional duty, and this computation takes it away: they do not say the queen's method is wrong, nor that theirs is right: so that indeed the calculation of the East-India company was an imposition in all its significations, viz. upon the subject as a tax, and on the queen by way of fraud. The defendants did acquiesce for *seventeen years before they did appeal, and were so well satisfied with the justice and equity thereof, that they have complied with the calculation thereby established, in the payment of these duties, ever since the decree pronounced in the Exchequer.

* The company had no longer time; for that, by a standing order of the house of lords made 24th of March 1725, appeals are to be brought within five years after the decree or order, in the court below, is signed and inrolled, &c.

This cause was heard in the house of lords, on Monday the 19th day of March 1732, and was called, in the house of lords, The Algebraic Cause; because that was the clearest and best method of proof: tho' it may be done by vulgar arithmetic.

The sum which the act charges with the payment of this net duty is called the net value: and this net value has ever the same proportion to the net duty, that the gross value has to the gross duty. Now the act requires, that the net value, charged with the payment of the net duty, should be the gross value, diminished by two several sums; the one is the sum 12 l. 10 s. part of the allowance to the company, for warehouse room 6 l. per cent, and that for prompt payment 6 l. ½ per cent. already determined and known; the other is, the net duty payable, which is quite unknown, and the only thing wanting. For it is expressly said in the act, that the net duty payable on the 100 l. gross value of East-India goods, is not to be reckoned into the net value: and consequently, the net duty payable (whatever it is) together with the company's allowance, must be deducted from the gross value, and the remainder is to be the net value charged to pay the net duty payable: so that the meaning of the act is no more, than that the sum or net value, paying net duty, should be the gross value, lessened by that very duty, and also by the company's allowance.

Now, in the manner of computing by the direction of this act, there are two very different methods, viz. a right method and a wrong one: And a very ignorant accountant cannot readily see how the net duty payable (which is as yet unknown) can be subducted from the gross value, in order to find the net value, paying the net duty: and therefore, without any farther consideration, he subducts the gross duty (instead of the net duty payable) together with the company's allowance, out of the gross value, and takes the remainder for the net value paying duty; and concludes, that this net value has the same proportion to the net duty, that the gross value has to its gross duty.

While the company's allowances continue to be 12 l. 10 s. as they now are, it is not in the power of parliament to lay a gross duty on the 100 l. gross value, that can possibly yield to the crown a net duty of above 19 l. 2 s. 9 d. ¼; and, in order to raise so much duty, the 100 l. gross value must be charged with only 43 l. 15 s. gross duty: if the 100 l. gross value is charged with more, as it is at present with 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. gross duty (on China ware) it must by this method of computation, produce a less net duty, as now it does only 18 l. 8 s. 9 d. ¼; whereas, in computing by the method directed in the act, it would produce 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. ½, net duty; and, if the 100 l. gross value was still charged with a greater gross duty, it would consequently, by the common method of computation, still produce a less net duty. This

their method of computing, as it is grounded upon a ridiculous supposition, so the practice thereof seems to be involved in one continued blunder; as if the intention of the act should be, that, the more imposition is laid, the less will be the duty payable to the crown; or that the real design of the act, was to lessen the duty by laying on a greater.

In the next place, if the 100 l. gross value was charged with 87 l. 10 s. gross duty, and the company's allowance 12 l. 10 s. the net duty produced would be nothing; for, by this method of computing, the net duty of 100 l. gross value, becomes nothing whenever the gross duty charged on 100 l. gross value, is equal to the excess of 100 l. above the company's allowance. So that while the company's allowance is 20 l. per cent. no duty can be laid on the 100 l. gross value, that will yield the crown a net duty of above 16 l.

It is indeed strange, that any body should be able to find a difficulty in such an easy affair as this is; an accountant but indifferently skilled, would by the rule of common sense only, and common arithmetic, as usual in the like cases, investigate a general method, whereby the computation will be strictly performed.

By this true method of computation, the sum of the net value, it's net duty, and the company's allowances, is equal to, or makes up the gross value 100 l. as being the several parts whereof it consists: but, by the method hitherto used, what they call the net value, it's net duty, and the company's allowances, will not make up the whole gross value, though esteemed to be all the parts thereof; and this computation may be made by the common rule of three in vulgar arithmetic, as well as by algebra.

After the matter had been fully argued, the house of lords were unanimously of opinion, that the judgment in the Exchequer, in this cause, should be affirmed; with this variation, that the account which the appellants were to make to the crown, should be taken from the time the information was exhibited only, and not from the 8th of March 1703.

The following specimens were printed on the appeal in 1732.

Specimen, No. 2.

Containing the method insisted upon by the attorney-general for ascertaining the values, according to which the duties are to be paid to his majesty, upon unrated China wares, referred to by the information in the court of Exchequer, and confirmed by the decree of that court.

The granted or charged duties by the several laws and statutes now in force upon 100 l. value of unrated China wares, are as follow, viz.

	Gross duties.	Allowance for prompt payment.	Net duties.
	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.
Subsidy by 12 Car. II.	7 10 00	00 07 06	07 02 06
Impos't by 2 W. & M. cap. 4.	20 00 00	01 05 00	18 15 00
New subsidy by 1 queen Anne	7 10 00	00 07 06	07 02 06
½ subsidy by 2 queen Anne	2 10 00	00 02 06	02 07 06
12 per cent. by 3 queen Anne	12 00 00	00 00 00	12 00 00
⅓ subsidy by 3 queen Anne	5 00 00	00 05 00	04 15 00
	54 10 00	02 07 06	52 02 06

E X A M P L E.

The gross price or value at which the goods are fold by the candle	100 0 0
The allowance made for prompt payment to the buyer at time	6 10 0
The allowance made to the company for charges in keeping the goods till sale	6 0 0
Together	12 10 0
Remains	87 10 0
Then say, as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l. so is 87 l. 10 s. to the net value	57 10 4½
According to which reduced value the net duties payable to his majesty for the same goods (in proportion as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l.) will be	29 19 7½
To which reduced value and net duties arising from thence, if there be added the allowances of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at time, and of 6 l. to the company for their charges in keeping the goods 'till sale, making together	12 10 0
You will thereby discover the truth of the proposition, by observing that these parts make up the gross price or full value without any defect or excess	100 0 0

E A S

Again,
 The gros price or value at which the goods }
 are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0
 The net duties payable to his ma- }
 jesty for the same goods } 29 19 7½
 The allowances of 6l. 10s. and }
 6l. making } 12 10 0
 Together ----- 42 9 7½
 Remains (as above) for the net value }
 l. s. d. } 57 10 4½
 29 19 7½ the duties payable by this specimen.
 18 08 9½ the duties paid by the appellants according to
 their specimen No. 3, following.

11 10 10 difference to the king.
 Specimen, No. 3.
 Containing the method infit upon by the appellants, the
 East-India company, for ascertaining the values, accord-
 ing to which the duties are to be paid to his majesty, upon
 unrated China wares, referred to by the information in the
 court of Exchequer.

	l. s. d.
Out of the gros price or value at which the } goods are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0	
They take the granted or charged } net duties on 100 l. (not the net } duties payable to his majesty for } the same goods) - } 52 2 6	
The allowance for prompt payment } to the buyer at time - } 6 10 0	
The allowance to the company for } charges in keeping the goods 'till } sale - } 6 0 0	
Together -----	64 12 6

Thereby reducing the gros price to } According to which reduced value they com- } pute the net duties which they make pay- } able to his majesty for the same goods, (in } proportion as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l. } which amounts to no more than - } 18 8 9½	
To which reduced value and net duties arising } from thence, if there be added the allowance } of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at time, and of } 6 l. to the company for their charges in } keeping the goods 'till sale, making toge- } ther - } 12 10 0	
You will thereby plainly discover the great a- } buse, by observing, that these sums put all } together amount to no more than - } 66 6 3½	
Which is 'short of the gros price or value at } which the goods are sold } 33 13 8½	

Of which 33 l. 13 s. 8 d. ½ the king receives
 no part.

Gros price	100 0 0
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Again,
 The gros price or value at which the goods }
 are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0
 The net duties paid to his majesty }
 for the same goods } 18 8 9½
 The allowances of 6l. 10s. and 6l. }
 making } 12 10 0
 Together ----- 30 18 9½
 Remains instead of 35 l. 7 s. 6 d. }
 ----- 69 1 2½

N. B. By this method there has been no more than 18 l. 8 s.
 9 d. ½ paid to the king for duties, when there has been
 allowed to the company for the same duties 52 l. 2 s. 6 d.

Specimen, No. 4.
 Containing the method infit upon by the attorney-general,
 for ascertaining the values, according to which the duties
 are to be paid to his majesty, upon unrated muslins and
 callicoes, referred to by the information in the court of
 Exchequer, and confirmed by the decree of that court.
 The granted or charged duties upon 100 l. value thereof are
 as follow, viz.

	Gros duties	Allowance for prompt payment.	Net duties.
	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.
Subsidy by 12 Car. 2.	5 0 0	0 5 0	4 15 0
Additional duty	2 10 0	0 7 3	2 2 9
Impost by 2 W. & M.	20 0 0	1 5 0	18 15 0
New subsidy by 1 queen Anne	5 0 0	0 5 0	4 15 0
¼ subsidy by 2 queen Anne	1 13 4	0 1 8	1 11 8
⅓ subsidy by 3 queen Anne	3 6 8	0 3 4	3 3 4
	37 10 0	2 7 3	35 2 9
15 per cent. on the gros } price by 3 queen Anne } cap. 4. }	15 0 0	0 15 0	14 5 0

E A S

E X A M P L E.

The gros price or value at which the goods }
 are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0
 The allowance made to the buyer }
 at time } 6 10 0
 The allowance made to the com- }
 pany for their charges in keep- }
 ing the goods - } 6 0 0
 The net duty of 15 l. per cent. }
 chargeable upon the gros price } 14 5 0
 Together ----- 26 15 0
 Remains ----- 73 5 0

Then say, as 35 l. 2 s. 9 d. is to 100 l. fo is }
 73 l. 5 s. to the reduced value } 54 4 1
 According to which reduced value, the net }
 duties payable to his majesty, for the same }
 goods in proportion as 35 l. 2 s. 9 d. is to }
 the 100 l. (besides the net duty of 15 l. per }
 cent. payable to his majesty upon the gros }
 price) will be - } 19 0 11
 The net duty of 15 l. per cent. on the gros }
 price - } 14 5 0
 To which reduced value and net duties, if }
 there be added the allowances of 6 l. 10 s. }
 to the buyer at a time, and of 6 l. to the }
 company for their charges in keeping the }
 goods 'till sale, making together } 12 10 0
 You will thereby discover the truth of the }
 proposition, by observing, that these parts }
 make up the gros price or full value at }
 which the goods are sold, without any de- }
 fect or excess - } 100 0 0

Again,
 The gros price or value at which the goods }
 are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0
 The net duties payable to his ma- }
 jesty for the same goods } 33 5 11
 The allowances of 6 l. 10s. and }
 6 l. making } 12 10 0
 Together ----- 45 15 11
 Remains (as above) for the net value }
 l. s. d. } 54 4 1
 33 5 11 the duties payable by this specimen.
 27 12 10 the duties paid by the appellants according to
 their specimen, No. 5.
 5 13 1 difference to the king.

Specimen, No. 5.
 Containing the method infit upon by the appellants, the
 East-India company, for ascertaining the values, accord-
 ing to which the duties are to be paid to his majesty, upon
 unrated muslins and callicoes, referred to by the informa-
 tion in the court of Exchequer.

The gros price, or value, at which the goods } are sold by the candle - } 100 0 0	l. s. d.
The allowance made to the buyer } at time - } 6 10 0	
The allowance made to the com- } pany for their charges in keeping } the goods 'till sale } 6 0 0	
The sum which they take out as the } net duties payable to his majesty } for the same goods } 49 7 9	
Together -----	61 17 9

Thereby reducing the gros price to } According to which reduced value they com- } pute the net duties payable to his majesty for } the same goods, in proportion as 35 l. 2 s. 9 d. } is to 100 l. which amounts to no more than } 13 7 10	
Besides the net duty of 15 l. per cent. charge- } able upon the gros price } 14 5 0	
To which reduced value and net duties, if there } be added the allowance of 6 l. 10 s. to the } buyer at time, and of 6 l. to the company, for } their charges in keeping the goods 'till sale, } making together } 12 10 0	

You will thereby plainly discover the great a- } buse, by observing, that these sums, put all } together, amount to no more than - } 78 5 1	
Which is short of the gros price, or value, at } which the goods are sold } 21 14 11	

Of which 21 l. 14 s. 11 d. the king receives
 no part.

Gros price	100 0 0
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Again,

Again,		
The gross price, or value, at which the goods are sold by the candle	100	0 0
The net duties paid to his majesty for the same goods	27	12 10
The allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and of 6 l. making	12	10 0
	Together	40 2 10
Remains, instead of	38 l. 2 s. 3 d.	59 17 2

N. B. By this method there has been no more than 27 l. 12 s. 10 d. paid to the king for duties, when there has been allowed to the company for the same duties 49 l. 7 s. 9 d.

R E M A R K S.

This case, brought first into the court of Exchequer, and afterwards before the house of lords, relating to the duties laid upon East-India goods, confirms what we have occasionally done ourselves the honour to recommend, in regard to the necessity that people of the first distinction lie under, even those in whom the dernier resort of justice is vested, to be duly acquainted with the nature of the crown revenue, and of the accurate computations which are requisite to be made with respect thereunto.

So sensible of this was a late right honourable gentleman, Mr Winnington, who, in the opinion of every body, would have been at the head of the finances of this kingdom, if he had lived, that he did not scruple to condescend, for the sake of expedition, to be instructed, even when he was one of the first royal counsellors of state, in the most concise practical methods of calculating the duties of customs, with all imaginable accuracy; frequently saying, that, as nothing was of greater concern to a state, than for its ministers to be thoroughly knowing in its revenues; so nothing could more familiarly contribute to such thorough knowledge, than skill in the practical computation; for that this would more effectually impress upon the mind all the variety of cases relating to the revenue, than the mere thumbing over of acts of parliament, without minutely descending to the very computations themselves.—That, for want of this, he had frequently experienced himself, as well as other ministers of state, to be at no little loss in their deliberations upon matters of that important nature. Nor can it be in the power of those in authority, without this skill, to judge and determine justly, whether the officers of the revenue did justice to the crown, or to the trader.

And as it may be prudential, at certain conjunctures, that the royal revenue may, from a change and alteration in circumstances of our trade, with regard to other nations, undergo variations; so it is scarce possible for any man to judge rightly of these matters, without a competent and minute skill in these concerns; for those who content themselves with general notions of these things, can only have general, and, consequently, superficial ones thereof, and can never make experienced and judicious financiers.—And how indispensably necessary this knowledge is, both to the practical trader, as well as to the lawyer, who would go to the root of these matters, is so apparent to need animadversion.

The foregoing case including something of the nature of discounts and allowances which are made to traders, in consideration of the prompt payment of the duties of customs, it brings to my mind a doubt that has occurred to me, in regard to the additional subsidy of 5 per cent. that was granted in the year 1747, by the act of parliament intitled,

An act for granting to his majesty a subsidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and for raising a certain sum of money by annuities and a lottery, to be charged on the said subsidy, &c.

The clause in the said act that grants this additional subsidy of 12 d. in the pound, or 5 per cent. runs thus: 'And be it enacted, &c. that, over and above all subsidies of tonnage and poundage, and over and above all additional duties, impositions, and other duties whatsoever, by any other act or acts of parliament, or otherwise howsoever already due and payable, or which ought to be paid to his majesty, his heirs or successors, for or upon any goods or merchandizes, which, from and after the 1st day of March which shall be in the year of our lord 1747, shall be imported or brought into the kingdom of Great Britain, one further subsidy of poundage, of twelve pence in the pound, shall be paid to his majesty, his heirs, or successors, upon all manner of goods or merchandizes to be imported, or brought into this realm, or any his majesty's dominions to the same belonging, at any time or times after the said 1st day of March, 1747, by the importer of such goods or merchandizes, before the landing thereof, according to the several particular rates and values of the same goods and merchandizes, as the same are now particularly and respectively rated and valued, in the respective books of rates

referred to by the acts of the 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. and the 11th year of his late majesty, or by any other act or acts of parliament, and so after that rate or value, or which do now pay any duty ad valorem.'

Then follows the clause in the said act, signifying how the aforesaid duty is to be levied, viz.

'And be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that the subsidy of poundage, hereby granted, shall be raised, levied, and collected, by the respective officers of his majesty's customs in this kingdom, under the management and direction of the respective commissioners of the customs for the time being; and shall be brought and paid, or answered into the receipt of his majesty's Exchequer, for the purposes in this act mentioned (such additional charge as shall be necessary for the management of this revenue only excepted) and that all and every the clauses, powers, directions, penalties, forfeitures, matters and things whatsoever, contained in the said act of the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. or in any other laws or statutes whatsoever now in force, for raising, levying, collecting, answering, and paying, the subsidy of tonnage and poundage thereby granted, shall be applied, practised, and put into execution, for the raising, levying, securing, collecting, answering, and paying the subsidy of poundage by this act granted, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purposes, as if all and every the said clauses, powers, directions, penalties, and forfeitures, were particularly repeated, and again enacted in the body of this present act.'

QUERÆ, Does not the foregoing clause in this act of parliament intitle the merchants to every advantage in point of payment of this duty, as these other acts intitle him to, upon which this act of 1747 is grounded?

If so, Have not our merchants a right, according to this act, to a discount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment of this additional duty of twelve pence in the pound upon their imports?

'Tis true, the practice that was immediately fell into at the custom-house, in consequence of this act, hath not given the merchants this advantage; but, if their acquiescence under this disadvantage hath proceeded from inadvertency, both on the side of the merchant, as well as of the officers of the customs, ought not the same to be rectified?

This is suggested with no view to injure the revenue in its just and legal rights, nor to give the merchants more than they are justly and legally intitled to.—And, if my doubt upon this occasion happens to be groundless, I am willing to think it is no way criminal; and, therefore, it is most humbly submitted to the merchants of this kingdom, whether this matter may deserve their consideration. See the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, at the end of LETTER A, particularly THE CONCLUSION.

And, if in the course of this work, I should on the other hand discover any detriment done to the revenue by traders, I shall not be wanting to detect the same, in order to right the crown in its revenue, as well as the merchants in their legal rights and immunities.

EAST-INDIA TRADE in general. Under the article ASIA, we have drawn the outlines of the commerce of that part of the world, as it hath a general relation to the other quarters thereof. In order to descend the more minutely into the nature of this traffic, we have considered the same under the heads of the respective great companies engaged in this commerce; such as the EAST-INDIA COMPANY of England, the DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. the trades whereof are all carried on with peculiar privileges and immunities, exclusive of all the other subjects of those respective states. From a consideration, therefore, of the distinct degree of commerce carried by those respective companies for the benefit and advantage of their peculiar states and empires, we may form a pretty right judgment of the measures, which may, from time to time, be requisite to be taken by Great-Britain for the support and maintenance of such a share in this traffic, as may enable them to vie with their rivals therein; and to prevent any one or more of them, from monopolizing the whole to themselves, and excluding Great-Britain from possessing any share or proportion therein.

For a more particular account and state of this commerce, see also the articles BENGAL, COROMANDEL, CHINA, JAPAN, ACAPULCO or MANILLA SHIPS, and such other heads as we have occasionally referred to in relation hereunto. We shall, at present, consider this trade in another light than what we have hitherto done, with intent to view the same in every point, that may contribute to enable us to judge of the same the more comprehensively.

Wherefore, we shall consider it, (1.) As a general traffic carried on between Europe, as one country, and the body of the Indies as another. (2.) As a particular trade carried on from one Indian nation to another, more particularly with regard to their coasting trade, managed partly by the Indians among themselves, and partly by the European companies, which have forts and factories there: and this is a very considerable trade in itself, such as

1. The trade of the Turks from Aden to the Gulph of Mocha, to Mocha, and along the Red Sea to Sues, whence their coffee and other goods are carried to Egypt, to Alexandria, and thence by sea or land to Constantinople, Aleppo, Smyrna, and other places.

2. The trade of the Arabians and Persians up the gulph of Ormus, or Persia, by which they supply the great caravans with Persian and Indian goods of all sorts, to be carried by the Euphrates and Tygris to Bagdat, and thence to Trapezond on the Black Sea one way, and over the deserts upon camels to Aleppo another way.

3. The coasting trade of the European merchants and Indians on the west side of the coast of India, as that of Guzarattee, India, and Malabar, as far as the pearl-fishing of Madura; and the like coasting trade of the Europeans on the other side of India, as that of COROMANDEL and BENGAL, [see those articles.]

4. The river-trade up the river Ganges, wherein there are several factories and settlements of the European nations, besides the trade of the natives.

5. Another trade on this side of India, is that of Achia on the island of Sumatra, and from thence south, along the west shore of the island of Bencoolen, and to the Straights of Sunda, thence to the west side of the island of Java, and thence still south to the Straights of Baily, and islands of Tinier and the Moluccas: also on the east shore of the island Sumatra, the coast of Molacca, and thence thro' the Straights of Singapore to the North Side of the island Bornio. Here the trade divides itself north, to the eastern coast of Asia, the extent of the known world on that side, and the most easterly part of the Terra Firma of the globe.—As the gulph of Siam, coast of Camboya, the kingdom of Cochinchina and Tonquin, and the Empire of China, to which is joined that of Great Tartary.

Upon all these long extended shores, there is a very great coasting trade carried on by the Chinese and Malayan merchants at Borneo, Batavia, and the Islands where they are permitted to traffic. To which may be added that of the empire of Japan.

South of Borneo lies the Dutch settlement of Batavia, on the island of Java, where the Javans and other nations drive a considerable trade from port to port, and isle to isle, in small vessels of their own.

This trade takes also another course from Borneo, and to the numerous islands of these seas; this is done not only to Ternate, Tydore, Celebes, Gilloloo, and to all the islands where the Dutch are extremely powerful.—[See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY], but likewise to the Philippines, and among the Spaniards. [See ACAPULCO].

Besides this coasting trade, the Indians have a large inland circulating commerce with each other; and various merchandizes, which are the product of remote interior cities and countries, are brought down to be sold at the European factories, and at those sea-ports where the European merchants are settled; such as indigo from Lahore, which is brought to Surat: the diamonds of Golconda, the pearls of Madora, and an infinite variety of other merchandizes, of the produce and manufacture of the inland countries.—And European merchandizes landed either on the west or the east side of the great peninsula of the Indies, that is, the coasts of Malabar or Golconda.—We find also the manufactures and produce of almost all the provinces of the Mogul empire, to be bought at Ispahan in Persia, and other inland cities in the same country, whither they are carried by caravans. See the article CARAVAN.

The Chinese, also in particular, have a vast domestic commerce by the navigation of numerous rivers and canals, and particularly by that inimitable canal described by Mynheer Nieuhoff, which traverses the whole Chinese empire from Canton to Peking, by which the merchandize of all those countries to which the Chinese trade, and whom they admit to traffic among them, as well as the goods and growth of the provinces through which it passes, are carried to the emperor's court, as the demand makes necessary; which, indeed, is the foundation, and original occasion of all commerce in the world.

Besides this, the river Loang, or Koang, and the Yellow River, are said to be navigable above 600 or 700 miles, and both of them surround the empire; and these rivers, running through vast lakes or inland seas, empty themselves into the ocean, and thereby facilitate commerce.

The first of these rivers is covered with small vessels of all sizes, continually employed in carrying provisions to the great and opulent city of Nankin, besides such as are employed in carrying immense quantities of merchandizes, the produce of the provinces through which these rivers pass, and the manufactures of the several cities by which they also go.

This may give some idea of the manner how trade is managed in this vast extended empire; and among such a prodigious number of people, who are not only the most ingenious, but unexceptionably the most industrious people for traffic in the whole world.

From the confluence of these great rivers it is, that the city of Nankin is become so immensely opulent and populous, being the great center of all the inland commerce of these united empires; there being hardly a city in all China, but has a trading communication with Nankin, either by sea or river navigation: by which all the produce of the land, as well as the manufactures of the people, are conveyed to it, as to the great emporium of the whole country: and from hence again all the foreign merchandizes, which are imported at Amoy, Canton, or Nankin, are returned to the interior parts of the empire.

The productions of the sea, as concerned in merchandizing, are,

Pearl, the true Oriental pearl; the several sorts whereof are distinguished by the names of the countries where they are found, as also by their fineness, beauty, colour, and size.—They are found in the Arabian gulph, or Red Sea, though not on the Asian side, and not, indeed, so properly in the East-Indies: but, as they are found by the Turks and Arabians in their colony on the Æthiopian shore of the gulph, and are directly brought to Jeddo on the Arabian coast, and thence sent farther into Europe, viz. by the way of Suez, and then by caravans to Constantinople, we must include them in this trade: the kind is exceeding good, the shape delicate, and the size sometimes large.—The largest and finest pearl now to be seen in the world, are found at Basfora in the Persian gulph. They are found too on the Fishing coast of Madura, between the island of Ceylon and the coast of Coromandel. Though the quantity here is considerable, the kind is inferior to those of the gulph.—Some likewise are found in the Philippine Islands, but the quantity is but small.

Of the pearl-fishery in the East-Indies.

Between the coast of Madura and the isle of Ceylon, are divers considerable pearl-banks near the sea. These banks are rocks of white coral-stones, whereon the oyster-shells, containing the pearls are fastened. Some of these banks are 12 or 13 fathoms, and others at 15 fathoms from the shore.—The oysters live about six years, after which the shells open and the pearls are lost.—The banks are searched yearly, to see whether the pearls are come to their maturity.—After the oysters are come to their perfection, the time of pearl fishing is proclaimed throughout the whole country; and the merchants resort thither from the other parts of India, even from Arabia and Turkey, who set up their tents near the sea-side to purchase the pearls.

They fish for the oyster-shells containing the pearls, in boats about 28 feet long; of which you shall see 3 or 400 at a time, each of which has seven or eight stones, which serve instead of anchors, and six or seven divers, who dive naked, except a thin waistcoat, after each other.—They have each a net hanging down from the Neck, and gloves in their hands, being to pluck the oysters from the rock.—These divers have also stones about their necks to make them dive the swifter.

All the oyster-shells brought up, are laid in great heaps 'till the fishery is over, after which a wooden house is erected for the company and the nayk, where each receives his share, the boats being obliged to fish one day for the nayk, another for the company.—These take care that the fishers be not disturbed in their fishery, the governor and two judges being every day near the sea shore, to decide such differences as may arise among them.—After all the shells are opened, in the presence of the commissioners, and the pearls taken out, they are sold, according to their different sizes, to the best bidder.

The pearl dust is bought and sold by the Dutch.

They have also coral red and white, to which the pearl-oysters are generally found sticking; and so fastened to the coral, that sometimes, in breaking off the oysters, they bring up coral with them, which is generally white. See the article CORAL.

Though the sea in this part of the world is very full of fish, and the rivers and lakes much more; yet neither is the quantity so great as in our northern parts: nor are there such periodical shoals, as is the case with the herring, mackarel, pilchards, &c.—There are no fish caught here in such quantities, as to load ships or sails, so as to be cured, and become a considerable branch of trade, from one climate to another, as merchandize.

The product of the land consists in great variety, viz.

That of the bowels of the earth, such as mines of jewels, of metal, and minerals, of dyers earths, and such produce as is dug out of the earth in most, or all other parts of the known world. Also,

The product of the surface of the earth, such as plants, drugs, gums, and other the like particulars, of infinite kinds, which furnish a surprising variety of matter for merchandizes.

As to the product of the bowels of the earth, under which head we consider the diamond, see the article DIAMOND, where those of the East-Indies are fully treated of.

They have also divers other jewels, or precious stones, in these countries, such as fine rubies, exceeding splendid and beautiful, in Ceylon; also the topaz, the turquoise, and the

emerald, in the Mogul's country; the sapphire in Siam; and the amethyst in Pegu; and an extraordinary agate and jasper in China and Japan.

There are mines of gold, or rather gold in general, whether in mines or otherwise. This is found in many places, but chiefly our commerce for this commodity is at Achim, the capital of Sumatra, where it is found in great quantities, it being the chief return of merchandizes carried thither.

It is found in Pegu also, whence it is brought to Achim, to be sold to the merchants. Likewise in

China and Japan: in the former they sell it for silver, to the great advantage of the merchants, particularly at Canton, Amoy, and other places.

They have it too at the Philippine islands, particularly near Manilla, where it is found in mines, and where, it is said, that one mine yields the king of Spain 200,000 ducats a year, besides several others, wherein they do not work.

In the island of Borneo, where they sift it out of the sands of the rivers, in their search after diamonds. See the Article GOLD.

In these Indies there are also mines of silver; but it is very scarce in Asia: it is found in Japan, but in no considerable quantities; nor is there any of it found in the Indies in general, as I can yet learn, which is the reason they put so great a value thereon, as to buy it with their gold, to great advantage.

In Pegu they have iron, as also in Siam and Japan; that of Pegu nearly approaches to the quality of steel.

In China they have some copper; but that metal is chiefly in Japan: the best is that made up in small bars, like sticks of wax, which is very red and bright. See the article COPPER.

The Chinese, who are the greatest cheats in trade in the world, adulterate their copper, and put several ingredients therein, to make it appear like that of Japan.

Tutenage is a metal unknown except in the East-Indies. It is found in Malacca and Sumatra; but the finest is in China: it seems to be a species of tin, but soft as lead, and blackish; and, though not so bright as either, is yet more compact.

They have a metal, which some have said is real block-tin; and, though it is not so hard and fine as our Cornwall tin, yet it is very valuable. This is principally found in China; but they have it likewise in Pegu, and the Dutch buy it at Achim, and other places, in the Straights of Malacca. It mixes well with lead, and makes tolerable good pewter, but will not scour so bright.

The minerals and fossils found are very numerous; such as sulphur, of which there are great quantities in the Mogul empire, though it is not brought to Europe but in small quantities, the Europeans having such plenty from Italy, Sicily, the Archipelago, Barbary, and other places.

Red earth, a known commodity brought to England in pretty large quantities, for the use of the dyers. Allum abounds in the Mogul empire, Pegu, Sumatra, and in China.—Saltpetre is a considerable article in the European importation from India, the consumption whereof depends upon the consumption of Gun-powder.—See the article GUN-POWDER.

It is found in most parts of India, especially on the coasts of Malabar, and India Proper; they have it also in China in great quantities, in the province of Xensi, where they dig it out of the earth, as plentifully as we do chalk, notwithstanding it is so dear in Europe.

Potter's earth; of which they make their porcelain manufacture, and which, for distinction, we call China ware: the best is found in the province of Kiansi, on the banks of the great river Kiang. This kind of earth is said to be found no where but in China and Japan, though some have of late pretended that it is to be had in North-America.—But this I have never heard satisfactorily confirmed.—Nor can the earth or clay be procured in China or Japan, there to be brought over unwrought: but, whether it requires a particular preparation, as some insinuate, and which cannot be performed in Europe to that perfection; though not only the Dresden, but the English manufacture, are admirable approximations.

But the surface of the earth is still richer than the bowels of it; and the growth is prodigious, as well in drugs, gums, and rare plants, as in other things; which raise a new fund of wealth, by their being the subject of manufacture, and employing innumerable multitudes of their people. In regard to the growth of the country, in what we call plants, fruits, or such things as are for food, and are used in the course of trade, are

Teas of divers kinds, from China, Cochinchina, and Japan.—Sago from several parts, as Malacca, Java, Borneo, &c.—Coffee, chiefly from Mocha in Arabia, with some from the Dutch and French Settlements.—This coffee is now a prodigious article in commerce.—And to sum up all in our enumeration of particulars of this kind, with one article of an immense value, and to which we can scarce find an equal in the world, is the spice; which is comprehended under the heads of nutmegs, mace, and cloves.—These are the proper

goods of the Dutch at the Molucca's, or Spice Islands, where they are only produced. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Cinnamon at the island of Ceylon, and some in Borneo.—Pepper on the coast of Malabar, but chiefly, and of the best kind, on the islands of Java and Sumatra. Sugar in Bengal, China, and Cochinchina; also in Java, Borneo and Ceylon.

The first of these five articles of spice are not only prodigious in quantity, inasmuch that the Dutch, who have the whole importation in their own hands, supply all Europe, Africa, and America with them, and the rest of Asia also, but these spices are raised in no other part of the world, and it is thought cannot be; by which the Dutch have the advantage of keeping up the price to what height they please: and it is certain, that, though the nutmegs are produced in no place but the isle of Banda, and five little adjacent islands, and that these are but very small places, yet they suffer some hundreds of tons of nutmegs to be burned at a time, rather than send so many to Europe as to overstock the markets, and thereby sink the price.

The like is said to be done on the same occasion by the pepper. Sir William Temple, in his Observations upon Holland, says, 'That a Dutchman, who had been at the Spice Islands, told him, that he saw, at one time, three heaps of nutmegs burned, each of which was more than an ordinary church could hold.'

REMARKS.

Query, If the price of spices in general was lower, the profits might not be more than at present are made thereon, seeing the consumption thereof would visibly increase, by the greater cheapness, as is usual in the like cases? But this, it seems, the Dutch will not trust to.

With respect to the coffee and tea already mentioned, it should not be forgot, that the demand in trade for these two articles is so increased of late years in Europe, that they seem, in some sort, to be equal to the spices of the Dutch.

The arrack is a spirit extracted from several materials, and is a considerable merchandize, the quantity whereof brought to Europe being extremely great; the principal ports are made at Goa by the Portuguese, and at Batavia by the Dutch.

Of the drugs, and such plants and other produce as come from this part of the world, see the article DRUGS.

These productions, which tend to the employment of their people, are chiefly silk, cotton, and herba. Raw silk is produced in quantity chiefly in the kingdoms of Bengal and China. See BENGAL and CHINA. The quantity as well of wrought silks as of calicoes, which the people of India and China are obliged to consume at home for their ordinary wearing, must be exceeding great, if we consider, (1.) That these are the ordinary manufactures for their cloathing: and whether we speak of the rich or the poor, they have no other kind of apparel, having no materials to make any thing for their wearing but those of silk, cotton, and herba. (2.) That the extent of the country included in these bounds before-mentioned, is so prodigious large, as to include the two vast empires of the Mogul and China, with the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, Cambodia, Cochinchina, Tonquin, and all the islands of the Indian and Arabian seas. (3.) That all these countries are so prodigious populous, that they reckon 8,000,000 of people in the City of Nankin only, in those of Canton and Peking 2,000,000 each, and in others in proportion. (4.) That the manufactures we speak of, calicoes especially, are not a durable wear, so that the people must cloath often.

All these articles considered, the quantities of the manufactures which they consume at home must be exceeding great, and employ great numbers of people in making them; yet they have so many to spare for exportation, that they are able to make and export goods enough of the silken and cotton manufactures, to cloath all the people of Europe, besides their own consumption.

Their silk manufactures are so various, and their names so numerous, that it would be tedious to enumerate them. The like may be said of the cottons, under the name of calicoes, of infinite varieties, both white and painted, or printed, with figures of divers colours: they are all distinguished under one general name of calicoes, whether muslins, chints, or plain, &c. The herba is the bark of a certain tree, which, being drawn out very fine, works like silk, and is mixed with either silk or cotton; of which we see divers kinds among the ordinary importations of the East-India company.

These are the most considerable manufactures of the Indies: there are two others from China in particular, which, as they are of the kind singular to themselves, so they are also very valuable articles. The one is their porcelain, or China, as observed before; and the lacquered ware, called Japan ware, though not coming from thence: which shew not only the excellency of the materials, viz. of the earth for the one, and the lacque, or varnish, for the other, but also the ingenuity of the workmanship in both.

All the English and Dutch factories in the Mogul's country are full of merchats, as well Europeans as Moors, Arabs, Mestizes,

Mestizes, Malabars, &c. the latter having been instructed by the English and the Portuguese in merchandizing: and, as there is a very great trade carried on hence with the Turks and Persians, as also with the Arabs, so they are of late exceedingly increased in shipping, and build good ships at Muscat, and the river Indus, at Guzurrat, and other places, and even at Surat.

The several sorts of ships known in the East-Indies are, akas, vessels used by the Arabs at Aden; country ships, as they are called, built square-sterned, as the English, but built by the Moors, who had their models from England; galleons, being large ships, built by the Portuguese at Goa, and used to go from thence to Melinda, on the coast of Africa, and then to the Brazils. Sloops of the European builders among the several factories, especially at Batavia, Surat, and Goa, as also at Fort St George. Ships of China, called jonks, of a form peculiar to themselves, from 50 to 120 tons; jonks of Japan, of a like burden, better sailors, and of different shapes, but not so well built as the China jonks; proes of Sumatra and Malacca, burden about 15 to 20 tons; tonny's, a kind of hoys, or lighters, to load and unload larger ships; flying boats, built like our small fishing boats; great galleons, built at Manilla, for the Acapulco trade, sometimes of 1000 to 1600 tons burden.

They have, also, a vast variety of small craft, in the several rivers, and among the islands, all differing, and peculiar to the respective places, and which are very curious, not only in their shape, but in their manner of working, which would be too tedious for us to describe.

By these vessels the whole commerce is carried on. Although the Persians are masters of all the eastern coast of the Persian Gulph, and have several good towns there, and Gomboron in particular, yet they have not one vessel of any burden belonging to them.

It is much the same with the Turks in the Arabian Gulph, at Baharra, Bassora, and other places; and they hire the akas of Aden in the greatest part of their trade.

The exports of the commodities of the Indies to Europe are certainly very considerable; nor are their imports, perhaps, so disproportionate from the Europeans as some are wont to conceive.—The quantity of European goods the Turks on the Arabian coast of the Red Sea take off, brought by the way of Suez, and thence to Alexandria, are not inconsiderable; whereby they are supplied from Europe by the Turkey companies of the several European nations.

That there has been a visible increase of the trade to the Indies from Europe, as well as from Europe to the Indies, within half a century, is apparent to the whole world, from the increase of the European factories there: for these settlements are numerous, increasing in people, and extending their power and jurisdiction, and, by this means, civilizing the people, and reconciling them to the European customs and usages, as particularly to their clothing themselves, in which particular they went naked and savage before. This has been effectuated more particularly by the Dutch than by any other European power whatsoever. For proof of which see the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

In consequence of this European commerce, the Indian nations takes every day more and more of the European merchandizes: our British East-India company sell more of our woollen, and divers other manufactures, by means of the weight of their commercial interest, than, perhaps, they could ever have done without the existence of such a company.—The Chinese, also, have increased in their British imports, as well of the woollen as other our British manufactures.—Our manufactures generally sold among them are, broad cloths of every colour, and more particularly the black.—Our camblets, scarlets, and other colours, serges, perrets; lead and lead-shot; Birmingham wares of all kinds; glass manufactures of every sort; our clock and watch-work, which are in as high esteem with the Indians as with the rest of the trading world.—And these our exports are increasing daily.

The general augment of the exports from Europe is more particularly manifest from the increase of the Dutch factories in the Spice Islands, especially in Batavia, where their settlements are not now mere simple factories, but they are become populous and opulent colonies and plantations; the property of the country being their own, and not subject to any power of the princes, or lords of the adjacent territories, as they are at Surat, and other places. Wherefore, by virtue of these establishments of the Dutch, they take off, as ours do at Madras or Fort St. George, and as those of the Portuguese do at Goa, much greater quantities of the growth and manufactures of Europe than they ever did before.—Nor is this confined to the mere article of apparel; they take, besides, the European equipages, as coaches and horses, &c. particularly at Batavia, where coaches are kept more numerous and splendidly than even their masters do in Europe. It is the same at Goa and Fort St. George; and we have a greater share in the trade to the factories and settlements of other European powers, by means of our East-India company, than our company will admit them to have at our British forts

and settlements, if the repeated informations which I have received from various hands are not to be questioned.

It appears upon the whole, from the general circumstances of this Asiatic traffic, that, since the Europeans have zealously engaged therein, the balance of profit, however great it may heretofore have been in favour of the East-Indians, has been for some years declining; and our own East-India company hath not been the least instrumental to contribute their share in this turn of the scale.

The chief prospect of any lasting advancement to be made in the East-India trade, depends on the number and power of the Europeans so increasing, that they may bring the natives under their dominion to come into the European way of living, viz. in dressing, eating, and drinking, whereby the export of such goods will come to be increased, in proportion to the dominion that the Europeans obtain among these Indians.

Of this the Portuguese have set an example on the coast of Mosambique, the city of Melinda, and other parts thereabouts, where the people are brought into the European way of living, and cloath themselves after the manner of the Portuguese, and live as regularly. It is true, that the people are more tractable and docile there than the natives of Java, China, and Malabar; and, which is still more, have no manufactures of their own to establish, in the room of those which the Portuguese bring them.

I was surprized, says an English passenger, who went on shore at Melinda (the ship he was in being driven up thither in their voyage to Mocha) to see, in the country adjaent, whole villages of the natives clothed in the English manufactures, and having waistcoats, breeches, and stockings, hats and shoes, leather, serge, and stuffs, such as we wear in England; and some of the better sort having good broad-cloth coats, bayes-clokes, &c. which they wore, notwithstanding the heats, and especially in the rainy seasons, to keep them dry, and warm in the nights, which are damp and unwholesome.

This must be a reason, also, why the Portuguese export such quantities of the British manufactures to the Brazils, which is as hot a climate, in some parts, as that of Zanguebar, and much in the same latitude; and from whence, also, they are carried into Africa, on the eastern shore, where, by their authority they have, in some measure civilized the people, and brought them to abhor going naked, as much as the Europeans themselves do: and, further to confirm the practicability hereof, we may judge, from what the Dutch have done in Java, Borneo, and Malacca, and other places, as well by their example as by their authority: and this, added to the increase of people, would certainly constantly add to the increase of the consumption of European commodities, in the several parts of India, as well as in Arabia and China.

This will appear more probable, if we calculate the numbers of people already under the government and influence of the several nations planted there. Thus the Portuguese are said to have 100,000 people in the island and city of Goa; some say half as many more.—The English are judged to have no less than 200,000 souls, in a great degree under their jurisdiction, at Fort St. George, the city of Madras, and the adjacent parts, subject to their government; besides those at Fort St. David's, Calcutta, and other places, where they are settled as proprietors, in some degree, of the adjacent country. The Dutch exceed them both at Batavia, and in the Spice Islands, where they have an absolute dominion: in which, including the islands of Borneo and Ceylon, it is certain that they have above 500,000 subjects.

If these numbers are near the truth, it is no way strange that the Dutch ships go out generally so well freighted for Batavia, and carry by far, greater quantities of European merchandizes than formerly, or that they carry out more than any others.

This is also a reason why, among the Portuguese and the Dutch, the consumption of European goods must necessarily increase; but the English have not the same advantages, because all their factories or settlements, Fort St. George excepted, are under the jurisdiction of the great Mogul, or some other absolute government, who do not submit so easily to the Europeans, as at Java and elsewhere.

The commerce of the Philippines is the same.

The trade carried on between Persia and India, by sea, is a very remarkable kind of commerce: it is indeed, an exchange of the most valuable merchandizes of the world, and the quantity too, is very considerable; for they have a very great consumption of Indian and Chinese goods, which are partly sent up the country to Isphahan, and partly up the Tygris, by Bassora, to Bagdat.

As the Persians have no ships of their own, this commerce is carried on by the Armenian merchants, in country ships, as they are called, or in English or Dutch ships, for which they are paid a very good rate; so that our Europeans are always fond of taking freight there, and especially because the Persians pay in specie.

The Persians import from India, a very great quantity of calicoes, as well painted or printed, as white; the latter is to make

make up their turbands, which, for those above the poorer sort, are folded about with white callicoe; and all the women are clothed, either in their own wrought silks, or in painted callicoes, of Surat, and the coast.

They import above a thousand tons of pepper yearly, from the coast of Malabar, by the Dutch; chiefly brought by the Portuguese from Goa, besides some from Surat, by the English.

They also import all sorts of spice; as cloves, nutmegs, mace, and cinnamon; from Coulang and Ceylon, by the assistance of the Dutch, or of such merchants as buy them at the Dutch factories.

They export a great many drugs, such as rhubarb, galbanum-fena, galls, and many other valuable things, which are not so plentiful among the Indians as in Persia: for there they import indigo, allums, camphire, China-root, cardamums, ginger, sugar, sal armoniac, turmeric, sticklac, and many more.—Add to this, that they import from China a very great quantity of China ware, of the finest kinds.—They bring from China a great quantity of metals, such as block-tin, tutenague, China also, and Japan copper, iron and steel, from Pegu and Stam.—They bring also gold from China, and diamonds from the mines in Golconda; of the first they buy a very great quantity; for it comes from China as a merchandize. Also, they import the white China raw silk, which they use in their silk manufactures, mixed with the fine silk of Georgia and Guylan.

These goods, and many more (for almost all the goods of India and China are vendible at Gombroon) they send up the country, upon camels, to Isphahan, as, northward to Bagdat by boats, and thence to several parts of Asia, as, to Aleppo, Trepezond, Taurus, Erzurum, and many other places; for Bagdat is the center of all the trade between India, Persia, and the lesser Asia.

In return for those, they have the advantage of all the European traders; for they send no money, but rather receive money in the ballance of trade: and it is observable, that all the ships, from Gombroon to Surat, are deep laden, and very rich, with Persian wines, Armenian brandies, Arabian coffee, raisins, almonds, from Isphahan, in great quantities; ivory, imported from Moccoa or Melinda, and the coast of Zanguebar; wax, dates in bales, prunella's in boxes, rose water in chests, for which they have a great traffic among the Mogul Indians; rich Persian silks, rich Turkey carpets, leather dress like the Italian cordewants, lapis tutia, purl dust, oriental purl, drugs and gums of surprising varieties, pistaches, Carmentia wool, bought by the English for the hat-making trade, English cloth in bales.

As all these goods meet with a current sale, either at Surat or at Goa; the Persian merchants, that is, the Armenians and Jews, drive a very great trade at Gombroon; and it is ordinary to have from 15 to 20 country ships in the port at a time, besides English ships belonging to the company, and Dutch also: and their loading is so valuable, that frequently an English ship, of 400 tons, laden from Gombroon to Surat, hath been worth 200,000l. sterling.

They have also the advantage of carrying great numbers of passengers, being merchants and their servants; for the Armenian merchants ordinarily go with their goods to Surat, and come back with the returns.—The English merchants of Surat have always ships of their own, which are wholly employed in their coasting trade, between Gombroon and Surat, and are built at Surat, or in the river Indus: they are good vessels, and tolerable sailors, but have not the best of seamen.

Upon the whole, the ordinary channels of the East-India trade, as now carried on, are as follow, viz.

A trade by the caravans, over the desarts—[See the article CARAVAN] from Bagdat, on the great river Tygris, to Aleppo, and from thence, by lesser caravans, to Constantinople one way, and to Alexandretta (now called Scanderoon) another; and from both these into the eastern parts of Europe by sea.

By these caravans, indeed, the raw silk, galls and drugs, and other goods of Persia are carried; and they are the chief part of the loading of the caravans. Together with them, they have always a large quantity of goods, of the growth and product of the Indies, such as fine callicoes, curious wrought silks, spices, drugs, diamonds, and pearl, all which are carried from the coast of India and Malabar into the gulph of Persia, and up to Bassora, at the bottom of that gulph.—From thence they are carried, by smaller vessels, up the Tygris, or Euphrates, for these they are joined, and landed at Bagdat, as above.

Another trade is by the Red Sea.—The manner of carrying on which formerly differed from the present; all the spices, and rich goods of India, China, and the islands, were brought in the jonks and barks of India (and it is believed they might in those days, be better furnished with shipping, than they now are) to the port of Adlu, then a great and flourishing city, famous for commerce, situate on the southern coast of Arabia Felix: here they unloaded, and went back; and the merchants of Adlu partly relading the goods in ships of their

own, and partly sending them, by land-carriage, to Jeddo, sent them up to the port of Suez, at the bottom of the Gulph, or Red Sea.—Here they were landed, and carried over-land upon camels and other carriages to the river Nile, a passage of about 50 miles; and thence to Alexandria, where the Venetian merchants, who then had that whole trade in their hands, received them, exported them chiefly to Venice, and from thence to all the trading ports of Europe.

These were the antient, and, at that time, the only ways of carrying on commerce between Europe and the Indies.—As the navigation by long sea has lessened the trade above described, and that the gross of all the Indian commodities comes directly to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope; so the shipping; between the several parts of India and the Arabian port of Adlu, decayed, and was wholly interrupted: by this means the said port also was entirely ruined, her trade cut off; and declining continually, without hope or possibility of recovery, is now so lost and forgot, that from having many hundred sail of vessels, of all sorts, belonging to it, they are not so much as heard of among the European sailors.

But a trade to Suez is still carried on, though small; it consists only of a correspondence between that port and the city of Mocha, which stands near the mouth of the Red Sea; from whence the whole sea is now called the gulph of Mocha. This trade consists in loading a few small vessels, at Mocha, with coffee, drugs, and elephants teeth, which are brought thither from Melinda, or from the coast of Ethiopia, or both, and sometimes horses for the Grand Seignior.—Of the coffee, about 5000 bags, or bales, are immediately for the Grand Seignior; nor can any coffee be shipped 'till the bassá of Mocha gives notice that the Grand Seignior's coffee is secured, and ready to ship off.

There are some few Alexandrian merchants at Suez, chiefly Jews, who employ a few ships to go constantly twice a year from Suez to Goa, the Portuguese colony on the Indian coast, and who bring back large cargoes, of all the fine goods of the Indies, as also some quantities of spices, and especially pepper and cinnamon. But these cargoes are generally freighted for the city of Grand Cairo, and may be said to be wholly consumed there.—These ships might make three voyages a year, if they were people more used to business and dispatch; for, those seas being generally quiet and free from storms, it may be called a fair weather voyage both out and home; but they are an indolent people, and but very indifferent navigators.

To this small remain of a trade is that great and ancient commerce of India, by the way of Alexandria, reduced: thus the two northern channels of the East-India trade are accounted for.

There is a course of trade also, from the Mogul's country, to Armenia and Georgia, or to Samercand, on the river Oxus: There is also another commerce, by land, from India into Europe, and that very considerable; which is the passage by land, from China to Muscovy; to the practicability of which, Czar Peter the Great highly contributed.—This renowned prince, whose heart was set upon the cultivation of commerce, and thereby civilizing his populous empire, could not make the way shorter than it is, neither could he alter the severity of the climates, though which the way lies: but spared no pains to make it both safe and easy for travellers, and for the security of their merchandizes. (1.) By building towns and lodging-places, at convenient distances, for the merchants to rest at: whereas before, the country was quite desolate, and there were no towns, sometimes, for 10 or 20 days travel together. (2.) By fortifying those accommodations, and posting troops at them, sufficient to defend the travellers, and with orders to the governors of those places, to send out parties upon notice, either to convoy the merchants to the next port, or to advance and meet them if coming, especially if any notice was given of their being in danger.

This memorable monarch took care likewise, that sufficient provisions should be always had at those places, for supply of the travellers, as well horse as man, and that at very reasonable rates; that they should be well used on all occasions, without exacting upon them, either for lodging, or for horses or camels; which, upon failing of others, might be always ready to be either hired or bought, as occasion required.

By this means, no inconsiderable quantity of merchandizes is every year carried from China into Europe, particularly tea, raw silk, called China silk, fine wrought silks, and all sorts of goods not of a gross and bulky nature, and too heavy for such a kind of conveyance: and these caravans, sometimes consist of 3 or 400 camels and horses together.

But the bulk of the commerce is wholly by sea. For example, there is a trade from Madagafcar, from Goa, on the coast of India proper, and from the ports of Mozambique and Zanguebar, to the bay of Todos los Santos, in the Brasilis.—This is a trade peculiar to the Portuguese: all their ships from China and from India come to this coast of Africa, or Madagafcar; and there taking in refreshments, and some merchandizes, such as gold, civet, elephants teeth, &c. and sometimes slaves, they go away to the Brasilis.

The other ships, which go constantly between this coast and the Brasils, and which take the benefit of the others, because they are always ships of force, carry chiefly slaves, some ivory and gold, and go back directly, from the Brasils to the same place again, without going forward into Europe, or to any place else.

They have little in the Brasils to carry to the Indies, except sugar and tobacco; neither of which have any extraordinary demand there, though they make a shift to put off as much as loads two or three ships a year.

The rest of the trade is the grand commerce from Holland, England, France, Sweden, Denmark, by the Cape of Good Hope, and so to all the several parts of India and China; which, in general, constitutes the European East-India trade.

It is managed in Europe by exclusive companies wholly, no ration admitting interlopers any privileges of commerce thither from Europe: the English did formerly, indeed, suffer it; but upon the union of the two companies, effected by the personal interposition of the late king William III. the company obtained a complete exclusion of all separate traders to the Indies, and have now that whole trade in their hands.

The English part is managed, in the Indies, by factories, under the direction of the company, and by governors and officers, who are accountable to the company.—These are chiefly at Surat, Bombay, Fort St George, Calcut, Bencoolen, Chusan, &c.—These have many other lesser factories under them, which are all accountable to the governors of the head factories, as they are also to the company.

These governments have many advantages in trade; they have peculiar powers and privileges from England; most of them are now incorporated, and made bodies politic, as the fort of St George has been many years, and is now, not only a fort and factory, but a city, with a district adjoining, which is enjoyed in property and sovereignty; and the governor for the company has under his dominion, including the several districts, upwards of 200,000 people of all sorts, entirely independent of any Indian government, as the like is under the Dutch governor at Batavia, and the Portuguese at Goa.

But this trade is not confined to the factories; for they trade from place to place, not only as factors, for the company, but as private or free merchants, and on their own particular account, under the licence and authority of the company: and this they do to such a degree, as well by sea as land, that the customs received by the proper officers, for the company, at Fort St George only, including their land as well as sea imports, rarely amount to less than 30,000 l. sterling per ann. which goes towards supporting the expences of the factory.

It would be too tedious to describe the manner of the civil governments, in all these settled factories of the Europeans, the state and magnificence of their governors, and of their other officers, at Goa, Fort St George, Batavia, Pondicherry, &c. It is enough to observe only, that it is commerce alone that upholds all this splendor.

The number of ships, generally employed by the several companies in this trade, is considerable. The number, at present employed by the English company, is much greater than ever; not only in consequence of the increase of their trade, but because they find it convenient not to employ vessels of such exceeding great burden as formerly. For it was ordinary for the ships trading to India, in the time of king Charles the II^d, to carry 7 or 800 tons burden, and some have been heretofore employed from 800 to 1000 tons. But now the trade is generally carried on in ships of 3 or 400 tons, but then so many of these are employed, that 'tis not unusual for the company to have from 30 to 60 sail sometimes in their service.

The Dutch, whose fleets are generally from 20 to 30 or 40 sail a year, have many more ships employed in this trade; they have rarely less than 100 sail engaged in this commerce. Besides, the English and Dutch, especially the latter, have a great many ships always in the country, though built in Europe, for carrying on the trade there from place to place: so that it is judged, and that without exaggeration, that the Dutch do not employ less than 200 sail always in their India commerce, and the English about one third of the number; and the French have greatly enlarged this branch of their commerce within these few years, and aim at vying with them both. See FRANCE.

There is still another sort of commerce with India, which has not been yet mentioned, and which is carried on by the Spaniards from the western coast of America, as Mexico, to the Philippine Islands. But the number of ships employed therein are not above two or three in a year, though they are generally very large; some being occasionally even 1600 or 2000 tons. The voyage is long, being oftentimes three or four months between the Philippines and the island of California.

Further REMARKS.

From this general state of the trade of the East Indies, it appears, that the improvement thereof, with respect to the

interest of the Europeans, depends more upon the settlement of colonies and plantations, as the Dutch and the Portuguese have done, and as the French, it seems, are at present doing, than upon the settlement of sea-coasts, forts and factories only; for 'tis pretty apparent, we conceive, from what hath been urged under the article of DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, that nothing but the same system of commercial policy, which that wise republic has pursued, could have rendered them so potent and opulent in this part of the world.

Nor have they, by these measures, at all depopulated their state in Europe, as some might, at first view, apprehend to be the consequence of such their conduct: on the contrary, they have increased in people, by means of communication with the native Indians; whereby they have also increased their trading power in Europe, in proportion as they have increased their territories and their dominion in Asia.

We desire to be understood only to mean and intend, from what has been said, that our own kingdom, by pursuing the example of the wise Hollanders in the Asiatic traffic, may gain an ascendancy in that part of the world, no way inferior to this neighbouring state: and, without falling on such like measures, it is to be feared, that we shall rather daily lose, than gain ground in that improveable and extensive branch of commerce.

What seems to have a tendency to confirm us in our humble judgment, with respect to the natural advancement of this India trade, is the peculiarity of the way of traffic in this people; which it is observable differs, in one essential respect, from that of the whole world besides. For no man yet that ever I heard of, ever saw any capital trading vessel of East-India in any part of Europe. What is the motive to those Indian nations for thus conducting their commerce, that they should forego one of the greatest advantages, that the wisest Europeans have to increase their foreign trade and their maritime power? Instead of their giving themselves the trouble to carry, in their own shipping, their own produce and manufactures to the European nations, they attract them, by a secret kind of policy that we do not seem to be acquainted with, not only into their ocean, but even their very rivers, to come and purchase their commodities of all sorts, upon their own terms and conditions.

Is not this, in effect, commanding the trade of the whole world? And what do the East-Indians, the Chinese, the Japanese, &c. mean by this, but explicitly declaring, by their admirable system of commercial policy, that the whole world shall bow down unto them? On the other hand, are not all the nations of Christendom striving to outvie each other in paying homage to these Indian nations! Are they not all bent upon the establishment of East-India companies, in order to visit and pay respect even to these heathen nations, as they are called by some in a religious sense?

May it not deserve our enquiry, upon what principles of policy these nations seem to have an ascendancy, in this respect, over the rest of the whole trading world? Is not every commercial state in Europe glad to have a vent for their commodities, even when they carry them in their own shipping to other countries? Where is the state in all Europe, that can presume to command the subjects of other states, like those Indians, to bring treasures into their territories, to employ their poor, and add to the grandeur of their power?

'Tis infinitely more easy to discern effects, than to trace out the real causes thereof. We therefore would only presume to suggest, whether these effects may not have been naturally produced from the following causes.

- (1.) From the extraordinary wisdom and policy of these several states and empires, in devising such laws for the general government of the people, as have an effectual tendency to render them industrious and parsimonious?
- (2.) Whether their laws also are not as vigilantly executed, as they are judiciously contrived, for the benefit of society?
- (3.) Whether their non-distractedness of the mass of the common people, with religious and other idle controversies, has not had a tendency to quiet their minds, to stimulate them to excel, rather in useful, innocent, and virtuous arts, than to concern themselves in matters that few, in comparison to the whole, have either leisure or qualification to comprehend?
- (4.) Whether the general cheapness of their manufactures, in comparison to those of the European nations, is not the great inducement to others to fetch them from the Indies, in order to dispose of them to advantage to those states, which cannot purchase them at first hand?
- (5.) Whether the cause of their cheapness of labour does not proceed from the greater culture of land among these people in general, than is among the Europeans, in proportion to the number of inhabitants; and, in consequence thereof, to the greater plenty of the productions of nature, and therefore their greater cheapness?
- (6.) Whether the taxes in general in these states and empires, with respect to commerce, are not more wisely laid than among the European potentates; and whether they are incumbered with the like burthen of national debts?
- (7.) Whether they do not, from the principles of policy, bury, or some how conceal, the bulk of the silver which they

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receive in the course of traffic from the Europeans, in order to keep the less quantity of money in circulation, with a view to keep the price of labour among all their manufacturers at a certain standard? And, (8.) Whether their non-use of paper circulation, in consequence of having no national debts, may not also greatly contribute to keep the price of labour low, and their product and manufactures permanently cheap?

An authentic account of the weights, measures, exchanges, customs, duties, port-charges, &c. &c.

FORT ST GEORGE or MADRAS.

Gold and silver weights.

	oz.	dw.	gr.	Troy.
1 Pagoda is	-	-	0 2 4 $\frac{3}{16}$	
9 $\frac{1}{16}$ Ditto	-	-	1 0 0	
8 Ditto 1 dollar weight	0	17	14	
100 Dollars	-	88	1 17	
100 Venetian ducats	-	11	0 5	
100 Gubbers at a medium	10	17	12	
1 Rupee	-	0	7 11	
100 Ditto	-	37	5 20	

Great weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	Avoirdup.
10 Pagodas is 1 pollam, equal to	0	1	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
8 Pollams is 1 feer, or 9 oz. Troy	0	9	10	
5 Seer is 1 vis	-	3	0 2	
1 Maund is	-	25	0 0	
20 Ditto is 1 candy	-	500	0 0	
1 Pecul is	-	132	0 0	

Grain measures.

	lb.	oz.	Avoirdupoise.
1 Measure weighs about	-	2 10	
8 Ditto is 1 mercal	-	21 0	
3200 Ditto is 400 ditto, or 1 garfe	8400	0	
1 Madras rupee weighs 7 dw. 11 gr. Troy, and is better than English standard, 14 dw. 10 gr. in 1 lb. It is country touch 9 $\frac{1}{2}$. China touch 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.			
1 Madras pagoda weighs 2 dw. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ gr. is English matt. 20 car. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ gr. country touch 8 $\frac{1}{2}$, China 8 $\frac{1}{2}$.			
1 Allumgeet pagoda 1 dw. 22 gr. English matt. 23 car. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ gr. country touch 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, China 9 $\frac{1}{2}$.			

Weights.

10 Pagodas weight is equal to 1 Pollam.
40 Pollams - - - 1 Vis, or 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Avoirdup.
8 Vis - - - 1 Maund, or 25 lb. Ditto.
20 Maunds - - - 1 Candy, or 500 lb. Ditto.
1 Madras maund is equal to ,667377 decimal parts of a Surat maund.
1 Madras dollar weighs 17 dw. 14 gr. ,8125 Troy.
1 Ditto pagoda weighs 2 dw. 4 gr. ,8516 Ditto.

Liquid and dry measures.

1 Measure is equal to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pint English of 423 cubic inches.
8 Ditto - 1 Mercal - of 3384 Ditto.
400 Mercals - 1 Garfe of 1,353,600 Ditto.
1 Coid is equal to 18 $\frac{1}{16}$ inches.
N. B. 1 measure weighs about 2 lb. 8 oz. Avoirdupoise.
8 Ditto 21 to 22 lb.
3200 Ditto is 400 mercals, or 1 garfe, which weighs 8400 lb. which is 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons, or 100 Bengal bazaar maunds of 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr. each.

Coins.

80 Cash make 1 fanam.
36 Fanams make 1 pagoda poise 2 dw. 4 gr. is 8,625 matts fine.
100 Madras rupees weigh 37 oz. 5 dw. 20 gr. and are better than standard 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ dw.
100 Bombay ditto, are better than standard 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ dw.
N. B. 36 Fanams to a pagoda, is the exchange by which all the servants belonging to the company, receive their salaries; but, in the bazaar, the general exchange in trade is from 40 to 42 fanams for a pagoda.

B E N G A L.

Weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	deci.
16 Chittacks make 1 seer of	1	14	14	,8666 Avoir.
40 Seer is 1 maund of	74	10	10	,666

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11 Factory maunds of 74 lb. 10 oz. 10 dr. each, is 10 bazaar maunds.
1 Bazaar maund is equal to 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr.
1 Secca weight is equal to 7 dw. 11 gr. ,5511 dec. Troy.

Coins.

12 Pice make	-	-	-	1 Anna.
16 Annas	-	-	-	1 Rupee.
To reduce Madras or Surat rupees to current rupees, you must add 10 per cent. and, to bring current rupees to Madras rupees, you must multiply the sum by 100, and divide that product by 110, and the quotient is the answer in Madras rupees.				
4 Cowries make	-	-	-	1 Gunda.
20 Gundas is	-	-	-	1 Ponn.
32 Ponnas is	-	-	-	1 Current rupee.
Though they sometimes rise and fall according to the quantity of cowries in the place.				
Cargoes are commonly fold from 40 to 42 ponnas per Arcat rupee, which is 8 per cent. better than current rupees.				

Measures.

1 Measure is	-	-	-	5 Seer.
8 Ditto is	-	-	-	40 Seer.
The coid (in cloth measure) is 9 inches.				

CALLICUTT and TELLICHERRY.

Weights.

100 Pool is 1 maund weight from 30 lb. Avoir. to 29 lb. 10 oz. 6 dr.
20 Maund 1 candy weight from 600 lb. Avoir. to 598 lb.
1 Callicutt miscal is to ,14375 dec. or Troy weight, 2 dw. 21 gr. and is to 1 Surat tola ,36836 dec. to 11 vis ,78752 decimals.

Coins.

16 Tarr or vis is equal to	-	-	-	1 Fanam called galce.
5 Fanams	-	-	-	1 Rupee.
1 Spanish dollar, full weight, is accounted 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ rupees, but pass in the bazaar only from 10 fanams 4 tarr to 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ fanams.				

Measure.

1 Coid is 18 inches English. And the Callicutt guz made use of in measuring timber is equal to 28 $\frac{1}{16}$ inches English. They likewise, sometimes at Callicutt, measure their timber by the coid and borrells. 12 Borrells is 1 coid, when the timber is sawed; and 24 borrells is 1 coid, when unsawed. The price generally is 1 Callicutt fanam per solid coid.

B O M B A Y.

Great Weights.

	lb.	oz.	Avoir.
15 Pice is - 1 Seer, and weighs	0	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	
600 Ditto is 40 Seer, and weighs	38	0	Ditto.
1 Maund, or			
12000 Ditto is 800 ditto, ditto,	760	0	Ditto.
20 maund, or 1 candy			

Small Weights.

6 Chowe is	-	-	-	1 Grain Bombay
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Grains	-	-	-	1 Voll
40 Voll	-	-	-	1 Tola
32 Tola and 13 voll is	-	-	-	12 Ounces Troy.

Weights for grain, &c.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	Avoir.
20 Adolens is 1 Para, or	-	-	34 8 12	
500 Ditto is 25 ditto, or 1 Mora	-	-	863 12 12	Ditto.

Coins.

	rup.	annas.	pice.
1 Venetian is	-	3	14 0
1 Gubber is	-	3	12 6
1 Gold Moor, or rupee	-	13	8 0

They keep their accounts in rupees, quarters, and rees.

100 Rees is	-	-	-	1 Quarter.
400 Ditto is	-	-	-	1 Rupee

They have (besides these rees, which are made of lead, with a stamp on them) a small coin made of toothenague, called pice, 80 of which go to a rupee.

Goods are bought and sold here by the Bombay candy, or maund, Surat candy, or maund, and by the pucca, or Bengal maund, which is two Surat maunds; but, in contracts, the candy or maund you buy or sell with is always mentioned.

E C C

S U R A T.

Gold and silver weights.

1 Chowle is as 1 rutta,	Oz.	dw.	gr.	
3 Rutta is 1 voll	-	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ Troy.
32 Voll is 1 tola	-	0	7	18 $\frac{2}{11}$
82 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto is 2 tolas and 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ volls, or	1	0	0	0
9 $\frac{1}{2}$ Voll is 1 Venetian weight	-	0	2	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
100 Ditto is 28 tola 29 voll	11	14	22	
73 Voll is 1 dollar weight	-	0	17	18
100 Ditto weight 228 tola	88	15	0	
4 voll.	-	-	-	-
31 Tola is very near	-	12	0	0
The feer for coral is 18 great pice,	12	5	20	
or 27 common pice weight	-	-	-	-
Ditto for mufk	-	11	0	0
The Surat feer is 30 pice, and weighs	13	12	0	
at a medium	-	-	-	-
		Rup.	Ann.	Pice.
1 Spanish dollar full weight 73 volls, is	-	2	3	0
100 Ditto ditto	-	219	12	9
100 Ounces Mexico dollars	-	247	0	0

Great weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
30 Pice is 1 feer or	-	0	14	7 Avoir.
40 Seer is 1 maund	-	37	5	7
20 Maund is 1 candy	-	746	12	12
1 Maund at Agra is equal to 1 maund	50	10	0	
14 feer of Surat, or	-	-	-	-

The Pucca maund is 74 $\frac{2}{3}$ equal to Bengal factory maund. Metals are fold at 40 feer to the maund, but all perishable goods, and such as are not free from dirt and duft, are from 41 to 44 feer to the maund, as the buyer and feller can agree; though custom now has fixed every particular kind of goods to a stated number of feer to a maund.

Measures

Are the larger and lesser coid, viz. 1 Coid of 36 inches, and 1 coid 27 inches. By the latter all things are fold, except broad cloth, velvet, and fatten, which are fold by the large coid or English yard.

Coins

Are gold and silver, rupees, annas, and pice. 4 Pice make 1 Anna. 16 Annas or 64 pice make 1 Rupee silver. 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ Silver rupees are equal to 1 Rupee gold.

These are the chief weights, measures, and coins in India, which are made use of at the British forts and settlements there, to which we at present give the more particular attention; and under the articles DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA TRADE, MEASURES and WEIGHTS in general, will be contained what else is requisite in regard to matters of this nature.

Those who would chuse to be more minutely acquainted with particulars of this kind, may consult the ingenious and industrious Mr Brooke's tract upon this subject, which will be of great use to all gentlemen who trade to those parts, by preventing the many and too frequent frauds and impositions committed by the natives, in their ordinary way of traffic with the Europeans.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL STATE IN ITALY, is bounded on the north by the gulph of Venice and the Venetian dominions, on the east by the kingdom of Naples, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Tuscany and Modena.

The air upon the whole is foggy and unwholsome, but the soil rich and fertile, and would, if duly cultivated, produce the greatest plenty of corn, wine, oil, &c.

This state comprehends the following territories, viz.

I. The duchy of FERRARA.

II. The duchy of BOLOGNA.

It hath no town of any note except it's capital. BOLOGNA, situated on the Rheno and Savona, and hath a large channel cut between the Rheno and the Po, which wonderfully facilitates the transportation of all commodities to and from the city: they export chiefly wax, silk, hemp, flax, hams, tobacco, perfumes, sweetmeats, and a curious small breed of dogs, so little, that the ladies carry them about in their muffs and apron-pockets. Besides these, they export great quantities of wrought silks of all sorts, rich velvets, leather bottles, and other manufactures of this city; besides olives, and other fruits, produced in great plenty in the neighbourhood of it.

III. The province of ROMAGNA.

The chief town of any note for trade is FAENZA, which is famed among other things for a fine earthen ware, called by it's name, and not inferior to the Dutch delft, and for it's fine linen manufacture.

E G Y

IV. The duchy of URBINO.

FANO is a maritime town on the gulph of Venice; for the convenience of trade, a canal has been dug, and lined with square stones, which, by opening some sluices, brings various kinds of merchandize into it.

SINIGAGLIA is pleasantly seated on a large plain, near the Adriatic Sea, hath a convenient port for small vessels, and drives on a pretty good commerce.

V. The marquifate of ANCONA.

RECANATI on the river Musone, in the gulph of Venice, is reckoned a good trading city, and famed for a fair in September, which lasts 15 days, and was formerly much resorted to.

TOLENTINO hath it's commercial fairs, which draw a concourse of merchants of all forts to it.

VI. The PERUGIANO, or territory of PERUGIA.

PASSIGNIANO is a small city, situate on the north-east of the lake of Perugia. This, and another small but well peopled city, called Castiglione del Lago, on the west shore of the same lake, drive a good trade of the fish caught in it, and supply the whole territory.

VII. The ORVIETANO.

Here are no towns of any note for trade.

VIII. ST. PETER'S PATRIMONY.

CIVITA VECCHIA hath a good convenient harbour, and a spacious dock for ships, with an artificial mole, at the end of which is a strong high tower, which at once defends the entrance into the port, and serves as a light-house to it. But it's scarcity of fresh water makes it a very inconvenient place, and is thinly inhabited on account of it's unwholsome air; though the Popes have done all they could to draw a good traffic thither.

IX. CAMPAGNA, or CAMPANIA DI ROMA.

X. The province of SABINA.

XI. OMBRIA, or the duchy of SPOLETO.

FOLIGNI, on the river Tubino, is inhabited by a great number of rich merchants, whose traffic consists chiefly in cloth, gold and silver lace, spicery, sweetmeats, silks, and other such commodities, all manufactured within it's walls. It hath, besides, a celebrated fair in April, which lasts a month, and contributes much to the trade and wealth of the place.

XII. CITTA DI CASTELLA.

In this territory, which is neither fruitful, pleasant, rich nor populous, is no town of any note.

EDINBURGHSHIRE, or MID-LOTHIAN. This, which is the principal shire in Scotland, is bounded on the east with the shire of Haddington, or East-Lothian, on the south with Selkirk and Tweedale, on the west with Lanerick, and on the north with the Firth of Forth.

It yields considerable quantities of corn, with good pasturage, and is abundantly furnished with all necessaries, particularly coal and lime-stone.

EDINBURGH, the metropolis of Scotland, is a mile from the port of Leith, consists chiefly of one street, but a very noble one; the city is four miles in compass, and as populous as any city in Europe for it's bigness. The markets here are very well supplied with all necessaries, and kept for the most part in distinct places walled in.

LEITH, which is the port of Edinburgh, lies on the Forth, and has a good mole or harbour, one of the most frequented in all Scotland. The entrance of which is made good, by a long jet or pier on the east side, bigger than those at Genoa and Leghorn. The mouth of it is dry at low water, and the sea ebbs about half a mile out from it north. The merchants of Edinburgh generally keep the gross quantity of all their heavy goods here to be ready for carriage, either by land or sea; so that 'tis not improperly called the warehouse, as well as port of Edinburgh. Here are also some works not common in Scotland, viz. a glass-house for making all sorts of green glass, especially bottles, carried on by a company who have their workmen and materials from England; a sugar-bakehouse, and a saw-mill for cutting timber, flitting deals, and the like. See the article SCOTLAND.

EGYPT, is commonly divided into Lower, Middle and Upper.

I. LOWER EGYPT, or Egypt properly so called, is so filed on account of it's situation, according to the course of the Nile, it being the last of the three through which that river runs, and from which it discharges itself into the sea. It is bounded on the south by Middle Egypt, on the north by the sea, on the west by the desert of Barca, and on the east by the isthmus of Suez.

This country is very fertile, and so well improved, that it abounds with pasture grounds, corn, wine, rice, dates, fenna, cassia, baulm, physical drugs, plants, &c.

It's principal towns are,

BUSIRIS, an ancient city, but now dwindled into a village called Aboasir.

ALEXANDRIA, by the Turks called SCANDERIC, is situate at the mouth of the Canopean branch of the Nile, where it forms a noble, spacious haven, in form of a crescent; and which, though not very safe, is much frequented.

ROSETTO, is a healthy, pleasant, and populous city, situate on a branch of the Nile.

It has a considerable manufacture of striped and coarse linnen, but it's chief business is carrying of the European merchandizes, which are brought thither from Alexandria to Cairo in boats. For which purpose the Europeans have here their vice-consuls and factors to expedite business, and the letters, bills, &c. brought from Alexandria. As for letters of consequence, they are conveyed by land across the desert by foot-messengers directly to Cairo.

DAMIETTA stands on one of the eastern branches of the Nile, about 10 miles from the mouth of it. 'Tis reckoned one of the keys of Egypt, is large, though ill built, and hath about 25,000 inhabitants, without reckoning a good large and populous town on the other side of the river, chiefly inhabited by sailors and fishermen, and a much greater number of strangers from all parts, on account of traffic; all which have contributed not a little to make it opulent and considerable. As for the inhabitants, they are all greedy of gain, and severally employed; some in mechanic trades, others in manufactures, particularly that of fine linnen cloth of all colours, and in great request.

MAQUILLA, a handsome populous town, carries on several kinds of linnen and cotton manufactures, besides the making great quantities of sal armoniac, and hatching vast multitudes of eggs in ovens.

II. MIDDLE EGYPT.

This province is situate between the Upper and Lower Egypt, having the former on the south, and the latter, just now described, on the north, the Red Sea on the east, and the desert of Barca on the west. At present it is chiefly known by the names of Baheirah and Benefor.

It is divided in two by the Nile, on the banks of which the soil is fruitful; but the farther the land runs from it, the more sandy and barren.

It's chief cities are,

CAIRO, the capital of Egypt, and by far the largest and most populous in the whole kingdom, is pleasantly situated on the Nile.

It appears from the vast number of squares, caravanferas, bazars, and other such public buildings, to have been a place of extraordinary commerce, now decayed, since the trade to the East-Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; yet it still carries on a pretty many manufactures, especially that of Turkey carpets, and a good trade by means of the caravans. See the articles **CARAVAN** and **EAST-INDIA TRADE**.

SUEZ is a small city, with an old castle, both now almost ruined; it's haven so shallow, that large vessels cannot get into it; though there is a good road by it, where they can ride safely.

FUIM is a large and populous city. The principal commerce of it consists in linnen, plain and striped, leather of a fine sort and in great request, carpets, and the finest mats in all Egypt, besides figs, raisins, oranges, lemons, and other fruits, which it sends to Cairo.

III. The HIGHER or UPPER EGYPT.

This province is bounded on the east side by the Red Sea all the way, on the north by Middle Egypt, on the west by the desert of Barca, and on the south by Nubia and the coast of Abex. It is by far the least cultivated and populous of all the three. Most of it's towns, or rather villages, are very thinly peopled. The chief commodities are corn, pulse, rice, linnen, and leather.

The towns of it are,

BENESONEF, chiefly remarkable for a manufacture of a narrow kind of striped carpet, made of wool and coarse thread without nap, used by the meaner sort to cover the cushions of their sophas, &c.

MINIO, a neat town, famed for an earthen manufacture of water-pots, or vessels, not only very curiously made, but said to give an uncommon freshness to the water; and, on that account, in great request all over Egypt, and especially at Cairo.

ABOUTIC, now a village, and of note only for the vast quantities of black poppies that grow in and about it, and of which the Turks and Arabs make the best opium, which is conveyed thence all over, not only Turkey, but India. The cause of it's decay is said to be owing to the robbers that infested it.

ESNE makes a better appearance than most towns in this province. It's inhabitants are rich, especially in corn and cattle, and drive a considerable commerce up the Nile into Nubia, as well as by the land caravans through the desert.

REMARKS.

Egypt, though a large country, lies but little on the sea-coast, and that affords still less that is remarkable for our purpose. It begins to the east part, where the desert coast of Barca and Tripoli are said to end; and we find nothing here that deserves our notice, 'till we come to the mouth of the Nile, and nothing there but Alexandria. The corn they have here is generally shipped off at some of the little creeks upon the coast, and sent to Constantinople, or in small coasting vessels to Alexandria, in order to be carried thence to Europe. The city of Alexandria boasts of it's antiquity,

having been built by Alexander the Great after the taking of Tyre, that he might preserve the trade between India and Europe, which he found, to his great dissatisfaction, was ruined by the destruction of Tyre: so great a value was set upon the East-India trade, even in those days!

This trade from India was carried on for many ages with infinite advantage by the Tyrians. And Alexander, who was ill advised in extirpating the Phœnician merchants, to make the world amends, erected this city, making it a free port, and giving it his own name; and exerted his utmost sagacity and authority to bring the Indian merchants to settle there, and make it the staple of their manufactures, which, however, he could never effectually do: a great part of the commerce took another turn, and passing from India by the river Oxus, and the city Samercand into the Caspian Sea, and thence by land to Trapezond, from whence it crossed the Euxine Sea, and, passing all the other seas needful, centered at length in the city of Corinth, which by that means became a great and opulent City. See the article **TURKEY TRADE**.

Must not this, as well as numberless other instances throughout this work, convince us of the danger there is from diverting the channel of trade ourselves, or suffering those branches belonging to us to be broke in upon by rivals?

Alexander, however, so far prevailed, that a great part of the trade from India came this way, particularly such of it as was driven on the coast of Malabar, and in the Persian gulph; which, coming up the Red Sea, landed their goods at Elam, now Suez; and they were thence carried over land to the Nile, and then again by water to Alexandria.

That this city, in the most flourishing state of it's commerce, was a large, opulent, strong, and magnificent city, is certain; and that, since the decay of it's trade, it is now little more than the skeleton of what it has been, is not less true. It's conflagration by the Saracens, indeed, effected it's present ruinous state, in comparison to what it was in it's splendor. It has still some trade, and is populous, but not considerable. Rosetta and Damietta, and even Grand Cairo, have lost the fund of their wealth and glory from the time that the Portuguese, unhappily for them, found the way to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

The means whereby this country is rendered so extraordinary fertile in corn, &c. are by the course and overflowings of the famous river the Nile. As to it's swelling, geographers inform us, that it corresponds exactly with the rainy seasons between the tropics: they commence in the mountains about the beginning of May, and the water of the Nile begins to swell about the middle of it; so that there are fifteen days allowed by nature for the course of the water from the latitude of Ethiopia to that of Egypt, which is esteemed a pretty exact allowance; the distance being from 13 or 15, to the latitude of 28 and 30, which may very well correspond with the time.---As to the continuance of the inundation, this is said to be just the same, keeping time with the rains; for, as it is in several parts of Africa, so it is in Ethiopia, the rains abate at the beginning of September, and cease by the beginning of October: thus the inundation answers exactly fifteen days, the same space as before: after the rains begin to abate in Ethiopia, the inundation of the river begins to abate in Egypt; and, ten days after the rains cease in Ethiopia, the Nile is quite reduced to it's ancient channel in Egypt. This being the case, there can be no room any longer to doubt, whether the rains in Ethiopia are the cause of the inundation or no.---In regard to the height to which the waters arise, some authors give an account of the swell being about forty feet in height perpendicularly; which, though it be extraordinary to imagine, and must, in our imagination, place all the towns on a hilly situation, or suppose them to be laid under water; yet, since so many affirm it for truth, we leave that as we find it.---The effects of this inundation are fructifying the earth, not only moistening it instead of rain, but enriching the land with the fattening slimy substance, which it receives from the richness of the soil in Ethiopia, from whence it comes. This is said to be particular to the river Nile, as the country of Ethiopia is particularly rich and fruitful beyond all that part of Africa. It is true, that the Niger, the Congo, and several other rivers on the coast of Africa, which overflow the country, do make it fruitful, and enrich the soil as well as the Nile does, but none in so extraordinary a manner.

The Shire of **ELGIN**, in Scotland. This comprehends one part of Murray, and is bounded on the east by the river Spey; on the west by the shire of Nairn, and part of Loquhaber; has Aberdeenshire and Badenoch on the south; and is parted on the North from Invernesshire by the Frith and river Ness. The air is wholesome, and the winter mild; the south side mountainous, but abounds with pasture, as the low country does with corn, which is soon ripe. Here are several great woods of fir-trees, &c. 10 miles long, with some large woods of oak.

ELGIN, the chief town, and a royal burgh, is situate in a pleasant plain, and fruitful, though sandy soil. The Highland gentry come to live here every winter. The town stands on the river Lossie, which falls into the sea a few miles below it.

This

This river abounds most with salmon of any in the island, except the Dee and Don, and may, indeed, one year with another, be said to equal them, 80 or 100 lasts being annually pickled and exported, and all taken in a few of the summer months, and within the space of one mile, at the village of Germach. It abounds with fish, indeed, to the very head; but these are mostly used for home consumption, and taken either with spears by day, or in wicker baskets, or little boats covered with hides, by night.

EMBARGOES on ships, and QUARANTINES.

An embargo is an arrest on ships or merchandize by public authority, and is commonly on foreign ships in time of war, being a prohibition of state for security against enemies, and, indeed, to endanger them.

The king may lay embargoes on ships, or employ those of his subjects, in time of danger, for service and defence of the nation; but they must not be for the private advantage of a particular trader or company: and, therefore, a warrant to stay a single ship in no legal embargo, as in the case of Mr Sands, and Sir Josiah Child, in king William the Third's reign, which was as follows:

On the 13th of December, 34 Car. II. Mr Sands being about to sail for the Madeiras, in the ship Expectation, with divers goods to trade there, Sir Josiah Child entered a plaint in the Admiralty court, and process issued to stop the ship, and Mr Sands to give security that he would not sail within the limits of the East-India company, which he refused. There was judgment for the plaintiff Sands in the Common Pleas, and damages recovered to 1500l. and, on a writ of error brought, the error assigned was in point of judgment, viz. whether the matter on record was sufficient to charge the defendant Child? It was urged that what he had done was lawful: for the king may stop any subject's ship, and shut the ports of the kingdom at his pleasure, in time of danger: and so, likewise, he may restrain his subjects from departing, lest they should assist his enemies. And, to prevent such departure of ships, it has been usual to petition the king, who thereupon directs his advocate to require caution that the master trade not with infidels; and this in conformity to the common law of the land.

It was answered in favour of Mr Sands, that stopping this ship was illegal. At common law, no man is prohibited to travel out of the realm, whether to trade with infidels or not, as appears by stat. 26 Henry VIII. cap. 10. which impowered the king, during life, to restrain trading to particular places, and had been to little purpose, if he could have done it without help of parliament; and, the common law being restored by the expiration of that act, no force can be put on any man's property, without breach of the peace, and private injury.

And no inference can be made from embargoes, which are only in war-time, and are a prohibition by advice of council, and not at prosecution of parties; for Mr Sands, and the ship's crew, might have gone to any infidels, refraining from trading within the company's charter; and finding the charter is not material, for, if that had any power, there had been no need of petitioning the council.

And, in another term, the plaintiff's judgment was affirmed: but the court declared, the partners of the ship should have been joined with the plaintiff in this action; which might have been pleaded in abatement, but was omitted, and the plaintiff had his judgment. Trin. 4 Will. and M. 4 Mod. Rep. 176, 179, 181.

Quarantine is the term of 40 days, in which persons from foreign parts, infected with the plague, are not permitted to come on shore.

Several places in the Baltic being infected with the plague, an act was made, 9 Ann. cap. 2. that then, and at all times hereafter, all vessels coming to England or Ireland from infected places, shall make their quarantine as directed by the queen, or her successors; during which no person shall go on board such ship, without proper licence.

And, if any master of a ship, coming from an infected place, shall come on shore, or permit any other, or go on board any other vessel, during the time of quarantine, without licence, he forfeits the ship to the queen, &c. and the person coming on shore, or going on board any other ship, may be compelled to return; and, on conviction by oath of one or more witnesses, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 20l. or be committed to the house of correction.

Any person going on board, and returning without licence, may be compelled on board again, there to remain during quarantine, and the master shall maintain him. And any boat or skiff belonging to such ship, may be detained for the time.

Justices of the peace where quarantine is made, are to cause watches to be set day and night, in convenient places for the aforesaid purposes. When the ship has performed quarantine, the customer and justice shall give a certificate, and the ship, &c. be no longer detained. But the goods shall afterwards be opened and aired, as appointed by proclamation.

The stat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 3. enacted, That, during the infection at Marseilles, and in all future times, when any country shall be infected, all ships, persons, goods, &c. shall perform quarantine as directed by proclamation, notifying the king's order made in privy council.

And if, during such orders, any ship attempts to enter any port, the principal officer of the customs, and the persons authorized to see quarantine performed, shall go off to such ship; and at distance demand the following particulars, viz. ship's and commander's name, place where the cargo was laden, places touched at in the Voyage, whether such places were infected, how long the ship had been in her passage, how many persons on board, when set sail, &c.

And if it appear, on such examination, that any person on board is infected, then it shall be lawful for all whom it may concern to resist the entrance of such ship, by any kind of force whatsoever: and the master, not discovering the same, shall be adjudged a felon; also, if, on demand made, he shall not make true discovery in the particulars beforementioned, he forfeits 200l.

If any master, or other having charge, shall quit, or suffer any other to quit such ship, or shall not, on due notice, cause ship and lading to be conveyed as appointed during quarantine, forfeits every such ship, with the tackle, &c. and such master, for every offence, forfeits 200l. and every person going on shore, &c. may be compelled to return on board, and shall, for every offence, forfeit 200l. and suffer six months imprisonment.

If, at any time, any place in Great-Britain, Ireland, or the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, shall be infected, and the same made appear to the king in council, his majesty, with advice of his privy council, may make the necessary orders for the safety of his subjects. And any person whatever, neglecting to execute such orders, shall forfeit his office, be incapacitated, and subject to 100l. penalty.

During times of infection in any part of Great-Britain, &c. or France, Spain, Portugal, or the Low Countries, his majesty may, by proclamation, restrain all vessels under 20 tons from sailing out of any port of Great-Britain, &c. without security from the master in penalty of 500l. not to go to or touch at any place mentioned in the proclamation: and, if such vessel sail without such security given, she shall, with her tackle, &c. be forfeited to the king, and the master, on conviction, forfeit 50l. or be imprisoned for three months. All goods specified in orders relating to quarantine, shall, in any vessel whatsoever, be subject to such orders. And all such orders are to be read in all parish churches.

Any infected vessel, &c. being entered any place of the king's dominions, his majesty may empower any persons to burn such ship, &c. or so much as shall be necessary to prevent the spreading of the infection.

The 8th Geo. I. cap. 8. declared it lawful for the king, by proclamation, to restrain all persons from going to infected places, and from exporting thither any goods whatsoever, or to import any from such place.

All goods, &c. exported contrary thereto, with tackle, &c. shall be forfeited, and seized, wherever found; and every person shipping such goods forfeit double the value: also persons, procuring such goods to be imported, forfeit treble value, &c. besides other pains and penalties.

Any person going to an infected place, after such proclamation, incurs a præmunire.

By the 8th George I. cap. 10. certain clauses in the act 7 Geo. I. cap. 3. are repealed.

But, by the stat. 1 Geo. II. cap. 13. for performing quarantine, it is enacted, That, when any country is infected, his majesty may order ships, houses, or lazarets, to be provided for persons to perform quarantine, and also sheds, &c. for opening and airing of goods, &c. in places approved of by two or more justices for the county, &c. where the same lie, paying such rent, &c. as shall be agreed on.

The proper officers shall compel all persons, goods, &c. comprized within such orders, to repair, or be conveyed, to some of the ships, &c. provided as beforementioned: and persons refusing, or being placed in such ship, &c. escaping thence, or attempting it, may be compelled to return, and, on refusal, or actually escaping, &c. shall be deemed felons, and suffer without benefit of clergy.

Any person not infected, presuming to enter any ship, &c. appointed as aforesaid, while infected persons are there, and attempting to return thence, unless particularly authorized, may be compelled to repair to some ship, &c. to perform quarantine: and, if he escape, shall be guilty of felony.

And any officer hereunto appointed, suffering any person, ship, &c. to depart, or be removed thence, unless by some particular order, shall be adjudged a felon.

There is a clause in this statute, that whereas cotton, skins, human hair, and certain other species of goods, are more especially liable to retain infection, and may be brought from places infected, into other countries, and thence imported in ships liable to quarantine: therefore, any foreign country being infected, all such goods, &c. particularly specified in any order concerning quarantine, shall be liable to such order.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 34. such parts of the act 1 Geo. II. cap. 13. as were to continue in force two years only, shall be revived, and continue a longer time; and the king may, by proclamation, prohibit his subjects going to any infected place therein mentioned during the time, and under the regulations therein specified. Also to prohibit all persons to come from any infected place into Great-Britain or Ireland, &c. under

the regulations prescribed. And all persons, exporting goods contrary thereto, forfeit double the value.

If, after such proclamation, any person shall go to any infected place, contrary thereto, he forfeits 500l. half to his majesty, half to him who sues for it; and persons coming from any infected place, or landing goods, &c. contrary to such proclamation, shall be guilty of felony, the ship or goods be forfeited to the king: and all persons, causing such goods to be imported, shall forfeit treble value, two thirds to the king, the other to him who prosecutes.

In every proclamation prohibiting commerce with any infected place, reasonable time is to be allowed before it commences, according to the distance of the infected places from Great-Britain, Ireland, &c. and the time in which notice may arrive at such infected places.

Any action, or suit, commenced for any thing done, in pursuance of this act, the defendant may plead the general issue, and, if judgment be given against the plaintiff, the defendant shall recover treble costs.

If goods be laden on board, and after an embargo, or restraint from the prince or state, comes forth, and then he breaks ground, or endeavours to sail, if any damage accrues, he must be responsible for the same. The reason is, because his freight is due, and must be paid; nay, although the goods be seized as contraband.

A ship was hired to J. S. in England, to freight at 3l. 10s. per ton, to Bourdeaux; then an embargo is laid; she afterwards proceeds to Bourdeaux; the master, not discovering his first agreement, agrees with the correspondent there of J. S. to allow him 6l. 10s. the ton; upon this last agreement he recovered at law, and equity would not relieve, because the performance of the first agreement was hindered by the embargo.

EMERALDS. The emerald is a greenish stone, found in different parts of the world, as Ethiopia, Egypt, Persia, and both the Indies. The highest prized, or most valued emeralds, are those called the prime emeralds, in that they are commonly pure and neat, that is to say, of a fine beautiful green; inclining to the blue. There is some appearance that emeralds are found in iron-mines, because I have seen where the iron has stuck to them. It is by some affirmed, that the emerald takes it's green colour in the mine, according to the degree of it's perfections, as fruits ripen upon the trees; which I cannot confirm, having never seen the truth of it. They are seldom found genuine with the druggists, therefore should be bought of the lapidaries.

Some authors have made twelve kinds of emeralds, as the Scythian, the Bactrian, Egyptian, Cyprian, Attic, Ethiopic, Medic, Chalcedonian, Samian, Sicillian, Laconic, and Cyprian, or chalcosmaragdus; to which, of late, has been added a thirteenth, called the smaragdites, or bastard emerald. This stone has been of great esteem, not only for its glory, but the use it was applied to, being set in the breast-plate of judgment.

The smaragdo-prafinus, smaragdites, or bastard emerald, is a transparent green gem, of a mixed beauty, between a prafinus and an emerald. Being compared with the prafinus, it has the greenness of glass, without yellowness; but, being compared with the emerald, it has a yellowish greenness, which is not in the emerald. It is seldom perfectly transparent, because of some clouds in it, and is of two kinds; first, the Bohemian, which is almost transparent; and, secondly, the American, which is but half transparent. This stone is said to be diuretic, expels gravel, hinders the breeding of the stone, and eases pains of the kidneys, and the gout.

According to Lemery, smaragdus-prafinus, or the emerald, is a fine, green, precious stone, that is diaphanous, shining, resplendent, but moderately hard. There are two kinds, one oriental, and the other occidental. The first sort is harder, finer, and more esteemed. It represents, by it's agreeable colour and pleasantness, the verdure of the fields, and fills the eye with a sudden glaring light. It is brought from the East-Indies. The second sort may be distinguished into two kinds, Peruvian and European; the Peruvian shews a very fine, pleasant, green colour, but does not shoot it's rays like the oriental, and is sometimes filled with little greenish clouds. These are plentiful in Peru, and pretty large. The European sort is not so hard or resplendent, and the least valued of all. They are found in Cyprus, Great-Britain, and several other places. The western are generally much larger than those of the east: for they are sometimes met with as big as the palm of a man's hand. Both kinds are proper to stop the flux of the belly, and hæmorrhages, to sweeten the too acrid humours, being finely powdered, and taken inwardly; the dose from six grains to half a drachm.

The emerald to be used in medicine is the smaragdus, Kentam. 47. De Laet. 33. Charlt. 38. It is of a glorious green, but more brittle than any of the other gems. If thrown upon a clear fire, it emits a fine flame, and totally loses it's colour; which is a proof that it's colour depends on a sulphur, which is separable from it without destroying it's substance; for the stone still remains hard and transparent, though coloured, like crystal.

To imitate a green emerald colour in glass.

Take common glass, well purified from it's salt, without manganese [see the articles MANGANESE and GLASS]. Put it in a crucible in a air-furnace, and, when well melted and purified, add to it, for example, to 100 pounds of glass, three ounces of crocus martis*; mix well the glass at the same time, to make it incorporate with the crocus; then let it rest an hour, that it may thoroughly take the colour. This way nothing will come out yellowish; it will lose that foulness and blueness which the common metal always has, and will become green. Then add, to the same quantity of 100 pounds of glass, a pound of the scales of copper, thrice calcined †, and put it in at six different times, mixing it well each time with the glass; let it stand two hours, to imbibe the tincture. After this, stir it again, and examine if it be as you would have it; if the colour be too blue, you must add thereto some crocus martis, prepared as before, and you will have a very fine emerald colour. Twenty-four hours after, mix it as before, and you may work it as you please.

* To prepare crocus martis for this occasion.

Take filings of iron, or rather of steel; mix them well in earthen pans, with strong vinegar, only sprinkling them so much that they may be thoroughly wet; spread them in pans, and set them in the sun 'till they be dry, or, if the sun be overclouded, set them in the open air; then powder them, and sprinkle them again with vinegar, and dry them as before. Repeat this process of powdering, sprinkling, and drying, eight times: at last grind and searce them well, and you will have a very fine powder, of the colour of powdered brick, which keep in close vessels for use.

† Take the scales which the brasiers make when they hammer pans, kettles, &c. as being much cheaper than new copper. Wash them well, and put them into crucibles, at the mouth of a reverberatory furnace, for calcination, for the space of four days: when cold, pound them and searce them. Set that powder a second time in the same reverberatory, during four days longer, and you will have little balls, of a black colour, which must be pounded and searced again, and put the third time into the reverberatory, for four other days. Reduce them to powder, as before, and keep them for the abovesaid use.

Another Oriental emerald green, of a finer lustre.

Put into a crucible four pounds of common frit of pulveraine, five pounds of common white glass pulverized, five pounds of crystal-frit well washed; add to this composition three pounds of minium, or red lead: mix them all well together, and in a little time they will be pretty well purified: after which, cast all that metal into water, to purify it more, taking care that no part of the lead sink to the bottom of the pot wherein it is cast, for it will break it, if speedy care be not had to take-up again what is precipitated.

This glass thus washed, and after dried, must be put into the pot again, to be melted and purified, during the space of one day; after which, add a little of the caput mortuum of vitriol of copper, without any corrosive, together with a small quantity of crocus martis; stir the metal, and proceeding as we have shewn before, and you will have an admirable oriental emerald green, which may be wrought as you please.

Of an artificial colour of sea-green, for a tincture of glass.

The colour of sea-green is given by the Italians to beryl, which is a precious stone found particularly at the foot of Mount Taurus, by the river Euphrates, which has the green blue of the sea. It is found in the Indies of a colour somewhat paler, and which occasions it's being called by divers names; and, when the colour is deeper, they commonly pass for other precious stones: wherefore it is the water which expresses it's colour. See the article DIAMOND. This colour, which is one of the finest sky-colours, ought to be made in fine and well-purified crystal, which the Italians call bollito, for, if it be made in common glass, it has not that lustre; you must likewise put no manganese in this colour. See the articles GLASS and MANGANESE.

To make it therefore very fine and beautiful, take crystal-frit, put it into a crucible in the furnace, where being well melted and clear, skim off the salt, which will swim on the surface like oil, with an iron ladle: for, if you do not skim this off clean, the colour will be foul and oily.

The matter being thus well purified, you must add to every 20 pounds six ounces of the powder of copper, or rather brass, calcined*, with a fourth part of zaffer prepared, also in powder [see ZAFFER] and well mixed both together. In putting these powders into the pot on the crystalline metal, you must do it little by little, lest the crystalline swelling should boil over, whereof care must be taken, by stirring it well all the while.

* Take the thin leaves of brass, and put them into a crucible, well covered and luted, and place them in the mouth of a furnace to calcine and let them stand there for four days

days, at a coal fire, so that the leaves may not melt; for then they would be quite unfit for this use. The four days being expired, the whole will be calcined; after which, pound them on a porphyry stone, and searce them through a fine sieve, and you will have a blackish powder, which must be spread on tiles, and put into the mouth of the furnace again, to calcine in the open heat, not contiguous to the coals, for four days longer. Take it out, and blow off the ashes gently with bellows that may have fallen thereon: reduce it again into powder, searcing it through a fine sieve, as before, and keep it for the use proposed.

The certain touchstone to know when the calcination is well performed, is when the glass rises and swells with ebullition, upon your putting the calcined matter into it: if it does not, you must calcine other leaves of brass, these being not serviceable in this operation, by reason of their being over-burned in the calcination, which must be carefully avoided.

This being done, let the metal stand still and settle, for the space of three hours, that the colour may incorporate, and then stir it again, and a proof may be made of the metal. Twenty-four hours after the mixing of the powders, it may be wrought: for, by that time, it will be well coloured; but the whole must be well mixed at first, for fear the colour should not be duly intermixed throughout the whole: to effect which, proper care must be taken of every step in the process, and the tinctures rightly proportioned in quantity to the crystalline metal in the pot, according to what has been observed.

To make a fair emerald, in a method something different.

Take of natural crystal four ounces, of red lead four ounces, verdgrease 48 grains, crocus martis, prepared with vinegar as before, eight grains; let the whole be finely pulverized and sifted. Put these together in a crucible, leaving, at least, one inch empty; lute it well, and put it into a potter's furnace, where they make their earthen ware, and let it stand there as long as they do their pots. When cold, break the crucible, and you will find the matter of a fine emerald colour, which, after it is cut, and set in gold, will near equal in beauty an oriental emerald.

If you find that your matter is not refined and purified enough, put it a second time into the like furnace, and, in lifting off the cover, you will find the matter shining; you may then break the crucible, but not before; for, if you should put the matter into another crucible, the paste would be cloudy, and full of blisters. If you cannot have the convenience of a potter's furnace, you may build one yourself at a small expence, wherein you may place 20 crucibles at once, each with different colours, and one baking will produce a great variety of artificial gems. Heat the furnace with hard and dry wood, and keep your matter in fusion 24 hours, which time it will generally require to be sufficiently purified for the purpose: if you let it stand half a dozen hours longer, you may have no reason to grudge the expence of fuel.

R E M A R K S .

Under the article DIAMOND, and the article EARTH, we have suggested some things of no little use, if duly attended to, and properly executed, in regard to the making of artificial stones; and, when we come to the article of GEMS, we shall pursue this point to a far greater extent.

This curious art is already arrived to such perfection, that it is capable of imitating precious stones in their lustre, colour, and beauty, even to surpass the natural ones, except in the degree of hardness, which to obtain, has been, and doubtless still is, the endeavour of many ingenious men.

The art of making artificial gems consists chiefly in imitating rightly the tinctures of those that are real: they must be extracted from such things as resist the fire, and do not change their colour, though of a volatile nature: thus verdgrease, being put into the fire per se, is changed to another colour; but, when put in fusion with crystal, it retains its natural colour, by reason of the fixation it receives from the crystal.

You must, therefore, in the general, take such colours as change not when mixed together: wherefore, since blue and yellow make a green, you must take such blue as shall not prejudice the yellow when you mix them; and also such a yellow as shall not be detrimental to the blue, and so of the other colours.

As natural crystal is a general body to work upon on these occasions, it may not be useless to shew it's method of previous preparation.

Take natural crystal, the clearest you can get; fill a large crucible with the pieces thereof, and cover it with a lid broader than the mouth of the crucible, to prevent the falling of ashes or coals into it: put it into a small furnace on burning coals, and, when the crystal is thoroughly hot, cast it into a pretty large vessel of cold water: then take it out of the water, dry it on an earthen plate, and put it into the same crucible again: cover it, and proceed as before, repeating it a dozen times successively, and changing every time the water: when the crystal easily breaks and crumbles, and is thoroughly white, it is a sign that it is calcined enough; if

there appear any black parts in the veins, break off the white, and put these again into the furnace, and proceed therewith as before, 'till only the perfect white remain behind.

After you have dried this calcined crystal thoroughly, grind it to an impalpable powder, on a marble or rather porphyry stone, and searce it through a silken sieve. Of this powder of crystal, as it is used for all artificial gems, of which we shall treat in their order, it will be proper to have a sufficient quantity by you, to have recourse to when at work; for the frit of crystal, be it ever so good, will not come up to the lustre of natural crystal, prepared as before required.

Those who are any thing acquainted with the nature and properties of metals and minerals, well know that most, excepting gold and silver, are capable of vitrification; and, therefore, it is nothing strange that there should be such an affinity between glassy, crystalline bodies, and metalline ones, so as to dispose the one, when properly prepared, to give up it's tinctures to the others: for upon knowing, says that great philosopher Mr Boyle, the different methods of producing the adventitious colours of metals and minerals in bodies capable of vitrification, depends the art of making counterfeit gems; for white pure sand, or calcined crystal, gives the body in their preparation; and it is for the most part some metalline or mineral calx, mixed in a small proportion with it, that gives the colour. Calcined lead, fused with fine white sand, or crystal, reduced by ignition, and subsequent extractions in water, to a subtle powder, will, of itself, be brought, by a due decoction, to give a clear mass, coloured like a German amethyst. But this colour may be overpowered by those of several other mineral pigments; so that with a glass of lead you may emulate the fresh and lovely green of the emerald; though, in many cases, the colour which the lead itself, upon vitrification, tends to, may vitiate that of the pigment designed to appear in the mass; but a little experimental knowledge in matters of this nature, will easily lead a person of any genius and attention to discover the just application of these things to each other.

Glass, crystal, diamond, borax, nitre, and other transparent solid bodies, lose their transparency, and appear white upon being reduced to powder; that is, by a bare alteration of their gross texture, or a simple reduction to smaller parts, so as to reflect many of the rays of light which they before transmitted.

As metals have a strong texture in their metalline form, so they preserve their natural colours durably, unless corroded or dissolved by their suitable menstruum, such as aqua fortis, aqua regia, &c. [see those articles] after which, their solutions strike particular durable colours, and afford the strongest stains.

Iron, dissolved in stale small beer, gives the beautiful yellow used in callicoe-printing; when sublimed with sal armoniac, it also affords a yellow. [See AMMONIAC.] The common iron-moulds made by ink are owing to the iron dissolved in the copperas, whereof the common black writing-ink is made.

Copper, melted with zink, appears of a gold colour. Mr Boyle somewhere says, that copper mixed with zink, prepared in a peculiar manner, produced as fine a colour as he ever saw any gold of: copper, also, dissolved in aqua fortis, affords a beautiful green for painters; and, in any urinous spirit, it gives a beautiful blue; and the solutions may be reduced to dry colours by crystallization or evaporation. The same metal, precipitated with common salt, out of aqua fortis, gives the turquoise colour to white glass, when melted therewith.

Tin, a white or colourless metal, affords a light blue colour, by being fluxed with antimony and nitre. The same metal is necessary in striking the scarlet-dye, with aqua fortis and cocheneal: it's calx, by strong fusion, turns to a glass of the opal colour.

So lead, being corroded by the fumes of vinegar, makes the fine white called ceruse, and the white fucus called magiftery of lead; by being coloured in a strong naked fire, minium, or red lead; and this, melted into glass with sand, is the foundation of the art of imitating all the coloured gems whatever; for this glass itself will resemble the hyacinth; and, by the addition of prepared gold and tin, the ruby; the sapphire with cobalt, the emerald with iron and copper, according to the preceding processes; the amethyst with gold, and the granat with iron, &c.

Silver, another white, colourless metal, being dissolved in aqua fortis, if chalk is put to the solution, turns of a beautiful purple, or amethyst colour; and it's own solution, though pale as water, durably stains the nails, the skin, the hair, and other animal substances, brown or black.

Quicksilver, mixed with brimstone, makes a black mass; which, by sublimation, affords the beautiful red pigment, called cinnabar, or vermilion; and the solution of quicksilver, being precipitated with common salt, yields a snow-white powder, which also turns black by being mixed with sulphur.

Gold, dissolved in aqua regia, affords a fine yellow liquor, which stains animal substances beautifully purple; and, if the solution

folution be fufficiently weakened with water, and mixed with a folution of tin, a fine red, or purple powder, may be thus obtained for ftaining glafs moft beautifully red.

From thefe, and numberlefs other metallurgical experiments, which will appear throughout this work, it is apparent, that metalline and mineral bodies may be fo prepared as to communicate colours of all kinds to cryftalline and glaffy matters; whereby the gems of every colour may be more beautifully imitated by art, than thofe who have never been converfant with this kind of experiments, can eafily imagine.

But then the experimentalift muft be extremely circumfpect in conducting every ftep of the proceffes, otherwife he may mifcarry, and condemn their veracity, when his own weaknefs and inattention only deferve to be blamed. Perfons who have never feen any thing of experimental philofophy, nor condescended to foul their hands with charcoal, or exercife their heads with thinking on fubjects of this nature, are too apt to flight the whole either as ufelefs, or too myfterious: whereas, had fuch but firft feen all the courfes of this fort of philofophy, which are given by the feveral profeflors, and efppecially thofe of chemical philofophy, this might give them a general idea, and afterwards a general relifh, for the practice by themfelves; for a man may as reasonably hope to make an artift of this ftamp, without felf-practice, as to become a mufician equally celebrated with an Handel or a Geminiani, only by hearing them play on the refpective inftruments whereon they excel.

Natural philofophy is not that barren thing it has long been accounted by the pedant and fchoolman, whofe knowledge confifts only in cavalling and difputing, and ringing the changes upon other men's thoughts, for want of any thing new and ufeful of their own: I only wifh that I could rouse up the generality of inquisitive perfons, and excite the curiofity of mankind to the making of experiments, from which alone the greateft advancement of ufeful knowledge is to be expected. The inventions of philofophical heads fet great numbers of mechanical hands to work, and furnifh them with the means of procuring not only a fubftance, but effates too.

Our modern naturalifts and jewellers divide the emerald, as produced by nature, into the Oriental and Peruvian: the former is harder, more brilliant, and transparent, than the Peruvian, which has generally clouds found in it, and therefore has lefs luftre.

Some authors inform us, that emeralds have been taken out of iron mines: Pomet affures us, that he had one to which the iron ore was ftill adhering, and which I have feen myfelf. This ftone is fuppofed to grow more and more perfect in the mine, like the ruby, and to arrive at it's general greennefs by flow degrees.—It is the common opinion, that the emerald grows in the jafper; it is certain, that fome jaspers are fo perfectly green, that they have been taken for emeralds.

The ordinary matrix of this ftone is the preme, which is held among the coarfer precious ftones; being hard, tranfparent, half opaque, and ufually mixed with yellow, green, white, blue, &c.

Monf. Savary gives us an eftimate of the values of the different kinds of Peruvian emeralds. Rough emeralds.—Thofe of the firft and coarfeft fort, called plafmes, for grinding, are worth 27s. fterling the marc, or 8 ounces. The demi-morillons, 81. fterling per marc. Good Morillons, which are only little pieces, but of a fine colour, from 13 to 151. per marc. Emeralds larger than morillons, and called of the third colour or fort, are valued at from 50 to 601. the marc. Thofe called of the fecond fort, which are in larger and finer pieces than the preceding, are worth from 65 to 751. per marc. Thofe of the firft colour, otherwife called negres cartes, are worth from 110 to 1151.

Emeralds ready cut, or polished and not cut, being of good ftones, and a fine colour, are worth,

	l.	s.	d.
Thofe weighing one carat or four grains	—	0	10 0
Thofe of two carats	—	1	7 0
Thofe of three carats	—	2	5 0
Thofe of four carats	—	3	10 0
Thofe of five carats	—	4	10 0
Thofe of fix carats	—	7	10 0
Thofe of feven carats	—	15	0 0
Thofe of eight carats	—	19	0 0
Thofe of nine carats	—	23	0 0
Thofe of ten carats	—	33	0 0

ENAMEL, a kind of coloured glafs.

The glafs ufed for enamelling, is called cryftalline, and fhould be made with the beft Alicant falt, and fand, vitrified together.

Pewter and lead in equal parts, and calcined in a reverberatory fire, with the cryftalline matter, are the principal compositions of the enamel; the other materials added by the artizan, are only to colour it.

There are three forts of enamels; thofe which counterfeit precious ftones, thofe ufed by the painters in enamel, and thofe with which they make pretty curious works, wherein there is fo confiderable a trade at Nevers in France. Thefe laft are

peculiar to the goldfmiths and enamellers in gold, filver and other metals; and 'tis with this fort of enamel, with the white at leaft, that the Delft-ware-potters varnifh their works. Thofe fubftances which imitate precious ftones, and fuch as are for enamel-painting, are melted and prepared by the artifiers who exercife this art. The others come from Venice and Holland.

The compofition of all three forts is the fame in the main, differing only in the colouring or tranfparency.

Of enamel-painting.

This is performed on plates of gold or filver, and moft commonly of copper, enamelled with the white enamel; whereon they paint with colours which are melted in the fire, where they take a brightnefs and luftre like that of glafs.

This painting is the moft prized of all, for it's peculiar brightnefs and vivacity, which is the moft permanent, the force of it's colours not being effaced or fuffled with time, as in other painting, and continuing always as frefh as when it came out of the workman's hands. 'Tis ufually in miniature, it being more difficult the larger it is, by reafon of certain accidents 'tis liable to in the operation.

They are commonly made in plates to fet in fnuff-boxes, dial-plates for watches, and other things of the like fize. The colours ufed muft be ground with water, in a mortar of agate, 'till they are extreme fine, and, when ufed, muft be mixed with oil of fpike fomewhat thick.

They begin at firft by drawing out exactly the fubject to be painted, with red vitriol mixed with oil of fpike, marking all parts of the defign very lightly with a fmall pencil.

After this the colours are to be laid on, obferving the mixtures and colours that agree to the different parts of the fubject: for which 'tis neceffary to underftand painting in miniature, that art being a great help to the execution of this.

When the colours are all laid, the painting muft be gently dried over a flow fire to evaporate the oil, and the colours afterwards melted to incorporate them with the enamel, making the plate red-hot in a fire like what the enamellers ufe.

Afterwards that part of the painting muft be paffed over again which the fire hath any thing effaced, ftrengthening the fhades and colours, and committing it again to the fire, obferving the fame methods as before, which is to be repeated 'till the work is finished.

They ufe few colours: the chief are purple, azure, blue, and yellow, and clear green enamel, or inftead of it a mixture of blue and yellow, fhell black, and the red of vitriol. There are many others, which need not be minutely defcribed, becaufe, with thefe few, a fkilful painter knows how, by mixing them, to compofe a great variety of others.

Enamel for painting.

The white enamel fit for enamelling the plate to be painted on, is the fame with that commonly ufed by thofe who make enamelled dial-plates. 'Tis prepared by braying and cleaning it with aqua fortis, after which being well wafhed in clear water, 'tis pounded afrefh in a mortar of Chalcedonian flint, or agate, as already faid.

The red brown is made with the lees of vitriol and falt-petre, or with the ruft of iron, well ground upon an agate, with the fineft oil of fpike.

The blue is made with azure, which the painters in oil ufe, well cleaned and prepared, with good brandy, expofed five or fix days in a bottle to the fun. If they would have the azure to be very fine, they muft take fome zaffer, adding to it about a third part of pebbles, or rather very pure cryftal; and having pounded and put them 'into two crucibles well luted, and fet them in a glafs-houfe furnace for 24 hours, they are afterwards to be ground afrefh with oil of fpike.

The vermilion red is made with vitriol calcined between two crucibles luted, cleaned with aqua fortis, and wafhed with clean water; the fire fhould be moderate, and continued about half an hour.

Lac red is compofed of fine gold, difolved in aqua regia, with fal armoniac or common falt, and then digefted 24 hours in a fand-heat in a cucurbit with fpring-water and mercury. The powder remaining in the cucurbit, after pouring off the water, is to be ground with twice it's weight of flour of fulphur, and put in a crucible over a flow fire; and, when the fulphur is exhaled, the remaining red powder is to be ground with pebbles.

Laftly, white copperas calcined makes a colour fomewhat like the umbre ufed by painters in water-colours.

Enamel of goldfmiths, enamellers, and other workers in enamel.

Such of thefe forts of enamels as come from Venice and Holland, are in fmall flat panes of different fizes, commonly four inches over, and about $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch thick. Every pane has the maker's mark on it, made with a kind of large bodkin;

badkin; the most common are a fyren, an ape, a fun, and the like.

The most usual colours of the Venetian enamels, are white, slate-colour, gridelin, sky-blue, flesh-colour, yellow, green, another deeper blue. These seven colours are, as it were, the basis of all the others, which arise from the mixture of them; and the white in particular is as the matrix of the six other principal colours.

The white, as already observed, is made with crystalline, pewter and lead calcined together in a reverberatory fire; and this is used by the goldsmiths and enamellers in metal, the potters, painters in enamel, and the master bead-makers in enamel: by adding azure to it, they make the gridelin. If rose-copper and Cyprus vitriol be put to it, the enamel becomes a sky-blue; if the Perigord stone, 'tis a flesh colour. Ruft of iron mixed with the white enamel makes a yellow, and filings of copper a green, &c.

The manner of working in enamel.

Most enamelled works are wrought in France at the fire of a lamp, in which instead of oil, they put melted horse-fat, which they call oil of horse. The rag-gatherers and those who skin them, prepare and sell this oil.

The lamp which is of copper, or whited iron, consists of two pieces; in one of which is a kind of oval plate six inches long and two high, in which they put the oil and the cotton. The other part called the box, in which the lamp is inclosed, serves only to receive the oil, which boils over by the force of the fire.

A table of what height and size they think fit, serves to set the lamp on, or even three others, if four workmen have a mind to work together. Under the table, about the middle of its height, is a double pair of organ bellows, which one of the workmen moves up and down with his foot, to keep up the flame of the lamps, which is hereby excited to an almost inconceivable height of vehemence. Grooves made with a gauge in the upper part of the table, and covered with parchment, convey the wind of the bellows to the pipe, which is before each lamp, and which are of glass; and, that the enamellers may not be incommoded with the heat of the lamp, every pipe is covered at six inches distance, with a little tin-plate fixed into the table by a wooden handle.

When the works don't require a long blast, they only use a glass pipe, into which they blow with their mouth.

'Tis incredible to what a degree of delicacy and fineness, the threads of enamel may be drawn at the lamp. Those which are used in making false tufts of feathers are so fine, that they may be wound on a reel like silk or thread. The fictitious jet of all colours used in embroideries, are also made of enamel, and that with so much art, that every small piece hath it's hole to pass the silk through which the embroiderer's use: these holes are made in blowing them into long pieces, which they afterwards cut with a proper tool.

The Venetian or Dutch enamels are seldom used alone; they commonly melt them in an iron ladle, with an equal part of glass or crystal; when perfectly fused, 'tis drawn out into threads of different sizes, according to the nature of the work. They take it out of the ladle, while liquid, with two pieces of broken tobacco-pipes, which they extend from each other at arms length. If the thread is required still longer, then another workman holds one end, whilst he that works it holds it to the flame of the lamp.

These threads when cold are cut into what lengths the workmen thinks fit, but commonly from ten to twelve inches. As these threads are round, if they are required to be flat, they use for that purpose a pair of iron pincers; which they must do, while 'tis warm.

They have another kind of pincer with which they draw it at the lamp, when they are making figured and such-like works.

When the enameller is at work, he sits before his lamp, with his foot on the step that moves the bellows, and holding in his left-hand the work to be enamelled, or the brass or iron wires the figures are to be formed on, he directs with his right the enamel thread which he holds to the flame, with a management and patience equally admirable.

There are few things they can't make or represent with enamel, and some figures are as well finished as if done by the most skillful carvers.

ENAMEL in tablets or common inde, is a blue enamel, of a high colour, ground with indigo and starch, reduced to the consistence of paste, and formed into tablets with gum-water. This drug is seldom used but to mark sheep with, though there are some grocers and druggists dishonest enough to sell it for the true inde. To discover the fraud, 'tis sufficient to dissolve it in water; for the enamel of which this common inde is made, sinks to the bottom like sand, which it does not in the genuine.

ENAMEL is also a kind of blue mineral, reduced to powder, and purified by many lotions, used by the washers and laundresses to tinge their cloaths of a fine blue, which renders them agreeable to the eye, and more transparent.

This enamel is an ingredient in the blue starch; the best is

V O L. I.

said to be made in Holland. Grocers and druggists deal in it in Holland, these last only by retail.

ENAMEL signifies also a sort of potter's ware, or enamelled porcelain, very fine, and almost transparent.

They imitate it in some glass-houses, and it succeeds there very well.

To ENAMEL, is to lay the enamel upon metals, as gold, silver, copper, and to melt it at the fire; or to make divers curious works in it at a lamp. It signifies also to paint in enamel.

ENAMELLER, he who worketh in enamel. The goldsmiths and jewellers who set precious stones, lapidaries who counterfeit them in enamel, and painters who work in miniature on enamel at the fire, are comprised in the general term of enamellers; though, in France, in particular, they make a part, one of the goldsmiths, and the other of the master painters and carvers company of the city of Paris.

The enamellers, properly so called, in that nation, are those they call bead and button-makers in enamel.

These last have long composed one of the companies of arts and crafts of the city and suburbs of Paris, and still make part of that of the master glassmen and potters, to whom they have been united.

The edict of their erection into a sworn body is dated the 6th of July 1566, enrolled in parliament the 17th of the same month and year, and published at the Chatelet the 26th of August following.

'Twas given by Charles the IXth, and confirmed by letters patents of Henry III. dated April 1582, enrolled in parliament the 23d of May 1583, and again by Henry IV. in September 1599, who added some others to the twenty articles in the statutes of the first edict. There appears nothing of the enrollment in parliament of these last letters patents, which were only at the Chatelet the 6th of July 1600.

At length, on the respective petitions of the masters of that company, and of the master glassmen-potters, Lewis XIV. reunited them, that for the future they might be only one and the same body, without derogating either from their ancient statutes or their qualifications, both remaining to them in common.

The statutes of the edict of Charles IX. consist of twenty articles, and the augmentation granted by letters patents of Henry IV. of three others. By this edict, the masters have only the quality of bead and button-makers in enamel; these letters added to it glass and crystalline enamel-makers.

Four wardens, two of whom are renewed every year, are charged with the discipline of the body, with visitations, master-pieces of workmanship and trials, and with the reception of persons to the freedom, as also the affair of apprenticeships.

No master may be received, that hath not served his apprenticeship with masters in Paris, or some sworn city master at least.

The apprenticeship, even of masters sons, if they learn with any others but their father, must be five years eight days; after which, if the apprentice applies for his freedom, information must be had of his life, manners, and apprenticeship, before any master-piece of workmanship or trials be delivered to him.

Every master may bind but one apprentice at a time, but he may take a new one in the last year. A master's son holds not the place of apprentice with his father, but with a stranger.

Widows continuing such, enjoy the privileges of their craft, and may continue an apprentice bound, but not take a new one. And they, as well as masters daughters, make apprentices and journeymen free by marrying them.

Foreign merchandize is to be viewed by the wardens, who are to come as soon as advertised of it, on pain of damages and interests from the foreigners.

Masters of the company may make all sorts of bead-rolls, enamelled buttons, gilding on glass and enamel, ear-pendants, toys, and all other such-like works, with enamel, and crystal passing through the fire and furnace.

It belongs to them likewise to string all girdles, caskanets, chains, collars, bracelets, bead-rolls, and chaplets of the same materials and like workmanship, even to the enriching and ornamenting them with gold and silver; they are also permitted to sell, buy, and work, all glass wares, which depend on and arise in consequence of all the said works; without permission, however, to gild any works in horn and bone, these last belonging to the craft of those called bead-makers in horn and wood only.

Finally, all persons, dealers, and others, are prohibited to have any sort of enamel, or to keep peculiar sorts for sale, except master enamellers.

R E M A R K S.

The foundation of the art of enamelling, as well as that of imitating natural stones, depends not only upon a thorough knowledge of the properties of all natural glassy and crystalline bodies, but on the experimental knowledge of artificial glass-making; and not only on these, for without a competent discernment into the qualities of all mineral and metal-

line bodies, and all the changes which they are capable of undergoing by art, it is not possible that any enameller should arrive at that perfection his art will admit of.

There is one thing in particular that we will take leave to recommend to enamellers, that is, the vitrification of all mineral and metalline bodies; which will afford an extraordinary variety of very curious and permanent colours for their art. To which end they will find the proper application of antimony greatly to contribute, and more particularly it's sulphur auratum, as it is commonly called by the chemist. But, having spoken to this already, under the article ANTIMONY, the reader is desired to consult what has been there suggested.—Likewise, in order to judge what sort of colours the infinite diversity of middle minerals and margaritical bodies will admit of, a small proportion of them in powder may be melted with the fixed clarified salt of tartar, or nitre, and let run per deliquium, or be thrown into clear water.—Borax also will dissolve many mineral substances, and solar earth, and exhibit to what colours they are likely to administer in the art of enamelling, &c.

ENGLAND. In order to make a judgment of the commerce of England, we have under the article **BRITAIN**, or **GREAT-BRITAIN**, taken a survey thereof in the following lights. (1.) With regard to it's domestic traffic in general. (2.) With respect to it's connection with Scotland and Ireland. (3.) In relation to it's trade with her colonies and plantations in America [see the articles **BRITISH AMERICA**, and **COLONIES**]. And (4.) With regard to the balance of trade, both general and particular, with other states and empires. See the article **BALANCE OF TRADE**.

At present we shall consider the commerce of England in other lights. And (1.) Let us take a succinct view of it's sea coasts and navigable rivers; and how nature, from the situation thereof, has furnished this part of Great-Britain with every advantage to enable her to carry on foreign traffic, to a degree of extent no way inferior to any part of the known world.

(1.) We shall begin at the mouth of the river Thames on the Essex side, and go north to Berwick upon Tweed. (2.) We shall begin again at the mouth of the Thames on the Kentish side, and going south to the South Foreland and Dungeness, then turning west to the Land's-end in Cornwall, and the isles of Scilly. (3.) We shall begin at the mouth of the Severn sea, and coast from thence to the south-west point of Wales, called St. David's.

With respect to the first of these considerations.

The Naze and the North Foreland make the mouth of the Thames, the distance about sixty miles. From the Naze on the Essex shore, the first town is Harwich, distant about five miles. The chief business of this town, in queen Anne's war, depended on the grand ferry between England and Holland, and the coming in and going out of the packet-boats. But since that time sloops have been set up, which run directly from the river to Holland, &c. and take off great numbers of passengers, the town hath diminished in advantages of this kind. This town, however, enjoys a tolerable maritime trade, has a market every Tuesday and Friday, and two annual fairs, one on May-day, the other on the 28th of October. The harbour is of great extent, the river Stower from Manningtree, and the river Ousel from Ipswich, empty themselves here; and the channels of both empty themselves here, and the channels of both are large and deep, and safe for all weathers; and, where they join, they make a large bay or road, able to receive the biggest ships of war, and the greatest number, perhaps, that ever were seen together. In the Dutch war, great use was made of this harbour; there have been 100 sail of men of war with their attendants, and between 3 and 400 sail of colliers, all riding in it at a time, with great safety and convenience. Here is a yard and launch for building and repairing ships of war. It has a good fort, and so situated as to oblige vessels to pass close under it's cannon. Opposite to the fort, on the south side of the mouth of the harbour, and on an high hill, stands a large and high built light-house, for the direction of mariners.

Between the Naze and this place, they find the copperstone [see **COPPERAS**] in great quantities; and, here and at Walton, are several considerable copperas works.

From Harwich, the shore of Suffolk extends north-east to Aldborough, and then due north to the town of Great Yarmouth, and to those famous shoals, which they call Yarmouth Roads: there are some creeks and harbours for small vessels between them, as at Woodbridge, Aldborough, Swale, &c. but not for ships of burden.

Yarmouth, besides all her other commerce to London, has the particular trade of exporting corn to Holland, more than any port of England besides, and the chief trade of exporting the woollen manufactures of cloth, kerseys, &c. from Leeds, Wakefield, Hallifax, and all the West Riding of Yorkshire; and also of lead and mill-stones from Derby and Nottinghamshire; which make a considerable trade there to Holland, Bremen, Hamburg, &c.

Yarmouth hath the finest market-place, and the best furnished with provisions, of any in the three kingdoms.—It has likewise the most spacious key or wharf in all Britain, or per-

haps in Europe, that at Seville in Spain only excepted: the ships here lie so close to one another, and with their bowsprits over the shore, that you may step from the shore into any of the ships directly, without going from one into another; and they lie in this manner so close, that one may walk over them as over a bridge, for sometimes a quarter of a mile or more together.

They have a fishing fair, which is kept here at Michaelmas for the catching of Herrings; during which season, all the fishing vessels from any other part of England are allowed to catch, bring in, and sell their fish, free of all toll or tax, as the burghers or freemen of the town are.

Norwich is a large and populous manufacturing city, situate on the river Yare, navigable to Yarmouth; and, as it is a place of considerable trade, adds to the commerce of Yarmouth, by receiving a great quantity of imported merchandizes from thence, by the navigation of the Yare: such as coal, wine, fish, oil, and other heavy goods.

The manufactures of this city of commerce are, generally speaking, sent to London, where their chiefest markets are; they are also exported at Yarmouth in considerable quantities; especially to Holland and the shores of Germany; likewise to Sweden, to Norway, and other parts of the Baltic and northern seas; and this adds also to the trade of Yarmouth.

Lynn-Regis and Boston, stand at the mouths of two large rivers, which are severally navigable far into the country; and that navigation gives those ports a considerable advantage in commerce, especially the first, which stand at the united mouth or entrance into the sea of several lesser rivers falling into one; by means whereof this port has an intercourse of trade even into the very heart of the kingdom, as high almost as to Northampton. Take the particulars in brief thus: the Great Ouse is the main river, into which all the rest flow: this river rises in Buckinghamshire, and, taking a long circuit north, runs by Buckingham, Stoney-Stratford, Newport-Pagnel, and Oulney, all of them large trading market-towns in the counties of Bucks and Bedford; thence it runs to Bedford, a large populous town, full of trade, where it begins to be navigable, and from thence passes through St Neots, Huntingdon, St Ives, Ely, Downham, and Lynn. In it's course the Ouse receives the Nyne from Northampton and Peterborough; and obtained an act of parliament to make it so to Fotheringay, Oundle, Thrapston, Wellingborough, and Northampton.—It receives likewise, the river Cam from Cambridge, and the Lesser Ouse from Thetford and Brandon in Norfolk, which is navigable for large barges.—It also receives the Mildenhall from Suffolk, which is navigable to St Edmundsbury.

By means of these rivers, Lynn commands the trade of all that inland part of England, which is comprized in the counties of Cambridge, Huntingdon, the north part of Bucks, all Bedford and Northampton, and the inland parts of Norfolk and Suffolk; all which counties are supplied, especially with coal and wine from Lynn, which is the greatest port of importation for these two articles of any place on all the eastern coast of England, from London to Berwick upon Tweed. In return for which, Lynn receives back all the corn which these counties yield for exportation, and is therefore, next to Hull, the greatest port for the exportation of corn.

A little west of Lynn are smaller navigable rivers, which carry some trade to the ports of Spalding and Wisbich, the navigation going some lengths within the country; by the first to Stamford, by the last to the isle of Ely.

North from hence, the shore offers nothing of moment 'till you come to the mouth of Humber, where lies the port of Grimsby, eminent chiefly for a good road for shipping, and which is to the Humber and towns on it, as the Downs are to the river of Thames, a safe riding for ships to wait for a fair wind to carry them out to sea.

The next place deserving our regard, is the port of Hull, whose town is the most noted and considerable place of trade in all this part of England. The trade between this port and London, especially for corn, lead, and butter; and the trade between this port and Holland for the like commodities, and for the cloth, kerseys, and other manufactures of Leeds, Hallifax, and other great and populous towns of West Yorkshire, is such, that they not only employ few ships, but fleets, consisting from 50 to 60 sail at a time, and, in time of war, it has been an 100 sail or more.

Newcastle upon Tyne, indeed, may contend with it; as Liverpool is now able to do, a place prodigiously increased in trade within a few years past, and daily increasing; whereas Hull does not seem to have advanced to the like degree, but certainly it is the principal port of trade in all this part of England.

What has contributed to the increase of the trade of Hull, is the great number of large navigable rivers, which make their influx into the sea near it, viz. by the Humber; by which Hull has a communication of commerce and navigation with a great part of England, especially with the inland parts, which have no foreign traffic by any other channel. These rivers are, (1.) The Ouse, navigable up to York, and thence near to Burroughbridge and Rippon. (2.) The Trent, with

the rivers Idle, Witham, Don, and Darwent; by the navigation of which, no inconsiderable trade is carried on to the towns of Bautry, Gainsborough, Newark, and the city of Lincoln, the towns of Nottingham and Derby, and even to the city of Lichfield; and all the heavy goods of these countries, such as lead from Derby and Nottinghamshire, iron wares from Sheffield, cheese from Warwick and Staffordshire, and even from Cheshire itself, are brought to this port, and from hence exported to Holland, Hamburg, and the Baltic, as also to France and Spain.

But what is also very considerable is, that by all these rivers such a prodigious quantity of corn is brought down out of these counties to Hull, as renders it, perhaps, the greatest port in England for exportation of corn, even sometimes exceeding London itself.

North from the Spurnhead is Burlington, or Bridlington, distant about ten leagues, famous for a bay, useful for its safety to the sailors and their shipping, in case of strong gales of wind and winter-storms from the north-north-west and north-east. This place is of late years become remarkable for a great corn-market. The head of land, which runs out far into the sea north of the town, is called by the sailors Flambro'head.

The next harbour north of Flambro' is called Robin Hood's-Bay, a good road for ships bound to the southward, but too open to the north-east. The next port is Whitby, a town remarkable for building the best and strongest ships for the coal trade, of any on this coast: they have a small haven with a good pier, for the repairs of which they obtained an act of parliament. The river being small, they have no great advantage by an inland trade; yet they ship off no small quantities of butter and corn for London, and sometimes for Holland: but their chief business is in shipping for the coal trade.

Here the coast falls north-west to the mouth of the Tees, but there is no trading town on the coast; Stockton, which is the port here, being two leagues up the river, which is capable of good ships at the entrance, but the current is so dangerous, that sometimes the ships are obliged to provide for their safety; the tide also flows the less up the river, so that there is no long navigation here, otherwise the Tees would be a fine river for trade. They abound with excellent salmon in this river, and they have a good trade for butter and bacon, but 'tis chiefly to London.

The next port is Sunderland, famous for the pit-coal trade. Were the harbour as good here as at some ports, so that large ships might go in and out with safety, the coal trade of this port would equal, if not exceed that of Newcastle: for not only great quantities of coal are found upon the banks of the river Wear, which comes into the sea here, but they are the best kind of coal, as those called Lumley coal, also divers others, which are greatly esteemed.

But the port of Sunderland is barred up, and the ships are obliged to take in their loading in the open road; which makes it so dangerous to the keelmen, that often they dare not venture off to the ships, and are frequently lost in the attempt. Wherefore the ships which load here, are generally smaller than those at Newcastle; they have, indeed, one advantage of the Newcastle people, that in case of contrary winds, as particularly a north-east, which, though fair when they are at sea, yet does not permit the ships at Newcastle to get out of the Tyne; whereas the ships at Sunderland, riding in the open sea, are ready to sail as soon as they can get their loading in: so that it has been known they have delivered their coals at London, and, beating up against the wind in their return, have got back to Sunderland, before the ships at Shields, which were laden at their coming away, had been able to get over the bar.

Sunderland, by means of the coal trade, has many years been a thriving town, very populous, has a great many ships belonging to the place, and abundance of able seamen, those of Sunderland being esteemed among the colliers, as some of the best in the country.

Within the mouth of the river Tyne, are the towns of North and South Shields. On the south side are great numbers of salt-works, which furnish not only the city of London, but all the towns and cities between this place and that metropolis; also all the counties which are furnished by means of the Thames and Medway to the westward and southward of London. These salt-works are said to consume no less than 100,000 chaldron of coals in a year.

On the side of North Shields, where the river making a bay, and the channel running near the shore, it makes also a deep and safe road for the laden colliers to lie in, when they want a wind to go over the bar, and here 3 or 400 sail of these ships are seen lying together.

Upon this river, about two leagues and half lies the town of Newcastle, to which these towns of South and North Shields, are like out-ports, as Gravesend is to London, or as Harwich to Ipswich. The river is large, the channel good and safe up to Newcastle, and the tide flows with a strong current to the town, and far beyond it; ships of any burden may come up to the key of the town, but the colliers generally take in their lading below, between Newcastle and Shields.—

The coal trade, which maintains this very large and populous town is a prodigy, and affords more permanent treasure and maritime power to the nation, than if we were possessed of some of the gold or silver mines in America.

From hence to Berwick, we have nothing considerable upon the coast, except some coal-wharfs and salt-works, and Holy-Island, which is occasionally a good harbour for our ships from Russia and the other northern parts, when contrary winds have taken them short in their way to London. This hath frequently proved of no little importance to our merchants ships.

Berwick is a good town but a mean port.—No ships that draw above twelve feet water can well trade there, neither is there any good riding in the offing near the bar, the shore being steep and rocky, the cliffs high; and, in case of a storm off sea, no relief but what is found in good anchors and cables.

We shall now take a view of the south and west coasts of England, as before intimated.

The first place remarkable on this shore is Sandwich, in a small bay called by its name, on the bank of the little river Stour, navigable as high as Fordwich. It is one of the Cinque Ports. See the article PORTS. It's haven admits of no ships of burden so as to come to it's key.—It's chief business consists of small shipping and malting.

Between this and the Foreland is Ramsgate, in the isle of Thanet, and is a member of the town and port of Sandwich. An act of parliament was lately passed, whereby it's harbour is like to be rendered capable of receiving 200 sail of shipping; and a new pier is erected, capable of resisting the most tempestuous weather.

From hence a high ridge of sand and beach secures the shore, and the Good-win-Sands, lying parallel with the land, make a tolerable safe road, which we call the Downs: and, though sometimes, upon mistakes of pilots or stress of weather, ships have been driven upon those sands and lost; yet, generally speaking, the Downs is esteemed a very good road, and the merchants ships to and from London, and to and from all the south and western parts of the world, usually stop here. Whence they take their departure for their voyages outward bound, and here they notify their arrival to their merchants, when they return homeward bound. See the article DOWNS. From this custom of the ships stopping here, and the great confluence of people, as well seamen as merchants, on these occasions, the modern town of Deal has increased to an extraordinary magnitude, and to be more rich, populous, and better built, than most of those in it's neighbourhood: this town was, within about half a century, no more than a trifling village, consisting of a few fishing huts, with which the people used to go off, and trade with the ships in the passage of the Downs. But such are ever the happy effects of trade and navigation, that it quite changes the face of the most savage and depopulated places, and renders them opulent, flourishing, and magnificent.

Folkstone and Hythe, two Cinque Ports, are also west or south-west of this at a small distance. From hence the shore makes a large bay, which is the coast of that smuggling country called Romney-Marsh, which has been so remarkable for the owling trade, or that of wool-running from England to France; a most pernicious traffic to this kingdom, but highly beneficial to that of France. See the article WOOL.

This marsh, which contains no less than 40 or 50,000 acres of fruitful land, is esteemed the richest pasture in England, and fattens vast flocks of sheep and black cattle, sent hither from all parts, and sold in the markets of London.

At the end of this level, south-west from Hythe, lies Dungeness, from whence the shore falling off, the coast lies east and west; and under the west side of this point is a safe road for ships, if, coming from the westward, they chance to be taken short with an easterly wind and cannot reach the Downs.

From hence we come to Rye, as the next place of any consideration. This is a fair situated and well built town, and by the addition of French refugees, which settled here at the time of their flight from France, is become pretty populous; and, were it not for the badness of their harbour, it would be a town of good trade. Yet this harbour was once capable of receiving the whole royal navy of England; though at present so choaked up with sand for want of a strong back water, that 'tis almost useless; which is said to be occasioned by reason the gentlemen in the country have inclosed the low grounds upon the river, and thereby prevented the tide from spreading itself upon the flood, which obstruct a due quantity of water coming in to make a strong ebb. Was this port fully restored to it's former goodness, it would certainly prove a great convenience to merchants shipping, in case of distress, either in going up or down the channel; there not being one good harbour, where any ships of burden can put in for safety between the Downs and Portsmouth, if the storm happens to make a lee-shore, as did in the case of his majesty king George I. when he returned from Holland in 1725-6.

The chief trade of this town is in hops, wool, timber, cannon, and cast iron of divers forms, which are cast at the iron works at Bakely and at Breed.—The mackarel and herrings, taken here in their season, are reckoned the best in their

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kind. The rest of the season they trowl for soles, plaife, turbut, brill, &c. which are carried every day to London.

A Little beyond Rye, we see the ruins of Winchelsea, once a good sea-port and flourishing city; but with it's trade it has lost all appearance of a city, which experience hath always shewn will be the case of all places whatsoever. The loss happened, indeed, by the sea forsaking it; for whereas they shew you the vaults, cellars, and warehouses, where the merchants goods used to lie, and the wharfs and cranes where they were landed, you now see the green marshes extended where once the ships might sail, and the very grass grows in the streets where they are paved.

West from this we have nothing of note but Hastings, a small town; and, though the chief of the Cinque Ports, yet of little consideration, having neither trade or harbour, fort or castle. Great sums of money have been expended to make this a good harbour, but tempestuous weather has hitherto obstructed it. London is supplied from hence with abundance of fish, which are taken upon this coast, and which, indeed, is the chief of their business.

'Till we come from hence to St Helens, Spithead, and Portsmouth, there is nothing remarkable, except some small towns on the coast, as Shoreham and Arundel, two places eminent for building of ships, hoys, and ketches; the first at Shoreham, the latter at Arundel: they are great builders of shipping, by reason of the prodigious quantities of large timber, which this part of England affords more plentifully near the sea than elsewhere.

Portsmouth is the next place considerable upon the sea-coast of England; in it's present flourishing condition it is a formidable place, especially by sea, though the fortifications on the land-side, are also very good. The situation is such both by land and water, that the whole kingdom does not afford the like for the protection of the royal navy. The entrance of the harbour is safe, but narrow, guarded on both sides by terrible batteries of guns, and those so numerous, and so well pointed from divers places, that, if it be defended with all desirable bravery and fidelity, it may be said to be almost impregnable to any fleet of ships, how strong soever.

Within this entrance the ships may ride three or four miles up the harbour, so as to be out of the reach of all batteries, cannon, or bombs. In regard to the strength of the town by land, there is a large horn-work on the south-side, running out towards South-Sea Castle: there is also a very good counter-scarp, a double mole, and ravelins to cover the curtains; besides various advanced works in every place where requisite; and double pallisades round the whole place.

The dock and ship-yard, which are to the north of the town, were before secured by the strength of the harbour, and by the town; but the late King William, not satisfied with that cover, ordered them to be particularly fortified, and new lines and bastions drawn round the whole place; which being done, the dock and ship-yards are now an additional strength, distinct from the town, and they mutually cover and strengthen each other; so that the dock and yards cannot be taken 'till the town is. The government has bought more ground, for additional works; and no doubt it may be rendered impregnable by land, as well as by sea, since a shallow water may be brought quite round it.

It is amazing to see the extraordinary quantities here of all sorts of military and naval stores, and the exact order in which every distinct tool is laid up, so that the workmen can find what they want in the dark. The rope-house is near a quarter of a mile in length. Some of the cables made here require 100 men to work them; and their labour is so hard, that they cannot work at them with any vigour above four hours a day. The least number of men employed continually in the yard is said to be 1000. The docks and ship-yards resemble a distinct town, there being particular rows of dwellings, built at the public expence, for all the principal officers; and they are under a separate government from the garrison. Here is also a fine key for laying up the cannon; the arsenal of Venice is not better disposed.

The town of Portsmouth is a large, populous, and opulent corporation, having grown so during the three last great wars; and the suburbs are become a kind of distinct town, and appear with a very prosperous aspect on the side of the London road.

From Portsmouth west the several inlets of water go almost every way, making divers creeks and harbours, wherein are safe riding for shipping, even of the greatest burden, as at Basington, Southampton, Rumsey, and other places.

Southampton was once a very flourishing town, in comparison to what it is at present. It has several privileges in trade, which London itself has not. Here is settled the trade between Jersey and Guernsey; and a large quantity of wool is exported from hence thither, for the use of the manufacture of these islands, which consists chiefly in the knitting of worsted hose, which they send to England for sale. Here were also a great many merchants who traded to Newfoundland, which rendered this place, as it were, the general mart of England for the purchase and sale of these fish: but the town of Pool has at present, the principal share of that trade, and the exchange of London hath engrossed the mercantile correspondence.

This town has likewise been eminent for the building of good ships, and some are built there still, the sea flowing up to the very walls of the town. Here also is carried on the wine-trade, and too much of the French brandy-trade by smuggling, though that of late years is greatly abated.

The Isle of Wight offers nothing material, except the road of St Helens, at the east end of it, where the royal navy usually makes it's rendezvous in time of war with France, or any of the powers of Europe which lie to the south or west. It is a good road in case of storms from the south-west, or from the north-west, but otherwise not judged so good by experienced mariners; which is an inducement to run the royal shipping up to Spithead, and the merchants shipping to Cowes, on the north side of the Isle of Wight.

Lymington, in Hampshire, is a small but populous sea-port, on a hill that has a fine prospect of the Isle of Wight, in the narrow part of the Straights called the Needles, at the entrance of the bay of Southampton. Considerable quantities of salt are made here, which is said to exceed most in England for preserving flesh; and the south parts of the kingdom are chiefly supplied with it from hence. The sea is not above a mile from the town. Here is a key, with customhouse officers attending.

West from Lymington, distant about 16 miles, lies the town of Pool, a port of good trade, abounding with merchants of honour and worth, and especially engaged in the fishing-trade of Newfoundland, which, as before observed, has been, in some measure, removed from Southampton hither. The town is well peopled, and has a very good harbour for ships.

The isle, or rather peninsula of Purbeck, which incloses the west and south parts of this bay, is esteemed the most southerly land of Great-Britain. From the north part of the Isle of Purbeck the land draws in a little to Weymouth, a small town and port lying in the bottom of a bay behind Portland.

Upon the south point of the island of Portland two light-houses are erected; which have proved importantly preserving of our shipping and seamen. This island seems to be one solid rock of free-stone; and it is from hence that we fetch most of the fine white stone used in several of the public buildings in the city of London, which comes cheap by reason of the sea-carriage.

On the north side of the island, and opposite to Weymouth, is a small but strong castle, built of Portland stone, where a garrison is constantly kept, to command the road. The town of Weymouth has also a small harbour, and has been some time a populous and flourishing town, has many reputable merchants, and a pretty large number of ships belonging to them. They also build pretty good ships here. They have a share of the Newfoundland fishing trade here.—They have good fishing also for fresh fish, which they carry away by horses that run day and night with them, to Bath and Bristol. They have some share too in the wine-trade.

Lime is a town of good trade, has very good ships belonging to it; and the merchants are more particularly engaged in the pilchard fishing at home, and the Newfoundland fishing abroad; both which are profitable trades.

There is an ancient and artificial mote made here, which they call the Cobb; and it serves the merchants very well instead of a harbour.

From Lime we meet with no town of consideration till we come to Dartmouth, except that of the city of Exeter; yet, as this lies up the river Exe, or Ica, beyond the navigation of ships, it does not fall immediately under our sea-coast description: but under it's county of DEVONSHIRE we have minutely described it's commerce: something, however, may be necessary to be said at present. Though it has not the conveniency of a harbour for great ships quite up to the town, yet their trade is very considerable; Topham, lying at the distance of four miles, is their port, and they bring all their heavy goods up in lighters to the city. They trade directly to Holland, France, and most other nations, but chiefly to Holland for their serges: to London their trade is so large, that, by a moderate computation, they cannot trade for so little as 800,000 l. a year; many have reckoned it considerably more.

The river Exe, indeed, is now so well cleared, and the channel so deepened, that the smaller ships, which used to come up no farther than Topham, come now quite up to the city, to the great ease and encouragement of our merchants there.

From the mouth of the river Exe to Torbay, the shore is full of villages, but has nothing remarkable. About five miles west from Berry-Point is Dartmouth town and harbour, being situated on the mouth of the river Dart, a river of a long course and deep channel, and which makes an excellent harbour at this place, able to receive a royal navy.—The entrance, indeed, is narrow, but the channel is good; and it is commanded by a castle, so placed at the mouth of the river, that nothing can pass but under the very muzzle of it's cannon. The town has a large key, is very populous, and the merchants here do not want business, being seated, as it were, in the centre of the pilchard-fishing, which is no inconsiderable branch of trade, and which they conduct much to the advantage both of themselves and the kingdom. They also

also trade largely with France, Portugal, and to the Mediterranean; and several very good ships belong to the town: nor is their trade to Newfoundland inconsiderable. And, indeed, in all the towns on this coast, beginning at Southampton, and reaching to the Land's-End, and even, after that, into the Severn Sea (the Welsh as well as the English sides) there are abundance of wealthy and skilful merchants who trade independent of London, having two particular trades, which they manage with great success, exclusive of their ordinary correspondence: these are, in general, the pilchard and herring-fisheries, as well as the Newfoundland. They likewise traffick largely in the ferges and manufactures of Exeter, and other parts of Devonshire; also in copper and tin, the latter of which is so plentifully found in the mines of Cornwall, and some in Devonshire, and to little purpose any where else in England. The trade is much the same at Plymouth as at Dartmouth, and is the next port on this shore, and the most considerable in this part of England. It is a large, populous town, situate to very great advantage, both for commerce and for war. It is placed on a point of land, between two as good harbours as any in Britain, and is able to receive into either of them the whole royal navy.

This is a town of great importance for it's situation: for upon the edge of the water, between the two harbours, stands the citadel, which commands them both, and is itself very strong, but is made stronger by a castle just opposite to it, in a small island called St Nicholas's Island.—This castle commands the whole harbour and sound.—The town lies on the side of this harbour, called Catwater, where the key is, the ships being able to come up close to the town; and no ships are so large but they may, with safety, come and remain there. Here lie the men of war; and here, in the time of the late king William, as was done at Portsmouth, the government built ship-yards and docks, with storehouses and dwelling-houses, proper for the officers attending, being for the laying up, and fitting out such men of war as should have their appointed station here. In consequence of the concourse of people resorting hither on such occasions as the fleet make necessary, a large town has been erected, which has done some injury, doubtless, to that of Plymouth.

The town of Plymouth, however, as it is a large, populous, and wealthy town, will always preserve itself in good condition, while it's spacious road and safe harbour is so general a receptacle of all the fleets of merchants ships which come in from Spain, Italy, and the West-Indies, who generally make it the first port for refreshment which they put in at: nor can the town at the yards and docks on the river Tamar ever interfere with this port.

West of Plymouth lies the Lizard, about 18 leagues; the coast full of deep bay, and many very good harbours, as Eastlow, Fowy, and Falmouth; the last, in particular, famous for it's being, except Milford-Haven in South Wales, the greatest and best inlet or gulph from the sea in Great Britain, as well for the receiving ships for trade, as for sheltering them from storms. It is so commodious a harbour, that ships of the greatest burden come up to it's key.—There is such shelter in the harbour and creeks, that the whole royal navy may ride safe here in any wind. The town is well built, and is mightily increased since the establishment of the packet-boats here from Spain and Portugal, and the West-Indies; which not only bring over large quantities of gold in specie, and in bars, on account of the merchants of London, but the Falmouth merchants trade with the Portuguese in ships of their own; and they have also no inconsiderable share in the gainful trade of pilchard fishing.—The custom-house for most of the Cornish towns, as well as the head collector, is settled here, where the duties, including those of the other ports, are very considerable: this contributes to increase the business of the town.

Beyond this is nothing of moment but Pensance, which is west of the Lizard; and this is remarkable chiefly for the shipping off tin for the London market, which creates a pretty large business in the town. Besides this branch of trade, they have a prodigious advantage arising from the pilchard-fishery, and they are, in general, reckoned to have one of the best fish-markets in England. They have a pier, or key, running pretty far out into the bay, against which vessels unload, and lie afloat, at low water.

We are now come to the Land's End of England west, and have nothing to observe further but the isles of Scilly, which have proved very fatal to our merchants ships in their return from the southward and westward.

These fatal effects having proceeded from mariners not being so well acquainted as could be wished with the situation of the Lizard Point, and the islands of Scilly, what the learned Dr Halley has remarked hereon may well deserve attention, for the benefit of our navigation. In regard to which the doctor observes, that they are laid down in former charts too far northerly.

* The Lizard-Point, says he, by undoubted observation, lies in lat. 49 degrees 55 minutes, whereas, in most charts and books of navigation, that point of land, and the islands of Scilly, lying east and west of each other, are laid down to the northward of 50 degrees, and, in some, full 50 de-

grees 10 minutes. Nor was this without a good effect, so long as the variation continued easterly, as it was when these charts were made.' The doctor then proceeds to lay down rules for masters of ships to go by, coming into the Channel, relating to the course they should steer to keep their parallel, which, as they vary with the variation, are made permanent, by reducing his particular to these general rules following:

* But, since the variation is become considerably westerly (as it has been ever since the year 1657) all ships standing in out of the ocean, east by the compass, get the variation to the northward of their true course, and thereby alter their latitude to the northward, in about half a day's sailing, very considerably; so that, if they miss having an observation for two or three days, at coming into the Channel, and do not allow for this variation westward, they fail not to fall greatly to the northward of their expectation, especially if they reckon Scilly in, or above, 50 degrees; and, by this means, ships are often exposed to the danger of running up the Bristol Channel (not knowing their latitude) or fall in with the rocks of Scilly, and are lost.

* Some have attributed these accidents to the indraught of St George's Channel, by the tide of flood being supposed to set more to the northward than is compensated by the ebb setting out; but, the variation being allowed for, it hath been found that the said draught is insensible. It is, therefore, recommended to all masters of ships, coming into the Channel, that they steer on a course as much to the southward of the east as the variation, at any time, is westerly, which will exactly keep their parallel; and also, that they come out of the ocean on a parallel, not more northerly than 49 degrees 40 minutes, which will bring them fair by the Lizard.'

But, under the article of SCILLY ISLANDS, we shall be more minute, full, and explicit, in regard to a matter that so nearly concerns the lives of our British seamen.

We shall therefore, at present, only observe, that several of these islands, like the county of Cornwall, afford tin, and also some lead and copper; the tin is discoverable by the banks next the sea, where the marks of the ore, in some places, are visible upon the surface.

On the north side of these islands opens the Bristol Channel, which is called, by our geographers, the Severn Sea. The south shore of this channel is the north coast of the counties of Cornwall and Devon. Here are but few ports, but they are places of good trade, occasioned, (1.) By the large correspondence of those counties with Ireland and Wales, which is carried on from that side of the counties, by reason of the shores being opposite, and which occasions that Minehead and Barnstaple are two of the ports appointed by act of parliament for the importation of wool from Ireland. (2.) By reason of the herring-fishery, that lies within this sea, where the merchants, even of the south shore of Cornwall and Devon, employ a great number of vessels and people to take and cure them. These are cured after a different manner from the other herrings, viz. by pressing, which they call packing in this country. Here, also, they have the rock-salt, brought from the river Mersee in Lancashire, and which they dissolve first in sea-water, thereby making a brine of four-fold strength, which they then boil up into a new salt, equal to that called salt upon salt, which the Dutch boast so much of for the cure of their herrings. See the article SALT.

The chief ports on this coast are St Ives, a small but prosperous trading town, having a good port and a bay; where, this being otherwise a hazardous coast, ships frequently put in for shelter in great distress, and are secured from danger.

East from hence is neither port nor harbour 'till we come to the mouth of the river Allan, which, having a wide and deep channel, makes a good haven at the town of Padstow. This river, coming from the east part of the country, first runs south-west, but, turning short, and joining other streams, makes a large river, and goes north for the Severn Sea; the effect of which makes, as it were, a pass into the western part of this county, and, if well guarded, keeps all passing from England shut up, into the west of Cornwall.

East from Hartland Point lie the towns of Biddeford and Barnstaple: they are reckoned twin-ports, the rivers going into the sea by one and the same mouth, though, before that they are distinct rivers, and both navigable. The port, in general, is very good, and, even separately considered, ships of very good burden go up to either of the two towns, which are well built and populous. The key at Biddeford is the most spacious, and of the greatest extent of the two, of any in all the west or south part of England.

Opposite to this port, something to the west, lies the Isle of Lundy, well known for the road on the north side of it, which is very good, and where ships often ride for a wind in their passage out from Bristol, and other ports in this channel.

To the eastward is Minehead, a sea-port of good trade, and which has an excellent harbour, though without a river. It is a clean, well built town; and, being one of the ports limited by act of parliament for the landing of wool from Ireland, it has, by consequence, a constant correspondence with

that kingdom, though the landing of wool, as we have seen, is allowed in other ports also.

Hence the shore bears away east, to the mouth of the river Ivel, or Bridgewater River, and then goes north to the mouth of the Avon, which is called Bristol River. Bridgewater, though a port lying seven miles from the sea, and has but a small river, yet has some tolerable trade: they import coals from Swanzev in Wales, which is but a short passage over the mouth of the Severn. They also bring their heavy goods by sea from Bristol, it being too long a voyage to make it worth their while to bring them from London.

Here are three several rivers, which fall together into the sea at one mouth: the channel is deep and good, though not broad. There is an artificial navigation to the town of Taunton, which carrying on a large manufacture, though not near so great as formerly, have all their coals, and many other goods, brought up this canal.

As the mouth of the Avon, on which the city of Bristol is situated, lies north of the Start-Point, which is the mouth of the Bridgewater River; so the city of Bristol lies within the land, about the like distance; with this difference, that the Avon is a very large, deep, and safe channel, able to carry ships of the greatest burden even into the very streets of Bristol; for their key is in the heart of the city. The city of Bristol, esteemed for it's trade the second in England, lies in the bottom of that great gulph called the Severn Sea, and which is, on that account, named the Bristol Channel. It is a large, populous, and wealthy city. The merchants here have not only a very extensive foreign trade, but they trade with less dependency on London than any other town in Britain; it is evident, in this respect, that, whatsoever exportations they make to any part of the world, they are able to bring the full returns to their own port, and can dispose of them there. This is not the case of any other port in England, except Liverpool; but they are often obliged either to ship part of their effects in the ports abroad, on the ships bound for London, or to consign their own ships to London, in order as well to get freight, as to dispose of their own cargoes. But the Bristol merchants, as they have a very great trade abroad, so they have always buyers at home for their returns, and such buyers that no cargo is too big for them; to this end the Bristol shop-keepers, who, in the general, are wholesale dealers, have so great an inland trade among all the western counties, that they maintain carriers, as the London tradesmen do, to all the principal counties and towns from Southampton in the south, even to the banks of the Trent north; for, though they have no navigable river that way, yet they drive a very great trade through all those counties.

By the river Wyfe and the Severn they have, also, the whole trade of South Wales, as it were, to themselves, and a great part of North Wales. Their trade to Ireland, likewise, hath greatly increased within half a century.

Going round the isle of Anglesey in North Wales, the land falls off east to the mouth of the river Dee, which leads to the antient city of Chester.

Chester is a large fine city, well built, and full of wealthy inhabitants. Nor is it's trade inconsiderable; for, by it's neighbourhood to the Severn and to Ireland, the traders there have a very good business, as may be seen by the great fair held here annually, to which abundance of tradesmen and merchants resort from all parts, more particularly from Bristol and from Dublin.

We no sooner pass Chester-Water by sea north, but you are in sight of Liverpool-Water, or the river Mersee, open upon the right; and, though that river is not near so large as the river Dee, no not including the Wever, another river which falls into the same mouth, yet the opening, at least as high as Liverpool, is infinitely before it; for hither ships of any burden, with their full loading, may come up, and ride just before the town.

This is the most flourishing town in all this part of England, increased prodigiously within a few years, and still daily increases; inasmuch that it is said to be more than four, if not five times as large as it was in the beginning of the late king James's reign. The inhabitants are universally merchants, and very skilful and judicious traders in general; and, in spite of their situation, they trade considerably to all the northern parts of the world, even to Hamburg, Norway, and the Baltic: they trade, also, to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. As for their trade to the English colonies in America, to Guinea, and to Ireland, they not only rival the city of Bristol, but begin to go beyond her in several articles.

The wet dock is the only thing of it's kind in Britain, London excepted, and is a notable work, of great expence, but fully answering the end, and accommodating the town in all the essential parts of maritime business, for the laying up and fitting out their ships, which, before, was both difficult and hazardous.

There is a navigation farther up the Mersee, and that for ships of burden too, near to the town of Warrington, and also up the fourth channel, which they call the river Wever, (1.) For rock-salt, which is dug out of the earth in Lancashire and Cheshire, which is shipped off here in large quantities,

and carried not only into Devonshire and Somersetshire, and even to Bristol, but round to several parts in the south of England, particularly to London, Colchester, and to other places. This salt is dissolved in sea-water, then boiled up again into a stronger and finer salt, and is then as good as that strong salt called salt upon salt, which the Dutch make of the St Ubes salt, and with which they cure their herrings. (2.) They also ship off great quantities of Cheshire cheese, and lead, manufactured from the ore with pit-coal in Flintshire.

The most authentic account we have of the foreign, coasting, and Irish trade of Liverpool, is as follows:

A list of the company of merchants trading to Africa, established by an act of parliament, passed in the 23d year of king George II. intituled, An act for extending and improving the trade to Africa, belonging to Liverpool, June 24, 1752.

Armitage, Robert	Hesketh, Robert
Atherton, John	Hughes, Richard
Ahton, John	Hardwar, Henry
Bostock, John	Higgison, William
Bulkely, William	Hallhead, Robert
Blundell, Jonathan	Hughes, John, Capt.
Backhouse, John	Kendall, Thomas
Blundell, Bryan	Knight, John
Blundell, Richard	Leatherbarrow, Thomas
Blackburn, John	Laidler, George
Bradley, George	Lee, Pierce
Brooks, John	Lowndes, Edward
Benfon, William	Lowndes, Charles
Ball, Thomas	Mears, Thomas
Bridge, Edward	Manesty, Joseph
Blundell, William	Nicholas, Richard
Brooks, Joseph	Nicholson, John
Brooks, Jonathan	Ogden, Samuel
Bird, Joseph	Ogden, Edmund
Crowder, Thomas	Oldham, Isaac
Croftie, James	Okill, John
Cunliffe, Foster	Pritchard, Owen
Cunliffe, Ellis	Parr, John
Cunliffe, Robert	Parr, Edward
Campbell, George	Pardoe, James
Clay, Robert	Penket, William
Craven, Charles	Pole, William
Clayton, John	Parker, John
Crompton, John	Rowe, William
Clews, George	Reed, Samuel
Chalmar, Thomas	Strong, Matthew
Davis, Joseph	Shaw, Samuel
Deane, Edward	Savage, Richard
Dobb, William	Seel, Thomas
Dunbar, Thomas	Strong, John
Earl, Ralph	Smith, Samuel
Eddie, David	Seel, Robert
Ellams, Elliot	Smith, Robert, Broad-Street,
Forbes, Edward	London
Farmer, Joseph	Tarleton, John
Ford, Richard	Townsend, Henry
Fletcher, Potter	Townsend, Richard
Gildart, Richard	Trafford, Edward
Goodwin, William	Tarleton, John
Goore, Charles	Unsworth, Levinus
Gorrell, John	Williamson, William
Gildart, James	Whytell, Christopher
Gordon, James	Whalley, William
Goodwin, John	White, Henry, Lancaster
Hardman, John	Williamson, John
Heywood, Arthur	
Heywood, Benjamin	Total 101.

N. B. There are 135 merchants free of the African company in London, and 157 in Bristol, whereas their trade to Africa is not so extensive as the merchants of Liverpool.

A list of the vessels trading from Liverpool to the coast of Africa; with their commanders and owners names, what part of the coast each ship goes to, and for what number of slaves. December, 1752.

	Slaves
Africa, ——— Hallison, Cenin, John Welsh and co.	250
Antigua Merchant, Robert Thomas, Angola, James Gildart and company	200
Annabella, William Harrison, Wind. and Gold Coast, W. Dobb and company	260
Anglesea, James Caruthers, Wind. and Gold Coast, Tim. Farrar and company	380
Alice Galley, Richard Jackson, Wind. and Gold Coast, Robert Cheshire and company	350
	Anne

	Slaves.
Anne Galley, Nehemiah Holland, Callabar, William Whalley and company	340
Adlington, Thomas Perkin, Wind. and Gold Coast, J. Manesty and company	320
African, John Newton, Wind. and Gold Coast, J. Manesty and company	250
Allen, James Strangeways, Wind. and Gold Coast, John Brooks and company	250
Achilles, Thomas Patrick, Hen: Hardwar and co. Barbadoes Merchant, John Wilfon, Angola, G. Campbell and company	450
Betty, Samuel Sacheverell, John Robinson	500
Blake, Alexander Torbet, Callabar, Jo. Bird and co.	100
Boyne, William Wilkinfon, Bonny, Ed. Forbes and co.	460
Beverley, William Lowe, Angola, Ed. Lowndes and co.	400
Brooke, Thomas Kewly, Old-Callabar, Roger Brooks and company	200
Barclay, John Gadfon, Old Callabar, John Welsh and company	400
Bulkeley, Christopher Baitfon, Wind. and Gold Coast, Foster Cunliffe, fons and company	450
Britannia, James Pemberton, ditto, Thomas Leatherbarrow and company	350
Bridget, Hayston, Wind. and Gold Coast, Foster Cunliffe, fons and company	300
Chesterfield, Patrick Black, Old Callabar, William Whalley and company	250
Clayton (taken by pirates, and retaken by a Portuguese man of war) J. Clayton and company	440
Cumberland, John Griffin, Gambia, Edward Deane and company	440
Charming Nancy, Th. Roberts, Wind. and Gold Coast, W. Davenport and company	260
Cavendish, Robert Jennings, Wind. and Gold Coast, Rd. Nicholas and company	170
Cecilia, Rd. Younge, Gambia, Fr. Green and co.	170
Duke of Cumberland, John Crosbie, Bonny, James Crosbie and company	120
Dolphin, Joseph Pederick, Wind. and Gold Coast, Ed. Forbes and company	450
Enterprize, Samuel Greenhow, Gambia (missing) John Yates and company	200
Elijah, Wind. and Gold Coast, Ed. Lowndes and company	130
Elizabeth, William Hayes, Gambia, Samuel Shaw and company	200
Ellis and Robert, R. Jackson, Wind. and Gold Coast, F. Cunliffe, fons and company	200
Eaton, John Hughes, Angola, John Okill and co. (wood and teeth)	320
Fanny, William Jenkinson, Wind. and Gold Coast, John Knight and company	450
Florimel, Samuel Linnekar, Callabar, Richard Townfend and company	120
Frodham, James Powell, Angola, Nich. Torr and co.	320
Fortune, Hugh Williams, Bonny, Henry Townfend and company	450
Foster, Edward Cropper, Benin, Foster Cunliffe, fons and company	480
Ferret, Joseph Welch, Wind. Coast, &c. John Welch and company	200
George, Charles Cooke, Angola, G. Campbell and company	50
Gracc, Old Callabar, Edward Forbes and company	250
Greyhound, Wind. and Gold Coast, Rd. Savage and company	400
Hefketh, James Thomfon, New Callabar, Richard Nicholas and company	120
Heftor, Brook Kellfal, New Callabar, Wm Gregfon and company	260
Hardman, Joseph Yoward, Wind. and Gold Coast, Joseph Hardman and company	480
Jenny, Thomas Darbyshire, Wind. and Gold Coast, John Knight and company	300
Judith, Nich. Southworth, Bonny, John Welch and co.	450
James, John Sacheverill, Wind. and Gold Coast, Ja. Gildart	350
Knight, Wm Boates, Wind. and Gold Coast, John Knight and company	120
Lintott, Ralph Lowe, New Callabar, Richard Nicholas and company	400
Lord Strange, Edward Smith, Benin, Wm Halliday and company	400
Lovely Betty, Geo. Jackson, Wind. and Gold Coast, Geo. Campbell and company	230
Little Billy, Thomas Dickenfon, Wind. and Gold Coast, John Knight and company	140
Mersey, John Gee, Benin, John Kennion and co.	60
Middleham, John Welch, Old Callabar, Richard Gildart and fons	300
Methwen, John Copple, Wind. and Gold Coast, Ja. Crosbie and company	320
	280

	Slaves.
Minerva, Thomas Jordan, Gambia, James Pardoe and company	400
Mercury, John Walker, Wind. and Gold Coast, Kenmion and Holme	100
Molly, Richard Rigby, Wind. and Gold Coast, Richard Golding and company	320
Neptune, Thomas Thompfon, Old Callabar, Joseph and Jona. Brooks and company	450
Nelly, John Simmons, Old Callabar, William Williamfon and company	320
Nancy, John Honeyford, Bonny, Thomas Kendall and company	400
Nancy, Robert Hewin, Bonny, Pet. Holme and co.	400
Nancy, Thomas Midgeley, Gambia, Knight, Mairs and company	300
Orrel, James Griffin, Gambia, William Whalley and company	120
Ormond, Succes, Angola, William Williamfon and company	300
Pardoe, Wind. and Gold Coast, James Pardoe and company	240
Priscilla, William Parkinfon, Angola, John Welch and company	350
Phoebe, W. Lawfon, Wind. and Gold Coast, Arth. and Ben. Heywood and company	280
Prince William, John Valentine, Angola, Richard Gildart and fons	200
Rider, Michael Ruth, Angola, Richard Gildart and fons	300
Ranger, James Sanders, Wind. and Gold Coast, William Farington and company	300
Sterling Castle, Charles Gardner, Bonny, John Backhouse and company	300
Sarah, Alexander Lawfon, Bonny, Thomas Crowder and company	550
Salisbury, Thomas Marsden, Old Callabar, Robert Armitage and company	350
Samuel and Nancy, James Lowe, Wind. and Gold Coast, Richard Savage and company	220
Swan, Peter Leay, Bonny, John Tarlton and company	400
Sammy and Biddy, R. Grayfon, Windward Coast, &c. Jon. Blundell and company	120
Schemer, Robert Grimshaw, Windward Coast, &c. T. Chalmers and company	120
Stronge, Thomas Cubbin, Bonny, Matthew and John Stronge and company	300
Tarlton, James Thompfon, Bonny, John Tarlton and company	340
Triton, Charles Jenkinson, Bonny, Levinus Unsworth and company	240
Thomas, James Hutchinson, Gambia, George Campbell and company	200
True Blue, Benjamin Wade, Benin, John Chefhyre and company	300
Thomas and Martha, J. Gillman, Wind. and Gold Coast, G. Campbell and company	200
Vigilant, Wm Freeman, Wind. and Gold Coast, (missing) J. Bridge and company	160
Union, Tim. Anyon, Wind and Gold Coast, James Pardoe and company	350
William and Betty, Thomas Barclay, Angola, Samuel Shaw and company	400

A list of vessels employed in the West-India and American trade, &c. belonging to Liverpool, with their present commanders and owners names.

Alice and Betty, Richard Hutchinson, Antigua, Christopher Bailey and co.
Aaron, Samuel Woodward, Montferat, William Williamfon and co.
Anfon, Will. Pemberton, Jamaica, Joseph Manesty and co.
Auffin, Mat. Holme, South Carolina, John Knight and co.
Allerton, James Wallace, Virginia, John Hardman and co.
Antigua Packet, J. Cavish, Antigua, Tho. Falkner and co.
Brownbill, James Neale, Montferat, Tho. Brownbill and co.
Barbadoes Packet, Arthur Harding, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
Betty and Peggy, Philip Nagle, Antigua, Foster Cunliffe and fons.
Betty, Geo. Drinkwater, St Christophers, Wm Williamfon and co.
Baldwin, Geo. Matthews, Jamaica, Charles Lowndes and co.
Cunliffe, Jo. Cleater, Maryland, Foster Cunliffe and fons.
Charming Peggy, Virginia, Robert Seel.
Carter, Sam. Lea, Antigua, Foster Cunliffe, fons and co.
Cesar, Joseph Wayles, Antigua, Richard Nicholas and co.
Cato, Charles Slater, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
Charles, Tho. Nunns, North Carolina, Joseph Davies and co.
Choctank, Edward Barnes, Maryland, Ed. Lowndes and co.
Catherine, J. Matthews, South Carolina, Jo. Manesty and co.
Deane, Christopher Betagh, New York, Edward Forbes.
Draper, Tho. Benn, St Christophers, John Backhouse and co. Expedition,

Expedition, William Campbell, North Carolina, John Campbell and co.
 Elizabeth, Nath. Sayers, New London, Geo. Campbell and co.
 Eagle, William Coppell, Montferat, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Everton, Thomas Kelly, Virginia, Charles Goore.
 Elizabeth, Jonath. Howard, Montferat, John Tarlton and co.
 Entwile, John Smith, John Entwile.
 Esther, Gilbert Rigby, Montferat, John Hardman and co.
 Edward, John Murdock, America, Timothy Farrar and co.
 Earl of Chester, Fr. Lowdes, Lowndes and co.
 Fanny, James Brown, St Christopher, John Tarlton and co.
 Good Intent, Richard Rimmer, Nova Scotia, Peter Meddows and co.
 Granville, Ja. Leffely, North Carolina, Geo. Campbell and co.
 Greyhound, Isaac Wakely, Barbadoes, John Knight and co.
 Golden Lion, J. Metcalfe, Greenland, Cha. Goore and co.
 Gildart, George Sweeting, Virginia, James Gildart and co.
 George, Jo. Arthur, Philadelphia, G. Campbell.
 Grampus, Job Lewis, Carolina, James Pardoe.
 Hillary, Timothy Wheelwright, Jamaica, Rd Hillary and co.
 Hopewell, Francis Bare, Jamaica, John Kennion and co.
 Happy Return, James Waugh, Antigua, George Campbell.
 Hotherfall, Tho. Bruce, St Christophers, W. Leconby and co.
 Happy, James Barrow, St Christophers, John Crompton and co.
 Hopewell, Alexander Caterwood, Newbury, James Pardoe.
 Jenny, John Quay, St Christophers, W. Williamson and co.
 Isaac, John Mac'Neale, Barbadoes, Isaac Oldham and co.
 Jonathan, James Nottingham, North Carolina, Bryan Blundell and co.
 James Galley, Ja. Walling, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
 Jenny, John Scorfield, St Christophers, Tho. Molyneux and co.
 Kingston, John Jump, St Christophers, Charles Goore.
 Lamb, James Kennedy, Barbadoes, Steel Perkins and co.
 Lucy, Nich. Boulton, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
 Lloyd, Samuel Venables, Virginia, James Gildart.
 Liverpool Merchant, Samuel Matthews, Maryland, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Monmouth, Henry Twentyman, Virginia, John Backhouse.
 Melling, J. Matthews, Philadelphia, Morris Melling and co.
 Mercury, ----- Hutton, Jamaica, Richard Cribb and co.
 Mary Anne, John Quay, St Christophers, Harrison, Barton, and co.
 Molly, John Stanton, Jamaica, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Merry Mack, Edward Fryer, G. Campbell and co.
 Nanny, Elliot Cooke, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
 Nassau, John Gawith, Virginia, James Gildart.
 Nancy, John Foster, Tortola, Thomas Falkner and co.
 Neptune, George Johnston, Virginia, Thomas Dunbarr.
 Polly, James Clements, Jamaica, Nich. Torr and co.
 Parkside, James Foley, Jamaica, John Knight and co.
 Preston, James Simpson, Jamaica, Richard Savage and co.
 Pemberton, -----, Jamaica, Bryan Blundell and co.
 Prince of Wales, Robert Gordon, Barbadoes, Arthur and Benjamin Heywood.
 Prospect, Richard Hutchinson, Barbadoes, John Prat and co.
 Providence, -----, South Carolina W. Halliday and co.
 Providence, Joseph Taylor, Nevis, Bryan Blundell and co.
 Panther, Leonard Benson, Antigua, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Prefcot, Bryan Smith, Jamaica, Francis Watts and co.
 Phoenix, Samuel Kelly, Virginia, Samuel Smith.
 Prince, Richard Overton, Montferat, John Crompton and co.
 Prince of Orange, Constantine Hodson, Maryland, Foster Cunliffe, sons and co.
 Prince Edward, -----, Nevis, Bryan Blundell and co.
 Penelope, John Chubbard, Leghorn and Naples, James Pardoe.
 Recovery, Jonath. Slade, Philadelphia, John Okill and co.
 Recovery, John Robinfon, Antigua, William Spencer and co.
 Rice, ----- Middleton, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
 Robert, Peter Kennedy, Antigua, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Recovery, W. Robinfon, Jamaica, Joseph Manesty and co.
 Rofs, -----, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
 Richard, J. Platt, St Christophers, W. Williamson and co.
 Radbourne, Tho. Ward, Virginia, John Backhouse and co.
 Spencer, Robert Whitlow, Jamaica, William Spencer and co.
 Shawe, James Bennet, Antigua, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 Sufannah, Will. Day, Barbadoes, George Campbell and co.
 Speedwell, John Thorton, Virginia, Charles Goore.
 Tryton, Robert Boyd, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
 Tyger, Gawin Burrows, Jamaica, Jof. and Jonath, Brooks.
 Telemachus, T. Feartlough, South Carolina, Potter Fletcher.
 Trafford, Tho. Goodaker, Maryland, Edward Trafford.
 Tryal, Peter Johnson, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
 Tryal, Pat. Harold, Tortola, Collins and Hartley.
 Vine, Robert Makin, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
 Volunteer, Tho. Naylor, Jamaica, Will. Barker and co.
 Upton, John Gardiner, Maryland, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 William, W. Nobler, Maryland, John Goodwin and son.
 Windsor, -----, Maryland, Edward Trafford.
 Wheel of Fortune, Thomas Middleton, Montferat, Foster Cunliffe and sons.
 William and Robert, Ja. Chambers, Virginia, J. Bird and co.
 William and Nancy, W. Settle, Maryland, G. Bradley and co.
 Warten, Robert Loxham, Virginia, James Crobie.

A list of vessels that commonly take freight from Liverpool, for different parts of Europe.

Ann, Pat. Stronge.
 Adventure, Stephen Reed.
 Ball, David Guthrie.
 Clare, David Welch.
 Concord, John Barrow.
 Duke of Cumberland, Jof. Houfton.
 Diana, James Hurft.
 Diana, Wilfred Inman.
 Dorothy, Robert Moifter.
 Elizabeth, Alex. Jolly.
 Endeavour, W. Cooke.
 Happy Chance, J. Boggs.
 Hope, Benjamin Kirby.
 John and Thomas, Thomas Rymer.
 Isaac and Barbara, Ant. Piper.
 Ifabella, Henry Hinde.
 Jennet, John Gardner.
 Jane, Anthony Cocks.
 Kirkham, James Shaw.
 Marquis of Rockingham, W. Briggs.
 Princes of Wales, J. Kingfton.
 Parker, John Harrison.
 Stadtholder, John Johnson.
 Sufannah, Robert Durham.
 Sarah and Martha, Robert Atkinson.
 Tryal, Richard Newton.
 Two Brothers, J. Clements.
 Unity, Abraham Williams.

Veffels from Liverpool in the coafting and Irifh trade, &c.
 [Frequently take freight for different parts of Europe.]

Abigail, J. Mac'loughlane, Manchester, Rand. Mac-Donald.
 Annabella, A. Drumgold.
 Argyle, J. Mac'Targot.
 Bidfton, Chrif. Hindley.
 Betty and Peggy, W. More.
 Betty, Robert Wallace.
 Betty and Peggy, J. Marten.
 Boyne, James Lampart.
 Betty and Peggy, Am. Sharp.
 Bank-key, John Abram.
 Betty, Thomas Ward.
 Charming Molly, Nicholas Shimmins.
 Charming Jenny, G. Geddas.
 Catherine, John Hamilton.
 Dublin Trader, G. Hartwell.
 Dean Swift, Dan. Stringer.
 Dorcas, Gawan Hamilton.
 Draper, Robert Moor.
 Drogheda Merch. J. Hays.
 Duke, Thomas Deaz.
 Dreadnought, ----- Barnes.
 Devonfhire, John Janny.
 Ellen, Daniel Graham.
 Endeavour, Richard Barry.
 Elizabeth and Anne, William Midgeley.
 Experiment, Walter Young.
 Ellinor, -----
 Friendship, Alex. Robb.
 Fair Play, Charles Griffin.
 Gwydier, Chrif. Rofhall.
 Game Cock, James Neale.
 George and William, John Crocket.
 Hibernia, And. Moreton.
 Hawke, Hugh Cuning.
 Hopewell, James Shuter.
 Henry, Francis Ellis.
 John, William Wefton.
 Induftry, Richard Kenyon.
 John and Alice, William Jackfon.
 John, Matthew Johnson.
 John and Robert, J. Semple.
 John and Thomas, Thomas Johnson.
 Induftry, John Moor.
 Judith, William Semple.
 Jolly Cooper, J. Robinfon.
 Jane, James Heflep.
 Lamb, William Carliffe.
 Liverpool, Sam. Rimmer.
 Lamb, Peter Wright.
 Molly, John Moor.
 Mary Ann, Jofeph Furlong.
 Morning Star, Sol. Hog.
 Mary Jane, James Cofollo.
 Martha and Mary, Thomas Howel.
 Manchester, Rand. Mac-Donald.
 Martin, Thomas Prief.
 Martha, Tho. MacKewn.
 Margaret, Sam. Dawfon.
 Medicot, Michael Chevers.
 Martin, Jofeph Maynard.
 Mawberry, And. Millar.
 Mary, Bart. Murray.
 Margaret, John Atkinson.
 Newton, John Cartwright.
 Nancy, Chrif. Baker.
 Newry Trader, Archibald MacDonald.
 Nathaniel, Parr, Withers.
 New Draper, Edw. Semple.
 Nancy, Robert Stevenfon.
 Owners Endeavour, James Stevenfon.
 Prince William, J. Chifolm.
 Ponfonby, Rob. Linnekar.
 Phoenix, Robert Johnson.
 Prosperity, James Doyle.
 Prince William, James Clindinen.
 Prince of Orange, Archibald MacCombe.
 Prince Edward, -----
 Prosperity, John Wilfon.
 Prince William, Robert Mac'Makin.
 Peggy, William Jackfon.
 Peter, Peter Swainfon.
 Royal Oak, J. Thompson.
 Robert and David, Hugh Mac-Nabb.
 Rofs, George Duncan.
 Resolution, J. Warburton.
 Recovery, William Jackfon.
 Stanhope, Murdock Mac-Ever.
 Succes, Charles Lace.
 Sugar-houfe, R. Hughes.
 Salford, John Andrews.
 Speedwell, Nath. Allen.
 Sea-flower, Jofeph Pugmore.
 Sankey, -----
 Sally and Betty, Richard Hutchinfon.
 True Love, Robert Miller.
 Thomas and Nancy, John Brooks.
 Vernon, John Burrowdale.
 William, James Ward.
 William and Betty, William Quirk.
 Worthington, Sam. Lang.
 William and Sarah, Adam Weer.
 Warrington, J. Sherwin.
 Veffels from Liverpool in the London and cheefe trade.
 Alexander, Edw. Howard.
 Diligence, Row. Hunter.
 Deacon, William Taylor.
 Elizabeth, Cha. Howard.
 Elizabeth and Rebecca, Jof. Deane.
 Edward and Mary, John Littler.
 Friendship, Sam. Hunter.
 Halfey, Thomas Harrison.

Salmon, Henry Ashton. William, William Vinor.
Trout, John Urmsen.

N. B. There are upwards of eighty river sloops employed in the salt trade, &c. burthen from forty to seventy tons; and many coasters that trade to Liverpool constantly (not here inserted) belonging to different ports.

For the inland trade of Liverpool, see the article LANCA-SHIRE.

From this port we have no other moment upon the coast, till we come to Whitehaven in Cumberland; which is, in particular, very eminent for the coal trade, great quantities being constantly shipped off here for Ireland; insomuch that in times of war here are sometimes fleets of ships, containing 150 or 200 sail at a time, loaden with pit-coal, and bound for Dublin and other parts of Ireland. This trade alone makes Whitehaven not only populous, but wealthy also, and the adjacent country is by that means much improved, a great number of people being always maintained, both by land and sea, in this considerable branch of trade. But the foreign commerce of this port to America, and other parts, is greatly advanced within these thirty years, and is daily increasing.

From hence to Solway Firth, which parts England and Scotland, we see nothing material upon the coast. The city of Carlisle is, indeed, a sea-port, but has very little trade.

R E M A R K S.

From this short survey of the coast and sea-ports of England, and it's situation in regard to maritime commerce, we may make a tolerable judgment how far nature seems to have contributed to render it a wealthy and powerful trading nation. But, when we consider the union of England with Wales and Scotland, and also the dependency of Ireland on this kingdom, as likewise her colonies and plantations in America, it must greatly exalt our idea of the advantages which England hath, and yet may derive from being so happily circumstanced by constitution, as well as situated by nature.

In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the English began to trade to the East-Indies and to Turkey: and, by the help of the Netherlanders who fled hither for shelter, the manufacture for bays and serges was established in England. See the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

This wise princess also greatly improved the coin, and rendered the naval force of England considerable, in order to protect and advance her commercial interests. Her jealousy of supporting a superiority at sea for this important purpose was such, that, although she gave the Hollanders all the assistance she could against the Spaniards, they were not suffered to build ships of war. For want of guarding against which in the two succeeding reigns, the Dutch became very formidable by sea, and disputed the dominion thereof with Cromwell and Charles II.

This renowned princess likewise promoted the navigation and commerce of her subjects, opened a passage for them into both the Indies, and excited that spirit which afterwards induced us to make settlements in the most distant parts of the globe; and, by a wise and happy conjunction of our labours both here and at home, at once extended our wealth and our prowess, without the diminution of our people; contrary to this the effects of plantations made then by other countries, which have suffered at home by aggrandizing themselves abroad; whereas our power at home is constantly augmented, in proportion to the advantages derived from our settlements abroad: and to this circulation of our commerce it is in reality owing, that our strength is so much greater, our lands so much more valuable, and our wealth so much increased, as it is since that time; which has enabled us to keep pace in power with other our neighbouring nations, who must long since have swallowed us up, had our commercial interests been neglected, in proportion as they have pursued theirs.

Some people have made a distinction between the interests and the commerce of Great-Britain, but this seems to be a distinction without a difference; for the interest and the commerce of Great-Britain are so inseparably united, that they may well be considered as one and the same. For commerce is that tie, by which the several, and even the most distant parts of this empire, are connected and kept together, so as to be rendered parts of the same whole, and to receive not only constant protection, but nourishment from the vital parts of our government.

Whatever, therefore, promotes and extends our commerce, is consistent with our true interests, and whatever weakens it is repugnant thereto. Considering things in this light, we may derive from thence a just notion of the solid and permanent advantage of Great-Britain, with relation to the other powers of Europe; and, by this criterion, be ever able to judge, when the real interests of the kingdom are pursued, when they are neglected and abandoned.

If it be true, that the safety of Great-Britain depends, chiefly, on her being mistress of the seas, and that the trade of Britain has never flourished so much, or it's glory been so far extended, as in those reigns when it's naval strength was prin-

tipally attended to; it follows, that this ought, at all times, to be the grand point in view.

To give some assistance on the continent, when the liberties of Europe are threatened, is undoubtedly right, provided there be such an alliance formed, as is likely to check and frustrate the designs of an ambitious potentate; but it has been the opinion of many considerate men, that going into land wars ought, as much as possible, to be avoided by Great-Britain; because, as her strength is thereby divided, her naval power must be diminished.

At it has, moreover, been found, by dear bought experience, that dominions cost more to get and keep than they are worth, nothing, but the preservation of the balance of our power, can induce Britain to intermeddle at any time upon the continent. When this is really in danger, and strong confederacies are formed for it's support, the weight of Great-Britain thrown into the scale may have glorious consequences; but, if other powers cannot see, or will not heartily oppose this danger which concerns them more immediately, it seems the wisest way for this kingdom to save her blood and her treasure, and to provide, by augmenting her natural maritime strength, which we have seen her coasts will admit of, against the worst.

Supposing that, by the supineity or insatiation of other powers on the continent, some one prince should arrive at universal monarchy, is it not probable that he would have business enough upon his hands, to support himself in his new conquests? If this were not the case, and he should form any design upon this island, it would require many years to get such a fleet together, as could look that of Britain in the face? And in the mean time, by his death, or many other accidents, might not the posture of affairs upon the continent be entirely changed? To suppose further, what can scarce ever happen, but by her own ill conduct, that the superiority at sea was lost, as the invading so populous an island, whose inhabitants are naturally brave, would be dangerous and very expensive; and there is no instance in history of it's being ever conquered, except the people were at variance amongst themselves, it may be justly presumed, that the conquest of Britain would, even then, be very difficult.

With regard to Germany, Poland, and other states, which have no maritime force, Great-Britain has nothing to fear. On the contrary, 'tis for their interest to be upon good terms with her, who may, by causing a diversion on some occasions in their favour, be of good service to them.

It is of importance for the Portuguese to be on good terms with this nation, not only because of the great consumption of her produce, but because she is capable of assisting them greatly, in case of a war with Spain. On the other side, as her trade to Portugal, if preserved upon the footing of the treaty of commerce made by Sir Paul Methuen, will continue as it has done, advantageous, and therefore her breaking with that power would be impolitic. But, if the Portuguese change their system, and in any respect violate or supersede that treaty, Britain would be under the necessity of retaliating upon them, and supplying herself with the produce, which she at present takes from that kingdom; the practicability of which I shall endeavour to demonstrate in it's place.

The naval force of Spain bears no proportion to that of Britain; yet, while the consumption of British commodities is great, both in New and Old Spain, it is for our interest to continue in amity with that nation: besides, no ports are more convenient for annoying the English trade by privateers, than those of Spain. But, if the court of Madrid change their plan of policy, and virtually render null and ineffectual all treaties of commerce that have long subsisted between England and Spain, we shall doubtless be under the necessity also of changing our commercial measures, in order to render all their schemes of trade abortive, which may prove detrimental to these kingdoms: and, how far we really have that in our power, we shall labour to evince in the sequel of this work.

Our affairs with the crown of Spain have been long in a perplexed situation, notwithstanding it is generally thought the Spanish ministers have such true notions of the interest of their own nation, as to be persuaded, that nothing concerns them more than to live upon good terms with Great-Britain. It is our interest likewise, without question, to live in a perfect correspondence with that court; and, therefore, no pains ought to be spared that are requisite to remove all jealousies and discontents on both sides.

It was hoped, that this would have been effectually done by the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle; but it seems that the necessity of restoring the tranquillity of Europe, made it eligible to conclude that treaty, without adjusting the differences between the British and Spanish courts, which were left to a particular negotiation; that we are yet to expect an absolute conclusion of the most essential part of this important business: which, as it has proceeded slowly, we have good ground to apprehend, will, when it is brought to a determination, settle the terms of correspondence to the mutual satisfaction of both nations.

Delays are very disagreeable in all points of national concern, more especially so in points of great consequence, such as this undoubtedly is, both to us and to the Spaniards. Yet after

all, if, by bearing with these delays, things can be adjusted, so as to leave no grounds for future disputes; instead of patching up expedient agreements to serve a present turn, which never afford content to either party, and are seldom long observed, we shall have good cause to excuse those delays, and to be well pleased with the final issue of them.

In the mean time, we have the satisfaction of knowing, that at length the system of expedients is exploded; for, if there had been the least intention of returning to that sort of practice, we might doubtless have had something of that kind long ago. It was certainly better to treat with clearness and dignity, to explain and go to the bottom of grievances on both sides, that both old and fresh wounds might be thoroughly healed, and not skinned over, that our ministers may have a full, explicit, and well concerted treaty for their guide, upon which the subjects of both crowns may rely, without any doubts as to the sense of the remaining articles, or any fears of their not being punctually executed.

R E M A R K S.

We waited for this well-grounded and conclusive adjustment of affairs between Great-Britain and Spain, 'till the last war broke out between England and France; and instead of matters being settled between us and Spain, they joined France against us, as was repeatedly suspected throughout this work, would have been the case. This junction of Spain with France, cost them the loss of the Havannah, and in consequence thereof, the absolute cession of Florida to Great-Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA.

Notwithstanding that France is near three times as large as Great-Britain, her maritime force could never yet come in absolute competition with that of England: which is, perhaps, in a great measure, owing to the number of troops kept up in France, for supporting arbitrary power, and garrisoning an extensive frontier. While so many hands are thus employed, and no innovation takes place in the constitution of that kingdom, which might greatly augment it's maritime power, we shall be able to deal with them; and especially so, if we can stir up a constant jealousy betwixt France and the neighbouring powers, and prevent, if it can be done with safety to ourselves, all further acquisitions of the French in the Low Countries; for, if France should apply herself to the improving her marine, some ports there would be very serviceable for that purpose: and, if this was not done, Britain might, by being in possession of them, lose the trade carried on into, and through Flanders.

Certain it is, that let whatever public measures be carrying on in France at this conjuncture (and, perhaps, only to blind the eyes of the rest of Europe), yet 'tis certain they do not lose sight of the great point of advancing their maritime power. For the wisest heads in that kingdom, amidst all their pretended confusion, which may probably terminate to our high disadvantage, are using their utmost efforts to establish, if possible, a naval power, equal, if not superior to others, in order to ravish from us our commerce, and one day to strike a blow that may be fatal to these kingdoms.

Ought not this, therefore, to put us upon our guard; ought it not to rouse and animate us to make use, in time, of those advantages, which, by the favour of the happy situation of our coasts, we at present possess, that the like spirit should steadily take place in this kingdom, as hath been raising in France ever since the conclusion of the late peace. For, since that period, there is not a port in France where they are capable of ship building, but more or less have been put upon the stocks; others also built in America, and many of our own ships employed in the late war purchased by them, and every magazine in the kingdom filled with naval stores. To what end can these preparations be made in times of peace? Do we not well know, that the French in the late war experienced their royal navy was not able to stand in competition with ours; and, therefore, from the day of the peace of Aix la Chapelle being concluded, they have most assuredly been increasing their marine, in order to obtain that superiority by sea, which they found themselves deficient in during the late war. If, by exposing the measures of this rival nation in their true light, I can any way contribute to the inspiring my countrymen with a generous resolution to support their trade, to maintain their reputation in maritime affairs, and to keep a vigilant eye over the ambitious and restless views of this haughty neighbour, my end will be fully answered; but, whether I am so fortunate or not, it will be some consolation to me that I have done my duty; that I have shewn, and shall more effectually shew, from facts incontestable, the danger our trade is really in, the causes of that danger, and the remedies which ought to be timely applied to prevent it.

Whoever hath done me the honour to attend to the series of facts I have already candidly laid before the public in this elaborate work, to evince the exquisite policy of France, in regard to their commercial and maritime interests, can never believe that our fears are groundless and imaginary: and what may serve as additional proof that they are not so, is the state of the negotiations between us and France since the peace; for I believe it will be difficult to shew, that, in one instance,

they have hitherto acted honourably by this nation, and manifested any cordial and sincere intentions to render the pacification solid and permanent on their side, though the court of London has done every thing on their part towards that salutary end.

An inveterate hatred, or a perpetual opposition to France, is a maxim that was never laid down by any wise English statesman, and ought never to be received and countenanced. In queen Elizabeth's time we assisted the present reigning family, and medals were struck with the arms of England, France, and Holland, as powers whose interests were thoroughly united, and at that time they were so; and our regard for the French was as well founded then, as that which we testify for the house of Austria is now.

The cause that we are humbly ambitious to support, is the cause of our trade and of our liberties: I am persuaded that this nation hath no innate, hereditary, and groundless aversion to the French nation; for, were their ministers as upright and sincere in their treaties and negotiations, as the people in general are ingenious, industrious, honourable, wise, and politic, both nations might pursue the peaceful arts of commerce, and make the subjects of both contribute to the reciprocal prosperity and happiness of each other: they might, perhaps, so conduct their systems of policy, as not so much to interfere with each other in their concerns of trade as they at present do; for this creates jealousies and heart-burnings between the two nations, and 'tis to be feared ever will do so, while this is the case. But, whenever their statesmen shall abandon that plan, which they have so many years steadily pursued, and which is dangerous and destructive, in it's nature, even to themselves as well as others, they will infallibly disarm us; they will extinguish that animosity, which their boundless ambition, and not our obstinacy or perverseness, has excited.

There have been, within the memory of the present generation, certain seasons, in which the French ministers either really or seemingly laid aside these schemes, and affected to act upon other principles, that very soon produced an alteration in the conduct of other powers towards them, which fully justifies this observation; and, therefore their politicians have no just grounds for imputing to the fierceness of our manners, or an hereditary hatred towards their country, that alacrity we have shewn in entering into all alliances against them, but ought rather to ascribe it to that rectitude of judgment, which is natural to a free people, and which will always appear amongst us, as long as we continue free.

Although the northern powers are not to be dreaded by Britain, it is for her interest to support the balance of power betwixt them; because, if any one was master of the Baltic, he might obstruct her trade there, and in the end vie with the naval force of this nation.

The land force of Holland being greatly inferior, and the marine not equal to that of England, 'tis not likely the Dutch should break with Great-Britain. On the other side, as the Hollanders are rivals to this kingdom by sea and in trade, the conduct of queen Elizabeth, who constantly supported that republic, yet took care to prevent it's becoming too formidable by sea, seems the wisest measures that can be pursued by Britain: for the falling of the United Provinces, into other hands, might prove a terrible blow to the Protestant religion, and in the end destructive of the commerce of Great-Britain.

The balance in Italy is judged to concern us more remotely, notwithstanding which, we have hitherto shewn a just and laudable regard to that likewise; and, indeed, distance in this respect is of little consequence, more especially to a maritime power. Our commerce in the Mediterranean, and in the Levant, is of very high importance; and we cannot but be sensible, that whatever alterations have been felt in the Italian balance, have also affected those branches of our commerce in a very sensible degree; so that whatever steps we have taken, either during the continuance of peace by negotiations, or in time of war, by supporting the only prince in Italy, who declared for the common cause, and was true to his own interests, which were likewise ours, were certainly right and just measures, and have no doubt left those impressions, which will never be obliterated by any arts or intrigues. Whether the affair of Corsica may not deserve the regard of this nation in particular, is submitted to consideration; and, whether a certain unfortunate nobleman, who was crowned king of that island, might not be instrumental to prevent those people from coming under the dominion of the house of Bourbon in any shape whatever, may possibly merit the regard of the maritime powers before it is too late. The injuries our merchants are liable to from the insults offered to the nation by the corsairs of Barbary, will not allow us to doubt, that it is our true interest to keep the Italian states firmly united to us; that, when occasion requires, they may afford us all the conveniences in their power towards chastising these barbarians, as our using vigorous measures in such cases, and sending a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, will contribute more to keep them in awe, and make us respected by the Italian potentates, as well as to obtain justice from these piratical governments; which is scarce to be expected from mild and temporary measures.

The many alterations that happen daily in the world, afford and will always afford, sufficient reasons for exerting ourselves, not without hazard and expence, in favour of some or other of our allies; which, however, must be done, and done with spirit and cheerfulness, if we will remain a free, a great, and a respectable people. It is in vain to hope to maintain our character by a selfish and surly, or by a lukewarm and inactive behaviour; if we reason ever so little with ourselves, we may be satisfied of this; if we consult history, history will convince us; if we have recourse to experience, experience will read us the same lecture.

Neither ought we to consider what we do as any burthen or inconvenience, since it arises from the rank and figure we make in the world, from those connections which have been the fruit of our significancy, and by which that is upheld and secured. In short, when we succour our neighbours, we do it from a principle of justice to ourselves; we flourish chiefly from the commerce that we have with them; and, having thus a stake in their welfare, it is really consulting our own interest, when we fulfil those preservative engagements that were entered into, on account of that stake; and therefore, instead of repining that we are obliged to it, we ought to rejoice that it is in our power, and shew by our alacrity, how much it is in our will.

These are the general principles of British policy, deduced from our past transactions; which, after having been often deliberately and solemnly examined in the wisest and greatest assemblies in this nation, have received repeated, as well as public sanctions; so that, if private men err in adopting them, it will be very difficult to establish other maxims which are attended with clearer evidence, and supported by better authority.

In order the better to judge of the true interest of these kingdoms in regard to its trade, and where the ballance really lies with all nations, we refer to the articles BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, and BRITISH AMERICA, and so such other heads also as are there intimated.

R E M A R K.

The foregoing observations being drawn up just after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and prognosticating what has since happened by the last war, we think it of some utility to let them remain unaltered, that posterity may the better judge from time to time of the conduct of England and France, and other powers, towards each other. And it is observable that, indeed, whatever we prejudged to be the consequence of the measures taken by France in NORTH-AMERICA, and the alarms we received there soon after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, has come to pass: and this judgment we made was formed from a vigilant attention to the drift and tenour of their whole conduct. And they must acknowledge, that it has been wholly owing to their restless and insidious politics to distress and injure this nation, that they have at length obliged us to extirpate them from all CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES, and possessed ourselves of CAPRE BRETON, to awe them for the future in this part of the world. From the same principle of future security to the southern parts of our continental colonies, we have annexed Florida to the crown of England, and obtain St Augustin, Pensacola, and Mobile, and the freedom of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See AMERICA.

Of the monies of England, both real and imaginary, with relation to practical trade.

Accounts are kept in London, the metropolis of England, and throughout the British dominions, in pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings: 4 farthings they reckon equal to one penny, 12 pence to a shilling, and 20 shillings to a pound. The money of this kingdom, as well as that of most others in Europe, is imaginary as well as real. By the imaginary is meant all the denominations which are made use of to express any sum of money, which is not the just value of any real species of copper, silver, gold, or any other metal; as a pound, a mark, an angel, a noble, &c. these being all imaginary, because there are no such species at this time current; a pound being the value of 20 s. a mark 13 s. 4 d. an angel 10 s. a noble 6 s. 8 d.—Real money is any real species, or pieces of money, current in payment at a certain rate, as a guinea, a crown, a shilling, &c. *

* We should not be so minute in these things, was it not for the satisfaction of foreigners, who have encouraged this work as much as our natives.

The copper monies current in England are, a farthing and an halfpenny; two of the former being equal to one of the latter.—The silver monies are, those valued at a penny, two-pence, three-pence, four-pence, six-pence, and twelve-pence, or one shilling; a piece at 2 s. 6 d. called half a crown, and a piece at 5 s. called a crown-piece.—This silver coin is of the standard of 11 oz. 2 dwts. Troy, fine, called sterling. The gold coin is of 22 carats fine, which is the standard thereof. The species hereof are, a piece called a guinea, valued at 21 s. an half-guinea, at 10 s. 6 d. a quarter-guinea,

valued at 5 s. 3 d. The quarter-guineas were only coined in the reign of king George I. and were so few, that they are rarely to be met with but in the cabinets of the curious. The silver pence, two-pence, three-pence, and groats, are not so uncommon as the quarter-guineas.

R E M A R K.

As there are variety of useful questions relating to the weight, fineness, and valuation of gold and silver, which may be resolved by knowing the proportions they bear to each other, I would refer the reader to our articles of BULLION, COIN, GOLD, and SILVER.

Of the weights of ENGLAND, and it's dependencies.

The most common used throughout the kingdom are the Troy and the averdupoise weight. The Troy is divided as follows, 24 grains = to a penny-weight, 20 penny-weights = an ounce, and 12 ounces = a pound. These weights are used for bread, gold, silver, and medicines.—Eight pounds Troy is a gallon, 16 lb. a peck, and 64 lb. a bushel; where-by weight and measure are reduced into each other.

Wet measure is also derived from this pound Troy, both on land and on ship-board, as also grain and corn, as before; for these 12 ounces, made into a concave measure, is called a pint; eight of these pints make a gallon (containing 231 cubical inches) of wine, brandy, cyder, &c. according to the standard of the English Exchequer: whence is drawn the excise-measure of all vendible casks: a hoghead is to contain 63 gallons, a tierce 42 gallons, a pipe 126 gallons, and a ton 252 gallons, and weighs 1890 lb. avoirdupoise, or 2016 lb. Troy.

Of the refiners weights in England.

These are still a part of the Troy, the least of which is a blank, 24 of which make a periot, 20 periot a mite, 20 mites a grain, &c. and what they denominate carats, are the $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a pound, an ounce, or any other weight. See the articles ALLAY, ASSAY, GOLD, SILVER, REFINING.

Of the jewellers weights in England.

Those used in the weighing of jewels, and other precious stones, are the parts of an ounce Troy: they divide that ounce into 152 parts, which are called carats; these carats are again subdivided into grains, or $\frac{1}{4}$ quarters, and into $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{32}$, $\frac{1}{64}$, &c. parts. See the article DIAMOND.

Of the avoirdupoise weight.

In this weight we reckon 16 drachms = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = 1 pound, 28 pounds = 1 quarter of an hundred weight, or of 112 lb. and 20 hundred weight = 1 ton weight.

This weight is used for all gross goods, such as sugar, hemp, flax, butter, cheese, &c. of which there are three quintals, viz. (1.) Of a 100 lb. by which sugars, &c. are bought and sold in the English settlements in America. (2.) Of 112 lb. by which all gross goods are weighed throughout England. (3.) 120 lb. called the stannary hundred, by which tin, &c. is weighed to the king's farmers. Wool is commonly bought by the tod.—7 lb. avoirdupoise = 1 clove, 14 lb. = a stone, 28 lb. = tod, 182 lb. = a wey, 364 lb. = a feck, 430 lb. = a last; i. e. 2 cloves = 1 stone, 2 stone = a tod, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ tods = a wey, 2 weys = 1 sack, and 12 sacks = a last: but, when it is stapled or sorted, it is sold by the pack, containing 6 score, or 120 lb. Lead is sold by the fodder, and a load = 175 lb.

A fodder at London = 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ C. wt.	} 112 lb. to the C. wt.
at Newcastle = 21	
at Stockton = 22	
at Hull = 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ C. stannary wt. of 120 lb. to the C.	

From this pound avoirdupoise of 16 ounces, there are formed other weights; a stone of 7 lb. 8 lb. 14 lb. 16 lb. 20 lb. and sometimes, a clove of 7 lb. 8 lb. and 10 lb. and sometimes, a tod of 20 lb. 28 lb. 32 lb. &c.

Raw silk from Persia and Turkey is sold by this pound, but a pound = 24 ounces, or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

Gun-powder, 100 lb. avoirdupoise = a barrel, 24 barrels = a last.

Of freighting of ships. The term ton used upon this occasion, signifies 2000 lb. weight; when it is said that a ship is so many tons burden, it is to be understood that it carries so many times 2000 lb. weight.—These tons, however, are different, according to the nature of the goods.—By weight they generally allow 2000 lb. avoirdupoise, but for bulky goods they make some abatement of the weight.—By measure, there is generally allowed to the ton two pipes or butts of wine, so many pieces of brandy, so many barrels of herrings, so many butts of oil, &c. for barrelled goods, and sometimes by the C. wt.—But for bale goods, boxes and cases, &c. they generally reckon 40 cubical feet to the ton. In Holland and the northern countries they reckon their freight by lasts, which are two English tons, or 4000 lb. weight; and all contracts are made at so much per last.

Measures for linen, silk, woollen, &c.

Those most in use throughout the kingdom of England are of three kinds, viz. (1.) The yard, which contains 16 nails, or 36 inches; and by this yard all sorts of woollen cloths, wrought silks, many kinds of linens, tape, &c. are measured and sold. (2.) The English ell, containing 20 nails, or 45 inches; and this is of use chiefly in measuring those linens called hollands. (3.) The Flemish ell, for measuring tapestry, containing 12 nails, or 27 inches.

Of fuel.

These, according to the statute, are coals and wood.—Of coals, 36 bushels = 1 chaldron, and, on shipboard, 21 chaldron = to a score, and 112 lb. avoirdupoise = an hundred weight, 8 chaldron at Newcastle = about 15 at London.

Wood fuel is assized into shids, billets, faggots, fall wood, and cord wood. A shid is to be 4 feet long, and, according as they are marked and notched, their proportion must be in the girth; viz. if they have but one notch, the must be 16 inches in the girth; if 2 notches, 23 inches; if 3 notches, 28 inches; if 4 notches, 33 inches; and, if 5 notches, 38 inches about.—Billets are to be 3 feet long, of which there should be three sorts, viz. a fingle, a cask, and a cask of two; the first is 7 inches, the second 10 inches, and the third 14 inches about: they are sold by the hundred or five score.—Faggots are to be 3 feet long, and at the band 24 inches about, besides the knot: of such faggots 50 go to the load.—Bavins and spray-wood are sold by the hundred, which are accounted a load.—Cord-wood is the bigger sort of fire-wood, and it is measured by a cord or line, whereof there are two measures; that of 14 feet in length, 3 feet in breadth, and 3 feet in height.—The other is eight feet in length, 4 feet in height, and 4 in breadth.

Of corn measure.

The gallon is found, by the statutes of England, to hold 8 pints, and to weigh 8 pounds Troy.

2 gallons = a peck = 16 lb.	or pints, or = 2 gallons.
4 pecks = a bushel = 64,	or — 8
2 bushels = a strike = 128,	or — 16
2 strikes = a coomb = 256,	or — 32
2 coombs = a quart = 512,	or — 64
6 quarters = a wey = 3072,	or — 384
10 quarters = a last = 5120,	or — 640

However, a ton of wheat in London commonly weighs, avoirdupoise weight, between 2200 and 2500 lb.—Of rye, between 2100 and 2240 lb.—Of barley, between 1709 and 1800 lb. Corn is usually sold in England by the quarter: quarters are commonly reckoned to a ton in freight: according to the above Troy weight, a ton of corn weighs 2400 lb. avoirdupoise weight.

Of salt measure.

Salt is sold from the pits by weight, reckoning 7 lb. avoirdupoise to a gallon, 56 lb. to the bushel, and 42 bushels to

the ton for freight: 5 bushels is one sack, and 4 hundred weight is one quarter.

Long measure.

For timber, horses, &c. 3 barley-corns = 1 inch, 4 inches is one hand horse-measure, 12 inches is 1 foot, 5 feet a geometrical pace, 6 feet a fathom, and 16 1/2 feet a pole, or perch; 40 poles a furlong, 8 furlongs are one mile, statute measure. The pole, or perch, differs from the above measure in several parts of the kingdom.

Land Measure. Nine square feet is one square yard, 272 square feet is one square pole, or perch, 40 squares poles is one square rood, and 4 square rood is 1 square acre, and 640 square acres is one square mile, according to the statute measure of this kingdom.

Of ale and beer measure.

2 Pints = 1 quart, 4 quarts = 1 gallon, to contain 282 cubical inches, and holds 10 pounds 3 ounces avoirdupoise weight, of rain water; 8 gallons = 1 firkin of ale, 2 firkins = 1 kilderkin, 2 kilderkins = 1 barrel, 12 barrels = last. Of beer, 9 gallons = 1 firkin, 2 such firkins = 1 kilderkin, 2 kilderkins = 1 barrel, 1 1/2 barrel = 1 hoghead, 2 hogheads = pipe, or butt, and 2 pipes, or butts = 1 ton.

Of wine, brandy, cyder, &c. measure.

2 Pints = 1 quart, 2 quarts = 1 pottle, 2 pottles = 1 gallon, containing 231 cubical inches, and holds 8 pounds, 1 ounce, 4 drachms, avoirdupoise weight, of rain water; 18 gallons = 1 statute rundlet, 42 gallons = 1 tierce, 1 1/2 tierce, or 63 gallons = 1 hoghead, 84 gallons = 1 puncheon, 126 gallons, or 2 hogheads = 1 pipe, or butt, and 4 hogheads, or 2 pipes, or 252 gallons = 1 ton of wine, brandy, cyder, vinegar, &c. according to statute measure.

A vessel that holds 50 lb. weight of rain water,	
will hold	53 of river water,
or - - - - - 45	of butter or oil,
	39 of linseed oil,
	35 of honey,
	850 of quicksilver.

Of oil.

The custom of London, in regard to many commodities, disagrees in their measures from the statute; as, in oil, 236 gallons, by merchants called the civil gauge, is commonly sold for the ton, and not 252 gallons, as before mentioned.—Eels 25 = a strike, and 10 strikes = a barrel.—Of herrings, 120 = an hundred, and 1200 = a barrel, 12 barrels = a last.—Furs, fletcher, greys, gennets, mortars, mucks, and sable skins, 40 skins make a timber, and some other skins 5 score to the hundred.—Paper, 24 sheets = 1 quire, 20 quires = a ream, and 10 ream = 1 bale.—Parchment, 12 skins = a dozen, and 5 dozen = 1 roll.

A TABLE, representing the conformity which the WEIGHTS of the principal TRADING CITIES of EUROPE have with each other, taken from that of Mynheer Samuel Ricard, late of Amsterdam, published in the year 1732, and quoted in 1747, as the most authentic of it's kind, by the Sieur Jean Laure, merchant of Lyons, in his Treatise dedicated to the Count de Maurepas: With the difference only of transposing one of the columns, in order to place ENGLAND or LONDON in the front, as Mynheer Ricard has done Holland and Amsterdam for the United Provinces, and the Sieur Larue Paris, for the use of the French nation more particularly.

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As the weight of Amsterdam, Paris, Bourdeaux, Befançon, and several other places, have but a very trifling difference, they are comprehended under those of Amsterdam, as those of Nuremberg are under Frankfort, and others in the same manner.

	A Of Engl. Scotl. and Ire- land.	B Of Am- ster- dam, Paris, &c.	C Of Ant- werp or Bra- bant.	D Of Rouën, the vic- county weight.	E Of Ly- ons, the city weight.	F Of Ro- chelle.	G Of Tou- loufe and Upper Languedoc.	H Of Mar- feilles and Pro- vence.	I Of Ge- neva.	K Of Ham- burgh.	L Of Frank- fort, &c.	M Of Leipfic, &c.	N Of Ge- noa.	O Of Leg- horn.	P Of Mi- lan.	Q Of Ve- nice.	R Of Na- ples.	S Of Se- ville, Cadiz, &c.	T Of Por- tugal.	V Of Liege.
A 100 lb. of England, Scotland, and Irel. London	100	91 8	96 8	88	106	90 9	107 11	113	81 7	93 5	89 7	96 1	137 4	132 11	153 11	152	154 10	97	104 13	96 5
B 100 lb. of Amsterdam, Paris, &c.	109 8	100	105 8	96 4	116	99	118	123 8	89	102	98	105	150	145	168	166	169	106	114 8	105 4
C 100 lb. of Antwerp, or Brabant	103 12	94 12	100	91 4	110	93 13	111 12	117	84 5	96 10	92 13	99 8	142 2	137 6	159 3	157 $\frac{3}{4}$	160 2	108	108 8	99 11
D 100 lb. of Rouën, the viccounty	113 14	104	109 12	100	120 8	102 15	122 11	128 8	92 9	106	102	109 4	156	150 13	174 11	172 $\frac{3}{4}$	175 12	110 4	119	109 7
E 100 lb. of Lyons, the city	94 3	86	90 12	82 12	100	85 2	101 8	106 4	76 8	87 12	84 4	90 5	129	124 11	144 8	142 $\frac{1}{2}$	145 6	91 3	98 8	90 8
F 100 lb. of Rochelle	110 9	101	106 8	97 3	117	100	119 3	124 12	89 14	103	99	106	151 8	146 7	169 11	167 10	170 11	107	115 10	106 5
G 100 lb. of Thouloufe, and Upper Languedoc	92 6	84 12	89 6	81 8	98 5	83 15	100	105 4	75 7	86 7	83	89 8	127 2	122 14	142 6	140	143 4	89 13	97	89 3
H 100 lb. of Marfeilles and Provence	88 11	81	85 8	78	94	80 3	95 9	100	72	82 10	79 6	85 8	121 8	117 7	136 1	134 8	136 14	85 13	92 12	85 4
I 100 lb. of Genoa	123	112 6	118 8	108	130 5	111 6	132 9	128 4	100	114 10	110 2	118	168 9	163	188 13	186 8	189 14	119 2	128 8	118 4
K 100 lb. of Hamburgh	107 5	98	103 6	94 4	113 10	97	115 10	121	87 4	100	89 11	102 15	147	142 2	164 10	162 11	165 10	103 13	112 4	103 2
L 100 lb. of Frankfort	111 11	102	107 8	98 3	118 5	101	120 6	126	90 12	104	100	107 1	153	147 14	171 6	169 5	172 6	108 2	116 13	107 6
M 100 lb. of Leipfic	104 5	95 4	100	91 12	110 8	94 4	112 6	117 12	84 12	92 2	93 5	100	142 13	138 1	160	158 2	161	101	109	100 4
N 100 lb. of Genoa	73	66 $\frac{3}{4}$	70 5	64	77 5	66	78 10	82 5	59 5	68	65 5	70	100	96 11	112	110 11	112 11	70 11	76 5	70 6
O 100 lb. of Leghorn	75 8	69	72 12	66 6	80	68 5	81 6	85 4	61 6	70 6	67 10	72 8	103 8	100	119	114 8	116 9	73	79	72 10
P 100 lb. of Milan	65 3	59 8	62 12	57 4	69	58 14	70 3	73 8	13	60 1	58 5	62 8	89 4	86 4	100	98 12	100 8	63	68 2	62 10
Q 100 lb. of Venice	65 11	60	63 6	57 12	69 10	59 6	70 13	74 2	53 6	61 3	58 13	63	90	87	100 13	100	101 6	63 9	68 11	63 2
R 100 lb. of Naples	64 10	59	62 4	57	68 7	58 6	69 10	72 14	52 8	60 2	57 13	62	88 8	85 8	99 2	98	100	62 8	67 9	62
S 100 lb. of Seville, Cadiz, &c.	103 7	94 8	99 12	91	109 10	93 9	111 8	116 11	84 2	96 6	92 10	99 4	141 12	137	158 12	156 14	159 12	100	108 3	99 14
T 100 lb. of Portugal	95 4	87 8	92	84 4	101 8	86 10	103 4	108	77 14	89 4	85 12	91 13	131 14	126 13	147	145 4	148	92 12	100	92
V 100 lb. of Liege	104	95	100 3	91 7	110 3	94	112	117 5	84 8	96 14	93	99 12	142 8	137 12	159 9	157 11	160 10	100 9	108 12	100

N. B. Such is the use of this Table, that by means hereof may be easily discerned, at one view, the conformity which the weights of one place, therein exhibited, have with those of another: for example; if you would know how many pounds 100 lb. weight English make at Amsterdam, look for England in the first column, and from thence pass your eye along the line 'till you come to the column under the title of Amsterdam at the top, and you will find that 91 lb. 8 ounces (reckoning 16 ounces to the pound) are equal to 100 l. English; and in like manner you may find the agreement between any other weight of these places specified in the Table.

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E N G

A TABLE, representing the conformity which the LONG MEASURES of the principal TRADING CITIES of EUROPE have with each other, published in 1747, as the most authentic of it's kind, by the Sieur Jean Larue, merchant at Lyons, in his Treatise dedicated to the Count de Maurepas: With the difference only of transposing one of the columns, in order to place ENGLAND or LONDON in the front, as the Sieur Larue has done Paris, for the use of the French nation more particularly.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	V	W	X	Y	Z
	Yards of England, Scotl. and Irel.	Ells of France and England.	Ells of Holland and Amsterdam.	Ells of Antwerp and Bruffels.	Ells of Hamb. Frankf. Leipzig, and Cologn.	Ells of Breslaw in Silesia.	Ells of Dantzick.	Ells of Bergue and Drontheim.	Ells of Sweden or Stockholm.	Ells of St Gall for linen.	Ells of St Gall for cloth.	Ells of Geneva.	Canes of Marfeilles and Montpellier.	Canes of Touloufe, Albi, and Castres.	Canes of Genova of 9 palmos.	Canes of Rome.	Vares of Castille and Biscay.	Vares of Cadiz and Andalusia.	Vares of Portugal or Lisbon.	Covedos of Portugal or Lisbon.	Braffes of Venice.	Braffes of Bergamo, Mod. and Mantua.	Braffes of Florence, Legh. and Lucca.	Braffes of Milan.
A	100	78	133	131	160	166	150	146	154	114	149	80	46	50	40	44	107	109	133	136	104	154	171	171
B	128	100	173	166	205	213	192	188	195	147	191	102	59	64	52	56	136	140	171	174	179	199	210	210
C	75	75	100	98	120	125	112	110	114	86	112	60	35	37	30	33	80	81	100	102	106	116	128	128
D	70	60	101	100	121	126	114	111	116	87	113	60	35	38	30	33	81	84	101	103	106	118	130	130
E	62	48	83	82	100	104	92	91	95	71	91	50	29	31	25	27	65	68	83	80	85	97	107	107
F	60	46	80	79	96	100	89	88	91	68	89	48	28	31	24	26	64	65	80	81	84	93	103	103
G	66	52	89	87	96	100	100	98	91	68	99	53	29	30	27	29	64	65	80	81	84	93	103	103
H	67	52	90	89	108	112	101	100	103	77	100	54	31	33	27	28	71	72	89	89	90	93	103	103
I	65	51	87	86	105	109	97	96	100	75	98	52	30	33	26	28	72	74	89	89	91	94	105	105
K	87	67	116	114	139	145	130	127	133	100	130	59	40	43	32	38	70	71	87	87	89	92	102	102
L	124	52	89	88	107	111	100	98	102	76	100	53	31	33	27	29	71	72	87	88	91	94	105	105
M	67	52	89	88	107	111	100	98	102	76	100	53	31	33	27	29	71	72	87	88	91	94	105	105
N	214	167	286	282	343	357	321	314	327	246	320	171	100	107	87	81	228	234	286	291	291	301	314	314
O	199	156	266	263	320	333	300	293	304	229	298	160	93	100	81	81	261	268	266	272	280	280	309	309
P	227	177	303	323	392	408	367	359	374	281	366	196	114	122	100	108	213	218	266	272	333	344	381	381
Q	227	177	303	323	392	408	367	359	374	281	366	196	114	122	100	108	213	218	266	272	333	344	381	381
R	93	73	125	123	150	156	140	137	143	107	140	75	43	46	38	41	242	245	303	309	319	319	353	353
S	91	71	122	119	146	152	138	134	143	105	137	73	42	45	37	40	242	245	303	309	319	319	353	353
T	123	96	164	162	196	205	184	180	187	141	183	94	57	61	50	54	131	134	164	164	167	172	191	191
V	74	58	100	98	120	125	112	110	114	86	112	60	35	37	30	33	80	81	100	100	102	105	116	116
W	73	57	98	96	117	122	104	107	112	84	109	58	34	36	29	32	78	80	98	98	100	103	114	114
X	72	55	95	93	114	118	106	104	108	81	106	57	33	35	29	31	76	78	95	95	97	100	100	100
Y	65	50	85	84	102	106	96	94	98	73	95	51	30	32	26	28	68	70	88	88	87	95	100	100
Z	58	45	78	77	93	97	87	85	89	67	87	46	27	29	23	25	62	63	78	79	82	91	100	100

N. B. By means of this Table, the reader may please to observe, that 100 ells of Paris and of England make 173 $\frac{1}{2}$ of Holland; and in like manner you will find how the measures of other places in the table correspond with each other. By the common rule of three, or proportion, you will easily make your computations for any quantity required. But there are more concise rules, which are practised by the most expert merchants. See the examples following.

An example of the reduction of the weights of several countries, when compared together, into those of any particular country.

Suppose 100 lb. of Amsterdam be equal to 100 lb. of Paris, 100 lb. of Paris to be 150 lb. in Genoa, 100 lb. of Genoa to be 70 lb. in Leipzig, 100 lb. of Leipzig to be 160 lb. in Milan. Quære, How many pounds of Milan will 548 lb. of Amsterdam weigh?

That the reader may be grounded in the reason and foundation of the concise rule of equation, which we shall make use of in order to obtain the solution of this question; he is desired to turn to the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, where he will find the same applied to the foreign monies of particular countries, which will serve equally for the explanation of what follows.

The question equated according to the universal rule there given and explained, of conjunction.

Antecedents.	Consequents.
100 lb. of Amsterdam	= 100 lb. Paris.
100 lb. of Paris	= 150 lb. Genoa,
100 lb. of Genoa	= 70 lb. Leipfick,
100 lb. of Leipfick	= 160 lb. Milan.
2	3
5	4
5	2
Ergo $\frac{3 \times 2 \times 7}{25} \times 548 = 920 \text{ lb.}$	$\frac{16}{25}$ answer of Milan =
548 lb. of Amsterdam.	

REMARKS.

We call this rule that of conjunction, because it joins together several rules of three into one; by which, and by the relation that several antecedents have to their consequents, the proportion between the first antecedent and the last consequent is discovered, as well as the proportions between the others in their several respects.

(1.) To dispose this right rule, the antecedents must be ranged in the left-hand column, and the consequents in the right-hand one.

(2.) The first antecedent, and the last consequent, whose antecedent is sought, must be of the like species: so must the second consequent and the third antecedent; which order must be continued throughout the rule.

(3.) The terms being thus disposed, you find a divisor and a dividend.

(4.) Multiply all the antecedents, in a continued multiplication by one another, and the last product will be the general divisor. And,

(5.) Multiply, in the same manner, all the consequents, and the last product will be the dividend.---And, dividing the one by the other, the quotient will give you the antecedent required by the question.

This rule may be so abridged, as to give the arithemetician but very little trouble, in comparison to that which he must have, provided he multiplies all the whole numbers (and also their fractions, when the case contains them) on both sides of the equation.

To exemplify such abridgment by the preceding example.

According to the axioms laid down under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, equal quantities, divided by equal quantities, their products are equal, and in the same proportion.---In the example before us, the two 100's on both sides cancel each other, and let the last cypher of the three remaining antecedents be cancelled, viz. 100 lb. of Paris, 100 lb. of Genoa, and 100 lb. of Leipfick, which is dividing them by 10; and, to preserve the equality on the side of the consequents, cancel also the last cyphers of 150 lb. of Genoa, 70 lb. of Leipfick, and 160 lb. of Milan.---After which, divide one of the remaining 10's on the antecedent side by 5, and the 15 on the consequent side by 5, and the quotes will be 2 on the side of the antecedents, and 3 on that of the consequents.---Then divide the 2 on the left side by 2, and 16 by 2 on the right side. Then divide one of the remaining 10's on the antecedent side, and the 8 on the consequent side again by 2, and the quotients will be 5 and 4; which being again repeated for the remaining 10, and 4 on both sides, leaves another 5 on the antecedent side, and 2 on the consequent one.---And there being no further room for common divisions, by reason of the odd numbers 5 and 5 on the one side, and 7 and 3 on the other, the operation is abbreviated, as far as it will admit of; and the answer is as before shewn, viz. $3 \times 2 = 6 \times 7 = 42 \times 548 = 23016$, which,

being divided by 5 and 5, or 25, the quotient is $920 \frac{16}{52}$, the true answer.

An example with regard to MEASURES.

Suppose a merchant of Hamburg, not knowing the proportion between the ell of that place and the yard of London, and having orders to procure 81 yards of cloth, of which 7 ells of Hamburg must be had for 3 l. sterling: how shall he

discover how many pounds sterling the 81 yards will amount to, only by knowing that 7 ells of France make 9 yards of London, and that 7 ells of Holland make 4 ells of France, and that 1 ell of Holland makes $1 \frac{1}{5}$ ell of Hamburg.

Disposition of the terms.

Antecedents.	Consequents.
If 9 yards English	= 7 ells of Paris,
7 ells of Paris	= 7 ells of Amsterdam,
1 ell of Amsterdam	= $1 \frac{1}{5}$ Hamburg, & 3

5357 ells of Hamburg = 3 l. sterling,
How many pounds sterling are 81 yards English?

So that 5×2 is the divisor, and $\frac{9 \times 3 \times 3 \times 7}{10} = 561.14s.$

sterling, the answer.

The general rule.

In the first place, reduce the two terms, $1 \frac{1}{5}$ ell, and 7 ells of Hamburg, into the denomination of the fraction, to have 6 in the consequent, which set down on the right side, and 35 in the antecedent, which set down on the left side; after which, cancel the $1 \frac{1}{5}$ and the 7 ells of Hamburg. It

is a general rule, that when there is a fraction either in the antecedent or the consequent column, both the terms that accompany the fraction, and the other that is of the same species, must be reduced into the denominations of the fraction.

Begin the abbreviation of the terms by the multiple 81, which contains 9 times the antecedent 9, and cancel the 81 and the 9, setting down 9 on the right of the 81.

And, seeing 35 contains 5 times the consequent 7 ells of Paris, cancel the 35 and the 7, and set down 5 on the left of 35.

Then take half of the antecedent 4, and of the consequent 6, and, cancelling them, set down 2 on the left of 4, and 3 on the right of 6.

Then finding, at the side of the antecedent, 2, 1 and 5, which are not cancelled, multiply them by each other, to have in that last product the divisor 10.

And, finding at the side of the consequents 7, 3, 3, 9, that are not cancelled, multiply them into each other, to have in the last product the dividend.---Then dividing, you will have in the quotient 56 l. 14 s. sterling, which is the solution of the question.

The proof of this rule of conjunction may be reduced from what has been said under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES.

Of the exchanges of ENGLAND with other the principal places of Europe, and their method of computation.

England, or London, exchanges in Holland (i. e. on Amsterdam and Rotterdam) at so many schellings and groots Flemish per pound sterling.

One pound Flemish is 20 schellings Flemish, or 6 guilders; 1 schelling Flemish is 12 groots Flemish, or 6 stivers; 1 groot Flemish is $\frac{1}{2}$ stiver, or 8 pennings.

Books of accounts are kept in Holland sometimes in pounds, schellings, and groots Flemish, but more commonly in guilders, or florins, stivers, and pennings; 16 pennings = 1 stiver, 20 stivers = 1 guilder, or florin, and 40 groots = 1 guilder.

If London draws on, or remits to Amsterdam, l. 852: 12: 6 sterling, at 34 sch. $4 \frac{1}{2}$ groots Flemish, per pound sterling, how many guilders, stivers, and pennings must be paid or received in bank money in Amsterdam?

CASE I.

l.	s.	d.	fch.	grts.
852	12	6	sterling,	at 34 : $4 \frac{1}{2}$
825				12
4260				412
1704				2
s. d.	6816		half groots	825 = 1 l. sterling,
10	= $\frac{1}{2}$	412	: $\frac{1}{2}$	= $\frac{3}{8}$
2	: 6	= $\frac{1}{2}$	103	: $\frac{1}{8}$
			810703415	= $\frac{3}{8}$
			guilders 8792	: $\frac{3}{8}$ = 27 groots $\frac{1}{2}$ = 13 stiv. 12 pen. $\frac{3}{8}$ of the half groot = $2 \frac{1}{2}$ pennings, which makes the total 8792 guil. 13 stiv. 14 pen. $\frac{1}{2}$ bank money.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the price of exchange into half groots, which, being multiplied by the pound sterling, gives the half groots therein contained; and, for the 12 s. 6 d. take 10 s. as the half

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of 825, and 2s. 6d. as the fourth of that quotient; add the whole together, and the sum total is the half Flemish groots contained in the sterling money; which being divided by 80 (the half groots in a guilder) produces the answer in guilders. The 55 half groots = 27½ whole groots = 13 stivers and 12 pennings; the ¼ of the half groot = 2 pennings ½, as above, which make 8792 guilders, 13 stivers, 14 pennings ½, Dutch bank money of Amsterdam.

C A S E I. reversed.

guild. stiv. pen. 8792 : 13 : 14½ Amft. at 34 : 4½ per l. sterl. how- <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 40 351706 groots <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 8 2813662 pennings <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 2	stiv. pen. [much sterling?] Amft. at 34 : 4½ per l. sterl. how- <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: 0; margin-right: auto;"/> 12 412 groots <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: 0; margin-right: auto;"/> 8 3300 pennings <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: 0; margin-right: auto;"/> 2
---	---

66|00)56273|25 half pen. 852 l. 6600 half pennings
 528 . . [12s. 6d. sterling, the proof.
 . 347
 330
 . 173
 132
 . 4125
 20
 825|00 = 12 s.
 66
 165
 132
 33 = 6 d.

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce both the sum of Dutch money, and the price of exchange, which is in Dutch money also, into one denomination, and divide the sum by the price, and you have the answer in pounds sterling; and, for the remainder, multiply by the subdivision of the pound sterling (20 and 12) and you have the shillings and pence equivalent to the fraction.

In the preceding case, the guilders are reduced into groots by multiplying by 40, and, for the 13 stivers, you take in 26 groots; 8 pennings making a groot, you multiply by 8, and take in the 14 pennings: there being also an half penning, make it necessary to reduce the produce into half pennings, and take in the half.

The price of exchange likewise, being multiplied by 12 and 8, reduces that into half pennings, and, dividing the half pennings in the whole sum by those contained in one pound sterling, must necessarily give the number of pounds as before.

C A S E I.

Exemplified by another method of operation, thus:

l. s. d. 852 : 12 : 6 sterling, at 34 : 4½ <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 206 : 4 ½ 5112 17040 4 = ¼ 213 10 s. = ½ 103 : 2 2s. 6d. = ¼ 25 : 12 ½ stivers 2 0)17585 3 : 14 ½ guilders 8792 : 13 : 14 ½ bank money of Amsterdam.	stiv. pen. at 34 : 4½ <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: 0; margin-right: auto;"/> 6 206 stiv. 4 pen. = 1 l. sterling.
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I N S T R U C T I O N .

A schelling Flemish being 6 stivers, and 2 groots = 1 stiver, you multiply the 34 by 6, and, for the 4 groots, take in 2 stivers: and, as 1 stiver = 16 pennings, and 2 groots = 1 stiver, so half of a groot = 4 pennings: therefore, multiply the sum of pounds sterling by the stivers and pennings in 1 l. and the produce gives the stivers and pennings in the whole sum of pounds; and, for the 12s. 6d. take the half of the stivers and pennings in 1 l. and, for the 2s. 6d. take the fourth of that product: add the whole together, and you have the answer in stivers, which being divided by 20 (the stivers in a guilder) the answer is produced in guilders, stivers, and pennings of Amsterdam.

C A S E II.

To convert the bank money of Amsterdam into current money, the agio being at 4 ¼ per cent. as it lately was at Amsterdam.

The agio is the difference, or advanced price, between the bank and current money of Holland: i. e. to say, in the present case, 104 guilders ¼, current money, is supposed equal to 100 guilders bank money: quære, how much current money will guild. 8792 : 13 : 4 ¼ bank money of Amsterdam make, agio at 4 ¼?

The question stated, according to the rule of proportion, runs thus:

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As 100 guilders bank money is to 104 guilders ¼ current, is 8792 : 13 : 4 ¼ bank given to the required current money. But as this may be greatly abridged by the common rule to computing the rate of exchange upon money, it is needless to shew the tedious method by the ordinary rule of proportion.

guild. stiv. pen. 8792 : 13 : 4 ¼ <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 35170 : 13 : 2 2198 : 3 : 5 ½ 1099 : 1 : 10 ¼ 100 384 67 : 18 : 1 ½ ½ <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 20 13158 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 16 349 58 guild. 8792 : 13 : 4 ¼ bank money 9 29 384 : 13 : 9 ½ agio 8 guild. 9177 : 6 : 14 current money 2 37	= ¼ = ½ = ¼
--	-------------------

To reduce which again into bank, say, by the rule of proportion, as 104 guilders ¼, current money, is to 100 guilders banco: so is guilders 9177 : 6 : 14, current money, to guilders 8792 : 13 : 4 ¼ banco.

Usance in dealing in bills of exchange, at Amsterdam, is not reckoned there as in many other places, either precisely 30 days, or 31, or 28, or 29; but their usance is drawn on a certain day, and is payable the same day in the paying month, without regard to the number of intervening days. They generally allow six days of grace.

For more matter, in regard to the exchange of the United Provinces, see the article of HOLLAND, where, under the city of Amsterdam, we shall treat more largely of this matter.

C A S E III.

England exchanges on Antwerp for schellings and groots Flemish per pound sterling.

Suppose 482 l. 18 s. sterling, to be reduced into Flemish pounds, at 35 stivers 10 pennings, near the present price of exchange, howmuch Flemish money will it make?

l. s. 482 : 18 ster. at 35 : 10 per pound sterl. <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 35 : 10 2410 Flemish 1446 6d. = ¼ 241 d. 4d. = ¼ 160 : 8 10s. sterl. = ¼ 17 : 11 8s. = ¼ 7 : 2 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 7 : 2 1730 3 : 11 l. 865 : 3 : 11 Flemish. — Reduce the same to 20 [sterling, at the like exchange. 17303 12 l. s. stiv. pen. 43 0)20704 7(482 : 18 sterling, at 35 : 10 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 172.. 12 . 356 the proof 430 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 344 . 124 86 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 387 20 43 0)774 0(18 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 43 344 344	stiv. pen. at 35 : 10 <hr style="width: 50%; margin-left: 0; margin-right: auto;"/> 6 206 stiv. 4 pen. = 1 l. sterling.
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This is so plain and familiar, that it is needless to enlarge. For more matter, in regard to practical mercantile concerns, see the article NETHERLANDS; see also AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

C A S E IV.

England, or London, exchanges on Hamburg, as on Holland and Antwerp, from 32 to 35 schellings and groots Flemish per pound sterling.

Books of accounts are kept in marks, schellings, and pence lubs; and by some in rixdollars, schellings, and pence; and by others in pounds, shillings, and pence Flemish. A mark = 16 schellings lubs, 1 schelling = 12 pence, 1 rixdollar = 3 marks, or 48 schellings lubs. A pound Flemish = 7 ½ marks, or 2 ¼ rixdollars; 1 shilling Flemish = 6 shillings lubs, and the pound Flemish = 120 shillings lubs, and the rixdollar = 8 schellings Flemish.

If Hamburg draws Flemish money on London, the operation is performed as under the case of Antwerp.

But,

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But suppose Hamburg draws upon London for 4117 marks, 5 sols lubs, at 33 : 10 exchange, what must be paid for this draught in London?

$$\begin{array}{r} 4117 : 5, \quad - \quad \text{at } 33 : 10 \\ \hline 16 \qquad \qquad \qquad 6 \text{ shil. lubs.} = 1 \text{ schel. Flem. and} \\ 203) 65877 \text{ shil. lubs.} \quad 203 \text{ shil. lubs.} [2 \text{ groots} = 1 \text{ shil.} \\ \text{gives l. } 324 : 10 : 4 \frac{3}{8} \text{ sterling.} \end{array}$$

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Let the sum and the price be reduced into the same denomination, and the former divided by the latter, and the fractions of a pound reduced as before, in case the first.

C A S E I V. reversed.

l. 324 : 10 : 4 sterling, at 33 : 10, how much mark money of Hamburg?

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Reduce the price of exchange into schellings lubs, as before; multiply by the same, and take your aliquot parts, as directed in the other case, and divide the sum total by 16, to reduce the same into marks.—For the remaining fraction, reduce it into the subdenominations of the mark.

In regard to what other practical matters are requisite, with relation to the mercantile affairs of the city of Hamburg, see the article LOWER SAXONY, Hamburg being in that circle of the empire of Germany.

C A S E V.

England exchanges with France on the crown of three livres Tournois, or 60 sols French, and gives pence sterling, more or less, for this exchange crown.

Accounts are kept in France in livres, sols, and deniers, reckoning 12 deniers to the sol, and 20 sols to one livre, or franc.

Suppose Paris owes to London 4186 livres, 7 sols, 5 deniers, and remits the same sum to London at 31 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling per crown.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Divide the livres, sols, and deniers Tournois, by 3 throughout, and that will reduce them into French exchange crowns. Then multiply the crowns by the pence sterling, and take the aliquot parts for the fractional parts, according to the subdenomination of the integers, as in the foregoing cases, and you will have the answer in pence sterling, which reduce into pounds, &c.

The reverse of this is so easy, that it is needless to add more than to observe, that, when you are to reduce sterling money into French exchange crowns, reduce the sum given and price of exchange into the like denomination, and divide the one by the other; and, for any fractional parts that may remain, proceed as in the preceding examples, according to the subdenomination of your integer.

If you would have French livres Tournois, instead of French exchange crowns, you are only to multiply the crowns, sols, and deniers, by 3 throughout, and the product will be livres, sols, and deniers.

For further matter relating to the exchange, and other practical mercantile concerns of France, see the general article FRANCE.

C A S E VI.

England exchanges with Spain upon the piaſtre, or dollar of $\frac{3}{8}$, for an uncertain number of pence sterling.

They keep their accounts after divers manners, in different provinces and cities, all which would be too prolix to shew under this general article of ENGLAND; where we intend no more than to shew the ordinary method of computing the exchange between us and Spain: but, under the general article of SPAIN, we shall be very full and circumstantial in regard hereunto.

In Madrid, Cadiz, Malaga, and all the Spanish places of trade in the Streights, Mediterranean, Africa, and the West-Indies, the Spaniards keep their accounts chiefly in piaſtres, or dollars, rials, half-rials, and quartiles, reckoning 16 quartiles to a rial, and 8 rials to a dollar; or in dollars, rials, and maravedies, reckoning 34 maravedies to a rial, and 8 rials to the dollar.—The old piaſtre is valued at 8, the new at 10 rials of plate.

Suppose Cadiz remits to London 3537 dollars, 6 rials, at 40 $\frac{3}{8}$ per dollar, what will this remittance amount to in England?

$$\begin{array}{r} 3537 : 6 \\ \hline 40 \frac{3}{8} \\ \hline 141480 \\ 24759 \frac{7}{8} \\ \hline \text{rials} \quad 3094 \frac{7}{8} \\ 4 = \frac{1}{2} \quad 20 \frac{3}{8} \frac{3}{8} \\ 2 = \frac{1}{4} \quad 10 \frac{3}{8} \frac{3}{8} \\ \hline 12) 144605 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{8} = \frac{3}{8} \\ \hline 2) 1205 \frac{1}{2} : 5 \frac{1}{2} \\ \hline \text{l. } 602 : 10 : 5 \frac{1}{2} \text{ sterling.} \end{array}$$

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the dollars by 40; for the $\frac{3}{8}$ multiply by 7, cancel

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the product, and divide by 8; for the 6 rials, take 4 the half, and 2 the half of that product: add the whole, it gives pence sterling, which reduce to pounds.

The $\frac{3}{8}$ may be taken by 4, the half, 2, the half of that, and 1, the half of 2.

The reverse of this is so intelligible, that we shall not trouble our readers with what is conceived superfluous, and may be reasonably thought only to spin out the quantity, rather than to consult the quality of our matter.

If Spain be indebted to London in maravedies, you must reduce them to dollars, by dividing them by 272, and proceed as before.

As 8 rials make this dollar, and 34 maravedies make a piece of eight, $34 \times 8 = 272$.

C A S E VII.

England exchanges on Leghorn for the dollars of 6 livres, and gives pence sterling, more or less, for the same. They reckon 12 deniers to the sol, and 20 sols to the dollar.

As those who have digested the cases foregoing can stand in need of no information to reduce Leghorn money into sterling, nor sterling into Leghorn money, we shall not dwell any longer upon this subject.

C A S E VIII.

England exchanges on Genoa for the piaſtre of 5 livres, for pence sterling, more or less: so that to reduce livres into piaſtres, or piaſtres into livres, must be mighty easy to those who understand common arithmetic, and what we have already observed; also, to reduce these dollars into sterling, and that again into those dollars, or livres, cannot but be equally familiar. They keep their accounts in livres, sols, and deniers, by 12 and 20, or in dollars of 100 sols.

Under the article GENOA we shall consider what else may be necessary.

C A S E IX.

England exchanges on Venice upon the ducat of 24 grains, or gros banco, for pence sterling, more or less.

They keep their accounts in livres, sols, and deniers current, and reckon 12 deniers to the sol, and 20 sols to a livre. The bank and bankers keep their accounts in livres, sols, and groses, reckoning 12 gros to a sol, 20 sols to a livre, and the livre at 10 ducats bank, or 12 ducats current.—The ducat bank is valued at 6 livres 4 sols, or 124 sols current, or 24 groses.—The current money is what is usually bargained for in the buying of merchandizes, and is 20 per cent. worse than bank.

To multiply examples of converting ducats of Venice, when you know their subdenominations, into sterling, or sterling into them, is needless we apprehend. See the article VENICE.

C A S E X.

England exchanges with Portugal on the milrea, and gives pence, more or less, for the same.

Throughout this kingdom in general they keep their accounts in milreas and reas, accounting 1000 reas to a milrea; and separating the milreas from the reas thus, 976@859, which signifies 976 milreas, and 859 reas.

Let it be supposed that Lisbon, or Oporto, which are the principal places of exchange, remits to London 4366 milreas, 183 reas, at 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ exchange, how much sterling must be paid in London for this remittance?

$$\begin{array}{r} 4366 @ 183 \\ \hline 5s. = \frac{1}{4} \quad 1091 @ 54575 \\ 5d. = \frac{1}{2} \quad 90 @ 9621625 \\ \frac{3}{8} = \frac{3}{8} \quad 11 @ 3702703 \\ \hline \text{l. } 1193, \quad 8781828 \\ \hline \qquad \qquad \qquad 20 \\ \hline 17,5636560 \\ \hline \qquad \qquad \qquad 12 \\ \hline 6,7638720 \\ \hline \qquad \qquad \qquad 4 \\ \hline 3,0554880 \end{array}$$

Answer, l. 1193 : 17 : 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

The milrea being divided into 1000ths, we consider them as so many decimal parts. See the article ARITHMETIC.

Then 5 s. being $\frac{1}{2}$ of a pound, and 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of 5 s. and $\frac{3}{8}$ the $\frac{3}{8}$ of 5 d. we divide accordingly, and sum up the whole; which makes pounds, and the decimal parts of a pound, the value of which is found by multiplying by 20, 12, and 4, and cutting off the number of decimal places.

The reverse of this being only to reduce the sum and the price of exchange into eights of pence, and divide the one by the other, there can be no difficulty, and, therefore, requires no further explication. See the article PORTUGAL.

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CASE XI.

England and Scotland exchange at so much per cent. Since the union of the two kingdoms, the same species of gold and silver as are coined in the king's mint at the Tower of London, pass current in Scotland.

CASE XIII.

England on Ireland. The exchange between London and Dublin runs from about 5 or 6 to 12 per cent. and they exchange to most foreign places by the way of London; that is to say, they give 105 to 112 l. Irish per 100 l. sterling.

They keep their accounts in pounds, shillings, and pence; reckoning 12 pence to a shilling, and 20 shillings to a pound Irish money. As whoever can cast up the common interest of money, cannot be at a loss to cast up the exchange between London and Ireland, so I shall not dwell upon it.

England exchanges on her American Plantations. In the British dominions in America and the West-Indies, they keep their accounts in pounds, shillings and pence, as they do in London, but in America generally call their money currency.

In most of the British settlements upon the continent of America, they have few coins of any sort circulating among them; what few they have, are chiefly French and Spanish pieces: so that they are obliged to substitute a paper currency for a medium of their commerce, for want of a competency of cash for circulation. See the articles CURRENCY, i. e. PAPER CURRENCY, CASH, and CIRCULATION.

The following table shews at what value the foreign coins are to pass in the English colonies and plantations on the islands in America, according to an act of parliament made in the sixth year of queen Anne, for ascertaining their value,

The T A B L E.

	Weight trueval.			Cur. value.		
	dwt.	gr.	s. d.	s.	d.	f.
Pieces of $\frac{8}{3}$ (old plate) of Seville	17	12	4 6	6	0	0
Ditto of new	14	3	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	4	9	2 $\frac{2}{3}$
Mexico ditto	17	12	4 6	6	0	0
Pillar ditto	17	12	4 6 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	0	0
Peru ditto (old plate)	17	12	4 5	5	10	2 $\frac{2}{3}$
Cross dollars	18	4	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	10	1 $\frac{1}{3}$
Ducattoons of Flanders	20	21	5 6	7	4	0
French crowns or ecus	17	12	4 6	6	0	0
Crufadoes of Portugal	11	4	2 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	9	2 $\frac{2}{3}$
Three guilder pieces of Holland	20	7	5 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	10	3 $\frac{2}{3}$
Old six-dollars of the empire	18	10	4 6	6	0	0

The half quarters, and other parts in proportion to their denominations; and light pieces in proportion to their weights. And to remedy the inconveniences which were caused by the different rates at which pieces of the same species were current, it was ordered by proclamation, and confirmed by the said act of parliament, that, after the first of January 1704, no pillar, Mexico or Seville pieces of eight, though of full weight as above, shall be received nor paid at above six shillings a-piece; and the half, quarters, and the other lesser pieces in proportion.

And the currency of all other pieces above-mentioned are not to exceed the same proportion.

And the said act enjoins, That, if any one shall receive or pay any of the said pieces for any more than as above, they shall forfeit ten pounds.

A WEST-INDIA TABLE.

When any sum is advanced upon an ounce of sterling silver, upon 5 s. for an ounce, or when any sum is advanced over 4 l. for an ounce of standard gold, this table shews how much the said advanced money amounts to per cent. from 50 l. advanced upon 4 l. an ounce of standard gold, to the $\frac{3}{4}$ parts of a penny; and upon silver, from 2 l. advanced upon 5 s. for an ounce, to the $\frac{1}{28}$ part of a penny.

	On gold per cent.			On sil. per ct.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
50 Pounds advanced on 4 l. amounts to	125	0	0	—	—	—
45 Pounds on ditto to	112	5	0	—	—	—
40 Pounds	100	0	0	—	—	—
35 Pounds	87	5	0	—	—	—
30 Pounds	75	0	0	—	—	—
25 Pounds	62	5	0	—	—	—
20 Pounds	50	0	0	—	—	—
19 Pounds	47	5	0	—	—	—
18 Pounds	45	0	0	—	—	—
17 Pounds	42	5	0	—	—	—
16 Pounds	40	0	0	—	—	—
15 Pounds	37	5	0	—	—	—
14 Pounds	35	0	0	—	—	—
13 Pounds	32	5	0	—	—	—
12 Pounds	30	0	0	—	—	—
11 Pounds	27	5	0	—	—	—
10 Pounds	25	0	0	—	—	—
9 Pounds	22	5	0	—	—	—

E N G

	On gold per cent.			On sil. per ct.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
8 Pounds	200	0	0	—	—	—
7 Pounds	175	0	0	—	—	—
6 Pounds	150	0	0	—	—	—
5 Pounds	125	0	0	—	—	—
4 Pounds	100	0	0	—	—	—
3 Pounds	75	0	0	—	—	—
2 Pounds	50	0	0	800	0	0
1 Pounds	25	0	0	400	0	0
19 Shillings on an ounce	23	15	0	380	0	0
18 Shillings	22	10	0	360	0	0
17 Shillings	21	5	0	340	0	0
16 Shillings	20	0	0	320	0	0
15 Shillings	18	15	0	300	0	0
14 Shillings	17	10	0	280	0	0
13 Shillings	16	5	0	260	0	0
12 Shillings	15	0	0	240	0	0
11 Shillings	13	15	0	220	0	0
10 Shillings	12	10	0	200	0	0
9 Shillings	11	5	0	180	0	0
8 Shillings	10	0	0	160	0	0
7 Shillings	8	15	0	140	0	0
6 Shillings	7	10	0	120	0	0
5 Shillings	6	5	0	100	0	0
4 Shillings	5	0	0	80	0	0
3 Shillings	3	15	0	60	0	0
2 Shillings	2	10	0	40	0	0
1 Shilling	1	5	0	20	0	0
11 Pence on an ounce to	1	2	11	18	6	8
10 Pence	1	10	0	16	13	4
9 Pence	18	9	0	15	0	0
8 Pence	16	8	0	13	6	8
7 Pence	14	7	0	11	13	4
6 Pence	12	6	0	10	0	0
5 Pence	10	5	0	8	6	8
4 Pence	8	4	0	6	13	4
3 Pence	6	3	0	5	0	0
2 Pence	4	2	0	3	6	8
1 Penny	2	1	0	1	13	4
3 Farthings on an ounce	1	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1	5	0
2 Farthings	1	5	0	0	16	8
1 Farthing	1	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	0	0	8	4
$\frac{3}{4}$ of a penny	3	0	4	2	0	0
$\frac{2}{3}$ of a penny	2	0	2	1	0	0
$\frac{1}{2}$ of a penny	1	0	1	0	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{3}$ of a penny	0	0	0	0	0	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{28}$ of a penny	0	0	0	0	0	3 $\frac{1}{8}$

The foregoing table explained.

Suppose that silver was bought in Jamaica at 7 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of their currency per ounce, to know how much the advance money amounts to per ounce.

From the given price in currency 7 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce.
Subtract for the sterling value 5 0 per ounce.

The remainder is the sum advanced 2 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce.

Then to know how much the advanced price amounts to per cent. look in the foregoing calculation.

First for 2 s. which upon silver amounts to 1. 40 0 0 per cent.

Then look for 5 d. which is 8 6 8 ditto

Then look for $\frac{1}{2}$, which is 0 16 8 ditto

The 2 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ advanced on the ounce } amounts to 49 3 4 ditto

Which is the discount that currency should be at, when silver is sold at 7 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce.

An example of the gold.

Suppose that gold is bought in Carolina at 9 l. 15 s. 7 d. (of their currency) per ounce, and you would know how much the advanced sum amounts to per ounce.

From the given price 1. 9 15 7 per ounce.
Take the sterling value 4 0 0 per ounce.

The remainder is the advanced price 5 15 7 per ounce.

Then to know how much the advanced price upon the said ounce of gold amounts to per cent.

In the foregoing table look for 5 l. which } amounts to 125 0 0 per cent.

Then look for 15 s. which is 18 15 0 per cent.

Look also for the 7 d. which is 0 14 7 per cent.

The sum total shews that 5 l. 15 s. 7 d. } advance upon an ounce of gold, is at 144 9 7 per cent. the rate of

Which is the discount that currency should be at, when an ounce of gold, valued at 4 l. sterling, is sold for 9 l. 15 s. 7 d. of their currency.

Some examples on the simple arbitration of the exchanges, which may be compared with those under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES.

CASE I.

Suppose London exchanges on Amsterdam at 35 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.
And on Paris at 32 $\frac{3}{8}$.

Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between Amsterdam and Paris?

OPERATION.

1 Crown Paris = 32 $\frac{3}{8}$ d. London.

240 d. London = 422 $\frac{1}{2}$ grots Amsterdam, i. e. $35 \times 12 + 2$

8	257
2	845
48	169

$$\therefore \frac{257 \times 169}{8 \times 2 \times 48} = 56 \text{ grots Amsterdam. } \frac{425}{768}$$

CASE II. by way of proof of CASE I.

Let Paris exchange on London at 32 $\frac{3}{8}$,
And on Amsterdam at 56 $\frac{425}{768}$.

Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Amsterdam?

OPERATION.

1. 1 sterling = 240 d. sterling.

32 $\frac{3}{8}$ d. = 56 grots Amsterdam $\frac{425}{768}$

768	43433
257	8
845	
8	20
2	5

$$\therefore \frac{23433 \times 5}{257 \times 2} = 422 \text{ grots } \frac{1}{2} = 35 : 2 \frac{1}{2}. \text{ Proof.}$$

CASE III.

Let Amsterdam exchange on Paris at 56 $\frac{425}{768}$,
And on London at 35 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Paris?

OPERATION.

1 Crown Paris = 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ grots Amsterdam.

422 $\frac{1}{2}$ grots Amft. = 240 d. London.

768	43433
845	2
84	20
32	4
169	
8	

$$\therefore \frac{43433}{169 \times 8} = 32 \text{ d. } \frac{1}{8} \text{ sterling. Proof.}$$

INSTRUCTION.

By comparing what has been said under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES with these examples, and also what has been observed with relation to the application of this rule of conjunction, as well to foreign weights and measures under this article of ENGLAND, the reader cannot be at any loss, we conceive, to comprehend the reason and foundation hereof.

However, lest the utility and application of these operations should not be so thoroughly understood as we could desire, a little further illustration may not be altogether useless.

Let it, therefore, be supposed, that 100 l. sterling is circulated from London to Amsterdam at the price of exchange in the examples preceding, viz. at 35 : 2 $\frac{1}{2}$, how many guilders of Holland will this produce?

100 l. sterling, at 422 $\frac{1}{2}$ grots Amsterdam per pound sterling, will produce 1056 : 10 guilders of Amsterdam. [See the preceding part of this article ENGLAND.]

These 1056 : 10 guilders, circulated from Amsterdam to Paris, will produce at the arbitrated price of exchange (viz. 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ grots per crown of France) 747 crowns : 1 : 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ of France.—And these crowns drawn home to London, at the above exchange of 32 $\frac{3}{8}$ pence sterling per French crown, will produce the same 100 l. sterling.

This demonstrably proves, that the said price of 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ is the true arbitrated price of exchange.

The APPLICATION.

Whence it very obviously follows, that, if the real price of exchange in being at the time these computations are made (as in the first of the three foregoing cases) is more or less between Amsterdam and Paris than the exact arbitrated price,

you may draw home more or less than your 100 l. sterling. But, that you might not draw less, see what I have said under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, which need not be repeated; for, in transactions of this kind, the skilful and accurate merchant will watch the occasion to buy bills of exchange where they are cheapest, in order to dispose of them at such places, where they will, for the time being, sell the dearest. And,

With regard to the variation of the prices of exchange during the time of these negotiations, see what I have said upon that head under the before-mentioned article. See likewise the general article of EXCHANGE. For, as that judicious and experienced merchant Mr. Mun observes, in his advice to his son, whom he intended to breed up to merchandizing, 'That he ought to understand, and to be a diligent observer of the rates of exchanges by bills from one state to another, whereby he may the better direct his affairs, and remit over and receive home his monies to the most advantage possible.'

REMARKS. For the advancement of the general commerce of this kingdom.

Thus have we run through on this head of ENGLAND, in conjunction with what has been said under the articles BRITAIN [GREAT BRITAIN, BRITISH AMERICA, and COLONIES] some of the most essential particulars, which relate to the commerce of this kingdom; and these we have not only considered in a political, but in a practical light, which is accommodated to the affairs and transactions of traders in general; all which, together with what else we have already represented, and that we shall further represent, under the various articles to which the reader is referred, will, we apprehend, afford a connected series of the most useful matter, whereby to form the universal, as well as the particular merchant; and not only this, the supreme class of traders, but likewise every other species; there being scarce any trader, or any other man of business in these kingdoms, that hath any connection with commerce, but will find, we may humbly presume to say, some matter, some useful matter, which is really interesting to his profession.

Before we conclude this article of ENGLAND, it may not be improper to observe the bent, the spirit, the universal passion, if the expression may be allowed, of all civilized countries, for trade and commerce: of which this kingdom cannot be too jealous, nor keep to vigilant an eye over. Nor should the accounts of the commercial transactions of our neighbouring states be transmitted to us by piece-meal, and in a very imperfect manner, through the channel of newspapers only: on the contrary, would it not prove importantly useful, if our consuls, residents, envoys, and even ambassadors abroad, were, by virtue of their office, obliged, by authority, to transmit a faithful narrative, to our lords commissioners of trade, of all such like measures; and which should, from time to time, be communicated to the public by that honourable board, in the GAZETTE. For nothing of this kind should be kept from the knowledge of the people, to the end that they might timely prevent those evil consequences, which may threaten our own trade and navigation. When our artificers and manufacturers, when our traders and merchants in general shall be made sensible by authority, of what is doing in other countries to their personal injury, as well as that of the nation, they would speedily endeavour to avail themselves of such intelligence; they would struggle so to counteract their competitors, as to sustain the least detriment, if they should not be capable of totally defeating those rival enterprizes: they would, by their spontaneous industry and ingenuity, not only strive to preserve the trade they possessed, but would zealously attempt to obtain a share in any new branches that might be fell upon in foreign states: and, by a dutiful application to the great representative of this kingdom, they would certainly meet with all reasonable regard, because the parliament would then be convinced of the indispensable necessity thereof, from the authentic testimony of the officers of the crown residing in foreign countries.

And, as the fundamental source of new and prosperous branches of commerce, is the happy invention and discovery of new mechanical and manufactural arts and inventions, it is to be lamented, that persons of the first rank and dignity do not endeavour to inform themselves of the most eligible measures for their advancement. Such politics would certainly not redound less to their interest, than to their honour and glory; and that not only considered as constituents of the same community, but, if these promoters of such commercial arts were persons in power and authority, they would draw to themselves such friendships and attachments to their personal interest, that no little storms of state could possibly shake or discompose them; for what temporary juno's or cabals could disturb the repose of ministers, who should engage the trading interest of the nation in their favour and support? The landed part of the kingdom begin now to be so thoroughly convinced of their intimate connection of interest

terest with the trading part thereof, that the voice of the trading interest will in the general be ever followed by that of the land; and the monied interests will rarely act in opposition to those of land and trade: so that gentlemen in power seem to have nothing to fear, if they do not neglect our commerce.

Gentlemen of deep learning have, we are afraid, been too apt to imagine, that trade, and it's dependant arts of mechanics and manufactures, and others that have relation thereto, are not only beneath their study, but will afford them neither that delight in the pursuit, nor glory in the acquisition, as the more general kind of academical literature does. If gentlemen would candidly condescend to examine this notion, it is not improbable, but that they may find it such as to deserve being ranked among the tribe of vulgar errors.

The study of philosophy was in no age or civilized country thought unbecoming the dignity of the greatest men: I do not mean the verbose, the disputative, the pedantic species of philosophy, which has taught men little else than to ring the changes upon words and pompous musical periods, and to quibble expertly with the school logic and sophistry: we mean, on the other hand, that natural philosophy, which affords all the necessities and conveniences of life to states and empires; such whereby our own dominions are extended abroad, as a knowledge in physics secures us at home. And, methinks, it appears highly probable, that good naturalists may greatly reform trade, or improve it; since, in the general, it depends upon a number of the productions of nature; and chiefly lies in the hands of the mechanics, the manufacturers, and other artificers.

Thus, for instance, the husbandmen's skill consists in the knowledge of a few plants and animals, their relation to peculiar soils, and management, with the influence of the celestial bodies and meteors thereupon; all which subjects fall properly under the cognizance of a naturalist. He, therefore, who has attentively considered the nature of generation, nutrition, and accretion, both in plants and animals, and knows how to vary a useful experiment, so as to remedy the inconveniences or supply the defects thereof, and can dextrously apply his own, and others observations, may cultivate the art of husbandry to as much advantage as the ordinary farmer tills his land. And most of the noblest discoveries in husbandry have been owing to the sagacity of the experienced naturalist. See the article **HUSBANDRY**.

And here it brings to my reflection a notable attempt, said lately to be made in France; which, if it should happen to prove successful, will be another memorable instance of the abilities of the naturalist to advance the interest of commerce in that nation: the undertaking I have in view, is no less, if I am rightly informed, than an attempt to make the sheep of that kingdom to produce in the general as good wool; that is to say, as good, in quality and staple, as that of England or Ireland; and it is reported, but with what certainty we cannot presume to say, that all royal encouragement is given to this design, and such a progress hath been made already herein, as promises the desirable success to that kingdom.

If a design, of this high concernment to the woollen manufactures of France, should be attended with the prosperity aimed at, it must prove of far greater detriment to the trade of this nation, than the clandestine exportation of our wool. But, if any thing of this kind should be found so generally practicable as to answer the purpose intended, should it not excite our naturalists to think of ways and means so to manage our sheep, that we may be capable of carrying on our woollen manufactures, without the aid of Spanish wool? And, if the one should prove experimentally practicable in France, we may have some grounds not to despair of accomplishing the other in England: which, if we should be able to effectuate, it may make us some compensation for the loss we may sustain on the side of France*.

- * It is allowed by our woollen manufacturers in general, that the wool of Lemster in Herefordshire, which they call their ore, is no way inferior to the Segovia wool of Spain. Query therefore, Whether it may not deserve the consideration of an useful philosopher to enquire into the natural causes hereof, in order that other parts of England may from thence be brought to yield us an ample sufficiency of wool of the quality of that of Spain, without being obliged to purchase what we want of that kingdom.

Chemical experiments, made with judgment and accuracy, will give such insight into the nature and quality of soils, as may afford useful directions towards the melioration of pasture, as well as of arable and wood-lands. From experiments which have been made upon earths, dungs, and seeds, salts have abounded in the liquors they have yielded. Whoever has observed these many particulars in this art, which caused Sir Francis Bacon to pronounce nitre to be the life of vegetables, and considers how land is improved by pigeons dung, which impregnates it with salt-petre, and knows that moist fat earths, defended from the sun and rain, and left to themselves, will soon abound in nitrous salt: whoever considers these things, will, perhaps, believe an enquiry into the na-

ture of salt-petre may be of very profitable use in husbandry and farming.

The knowledge of the nature and distinction of saline bodies may greatly assist, to shew the differences of the various saltness that is found in soils, and with what sort each plant or seed is most delighted. By this means, many tracts of land now thought barren, for want of a knowledge hereof, might be rendered very advantageous: and why may not, therefore, that which is already very good in quality, be rendered, by found philosophy, still much better; and consequently, wherein is the improbability of pasture land being so improved in soil and suitable production, as to rear sheep in so neighbouring a country as that of France, where wool shall be no way inferior to that of England? And why may we not save ourselves the expence of Spanish wool?

Certain it is, that ground may be made to yield much better crops than usual, by being successively sown with a proper variety of seed, agreeable to the nature of the particular salt at present inherent in the earth; for, by the absence of one kind of salt, it is better prepared to feed those plants that delight in another. Of this the husbandmen have, in some measure, already taken notice, as appears by their sowing turneps in grounds too remote for the convenient carriage of compost, to serve for manure, and fit them for wheat. And why may not any land, except mere sand, without much culture, be rendered fertile, were we but well acquainted with the soil, and provided with the various sorts of grain, that nature affords in different countries?

There are various soils, both in England and elsewhere, left quite uncultivated, wherein some foreign vegetables might thrive and prosper. Many large tracts of steep and craggy land, exposed to the southern sun, lie wasted in several hot countries, where grapes are not planted; though in France, Italy, and even the Alps, such lands are turned into excellent vineyards. An experienced way of causing wheat to grow and prosper, even in clay, where no grain had thriven, has been successfully practised; and the art consisted in steeping the seed for a determined time, in a certain expressed oil that is not dear; whence it should seem, that, without altering the soil, a slight change, properly made in the seed alone, may fit them for each other, as to yield a large increase.

The more comprehensive any trade is, the more improvements it will admit of from philosophy; because, depending upon many natural productions and operations, there must arise many particulars to be meliorated or reformed, either in the manufacture or profession. Thus corn, in husbandry, renders a knowledge of the whole art of tillage convenient, with the ways to order cattle, the dairy, an orchard, a kitchen-garden, wood, flax, hemp, hops, bees, &c. and the particular productions of some of these, as honey, cyder, &c. are capable of improvement, and require skill to manage. In the variety of particulars, therefore, wherewith the husbandman deals, there must be some, wherein the superior knowledge and experience of the naturalist will be serviceable. And, as one of the principal parts of husbandry depends upon preserving the improvement of cattle, and preserving them from diseases, and also the fruits of the earth from putrefaction, natural philosophy conduces to these great ends. He who knows how to accelerate and retard putrefaction in bodies, may shew the husbandman how to prepare variety of manures, either for the pastoral or other purposes; to enrich his land with the peculiar kind of salt it wants; and also how to preserve several seeds, flowers, and fruits, beyond their natural duration.

To pursue the use of practical philosophy to trade a step farther. An attentive consideration of the parts that constitute each particular trade, would shew how all depend upon philosophy, and might be farther improved. Thus the principal parts of refining are a knowledge of the preparation of **AQUA FORTIS** [see that article.] and it's operation upon silver, copper, and gold, with the means to purge it, that neither gold may be dissolved, nor silver precipitated, when dissolved thereby; to know what proportion is dissolvable therein, and the quantity of water necessary to weaken the solution; how long copper-plates should lie to precipitate the silver it contains, how lead is colligated with, and what proportion thereof is requisite to carry off the baser metals upon the test; how cupels are best made, and with these to draw off lead or antimony from gold or silver; and lastly, to know the proper proportion of gold and silver, to make water-gold [see the article **GOLD**]. This trade, indeed, is understood by few, and yet is not so diffusive and complicated as hundreds of others; notwithstanding, if they all were resolved into their component parts, it would doubtless appear, that most of them are only corollaries, deduced from particular observations in philosophy, and the application thereof to the uses of commerce. And, if so, 'tis more than probable, that farther discoveries in the nature of the materials, the subjects of trade, and a knowledge of the laws they observe, may reform or meliorate several of it's branches. See **ROYAL SOCIETY**.

A P P L I C A T I O N.

Without launching deeper into a philosophical strain under the present article, we would only take leave to observe,

(1.) That since it might be demonstrated, in numberless instances, that every kind of trade is improveable by this true and useful philosophy, it follows, that these experimental studies cannot be too much cultivated in a trading nation; nor too much encouragement given to those who need it, that shall become the happy instruments of communicating whatever may have a tendency to the advancement of any branch of our commerce.

(2.) That it seems to be the interest of the state to propose suitable rewards and honours to those who shall excel in any thing of this kind, and not leave a matter of such consequence to the mere spontaneous disposition of the people, without any hope or expectation of advantage, except what the benevolence of some great man, an encourager of these studies, may please bounteously to bestow; and this too often obtained only by mean cringing and solicitation, or by fulsome and flattering dedications of any ingenious and elaborate performance, which men of learning and science may present to the public.

(3.) It is observable, that, in this kingdom in particular, the making of laws for the benefit of commerce does, in the general, take rise from the application and remonstrances of traders themselves to the legislature; and even to obtain the most reasonable and salutary laws upon these important occasions, has been, I am afraid, too frequently attended, not only with great expence to the supplicants, but such delay and procrastination as has proved extremely detrimental to the private concerns of traders, more especially to those whose residence has happened to be at sea-ports and trading towns, some hundred miles distant from the metropolis: whereas, in some neighbouring countries, the rise of all laws which relate to commerce, proceeds from the voluntary act and deed of the state itself; from the deliberate judgment of a succession of wise and able commissioners and ministers, appointed by authority, who have made it their business duly to enquire into all grievances that trade labours under, and instantly to afford all public aid and assistance to any peculiar branch thereof that may stand in need of it: so that the interests of trade, in some foreign countries, are not left to the vague will and judgment of traders, whether they will or will not apply to the state for suitable encouragement or no, or whether they apply in a manner suitable to the exigencies of peculiar branches; no; on the contrary, those in authority are of themselves solicitous to discover the wants of trade, and every difficulty and discouragement under which it lies; in order to remove them without delay, and without putting traders to the expence and fatigue of attendance month after month, and year after year, to the great neglect of their private concerns; which must necessarily prove proportionably detrimental to the general commerce of such nations.

That what has been suggested, with regard to foreign nations, is matter of fact, will further appear throughout this work, than what it already has done, from a series of the public acts, arrêts, and councils of several nations in Europe; which are zealously struggling to gain a superiority over others in their affairs of commerce.

For the means of permanently advancing the trade and navigation of our own nation in particular, see the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, EARTH, HUSBANDRY, LANDED INTEREST, TRADE, ROYAL SOCIETY.

ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY. We having, under the article AFRICA, referred to the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, it may be necessary to give a short history thereof, to which recourse may be occasionally had hereafter.

A short History of the AFRICAN COMPANY.

The Portuguese being the first that discovered the coast of Africa, they built one fort on the island of Arguin, on the north coast; another, called St George del Mina, on the Gold Coast; and a third at a place called Loango St Paul's, on the coast of Angola, to the southward of the Equinoctial Line: by virtue of which possessions, they not only claimed, and (for many years) enjoyed, the right in and to all the said lands and countries, but likewise seized and confiscated the ships of all other nations, as often as they found any of them trading on any part of the said coast.

About the latter end of the reign of king Edward VI. some London merchants fitted out the first English ships that ever traded to Guinea; and, in the reign of queen Mary, and for the first ten or twelve years of queen Elizabeth, sundry other private ships were fitted out for the same parts: but the English not having as yet any settlements or plantations in the West-Indies, and, consequently, no occasion for negroes, such ships traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and malaguetta; and all such voyages were undertaken and performed at the hazard of losing the ships and cargoes, if they fell into the hands of the Portuguese, without the least ground to hope for any redress or satisfaction for the same.

Queen Elizabeth, in the 30th year of her reign, being then at war with Spain and Portugal, erected a company for the better discovering and carrying on a trade from the northern most part of the river Senegal, and from and within that river, all along that coast, unto the southernmost part of

the river Gambia, and within the same; and gave and granted unto them the whole and sole trade in, to, and from the said rivers and countries, for a certain term of years; with prohibition to all others her subjects to trade to the same places, on pain of forfeiture of ships and goods: and these were the first English merchants that ever trade to the coast of Guinea, by and under the authority and protection of the crown of England.

In the reigns of king James I. and king Charles I. 2nd during the time of the usurpation, sundry persons were encouraged, by public authority, to trade to other parts of Africa, and to take such measures for the better carrying on and improving the same, as they should judge most proper. In pursuance whereof, they built one fort, at a place called Cormantine, on the Gold Coast, and another in the river Gambia, on the north coast: and these were the only places of any consequence which the English were in possession of at the Restoration.

The States-General of the United Provinces observing, as we may imagine, the measures taken in England for encouraging of a trade to Africa, did also, about the year 1621, erect and establish a company, which they called the West-India Company; and, for their encouragement, gave and granted unto them all the lands and countries which they could conquer, or gain possession of in Africa, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and in America, from the southernmost part of Newfoundland to the Straights of Magellan and La Maire, on the east side, and from those straits to the Straights of Anian, on the west side; with the whole and sole trade, and liberty and right of trading into and from all such lands and countries; and also with prohibition to all others their subjects to trade to, or frequent them, or any of them, under the severest penalties. Whereupon the said company applied themselves to the making of divers great and important conquests in Brazil and Africa: and such success attended their arms, especially in Africa, that, in the year 1637, they took the strong fortress of St George del Mina, on the Gold Coast; and, in a year or two more, all the other Portuguese forts and settlements on the same coast: all which places were afterwards yielded to them by the treaty of truce and navigation concluded (anno 1641) between the crown of Portugal and the States.

From this time, and in virtue of these possessions, thus taken from and yielded by the Portuguese, the Dutch West-India company took upon themselves to claim the sole right and property in and to all the lands and countries in Africa, from Cape Palmas to Cape Lopez, comprehending all the Gold Coast and Whydah, and sundry other great and populous countries on each side of them. And, although the English had built a fort at Cormantine, and settled factories at sundry other places on the Gold Coast, before the Dutch had made the said conquests, and had, therefore, as good a right and title as themselves to a free trade at all places on the same coast, not in their actual possession or occupation; yet, from this time forward, the Dutch West-India company always kept one or two cruizers on the said coast, whose chief business was to watch all such English ships as came to trade there, and to follow them from place to place, and either to lie between them and the shore, and intercept their trade with the natives, or to frighten them off the coast, and ruin their voyages, or to seize and carry them to St George del Mina; and this not only when such ships were found trading on the Gold Coast, and at places near any of the said Dutch company's forts and settlements, but also at places several hundreds of miles distant from them.

King Charles II. soon after his restoration, being made acquainted with the dangerous and precarious state and condition to which the trade of his subjects in those parts was reduced; and having likewise received many complaints touching the interruptions given to, and depredations committed upon, the ships of this nation, by the Dutch West-India company on the coast of Africa, it became necessary to consider not only of a proper method for protecting and securing the said trade for the future, but likewise how and in what manner reparation might be obtained for such damages and depredations.

For the first, it being now evident that the single and separate endeavours of private English merchants were by no means sufficient to contend with the united power and interest of the said Dutch West-India company in those parts of the world; and the English having found, by former experience in the East-Indies, what little stress was to be laid on any treaty that might be concluded between the two nations in Europe, for the security of such a distant branch of our trade: the only choice which his majesty had left for maintaining and defending the right of his subjects to a free and unmolested trade in Africa, against the pretensions and incroachments of such a rival, was to incorporate and unite such of his own subjects as should be willing to engage in the said trade, into one body, and to give and grant unto them such powers, privileges, and encouragements, as the circumstances of the trade at that time required; which was accordingly done by letters patents under the great seal of England, bearing date the 10th day of January, 1662; and the

faid united body of English merchants was called The Company of Royal Adventurers of England trading into Africa. As to the second, his majesty was pleased to cause a particular account of the damages complained of to be drawn up, and transmitted to his envoy at the Hague, with orders to demand and insist upon full reparation for the same. And, for the better protecting of the new company, it was likewise judged necessary to fit out a man of war to the coast of Africa, under the command of captain Holmes. But neither the one or the other of these steps had the desired effect: for in Holland the states started for many difficulties, and made such delays, that no satisfaction could be obtained for any past injuries. And as to affairs in Africa, as soon as they had advice that captain Holmes had by assault taken, and possessed himself of a fort near Cape de Verde, belonging to their West-India company, they made all imaginable preparations to fit out a squadron for the coast of Africa, to retake the said fort by force of Arms; notwithstanding his majesty assured them, that he had given no commission or order to captain Holmes for that purpose, nor did know upon what grounds he had proceeded to that act of hostility; that he expected him shortly at home, and that he would then proceed in a very strict examination of his proceedings, and would cause exemplary justice to be done, as well in redelivering the fort, as in punishing the person, if his carriage and demeanour deserved it. Which having no better success than the former messages, in relation to reparation for about TWENTY SHIPS taken from his subjects on the coast of Guinea: and the Dutch ambassador telling his majesty in plain terms, That they had given instructions to the admiral of their fleet, that was then going for Guinea, to take their fort near Cape Verde by force, and to take any English which had had a hand in doing them injury: his majesty then found himself under a necessity of fitting out a strong squadron likewise for the same parts, under the command of prince Rupert; which the States no sooner had notice of, but they altered their language, and, for avoiding the effusion of Christian blood, as they pretended, proposed that the fleets on either side might be detained within the harbours, and not suffered to put to sea; and that some expedients might be found out by treaty for each other's satisfaction: but, in the mean time that they were making this plausible offer, they sent secret orders to their fleet in the Straights, under the command of De Ruyter, to make all possible haste to Guinea, to execute all those instructions which they had given to their fleet at home; which orders he executed so rigorously, that he not only retook the fort near Cape de Verde, and seized and confiscated all the English ships that he could meet with, but also, by the assistance of the natives of one of the adjacent countries, who had been bribed by the Dutch general at Elmina for that purpose, he attacked and took the English fort at Cormantine, and put a Dutch garrison into the same.

Some time before this the parliament had made an enquiry into the obstructions and incroachments of the Hollanders upon our trade, and into the losses which our merchants had sustained thereby; which they found to amount to the value of 7 or 800,000l. and thereupon both houses came to this resolution, April 21, 1664, That the wrongs, dishonours, and indignities done to his majesty, by the subjects of the United Provinces by invading his rights in India, Africa, and elsewhere: and the damages, affronts, and injuries done by them to our merchants, were the greatest obstructions of our foreign trade: and that the same be humbly and speedily presented to his majesty, and that he be most humbly moved to take some speedy and effectual course for redress thereof, and all other of the like nature, and for prevention of the like in future; and that, in prosecution thereof, they would, with their lives and fortunes, assist his majesty against all oppositions whatsoever.

This resolution being presented to his majesty the 27th of April 1664, he was thereupon pleased to renew his instances with the States for the satisfaction so long demanded, with more vigour than ever; insomuch, that in an audience of the 25th of June following, he told the Dutch ambassador, That it was not to be suffered that the Dutch West-India company, only by the means of a few forts, and three or four ships, should pretend to render the coasts of Africa inaccessible to all others, by blocking up the havens against their commerce, and keeping them off, and driving them from every place. But the States turned a deaf ear to all these remonstrances: the losses of our merchants amounted to too great a sum to be easily reimbursed; and the advantages of the trade to Africa, could they have wholly engrossed and secured the same to themselves, were too great and important to be willingly parted with. And therefore, instead of shewing any inclination to give the requisite satisfaction on either of those heads, they chose to renew their attacks upon the English in Africa with more resolution than ever, under the conduct of their admiral De Ruyter, as aforesaid. And on the other hand, the king having tried all other methods in vain, found himself obliged, upon the first notice of De Ruyter's proceedings in Africa, to comply with the desires of his parliament, and with the voice of his people; and accordingly, on the 22d day of February 1664-5, his ma-

jefty declared war in form against the States General of the United Provinces.

Nothing is more evident, than that the chief view of the Dutch at this time, and for some years before, had been to exclude the English entirely from the trade to Africa, and to engross the same wholly to themselves. And it is equally apparent, that the value which they then set upon this trade was such, that, rather than consent that the English should enjoy a share thereof peaceably and quietly, they made it their choice to stand all the hazards, and to bear all the inconveniencies of a war with England. But, however, it so fell out, that the event did not answer their expectations: for, in spite of all the efforts of the Dutch, the English company kept their footing in Africa; and, by the third article of the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, anno 1667, it was mutually agreed, that each party should keep and enjoy all such lands, islands, towns, fortresses, places, and colonies, as during that war, or before, the one had by force of arms, or otherwise, taken from the other. And, in virtue of this article, the Dutch West-India company kept possession of the English fort at Cormantine, and the Royal African company kept possession of the castle at Cabo Corso, which they had (by the assistance of Capt. Holmes) retaken from the Dutch before the war began, and to which they had an undoubted right.

But the stipulations in this treaty, in favour of the said English company, were by no means sufficient to enable them to bear up against the many difficulties they had to struggle with. They had found it extremely difficult to persuade people to come in at first, and be concerned with them in so precarious and hazardous a trade, by which means their stock was much too small for such an undertaking: they had been obliged to be at great charges in Africa, and they had met with many severe losses by captures, and otherwise at sea, during the war; and, for want of a sufficient stock to begin with, they had contracted a large debt at home: and, under these circumstances, they were so far from being able to carry on and improve their trade, or to make any new acquisitions, that it was with the utmost difficulty that they could keep and preserve those places which they had still in their possession.

For extricating themselves, therefore, out of these and the like difficulties, as well as for opening a way for others to undertake the care, management, and improvement of so valuable a trade with more success, they consented and agreed, for and in consideration of a certain sum of money, which was to be paid unto them by another new company then intended to be established, to surrender their charter to the crown, and to assign and transfer all their estate, property, interests, and effects in Africa, and elsewhere, unto the said new company.

His majesty likewise approving of this, as the most proper expedient, as well for doing justice to the company of royal adventurers, as for the better preserving and enlarging the trade to Africa, was thereupon pleased to accept of the said surrender; and by his letters patents under the great seal of England, bearing date the 27th day of September, 1672, to establish and incorporate the late royal African company of England, and to give and grant unto them, all and singular, the lands, countries, havens, roads, rivers, and other places in Africa, from the port of Sally in South Barbary, to the Cape of Good Hope, for and during the term of one thousand years; with the sole, intire, and only trade and traffic into and from the said countries and places, with prohibition to all others his subjects, to visit or frequent the same, without the licence and consent of the said company: and also, with such other powers and privileges, as were then judged proper and necessary, for enabling and encouraging them to undertake so hazardous and chargeable a work.

Hereupon the new company provided proper books to take subscriptions in, and kept them open for near twelve months, and invited all his majesty's subjects that pleased to become adventurers with them, and to subscribe for what sums they thought fit, towards raising a sufficient joint stock for retrieving the said trade out of the dangerous and precarious condition it was then in, and for the better securing and enlarging the same for the future. But so backward and fearful were merchants and others at this time to be concerned therein, that all the subscriptions they could get from all parts of the kingdom, amounted only to the sum of 111,100l.

With this stock, however, small as it was, this company applied themselves with all possible vigour, to pursue the ends of their establishment. At this time the Dutch West-India company were in possession of the strong fortress of St George del Mina; and of the English fort at Cormantine, then called Fort Amsterdam; and they had likewise another, called Fort St Anthony at Axim; another, called Fort St Sebastian, on the river Chamah; a fifth, called Fort Nassau, at a place called Mouree, about two leagues to the leeward of Cape Coast; a sixth, called Creveceur, at Acra; and a seventh, called Fort Conraadsburg, at St Jago, within cannon-shot of St George del Mina; all on the Gold Coast, and lying very commodious to succour and assist one another in any case of need: the Danes were in possession of one small, but impregnable fort (afterwards called Fort Royal) on the top

top of a hill, within gun-shot of Cape Coast; and of another at Acra, to the eastward of the Dutch fort at the same place. The elector of Brandenburg (the late king of Prussia) had one good fort, at Cape Three Points, and two smaller ones at some little distance to the eastward of the same: and the new English company were in possession of one small fort at Cabo Corso, that being the only fort on this coast, which the Dutch had not dispossessed the former company of during the late war.

The first thing, therefore, which this company found most necessary to be done, was to endeavour, by all lawful ways and means, to strengthen themselves, as much as possible on this coast, as other nations, and especially the Dutch, had done before them. And, for this purpose, they enlarged Cape Coast Castle, and made it six times larger, stronger, and more commodious than before: they built one fort at Acra, another at Dick's-cove, a third at Winnebah, a fourth at Succundee, a fifth at Commenda, and rebuilt a sixth at Anamaboe, all on the Gold Coast, and three of them within musket-shot of Dutch forts; and they likewise purchased Frederickburg, now Fort Royal, of the Danes, without which Cape Coast Castle could not be safe: and they also built another fort from the ground at Wydah, for the security of the negro trade at that place.

And, although in the prosecution of these works, the said company met with all possible opposition from the Dutch West-India company on the Gold Coast, which often broke out into open hostilities, and many times ended not without bloodshed on both sides; and the company were put to an incredible charge and expence in purchasing the consent and assistance of the natives, for making such settlements, as well as for transporting, from time to time, the necessary supplies of soldiers, artificers, provisions, and all other necessaries and materials from England for such buildings; all which were rendered still more difficult, chargeable and hazardous, by the long war which ensued with France: yet, nevertheless, the said company never ceased their care and endeavours, 'till they had completely finished their said undertakings, and thereby put the English interest on this part of the coast of Africa on an equal foot with the Dutch, and much superior to that of any other nation whatsoever. All which they effected during the short time that they were permitted to enjoy the privileges granted them by their charter.

On the north coast, where it was natural to think the company should have met with less opposition, and more success, matters did not succeed altogether to their wishes. The Dutch West-India company were in possession of the forts of Arguin and Goree; the French Senegal company (which was established anno 1673) were in possession of a small fort on an island within the bar, in the river Senegal; and the royal African company of England had one small fort in the river Gambia, and another settlement in the river Sierraleon. And in this situation affairs continued 'till about the year 1677; and the companies of each nation traded freely to all places on the open coast (not in the actual possession of any of the others) from Cape Blanco to Cape Mount.

In the years 1677 and 1678, the French took the Dutch forts on the islands of Arguin and Goree, which soon after were yielded to France by the treaty of Nimeguen: and, in the year 1685, the French king, judging the grant to the Senegal company, which extended from Cape Blanco to the Cape of Good Hope, too large, restrained that company to that part of the coast which extends from Cape Blanco to the river Sierraleon; and erected another company, which was called the Guinea Company, and gave and granted unto them the sole trade to and from all that part of the coast which extends from the river Sierraleon to the Cape of Good Hope. And from this time the French trade to Africa was managed and carried on by those two distinct companies.

The last of these companies made no great progress in their trade 'till about the year 1702, that the French king gave them the contract, which he had made with Spain, for introducing a certain number of negroes yearly into the Spanish West-Indies. But that contract being afterwards transferred to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, the said company was soon after abolished, and the trade to Africa, within their limits, laid open to all the subjects of France; in which condition it continued from the year 1716 to 1720, and no longer.

As for the Senegal company, they were scarcely warm in their new possessions, before they set up a claim to all that part of the coast which extends from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, comprehending above 500 miles in length. In the year 1681, they would fain have hindered the royal African company of England's ships from trading all along that coast: but, not being as yet in a condition to contest that point with them, they dropped their pretensions against them for that time. In the years 1683, 1684, and 1685, they seized and confiscated several ships belonging to the Portuguese, Dutch, and Prussians. And, in the last of those years, they renewed their claim against the royal African company: from which time they continued to give them frequent interruptions in their trade, 'till at last a war broke out between the two nations; which, together with the difficulties the company fell

under at home soon after, put it in a manner wholly out of their power to assert and maintain their own and their country's rights against such encroachments, as otherwise they might and would undoubtedly have done.

R E M A R K.

Does not this, as well as the general conduct of France towards Great Britain, shew the necessity under which we lay, to annex the river Senegal to the crown of this kingdom, as we have done by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763?

The losses and damages which the company sustained, during the course of the war, were more and greater than can be easily imagined. But one of the chiefest was the loss of their fort in the river Gambia, anno 1695, which, by the negligence of their servants, making no defence, was taken and plundered by a squadron of French men of war, and all the fortifications demolished and razed to the ground. And, as a farther addition to this misfortune, when the company came to take possession thereof again, after the peace, they found the French settled in the river, and claiming an equal share of the trade thereof with themselves.

In the year 1697, the parliament, having taken the trade to Africa into their consideration, thought fit, as a further means of enlarging and improving the same, to lay the trade open to all his majesty's subjects for 13 years, and from thence to the end of the next session of parliament; and, in regard that the royal African company of England had been at the charge of building and maintaining a considerable number of forts and castles on the said coast, which the parliament likewise judged necessary to be kept up and maintained in future, for the preservation and better carrying on the said trade, they were further pleased to impose a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem, on all goods and merchandize exported to Africa, during the said term, to be answered and paid to the said company for enabling them to keep and maintain their said forts and castles.

This act continued in force from the 24th of June, 1698, to the 24th of June, 1712; in which time the charges which the company were at in maintaining their said forts and castles, amounted, at a medium, to about 20,000 l. per ann. and, in 14 years, to 280,000 l. in the whole. The Duty which the separate traders paid in the same time, amounted, in the whole, to 73,785 l. 10 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, and no more; and 10 per cent. upon the company's own exports for the same time, amounted to the sum of 36,387 l. 13 s. 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. From whence it appears, that, even while that act continued in force, the total of the 10 per cent. duty came very much short of half the charges and expences which the company were at in keeping and maintaining their said forts and castles.

Since the expiration of this act, in 1712, to this day, all others his majesty's subjects have traded as freely and openly to all parts of Africa, as they did or might do under the authority of the said act; and the said company did, at their own cost and charge, bear and defray the charges and expences of keeping and maintaining their said forts and castles, which, at a very moderate computation, has been represented, by the said late royal African company, to amount to above 250,000 l. By which means, and by the extravagant rise in the prices of negroes at Anamaboe, and other places on the coast, and by the decay of the gold trade which ensued thereupon, the proprietors of the company were, for many years past, obliged either to raise sundry great sums of money for keeping and maintaining their said forts and castles, without receiving any profit from the trade in return for the same; or to run the risque not only of losing all the money which they had from time to time raised and expended for supporting their own property, but of becoming accessaries to the entire loss of the trade to Africa, and consequently, by relinquishing and abandoning their said forts and castles, to be seized and possessed by such foreign nations as were long watching for an opportunity to get them into their hands.

This being the case with regard to the company, and it being the sense of the nation, that the trade to Africa should continue free and open to all his majesty's subjects, the only thing that remained to be considered was, whether, or no, forts and castles were necessary to be kept up and maintained for the preservation of the said trade to this kingdom? And, if they were necessary to be kept up and maintained for that purpose, who, upon the foot of an open trade, ought in justice and reason to bear and defray the charges of them?

That it is absolutely necessary that forts and castles should be kept up and maintained in Africa, was urged from these considerations.

For 250 years past, it has been the constant policy of all such European nations as have been so fortunate as to make any new discoveries, and to gain any established power and authority in remote and barbarous countries, to build and maintain forts and castles; and, in virtue of such possessions, to claim a right to whole kingdoms, and to tracts of land of a vast extent, and to exclude all other nations from trading in, to, or from them.

By this method the Portuguese long enjoyed the whole trade to Africa and to the East-Indies.

By the like measures the Spaniards, for many years, claimed and engrossed almost the whole continent of America, and most of the islands adjacent thereto, to themselves.

By this method the Hollanders have rendered themselves absolute masters of all those islands in the East which produce cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, and mace, and from them supply the whole world with those commodities, by such quantities, and at such prices, as they think fit.

By this method the same people, for some time before and after the year 1660, attempted to gain the whole and entire possession of the most valuable parts of the coast of Africa, and to exclude this nation from any part, share, or interest therein; and thereby brought upon themselves a war with this kingdom in 1664.

Before the royal African company had built a sufficient number of forts and castles on the Gold Coast, the Dutch interrupted our trade, and seized and confiscated our ships on the said coast, and within its dependencies; which, as they pretend, extend from Cape Palmas to Cape Lopez, and contains a tract of land of above 1200 miles. Since the royal African company have built and maintained a sufficient number of forts and castles on the Gold Coast, the said company, and all other British ships and vessels, have traded freely to the said coast, and to all places dependent thereon, without the least interruption or molestation from the Dutch, or any other nation.

Before the French got possession of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the islands of Arguin and Goree, on the north coast, the English traded freely and openly to all places on the said coast, without any let or molestation. Since the French have been in possession of those forts, they have not only taken upon themselves to exclude the British nation from those parts, and do now actually take and confiscate all such British ships and vessels as venture to go thither; but they come freely and uninterruptedly to trade within our African company's rights and privileges; and traffic under the very nose of our forts and cannon.

In those places where the royal African company have forts, as in the river Gambia, the British separate traders trade freely with the natives. In those places where other nations have forts and castles, and the royal African company have none, there all British private traders are either absolutely denied the liberty of trading, or their ships are actually taken and confiscated.

For the better supporting of forts and castles in Africa, his most Christian majesty has not only given and granted unto the India company of Paris the whole and sole trade of that coast, from Cape Blanco to the Cape of Good Hope, but likewise allows them the following great and extraordinary privileges and encouragements, viz. an exemption from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, and to the French islands and colonies in America: an exemption from half the customs of all goods and merchandizes imported from Africa; and from half the customs on all sugars, and other merchandize, imported from the French islands and colonies in America, being the produce of the sale of negroes there: an exemption from all tolls of any kind upon their goods and merchandize in France: a bounty of 13 livres, to be paid out of his own revenue, for every negro carried to the French islands and colonies in America: and, lastly, a bounty of 20 livres for every eight ounces of gold dust which they shall bring into France.

I. An exemption from all local and provincial duties of any kind, upon their goods and merchandize in France, as also from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, wherewith to purchase negroes, &c. which, considering the number of ships they employ in this trade, cannot be computed at near so small a sum as 150,000 l. sterling per ann. nor the whole exemption at so small a rate as 3 per cent. thereon: say only

l. 3000

II. An exemption from half the customs on all sugars, and other merchandize imported from the French islands and colonies in America, being the produce of the sale of negroes there: the amount of which will appear by the following moderate computation, viz.

Suppose 15000 negroes only (whereas good judges reckon them not less than double that number) are imported into the French sugar islands annually; and that 10000 of that number only should be sold for sugar to be returned to France, at the rate of 40 hundred weight of sugar only per head,

The duty on importation of sugar into France is 3 per cent. on about two-thirds of the value; which is at the rate of 2 per cent. There is also an inland duty of

Carried over l. 3000

Brought over l. 3000

three livres, or 2 s. 9 d. sterling per hundred weight.

Suppose the price of such sugars is computed at no more than 25s. per hundred, which, upon 10,000 negroes, makes 400,000 weight of sugar: and this, at 1 per cent. being one half of the duty upon importation, amounts to

l. 5000

400,000 hundred weight of sugar, at 1 s. 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per hundred, being half of the above inland duty of three livres, or 2 s. 9 d. sterling per hundred weight, is

l. 27,500

III. A bounty of 10 livres, or 9 s. 2 d. sterling, to be paid out of the king's revenue, for every negro carried to the French sugar islands and colonies in America; which, upon the said 15,000 negroes only, amounts to

l. 6,875

IV. A bounty of 9 s. 2 d. for every ounce of gold dust that shall be imported from Africa into France. Suppose only 5000 ounces of gold imported from Africa into France, which is quite trifling and inconsiderable, when we recollect how rich their ships in the Guinea trade are in gold, as appeared by some captures made in the late war, is

l. 2,296

The total is per ann. in sterling money

l. 44,671

N. B. The exemption of duties on what the other 5000 negroes produce in coffee, indigo, cotton, cocoa, &c. is left out in this account, lest any exaggeration should be made; and in every other article things are extremely under-rated, which every one at all acquainted with the extent of the French trade to Africa and America need not be apprized of.

Nothing can be a more modest computation than this. But, if to those extraordinary encouragements we tack that of exclusive powers and immunities besides, it must certainly give the French a great weight of influence and authority in their negroe-trade in Africa.

Yet their encouragements do not terminate here only: there is one single article alone, which seems to be so well calculated to make the most of the labour of negroes, and encourage their planters, that it may not, perhaps, be esteemed inferior in its good consequences to all the rest, considered together: and that is, the maxim of giving their most industrious planters credit out of the public stock, or the king's treasury, for negroes, and other planting materials. The management of this part of their encouragement, it seems, lies between the comptroller-general of the finances and the company: they are, indeed, as prudence directs, cautious of their planters to whom they give such credit; but, if they are persons of known probity and industry, and make proper application, they need want no credit for negroes, or any other planting materials*.

* The French king also grants lands in his plantations, gratis, to poor industrious people, sent thither from France, and gives them other encouragements to go over and settle there; and moreover lends money to his American subjects, in case of hurricanes, which destroy their plantations, and other unavoidable misfortunes.

Measures of this nature, it may be worth observation, have been the constant practice of France, when they have aimed at carrying any capital point in trade. It was by thus giving credit to traders out of the royal treasury, that the celebrated Monsieur Colbert first enabled France to rival England in the woollen manufactory; for, after he had brought the French to furnish their own people, and cloath their own nobility and gentry, and even the king himself, with their own woollen manufactures, and exclude the English manufactures from France by a law, they turned their thoughts upon supplanting us at foreign markets. To which end that great statesman caused credit to be given to exporters, even, 'till the returns of their woollen goods came from abroad. This was done particularly to the Turkey merchants at Marseilles, who had credit for the woollen manufactures of Nismes, 'till the return of their ships from Smyrna and Scanderoon: by which wise encouragement the Marseillians first supplanted the English in the Levant trade; in which, we are too sensible, they have increased ever since.

In like manner, the States-General of the United Provinces, for the better enabling their West-India company to keep and maintain their forts and castles in Africa, have not only given and granted unto the said company the whole and sole trade of Africa, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, but do likewise pay and allow unto them the following extraordinary aids and incomes, viz. from the several provinces of North Holland, Zeland, and Groningen, a subsidy of 38,000 florins per annum: a duty of 3 per cent. on all goods and merchandize exported to, or imported from, any

any place between Newfoundland and Cape Florida: a duty of 2 per cent. on all goods and merchandize exported to, or imported from, any place on the continent of America from Cape Florida to the river Oroonoko, including Curaffo; both which are computed to amount to 100,000 florins per annum: a duty of five guilders per last on all ships trading to Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and other Caribbee Islands, or to any place from the river Oroonoko to the Streights of Magellan and La Maire, and from thence to the Streights of Anian, computed at 3000 florins per annum: one third part of the net income of the colony at Surinam, computed at 10,000 florins per annum: the clear profits of the colony of Ifacape, computed at 20,000 florins per annum: and all the profits arising from the captures and licences which they are authorized to make upon, or to grant to, such Portuguese ships as come upon the coast from Lisbon or Brazil for negroes, valued at 100,000 florins per annum, making in the whole 271,600 florins, or about 25,000 l. sterling per annum, communibus annis.

Now as it is evident, from the succinct history we have given of this trade, that the recovery of it out of the dangerous and precarious state and condition to which it was reduced about the year 1660, is wholly and solely owing to the care which the company took, and to the charge and expence which they were at for many years together, in building and maintaining a proper number of forts and castles on the coast of Africa; it is apparent, that the safety and preservation of our trade to Africa, against the pretensions and incroachments of such nations as are strongly settled in those parts, depends absolutely upon our keeping up and maintaining the said company's forts and castles on the same coast in a defensible condition.

This point, therefore, being thus established upon the strongest evidence that matters of this nature are capable of, the next thing that remains to be considered is, Since forts and castles on the coast of Africa are absolutely necessary for the preservation of that trade to this kingdom, and since it has been free and open to all his majesty's subjects, it was but just and equitable that the public should have supported those forts and settlements.

While the company enjoyed the whole and sole trade to Africa, they purchased, built, and maintained their said forts and castles at their own sole cost and charge, and thereby acquired an undoubted right and property in and to them. The charges of keeping them from the year 1672 to the year 1698, was not less, according to the company's accounts, than 15,000 l. per ann. which, in 26 years, amounts to the sum of 390,000 l. The charges for the next 14 years, viz. from 1698 to 1712, at 20,000 l. per annum, deducting the amount of the duty which the separate traders paid in the same time, came to about 206,000 l. And the charges which the company were at on the same account, for the succeeding 17 years, reckoning but 15,000 l. per annum, comes to 255,000 l. which three sums make together the sum of 851,000 l. And so much, at least, the company represented that they had expended in keeping and maintaining their said forts and castles since the commencement of their charter; and that, exclusive of many other necessary articles of expence, which might be brought in, if they had a mind to swell the account. Now, although the company did willingly and cheerfully bear the expence of the first period, because nothing had been done by public authority in all that time to deprive them of any of their privileges; although they continued to keep and support their said forts and castles for the next succeeding 14 years, in hopes that the duty of 10 per cent. upon their own and the separate traders exports to Africa would have fully defrayed that charge, as the parliament undoubtedly intended it should; and although the company, for the preservation of their own property, as well as for the protection of the trade, continued to keep up and maintain their forts and castles for 17 years after, at their own sole cost and charge; whereby they expended in the service of their country above 250,000 l. yet, while the trade to Africa remained free and open to all others his majesty's subjects, there was no reason why the company should be obliged to keep and maintain the said forts and castles at their own sole cost and charge.

Accordingly, in the year 1730, the company petitioned the parliament, and they obtained 10,000 l. to enable them to support their forts and settlements; which sum was annually continued to them, except two or three years interruption, till the last change made in the state of this company, by an act of parliament made in the year 1751, intitled, An act for the application of a sum of money therein mentioned, granted to his majesty, for making compensation and satisfaction to the royal African company of England, for their charter, lands, forts, castles, slaves, military stores, and all other their effects whatsoever; and to vest the lands,

forts, castles, slaves, and military stores, and all other their effects, in the company of merchants trading to Africa, and for other purposes in the act mentioned.

By this act the said company were divested of their charter, and, after the 10th of April, 1752, ceased to be a corporation, and their forts, castles, and all other their possessions in Africa, are vested in the new company of merchants trading to Africa; and, in consequence of the trade to Africa being, by virtue of the said act, and that also of the 23d of Geo. II, made free and open to all his majesty's subjects, the parliament allow the said company 10,000 l. per annum for the support of the forts and castles for the public service.

R E M A R K S.

Thus have we given a brief and faithful history of the beginning and end of the late African corporation; upon which I shall take leave to make the following queries:

1. Whether so extensive and populous a country as Africa is, will not admit of a far more extensive and profitable trade to Great-Britain than it yet ever has done?
 2. Whether the people of this country, notwithstanding their colour, are not capable of being civilized, as well as those of many other have been; and whether the primitive inhabitants of all countries, so far as we have been able to trace them, were not once as savage and inhumanized as the negroes of Africa; and whether the antient Britons themselves, of this our own country, were not once upon a level with the Africans?
 3. Whether, therefore, there is not a probability that those people might, in time, by proper management exercised by the Europeans, become as wise, as industrious, as ingenious, and as humane, as the people of any other country has done?
 4. Whether their rational faculties are not, in the general, equal to those of any other of the human species; and whether they are not, from experience, as capable of mechanical and manufactural arts and trades as even the bulk of the Europeans?
 5. Whether it would not be more to the interest of all the European nations concerned in the trade to Africa, rather to endeavour to cultivate a friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with those people, into the very center of their extended country, than to content themselves only with skimming a trifling portion of trade upon the sea-coast of Africa. See our article EAST-INDIA COMPANY.
 6. Whether the greatest hindrance and obstruction to the Europeans cultivating a humane and Christian-like commerce with those populous countries, has not wholly proceeded from that unjust, inhumane, and unchristian-like traffic called the SLAVE TRADE, which is carried on by the Europeans?
 7. Whether this trade, and this only, was not the primary cause, and still continues to be the chief cause, of those eternal and incessant broils, quarrels, and animosities, which subsist between the negro princes and chiefs; and, consequently, of those eternal wars which subsist among them, and which they are induced to carry on, in order to make prisoners of one another, for the sake of the slave trade?
 8. Whether, if trade was carried on with them for a series of years, as it has been with other countries that have not been less barbarous, and the Europeans gave no encouragement whatever to the slave-trade, those cruel wars among the Blacks would not cease, and a fair and honourable commerce in time take place throughout the whole country?
 9. Whether the example of the Dutch in the East-Indies, who have civilized innumerable of the natives, and brought them to the European way of cloathing, &c. does not give reasonable hopes, that these suggestions are not visionary, but founded on experience, as well as on humane and Christian-like principles?
 10. Whether commerce in general has not proved the great means of gradually civilizing all nations, even the most savage and brutal; and why not the Africans?
 11. Whether the territories of those European nations that are interested in the colonies and plantations in America, are not populous enough, or may not be rendered so, by proper encouragement given to intermarriages amongst them, and to the breed of foundling infants, to supply their respective colonies with labourers, in the place of negro slaves?
 12. Whether the British dominions in general have not at present an extent of territory sufficient to increase and multiply their inhabitants; and whether it is not their own fault that they do not increase them sufficiently to supply their colonies and plantations with Whites instead of Blacks.
- How the trade to the most interior parts of Africa may be extended for the benefit of Great-Britain, see particularly the article EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

An ACCOUNT of the castle slaves, canoe men, military stores, canoes, and vessels, belonging to the late Royal African Company of England, at their several forts on the coast of Africa, according to the surveys made by the order of Tho. Pye, Esq; commander of his majesty's ship Humber, in the year 1749; and which are delivered up to the present new company of merchants trading to Africa, according to the act of parliament of 1751.

Names of Ports.	Castle slaves.	No	Guns.	Pound.	Where mounted.	Shot.	No	Powder.	Musquets.	Military stores.	No	Vessels.	No	
CAPE COAST CASTLE.	Carpenters	10	12	12	On the platform.	Differt. fizes	4616	lb 3000 damaged.	Musquets At Queen Anne's Point.	23	Bayonets	23	Lively	
	Blacksmiths	7	10	9						19	Swords	19	Schooner	
	Armourers	3	4	9						20	Cartouch-boxes	6	A launch	
	Brickmakers	3	2	6	On the S E bafion.					6	Halberts	6	Seventeen	
	Bricklayers	9	2	9						26	Bells	6	hand canoe	
	Gunner	1	4	6	On the S W round bafion.						6	Drums	13	Hand ditto
	Goldsmiths	3	5	6							2	Daggers	2	11
	Slaves cooks	2	5	1	On the N E bafion.						2	Partizans	9	Hand ditto
	Chief cooks	3	1	3							5	Hand ditto		
	Doctors fer- vants	2	2	2	On Greenhill Point.									
	Coopers	3	1	4										
	Chapel fer- vants	7	1	6										
	Gold-takers	2	3	4	Brafts on the pa- rade.									
	Men	137	1	3										In the spur un- serviceable.
	Canoe men	20	1	3	Brafts on the lieutenants room									
Women	79	3	12											
Children	76	2	9	At Fort Royal, difmounted and nailed up.										
		2	6											
		3	1										At Phipps tow- er, carriages broke, &c.	
COMMENDA.	Bomb boy	1	7	3	S W bafion.	From 9 pound- ers to 2 pound- ers	800	390 lb	Musquets	6	Granado shells	42	13	Hand canoe
	Sawyers	10	3	3	S E bafion.							Bayonets	6	Formers
	Women	6	3	6		Cartouch- boxes	10	Copper ladles				2	5	Hand ditto
	Children	5	1	4	Buccaneer- guns	9	Swords	6	3	Hand ditto				
			1	9	Danes guns	30	Fathom 2 1/2 in rope	30						
SUCCONDEE.	Men	5	1	9	N bafion.	From 2 pound- ers to 6 pound- ers	360	None.	Musquets.	Powder-horns- Priming-wires	2	11	Hand canoe	
	Women	2	3	4						6	Brafs ladles	13	3	Hand ditto
	Children	3	3	4	W bafion					Worms	7			
			1	5						S bafion				
			2	4	E bafion									
			1	2						N E curtain				
			3	3										
	DICK'S COVE.	Sawyers	4	8	3	S platform	Diffe- rent fizes from 3 to 6 pound- ers	150	104 lb.	Musquets	Copper ladles	2	5	Hand canoes
		Carpenters	4	1	4						6	Worms	6	2
		Smiths	4	3	3	N E bafion					Formers	3		
Mafons		2	2	6	S W bafion.									
For all uses		43	5	4		S E bafion								
Sick		5	10	3	S W platform					Swords	6			
		3	4	N W bafion					Bayonets	6				
TANTUMQUERRY.	Men	6	2	4	S E bafion	From 1 pound- er to 9 pound- ers.	24	3 C wt	Danes guns Cutlasses	6	Granadoes	30	None.	
	Women	4	1	9						3	Copper ladles	1		
			3	4	S W bafion.					Worms	5			
			2	4						N E bafion				
			2	1	S W bafion									
			1	4						Unserviceable in the tower. N. B. All hard- ly fit for use.				
			1	1										
			2	4										
		1	4											

Names of Ports.	Cattle slaves.	No	Guns.	Pounds.	Where mounted.	Shot.	No	Powder.	Musquets.	Military stores.	No	Vessels.	No
WINNEBAH.	Men	8	2	3	SE bastion.	From 3 pounders to 6 pounders.	197	2C wt	Musquets with bayonets and flings — Swords —	Hand grana- does — All forts of military stores wanting:	8	None.	
	Women	5	1	4									
				1	8	SW bastion.							
				1	6								
				1	4	NE bastion.							
				1	8								
				1	3	NW bastion.							
				1	4								
				3	3	Platform							
				2	3								
			2	1	Over the gate.								
A C C R A.	Men	7	3	6	NW bastion	From 1 pounder to 9 pounders —	600	5 C wt	Musquets —	Hand grana- does — Sponges — Worms — Copper ladles	50	7 Hand Canoes 5 Hand ditto 3 Hand ditto	
	Women	15	2	4									
	Children	4	2	6	NE bastion								
	Canoe men	6	3	4									
				1	9	SW bastion							
				3	4								
				2	3	SE bastion							
				2	6								
				8	6	Platform							
				6	3								
			3	3									
W H Y D A H.	Men	33	7	3	SW bastion	From 2 pounders to 9 pounders —	380	240 lb.	Musquets — Blunderbusses	Copper ladles Worms —	6	11 Hand canoe, bad	
	Women	46	2	2									
	Children	27	3	3	SE bastion:								
	Canoe men	12	2	6									
				1	4	NE bastion.							
				1	9								
				2	4	NW bastion:							
				3	3								
				7	3	Parade.							
				2	6								
			2	4									
JAMES ISLAND, GAMBIA.	Sawyers	4	5	6	NW bastion, one of the 4 pounders out of repair.	Of several different sizes	900	Barrels No 12. Mufquet cart-ridges, filled, 200.	Musquets in very bad repair — Coehorns —	Match — Hand-spikes — Rammer heads — Cordage — Iron Crows —	17	Sloops 20 tons each, and 5 guns Long boats — Canoes —	2 4 6
	Carpenters	4	2	4									
	Smiths	4	4	6	NE bastion SE bastion, the 4 pounders very bad, and 2 guns wanting.								
	Masons	2	5	6									
	For all uses	43	1	4	SW bastion, 1 gun wanting.								
	Sick	5	5	6									
				4	24	N Half-moon.							
				1	12								
				3	9	W Half-moon.							
				2	24								
			15	0	Swivels unmounted.								
			8	0									
					Not fit for use.								

N. B. The gun carriages in good repair, the trunks most of them iron; but in want of all military stores, except what is mentioned under that article.

R E M A R K S.

From this view of the forts and settlements belonging to Great-Britain on the coast of Africa, and now vested in the company of merchants trading thereto, a judgment may be made of our strength there, when compared with that of other European nations, who have forts and settlements upon the same coast.

That our readers may have all desirable satisfaction upon this head, we shall now give an account of the forts and settlements in Africa, which belong to other European powers who have a share in this commerce.

1. The northernmost settlement is that at Arguin, on the Gum-Coast, in the latitude of 20 degrees north, formerly belonging to the king of Prussia, for which, in the late queen's time, on occasion of an overture made by the said king to dispose of that and another small fort at Cape Three Points, which is afterwards mentioned, to this nation, he demanded for them 200,000 crowns; but they have since been purchased of him by the Dutch, for 30,000 l. sterling. And afterwards taken by the French in 1721, and now in their possession.

2. The river Senegal, in the latitude of 16 degrees north, where the French have several very considerable forts, settlements, and plantations, for a great many miles up the river.

3. The Island Goree, a little southward of Cape de Verde where the French are likewise settled, and have a very strong castle.

4. Cutcheo and Bisseo, two Portuguese settlements, lying in 12 degrees north latitude.

5. Ancobra, the first European factory on the Gold-Coast, belonging to the Dutch West-India company.

6. Axim, about one league to the eastward of Ancobra, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company.

7. Fredericksburg, at Cape Three Points, about five leagues to the eastward of Axim, a fort formerly belonging to the king of Prussia; lately sold by him, together with that at Arguin, before-mentioned, to the Dutch, for 30,000 l. afterwards taken and demolished by the natives, and lately recovered out of their hands, at the expence of a long and chargeable war, and now resettled by the Dutch West-India company.

8. Butteroe, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about eleven leagues eastward of Cape Three Points.

9. Tacquerado, a factory-house belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about three leagues eastward of Butteroe.

10. Succundee, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about three leagues eastward of Tacquerado.

11. Shumah, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about four leagues to the eastward of Succundee.

12. Commenda, a fort belonging to the said company, about five leagues eastward of Shumah, and within gun-shot of an English fort.

13. St George del Mina, the principal fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, on the Gold-Coast, about four leagues eastward of Commenda.

14. St Jago, a fort on the top of a hill, within gun-shot of St George del Mina, belonging to the same company.

15. Mourea, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about four leagues to the eastward of St George del Mina.

16. Cormantine, a fort built by the English, and, in the war in 1665, taken by the Dutch, and now belonging to the Dutch

Dutch West-India company, about five leagues to the eastward of Moura.

17. Apong, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about ten leagues to the eastward of Cormantine.

18. Borracoe, a fort belonging to the Dutch West-India company, about eleven leagues to the eastward of Apong.

19. Acra, a fort belonging to the king of Denmark about two miles to the eastward of the Dutch fort.

20. St Loango St Paul's, in the latitude of 10 degrees south, where the Portugueze have several forts and settlements, and a large city; and thereby carry on a very great and advantageous inland trade for some hundreds of miles.

By this account of the forts and settlements of other nations, we cannot doubt a moment of the high value they set upon the trade to Africa, and with what care, industry, and expence they have laboured to gain and secure to themselves a share therein.

See our new and correct MAP of the coast of Africa, from Cape Blanco, latitude 20 degrees 40 minutes north, to the coast of Angola, latitude 11 degrees south, where the settlements belonging to the several European powers are delineated according to their situation, with the flags of the respective countries to which they belong. Upon the same sheet also, we have given a separate correct map of the GOLD-COAST upon a larger scale. And, in our large map of the coast of Africa, we represent the great encroachments that the French, when this work was first published, made on our trade to Africa in general, and upon the GUM-COAST in particular.

R E M A R K S.

But by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, article IX. "His most christian majesty cedes, in full right, and quaranties to the king of Great-Britain, the river SENEGAL, with the FORTS and FACTORIES of ST LEWIS, PODOR, and GALAM; and with all the rights and dependencies of the said river SENEGAL."

By means of this acquisition in AFRICA, added to our other ancient settlements upon that coast Great-Britain at present has it in her power more than ever she had, to prevent any future encroachments of the French, or any other state upon the commerce of Africa; and more especially so, if that whole commerce should be put upon a more stable, permanent, and extensive footing, in order to enlarge and extend the INLAND-TRADE of that part of the world, by a proposition for that purpose, or some thing similar thereto, which I have suggested under the article EAST-INDIA COMPANY. See EAST-INDIA COMPANY. For by the last peace, a better foundation is laid to carry DESIGNS of that kind into execution, with far less obstruction than when we suffered the French to monopolize the gum trade, and the whole commerce of the river Senegal to themselves, and usurp the right to trade for the best negroes to ANNAMABOE, and other places on the African coast, under the very nose of our best British forts and castles there.—And this that rival nation was suffered to do for above these 30 years past with impunity, to the eternal ignominy of this kingdom; and those who had the administration of public affairs, during that long period of time.—Yet these men dare at present to dub themselves friends to the British nation, when they most shamefully neglected the care and protection of it's trade in general, as appears throughout this work. By their disregard to the British African trade in particular, they suffered France to stock all their sugar colonies, with the very best of negroes to be had on the coast, by encroachments on our rights of trade there, whereby they raised their SUGAR COLONIES to the pitch they were before the definitive treaty, and by that means supplanted us almost in the whole sugar trade of Europe, to the unspeakable emolument of France, and proportionate detriment of these kingdoms. See AMERICA for the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

E N G R A F F I N G. In order to pursue the art of engraffing to the best advantage, our garden ought to be stored with stocks of all sorts; that is, with such as are pomiferous, or apple-bearing; pruniferous, or plumb-bearing; bacciferous, or berry-bearing; nuciferous, or nut-bearing; glandiferous, or mast-bearing; and filiquiferous, or cod-bearing; because we may sometimes meet with that which will only be increased by grafting; and, as most trees fall under one or other of these classes, so our nurseries should be provided with stocks of these several sorts, that we may graft the apple-bearing upon the apple-bearing, and the pruniferous upon the pruniferous, and so on.

The wildings, which are engraffed on, are called the stock, and the twig, or shoot, which we are to engraff upon the stock, is called the cyon, or graft; every cyon or graft, when it is rightly disposed on the stock, according to art, will take root in the stock, and retain the virtues of it's mother plant.

Some sort of plants will more readily join by eneying, or inoculating, than by grafting; and there are others which will not take by either of these ways, but by inarching only: again, there are some which will only join by approaching; all which

we shall consider, observing, by the way, that nature gives us large liberties in grafting such, as that we may graft apples upon pears, or pears upon apples, and both these upon the common white thorn, upon which, also we may graft medlars, the lazeoli and services; and upon the grafts we may also graft the quince: all these may be made to grow upon one tree by whip-grafting, or by cleft-grafting, or stock-grafting, or by inoculating, eneying, or budding.

So the pruniferous fruits, such as peaches, neclarines, apricots, cherries of all sorts, and plumbs of all sorts, may be budded upon plumbs, or upon one another; and what seems extraordinary, is, that the lauro-cerafus, which is our common laurel and ever-green, may be inoculated upon the cherry and the plumb, and be made a companion for all those of the pruniferous race. By this we may observe, that these grafts, or buds, are so many plants of different kinds, which grow upon one plant; which is like one certain sort of soil, wherein we find growing many plants of different sorts; but we must observe, that one kind will prosper better than another.

The first sort of grafting we shall mention, is that which is called whip-grafting, or rind grafting: this is performed by paring off part of the bark on one side of the stock, either after we have cut off the head of the stock, or else while the head remains on the stock, for it is done both ways: if we cut off the head of the stock, then the bark we take off must leave the wood bare about an inch and half from the place where the head is cut off downwards towards the root, and as wide as the cyon which we design to join to it; then we must, with our knife, slit the stock down from a little below the place where the head is cut off, guiding it with the grain of the wood, 'till we have made a tongue on the side of the stock where the bark is pared off, about an inch long; this being done, we are next to pare off the bark from one side of the cyon, and then with our knife make a tongue in the wood of the cyon, of such a length as may fit exactly with that in the stock; which, when we have placed together, so that the barks of both the cyon and stock join, we must tie them fast with bafs, and cover all the wounded part with fine loam, well mixed with cow-dung; or else we may cover the wounded part with the following mixture, viz.

To four ounces of bees-wax add as much tallow, and when these are melted together, add about an ounce and a half of rosin; which must be used, when it is blood-warm with a soft brush; then we need not tie the cyon and the stock together, for these coverings are only designed to keep the air and the wet from the wounded part 'till they are united, which they soon will be, if the tongues of the stock and the cyon are well wedged into one another.

When this sort of grafting is used without cutting off the head of the stock, the bark is then taken from the stock in any smooth part of a shoot, i. e. between the buds, and, fitting the cyon to it as before with tongues, the wounded part is covered with some of the aforementioned grafting-wax. This last operation may be done when the sap is in it's highest fluences; but the first must be done just before the buds begin to shoot.

Cleft-grafting, or stock-grafting, is performed by cutting off the head of the stock, and then with the knife slitting the stock downwards an inch or two, in proportion to the bigness of it, and of the cyon to be put into it; then the bottom part of the cyon is cut wedge-wise, of the same width with the slit, and so place the cyon in the opening we have made in the stock, that the bark of the stock and the cyon both join or match with one another.

If the stock happens to be very large, as sometimes it is in this kind of grafting, such as an old tree sawed off, which may measure, perhaps, three feet in the girt, then we must be forced to open the places where we are to fix our grafts, with chissels, and keep them so open with wedges 'till the grafts are fixed to your mind: in such stocks, three or four grafts may be placed, but two are sufficient, if you could be sure they would all take.

In Worcesterhire it is common enough to graft apples this way, with cyons, which measure about five inches in the girt, and they prosper very well; but it must be observed, that the cyons may be larger if they are of trees that have tender wood, than if they are of a hard wood. When this is done, lay on some of the grafting wax, as before directed, so as to cover all the wounded parts of the stock and cyon. In this case, where the stock is large, there is vegetable matter enough in it to feed the cyons to good advantage; so that the third year they will produce extraordinary large fruits, though, before the old head was cut from it, the fruit was hardly bigger than hazle nuts. Here is another example of a tree growing upon a tree; and, as the cleft-grafting is practicable upon the oldest trees, so it is to be done upon plants which are not above three months old from the seed. The method is, when orange-trees are raised from their seed, that, as soon as you find they have got a stalk about three quarters of an inch above the ear-leaves, you cut off the top, and, making an incision cross that stalk, bear your knife downwards towards the part where the ear-leaves join with it, and then chusing a tender shoot of a bearing tree, that will match with the stock, you cut the bottom of it in the manner of a wedge, and place it

it as before observed, so that the barks may join, and then apply some of the grafting-wax warm, with a fine painting brush. This operation may be performed all the summer long.

The surest way of grafting is that of inarching, or inlaying the young shoots of one tree into another; for here, if the part which acts as a cyon does not happen to join with the stock, it may still remain on the tree. To perform this, you must have a collection of stocks in pots, that, when you have any particular tree which you have a mind to increase, you may bring the stock to it; and then, cutting off the head of the stock, you chuse out such a shoot of the valuable tree, as may, with the most ease, be brought down to the stock; then both these must be ordered with tongues, as in the whip-grafting, only you must leave that part which is to act as a cyon, to join with the tree in such a manner, that it may be well fed with the juices of the tree: to do which, you should cut the tongue of the graft half way only through the shoot. Being thus ordered, you are to tie the two joining parts very close, and cover them with a mixture of loam and cow-dung, taking care to secure the inlaid branch from flying from the stock, which sometimes it will do, if it is not well secured by strings and sticks: for though this is a work to be done in the summer, when the plants have their sap in the greatest fluency, yet the mildest summer is not without it's storms. Some plants, it should be observed, must remain thus joined 'till the second year, before they are cut from the bearing, or the desired plant; especially those whose enarched shoots are of a more hardy or woody nature; but, where you can inarch green shoots, such as those of oranges or lemons, if you perform this work in May, you may cut them off in August, if you find they have taken hold of the stocks.

When you have cut out plants from the mother-tree, you must set them immediately in some place of shelter, where the winds may not get at them, otherwise the new heads, which are tenderly joined, will be subject to break from the stocks; or, if the stocks be growing in the natural ground, then, when you cut the young inarch from the tree, you must be careful to guard them well with stakes.

* The art of grafting in the cleft consists, says Agricola, in taking a second graft, and placing it in the cut of a branch or stock of a young tree. This manner is generally known; yet there are many gardeners who, out of twenty grafts, have eighteen fail. They will say, perhaps, they have an unlucky hand; but I say rather they have an unskillful hand, which he experienced to his cost. But at length, says he, I have found out one that never fails. He cuts off the head of the wild stock very short, or very near the earth, and takes, for that purpose, a cyon that has shot out well that year, and, after having carefully smoothed the surface of the trunk, then, with a pruning-knife, he makes a gash from north to south, and cuts the graft just in the joint, whether it be a branch of two or three years old, or a long shoot of the same year, and makes the intail on each side near the bud.

It is best to cut the graft on both sides, as we cut a pen, a little slanting, taking great care not to do the least hurt to the pith; and observing not to make the cut too far in; for the deeper the wound in the tree is, the more difficult it is to cure. It is strange that some people make great wounds in trees, the effect ever shewing them to be in the wrong. We must likewise take care in fixing the graft in the wild stock, that the bark of the one answers exactly to the bark of the other, for so the sap rises the better into the graft. All this being done, we must cover the whole with grafting-wax, which is generally known; but it's composition is different. My gardener took half a pound of common pitch, a quarter of a pound of wax, and half an ounce of the oil of almonds: these he melted together over a fire, and, when the composition was well mixed, he made long rolls of it, to keep for use; but, if it was made in spring or autumn, he put a moderate quantity of turpentine to it. After having covered the cleft with it, he put a double paper, or linnen, over the top of the tree, tying it gently with bafs, especially on stone fruit-trees; and, to hinder the too great pressure, he put on each side of the cleft a narrow slip of the bark.

There is a method of grafting two or three times upon one another, which is a good way, and is called reiterated grafting, or the double or treble incision. This operation is thus performed: they first graft a good cyon on a wild stock; this they cut away to the half or a third part, and fix another graft on it, of a better kind, and on that another; for, the oftener a tree is ingrafted, the finer fruit it produces: in this manner muscat pears have been cultivated of an exquisite flavour.

I took from my orchard a stock grafted with the pound-pear, whereon I grafted a good summer bon chrétien; when this branch had shot, I grafted a cyon of the bergamot on it, which I also cut, and grafted upon it a cyon of the muscat pear, which has given me great satisfaction. I used also to graft in the splint or intail, which is properest for large, wild, and unfruitful trees, that have a stock of a foot or two diameter; this is done in the manner following: cut off the head of the tree, leaving the trunk only half a man's height from the

root; then smooth the top with a knife; after which, divide the stock into six, seven, or as many more parts as you design grafts; which, when you have marked out, take a good knife, and with a mallet strike it on the marked place, through the bark into the wood; then withdraw your knife, and make an incision against it on the other side, so as to resemble an angle; then take a graft an inch thick, and cut it also at the bottom on both sides angle-wise; then fix it in the great stock, so as the wood may fit with the wood, and the bark with the bark. You may make an intail over it, so as to hold them together: when this is done, you must take care to cement the top, and tie it, as it ought, with bafs. This is a diverting, though troublesome operation; but, when all the grafts take, they will pay very well for your trouble. There is also another manner of grafting, which is called ingrafting of branches. This is a very certain and profitable operation, and is best practised on large well-grown trees, and even upon the old, with great satisfaction. In this case, you must not divert the tree of all it's branches at once, but only lop off the half, which is enough at first; for, if we take away all, we find that the volatile sap, which circulates vigorously towards the top, will choak the tree by it's superabundance. When the branches are well prepared for the purpose, we make use of grafts of three or four years old, and take care to support them with stakes, to prevent any inconvenience from the wind, or otherwise: you will have perhaps, the same year, or the second or third, such a quantity of fruit as the youngest and soundest trees would hardly produce.

When I had sufficiently examined this manner, a curiosity seized me of trying another method. In the month of February I took up several wild stocks, which were fresh and found, and, after lopping off their heads, I ingrafted them in the ordinary manner; then I put them in the cellar in pots of sand, and took a requisite care of them; they begun then to revive and grow, and to shoot out gradually. In April I brought them by degrees into the air, and then they begun to bloom apace, and in May they were in full flower.

Being desirous to proceed still further, I looked into several treatises of gardening; and, among other methods for the improvement of trees, I found one which is called grafting in the bark. In this operation you do not cut the stock as in the ordinary manner; but only thrust the graft between the wood and the bark: this is most proper for kernel-fruits. I take a sound graft of one, two, or three years old, and at the bottom, near a bud, I make an incision with a grafting-knife, but not so deep as to hurt the pith; then I cut the rest of the wood, pointing towards the bottom, a knot's length, but only on one side, in such a manner as not to injure the inner green rind. Whether the aperture between the wood and the bark should be made on the north or east side, is what I will not determine at present; yet I have found this a very good way too, and have made an incision in the bark near the top, as long as the graft required: then opening the incision with a little ivory grafting-knife, with a good edge, I there thrust in the prepared graft, so as that the place where it's bark was peeled off was turned outwards, and joined to the bark of the stock. This place must be covered with grafting-wax, and the whole bound up with the bafs. Nevertheless, you must put on both sides, between the ligature, a bit of loose bark, that it may bind the tighter; for, if they do not press closely one upon the other, there grows a kind of callus or excrescence, which not only deforms the whole tree, but is a great prejudice to its growth.

Though this method gave me a great deal of pleasure, yet still I was not satisfied, but was earnest to discover some other better ways of improvement. To this end I visited, from time to time, the fine country-seats at Kumpfmuhl, a little village a quarter of a league from Ratibon, where we sometimes find very extraordinary gardeners. Among others, I found one occupied in inarching a lemon-tree, which he did in the following manner: he placed a wild lemon-tree in a pot, near a fruitful one, towards which he inclined it a little; then he chose a sound branch of the bearing tree, and bowed it towards the wild one, to see whether it would match well with it as to height and thickness. Having found all right to his mind, he cut the wild stock sloping just under the crown, and smoothed it well with his grafting-knife; then he slit the stock, as the custom is in common grafting, and placed the crooked branch only at the entrance of the gap, so as the barks bound closely one upon another, and the branch stood upright.

Before this, he had cut the branch a little on both sides (where the insertion was to be made) from the bark to the wood; afterwards he bound up the grafted place as in the ordinary way, and, setting up a stick near it, he tied the stock to it, that it might not be hurt by the shaking of the wind. As soon as the branch began to shoot a-new (which happens commonly in less than six months) and that he found the graft to be well joined, he cut it from the bearing tree, and left the young graft to feed only upon the wild stock. This is a very pretty way, and is infallible, inasmuch as the wild stock contributes jointly with the bearing tree towards an abundant nutrition, 'till the graft has taken.

The same gardener took an occasion, while I was with him, of speaking of a multiplication by union, which he thus performed. He placed a wild orange stock near a fruitful tree, and, after having picked out a sound branch of each, and cut a little of the bark and wood from each of them, about two or three inches in length, in the place where they were to embrace, or be joined together, he closed them strictly one upon the other, each remaining upon its tree, and then plaistered them with grafting-wax, and tied them. In this manner the branches grew one within another; and, when he saw they were perfectly united, he cut the branch of the bearing tree, so that it remained joined with the wild one, which, by this means was improved. It must be observed, during this union, that, to prevent the agitation of the wind, we must tie the trees to small stocks. The same thing may be done by fruit-trees, when they are near each other. The operation, which we may call embracing, is very like this, and is performed as follow: we put the branches cross-wise, one over the other, and then make an incision in each branch, in proportion to the thickness of the branches; then we plaister them over with grafting-wax, and bind them as before described. Though these two different methods cannot be used with respect to all trees, because they often are at too great a distance one from the other, and the branches cannot be easily brought together, yet these are inventions not to be despised.

R E M A R K S.

As there is no topic of more general utility and emolument than the cultivation of lands, and the improvement of the vegetable tribe; so nothing is more deserving of our assiduous study and contemplation, than what tends to this end. And, although many of our own countrymen, as well as foreigners, have obliged the world with some useful and curious performances upon this subject, yet we do not apprehend it is exhausted; and we are rather inclined to believe, that there are far more discoveries behind than have hitherto been made into the nature and cause of vegetation.

Nothing is more certain than that great improvements have been made by art in agriculture in general, within this century. Is not our own country, in particular, a glaring instance of the truth hereof, from the innumerable examples of exotics that have been here raised by practical philosophy? Have we little more to boast of in regard to our natural productions than the crab? There seems, therefore, less to be owing to the climate, than to soil and philosophical management; and, if so, it does not seem at all improbable, but that almost whatever grows in one climate, may be produced in another; and this not under cover only, and by the means of stoves, but generally in the open air; for if heat, and all its efficacious qualities, can be so administered by art and philosophy to the roots of vegetables, why may not the spices of Asia be as well produced in Great-Britain as in the Indies? The Holy Scriptures inform us, that he who was esteemed the wisest of men, was so far from disregarding a knowledge of the vegetable kingdom, that he was well acquainted with the same, even from the hyssop upon the wall to the cedar of Lebanon. These are only occasional hints, which may be improved upon hereafter, to the benefit of individuals, as well as the whole kingdom.

ENGRAVING, the art of cutting metals and precious stones, and representing thereon whatever device the artist pleases, in order to strike off great numbers of the impression from such engraving, in a short time and at a small price. Among the French, in particular, this art is divided into several branches, according to the matters whereon it is practised, and the manner of execution. The first way of engraving, on wood, is distinguished at present, with us, by cutting in wood; that on metals, with aquafortis, is named etching; that by the knife, burnisher, or scraper, mezzotinto; that on stones, carving or stone-cutting; and that performed with the graver on metals, or precious stones, signifies that branch of engraving which we shall, at present attend to. The principles whereon this art is grounded, are the same with those of painting, viz. **DESIGN** [see that article] which an engraver ought to make his peculiar study; for, without that, he will neither be able to imitate the performances of the greatest masters in painting, nor to design any thing exquisite of his own: his workmanship may, indeed, be delicately engraved, but will ever want that justness, that accuracy, and that spirit, which are the characteristics of a masterly performance.

In imitating the paintings of eminent masters, the engraver should studiously conform himself to the manner, taste, and beauty of the copy, in order to preserve that elegance of character which distinguishes the stile of one master from that of another. And, to the end that he may become familiar with the superior and affecting delicacies of those who have excelled, he should devote himself to the paintings of Raphael, Caracci, Dominichino, Pouffin, and others, and, at first, more particularly to the forming of the outlines of their figures.

To do which to any tolerable perfection, it is necessary that an engraver should understand perspective and architecture. The former will enable him with ease to throw backwards,

by the natural degradations of strong and faint, the figures, and other objects of the picture, or design he would execute; the latter will capacitate him to preserve the due proportion of its orders.

To execute well in this art, as well as in others, every material therein used should be duly regarded. Thus the copper which the best workmen chuse, is the red, that being esteemed the toughest. Before the engraver begins to trace any thing on these plates, he cannot be too careful of their polish, and that his graver ought to be of the purest steel, well tempered for the occasion, and never blunt.

There are in this, as in other manual arts, some who, at the first glance of their performances, shew an extraordinary facility, others great labour, in their workmanship. Of the former are Goltzius, Muler, Lucas, Kilian, and some others, who seem to display more dexterity in the command of their instruments than justness and proportion in their outlines, the expression or effect of light and shade. The elaborate pieces too frequently abound with infinite strokes and points, and these often confounded together, without any significant order.

In conducting the strokes of the graver, care ought to be taken that they always flow freely and naturally, and that odd fantastical winding are avoided, which proceed rather from caprice than judgment and necessity: yet the contrary extreme is to be guarded against, which young artists are apt to run into, who, when they would be thought to engrave finely, make none but straight strokes; whereas the graver must be conducted according to the various risings and cavities of the muscles, which depends upon a knowledge in anatomy, as well as design.

In the representation of sculpture, the work should never be made dark, because as statues, &c. are commonly made of white marble, or stone, the colour reflecting on all sides does not produce such dark shades as other matters.

In regard to drapery of every kind, if the diversity of stuffs can be represented by engraving, it generally adds to the beauty of the piece. As on these occasions there is a necessity of crossing the strokes, it should be observed, that the second, should be finer than the first, and the third than the second, it making the work appear more soft and mellow. Stuffs that have a lustre should be struck with stronger and straighter strokes than others; for these being commonly of silk, produce flat and broken folds, which being expressed by one or two strokes, according to the lightness or darkness of their colours, should have finer ones between them. Velvet and plush are expressed in the like manner, by fine strokes between others, with this difference: the first strokes should be much stronger than for stuffs, and the finer ones between them should hold the same proportion as those in stuffs do. Metals, as vessels of gold and copper, or armour of polished steel, are to be engraved also with fine strokes, between strong ones, it being the opposition of light and shade that occasions the lustre.

With respect to architecture, perspective shews us, that the strokes which form receding objects tend to the point of view: if a piece to be engraved contains any entire columns, it will be proper to represent them, as far as can possibly be done, by perpendicular lines; for, in crossing them according to their roundness, those strokes which are near their capitals, being opposed to those which are near their basis, produce a disagreeable effect, unless supposed to be at a great distance, which renders the object near parallel.

For landscapes. The practisers of etching may form the outlines by it, particularly of the leaves of trees. This is sometimes more expeditious than engraving, and does as well, provided it be done with discretion, not too strong, and that care be taken in finishing it well with the graver, that the etching be imperceptible, because it has not the softness of engraving.

In representing of steep objects, the first strokes should be frequently interrupted and broken off, the second straight, cutting the others with acute angles, and accompanied with long points. If you would represent rocks, the second strokes should not form the angles so acute as for other things, flints and pebbles shining commonly more than other matters. The objects receding towards the horizon should be touched very lightly, and charged with little shade, though the mass should appear dark, as it may happen from some shades, supposed to proceed from clouds intercepting the rays of the sun; inasmuch as these shades, however strong they may appear, are always faint, compared to those which are on the figures and other bodies in the forepart of the piece, on account of the distance and air that intervenes between the objects.

All waters are either calm, or agitated by waves, or by cascades and rapid currents, like rivers, &c.

Calm are represented by straight strokes, running parallel with the horizon, with finer ones between them, which are to be omitted in some places, to make their shining reflection which proceeds from the water. By the same second strokes, also, made more or less strong, according as the nature of things require, and sometimes by perpendicular ones, the forms of objects, either reflected on the surface of the water, or advanced at a distance on its banks, are represented: observing

servng that they are to be represented strongly or faintly, in proportion as they approach to, or recede from, the fore part of the piece; and, if trees are to be represented, it should be with outlines, particularly if in the fore-part of the piece, and the water clear, they being naturally so represented by the reflection of the water. Those which are agitated, as are the waves of the sea, are represented by strokes, bending according to the agitation of the water, with finer ones between them, cutting them with very acute angles. Those which fall with rapidity from rocks or precipices, are to be expressed by first strokes, according to the nature of their fall, with finer ones between them, leaving the lights formed by the beams of the sun, falling directly on them, very bright, and the more so, as they approach the fore-part of the piece. When the clouds appear thick and agitated, the graver should be turned about, according to their form and agitation; and, if they produce dark shades, which require double strokes, the second should cut the first with more acute angles than in figures, because it gives a certain transparency very proper for those bodies, which are only vapours; but then the first strokes should be stronger than the second. Flat clouds, losing themselves insensibly with the sky, must be formed by strokes parallel with the horizon, waved a little, according as they appear more or less thick; and, if it be necessary to use second strokes, they should cut the first with angles more acute than the former, and the extremities of them should be done with so light a hand, as not to form any out-line. The calm serene sky should be expressed by parallel strokes, very straight, without any winding.

Though all the parts of a piece of engraving may be executed according to the rules of art, yet, unless there be a general proportion and harmony diffused throughout the whole, it will not appear beautiful. Therefore,

The principal objects of a piece should be wholly sketched out before any parts of them are finished. For example: if it is an historical piece, containing groupes of figures, the principal should be so perfectly designed, that their expression should be as visibly as if they were only intended for sketches: so, if the engraver waits to perfect the designing as he finishes them, he will frequently mistake, and sometimes not be able to recover himself, without defacing the whole, and beginning again; which many will not do, for fear of spoiling the neatness of their engraving, wherein they have exerted their utmost abilities, imagining that the whole merit of an engraver consists in that; which is the reason we see abundance of plates finely engraved, but without expression. An engraver should studiously endeavour to join correctness and justness of design, with the neatness and elegance of engraving: and not neglect the former, and place his whole merit in the engaging allurements of the latter, which frequently render his performance insipid and lifeless. Nor should the other extreme be run into, which would make the work faint; it should, on the contrary, be strong and bold; for the efficacy of a print does not consist in its darkness, but in the just degradation of light and shade, which should be more or less energetic, according as it approximates to, or recedes from the light.

On examining the works of eminent masters, we shall find in the general, that they are not dark, unless they become so by length of time; they imitate nature, which is not so, particularly in flesh, except in night-pieces, where the objects are represented as enlightened by lamps or torches.

Small works require finer and more delicate engraving than large ones; in crossing, the strokes should form more acute angles, that the engraving may not appear stiff and heavy, notwithstanding the figures are small. If the work requires to be highly finished, it ought not, for that reason, to be over-laboured, but so artfully executed, as to appear done with facility and expedition, although it has cost extraordinary labour and application.

When the figures are large and bold, they require strong, firm, and bold strokes, and those to be continued and never broken off; but when the muscles and folds make it absolutely necessary; and these, as well as the smaller miniature pieces, should appear to the beholder as performed unelaborately and expertly.

If the piece requires crossing the strokes (as is the case particularly in the shades, to express well the energy and harmony of a painting) they should be crossed the contrary way to that they were sketched, and the angles formed by the second strokes should be more acute: this contributes greatly to the neatness and spirit of a print.

There should never be much too much engraving on the lights, but they should be gently passed over, and with few strokes; they should be unconfined, and the half shadings of the artist which he desires to finish to perfection, should be very lively and bright; for, if they are very dark, they obstruct the effect intended, as it will be difficult to find a darkness in the shades sufficient to give them life and roundness: and, if the engraving is from a design taken from a painting, the lights and shades ought to be rather larger than the original; for, though it be finished ever so highly, it is never so exactly done as the painting; which for that reason requires more labour on account of its colours.

In regard to the imitation of colours, as etching, or engraving with aqua fortis, is at present so much in vogue, and never carried to so much perfection as at present, as strong expression of passions, as fine adjustment of light and shade, as well as a beautiful manner of engraving, are, by means of this art united, when executed by the hand of a masterly artist, who is capable of expressing himself with equal vivacity and judgment in the different parts of his profession. The etching here intended, is that which cannot be fine without the aid of the graver, which gives it all the lustre and perfection desired. This the ancients have not shewn in their performances of this kind, they not so well understanding the various graces proper for painting and engraving as the moderns. For, by the means of aqua fortis, a performance may, by a skilful artist, be carried to an extraordinary degree of perfection; and that with a celerity to the graver, little inferior to that of the pencil: it enables the professor, almost instantly, to express the productions of his genius with all its vivacity, and with far more freedom than can be done without it.

There are three ordinary objections made by some sort of critics against engraving, viz. (1.) That 'tis easy to distinguish those prints that have been engraved by the painters themselves, or by other painters from their works. (2.) That an engraver by profession can never acquire the stile of a painter; so that they pretend to know by a print, whether it was engraved by a painter, or an engraver by profession. (3.) That the modern engravers cannot possibly express the works of the ancient painters, so well as those have done who were contemporaries with them; by reason, say they, every engraver executes according to the gusto of the time he lived in, and therefore 'tis impossible for a modern artist to express the works of Raphael, in the same manner as Mark Antonio, Augustine of Venice, Sylvester of Ravenna, &c. have done. With respect to the first of these it has been observed, that there are some prints engraved by Simon Cantarini from Guido and Louis Caracci, which are preferable to many that were incontestably engraved by Guido himself. Besides, as these objectors do not agree among themselves with regard to many of Guido's prints, some * affirming, and others denying, that they were engraved by Guido himself; this diversity of sentiments does not shew that any great regard is to be paid to these opinions.

* Among others, a print from Louis Caracci, engraved by Simon Cantarini, representing a man possessed by an evil spirit, which most of these critics believe was engraved by Guido himself.

In answer to the second objection it is said, There are many pieces engraved by Gerard Audran, which, if these gentlemen had seen without knowing they were done by him, they would rather have judged them the productions of a painter than an engraver: for they are touched with so much elegance and sagacity, that 'tis much to be questioned whether any painter could have excelled them. For conviction hereof, we need only view the judges in the print of the martyrdom of St Laurence, from Le Sicur; the Pyrrhus saved from Poussin; the Rape of Truth, from the same; the Passage of the Red Sea, from Verdier, &c.

The famous Bernard Picart chose several designs which had never been engraved; and, having privately engraved them, and printed some copies on dirty paper, he secretly dispersed them, and had the satisfaction to experience, that not one of those critics ever suspected they were not prints which had been engraved and printed in Italy. One of those pieces was from Poussin, and only sketched as with a pen, which many took for design; another was a small Holy Virgin, in an oval, from Carlo Maratti, which had been engraved before at Paris, almost as large as the life, by his father Stephen Picart. Those who had never seen the large print, thought the small the work of one of Guido's disciples, for Guido himself and those who had seen it, took the small one for an original, engraved by Carlo Maratti. There was also a print of Rebecca, which they did him the honour to ascribe to him, both for the invention and engraving. There were also three other prints, the one a Jesuit, another a St Jerom, and another a Holy Virgin on the clouds, which some imagined were done by Guido himself, and others by some of his disciples.

With regard to the third opinion, these gentlemen do not seem to observe, that they confound the manner of engraving, which they are used to see in those old prints, with the stile of the painter; so that when they see a print of one of Raphael's compositions, with all the outlines traced with an equal black stroke, and with a fine and faint engraving, without degradation of light and shade, or roundness of the figures, as all the engravings of that time are, they approve it as if it was Raphael's manner, which is absolutely false. To prove which, those who have opportunity, need only compare Mark Antonio's, or any other engraver's prints of that age, with the original design, and they will find they have been far from imitating them: they have taken the liberty even to make grounds to some designs that had none, and finish some parts according to their own fancy, that were only lightly touched.

It is not intended by any thing here said, to lessen the esteem that is due to the merit of these artists, they having not only preserved to posterity the idea of many excellent performances, the originals whereof being either lost, or not to be seen but by few, but as being the primitive inventors of engraving. All that perfection is not to be expected from the first inventors of arts, that they may be expected to acquire in a series of years among nations that cultivate them; and, indeed, it seems an unaccountable weakness to set so superlative a value upon their works, and to disesteem, in proportion, the more admirable performances of the moderns. Highly reasonable it is, that the prints of former ages should bear a better price than the modern ones; not by reason they are better, but by reason they are very scarce, and only to be met with in the collections of persons of distinction, who are the superior class of connoisseurs. And, if one of our fine modern prints was as rare and as ancient as those of the first masters, it not only would, but ought to bear a better price than those of their ancestors.

The ancient print of Raphael's Holy family, taken from a painting in the French king's cabinet, is greatly inferior to that engraved by Mr Edelinck; yet there are virtuosi who have the ancient one, that disdain to look on Mr Edelinck's; and this, perhaps, only from the vanity of esteeming nought but what is antique, left the superlative excellence of the moderns should depreciate the value of their possessions.

Some gentlemen, of a just discernment and true taste, will scarce believe that prejudice will carry people such lengths, but 'tis too general and notorious to be gainsaid; and some have thought, that the dealers in prints themselves have been the first propagators of these ridiculous prejudices; for few lovers of prints, being competent judges of them, the generality rely too much on the dictation and profound judgment of their print-sellers, who, from mercenary views only, endeavour artfully to excite a contempt for the modern performances, because they are easily to be had, and the ancients scarce. Mr Picart gives us an instance of this. One Pesne, an excellent designer on paper, but a very indifferent engraver, engraved the Seven sacraments of Poussin, each on two plates. After a number of them had been worked off and dispersed, Gerard Audran having bought the plates, with Pesne's designs of them, retouched them and made them incomparably better than before. Though Audran's merit is so well known, yet a print-dealer at Paris had the confidence, offering to sell one of the first copies, to say, These are fine, they are not those that were retouched by Audran. Thus these people prepossess the minds of unexperienced young gentlemen, who propagate the same; and when once they have embraced an error, they think it dishonourable to retract.

Nor is this any recent prejudice. In the time of Henry Golzius, there were some critics who laboured under it; and were not less mortified, when imposed on by that great master's imitation of the styles of Albert Durer, Lucas of Leyden, &c. than those were, whom Bernard Picart deceived in the following manner.—To undeceive some, who were prepossessed with an opinion, that the modern engravers could not represent the works of Raphael so well as those did who were his contemporaries, I was obliged, says he, to engrave some prints, which had been engraved by some of the ancient masters, as by Mark Antonio, and some others; but the difficulty was to come at the originals, from whence they had engraved them: at length he met with two, and, after having examined and compared them with the prints which had been formerly performed from them, he thought himself capable of improving them.

The first was a Venus, who touches one of the arrows of Cupid, and shews that she feels the effects of the touch at her heart: this Picart engraved like the design, without ground, or any addition.—The second was a bacchanal, which had been formerly engraved by Augustine of Venice. The design from whence he performed, is certainly the same from which Augustine engraved; the strokes are the same, the size the same, and the out-lines of the figures are the same, but the muscles within are quite different. The satyrs have crowns of ivy on their heads, which in the old print are like cuttings or slips: the antient engraver has made small white leaves, all of the same form, ranged on a ground equally dark; whereas in the design they are leaves carelessly disposed, which form a mass of light on a light. There is also a child, the back part of the hair of whose head resembles little iron hooks ranged round it. The hair of the heads, skin and beard, are extremely stiff, and equally black, which are not so in the design, where the masses of light and shade are observed.—The belly of Silenus, in the old print, has wrinkles as dark as possible, and between his paps are some things that look like laces to tie them together, which one can make nothing of.—If any one will give himself the trouble to examine the whole, part by part, he will find there is not one of them exact. Even without having the original before him, the spectator need only have a just idea of the construction of the human body to judge, that Raphael could never have acquired the reputation which he so justly has, if his works were like those ancient prints; because he would have shewed himself inferior to many painters who

are by far inferior to him. We cannot, therefore, comprehend, from what reasons some gentlemen would attempt to persuade us, that this is the true stile of Raphael; and that it is impossible to engrave his works at present, to that perfection which the ancients did. For, supposing that a modern engraver is a master of the art of engraving, and can give figures roundness, and a proper degradation of light and shade; why cannot he express a picture or design, where all these are observed, not only as well, but far better than the ancient engravers, who had neither that freedom of hand which the moderns have, nor understood how to give their figures that roundness, or the degradation of light and shade?

These ancient engravers might, possibly, understand designing on paper very well; but, admitting that, is it not certain they had not that freedom of hand to trace with the graver what they would on copper? And what hinders the modern engravers from being as good masters of design as the ancients ever were?

Those gentlemen's prejudices do not only extend to the prints from Raphael's work, they pretend also to draw consequences from them, to those of Rubens. In this respect, indeed, they may be more in the right; for the prints of Bolswert, Vostermans, Pontius, and Soutman, are so well engraved, and have so much of the painter's stile in them, that, perhaps, they cannot be excelled; in this Rubens has been more happy than Raphael. But there are many other prints engraved from the works of Rubens by other engravers of that age, which are very meanly done, and which those gentlemen hunt after, while they despise others engraved by masters of this age, though infinitely more in the stile of Rubens. In which they seem to blame, there being engravers now living who can copy his works as well as the best of his time, and much better than the others.

R E M A R K S.

Engraving seems to be the same in one respect with relation to painting, as printing is to the hand-writing, this art being capable of multiplying copies ad infinitum. To make a fine collection of paintings, requires not only a large fortune, but an exquisite judgment to understand their beauties, and to distinguish curiously copies from originals, in order to prevent deceit and imposition: as the more delicate and costly pieces of painting are only for persons of fortune and distinction, so prints in general are adapted to all ranks of men, and all conditions; they not only cost much less than paintings, but the knowledge of them is far more easily attained, and the imposition no way detrimental to the purchaser: as likewise they comprehend all sorts of subjects, they are not less useful, instructive, and entertaining.

Prints divert youth, and inform and admonish them at the same time, by the lively and efficacious impression which they make on their juvenile minds. Nor is instruction by this art the more readily received by youth in general only, but is more durably impressed than that conveyed by words without those striking visible images of representation. If you would have a child retain any passage either in sacred or profane history, by amusing him with a print of it, and explaining the subject once to him, he will rarely forget the impression, which the different characters that compose it will make on him. They are likewise no indifferent amusement to persons of mature years, by recalling many things to their minds, which length of time and variety of transactions and readings had obliterated. They are as useful as engaging; they represent absent things to us, as if they were present; they instantly convey us, without hazard or expence, to the most distant countries, and make us as well acquainted with them, and with their peculiar modes, customs, and natural history, as with those of our own country: they make us, as it were, contemporaries with the greatest men of all ages, by exhibiting their lively resemblance.

If the ancients had enjoyed this advantage from the primitive ages of the world, we should have known, by the means of prints, whatever they had that was curious and estimable, and deserving to be transmitted to posterity; the famous temples, and sumptuous edifices of every kind, so celebrated by historians; the magnificent works of the Asiatics, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans; the memorable statues, whose ruins cause the admiration and regret of connoisseurs; in short, all the rarities and admirable things of antiquity would have been handed down to the remotest ages, by the help of the art of engraving; whereby we should have inherited all their arts and knowledge to a far more certain degree than we possibly can do by verbal description, however lively the representation may be drawn.

As the best things may be abused, so may this admirable art be prostituted to the vilest, most debauched, and detestable purposes; and when it is so, I see no reason why the authors and propagators thereof should not be as liable to punishment by the laws, as any others who are the promoters and perpetrators of vice and immorality.

On the other hand, no art, perhaps, can have a happier and more influential tendency to the advancement of virtue, religion, and industry: nothing has a more familiar efficacy to form an universal good taste than prints: they may diffuse
and

and communicate a general bias and emulation for the liberal and polite arts; nay, there is scarce any other art whatsoever, to which this may not be made auxiliary, as most subjects may be engraved or etched: as all mathematical and anatomical figures, fables, emblems, devices, ornaments, animals, plants, flowers, fruits, pourtraits, cabinets, histories, &c. &c.

Of the accomplishments of the engraver.

As this art is applicable to most others, so, to arrive at any excellency therein, it requires a knowledge in divers other arts, as geometry, perspective, anatomy, drawing, painting, sculpture, and, above all, designing; all which require not only a regular education in every branch, but good sense and application, to arrive at any tolerable perfection; and to adapt them to engraving, requires a genius happily turned for the profession, in order to become distinguishedly eminent therein.

What is ordinarily called genius, is certainly an innate discernment, and strong impulse and propensity to excel in any peculiar art: without which nature seems to be unnaturally constrained; and, when that is the case, the performances of such persons will also appear forced, uncouth, and unnatural also, like the disposition of the performer; for as some poet says,

No art without a genius can prevail,
And parts without the help of art will fail;
But both ingredients jointly must unite,
To make the happy character complete.

Mankind seeing with different eyes, 'tis no wonder they read nature in different lights; and he that has the most acute connatural faculties to discern, and enter into the ineffable beauties, and wonderful appearances of that divine book, will certainly be more capable of exhibiting its infinite varieties, either by the graver or pencil: the man of a true strong natural genius, reads as well as sees things in different views from those of a contrary stamp, and therefore can portray the illustrious actions of past ages, with an elegance and sublimity no way inferior to the description of the noblest historian, and superlative poets: in a word, the painter and the engraver should be no way inferior, in point of natural and acquired abilities, to any other profession whatsoever; and, without a delicate fancy, and a luxuriant imagination, improved by a good taste and a correct judgment, all his performances will be lifeless and insipid, notwithstanding he may be skilful in every partial preliminary qualification.

What a learned and ingenious gentleman says of painting, may, with equal truth and propriety, be said of engraving:— 'What a tedious thing would it be to describe by words the view of a country (that from Greenwich-hill for instance) and how imperfect an idea must we receive from hence! Painting shews the thing immediately and exactly. No words can give you an idea of the face and person of one you have never seen; painting does it effectually, with the addition of so much of his character as can be known from hence; and, moreover, in an instant recalls to your memory, at least the most considerable particulars of what you have heard concerning him, or occasions that to be told which you have never heard.

Augustino Caracci, discoursing one day of the excellency of the antient sculpture, was profuse in his praises of the Laocoon, and observing his brother Annibale neither spoke, nor seemed to take any notice of what he said, reproached him as not enough esteeming so stupendious a work: he then went on, describing every particular in that noble remain of antiquity. Annibale turned himself to the wall, and with a piece of charcoal drew the statue as exactly as if it had been before him: the rest of the company were surprized, and Augustino was silenced; confessing his brother had taken a more effectual way to demonstrate the beauties of that wonderful piece of sculpture: *Li poeti dipingono con le parole, li pittori parlano con l'opere*, said Annibale.

When Marius, being driven from Rome by Sylla, was prisoner at Minturnæ, and a soldier was sent to murder him, upon his coming into the room with his sword drawn for that purpose, Marius said aloud, *Σὸ δὴ τολμῶς ἀνθρώπων γάρον Μάρκῳ ἀναίρειν*? Darest thou, man, kill Caius Marius? which so terrified the ruffian, that he retired without being able to effect what he came about. This story, and all that Plutarch has wrote concerning him, gives me not a greater idea of him, than one glance of the eye upon his statue that I have seen; 'tis in the noble collection of antiques, at lord Pomfret's seat near Towcester in Northamptonshire. The Odysses cannot give a greater idea of Ulysses, than a drawing I have of Polydore, where he is discovering himself to Penelope, and Telemachus by bending the bow. And I conceive as highly of St Paul by once walking through the gallery of Raphael at Hampton-Court, as by reading the whole book of the Acts of the Apostles, though written by divine inspiration. So that not only painting furnishes us with ideas, but it carries that matter farther than any other way whatsoever.

Of the modern engravers, and of the merit of those of this kingdom in particular.

Though we have before shewn the reasons wherefore the modern engravers may be presumed to excel the antients, yet there seems still something more due to the characters of the present artists, who are our contemporaries. Nothing weighing with us so much as example; a few instances may not be useless:

The first I shall give is that of the engravings of the kings and queens, and of several illustrious persons, in Mr Rapin's History of England, by Mr Houbraken, and other the best masters. But, the universal approbation of this work sufficiently speaking for its merit in this, as well as all other respects, it needs no encomium.

Another instance we have in the illustrious persons of Great-Britain, with their lives and characters by Thomas Birch, D. D. and Secretary of the Royal Society.

The public was some time since obliged to Mess. Knapton for this elegant work, which hath recommended itself to all persons of taste for the polite arts.

The execution of the plates in general hath been deemed excellent by the best judges, particularly those engraved by that eminent master, the ingenious Mr Houbraken; who, for his masterly stile, and the delicacy and vivacity of his expression, is universally admired. Gravelot, Vertue, and other the best hands in this kingdom, have also been employed in the course of this undertaking. These engravings are copied after the original paintings of the best masters that Europe hath produced, whose names are respectively mentioned at the bottom of the several plates, with the names also of those persons of distinction in whose possession the originals are.

Another instance we have in Albinus's Anatomical Tables, on 40 large copper plates, 15 inches by 22, most beautifully engraved, and printed on large imperial paper. These also were published by Mess. Knapton.

These plates represent various figures of the human skeleton, and of the several orders of the human muscles; also views of the particular parts, whereon all that belongs to the make or habit of each muscle, is shewn at large from the body: together with tables of Explanation, and an historical account of the work either in Latin or English. The whole contains a complete anatomical description of the human skeleton and muscles, more accurately and beautifully engraved than ever was done before, in this or any other nation, and the whole performed by our English Engravers, and printed on 80 sheets of large imperial paper.

Supplementary to the foregoing, are contained also the following, viz.

1. Three whole length anatomical tables, representing the fore view of a man, and two different views of a woman, taken from Bidloo's anatomy, and enlarged to the same size as Albinus's anatomical figures of the bones and muscles. Each figure printed on a sheet of imperial paper, with explanations of the figures, printed on one sheet of the same size.

2. A complete system of the blood-vessels, taken from Albinus's edition of Eustachius, also from Ruysch, Haller, and Trew, beautifully engraved, and printed on four sheets of large imperial paper (the same size as Albinus's anatomical tables of the bones and muscles). Together with tables of explication, containing the text of Eustachius, Albinus, &c. translated into English, and printed on seven sheets of large imperial paper.

3. A complete system of the nerves, taken from the above-mentioned authors, beautifully engraved, and printed on four sheets of large imperial paper, with tables of explanation.

Another instance we will beg leave to give, is in regard to the maps of North and South America, that are contained in this our Dictionary of Commerce; and which, although we have desired the subscribers acceptance thereof gratis, yet no expence has been spared to have them executed in the best manner, which has been done by the engravers of this nation; and we will presume to appeal to the judgment of connoisseurs, whether they are not performed equal to any thing of the like kind that ever appeared in Europe.

Another specimen we would produce to evince that the art of engraving is arrived to as great perfection in England as in any part of the world, is the following pieces, lately published by Mess. J. and P. Knapton, and Mr Robert Doddsley; which are the first series of a set of prints, entitled ENGLISH HISTORY DELINEATED; comprehending what may be called the ancient history, being the period from the landing of Julius Cæsar to the Conquest, viz. 1. THE LANDING OF JULIUS CÆSAR. 2. THE NOBLE BEHAVIOUR OF CARACTACUS THE BRITON, BEFORE THE EMPEROR CLAUDIUS AT ROME. 3. VORTIGERN AND ROWENA; or the settlement of the Saxons in England. 4. THE CONVERSION OF THE SAXONS TO CHRISTIANITY. 5. ALFRED THE GREAT IN THE ISLAND OF ATHELNEY, RECEIVING NEWS OF A VICTORY OVER THE DANES. 6. THE NORMAN CONQUEST; or the battle of Hastings.

The drawings, which are 18 inches by 14, are finished in a masterly manner by Mr Hayman and Mr Blakey, in Indian

ink; and are engraved with great delicacy and correctness, by Ravenet, Grignon, and Scotin: being intended to exhibit a specimen of the present perfection of these arts in England, as also, to fix the principal events of our history in the mind; of which a succinct account is printed in six pages only, by way of explaining and connecting the series of events together.

In regard to history, nothing can be more useful than an attempt of this nature, in order to fix in the remembrance the cardinal events of memorable transactions: and as the art of engraving is yet but in its infancy in England, it is to be greatly hoped and desired that this, as well as every other masterly performance which is executed in our own nation, will meet with public encouragement suitable to its merit, as well for the honour of the nation and our rising artists, as for the benefit of its traffick: so that, instead of importing immense quantities of foreign prints, we may not only supply ourselves, but become exporters of a commodity that is universally vendible.

Further to confirm the truth of what has been said, with respect to the extraordinary abilities and ingenuity of our artists in this profession, I cannot in justice omit taking notice of some masterly pieces which have been lately executed among us; the one is engraved from a capital painting of Teniers, representing a country-wake, containing 150 figures, wherein the painter has introduced himself and family. This print is engraved in a very elegant and skilful manner, is two feet five inches broad, by one foot eight inches high, engraved by the ingenious Mr Thomas Major, engraver to his royal highness the prince of Wales, and performed under the patronage of his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, and dedicated to him by permission; his royal highness not being less solicitous, in time of peace, to promote all useful and polite arts that tend to the glory of the nation and the benefit of commerce, than he proved himself anxious, in time of war and rebellion, to preserve us from those evils, which threatened the ruin of our trade, our religion, and our liberties.—The other performances I allude to are two historical compositions, engraved from a painting of the celebrated Guido Rheni; the one a Cleopatra, in the collection of her royal highness the princess of Wales; and the other a Magdalene, in the collection of Roger Hareng, Esq; by that eminent master Mr Robert Strange, who is allowed to be inferior to none in his profession. These performances are 16 inches and a half high, and 12 inches and a half broad.

Of design, as it has relation to engraving and to weaving.

Though the bulk of our masterly pieces of engraving may be taken from the performances of the most eminent and distinguished painters, yet the plenty of patterns of these great masters should by no means, methinks, obstruct our engravers from studying the art of design, in order to enable them to form and invent new compositions, that the painter might sometimes copy from the engraver, as well as the engraver from the painter. And, indeed, by engravers depending too much on copying only the original pieces of the most celebrated masters, they may cramp the natural force and growth of their own genius, by confining and forming it wholly upon that of others, and may have less knowledge of their own, for contenting themselves with that of others before them. 'So a man that only translates, says Sir William Temple somewhere, shall never be a poet; nor a painter that only copies; nor a swimmer that swims always with bladders. So people that trust wholly to others charity, and without industry of their own, will always be poor.' We do not suggest this to depreciate, by any means, those copies which engravers have taken from the originals of the most celebrated painters; they may be the best for the young artists to commence with; and not only so, but may be more acceptable to the public in general than any new productions that the generality of engravers may be able to perform; and those shew more judgment by continuing copyists than inventors. But our first rate geni in this excellent art should be ambitious, methinks, sometimes to shew the world that they are not less able to design a new piece of their own, than always to imitate those of others; though it is certainly more to the reputation of an artist to imitate excellently, than to invent meanly.

Having, under the article DESIGN, quoted Mr Gwyn's essay on that subject, and particularly a note, wherein it is said, 'That the silk weavers of this kingdom, with regard to design, are reduced to the necessity of calling in to their assistance the better-instructed, though not more ingenious, French, &c.' See the article DESIGN.

But I find that Mr Gwyn has been misinformed with respect to this matter; and, I having quoted him, it is necessary that I should set the public right, in what so nearly concerns one of the most capital and interesting branches of the manufactures of this kingdom.

There are two particulars asserted in Mr Gwyn's note, (1.) That, for want of skill in drawing, or delineating, as he calls it, the English designers are obliged to call in the assistance of the better-instructed French. (2.) That the persons en-

gaged in the flowered branch of the weaving trade lament this misfortune. But, if we can prove the first of these propositions to be absolutely false, the other will fall of course. That it really is so, we shall appeal to FACTS, and give a short account of the progress of DESIGNING in England, which is well known to most, if not all persons concerned in the weaving trade.

In the reign of king Charles II. there were few or no silks manufactured in England, but they were imported from France at the expence of above three quarters of a million sterling per annum.

After the Revolution the French refugees settled the silk manufactures in London, and particularly the flowered silks. The principal persons herein concerned were Mr Luyson, Maricot, and Monceaux, and the first designer and pattern-drawer was Mr Boudoin. About the same time Mr Joseph Dandridge began, also, the profession of designing, and carried on the same for near 40 years, with great reputation. This gentleman has been well known not only by his amusements, his love of natural history (as may be seen in the Natural Histories of Birds, by Mr George Edwards and Mr Albin) but in his own peculiar profession as an English designer, or pattern-drawer, for the manufacture of flowered silks, wherein he eminently distinguished himself, and is deservedly remembered with great respect by the trade.

Mr Dandridge was not only equal, at that time, in his performances to any of the French, but was far superior to them, or to any one of his time, in designs for damasks.

It is to be observed at this period, that neither the French nor English observed any of the principles of painting in their brocades. Their flowers had seldom above two colours, and these were not disposed according to the chairo obscuro, but in the manner of compartment, or shadowing, in a regular order, from black to white, through any medium or colour, either red, blue, green, &c. Neither was the drawing in perspective, but according to the geometrical form of the objects, as they are commonly exhibited in botanical books and collections.

About the year 1732 three designers attempted to introduce the principles of painting into the loom, and succeeded. Mr John Vansomer (son of Mr Vansomer, a considerable painter, by whom he was instructed in the principles of painting, and in those of drawing for the loom by Mr Dandridge) Mrs Anna Maria Garthwaite, and Mr Peter Mazell. At that time one third of the brocade silks worn in England were French. But the English designing was so highly advanced, and so generally approved, that in less than ten years the preference was not only given in England to the English designing, but that of France (and, as to the goodness of our manufactures, we have always had the superiority, since its first establishment among the English) but we also began to export, and foreigners, even the French themselves, fixed an honourable name to our taste for design, viz. LE GOUT ANGLAIS, being at least equal, in that kingdom itself, to LE GOUT FRANÇOIS; and, could we bring these our silken manufactures as cheap to market as the French, we should be in a fair way of supplying a great part of Europe. But, indeed, as our silk manufactures are not only superior in quality to those of the French, but our designing is so likewise, they cannot be sold at all dearer than the French, though they cannot be afforded so cheap, by reason of their superior quality.

About the year 1744, and since, there has been an increase of the number of English designers, who have greatly contributed to the perfection of this art. Mrs Phoebe Wright had eminently distinguished herself by the correctness and elegance of her drawing and her colouring. Mr Gray, Mr Henry Knapp-ton, and Mr Hincliffe, have also been highly instrumental to add to and support the reputation of these our English silken manufactures.

From this short account is plainly seen the mistake into which Mr Gwyn was led; for it may be depended on, that till the year 1750, there has not settled in England any foreign designer: the few that are come over were so shamefully unqualified, that they could find little or no employment here: we have named those to whom the public is indebted for bringing this art to the high perfection it is now in; nor is there one Frenchman among them, the first excepted, who was a Protestant refugee.

And indeed design and drawing in England, so far as they relate to the silk manufactory, seem at present to be brought to such a degree of perfection, as scarce to admit of any farther improvement; and, with regard to the French, we are so far from being inferior, that we excel them not only in composition of grace, but in taste and colouring likewise.

The designs of the French have a poverty and embarrassment in them, to say nothing of the constant repetition of the same objects, which tire and offend the discerning and judicious eye. They give indeed a glare of colours in their silks, that impose upon such who are effected only with tawdry tinsel appearances, and are ignorant of what is really just and beautiful; whereas the English compositions are founded upon the true principles of design; their drawings are graceful and elegant; so that the manufactures of silk produced by the principal artists in England, who are all English, are really pictures

tures of great delicacy and ornament; and, when compared with the French, the contrast seems as great as between good sense and affectation; and, withal, the English of late years have excelled even in luxury of imagination and fancy. To so superior a degree of excellency is the quality of this noble manufacture arrived in these kingdoms, and to so exalted a height of beauty and elegance is the admirable art of designing brought, with regard to our flowered silks of every kind, that we may presume to say, England herein has happily obtained the transcendency and mastery over the whole world: and, while this is the case, it is to be hoped, it is to be earnestly desired, by all true friends to the solid interest of these kingdoms, that the utmost discouragement will be given to foreign silks, while we have so much better of our own to wear; and that the nobility and gentry of these kingdoms will delight to follow that noble and ever-memorable example lately given by our illustrious monarch and father of his people, to promote the British manufactures in every respect: and as our darling prince, his grandson, who is heir apparent to the crown of these kingdoms, has given also, and continues daily to give the most distinguished testimonies of his desire to advance and encourage to the utmost, our own manufactures, in opposition to those of foreigners: as likewise that most amiable and incomparable princess, her royal highness the princess of Wales, has, and daily does conspicuously interest herself in favour of our own manufactures: it is to be hoped, that it will now prove a mark of public infamy, detestation, and resentment, for any one to disregard these royal examples; and a distinguishing characteristic of public honour, glory, and applause, to all persons of distinction who shall imitate the virtues of the royal family, and testify the same regard and attachment to their country's interest and happiness.

Before I conclude this article, I would take leave to observe, that, if our ambassadors, envoys, residents, and their ladies, who reside in foreign countries, would take as much pride to be clothed in the British manufactures, as those of foreign nations here do to be clothed in those of their respective nations, might it not tend to introduce the wear of our manufactures at many courts in Europe, when they had ocular demonstration, that our silks, as well as our cloths, were really superior to those of the whole world?

I have dwelt the longer upon this article, in order to do justice to all any way concerned in the prosperity of the weaving trade, of this kingdom, as well as our designers and engravers; and, although I was unluckily misled, by the quotation of a note from Mr Gwyn, yet I cannot believe that gentleman was as innocently led into the mistake as I was into the transcribing it; and I am inclined to believe, that gentlemen would as readily retract his error, and atone for the mistake he has involuntarily committed, as I have cheerfully done.

ENTRE DUERO E MINHO, a province in Portugal. This province is so called from its being situate between those two famed rivers: It hath the Minho on the north, to divide it from Galicia, and the Duero on the south, which parts it from Beira; on the west it is bounded by the ocean, and on the east by a ridge of mountains, which severs it from the province of Tra los Montes. It is small, but the best inhabited, and hath the greatest number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the other provinces of Portugal, and one of the most fertile, though mountainous; having many other rivers besides the two that inclose it, and a vast number of rivulets and sweet springs to water it; so that it abounds in good pasture more than any other parts of Portugal; and its plains are every-where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all sorts, but it hath not sufficient corn for its inhabitants. Places of any note for trade, are,

OPORTO, a famed city and sea-port situate on the north side of the Duero, about three miles from the sea. The port, a very commodious one, is so well known and frequented by our nation, that we need say the less of it. The harbour is safe against all winds; but, when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ships; at which time they are forced to moor them alongside each other, by the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent: at the entrance into it there is a dangerous bar.

GUIMARANES, an ancient town, seated upon a hill. The chief manufacture of this place is linen and fine thread, of both which considerable quantities are made and exported.

VIANA DE FEZ DE LIMA, so called, because it is situate at the mouth of the river Lima. This town is become very considerable for trade ever since the great consumption of Portuguese wines in England, and is itself famed for a delicate sort of its own product, which is small, and not unlike the French, nor hardly inferior to it; whereas those that grow in the more southern parts are heavier, and less pleasant.

AMARANTE, on the banks of the river Tamada, hath a linen manufacture.

ESSEX, a county in England, is in a manner a peninsula, being washed on the east by the German Ocean; on the north by the Stour; on the west by the rivers Lea and Stort; and on the south by the Thames, and is in circumference about 140 miles. The air is generally temperate, but near the sea and the Thames it is moist, and the inhabitants are subject to agues.

It abounds with corn, cattle, wood, and wild fowl; and, about Saffron-Walden, produces great quantities of saffron. It is particularly observed of this county, that, generally speaking, the soil is best where the air is worst, and e contra. They have plenty of fish of all sorts; and by the sea-side are decoys of great profit to the owners in the winter season.

Its chief towns are, 1. **COLCHESTER**, a large populous place.

This, and all the towns round it, were the most noted places in England for making bays and says; which trade was first introduced into Colchester, in the year 1570, by the Protestant Dutch and Flemings. They made four several sorts of bays, which were distinguished by the names of rents, cuts, crowns, and crosses. There have been 1000 or 1200 bays, at least, made weekly in Colchester.

This trade was first most sensibly hurt by our wars with Spain, especially queen Anne's wars. By which, and other concurrent causes, the Dutch congregation (which had the management of that trade) not being able to carry it on, dissolved themselves in 1728.

Perpetuana's used also to be made here in great numbers; but now hardly any, or rather none.

At present there are but two sorts of bays made, viz.

1. The fine, or Spanish bay, with a yellow list.
2. The Portugal bay, which is coarser and thicker, and has a blue list.

About these there are 600 looms, and upwards, employed, each managed by one hand, since the engines invented by Solomon Smith: and there are not 20 in the whole town managed by two hands.

But the number of spinners, winders, combers, beaters, and roughers, &c. amount to a much more considerable number.

The bay-trade is removed, in a great measure, into the west and northern parts of the kingdom, where the poor are more easily satisfied, provisions cheaper, and coals very plentiful.

This town is also of some note for its excellent oysters, which the inhabitants have a peculiar art in barrelling, and send in great quantities to London, and other parts; and it is famous also for candying eryngo-roots.

2. **MALDEN**, stands on an eminence near the sea. It is pretty large and populous, has a convenient haven on an arm of the sea, for ships of 400 tons; and some of the inhabitants drive a considerable trade in coal, iron, deals, and corn.

A little beyond this town begins Blackwater-Bay, famous for the pits of those excellent oysters called Wall-fleet, from the shore where they lie, which is five miles long, and guarded by a wall of earth, to keep out the sea.

3. **HARWICH**, stands near the mouth of the Stour. It is a very safe harbour, and has a good maritime trade. Here is a very good yard for building ships, with the conveniency of storehouses, cranes, launches, and all such necessaries. It is the station for the packet-boats which pass to and from Holland, Germany, and other parts; with the mails and passengers.

4. **MANNINGTREE**, is a small town, but has a good trade. It stands on the Stour, over which it has a bridge.

5. **BRAINTREE**, had formerly a great trade in bays and says, but, within these few years, much decreased.

6. **BOCKING**, parted from Baintree by a small stream only, is one of the largest villages in Essex. It is adorned with fine spacious houses of clothiers, enriched by the manufacture and trade of bays, of which this village has a peculiar sort, called Bockings.

7. **COGGESMALL**, was formerly a great clothing town, but its trade is now much decayed.

8. **SAFFRON-WALDEN**, so called from its situation among many pleasant fields of saffron; but it is not so much cultivated here of late years as formerly.

9. **CHELMSFORD**, is a pretty large populous town, and a great thoroughfare.

10. **INGATESTONE**, is another large thoroughfare, with a considerable market for live cattle brought out of Suffolk, and other parts.

ESTREMADURA, The province of, in Portugal, is a narrow slip of land, running along the sea-coast about 110 miles; in breadth it is scarce 50, and in some places much narrower. It is bounded on the north by the river Mondego; on the south it borders upon part of Beira, and the province of Alentejo; it hath again Beira on the east, and the ocean on the west.

The land is, for the most part, the best in Portugal, and the climate very pleasant and mild, by its being so near the Western, or Pacific Ocean. It produces wheat, and other grain, in great plenty, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all sorts, especially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. Here is also a great variety of manufactures carried on, and a large share of trade; all which is owing partly to its commodious situation and sea-ports, to its nearness to the city of Lisbon, and noble river Tagus.

The most considerable places for largeness, opulence, &c. are, **LISBON**, the metropolis of Portugal, is pleasantly seated on the banks of the Tajo. The harbour is one of the most commodious in Europe, being capacious enough of itself to contain 10,000 ships, all riding in safety, and not incumbering each other. The bar is very dangerous to pass without pilots.

SETUBAL,

E U R

SETUBAL, corruptly called **ST UBES**, is seated on a handsome bay close to the ocean, is much resorted to by most northern nations, especially for the vast quantities of salt made here.

The province of **ESTREMADURA**, in Spain, is divided from Portugal, or from the Portuguese Estremadura on the west, by the rivers Elia, Caya, and some others of less note; on the north it joins on the kingdom of Leon; has Old and New Castille on the east, and Andalusia on the south.

The air is hot, and somewhat sultry, but the soil exceeding fertile, and well cultivated, the natives being laborious, and much addicted to tillage.

This rich province contains seven cities, many large stately towns, equal to cities, and a great number of populous and wealthy villages, not inferior to good towns.

Place of chief note is

MERIDA, on the banks of the Guadiana, in a wholesome air and fertile country, formerly a noble city, but now has little left of it's ancient grandeur but the ruins.

EUROPE, one of the four divisions made, by geographers, of the whole world. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; on the east by Asia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine, or Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almost to the river Oby, in Muscovy; and, on the west, it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean.

It is extended between 34 and 80 degrees north latitude, and between 5 and 80 degrees of longitude, reckoning the first meridian to pass through the island of Teneriff. It contains in breadth, as a continent from the North Cape to Cape Metepan in the Morea, about 2600 miles; and in length, from the mouth of the river Oby in the east, to Cape St Vincent in Portugal, west, about 2800 miles.

Although Europe be the least of the four parts of the world, it is by much to be preferred for the mildness of the air, the fertility of the soil throughout, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requisite not only for the sustenance and comfort, but even for the luxury of human life; but more especially for the beauty, strength, courage, ingenuity, industry, and wisdom of it's inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their subjects; and, which surpasses all, the purity and sanctity of their religion, especially the Protestant part; which, as it has happily checked the power of ecclesiastical tyranny and oppression, so it has brought the judicious and learned laity to think for themselves, as well in matters of religion as in science of all kinds. Yet Protestantism has not set aside the priesthood, much less attempted to extirpate it; on the contrary, they have only reduced it within the bounds of scripture, and as near to the practice of the primitive Christians, for the three first centuries, as we can obtain any satisfactory knowledge of; nor do any Christians more highly venerate this order, when it's dignity is supported by wise and good men.

The **CHRISTIAN RELIGION** is professed throughout all Europe, except that part of it possessed by the Turks: but, by reason of the innovations made by the church of Rome, the western church is divided; Italy, Spain, France, part of Germany, and the Netherlands, with Poland, still following the doctrine of the church of Rome; whereas England, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, Switzerland, &c. have embraced the reformation, and profess the Protestant religion; and in Muscovy, some parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia, Podolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the eastern, or Greek church, is followed.

Europe hath for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants, in general, illustrious for their courage, their wisdom and virtue; by which they conquered the greatest part of Asia and Africa, and subjected them to the two empires of Greece and Rome; and, in these latter ages, almost one half of the earth, that was formerly unknown, hath been discovered by Europeans, and possessed by the colonies they have sent thither.

For learning and arts the Europeans have been most renowned: all the scholastic sciences they have brought to a much greater perfection than either the Asiatics or Africans ever did; and the invention and improvement of numberless useful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which all intercourse of foreign commerce between distant nations depends, is wholly owing to the genius and industry of the inhabitants of this part of the world.

The principal sovereignties of Europe are as follow:

The empires of Germany, Russia, and Turkey.

The kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, France, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, Prussia, Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, which are termed the Two Sicilies, and the popedom of Rome.

The republics of Venice, United Netherlands, Switzerland, the Grisons, Genoa, Lucca, and the small republics of Geneva and Ragusa.

Next to these may be reckoned the electorates of Germany, whose princes chuse the emperor; of whom the three first are spiritual, and all the others temporal princes; viz.

E U R

The archbishoprics and electorates of	} Temporal	Mentz,	} Bavaria, Saxony, Brandenburg, Palatine, Brunswic Luemburg,
		Triers,	
		Cologne,	

And the kingdom of Bohemia.

There are, besides these, no less than 300 subaltern sovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. whose possessors, whether spiritual, as archbishops and bishops, or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquises, counts, &c. though they are tributaries, or vassals, to the emperor, or some other superior prince, have authority in their own states.

Of the spiritual, the most considerable are,

The grand master of the Teutonic order.

The grand master of Malta.

The grand prior of Malta, who is also called the grand prior in Germany.

The abbots and princes of Fulda in Germany, St Gall in Switzerland, and some others.

Of the temporal the most considerable are,

The archduke of Austria, the great duke of Tuscany, the landgraves of Hesse Cassel, Rheinfelds, Darmstat, Homberg.

The dukes of Savoy and Modena, &c. in Italy. The duchies of Milan, Mantua, Mirandola, Parma, and Placentia are, at present, in the house of Austria. The dukes of Mecklemburg, Wirtemberg, Holstein, Saxe-Weymar, Eysenach, Gotha, &c. in Germany, and the duke of Courland in Poland.

The princes of Anhalt, Aremberg, Hohenzollern, Nassau, and East Friesland, Furstemberg, Lichtenstein, Waldeck, Tour and Taxis, &c. in Germany.

The marquises of Baden, Dourlach, Brandenburg, Cullenbach, and Brandenburg-Anspach, in Germany.

The Counts of Hanau, Solms, Traun, Schlick, Staremberg, &c.

Besides these, there are the cham of the European Tartary, the hospodars of Walachia, Moldavia, &c.

Of the commerce of Europe, with relation to the other quarters of the world.

When we speak of the trade of Europe in general, we must speak of it complexly, as it is in the product and improvements of all it's parts, and as it respects it's correspondence with the other three parts particularly.

1. Respecting Africa, it's inhabitants, Egypt excepted, being mostly barbarians, such as the Moors and Mahometans on the north and north-east part, and the Ethiopians on the north-east, or the mere savages and negroes of the south and west parts; they all take no great quantities of merchandizes from Europe; they take very little, indeed, in comparison of the returns made to Europe in exchange.

The European goods sent to Africa are such as the Moors of the coast on the south shores of the Mediterranean Sea take off, which consists chiefly in some English and French woolen and linen manufactures, and great quantities of toys and baubles: in return for which, Europe receives from that side of Africa far more than an equivalent in corn, salt, almonds, wax, copper, and a large quantity of very valuable drugs.

From the coast of Africa, on the side of the ocean west, and on the side of the Indian or Ethiopian Seas east, Europe receives annually an immense treasure, either brought immediately to them, or carried by the European merchants in their own ships, and for their own account, to America; so that is properly the European trade, and consists of gold, elephants teeth, slaves, drugs.

By these articles (the quantity and value of which is infinitely great, considering a great part thereof is procured by the exchange of mere toys and trifles, scarce worth naming) the ballance of the commerce between Europe and Africa is greatly to the advantage of the former; and that so far, that it is mighty extraordinary and unaccountable that the several maritime nations of Europe do not extend that commerce to a far greater degree; which it is manifest might be done with the greatest ease, and to such a height as, perhaps, might equal all the present improvements by colonies and plantations in America, many of which are remote, dangerous, and unhealthy, liable to certain charge, to disaster and miscarriage: whereas Africa is near hand, every way equal in it's fertility, superior in it's production, the trade safe, the country in many parts extremely healthy, the people tractable, and the returns immensely rich, and doubtless abounding, if we could once carry our traffic into the center of this great and populous country, with an infinite variety of commercial articles, that the Europeans, at present, are absolutely strangers to.

In what manner the trade to Africa may be greatly improved and extended, see the articles **AMERICA**, **EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, **ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY**.

America is to be next considered with respect to Europe. This is by far the largest country of the four, into which the world is generally divided; and, if we may give credit to the measurement of geographers, it is equal to the other three, and beyond them all, perhaps, in it's extent. And it is found, by the experience of commerce, to be infinitely beyond

yond them all in it's produce, either on it's surface, or from it's intrails; for as to manufactures, and the labour of the people, America being unimproved, and the people therein unemployed, that part is not scarce begun: so that Europe and Asia, in this respect, go infinitely beyond it; what may be the consequence hereafter, we would not conjecture.

With all the wealth of it's product, America is yet in it's state of bondage rather, being, at present, dependent on, and the property of, the people of Europe; it is under the government of it's power, and in the possession of it's people.

As the land is the property of Europe, so is the commerce; and all the wealth of the country passes yearly away, like a tribute, to the several parts of Europe to which the various parts of America belong. And though it is true that the wealth of America goes away, as a tribute to Europe, yet it is also true, that it goes thither by way of commerce too, and in return for the manufactures of Europe, which are sent to them in America for their supply. In a word, the Europeans receive the whole product of the country, from end to end, and send the Americans, in the room thereof, a few cloaths to wear; and these very cloaths are chiefly for the use of the Europeans settled there for maintaining the possession, as lords of the country, and who having dispossessed the native inhabitants, and driven them into corners, rule them with a rod of iron, especially the Spaniards.

The produce of America is a prodigy of wealth, immeasurable in it's quantity, and inexpressible in it's value. It consists chiefly of gold, silver, pearl, emeralds, hides of beasts, tobacco, sugar, cacao, cocheneal, indigo, peltry, drugs, spice, cotton, dyers woods, fish, &c.—These are returned to Europe in it's proper divisions thus: the gold chiefly to Portugal from the Brasils; which is afterwards disseminated, in the course of the Portugal trade, to divers other parts of Europe. See the article PORTUGAL.—The silver to Spain, from the shores of the South Seas, and from Mexico and Peru, which is also dispersed throughout the other parts of Europe, in the channels of the Spanish commerce. See the article SPAIN.—The fish from Newfoundland, &c. is sent to various parts of Europe.

Upon the whole of this commerce, 'tis certain that Europe also is the gainer, and that to an excess scarce to be conceived; the ballance being so great in it's favour, that it has, together with that wealth from Africa already mentioned, immensely enriched and aggrandized all the trading European nations that have any great concern in these capital branches of commerce.

Asia is a country extremely rich also in it's product, though, in that respect, not to be compared with either of the former two; but it is rendered extremely rich, by the prodigious numbers and inimitable diligence, industry, and application of it's inhabitants; who are so circumstanced, that they call for little from any other part of the world: and they are so indefatigable, assiduous, and ingenious in the mechanic and manufactural arts, so amply supplied by nature with materials and their workmanship is so extremely cheap, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce. By which means the state of trade between Europe and Asia stands thus: Europe calls for a vast variety of goods from Asia; great quantities of which are dispersed into America and Africa, by way of barter and exchange for the productions of these parts of the world: so that although a considerable part of the silver that comes from America is sent to Asia for their produce and manufactures; yet, as silver is one of the plentiful productions of America, it is the same thing as the American bartering any other commodity for the Asiatic commodities, and therefore the trade of Asia cannot be so injurious to the wealth of Europe, as some have been wont to apprehend. For let it be supposed, that every ounce of silver that was ever produced in America centered in Europe, and was in circulation, it is to be questioned whether Europe would be ever the richer, and the comparative state of the riches of these European nations who shared in the American silver, would be the same as it is at present: the labour and manufactures of these nations in Europe would be so much dearer, in their reciprocal barter and exchanges of produce and manufactures with each other; which would still keep upon the same comparative equality, with respect to their riches. But, if the riches of nations so much consists in the plenty of silver, as some are pleased to think, the immense quantity of wrought plate which is at present in Europe, demonstrates, that all the silver that hath come from America, has not been sent to Asia; an immense quantity of it lies dead in these articles: and it is, perhaps, a moot point, whether these nations would be e'er the richer, if all the wrought plate among them was coined into money, and preserved as long as the course of trade would permit, in their commercial circulation. See the articles ASIA, BALANCE OF TRADE, BULLION, CASH, CIRCULATION, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY OF ENGLAND, GOLD, SILVER, MONEY.

If the trade of Asia had, for a series of years, been so disadvantageous to Europe, as is by some suggested, it would certainly have greatly impoverished all these nations there-

in concerned, which does not appear to be the case: on the contrary, not only those who have been long interested in this trade, are zealous to preserve and increase it, but new powers are daily struggling to obtain some share therein; which they would hardly do, if they were not convinced that this trade, upon the whole, is really beneficial to the respective potentates therein engaged.

Before I conclude this article, the peculiar policy of the Asiatics, in regard to the importation of silver from Europe, may deserve consideration; for although silver is a commodity, which they take partly in barter for their produce, and manufactures, yet, if we are rightly informed, this silver is not coined into money, and kept in circulation: no, to prevent this, the princes and great men not only make up large quantities into wrought plate, but they bury under ground immense quantities; whereby they effectually prevent it's coming into their commercial circulation, and consequently by that means they prevent the rise in all the necessaries, even luxuries of life, and thereby keep the price of labour always low and at a stand: so that by this policy they can afford to sell their produce and manufactures cheaper than any other nation whatsoever. And, if an husbandman, mechanic, manufacturer, or any other person, in Asia, can purchase as much for the value of six-pence sterling in money, as a European can do for two shillings sterling, does not the six-pence answer the same end to the Asiatic, as the two shillings does to the European? In some of the histories of this part of the world, that I have met with (but I can't at present recollect which) it is said, that such is the policy of several of the governments in the East-Indies, that their priests propagate a notion among the people, that; the more silver they die possessed of, the happier they will be in a future state: which notion occasions the silver to be hoarded and buried, and thereby kept out of circulation to prevent any rise in the price of labour and commodities: and this is said to be the occasion of the surprizing cheapness of all their produce and manufactures, when bought at first hand, in comparison to those of the richest European nations.

If this principle, upon examination, should be found to be good policy, may not the great paper circulation of the kingdom of Great-Britain in particular, which is occasioned by our national debts and taxes, deserve serious consideration? For, if paper circulation, by authority, will answer the end of coined money, the more paper there is in circulation by way of transfer or otherwise, the more money there is, in effect, in circulation: and if so, do not our debts and taxes in this respect, as well as in others, contribute to keep up the price of labour, and render our produce and manufactures proportionally dearer than otherwise they would be? Can any thing, therefore, more importantly concern the interests of our commerce, than the exonerating us from our national debts, and in consequence thereof, from the payment of those taxes which are appropriated for the payment of the interest and the principal thereof? For when the whole debt shall be paid off, and all the paper effects thereby occasioned be annihilated, and consequently the public taxes abated, will not all merchandizes fall in their price?

That this will prove the case, there are two reasons assignable, says Erasmus Philips, Esq; in the state of the nation: 'The first is, that when those paper effects (which now have the operation of money) are sunk, their operation must cease of course; for as the value of commodities has risen by the increase of gold and silver within these 150 years, so would they of necessity fall in their price, if our gold and silver were considerably diminished; the consequence must be the same of that which has the operation of money.'

'The second reason is very obvious; for goods that are taxed bear a price in proportion to the impost upon them; when they are free from this incumbrance, there can be no reason why they should not come to their natural value; (If I may use the expression) for instance, if the duty on malt be six-pence per bushel; when this duty is taken off, malt of course should be six-pence a bushel cheaper than before. The same must be said of all other commodities that are taxed.' See the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, TAXES.

Some have imagined, that it was for the advantage of a state to be indebted to itself: they thought that this multiplied riches by increasing the circulation.

Those who are of this opinion have, I believe, confounded a circulating paper, which represents money, or a circulating paper, which is the sign of the profits that a company has, or will make by commerce, with a paper which represents a debt. The two first are extremely advantageous to the state, the last can never be so, and all that we can expect from it is, that individuals have a good security for their payment. But let us see the inconveniencies which result from it.

1. If foreigners possess much paper, which represents a debt, they annually draw out of the nation a considerable sum for interest. To prevent which, see the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS.]

2. A nation that is thus perpetually in debt, ought to have the exchange very low.

3. The taxes raised for the payment of the interest of the debt are a hurt to the manufacturers, by raising the price of the artificers labour. See our articles *DUTIES, DEBTS* [*NATIONAL DEBTS.*]

4. It takes the true revenue of the state from those who have activity and industry, to convey it to the indolent; that is, it gives the materials for labour to those who do not labour, and clogs with difficulties the industrious artist.

These are it's inconveniences; I know of no advantages. Ten persons have each a yearly income of a thousand crowns, either in land or trade; this raises to the nation at 5 per cent. a capital of 200,000 crowns. If these ten persons employed the half of their income, that is, 5000 crowns, in paying the interest of an 100,000 crowns, which they had borrowed of others, that would be only to the state, as 200,000; that is, in the language of the algebraist, $200,000 \text{ crowns} - 100,000 \text{ crowns} + 100,000 \text{ crowns} = 200,000 \text{ crowns}$.

People are thrown, perhaps, into this error, by reflecting, that the paper which represents the debt of a nation, is the sign of riches; for none but a rich state can support such paper, without falling into decay. And if it does not fall, it is a proof that the state has other riches besides. They say that it is not an evil, because there are resources against it, and that it is an advantage, because these resources surpass the evil.

REMARKS.

Though Europe is esteemed the most happy and valuable quarter of the globe, these prerogatives are not derived from it's size, since it is the least of all the four into which the world is divided.

It has been supposed, that if the whole habitable globe was divided into 300 parts, Europe will contain of these 27, Asia 101, Africa 82, and America 90. In respect, though she excels America, and perhaps Africa, yet she falls far short of Asia, if we may depend on the account of the least exceptionable travellers. With regard to subterranean riches, her gold and silver mines are not to be compared with those in the other quarters of the world; she has few precious stones, and as to spices and perfumes, we well know from whence they come.

But with regard to territory, if we consider what the Spaniards, the English, the Portuguese, the French, and the Dutch, possess in other parts of the world, it may be said, that the dominions of the European powers are equal, if not superior to Asia; and if it does not contain so many people within it's own limits, yet it commands more. And, in consequence of their trade, the Europeans enjoy all that nature has bestowed on the other parts of the world. The trade of Europe has, in a course of ages, undergone great alterations. Upon the fall of the Roman empire, it seemed to be in some measure extinguished, but soon revived among the Saxons, who, when they became masters of this island, established a great maritime power here, which did not continue long, the Danes becoming masters of this country.

After some ages, commerce and maritime power retired southward, and were in a manner engrossed by the Italian states, particularly by the Venetians and Genoese, who shared the traffic of the east.

In the 13th century, several free cities in Germany began to league together for the support of their trade, and made their confederacy known to the world, by the title of the Hanseatic league. As their trade acquired them immense wealth and power, so it rendered them haughty and insolent, which, with other concurring circumstances, at length brought on their ruin; for in the 15th century, the Portuguese perfected a new route to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; and about the same time the Spaniards discovered America, which threw the trade of Europe and it's chief naval power into the hands of those nations, who, if they had known how to cultivate them, and use them with moderation, might not only have raised it higher, but made it more durable than it proved. But the boundless ambition and cruel oppression of the Spaniards, animated the United Provinces to throw off their yoke, and engaged them and the English to share in those riches, which were the source of the Spanish power, and this gave rise to the maritime powers. The progress of the Dutch from this time, in commerce and naval power, was amazingly rapid; for in the space of about half a century, from having scarce any ships at all, they came to have more than all Europe together.

Since that time, Great-Britain, by extending her commerce, and multiplying her colonies, has raised her maritime force to an equality with the Dutch. The French too have, of late years, not only raised a considerable maritime force, but have extended their traffic into all parts of the world; for though the wars before the last, in a great measure, ruined their navy, yet we experienced by the war in 1741, that they had greatly raised it again, and carried their commerce to a pitch beyond all our apprehensions; and, whatever disadvantages they had sustained in either, they were in a fair way to retrieve, and to extend them to what degree they pleased, had not a stop

been put to this career by the *DEFINITIVE TREATY* of 1763. So that the maritime affairs of Europe have in this last century suffered a very great change.

The like attention to commerce and maritime power has, within these fifty years, appeared in almost every other nation in Europe. The Swedes and Danes have set up East-India companies; the Russians have opened a new and beneficial traffic, as well on the Caspian, as on the Black Sea. The house of Austria has shewed a great desire of reviving the antient commerce of the Low Countries. The Genoese have, within these few years, erected a company of assurance, to encourage their subjects to venture upon long voyages, and if possible, to recover their antient reputation as a maritime power. Nay, even the Spaniards themselves, who in this respect have slept for such a number of years, have at length opened their eyes, have erected some, and have had under consideration the erecting several other companies, and established divers capital manufactures for the encouragement and extension of trade throughout their European dominions, and have aimed at the establishment of a *FISHERY IN NEWFOUNDLAND*; but the *DEFINITIVE TREATY* of 1763, has put an effectual stop to their pretensions. See *BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA*.

Whence 'tis plain, that the Navigation and shipping of the Europeans in general, is, within the last fifty years, greatly increased: as a farther proof hereof, we need only consider the numerous fleets and great embarkations of different powers, such as the Russians, Swedes, and Danes in the north, the invasion of Sicily and Africa by the Spaniards, and many others.

That nation which augments it's commerce and maritime power to the greatest extent, bids fair to give law to the rest, unless by a preservative confederacy of the lesser powers, they should become a match for the greatest potentate.

Thus, for instance, if the house of Bourbon should ever acquire as great a proportion of trade and naval power as either of the maritime powers, by which name they are at present distinguished, this would be an acquisition of much more consequence, than any they have hitherto made in point of territories or dominion.

It is therefore the interest of the maritime powers to sustain their characters in that respect at all events; since by this means only, they can preserve their independency, protect their subjects wherever they may be settled or dispersed, and assist their allies, notwithstanding the superior power, as well as boundless ambition of any aspiring neighbour. We need not wonder then, at a common notion which prevails, as if we had a right to prescribe to some other nations the bounds of their naval greatness; and we say the truth, we seem to have laid a good foundation for this by the *DEFINITIVE TREATY* of 1763.

What has been said in relation to trade and commerce, may answer the end expected from it in an historical light, and enable us, in some measure, to judge of the nature, extent, and comparative strength of what is styled maritime power. We see and know, that whatever state or power is possessed of an extensive commerce, may have a proportionate naval force, the effects whereof will render her considerable; yet it is requisite to know how this arises, and why the strength and dominion of a maritime power is firmer and more durable than that which arises from a great extent of territory, multitudes of subjects, or rich and fruitful countries, which is what we shall explain and apply.

Trade is certainly the strength and happiness of a nation, let the form of it's government be what it will; because it introduces industry and arts, by which the manners of a people are civilized, even from the greatest savageness and brutality. See *BARBARY. REMARKS* thereon.

Nor is it the number of subjects only, but the number of useful subjects, that is, trading subjects, that make a state powerful. Commerce introduces property, and without security with respect to that, the inducements to pursue trade will flag; and otherwise it will thrive and prosper, and will draw an inconceivable flux of people, wherever it is thoroughly established, and wisely cherished and promoted.

Hence we may easily assign the true causes of the long duration of republics renowned for their trade; such as Tyre and Carthage in antient times, the Venetians and Genoese in later ages. It is almost impossible, that a nation active and industrious in commerce, and in consequence thereof rich and populous, and living under a mild government, should not exert a greater force when employed in attacking others, and have much greater resources in case she is attacked herself, than other states that are defective in those advantages; whence it will appear, how the states of Holland rose to such a vast power in so short a time, and how her subjects have been able to thrive and grow opulent under taxes and impositions, which must have beggared them in any other situation than that of a trading republic. See *HOLLAND*. Besides, Trade quite changes the comparative strength of states and kingdoms, because wherever it resides, it creates so many and so great advantages, and begets such relations and connections, as render a trading country infinitely superior to her neighbours, who are differently circumstanced. For, such

such a state, if on the Continent, can fortify her great towns, so as to resist a power ten times stronger, in respect to people; she can maintain, if requisite, great numbers of regular troops, and on emergency hire more of her neighbours, besides what she may be able to do by the help of her maritime force. Hence arises that great strength and real power shewn by trading republics, when attacked either by ambitious princes, or even by powerful confederacies.

Thus the Venetians have often been too hard for the Turks, the Genoese for the most powerful princes in Italy; and, in earlier times, the Lubeckers for the greatest powers in the north. Hence the famous league of Cambray, which was formed for the destruction of the state of Venice in 1509, came to nothing, though the greatest princes of that time engaged in it, and though the Venetians themselves were guilty of some indiscretions, and though they had been much exhausted by former wars. Thus also the famous confederacy between France and Great-Britain against Holland in 1672, proved abortive, though at the first, even the Dutch themselves thought their affairs desperate; but their love of liberty animated them to exert themselves to the utmost, and their commerce furnished them with the means of getting tolerably out of the war.

Nor has trade only a great influence on the particular affairs of nations separately considered, and is almost the sole cause of a comparative difference in the strength and forces of most of the powers of Europe, but is also of unspeakable advantage to the European quarter of the globe in general; frees us from apprehensions of being over-run by those barbarous empires which the Mahomedan religion has established in the world, and likewise brings us every thing that is rich and costly, every thing that is curious and estimable, even from the remotest quarters of the earth; so that to trade alone, all is due to this part of the world; in a word, it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extensive colonies abroad, and their riches at home; and above all, that naval power, which so much surpasses any thing of the same kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted in that way in former ages.

The reciprocal connections between nations resulting from trade, have quite altered the state of things, and produced within these two or three centuries past, a kind of new system in Europe, by which every state is led to have a much greater concern than formerly for what may happen to another. As in former ages a quarrel in the north could only have affected the north, but in the last century things were totally altered. Both the Dutch and we have sent our fleets into the Baltic, upon the quarrel that happened between the Swedes and Danes, a little before the restoration of king Charles II. Not long after this, the crown of Sweden became a contracting party in the famous triple alliance for maintaining the peace of Europe, preserving the Spanish Low Countries, and setting bounds to the power of France. After the Revolution, towards the close of the reign of king William, both the maritime powers sent their fleets again into the Baltic, with the same view, and with the same success, and the like has been done more than once since. In all those cases the pretence was, the love of justice, and a punctual performance of treaties, in which there was somewhat of truth; but the real design was, to prevent those inconveniences which must have befallen the maritime powers, if either Sweden or Denmark had been undone by those wars. May it not therefore be truly said, that a notion of the *BALANCE OF POWER* (in the strict sense of that phrase) was created by *TRADE*, and must continue to be the object more especially of trading countries so long as they would preserve their commerce and their freedom?

Whenever any power in Europe therefore attempts to oppress another, or betrays a design of increasing its own strength, by weakening or conquering its neighbour, other potentates are ready to interpose; from a quick sense, not only of the inconveniences that must arise from the incroachments made by such a power, but from the just apprehensions that this must prove prejudicial to commerce in general, and to that in several nations in particular; who, to prevent that, will not scruple to take up arms.

Whence it appears, that the balance of power is not an empty name, or a chimerical thing, but a just and significant expression, though a new and figurative one. For the meaning is, the preserving the several governments of Europe in their present condition, and the preventing any in particular from acquiring such a measure of power, as may be dangerous or fatal to those reciprocal interests before observed; which as they took rise from, are absolutely necessary to the continuance of commerce: for any attempts thereupon must be felt by every nation that has a share of trade to preserve. Whence it follows, that it is the interest of all the powers in Europe to support each other's independency, and prevent whatever has the appearance of an *UNIVERSAL MONARCHY*, or the introducing the influence of one court over the greatest part of the rest; because this must be detrimental to the whole, and injurious to the freedom, learning, arts, manufactures and commerce of Europe in general.

Without urging more on this head, it appears, that peace and good neighbourhood, the encouragement of arts and sciences, and the pursuit of manufactures and commerce, as they are agreeable to the interest of every particular state, so they are best for the whole; and would contribute to render every particular country of Europe infinitely more populous, and the people in all countries much more happy, than any vain endeavours to aggrandize particular states at the expence of others, and the slaughter of human nature.

EXCHANGE. Under the article *ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES*, we have shewed how this practical part of exchange may occasionally conduce to the merchant's interest in particular, as well as that of the nation in general: this we have done by a few simple arbitrations, according to the most concise methods of operation, which are practised by the more skilful and expert negociators of money by exchange. This branch of practical exchange will be continued in a more complex manner throughout this work. And on consulting the article *BILLS OF EXCHANGE*, the reader will not only find an ample account of the principal customs and usages relating thereunto in some of the chief trading nations of Europe, but likewise the laws of England and Scotland in particular, and those from the most approved authorities.

With respect to the computation of exchanges, and the converting of sterling money into the monies of the principal countries in Europe, and vice versa, with which we have direct courses of exchange established, the reader will find the principles thereof exemplified, with all desirable brevity and perspicuity, under the article *ENGLAND*, towards the conclusion thereof. There he will find also our references to such other heads, with regard to the subject of practical exchanges, as will, altogether, make a more complete system of this branch of mercantile erudition than is to be met with elsewhere, either in the English or any other language.

Under the article *BALANCE OF TRADE*, we have considered the nature of exchange in a political and national light, in order to discover how far the courses of exchange between nation and nation, together with the price of bullion gold and silver, and the true state of the custom-house accounts, will contribute to give an insight into the particular balance of trade, and all money transactions between one country and another, and enable us to judge likewise how the general balance stands with all nations.

To exemplify and illustrate what I have urged under the foregoing heads from reason and authority, I have again resumed the subject under the article *BRITAIN, OR GREAT-BRITAIN*, where we have applied those general principles before laid down, to the present state of our own kingdom, by shewing how the courses of exchange at any time may be compared with the chief countries of Europe with which we drive any considerable commerce; with a view to make the best judgment we can of the state of our trade and all money transactions, from time to time, by means of a due consideration of said courses.

But as the consideration of subjects in variety of lights tends to a further and more satisfactory elucidation thereof, we shall here again touch upon this topic of exchange, it being more natural for the reader, especially at first, to consult this head than those others, which we have before intimated; although, upon perusal of what is there said, I flatter myself, that the judicious observator will not judge what is before urged any way unnatural, or repugnant to the articles under which the matter is contained.

Of exchange in a political light.

The relative abundance and scarcity of specie in different countries, forms what is called the *course of exchange*.

Exchange is a fixing of the actual and momentary value of money.

Silver, as a metal, has a value like all other merchandizes, and an additional value as it is capable of becoming the sign of other merchandizes. If it was no more than a mere merchandize, it would perhaps lose much of its value.

Silver, as money, has a value, which the prince in some respects can fix, and in others he cannot.

The prince establishes a proportion between a quantity of silver as metal, and the same quantity as money. (2.) He fixes the proportion between the several metals made use of as money. (3.) He establishes the weight and standard of every piece of money. In fine (4.) He gives to every piece that ideal value whereof we have spoken. We shall call the value of money in these four respects its positive value, because it may be fixed by law.

The coin of every state has, besides this, a relative value, as it is compared with the money of other countries. This relative value is established by the exchange, and greatly depends on its positive value. It is fixed by the current course of commerce, and by the general opinion of the merchants, never by the decrees of the prince; because it is liable to incessant variations, and depends on the accidental circumstances of trade, the money transactions between nations, and the state of the public credit, &c.

The several nations in fixing this relative value, are chiefly guided by that which has the greatest quantity of specie. If she has as much specie as all the others together, it is then most proper for the others to regulate theirs by her standard; and this regulation between all the others will pretty nearly agree with the regulation made with this principal nation. In the actual state of the universe, * Holland is the nation we are speaking of. Let us examine a little the course of exchange with relation to her and France for example.

* The Dutch have more established courses of exchange established throughout Europe than any other state, and are a greater medium of exchange negotiations than any other; they regulate the exchange for almost all Europe, by a kind of determination among themselves, in a manner most agreeable to their own interest. See the article HOLLAND.

They have in Holland a piece of money called a florin, or a guilder, worth 20 sous, or 40 half sous or gros. But to render our ideas as simple as possible, let us imagine that they have not any such piece of money in Holland as a florin or guilder, and that they have no other but the gros; a man who should have 1000 florins, would have 40,000 gros, and so of the rest. Now the exchange with Holland is determined, by knowing how many gros every piece of money in other countries is worth; and as in France they commonly reckon by a crown of three livres, the exchange makes it necessary for the French to know how many gros are contained in a crown of three livres. If the course of exchange is at 54, a crown of three livres will be worth 54 gros; if it is at 60, it will be worth 60 gros. If silver is scarce in France, a crown of three livres will be worth more gros; if plentiful, it will be worth less.

This scarcity or plenty, from whence results the mutability of the course of exchange, is not the real, but a relative scarcity or plenty. For example, when France has greater occasion for funds in Holland, than the Dutch of having funds in France, specie is said to be common in France, and scarce in Holland, and vice versa.

Let it be supposed, that the course of exchange between Holland and France is at 54; if France and Holland composed only one city, they would act as the French do, when they give change for a crown: the Frenchman would take three livres out of his pocket, and the Dutchman 54 gros from his. But as there is some distance between Paris and Amsterdam, it is necessary that he who for a French crown of three livres gives 54 gros which he has in Holland, should give a bill of exchange for 54 gros, payable in Holland. The 54 gros is not the thing in question, but a bill for that sum. Thus, in order to judge of the * scarcity or plenty of specie, we must know if there are in France more bills of 54 gros, drawn upon Holland, than there are crowns drawn upon France. If there are more bills from Holland, than there are from France, specie is scarce in France, and common in Holland; it then becomes necessary that the exchange should rise, and that the Dutch give for a French crown more than 54 gros; otherwise the Frenchman will not part with it, and vice versa.

* There is much specie in a place, when there is more specie than paper; there is little, when there is more paper than specie.

Thus the various turns in the course of exchange form an account of debtor and creditor, which must be frequently settled, and which the state in debt can no more discharge by exchange, than an individual can pay a debt by giving change for a piece of silver.

Let it be supposed that there are but three states in the world, Holland, France and Spain; the several individuals in Spain are indebted to France, to the value of 100,000 marks * of silver; and that several individuals of France owe in Spain 110,000 marks: now, if some circumstance, both in Spain and France, should cause each suddenly to withdraw his specie, what will then be the course of exchange? These two nations will reciprocally acquit each other of an 100,000 marks: but France will still owe 10,000 marks to Spain, and the Spaniards will still have bills upon France, to the value of 10,000 marks; while France will have none at all upon Spain.

* A mark is a weight of eight ounces.

But if Holland was in a contrary situation with respect to France, and in order to balance their account, must pay her 10,000 marks, the French would have two ways of paying the Spaniards; either by giving their creditors in Spain bills for 10,000 marks upon their debtors in Holland, or else by sending specie to the value of 10,000 marks to Spain.

From hence it follows, that when a state has occasion to remit a sum of money into another country, it is indifferent, in the nature of things, whether specie be conveyed thither, or they take bills of exchange. The advantage or disadvantage of these two methods solely depends on actual circumstances. The French must enquire which will yield most gros in Holland, money carried thither in specie, or a bill upon Holland for the like sum *.

* With the expence of carriage and insurance deducted.

When money of the same standard and weight in France yields money of the same standard and weight in Holland, it is said that the exchange is at par. In the actual state of specie, which was in 1744, the par was nearly at 54 gros to the French crown of three livres. When the exchange is above 54 gros, the French say it is high; when beneath, they say it is low.

In order to know the loss and gain of a state, in a particular situation of exchange, it must be considered as debtor and creditor, as buyer and seller. When the exchange is below par, it loses as debtor, and gains as creditor; it loses as buyer, and gains as seller. It is obvious it loses as debtor: suppose, for example, France owes Holland a certain number of gros there are in a crown, the more crowns she has to pay. On the contrary, if France is creditor, for a certain number of gros, the less number of gros there are in a crown, the more crowns she will receive. The state loses also as a buyer; for there must be the same number of gros, to buy the same quantity of merchandises; and while the exchange is low, every French crown is worth fewer gros. For the same reason the state gains as a seller: you sell your merchandise in Holland for a certain number of gros; you receive then more French crowns, when for every 50 gros you receive a crown, than you would do if you received only the same crown for every 54. The contrary to this takes place in the other state. If the Dutch are indebted a certain number of crowns to France, they will gain; if they are owing to them, they will lose; if they sell, they lose; if they buy, they gain.

Again: when the exchange between France and Holland is below par; for example, if it should be at 50 instead of 54, it should follow that France, on sending bills of exchange to Holland for 54,000, could buy merchandises only to the value of 50,000; and that, on the other hand, the Dutch sending the value of 50,000 to France, might buy 50,000 crowns, which makes a difference of $\frac{4}{5}$; that is, a loss to France of more than $\frac{2}{5}$; so that France would be obliged to send to Holland $\frac{1}{5}$ more in specie or merchandise than she would do, was the exchange at par. And as the mischief must constantly increase, because a debt of this kind would bring the exchange still lower, France would in the end be ruined. It seems, we say, as if this should certainly follow; and yet it does not, because states constantly lean towards a balance, in order to preserve their independency. Thus they borrow only in proportion to their ability to pay, and measure their buying by what they sell; and taking the example from what has been said, if the exchange falls in France, from 54 to 50, the Dutch, who buy merchandises in France to the value of a thousand crowns, for which they used to pay 54,000 gros, would now pay only 50,000, if the French would consent to it. But the merchandise of France will rise insensibly, and the profit will be shared between the French and the Dutch; for when a merchant can gain, he easily shares his profit: there then arises a communication of profit between the French and the Dutch.

In the same manner the French, who bought merchandises of Holland for 54,000 gros, and who, when the exchange was at 54, paid for them 1000 crowns, will be obliged to add $\frac{4}{5}$ more in French crowns to buy the same merchandises. But the French merchant, being sensible of the loss he suffers, will take up less of the merchandise of Holland. The French and the Dutch merchant will then be both losers, the state will insensibly fall into a balance, and the lowering of the exchange will not be attended with these inconveniencies which he had reason to fear.

A merchant may send his stock into a foreign country, when the exchange is below par, without injuring his fortune; because when it returns, he recovers what he had lost; but a prince, who sends only specie into a foreign country, which never can return, is always a loser.

When the merchants have great dealings in any country, the exchange there infallibly rises. This proceeds from their entering into many engagements, buying great quantities of merchandises, and drawing upon foreign countries to pay for them.

A prince may amass great wealth in his dominions, and yet specie may be really scarce and relatively common; for instance, a state is indebted for many merchandises to a foreign country, the exchange will be low, though specie be scarce.

The exchange of all places constantly tends to a certain proportion, and that in the very nature of things. If the course of exchange from Ireland to England is below par, that of Ireland to Holland will be still lower; that is, in a compound ratio of that of Ireland to England, and that of England to Holland: for a Dutch merchant, who can have his specie indirectly from Ireland, by the way of England, will not chuse to pay dearer by having it the direct way.

This, we say, ought naturally to be the case; but, however, it is not exactly so; there are always circumstances which vary these things; and the different profit of drawing by one place, or of drawing by another, constitutes the particular art and dexterity of the foreign bankers, the nature of which I have

I have already explained, under the article *ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES*, and shall illustrate the same by a great variety of examples more, under the heads of all the capital states and kingdoms throughout Europe. See also the article *BANKERS*, and the article *ENGLAND*, the latter part of it.

When a state varies its specie; when France, for instance, gives the name of six livres, or two crowns, to what was before called three livres or one crown; this new denomination, which adds nothing real to the crown, ought not to procure a single gros more from Holland by the exchange. The French ought only to have, for the two new crowns, the same number of gros, which they before received for the old one. If this does not happen, it must not be imputed as an effect of the regulation itself, but to the novelty and suddenness of the affair. The exchange adheres to what is already established, and is not altered 'till after a certain time.

When a state, instead of only raising the specie by a law, calls it in, in order to diminish its size, it frequently happens that, during the time taken up in its passing again through the mint, there are two kinds of money; the large, which is the old, and the small, which is the new; and as the large is cried down, as not to be received as money, and bills of exchange must consequently be paid in the new, one would imagine then that the exchange should be regulated by the new. If, for example, in France the ancient crown of three livres, being worth in Holland 60 gros, was reduced one half, the new crown ought to be valued only at 30. On the other hand, it seems as if the exchange ought to be regulated by the old coin; because the banker, who has specie, and receives bills, is obliged to carry the old coin to the mint, in order to change it for the new; by which he must be a loser. The exchange then ought to be fixed between the value of the old coin and that of the new. The value of the old is decreased, if we may call it so, both because there is already some of the new in trade, and because the foreign bankers cannot keep up to the rigour of the law; having an interest in letting loose the old coin from their coffers, and being even sometimes forced to make payments with it.

Again, the value of the new specie must rise; because the banker, having this, finds himself in a situation, in which, as we shall prove, he will reap great advantage by procuring the old. The exchange should then be fixed, as we have said, between the old and the new coin. For then the bankers find it for their interest to send the old out of the kingdom; because, by this means, they procure the same advantage as they could receive from a regular exchange of the old specie, that is a great many gros in Holland, and, in return, a regular exchange a little lower, between the old and the new specie, which would bring many crowns to France.

Suppose that three livres of the old French crown yield by the actual exchange 45 gros, and that, by sending this same crown to Holland, they receive 60; but, with a bill of 45 gros, they procure a crown of three livres in France, which being sent in the old specie to Holland, still yields 60 gros: thus all the old specie would be sent out of the kingdom, and the bankers would run away with the whole profit.

To remedy this, new measures must be taken. The government, which coined the new specie, would itself be obliged to send great quantities of the old, to the nation which regulates the exchange; and, by thus gaining credit there, raise the exchange pretty nearly to as many gros for a crown of three livres, as they could receive for sending the old crown of three livres out of the country: we say, to nearly the same; for, while the profits are small, the bankers will not be tempted to send it abroad, because of the expence of carriage, and the danger of confiscations.

It is fit that we should give a very clear idea of this. Monsieur Bernard, or any other banker in France, employed by the state, proposes bills upon Holland, and gives them at one, two, or three gros higher than the actual exchange; he has made a provision, in a foreign country, by means of the old specie, which he has continually been sending thither; and thus he has raised the exchange to the point we have just mentioned. In the mean time, by disposing of his bills, he seizes on all the new specie, and obliges the other bankers, who have payments to make, to carry their old specie to the mint; and, as he insensibly obtains all the specie, he obliges the other bankers to give him bills of exchange at a very high price. By this means he profits in the end, in a great measure, for the loss he sustained at the beginning.

It is evident, that, during these transactions, the state must be in a dangerous crisis. Specie must become extremely scarce, 1. Because much the greatest part is cried down. 2. Because a part will be sent into foreign countries. 3. Because every one will lay it up, as not being willing to give that profit to the prince, which he hopes to receive himself. It is dangerous to do it slowly; and dangerous also, to do it too precipitately. If the supposed gain be immoderate, the inconveniences increase in proportion.

From what has been said, we see, that, when the exchange is lower than the specie, a profit may be made by sending it abroad; for the same reason, when it is higher than the specie, there is a profit in causing it to return.

V O L. I.

But there is a case in which profit may be made by sending the specie out of the kingdom, when the exchange is at par; that is, by sending it into a foreign country to be coined over again. When it returns, an advantage may be made of it, whether it be circulated in the country, or paid for foreign bills.

Suppose a company has been erected in a state, with a prodigious stock, and this stock has a few months been raised 20 or 25 times above the original purchase: suppose again, the same state established a bank, whose bills were to perform the office of specie, while the numerary value of these bills was prodigious, in order to answer to the numerary value of the stocks (this was Mr Law's system in France) it would follow, from the nature of things, that the stocks and these bills would vanish in the same manner as they arose. Stocks cannot be suddenly raised 20 or 25 times above their original value, without giving a number of people the means of procuring immense riches in paper: every one would seek to secure his fortune, and as the exchange offers the most easy way of it from home, or conveying it whither one pleases, people would incessantly remit a part of their effects to the nation that regulates the exchange. A project for making continual remittances into a foreign country, must lower the exchange.

Let us suppose, that at the time of Mr Law's system in France, in proportion to the standard and weight of the silver coin, the exchange was fixed at 44 gros Dutch, to the French crown; when a vast quantity of paper became money, they were unwilling to give more than 39 gros for a crown, and afterwards 38, 37, &c. This proceeded so far, that after a while they would give but 8 gros, and at last there was no exchange at all.

The exchange ought, in this case, to have regulated the proportion between the specie and the paper of France. It is supposed, that, by the weight and standard of the silver, the crown of three livres in silver was worth 40 gros, and that, the exchange being made in paper, the crown of three livres in paper was worth only 8 gros, the difference was $\frac{3}{4}$. The crown of three livres in paper was then worth $\frac{3}{4}$ less than the crown of 3 livres in silver.

Although it could be proved, that the course of exchange alone is not the infallible criterion*, whereby to judge occasionally of the particular *BALANCE OF TRADE*, only between one country and another; yet it is, perhaps, the most certain characteristic, whereby to judge of the balance of money-transactions in general between nation and nation; and that is the same thing in effect; commercial transactions being comprehended in all money-transactions, let them be upon whatever accidental or temporary account they will.

* How far the price of exchange may be helpful to give us an insight into the state of trade between one nation and another. See the article *BALANCE OF TRADE*, and *BRITAIN*, i. e. [*GREAT-BRITAIN*.]

But if the nature and courses of exchange be considered only as one auxiliary medium of reasoning, in conjunction with other essential considerations, in order to make a true judgment of the state of money-concerns between nations, and where the balance of the account lies, it well deserves the study of the rulers of a trading kingdom: and therefore it may be occasionally of important utility, to view this topic in every light, wherein it may, and has been usefully considered.

I.

Exchange has been shortly defined by some, to be nothing but a compensation of value from one country to another.

II.

If our commerce and disbursements in foreign countries are equal to their commerce and disbursements in ours, the compensation is equal; in which case the balance of that trade, and money disbursements, are said to be equal, and the exchange at par; that is to say, one who gives money in the one country shall receive as much from the other in weight and standard. Thus, if the Frenchman for each of his crowns that are now current for three livres, which he gives at Paris in new specie, receives $54\frac{1}{2}$ gros, current money, or 52 gros of bank money, in Holland, and 29 d. $\frac{1}{4}\frac{1}{8}$ sterling of London; and if the Hollander, for his $54\frac{1}{2}$ gros, current money, or for his 52 gros of bank money, receives a crown of three livres at Paris, then they both receive precisely as much as they give; if they receive more, they gain; if less they lose.

R E M A R K S.

Two sorts of money are, as it were, the soul and mover of commerce, the one real, and the other ideal. The real money consists of gold and silver; it was introduced for the facility of commerce; it made sale succeed to barter, by becoming the price and measure of whatever enters into commerce among men. But, as the incumbrance and difficulty of transporting these species was still an impediment to commerce, recourse was had to letters, or bills of exchange, from one country or place upon another; and, in order to make the negotiations and computations the easier, money

of account, or exchange, was imagined, as pounds, shillings, and pence sterling, in England; livres, sols, and crowns in France; deniers, sols, and livres de gros, in Holland, &c. This last sort of imaginary, or ideal money, which consists in a certain number of pieces of real money, may be called political money.

These two sorts of money furnish two sorts of comparisons, equalities, or proportions; 1. Between the weight, standard, and value of the real monies of one country, and the weight, standard, and value of the real monies of another country: this sort of equality we shall call the real par.

The real par, or that exact equality between the current monies, is the most essential point, and yet the least known, in the commerce of exchange: it is, likewise, the most fixed point whence we can set out; for the weight and standard of coins are every-where more steady than their numerical value.

The second equality which we are to consider, is between the monies of exchange of one country and those of another, which admit of frequent variations as to the quantity of the one which must be given to equal the other. These variations, which proceed from the arbitrary value which sovereigns affix to the real money in their dominions, and from the plenty or scarcity of bills of exchange of one place upon another, make precisely what we call exchanges. Their equality consists in finding the proportion of one exchange to two or more exchanges given: that is what we shall call the political par.

This par is, therefore, an exact equality between the values of exchange of different markets, compared with one another; it is what ought to be considered by the trader as a most important object of his study*. He ought to trace out the difference of these exchanges, make exact and frequent comparisons of them, examine every day what is the result of the changes laid together. It is from this nice and particular examination that he discovers the paths that he ought to pursue, and the circuits which he may, or which he ought to make, from place to place, that he may be capable of improving every advantage which offers to him from each exchange in particular, and to shun making remittances directly upon any trading city whose exchange shall not appear favourable to him.

* For the reasons hereof see the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, and the article ENGLAND, in the latter part of it. See also the articles FRANCE, HOLLAND, and all the chief trading states in Europe, under their respective denominations.

Here then offer to our consideration two sorts of parities, which must not be confounded, the REAL PAR, and the POLITICAL PAR. No body has hitherto treated at all satisfactorily of the real par: in order, therefore, to do that, in a manner the most accurate and useful, we must be perfectly acquainted with the weights, standards, and values of all the real coins of every state in Europe. We must be above the difficulty of calculations which this delicate subject requires, so that none of them may give any obstruction to our profitable views and speculations.

It is necessary likewise for us to know, and that with the utmost precision, the most exact proportion that is possible between the weights with which gold and silver are weighed in our own country, and those with which they are weighed in all others; for, upon our exact knowledge of the proportion between all those different weights, the comparison of the money of one state with that of another absolutely depends.

In the ordinary books of commerce, or of foreign exchange, made up by arithmeticians, we find the proportions of weights and measures; but there are proportions between the weights with which merchandizes are weighed only, and these are commonly inaccurately given: besides that these weights are not every-where the same with which gold and silver are weighed, the importance of those metals requires much more exactness and precision than is either required, or really bestowed, on merchandizes in general: thus one who was to follow those proportions would be egregiously mistaken.

As to the manner of finding the REAL PAR between the real coins of two states, or the POLITICAL PAR between the money of exchange of two or more states, we shall give presently a general formulary, by the proper application whereof all those parities may be discovered; it supposes an exact knowledge of all the real coins, of their weights, standards, and values in every state.

III.

If a nation supplies us with more than it takes from us, or if we disburse more money therein than such state does among us, we must necessarily pay that overplus, which is the balance of trade and all money transactions between the two nations, either in money or bullion.

In order to pay that balance due to the foreign country, the demand for their money, or for their bills of exchange, becomes greater among us than their quantity: this is what raises their price, and lowers the exchange below par*, because, in that case, the Dutch give to the French, we will suppose, less than 54 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros of current money, or than 52 gros of bank money, and the English less than 29 $\frac{1}{8}$ pence

sterling, for the French exchange crown. In that case the French receive less, or they give more money than they have received; which makes the price of exchange disadvantageous to France; it falls below par, or its true value. Thus exchange has become a traffic; and this difference of the par to what is given, makes the course of exchange. In the example before us, it shews that France is indebted to her foreign neighbour, and, consequently, that the commerce which is carried on with that nation is burdensome and expensive to her.

* We say the exchange is lowered, when it falls below par; many people say it rises, because they mean, in the present case, that a greater quantity of French livres, or crowns, are to be given for a certain quantity of foreign money.

In like manner, every time that France shall supply a foreign country with more than it receives from thence, that country will be indebted to France, and the exchange will be to the disadvantage of France; because the need which that country will have of French bills of exchange, in order to pay that balance, will increase its demand for such bills of exchange; and, in that case, they will be obliged to give France more than they really owe them, which makes the exchange to rise above par; because, for the French exchange crown, the Dutch give the French more than 54 gros current money, or more than 52 gros of bank money, and the English more than 29 $\frac{1}{8}$ pence sterling: in that case the exchange is to the advantage of France.

According to these principles, the exchange, which is above par, is advantageous to France, and shews that the trade and money transactions which they carry on with Holland, is favourable to them, since the balance is on their side.

And the exchange which is below par is disadvantageous to France, and shews that their trade is burdensome and expensive to that nation, since they are indebted to the foreigners: whence the following conclusions seem natural enough to be drawn in the general.

1. That exchange shews which of two nations is owing the other, and, consequently, that it is the true barometer of commerce and money-disbursements between them.

2. That the nation which is indebted has the disadvantage in commerce and money-disbursements, and that the one to which a balance is owing has the advantage.

And, 3. That the advantageous commerce, &c. necessarily draws specie, or bullion, into the state which has the advantage, or to which the balance is owing; and that they are exported out of the state which has the disadvantage, or which is indebted.

There are, however, cases which may occasion some exception to this rule. There happen, at some particular times, extraordinary movements in the course of exchange. Those which are owing to some particular turn of trade, are seldom of any continuance, nor considerably felt by traders: things speedily return into their natural situation, and the balance leans sometimes to one side, sometimes to another; but it is quite otherwise, when those movements are occasioned by causes that are superior to, and independent of, commerce. For example, a recoinage of money, which brings too much advantage to a prince, and, consequently, too much loss to his subjects, a chamber of justice, a visa in foreign nations, induce people to send their money abroad, in order to save a part of their loss; for, in these cases, though a nation may not be debtors, the exchange will fall at once.

It is the same case when a state, for some political consideration, is obliged to pay great sums in foreign countries, without having received a compensation; then that export is the fall of exchange, as is the case between England and Holland, when money is remitted to pay armies upon the continent, or large subsidies to foreign princes, through the medium of Holland, or for the payment of interest of such part of our national debts as are due to the Dutch, or others which pass through Dutch hands, &c. and falls of the exchange which are occasioned by these causes, are generally of longer continuance than those occasioned in the way of mere commerce. In such cases, before engaging in exchange, it ought to be nicely studied, and narrowly examined; and, if it be found not capable of affording some profitable returns, it is much better to transport money in kind than to ruin or prejudice trade.

Upon the whole, it seems that they who attentively consider the daily course of exchange, by observing which of two nations is indebted to the other, or which has the advantage or disadvantage in trade and money disbursements, will also discern what is most eligible to be done for the supporting that exchange, or for the benefiting trade. This method of knowing the balance of trade and money negotiations between nations, is infinitely more certain and expeditious than that of examining the import and export of merchandize; for this enables the legislature daily to take such measures, as may either maintain and preserve the advantage, if we have it, or recover it, if we have it not: whereas that which results from the examination of commodities which are imported or exported, can only be known a long time after; and then it is out of time frequently to put those measures in execution

execution which may be requisite: perhaps it is necessary to make use of both the one and the other. See the articles EXPORTATION and IMPORTATION.

A very ingenious French author, who intitles his work *Reflections politique sur les finances & les commerce de France*, applying his skill in the foreign exchange to discover how detrimental to France were those rises and falls of money which they formerly practised, and what effects they had upon trade: we apprehend his argument may deserve our attention, because it opens a new scene of reasoning to those who have never considered things in the same light. The period from which he reckons, is from the general recoinage of the money, which was made by virtue of the edict of May, 1709, to the month of April, 1717, when the bank notes commenced, passing over the period of Mr Law's scheme, and resumes his enquiry at the new coinage of the specie, by the edict of August, 1723, and carries the same down to the end of the year 1734. In these two intervals of time, he shews what effects both the rising and falling of the money in France had upon exchange, and consequently upon the trade of that nation.

The state of money and exchange in France, in 1709, before and at the end of the recoinage.

The quantity of gold and silver bullion, and, among others, of piastres, which came into the ports of France by their maritime trade, was what occasioned the recoinage, according to the edict of April 1709, of lewidors of 32 to the mark, fixed at 16 livres 10 sols, and of crowns of eight to the mark, at four livres eight sols.

Before the edict, the current money consisted of lewidors of 36 $\frac{1}{2}$ to the mark, and of crowns of nine to the mark. The arret of council, dated November 20, registered December 10, 1708, fixes this old lewidor, against the 1st of January, 1709, at 12 livres 15 sols each, and the crown at three livres eight sols. The proportion between gold and silver was then 15 to one; and, by the rates which the edict of April sets upon the new pieces of money which it orders to be coined, this proportion is still 15 to one. But the resolution of this edict did not long continue; the multiplicity of reformations and coinages of more money having produced in the public a great number of pieces of different standards, it was thought of consequence to remedy the same by a new coinage, which was appointed by the edict of May, 1709, registered the 14th.

This edict ordains, that the lewidors coined by virtue of the edict of April preceding, of 32 to the mark, shall pass for 20 livres, instead of 16, 10 sols, and the crowns of eight to the mark for five livres, instead of four livres eight sols.

This changed the regular proportion between gold and silver, which was 15, into 16; which raised the price of gold, and lowered that of silver.

The new specie, which were ordered to be coined by this edict of May, were lewidors of 30 to the mark, weighing more than the preceding ones, and yet fixed only at 20 livres; and crowns of eight to the mark, estimated at five livres. The effect of which was, to lower the proportion of gold a sixteenth, and restore the proportion of 15 to one between gold and silver, which the raising the specie by the edict of April had changed. See the article COIN.

These numerical values of the lewidor at 20 livres, and of the crown at five livres, continued all the rest of that year 1709, and during the following years 1710, 1711, 1712, to the first day of December, 1713: thus they were fixed and constant for upwards of four years and a half.

On the 28th of January 1709, the exchange of Paris upon Amsterdam was at 87 gros for our crown of exchange, which is always three French livres; and on the 1st of February, it was at 88, and the French crown of 9 to the mark passed for three livres eight sols.

This is the state which our monies and exchange were in at the beginning of 1709: the question is, whether this exchange was advantageous to France, or the contrary? In order to find out this, we must know what was the real par of our crown of exchange at that time, against the gros in Holland, with respect to the standard, weight, and numerical value of the coins which were current in France and Holland, in January and February 1709. This is what the solution of the following problem will give us with the utmost exactness.

The crowns which were current in France were at 10 pennyweights 22 grains of standard, at the rate of nine to the mark, and passed for three livres eight sols a piece.

The crowns or rixdollars of standard Holland, at 10 pennyweights five grains of silver, at the rate of 8 $\frac{8}{10}$ to the mark, passed for 100 gros of current money, or 96 of bank money.

What was the par of the French crown of exchange, which is always three livres, against gros, according to these two hypotheses?

The first calculation, for the current money.
 x deniers = 3 livres.
 3 $\frac{2}{3}$ livres = 1 crown.
 12 crowns = 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ stand.
 9 = 1 mark.
 1 mark = 8 $\frac{8}{10}$ r.
 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ r. = 12 stand.
 1 = 100 d.

The second calculation for the bank money.
 x deniers = 3 livres.
 3 $\frac{2}{3}$ livres = 1 crown.
 12 crowns = 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ stand.
 9 = 1 mark.
 1 mark = 8 $\frac{8}{10}$ r.
 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ r. = 12
 1 = 96 d.

17	5
245	24
12	131
19	160
3	2
49	

17	5
245	24
3	131
12	160
19	32
49	2

On this side the following terms are multiplied continually into one another, viz.

17	100
19	131
3	160
49	

And on this the following terms, viz.

17	131
19	160
49	32
	2

47481 x = 4192000
 x = 88 $\frac{7}{25}$

15827 x = 1341440
 x = 84 $\frac{2}{3}$

INSTRUCTION.

For the reason of these operations, see the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, also that of ENGLAND, the latter part of it.

According to the first calculation above, the par required was 84 $\frac{2}{3}$ gros current money, supposing, as all who have treated of foreign exchange do, that the rixdollar is taken, at the bank of Amsterdam, only for 48 sols, or 96 gros, of bank money; and, by the statutes of that city for exchange, made the 11th of December, 1643, part 3. b. i. tit. 8 and 9. all bills of exchange, to the sum of 300 florins, and upwards, must be paid in bank money, under pain of forfeiting 25 florins, and of holding the payment invalid, whatever condition, clauses, and stipulations they may contain, or may be inserted into them by the acceptor; we must have recourse to the par in gros of bank money, which was 84 $\frac{2}{3}$, according to the second preceding calculation. This par of bank money is what we shall follow on the present occasion.

Examination of the French course of exchange, from the 1st of January, 1709, to the end of September, 1713.

According to the foregoing calculations, he who gave three livres at Paris, and who received 88 $\frac{7}{25}$ gros of current Dutch money, or 84 $\frac{2}{3}$ gros of bank money, received weight for weight, and standard for standard, precisely as much as he gave if he received more, he was a gainer; if less, he was a loser.

In January 1709, the exchange was at 87 gros, and, on the 1st of February, at 88; that is to say, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros above the par 84 $\frac{2}{3}$ of bank money: that was from 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. which the French received more than they gave: which shews that the trade then carried on by the French was to their advantage from 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. bank money.

The effect of lowering the specie in France.

The arret of council, dated February 19, 1709, registered the 4th of March, and published the 26th, reduces the old lewidor to 12 livres 10 sols, and the old crown to three livres seven sols; this is a fall of five sols per lewis, and of one sol per crown.

On the 8th of March the exchange was at 85 gros; and, as this fall of the coin brought the par to 86 gros bank money, the exchange was one gros below it, and to the disadvantage of France 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. Thus this fall made France lose not only the advantage which they had before, from 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. but also 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. more, which makes a difference in prejudice to France between 4 and 5 per cent.

The edict of April, registered the 22d, in consequence of which there was a new coinage of lewidors, of 32 to the mark, and of crowns, of 9 to the mark, gives these pieces the same currency with those that were coined by virtue of the arret of February 19; but it fixes the mark of those crowns carried to the mint at 32 livres 10 sols. This was as if they had been received upon the foot of 3 livres, 12 sols, 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ deniers each, which produced a rise of 5 sols per crown; but the execution of this edict was of no great extent; it was interrupted by that of May following. Thus the current value of these species, according to the arret of February 19, published the 26th of May, still took place, and consequently, the par was 86 in bank money.

On April 25, 1709, the exchange was at 84 gros: it was, therefore, a gros below par, which still caused a loss to France of 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.

The

The edict of May following, registered the 14th, and published the 18th in the morning, orders this crown of 9 to the mark to be received in the offices and royal receipts, at the rate of 3 livres 10 sols, and the mark in the mints at 32 livres 10 sols.

The rise of gold in proportion of $\frac{2}{3}$, and of silver $\frac{1}{2}$.

This edict orders a new coinage of lewidors, of 30 to the mark, fixed at 20 livres, and of crowns of 8 to the mark, at 5 livres. It raises the lewidor of 32 to the mark, which was at 16 livres 10 sols, to 20 livres, or the new lewidor; and the crown of 8 to the mark to 5 livres; instead of 4 livres 8 sols; thereby it advanced the price of the mark of coined gold to 640 livres, and that of silver to 40 livres; and, by fixing the mark of the old lewidors at 487 livres 10 sols, it leaves between the old gold and the new a difference of 152 livres 10 sols, or of $31 \frac{2}{3}$ per cent. and, between the old silver and the new, a difference of 7 livres 10 sols, or of $23 \frac{1}{3}$ per cent.

These two differences are not equal, as they ought to have been; and this inequality was a disorder in the numerical value affixed to those species. This great disproportion between the price of those old species and that of the new, is an exception to the general rule resulting from the principles before laid down; which difference mult needs have occasioned the old species to be sought after, and transported into foreign countries; whence, after having melted them down, and recoined them into new ones, they were returned to France, which always makes the exchange fall to their disadvantage; and, in that case, foreigners gain thereby a good part of the profit which would have fallen to the king. This is a real loss to the state; which must be understood in the sequel, every time we have occasion to use the same reasoning.

It is true, the edict of May, by fixing at 20 livres the new lewidors of 30 to the mark, which it orders to be coined, reduces the mark of these new lewidors to 600 livres; which restored the proportion of 15 to 1 between gold and silver, and left between the old gold and the new, only a difference of 112 livres 10 sols, or of $23 \frac{1}{3}$ per cent. as is that of the old silver to the new; but equalling this pernicious difference is far from taking it away: consequently, the disorder of a heavy and light money still subsists.

It is no way difficult to apprehend that these sorts of operations cannot be favourable to commerce, and that this raising the proportion of gold $\frac{2}{3}$, and of silver $\frac{1}{2}$, neither was, nor possibly could, prove a means of saving the state, as the author of the *Essai politique sur le commerce* says in his book.

This edict and arret of May 14, published the 20th, proportions the value of the old specie near to an equality with that of the new, by settling the old crown of 9 to the mark at 3 livres 10 sols; which reduces the par to 82 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros bank money. On the 25th of the same month of May, the exchange was at 84 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros: this was $2 \frac{1}{2}$ above par, and, consequently, to the profit of France $2 \frac{3}{8}$ per cent. which shews the necessity there was of raising the old species, in order to proportion them to the new, or to lower the new ones, to adjust them to the proportion of the old.

The arret of June 4, 1709, published the 7th, brings the old specie near to an equal value with the new, by fixing the crown at 3 livres 12 sols; but the arret of the 25th of the same month, published the 1st of July, reduces it to 3 livres 10 sols. Those of July 20, and August 13, confirm this rate. On the 1st of October they are still reduced to 3 livres 7 sols, and they are to be no more current, nor taken in payments, against the 1st of January, 1710, according to the arrets of December 7 and 28, anno 1709. These are alterations of money which are unfavourable to the exchange of France.

This exchange was, on the 12th of July, at 86 gros; that was, $3 \frac{2}{3}$ above the par, 82 $\frac{1}{2}$ bank money, which makes $4 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. in the favour of France: the mark, however, of these crowns was still received at the mints upon the foot of 32 livres 10 sols, which was the same thing as if these crowns had been received at the rate of 3 livres 12 sols a piece; at this rate the par was 80 $\frac{2}{3}$ gros of bank money: and the exchange, during all the rest of that year 1709, kept between 86 and 83 $\frac{1}{2}$. It was therefore still above par from $5 \frac{2}{3}$, to $3 \frac{2}{3}$ gros; which brought an advantage to France of between $7 \frac{1}{8}$ and $4 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. notwithstanding all those variations that happened to the old specie.

Those alterations in the specie of France extremely embarrassed it's trade; whereby the revenues of the state, and of every private person, must suffer, which demonstrates the advantage of keeping the coin fixed and invariable.

A N N O 1710.

On the 1st day of January, this year 1710, the old pieces were cried down; they were no longer current by virtue of the arrets of his majesty's councils of state, dated December 7 and 28, 1709: they were only received in the offices, and in payment of the king's revenue, at the rate of 13 livres 10 sols the lewidor, and of 3 livres 13 sols the crown. In the mean time, these same arrets order the species and gold and

silver bullion, which shall be carried to the mints without mint-bills, to be paid there upon the foot of 508 livres 15 sols the mark of old lewidors, of Spanish pistoles, and gold leopolds of Lorrain; and of 33 livres, 18 sols, 4 deniers the mark of crowns, piaffers, and silver leopolds of Lorrain: which was the same thing as if those crowns had been received at the mint upon the foot of 3 livres, 15 sols, 4 deniers a piece: this is manifest.

The raising of the old specie.

This rise of the old specie brings again their rate near to that fixed for the new; it reduces their par to $76 \frac{1}{8}$ gros bank money, the crown being reckoned at 3 livres 15 sols, as above: now the course of exchange, during this year 1710, was at these rates, 80, $80 \frac{1}{4}$, 81, and $81 \frac{1}{2}$; that is to say, it was between $3 \frac{1}{8}$ and $4 \frac{1}{8}$ gros above par, and between $4 \frac{1}{8}$ and $5 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. to the advantage of France: which shews very plainly the necessity of abolishing the difference that is still subsisting between the old specie and the new, whereby none make any profit but the king, and whom the French call *BILLONNEURS*, or those who carry on an illicit trade of buying and selling money, melting it down, and exporting bullion, &c.

The lowering of the old specie.

The declaration of October 7, 1710, registered in parliament the 14th, and in the court of mint the 22d of the same month, restored the currency of the old specie upon the foot of 13 livres the lewis, and of 3 livres 10 sols the crown piece, and the mark of those crowns at 32 livres 10 sols; this is at the rate of 3 livres 12 sols a piece. The fall of 5 sols per crown restores the par of the French exchange crown to $82 \frac{1}{2}$ gros bank money. Now on the 16th of November the exchange was at 81: this was $1 \frac{1}{2}$ gros below par, or $1 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. in prejudice to France. The suppression of the old specie set France upon an advantage between $4 \frac{1}{8}$ and $5 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. and their restoration made France lose $1 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. This makes a difference in disfavour of France of $5 \frac{1}{8}$ and $7 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. the mean whereof was $6 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent.

A N N O 1711.

During the ten first months of 1711, when things remained in this situation, the exchange was at $77 \frac{1}{2}$, 77, 74, $74 \frac{1}{2}$, $71 \frac{1}{2}$, $71 \frac{1}{4}$, and 72. Now, the old crown being reckoned at 3 livres 12 sols, the par of the crown of exchange was $80 \frac{1}{8}$ gros of bank money: the exchange was, therefore, from $2 \frac{1}{8}$ to $8 \frac{1}{8}$ gros below par, which caused a loss to France from $3 \frac{1}{8}$ to 10 per cent.

It is therefore plain, that the crying down of those old species had been advantageous to France, and that their restoration, at the rate so disproportioned to the new, as that upon the foot whereof the above declaration restored them, makes France lose not only the advantage they had during the suppression, but it lays the nation under a prodigious disadvantage.

A year passed before the French came to be sensible of this disorder, but at length it was sensibly felt. As an effectual remedy for it, there was a necessity either to suppress the currency of those old species altogether, or raise their value in proportion to that of the new; or else lower the value of the new, so as to bring them near to a level with the old: but neither of these means would have satisfied the exigencies of the state at that time. The next best method was therefore taken, namely, to diminish the evil, and redress it in part, by giving those old species a value nearer to that of the new.

The raising of the old specie.

This was one by the king's declaration of October 24, 1711, registered the 27th, and published the 29th; which fixes the mark of the old lewidors at 561 livres, and that of the old crowns at 37 livres 8 sols: this was as if they had been received at the rate of 4 livres 3 sols a piece.

This rise of the old specie reduced the par of their crown of exchange to be 69 $\frac{1}{8}$ gros bank money. Now the very day after the publishing of this declaration, that is to say, the 30th of October, the exchange was at $71 \frac{1}{2}$, on the 5th of November at $75 \frac{1}{2}$, on the 12th at $71 \frac{1}{2}$, on the 16th at 71, on the 27th at $71 \frac{1}{2}$, and on the 30th of December at $71 \frac{1}{2}$. It was therefore between $2 \frac{1}{8}$ and $1 \frac{1}{8}$ above par; which made from $3 \frac{1}{8}$ to $2 \frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in the favour of France; and, on the 5th of November, the advantage was $8 \frac{1}{8}$ per cent. This declaration therefore made France recover all the loss which they had sustained, of between $3 \frac{1}{8}$ and 10 per cent. and $3 \frac{1}{8}$ and $2 \frac{1}{4}$ per cent. besides as above said: which brought about a difference, to the benefit of France, of between $6 \frac{1}{8}$ and $12 \frac{1}{4}$ per cent. This proves, that to raise the old species, in order to proportion their value to the new, was a good expedient.

A N N O 1712.

According to the declaration of the 24th of October 1711, the mark of lewidors, of Spanish pistoles, and of gold leopolds

polds of Lorrain is reduced, on the 1st of January in this year 1712, to 540 livres; and that of the old crowns, piasters, and silver leopolds of Lorrain, to 36 livres: this was as if those crowns had been received upon the foot of 4 livres each. And, with a view to make them circulate, this declaration advertised, that they were to be lowered against the 1st of February following, but, as they were not carried to the mints, where they were expected, this fall was several times prorogued. The arret of council, dated November 29, gives notice of the last prorogation, and that the lowering was to take effect on the 1st of January 1713.

The lowering of the old specie.

That old crown of 9 to the mark, which was received before in the mints upon the foot of 4 livres 3 sols, being now only upon the foot of 4 livres, is lowered 3 sols; and by this procedure, which settles a great difference between their value and that of the new, the par upon Amsterdam is brought to $72\frac{1}{2}$ gros of bank money, and that upon London to $40\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling.

During the eleven first months of this year 1712, the exchange of Paris upon Amsterdam was about these rates $71\frac{1}{2}$, $70\frac{1}{2}$, $70\frac{1}{2}$, $70\frac{1}{2}$, $69\frac{1}{2}$, and $69\frac{1}{2}$; all of them below par between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. If to this loss we add the advantage we had at the end of 1711, which was from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. we shall see that this lowering of the old species, widening the difference between their value and that of the new, instead of bringing them nearer to an equality, occasioned a loss to France of $5\frac{1}{2}$ and $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Thus to lower the old species, so as to widen the difference between their value and that of the new, is to increase the disproportion, and consequently a very bad expedient.

The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 22d of November 1712, at $42\frac{1}{2}$, and on the 24th at $41\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling; it was therefore above the par, which was $40\frac{1}{2}$, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling; which made a profit from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the advantage of France, the mean whereof was $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The situation which these expedients lay before us deserves consideration. We have seen that France were losers with Holland from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. And at the same time that France had the advantage with England, from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Here then, in these two places of exchange, is a difference with respect to France, from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Whence it follows from all these expedients, that all alterations of the coin are burdensome and disadvantageous to nations, and that the further the value of the old species is from that of the new, the more is their circulation, and consequently trade, injured; because that which is lowest valued in France, remains there hoarded up, or passes into foreign countries, which makes France fall under great disadvantages. For,

If the specie remains hoarded, it is a stock which becomes useless, both to the public and the possessor; which increases distrust, cramps circulation, and consequently commerce.

If it passes into foreign countries, it will be there melted down, and recoined into new species: by which means foreigners gain the profit; and besides, that transported money turns out of work all those whom it might have employed, which impairs the revenue, prejudices manufactures, and is of general injury to all the inhabitants; whence it apparently follows, that there never should be two species of money in a state, whose values are disproportioned to one another. These expedients are contrary to the true interests of nations.

Abstracting from the fall of the coin on the 1st of January this year, we may say, that the declaration of the 24th of October 1711, still left, between the value of the old species and that of the new, too considerable a difference in France, to induce the public, as was desired, to carry their old species and gold and silver bullion to the mints.

Accordingly these were not brought thither so soon, and in so great quantities as the French court wished for. To hasten them forward, attempts and threatenings were used to lower them, by the arrets of council in April 5, May 28, August 30, October 29, and November 29, of this same year 1712, but all proved ineffectual. The French ministry was obliged, in order to bring them forth into circulation, and to give not

only motion to that part, which, for want of circulation, was become an useless stock to the public, and even to the owners themselves, but also to restore uniformity to the coins, a thing so absolutely necessary for the good of commerce, they were obliged entirely to give up, with the profit of converting these species and bullion carried to the mints, 'till the 1st of February next 1713. These are the terms of the king of France's declaration, December 10, 1712, registered and published the 16th, whereby his majesty ordains, that from the day of publishing that declaration, to the 1st of February next, the old species and gold and silver bullion shall be received in the mints, and by the money-changers established in the several cities of the kingdom, and paid in ready money, at the rate 585 livres the mark of old Lewis, and of 39 livres that of the old crowns.

The rise of the old specie.

In order to bring those old pieces into circulation, this declaration intimated a lowering of the coin against the 1st of February 1713: and seeing the event did not answer expectation, this lowering was postponed to the 1st of April following, by the arrets of January 31 and February 21.

The rise of the old specie, having brought it's value near to that of the new, reduced the par of the old crown of exchange to $66\frac{1}{2}$. Now, during the rest of December 1712, the exchange was at 70 and $69\frac{1}{2}$ gros, which was $3\frac{1}{2}$, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ gros above the par $66\frac{1}{2}$ bank money, or $5\frac{1}{2}$, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in our favour.

Upon London the par of the old crown of exchange was $37\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling. The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 27th of December the same year 1712, at $41\frac{1}{2}$, that was $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling above par, or $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the advantage of France.

These effects shew plainly, that these old pieces were no sooner brought nearly to a proportional value with the new ones, than the trade of France recovered, as we have now seen, with the highest evidence; and this is a manifest proof, that it was kept under in France, only because the old and the new species were disproportioned to one another, and those pieces which were the least raised, or which gave the lowest price, remained a dead and inactive stock, or were transported out of the kingdom of France.

The nine first months of 1713.

During the month of January 1713, the exchange was from $69\frac{1}{2}$ to $69\frac{1}{2}$: this was still above the par $66\frac{1}{2}$ from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 gros; which was $4\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the advantage of France.

The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 9th of January 1713, at $39\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling. It was therefore, $1\frac{1}{2}$ sterling above the par $37\frac{1}{2}$, making $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the profit of France.

Here are the exchanges of Amsterdam and London upon a level, making both of them $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the advantage of France: thus the inequality found between them, in the month of December the last year, did not long subsist; nor indeed was it possible, in the nature of things, that it could last long.

And during the months of February, March, April, May, June, July, August, and September 1713, the exchange varied between 68, $68\frac{1}{2}$, and $67\frac{1}{2}$. This was $1\frac{1}{2}$, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 1 gros above the par of the bank money; consequently to the advantage of France from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which advantage, diminished by the reports raised about the falls of the coin that were advertised by the arret of September, which we are coming to.

On the first of September 1713, the exchange of Paris upon London was at 38 d. sterling, this was $1\frac{1}{2}$, penny above the par, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the favour of France. These were the effects of lowering the coin in France, which were even sensibly felt beforehand: they diminished their advantage upon Amsterdam and London more than 3 per cent.

Before we come to those falls of the coin in France that were advertised by the arret of council, September 30, I shall briefly give a recapitulation of the general advantages of the French trade, from the month of January 1709, to the end of September 1713.

	With HOLLAND.		With ENGLAND.	
	Advantage.	Difadvantage.	Advantage.	Difadvantage.
In January and February 1709	2 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 3 $\frac{6}{100}$			
In March		1 $\frac{1}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{1}{100}$		
In April		2 $\frac{2}{100}$ to 2 $\frac{2}{100}$		
In May	2 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 2 $\frac{6}{100}$			
Rest of the year	7 $\frac{4}{100}$ to 4 $\frac{2}{100}$			
The ten first months of 1710	4 $\frac{1}{100}$ to 5 $\frac{1}{100}$			
The two last months		3 $\frac{4}{100}$ to 10		
The ten first months of 1711		1 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{6}{100}$		
The two last months				
The eleven first months of 1712	3 $\frac{2}{100}$ to 2 $\frac{2}{100}$		4 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{3}{100}$	
December	5 $\frac{2}{100}$ to 4 $\frac{8}{100}$		11 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 11 $\frac{6}{100}$	
January 1713	4 $\frac{8}{100}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{100}$		4 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{100}$	
The eight months following	2 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{6}{100}$		1 $\frac{3}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{3}{100}$	
	32 $\frac{8}{100}$ to 30 $\frac{4}{100}$	10 $\frac{4}{100}$ to 18 $\frac{4}{100}$	22 $\frac{6}{100}$ to 19 $\frac{8}{100}$	
	30 $\frac{4}{100}$	18 $\frac{6}{100}$	19 $\frac{8}{100}$	
Totals	63 $\frac{3}{100}$	29 $\frac{3}{100}$	41 $\frac{4}{100}$	
Advantages and difadvantages at a medium	31 $\frac{6}{100}$	14 $\frac{6}{100}$	20 $\frac{7}{100}$	

Notwithstanding the frequent variations that befel the French old coins, and the prodigious difference that has always been between their value and that of the new, yet we may observe by the foregoing table, that the French trade was, upon the whole, rather advantageous than the contrary, with England and Holland; since their advantages at a medium, taken between the highest and the lowest, is here represented to be for Holland 31 $\frac{6}{100}$, whereas the difadvantages also at a medium is only 14 $\frac{6}{100}$: thus the mean advantage is to the mean difadvantage, as 3166 is to 1468, or as 2 $\frac{2}{5}$ is to 1. And with England the mean advantage, from the beginning of 1712, is represented by 20 $\frac{7}{100}$, without any difadvantage. England, therefore, had taken more of the French commodities, arts and manufactures, than the French had taken from the English: this made to the advantage of the commerce of France; and if the Utrecht treaty of commerce had taken effect with that nation, what additional advantages might not have ensued to that kingdom, is no easy matter to say. See the article FRANCE.

To what a pitch then might the French trade within this period have arrived, had it not been disturbed and cramped by all these alterations of their old specie, and still more by the considerable difference that has always been left between their value and that of the new? For nothing brought it under any difadvantage, but one or both of these two cases. The arret of council dated September 30, 1713, intimates no less than eight falls of that same specie of 1709, to follow one another at the distance of two months, each at the rate of 10 sols per lewidor, and of two sols and a half per crown. The first to take effect on the first of December following: it reduces the lewidor from 20 livres to 19 livres 10 sols, and the crown from 5 livres to 4 livres 17 sols 6 deniers. See the article COIN.

R E M A R K S.

However impolitic the notion may be of rising or falling the numerical value of coin; yet these principles are still floating in some men's heads; for the late French author of the *Essai Politique sur le Commerce* maintains this system; and he will hardly be taken for a weak man. His tract is wrote with a great deal of spirit and lively eloquence, which makes it the more dangerous, because several of it's maxims are false, and of universal bad tendency. The writer before quoted, therefore, thought proper to guard his countrymen against the pernicious influence of some of it's principles, especially those relating to money; he detects the fallacy of the other's reasoning, in every particular, lays open the fatal consequences that flowed from the frequent variations of the coin, under Lewis XIV. and in other reigns; and by tracing the subject to it's first principles, shews that the same consequences must always inevitably follow, from pursuing such impolitical measures. This ingenious gentleman has taken great pains to set his countrymen right, in a matter wherein he thinks the interest of their commerce is so nearly concerned; and from the general strain of his reasoning, it appears, what good use he has made of some of the best of our writers, upon the same subject, particularly of Mun and Locke, if not of Vaughan and King, &c. he often citing the authority of the two former, with whom he is perfectly agreed, as to the substance of the argument, which he has carried to a great length, and confirmed, by a different medium of reasoning, the sentiments of those of our own writers: and indeed, by

applying their principles arithmetically to exchange, he seems the more satisfactorily to have corroborated their judgment, by really demonstrating how detrimental, from time to time, the variations of the coin of France proved to their commerce.

The foundation upon which the learned author reasons, is the course of exchange; which he asserts to be the true barometer of commerce, and all money-negotiations, between nation and nation: so that the reader is desired to observe, that our author does not affirm the course of exchange always shews where the balance of trade only lies, but where the balance of trade, and all occasional money-concerns, included in the general account, lies. And this seems to be, or ought to be meant and intended, by all who have taken the course of exchange for a guide, in their disquisitions of this nature.

I had not taken any notice of this, did I not frequently observe, in writing and conversation, that many gentlemen seem to mistake this matter, when they object against the course of exchange being the characteristic of the balance of trade between nation and nation, by urging that all money affairs are not therein included; whereas the contrary seems to have been intended by all who have touched upon this subject with any degree of discernment. They except against any sudden changes in the state, with regard to their public credit, &c. and any cause, foreign to the ordinary currency of commerce, &c. And this the reader will please to remark, once for all, is what is intended in every part of this work, where this subject is handled. See the articles referred to at the beginning of this head of EXCHANGE.

In order to judge how the courses of exchange between England and other the principal countries of Europe, did, from time to time, correspond with the intrinsic value of the foreign monies of those states, his late majesty's privy-council ordered Sir Isaac Newton, then mint-master of the tower of London, to make actual assays, weights and values, of most foreign silver and gold coins: and it is not to be doubted, that so incomparable a person, who was not less profoundly skilled in the art of assaying, than in all other parts of philosophy, made those assays with all imaginable accuracy; especially when it was by the express order of the council of this kingdom: nor is it to be supposed, but a gentleman, so superlatively cautious and circumspect in all his other performances, with which he honoured the world of his own accord, should be any way remiss in this, which was done by the royal authority: we cannot believe, but on so important an occasion, that great man was as curious in making choice of the proper pieces of foreign coins, for that purpose, as he was in his method of assaying the same. When the standard of foreign coins is varied, it is requisite, for the public satisfaction and general use of trade, that these assays should be again made by authority, with as much accuracy as those which we may presume were made under the direction of Sir Isaac: but, 'till that is done, we are inclined to believe, that the public will hardly pay a greater regard to the report of any private man, than to that made by authority, by so distinguished a person*.

* In regard to the nature of assaying of metals, coins and ores, See what I have said under the article of ASSAY, and also under the articles GOLD, SILVER, REFINING, and SMELTING.

But if it should have so fallen out, that our great mint-master hath happened to have fallen upon a piece of foreign coin,

coin, some very small matter lighter or heavier than it should have been; this would not have defeated the end of so nearly knowing where the balance of trade lies, by exchange, as may be satisfactory both the government, as well as to the private merchant: and, if this point is sufficiently answered by assays, made by authority, that is what is chiefly required. Upon a new coinage, in foreign countries, or as the coins grow lighter by wear, traders who have dealings that way, will easily discover the worth of what they deal in.

Some, however, are of opinion, that the course of exchange does not indicate the balance of trade and money-transactions, between one foreign nation and another; nor will others allow it to be of any help, or any auxiliary medium whatsoever, whereby to judge of the general balance of accounts, between one state and another.

These gentlemen seeming to be something singular in their way of judging, and differing from all the ablest writers upon this subject, I shall further add, to what I have already said in the preceding parts of this work, another quotation upon this head, from the British Merchant, which contains the sentiments of the most experienced merchants, as well as of two of the greatest statesmen that this kingdom ever had; viz. The right honourable CHARLES late earl of HALLIFAX, and the right honourable JAMES late earl of STANHOPE.

The stated maxims, say they, among merchants, to know whether the trade be for or against us, is to have recourse to the course of the exchange. It is a nicety many of our merchants themselves are unacquainted with; yet as the exchange holds the balance of trade, so as that is for or against us, it immediately decides the point.

If the exchange be above the par of the money of the country we trade with, it is a plain argument that the balance is on their side; for no man will bring silver from a country, when the exchange is more favourable than the coin.

If a country takes more of our commodities, than we take of theirs, they must pay the balance in money; and, in such a case, the exchange must necessarily be under the par of the money, for there can never be found sufficient bills of exchange; and, if there are bills, they cannot be on England, but must be on some country with which Spain has an over-balance; and then, the debt being removed to that country, there the balance will be decided, according as we over or under-trade that country.

That the fact of the exchange decides the balance of all countries, with whom there are exchanges, I think is very plain from what I have already said. But I will give two instances of an over-balance and an under-balance, which will be conviction enough to any understanding trader on the exchange.

The trade to Portugal has been of such a magnitude, that it is notorious to the world we have had a vast importation of gold from thence. As our trade increased, so the exchange declined; and in some years when corn was cheap here, and dear in Portugal, our balance was so very great, that notwithstanding we paid subsidies to the king of Portugal, and paid for troops, there were also vast sums for supplies of our armies in Valencia and Catalonia; yet still the over-balance lay so much against them, that the exchange has been at 5 s. 2 d. and 5 s. a millree; now a millree in Portuguese gold weighs, according to the English standard, 5 s. 9 d. so that there was 10, 12, and 15 per cent. difference between the exchange and the intrinsic value of the money.

In some years, when we had a want of corn ourselves, and therefore could not supply Portugal, the exchange immediately found the want of so great an over-balance, and rose to 5 s. 4 d. 5 s. 5 d. and 5 s. 6 d.. At which last price, in time of war, gold would not turn to account; nor now, considering that there is three per cent. at least, charges without insurance, and that 5 per cent. will make 5 s. 6 d. cost 5 s. 9 d. which is the standard of the millree; so that there is but 2 per cent. for the time and hazard.

Our trade to Holland, during the war, was on a contrary foot, notwithstanding our vast over-balance against them in commodities: yet by our paying such a sum to subsist the armies in Flanders, and subsidies to several princes, the balance lay during the whole war against us; so that, as fast almost as we brought gold from Portugal, it was carried over to pay the balance.

The exchange immediately found the balance of trade, and went declining from 36 s. 8 d. and 37 s. as it was in the peace; and as our expence increased abroad, by augmenting the number of troops in our pay, so the exchange went declining as the balance against us was greater. And though in some exigencies it was at 32 s. 6 d. and 33 s. yet, that being but casual, it came to a medium of 33 s. 8 d. and 34 s. So that there was 9 per cent. difference betwixt the time of peace, and time of war; and since the cessation, and our drawing off our troops, as our expence went decreasing, so the exchange went advancing, and has come to 36 s. and 36 s. 4 d. but not yet arrived to the height it

was before the war; for to this day we have subsisted troops in Flanders, and very lately made a remit of 40,000 l. for the subsisting the troops still left. And when Dunkirk is demolished, and all our troops withdrawn, our over-balance will increase, and consequently the exchange advance.

Thus having plainly proved, that the exchange is the Standard by which you may know where the balance lies, it must now remain only to prove, that the exchange in Spain has hitherto been above the standard.

Though the exchange has been in Spain at 52 d. per piece of eight, yet it has also been at 50 d. So we will take the medium of 51 d. Though I could prove that several quantities of pieces of eight which were brought into England, cost the importer 52 d. and some, by draughts made on Holland, more.

Now, 1000 pieces, remitted by bills at 51 d. per piece of eight, is 212 l. 10 s. sterling.

1000 pieces of eight will weigh about 870 ounces. And tho' some were sold that came by men of war from Cadiz at 5 s. 2 d. per ounce, yet others were sold at 5 s. 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$: but the East-India company, who were the greatest purchasers, fixed the price at 5 s. 3 d. for what they bought; and, after they had bought the quantity they wanted, they gave liberty to the private traders to buy, who, before they had made up their quantities, advanced it to 5 s. 4 d. and 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$

	l. s. d.
870 ounces sold here at 5 s. 3 d. per oz. is	228 7 6
Premio to purchase pieces of	
eight in Spain, 5 pct.	} 50
Carrying on ship-board, and	
risque, 2 pct.	} 20
Commission, 1 pct.	— 10
Freight, 1 pct.	— 10
Insurance, 1 pct.	— 10
Commission where landed, and	
charges to London.	} 10

	110 ps. at 51 d. 23 7 6

	205 0 0
Loss by bringing 1000 pieces of eight from	
Spain, in specie, which have not produced so	
much as if remitted by bill of exchange.	} 7 10 0

	212 10 0

So that, if they bought their pieces of eight at above 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ pct. premio, a bill of exchange was more profitable. Now I do affirm, that the major part of the pieces of eight that we imported, cost from 3 to 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ pct. premio.

Suppose then, they had carried it to the mint at 5 s. 2 d. the loss would be 2 pct. more than the above calculation, I appeal therefore to any reasonable man, if the pieces of eight, thus imported, could be the balance of our trade?

Had it been, that would necessarily have shewed itself in this trade, as well as in the facts I lay down in that of Portugal and Holland.

So that, until the Mercator,* can shew the exchange in Spain is under the par of the silver, I do assert and affirm, the balance of that trade is against us.

* This was a writer employed by queen Anne's ministry, during the last four years of her reign, to support the treaty of commerce then made by France, which has been universally condemned ever since, by all true friends to the interest of the nation.

And, notwithstanding the entries in the custom-house, yet if the goods do not find expence at a market, it will be no proof. When they do, and that Spain does consume more of our exports, than we import from them, the exchange will be in our favour, and then I will join issue with the Mercator, we have an over-balance.

And though the Mercator treats the notion of an over-balance against us with Spain, as a novel, yet it is no novelty to the traders thither: and, I believe, I may justly affirm, that none of the pieces of eight that came home, were the product of the manufactures of England: if so, I would desire the Mercator to shew how he came by them, or whether he thinks we could purchase them without an over-balance of trade with some other country? If not, we must pay back as many ounces, in Spain, as we brought in.

And though he exclaims at this assertion, as started for some design, yet I am very well assured, that in the hearing before the late house of commons, against the treaty of commerce with France, this over-balance of Spain against us was then asserted; and the person that spoke, appealed to the whole body of the traders to Spain. That though some ships were arrived, and others on the way home, with pieces of eight, yet not one bag of them was the produce of the manufactures of England.

This, had it been a novel notion, or not fact, would certainly

tainly have met with a contradiction: we had then had about ten months truce with Spain; and what proves that there was no alteration of the trade in our favour, the exchange was against us then; and has continued so ever since.

I question not but this will convince any man, who understands the nature of trade, that the exchange is what will always, and in all countries, decide where the ballance lies.

Thus far the British Merchant. And, for the further confirmation of what is here said, See the articles **ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, BALLANCE OF TRADE, BRITAIN, i. c. [GREAT-BRITAIN], COINS.**

It having been also shewn, under this article of exchange, how far variations in the money of a country affect the course of exchange, and consequently how far they affect the commerce of a nation; it may not be altogether useless to shew the precarious state and condition of the people in general, who are so unhappy as to live under such an absolute government, where their property can be raised or fell, at the will of their sovereign, in order to fill his coffers at their expence, and sometimes at the total ruin of numberless of his subjects. As such kind of governments, when considered in contrast with our own, will appear terrible, and our own amiable; it may contribute to maintain that spirit of loyalty, towards the present establishment, which may tend to secure, to latest posterity, our properties, our religion, and our liberties.

However unnecessary some may think this, who are already well apprized of the fatal consequences of arbitrary rule; yet, as this work is in every one's hands, it may not be useless in diffusing these principles the more univerally.

Every Englishman, says our darling countryman, Mr. Addison, and true friend to our trade and liberties, will be a good subject to king George, in proportion as he is a good Englishman, and a lover of the constitution of his country. In order to awaken, in my readers, the love of this their constitution, it may be necessary to set forth it's superior excellency, to that form of government, which many wicked and ignorant men have, of late years, endeavoured to introduce among us. I shall not, therefore, think it improper to take notice, from time to time, of any particular act of power, exerted by those among whom the pretender to his majesty's crown has been educated; which would prove fatal to this nation, should it be conquered and governed by a person, who, in all probability, would put in practice the politics in which he has been so long instructed.

There has been nothing more observable in the reign of his present Gallic majesty, than the method he has taken, for supplying his exchequer with a necessary sum of money. The ways and means for raising it has been an edict, or a command in writing, signed by himself, to increase the value of louis d'ors, from 14 to 16 livres, by virtue of a new stamp, which will be struck upon them. As this method will bring all the gold of the kingdom into his hands, it is provided by the same edict, that they shall be paid out again to the people, at 20 livres each; so that 4 livres in the score, by this means, accrue to his majesty, out of all the money in the kingdom of France.

This method of raising money is consistent with that form of government, and with the repeated practice of their late grand monarch; so that I shall not here consider the many evil consequences which it must have upon their **TRADE, their EXCHANGE, and PUBLIC CREDIT.** I shall only take notice of the whimsical circumstances a people must lie under, who can be thus made poor or rich by an edict, which can throw an alloy into a louis d'or, and debase it into half it's former value, or, if his majesty pleases, raise the price of it, not by the accession of metal, but of a mark. By the present edict many a man in France will swell into a plumb, who fell several thousand pounds short of it the day before it's publication. This conveys a kind of fairy treasure into their chests, even while they are under lock and key; and is a secret of multiplication, without addition. It is natural, however, for the vanity of the French nation to grow insolent upon this imaginary wealth, not considering, that their neighbours think them no more rich, by virtue of an edict to make 14, 20, than they would think them more formidable, should there be another edict to make every man in the kingdom seven feet high.

It was usual for his late most christian majesty, to sink the value of their louis dor's about the time he was to receive the taxes of his good people, and to raise them when he had got them safe into his coffers. And there is no question, but the present government, in that kingdom, will so far observe this kind of conduct, as to reduce the 20 livres to their old number of 14, when they have paid them out of their hands; which will immediately sink the present tympany of wealth, and re-establish the natural poverty of the Gallic nation. One cannot but pity the melancholy condition of a miser in this country, who is perpetually telling his livres, without being able to know how rich he is. He is as ridiculously puzzled and perplexed, as a man that counts the stones on Salisbury plain; which can never be settled, to any certain number, but are more, or fewer, every time he reckons them.

I have heard of a young French lady, a subject of Louis XIV, who was contracted to a marquis, upon the foot of a five thousand pounds fortune which she had by her in specie; but, one of these unlucky edicts coming out a week before the intended marriage, she lost a thousand pounds, and her bridegroom into the bargain.

The uncertainty of riches is a subject much discoursed of in all countries, but may be insisted on more emphatically in France than any other. A man is here under such a kind of situation, as one who is managed by a juggler. He fancies he has so many pieces of money in his hand; but let him grasp them never so carefully, upon a word or two of the artist, they increase, or dwindle to what number the doctor is pleased to name.

This method of lowering or advancing money, we, who have the happiness to be in another form of government, should look upon as an unwarrantable kind of clipping and coining. However, as it is an expedient that is often practised, and may be justified in that constitution, which has been so thoroughly studied by the pretender to his majesty's crown, I do not see what should have hindered him from making use of so expeditious a method for raising a supply, if he had succeeded in his late attempt to dethrone his majesty, and subvert our constitution. I shall leave it to the consideration of the reader, if, in such a case, the following edict, or something very like it, might not have been expected.

WHEREAS these our kingdoms have long groaned under an expensive and consuming land war, which has very much exhausted the treasure of the nation, we, being willing to increase the wealth of our people, and not thinking it advisable, for this purpose, to make use of the tedious methods of merchandise and commerce, which have been always promoted by a faction among the worst of our subjects, and were so wisely discountenanced by the best of them in the late reign, do hereby enact, by our sole will and pleasure, that every shilling in Great-Britain shall pass, in all payments, for fourteen pence, 'till the first of September next, and that every other piece of money shall rise and pass current in the same proportion. The advantage which will accrue to these nations, by this our royal donative, will visibly appear to all men of sound principles, who are so justly famous for their antipathy to strangers, and would not see the landed interest of their country weakened by the importation of foreign gold and silver: but since, by reason of the great debts which we have contracted abroad, during our ——— years reign, as well as of our present exigencies, it will be necessary to fill our exchequer, by the most prudent and expeditious methods, we do also hereby order every one of our subjects, to bring in these his fourteen penny pieces, and all the other current cash of the kingdom, by what new title soever dignified or distinguished, to the master of our mint; who, after having set a mark upon them, shall deliver out to them, on or after the first of September aforesaid, their respective sums, taking only four-pence for ourself, for such his mark on every fourteen-penny piece, which, from thenceforth, shall pass in payment for eighteen-pence, and so in proportion for the rest. By this method the money of this nation will be more, by one third, than it is at present; and we shall content ourself with not quite one fifth part of the current cash of our loving subjects; which will but barely suffice to clear the interest of all those sums in which we stand indebted to our most dear brother and ally. We are glad of this opportunity of shewing such an instance of our goodness to our subjects, by this our royal edict, which shall be read in every parish church of Great-Britain, immediately after the celebration of HIGH-MASS. FOR SUCH IS OUR PLEASURE.' Freeholder, No. (18). See the article **COIN, MONEY.**

EXCHEQUER, is a court of law at Westminster-Hall, wherein are tried all causes relating to the royal treasury, in regard to the accounts of the nation, disbursements, customs, fines, &c. The immediate profits of the crown, as of franchises, lands, tenements, hereditaments, seizures, and fines laid on the subject, &c. are within the jurisdiction of this court. The king's attorney-general may exhibit bills for any matter concerning the king's inheritance or profits; so also may any person who finds himself aggrieved in any cause prosecuted against him on behalf of the king, or any patent by grant of the king, exhibit his bill against the king's attorney, &c. to be relieved by equity in this court.

The **LOWER EXCHEQUER**, called also the **RECEIPT** of the **EXCHEQUER**, is the place wherein the king's revenue is received and disbursed. The principal officers hereof are, the lord-treasurer, a secretary of the Treasury, a chancellor of the Exchequer, two chamberlains of the Exchequer, an auditor of the receipts of the Exchequer, four tellers, a clerk of the pells, an usher of the receipt, a tally-cutter, &c.

Some of the principal laws relating to the Exchequer.

1 Stat. de Scacc. 51 Hen. III. stat. 5. § 1. All bailiffs, sheriffs, and other ministers, to be answerable in the Exchequer for their receipts of issues, escheats, and of their bailiwicks, and there make account to the treasury and barons; and all sheriffs,

Sheriffs, farmers, bailiffs of franchises, and other, which ought to come at the profer of the Exchequer the day after the feast of St Michael, and after the close of Easter, to pay their farms, rents, and issues, shall come at the aforesaid terms; on default, their bodies to remain until they pay, or make agreement; and he that will not come to be amerced. Sheriffs and bailiffs at the same terms shall pay such money as they have received at the summons of the Exchequer, and other the king's debts, and shall be ready to shew their account of the things aforesaid.

Sect. 2. All bailiffs of franchises which ought to levy the king's debts, and to answer to the sheriffs according to the estreats of the summons of the Exchequer, shall come and answer sufficiently; and such as do not, their bodies to remain in ward of the sheriffs; who, for default, shall cause their own bailiffs to levy the debts, as in time past: bailiffs not coming at the day appointed by the sheriffs, the sheriffs shall enter into franchises, and levy the debts.

Sect. 3. Justices and bailiffs of Chester, or one of them, shall come at the profer of St Michael every year, with what they owe unto the king, as likewise at the profer of the utas of Easter: and the justices of Chester shall have day to account, from year to year, in quindena Paschæ, and the bailiffs thereof the day after the close of Easter. And all sheriffs, except of Westmoreland, Lancaster, Worcester, Rutland, or Cornwall, shall keep all escheats not in the king's fees within their shires, and of the issues thereof they shall answer in the Exchequer, at the terms aforesaid; and at their turns shall do the offices of such other things as the king's escheators have used to do, once or twice in the year, to as little grievance of the people as they can: and the sheriffs shall seize the escheats that fall to the king in fee, and shall certify the king of them without delay.

Sect. 4. The king shall assign three able persons to survey and extend the escheats throughout the kingdom, from year to year: and the sheriffs, by their council, to improve and let to farm such as they shall think most for the king's advantage.

Sect. 5. The sheriff of Cumberland to execute the office of escheator in Westmoreland and Lancaster, and the sheriff of Nottingham in Rutland, and the sheriff of Gloucester in Worcester, and the sheriff of Devonshire in Cornwall: these three persons to keep the king's demesns, and to approve them, and be answerable for the issues, and to have power to let small manors or demesns; the farmers to answer their farms to thole, and they at the Exchequer, the day after the Ascension.

Sect. 6. The principal collectors of the customs, at the two terms beforementioned, shall pay the money they have received of the said custom, and make account of all parcels received in any of the ports, so that they shall answer of every ship where it was charged, and how much it carried, and of every loading in the ship whereof custom is due.

Sect. 7. The warden of the wardrobe shall make account yearly, in the feast of St Margaret; and the treasurer and barons shall be charged by their oath, not to attend to hear the pleas of other men while they have to do with the king's business, unless it concerneth the king's own debt; and, when a sheriff or bailiff hath begun his account, none other shall be received to account till he hath accounted, and his money be received. And the constable, marshal, chamberlain, and others of fee in the Exchequer, shall present unto the king such as they shall put in their places to do their offices, which must be of good fame and sufficient, for whose acts themselves will answer.

Sect. 8. The king commandeth the treasurer and barons of the Exchequer, upon their allegiance and oath made to him, not to admit others for them that be not such; and that the Exchequer be not charged with more persons than is necessary; and that none of them there sworn to the king shall put in his room any other clerk, or lay-person, except he be sworn, nor that without licence of the treasurer; any so doing, to be removed from his office, and none other received in his stead without the king's licence; and, if any put in without the treasurer's licence do trespass, he shall be punished, whether he be officer of fee or other; and the treasurer shall put no other in his room till he hath licence from the king. And if he that keepeth the room of another by licence of the treasurer, doth any thing he ought not, he shall be punished according to the trespass, if he have whereof; and, if he have not, he that put him in shall be charged; and, if he be not sufficient, he that put him in office shall be charged, whether he be of fee or otherwise.

Sect. 9. All they shall make oath, That, if any of them perceive that another doth commit any offence, or other thing dishonest, in any office in this court, they shall certify to the treasurer, or barons, and they shall return it, and, if need require, shall certify it to the king; and, about the feast of St Margaret, before the Exchequer be closed, they shall cause search to be made, whether any sheriff or bailiff that ought to have accounted have not done so, and thereof a remembrance shall be made in a roll; and, if it be a sheriff, his account shall be first heard after Michaelmas, before any other be received; and, if he be a bailiff, he shall be summoned, or distrained to come, at a certain day, to account; so that

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no account shall be suffered to sleep. And all surveyors of the king's works shall be chosen by the oath of wise men, and shall be of such as may attend best, and sufficient to answer the king, and shall swear to bear true witness; and, if the treasurer or barons have any in suspicion of false allowances for works, or other things, the truth shall be enquired, and he that is attainted shall answer to the king as much as the allowance amounteth unto, and be imprisoned one year and 40 days, and punished at the king's pleasure; and the surveyors shall be punished for their consent, and likewise he that upon his account shall conceal such things whereof he ought to have charged himself, shall be punished in like manner.

Sect. 10. The justices, commissioners, and others, shall deliver into the Exchequer, at the feast of St Michael, from year to year, the estreats of fines and ameracements made and taxed before them, and of all things wherefore the estreats are wont to be delivered there: and they of the Exchequer shall make the estreats of the summons through all shires, saving that the estreats in eyre of all pleas shall be delivered immediately after the eyre made.

Stat. Rutl. 10 Ed. I. §. 1. Bodies of the shires not to be written in every roll, but in a yearly roll by themselves, and every thing shall be yearly read upon the sheriff's account in every county. The remnants of the same shires shall be written by later dates in the annual rolls, and the sheriffs shall be charged therewith; and of allowances view shall be made in the Exchequer, and the treasurer and barons shall certify the chancellor of the allowances so to be made, and the writs of allowances shall be according to the same certificate; and there shall be written in the annual rolls the farms of sheriffs, the profits of counties, the farms of sergeants and assents, the farms of cities, boroughs, towns, and other farms, whereof there is answer made yearly in the Exchequer; and in them also shall be written all stalled and gross debts, whereof is hope somewhat shall be paid; and all debts that seem to be clear. When it is come to account, or to the title of new obligations, nothing shall be written in the annual roll but those debts whereof there is hope of payment, and whereof the sheriff is answerable, and debts that seem clear in the originals.

Sect. 2. Of dead farms and debts desperate one roll shall be made, and read every year upon the accounts of sheriffs, and debts whereof the sheriff shall be written in the annual roll, and there shall be acquitted.

Sect. 3. It shall be proclaimed in every county, that all who have tallies of the Exchequer for their own or ancestors debts, paid usually there, and not yet allowed, which shall come out still in the summons of the Exchequer, that such tallies be delivered to the sheriffs, to be allowed at the Exchequer at their accounts; and the sheriffs shall make to them their writings, witnessing the receipt of those tallies, deputing two knights, between whom and the sheriffs, indentures shall be made of such receipts, with the seals of them both.

Sect. 5. The knights deputed shall fend the parts of their indentures, at the term appointed, unto the Exchequer, that, by view of them, the tallies so received by the sheriffs may be allowed upon their accounts.

Sect. 6. It shall be proclaimed, that, except those who have such tallies do offer them to the sheriffs and knights to be executed, they shall be distrained for the whole debt.

Sect. 7. Debts which yet come into the summons of the Exchequer, whereof the debtors do profer tallies against divers sheriffs, shall be defalked and acquitted.

Sect. 8. Certain persons shall be sent into every shire, with power to enquire of such debts, and to call afore them the sheriffs, their heirs, &c. and the tenants of their lands, that have received the debts, and to proceed to the taking of inquests, whether the parties (against whom the tallies were shewed) do come or not, so the sheriff return that he hath summoned them; and, the truth being discussed, the inquisitors shall make rolls of what shall be convicted and confessed before them; and, the inrollment being made, the tallies shall be broken; the sheriffs to have in their custody the transcripts of the rolls, under the seals of the inquisitors, and shall surcease in making distresses for the debts contained in the same, till otherwise commanded: and inquisitors shall fend those rolls to the Exchequer, under their seals.

Sect. 9. Chamberlains shall not make to the sheriffs, or their bailiffs, tallies dividendi, without particulars of the debts, and the names of them that paid them, into which particulars he would have such dividends parted; and, being so received, they shall not be numbered into other particulars.

Sect. 10. All debts of insolvents returned by the sheriffs, shall be estreated in rolls, and delivered to faithful men, who shall enquire after the form provided by the treasurer and barons.

Sect. 11. No plea to be holden in the Exchequer, unless it specially concern the king and his ministers aforesaid.

Artic. super chart. 28 Edw. I. stat. 3. cap. 4. No common pleas shall be holden in the Exchequer contrary to the great charter.

Stat. 37 Edw. III. cap. 4. Because many people, acquitted by judgment in the Exchequer in one place, be grieved in

other offices of it, the clerk of the remembrance shall be titled to sit above the clerk of the pipe, to see the discharges made in the pipe, and to imbroviate the same in the remembrance, and to cause process thereupon to cease; and that the summons of the pipe be withdrawn, according as the parties be discharged; and, in whomsoever any default be found, the treasurer, by the king's command, shall punish the same.

Stat. 1 Rich. II. cap. 5. At what time any debts be paid, and the tallies thereof made, rejoined, and allowed in the Exchequer, that debt shall never run more in demand; and if, after allowance made there, any clerk of the Exchequer make any process to levy the same, and that be proved, the clerk to lose his office, and be imprisoned 'till he hath made agree to the party, if any will sue by the discretion of the treasurer and barons.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 10. The barons of the Exchequer shall have power to hear every answer of every demand made in the Exchequer, so that every person there impeached shall by himself, or any other person, be received to plead, sue, and have his reasonable discharge, without tarrying or suing any writ.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 12. The accounts in the Exchequer shall be more shortly heard, made, and engrossed than they were wont; saving that the parcels be as plain as they were wont by ordinance of the barons of the Exchequer.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 13. Two clerks to be assigned to make parcels of the accounts in the Exchequer, to them that will that demand, and to be sworn they do no falsity in their office, and to take for their labour reasonably, according to the ordinance of the barons.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 14. The accounts of nichil in the Exchequer shall be altogether put away; or, if any such ought there to abide, the accountants, immediately after oath made, shall be examined by the barons, if they ought to answer the king of any thing in that behalf; and, if it be found by their oath they ought not, they shall be discharged to yield other account before any auditor, the king's right saved.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 15. The clerk of the pipe and remembrancer shall be sworn to see, from term to term, all the writs of the great seal or privy-seal, sent to the Exchequer the same term, for the final discharge of any person of any demand due in the Exchequer; and every of them to whom it pertaineth shall duly execute the said commandments: and the said two remembrancers shall be sworn to make a schedule every term of all persons discharged in their offices by judgments, or in other manner, in the same term, of any demands in the Exchequer, containing the manner of the discharges, and deliver the schedule to the clerk of the pipe the same term, for him to discharge the parties thereof in the great roll. The clerk of the pipe shall also be sworn from term to term to require the same schedules, and discharge the parties as aforesaid. In like manner shall the clerk of the pipe cause to be certified in writing to the remembrancers all discharges in his office, that a man discharged in one place may be discharged in all.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 16. Though many times persons have had livery of their lands out of the king's hands, by judgment in the King's-Bench, or elsewhere, and have after procured the tenor of the records to be sent by mittimus to the Exchequer, to discharge them of the accounts for them: the officers would not discharge them 'till the records and processes were newly entered in the Exchequer, and new judgment there again given: it is ordained that, after such record, or tenor of the same, shall come into the Exchequer, the remembrancer, in whose office such accounts shall be demanded, shall cause the suit to cease by words to be entered upon the endorsement of the writ, concerning the tenor of it, without making new process.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 17. Nothing shall be given to the clerk for making a commission in the Exchequer, above 2s. nor for the record of a nisi prius with the writ, but 2s. only.

Stat. 13 Rich. II. stat. 1. cap. 14. No recognizance nor bond of the double (for the king's debts and farms) shall be taken in the Exchequer, provided the king have sufficient surety for his duty.

Stat. 1 Rich. III. cap. 14. §. 2. If any disme be granted by either province of the clergy, if the collectors come by process before the barons of the Exchequer, and enter in their account, they shall not be bound to answer bills there put against them, but only touching the account.

Seçt. 3. Provided that the accountant take no privilege of the Exchequer by reason of the account.

Stat. 1 Jac. I. cap. 2. §. 2. All issues lost, which, by intent of the late queen Elizabeth's privy-seal, and the orders hereunto annexed, ought to be discharged, shall be discharged.

Seçt. 3. If the lord treasurer's remembrancer, or his clerks, shall award any process, exact any pleading, or take any fees, or demean themselves contrary to their said orders, the persons so offending, or, if unable, the lord treasurer's remembrancer, shall forfeit 20l. the one moiety to his majesty, and the other to the party grieved, to be sued for, within two years of the offence committed, in any of his majesty's courts at Westminster.

Orders by Sir William Cecil, baron of Burleigh, lord-treasurer of England; Sir Walter Mildmay, chancellor and vice-treasurer of the Exchequer; Sir Edward Saunders, lord chief baron of the said court; and other the barons of the same; calling unto them Gilbert Gerrard, Esq; attorney-general, and Thomas Bromley, Esq; solicitor-general to her majesty, and made 15 Junii, anno Domini 1573.

1. No process ad faciend' fidelitatem, nor any writ of scire facias, capias, or distrefs, from the fines estreated out of the Common-Pleas, shall issue out of the treasurer's remembrancer's office, upon any supposal, upon pain by former statutes limited, and by the orders of the said court, but upon just grounds; and the same shall be vouched in the processes, according to the book, term, year, roll, and record thereof, that it may be certainly found. And if, by any known record remaining in that office, it may appear the same tenure hath been traversed, then the processes to be discharged by the traverse without pleading. 3. Where the first tenant in any such writ from the said original, or such inrollment is returned by the sheriff mort or nihil habet, then shall go out according to the ancient course of the court a distring-tenant, against the tenants of the same lands to the sheriff, to do their service due to the king, and to shew their entry into the same, who returning the name of the tenant of the lands in the writ, there shall go process every term against the new tenants to do their service and shew their entry, and they to lose issues thereupon, 'till they come in and make their fine for respect of fealty, or do their fealty according to the course of the Exchequer. 6. Where any writ of reversion shall be made upon any record for lands, wherein the prince is in reversion, if it appear by sufficient matter of record within the court, that the grant or record whereupon the writ of reversion is made, is determined, the party, upon shewing forth such record, shall be discharged without pleading. 8. The issues lost by her majesty's subjects, which her highness hath appointed by privy seal to be discharged, be as followeth, viz. all issues lost upon any that are returned tenants of lands, which they have not, shall be now discharged, though they have other lands within the shire. All issues, lost upon any heir within age, shall be discharged. All issues lost upon lands in the queen's hands, by extent or otherwise, shall be discharged. All issues lost upon farmers and tenants of any lands for life, years, or at will, shall be discharged. All issues lost by sundry other vexations, as well by untrue returns and mis-returns of sheriffs and under-sheriffs, may be discharged, moderated, or otherwise ordered, as the court shall think meet. All issues lost by any person returned in any jury in the Exchequer, or in any attainor or jury before the justices of assize, which, at the time of their appearance appointed, were beyond sea in her majesty's service, or by special licence in writing, or were in prison, or in ordinary of her majesty's chamber or household, and bound to personal attendance there, shall be discharged. The treasurer's remembrancer shall pay every subject's charges, as by the court of Exchequer shall be set, that shall be vexed by any writ upon a supposal, and not upon just ground vouched, as before declared.

Seçt. 4. If thought fit, for the knowledge and preservation of the crown's tenures, and so ordered in court, that process should issue against any, the treasurer's remembrancer may issue process, without incurring the penalties of this act; in which case, no such tenure appearing, the party shall be dismissed without pleading or fees.

Stat. 1 Will. and Mary, stat. 2. cap. 1. sect. 52. Any collector keeping in hands money by him collected, longer than is directed, or paying any part to others than the receiver-general, or his deputy, forfeits 5l. and any head collector keeping money paid him by any collector, by virtue of this act, longer than directed, or paying it to other than the receiver-general or deputy, forfeits 20l. and any receiver-general or deputy paying such monies to any (other than the receipt of the Exchequer, and that within times limited by this act) or by any warrant of the commissioners of the treasury, or upon any tally of pro or anticipation, or other way, whereby to divert payment into the receipt of the Exchequer, for every offence of himself or deputy, forfeits 500l. to him who sues in any court of record.

Seçt. 53. The commissioners of the treasury shall not direct warrants to any of the said collectors, &c. for payment of any monies hereby given, to any persons other than the receipt of the Exchequer, nor direct any warrant to the officer for striking any tally of pro or anticipation, nor do any other thing to divert payment into the Exchequer; nor shall officers of the Exchequer strike, direct, or record the striking such tallies, on any account whatsoever; nor shall any teller throw down any bill, whereby to charge himself with any of the said monies, 'till he have actually received the same.

Seçt. 54. The officers of the receipt of Exchequer shall keep the sum hereby appropriated, and the account of it, distinct from all other monies and accounts; and the commissioners of the treasury shall not sign any warrant or order, or do any other thing for the issuing of any part of the said sum, other than as aforesaid; nor shall the auditor of the receipt

receipt draw any order for issuing any part other than as aforesaid; nor direct, or the clerk of the pells record, or any teller make payment of, any of the said monies, by warrant, order, or other way whatsoever, other than for the uses aforesaid, and to be so mentioned in such warrant or order.

SECT. 57. Any of the officers appointed by this act, receiving the said sum, or part, and afterwards misapplying the same by virtue of any warrant from the commissioners of the treasury, or other superior officers, shall forfeit the like sum so misapplied, recoverable in any court of record, one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor.

SECT. 58. Any officer of the Exchequer, offending against this law, forfeits his office, and is disabled to hold the same or any other.

SECT. 59. No stay of prosecution upon any command, warrant, or order, by non vult prosequi, shall be allowed by any court in any suit for recovery of the penalties by this act inflicted.

These directions are revived by several subsequent acts, particularly 12 Will. III. cap. 11. sect. 27. and applied to the monies thereby appropriated, and made perpetual by 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. and also by 9 Will. III. cap. 44.

Stat. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 28. sect. 1. When money is brought into the receipt of the Exchequer, the teller, the officers of the tally-court attending, shall receive and weigh the same, and making entry thereof shall throw down bills written on parchment and signed, into the tally-court, whereby a tally may be duly levied according to the nature of the payment; and such teller, his clerk, or substitute, shall not for such money give a note, importing a depositum, or other private note or security, to prevent the due charging thereof in the Exchequer, upon pain that such teller, who shall offend against this act, shall forfeit his office, and be disabled to serve the king in any office, and forfeit double damages to the king or party, and costs; and every teller's clerk so offending, by giving any private note, &c. whereby the due charging is hindered, forfeits double the sum for which the note was given; one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, and also be removed from the receipt.

SECT. 2. No teller to charge himself by bill with receipt of any money in the Exchequer, but when the officers of the tally-court are there present; nor shall any teller, or his substitute, throw down into the said court any bill, purporting the receiving any money, unless such teller or his clerks have actually received the same; except where tallies are levied by warrant of the commissioners of the treasury or treasurer of the Exchequer; or where the person for whom any tally shall be levied, shall on the same day give a discharge according to the course of the exchequer, upon some order or debenture for the money; on pain of incurring the like forfeiture of office and disability as before-mentioned, and forfeiting double the sum so unduly charged; one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, and for clerks and substitutes the like penalty as aforesaid.

SECT. 3. No teller, his clerk, or substitute, after the bills thrown down into the tally-court, shall lend, pay, or depart with, such money out of his office, without an order or debenture for the same, made by the auditor, and recorded by the clerk of the pells, and taking a receipt to discharge the king according to ancient course, under like penalties, as for unduly charging any money not received.

SECT. 4. Chamberlains or their deputies, and other officers, clerks and deputies of the tally-court, shall daily, except Sundays and holidays, constantly attend, from eight of the clock to one from Lady-day to Michaelmas, and from nine to one from Michaelmas to Lady-day yearly, unless sick, or have leave from the commissioners of the treasury or under-treasurer of the Exchequer; in which case their room shall be sufficiently supplied as accustomed, on pain to answer the king, or party suffering by such absence, double damages and full costs. And the auditors of receipt, writer of tallies, clerks of the pells, the four tellers, and other officers, shall by themselves or deputies attend, under like penalties.

SECT. 5. The first clerk in the auditor of receipt's office, clerk of the pells, and four tellers, shall be sworn to the due performance of all matters of their offices, the oath to be tendered by the commissioners of the treasury, or under-treasurer of the Exchequer, or by the barons or any of them.

SECT. 6. None of the monies in the receipt of the Exchequer shall be thence issued, but in pursuance of some grant under the great seal, or under the privy seal, or pursuant to some act of parliament.

SECT. 7. Tables shall be set at the door of the auditor of the receipt, shewing how far the officers there have proceeded in the repayment of loans on the credit of revenues, and how far the monies, paid in by the receivers, extend to discharge principal and interest upon the said taxes, &c.

SECT. 8. The auditor of the receipt shall (for his lawful fees) enter all letters patent and privy seals, for issuing the king's treasure, and shall draw orders or make the debentures for issuing thereof, as required by the treasury or treasurer of the Exchequer, and shall keep entries thereof, and weekly take the tellers accounts, and make certificate to the treasury of

all receipts, issues, and remains, of the king's money there, and make out the imprest certificates, and transmit the ordinary imprest-rolls half yearly to the remembrancer; and shall half yearly, at Easter and Michaelmas, transmit to the treasury the declaration of the receipts, issues, and remains at the Exchequer, as hath been antiently accustomed. And the clerk of the pells shall (for his lawful fees) enroll all letters patent and privy seals for issuing the king's treasure, and enter all receipts and issues at the Exchequer, and take the tellers weekly accounts, and certify to the treasury, weekly, the receipts and remains of the king's money there, and examine the imprest-certificates and imprest-rolls, and transmit to the treasury, half yearly, declarations of the receipts, issues, and remains, within the half year, and shall in all matters observe the antient method. And the said officers, their deputies and clerks, shall be answerable for their demeanors, as well to the king, as to any person who may suffer by any neglect.

SECT. 9. All penalties by this act shall be recovered in any of the king's courts of record.

SECT. 10. This act not to lessen the lawful power which the commissioners of the treasury or treasurer ought to have in their places.

SECT. 11. This act not to alter any method of receipts or payments by bills of credit in the Exchequer, allowed by parliament.

SECT. 12. All the money in the receipt shall be kept in chests under three locks and keys, the tellers to keep one, the clerk of the pells one, and the other shall be kept by the eldest of the two deputy chamberlains; and no orders, &c. shall be paid the same day they are sent up from the auditor's office to the clerk of the pells (except for the navy, ordnance, forces, or for monies registered); and the clerk of the pells and deputy chamberlains shall, every morning, except Sundays and holidays, cause the chest to be opened in their presence, and so much money taken out and left with the tellers, as will satisfy the orders ready to be satisfied, and the rest to be locked up again; and every day see all the money received that day (except what shall be paid away) to be first weighed in the bags, a ticket of the contents put into each bag, and so secured in the chests. And, if monies in the chests be directed to be issued for the navy, ordnance, &c. so that payment must not be deferred, the clerk of the pells and deputy chamberlains shall go up to the tellers offices and see the chests opened for that money, and the public service dispatched, and the chests secured again; and, when the clerk of the pells cannot attend, his eldest clerk shall keep the keys of the chests; if the deputy chamberlain cannot attend, his keys shall be kept by his fellow; and no money shall be taken out of the chests, but in the presence of the teller, the clerk of the pells, and deputy chamberlain; or, if sick or absent, of their clerks, as aforesaid.

SECT. 13. The auditor of the receipt, or his chief clerk, shall, at least once in 28 days, visit every teller's cash, and by numbering the bags, opening some of them, and, if he thinks fit, by weighing or telling the money, see that the tellers have the remains wherewith he charges them; and, at least once in three months, he shall examine the tellers vouchers for the payments he allows them in his weekly certificate.

Stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 12. sect. 19. The commissioners of the treasury shall cause to be prepared Exchequer-bills, not exceeding in the whole 500,000 l. sterling.

SECT. 20. The said bills shall bear an interest of 2 d. per cent. per diem, payable to the bearers; but the interest shall be saved on such of the bills as shall at any time be in the receipt of the Exchequer, or the hands of any receivers or collectors of taxes.

SECT. 21. The bills shall be numbered arithmetically, and registered accordingly, so that the principal sums may be paid off in course; and the interest shall be payable every three months, and on every bill be indorsed the sum, after which the principal to be contained therein shall be paid in course; and the bills marked with such cheques or counterfoils as the treasury shall direct; and the person who is to have the paying off the bills shall have one part of the cheques, &c. and the contractors for circulating the bills the other; and all the parts of the cheques, &c. shall be delivered back into the Exchequer, when the bills shall be cancelled.

SECT. 22. These bills shall be placed as cash in the tellers offices, and the tellers be chargeable with the proportion of them.

SECT. 23. These bills shall be current in like manner, and subject to such rules as are prescribed by the land-tax act concerning the Exchequer-bills thereby authorized, and all the clauses relating to the currency, exchanging, &c. of these bills, shall be construed to extend, as well to the Exchequer-bills to be made forth by this act, as to the bills made forth in pursuance of the said act; the said clauses being the same as in stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 1.

SECT. 24. All these bills shall be charged on the monies that shall arise by the duties hereby charged on the retailers of beer and ale; and be issued towards taking in, circulating, and discharging these bills, as the treasury shall think fit.

SECT.

Se^ct. 25. Every year, during the continuance of these bills, the treasury shall on Michaelmas-day, or within 20 days after, cause a true account to be taken of all the monies that shall in the preceding year have been paid into the Exchequer, on account of the said duties or compositions upon retailers of beer and ale, and how much thereof will be necessary for the interest on the said bills, and for the charges of circulating; and, if any surplus remain, it shall be applied towards paying off the principal.

Se^ct. 26. In case, on any such feast-day, the money arisen in the preceding year shall not be sufficient to discharge such interest or charges, such deficiency shall be made good out of the first supplies to be granted in parliament; and, if such supply be not granted within six months, the same shall be made good out of the sinking fund.

Se^ct. 27. What monies shall be issued out of the sinking fund, shall be replaced out of the first aids to be granted in parliament.

Stat. 7 Geo. II. cap. 6. se^ct. 2. There shall be kept in the office of the auditor of the receipt a register, to enter all the money payable upon this act, for granting the duties upon salt, &c. and it shall be lawful for any persons to lend his majesty, upon the credit of the said duties, sums of money not exceeding in the whole one million; with interest not exceeding 4 per cent. so as such loans be allowed by three commissioners of the treasury, the interest to be paid every three months, and the monies lent not assessed in any tax. And every such lender shall have a tally of loan, and an order for repayment; such orders to be registered, and all persons paid in course. And no fee demanded for the same, on pain of treble damages to the party grieved, with costs; or, if the officer himself take or demand any fee, then to forfeit his place also. And, if any undue preference be made in registry or payment, the party offending shall be liable to pay the value of the debt with costs, and be forejudged of his office. And if such preference be unduly made by any deputy or clerk, without privity of his master, he shall be liable to the action, and ever incapable of his place. And in case the auditor shall not direct, or the clerk of the peils record, or tellers make payment as directed, to forfeit as aforesaid, the penalties to be recovered in any of his majesty's courts.

Se^ct. 3. If several tallies or orders bear date, or be brought the same day to the auditor, it shall be no undue preference which of those be entered first, so he enters them all the same day; also it shall not be any undue preference, if the auditor direct, &c. and the tellers pay, subsequent orders of persons that demand their money, so as there be money reserved to satisfy precedent orders, interest being to cease from the time the money is so reserved.

Se^ct. 4. All persons to whom money shall be due for loans by this act, by assignment indorsed on their order, may assign such order, or any part thereof, which being notified in the office of the auditor, and an entry made in the registry (which the officers shall without fee make) shall intitle such assignee, and so toties quoties.

Se^ct. 5. The commissioners of the treasury may raise the said sum of one million, or any part thereof, by Exchequer-bills, with like powers and directions, as in 12 Geo. I. cap. 12. Stat. 8 Geo. II. cap. 12. se^ct. 4. It shall be lawful for any persons to lend to his majesty sums not exceeding 500,000 l. upon credit of the duties upon salt by this act continued, upon orders of loan, to be made out, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6.

Stat. 10 Geo. II. cap. 17. se^ct. 13. It shall be lawful for any persons to lend to his majesty, at the receipt of the Exchequer, sums not exceeding in the whole 500,000 l. at 3 per cent. to be secured by orders of loan or Exchequer-bills, upon the duties upon sweets granted by this act, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6. Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 17. se^ct. 13. It shall be lawful for any persons to lend to his majesty, at the receipt, &c. upon credit of the duties upon malt, &c. by this act granted, sums not exceeding 750,000 l. at 3 per cent. to be secured by orders of loan or Exchequer-bills, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6.

Se^ct. 31. The said Exchequer-bills shall be current to all receivers and collectors of the customs, excise, or any revenue and at the receipt of the Exchequer; and such bill as shall be received at the Exchequer, shall be locked up as cash; and all receivers and collectors of the revenue shall, out of any money in their hands, pay such of the same bills as shall be brought to them; and, in case any such receiver or collector neglect to exchange such bills for money by the space of 24 hours, the person demanding it may bring an action of debt, or on the case, for monies due upon such bills, against such receiver or collector, having money in his hands; in which action the plaintiff may declare, that such receiver or collector is indebted to the plaintiff in the money demanded upon every such bill, according to the form of the statute, and hath not paid the same, and the plaintiff shall deliver up such bills to the defendant.

Se^ct. 32. As any of the bills shall be paid or lent into the Exchequer, the officers there shall cause tallies to be levied and delivered to the payers or lenders, as if they had made such payments or loans in specie.

Se^ct. 33. The interest due on any of the bills shall be allowed

to all persons paying the same to any receiver or collector, to the days whereon such bills shall be so paid.

Se^ct. 34. Provided no interest be paid on any such bills while remaining in the hands of any receivers or collectors, or any teller of the Exchequer.

Se^ct. 35. Whofo shall pay any such bills to any receivers or collectors, or into the Exchequer, shall, at the time of such payment, &c. on each bill put their names, and write thereon, in words at length, the day of the month and year, in which they so paid, lent, or exchanged, such bills; all which the said receivers and collectors, and also the tellers, are to see done.

Se^ct. 36. The bills may be re-issued, and the teller from whose office such bills shall be re-issued, shall indorse on them, in words at length, the day of the month and year in which they were so re-issued, and also on what account last received into the Exchequer, and sign the same, from which time the interest of such time shall revive.

Se^ct. 37. The same bills shall be so re-issued for the principal money contained in them, and for the interest due on them, and allowed by the teller when such bills were last paid into the Exchequer.

Se^ct. 38. Every receiver-general of the revenues shall keep books of account of all monies by him received, and enter the sums in them, with the names of the collectors from whom received, how much in money, and how much in Exchequer-bills and what Exchequer-bills shall have been exchanged by such receiver-general pursuant to this act, to which account every person concerned shall have free access without fee; and the said accounts shall lie open at one certain place within the limits of his receipt; and such receiver neglecting to keep such books, or enter any money by him received and paid by the space of three days, or refusing any person concerned to inspect them, forfeits 100 l. to any who shall sue for the same in any court of record.

Se^ct. 39. In case any of the Exchequer-bills aforesaid be filled up by the indorsement, or by accident be defaced, the commissioners of the treasury may cause new bills to be made forth at the receipt of the Exchequer, in lieu of such bills filled up or defaced; and such bills to bear the same numbers, dates, and principal sums, and carry the like interest as the bills cancelled.

Se^ct. 40. Commissioners of the treasury may cause Exchequer-bills for large sums, not exceeding 5000 l. each, to be made forth and placed as cash in the receipt, in lieu of the like value of the principal contained in bills made forth for lesser sums.

Se^ct. 41. Any person forging any Exchequer-bill made forth by virtue of this act, before the same be paid off and cancelled, or any indorsement thereupon, or tender in payment any such forged bill, or any Exchequer-bill, with such counterfeit indorsement, or demanding money for such bill, knowing the bill or the indorsement to be forged, and with intent to defraud his majesty or any other person; such person so offending, being thereof convicted, shall be adjudged a felon without benefit of clergy.

There are also other directions relating to the application of the duties, as in 12 Geo. I. cap. 12.

These are the usual directions which are repeated or referred to in all acts of parliament directing the issuing of Exchequer-bills.

Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 14. se^ct. 130. Any persons may lend his majesty sums not exceeding one million, upon credit of the land-tax granted by this act for the year 1738, to be secured, as in 11 Geo. II. cap. 1.

Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 27. se^ct. 2. Any persons may advance, into the receipt of his majesty's Exchequer, sums not exceeding 500,000 l. for purchasing annuities at 3 per cent. charged upon the sinking fund till redemption by parliament; or the commissioners of the treasury may raise the money, or any part of it, by issuing Exchequer-bills, with the usual directions.

R E M A R K S.

From this sketch of the statutes, in relation to the constitution of the Exchequer, the following particulars are observable.

That the Exchequer is the great check upon all the other offices, which relate to the public revenue; that all the receipts and payments, which pass through the various channels of the revenue, ultimately terminate here, and the monies are issued from hence, and applied to the several articles, ordinary and extraordinary, to which they are appropriated by the authority of parliament.

That so various and so strict are the checks, upon each other, among the several officers, appointed for the management and regulation of the Exchequer, that it is scarce possible for any frauds whatever to be carried on, without being detected. At the beginning, indeed, of the reign of his late majesty king George II. the Exchequer was robbed of 4191 l. 14 s. 6 d. which was made good by parliament; but this accident is quite foreign to the consideration of the admirable constitution of this office.

Sir Thomas Clifford, who was at the head of the treasury, in the time of king Charles II. having involved his royal master

master in great perplexities, advised the shutting up the exchequer; a project of such extensive mischief, as was, perhaps, never, equalled, till the late flagitious contrivance of the South-Sea-Scheme, in our days.

The consequence of public credit has been so well understood in all well-governed nations, that to break it has ever been esteemed rooting up the very foundation of a state. With the Greeks and Romans, what was more sacred and inviolable? And, though in those ages the public faith did no so frequently concern pecuniary payments, yet that does not make any difference, as to the consequence.

Among modern princes and states, even with some of the most arbitrary, nothing is more inviolable than public funds. Great loans have been formerly made to the see of Rome, by which the Pope's revenues are much incumbered, and he pays, every year, considerable sums for interest of money borrowed by his predecessors; and though this does, and has, for years past, much exhausted the apostolic chamber, and is so heavy an incumbrance on the see of Rome; yet no Pope (who in other things claims power to dispense with the laws of God and man) would ever attempt a thing so barbarous, so impolitic, and without precedent, in any wise state, as to break the public faith: not one of them would ever attempt so much as to reduce the interest, but by consent of the creditors; in order to which, one Pope, having provided a great sum of money, caused notice to be given, that those who would not accept a less interest, should take their principal, which few would do, when they found their security so good.

It were easy to shew, from history, what ill effects the breach of public faith has produced. Henry the Third of France, having called an assembly of the states-general at Blois, on security of the public faith, prevailed with the Duke of Guise, and his adherents, to put themselves into his power. His own weakness, or the ill advice of some about him, made him think it his interest to break through an obligation so sacred; and, by the death of the duke, and others of his party, to save, as he thought, much treasure and blood, and become safe and easy on his throne. But he soon had cause to repent of his folly; for, after that action, no man would ever trust him, he never had a quiet moment, short and turbulent was the rest of his reign, and his end tragical.

The instance of his contemporary, Philip the Second of Spain, may come nearer our case. In his wars of Flanders, he had been often supplied with money by the merchants of Antwerp, to the great advantage of his affairs; but a piece of such good husbandry came into his head, as thinking that these tally-jobbing merchants, as they were then called, of Antwerp, had got too much by lending him money; therefore, in his profound wisdom, he thought it convenient to break his faith with them, in moderating their gains, (as the historian words it) by which he seemed to have saved forty or fifty thousand pounds. But what followed? In the next line we are told, that neither they, nor any other, would trust him any more; which, in a few days, was the occasion of his losing the then great city of Amiens, and, after infinite vexations and mutinies of his armies, for want of pay, by which his affairs were wonderfully retarded, and those of his enemies much advanced. In short, this ungenerous and impolitic action contributed, not a little, to his loss of many provinces.

It may not be amiss here to take notice, what sort of men have been the most useful in their generation, and shewed the most application and skill, in supporting the government at the beginning of the revolution, in giving credit to our affairs, and supplying our wants in all emergencies: we should not forget what sort of men, in the city, and of what principles, were the most liberal and hearty in their loans to his majesty upon every occasion; they were all true friends to our trade, our public credit, and our liberties: to the number of whom we should add those who projected and wisely established the bank of England; a design so happy, and so seasonable, that the naming of it is sufficient to bring to our remembrance, of what extraordinary use it was to the government in the most critical conjuncture: it was, at one time, the very prop of our affairs; and the present aid that admirable corporation at present gives to the exchequer, sufficiently evinces it's high concernment to the public credit.

The miserable condition to which this kingdom was reduced, by the clipt money, and the rise of guineas, at the time we are speaking, no story can furnish us with a more dismal example: at this crisis, the enemies of our establishment thought themselves certain of gaining their point; and they judged pretty right; for, if the currency of the clipt money, and the monstrous bulk of guineas, had not been overcome, they had been sure of our necks under their feet.

When we were under all these difficulties; when we wanted money to pay the army and navy; when all trade was at a stand, and we had not money to go to market, that admirable expedient of the EXCHEQUER BILLS supplied our emergencies, while our silver was in the mint, raised a new specie amongst us, and came as seasonable as the manna in the wilderness; which demonstrates of what important utility to the

state the credit of the exchequer may be rendered, if it be sacredly and inviolably supported, and never over-frained, by issuing more of these bills, than the funds will, in a reasonable time, sink and discharge. For,

In the raising the public supplies, a proper quantity of exchequer bills might be every year issued on the land and the malt taxes, at a reasonable interest, to be sunk, in course, by the produce of the tax on which they were issued.

The issuing such exchequer bills would supply, in some degree, the want of money; and could never occasion any run on the exchequer, not being payable on demand.

The inconveniency which arose, in former times, from issuing exchequer bills, proceeded from the quantity being too large; and there not being a fund to sink them in a reasonable time.

People would be glad to take such bills in payment; because thereby they would be enabled to make interest of their running cash.

Those who contract with the government, would be glad to agree to have their payments in such bills; which would keep navy and victualling bills from being at discount; and consequently the government would buy their goods cheaper, than when the contractors are at an uncertainty what they shall be paid. See the articles FUNDS, TAXES, TRADE. E X C I S E.

A short history of excises in this kingdom.

I. That called the temporary excise, first granted by an act, 12 Car. II. cap. 23. and by the 2d. money-act, parl. last of king W. and first of queen Anne, continued to her majesty during her life, being 15d. per barrel, upon every barrel of beer or ale, above 6s. the barrel, and 3d. per barrel, for every barrel of 6s. or under, brewed for retail: 15d. for every hoghead of cyder or perry, sold by retail; 1d. for every gallon of strong water, or aqua-vitæ, &c.

II. The hereditary excise, granted at first for ever, by an act, 12 Car. II. cap. 24. being the very same with the former.

III. A new excise, granted at first to king William and queen Mary, their heirs and successors, for 96 years, from January 25, 1692-3, by the second money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 4. and continued for 15 years longer, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4, being, for every barrel of beer or ale, above 6s. the barrel, 9d. and for every barrel of 6s. or under, 3d. for every hoghead of cyder or perry, 1s. 3d. &c.

IV. A second new excise, first granted by the third money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 5. until May 17, 1713, and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 1. continued from thence for 95 years, being, for beer or ale, the same with the last, and cyder or perry 1s. per hoghead, &c.

V. A third new excise, at first granted for ever, by the fifth money-act of the same session of W. and M. being the very same with the second new excise. In this excise, the price of the liquor is to be reckoned exclusive of the duty.

VI. An excise upon salt, first granted by the third money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 5. and continued for ever, by the seventh money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 1. being three half-pence per gallon, upon all home-made salt, or rock-salt.

VII. A second excise upon salt, granted at first for ever, by the eleventh money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 3. being 3d. half-penny per gallon, for all home-made salt, or rock-salt.

VIII. An excise upon malt, first granted by the seventh money-act, W. III. parl. 1. sess. 2. revived by the first money-act of parl. last of King William, and first of queen Anne, and continued annually to the 24th of June, 1715, being 6d. the bushel, on all malt made for sale, or not for sale, for every barrel of mum made for sale, 10s. for every barrel of sweets made for sale, 12s. and for every hoghead of cyder and perry made for sale, 4s. all these duties upon liquors being over and above the then present duties.

IX. An excise on sweets, over and above the excise imposed by the said malt-act, or any former duty, was first granted by the second money-act, W. III. parl. 2. sess. 1. and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4. continued to March 25, 1808; being an additional duty of 36s. the barrel, upon all sweets made for sale.

X. An excise on low wines or spirits, first granted by the fifth money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. sess. 2. and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. sess. 4. continued to June 23, 1807; being then an additional excise, or duty of 6d. a gallon upon spirits drawn from foreign materials, and on those drawn from English materials, 1d.

XI. A fourth new excise upon home-made liquors, at first granted from Lady-day 1710, to Lady-day 1742, by the fourth money-act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 2. being an additional excise upon every barrel of beer or ale, brewed for sale, above 6s. the barrel, (exclusive of the duties) 3d. and for every barrel at 6s. or under, 1d. for every hoghead of cyder and perry, 5d. for every gallon of strong waters, or aqua vitæ, 1d. This excise was not laid upon any such liquors imported.

XII. An excise on candles, first granted by the fifth money-

act, Anne, parl. 3. sess. 2. and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1. continued for ever; being a duty of 4 d. the pound on wax, and a half-penny the pound on tallow candles, made in Great-Britain, for sale, or not for sale; but makers, for their own use, might compound at 1 s. a head, for every person in their family.

XIII. An additional excise on candles was at first granted for 32 years, from Lady-day 1711, by the third money act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1. being an additional duty, the same with the former in every respect.

XIV. An excise upon hides and skins tanned, &c. in Britain, first granted by the 6th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1. for 32 years, from Midsummer 1711. This is an excise of seventeen different kinds, upon so many different sorts of hides and skins particularly named, and upon all others not named, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem.

XV. An excise on home-made vellum and parchment, first granted by the same act, and for the same time; being 1 s. per dozen on vellum, and 6 d. the dozen on parchment.

XVI. An excise on hops of home-growth, first granted by the 7th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 1. for 4 years, from June 1, 1711, being 1 d. per pound.

XVII. An excise on paper, paste-boards, milled-boards, and scale-boards, was first granted for 32 years, from June 10, 1712, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 4. sess. 2. being a duty of eleven different kinds, on so many different sorts of paper particularly named, made in Great-Britain; on paste-boards, &c. 3 s. the hundred weight; and on all sorts of paper not named, 12 l. per cent. on the value.

XVIII. An excise on soap, first granted by the same act, for the same time; being a duty of 1 d. the pound, on all soap made in Great-Britain.

XIX. An excise upon printed silks, calicoes, linens, and stuffs, made in Great Britain, and printed, painted, stained, or dyed here, was first granted by the same act, and for the same time, being a duty of 3 d. on silks and calicoes, and three half-pence on linen and stuffs, the yard square, excepting silk handkerchiefs and calicoes, linens and stuffs, dyed of one colour, and stuffs made of woollen, or the greatest part in value of woollen.

XX. An additional excise on hides and skins, &c. of Great-Britain, first granted for 32 years, from August 1, 1712, by the fourth money-act of the same session, being an additional duty of different kinds, upon so many different sorts of hides and skins, particularly named, and on all others not named, 15 l. per cent. on the value.

XXI. An additional excise on home-made vellum and parchment, first granted by the same act, and for the same time, being an additional duty of 2 s. the dozen on vellum, and 1 s. the dozen on parchment.

XXII. An excise on starch made in Britain, first granted by the same act, and for the same time, being a duty of 1 d. the pound.

XXIII. An excise on gilt and silver wire made in Britain, first granted by the same act, for 32 years, from July 1, 1712, being a duty of 8 d. the ounce on gilt wire, and 6 d. the ounce on silver wire.

XXIV. An additional excise on paper, pasteboards, &c. first granted by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 5. sess. 1. for 32 years, from August 2, 1714; being an additional duty of eleven different kinds, on so many different sorts of home-made paper particularly named; on pasteboard, &c. 1 s. 6. the hundred weight; and on all sorts of paper not named, 6 l. per cent. on the value; and on painted paper for hangings, a half-penny the yard square.

XXV. An additional excise on home-made soap, first granted by the same act, and for the same time, being an additional duty of a half-penny the pound.

XXVI. An additional excise on home-made starch, first granted by the same act, and for the same time, being 1 d. the pound.

XXVII. An additional excise on printed silks, calicoes, &c. first granted by the same act, and for the same time; being an additional duty of 6 d. the yard of half-yard broad silks; 1 d. the yard square of silk handkerchiefs; 3 d. the yard square of calicoes, and three half-pence the yard square of linens and stuffs, excepting, as before, calicoes, &c. dyed of one colour, and woollen stuffs.

Excise on liquors imported.

This duty being under the direction of the honourable the commissioners of excise, it is usual for them, by their deputation, to empower the collector and surveyor of the customs in each out-port, to levy, collect, and manage it on their behalf, in conjunction with their own port-gauger: and, therefore, at the time of the entry of any exciseable liquors for the customs, the collector of that revenue must likewise demand and receive the excise-duty thereon; and, in order thereto, a bill must be drawn from the custom-entry, which must be dated and numbered in course, beginning a new number at each quarter-day. The form of this bill of entry may be as follows:

4 January, 1730. No. 1.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, from Jamaica.

Benjamin Bowles.

3 casks, containing 150 gallons of rum, excise l. 27 : 10 : 0.

A bill of entry being thus formed, and the excise duty received, the collector of the customs must, besides the custom-warrant, grant a distinct warrant to the proper officers, who are to examine, gauge, and deliver such imported liquors, on the behalf of the commissioners of the excise, as a voucher to them for so doing. The form may be as follows:

Port of Southampton.

4 January, 1730.—No. 1.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, from Jamaica.

Benjamin Bowles.

B. B. } Three casks, containing one hundred and fifty
No. 1 to 3. } gallons of Rum. Excise l. 27 : 10 : 0.

A. B. Collector.

To } B. C. Surveyor,
C. D. Gauger.

The warrant being thus made, it must be delivered to the officers to whom directed, who are to take all imaginable care in the examining, gauging, and discharging of the liquors therein specified; and demean themselves in all respects relating thereto, as is practised by the officers of the customs in the discharge of the like goods: and the bill of entry from whence the warrant was drawn must be preserved upon a file, in order to be entered daily in a proper book, to be kept for that purpose, in the following form:

An Account of exciseable liquors imported in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731.

Dates.	No.		Excise.		
			l.	s.	d.
4 January	1	In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright, from Jamaica, Benjamin Bowles ----- 150 gallons rum - - -	27	10	—
7	2	In the George of London, Roger Hill, from Dantzick, William Hill ----- 10 barrels spruce beer - - -	7	10	—
9	3	In the Elizabeth of Bremen, John Behn, from Bremen, Andrew Doyle ----- 6 barrels rum - - -	7	10	—
13	4	In the Providence of London, James Bell, from Rotterdam	138	12	—
		Joseph Bright ----- { 756 gallons fingle brandy - - -			
12 February	5	In the Providence aforefaid, post on No. 4.	28	15	8
		Joseph Bright ----- { 50 gallons geneva - - -			
15	6	In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, from Malaga, Samuel Hoames ----- 756 gallons fingle brandy - - -	138	12	—
25	7	In the Hope of Dublin, William Wilson, from Dublin, Benjamin Tower ----- 15 gallons usquebaugh - - -	2	15	—
2 March	8	In the Avery of Liverpool, Benjamin Dawes, from Jamaica, Edward Sims ----- 16 gallons citron water - - -	2	18	8
17	9	In the Vineyard of Southampton, Charles Cook, from Bourdeaux,	184	16	—
20	10	Richard Garth ----- 1008 gallons fingle brandy - - -			
24		Samuel Franks ----- 12 gallons Hungary-water - - -	4	—	—
		Sold out of his majesty's warehouse, at a public sale, on the 23d instant, after having lain there unentered for the space of six months, pursuant to the acts of the 12th of Anne, and 12 George I. and the orders of the honourable the commissioners of the customs, dated the 17th and 22d instant, 298 gallons fingle brandy - - -			
Total - - -			623	3	4

And immediately after the end of each quarter, there must be transcribed, from this book, in order to be transmitted to the commissioners of excise, as a voucher for the duties with

which the collector is to be charged, an abstract of the exciseable liquors imported during the preceding quarter, in the following form :

Hants Collection, Port of Southampton. } An ABSTRACT of the exciseable liquors imported in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731.

No. of entries.	Dates of entries.	Ships names.	Masters names.	From whence.	Merchants names.	Quantities and qualities.							Duty.				
						Brandy.	Rum.	Citron-water.	Usquebaugh.	Geneva.	Hungary-water.	Spruce-beer.	Mum.	l.	s.	d.	
1	4 Jan.	Tavistock	Dan. Bright	Jamaica	Ben. Bowles	Gall.	150								27	10	—
2	7	George	Roger Hill	Dantzick	Wil. Hill										7	10	—
3	9	Elizabeth	John Behn	Bremen	And. Doyle								6		7	10	—
4	13	Providence	James Bell	Rotterdam	Jof. Bright	756				50					160	5	4
5	12 Feb.	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	157									32	13	8
6	15	Delight	David Stone	Malaga	S Hoames	756				9					138	12	—
7	25	Hope	Wil. Wilson	Dublin	Ben. Tower				15						2	15	—
8	2 Mar.	Avery	Ben. Dawes	Jamaica	Ed. Sims			16							2	18	8
9	17	Vineyard	Char. Cook	Bourdeaux	Rich. Garth	1008									184	16	—
10	20	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	S. Franks						12				4	—	—
3	24	Sold out of his majesty's warehouses at a public sale, on the 23d instant, having lain there unentered for the space of six months, pursuant to the acts of the 12th of Anne, and 12 George I. and the orders of the honourable the commissioners of the customs, dated the 17th and 22d instant - - -					298								54	12	8
						2975	150	16	15	59	12	10	6	623	3	4	

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Surveyor,
C. D. Gauger.

But though this abstract is not to be sent oftner than once a quarter, yet the duty must be remitted to the commissioners, from time to time, as received, in the same manner as before directed for the remittances of the customs ; observing that, when bills are returned for non-acceptance, the collector must, in his account current, charge himself debtor for the said bills, and claim credit for those sent in lieu thereof ; and that when such bills are repaid, the charges of protest and interest, 'till the actual time of repayment, must be charged for the same ; and that under the second bill must be mentioned the number of the first, and that it is in lieu thereof. And in consideration of the trouble in levying, collecting, and accounting for this duty, the commissioners of excise make the following allowances, out of the duties received, to the several officers concerned, viz.

To the collector, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 40 l. per annum.
To the surveyor, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 30 l. per annum.
To the gauger, 6 d. in the pound, which must not exceed 20 l. per annum.
Which the collector must deduct, and pay out of the duty by him collected.
Lastly, at the end of each quarter, a true state of the collection must be made, in a proper book to be kept for that purpose, by forming an account current thereof, which must be composed of the several receipts, payments, and remittances, during that quarter. The form of which account current must be as follows :

E X C

The honourable the commissioners of excise on liquors, } Dr.
 their account current, from the 25th of December, }
 1730, to the 25th of March, 1731.

	l.	s.	d.
To remittances during this quarter	682	15	—
To postage of letters	—	—	18
To * poundage to the collector, surveyor, and gauger, on the receipt of 1357 l. 8 s. 4 d. in † the whole year, as by vouchers herewith sent	83	18	8½
To ballance due to the king to be carried to next quarter's account	9	16	5½
	776	11	10

* Poundage to Collector at 6 d. the pound, being under 40 l. exceeding
 Surveyor, the 6 d. exceeding
 Gauger, the 6 d. exceeding

† The year's account must be made up at Midsummer.

From this account must be formed another of the same nature, to be transmitted to the commissioners of excise, with the quarterly abstract; by transposing the sides, and making the collector debtor for what is in the above account, the commissioners are made creditors, and creditors for what they are made debtors. See EXCISE.

R E M A R K S.

The greatest excises, says John Hamden, Esq; which are laid in Holland, are upon commodities, which are not of the growth of the country. Their corn comes from Dantzick, their flesh from Denmark, and so of several other things: so that, by loading them, they oblige their people to consume the goods of their own growth and country, such as cheefe, milk, herrings, &c. whereas, if an excise be laid here, it must be upon things growing, in a great measure, in our own country, which undoubtedly will hinder the consumption; for, the dearer they are, the less people will buy of them, and the more they will reduce their families, that they may live cheap. The policy of our ancestors tended to encourage the consumption of all home commodities, which is certainly the true interest of the nation. Such a tax would go directly against this maxim. Heretofore the gentry and nobility of England lived altogether in the country, where they continually spent the product of the land; now they all flock to London, where their way of living is quite different from that used heretofore, and they do not expend in proportion the third part of things of our product to what they did when they lived among their neighbours.

The yeomen or gentlemen of smaller estates are now, generally speaking, the only constant residents in the country. If an excise should come to raise the price of all things, how shall these men maintain their families? and if they put them off, or diminish them, who shall spend the growth of the lands?

It is evident, this tax will fall very hard every-where upon the poor farmers; and those who are best able to pay it will be most spared. For example: if an excise should be laid upon malt, where will the burden lie? The price of it will certainly sink in the country, for want of consumption, by reason of the new imposition. The brewers in great cities and towns, such as London, Bristol, Exeter, Norwich, &c. will be the only gainers, since they will buy their malt cheap, and sell their drink dearer than before; and the poor farmer must bear the loss, which will be the cause of throwing up the lands in all parts of the kingdom, more or less.

But another thing, which I confess, says he, with me, is of the highest weight, is this: we know the safety of the nation depends upon the liberty of elections of members of parliament. The excisemen go already (in the year 1692) a great way in many corporations, by their interest in inns and ale-houses, in influencing the elections to parliament. What then do we think they will do when they have an interest almost in every private house, when the excise may become more general?

If there were no other objection against taxing by an excise, I should think this one abundantly sufficient, with any man who knows how much the being and well-being of the nation depends upon free parliaments, and, consequently, the entire liberty of those who are electors in giving their votes. If such an excise should not be general at first, yet, when once that way of taxing is brought in, it will tend to become general: if it be laid one time upon some commodities, it will next time be laid on others. All we have will come to be excisable; and it will be with us at length as it is at Amsterdam, where (to use the words of one who has lately written in that country*) a dish of fish, with its sauce, before it be served up to their table, pays excise thirty several times. And one thing more I must add, which is, that

E X C

Contra - - - - - Cr.

	l.	s.	d.
By ballance due to the king last quarter	—	216	2
By the receipt this quarter, as by vouchers sent	663	3	4
By bills of exchange returned for non-payment	—	15	—
By interest received on ditto	—	—	8 10
By charges of protest on ditto	—	—	3 6
	77	11	10

l. 33 . 18 : 8½
 30 : 00 : 0
 20 : 00 : 0

l. 83 . 18 : 8½

no tax whatever is so chargeable in the gathering as an excise.

* Sir William Temple.

Perhaps there may be some who do not sufficiently apprehend the dangerous consequences of this manner of taxing; and for their service it is that I set down my thoughts upon this matter. No man in England is more thoroughly sensible of the necessity of carrying on this war. I am of opinion that the liberty of this nation, the preservation of this government, and the security of the Protestant interest throughout Europe, do mainly depend upon the success of it. I have shewed, that it is impossible to go on with it, without giving great sums of money; and I am heartily for giving those sums, when our representatives shall know what they are, by having an exact state of the war for the next year laid before them. This is reasonable and necessary, and more than this cannot be desired: ONLY WE WOULD HAVE THE TAXES SO LAID, AS, WHEN THE NECESSITY OF TAXING CEASES, THE TAXES MAY CEASE WITH THAT NECESSITY.

There will doubtless be many proposals made in parliament, of different natures, for ways and methods of raising money. Whenever there is occasion for a tax, there is always great variety of projects of that kind; but, when all is done, I humbly conceive there will be nothing upon the whole matter found so safe, and so much for the good of the nation, as a land-tax. Other things may help, but this will be the main resource. It is true, this will smart while it lasts, but we are sure to have an end of it. The members of parliament themselves will be obliged in interest to take it off, when the occasion ceases; and, besides, the freeholders of England will never endure the continuance of a land-tax longer than there is an evident necessity for it. This is the way which our ancestors walked in upon these occasions, and this is the safe and sure way.

It has been laid down in parliament as a good rule, to support the government, in time of peace, by taxes on trade; and, in time of war, to have recourse to the land, because that tax will not be in danger of being continued when the war is over. Let no man be misled by a pretence of convenience, or disburdening his land in this way of taxing; all these are mistaken arguments; and, though they were not so, though all the conveniences in the world were to be found in this new method [by excises], yet the single consideration of what the nation hazards in giving a revenue, that probably will never be discontinued, and the danger to which the liberties of the kingdom will be exposed, if ever the crown shall be rich enough to govern without parliaments, is abundantly sufficient to over-balance whatever can be alleged to the contrary, from topics of present ease or private interest. The constitution, the constitution is our happiness; let any inconveniences be submitted to rather than that brought into danger. We stand upon a needle's point; the revenue of the crown is so very high already, that one remove more does our business. England can never be undone, but by its own consent; have a care then of giving that fatal consent. We have hitherto been the envy of all our neighbours for our liberties, and the privileges we enjoy; the greatest of which is, being governed by laws made by our representatives. All we have is owing to the preservation of parliaments, and making their frequent meetings necessary. Let taxes be laid so, that they may cease with their cause, and so parliaments may not become unnecessary. I shall stop here, and say no more concerning a land-tax, because this paper is long already, and because my chief intent in writing it, as I said before, was not so much to urge arguments for a land-tax, as to offer some considerations which might shew the danger of a general excise.

This is the substance of what Mr. Hamden urged against excises

cises in the reign of king William III. and in miniature contains the whole that was wire-drawn out in numerous pamphlets a few years since, excepting the arguments deducible from trials without juries, which made a formidable part of this controversy.

The condition of mankind is such by nature, that they all depend on one another; the greatest are as much obliged to the least, as those are to them; nor is there any person, high or low, in such a state as to be able to live without the goodwill and assistance of others. But, nevertheless, as no body is bound to bestow so much of his labour or his goods as another may want, so it is plain that, whatever he receives in consideration of his pains or conveniency, is not given away by the other, but only changed.

Though this truth be self-evident in the case of servants, traffic, cloathing or feeding ourselves, yet very few make becoming reflections on it with respect to magistrates, who are neither bound to spend all their time for our safety and welfare, nor able to govern and protect us without those revenues we allow them, to support their dignity as well as their power.

The reason why men so little think of this matter, and are wont to grudge what they give to the government, though not what they spend on their domestic necessities, is, because the benefits we enjoy from our magistrates are common to all, and those things we purchase by our money peculiar to ourselves. I hope I need not use many words to persuade the people of this nation, that there is no price too great for liberty in general, nor the particular constitution with which they are blessed; and that it is not enough to preserve it from internal corruption, but that it must be also defended from external violence; which can never be done if we do not maintain the ballance of commercial and maritime power.

In regard to the raising of money from time to time, as the exigencies of the state shall require, it is necessary that taxes should be so laid as to prove the least injurious to the constitution, and least detrimental to our commerce, and in the most easy and agreeable manner to the general sense of the people without doors; for, if they are ready and willing to pay the aggregate of whatever shall be absolutely requisite for the support of the establishment, and for the true interest and glory of the kingdom, it does not seem any way unreasonable that such a condescension should be paid to the general voice of the people, as to permit them to pay those taxes in such a shape as may be the most pleasing to them, and will preserve them in the best disposition, good humour, and attachment to that government and constitution which they are willing to support.

EXPORTATION, is that part of foreign commerce, which is distinguished by the active, or selling part, in opposition to importation, which is called the passive, or buying part. And, although mutual intercourses of trade cannot be supposed to be carried on with other nations by selling, or exporting all, and buying or importing no merchandizes from others; yet that nation is certainly the wisest, that so conducts it's affairs, as to sell more to other nations than it buys of them, in order to keep the advantage in it's favour. The obvious measures, requisite to promote the exportation of produce and manufactures, may be comprehended under the following particulars:

1. That our lands be cultivated in such quantities, as to render all the necessaries and conveniences of life as cheap as they are in those nations, who are struggling to rival and supplant us in our commerce and navigation. See the article **LANDED INTEREST**.

2. To this end, that all taxes and incumbrances whatsoever, as soon as may be done with safety, be taken off from the necessaries and conveniences of life, that our people may work as cheap as those of other nations, and our commodities carried to foreign markets as cheap as they do, and, if possible, better in quality for the price. See the articles **DEBTS NATIONAL**, and **TAXES**.

3. That reasonable public encouragement be given to those, who shall make any capital improvements in husbandry, farming, and agriculture, &c. so as to afford not only our native productions desirably cheap, but to promote the cultivation of such valuable exotics as our lands will admit of, in order to make merchandize of them to some other nations. See the articles **HUSBANDRY** and **MANURE**.

4. That all reasonable public encouragement be given to those who shall make any material discoveries in the mechanical and manufactural arts; either by improvements in the old commodities, or by the invention of new, whereby general industry may be promoted, and our traffic and navigation with foreign countries advanced. See the articles **ARTIFICER** and **MANUFACTURERS**.

5. That working, mechanical, and manufacturing schools be established for children over the kingdom, in order to prevent sloth, debauchery, and villainy, by habituating infants from their cradle to honest industry, and thereby to render labour in general cheap throughout the kingdom. See the articles **LABOUR**, **POOR**.

6. That all measures be taken to render the kingdom populous in useful artists and manufacturers, and seamen, more especially in our own natives. See the article **PEOPLE**.

7. That our fisheries of every kind be promoted to the utmost extent which they will admit of, as a nursery to our seamen, as well as for the benefit of our traffic. See the article **FISHERIES**.

8. By importing rather foreign materials for manufactures, than things manufactured. See **MANUFACTURERS**.

9. By preventing the exportation of such quantities of wool as may injure our own woollen manufactures: and that every measure may be used to work up the whole of our wool, by the improvement of new kinds of woollen manufactures; as those with wool and silk, wool and cotton; wool and linen, wool and hair, &c. and to apply the material of wool to whatever else it will admit of, especially in the lieu of any general manufacture, wrought with foreign materials: such, for example, as woollen hats for men, which, doubtless, might be properly stiffened for the purpose; woollen hats for the ladies, woollen wigs for labourers, &c. which might not only become generally fashionable at home, and in our own plantations among the lower class of people, but might, perhaps, be exported in large quantities to other countries.—In short, to promote whatever manufactures could be thought of, whereby all the wool produced in Great-Britain could be worked up, seems the most natural and the most effectual way to prevent it's being sent abroad, to the detriment of our woollen manufactory at home. See **WOOL**.

10. That encouragement be given to those who shall be instrumental to improve our finest wool in certain counties, that it may effectually answer the end of Spanish wool, so that we may have no occasion to import the same from that kingdom; especially since they have stole away our woollen manufacturers, ship-builders, and divers other artizans, in order to raise their own trade upon the ruin of our's, if they can. See the articles **BISCAY**, **CASTILLE**, **CATALONIA**, **SPAIN**.

11. That the produce of silk be duly encouraged in those our plantations which may be proper for it, and that our own silken manufactures be preferred in our general wear to those of foreigners. See the articles **GEORGIA**, **SILK MANUFACTURE**, and **PIEDMONT**.

12. That the trade of our colonies and plantations be improved to the utmost, so that they do not interfere with the commerce of their mother-country, but that they be so regulated as to enable us to rival our competitors in such branches as they are able to outdo us in.

13. That a standing committee of trade be appointed by parliament, composed of persons well versed therein, whose business should be constantly to consider the state thereof, and to find out ways and means to improve it; to enquire how the trades we carry on with foreign countries, grow more or less profitable; how, and by what means, we are outdone by others in the trades we drive, or hindered from enlarging them; what is necessary to be prohibited, both with regard to our exports as well as imports, and for how long time; to hear complaints from our factories abroad, and to correspond with our ministers there, in affairs relating to our trade, and to represent the result of their enquiries to parliament, with their opinion, what courses may, from time to time, be proper to be taken for it's encouragement; and to represent what bounties and drawbacks, &c. may be necessary for the advancement of particular branches. That this committee enquire into all improvements that shall be made for the benefit of trade, and lay them before parliament; and that such artists may be rewarded at the public expence, according to their merits. See the articles **ARTIFICERS**, **MANUFACTURERS**, **MERCHANT-COURT**, **ROYAL SOCIETY** of **LONDON**.

14. That proper treaties of commerce be made with nations, that may prove mutually and lastingly beneficial. See the article **TREATIES OF COMMERCE**.

15. That our merchants who export our product and manufactures, be secured in their foreign traffic, and the payment of their customs made as easy to them as may be.—That good convoys and good cruisers, in time of war, be provided for the safety of their shipping and merchandizes, to the end that assurance may be kept low, and our merchandize come as cheap as possible to foreign markets, as well in times of war as peace. See the article **ASSURANCE**.

16. That courts-merchant be erected in the kingdom, consisting of able and experienced traders, for the speedy deciding of all differences between merchants, relating to maritime and other commercial affairs.

17. That a mercantile college be established in the kingdom, for the bringing up merchants with every desirable accomplishment requisite for their profession, in as regular a manner as they are trained up for the most learned professions.—And also for initiating the sons of persons of distinction into the regular study of commerce, in order to render them the more conspicuously useful to their country in any public capacity. See the articles **COMMERCE**, **MERCANTILE COLLEGE**.

R E M A R K S.

That great estates have been acquired of late years, and that persons of all degrees live more splendid and expensive than in former ages, cannot be any proof that our riches are increased,

created, unless it also appeared, that such estates had been acquired by the exportation of our products and manufactories, and gains made thereon, or by some other profitable engagements with foreigners. If they are acquired at home amongst ourselves, it could not add to the capital stock of the nation, though they occasion a great alteration in the fortunes of particular men. A prodigal expensive way of living is a proof indeed that a nation hath some stock and riches; but as all extravagant expences have a natural tendency to exhaust the treasure of a nation, so they ought rather to create a suspicion that such a nation must grow poor, than afford any argument that therefore it must necessarily be rich.

The millions of money which have been got by trafficking in the public funds since the Revolution, the advantages taken in receiving and paying the public money, and by several other ways unknown to former ages, as it occasioned the giving of great supplies, which hath fallen very heavy upon the people, to make good what was thus got out of the public income, and diverted to private uses; so, when land could not bear the incumbrance, was levied by several impositions on trade; which last, as they have been, so ever will be, as long as they continue, a dead weight thereupon: likewise the drawing of such great sums of money out of its right channel, hath made a great alteration in the employment of the capital of the nation and of the people: for, though impositions on trade are in effect but a burthen on land, or landed men, by another name, yet as traders are first to pay them, and such impositions have always been found troublesome, an obstruction to commerce, and a diminution of traders profits, they will always think themselves most concerned therein.

If, upon an enquiry into the usefulness of the several orders, ranks, degrees, and employments of men, it appears that merchants, trademen, and seamen, and such as are employed under them, that carry on our foreign trades; husbandmen, and such as are employed under them, to render the products of the earth useful; are chiefly those that can be a means of bringing in riches, or providing necessaries for the support of a nation; then nothing can be more necessary and beneficial, than to use all means to encourage and increase the number of such, and to discover what trades and employments are practised that are useless and unprofitable, that they may be discouraged, or rather discharged, as a superfluous burthen and a load upon the nation; lest such, like Pharaoh's lean kine, should in time destroy those that are valuable. As the universal employment and good management of our people must be the way to obtain and increase national wealth and power, so good husbandry in our dealings with foreign nations, will be found the best and surest way to preserve and retain them. The expence and consumption of such commodities as have, and are always like to be purchased with our money, should in the first place be taken care of, that we may have as few of such as may consist with our safety and our interest.

It is true, that the continuance of trade depends much upon a mutual conveniency between nations; but the advantage and increase of riches, expected by trade, depends upon our exporting more goods than we import; to which nothing can conduce so much, as the producing and manufacturing, at home, as many sorts of goods as is possible, or having them from foreign parts for transportation, so cheap and good as that they may be preferred by, and sold again to other foreigners, before the goods of such other nations as are our competitors: and the spending of no more of our own goods, or of those we bring from foreign parts, at home, than our necessities require, is the best way to run little in debt to foreign nations; for then we may either import the less, or have the more to transport to foreign markets. All prodigality at home, in the consumption of commodities that are fit for foreign markets, is in effect a consuming of so much of the treasure of the nation; because they would yield and produce treasure, more or less, if they were not so consumed; whence it is obvious, that as nothing has a more inevitable tendency to reduce a nation to poverty, than an unlimited, vain, prodigal way of living, so it is impossible to propose any way to recover and enrich a nation, equal to that of general labour, industry and ingenuity: for labour, industry, and ingenious arts, are the means of bringing treasure into a trading nation, and frugality and parsimony the only way to keep and retain it; which can only be done by consuming less of foreign commodities, and exporting more of our own.

An abstract of the laws relative to the East-India Company.

Of the practical business of the custom-house, continued from end of Letter D, with regard to EAST-INDIA GOODS.

—Goods imported from thence must be brought to some part of Great Britain, and be there unladen, and be openly and publicly sold by inch of candle, upon forfeiture of their value. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 44. § 68.—and 6 Ann. c. 3. § 2.
—The united company impowered to have the sole and exclusive trade to and from India, and to and from all places between the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE and STRAIGHTS OF MAGELLAN, for ever: but subject to redemption of par-

liament, by three years notice, after the 25th of March 1780; upon the expiration whereof, and repayment to the said company of the capital stock or debt of 4,200,000 l. and all arrears of annuities payable in respect thereof, their right and title to such trade are to cease and determine. 9 & 10 Will. III. c. 44. § 80. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9, 10, 11 & 12. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 2, 3, & 14.

—The trade and corporation of the united company continued, although their fund should be redeemed. 10 Ann. c. 28. § 1. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 12, 15.

—Persons not qualified, going or trading thither, forfeit the ship and goods, and double the value thereof: one fourth part to the feizer or informer, and the other three fourths to the use of the company, who are to bear the charges of prosecution. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 44. § 80. & 13 Geo. I. c. 8. § 3. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 12.

—Any of his majesty's subjects (not lawfully authorized) going to, or being found in the East-Indies, shall be guilty of an high crime and misdemeanour, and may be prosecuted within six years; and being convicted thereof, shall be liable to such penalty as the court shall think fit. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 1. & 7 Geo. II. c. 21. § 1. & 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 6.

—Every person so offending may be seized, and brought to England, and committed to the next county goal, by any justice of the peace, 'till sufficient security be given, by natural-born subjects or denizens, for their appearance to answer the prosecution: and not to depart out of the kingdom without leave. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 2. & 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 7.

—Persons trading or going thither under foreign commissions, forfeit 500 l. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 3.

—East-India Goods traded for contrary to law, forfeited, with double the value. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 3.

—Contracts for ships, in foreign services, to trade thither, void, 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 2.

—Goods not belonging to the company, or persons licensed by them, shipped on board ships bound thither, or taken out of ships from thence before their arrival, forfeited, with double the value: the master privy thereto forfeits 1000 l. and all his wages. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 4.

—Bills of complaint may be exhibited against illegal traders, for discovery thereof, and recovery of the duty, and 30 l. per cent. to the company. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 5.

—Officers not to prosecute for forfeitures and penalties, without the consent of the directors of the company. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 7.

—The Levant company's trade to the Levant seas not to be prejudiced by these acts. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 8. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 16.

—Goods of the produce of the East-Indies, may not be imported into any place belonging to the British crown, unless shipped from Great Britain, on forfeiture of ship and goods, or their value: officers of the customs conniving thereat, or delaying prosecution, forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 9.

—None of his majesty's subjects may contribute to, or promote the establishing or carrying on any foreign company trading to the East-Indies, from any part of the Austrian Netherlands, or any other place; upon forfeiture of their share in such company, with treble the value: one third part thereof to the use of his majesty, and two thirds to the use of the company, if they inform or sue; otherwise one third part of such two thirds to the use of the informer, or suer. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 1.

—Bills of complaint may be exhibited for the discovery of offences, and recovery of the single value only; one third part whereof for the use of his majesty, and the other two thirds for the use of the company. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 2.

—But if a common informer declares his intention of prosecution at law, and instead thereof, the directors shall choose to have it commenced by bills of complaint, they are to allow him one third of the foresaid two third parts. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 3.

—Any of his majesty's subjects accepting of any share in trust, or knowing any other subject to have any interest or share in any foreign company, not discovering the same to the united company, within six months, shall forfeit treble the value of such shares, or one year's imprisonment. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 4.

—But making a voluntary discovery to the directors in writing, within the time afore limited, to have a moiety of the forfeiture. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 5.

—The forfeitures and penalties inflicted by the acts of 9 & 10 Will. III. 6 Ann. 5 Geo. I. and these acts, may be prosecuted by the attorney-general, the united company, or any officer of the customs; one third whereof to be for the use of his majesty, one third to the use of the company, and the other to the use of the officers. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 6. and 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9.

—The united company may export stores, provisions, utensils of war, and necessaries for their garrisons and settlements, free of duty, provided the duty would not have exceeded 300 l. in any one year. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 13.

—A Capias in the first process may be issued for offences against any act for the encouraging and securing the lawful trade thither. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 8.

—Wrought

—Wrought silks, Bengals and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of East-India, China or Persia, and calicoes, printed, painted, stained or dyed there, prohibited to be worn in Great Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the half subsidy. 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 17. § 1, 10.

—Such goods to be imported into the port of London only, and there regularly entered, upon forfeiture, and 500 l. 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10. § 3.

—After entry, to be secured in proper warehouses, approved by the commissioners of the customs: and not to be taken thence, but in order for exportation, and until sufficient security be given accordingly.

—Such security may be discharged upon certificate, under the common seal of the chief magistrate, or under the hands and seals of two known British merchants, at the place where landed, testifying the same, or upon proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or perished at sea. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—Such bonds not prosecuted within three years, nor judgment obtained within two years after prosecution, void. 8 Ann. c. 13. § 24, 25.

—Officers refusing to deliver them up accordingly, are to pay damage, and treble damages. 8 Ann. c. 13. § 24, 25.

—Proprietors may affix one lock to every warehouse, and may view, sort or deliver such goods for exportation, in the presence of the warehouse-keeper, who is to attend at all reasonable times. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 8.

—Found in any place, other than in the aforesaid warehouses, are forfeited; and upon seizure must be carried to the next custom-house, and after condemnation, are to be publicly sold by the candle for exportation, the buyers giving security accordingly. One third part of the produce of such sale to be paid to the king, and the other two thirds to the seizer or prosecutor. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—The persons knowingly harbouring or selling such goods, are likewise to forfeit 200 l. one third to the king, two thirds to the prosecutor. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—The place of manufacture disputed, the proof to lie upon the owner. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 4.

—Warehouse-keepers are to enter in a book every chest, bale, and number of pieces therein contained, brought into and carried out of the aforesaid warehouses; and every six months transmit to the commissioners of the customs, upon oath, an exact account thereof, and of what are then remaining, in order to be by them laid before the parliament, in the first week of every session. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 6.

—Within one month after the aforesaid account has been transmitted, the commissioners are to cause the books and warehouses to be inspected, and the account examined; and if it appears that any goods have been illegally delivered, the warehouse-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 500 l. and be disabled from any public employment. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 6.

—Unrated goods, calicoes, china-ware and drugs, of the produce of East-Indies or China, landed or taken out of any ship before entry, and security of the duties, or without a warrant from the officers, are forfeited, or their value: two thirds to the use of his majesty, who is to bear the charges of prosecution, and one third to the seizer or fuer. 2 & 3 Ann. c. 9. § 8. & 3 & 4 Ann. c. 4. § 11.

EAST-INDIA wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs, mixed with silk or herba of the manufacture of China, Persia, or East-India, or calicoes painted, dyed, printed, stained there, imported into this kingdom, and secured in warehouses, (pursuant to 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10) and appearing, upon examination by the proper officer, to be stained or damaged, or unfit for foreign markets, unless cleaned and refreshed, dyed, glazed or calendered, may, by leave of the commissioners of the customs, be taken out to be so manufactured, under the care, and in the custody of an officer appointed by them: bond being first given, in double the value, to return them again, within the time the commissioners shall think reasonable to limit.—And

—The officer to be paid for his trouble by the person at whose request the goods are taken out; and any dispute arising about his allowance, is to be determined by the commissioners. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 9.

—The warehouse-keepers, in the account of the goods received into, and delivered out of the warehouses, (which he is directed to keep and transmit to the commissioners, upon oath, every six months, by 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10.) is to insert an account of all goods delivered out to be cleaned, &c. in pursuance of this act, and of what is returned to the warehouse, with the days and times when, and of what is remaining in the care and custody of the officer out of the warehouse. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 10.

—Any officer intrusted with the care and custody of the goods delivered out, and not returning them again to the warehouse, is to forfeit the value of the goods, and 500 l. and be forever disabled from any public employment for the future. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 11.

The method of ascertaining the values of unrated goods imported from thence, not to be altered by the additional book of rates.

Directions in regard to the method of entry by bills of lading or sufferance, on proper security for payment of the duties, and examples of the computation of the duties on goods imported from thence, rated or unrated, from pag. 345, to page 355.

Of Saxby. Manufactured—The duty and drawback, page 349, &c. ditto.

Goods unrated, { Unmanufactured—The duty and drawback, page 349, &c. ditto.

 Prohibited—The duty, page 355, ditto.

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FACTORS.

Of factors, agents, and supercargoes.

A factor is a merchant's agent, residing abroad, constituted by letter of attorney, to act for his principal; and one may act for several merchants, who all run a joint risque of his actions: factorage is the allowance.

A supercargo is employed by merchants to go a voyage over sea, and dispose of the cargo to the best advantage.

Of some principal laws of England in regard to factors and supercargoes.

In factors commissions on such occasions, 'tis common to empower them expressly to dispose of the merchandize as if it were their own; by which the factor's actions will be excused, though to the principal's loss. But a bare commission to sell is not sufficient authority for the factor to trust any person, so that he should receive the money on the delivery of the goods: and, by the general power, he may not trust beyond one, two, or three months, &c. the usual time allowed in sales, otherwise he shall be answerable out of his own estate. A factor should presently on sale of any goods receive a quid pro quo, or he does not well execute the commission given him; and he ought to sell to the best advantage of his principal, and render a faithful account; and, in performance of the trust reposed in him, he is either to return the commodity to his employer, or bring the money received for it. 1 Bullstrode Report. 103.

A merchant delivers goods to his factor to sell, which he cannot but for ready money, without a particular commission; for if he can find no buyers, he is not answerable: and if the goods are perishable, and can't be sold for ready money, he must have authority to sell upon trust. If the goods are burnt, or the factor is robbed, without his own default, he is not liable; but in this case of perishable goods, it was not alledged he could not sell for ready money; and the sale was made beyond sea, where the buyer was not to be found. And as a master is not bound by his servant's contract, unless consenting, or at least the goods coming to his use; so neither shall a factor sell but for ready money, without particular orders. 2 Mod. 100, 101.

It has been adjudged by Holt, chief justice, that every factor of common right should sell for ready money; but if he be where the usage is to sell on trust, there if he sell to a person of good credit, who afterwards becomes insolvent, he is discharged, but not if the man's credit were bad at the time of sale. If there be no such usage, and he on the general authority sells upon trust, he only is chargeable, howsoever able the buyer is; for having exceeded his authority, there is no contract between the vendee and the factor's principal, and such sale is a conversion in the factor. Pasch. 13. Will. III. If a factor selling goods on credit does, before payment, die indebted by specialty more than his assets will pay, this money shall be paid to the principal, and not to the factor's administrator as part of his assets, deducting only the factor's commission. Decreed in equity, Hill. 1708. 2 Vern. 638. If a factor give a man time for payment of money contracted on sale of his principal's goods, and after that time is elapsed, sell him goods of his own for ready money, and he becomes insolvent, the factor in equity and honesty should indemnify his principal, but he is not compellable by the common law. Molloy 440.

And if any factor sells goods for another, either by themselves or among other things, not advising his principal, but dealing afterwards with the same man, he becomes insolvent, the factor shall be answerable, because he gave not the owner advice of the sale in due time, and 'tis as if he had sold them contrary to commission, for the salary of factorage binds him to it. Also, if by a merchant's commission he buy a commodity for his account, with the merchant's money or credit, and he gives no advice of it, but sell it again for his own benefit, the merchant shall recover this benefit, and the factor be likewise amerced for the fraud.

If a factor by commission buys goods above the price limited to him, or not of the sort and goodness, as by the authority

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they ought to be, he must take them to his own account, and the merchant may disclaim the buying of them: as he may likewise, if they are shipped for another place than he ordered: but in such case, if the price riseth, and the factor thereupon fraudulently ladeth them for some other port, the merchant may recover damages on proof.

A factor, selling under the price limited to him, is to make good the difference, unless he gives a sufficient reason for so doing. Lex Mercat. Malines, 82.

A factor and servant differ in this, that the first is made by merchant's letters, and takes commission, but the servant is entertained with yearly wages, some without: a factor is answerable for loss sustained by misusing his commission, a servant only incurs displeasure; factors must therefore punctually observe their commissions. And factors deal most commonly for several, but a servant, dealing for others by his master's direction, can be no loser if they break, for he has only his master's credit: wherefore intimations, citations, attachments, and other lawful courses, are executed against servants, and not against factors.

No factor, acting for account of another, can justify receding from his orders, though it might be to advantage, unless commissioned to act for the best. And here, if four or five merchants remit to one factor four or five distinct parcels of goods, which he disposes jointly to one person, who pays one moiety down, and contracts for the rest at a certain time: before which if he break, the principals shall bear an equal share of the loss. Lex Mercat. Malines, 81, 82.

If the factor sell at one time to one man goods belonging to divers, to be paid for in one or more payments, without distinction made by the buyer for what parcels he pays any sum in part, as shopkeepers do, the factor must make proportionable distribution of the monies received, according to the amount of each parcel, 'till all be paid; and if loss happen, or all be not paid, it is to be distributed in like manner.

As fidelity, diligence, and honesty are expected from the factor, the law requires the like of the principal: if, therefore, a merchant remits counterfeit jewels to his factor, who sells them as if true, if he receive loss or prejudice by imprisonment or other punishment, the principal shall not only make full satisfaction to the factor, but also to the party who bought the jewels: for he shall answer for his factor in all cases where he is privy to the act or wrong. This was insisted on in the case of Southern against How, on a sale made to the king of Barbary; though in that case, after various arguments, judgment was given against the plaintiff. 2 Cro. 468. Bridgm. 126, 128.

And so in contracts; if a factor buy goods on account of the principal, especially if used so to do, the contract shall oblige the principal, who is properly to be prosecuted for non-performance. But it has been held, if a factor or servant buy things generally, not declaring on the contract that it is as a factor only, &c. he is chargeable in his own right. 2 Keb. 812. The actions of factors depend on buying and selling, entering goods, freighting ships, and all other like matters of commerce; and, their trust being great, they should be provident, for the benefit of their principals. If goods sent to a factor be through his negligence false entered, or landed without an officer of the customs, so as they incur a seizure, he shall make good the damage: but, if he make his entry, according to the invoice, or advice by letter, and there happens a mistake, if any goods be lost, he shall be acquitted. Lane's Rep. 65.

In Chancery it has been decreed, that, if a factor saves the customs due to a foreign prince, which by the laws is felony in the factor, and forfeiture of all the freight, he shall have the benefit, and not the employer; for he ran the hazard wholly, and has possession, which is a right against all, except him that hath the very right. Though, if the duties were due to our king, the factor shall discover the same, if the merchant bring a bill against him; for this custom, being founded in fraud, is void. Abr. Caf. Eq. 369, 370.

If the principal order his factor to insure ship and goods, as soon as laden, having money in hand, and he neglect, if

the ship miscarry, by the custom of merchants, he shall answer it; or if he make any composition with the insurers after insurance, without orders so to do, he is answerable for the whole assurance.

A factor, entering into charter party of affreightment with a master of a ship, it obliges him only; unless he lades abroad generally the principal's goods, when both principal and lading are liable, and not the factor.

A merchant lends goods to his factor, and about a month after draws a bill on him; which, having effects in hand, he accepts, the principal becomes a bankrupt, and the goods in the factor's hands are seized; it has been conceived, that, at law, the factor must answer the bill, and can only come in as a creditor, for what he paid by his acceptance of it. *Molloy 442.*

Goods remitted to a factor must be carefully preserved; yet, if he buys for his principal, and they receive damage afterwards, but not through his negligence, the principal shall bear the loss.

A factor, having made considerable profit for his principal, must be careful in the disposal of it. If he sell the principal's goods for counterfeit money, the loss is his own; but if he receives money, which is afterwards lessened in value where he resides, the loss is to the merchant.

A factor is accountable for all lawful goods coming safe to his hands, and shall suffer for not observing orders: if, having orders not to sell any goods particularly specified, he sell them, he is answerable for the damage that shall be received; goods bought or exchanged without orders, the merchant may take, or turn them on the factor's hands. And, where a factor has bought or sold pursuant to orders, he must immediately give advice of it, lest they should be contradicted, and his reputation suffer: and he is to ship off goods bought, the first opportunity, giving the speediest advice, and sending a bill of lading. Factors should carefully note the contents of their principal's letters, and send speedy and particular answers; and should study the nature, value, rise, and fall of goods, both at home and abroad: and the want of frequent writing to their principals is often of pernicious consequence, in divers respects.

The gain of factorage is certain, however the voyage or sale prove to the merchant; but the commissions vary; at Jamaica, Barbadoes, Virginia, and most of the western parts of the world, the commission runs at 8 per cent. generally through Italy, two and a half; France, Spain, and Portugal, &c. two; and in Holland, and other places near home, one and a half per cent.

Where a factor, at the Canaries, deserves money for factorage, it is said, he cannot bring an action for it, unless the principal refuse to account; and, if it appears that the factor hath money in his hands, he may detain, and cannot bring any action; but, if directed to vest all the produce of the adventure in wines, he may bring an action for factorage, and his pains, because he cannot detain, and hath no other remedy. *Comberb 349.*

If a factor, by error of account, wrongs a merchant, he is to make good, not only the principal, but interest for the time: and, if the error be in his own wrong, the merchant is to answer it, in like manner.

By the statute no governor, or deputy governor, of any of the American plantations, or the judges there, or any other for their use, shall be factor or agent for the African company, or others, for the sale of negroes; and any person offending therein, forfeits 500*l.* recoverable in any court of record at Westminster, 9 and 10. W. III. cap 26. This was the law when the African company was a united corporation.

A bond from a factor to his principal, for faithful service abroad.

Know all men, by these presents, that we C. D. of, &c. and E. F. of, &c. in the county of, &c. gentlemen, are held and firmly bound to A. B. of, &c. merchant, in two thousand pounds, of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the said A. B. or to his certain attorney, his executors, administrators, and assigns; for which payment to be well and truly made, we bind ourselves, and each and either of us by himself for and in the whole, our heirs, executors, and administrators, and of either of us, firmly by these presents, sealed with our seals. Dated this day of, &c. in the year of the reign, &c.

Whereas the above-named A. B. hath, at the request of the above-bound E. F. and C. C. preferred the said C. D. as his factor, to serve him at Port Royal in Jamaica, and other ports and places beyond seas; and the said C. D. is, upon his departure for Port Royal aforesaid, to take upon him the said business and employment. Now the condition of this obligation is such, that if the said C. D. shall from time to time, and at all times, during his employment abroad, in the service of the said A. B. whenever he shall be thereunto required by the said A. B. his executors, administrators, agents, or assigns, make and give unto him, or them, true and perfect accounts in writing, of, for, and concerning all and every such goods, merchandize, money, bills of exchange, and other things whatsoever, at any time or times hereafter consigned or sent to him, the said C. D. by or from the said A. B. his execu-

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tors, agents, or assigns; and of and for all and every the return, proceed, and benefit to be had or gotten for, or in respect of the said goods, money, merchandizes, bills of exchange, and other things whatsoever, for which he the said C. D. shall or may be charged or answerable, and which shall come to, or be committed to his charge, custody, or disposition, by and from the said A. B. or any other person or persons, wherewith the said C. D. his executors, administrators, shall, can, or may, be lawfully charged or chargeable, by reason of his said employment, in any respect whatsoever: and shall likewise well and truly remit, pay, and deliver unto the said A. B. his executors, administrators and assigns, upon every such account made, all such money, goods, wares, merchandizes, notes, securities for debts, and other things in his hands, in such nature and quality as the same shall then be and consist, as by and upon the same account, shall appear to be due or belong to the said A. B. his executors, or assigns. And farther, if the said C. D. shall, from time to time, during the said employment, follow the orders and directions of the said A. B. his agents and assigns, concerning the management of his business, and the sale, disposal, and proceeds of all and every the goods, merchandizes, and effects committed to his care; then this obligation shall be void, or else to remain, &c.

R E M A R K S.

The factors meant and intended, by what has been said, are such as are more properly called supercargoes, and return backwards and forwards to their principals, and not take up their residence wholly in foreign countries.

It is the universal custom of merchants of the highest credit, throughout Europe, to act mutually in the capacity of factors for each other: the business so executed is called commission business; and is generally desirable by all merchants, provided they have always effects in their hands, as a security for all the affairs which they transact for the account of others. But this class of traders, of established reputation, have current, as well as commission accounts, constantly between them, and draw on, remit to, and send commissions to each other, only by the intercourse of letters; which, among men of honour and worth, are as obligatory and authoritative, as all the bonds and ties of law: nay, traders may frequently retard and spin out the proceedings at law, but they cannot obstruct the course of their mercantile negotiations, for a single day, without the hazard of being undone, and losing all their credit in the trading world.

A merchant, considered as a principal in sending goods to foreign countries, to be disposed of for his account, either by a factor, or supercargoe, who returns personally to the country, from time to time, where the principal resides, or to one who lives altogether in a foreign country, makes out an invoice of the merchandizes which he so sends or consigns. This invoice is supposed to contain a particular account of the whole prime cost and charges attending such merchandizes, for the government of his factor or supercargoe, in the sale thereof. But merchants, upon these occasions, generally make an addition to such invoice, from 5 to 10 or 12 per cent. or more, especially if the goods happen to be well bought, or have rose in their price from the time of purchase, to that of exportation. This rise upon the invoice, has sometimes a good, sometimes the contrary effect; for, when factors know this to be sometimes a practice with their principal, they are apt to surmise that it is never otherwise, and dispose of their goods accordingly. It is, however, for the interest of factors, especially of those who act constantly in that capacity, to promote that of their principals; for he that does so, will never want commissions. See the article ACCOUNT of Sales.

Further REMARKS with relation to Factors in Spain.

The practice of the court of Spain formerly, and which, it seems, is of late revived, with relation to mercantile factors, may deserve attention, as it shews the natural way of first establishing commerce with distant countries, and by which one means, amidst numberless other wise ones, at present, Spain is zealously aiming at the increase of her commerce and maritime power.

The importance of settling factors in foreign sea-ports is very obvious, says the politic Spaniard Uztaritz, with a view of promoting an active commerce, agreeable to the ancient practice of the Spaniards, as it appears from a statute in the year 1494; since it is for want of this measure, that his majesty's subjects cannot have either magazines or houses, in those countries, on their own account, whither they may transmit their merchandize, deposit it in warehouses, and cause it to be sold at the best market. And though our merchants are under necessity of importing certain goods from abroad, especially linens, spicery, some materials, and other things, that are now consumed in Spain and America, and which foreigners vend among us, at very high prices, we are at as great a loss for factors, and other persons to be confided in, and of our own nation, whom we may charge with the purchase and shipping of them to Spain.

By this want of safe correspondents, our merchants also sustain a prejudice, by having no person, to whom they may make assignments for the barter of one commodity for another,

upon which greater profits are usually made, than by selling for-ready money, as well from the difficulty of extracting the money they were sold for, or it's not being current in those parts, where the owner resides, as to prevent the loss, which is experienced sometimes in bills of exchange; besides that, there are times and places where they cannot be procured; difficulties and disadvantages that merit the first attention of our traders, in order to provide against them, before they engage in buying up any considerable quantity of goods to send abroad. So that upon this, and other accounts, the principal profits now turn out to their advantage, while we possess only the very trifling interest of a passive trade.

Though we have consuls in certain ports, these cannot supply the want of factors, or other agents in commerce; of the former, because most of those consuls, not being natives of this kingdom, have, in general, too little regard for the nation, to be intrusted with it's interests; of the latter, because they are appointed to be judges, in many concerns of trade and navigation, and to take care, that captains, and other mariners, as well as traders, who are subjects, observe the orders and instructions of their sovereign, and therefore ought not to be both judge and party*, as they would be, if they were allowed to take commissions. From this inconsistency, and for other reasons, Lewis XIV. gave repeated orders, in the year 1691, for prohibiting all sorts of trade to the French consuls, their officers, domestics, and other dependants, directly or indirectly, under the penalty of losing their places, and a fine of three thousand livres.

* See the article CONSULS.

In those parts, where there are families of the same nation or country settled in trade, there is no need of sending factors, or others to execute the commissions abovementioned, since by means of those families, already residing there, a mutual correspondence may be formed, for buying, selling, depositing goods, remittances, and other transactions, as it is done by the generality of other nations, particularly in Spain, where we find many French, English, Dutch, Germans, Swedes, Italians, and others, trading, and making this kingdom, as it were, their place of abode.

The generality of these foreigners, who are settled, and trade in Spain, are usually in partnership with those very correspondents abroad, and divide the profit and losses, in proportion to the share of the stock or business each of them has, agreeable to the articles of partnership, and other obligations subsisting between them. And, for want of such families and partnerships, they then make use of persons, who merely discharge the office of a factor or broker, and have no farther interest in the business, than so much per cent. upon the goods, which is more or less, according to the respective country, and the quality of the merchandize or employment.

There are also certain foreigners, that live in their own country, and maintain a correspondence with Spaniards, mutually sending commissions to each other; but these are very few.

From these instances it may be collected, that as there are no Spanish families settled for a trade in France, England, Germany, and other parts, by our negligence in this important interest, for some years past, it is absolutely necessary for us to avail ourselves of the measure abovementioned, send over and maintain factors, with a stated salary, in such ports and places, as we shall be most likely to establish and maintain an active commerce with, and that the salaries granted out of the revenue be continued, till there be settlements of families and other persons in those parts, who, by the same traffic, and the gains they will be daily making, are enabled to form and support such a mutual correspondence, for the transaction of business, without having recourse to the sending and maintaining factors with salaries.

Though there be a very large and profitable trade carried on by several nations, in the ports of that extensive coast of the Mediterranean in Europe, Asia, and Africa, the Spaniards can never have any considerable share of it, so long as they pursue the maxim of being continually at war with all the Moors and Turks, under whose government the generality of those countries are found to be; notwithstanding it be notorious, that this war, proceeding from a zeal for our religion, has done greater injury to ourselves, than to those infidels, at least for many years past, as I have shewn. Hence, in respect to the Mediterranean, we can only trade in some ports of Italy, and on the southern coast of France, where our commerce cannot be very large, because those countries have nearly the same commodities and fruits, that are the growth and produce of this kingdom, on account of a resemblance between the climates, so that, during the present state of Europe, there cannot subsist any considerable traffic in merchandize and provisions, between each other, either by way of sale or barter †. However, we should not, on this account, slight a branch of commerce, though but a middling one, which it is in our power to possess in those places.

† Does not this shew, from the pen of a wife Spaniard himself, how impolitic it is for Spain, not to cultivate a strict friendship with Great-Britain; who takes so much, and France so little of their produce?

In the northern provinces we have an opportunity of opening a more extensive and advantageous trade, than in the Mediterranean, upon account of the necessity they lie under of having many things from this kingdom, particularly wines, brandies, oil, and other fruits, besides silks and cloths, which we should be enabled to supply them with, when our MANUFACTORIES SHALL BE IN A MORE FLOURISHING CONDITION; and, in exchange for what we should carry thither, we might import from those countries linens, spicery, some materials, and other things, which they now bring us themselves, especially for the use of our Indies, and sell them to us at high rates.

We have also a fair opportunity of opening an advantageous commerce at Lisbon, by transmitting thither many commodities and fruits, especially silks, as well for the consumption of that kingdom, as for the exportation that may be from thence to their Indies; and even to some parts of Europe, as there is a great number of ships and merchants, of several nations, collected together in that port and city; especially, if, for the encouragement of this, and other branches of traffic, we would reduce, as I proposed, the excessive duties, and remove the other clogs which now distress the Spanish fabrics, as well in the manufactory, as in their passing through the custom-houses; since we are sensible, that, in spite of these heavy loads, some silks of Granada and Valencia find a vent in Portugal*; and this traffic will be much extended, after we have taken off the embargo upon it already mentioned.

* Here we see the danger of a Spanish rival in the Portugal trade.

Upon these considerations, I esteem it a very reasonable measure to send and establish factors in

Lisbon,	Copenhagen,
Bordeaux,	Dantzick,
Bayonne,	Stockholm,
Nantes,	Peterburg,
Roan,	Marseilles,
London,	Genoa,
Ostend,	Leghorn,
Amsterdam,	Naples,
Hamburg,	Messina.

The advantage of settling a factor at Lisbon has been already considered, and in support of my opinion, that we do the same in the other sea-ports, I shall point out some of our principal inducements to it.

Bordeaux is one of the richest and greatest trading towns in France. In that city are two fairs held every year; one in spring, another in autumn, when very great numbers of people, of different nations, are collected together: some coming by sea, others by the famous canal, which crosses the country to the Mediterranean.

Bayonne has not a very great number of inhabitants, nor a great deal of merchandize and fruits of her own; but is a place through which passes a considerable part of the goods for the traffic between France and Spain, and where frequent commissions are sent for buying, carriage, and other transactions of business.

Nantes, in the province of Britany, is so famous for it's trade and riches, that in this instance it is unnecessary to assign any reasons, and I shall only intimate some of the principal foundations of it's rise and grandeur. It is situated at the mouth of the Loire, a very large river, and navigable for above a hundred leagues, crossing many fruitful provinces of France, with the advantage of a communication by canals, that are navigable, with several other rivers, in particular Seyne, which is well known to pass by Paris, Roan, and other great cities; inasmuch that the said town of Nantes possesses the convenience of receiving; by sea, a very large quantity of commodities, materials, and fruits from other kingdoms, at a small expence, in the greatest part of the provinces of France; and the same favourable situation enables it to collect together a variety of merchandize and provisions, of their growth and manufacture, and afterwards send them abroad, as they constantly do, especially linens from Britany, which abounds with them, and from whence are shipped vast quantities for Spain, and the Spanish Indies, introduced, in part, by the channel of Cadiz, and the rest by means of their own colonies.

Roan, a very rich and large town in Normandy, and situated at the entrance of the River Seyne, carrying on a foreign commerce by the port of Havre de Grace, possesses the same advantages with Nantes, both for a foreign and inland trade, by means of that, and some other navigable rivers, with which it has communication; and, notwithstanding it's course is not so long as that of the Loire, it has the advantage of a nearer communication with Paris by water, for the transport of many things consumed in that rich capital; whence are also brought quantities of merchandize, and other goods, conveyed down the abovementioned river, and passing by Roan, and Havre de Grace, to be shipped for a foreign market.

The town of Ostend is not very wealthy, but it is the only good port and channel, for almost all the commerce, which the

the Spanish Low Countries, now in possession of the Austrians, usually carry on with the kingdom of Spain.

The great commerce between this kingdom and London, Amsterdam, and Hamburg, is so notorious that it would be idle to dwell upon it.

Copenhagen, besides its being the residence of the Court of Denmark, a place of middling trade, and an excellent port, is situated at the entrance of the Baltic, so that it may facilitate an inland commerce in that kingdom, and serve as a place to touch at for the trade to Denmark, Sweden, Livonia, Muscovy, and other parts of the Baltic.

Most of the commerce of the great kingdom of Poland, and duchy of Lithuania, is made by the town and port of Dantzick, situated a league from the sea, at the mouth of the river Vistula, or Weyfel; as this river is navigable for above an hundred leagues, traversing the best provinces of that crown, it gives that city an opportunity of supplying them, at a small charge, with variety of foreign merchandize and fruits; and for the same reason, facilitates the extraction and conveyance of the commodities and fruits of that kingdom, and its united states, to the said port, in order to be shipped for foreign markets; more especially grain, of which it yields so great plenty, that most part of the prodigious magazines always in Holland is fetched from thence, as well for their own consumption, as that of Spain, Portugal, and other parts of Europe, in years of scarcity; which cannot be thought strange, since we have assurances from many hands, that foreigners export, by the channel of Dantzick, above eight hundred thousand tons of grain, one year with another.

Some provinces of Muscovy and Sweden, liable to bad harvests, from the excessive coldness of their climates, and more than ordinary moisture of the soil, are also usually supplied with grain from Poland, purchasing it at Dantzick, either on account of private traders, or that of their sovereigns; and since the great distance does not deter the Hollanders from fetching, and sending it to market, even as far as the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, and other remote countries, it seems, that, whenever we experience a bad harvest in Spain, the bad effects of it may be prevented, by sending early notice of it to the factor, whom we shall have in that city, with orders to buy up, either by himself, or other hands, by degrees, and with great privacy, considerable quantities of the said grain, which is ordinarily very cheap; and that this be done, either for the account of the revenue, or of some merchants, who shall be formed into a company for this purpose, as it is on such occasions; and that they be charged also with the transport of it, sending their own ships freighted with our commodities and fruits, which are generally esteemed, and find a good market in Poland and its neighbouring provinces; even though we should dispense them some indulgences and abatements in the duties.

And, in case this cannot be done in due time, that they may avail themselves of foreign shipping, since it is already known, that in the times of distress, when we dread a failure or scarcity of bread, it is absolutely necessary for us to have recourse to all practicable means for a seasonable remedy against the evil.

Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, is the port by which is carried on most of the trade of that large kingdom, where is very much esteemed, and a good market for several commodities and fruits of the southern provinces of Spain; and into these are also imported from thence a great quantity of merchandize, especially copper, iron manufactured, and to be manufactured, pitch, tar, and other commodities, for the land and sea service, and other uses.

Petersburgh, situated at the very bottom of the gulph of Finland, is one of the ports upon the Baltic, a town lately formed, and has a good harbour. It owes its birth to the famous Peter Alexiowits, Czar of Muscovy, who designed it, not only for the residence of this splendid court, but also for the seat of most part of that grand commerce he had projected; and which that glorious prince was daily improving throughout his vast dominions; but we shall speak more fully, in another place, of the astonishing measures of his political government.

Then, with a design of making the port and city of Petersburgh the seat of the principal commerce of his empire, he made several laws and provisions for transferring to it the considerable trade of the famous port of Archangel, situated at the mouth of the river Dwina, which discharges itself into the White Sea, at the distance of seven or eight leagues; because their commerce to that port was really more chargeable, and attended with difficulties, and the navigation very hazardous, upon account of the great and dangerous course of the shipping along the vast frozen coast of Norway and Lapland, practicable only in the few summer months; while Petersburgh stands clear of all these inconveniences, by its situation in a more temperate climate, almost in the center of Europe, and very convenient for its easy communication, both with the several provinces upon the Baltic, and many other parts of Europe.

If we pass to the Mediterranean, in whose ports I recommend the settlement of five factories, it is observable, that a very

large traffic is carried on, by the channel of Marfeilles, between France and other kingdoms of Europe, as well as several provinces of Africa and Asia, both in the Mediterranean and out of it; not only by the French themselves, but also by many vessels and merchants of foreign countries, which I have seen collected together in that town: whence it must be inferred, that some commodities and fruits of the kingdom of Spain, and the Spanish Indies, were they exported, and deposited in that city, might find a good market and we might purchase there, at more reasonable prices than in Spain, some things, which we want from abroad, and cannot go and buy, at the first hand, upon the coast of Africa and Asia in the Mediterranean, and under the dominion of the Moors and Turks; as it ought always to be considered, that the circumstances of Marfeilles being a free port, (excepting for certain sorts of goods) may much facilitate the buying, selling, and barter of such commodities, as we shall find an interest in; and that we can easily settle a correspondence from thence with Lyons, an opulent city, that carries on a vast foreign, as well as home trade, notwithstanding its great distance from the sea.

It is also well known, that a considerable commerce is made at Genoa, both by reason of their manufactories of paper and silks, and by its being a convenient passage for a trade in many sorts of merchandize, which go and come from the state of Milan, Germany, and other parts.

Leghorn, in the state of Florence, from its situation, the freedom of its port, and great trade with the Levant, and other parts, may be reckoned another Marfeilles, especially from the vast number of vessels and merchants I have seen there, collected together from various nations at two several times, which I have happened to be in that city; and this facilitates the purchase, sale, and barter of many sorts of commodities and fruits. For these reasons, I think we shall meet with a good market for silks, cloaths, tobaccos, and other things, that may be exported from these kingdoms, and deposited in warehouses there, as soon as the Spanish duties shall be reduced, and some other regulations made, that have been proposed, with a view to promote the home, as well as foreign commerce of Spain.

Naples, the capital and court of that kingdom, has also a considerable trade; and we may likewise find there a good market for many Spanish American commodities, such as tobacco, cocoa, sugar, cochineal, &c. by bartering them for linens, raw silk, and other things.

Messina, situated on the eastern coast of Sicily, and at a small distance from Naples, carries on a large commerce in curious silk, of its own produce, disposing of most of it manufactured, and the rest in the skein, to the French, Genoese, and other nations. It has a very spacious and safe port, and by its being in the course of most part of that great number of ships, which go and come from the Levant, it is made a place to touch at, and is convenient for refreshment and refitting; and also for a traffic with them, both going and coming, by their disposing of some sorts of merchandize, and shipping others, as well as for other branches of trade, which are favoured by its advantageous situation; and more especially from the circumstance of its lying in the narrow sea, which separates the two plentiful kingdoms of Naples and Sicily.

I have already intimated, that this kind of factors is usually supported by the brokerage, which is paid by the merchants upon the commissions sent to them, for their trouble of buying, selling, and other services. But as his majesty's subjects have not, at this time, a commerce of sufficient extent for the maintenance of them, and such a settlement, in those parts, is a previous measure, and requisite, in order to invite and establish such an interest for the nation; it will be absolutely necessary, in the mean time, and until the trade be so far advanced, as to yield factorage or commissions sufficient to maintain them in a decent manner, that THE REVENUE CONTRIBUTE SOME SHARE TOWARDS THE FIRST ESTABLISHMENT OF WHAT IS A NECESSARY FOUNDATION FOR THIS FOREIGN TRAFFIC, FROM WHICH WILL RESULT A VERY CONSIDERABLE ADVANTAGE TO HIS MAJESTY'S TREASURY, AND AN UNIVERSAL BENEFIT TO HIS SUBJECTS. And in this view, I am of opinion, there should be assigned, to each of the eighteen factors, that shall be appointed, and sent to the said ports, a salary of eight hundred dollars yearly; ordering it so, that three hundred be allotted for his own support, two hundred for a book-keeper, who shall be in the nature of a deputy, as well to assist him in the commissions, as to do the whole, in case of sickness, absence, or death, 'till his majesty make some other provision; and the remaining three hundred dollars for the hire of a house, spacious and sufficient for the reception of his own family, and his book-keeper, and for warehouses to deposit and preserve all the goods that shall be sent him, or he shall purchase, 'till they be shipped to his correspondents; together with a declaration, that if the book-keeper should chuse rather to clothe and maintain himself, with the said stipend of two hundred dollars, the factor is to put them into his hands, and be obliged to grant him a proper apartment in his

his own house, besides the two hundred dollars; and the book-keeper is always to live in it, that he may be ready to give his assistance.

It will be also a proper regulation, that, so long as the factors have a stipend out of the Treasury, the merchants, who are his majesty's subjects, shall be remitted half the commission paid by those of other nations, who do not possess a like advantage. The same rule is to be observed in respect to the charge of Warehouse-room. But, whenever his majesty's subjects shall think fit to stop the said salary, that then the factorage usual in the place where each of them shall reside, may be regularly charged to their correspondents.

Those factors may be very useful, not only in cherishing an ACTIVE COMMERCE in foreign countries, and confirming it to his majesty's subjects, but also instrumental in promoting some other services of the crown, especially in respect to our armaments by sea or land. For though this kingdom yields most of the necessaries for these and other uses, it is evident, that, as some manufactures are still at a low ebb, and other things requisite for the trade between this kingdom and the Indies, are scarce, we often find ourselves obliged to get supplies from abroad. Thus we want tin and copper for our foundries of artillery, and other uses; as also hemp, rigging, sail-cloth, pitch, tar, rosin, tallow, planking, and other things for the use of the men of war and galleys, purchasing them of foreigners at Cadiz, and other places, at very high prices; whence results, also, this great disadvantage, that careening, and other works in our dock-yards, usually come excessive dear.

But the evils ensuing from thence may be prevented, by an instruction to the officers, whose business shall be, at that time, to draw out before-hand a memorial of the particulars of what shall be necessary for the said service, distinguishing those things which may be obtained from the present fabrics in the kingdom, or what may be further provided by them, from those we are under a necessity of having from abroad.

With the help of such previous information, the necessary orders may be issued for manufacturing, procuring, or purchasing, on his majesty's account, all the commodities and materials which can be gotten on the continent of Spain, of its own produce and manufacture, and a proportionable quantity of each kind collected together in the ports, yards, or magazines of the place where they are to be consumed in building, arming, careening, and fitting out ships, and other uses; having beforehand a magazine of stores sufficient for three or four years, and constantly replacing those which shall be made use of, that we may never be under a necessity of purchasing these commodities at such times as we are in immediate want of them; for what is then bought, is usually very dear, and not so good; nay, sometimes we cannot supply ourselves at any rate.

And, if the same memorial contains also a list of the several materials and commodities which will be necessary to import from abroad, it may then be considered what countries or places are most likely to supply us with them at reasonable prices, and of due goodness, that we may send advice to the respective factors, and commission them to purchase, and ship them on his majesty's account to such ports as they shall be directed, having first made the usual insurances, according to the distance and navigation from thence.

And these commissions should be always governed by this consideration, that they buy up and transmit to Spain a sufficient supply for the consumption of four or five years; and that the orders and proper remittances be made, even before the stores in hand are actually expended, so that the magazines may be constantly full. But it is to be understood, that our factors are to execute these and other commissions, for the use of his majesty, without any charge, or demand upon the revenue for factorage, or warehouse-room, so long as they shall enjoy a salary from his majesty; but all the necessary charges and disbursements which they shall have made, are to be duly paid them.

Besides the benefits which I have said will accrue from an establishment of factors, we may expect, by this means, to get an insight into the several policies, of which foreigners avail themselves, for the improvement and success of their trade; as we shall thus gain a certain knowledge of the circumstances of each country or state, and what particular advantages may be made in each place, from buying, selling, or bartering any particular merchandize.

By a correspondence with these very factors, we shall also obtain, at an easy rate, an information of what happens, or is transacting, in the kingdoms and states where they shall reside; a piece of knowledge that may be very useful on several important occasions.

As we shall possess these and other advantages from such a measure, we must needs think, that the sum of 3400 doubloons will be very usefully expended yearly in salaries to all the eighteen factors, as it does not amount to the charge of maintaining a single ambassador in ordinary; and yet sometimes several ministers are dispatched, and maintained at the same time, in this public character, at a great expence, and to transact affairs of much less consequence to the general good

of the monarchy, than the benefits we may flatter ourselves with receiving from the establishment of these factors.

Besides, should not more than half of them succeed, there would be enough to make a great improvement in the active commerce of the nation, to augment considerably his majesty's revenue, and benefit of his subjects; and this limited expence of those factors would but continue a few years a charge upon the revenue; for if, by their means, that active commerce, which is so expedient and desirable, be once established, they will be enabled to support themselves upon their commissions only, and their stipends may cease: and if it should be found, that our intention is not answered by this provision in any of the ports, we need no longer maintain a factor in that place.

An establishment of factors would, however, be a very idle thing, unless we make choice of persons of honour and fidelity, and at least a tolerable skill in trade, especially in keeping mercantile accounts; and, to secure a prudent management in this article, and that the persons appointed may be in full credit with the merchants themselves, who are to intrust them with their commissions and interests, it will be proper to refer the choice of them to the principal cities, which, for their situation, and other reasons, shall be most likely to strike out a trade in the places where the factors are to reside. I think too, that, though they be not made security for the good behaviour of them, they will be in some measure under such an obligation, because the very confidence of his majesty in submitting them to their election, obliges them to it, besides the interest which their traders must have in deputing a proper person.

I have understood, also, that the principal commerce of Spain with the North is by ports in the kingdom of Seville, the traffic of Cantabria, Galicia, and Asturias, being not extensive to those parts; that very large quantities of wine, raisins, and oil, are exported from Malaga to London; that Granada, though it be at some distance from a sea-port, has correspondence and traffic with Lisbon, vending certain silks there. As to the ports of Italy, it is well known, that the principal traffic with them is by the channel of Barcelona, Alicant, and Carthagena, exclusive of what goes to Andalusia to be shipped for the Indies.

In consideration of these circumstances, I am of opinion the choice of the factors should be intrusted to the following cities and towns, for the places set down opposite to them.

To Granada	- - - -	for	Lisbon,
To Pamplona	- - - -	for	Bayonne,
To Seville	- - - -	for	{ Bourdeaux,
			{ Nantes,
			{ Hamburg,
To Cadiz	- - - -	for	{ Roan,
			{ Amsterdam,
To Malaga	- - - -	for	London,
To San Lucar de Barrameda	- - - -	for	Dantzick.
To Corunna	- - - -	for	Ostend,
To Santander	- - - -	for	Copenhagen,
To San Sebastian	- - - -	for	Stockholm,
To Bilboa	- - - -	for	Petersburgh,
To Carthagena	- - - -	for	Genoa,
To Alicant	- - - -	for	Leghorn,
To Barcelona	- - - -	for	{ Marfeilles,
			{ Naples,
			{ Messina.

Though this proposal of submitting the choice of the factors to the thirteen cities and towns, points out the foreign ports where those are to reside who are nominated by each of them, it is only to add an improving circumstance in carrying this scheme into execution. But there can be no considerable objection to depart from this rule, whenever it shall be expedient, from better knowledge of the several places, and other reasons, and appointing them a settlement at the ports and in the places best adapted to each of the eighteen just now proposed, since the main thing is, that persons be elected by the thirteen cities of Spain before recited, whom they shall find best qualified for the trust in their respective provinces, as by their experience and knowledge of them they will be good judges of their qualifications; but it must be understood, that though each city name one, they are to be factors for that and all other places in the kingdom, which shall be willing to trade in the port or town where each of them shall reside.

But, though the said cities be invested with a power of chusing the persons for this office, it is to be with a condition, that they do not act till they have the approbation of his majesty; and, therefore, their nomination is to be presented to the corregidor of each place, who is to transmit it to his majesty's hands, with a detail of the qualifications that recommend the person elected into it. But it is intended that this approbation of his majesty subsist no longer than the factors enjoy a salary out of the revenue.

After his majesty has been pleased to grant his approbation, there should be given to each of them a despacho, or patent, signed by his majesty's own hand, and undersigned by the secretary for the time being, appointing him a factor for the Spanish

Spanish nation in the port or country he has been nominated to, and containing the sum of which is to be paid him for a salary, and how it is to be distributed, together with all such instructions as tend to the better discharge of his office.

To be intitled to this approbation, or choice, it should be an invariable condition, that the person be a native of this kingdom, or have a patent of naturalization, and be at least 30 years of age.

The assistant, which each factor is to take along with him in quality of a book-keeper, ought to be one to his own liking, as he is to answer for his doing his duty in the office. It will, therefore, be expedient, as soon as each factor shall be elected and approved, that he have leave to nominate a person, whom he shall think qualified for this employment, and that he accordingly give him his nomination, signed under his own hand, which is to be presented to the council of the city and town which it shall concern, that they may be also judges of the propriety of his nomination; and, after the city council have approved his choice, the factors shall not be empowered to remove him, without a just cause, giving, at the same time, notice of it to the said council, and his reasons for doing so; any in filling up any vacancy, whatever may be the cause of it, the same formalities shall be observed as before; though the factor may, in the mean time, employ such person as he shall please.

It will also be expedient, that the book-keeper be chosen out of the natives of this kingdom, and at least twenty years of age.

Should there be consuls established in the above-mentioned cities and towns for managing and conducting the affairs of trade, it would be fittest for these to have the choice of persons to be employed as factors; but, in case there be none, and it is a troublesome circumstance to assemble, and bring the merchants of each of them to an agreement in the choice, it should, I think, be left, in the mean time, to the disposal of the city council, in the shape proposed.

FAIR, a concourse of merchants, manufacturers, and sundry others of various professions, natives and foreigners, who meet yearly, or at other fixed times, in some certain place, on fixed days, to buy and sell; and whither others resort, out of curiosity only, to partake of the usual diversions of these public places.

The word is also used for places where, on certain days, some one sort of merchandize is permitted to be sold, of which there are two sorts at Paris, viz.

The fair for gammons, called also the bacon fair, held yearly in the street of Notre Dame; it holds but one day, which is the Tuesday in Passion week: at which time is sold so great a quantity of hams, slices of bacon, and other salted pork, as is scarce to be expressed.

The onion fair begins on the Notre Dame in September, and holds till the end of the month; during which, an inconceivable quantity of black and red onions is brought, of which the citizens lay in for the whole year. It is held in the Isle of Notre Dame, along the Quai Bourbon.

FAIR signifies also the place where tradesmen meet together, keep their shops, and carry on their trade.

Many are held in the open fields, under tents and booths, as that of Guibray and Beaucaire, in France; others within walled places, with shops ranged in a regular manner, like streets; but all without covering, unless a few trees are planted as a shelter from the sun: such is the fair of St Lawrence at Paris, which is held in the summer.

The shops where the dealers have their goods, particularly in the two great fairs of Paris, that of Caen, and other principal cities of France, are usually termed lodges.

Of the dealers that frequent fairs, some have their fixed abode in some city, others travel with their goods and families from fair to fair.

Though it be not essential to these meetings of traders to have comedians, rope-dancers, and the like, yet there are few considerable ones without enough of them, and, perhaps, is what greatly contributes to the trade of them, the nobility and country gentry flocking to them more for their diversion than what they buy there, which might be had perhaps better and cheaper at home. It is well known how the nobility of Languedoc flock to the fair of Beaucaire, and those of Normandy to that of Guibray; but it is nothing in comparison of the assemblies of German princes and nobles at the three fairs of Leipzig, and the two of Frankfort on the Maine.

It is the right of sovereignty alone to give patents for the establishment of a fair, whether it be a free one, or have it's franchise restrained under some local right, or on the foot only of a common fair, without any franchises.

FREE FAIRS in France, &c.

There are several in France, but the prerogatives and franchises of some are greater than of others.

The chief are, St Germain, held at Paris the day after Candlemas-day.

The four fairs of Lyons.

Rheims has also four; Chartres, in Beauce has three; Mevinville three, Rouen two, Bourdeaux two; Troyes, Mortant in Brie, and St Denis have each of them two; Caen

hath one free fair, and Bayonne one, which lasts 15 days; Clermont in Auvergne, Senlis, and Vitry le François, each one.

The fair of Montrichard in Touraine is also famous for the great concourse of traders to it from all the provinces of the kingdom, but particularly for the great trade in woollen stuffs, amounting, one time with another, to 12,000 pieces.

The fair of Guibray in Lower Normandy.

The fair of Beaucaire in Languedoc.

The free fair of Dieppe was the last established.

Of all these, we shall speak particularly here only of that of St Germain, the two of St Dennis, the four of Lyons and of Rheims, the two of Rouen, of Bourdeaux and Troyes, those of Caen, Dieppe, and Toulon; there being nothing remarkable to mention of the others, those of Guibray and Beaucaire excepted.

But we shall first say something in general of the fairs of Champagne and Brie, on the model of which all the others at present held in France were established.

The free fairs of Champagne and Brie.

These, which were at first established by the earls of those provinces, in 16 of the chief cities of them, have long been the most celebrated in France, if not in all Europe.

Some of those cities had even six fairs yearly, several four, and none but had two at least.

Traders, allured by the great franchises, liberties, and privileges granted them there, run in troops at all times of the year, even from Germany, Italy, particularly from Florence, Lucca, Venice, and Genoa, with gold, silver, and silk stuffs, spices, and other rich goods of their country, or of the Levant, taking in exchange, cloths, leather, and other commodities of Champagne and Brie, or brought thither from other parts of France.

In this flourishing state were these fairs, when the two counties were united to the French crown, in 1284, which, however, was so far from adding new lustre to them, as might have been expected, that they lost their antient reputation in about 40 years time, and dealers, especially foreigners, ceased to frequent them, finding little security, and new charges and impositions. To recover their former repute, Philip de Valois granted letters patent, in 1349, confirming their antient franchises, and suppressing the new impositions, which had the desired success; and it is by their model that all his successors, down to Lewis XV, had governed themselves in this matter.

Those letters have 36 articles, the most essential of which, as ranged in five classes, are as follow.

The franchises.

All foreign dealers, their factors, &c. have free liberty, under the royal protection, to resort to these fairs with their goods, provided, however, that they be designed for them, to be there sold or exchanged, or to return with them, on failure of such sale, within the appointed time.

They are exempted from all dues, impositions, &c. according to the good and antient usages, customs, and liberties of the said fairs.

No favours, or letters of respite, may be granted against the said dealers, or the customs and liberties of the said fairs, all such, if obtained, being null.

No dealers resorting to, or returning from them, shall be stopped or molested, without special warrant from the wardens of the conservation, and for obligations made truly and really in the fair.

Wardens of the privileges.

Judges appointed during the fair are so called; they are to see the franchises preserved, and take cognizance of contests that may arise between traders. Every fair is to have two wardens, one chancellor, who keeps the seal, and two lieutenants, 40 notaries, and 100 serjeants.

The wardens and chancellors are sworn in the chamber of accounts in Paris, where they are yearly to make their report of the state of the fairs.

No judgment may be given in the fair time but by the two wardens together, or by the warden present, and the chancellor.

The time that goods must be in the fair to have the franchise The drapers and traders of the 17 cities of Champagne and Brie, that are to frequent the fairs, that is to say, those of cities in which one of these 17 fairs are held, may not sell their cloaths, or other stuffs, wholesale or retail, within or without the kingdom, on pain of forfeiture, unless first sent to one of the said fairs, and exposed to sale from the first day of the cloths to the sixth following; they being, however, at liberty to dispose of them as they please, if not sold in that time.

Horse-dealers, both subjects and foreigners, must have their stables in the said fairs, from the third day of the cloths till the fair ends.

Farmers, carriers, &c. must bring their leather to the fair, and expose it all together from the first of the three days,

without reserving any for the last days, or selling in any other place than what is designed for the sale of leather. In like manner all other wares brought into the fair are to remain on sale, some six days, others three days only, according to their nature and quality.

INSPECTIONS.

These are of two kinds, one by the wardens conservators, and the other by examiners, chosen out of the trading companies that frequent fairs.

The wardens inspection is at the opening of every fair, to see that the dealers have all suitable convenience and security. The inspectors are to be two good judges of the nature, quality, and goodness of all commodities brought, and to stop and seize what are not good, but not without advice of six, five, or four experienced persons in the said trades.

The police of exchanges, bonds, and payments, made at fairs.

All tradesmen, both French and foreigners, may agree in their contracts for payment of goods sold in the fair, to be paid in gold and silver, current at the time of making the contract, notwithstanding any ordinance concerning money to the contrary.

None, unless he hath actual residence in fairs, may use the seal, or other obligations, or enjoy the privileges of them.

All letters, acts, contracts, &c. relating to fairs, are null, unless they are under the authenticated seal of the said fairs.

Interest for loans, and goods sold on credit in fairs, may not exceed fifteen livres per cent.

The interest may not be added to the principal in renewing bonds made at fairs. Nor may bonds, made at any other time, run in the file of those at fairs, as if made there.

Though, as already observed, these fairs were as a rule in the establishment of all others since, yet it has not been always followed without some deviation, according as the times, place, and circumstances required, as may be noticed in what we shall say of the principal fairs at present in France.

The fair of St Lawrence.

This fair, so called from it's situation near St Lawrence's church, is so very antient, that we know not it's origin. 'Tis held in a place walled in, one part of which is uncovered; the other is formed into fine and large streets, with shops on both sides, well built and covered. 'Tis chiefly frequented by the goldsmiths and mercers, painters, sempstresses, lemonade-sellers, toymen, earthenware people, gingerbread bakers, &c.

They come to it also from Amiens, Beauvais, Rheims, and other places of Picardy and Champagne, with slight stuffs made here, both plain and striped, and camblets of all sorts. Formerly it was held only one day, but at present it lasts two months; beginning the day after St James's day, and ending at Michaelmas. 'Tis proclaimed by found of trumpet, as that of St Germain.

The fair of St Germain.

This fair is opened the day after Candlemas-day. 'Tis greatly frequented by traders from Amiens, Beaumont, Rheims, Orleans, and Nugent, with various sorts of cloths and stuffs. The goldsmiths, jewellers, and toymen of Paris, have fine and well furnished shops in it.

Two inspectors are to be present at opening the bales of stuffs. There is also another inspection made by the masters and wardens of the drapery and mercery.

There come to this fair, as generally reckoned, one year with another, about 1400 bales of cloths and other woollen stuffs, of which the inspector of manufactures of the custom-house at Paris is to keep a particular register.

The halls under which the fair is held, are reckoned the finest piece of carpentry in the universe, drawing the admiration of all experienced architects, as well as carpenters. 'Tis divided into two different halls, which compose but one inclosure, and under the same cover nine streets in a line, cutting each other, and dividing it into 24 parts or isles. The shops have little rooms or storehouses over them, and behind some of them are yards with wells, in case of fire. The streets are distinguished by the names of the different trades, as the Goldsmiths-street, the Mercers-street, &c.

The fairs of Lyons.

Of these, one begins the first Monday after Low Sunday, the other the 4th of August, the third the 3d of November, and the fourth the first Monday after Easter.

'Tis meant of these four fairs of such note throughout all Europe, when 'tis said of bills of exchange, that they are payable at Lyons in the fairs.

The payments of the fair of the first Monday after Easter, are on the first of March: of that on the Monday after Low Sunday, are on the first of June: those of that on the 4th of August, are made on the first of September, and the other on the first of December.

The opening of every payment is with ceremony, for the magistrate comes to the lodge of the exchange, accompanied

with his register and six syndics, viz. two French, two Italians, and two Swifs, or Germans; and there, after a short discourse to the assistants, recommending probity in trade, and observance of the laws, customs, and usages of the place, the laws, customs, and usages are read, and the clerk draws up a verbal process of the opening of the payment.

The next day they meet at the city-hall, and by plurality of voices settle the course of exchange for all cities, with which Lyons hath any commercial correspondence.

This regulation, indeed, is but mere form, almost all the commerce in bills and money being regulated by usages contrary to those established there. But, on any dispute, recourse may be had to them.

The present franchises of these fairs, with respect to exemption from duties, are, that all goods intended for foreign countries, sent out of the city, during the fifteen days of either of these fairs, pay no customs outwards, provided the bales and parcels be marked with the city arms, and have certificates of franchise properly made out. To enjoy this privilege, the merchandizes must be sent out of the kingdom before the first day of the following fair, unless otherwise permitted.

The fairs of Rheims.

The continuance of these four free fairs is different, two of them holding eight days, the other two only three days. Their franchises, &c. are the very same with those of Champagne.

The fairs of Rouen.

The one is called Candlemas-fair, and begins the 3d of February; and the other called Pentecost-fair, opens the day after that festival; they both hold fifteen days.

Goods sold and exchanged at them, and carried out of Rouen during the fifteen days, pay but half dues outwards.

They are much frequented by foreigners, particularly the Dutch, English, and Scotch, and other northern nations; the advantageous situation of the city for trade contributing not a little to this concourse of foreign traders.

The fairs of Bourdeaux.

One begins the first of March, the other the fifteenth of October; they last fifteen days. The last is commonly the most considerable.

There are almost constantly in the port about a hundred foreign vessels; but, at the fair times, 'tis customary to see 4 or 500, and sometimes more, and some of them even upwards of 500 tons. For which, and the great quantities of wines and brandies sold at them, they are very famous, being inferior to no others in France.

They have the same privileges, &c. with those of Paris, Lyons, Brie, Champagne, and Poictou.

The judges consuls are, at these fairs, to perform the offices of conservators, with the same jurisdiction as those of Lyons.

The fairs of Troyes.

One of them is fixed to the Monday after the second Sunday in Lent, and the other to the first of September. Goods sold at them are exempted from all customs outwards, local dues excepted, under certain restrictions.

The fairs of St Dennis.

One of these two fairs held yearly at St Dennis, a little city of the isle of France, in the neighbourhood of Paris, is called the Landy. 'Tis the first of them, and begins the Monday after St Barnabas, and holds fifteen days. The other begins the fair after St Dennis's day in October, and holds but eight days. They have both the same franchises and privileges with that of St Germain. The chief trade at them is in cloths and woollen and silk stuffs, brought from several provinces, chiefly Champagne, Picardy, Poictou, &c.

All goods brought into the fair are subject to two inspections; the one gratuitous, by the inspectors; the other, with payment of dues, more or less, according to the quality of the stuffs. 'Tis by the masters and wardens of the drapers and mercers company of Paris, the dues are settled at the rate of 20, 10, 5, or 3 sols the piece.

The fair of Caen.

This fair is very famous, and scarce inferior to that of Guibray.

It begins the day after Low Sunday, and holds fifteen days; of which the first eight days are called the great week, the others the lesser; because formerly the franchise lasted only the first eight, and because the concourse of traders was greater, which last continues still, but not the distinction of franchises.

This fair is not only considerable for the quantities of all sorts of merchandizes, particularly woollen manufactures, but for the number of cattle and horses brought to it from Normandy and the neighbouring provinces.

The fair of Dieppe.

'Tis a free fair, established by letters patent in October 1696, and was opened for the first time on the 11th of December the same

same year. It holds fifteen days. Its franchises and privileges are, that all goods brought into the port of Dieppe, during the fair, and there sold or bartered, are exempt from one moiety of duties inward and outward. While the fair lasts, foreign merchandizes that have been imported and not sold, may be carried out free of customs. All foreigners may dispose of their effects brought during the fair. Goods, declared to be for the fair, may not be seized while it lasts. Nor are they liable to inspection by the wardens.

The fair of Toulon.

This fair begins the third of November, and holds fifteen working days. Its franchises granted in 1708 are, that no goods, whilst it lasts, are subject to any duties; and all traders, both French and foreigners, enjoy the franchises and liberties granted to the fairs of Lyons, Brie, Champagne, Rouen, and other cities. These franchises, however, have certain provisional modifications, obtained by the farmers-general in 1709.

The inspectors of fairs in France.

They are to attend at all considerable fairs, where there's any great trade, in stuffs and other woollen goods, to inspect and mark them; and to seize them if deficient, and not conformable to the regulations by authority. But this examination must be with great circumspection and reserve, at hours most convenient to buyers and sellers. They are to be accompanied, in the performance of their office, by the judge of the police of manufactures, and the wardens and jurats of the places.

Some free fairs have their own judge, and particular jurisdiction.

There are several things to be observed by wholesale men, who resort to, or send their agents to fairs, in order to trade successfully, it having its difficulties as well as its advantages. They should not engage in this trade unless they have a partner, or at least some safe person, with whom they can intrust the bulk of their affairs in their absence.

They should know what goods are proper, and if they will answer the expences of carriage, &c.

They must be careful not to carry goods, of which there are considerable manufactures in or near the places where the fairs are held.

They are to sell for more or less, according to the times of payment; and allowance is to be made, in regard that the dealers of provinces, who buy at fairs, are not so punctual in their payments, as those of great trading cities.

The invoice must be made before the goods are packed; and if several bales, they must be made separately, and the bales carefully marked and numbered.

They must be careful to keep a particular diary of the fairs, wherein to write down all the goods sold or bought during the fair; and afterwards, when returned home, they must enter methodically into the journal of their trade.

They must not omit to take promissory notes or bills of the traders with whom they deal, payable at the following fair, or some other time agreed on, to avoid contests about payments.

They are not to be dismayed, if a commodity, proper for a fair, has neither been asked for nor sold; but to carry it again the next year, when it will probably sell to good advantage.

Beast and horse fairs, &c.

Those held at Chenerrailles, a greet town of Auvergne, are famous for their quantity of fat cattle, brought for the most part to Paris. They are on the first Tuesdays of every month.

There are three annual beast-fairs at Braisne le Comte, near Soissons; namely, on the 6th of May, the 14th of September, and the 14th of December. The greatest part of the cattle bought here comes to Paris also.

The fairs of Nangis and Crecy in Brie, on the 4th of July, and 29th of September, are likewise very considerable, and from which the graziers and butchers of the isle of France are usually supplied.

Though the fairs of Guibray and Caen are chiefly for the trade of linen and woollen goods, and the like, they are, notwithstanding, to be considered as two of the principal fairs of the kingdom for Norman horses. There are many other horse-fairs in different parts of Normandy.

At the fair of Fontenay in Poitou, are sold most of the horses bred in that province. 'Tis held on the 24th of June, and is one of the most noted in the kingdom for that traffic.

At Nogent on the Seine, is a considerable horse fair, the 11th of August.

The fair at Niort, on the 1st of December, is properly for foals.

Montely is a fair chiefly for cows, great numbers of which are bought up by the farmers and peasants about Paris, and all the isle of France. 'Tis held the 9th of September in an open field.

There are also, in several of the villages about Paris, fairs for pigs.

Besides all which, there are innumerable others of lesser note, nor worth particular mention.

The fairs of Germany.

The most noted of these are at Frankfort, Leipzig, and Naumbourg, not only on account of the great trade, but the vast concourse of princes of the empire, nobility, and people, who come to them from all parts of Germany, to partake of the diversions to be had.

Frankfort on the Maine,

Has two fairs yearly, one in the spring, the other in autumn. The first, which is also called Easter, or Midlent fair, begins the Sunday before Palm Sunday: the opening of the September fair is not fixed. They are declared by found of bell, and hold three weeks.

These fairs, so noted for the sale of all sorts of goods, and a great number of fine horses, are still more so for the quantity of all sorts of books, chiefly from Holland, Germany, and Geneva.

'Tis a long time since the monnoie de change, or imaginary money, has been abolished, and they use now only current money: that which was formerly effective, is insensibly become imaginary.

To avoid the monopoly that several bankers practised on the eves of the fairs, in gathering the current effective, to raise the price above the currency to the loss of private persons, the magistrate has wisely regulated without abolishing it.

When a person draws on the fairs, it must not be omitted to explain whether it be in currency or in money, for the current is worth about 5 per cent. more than the money.

Formerly all bills of exchange were payable the second week, but at present many are payable the third week, which is the time of paying assignations, but it must be mentioned; every bill on the fair, without such clause, being accounted payable the second week of the fair.

Payments are made by transfer of the parties on the exchange, as is practised at Lyons, and other cities of change.

LEIPSIK.

Its fairs are in no less repute than those of Frankfort, if not more. There are three in the year. One the first of January, the other three weeks after Easter, and the third after Michaelmas, and continue each of them fourteen days.

The opening of these fairs is published on the first day, and the breaking them up on the last, so that the twelve intermediate days are properly the fair time, in which business is transacted. The acceptance of bills of exchange, payable in the fairs, is usually the twelfth day after their opening: however, those on whom they are drawn, may defer the acceptance to the week of payment.

The time of payment does not begin 'till after the publication of the close of the fair, and continues to the 5th day following inclusive; during which time, if not paid, they are to be protested.

The protest for non-acceptance may be made before the week of payments; but the bearer of a bill is not obliged to it for his surety, nor even to return the protested bill before the end of the fair, there being often bankers and merchants who will accept and pay them.

Bills may be protested for non-payment 'till ten in the evening of the last day of payments, but not later.

The traders and bankers seldom return their protested bills 'till three days after the five days of payment, in hopes of finding some to honour them; but, if not paid in that time, they must be returned to the drawer, with the protests, by the first post, after the week of payments.

The fair of Naumbourg, though very considerable, is more commonly called a market. 'Tis opened the 29th of June, and holds eight days. The negotiations, with respect to exchanges and protests, are much the same as those at Leipzig fairs.

The acceptance of bills is on the first and second day of the market, and are payable there the 3d of July at furthest, or else protested; but they are seldom returned with the protest before the 5th.

Zurzack in Smitzerland is of note for its two fairs, one of which begins two days after Pentecost, and the other the 1st of September. The Dutch, especially from Amsterdam, drive a great trade at it, both as to what they carry and bring away; which last are all sorts of silks and stuffs made in Switzerland, for which they carry painted cloths, muslins, cottons, drugs, woollen cloths and stuffs, tea, chocolate, coffee, spices, drugs for dyers, &c.

All the different sorts of money made or current in Switzerland, are also here, so that, to prevent disputes about buying and selling, traders agree in what specie they chuse to pay or be paid.

The fairs of Novi.

Novi is a little city in the Milanese, and has four annual fairs; the first of which begins the 1st of February, the second on the 2d of May, the third on the 1st of August, and fourth on the 2d of November. Though there resorts here

no small concourse of trademen with all sorts of commodities, yet 'tis not that which renders them so considerable, as that the most eminent bankers and merchants, from Lyons, Italy, and some other more remote parts, meet here to settle their affairs and ballance accounts, chiefly in matters of bank and exchange.

Each of these fairs lasts usually eight days, but they are often prolonged one, and sometimes two days more, on remonstrances of the merchants and bankers to the magistrates, that they have not had sufficient time to settle their accounts and affairs.

As this fair is very different from others, being principally for regulating payments four times a year, it might properly be called the transfer, or meeting fair; for, of the many millions there negotiated in a year, there's not above 100,000 crowns paid in specie.

The bankers of Genoa, and the principal cities of Italy, and even of France, Spain, and the Low Countries, used to send some one to this fair with a procuration, if they could not go themselves, with their ballance-account of what they had to pay and receive.

At present this fair is not the only one of the kind, those of Lyons, Bolzano, and many others, imitate it; and, by their payments, the merchants have brought such credit to their fair, as hath diminished that of Novi; which, though very considerable, is frequented by few but Genoese.

This fair hath it's judges to decide all matters, both civil and criminal. If disputes arise between merchants of different nations, one of the same nation is chose to decide it, in conjunction with the judges.

The fair of Sinigaglia, a little city in the duchy of Urbino, on the west coast of the Venetian Gulph, is held in August, and is famous for the great resort of traders to it from all parts of Italy and the neighbouring states, especially the Venetians.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, hath two fairs, one in May, the other in September, very much frequented by English, French, Dutch, &c.

The properest time for the Riga trade is the fair time, but 'tis somewhat inconvenient to foreigners, who cannot deliver their vessels, nor hire warehouses in the city, 'till the burghers have made their purchases, and taken what they think fit of the goods imported.

These fairs are not so famous as they have been.

At Rama in the Holy Land is a weekly fair, to which the Arabians bring great quantities of goods, particularly galls, senna, and gum arabic.

The fairs of Porto Bello, La Vera Cruz, and the Havannah, are the most considerable in the Spanish West-Indies: the two first continue while the flota or galleons stay in their ports; and the other is opened at the arrival of the flota or galleons, according as either arrives first in their return to Europe: the Havannah being the place where they meet, before they make for the Streight of Bahama.

The principal fairs of ENGLAND:

1. Sturbridge fair, near Cambridge, beyond all comparison the greatest in Britain, and perhaps in the world.
2. Bristol, two fairs, very near as great as that of Sturbridge.
3. Exeter.
4. West Chester.
5. Edinburgh.

Also several marts, as

}	Lynn.
	Boston.
	Beverly.
	Gainsborough.
	Howden, &c.

6. Weyhill fair } for sheep.
 7. Burford, fair, }
 8. Pancrafs fair in Staffordshire, for saddle horses.
 9. Bartholomew fair at London, for lean and Welsh black cattle.
 10. St Faith's in Norfolk, for Scots runts.
 11. Yarmouth fishing fair for herrings, the only fishing fair in Great Britain, or that I have heard of in the world, except the fishing for pearl oysters, near Ceylon in the East-Indies.
 12. Ipswich butter fair.
 13. Woodborough-Hill near Blandford in Dorsetshire, famous for west country manufactures, Devonshire kerseys, Wiltshire druggets, &c.
 14. Two cheese fairs at Atherston and Chipping Norton.
- With innumerable other fairs, besides weekly markets for all sorts of goods, as well our own as of foreign growth.

Some of the principal laws of England, relating to FAIRS and MARKETS.

Fairs kept longer than they ought, to be seized by the king's hand, and proclamation to be made how long fairs are to continue. 2 E. III. c. 15.

Merchants not to sell wares after the fair is ended, on pain of forfeiting double value. 5 E. III. c. 5.

In the court of Piepowder, oath to be made, that the matter of the declaration was done within the jurisdiction and time of the fair. 17 E. IV. c. 2.

3 H. VII. c. 9. This statute authorises citizens of London to carry their wares to fairs and markets out of the city.

Owners of fairs or markets, to appoint toll-takers or booth-keepers, on pain of 40 s. And they to give account of horses sold, &c. under the like penalty. 2 and 3 P. and M. c. 7.

Sellers of horses to procure vouchers of the sale of the horse to them, and, for every false voucher, shall forfeit 5 l. The names of the buyer, seller, and voucher, and price of the horse, to be entered in the toll-taker's book, and a note thereof delivered to the buyer. A horse stolen may be redeemed by the owner, in six months, repaying the buyer, &c. 31 E. c. 12.

R E M A R K.

The origin of trading fairs was to facilitate the buying and selling of merchandizes, in the inland parts of trading countries; and, while the fairs in Great-Britain were duly attended, by the eminent trademen from the metropolis, and other chief trading cities, shop-keepers resident in the interior countries were more cheaply supplied with merchandizes, and could afford to sell their own at a much cheaper rate than they have been able to do, since the custom of riders has been introduced among the country shop-keepers; for this custom has been instrumental to lay a voluntary kind of additional taxation upon our own commodities.

F A R M I N G, the art of cultivating land, and breeding of cattle. See AGRICULTURE.

In the examining, purchasing, or farming of lands, there are two things chiefly to be considered, the wholsomeness of the air, and the fruitfulness of the place. Next to which must be observed, the roads, water, and neighbourhood; the former is beneficial with regard to the great article of carriage, water with respect to fertility, and the other with regard to the sale of the productions of the land. Besides these considerations, the farmer should never possess more land than he is well able to manage, both by his purse and his person. The antients applaud spacious tracts of land, but recommend the well cultivation of small ones; for land of a large extent, not duly cultivated, will yield less than that of a narrow extent, managed to the best advantage.

To make a right judgment of the nature and quality of soils, see the articles CHEMISTRY, EARTH, MANURE, and such other heads as we shall from these refer to; where are shewn the experimental methods of improving soils, suitable to the productions intended to be cultivated; whence it should seem to appear, that the farmer ought not to be a person so meanly bred as the generality are; for although such who undertake this employment, are commonly bred and cut out for labour chiefly, yet the mere working parts seem to be the meanest qualification in this business: his head may be of more benefit to him in an hour, than his hands in a twelvemonth. Nor do I see any reason, why the art of farming should not be as rationally and experimentally taught as any other, since it so greatly conduces to the sustenance of mankind in general. Vegetation is an extensive field of study; and, though much has been writ upon the subject, yet no body has yet reduced the improvements that have been already made therein to any thing of a system, so as to lead either the gentleman or the practical farmer into a regular knowledge of the art.

Nor can we be of opinion, that this art is yet brought to it's ultimate perfection in this, or any other country; we are rather inclined to believe, that there is far more to be discovered than has been, even with regard to the point of vegetation only; and, in relation to that part which comprehends the breeding of different sorts of cattle, we seem to be far short of the knowledge requisite.

One who is qualified to direct every branch of the business of farming, will, with a moderate quantity of land, find sufficient employment, without using the spade, or attending the plough himself; the consideration of making every inch of land turn to the most beneficial account, and giving such attendance on his servants, that they duly execute his orders, will engross the whole of his time.

Besides these, there are divers other particulars, though less beneficial, which should by no means be slighted by the industrious and skilful farmer: such as the management of bees to the best advantage, the making of cyder, the breeding of ducks, geese, and poultry, &c. and the producing and rearing whatever else he can do at the least expence and the most advantage, according to the nature and situation of his land, and the extent of his judgment and his cash.

However the mere practical farmer, who jogs on in the beaten track of husbandry only, may be esteemed the most knowing and skilful in his business, and however the ordinary

nary practice therein may be presumed to govern the theory, yet that is certainly a very indifferent guide towards the establishing a true one; because the practice of this class in general, as well as most other mere practical people, is governed more by custom from father to son, and from master to servant, than from any certain judgment in the operations of the laws of nature. Nor are such who are too much hurried in their way of business to give daily bread to their families, qualified to dive so far into nature, as to make any extraordinary improvements in their profession. And indeed the art of farming being the art of nursing nature according to her own laws, 'tis requisite the rational farmer should be first well acquainted with these laws, which will render him a better nurse to nature, than he could be without such knowledge.

To arrive at such knowledge, it must be granted, wholly depends upon experimental knowledge; and the knowledge of the ordinary practical farmer, who daily watches his fields and his cattle, and makes his general observations upon the seasons, and the weather, &c. is the best foundation to improve upon; for he that is unacquainted with the progress already made in this art, cannot be presumed to make any further advancement therein.

In some arts perhaps it may be more eligible at once to relinquish the antiquated paths, and to strike out new ones; but the intelligent farmer should not venture upon a new road, 'till he is well instructed in the old.

This art having nature to deal with in its living and animated state, requires different treatment, and different talents from those which have only the dead and lifeless matters to work upon, as the objects of their labour and dexterity; for nature herein is to be strictly studied, humoured and obeyed; in other things, if she is only faintly mimicked, it may answer the end of the artizan.

To arrive at the thorough knowledge of all that has been discovered by the practical farmer in the divers parts of business which come under that denomination, is no easy task: it is not acquired by residing within the smoke of his own farm, or that of his parish, or of his county; he should be skilled in the methods of culture and husbandry practised in divers counties. To obtain a just notion whereof, he should not only see with his own eyes, but he should compare notes with his brethren, be communicative in what he may know, in order to gain a knowledge of what others may be acquainted with: in a word, he should not only attentively survey the practice and improvements of others, both in his own and in distant counties; and not only converse with the living, but with the dead: I mean he should read, as well as view the works of others, and should never cease to experimentalize.

We would by no means recommend to the farmer to turn book-worm, and to thumb over the many musty volumes that have been scribbled upon the subject of husbandry; nor would we put him upon the expensive trials of every whimsical experiment that has been broached.—This would prove detrimental, instead of otherwise, to the farmer.—But 'tis as requisite, methinks, that the farmer should be able to read some of the best things wrote upon the subject of husbandry, as to repeat the liturgy, or sing psalms in his country church. The interest of the land proprietor being connected with that of the farmer, and the gentleman having more leisure, fortune, and a better education, for the making of experimental improvements in husbandry and agriculture in general; it should seem to be not less for the advantage of the gentleman than the farmer, for the former to be able to communicate such knowledge to a tenant, as may render him prosperous; for it is not always industry alone, that will enable the farmer to pay his rent; the want of skill to improve land to the pitch it will admit of, is, perhaps, as often the cause of his ill success, as an unkindly season, or pestilence among his cattle.

Nor is there less benevolence than policy herein; for what can give a humane and generous mind more joy, than to render all happy and prosperous that subsist under him? And to what better account can a gentleman's education tend, than to the due improvement of his own estate?

Whoever considers the way of life of the farmer from the cradle to his grave, needs little to convince him how unlikely the generality of such are to cultivate lands to the best advantage. However self-will the honest farmer may think himself, yet 'tis to be feared, that want of knowledge is as often the cause of his poverty as want of money: and when this is the case, how happy would it be for these useful and industrious subjects to receive admonition from their landlords, how to improve their farms to the best advantage? Would it tend less to the glory and honour of the British gentry to supply their tenants with knowledge, than to shew them tenderness, and even lend them money to exert their industry to the utmost!

Without any compliment to our country, it may with great truth be said, that no nation in Europe has produced wiser or more learned men in general, than Great-Britain. The knowledge of the Antients was certainly very great, far greater, perhaps, than the most learned antiquaries have

been able to trace: and 'till within the last century or two, the world seems to have reaped little benefit, by standing upon their shoulders. But since the Europeans have happily fell upon the experimental study of physics, and joined thereto that of mathematics, it may be presumed, that the Moderns upon the whole are not behind, if they have not yet surpassed the Antients in arts and sciences, notwithstanding what the learned Sir William Temple insinuates to the contrary, in his excellent essay upon the antient and modern learning. It has indeed been the opinion of many very learned men, that the Antients had infinitely more knowledge in physics than the Moderns, but that they concealed it under the veil of hieroglyphic and mythology. True it is, that they seem to convey far more in this their mode of writing, than is generally understood; and yet, probably, really meant far less than what many have extravagantly imagined. However,

The method taken by the Moderns for the advancement of natural knowledge, seems far more generous, for they make mysteries of nothing: on the contrary, they have established societies in various parts of Europe for its general cultivation; and, unreservedly, not only communicate their discoveries to each other, but to the world in general.

And as the pursuits of these truly learned societies have been productive of such real good to mankind in general, and thereby cultivated the noble arts of commerce, to a degree infinitely beyond what they ever were in the world before: and as commerce tends to knit and cement the whole human species, by the ties of interest and civility; that knowledge which promotes it cannot be too much cultivated, nor can the gentry of this nation reap less honour and glory, and interest thereby, than from any other pursuits. The victories which make the greatest part of history, and attract admiration the most, have little other effect than the defolation of countries, the destruction of cities, and the slaughter of our own species. These boasted heroes of antiquity, have they made a single man the better? have they made numbers happy? If they have sometimes founded estates and empires, how dearly have they made their contemporaries pay for it, by the rivers of blood they have shed? Of what utility to us are a Nimrod, Cyrus, or an Alexander? All these princes and conquerors, with all their magnificence and boundless projects, are returned into nothing with regard to us; they are dispersed like vapours, and vanished like phantoms.

But the discoverers of useful arts for the benefit of general commerce labour for all ages. We still enjoy the fruits of their application and industry. They have procured for us all the conveniences of life. They have converted all nature to our use. They have taught us to extract from the bowels of the earth, and even from the depths of the sea, the most precious riches; they have opened to us the treasures of all the sciences, and guided us to knowledge the most useful and worthy of our nature.

We do not enough consider the obligations we are under to those experimental philosophers, who made the first essays in arts, and applied themselves in these important, but elaborate researches. Are we not indebted to their labour and ingenuity, that we are commodiously housed, that we are clothed, that we have cities and temples? Is it not by their aid that our hands cultivate the land, and that materials for numberless productions are obtained, for the unspeakable utility, comfort and ornament of human life? Have all the conquerors together done any thing that can be imagined parallel with such services? All our admiration turns generally on the side of these heroes of blood, whilst we scarce take notice of what we owe to those improvers of commercial science.

The land of a kingdom is the great parent of every thing for the use, the convenience, and delight of mankind. Is it not therefore of the last importance that it should be employed to the best advantage? Is not this much more useful than to extend its limits?

One reason of the small produce of the land is, because agriculture is not looked upon as an art that requires study, reflection, and rules: every one abandons himself to his own taste and method, whilst no body thinks of making a serious scrutiny into them, of trying experiments, and of uniting precepts with experience. The Antients did not think in this manner. They judged three things necessary to success in agriculture. The will: this employment should be loved, desired, and delighted in, and followed, in consequence, out of pleasure. The power: it is requisite to be in a condition to make the necessary expences for the breeding and fattening of cattle and fowl of all sorts, for labour, and for whatever is necessary to the manuring and improving of lands; and this is what most of our husbandmen want. The skill: it is necessary to have studied maturely all that relates to the cultivation of lands, without which the two first things are not only ineffectual, but occasion great losses to the master of a family, who has the affliction to see that the produce of the lands is far from answering the expences he has been at, or the hopes he had conceived from them; because those expences have been laid out without discretion, and without knowledge of the application of them. To these three heads

a fourth may be added, which the antients had not forgot; that is, experience, which prevails in all arts, is infinitely above precepts, and makes even the faults we have committed our advantage: for from doing wrong, we often learn to do right. Agriculture was in quite different esteem with the antients, to what it is with us: which is evident from the multitude and quality of the writers upon this subject. Varro cites to the number of fifty among the Greeks only. He wrote upon it also himself, and Columella after him. The three Latin authors, Cato, Varro, and Columella, entered into a wonderful detail upon all the parts of agriculture. Would it be an ungrateful and barren employment to compare their opinions and reflections with the modern practice? Columella, who lived in the time of Tiberius, deploras, in a very warm and eloquent manner, the general contempt into which agriculture was fallen in his time, and the persuasion men were under, that to succeed in it, there was no occasion for a master. 'I see at Rome, said he, the school of philosophers, rhetoricians, geometricians, musicians, and what is more astonishing, of people solely employed, some in preparing dishes proper to pique the appetite, and excite gluttony, and others to adorn the head with artificial curls, but not one for agriculture. However, the rest might be well spared; and the republic flourished long without any of those frivolous arts; but it is not possible to want that of husbandry, because life depends upon it. Besides, is there a more honest or legal means of preserving or increasing a patrimony? Is the profession of arms of this kind, and the acquisition of spoils, always dyed with human blood, and amassd by the ruin of an infinity of persons? Or is commerce so, which, tearing citizens away from their native country, exposes them to the fury of the winds and seas, and drags them into unknown worlds in pursuit of riches? Or is the trade of money and usury more laudable, odious and fatal as they are, even to those they seem to relieve? Can any one compare any of these methods with wise and innocent agriculture, which only the depravity of our manners can render contemptible, and by a necessary consequence, almost barren and useless? Many people imagine, that the sterility of our lands, which are much less fertile now than in times past, proceeds from the intemperance of the air, the inclemency of seasons, or from the alteration of the lands themselves, that, weakened and exhausted by long and continued labour, are no longer capable of producing their fruits with the same vigour and abundance. This is a mistake, says Columella: we ought not to imagine that the earth, to whom the author of nature has communicated a perpetual fecundity, is liable to barrenness, as to a kind of disease. After it's having received from it's master a divine and immortal youth, which has occasioned it's being called the common mother of all things, because it always has brought forth, and ever will bring forth from it's womb, whatever subsists, it is not to be feared that it will fall into decay and old age, like man. It is neither to the badness, nor to length of time, that the barrenness of our lands is to be imputed; but solely to our own fault and neglect: we should blame only ourselves, who abandon those estates to our slaves, which, in the days of our ancestors, were cultivated by the most noble and illustrious.'

This reflection of Columella's seems very solid, and is confirmed by experience. The land of Canaan (and as much may be said of other countries) was very fertile at the time the people of God took possession of it, and had been seven years inhabited by the Canaanites. From thence to the Babylonish captivity was almost a thousand years. In the latter days, there is no mention of it's being exhausted, or worn out by time, without speaking of after-ages. If, therefore, it has been almost entirely barren during a long course of years, as it is said, we ought to conclude, with Columella, that it is not from it's being exhausted, or grown old, but because it is desert and neglected; and we ought also to conclude, that the fertility of some countries, of which so much is said in history, arises from the particular attention of the inhabitants in tilling the land, in cultivating the vines, and breeding of cattle. See the History of the arts and sciences of the Antients, by Mr Rollin.

And here it may not be improper to take notice, in consequence of what has been said; of what the learned bishop Sprat has observed, when he says, 'That it would be no hindrance to the minds of men, if, besides those courses of studies which are now followed, there were also trial made of some other more practical ways to prepare their minds for the world, and the business of human life. It is not enough to urge against this, that the multiplicity of methods would hinder and confound the spirits of young men; for it is apparent that nothing more suppresses the genius of learners than the formality and the confinement of the precepts by which they are instructed. To this purpose I will venture to propose to the consideration of wise men, whether this way of TEACHING BY PRACTICE AND EXPERIMENTS would not at least be as beneficial as the other by UNIVERSAL RULES; whether it were not as profitable to apply the eyes and the hands of children to

' see and to touch all the several kinds of sensible things, as to oblige them to learn and remember the difficult doctrines of general arts? In a word, whether a MECHANICAL EDUCATION would not excel the METHODOICAL? This certainly is no new device: for it was that which Plato intended when he enjoined his scholars to begin with geometry; whereby, without question, he designed that his disciples should first handle material things, and grow familiar to visible objects, before they entered on the retired speculations of other more abstracted sciences. According to this counsel of the father of philosophers, it would not be amiss, if, before young scholars be far engaged in the beaten tracks of the schools, the mysteries of manual arts*, the names of their instruments, the secrets of their operations, the effects of natural causes, the several kinds of beasts, of birds, of fishes, of plants, of stones, of minerals, of earths, of waters, and all their common virtues and qualities, were proposed to be the subjects of their first thoughts and observations.

* I have one thing more to add, says the learned Mr Locke, which, as soon as I mention, I shall run the danger of being suspected to have forgot what I am about, and what I have above written concerning education, all tending towards a gentleman's calling, with which a trade seems only inconsistent: and yet I cannot forbear to say, I would have him learn a trade, a manual trade; nay two or three, but one more particularly. The busy inclination of children being always to be directed to something that may be useful to them, the advantages proposed from what they are set about may be considered of two kinds; 1. Where the skill itself that is got by exercise is worth the having. Thus skill not only in languages and learned sciences, but in painting, turning, gardening, tempering and working in iron, and all other useful arts, is worth the having. 2. Where the exercise itself, without any consideration, is necessary or useful for health. Knowledge in some things is so necessary to be got by children, whilst they are young, that some part of their time is to be allotted to their improvement in them, though these employments contribute nothing at all to their health: such are reading and writing, and all other sedentary studies, for the cultivating of the mind, which unavoidably take up a great part of gentlemen's time, quite from their cradles. Other manual arts, which are both got and exercised by labour, do many of them, by that exercise, not only increase our dexterity and skill, but contribute to our health too, especially such as employ us in the open air. In these, then, health and improvement may be joined together; and of these should some fit ones be chosen, to be made the recreations of one whose chief business is with books and study. In this choice, the age and inclination of the person is to be considered, and constraint always to be avoided in bringing him to it: for command and force may often create, but can never cure an aversion; and whatever any one is brought to by compulsion, he will leave as soon as he can, and be little profited, and less recreated by, whilst he is at it. Locke's Works, vol. iii. fol. p. 90, 91.

It may be here suggested, that the vast number of such particulars will soon overwhelm their tender minds, before they are well established by time or use. But, on the contrary, it is evident, that the memories of youth are fitter to retain such sensible images than those of a fuller age. It is memory that has most vigour in children, and judgment in men: which, if rightly considered, will confirm what I said, that perhaps we take a preposterous course in education, by teaching general rules before particular things; and that therein we have not a sufficient regard to the different advantages of youth and manhood. We load the minds of children with doctrines and precepts, to apprehend which they are most unfit, by reason of the weakness of their understandings; whereas they might, with more profit, be exercised in the consideration of visible and sensible things; of whose impressions they are most capable, because of the strength of their memories, and the perfection of their senses.' So far the learned bishop.

Now what kind of practical and experimental education seems more naturally adapted to the minds of young persons of distinction, than such as have a tendency to the preservation and improvement of their landed estates? And what can be more pleasing and agreeable to the minds of youth, if engagingly represented to them, than gardening? When once they delight in this, what lengths may they be not brought to go in agriculture in general? When they were sensibly, at stated times, by way of diversion only, led into the due observance of these things, they would, as they grew up, take equal delight in musing upon whatever else might conduce to the improvement of their estates against they came to them. This would enable them either to become experienced gentlemen farmers themselves, or render them capable of so examining into the skill and experience of their farming tenants, as to know whether they deserved to be continued or not. Nay, these amusements would qualify them to instruct their tenants how to improve their estates to the best advantage.

What lord Bacon observes, in his *New Atlantis*, or Plan of a Philosophical Society, may deserve the attention of the landed gentlemen of this kingdom :

‘ We have many large orchards and gardens, says he, wherein we do not so much regard beauty, as variety of ground and soil, proper for different trees and plants. Some of these places are very extensive, and planted with vines, fruit-trees, and shrubs, that bear berries for making several kinds of drinks, besides wines. Here also we try experiments of grafting and inoculating, as well of wild trees as fruit trees ; which produce many effects *. Here likewise, by art, we make trees and flowers to come earlier or later than their seasons, and to shoot and bear abundantly out of their natural courses. By art we also render them larger, and their fruit bigger, sweeter, and more different in taste, smell, colour, and figure, than nature alone produces them ; and others we so order, that they become of singular medicinal use.

* See Bacon’s *Sylva Sylvarum*, under the articles *Vegetables* and *Vegetation*.

‘ We have also methods of making plants rise by mixtures of earths, without seeds ; and likewise of shaking new plants, differing from the vulgar, and of converting one plant into another *, &c.’ See the articles *AGRICULTURE*, *EARTH*, *CHEMISTRY*, *MANURE*, *HUSBANDRY*.

* Though gardening, and the subject of vegetation in general, has received considerable improvements of late, yet there seems to be wanting a skilful sagacity in this art, to direct the proper experiments both of light and profit. This sagacity might, in good measure, be learned from what we shall represent throughout this work.

F E E S of the custom-house ; wherein our importers and exporters are greatly interested.

T H E F E E S and **A L L O W A N C E S** due and payable to the officers of his majesty’s customs, in the port of London.

A N O R D E R of the house of commons in parliament assembled, establishing and appointing the said fees.

Whereas, in and by an act of this present parliament, intitled, *An act for confirming of public acts, an act therein, intitled, † A subsidy granted to the king of tonnage and poundage, and other sums of money payable upon merchandize, exported or imported, was confirmed ; by which act so confirmed, it is (amongst other things) enacted and ordained, that during the continuance of that grant, ‡ where the goods exported or imported amount to the value of five pounds, or more, the customers or collectors, and all other his majesty’s officers in the several ports, shall take and receive such fees (and none other) as were taken in the fourth year of the late king James, until such time as the said fees should be otherwise settled by act of parliament.

* 13 Car. II. cap. 7 † 12 Car. II. cap. 4.
‡ 12 Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

And whereas also, amongst the rules, orders, and directions annexed to the book of rates, (ratified and confirmed by the aforesaid act) it is ordered and directed, that, for the avoiding all oppressions, by any of the officers of the customs, in any port of this kingdom, in exacting unreasonable fees from the merchant, by reason of any entries, or otherwise touching the shipping or unshipping of any goods, wares, or merchandize, it is ordered, * that no officer, clerk, or other, belonging to any custom-house whatsoever, shall exact, require, or receive any other, or greater fee of any merchant, or other whatsoever, than such as are, or shall be established by the commons in parliament assembled. And if any officer, or other, shall offend contrary to this order, he shall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after incapable of any office in the custom-house.

* 24th rule, page 303.

In prosecution of which said several clauses, in the act and book of rates beforementioned, and for the settlement and certainty of all the aforesaid fees, for satisfaction, as well of merchants and others, as of the officers, what fees are to be paid and received, for any cause, matter, or thing whatsoever, for or concerning the import or exportation, shipping, landing, or entering of any ship’s goods, wares, or merchandizes, of what nature, or in what kind soever : it is ordered and declared, by the commons in parliament assembled, that the several and respective fees and allowances, mentioned in a schedule, or table of fees, relating to the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging (and none other) shall be paid to the officers and others employed, and to be employed, in and about his majesty’s customs, in the port aforesaid, and are by the authority aforesaid settled and confirmed.

And be it further ordered and declared, by the authority aforesaid, that the fees and allowances, hereby intended, are set down, mentioned, and expressed, in a schedule, or table of fees, intitled, *Fees and allowances due and payable to the officers of his majesty’s customs and subsidies, in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging,*

and subscribed with the hand of Sir Edward Turner, *knt.*, now speaker of the house of commons in parliament assembled ; and every particular clause, therein mentioned and contained, shall be and remain as effectual, to all intents and purposes, as if the same were included, and particularly expressed within the body of this order : and, in case any merchant, master of a ship, or other person or persons whatsoever, shall refuse to pay all, or any of the fees hereby ordered or intended, that, in such case, it shall and may be lawful, for all and every officer and officers, to make stay of every bill of entry, cocket, or other warrant, that shall be tendered or given in, for passing of any ship’s goods or merchandizes whatsoever, exceeding the value of five pounds in the book of rates, for which the fees shall be detained and denied to be paid as aforesaid.

And be it further ordered and ordained, that copies or transcripts of this order and table of fees shall be made and set up in public view, in the custom-house of London, and in all other offices or places where the said fees, or any of them, are to be paid or received.

F E E S and **A L L O W A N C E S** due and payable to the officers of his majesty’s customs and subsidies in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging, viz.

	Col- lector.	Comp- troller.	Survey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.
For the officers of the petty customs outwards.						
For a cloth cocket by English free- men of London	0 6	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a stranger’s cocket, or unfree- men	0 8	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
For a cloth certificate, by strangers or British, to pass according to the old rate	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a ship’s entry crossing the seas	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a ship’s entry to the Straights, Canaries, or Western Islands	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
For clearing of ships and examin- ing the books	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
For every indorsement	0 4					
For making a bond to the king’s majesty’s use	0 6					
For every entry in the certificate- book	0 2					

To the customer’s clerks.

More for a cloth cocket, or cer- tificate	0 6	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 2
For a ship’s entry crossing the seas	0 4					

Subsidy outwards.

	Col- lector.	Comp- troller.	Survey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.	Sur- vey- Gen- eral.
For every entry within the Levant, or beyond the Straights mouth	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
For every ship’s entry going to fo- reign ports	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every ship’s entry going to the out-ports	0 2	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1
For clearing of every ship passing to foreign ports, and examining the ship’s contents	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
For every English cocket by freemen	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every stranger’s cocket, or un- freeman of London	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
For making every certificate coc- ket, as well British as strangers, for goods which pay subsidy in- wards, and pay no subsidy out- wards	0 8	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For every certificate upon war- rants from his majesty or the Lord-treasurer, paying no duties	1 6	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8
For indorsement of all warrants and licences	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4	0 4
For a soaring bill, licensing such as bring in victuals, to carry out some beer as by store	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
Coast sufferances, to be given with- out fees						
For every coast cocket outwards, and entering in his majesty’s books, for a whole ship or ves- sel passing into the open seas	1 0	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 8
For a bond for the same	0 6	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
For discharging the same bond, and filing the certificate to the bond	0 0	0 4	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
For making every certificate of return	1 0	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 2

Col-

FEE

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For making, entering, and keeping an account of every debenture for repayment of half-subsidy, or other sums of money	1 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
For making and entering a transire, or let-pafs, from port to port in England, Wales, or Berwick	0 4 0	2 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
To the clerks.				
For a cocket by British, or others	0 4 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
For a ship's entry crossing the seas	0 4 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
To the clerk of the coast-cockets, for making a bill, or ticket, to the lord-mayor, or for corn, victuals, and other provisions	0 4 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0

Petty customs inwards.

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For every stranger's warrant	0 2 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
For taking every bond	0 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every bill at sight	1 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
For discharging every bond	0 0 0	6 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every great employment to employ the proceed of goods	0 0 0	6 1 0	6 1 0	0 0 0

Subsidy inwards.

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For every warrant by British freemen of London	0 4 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
For every warrant for strangers, or unfreemen	0 6 0	6 0 0	6 0 0	6 0 0
To the clerk, for making the shipper's entry	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For making a bond to his majesty's use	0 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every oath administered by the collector	0 2 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For a ship's entry with the particular contents, viz. from the East-Indies	2 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
—From the Streights	2 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
—From Spain, Portugal, and the West-Indies, or British plantations	2 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
—From Dunkirk or France	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
—From Flanders, Holland, Ireland, or any eastern or northern parts	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every ship or vessel less than 20 tons	0 8 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every stranger's ship's entry to pay double fees	0 8 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For every certificate of foreign goods imported, to be shipped out free of subsidy, 18d. which is understood 6d. for the searcher, although several ships, and 12d. for the certificate	1 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
If the goods be under the value of 20l. according to the book of rates, the merchant is to pay for the certificate, in all, but	0 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For examining and comparing every debenture with the original certificate	0 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For a certificate of foreign goods coming from any of the out-ports to London, or from any other port to a port within this nation.	0 6 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
For goods sent by sea by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports, from London	0 6 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
For casting up the sum, and keeping an account of every debenture, and paying the money	0 8 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0

For every bale, pack, chest, trufe, case, or other package, brought into the king's warehouse, to be allowed to the officer when the merchant is short entered about five shillings, to be paid to the proper officer, 2d.

FEE

Great customs.

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For a cocket of calve-skins	2 0 0	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For a coast-cocket outwards of wools, wool-fells, leather, skins, and hides	2 0 0	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For a bond for his majesty's use	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For filing the return	0 6 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For a return and discharge outwards	2 4 0	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
For the packer, for telling and packing every dacre of dressed calve-skins, allowing ten dozen to the dacre	0 0 0	0 0 6	0 0 0	0 0 0
For packing every dacre of undressed calve-skins, and telling	0 0 0	0 0 6	0 0 0	0 0 0

Fees concerning several officers, as well inwards as outwards, to be paid to the clerks.

	Collector.	Comptroller.	Surveyor.	Surveyor General.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
For every bill of portage	0 6 0	0 3 0	0 0 0	0 3 0
For a second or parcel cocket outwards	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 0	0 2 0

To the king's majesty's waiters, being in number eighteen.

Received in the custom-house above stairs

- For every British man's foreign goods or merchandizes, of what nature soever, paying custom or subsidy inwards in the port of London, or coming thither from any place or port by cocket
- For every stranger's foreign goods in like manner, paying custom or subsidy inwards in the same port, or coming thither by cocket
- For certifying every cocket of British goods brought up to London

Received at the water-side by the said king's waiters, and others attending, to be divided as formerly.

- For a bill of store, or portage, for any thing above ten shillings custom
- For a bill of sight, bill of sufferance, or any other imperfect warrant
- For wools, wool-fells, leather, hides, and prohibited goods, from the out-ports by cocket

Register of the king's majesty's warrants.

For every British warrant for the goods inwards	0 2 0
For every stranger's warrant	0 4 0
For every certificate foreign	0 4 0

For all goods not paying 20s. custom, whether in or out, there shall be but half fees taken, whether for warrants, cockets, transires, debentures, or certificates.

To the usher of the custom-house.

For every oath administered by the king's officers outwards	0 2 0
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Rules which may serve for the ports in general.

Whereas some societies and companies of merchants do trade in a joint-stock, and enter the whole lading and cargo of a ship inwards, in one single entry, when the adventurers therein concerned are many, the officers and waiters may take and receive such gratuity as the said company shall hereafter voluntarily consent to pay unto them; any thing in this order or table of fees, or any other act or provision to the contrary, notwithstanding.

All goods under the value of 5l. in the book of rates, paying subsidy the sum of 5s. or less, shall pass without payment of any fees.

No British merchant that shall have goods of his own, to be landed out of one ship or vessel at a time (although the receipt of the subsidy be distributed into several offices) shall be charged to pay any more or other fees than for a single entry.

Goods in partnership to pass as if the proprietors were a single person.

Fish by British, in British shipping, or vessels, inwards or outwards, or along the coast, to pay no fees.

Foreign coin and bullion, inwards, may be landed by any person, without warrant or fee.

Diamonds, precious stones, jewels, and pearls of all sorts, to pass inwards and outwards without warrant or fee.

* 6 Geo. II. cap. 7. § 1.

Post entries inwards to pass without fee, under five shillings; if above five shillings, and under forty shillings, then sixpence; but, if the custom to be paid exceed forty shillings, then it shall pay the full fees as was paid for the first warrant.

The merchants shall pay for all goods opening that shall be short entered above ten shillings custom.

F E E

The merchant shall pay for weighing of all goods that shall be short entered above twenty shillings custom. The merchant not to be at any charge, if duly entered. Whereas by an act of parliament, intituled, * An act for encouraging and increasing of shipping and navigation, there are granted unto the king's most excellent majesty sundry duties upon strangers vessels importing commodities not of their growth; and thereby it is ordered, That such shipping as pretend to enjoy the privilege of English shipping, must be manned accordingly; whereby there is a necessity of an officer to be employed every tide, downwards towards Gravesend, to visit all ships, whether they be manned according to the said act; as also to gauge † French ships, and to take an account of their tonnage, and to give certificates for making of foreign ships free, and taking bond for such as go to the plantations; for effecting of which business, the following fees are set and appointed by the authority aforesaid, to be paid as well in all out-ports, as in the port of London, and creeks thereunto belonging, viz.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9, 10, 17, 19.

† The duty of five shillings the ton, for which French ships were to be gauged, ceased by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce with France, concluded at Utrecht ^{31 March,} _{11 April,} } 1713.

	Col-lector.	Comp-troller.
	s. d.	s. d.
For gauging every French vessel, in lieu of the like Fee paid in France for gauging British vessels there, as long as they continue this duty	5 0	0 0
For making a certificate to make a foreign ship free, with sealing and registering the same	10 0	0 0
For a bond for ships going to the plantations	0 6	0 0
For every entry of French vessels, and for bills to charge the five shillings the ton on such vessel	0 6	0 6
For a certificate of payment of tonnage	0 6	0 0
For every entry of goods liable to duties by the act of navigation, which this collector receives	0 4	0 4

The fees of the chief-searcher, and of his majesty's five under-searchers in the port of London.

Duties between the chief-searcher and his majesty's five under-searchers that attend at London.

	s. d.
Spain, Portugal, the Streights, West-Indies, Guinea, or the Western Islands	6 0
East-India	10 0
All other British ships into foreign parts	4 0
For every stranger's ship or bottom	6 8

Duties of his majesty's five under-searchers that attend at London.

	s. d.
British and aliens	
For every certificate for shipping out goods formerly imported	2 0
But, if the half subsidy to be received back amounts but to 40s. then	1 0
Pipe, puncheon, or butt	0 4
Hoghead or bag	0 2
Tin, the block or barrel	0 1
cer-eager, wood of all forts, cop-peras, allum, and such gross goods, the ton	0 4
Corn the last, sea-coal the chalders, beer the ton	0 2
Lead, the fodder	0 2
The maund, fat, or pack	0 6
The bundle, bale, chest, or case	0 3
Raisins and figs, the 20 fraills, or barrels	0 3
Butter and such goods, the barrel	0 2
For every coast-certificate, or cocket	1 0
Transfires for the coast, free.	
For every horse, mare, or gelding	1 0
For certifying every debenture for receiving back half-subsidy, &c.	0 6
For every piece of ordnance	1 0
For the endorsement of every cocket	1 0
For every certificate out of their books of goods lost at sea, taken by the pirates, or returned, whereby so much may be shipped custom-free	1 0
For every bill of surference, or store, above 10s. in the book of rates	1 0
If under	0 6
The fardel, or trufs, by British, of three hundred weight, or upwards	0 6
Woollen cloth, the bale not exceeding five cloths, or three hundred weight	0 3
stuffs, bays or fays	

F E E

Merchants strangers, unfreemen of London, or such as ship on strangers ships or vessels } the fardel, } s. d.
 } or trufs } s. d.
 } the bale } 0 6

The fees of his majesty's two searchers at Gravesend.

	s. d.
For every ship that passeth over the seas for Spain, Portugal, the Streights, the West-Indies, Guinea, or the Western Islands	6 0
For every ship to the East-Indies	10 0
For all other ships into foreign parts	4 0
For every stranger's ship or bottom	8 0
For every ship having a coast-cocket	0 4
For passengers outwards, not being merchants or mariners	0 6

Signed by virtue of * an order of the house of commons, dated the 17th of May, 1662.

E. Turner.

* Confirmed and continued by 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. §. 1. and the other acts, which continue the branch of the customs and subsidy outwards.

Sabbati 17^o Maii, 14^o Caroli regis Secundi.

The general table of fees for the port of London, with the members and creeks thereunto belonging, being thus read, The question being put,

That, for all goods not paying one custom in or out, there shall be but half fees taken for all cockets, warrants, debentures, transfires, or certificates:

It was resolved in the affirmative.

Resolved upon the question,

That the said table of fees, as it was reported and read, with the alterations aforesaid, be agreed to, and that the same be engrossed, and that Mr Speaker is authorized to sign the same.

Will. Goldebrough,
Cler' Dom' Com'.

A breviate of the fees of his majesty's officers of the customs and subsidies in the port of London, reducing the particulars (as they are set in several paragraphs, under several titles) into totals, or intire sums, viz.

For the officers of the petty customs outwards.

	s. d.
For a cloth cocket by British freemen of London, paid to the principal officers and their clerks	2 6
For a stranger's cocket, or unfreeman	3 2
For a cloth certificate, by British or strangers	2 8
For a ship's entry crossing the seas	1 8
For a ship's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Western Islands	4 4
For clearing of ships, and examining the books	2 6
For every indorsement	0 4
For making a bond to the king's majesty's use	0 6
For every entry in the certificate-book	0 2

Subsidy outwards.

	s. d.
For every ship's entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth: to the officers and their clerk	4 4
For every ship's entry going to any other foreign parts	1 8
For every ship's entry going to the out-ports, and for a coast-cocket and bond	4 9
For clearing of every ship passing to foreign parts, and examining the ship's contents	2 6
For every British cocket by freemen	2 6
For every stranger's cocket, or unfreeman of London	3 4
For every certificate, cocket, &c.	2 6
For every certificate, upon warrant from his majesty, or the lord-treasurer, paying no duties	4 4
For endorsement of all warrants and licences	0 8
For a foaring-bill	2 0
For discharging a bond, and filing the certificate	0 4
For making a certificate of return	2 0
For a debenture for repayment of half subsidy, &c. to the principal officers two shillings, to the searchers six-pence, for the oath two-pence, examining four-pence, casting up and paying the money eight-pence: in all	3 8
For making and entering a certificate, or let pass	0 6
For a bill or ticket to the lord-mayor	0 4

Petty customs inwards.

	s. d.
For every stranger's warrant inwards; vide subsidy inwards.	
For taking every bond	0 6
For every bill at sight	2 0
For discharging every bond	0 6
For every great employment	2 6

Subsidy inwards.

	s. d.
For every warrant by British freemen of London: to the principal officers, the king's waiters and register	2 6
For every warrant for strangers	4 6
for unfreemen	3 2

F E Z

For every certificate of foreign goods coming from the out-ports to London - - - - - 3 2 4
 For goods sent by sea, by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports from London - - - - - 1 0
 All the rest of the fees under this title of subsidy inwards are single, and paid to particular persons. See the Table.

Great customs.

For a cocket for calve-skins: to the officers and packer 3 6
 For wools, wool-fells, skins, and hides - - - - - 3 0
 For a bond to his majesty's use - - - - - 1 0
 For filing the return - - - - - 0 6
 For return and discharge outwards - - - - - 3 4

Fees inwards and outwards concerning the clerks.

For every bill of portage - - - - - 1 0
 For a second, or parcel cocket outwards - - - - - 0 6
 The packer - - - - -

The king's waiters for the three first articles - - - - - } All these are reckoned together with the former entries.
 Register of the king's war-rants - - - - - }

All others fees in the table not herein before comprized (except only two concerning the act of navigation)

The fees of the chief searcher, and his majesty's five under-searchers at London, and two at Gravesend, are single, and do not admit of abbreviation - - - - - } See the table.

For all goods not paying twenty shillings custom, whether in or out, there shall be but half fees taken.

All goods under the value of five pounds in the book of rates shall pass without payment of any fees.

Coin and bullion inwards - - - - - } Pass without war-rant or fee.
 Precious stones, jewels, and pearls outwards - - - - - }

The merchants shall pay for all goods opening that shall be short entered above ten shillings custom.

The merchants shall pay for weighing all goods that shall be short entered above twenty shillings custom.

The merchants not to be at any charge, if duly entered.

F E Z, a kingdom in Africa, is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the west; the river Marbea divides it from Morocco on the south; and has the kingdom of Algair on the east. It is fruitful in all sorts grain, fruit, cattle, wax, and honey, and would be much more so, if duly cultivated; but such is their indolence, that a great part of it's rich lands lie barren and neglected. They have here some good mines of iron, but so ignorant how to manufacture it, that they only make nails, and other such coarse utensils of it.

This kingdom is divided into the seven provinces following, viz.

The province of **FEZ PROPER**, is parted on the west from that of Temesna by the river Sala; has the province of Asgar on the north; on the east it extends itself to the river Gnavan; and on the south to the province of Chauz. The soil is much the same with what we have said of the kingdom in general, only being a capital province, better cultivated, and more populous and rich than the rest. It produces plenty of corn, and other grain, and variety of fine fruits, as figs, olives, almonds, grapes, &c. flax, hemp, cotton, camels, horses, oxen, sheep, goats, deer, hare, and wild boars.

FEZ, the capital of the whole kingdom, is computed to have about 300,000 inhabitants; the houses as well as streets swarm with men of all professions, and with merchants of all sorts; this place being esteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and sent into the other provinces, to be exchanged for those of the country. The import commerce commonly consists in cocheneal, vermilion, spices, iron ware, brads, steel, drugs, watches, arms, ammunition, &c. English and other woollen and linen cloths and silk, muslins, and other cotton cloths, toys of all sorts, combs, variety of earthen ware, paper, quicksilver, tartar, opium, alum, gold wire, brocades, damasks, velvets, fustians, and coarse calicoes and linen, red woollen caps, and Guinea cowries. The goods exported are leather of several sorts, particularly the fine Marroquin, the manufacture of the country, skins, hides, wool, ostrich-feathers, copper, dates, almonds, figs, raisins, olives, wax, honey, horses, silks of their own manufacture, a sort of cotton and flax cloth of the same, terrafs, stone, variety of kali, or pot-ash for soap, gold ducats, &c. of all which the Jews, which are here above 5000, are the chief brokers, especially between the Christians and Mohammedans.

The province of **TEMESNA**. This is the most western part of the kingdom of Fez. It was once esteemed the finest spot in all Barbary, and is one continued fertile plain, which formerly had no less than forty cities or towns, very large and populous, but now scarce any footsteps of them are to be seen.

The province of **ASGAR**, is bounded on the north by the Me-

F I F

diterranean, on the west by the Atlantic ocean, on the east it extends to the mountains of Gomera, and on the south to the river Bunazor. The country is fruitful in corn and other grain, horses, flocks and herds, cotton, wool, butter, leather, and other such commodities, with which they supply the city of Fez, and the canton of Larache in great abundance.

LARACHE, one of it's principal towns, is situate on the Atlantic coast, at the mouth of a river of it's name. The most part of it's inhabitants are employed, either in gathering or spinning of cotton, which grows about the country in great quantities, or in making of charcoal. The town hath a pretty convenient harbour for small vessels.

ALCASSAR-QUIVER, near the river Licus, is well peopled with merchants and tradesmen.

There were several other considerable cities and towns in this province, which have been since destroyed by the wars, or gone to decay, because the inhabitants have been forced to abandon them.

The province of **HABAT** is one of the most northern in this kingdom, beginning on the west side at the morasses of Aggar, and extending eastward to the mountains of Errif and Gomera, on the north to the freight of Gibraltar, and on the south to the river Arguila. It is mostly plain and fertile, and watered by several rivers, which run from the mountains through it into the sea.

Most of the cities and towns in this province also are gone to decay.

The province of **ERRIF** is bounded on the east by the river Nacor, by the province of Habat on the west, by the Mediterranean on the north, and by the ridge of mountains that reaches the river Guarga on the south. The country is very full of mountains, some of them very high, steep, and rugged, yielding only some oats and barley, and a few olives on the north side, but on the south plenty of them, as well as grapes, almonds, figs, &c.

Among their many high mountains, that called Seucafen is reckoned one of the most delightful; 'tis fruitful and well inhabited, having abundance of neat little towns and villages, in which live several sorts of tradesmen.

The province of **GARET** is bounded on the east by the river Meluya, on the west by Errif, by the Mediterranean on the north, and on the south by a ridge of mountains, which divides it from the desert of Numidia. A great part of this province is rough, sandy, dry, and barren land, like the desert of Lybia; the very best part of it wanting several necessaries for the support of human life, chiefly water.

MELILLA, at the bottom of a bay, called by mariners **ENTREFOLCOS**, was formerly the capital of the province, and is still a large town.

About two leagues from it is the town of **CAZAZA**, near which is so convenient a harbour, that the Venetians drove a considerable trade there for some time with the people of Fez: But the town has been since razed to the ground, and the castle alone left standing.

The province of **CHAUS** is bounded on the east by the river Zha, on the west by that of Garaguira, on the north by mount Zucato, and on the south by that of Atlas.

A great part of the province is stony, dry, and barren, but in certain spots very fertile; as that of Teza, which yields thirty for one; mount Matgara, which abounds with corn and pasture, and where the air is sweet and wholesome, both in summer and winter; that of Garfis hath many gardens, which produce plenty of figs, grapes, and peaches; and the vallies about the town of Dubdu, are covered with vines, as are the plains about Megeza. Mount Beni-Jafga feeds great flocks of sheep, whose wool is so very fine and long, that they weave it into superfine cloths, which are as light and neat as silk.

TEZA, situate in a fertile plain, 16 leagues east of Fez, has a great concourse of merchants from thence, Tremecen, and other places, because it supplies most of the country about with corn, near 30 leagues round. They have the best wines in all Barbary, and the territory round it full of gardens, orchards, and noble vineyards.

SAFFOY, a small town, built on an eminence at the foot of one of the mountains of Atlas; 'tis surrounded for near six miles with date, olive, and other fruit-trees, in which consists it's chief wealth, especially the vast quantities of oil it makes and sends to Fez.

FIFESHIRE in Scotland. This shire is a fine peninsula, wedged in, as it were, between the Firth and the Tay, by which last 'tis bounded on the north, as by the Firth of Forth on the south. It has the Ochil-hills, Kinrossshire, and part of Perthshire on the west, and is washed by the German ocean on the east. The east part is much the plainest, and the west most mountainous. The north and south parts are very fruitful in corn, and full of towns, with good bays and harbours; in the midlands are plenty of cattle, especially sheep, whose wool is much esteemed, as are also the hides of their black cattle, deer, and goats, which turn much to the profit of the inhabitants. On the south side also there is much coal, and many salt-pans, where very good salt is made. At Dalgety is a quarry of excellent free-stone, and near

near the water of Ore they find lead, as also many fine crystals of several colours at the Bin and at Orrock. They have likewise several mineral waters, as the spaw at Kinghorn and Balgriggie. It's chief rivers, the Leven and the Edin, abound with salmon, &c. The coast is well planted with little towns, that are the nurseries of seamen, and the sea, besides other fish, as herrings, which are taken in great quantities in August and September, yields abundance of oysters and shell-fish.

DUMFERMLIN, a pretty town, situated in the west end of this shire, is chiefly supported by a manufacture of diaper, and the better sort of linen, which employs abundance of hands in this and the neighbouring towns.

BRUNTISLAND is a market-town on the Forth, over-against Leith, to which a passage-boat goes from hence every day; it has a safe harbour, where ships lie close to the houses; so that when forced up the Frith by gales, or contrary winds, they come hither for safety; and ships trading on this coast often winter here, there being at spring-tides 26 feet water within the harbour, which will contain 100 sail: here is a manufacture of linen, as there is upon all the coast of Fife, especially for green cloth, as they call it, which has been for several years in great demand in England, for printing or staining, in the room of the prohibited calicoes.

KINGHORN, on the same coast, is noted for a thread manufacture chiefly carried on by the women, the men being generally mariners upon all this coast, as high as Queen's-Ferry. There is a ferry here also to Leith.

KIRKALDY, on the same coast, where it turns north-east, is larger, more populous, and better built, than any other on this coast; 'tis reckoned a place of good trade, here being some considerable merchants, besides large dealers in corn, who export great quantities both to England and Holland; and others who trade in linen to England.

DYSERT, on the same shore, has a harbour and a good trade in coal and salt, which, with a few nail-makers and workers in hard ware, is it's only support.

F I G. The fig of the shops is the fruit of the common fig-tree, gathered when moderately ripe, not too mellow, and carefully dried in the sun before packed up. They should be chosen large, of a pale brownish colour, soft and mellow, heavy, and when broken, yellowish and sweet, and of a soft glutinous texture.

They have been long known in medicine.

Figs, as well fresh as dry, are very wholesome food; they are nourishing and emollient; they are good also in disorders of the breast and lungs; but it is to be observed, that a too free use of them has sometimes brought on obstructions of the viscera, which are common complaints also where they are eaten as food, as they are with bread, by the poor people in many parts of the Levant. They are frequently made ingredients in our pectoral decoctions, and are by some greatly recommended in nephritic complaints. They are much used externally by way of cataplasm, either roasted or boiled in milk, for the ripening of humours, and for easing the pain of the piles.

The fig delights in the same soil with the vine, and may be propagated either from suckers or layers, and also from seeds. The suckers are best separated from the old roots the beginning of March, and should be then replanted without cutting any of their tops; for this, above all other trees, suffers most by amputation, and indeed should never be pruned but in July. The layer should be ordered like those of the vine, and the seeds, as I have been informed, will readily come up if they are sown in rubbish, or such-like soil, about March. It is most common in England to plant fig-trees against walls, because it has been thought they will not otherwise ripen in our climate, but that is a mistake; for in several gardens about London, I have seen them grow in standards, and prosper and bear fruit in more abundance; and much better, in my opinion, than any I have yet seen against walls; for as they are endangered by pruning, so they like as little the confinement they are obliged to against walls.

I have been told of a fig-tree near Windsor, says Mr Bradley, (that grows wild, without culture, in an old gravel-pit) which is so extremely large, that many bushels of figs are gathered yearly from it; and I know of some old fig-trees that have been neglected for many years, which bear more fruit than any I have ever seen dressed and ordered in gardens; and it is the common practice abroad to plant them in certain places of their vineyards, and let them grow after their own manner without any interruption, so that with a very little difficulty this tree may be cultivated. The only art required in it's management, is to preserve the second figs during the winter, that the severe weather do not make them fall from the tree, but that they may be maintained in health to ripen early in the summer. I remember to have seen, at Dr Compton's, late bishop of London's gardens at Fulham, ripe figs in May; which were brought to that forward perfection by keeping them in pots, and sheltering them all the winter in a greenhouse.

Though with us we have not many varieties of this kind of fruit, yet are there as many sorts of figs as of any other fruit,

which in Spain and Italy are held in great esteem. The white figs chiefly are valued by the curious for their delicate flavour, and early ripening, and might be much more so than they are in various parts of the territories belonging to Great Britain. **FISCAL**, or solicitor, in Spain, is the king's mouth in causes wherein he is concerned, a check upon those that manage the revenue, a spy upon those who embezzle it, an informer against those that defraud it, an agent, to improve it; and lastly, a two-edged sword in a civil and criminal capacity, to defend the patrimony of the crown; and therefore, this employment is of no less importance than honour, and has in this court of trade, as well as in all others, an equal place with the judges of both chambers. And it being the duty of this fiscal, or solicitor, to see all the laws and ordinances observed, he has certainly the greatest share of business; so that the president and he may be accounted as two poles the whole affairs of the Spanish West-Indies turn upon.

This employment was first established by his majesty's order in the year 1546, for 'till then the commissioners of direction had appointed one to perform the duty of that place. The fiscal, or solicitor, is to be either with the judges, directors, or lawyers, according as the president shall order; his seat in either chamber is next to the youngest judge. It is left to his choice, whether he will be present or no, when the commissioners, or judges directors, sit about fitting out the armada's, and buying in stores and provisions. If he has any thing to lay to the charge of masters of ships or pilots, it must be done as soon as they arrive in the port, and the business must be decided with speed.

He is to keep a book to set down all licences, and other orders, upon which security is taken to see the covenants performed. And another book of all suits he manages for the king, which are to be tried before any others; and this book he is to deliver to his successor, and take a receipt for it. When ships return from the Indies, he is to be present with the commissioner that receives them, that he may enquire into all frauds and other offences committed during the voyage; and 'till that time, lay his accusations immediately, and see the business decided without delay. It is his particular charge to enquire whether the ships, that sail from the Canary-Islands, perform their duty, and to see those punished that do not; to have a hand in all suits arising upon accounts, and not to plead in any business that does not concern the king and his revenue.

In trials where the king is not concerned, if there wants a judge, the fiscal or solicitor is to supply his place, as was said before. All suits arising on account of the haberia, or convey-duty, are to be managed by him; and he has power to inspect all books, papers, and accounts, in any office. In case of sickness or other lawful impediment on his side, a counsellor, or the deputy-fiscal or solicitor, goes down to visit the galleons or flota's, but never both together, because one must always remain with the court. It has happened, that the commissioners being sick, or otherwise employed, the fiscal has been commissioned either to receive home bound ships, or clear those outward bound. This person having such multiplicity of business, and that so weighty on his hands, has many privileges to support him, and forward his going through them.

His causes are to be heard and determined before any others, to be dispatched with all brevity; and he can act, and bring process on holidays. He cannot be confined as to time, and the adverse party may be obliged to produce writing in favour of his allegations. Besides, he may be present when the judges give their opinions, and cannot be compelled to swear to, or make out his allegations, though he is bound not to lay his action, unless there be an evidence, or common fame make for him. No fees can be demanded of him, nor of any body in his name, on account of the causes he has tried; nor can he be adjudged to pay costs; nor can any goods, plate, silver, or jewels, belonging to the king, be disposed of, without he intervenes; and, in short, he enjoys all the privileges belonging to those that are under age.

It is a point much controverted, whether the fiscal or solicitor may be excepted against; but D. Gaspar de Escalona says, he saw it allowed at Lima, upon occasion of private enmity, no way grounded on the execution of his office proved upon him. Being his majesty's solicitor, though he cannot alienate nor pass a grant, yet he has power to compound differences, where he has little prospect of getting the better, yet so as he must acquaint the king with it; and it must be in civil cases, for in the criminal any composition is forbidden. The fiscal of this court, that he may the better go through so much business, has an agent allowed him, whom he chuses himself, and his salary is paid out of the fines to the king. This agent's business is to gather up the processes and other papers the fiscal is to see, giving a receipt for them where they are delivered to him, to carry them to be dispatched, and write what is dictated to him, but he may not lay an action without special order for it.

FISHERIES.

Sea-fishing.

By the ordonnance of November 1684, in France, fishing is declared common to all the king's subjects, whether in the open

open sea or on the shores, but only with nets and engines permitted by the said ordonnance.

Those who follow the great fishery, as the cod, herring, and mackarel, on the Irish, Scotch, English, and American coasts, and on the banks of Newfoundland, &c. must have licence from the admiral, or the governor of the place they sail from.

As to the fishers of fresh fish, with boats that carry sails and rudder, they are only obliged to take a licence yearly, nor need give any account on their return, unless in important matters, as seeing any wreck, some fleet, or the like, which they are to declare to the proper officers.

Instructions for those who would engage in the whale-fishery in France.

The ports from which they usually embark for Greenland, are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Enchuyfen, Hoorn, Hamburg, London, Bayonne, St Jean de Luz, St Sebastian, Rochelle, and some others. London is mentioned among the rest, though not a sea-port, because its merchants are most interested in this fishery of any cities in England, and 'tis the place where most English associations are formed.

The engagements are usually about the 10th or 15th of April. The wages, given by merchants in company, are 15 livres or florins a month the first time, which are increased according to the voyages already made.

After being mustered, they are paid one month's wages in advance. But their wages don't commence 'till they are at sea.

They require for the voyage good coarse cloaths.

Two good woollen blankets, about half a dozen shirts, five or six pair of coarse stockings, as many pair of mittens at least, strong and thick shoes, a pair of furred boots, a barrel of brandy, gingerbread, some lemons, oranges, and raisins, with about a hundred or two of good apples: but above all, a good bottle of vinegar, and some antiscorbutics; which provisions are the more necessary, the less they have been used to the sea and fatigues of the voyage.

As to their food they have every morning boiled barley with butter, with cheese and biscuit; for dinner, pease with bacon, salt meat, or stock-fish.

They are forced to eat heartily, that the cold seize not on them; besides, their work is hard.

The associated merchants of Amsterdam are the most interested in the whale-fishery.

Whales are taken near Iceland and on the Norway coast, but 'tis not the true fishery, which is chiefly from the south-west part of Greenland to Spitsbergen.

There is no part of the whale eatable but the tongue, and a little of the flesh about the tail, which is said to be as good as fresh bacon; they cut it in small slices, and broil it on the coals, and eat it with butter, salt, and pepper. There is a season for whales, as for several other animals, which is in May, June, and July, when they follow each other in shoals, but without quitting the north seas. There are sometimes at this fishery 7 or 800 boats together, with six men in each, having ropes, harpoons, and cutlasses; the harpooner is in the boat's bow.

They get not a like quantity of fat and oil from all, some being fatter than others; some will yield even 128 barrels of fat, and sometimes more. These barrels are usually four feet high and two and a half wide. One ship will carry about 8 or 900 of them, so that eight or nine fish is a good capture for a ship.

A whale of 100 barrels of oil may sell for 8 or 9000 francs, and the rest from 15 to 1800 livres: whence may be seen the immense profits of this fishery when it succeeds, but sometimes they lose their stock instead of gaining.

When the fishery has not been good on the Greenland coast, they stand away north-east, and fish in the Iceland sea; but the fish are neither so fat nor well esteemed, nor of the same sort. They don't yield commonly more than 50 or 60 barrels of oil.

We have already observed the wages are 15 livres a month for the first time, but, to be more exact, the rowers have from 15 to 20, the harpooners from 25 to 30, and the captain from 80 to 100 livres; besides which wages, the crew has on every barrel or ton of fat 25 or 30 sols.

There are some other more important fisheries, in the Indian, American, and Mediterranean seas; as the pearl, coral, and tortoise-fisheries. Beside the fresh fishery carried on in boats with sails, there are others on the shores, and in bays, and mouths of navigable rivers, with various sorts of nets.

There are also small fisheries permitted at certain seasons, and prohibited at others. Of which number are those of crayfish, shrimps, &c. The muscle-fishery has a place also in the French ordinance, and is under certain regulations.

Of river fishing and fresh water fish.

This is performed either with lines, nets, or engines. That with the line and hook is free, and allowed to every body in France. That with engines and a line, to those only who have a right to fish on rivers.

None of these truly merit the name of fishing but that with

an engine, angling being a mere diversion. The engine fishing is, however, prohibited in France.

The time of river fishing is to be between sun and sun, that in the night being prohibited.

The makes of their nets are to be formed on a mould of an inch in diameter, but all sorts of nets are not permitted.

FISHERY is used in particular of some parts of the east or west sea, and even some rivers where they fish for pearl-oysters.

The eastern fisheries are those of the isle of Bahren in the Persian gulph, of Carifa in Arabia Fœlix, of Manar on the coasts of the isle of Ceylon, and some others of the Japan coasts. The West-India fisheries are all in the gulph of Mexico, along the coast of Terra Firma, amongst others at Cutagna, Margarita, Comogote, Rencherie, and St Martha. Lastly, the European fisheries, which are the least considerable, are along the Scottish coasts, and in a river in the dominions of the elector of Bavaria in Germany.

FISHERY. The word is meant also of the places appointed for fishing on the shores and coasts of the sea, and in bays and rivers mouths. They have different names according to their construction, and the different nets used; and are all permitted by the ordinances of the marine of France in 1681 and 1684, but under certain conditions therein specified.

The marine ordinances regulate the police of sea-fishers, and those of the waters and forests of Paris the river-fishers. The former are usually distinguished into three sorts, namely, those of the great fishery; those of the fresh fishery, with boats having mast, sails, and rudder; thirdly, those of the fresh fishery also, but on the shores and in bays, and inlets of rivers.

With regard to the fresh fishery with boats having mast, sails, and rudder. The fisher, fishing in the night-time, is to shew a light three different times when he casts his nets.

Dredger's boats that cannot lie by, because of some accident, must shew a light while they are in the place where their nets are foul.

No fisherman may cast his nets, where he may prejudice those who have been there before him.

Fishermen going in a fleet may not quit their station to go elsewhere, when others of the fleet have cast their nets.

Every master of a boat is to take a licence yearly, at the same time registering the name, age, and abode of his boat's crew.

Lastly, every fisherman of the age of 18 years and upwards, going to sea, is obliged on the 1st day of Lent every year to enlist himself. And, in places where there are eight master fishermen, one is to be elected for warden of their company, who is sworn, and daily inspects the nets, reporting trespasses against the ordinances.

The fishermen on the river of the city and suburbs of Paris, are not a sworn body.

The regulation of the waters and forests for fresh water fishing.

'Tis comprized in the ordinance of 1669, and contains 26 articles, the most essential of which we shall insert here.

1. None except master fishermen may fish in navigable rivers, on pain of 50 livres fine, forfeiture of the fish, nets, and other utensils, for the first offence, 100 livres fine for the second, with a like fine, and severe punishment.

2. None may be received master under 20 years of age.

3. The master fishermen of every city or port, if they are eight or more, are to elect yearly a master of the company, for prevention of abuses. If not in sufficient number, several masters of neighbouring places unite to form the election.

4. None may fish on Sundays and holidays; to prevent which, every master must on the eve of those days carry his nets and engines after sun-set to the house of the company's master, whence he is not to have them 'till after sun-rise of the day following the festivals.

5. None may fish at any season, but from rising to setting of the sun, except under bridges and mills.

6. None may fish in spawning time; to wit, in rivers where trout abound more than other fish, from the 1st of February to the middle of March: and in others from the 1st of April to the 1st of June, on pain of 20 livres fine and one month's imprisonment for the first offence, double fine and imprisonment for the second, and for the third of pillory, whipping, and banishment from the district for five years. But salmon, shad, and lamprey-fishing are excepted from this prohibition.

7. Fishermen are to cast in again trouts, carp, bremes, that are under six inches between the eye and the tail, and all tench, perch, and roach, that are under five.

8. All the fishermen's gins are to be marked with lead, having the king's arms, and round the name of the freedom, the stamp of which is to be kept in the registry of the respective freedoms.

9. None may throw into rivers chalk, nux vomica, mummy, or other drugs, on pain of corporal punishment.

10. None may break the ice on ponds and moats, or carry flambeaux and other fires thither, on pain of punishment as for theft.

11. The cognizance of the offences committed by master-fishermen and others on navigable rivers, shall belong to the officers of the waters and forests, and not to the judges.
12. The master, &c. of the waters and forests, may inspect the vessels of fishermen; and if they find any fish under size, they are to make verbal process, and summon the fishermen to answer for the offence, but without expence.
13. The officers, finding prohibited engines, are to burn them, and fine those on whom they are found.

FISHERS of whales. Is said equally of the owners of the ships using that fishery, and of the sailors that man them.

The body of whale-fishers in Holland, are an association of the principal merchants of their cities, or of the masters and pilots who go thither in their own ships. They have no exclusive privilege, any being allowed to go or send others; but all, if they go in a fleet, are equally obliged to submit to the orders of commissaries deputed by the association, to which they must swear to be conformable before their departure.

A general regulation for the whale-fishery in Holland.

It consists of twelve articles.

1. When a ship is stranded, and the master and company saved, the first ship that finds them must take them. On meeting with a second ship, this last is to take half the crew saved, unless they have already other shipwrecked men on board, in which case the division is to be equal between the two ships; the like to be observed for all others they shall meet afterwards.
2. The victuals, brought by the shipwrecked men on board the vessels that take them up, are to be consumed by themselves, and divided with those of them who are passed into other ships; if they bring none with them, they are to be maintained out of charity for their work.
3. If a ship runs ashore with her cargo, the master, pilot, or other representing them, may save the shipwrecked effects, and treat with whom they please for salvage and charge of them: but 'tis free to the masters of other ships to take or refuse the said effects.
4. Any master of a ship being where there is a shipwreck, and the effects abandoned, he may take the whole or part of what he finds, whether it be rigging, utensils, fat, whales whiskers, &c. And, on arriving at the port of Holland whence he sailed, he is to deliver one moiety to the owners free of freight, and all other charges whatever.
5. If a ship stranded be left by her crew, they have no right to any of the effects saved.
6. But when the ship's crew are present and aiding in saving the effects, they are intitled to one fourth part; to wit, their wages agreed for, if hired by the month: and those that are otherwise hired, at the rate of 20 florins. If the fourth part of the effects saved doth not suffice to pay this, both are to lose their proportion; if any overplus, it goes to these armateurs.
7. The master of a ship, saving shipwrecked effects, partakes with those of his crew who are hired differently than by the month, but those of the crew who are hired by the month do not share.
8. Goods and effects saved, being loaded in some other vessel, are subject to loss and damage, as the proper effects of the vessel.
9. He who has killed a fish in the ice but can't get it alongside, remains owner as long as some of his men watch it; but if left, the next master that comes may take it, though the fish be fastened to a piece of ice.
10. If any one taking a fish be near the shore, he may fasten it to an anchor, and there leave it with a mark or buoy, and it shall belong to him alone.
11. If in going to, or returning from, the fishery in a fleet, any one be wounded or maimed in a defence against enemies, the commissioners of the fishery are to procure him reasonable recompence, to which all the fleet must contribute.
12. Any case happening, not mentioned in the regulation, is to be determined by arbitration.

Beside this general regulation, which all must swear to observe before their departure, there's another relating to each particular crew, which all the officers and sailors are likewise sworn to observe in presence of one of the commissioners, who comes on board every ship for that purpose. The contract is in the following terms.

A charter-party between the captains, whale-fishers, and their crews.

We the officers and sailors are hired with capt. N. N. ——— commander of the ship ——— to go this year ——— to the whale-fishery, at a price agreed on between us, promising to obey the said captain in all things both at sea and on shore, and to him who shall succeed him in case of death. First, We promise to attend morning and evening at prayers, with devotion and modesty, on pain of such fine as the captain shall think fit.

2. We promise not to get drunk, quarrel, or mutiny, nor

to cast any thing at another, nor to strike, or draw a knife, on pain of losing half the wages.

3. If any one, having a quarrel, comes to blows, and wounds another, he shall lose his wages, and shall be put into the hands of a magistrate, according to the nature of the case.

4. None of the crew may lay wagers on the success of their fishing.

5. If the captain think fit to fish in company with some other, the crew are to assist him with whom he associates, as if he were their own captain, on pain of 25 florins.

6. The crew are to be content with the victuals distributed to them by the captain's order, on the same penalty.

7. If by the length of the voyage, or taking on board shipwrecked men, provisions run short, they are to be content with the allowance ordered by the captain, on the same penalty.

8. Promising likewise not to kindle fire, candle, or match, by day or night, without leave of the captain, on the same penalty.

9. The captain on his part promiseth, that if any one be wounded and maimed in defending the ship, he shall have recompence according to the laws of the country, or by accommodation to the content of the parties.

10. Any of the crew giving useful notice of evil or prejudice intended the ship or goods, shall receive good recompence.

11. Cases not specified in this charter-party shall be determined according to the usage and customs of the sea. Made on board the ship, &c.

After this is read, the commissioner and captain, sitting in the cabbins, call in the crew to receive the usual gratification, and an assurance of another sum at their return, according as the fishery proves.

The captain receives for his gratification from 100 to 150 florins, even more according to his skill and reputation, besides so much on the quantity of fat produced, according to the agreement made with those who fit out the vessels.

The pilot receives from 40 to 60 florins; and, on return, what is agreed on, in proportion to the success of the voyage. Every harpooner from 40 to 50 florins; and so much as agreed on in proportion to the success.

Every cutter of the fat, who are commonly harpooners also, receive on return home 5 florins for every whale, beside their proportion as harpooners.

The carpenter, who is by the month, has 36 florins.

The surgeon 28 florins.

The mate 26 florins.

The steward, who hath charge of the provisions, 26 florins. Every experienced sailor, from 18 to 20 florins.

Every less experienced sailor, from 12 to 13 florins.

The same is to be understood of those who go by the month.

Those who man the boats, have, beside their wages, 2 or 3 florins for every whale they take. Sometimes they have granted them in proportion to the fat, and from 16 to 20 florins gratification, but then they are by the month.

The sailor who has the care of the line in the boat, receives, besides his wages, 30 or 40 s. the whale.

Lastly, sailors who do not go by the month, receive for their gratification from 9 to 15 florins, and at their return for every whale 15 or 16 florins.

'Tis but since the middle of the 17th century, that the Dutch have seriously applied themselves to the whale-fishery; but with such great success, that 'tis at present one of the chief branches of their commerce.

They attempted at first to make their settlements in Greenland, but not succeeding, they fixed their fishery on the coast of Spitzberg, which extends north and south from 76 degrees 40 minutes, to 80 degrees of north latitude, and from east to west about 89 leagues.

'Tis on the west coast of this country, within a compass of about 60 leagues, that they fish; the east coast not being so proper, by reason 'tis almost always full of ice.

The rendezvous for the departure of their fleet, though not fixed, is commonly the bay of Kokbay, in which is Klok-rinier.

Private adventurers sending a ship in the fleet, having appointed an able commander, have both examined and inspected by the commissaries of the cities that compose the body of whale-fishers, and have charge of that navigation.

When the fleet is ready for sailing from the Texel, coasting pilots are put on board every vessel by the commissioners, to conduct them over the banks.

The fleet usually takes its course by the isles of Iceland; after which, leaving them on the east, they stand away north into 74 and 75 degrees of latitude, where they begin to meet with ice, and to see whales, so that most of the vessels lie to here to fish. But as the whales are both larger and fatter further north, some captains will venture as far as 80 and 82 degrees.

We shall here add some particulars, concerning the cargo of a Dutch ship, and the state of the produce of this fishery in 1697, the most considerable of any made in 60 years and upwards.

A vessel of 300, or 320 tons, has six boats, with six harpooners to each, and five sailors to row, with whom one of the harpooners rows in the bow, and another in the stern, these boats having no rudder. Every boat must have seven lines, of three inches circumference, five in the stern, and two in the bow, in readiness for use. The five make together 600 fathoms, which added to the other two, the whole length is 880 fathoms. If the whale plunges further, or runs under the ice, they must cut to save themselves.

Each boat has two chests, to lay their harpoons, lances, knives, and other implements in.

When a fish is struck and taken, they cut off the tail and fins, and, lashing a long rope in the place where the tail was, haul it to the ship.

As long as they see whales, they lose no time in cutting up what they have taken, but keep fishing for others; when they see no more, or have taken enough, they begin with taking off the fat and whiskers, in the following manner:

The whale being lashed alongside, they lay it on one side, and put two ropes, one at the head, and the other in the place of the tail, to keep those extremities above water. On the off side of the whale are two boats, to receive the pieces of fat, utensils, and men, that may fall into the water on that side. These precautions being taken, three or four men, with irons at their feet, to prevent slipping, get on the whale, and begin to cut out pieces of about three feet thick, and eight long, which are hauled up at the capstane, or windlafs. When the fat is all got off, they cut off the whiskers of the upper jaw with an ax. Before they cut, they are all lashed, to keep them firm, which also facilitates the cutting, and prevents their falling into the sea. When on board, five or six of them are bundled together, and properly stowed. After all is got off, they turn the carcass adrift, which is good food to the bears, who are very fond of it.

As the great pieces are hoisted in, they are cut into smaller by them on board, and the lean, if any, taken off, and thrown into the hold, 'till they have leisure, and all is got on board, when they stow them in the casks very close.

When all is stowed, and the decks cleaned and sanded, the captain prepares for sailing for Holland, if in time of peace; but if the United Provinces are engaged in war, they have private orders to meet at a certain place of rendezvous, appointed by the commissioners, where they find convoy ready to join them.

The cargo of a Dutch vessel going to the whale-fishery.

They are commonly from 2 to 300 tons burden, carrying from 36 to 42 hands.

They are freighted at the rate of 2750 florins, if 250 tons, and in proportion, if of more or less burden. Every ship has 3, 4, or 6 boats, according to it's bulk. The boats have tarpaulins to cover them, in case of rain; they have compasses, in case of thick weather, and 10 horns to blow with; 20 or 30 little iron hammers to break the ice with; 50 oars; 65 lances, to attack the whale with when struck. 70 or 80 harpoons.

8 lesser ones of iron, and longer ones of wood.

6 knives, to cut the tail and whiskers.

24 lances for the sea-calves.

12 knives to cut the fat from the whale.

6 great knives, for the sailors to defend themselves from the bears with when they go on shore, or to kill the sea-calves.

18 knives to cut the fat with on board.

12 little gaffes, with handles.

12 other larger ones, which the Dutch call malemokahaak.

8 chopping-knives.

12 lesser knives for the boats.

2 large wooden mallets.

6 chandeliers, to lay the boat's mast on.

12 grapples, to hang the fat on.

4 axes, to cut off the whiskers, and separate them from the jaw, by striking on the head of the ax.

24 axes to cut the ice with.

6 pair of cramp-irons for the carver's shoes.

6 peculiar ankers, or sort of instruments, used to hold the whiskers when cut.

2 crows, to put in the whale's nostrils, to keep the head above water.

12 axes, to adjust and cut the whiskers.

18 hand-hooks, to take the pieces of fat with.

60 lines for the harpoons.

2 chests to stow the fishing utensils in.

2 chests in each boat for the same utensils.

3 carpenter's sheers, to cut the whiskers.

6 boat anchors with their painters.

6 iron wedges, to split the whalebone and the ice, &c.

The produce of a whale-fishery.

We chuse to instance in that of the Dutch in 1697; we shall also add that of other nations, that went to Spitzberg the same year; amongst which we find no French ships, by reason of the war. There were, that year, 189 ships, of different nations, of which the Dutch mustered 121; the fleet set sail 129, but eight were lost. The Hamburgers had 47, out

of 51, the rest being lost. The Swedes had 2, the Danes 4, the Bremeners 12, those of Embden 2, and the Lubeckers 1. The whales taken amounted to 1968; viz. 1255 by the Dutch, 449 $\frac{1}{2}$ by the Hamburgers, the Swedes 113, the Danes 52, the Bremeners 96, and those of Embden 2. The Dutch had 41,344 quartaux of fat, Hamburg 16,414, Sweden 540, the Danes 1710, Bremen 3790, and Embden 68.

Of the laws of England with regard to fisheries.

* If the salt designed for the curing of any fish for exportation, or of herrings for home consumption, is, upon landing, and after weighing in the presence of a proper officer, desired to be accordingly secured in proper cellars or warehouses, under the joint lock and key of the proprietor and the said officer, there to remain during the several intervals of the respective fishing-seasons; though such salt is exempted from the new duty, and the additional impost of 5 s. the wey, yet after the landing and weighing, an entry of the exact quantity lodged must be made by the proprietor or his agent, and an account taken by the officer: and the said new duty, and additional impost, must be particularly expressed on the bills and warrant, and charged in the several books, as if the money had been actually received.

* 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 1, 3, 10. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1, 2, 3, 6. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10, 16.

And as at the beginning of each fishing-season, the salt is to be re-delivered to the fish-curers, or their agents, upon their oaths to the quantity, and that it is intended to be only so used, they are to be respectively charged with it by the collector and comptroller, as well as by the proper officer taking charge of the cellars. And † the said oath to be taken by the proprietor, or his agent, before the officer's lock is taken off, must be as follows:

† 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1.

Edmund Trot, curer of fish [or his agent] maketh oath, That he hath lodged in his cellars, at ———, four thousand bushels of foreign salt, which is all intended to be used for the curing of fish for exportation only; and that no part shall, by his order, consent, or connivance, directly or indirectly, be sold, given away, or any ways delivered, but for the purpose aforesaid, except so much as shall be used for curing such herrings as shall be entered for home-consumption, and be charged with the duty thereon.

Signed—Edmund Trot.

Jurat' 10^o die Februarii, coram me A. B. Collector.

Whereupon the salt must be delivered to the proprietor, or his agent, and the oath regularly filed, and preserved in the office.

† And the proper officer is, during the fishing-season, frequently to visit the cellars and warehouses of fish-curers, to view and inspect them, and to gauge the salt, if necessary, for discovery of any frauds.

† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 2. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

|| And, as soon as each fishing-season is over, the officer who had care of the cellared salt is to take account of what remains in the hands of the fish-curers respectively; which, being weighed, must be locked up in the joint custody of the said officer and the proprietor, or his agent, who are, as soon as possible, to deliver an account in writing of the quantity of foreign salt received, of the fish exported, or entered, or red or white-herrings delivered for home-consumption, and the duties paid, on which the salt has been used, with certificates by the proper officers where the fish were exported, verifying the account, to be affirmed also by the oath of the proprietor, or his agent, using the salt: so that the quantity of fish cured, and salt used, and remaining, may appear on oath: ** which account must be made up within three months at farthest after Lady-day yearly, as follows; viz.

|| 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 3. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 3. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10. ** 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 6.

Port of Southampton.

No. 1.

Edmund Trot, curer of fish at ———, his account of the foreign salt received into his custody, and of the quantities of fish exported, or entered and shipped to be exported, on which the said foreign salt, taken away after it's delivery into his sole custody, has been used or consumed, from the 25th day of March, 1730, to the 25th day of March, 1731.

Debtor.	For falt, at 84 lb. to the bushel.		Creditor.	For falt, at 84 lb. to the bushel.	
	bush.	lib.		bush.	lib.
Foreign falt delivered into his sole custody, viz.			Salt sent coastwise, or delivered to other curers, viz.		
Foreign falt remaining in cellars at the end of last season, viz.			To Henry Ford at Weymouth - - - -	384	57
Clean - - - -	189	18	To William Longcroft, No. 4. - - - -	394	71
Returned - - - -	54	7	Used or consumed by him in curing of nine hundred and eighty barrels of falmon, three hundred and twenty barrels of white herrings exported, and of ten thousand red, and twenty-five barrels and sixteen gallons of white herrings, cured with foreign falt, and entered for home-consumption, and duty paid as by certificates. The particulars of which are endorsed on this account, and the duty of the herrings charged on the 8th of March, 1730, No. 5. - - - -	3115	38
Foreign falt imported since - - - -	4000	-	Locked up by the officer 'till next season, viz.		
Foreign falt brought coastwise, viz.			Clean - - - -	582	16
From George Dale of Pool - - - -	130	29	Returned - - - -	107	13
Foreign falt received from other curers within this port, viz.					
From Francis Dines. No. 2. - - - -	210	57			
	4584	27		4584	27

Edmund Trot [or his agent] who used the three thousand, one hundred, and fifteen bushels, and thirty-eight pounds, of foreign falt above-mentioned, maketh oath, That the account above written is true.

Signed—Edmund Trot.

Jurat' 18^o die Martii 1730, coram me A. B. Collector.

Certificates of the exportation of the fish cured with foreign falt within mentioned.

No.	When shipped.	From what port.	Ship's name.	Master's name.	Whither bound.	Dates of the certificates.		Salmon.		White herrings.	
						Month.	Day.	Bar.	Gal.	Bar.	Gal.
1	3 March 15	Southampton Ditto	Henry and Anne James	George Crew Benjamin Jones	Leghorn Lisbon	March	8	980		320	
						March	21				

Port of Southampton.

These are to certify, That the salmon and herrings above-mentioned are shipped for exportation, as above specified. Witness our hands the 24th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher.
B. C. Assitant-Searcher.

account of the particular quantity used by each in curing: which account, with the proper certificates, are to be sent to the office, there to remain.

* 5 Geo. cap. 18. §. 1.

† And, when any falt, delivered out to the proprietors for the fishery, is by them, or agents, delivered to any other person, such proprietor, or agent, is by oath, or otherwise, to make it appear to the satisfaction of the proper officer, that such falt was used in curing of fish.

† 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. §. 4.

Port of Southampton.

These are to certify, That the duties for ten thousand red, and twenty-five barrels and sixteen gallons of white herrings, within-mentioned to be entered for home-consumption, are actually paid: Witness our hands this 24th day of March, 1730.

C. D. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

And the officer having care of the falt, and inspection of the fish-curers cellars, is, at Midsummer yearly, or as soon as the fish-curers accounts are made up, to deliver to the collector his general account of all the falt received and delivered, &c. by each respective fish-curer, with the particular accounts of each of the said curers, under his inspection, regularly attested and vouched: the assitant-searcher's account must be in form following, viz.

* And, if any of the aforefaid falt be delivered to other fish-curers, and be used by them, the several quantities so delivered must be expressed in the account; and all those to whom it has been delivered, are likewise upon oath to make another

Port of Southampton,

The assitant-searcher's annual abstract of the several accounts of the curers of fish, from the 25th of December 1730, to the 25th of December 1731.

No.	The charge, being the falt delivered into their sole custody.								No. referring to the curers account	Curers names and places of abode.	The discharge, being the falt used, &c.																
	Salt remaining last season.		Salt imported in this year.		Salt brought coastwise in this year.		Salt received of other curers in this port in this year.				Total.		Salt sent coastwise.	Salt delivered to other curers within this port.	Salt used in curing of fish.	Salt destroyed in the presence of an officer.	Salt wasted in cellars.	Salt remaining in cellars the 25th of Decem. 1731.	Total.								
	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.			Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.	Bush.	Gal.							
1	27	5	3380	3	18	6	59	7	3486	5	3	G. S. at D.	109	5	59	7	3152	3	46		15	2	109	4	3486	5	
2	243	2	4000		130	3	210	6	4584	3	1	E. T. at R.	384	6	394	7	3115	4					689	2	4584	3	
3	15	3	416	4	42		27	5	501	4	2	F. D. at K.	48	3	210	6	141	2	10			3	5	87	4	501	4
4	109	7	150	3	13	2	394	7	668	3	4	W. L. at R.	30		27	5	579	3				7	3	24		668	3
	396	1	7947	2	204	3	693	1	9240	7			572	6	693	1	6988	4	50		26	2	910	2	9240	7	

And of the falt secured in cellars for the fishery, and re-delivered as aforefaid, the collector is also, at Christmas yearly, to state a separate account in the following form, viz.

Port of Southampton.

The collector's annual account-current of falt imported for the fishery, from the 25th of December 1730, to the 25th of December 1731.

In what officer's station.	No.	Charge.										No. referring to the curers account	Curers names and places of abode.	Discharge.													
		Salt remaining in celsars the 25th of Decem. 1730.		Salt imported in the time of this account.		Salt brought from other ports.		Salt received from other curers of fish in this port.		Total.				Salt sent to other ports.		Salt delivered to other curers within this port.		Salt destroyed in the presence of an officer.		Salt wafted.		Salt used in curing of fish.		Salt remaining in celsars the 25th of Decem. 1731.		Total.	
		Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.			Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.	Bush.	Gall.
A. B.	1	27	5	3380	3	18	6	59	7	3486	5	3	G. S. at D.	109	5	59	7	40	—	15	2	3152	3	109	4	3486	5
B. C.	2	243	2	4000	3	130	3	210	6	4584	3	1	E. T. at R.	384	6	394	7	—	—	—	3	115	4	689	2	4584	3
C. D.	3	15	3	416	4	42	—	27	5	501	4	2	F. D. at K.	48	3	210	6	10	—	3	5	141	2	87	4	501	4
D. E.	4	109	7	150	3	13	2	394	7	668	3	4	W. L. at R.	30	—	27	5	—	—	7	3	579	3	24	—	668	3
		396	1	7947	2	204	3	693	1	9240	7			572	6	693	1	50	—	26	2	6988	4	910	2	9240	7

And on the back must be another state, not only of the quantities of falt, but of the duties :
 The debtor side to contain—The total amount of all falt imported for the fishery in that year ; as also the duty for any foreign falt belonging to fish-curers, brought into the districts of that collection, from any other port or collection.
 The creditor side to contain—The falt used in curing of fish, or delivered to the charge of other collectors.

Fifth of British taking and curing.

* As they may be exported duty free, proof must be made on the bill of entry that they are so taken ; † and, as upon the exportation of such as are well cured and merchantable, the exporter is intitled to an allowance or premium, to be paid out of the new duty on falt, &c. therefore, as a foundation for granting a debenture in order to obtain the same, proof must be likewise made on the bill of entry, that they are duly intitled thereto, as in the following example :

* 2 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 6. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 8.
 † 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 16. 5 Ann. cap. 20. §. 6. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 8, 9.

27th of February 1730.—No. 33.

In the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights.

Thomas Fielding.

Sixty-eight barrel of Salmon, of British taking and curing. Thomas Fielding maketh oath, That the sixty-eight barrels of salmon above-mentioned, which are now to be exported in the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Streights, are of British taking, and that all and every part thereof are well cured and merchantable.

Thomas Fielding.

Jurat' 27^o die Febr. 1730,
 coram me A. B. Collector.

And, before any cod-fish, ling, or hake, may be shipped for exportation, the searcher must cut out part of the tail of every such fish with a punch ; and also, before the shipping of pilchards, scads, herrings, salmon, and dried red sprats, he must mark or brand every cask with the letters E. A. on the middle of two several side staves, to denote the exportation ; having first carefully gauged the same, and examined whether they be well cured, merchantable, and full packed. And then they may be shipped off only at a lawful key, unless otherwise permitted by special sufferance and leave, first had from the principal officers of the port.

Whilst the fish are shipping, the searcher, or assistant-searcher, are to enter, in a particular book to be kept for that purpose, the number of hogheads of pilchards, and barrels of salmon, herrings, and sprats, and the number and weight of cod-fish, ling, and hake, expressing, in proper and distinct columns, their different sizes and species, with the day of the months on which they were shipped, the names of the exporters, master, ship, and port, for which they are entered.

And, where pilchards and herrings are taken and cured, the officer appointed for that purpose must inspect the quantity, quality, and size of such fish, when they come to be barrelled, to prevent the ill and under packing of them, and to see that no bad or unmerchantable fish be barrelled up.

Fish, taken or imported by strangers, may not be dried within Great-Britain to be sold, upon forfeiture, or the value, to any person that will seize the fish, or sue for the value ; to be applied to the repair and maintenance of the port, &c. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6.

Fish-herring, cod, pilchards, salmon, or ling, fresh, salted, dried, or bloated, gril, mackarel, whiting, haddock, sprats, cole-fish, gull-fish, congers, any sort of flat fish, and any other sort of fresh fish ; may not be imported into, or sold in England, having been taken by, bought of, or received from foreigners, or out of a foreigner's ship (except Protestant strangers inhabiting this kingdom) upon forfeiture thereof, and the

ship and tackle, and also 100 l. by every offender herein. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 16. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 2. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. §. 13. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.

Except eels, stock-fish, anchovies, sturgeon, botargo, and cavear. 32 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 3.

Lobsters or turbets, which may be imported in any ship, and by any person, whether of British or foreign catching. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 10.

Masters of smacks, hoys, &c. bringing in fish of foreign taking, &c. are to forfeit 50 l. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 2. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.

But prosecution must be commenced within twelve months after the offence be committed. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 9. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 2.

The forfeitures above may be recovered by any informer in any of the courts of Westminster-Hall, and distributed, one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the parish where the offence is committed. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1. Herrings, pilchards, scads, cod-fish, ling, hake, salmon, or dried red sprats, by whomsoever caught or cured, may not be imported, unless oath be made before the falt-officer, by the owner of the fish, or master of the vessel, that all the falt wherewith they were cured was taken on board in Great-Britain, mentioning the time and place, and that no drawback was, or is intended to be obtained for the same ; upon forfeiture, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 14. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 14. §. 13.

Herrings, white or red, to be packed in lawful barrels, justly and exactly laid by sworn packers, who are to brand the cask with a mark, denoting the gauge, quantity, quality, and condition of the herrings, and the place where packed. Magistrates, neglecting to appoint and swear such packers yearly, forfeit 100 l. 15 Car. II. cap. 16. §. 1. 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 8.

Herring-barrels to contain 32 gallons. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 5. Salmon-barrels to contain 42 gallons. 22 Edw. IV. cap. 2. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15.

Herring and salmon exported in barrels of any other size (except half-barrels) not intitled to the bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15, 16.

Pilchards exported, the words seyn or drift must be burned with an iron, in some visible part of the cask, or hoghead, with the number and surname of the owner, and the number of pilchards contained in each, upon forfeiture of double the value of the fish. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 31.

Pilchards, scads, cod-fish, ling, hake, red or white herrings, exported from Great-Britain, the exporter to make oath before the principal officers of the port, that they were British taken, and really exported for parts beyond seas, and not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain.

The falt-officer is to pay the debenture within 30 days after demand, or, if he has not sufficient money in his hands, to give a certificate thereof gratis, and without delay, upon penalty of the forfeiture of double the sum to the party grieved ; and, upon such certificate, the commissioners of excise upon falt are chargeable with the payment.

But, if exported from Scotland, to be paid by the commissioners of excise or customs there, at the option of the merchant. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

Laws in force in either kingdom, for preventing frauds in curing and packing of fish, extended to Scotland. 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1.

Cod-fish, ling, or hake, before laid on board for exportation, part of the tails to be cut off ; and pilchards, scads, herrings, salmon,

salmon, or sprats, the barrels or casks to be marked by the salt-officer. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 16. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 6. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

Such fish, after exportation, fraudulently reloaded or reimported, are forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 17. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

After such fish are put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, they may not be taken out, unless to be put into the ship wherein they are to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the presence of a salt-officer, upon forfeiture of boat, &c. goods, and 20l. by every person concerned, or six months imprisonment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 2, 3.

The former allowance or bounty on exportation, granted by 5 and 6 W. and M. cap. 7. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 31. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. 1 Ann. cap. 11. 5 Ann. cap. 8 and 29. 7 Ann. cap. 11. is taken away. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1.

The present allowance or bounty, and the regulations of exportation.

Officers refusing or neglecting to pay the bounty due on exportation, or to certify the want of money to the commissioners, are to forfeit double the sum of the said bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

White herrings fraudulently reloaded, forfeited, and 20s. the barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 7.

Duly entered and shipped for exportation, lost or spoiled before the ship proceeds on her voyage, on due proof upon oath, to enjoy the same bounty as if really exported; provided the ship was sunk in the sea or port where the ship was lost or destroyed, in sight of the proper officer, where any of the said fish shall come on shore, and that no use be made of the fish by proprietor or his agent; and the officer is to cause the fish to be burnt, or otherwise destroyed. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 8.

Red herrings or sprats, consumed in curing, to be taken as if actually exported. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 10.

Salmon and cod-fish cured in Scotland with foreign salt that has paid the duty, to be allowed the same bounty on exportation, as was payable before the 24th of June, 1719. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. §. 42.

White herrings, cured with salt made in Scotland, may be imported from thence to England, upon payment of 2s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 Gallons, and in proportion for half barrels. 5 Geo. II. cap. 6. §. 6.

The proprietor or his agent, before the departure of his vessel, is to make entry with the collector of the customs there, of the number of barrels shipped, and give bond to the value of the herrings for the delivery thereof in England (the danger and accidents of the seas excepted) and to make oath that they were cured with salt made in Scotland, whereof the duty hath been paid, and are not intended to be exported to any place beyond seas.

The officer is to grant a certificate gratis of such entry and oath; which is to be delivered, before landing the herrings, or putting them on board any other ship or boat, to the officer of the customs at the place, upon forfeiture of the herrings, and 40s. the barrel.

A certificate of the landing, under the hand and seal of the principal officer at the delivering port, is to be returned within six months after the date of the bond, to the officer where the security was given, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the bond.

Persons counterfeiting or altering any of the certificates above required, or knowingly using such counterfeit certificate, are to suffer as persons convicted of forgery. 5 Geo. II. cap. 6. §. 7.

A matter of any boat or vessel, bound on a fishing voyage to the North Seas or Iceland, may take on board in any port of Great Britain any quantity of British salt, paying or securing the duty. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 1.

The officer of the place is to give a certificate gratis of the quantity of salt taken on board, and that the duties have been paid or secured. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 2.

Cod-fish, ling, or hake, caught and cured there, may be imported and landed, upon oath being made by the proprietor of the fish or master of the vessel, that they came from the North Seas or Iceland, and were caught and cured there; whereupon they are to be tendered at landing, and, before removing them, to have part of the tails cut off, that no allowance be obtained upon exportation, upon forfeiture, and double the value to be recovered of the importer or proprietor. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 3.

Foul salt so made use of, remaining, to be thrown overboard, in presence of the officer. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 5.

Remaining unused, not entered, and the duties paid down within ten days after the ship's arrival into port (except in case of being driven in or detained by stress of weather, or other unavoidable necessity) is forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the proprietor or master of the vessel. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 5.

The master of such boat or vessel, upon producing the certificate aforesaid, to the collector of the salt duties, and making oath to the quantity of salt in such certificate, and

that the fish were cured and tendered as above, is to receive gratis, from the said collector, a certificate of the same; which, with a certificate of the payment of the duty of the remainder of the salt being produced to the collector of the salt duties, where the duty was paid or secured, the security is to be discharged, and money repaid by the collector without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 6.

Boats or vessels having taken in such salt, perished at sea or taken by enemies, the proprietor upon proof at the quarter sessions for the county, &c. where he inhabits, within nine months after such loss, is to receive a certificate of such proof; which, being produced to the officer where the duty was paid or secured, the security is to be discharged, and money repaid by the officer, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 5.

An ABSTRACT of the ordinances of the States of Holland and West Friesland, concerning the managing of the great fishery.

No vessel, sailing out of Holland or West Friesland, shall be allowed to go to the great fishery, without the consent of the burgomaster of the town from whence he sails; and that he make oath, that he will not fail, give in presents at sea, or cure on shore, any herrings, under penalty of 24 guilders for each barrel, and confiscation of the fish: and further that he shall separate the herrings caught in one night, from those caught in another, and shall declare on what night each were taken, on forfeiture of the cargo and ship, and degradation of the master.

Nor shall any master deal for herring, with any but those authorized by the chief magistrate in the place where the herring trade is established. Further, they shall not, at sea, ship herrings on board any other vessel than those so authorized, under penalty of the said herrings, or their value, and a fine of 600 guilders, and the master rendered incapable of ever acting in that capacity for the future.

That the masters of the jagers make oath, that they will not take on board herring from any others but subjects of Holland and West Friesland; taking care to get a certificate from the master, signed by himself, and two or three sailors, with the ship's name and port she sailed from, the quantity delivered, and that they were taken after St John's day, cured and laid in barrels in his ship, on penalty of the herrings, or value of them; nor shall any master ship them on board jagers, after the 15th of July, penalty as above, and the money received for such herrings.

That no inhabitant of Holland or West Friesland shall be engaged with others living out of the said provinces, in BUSES or JAGGERS, under penalty of ship and cargo, and 600 guilders, to be recovered, though the fact has been committed 20 years past.

The first taken herrings are not to be sold, unless they have been ten days in pickle; and not then, till marked by the inspectors between the neck and belly hoop, on penalty of 300 guilders; and, in case of non-payment, to be confined to bread and water for a month; and all herrings brought into the said provinces, without such mark, to be publicly thrown into the sea.

Each master of a Buss is to declare to the secretary of the port from whence he sails, where he is going to fish, to what port he is to return, and what mark he is to use, that it may be registered, under the penalty of 120 guilders.

The curing of the herring shall be completed three weeks after they arrive, whether they be sold or not, and shall be repacked more than once, according to the nature of the herring, and custom of the place; if not in the above limited time, the buyer to have no redress.

Herrings shall not be repacked or heightened with fresh pickle, but in the public streets or customary places, with open doors, where any may enter, under penalty of 240 groats.

No herrings to be packed or heightened to be sent abroad, before the cure-master has inspected them, and ascertained that they are duly packed. Nor are small herrings to be packed up with great, but each shall be filled up with those of a like kind, and taken at the same time and branded with theirs and the city's mark.

No barrels sent abroad shall have less than fourteen hoops.

The herrings caught after St James's day, and salted with fine salt, may be exported as wrack westward; the barrel to be bound with sixteen hoops, having the date of the year on the belly, and mark of the purchaser thereon.

No Spanish or Portugal salt shall be put in casks, before the cure-master has examined it, on penalty of 25 guilders for every hundred weight; nor shall they carry to sea any other but the above for the herring fishery, and that twice to be examined by the cure-master, who must open each barrel before it is shipped, and stamp them with his mark; in case of failure, the master to forfeit 36 guilders, and he is likewise to declare, that these herrings were cured with the said salt.

Each cure-master may make the master of the Buss open his barrels twice in his view, to have two inspections, and at each time to pay half a farthing, the one to be paid by the buyer, and the other by the seller.

Any person who cures herrings with French salt from St Martins, Olderdame, Borea, Browart, South France, the West-Indies, or isle of May, to forfeit the herrings.

Fish taken after St James's day, and Bartholomew-tide, may be salted with fine salt, boiled with sea-water, according to agreement with the city of Cologn.

There shall not be sent abroad to the westward, or France, Flanders, and Brabant, any herrings, but what have been taken and packed after Bartholomew-tide, and marked with the grand Rouen brand: nor shall any be sent to Hamburgh, Bremen, Cologn, or other ports, that may be cured with coarse salt, whether they be wrack, or refusal fish, on penalty of six guilders each barrel, and naval correction.

Herrings, once exported, shall not be brought back, or cured anew, on pain of forfeiture of the fish.

A warning against the not handling, forting, salting, and laying of the herrings in a proper manner by the masters.

The lords deputies of the great fishery of Holland and West-Friezland, with the utmost indignation having been certainly informed, that some masters, neglecting their duty, do not manage, sort, salt, or lay in a proper manner the herrings, notwithstanding the good orders given by the general placart, respecting the catching, salting, and management of the herrings, renewed by their high-mightinesses the lords states of Holland and West-Friezland, dated the 10th of May, 1651, and amplified the 30th of May, 1656, especially enjoined in the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th articles, and of which, pursuant to the 41st article of the said ordinance, an exemplar is annually given to the masters, and solemnly sworn to, as a further warning to prevent all abuses and neglects, decreed by the aforesaid lords deputies, by virtue and authority of the said placart; from whence it is to be apprehended, that the now already much lessened foreign sale of the Dutch herrings, and the good repute thereof, will entirely cease, and, on the contrary, become in disesteem, to the great detriment and prejudice of the trade, and consequently to the ruin of the great Herring fishery; being so apparent a loss to the trade and welfare of the country, and the inhabitants thereof, in case it is not speedily and rigorously examined into.—The lords deputies aforesaid, by the advice and consent of the committee, consisting of owners of ships, merchants, and herring-traders, for the prevention of those enormous abuses and neglect of duty, and for the conservation and restoration of the great herring-fishery, have thought proper to desire and ordain, and do hereby desire and ordain, by way of renovation and amplification of the before-mentioned good orders, That the herring-masters shall not mix different sorts together or sort them; as, first sort (which is full, middle, and small) by first, second ditto by second, third sort by third; and on occasion of an extraordinary great capture, the time not permitting to sort them properly, the masters, at their coming on shore, shall be obliged to report them as unforted herrings to his owners: that, farther, the herrings shall be properly salted, and the large barrel herrings be salted in no less a proportion than four barrels of salt to every last (i. e. 12 barrels) the smallest sort of barrels excepted; the herrings to be likewise properly gutted, and afterwards laid close crossways in the barrel; ordering all and every master to conform themselves to this rule, under pain of 300 guilders, over and above the action, in case of perjury, at the charge of the masters whose herrings shall not be properly sorted, in manner as beforementioned; to whom likewise no further grant shall be given for the catching of herrings: but, with respect to the herrings not being laid close crossways in the barrel, a penalty shall be levied of six guilders per barrel; the aforesaid penalties to be in conformity to the 40th article of the placart before mentioned; one third to the informer or informers, whether they be sailors or other persons; one third for the officer who makes the challenge; and the last third part for the poor. The herrings so improperly salted, viz. the first sort mixed with the second; item, the second sort mixed with the first, to be reckoned unforted; and with respect to the mixed first and second sort, to be sold with the third sort as third sort, and to be reckoned and paid in that manner by the buyer, likewise at the charge of the master. All the rest of the before-mentioned given orders, and thereunto annexed penalties, remaining in their full force: and, to the end that no one should be able to pretend ignorance thereof, the lords deputies aforesaid order, that these shall be published and affixed in all proper places. Done at Delft, the 23d day of May, 1749. By order of the lords deputies.

M. L. Secretary.

1749. The burgomasters and regents of the city of Schiedam give their consent unto A, B, C, that he shall be permitted to go with his herring-ship to the North Sea, there to catch herrings, and hath solemnly sworn to us by oath; that he is properly furnished, according to the size of his herring-ship, with tackle, salt, barrels, seamen, and all other necessaries required in the herring-trade: likewise, that he will not, before the 24th of June, nor after the 31st of December next coming, cast a herring-net in the sea, to catch her-

ring; that also he will not deliver over to any body, whomsoever it might be, any herrings whilst at sea, nor suffer that they be given over out of his ship by any other person directly or indirectly, in any manner whatsoever, but only to those ships from Holland and West-Friezland, who produce the proper act of consent, having on the top of a HERRING-BUSS, being the seal of the great fishery stamped thereon, and signed by the secretary of that city from whence he comes: to which respective ships he shall be impowered to deliver over his caught herring, until the 15th of July 1749 inclusive, and no longer: that he shall notify exactly upon the list of the marked barrels, in what night or nights the herrings thus delivered were caught: farther, that he shall not fill up the herring-barrels more than once with pressed herrings, and take care, that as little of the bloody pickle thereof shall be spilt as possible: and further also, that he shall bring in all his caught herring into the provinces of Holland and West-Friezland; and likewise, with three of his own sailors, enter within three days at farthest after his arrival, the said caught herrings faithfully; taking also all possible care, that the herring may be laid even in their lays, from the bottom to the top; and that the same be not cast in with baskets or buckets into the barrels, mixed, wrong laid, or adulterated: that he shall not sell, change, or give away, by manner of gift, any salt, pickle, hoops, hoop-wood, rigging, thread, hook-lines, or any other fishing-tackle. Item, he shall not sell, barter, or give away any sort of merchandize, under what denomination soever might be in Zealand, Scotland, or any other land; taking likewise no sort of goods for freight to this or that place, or suffer the same to be done directly or indirectly, on the penalty mentioned in the warning, and to regulate himself farther, according to the placarts and ordinances made with relation to the herring fishery, and which, for that intent, are given with him; so truly as he wishes God Almighty may help him.

The seal of the great fishery is hereon stamped, and signed by the secretary of the city the 10th day of June 1749.

Acts relating to fish, fisheries, and fishing, in England, from Edward I. to the year 1750.

S T A T U T E S.

- 13 Edw. I. cap. 47. Salmon, &c. in defence.
 31 Edw. III. stat. 2. cap. 1. Herrings sold at sea.
 31 Edw. III. stat. 2. cap. 2. Herrings, Yarmouth, &c.
 31 Edw. III. stat. 2. cap. 3. Stockfish of St Botolph, salmon of Berwick, fish and wines of Briftuit, &c.
 31 Edw. III. stat. 3. cap. 1. Fishery, Blakeney, and the coasts of Satterly, Winton, in the county of —
 31 Edw. III. stat. 3. cap. 2. Fair at Blakeney, lob, ling, cod, orgies, selling, &c. their nets, &c. Norfolk.
 35 Edw. III. about buying and selling herrings, Yarmouth.
 4 Rich. II. Fishmongers trade laid open.
 6 Rich. II. cap. 10. Fish and victuals to be sold by aliens, in London, enforced by Hen. I. cap. 17. 14 Hen. IV. cap. 4. Query, if not since repealed.
 7 Rich. II. cap. 11. Fishers, vintners, and victuallers, coming to London, to be in the rule of the lord-mayor and aldermen of the said city. 31 Edw. III. stat. 1. cap. 1. (N. B.) repeals the statutes of 5 Rich. II. cap. 4. and 6 Rich. II. cap. 11 and 12. touching victuallers in London.
 31 Rich. II. cap. 19. confirms stat. 13 Edw. I. cap. 47. and appoints conservators of it, &c.
 17 Rich. II. cap. 9. All justices of peace to be conservators of 13 Edw. I. cap. 47. and 13 Rich. II. cap. 9. who are to appoint subconservators under them, &c.
 2 Hen. IV. cap. 15. Penalty on fastening trinck, and other nets, over the Thames, or other rivers; trinckers may fish lawfully.
 14 Hen. IV. cap. 4. Penalty on disturbing aliens sending their fish.
 22 Edw. IV. cap. 5. Salmon-vessels, salmon packed, grill packed, herrings packed, sold in barrels, &c. eels barrelled, &c. length, &c. of barrelled fish, shokes, &c. tale-fish, their length, &c.
 11 Hen. VII. cap. 23. What gaugers, packers, and searchers of barrelled salmon, herrings, eels, &c. are intitled to, with penalty on their offendings, &c.
 31 Hen. VIII. cap. 2. §. 2. Penalty on fishing in ponds, &c. against the will of the owners. See Eliz. cap. 21. 2 and 3 Edw. VI. cap. 6. §. 3. Penalty on admirals taking money, doles, &c. fishermen or merchants, for licences to pass to voyages for fish, &c.
 5 Eliz. cap. 17. A general provision for preserving of the spawn, brood, and fry of fish, made perpetual by Car. II. cap. 4.
 5 Eliz. cap. 5. No toll for sea-fish, except on Kingston upon Hull; penalty on herring or sea-fish, and not well salted and packed, and cod, and ling, to be imported loose, and not in barrels.
 5 Eliz. cap. 1. Penalty on fishing in ponds, &c. against the owners consent.
 39 Eliz. cap. 10. Exporting of herrings bought in this realm; customs to be paid by aliens for felled fish and herrings; penalty on

on importing or salting bad fish or herrings. See 43 Eliz. cap. 9.

1 Jac. I. cap. 23. §. 3. relates to the taking of herring, pilchard, and other sea-fish in the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Cornwall.

3 Jac. I. cap. 11. No wears along the sea-coast, and penalty on killing, &c. of the brood, &c. of sea-fish, affize, &c. of sea-nets.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 36. relates to the exportation of fish into any ports of the Mediterranean.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 28. Penalty on fishing from June to November on the high sea, or any bay, port, &c. of Cornwall or Devon, with any drift, &c. not nearer than a league and a half to the shore, &c.

15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 16, 17. No fresh herring, cod, haddock, cole-fish or grill-fish, from the North Sea, Iceland, and Westfary fisheries, shall be imported; penalty ship and fish; salted or dried cod, colefish, ling, white herrings, haddocks, and grill-fish, imported in foreign built ships, to pay custom.

15 Car. II. cap. 16. How white or red herrings of English catching are to be packed, salted, dried; bailiffs of Yarmouth, &c. to appoint packers.

18 Car. II. cap. 2. No ling, herring, &c. to be imported by foreigners. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 25.

30 Car. II. cap. 9. A general provision for preserving the spawn, brood, and fry of fish in the river Severn.

32 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 7. Stockfish and live eels may be imported.

4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 23. relates to private fisheries, &c. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. concerning Billinggate market duties, &c. affize of lobsters brought on shore and sold; no fish, except stock-fish and live eels, to be imported or sold by foreigners; inportation of anchovies, sturgeon, botargo, and cavaer also excepted.

10 Will. III. cap. 25. relates to the fisheries of Newfoundland, and the islands adjoining, with the regulations thereof. 4 Ann. cap. 15. Fishery of the river Stower in Essex and Suffolk.

4 and 5 Ann. cap. 21. Conservation, &c. of the fishers of the rivers, creeks, &c. in the counties of Southampton and the southern parts of Wiltshire; seasons, affize of nets, &c.

1 Geo. I. cap. 18. no herring, cod, pilchard, salmon, ling, fresh or salted, dried or bloated, nor grill, mackarel, whiting, haddock, sprat, cole-fish, grill-fish, congor, or any sort of flat fish or fresh fish, to be imported or sold in England, that are taken by any foreigners, or of strangers bottoms, except Protestant inhabitants; eels, stockfish, anchovies, sturgeon, botargo, or cavaer, excepted, affize of drag-nets used at sea, &c. affize of turbot, brill, pearl, codlin, whiting, bass, mullet, sole, plaice, dab, and flounders, brought to shore, sold, or exchanged with penalty; lobsters and turbots may be imported by foreigners; affize of Salmon brought to London, &c. &c. rivers Dee, Severn, &c.

2 Geo. II. cap. 19. concerning the Rochester fishery.

5 Geo. II. An act for encouraging the Greenland fishery.

6 George II. An act for the further encouragement of the whale fishery carried on by his majesty's British subjects.

9 Geo. II. cap. 33. confirming the first clause 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. about importation of stockfish by foreigners, British ships trading to the Mediterranean Sea, and lobsters, when in defence, on the coast of Scotland, &c.

13 Geo. I. An act for continuing the several laws therein mentioned, relating to the premiums upon the importation of masts, yards, and bowsprits, tar, pitch, and turpentine, to British-made sail-cloth, and the duties payable on foreign sail-cloth, to the Greenland and to the Whale-fishery, for granting a further bounty for all ships employed in the whale-fishery, during the present war, and for exempting harpooners employed in the Greenland fishery, trade from being impressed, &c.

22 Geo. II. An act for the further encouragement and enlargement of the whale-fishery, and for continuing such laws as are therein mentioned relating thereto; and for the naturalization of such foreign Protestants as shall serve, for the time therein mentioned, on board such ships as shall be fitted out for the said fishery.

R E M A R K S.

From these regulations of the fisheries in Holland and France, we may, in some measure, judge of their importance to those states. The fisheries in Holland are well known not only to have been the first rise of that republic, but the grand prop and support of all their commerce and navigation. This branch of trade is of such unspeakable concern to the Dutch, that, in their public prayers, it is appointed to be mentioned, when they pray to the Supreme Being, THAT IT WOULD PLEASE HIM TO BLESS THE GOVERNMENT, THE LORDS OF THE STATES, AND ALSO THEIR GREAT AND SMALL FISHERIES.

What the Dutch call the GREAT FISHERY, respects the whale-fishing at Spitzbergen, and in the seas of Greenland; with the catching of seals, fin-fish, and the other kinds, whereof they make train-oil; for which fishery they generally employ 150, or 200 sail of ships every year; which being

double manned, for the service of killing the whales, as well as sailing the ships, do not employ, one year with another, less than 10,000 seamen.

This was apparent in the years 1674 and 1675, when they had war with the English, and in the year 1695, when they declared war against France; on both which occasions they laid aside their Greenland trade, that they might take up the seamen to man their fleet: and, by this advantage, they had 10,000 men at hand, and were enabled to fit out their navy rather sooner than their neighbours.

The small fishery respects the herrings, ling, and cod; the first of which they take on the shores of Shetland, Scotland, and England; the latter in the North Seas, on the coasts of Norway and Jutland.

Holland, says the great De Witt, grand pensioner of Holland, is very well situated to procure it's food out of the sea, which is a common element; it lies not only on a strand rich of fish, near the Dagger-Sand, where haddock, cod, and ling may in great abundance be taken and cured; but also near the herring-fishery, which is only to be found on the COAST OF GREAT-BRITAIN, viz. from St John's to St James's, about Shetland, Pharil, and Boeknefs; from St James's to the elevation of the cross about Bockelston, or Seveniot; from the elevation of the cross to St Katharine's, in the deep waters eastward of Yarmouth. And this herring-fishing, which it is now 250 years ago since William Beakelson, of Biervliet, first learned to gill, salt, and pack them up in Barrels, together with the cod-fishery, is become so effectual a means of subsisting for these lands, and especially since so many neighbouring nations, by reason of their religion, are obliged, upon certain days and weeks of the year, wholly to refrain from eating of flesh; that the Hollanders alone do fish, in a time of peace, with more than 1000 buffes, from 24 to 30 lafts burden each, and with above 170 smaller vessels that fish for herrings at the mouth of the texel; so that these 1000 buffes being set to sea for a year, wherein they make three voyages, do cost above ten millions of guilders, accounting only the bufs, with it's tackle, at 4550 guilders, and the setting forth to sea 5500 guilders, there remaining nothing, of all it's victuals and furniture the second year, but the bare vessel, and that much worn and tattered, needing great reparation. So that, if these 1000 buffes do take yearly 40,000 lafts of herrings, counting them at least worth 200 guilders per laft; they would yield in Holland more than eight millions of guilders.

And seeing that of late men have begun to make very much use of whale-oil and whale-fins, which are taken to the northward, not far from us, inasmuch that, with southerly winds, which are common in this country, we can sail thither within six or eight days; the trade of fishing and salt may easily be fixed and settled with us; for to fix these fisheries, and several manufactures, and, consequently, the trade and returns thereof depending on navigation, and ships let out to freight, we ought duly to consider, that the greatest difficulty for so innumerable a people to subsist on their own product, proves the most powerful means to attract all foreign wares into Holland, not only to store them up there, and afterwards to carry them up the country by the Maese, Waal, Yffel, and the Rhine (making together one river) to very many cities, towns, and people, lying on the sides of them (the most considerable in the world for consumption of merchandize) but also to consume the said imported goods, or to have them manufactured: it being well known, that no country under heaven, of so small a compass, has so many people and artificers as we have; to which may be added, that no country in the world is so wonderfully divided with rivers and canals, whereby merchandize may be carried up and down with so little charge.

Emanuel Van Meteren says, That, in the space of three days, in the year 1601, there failed out of Holland to the eastward, between 8 and 900 ships, and 1500 Busses, a herring fishing; which is easy to believe, if we may credit what the English authors mention, viz. Gerard Malines, in his Lex Mercatoria, and Sir Walter Raleigh, and which Lievin Van Aitzmar, anno 1653, pag. 863, doth in some measure confirm, viz. that there are yearly taken and spent by the Hollanders more than 300,000 laft of herrings, and other salt fish: and that the whale fishing to the northward takes up above 12,000 men, which sail out of these countries: for since the Greenland company, or (to express myself better) the monopolizing grant thereof, was annulled, and the whale-fishing set open in common, that fishery is increased from one to ten: so that, when we reckon that all these fishing vessels are built here at home, and the ropes, sails, nets, and calks made here, and that salt is furnished from hence, we may easily imagine, that there must be an incredible number of people that live by this means, especially when we and all those people must have meat, drink, cloaths, and housing; and that the fish, when caught, is transported by the Hollanders in their vessels through the whole world.

And, indeed, if that be true which Sir Walter Raleigh (who made diligent enquiry thereinto in the year 1618, to inform

inform king James of it) affirms, that the Hollanders fished on the coast of Great-Britain with no less than 3000 ships, and 50,000 men, and that they employed and set to sea, to transport and sell the fish so taken, and to make returns thereof, 9000 ships more, and 150,000 men besides: and, if we hereunto add what he saith further, viz. that 20 Busses do maintain 8000 people, and that the Hollanders had, in all, no less than 20,000 ships at sea; as also their fishing, navigation, and traffic by sea, with it's dependencies since that time to the year 1667, is increased to one third more: I say, if that be so, we may then easily conclude, that the sea is a special means of Holland's subsistence; seeing Holland, by this means alone, yields, by it's own industry, above 300,000 lafts of salt fish: so that, if we add to this the whale-fin and whale-oil, and our Holland manufacture, with that which our own rivers afford us, it must be confessed, that no country in the world can make so many ships-lading of merchandize by their own industry as the province of Holland alone.

Of the FRENCH FISHERIES.

Nor has France been less solicitous in cultivating the fishing-trade, than all other branches which tend to increase their maritime power. When the French king was, in queen Anne's wars, moved to admit the Dutch and English fishing-boats into Dieppe, Dunkirk, St Vallery, and other ports, with their herrings, the king answered, NO! BY NO MEANS; IF MY PEOPLE WILL HAVE HERRINGS, WHY DO THEY NOT CATCH THEM, AS THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH DO? Upon which, the merchants of those parts immediately fitted out vessels, and took herrings sufficient for all the country.

From this time the French have taken every measure to improve their fisheries; in which capital article of commerce, they have been increasing ever since the treaty of Utrecht, and have become our most dangerous rivals herein. The French have a considerable whale fishery, and the French fishermen of St John le Luze, Bayonne, and other ports in that part of the bay of Biscay, are become the most expert harpooners in the world, without excepting the Dutch and the Hamburgers.

But the French have not only increased in the whale-fishery, but, which is of far more consequence to Great-Britain, they have exceedingly increased their fishery to Newfoundland, as well on the coast as on the great bank. The consequence of this increase of their fishery we have, to our sorrow, too sensibly felt for many years. Nor do they fish only on the great bank of Newfoundland for such fish which are cured without drying, as the Dutch do in their white herring fishery in the open sea, but have had the address to obtain that the island of Cape Breton should be yielded up to them, to fortify and do what they please with; where they may, and doubtless will, make another Dunkirk, as I have observed upon another occasion, and where they may carry on their dry fishery, as well as at Placentia: for we have, for some time, had daily accounts that they are fortifying Cape Breton to the utmost.

But this is not all; the world is well amended with the French since the time that they paid a tribute for the liberty of curing and drying fish at Newfoundland, which was granted them by king Charles I. in the 10th year of his reign. At this time the French do not only pay no tribute, but, by their neighbourhood at Cape Breton, will oblige us to keep large garrisons as well at Nova Scotia as Newfoundland, if we will prevent our being surprized; where at Newfoundland they have the liberty of the fishing-season equally with us, from Cape Bonavista northward to the northern point of the said island, &c. by which situation they are also become our rivals in another branch of our fishery; that of salmon: for, at the harbour of Bonavista, which is to the northward of the Cape, and therefore within their limits, is an extraordinary good fishery of salmon.

Had the late king William granted the Dutch any one of the islands of the Orkneys, as heretofore intimated, in propriety to fortify, or a liberty of resorting to, or erecting drying-houses necessary to cure red herrings in any such island, or in England or Scotland, it would have been remembered, with good reason, a thousand and a thousand times over. But the French have had the cunning to procure for their fishery such liberties and privileges as can scarcely be consistent with our safety or interest; and, therefore, the world may be left to judge who are our GREATEST and MOST DANGEROUS rivals in the FISHERY. They are now become so much our rivals in this trade, and are increased to such a prodigious degree, that they employ yearly above 500 sail of shipping from St Malo, Granville, Rochelle, St Martins, Isle of Rea, Bayonne, St Jean de Luze, Sibour, &c. to carry on their fisheries on the great bank of Newfoundland, and on the coast of that island; that is, in their wet and dry fish: nor do they now only supply themselves with the fish they formerly had from us, but furnish many parts of Spain and Italy therewith, to our prodigious loss. They have the properest salt of their own, which renders their voyages much shorter than ours; for we have been obliged to go from hence to Rochelle, Olleron, St Martin, &c. to fetch

that commodity, which they have at their own doors; and thereby we have most frequently spent a month or six weeks more in our voyage than they do.

The French are so sensible of the prodigious advantage of this fishery, and so very intent upon pursuing it, that, from their first attempts to make themselves considerable at sea, they have had it perpetually in view.—They first obtained leave to fish at Newfoundland, upon paying a duty of 5 per cent. afterwards they got that acknowledgement relinquished: but, at the treaty of Utrecht, they went far greater lengths; for thereby they procured a cession to be made to them of Cape Breton, a maiden fishery, that had scarce ever been touched; whereas Newfoundland was greatly exhausted, and also several islands in the gulph of St Lawrence. Not content with that, they further obtained a liberty of curing and drying their fish, setting up stages, and resorting to our island of Newfoundland, during all the time that it is of any use to resort thither; which is during the fishing-season.

They, indeed, delivered up to us the possession of Placentia, and some other places in Newfoundland; but then they took care to have a much better place, for their fishery yielded to them, in lieu thereof; with this extraordinary favour to them, more than to us, that they have the liberty granted them to frequent our island of Newfoundland, and erect stages, &c. thereon, for curing and drying their fish; but we have not the privilege allowed us on doing the same on any of their islands, or on the island of Cape Breton, while they have express permission granted them to fortify as they please.

Thus the French are become our rivals in the FISHERY by our own consent; which is the more wonderful, in that it is owing to this fishery, that they dared to contend for the mastery at sea with the maritime strength of England and Holland united.

'Tis true, the English and Dutch are most frequently called the maritime powers; but we think it a jest, at this time of day, to appropriate the name of maritime powers to Great-Britain and Holland, exclusive of France, when we consider what a figure that nation made at sea before the battle of La Hogue in 1692, and what a figure they are able to make at present from the daily increase of their marine, since the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle. See the article FRANCE.

The history both of France and England will shew us, that since the former procured leave to fish at Newfoundland, and their settlement and fishery at Cape Breton, they have grown very formidable at sea, and that their royal navy has augmented in proportion to the number of ships employed in these fisheries.—What have we not to expect then, since they have obtained a right to a better place for their fishery, in the opinion, even of the French themselves, as the reader will soon see by the inclosed letter, written by a minister of state in France, to the duke de Gramond at Bayonne. The occasion of it was, that the people of St Jean de Luze and Sibour, (two places in the county of Sibour) being under apprehensions that their fishery at Newfoundland was to be delivered up wholly to Great-Britain, the duke wrote a letter to Paris to be rightly informed, and received the following answer.

Copy of a letter written by Mons. de Pontchartrain, to Mons. the duke de Gramond, from Fontainebleau, 19 September, 1713.

I have received, Sir, the letter you did me the honour to write me the third of this month, with two letters that were directed to you by the inhabitants of St Jean de Luze and Sibour, upon the subject of their fishery of dry fish. From the account I have given the king of their demand, his majesty directed me to write, by his order, to Mons. the duke D'Aumont, his ambassador extraordinary at London, to ask of the queen of Great-Britain a permission for them to go the next year to Placentia, and the liberty to continue their fishing in ALL the ports and harbours upon the coast of Newfoundland. I shall do myself the honour to acquaint you with Mons. the duke D'Aumont's answer.

I agree with you, Sir, that the country of La Bour will suffer much, should they be deprived of their liberty of carrying on their fishery of dry fish; and you will be persuaded of the attention I have to procure to the merchants that drive this commerce, the means to continue them in it, when I have informed you, that the king sent from Rochford, in the month of May last, one frigate, to go and lay the first foundation of an establishment in the island of CAPE BRETON, where fish is MUCH MORE ABUNDANT than at the island of Newfoundland, and where one may make the fish, and manage the drying thereof easily. This frigate arrived June 26, at Placentia, from whence she was to continue her course for CAPE BRETON, to which place I have caused to be transported 100 men, to begin the settlement. His majesty will send, the beginning of the year, three ships, to transport thither the garrison of Placentia, and the inhabitants of the island of Newfoundland, and to put the last hand to the establishment of that port. The merchants of this kingdom may then send all such ships as they shall

shall think fit to order, for the fishing of dry fish, and for the oils that are made from the fish on the said island. This favour ought to animate the merchants that drive this commerce, to carry it on with vigour, from the advantage they will draw from it. This is all I have been able to do in their favour. I desire you to be persuaded of the great sincerity wherewith I have the honour to be ———.

From this letter it is plain the French never intended to quit the fishery of dry cod, and that they have, from this period, very much rivalled us therein, to our great detriment, and their unspeakable emolument, BY THE MEANS OF THEIR FAVOURITE AND VERY IMPORTANT SETTLEMENT OF CAPE-BRETON.—And with regard to their herring-fishery, we have frequent accounts of many hundreds of their buffes being upon our coasts in the season; which may one day prove highly dangerous to this kingdom upon other occasions, as well as injurious to our own fisheries of that kind.

REMARKS, in consequence of the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

From the preceding account of the FRENCH FISHERIES at NEWFOUNDLAND, and the adjacent islands of CAPE-BRETON, it appears, that the French have reaped very great benefit and advantage thereby since the PEACE OF UTRECHT, and more especially by that new and maiden FISHERY, which they have so many years successfully carried on, by means of CAPE-BRETON, and it's COASTS, and also all their CANADIAN DEPENDENCIES in general: and indeed it must be confessed, that CAPE-BRETON has, ever since the French settled and fortified it, been a pungent thorn in the side of the BRITISH COLONIES in this part of the AMERICAN WORLD; but by the last DEFINITIVE TREATY, this severe thorn is plucked out and eradicated, as an annoyance to these kingdoms; and instead of this island and it's Louisbourg fortifications being longer a terror to GREAT-BRITAIN, they are now become so to FRANCE; instead of that nation being able, by means thereof, to awe and intimidate our adjacent colonies; the last treaty having annexed this valuable island for situation to the crown of England, it is now become our safeguard; we can fortify CAPE-BRETON again, and render it an IMPREGNABLE BARRIER to all our antient northern colonies; an effectual protection to CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES, and to all our other NEW ACQUISITIONS in these parts. This will prove of unspeakable benefit and advantage to this kingdom, by so curbing and restraining the power and conduct of the French in their fishery here, that by virtue of Cape-Breton, we shall be able to extirpate them from the islands of St PETERS and MIGUELON, whenever they dare violate the stipulations of the treaty, and for ever after hinder them from catching a fish on any parts contiguous to Newfoundland.—This we are now in a condition to do, by virtue of the last peace; and if France thinks soon to quarrel with Great-Britain again, they will run the risk of being for ever, perhaps, deprived of the smallest share in the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERIES. This we certainly have now in our power to do; and this we have reason to hope and expect will for some years prevent a rupture between the two nations. See also FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, &c. MEXICO.

Of the principles that are said, at present, to prevail at the court of SPAIN with regard to FISHERIES.

Under the article BISCAY, a principality in Old Spain, I have shewn, by a short quotation from the sage Spaniard Uztariz, whose system in regard to commerce is said to be adopted by his Catholic majesty's ministry, that Spain is about to diminish, and in effect absolutely obstruct and prohibit the importation of British-caught fish into their dominions, by establishing fisheries of their own.

This author, after shewing the advantages which the Dutch, French, and English have reaped from their fisheries, takes no little pains to animate the Spanish nation sanguinely to pursue the like commerce and policy: he goes so far as even to assert, that the Spaniards have a right to fish at Newfoundland: so that we are likely to have rival upon rival in this branch.

It ought to be a principal concern of the government, says this politic Spaniard, to prevent foreigners from enervating the kingdom so much as they do, by the importation of salt fish, and the great consumption it meets with in Spain, that of bacalao in particular, which is known to be so considerable a part of the food of all it's provinces in general.

In order to calculate the consumption, it is to be observed, that in the provinces of the crown of Castille, the fast-days amount to a hundred and twenty in a year, and that they exceed a hundred and sixty in those of the crown of Arragon, and in Navarre, where flesh is prohibited on Saturdays, which is not the case in Castille. The computation may be a little over or under, on account of some variation there is in the devotional fasts. But if we rate the

number to be a hundred and thirty in the year, one kingdom with another, throughout Spain, upon a moderate supposition that ever family, one with another, shall expend four ounces of bacalao every fast-day (which is not an ounce to one person) there will be consumed, in a million and a half of families, six millions of ounces, which amount to 3750 quintals per day; and, for the hundred and thirty fast-days in a year, 487,500 quintals; which, at the rate of five dollars, the current price, a little more or less, when foreigners sell it to us, amount to 2,437,500 dollars. And, if we add the great quantity of cured salmon, herrings, pilchards, and other fish from abroad, which is also expended in these kingdoms, one may reasonably imagine, that the money they annually drain from us, by this article, is above three millions of dollars: and it is one of the principal causes of our unhappy situation.

I am aware there is no small number of persons who, for want of health, are dispersed with eating fish upon days of abstinence; but there are also many convents of men and women, some of which live upon fish every day in the year, others the greatest part of it: so that what these societies exceed the hundred and thirty days of abstinence, may be a ballance for such as eat flesh on those days.

This general calculation I have thought proper to give, in order to have it more clearly seen how much of our substance other nations drain from us by the sale of cured fish; though I do it with some reluctance, because I am to draw precise conclusions from principles doubtful, and incapable of being ascertained. But should any one think I run far wide of the truth in my estimate, either exceeding or falling short of it, every one will be at liberty to correct them, and form others more correct from better information, and clearer notions of this matter.

I am also very sensible, that bacalao is a diet of great relief to those parts, where fresh fish is scarce; but we should not, on that account, throw off all thoughts of repairing the great injury they do us by the sale of this, and other salt fish, and neglect to avail ourselves of such measures as prudence shall dictate, in particular the advantages which our OWN SEAS afford, and some other prudent considerations invite us to, and flatter us with an easy way to supply our wants, if not wholly, at least in a great measure; since it is well known what plenty of fish there is on the coast of Spain, especially that of Galicia; as is also certain, that on the coast of the Andalusia's, there is abundance of tunnies, sturgeon, lampreys, cuttle-fish, chevins, and several other sorts of wholesome fish, some of which salted, and others dried, are kept whole years, not only for a supply to those provinces, where there is a great consumption, but also to furnish us in the inland parts; and the only thing we want is to encourage a fishery, both on our own coasts and in other seas; and in this sort of commerce by his majesty's subjects I shall, therefore, proceed to point out such measures as seem to me most prudent, and likely to take effect.

In chapters 73 and 74, I recommend the stationing of guarda costa's, and shew, that, among other great advantages, they would be a means to enlarge our fisheries on the coast of Spain and elsewhere. To their contents I refer for what concerns the encouragement and security of those fisheries, and intend only to add, that I esteem it a very prudent step to lay as heavy duties, as treaties of peace and commerce shall allow, upon the importation of bacalao, and other salt fish into Spain, without any abatement or indulgence whatever, not excepting the voluntary and accidental allowances which of late years have been made to fish, and some other things in the customhouses of Catalonia, on their importation, besides their not being charged in that principality, or the kingdom of Valencia, with the duty of the million, which most part of the salt fish pays in the ports of Castille.

It will also be proper for salt fish to pay intire the duties of the alcavala and ciento's, in all places where it should be sold, or the sale repeated, guarding it with necessary precautions, whether the towns be under composition or administration. This is to be understood of the provinces where those duties are established.

In chapter 23, giving examples from the French, I set forth some of the immunities which his most Christian majesty, in the year 1713, granted to bacalao, and oils proceeding from the fishery of his subjects; and also observe, that they were allowed to export stores, arms, ammunition, utensils, and provisions for the ships, or vessels, intended for the said fishery, and even the salt that should be wanted to cure the fish. To this I may add, that in several articles under tit. 15, of the ordinance of 1680, in respect to the settling of the gabel, or revenue of salt in that kingdom, are also found many indulgencies, and other encouragements granted for curing of bacalao, salmon, herrings, pilchards, and other sorts of fish; in particular the abatement of the price of it, and also the rules and precautions necessary to prevent frauds, set forth at large.

The 24th chapter contains a prohibition, that was made in France, against the importation of pilchards from foreign

countries, in order to favour their own fishery, and the trade of his majesty's subjects in this commodity.

In chapter 28, where I produce some examples taken from the English, it is observed, that the duty upon salt used in curing white herrings was taken off in that kingdom in the year 1722, as also what was charged upon the exportation of the same herrings.

In chapter 36, which treats of the measures employed by the Dutch, mention is also made of some indulgencies, and other encouragements, in favour of their fisheries.

Upon the foundation of these examples, taken from three nations that best understand commerce, and most prosper in it, and what one's own reason suggests as proper to be done, I am of opinion we should give leave to all his majesty's subjects that go to the fishery in their own vessels, whether on the coasts of Spain, or in the Mediterranean, to carry out, free of all duty, at least biscuit, all sorts of pulse, dried or green, and salt fish caught in the Spanish fisheries, and even a certain quantity of oil, vinegar, and brandy, in proportion to the number of hands and days a few over and under, that they shall be employed in the fishery, being fully convinced that the subjects of other powers, upon no pretence whatever, can fairly claim an equal privilege in this case with his majesty's people. For all conventions, or treaties of commerce, even though they should be strictly observed, were made for very different purposes. Nor shall I stay to explain this matter, as the motives, cases, and other circumstances that distinguish the two things, are invariable and manifest. But it is further observable, that, for these indulgencies to the fishery, and his majesty's subjects, there will be no reason to make an allowance to the farmers of the revenue, both on account of their trifling value, and because they must experience, from the great improvement made by this means in the fishery, and trade of the towns, where the revenues are farmed, a considerable increase of them other ways, as has been already shewn in the case of manufactories. And, to take away from the farmers all pretence for it, there should be an exclusive article to this effect in their contracts for the kingdoms of Murcia, Granada, Seville, Galicia, the Asturias, and the four towns; for, in the other provinces upon the coast, the provincial revenues are never farmed, nor the customs any where else.

Thus have we given our readers an idea of the nature and importance of the fisheries to Holland and France, as also of the measures that are likely to be taken in Spain in relation to the same branch of commerce. What seems to confirm this to be the real intention of the court of Spain, is their apparent endeavours to increase their royal navy, by enticing away numbers of our ship-builders for that purpose: and, if they are determined to increase the number of their men of war, and likewise to establish fisheries in order effectually to man them, is it not time that we should be upon our guard, as well with respect to Spain as France? There are, it seems, also other powers that are attempting fisheries, and aiming at the acquisition of some share in maritime commerce.

These are facts, not groundless conjectures. In regard to the pretended claim of the Spaniards to fish upon our coasts of Newfoundland, it may not be useless to observe, that there was no more care taken of that fishery in the Utrecht treaty than before; for they went so far, that they sent one Gillingham, at this time an Irish papist, to our court, to get the liberty of fishing at Newfoundland. That this Gillingham was far from being snubbed by the then ministry, for coming about such an impudent business, is well enough known: Nay, the lord Lexington, who had not refused the embassy to Spain, when that monarchy and the West-Indies were about to be ravished from the house of Austria and given to the duke of Anjou, thought this Irish papist was so welcome to the ministry, that, in his letter to the lord Dartmouth, then one of the secretaries of state, he frequently excuses himself for not writing upon that subject, because they had full accounts of the matter from Gillingham. Nay, the queen's plenipotentiaries, the earl of Strafford and Dr Robinson bishop of Bristol, went so far, as to suffer a clause to be inserted at the end of the 15th article of the peace with Spain; whereby, to use the words of the secret committee, they gave a pretence to the Spaniards to claim a right to fish at NEWFOUNDLAND, contrary to the 7th and 8th articles of the treaty made with that crown by Sir William Godolphin.

The board of trade, being consulted upon this occasion, made the following answer to the lord Dartmouth, dated January 13, 1712-13:—'We have considered the extract of a memorial from the marquis de Monteleone, relating to a claim of the inhabitants of Guipuscoa to fish on the coast of Newfoundland; and thereupon take leave to inform your lordship, that we have discoursed with such persons as are able to give us information in that matter, and we find that some Spaniards are come hither with passes from her majesty, and others may have fished there privately, but never any, that we can learn, did do it as of right belonging to them.' We see by this, that, even before the conclusion of that French peace, the queen's passes had been given to the Spaniards, to

take the benefit of the most profitable branch of the English commerce; but the Spaniards have not carried their point in it; and, by the 4th article of the treaty which Mr Dodington made in December 1713, some of the ground lost to them by the Utrecht peace was recovered, and all innovations made in trade were to be abolished; the most scandalous of which was their fishing at Newfoundland.

Thus our Dictionary stood in the edition before the LAST WAR; and that these PRETENSIONS OF THE SPANIARDS, to the RIGHT OF A NEWFOUNDLAND-FISHERY was manifest by their CLAIM to it, when they joined FRANCE in the LAST WAR, as we foretold throughout our Dictionary that they might be judged to do.

BUT THIS POINT also is now finally settled between GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN, by the XVIIIth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, wherein it is expressly stipulated, 'HIS CATHOLIC MAJESTY desists, as well for himself, as his successors, from all PRETENSIONS, which he may have formed in favour of the GUIPUSCOANS, and OTHER HIS SUBJECTS, to the RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NEWFOUNDLAND.'

The policy of other neighbouring nations who have long established fisheries, and others who are daily attempting the same, at the expence of Great-Britain, should effectually rouse and alarm us, not only to preserve that share in the fisheries we already have, but to excite and animate us to make the utmost advancement in this invaluable branch of traffic that we are capable of; more especially so, since we have it in our power, by a natural right, to fish upon our own coasts, and perhaps have an equal right to hinder and prevent all other nations from doing so.

I shall not here, however, enter into the sole right of Great-Britain to the sovereignty of the British seas, though a great fund of argument might be urged on that head. What I shall observe at present is, that, although it may not be advisable, at this conjuncture, to attempt to put an absolute stop to other nations from fishing upon our own coasts, yet it is to be hoped, that this indulgence to others is not to prevent ourselves from making the best advantages that God and nature have given us, by storing our coasts with such immense plenty of fish!

Of the herring and herring-fishery, in the seas, and on the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland.

About the beginning of the month, signified by several tokens in the air and in the water; which the Shetlanders say they know it by, there appears coming from the north an incredible shoal of this species of fish, which is so well known throughout the world as to need no description.

From whence they come, and where they may be said to breed and increase, we know little of. That they are innumerable in quantity is matter of fact. Nor do they, as we can perceive, return from whence they came, to breed a farther supply for the next season; on the contrary, they come from home, wherever that may be, big with young, as we may say, swelling with their prolific spawn, in which every fish may be said to produce 10,000 others: and this spawn they cast in these seas, for they come to us full, and are shot long before they go from us.

They come up, as it may be said, on the breadth of the sea; and the bulk of the shoal, take it in the gross, is probably greater than the whole land of Great-Britain and Ireland. They are doubtless greatly straitened when they come southward, by being obliged to pass between the shores of Greenland and the North Cape; which to such immense swarms must be called a strait, though, on the surface of the globe, it be no less than 200 leagues in breadth.

When their surprizing body meets with an interruption from the situation of the island of Great-Britain, it divides them into two parts, whether equal, or how near so, is not to be determined. One part of them steer something west or south-west, and, leaving the islands of Orkney and Shetland to the left, pass on towards Ireland. There meeting a second interruption from the situation of that island, they divide themselves again; one part, keeping to the coast of Britain, pass away south down that which we call St George's or the Irish channel; and so coming on between England and Ireland, they enter the Severn Sea, where they meet with their species again. The other part, edging off for want of room to the west and south-west as before, go along the Hibernian ocean, and, still keeping upon the coast, make about to the south shore of Ireland; and then, steering south-east, meet with their species again, who come down the Irish channel.

The other part of the first division made in the north, parting a little to the east and south-east, come down into the German ocean; and, keeping still close to the coast of Britain, they pass by Shetland, and then make the point of Buchenefs and the coast of Aberdeen; filling, as they pass, all the bays, firths, river, and creeks, with their innumerable multitudes, as if directed by Heaven on purpose to prevent themselves for the relief and employment of the poor, and the benefits of traffic. Hence they come away south, pass

by Dunbar, and, rounding the high shores of St Tobbs and of Berwick, are seen again off of Scarborough, and not before, and not in bulk, 'till they come to Yarmouth Roads in England, and thence to the mouth of the Thames; from whence passing the British Channel, they are seen no more. We come next to speak of the fishing for them by the several nations in Europe, from which so great a profit in trade is raised, navigation so much improved, seamen nursed and bred up, and so many thousands, we may say millions, perhaps, of hands employed and maintained both at sea and on shore.

Before the late establishment of the society of the Free British Fishery the DUTCH gave them the first salute, who were generally ready off Shetland at the first appearance of the fish, with above 1500 sail of buffes; and spreading their nets in the fair way, as they call it, of the fish, they are not long a loading all their vessels; which, when done, they make home to cure, repack, and prepare them for the markets, which is chiefly at Dantzick and the east country.

The herrings not missing the comparative few of their species, which are there taken, make on their way for the shores of Scotland, and spreading themselves upon the sands and shoals, in every creek, harbour, or bay, as it were, offering themselves to the Scots nets, as well for food of the poor, as for the commerce of the merchants there: nor did the Scots, before the late established fisheries, neglect to take very great quantities, which they also cured, pickled up, and sent to the same markets as the Dutch; and, considering the Dutch carry all their fish home, repack, pickle, and relade them on other ships, the Scots are frequently at the market before the Dutch, and sell for as good a price.

After the Scots on the north-side the Tay have thus fished, the Dunbar fishing-boats and the Fife-men fall in among the herrings; and they likewise take a considerable quantity, as well for carrying up the land for the use of the country, to Edinburgh, and other populous places, as for curing after the Yarmouth manner, and making what we call red herrings. From hence the shoal of fish, keeping in deeper water, are scarce seen any more, except, as observed, a little off Scarborough, 'till they come to Yarmouth; where, spreading themselves upon the sands in quest of their food, they are again taken in prodigious quantities by the English, the Dutch, and the French; for as the Yarmouth and Leostoff men take and cure about 50,000 barrels of red herrings in a year, so they consume an incredible number in the town of Yarmouth, the city of Norwich, and all the adjacent towns of those populous counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, as well as in Essex, Cambridgeshire, &c.

While they are fishing of them here, other branches of that shoal push themselves forward to the mouth of the Thames, where the fishing-smacks of London, Folkestone, Dover, Sandwich, and all that coast, take also innumerable quantities for London markets, and for all the populous towns on the river Thames. And near the sea-coast of Kent and Suffex.

All this while the Dutch, fitting out their buffes again, lie on the back of Yarmouth-sands; as do likewise the French, Flemings, Flushingers, Bremeners, and Hamburgers. Lastly, they come into the narrow seas, where the French on one side, and our west-country fishermen on the other, meet them again; and by this time they cast their rows, and become shotten. After which they disappear in these parts.

On the side of North Britain they fare no better; the merchants of Glasgow, Aire, Dumfries, and on the coast of Galloway, are engaged more or less in the herring fisheries; and the merchants of Londonderry, Belfast, Carrickfergus, Carlingsford, and on to Dublin, meet them on that side; and, beginning upon them at the Lewes and Western Islands, give them no rest; 'till having run the gauntlet, as we may say, through the Irish channel, they come out into the Severn sea, where again they are attacked by the English merchants of Devonshire, from Minehead to Barnstaple and Biddiford, and so on westward to the towns on the north shore of Cornwall, where many thousands of tons are caught and cured for trade, and many ships loaded off with them for Spain and the Mediterranean (besides an incredible number consumed by the people on shore) the merchants of Pembroke, Swansea, and all the coast of South Wales, from Milford-Haven to the mouth of Bristol-River, above King's-Road, doing the same: after which being shotten, they march westward into deep waters to their own species, and are seen no more. Thus we have brought this fish round the island, offering themselves indifferently as they pass to the nets of all the neighbouring nations; who for their own food, and for sale to other countries, where the shoal does not come, take an inexpressible number. Whether they go afterwards is uncertain. As to the suggestion, that the quantity is by this time exhausted, the contrary is so evident, from the mighty shoals which are seen in the Severn seas, and on the west and south coasts of England and Ireland, at their parting, that it rather seems the number taken bears but a very small proportion to the whole that might be.

It is also certain, that these shoals of herrings are pursued and devoured in great quantities, by the more ravenous and larger fish, such as the porpus, dog-fish, sun-fish, and other

the divers sorts of sea-monsters, with which those northern seas abound.

It is likewise true, that the herrings are found again upon the shores of North-America, though not in such quantities as here; nor are they seen farther south, even in that country, than the rivers of Carolina: whether these may be part of that mighty shoal, which, at their first coming by the coast of Greenland, might, instead of coming to the south-eastward with the rest, keep to the coasts of America on the north-west side; or whether these may be the remainder of them that pass our channels, is uncertain: but we know, that they are not seen in quantities in any of the southern kingdoms, as Spain, Portugal, or the south parts of France, on the side of the ocean, or in the Mediterranean, or the coast of Africa.

As this article of FISHERIES is pretty much swelled already, we shall not here enter into a very minute and particular consideration of the herring fishery, as it is at present established in this kingdom, by a society of the FREE BRITISH FISHERY; because, to do justice to a subject of that high concernment to the nation, requires a distinct deliberation, and not to be flurried over in a general and superficial manner. Wherefore we shall only observe, at present, that since the divine providence has so eminently stored the coasts of Great-Britain and Ireland, with this valuable species of fish; and since this branch of the British-fishery must, if it proves successful, become an additional permanent nursery for the brood of expert seamen; it is not only a duty we owe to the Supreme Being, not to dispise that wonderful plenty of herrings he hath afforded us, by neglecting to extend this branch of trade to the utmost, but it is a duty we owe to our country, for it's natural security; for that depends upon royal navies, and no nation can have a navy, where there is not a fund of business to breed and employ seamen, without any expence to the public, but when they are actually employed in the service of the public: a fleet depends upon navigation, navigation upon trade, and trade upon HOME MANUFACTURES and FISHERIES.

Our Fisheries, of all others, may be rendered the greatest nursery for seamen. This business is now carried on more or less, in every part upon the coasts of the whole island of Great-Britain, and upon the coasts of all the islands that belong to it. Every man, who has been a few years in the practice of going to sea to fish, makes a good seaman before the mast, and most of them go to sea when a good voyage comes in their way; and when it is over, return to their fishing again, until the like opportunity offers.

Another fishery, almost as peculiar to Great-Britain as the herrings, is that of pilchards. These are a sort of fish something smaller than a herring, and which come in the same season; they chiefly shew themselves on the shores of the two western counties of Devon and Cornwall, and are rarely seen any where else in the world, at least not in the like quantities.

'Tis a saying of the Cornish-men with regard to the pilchard, that 'tis the least fish in size, most in number, and greatest for gain, of any they take out of the sea.

The mackarel fishing comes next. These are a kind of fish, which the English are extremely fond of; the Scots see few of them, they being found in no quantities farther north than Yarmouth. They are not cured or exported as merchandize, except a few by the Yarmouth and Leostoff merchants; but are generally consumed at home, especially in the city of London, and the sea-ports between the Thames and Yarmouth east, and the Land's-end of Cornwall west. The Irish also have them on their coasts on the west of Ireland, but not far north.

There are several other small fisheries on the sea-coasts of Great-Britain, which, however considerable in themselves, are not much the subjects of merchandize, and yet employ great numbers both of ships and men.—As the oyster fishing at Colchester, Feverham*, the Isle of Wight, and in the swales of the Medway.

* From Feverham the Dutch sometimes load 100 sail of vessels, or large hoys, with oysters in a year: also oysters are caught in very great quantities near Portsmouth, and in all the creeks and rivers between Southampton and Chichester; many of which are carried about by sea to London and to Colchester, to be fed in the pits about Wavenhoe, and other places.

The lobster fishing: these are taken all along the British channel, and brought to London for sale; also in the Frith of Edinburgh, and on the coast of Northumberland. But of late the British fishermen find a better account in it, by fishing for them on the coast of Norway, from whence great quantities are brought to London.

It is to be observed in general, that the British fishermen have always one fishing or other in season; for, as one sort of fish goes out of season, another comes in.

Before we close this article of the British Fisheries, we should not forget to mention that of the whale fishing, or Greenland trade; a trade, though now little regarded by us, yet Great-Britain

Britain has a title to by a kind of inheritance, the English being the first that ever made the bold attempt of attacking that terrible creature, and failed amongst those monstrous islands of ice, in quest of new discoveries, and traversed the frozen zone to the latitude of 76, within the arctic circle, where they discovered Greenland, as we call it, or Spitzbergen, as other nations term it. And although they here found the land not capable of being cultivated or inhabited, yet they found the seas full of whales; and, finding the catching of them very beneficial, they soon became dextrous harpooners. From them the Hollanders, Bremers, and Hamburghers, learned the same; and in their first enterprizes were obliged to hire Englishmen for harpooners and steersmen, as we are now (so unhappily are the tables turned) to hire Dutchmen and Germans, if we go about the same business.

Having thus run over, with what brevity we could, the nature of our own fisheries, as well as those of some of the principal trading countries of Europe, it requires no argument to enforce the necessity of exerting ourselves constantly in this estimable branch of traffic; for, if other nations shall enjoy so certain, and so important a nursery for the brood of seamen, and we should wholly neglect the same, it does not require the gift of prophecy to foresee, who must one day obtain the superiority in maritime power.

Upon this point then seems to turn, in a great measure, the very being and salvation of this kingdom, with relation to its freedom and independency: and what more need be urged to rouse the British nation to leave nothing undone, which ought to be otherwise, for the advancement of our fisheries of every kind?

With respect to those which are upon our own coast of Great Britain and Ireland, as likewise in those in our American plantations, no nation can pretend to deprive us of our natural rights of fishing in these parts: and if we shall think proper to indulge other states with the like privileges of fishing upon our own coasts, and reaping unspeakable advantages thereby, is it not the worst of policy, is it not superlative infatuation, to suffer other rival nations to grow rich and powerful by this commerce at our own doors, while we shamefully neglect it?

However advisable, we say, it may be to tolerate and connive at the fisheries of foreigners upon our coast, yet this, which is only a matter of FAVOUR AND INDULGENCE, should not be construed as a MATTER OF RIGHT; for it seems something unjust and unreasonable, that the fish of our own seas should be caught and engrossed by STRANGERS, in prejudice of our natural right, since it will appear, we apprehend, that his majesty the king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the indulgence granted for a promiscuous fishing in the British seas, has a RIGHT TO REASSUME HIS AUTHORITY, AND PERMIT NONE TO FISH THEREIN, WITHOUT HIS SPECIAL LICENCE, AS HATH BEEN HERETOFORE OBTAINED FROM HIS PREDECESSORS, FOR MANY AGES: nor can it be esteemed unreasonable, if, in consequence of such right in the crown of Great Britain, an absolute interdiction should be made, to prevent such foreigners taking the bread out of our mouths, unless such FOREIGNERS merit such INDULGENCE by their CONDUCT TOWARDS THESE KINGDOMS.

It is greatly to be doubted, whether any nation would grant us the like privileges that we do to others, had nature given them the same advantages which we have in this respect. But it is a received truth, that the sovereignty of the British seas is the most precious jewel of the British crown, and next, under God, the principal means of our wealth, and our security as a free people; and this certainly appertaineth to the kings of Great Britain by immemorial prescription, continual usage and possession, the acknowledgement of all our neighbouring states, and by the sense of the municipal laws of the kingdom: and this right hath been insisted on many hundred years by the kings of England.

The famous Edgar, with a navy of 400 sail, vindicated his dominion in the adjacent seas. Canutus exacted his tribute, called DANES GELDT, on them. Egbert, Alfred, and Ethelred, were acknowledged supreme governors of the ocean surrounding the British shore. In the year 1200, king John had the honour of the flag paid him, in acknowledgement of his dominion, ever since continued to his successors, in the British seas, and ALL THE NETHERLANDS CRAVED PROTECTION AND LIBERTY TO FISH IN THEM OF EDWARD I. The earl of Holland petitioned Edward III; he did the French king, Henry VI, for the like purpose: and our learned Camden affirms, that in his time, THE HOLLANDERS DURST NOT CAST A NET ON OUR NORTHERN COAST, till licence was first obtained at Scarborough Castle for so doing. Philip II. of Spain obtained licence of queen Mary, that his subjects might fish on the north coast of Ireland for the space of 21 years; and it appears, by the records of that kingdom, that he yearly paid into the Exchequer 1000 l. sterling. This right was strenuously insisted on in the seventh year of king James I, as appears by the following proclamation.

A proclamation touching fishing.

James, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. to all and singular the persons to whom it doth or may appertain, greeting. Although we do sufficiently know, by our experience in the office of regal dignity (in which, by the favour of Almighty God, we have been placed and exercised these many years) as also of the observations we have made of other Christian princes exemplary actions, how far the absoluteness of sovereign power extendeth itself; and that, in regard thereof, we need not yield account thereof to any person under God, for any actions of ours, which is lawfully grounded on that just prerogative; yet such hath ever been, and will be our care and desire, to give satisfaction to our neighbour princes in any action which may have the least relation to their subjects and estates, as we have thought good (by way of friendly premonition) to declare unto them, and to whomsoever it may appertain, as followeth:

Whereas we have been contented, since our coming to the crown, to tolerate and permit an indifferent and promiscuous kind of fishing to all our friends whatsoever, to fish within our streams, and upon any of our coasts of Great-Britain, Ireland, and other adjacent islands: so far forth as the permission and use thereof might not redound to the impeachment of prerogative royal, nor to the hurt and damage of our loving subjects, whose preservation and flourishing estate we hold ourself principally bound to advance, before all worldly respects: so finding that our continuance therein hath not only given occasion of great incroachments on our regalities, or rather questioning our right, but hath been a means of daily wrongs to our own people that exercise the trade of fishing: as (either by multitudes of strangers that do pre-occupy these places, or by the injuries which they receive most commonly at their hands) our subjects are constrained to abandon their fishing, or at least to become so discouraged in the same, as they hold it better for them to betake themselves to some other course of living, whereby not only many of our coast-towns are much decayed, but the number of mariners daily diminished, which is matter of great consequence to our estate, considering how much the strength thereof consisteth in the power of shipping, and use of navigation. We have thought it now both just and necessary (in respect that we are now, by God's favour, lineally and lawfully possessed, as well of the islands of Great-Britain as of Ireland, and the rest of the isles adjacent) to bethink ourselves of good lawful means to prevent those inconveniences, and many others depending upon the same.

In consideration whereof, as we are desirous that the world may take notice, that we have no intention to deny our neighbours and allies those fruits and benefits of peace and friendship, which may be justly expected at our hands in honour or reason, are afforded by other princes mutually in point of commerce and exchange of those things which may not prove prejudicial to them: so because some such convenient order may be taken in this matter, as may sufficiently provide for these important considerations, which do depend thereon, we have resolved first to give notice to all the world, that our express pleasure is, That from the beginning of August next ensuing, no person, of what nation or quality soever (being not our natural-born subjects) be permitted to fish on any of our coasts and seas of Great-Britain, Ireland, and the rest of the isles adjacent, where most usually heretofore any fishing hath been, until they have orderly demanded and obtained licences from us, or of such of our commissioners as we have authorized in that behalf, viz. at London, for our realms of England and Ireland; and at Edinburgh for our realm of Scotland; which licences, our intention is, shall be yearly demanded for so many vessels and ships, and the tonnage thereof, as shall intend to fish for that whole year, or any part thereof, upon any of our coasts or seas thereof, as aforesaid, upon pain of such chastisement as shall be fit to be inflicted upon such wilful offenders.

Given at the palace of Westminster, the 6th day of May, in the 7th year of our reign of Great-Britain, Anno Domini 1609.

Notwithstanding this proclamation, foreigners still incroached upon our coasts and seas; and, during the whole reign of king James, pretending, because of the long connivance of himself and queen Elizabeth, that they had a right of their own, by immemorial possession, which some Dutch commissaries pleaded (in terminis) before the king and council; and they made no other use of his majesty's indulgence than to tire out his reign with evasive answers; and all that the king at length gained, was only a verbal acknowledgement of those rights; which, while they acknowledged, they equally evaded, abusing the favour of the king's indulgence, whereby he permitted his allies to make use of his seas and ports according to treaties.

He gave our neighbours leave to gather wealth and strength on

on our coasts; nay, they were once glad to invite our merchants residence, with what privileges they desired; they likewise, at one time, offered us even the sovereignty of their estates; they sued to us for licence to fish on our coasts, and obtained it under the great seal of Scotland, which they soon suppressed. When thus, by permission and connivance, they had possessed themselves of our fisheries, not only in Scotland and its isles, as well in Ireland as in England, and by our staple had raised their trade, they so increased their shipping and power by sea, that they were not content to be kept within any bounds, the truth whereof is evident by a letter of secretary Naunton's to the lord ambassador Carlton, dated the 21st of January, 1618; which follows:

'I received directions from his majesty to signify to the states commissioners here, that albeit their earnest intreaty, and his gracious consideration of the present trouble of their church and state, had moved his majesty to consent to delay the treaty of the great fishing till the time craved by the commissioners; yet, understanding by the new and fresh complaints of his mariners and fishers on the coast of Scotland, that, within these four or five years past, the Low-Country fishers have taken so great advantage of his majesty's toleration, that they have grown nearer and nearer on his majesty's coasts, year by year, than they did in preceding times, and oppressed some of his subjects, of intent to continue their pretended possession, and driven some of their greatest vessels through their nets, to deter others, for fear of the like violence, from fishing near them, &c. His majesty cannot forbear to tell them, that he is well persuaded of the equity of the states, and of the honourable respect they bear unto him, and his subjects for his sake, that they will never allow such unjust and intolerable oppressions: for restraint whereof, and to prevent the inconveniencies which must ensue upon continuation of the same, his majesty hath by me desired, that you write to their superiors, to cause proclamation to be made, prohibiting any of their subjects to fish within 14 miles of his majesty's coast this year, or any time hereafter, 'till order be taken by commissioners to be authorized on both sides, for a final settling of the main business. His majesty hath likewise directed me to command you from him, to make the like declaration and instances to the states there, and to certify his majesty of their answer with what convenient speed you may.'

Thus far secretary Naunton to the ambassador: what effect the ambassador's negotiation with the States had, appears by a letter of his from the Hague of the 6th of February, 1618, to king James himself, where, among other passages, he hath this:

'I find likewise, in the manner of proceeding, that, treating by way of proposition, nothing can be expected but their wonted dilatory and evasive answers; their manner being to refer such propositions from the States-General to the States of Holland. The States of Holland take advice of a certain council residing at Delft, which they call the council of the fishery. From them such an answer commonly comes as may be expected from such an oracle. The way therefore (under correction) to effect your majesty's intent, is to begin with the fisheries themselves, by publishing, against the time of their going out, your resolution, at what distance you will permit them to fish; whereby they will be forced to have recourse to their council of fishery, that council to the States of Holland, and those of Holland to the States-General: who then, instead of being fought unto, will, for contentment of their subjects, seek unto your majesty.'

During the whole reign of king James I, incroachments more and more increased, and the Netherlands, about the 12th year of the reign of king Charles I, were grown to such a height of power and figure at sea, that they had the confidence to keep ground upon our seas, and to project an office and company of assurance for advancement of trade, and also to prohibit us free commerce even within our own seas, and took our ships and goods, if we conformed not to their placarts, in all which our sufferings may seem to be forgot, yet the great interest of his majesty's honour, and the welfare of his subjects, occasioned the following proclamation, which was backed with a gallant fleet, to refresh the memories of those bold incroachments on our right.

A proclamation by king Charles I, for restraint of fishing upon his seas and coasts without licence.

'Whereas our father of blessed memory, king James, did, in the seventh year of his reign of Great-Britain, set forth a proclamation touching fishing, whereby, for the many important reasons therein expressed, all persons, of what nation or quality soever (being not his natural-born subjects) were restrained from fishing upon any of the coasts and seas of Great-Britain, Ireland, and the rest of the isles adjacent, where most usually heretofore fishing had been, until they had orderly demanded and obtained licences from our said father, or his commissioners in that behalf, upon pain of such chastisement as should be fit to be inflicted upon

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'such wilful offenders: since which time albeit, neither our said father nor ourself have made any considerable execution of the said proclamation, but have, with much patience, expected a voluntary conformity of our neighbours and allies to so just and reasonable prohibitions and directions as are contained in the same.

'And now finding by experience, that all the inconveniencies which occasioned that proclamation are rather increased than abated: we being very sensible of the premises, and well knowing how far we are obliged in honour to maintain the rights of our crown, especially of so great consequence, have thought it necessary, by advice of our privy-council, to renew the aforesaid restraint of fishing upon our aforesaid coasts and seas, without our licence first obtained from us; and by these presents do make public declaration, that our resolution is, at times convenient) to keep such a competent strength of shipping upon our seas, as may (by God's blessing) be sufficient both to hinder such further incroachments upon our regalities, and assist and protect those our good friends and allies, who shall henceforth, by virtue of our licences (to be first obtained) endeavour to take the benefit of fishing on our coasts and seas, in the places accustomed. Given at our palace of Westminster, the 10th day of May, in the 12th year of our reign of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland.'

This second proclamation, being set forth in the year 1636, served to speak the intent of those naval preparations made in the year preceding, which were so numerous and well-provided, that our Netherland neighbours were apprehensive of some great design in hand for the interest of England; and were let to know, that we hold it as a principle not to be denied, that the king of Great-Britain is a monarch at land and sea, to the full extent of his dominions; and that it as much concerneth him to maintain his sovereignty in the British seas, as in his three kingdoms; because, without that, these cannot be kept safe, nor he preserve his honour and due respect with other nations; but, by commanding the seas, commands the respect of his neighbours.

His majesty's intention by that fleet was not a rupture with any prince or state, nor to infringe any part of his treaties, but to continue and maintain peace, well-considering that peace must be maintained by the arm of power, which keeps down war by maintaining dominion. And his majesty, being provoked, found it necessary, even for his own defence and safety, to reassume and keep his antient and undoubted rights in the dominion of the British seas, and to suffer no other prince or state to incroach upon him, thereby assuming to themselves, or their admirals, any sovereign command.

But to force them to perform due homage to his admirals and ships, and to pay them acknowledgement as in former times they did; as also to set open and protect the free trade both for his subjects and allies, and give them such safe-conduct as they might reasonably require: nor would he suffer any men of war or free-booters to take prizes, or keep guard, to offer any violence, or give any interruption, to any lawful intercourse upon his seas, being resolved to do justice both to his subjects and friends within his dominion aforesaid. True it is, that the indulgence of queen Elizabeth, king James, and king Charles I, to their neighbouring nations, especially the Hollanders, by giving them too much liberty, did, in their times, encourage them to assume a privilege to themselves; and what at the first was but a licence, they improved into a custom, and made that custom an authority; inasmuch that some of the busiest of them openly declared against the king's right of dominion in the British seas.

R E M A R K S.

What is here suggested, in regard to the sovereignty of our monarch over those seas which belong, by nature, to the coasts of his dominions, is not with the least intent whatever to create any jealousies or heart-burnings between Great-Britain and our natural ally, the States-General of the United Provinces; it being the reciprocal interests of both these states to maintain the greatest cordiality, and strictest union and friendship with each other: and this our intention, we humbly conceive, is sufficiently evinced, from what we have urged under the article BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN]. We cannot, however, but hold it necessary to assert our natural rights, that our best friends may be sensible of the obligation they lie under for those extraordinary indulgences which they receive from us. But whether it may be consistent with the interests of this kingdom to indulge the FRENCH or the DUTCH to fish on our BRITISH or IRISH coasts, is a point that may merit one day the serious consideration of the government.

OF THE SOCIETY OF THE FREE BRITISH FISHERY.

The substance of the act of parliament, intitled, An act for the encouragement of the BRITISH WHITE HERRING FISHERY, made in the year 1749.

1. From the past miscarriages that have attended many joint-stock exclusive trading companies, the parliament have, in

their great wisdom, been pleased to empower his majesty to grant letters patent to an incorporated society, under the name of THE FREE BRITISH FISHERY, who are not vested with an exclusive power of trade.

2. The society are empowered to make by-laws. They are to direct what seals or marks shall be put on every barrel of fish. The penalty of counterfeiting such seals or marks is five hundred pounds for each offence, to be recovered in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, of in the court of session in Scotland; the one moiety to be paid to the said society, and the other to such as shall sue for the same.
3. The society are empowered to raise a capital stock of 500,000 l. and make calls for payments of the subscriptions.
4. The society may sell the shares of those who refuse to pay, after notice of call given in the Gazette.—Subscriptions to be paid into the bank of England.
5. 3 l. per cent per annum, for the sums employed in the fishery, to be paid to the society for 14 years.
6. An account of the said sums to be given annually to the commissioners of the customs.—The account to be attested upon oath.
7. 100,000 l. to be employed in the fisheries within 18 months from the date of the subscription.
8. The accounts to be laid before parliament.
9. All losses to be made good by the succeeding years gain, &c.
10. Sums contracted to be paid in 6 months, deemed to be employed as a capital stock.
11. No transfer to be made of the said capital stock for 5 years.
12. Executors and assignees of bankrupts, &c. may transfer.
13. 30 shillings per ton bounty to be paid out of the customs, for decked vessels, built for the fisheries, after the commencement of this act.
14. Every such buss employed in the white herring fisheries, that shall be intitled to the bounty of 30 s. per ton, shall be decked, built in Great-Britain, and proceed on the said fishery from some port in Great-Britain, manned and navigated, as by the law now in force is directed.—See NAVIGATION.—Before such busses proceed on her voyage, and is intitled to the benefit of this act, she shall be visited by a proper officer of the customs of the port, who shall take an account of the tonnage by admeasurement, and certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, and that she had such a quantity of fishing-nets, and other stores to be used in the said fishery as hereafter mentioned, and is otherwise a proper vessel for the said fishery.—And, upon it's appearing, by the oath of one or more owner or owners, or agent, by them appointed, or of a proper officer of the society, and of the master of such vessel, written at the foot of the said certificate, and made before the collector and comptroller of such port, who are required and empowered to administer the same, That it is their determined resolution, that such buss shall proceed respectively, so manned, and otherwise furnished, either to Braffey's sound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous of the said fishery there, on or before the 11th day of June, and shall not shoot their net before the 13th day of the said month, and shall continue following and fishing among the shoals of herrings, as they move, southward, to the 1st of October, or shall proceed to Campbelltown in Argyleshire, and be at the rendezvous of the said fisheries, on or before the 1st day of December, unless they shall have sooner completed their loading of fish; and shall fish in a regular manner with other vessels, which shall be employed in the said fishery; and shall keep a journal of their proceedings.—And if, after such certificate had, and oath made, such owner or owners, or officer of the said society, and master of such buss, do also become bound, with two sufficient sureties, unto his majesty, in the penalty of such sum as shall be equal to treble the bounty, on the tonnage of his vessel, for the faithful dealing of the said master, and ship's company, in regard to the said vessel and voyage, then it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of such port to grant, to the master and owners of such buss or vessel, full licence to proceed on such voyage as aforesaid.
15. And, to prevent disputes which may arise, whether a vessel be properly qualified for the herring fishery, according to the meaning of the act, and intitled to a certificate from the custom-house officers; it is enacted, That every such vessel shall be a decked vessel, built in Great-Britain, after the commencement of this act, and shall have on board 12 Winchester bushels of salt, for every last of fish which such vessel is capable of holding, which salt shall be barrelled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as such buss is capable of carrying, and shall have two fleets of tanned nets, proper for the herring fishery.—That every such buss or vessel, of the burthen of 70 tons, and designed for this fishery, shall, on proceeding to sea, have on board one fleet of nets, each 30 yards full on the rope, and 17 fathoms deep, and so in proportion for any vessels of a greater or lesser tonnage, and be provided with one other fleet of 50 like nets, on board

a jagger or tender, which is to attend the said fishery, or left on shore in a proper place, for the use of the said buss.

16. All vessels of 20 tons, to have on board, at the rendezvous, not less than 6 men, and every vessel of greater burthen shall, over and above the 6 men, have one for every 5 tons, which she shall exceed 20 tons.
17. Officers of the customs to go on board every vessel at her return to Great-Britain, to view her condition and lading; who is to certify the same, with the tonnage, and names of the master and persons on board.—The master to make oath, that his vessel was at one of the places before-mentioned, at the time appointed by this act.—Certificates, &c. to be transmitted to the commissioners from whence the vessel departed,—who are to cause payment to be made to the owners thereof, after the rate of 30 s. per ton,—which bounty of 30 s. per ton is to be paid yearly for 14 years.
18. This act not to exclude any of his majesty's subjects from carrying on the white herring fishery.
19. Persons subscribing 10,000 l. into the stock of the society, under the name of the fishing chamber, and who shall carry on the fishery on their own account of profit and loss, and shall send their accounts of monies expended in the said fishery, attested by three of the committee, and signed by the accountant of the chamber, to the society of London, &c. shall be intitled to receive 3 l. per cent. per annum.
20. Fishing chambers not to have any profit, &c. from the trade of the society.
21. Receiver-general to pay yearly the sum of 3 l. per cent. to the society of London, who are to pay over the same to the respective fishing chambers intitled thereto.

Further REMARKS upon the article of FISHERIES.

From this abstract of the act of parliament for encouraging the British fishery, it appears, that this affair is put upon a footing the most likely to prove successful to the society, to the respective chambers, and to the public.

The society is no monopoly, but every Briton has the liberty of carrying on this fishery, and is intitled to the same bounty and encouragement as the society itself.

The beginnings of all great designs require extraordinary helps and encouragements from the public, before they can be effectually settled and established: and so apparently beneficial to the kingdom, and to those concerned, must this great undertaking prove, in it's consequences, that it is to be ardently desired it may be now established upon such a basis, as to be even impossible to prove abortive.

When the Dutch were at war with England, and they wanted to man twenty or thirty sail of men of war, it was only having recourse to their fishery, and, in a few days, they were in a condition to give us battle, the seamen being only transferred from a smaller to a larger vessel on the same element.

What may we not expect from this scheme, a scheme so prudent in appearance, contrived by gentlemen of extraordinary skill and discernment, as well as of distinguished probity and honour, and is carried into execution by such opulent traders of this metropolis, whose genius for commerce is universally allowed, in conjunction with other personages of the first rank and fortune?

It is not to be doubted, but, while we have been raising money to carry on this design vigorously and prosperously, the Dutch have, from mistaking their own interest, been raising large sums also to defeat our intentions, and to hinder us from ever putting in practice, by enabling the proprietors in Holland to undersell us at foreign markets.—But, since they find we are determined to carry it on in spite of all opposition, they are damped in their machinations, and ought rather to have a grateful sense of our suffering them to enjoy any share in our own coast-fisheries, than to attempt to exclude us from those benefits, which the divine providence hath so liberally bestowed on us. Notwithstanding the start which the Dutch have had of us in this commerce, yet the disadvantages they labour under are many, in comparison to us, who are by nature situated in the midst of one continued herring-shoal. The island indented, as it were, with bays and harbours, to retire to in boisterous weather; the shore, whose inhabitants are ourselves, to furnish us daily with necessities: the contiguity of the land whereon to dry our fish, and whose situation enables us, with due industry, care, and dispatch, to be at most foreign markets, before the Dutch can have repacked their herrings in Holland: and if we are not, I am persuaded that it must be owing to some kind of mismanagement or other.

Here we cannot but observe, how favourable nature is to us; for, as the wind is above one half of the year westerly, our head-lands and bays are good roads for our ships to ride in, we being on the weather, and the French and Dutch on the lee-shore; besides, our shores are bold, our coasts high and easily discovered, and our anchor-hold is much better, being for the most part strong clay, hard gravel, or chalk, whilst theirs are only hard rocks, mud or loose sands; and, when the east wind blows, though it may block up the Thames shipping, yet we have many considerable ports whom

that

that favours likewise; such as Portsmouth, Pool, Dartmouth, Plymouth, Bristol, Liverpool, Whitehaven, Dumfries, Air, Glasgow, Campbeltown, and Irwin, besides many others of less note.

What a prodigious advantage is this! the wind through the whole year scarce ever interrupts us, while they don't enjoy the benefit of it above one half; nor are our harbours ever frozen or choaked up with sand as the Dutch.

We ought not to regard Britain as an island only, abounding with the necessaries and conveniences of life, but as a trading island, that owes all it's wealth and grandeur to an extensive commerce; which, if we ever lose, must be either through ignorance or indolence; and, the day we lose it, we may behold a superior fleet riding triumphant in our channel, menacing our shores on every side, and the trembling inhabitants, with their wives and children, flying to the inward parts. — If this prospect is so terrible, let it animate us with resolution to prevent effectually so great an evil.

In many branches of trade, it is no easy matter to distinguish the nationally profitable from the disadvantageous; but this of the fishery is an inexhaustible mine, a mine, which every year is as full, if not fuller of treasure, than it was the year preceding: gold and silver mines are attended with a far greater expence, and, the more they are wrought, the sooner they are exhausted; but this fishery mine of gold (for so we may justly call it) is liable to no such accidents; it's expences will yearly diminish after it's first effectual opening and working, and treasures increase.

Other commodities people may dispense with, but meat they must have. And we may hope to see the day, that the papists of Europe will become greater tributaries to us for our fish, than to the church of Rome.

Nor will it seem extraordinary, if we consider the vast number of people to whom it gives daily bread: as seamen, fishermen, ship and house-carpenters, smiths, sawyers, coopers, caulkers, butchers, bakers, brewers, carmen, boatmen, sail-makers, net-makers*, block-makers, trinel-makers, rope-makers, pump-makers, compass-makers, basket-makers, hook-makers, packers, dressers, porters, labourers, tanners, and spinners of net-work and sails. — Several of which trades are effected by children, the lame, the blind, and the aged, as well as by those who have hitherto been always the first in taking up arms against our lawful sovereign. Nor, as an ingenious gentleman says, who has had frequent opportunities of dealing and conversing with them, can he believe, that the Scots heretofore assisting in all rebellions is so much owing to inclination, as to the want of employment and ignorance, in not knowing the laws, language, and customs of England, many of them believing that their island, and a part of the main land, as they call it, opposite to them, is almost the whole world. Wherefore, if trade is once carried effectually among them, it is reasonable to believe that they would be more ready to care for that which would give them constant maintenance, than they would a pretender to his majesty's crown and kingdoms, for a little temporary assistance. They are not a people at all averse to arts and industry, nor do they want understanding for the comprehending of any science; yet it may be said of them as of the richest fields, that, if they are well cultivated, they'll produce the finest crops; but, if not, the worst of thistles and the most hurtful thorns. Commerce is the surest way to civilize countries; it is the sovereign parent of all useful arts.

* The measure taken by the incorporated society, as well as by the respective fishing chambers, in regard to the employment of the poor in the making of their nets, will not only prove the means of taking off a great burthen of expence from numbers of parishes, but will supply the fisheries with this essential article, at a much cheaper rate than otherwise they could be.

At different times, 'tis true, we have endeavoured to recover the fishery; but, whether the miscarriage has been owing to any wilful or inadvertent neglect, is difficult to determine. King Charles the 1st began it, in conjunction with a company of merchants, but the civil war occasioned it's being dropt. King Charles the 2d made the like attempt; but, being pressed for money, withdrew his share; at which the merchants being dissatisfied, 'tis no wonder they did the same. Whence 'tis evident, that neither want of fish, nor markets to vend them at, was the cause of laying this trade aside, but the unhappy situation of public affairs, and want of due vigour and resolution to combat a few obstacles, which attend every new undertaking, as might be shewn in numberless important instances; and yet by perseverance, and wise and steady measures, they have at length very happily succeeded.

About ten miles below Astracan, says that ingenious and public-spirited gentleman Mr Jonas Hanway, merchant, in his Historical Account of the British Trade over the Caspian Sea, &c. † lately published, is a small island, called Basmakoff, remarkable for it's large storehouses of salt, which is made about twelve miles to the eastward of it, and, being brought hither in boats, is conveyed in large flat-

bottomed vessels up the Volga. With this all the country is supplied, as far as Moscow and Twer. They dig annually several millions of poods, the exclusive property of which is claimed by the crown, and brings in a considerable revenue*; for the common food of the soldiery, and of the bulk of the people, is bread and salt. In this place also are large FISHERIES, to which the neighbourhood of the salt-works is of great advantage. These extend even to the sea, reaching south-eastward as far as Yweik, and also 100 miles above Zaritzen. From these fisheries all the country is supplied as far as St Petersburg: the vessels are loaded with salt fish, and sent away in the spring; but, as fresh fish keeps good so long as it is frozen, the winter is no sooner set in, than it is transported by land as far as Moscow and St Petersburg. The principal sorts are sturgeon, starlet, beluga †, and assotra ‡.

* In Astracan they sell the salt at three copecks a pood, but in Russia at 15 to 18, viz. about a farthing a pound. The revenue of Astracan is reckoned 140 to 160,000 rubles, or 35,500 l. of which the greatest part arises from salt and fish.

† A large white fish.

‡ It resembles sturgeon.

But what induced me to quote this learned author upon the present occasion, is what follows:

The first establisher, adds he, of these fisheries, was TOKIN DEMEDOFFA, a carrier, who settled there about 50 years ago; his whole fortune then consisted in two horses, but through his industry and abilities he became the greatest merchant in that country. The crown, which before his time was a stranger to these advantages, has, of late years, besides the salt, engrossed some of the fisheries also.

What I would infer from hence is, that if a private person, a carrier too, with no larger a fortune than two horses, should, by his industry and abilities, become the great instrument of establishing so considerable a fishery at Astracan; what may we not expect, in regard to the present fishery, from the wisdom of a parliament of Great-Britain, and the general concurrence of the people to contribute every thing to it's success!

And whereas the encouraging of the consumption of fish in Great-Britain, as an ingenious gentleman has observed, would be of great advantage to the undertakers of this trade, and to the nation in general; therefore, if the commissioners for granting of wine and ale licences were to be empowered to grant, to every person that comes for such licence, the said licence for 5 s. less, upon condition that they take one barrel of the company's herrings; if two barrels, 7 s. 6 d. and, if three, at 10 s. less, upon condition the said persons make oath, that the said herrings are for their use only: in which case it will be requisite for those who grant the said licences, to take each person's name, with a direction, naming, at the same time, the number of barrels, and transmitting them to the proper office in London; each deficiency in the said licences shall be made good by the company.

Was this the case, it is not to be doubted, but that every tavern and alehouse-keeper, as well as their customers, are sensible, that a herring is so relishing to the palate, that it would not only be very wholesome, but often occasion the selling of more liquor; by which such publicans will enlarge their gains, and thereby increase the revenue.

And, to the end that an undertaking of such important concernment to the nation should not miscarry, we do not see the unreasonableness, if every person who rents a house of ——— per annum, should be obliged, by act of parliament, to take one barrel of British herrings, at least, every year, for their family consumption; and those who inhabited houses that were higher rented, to be obliged to take two barrels, &c. ———

Without primary encouragements, says a very judicious writer in the year 1680, who intitled his work BRITANNIA LANGUENS, &c. and superintendance of the government, it will be hard to nourish up any new branch of trade, &c. — Amongst the exportations, the fishing trade ought not to be forgotten; since, according to modern calculations*, the mere fishing trade for HERRING and COD on the COAST of ENGLAND and SCOTLAND, employs above 8000 DUTCH ships or vessels, 200,000 of their seamen and fishers; and the herrings and cod, sold by the Dutch in foreign countries, do bring an annual profit of about 5,000,000 l. per ann. sterling to that nation: besides which, 'tis accounted that there are at least 25,000 people more employed and maintained at home about this particular navigation, as in making of fishing-nets, and the curing, ordering, and preparing of the fish, &c. besides the Iceland, Newfoundland, and Greenland fishings, of very great advantage.

* See Mr Smith of Improvements, &c. pag. 268, 269, 270, who computes the whole profit of this fishery to be, in his time, ten millions sterling per ann. and in a manner all gained by other nations.

† Vol. I. pag. 124.

Remarks on the nature of herring, ling, and cod; with an account of the almost incredible increase of codfish.

The herring is in greater repute among other nations than in Britain (chiefly owing, I believe, to our endeavouring to vend our own ill-cured herring among ourselves.) It is generally from 10 to 12 inches long, the sides of a silver colour, the belly sharp, like a wedge, the eyes red, the tail forked, large scales, and the lower jaw longer than the upper, and full of teeth.

It dies instantly when taken out of the water, from whence, I suppose, the proverb arose, As dead as a herring. The fish, when in perfection, is very delicious, if dressed when taken, which is about the autumnal equinox, before they spawn, are easily digested, and very nourishing.

They come yearly in vast shoals, as it were by divine appointment, from the north-west; not only for sustenance, but to enrich us by our captures for others. Their voyage is performed with great exactness, and the tract known by the hovering of sea-fowl, in expectation of prey, and the smoothness of the water; nor do they ever differ above 10 or 12 days in time, and that is always owing to strong south-east winds. When they come off the Lewis, the shoal divides, one half going to the Orkney and Shetland isles, and the others staying among the western, where they immediately meet with nourishment: the number of rivers and loughs in those parts daily carrying from the land an infinite variety of worms, and other insects, on which they feed; and to this immediate sustenance we may ascribe the cause of their being always better than those of Orkney and Shetland.

The ling is longer in proportion to its thickness than a cod, is from 2 to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, covered with small scales, of an ash and grey colour, a round tail, and a barb on the lower jaw.

It is a delicious fish when fresh, and, when rightly dry-cured, is transparent, and is preferred before any other salt fish.

They are to be had all the year among the western and northern isles, and, at particular times, off Penzance in England. The codfish is from 2 to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet long; those smaller are called codlings: it is a thick round fish, with a large head and belly, the back brown, and belly whitish, the eyes large, the scales small, and the whole fish full of yellow spots.

They are distinguished into six different sorts, from the manner of curing, and places from whence it comes, viz. Aberdeen fish, Iceland fish, green fish, stockfish, North Sea cod, poor jack, and barrelled cod.

It is much esteemed, and much used; the head of a large cod, when fresh, is reckoned a delicious dish; when they are used salted, they are generally steeped in water before they are boiled, are easily digested, and very nourishing; they are taken in great quantities on the eastern and western coasts of Scotland.

Perhaps some may imagine, that, if we carry on this trade effectually, there would not be fish for all the fishers, for which reason I shall give an account of their prodigious and almost incredible increase, which is so great, that, if there were but two males and two females left in the sea this season, there would be as many the next as there were the preceding, providing there was none of their young to be devoured by other fish.

The number of animalcules supposed to be in the melt, or semen masculinum of a cod.

Mr Leeuwenhouk, a very curious observer of nature, having viewed the melt, or semen masculinum, of a codfish, found such numbers of animalcules, with long tails, that he supposed there must be at least 10,000 in the bulk of a grain of sand; from whence he concludes there must be more animalcules in the melt of one cod-fish, than there are inhabitants alive upon the whole face of the earth at one and the same time.

He computes that 100 make the diameter of an inch, so that in an inch there must be 1,000,000 of such particles of sand; and, as he has found the melt of a cod-fish to be about 15 cubical inches, then of consequence there must be 15,000,000 of quantities as big as a grain of sand; now, if each of these quantities contain 10,000 animalcules, there must be in the whole 150,000,000.

A part of Sir Walter Raleigh's address to king James, in regard to fisheries.

The great sea-business of fishing doth employ near 20,000 ships and vessels, and 400,000 people are employed yearly upon your majesty's coast of England, Scotland, and Ireland, with 60 ships of war, which may prove dangerous.

The Hollanders only have about 3000 ships to fish withal, and 50,000 people are employed yearly by them upon your majesty's coasts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

These 3000 fishing ships and vessels of the Hollanders do employ near 9000 other ships and vessels, and 150,000 persons more by sea and land, to make provision to dress and transport the fish they take, and return commodities, whereby they are enabled, and do build, yearly, 1000 ships and vessels, having not one timber-tree growing in their own country, nor home-bred commodities to lade 100 ships, and yet they have 20,000 ships and vessels, and all employed.

King Henry VII, desirous to make his kingdoms powerful and rich, by increase of ships and mariners, and employment of his people, sent unto his sea-coast towns, moving them to set up the great and rich fishing, with promise to give them needful privileges, and to furnish them with loans of money, if need were, to encourage them; yet this people were slack. Now since I have traced this business, and made mine endeavours known unto your majesty, your noblemen, able merchants, and others who (having set down under their hands for more assurance) promised to disburse large sums of money for the building up of this great and rich large sea-city, which will increase more strength to your land, give more comfort, and do more good to all your cities and towns, than all the companies of your kingdom, having fit and needful privileges for the upholding and strengthening of so weighty and needful a business.

For example, 20 buffes built and put into a sea-coast town, where there is not one ship before, there must be, to carry, recarry, transport, and make provision for one bus, three ships; likewise every ship setting on work 30 several trades and occupations, and 400,000 persons by sea and land, inasmuch as 300 persons are not able to make one fleet of nets in four months for one bus, which is no small employment.

Thus by 20 buffes are set on work near 8000 persons, by sea and land, and are an increase of above 1000 mariners, and a fleet of 80 sail of ships, to belong to one town, where none were before, to take the wealth out of the sea, to enrich and strengthen the land, only by raising of 20 buffes.

Then, what good 1000 or 2000 will do, I leave to your majesty's consideration.

It is worthy to be noted, how necessary fishermen are to the commonwealth, and how needful to be advanced and cherished, &c.

1. For taking God's blessing out of the sea to enrich the realm, which otherwise we lose.
2. For setting the people on work.
3. For making plenty and cheapness in the realm.
4. For increasing of shipping, to make the land powerful.
5. For a continual nursery for breeding and increasing our mariners.
6. For making employment for all sorts of people, as blind, lame, and others, by sea and land, from 10 to 12 years, and upwards.
7. For enriching your majesty's coffers, by merchandizes returned from other countries for fish and herrings.
8. For the increasing and enabling of merchants, which now droop and daily decay.

A convention renewed and enlarged between his Britannic majesty and the city of Hamburg, concerning the trade of herrings, February 8, 1719.

George by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg, arch-treasurer and prince elector of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. to all and singular to whom these presents shall come, greeting. Whereas a certain convention for establishing a regular and free trade for herrings, between our subjects and the city of Hamburg, was first made in the year 1711, and was lately renewed, explained, and enlarged, and was concluded and signed on our part by Cyrill Wych, Esq; our minister residing with the republic of Hamburg, and on the part of the consul and senate of the said republic, by their deputies; being furnished on both sides with sufficient orders and authority, at Hamburg, on the 8th day of this present month of February, in the form and words following:

That is to say, that between the most serene and most potent prince and lord, George, king of Great-Britain, &c. by his minister and resident, M. Cyrill Wych, on the one part, and the laudable republic of Hamburg, by the deputies of its honourable senate, M. John Anderson, syndic, Peter Burmeister, and Henry Dieterick Wiese, senators, on the other part, by virtue of their powers and commissions, the convention of the year 1711 is renewed, explained, and enlarged, in the following articles, which are to serve for a constant regulation of a free trade of herrings caught by the subjects of his Britannic majesty on the coasts of his kingdoms.

I. The city of Hamburg grants permission for importing freely, to the said city, herrings caught on the coasts of Great-Britain, upon paying the same duties of entry as are usually paid for Flemish or Dutch herrings.

II. The herrings, at their being brought in, shall all be put into the warehouse, or warehouses, which shall be judged most convenient and proper, there to be kept, the proprietors paying a reasonable hire by the ton, as they can agree with the owner of the warehouse.

III. The herrings shall be opened in the warehouse-yard, in the same manner as those of Holland are, in the view of all who have a mind to be present; the pickle shall be drawn out, and, after the barrel shall be filled up with good fish, the pickle shall be put in again, the fish remaining always in the same barrel, without being removed from one barrel to be repacked in another. Besides, they shall be appraised or valued, and according to their quality, a proper mark, within a circle, shall

shall be set at the head and on the middle of every barrel; and, to shew that they are not Flemish or Dutch herrings, but of Great-Britain, a crowned B shall be burned on the head of each barrel.

IV. For this purpose the senate oblige themselves to chuse and appoint two appraisers, commonly called wraquers, and two packers; and, that they may not be suspected of partiality, they shall not have any dependence upon, or concern with, the Schonen fahrsers (or corporation of dealers in fish) and the said wraquers and packers shall take a solemn oath, conformable to the sense of this article, before the honourable senate; which oath shall be administered to them anew every year, the beginning of June, by the deputies of the senate.

V. If the proprietors, or their factors, come in person with their herrings, they shall have liberty to vend them to any burghers or inhabitants of the town indifferently, whom they shall think fit to deal with; but, if within the space of eight days they cannot dispose of them to the burghers or inhabitants, they shall be allowed to sell them to whomsoever they will, or to send them out of the town, to such place as they shall think fit.

VI. When the proprietors would send their herrings to factors, to dispose of them, they should be obliged to chuse their factor either among the laudable English company residing in the town, or among the burghers, who may then sell them to whomsoever they please, or send them out of the town whither they shall think fit.

VII. Besides what is already agreed as above, the subjects of his Britannic majesty shall always enjoy the same privileges and advantages in the herring-trade as are already granted, or may hereafter be granted to the subjects of their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Provinces.

VIII. It is likewise permitted to the subjects of his Britannic majesty to bring to Hamburg, salmon, stockfish, cod, and all other sorts of fish, either dried or smoaked, in barrels or salted, on condition they pay according to custom the duty of entry, or moderate gabel. In the like manner it is stipulated for the inhabitants and burghers of Hamburg, that they shall trade, according to their antient custom, to the provinces of the British kingdoms, carry their merchandize thither, and truck or exchange the same for those sorts of fish, and other goods.

In witness whereof, and by virtue of the orders and full powers which we the abovementioned minister of Great-Britain on the one part, and from the honourable senate on the other, we have signed the present renewed convention, and caused the seals of our arms to be affixed thereto. Done at Hamburg the 8th of February, 1719.

(L. S.) Cyrill Wych.

(L. S.) John Anderfon, Syndic.

(L. S.) Peter Burmester, Senator.

(L. S.) Henry Dieterick Wiese, Senator.

We have seen and considered the above-written convention, have approved, ratified, and confirmed, as by these presents we do for us, our heirs and successors, approve, ratify, and confirm the same, in all and singular it's articles and clauses; on condition, however, that what is said in the eighth article of the antient custom of the Hamburgers to trade to our kingdoms, be always understood according to the known and established laws of our said kingdoms; engaging and promising, on our royal word, sincerely and bona fide to perform and observe all and singular the things contained in the said convention, in the manner above explained; and never to suffer, as far as in us lies, any one to violate, or in any wise to act contrary to the same. In witness and confirmation of all which, we have caused our great seal of Great-Britain to be affixed to these presents, signed with our royal hand. Given at our palace at St James's, the 16th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1718-19, and of our reign the fifth.

GEORGE R.

Extract from the Protocol of the senate of Hamburg, the 3d of April, 1716.

Resolved to depute the syndic, M. Sillem, and M. Van Sum, to communicate, to the resident of his Britannic majesty, an authentic copy of the treaty made with the states of Holland; and to represent to him, that he will see by it how it has always been laid down for an inviolable principle, that no herring can come to it's maturity before Midsummer-Day; for which reason the senate cannot take upon them to change the established rule. However, the senate does hereby give assurance to the resident, that, if the subjects of his Britannic majesty can give proof that there is no true ground for this principle which has obtained, and will bring hither, before Midsummer-Day, herrings in maturity, then the senate will not make any difficulty to let them be imported.

Nich. Luze Schaffshausen, Secretary.

This permission was confirmed by the senate, under the privy-seal of the city, on the 3d of July, 1716. See HERRING-FISHERY.

VOL. I.

REMARKS ON FISHERIES, since the last War, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

Under our article AMERICA, we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763; the V, and VI, and XVIII articles of which being relative to the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY. The article XVIII concerning the explicit disavowal of Spain, to their pretended right of fishing in the neighbourhood of Newfoundland, we have already taken notice of under this head. At present we shall present the reader with the other articles which respects this matter, viz. articles the V, and VI. The former whereof is as follows, viz.

V. "The subjects of France shall have the liberty of fishing and drying on a part of the coasts of the island of Newfoundland, such as is specified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the present treaty (except what relates to the island of CAPE BRETON, as well as to the other islands and coasts in the mouth and in the gulph of ST LAWRENCE;) and his Britannick majesty consents to leave the subjects of the most christian king, the liberty of fishing in the gulph of St Lawrence, on condition that the subjects of France do not exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of THREE LEAGUES from all the coasts belonging to Great-Britain, as well those of the continent, as those of the islands situated in the said gulph of St Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fishery on the coast of the ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON out of the said gulph, the subjects of the most christian king shall not be permitted to exercise the said fishery, but at the distance of FIFTEEN LEAGUES from the coasts of the ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON; and the fishery on the coasts of NOVA SCOTIA or ACADIA, and every where else out of the said gulph, shall remain on the foot of former treaties.

VI. "The king of Great-Britain cedes the islands of ST PIERRE and MIQUELON, in full right, to his most christian majesty, to serve as a SHELTER TO THE FRENCH FISHERMEN; and his said christian majesty engages not to fortify the said islands, to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fishery, and to keep upon them a GUARD OF FIFTY MEN ONLY FOR THE POLICE."

By the foregoing articles, we see in what situation the treaty of 1763, has left the fishery of Newfoundland, with regard to Great-Britain and France; and as we have in our preceding REMARKS on this article, touched upon the risk the French may run, by their infraction of the said treaty, of being for ever exterminated from the liberty of this fishery; it may not be improper to consider the consequence of such event. For if Great-Britain shall have power to do this, in a fresh rupture with France, she will hardly want power to reconquer the FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS; and if she does, can France flatter themselves that Great-Britain will consent to restore them as she did by the last peace? if France does think so, we have reason to believe she may find herself greatly mistaken. For has it not been owing to the perfidy of that nation, and her other Catholic allies who have joined them against this nation, that we are now become saddled with so MANY MILLIONS OF PUBLIC DEBTS AND TAXES, that some of our greatest statemen have heretofore judged it impossible for the kingdom to sustain.

If France, therefore, shall venture again to quarrel with Great-Britain, must not the motive thereto be their suggestion of our incapacity to enter into a fresh war? Upon this point, I shall only at present observe, that if the court of France shall be actuated by such view, she is quite unacquainted with the resources of this nation; and if she dare hazard another war with it, the consequences to her will be, as I humbly apprehend, that France will not only be foundly beat again, but that she will never more enjoy the liberty of the Newfoundland fishery; which will prove no small detriment to her maritime strength, was this her only loss she should sustain by a fresh war with England. Nor can Britain longer afford to act the same farce over again to conquer and restore. Our conquests have cost us too dear to give up in future, but upon the strongest security that the best policy will administer to us, for a long continuance of peace. See our article WAR.

FLANDERS is the first province, county, or earldom in the Netherlands. It has Hainault, Artois, and part of Picardy, on the south; the north sea on the west; on the north the same sea, with a branch of the Scheld, called the Hond, which parts it from Zealand; and, on the east, the marquise of the holy empire, Brabant, and part of Hainault. It's extant from S. W. to N. E. is about 75 miles, and from W. to E. about 55. Herein is included French, Austrian, and Dutch Flanders.

FRENCH FLANDERS is bounded on the north by part of the north sea; on the north-east by Austrian Flanders, and part of Hainault; on the east and south by the same province; on the S. W. and W. by Artois, and part of Picardy. This province, together with that part of Hainault, which has been yielded to the French, and the whole province of Cambresis, are under the same governor-general.

LISLE, the capital city of French Flanders. There is here considerable manufacture of ferges, and other woollen stuffs; about half a century ago, they made above 300,000 pieces of stuffs; but the miseries, which inseparably attend war, have obliged vast numbers of workmen to retire to Ghent, Brussels, and into Germany; and, after the peace of Utrecht, several Protestant families also left this city.

The commerce of Lisle to France, by way of land carriage, or by the way of Dunkirk, is pretty considerable; but none much to the advantage of the inhabitants, because they receive from France large quantities of wine and brandy, for which they pay in cash.

Their trade with the Dutch is not more profitable, by reason the inhabitants of Lisle buy of them manufactures, which they might get much cheaper, if they could have them directly from places, from whence the Dutch themselves have them.

Their most beneficial traffic is that which they carry on with Spain, and in the West-Indies; buying up all such commodities as they think proper for those countries, either for their own account, or by commission. But, by reason of their distance from the sea, that trade is far less lucrative than it otherwise would be.

DOUAY is situate on the river Scarpe, on the borders of Artois, 13 miles from Arras to the east, 16 from Lisle to the south, 18 from Valenciennes to the west, and 14 from Cambrai to the north. The chief trade hereof consists in the making and vending of worsted camblets, which are bought by all the neighbouring people, especially at the annual fair kept in September.

ST AMAND is situated on the river Scarpe, 9 miles from Tournay to the south, 16 from Douay to the east, and 19 from Lisle to the south-east. Here is no trade which deserves our notice; and which is the case of several other places here, that we shall not mention at all, on that account.

MENIN stands on the Lys, about 4 miles distant from Courtray to the south-west, 10 from Ypres to the south-east, and 9 from Lisle to the north. It was also one of the barrier towns, where the States General of the United Provinces kept a governor and a garrison, and was pretty well fortified, but the French took it in 1744. There is some trade, which consists in woollen stuffs, manufactured here, and in pale beer they brew here, which is in great esteem. In the neighbouring meadows they bleach linen cloths.

YPRES is 20 miles distant from Lisle to the north, and 10 from Menin to the north-west. It is a rich trading town, the capital of a large district, called the Castellany, or Castle-ward of Ypres, which is a fruitful country: its trade consists in fays, wrought silks, &c.—This city was given up to the house of Austria, by the treaty of Utrecht, and the Dutch kept a garrison there, by virtue of the barrier treaty; yet this also was taken by the French in 1744, as well as Warneton and Menin, for which reason we place now these cities in French Flanders.

BERGEN ST WINOX, or WINOXBERGEN, stands at the foot of the hill on the little river Colone, which runs through the city; it is 18 miles distant from Ypres to the west, 6 from Dunkirk to the south, and 12 from Gravelines to the east. There is a manufactory of woollen cloth, but the trade of it was much more considerable formerly than it is at present.

CASSEL and GRAVELINES are not remarkable for any thing of trade.

DUNKIRK is situated at the mouth of the river Colone, on the coast of the north sea, 10 leagues distant from Gravelines to the east, 21 from Ostend to the west, 36 from Lisle to the north-west, and about 16 from St Omer to the north. It was but at first a small hamlet, consisting of fishers huts, built on the sandy hills. The advantageous situation of this place engaged Baldwin the younger, earl of Flanders, to make a small city of it. Since that time, it has undergone various revolutions, and been in divers hands, and at length fell into those of the English; but, in 1662, king Charles the II^d sold Dunkirk to the French for five millions of livres, according to Mons. La Martiniere.

Lewis the XIVth, having visited that city, observed so many defects in the fortifications, that he employed 30,000 men constantly for many years, to render it impregnable, if possible. All these fortifications, together with the moles, and Fort Lewis, have been demolished, and the harbour filled up, by virtue of the treaty of Utrecht. But, of late, the French have begun to fortify it again, and to repair the harbour, and it is now a very strong place: however, they have not yet been able to restore the harbour, so as to make it capable to receive men of war of any considerable rate, though it is said that ships of 20 guns, or larger, can easily enter in at high tide.

REMARKS since the last war and peace of 1763.

By the XIIIth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, 'The town and harbour of DUNKIRK shall be put into the state fixed by the last treaty of AIX LA CHAPELLE, and by former TREATIES. The CUNETTE shall be destroyed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the PRE-

SENT TREATY, as well as the FORTS and BATTERIES, which defend the entrance on the side of THE SEA, and provision shall be made, at the same time, for the wholesomeness of the air, and for the health of the inhabitants, by some other means TO THE SATISFACTION OF THE KING OF GREAT-BRITAIN.' See FRANCE.

AUSTRIAN FLANDERS. See the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

DUTCH FLANDERS is the most northern part of Flanders, which belongs to the States General of the United Provinces. It consists chiefly of fortified towns, which made a part of the barrier to the other territories which belong to the Dutch. It is a perfect level, there being little or no rising ground in it, and is watered with innumerable rivers and canals; Flanders in general is exceedingly fruitful, and pretty commodiously situated for trade. And, what trade there is in this part of Flanders, being a small proportion of that of the like nature with what is in the Austrian Netherlands, as fine lace, linen, and tapestry, we shall refer to what we have said under the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

REMARKS.

It has been ever allowed by the wisest statesmen and best friends to the present establishment in the royal house of Hannover, that this kingdom can have no alliance so useful, in order to secure the Protestant succession, as that of the States General; whether we consider their situation, their strength, their religion, or their interest: and, therefore, for our own safety, we are under the necessity of acting in concert with Holland, in order to preserve to them a proper barrier in Flanders. And it was from this motive, we may reasonably presume, that the court of London readily gave up Cape Breton, with a view to expedite the re-establishment of the Dutch barrier, which the French destroyed in the last war. But, as this matter does not seem to be carried on with that alacrity, honour, and punctuality, with which the court of Great-Britain has constantly acted on their part, it may not be mal-a-propos, at this juncture, to revive the sentiments of our former patriots upon this occasion: which we shall do by shewing,

1. That it is the true interest of England, that there should be a sufficient barrier against France on the side of the Netherlands.
2. That no barrier can be effectually defended against France, but by being put into the hands of the States.
3. That, for the defence of such barrier, it is necessary the Dutch should have a free communication with it; and reasonable, that the barrier-country should contribute towards the expence of maintaining it.
4. That the Dutch have a right to a sufficient barrier, and to have the defence of it themselves.

As to the first proposition, it is a point so evident, and hath been so constantly received as the avowed sense of the nation, that we are ashamed to think, that any should want that proved now, which has been allowed a standing maxim of our government, and is at present become our interest more than ever. To have a good barrier against France in the Netherlands is as necessary for us, as to preserve a balance of power on the continent, and to prevent Europe's being enslaved by France. For,

Such is the situation of the Netherlands, with respect to Holland and the empire, and even to Britain itself, that, if France be once suffered to prevent it, it will not be in the power of all Europe to set bounds to the progress of their arms.—The United Provinces must fall a prey to her.—The empire having lost the assistance of the States, and being cut off from all communication with England, would soon follow the same fate. So that if France could accomplish her long laid design upon the Netherlands, and have at the same time a marine powerful enough to deal with that of England, as she is now certainly aiming at, she might, without opposition, carry her conquests as far as she pleased into Germany.—If France be once mistress of those provinces, she will from that moment have the command of the narrow seas; so that our trade will neither be able to go out, nor to return with safety.—Was it not thought of the last consequence by England, that the harbour of Dunkirk should be ruined? And, may we not thence judge, how fatal it must prove to this nation, to let France get possession of the other FLEMISH PORTS, with such an increase of naval strength as that acquisition would give them? Would not our coasts and rivers then be exposed to perpetual insults, and our TRADE in so much danger in the narrow seas, as to oblige us to give it over?

Should France be suffered to be mistress of the Netherlands, it is not to be thought the United Provinces could maintain their independency: they must either become directly the subjects of France, or live in an absolute subjection to that crown; and, would not the unavoidable consequence of that be, that the naval force of the Dutch, which hath hitherto acted in conjunction with us, would be turned against us? Which would give France such a superiority at sea, as no one can be sanguine enough to think we could dispute.

Let France, therefore, by her machinations, deprive the Dutch of a barrier, 'till she puts her finances and her marine in order, and our ruin need not wait for that of other countries on the continent: if France can force the submission of the States, and have the use of their ports and fleets, England must truckle to France, if the rest of Europe would be content to look on: and, if they should not, all the efforts they could make would be of little service to us. For, while we have no maritime power on our side, we can have no help at sea, where it would be most wanted; nor any support in case of an invasion, though it's suddenness and strength should make it of the last necessity: and, as for any efforts made in our favour on the continent, when the States are either slaves to, or on the side of France, we may be sure they would be too weak to make any great impression, or to cause any extraordinary diversion in our favour, considering the armies of France. So that the ruin of England seems to be the certain consequence of the absolute loss of the Netherlands.

If it were sufficient to have reason on one's side, we might think it needless to urge more to prove, that it is the true interest of England, that there should be a good barrier against France on the side of the Netherlands: and that we, as well as the Dutch, are now in imminent danger, by having a matter of such concernment delayed.

But, because we write in times, when authority seems to have more weight than reason, we shall appeal to authority, and shew that the Netherlands have, in all times past, been looked on as the barrier to England; and that it was always thought our interest to hinder the growth of France on that side.—To prove this, we might go back to the time when the house of Burgundy governed those countries. But we have not room for this, and therefore shall only quote one memorable passage in the excellent History of Philip de Comines to this purpose; who, speaking of the conquest of the dominions of the House of Burgundy by Lewis XI, who laid the first foundation of the greatness of France, begins his second chapter with these words—'Those, says he, that hereafter shall read this history, will wonder that the English suffered the king to take the towns bordering so near upon them, namely, Arras, Bolloin, Ardes, and Hedin, with divers other castles, and to lie so long with his camp before St Omers.'

And the reasons he gives for it, are such as deserve to be remembered, which are these: 'That the king of France in wisdom and sense surmounted far Edward IV. of England then reigning, who was a very corpulent man, and much given to pleasures; and endeavoured, by all means possible, to content and entertain him by ambassadors, presents, and smooth words, to the end he should not intermeddle with his affairs.—That he knew well the English, as well nobles and commons, as the clergy, to be naturally inclined to make war upon his realm; therefore he perceived, that he must in any wise keep the king of England and his principal servants his friends, whom he saw altogether inclined to quietness, and very greedy of his money; for which cause he paid duly at LONDON the PENSION of 50,000 crowns, and farther gave yearly 16,000 crowns, besides many goodly presents to the said king's principal servants; and THEIR ACQUITTANCES ARE YET TO BE SEEN IN THE CHAMBER OF ACCOUNTS AT PARIS.

Further, he gave goodly presents to all the ambassadors that came to him, were their messages never so sharp and bitter; and sent them home with goodly words and princely rewards, that they returned well contented; and, NOTWITHSTANDING THAT SOME OF THEM UNDERSTOOD THAT HE DID ALL THIS ONLY TO GAIN TIME, THE BETTER TO ATCHIEVE HIS ENTERPRIZE IN THE CONQUEST OF THE DUKE OF BURGUNDY'S DOMINIONS, yet winked they at it, because of the great riches they received at his hands; and so did the king of England himself, though some of his council told him plainly, it would be very prejudicial to his realm; and, in parliament, divers wise men that smelt the dissimulation of France afar off, and received NO PENSION as the others did, were very desirous, that the king should send aid without delay to the lady of Burgundy, daughter of duke Charles: and, undoubtedly, if the king had not been prevailed upon by these and some other reasons, he would never have suffered the king of France to take places bordering so near upon the English dominions, but have fought to defend them; and, if at the beginning he had declared himself for the said lady, the king had never weakened this house of Burgundy as he hath.'

The whole of this chapter is well worth reading, of which this is but an abstract.—It may be observed from hence, that this history was written about 280 years ago, by a person of great credit, who was not only an eye-witness of these things, but had a principal hand in transacting them: which leaves no room to doubt the truth of what he says, that it was then looked on as the known interest of England, to hinder the growth of France in the Low Countries, even in those days, when the French dominions were bounded by the Soam;

when the duchy of Britain, with the port of Brest, was no part of them; AND THE STRENGTH THEY HAVE NOW AT SEA, WAS NOT SO MUCH AS BEGUN.—That it was then a maxim in our government, to cherish a strict alliance with the house of Burgundy, to prevent the French from extending their dominions on that side, and making nearer approaches towards us; the dangers being foreseen at that distance, which we have since frequently felt from the neighbourhood of a power, which through our own fault we have suffered to grow so very formidable: and, lastly, that this ancient and useful alliance with the house of Burgundy, which England had before so strictly cultivated, was lost, and that great house ruined unaccountably; not by the strength and policy of the enemy, so much as by the weakness and covetousness of their friend king Edward, and the corruption of his great ministers, who were all PENSIONERS OF FRANCE: that it was French gold well placed in English hands, that procured this accession to their dominion then, and prevailed with the court of England to suffer them patiently to extend their conquests in Flanders: and they that will carefully look into our history, will find but too much reason to think, that all the additions that have been made to the power of France in later times, particularly the mighty increase of their colonies and plantations, and their naval power, and the extent of their conquests in the Low Countries, have been chiefly owing to the same causes, to the ill conduct and wrong measures of our princes, and the corrupt practices of their ministers, sacrificing the interest of their country to their own avarice; and, for FRENCH PENSIONS, selling both the present and future safety of the nation.

But, to come to better times, the days of good queen Elizabeth, a name that will be always dear to true Protestant Englishmen. Every body knows how much she ventured to weaken the power of Spain in the Low Countries, upon the same principle, and in pursuit of the same interest, as should teach us now to weaken that of France; the house of Austria aiming then at universal monarchy, as France hath done since; though their views were never grounded on so solid a foundation as those of France have been; nor had their dominions the same advantage of compactness; nor was their scheme for empire built upon such rules of policy, as those of the two great masters Richlieu and Mazarine, so that England then had much less reason to be alarmed at the greatness of the power of Spain, than our age has had to be at that of France.

And what course did this good queen take to weaken it? Was she for increasing the power of France in the Low Countries, in order to lessen that of Spain? Would her kingdoms have been safer by those countries changing masters, by being transferred from Spain to France? By no means: she was then jealous of the growth of France; she did not think it good policy to humble one power by advancing another, which might prove as dangerous an enemy.—She therefore favoured the revolt of the United Provinces, and gave all support to the Dutch in their infant state.—She wisely foresaw this was the most sensible blow she could give to Spain, and effectually remove, from her kingdoms, the dangers they were in from the nearness of so formidable a power; and, as she judged rightly, so the measures she took proved successful.—This was the way that excellent princess took to pull down the house of Austria in the Low Countries, without building up that of France on it's ruins. For more matter on this head, see the article FRANCE, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS.

FLAX is a plant having a slender, round, hollow stalk, about two feet high; it's bark is full of filaments like hemp; the leaves are long, narrow, and pointed; it bears a blue flower, to which succeeds a roundish fruit, about the bigness of a pea, containing ten little seeds, full of an oily substance or meal.

There are 33 known species of this plant, of which only two are in use for the linen manufacture.

The seed hath a great many properties. 'Tis in the composition of several medicines; they draw from it by expression an oil, in quality not unlike the oils of nuts; for which 'tis sometimes used in painting, and to burn. That which is drawn without the help of fire, is much esteemed in medicine. The trade herein is pretty considerable. Most of what is consumed in Paris comes from Flanders, and from about Rouen, where they produce great quantities.

The culture of flax, and the several preparations of it for use, being pretty much the same as of hemp, we shall there make some additions to what we shall here observe.

There is, however, one circumstance in the culture of this not to be omitted, and on which, in several provinces of France, it's whole beauty and goodness depend.

The seed is very apt to degenerate; and, in some parts, as in Normandy, Bretagne, and Picardy, it must be renewed at least once in five years. The best grain for that purpose comes from the Baltic.

Most of the French provinces so abound in flax, their lands being so fit for the culture of it, that, if they would, they might outvie their neighbours in this traffic, notwithstanding the great quantity used by them in many sorts of works.

However,

However, they import great quantities from foreign parts; the Baltic, Holstein, Russia, and Flanders, chiefly supply their spinsters and weavers. 'Tis imported also from the Levant, and some comes from Egypt.

The Flanders lint is in great esteem, that of Picardy comes near to it. Of others, those of Riga and Konigsberg are in most repute.

Of the cultivation of flax.

You must first chuse sandy or loamy ground, and manure it well, and lay it as fine as possible you can; and then be sure to chuse good seed, and sow at least four bushels of it upon an English acre, and chuse such a time to sow it in, as probably, by signs of the wind or weather, you may, by God's blessing, have some rain within ten days after it is sowed; for your season will last in England to sow it, from mid March until a week in June; albeit, April be the best season of the year, in regard the nipping frosts are past by that time, and for that, in that month, you are likeliest to have rain. When the flax is grown a handful high, you must weed it; and, although you tread or lie upon it at that height, it will rise again: when the buttons of the flax begin to look brown, you must pull the flax, and then comb off the buttons, and lay them abroad, where they may dry; and, as the outside withers, the flax-feed will ripen within; but that seed will only be fit to make oil, but not to sow: for, if you will save any seed to sow, you must let your flax stand until your seed be thorough ripe, and then you lose very much in the weight of the flax, which is otherwise much more profitable to you than your seed. After you have combed off the buttons, you must presently put your flax in water, but it must be standing water, and such as will not discolour it; where it must be about seven or eight days ordinarily; but that rule is ordered according as the weather proves hotter or colder. Then it must be seven or eight days laid out a drying, being now and then turned; and, when it is dry enough, it must be put into a barn, where it must lie in heaps seven or eight days more a sweating, before you must do any thing else to it. But, to order the business well, you must be sure to have one of experience, until you can come thoroughly to understand every particular yourself. When it hath sweat enough in the barn, then it must be beaten, broken, hackled, and then it is fit for the market.

After you have pulled your flax, you must then plow your ground for turnips. Two pounds and a half of turnip-feed will sow an acre. After your turnips be off, in April following you may sow the same ground with barley or oats, and with it sow your clover-grass, whereof nine pounds will sow an acre; and, by that time you have mowed your oats, your ground will be stocked with clover-grass.

We import yearly into Ireland, says an ingenious gentleman, about 11,000 hogheads of flax-feed, which, at forty shillings the hoghead, cost 22,000*l.* and in 1747 we imported 376 tons of undressed flax, which, at 40*l.* the ton, come to 15,000*l.* These are articles of expence well worth the saving, and which may be put in the pockets of our own farmers, if they were duly encouraged to raise large quantities of flax and feed.

Most of the countries of Europe, viz. Germany, Holland, Flanders, France, England, and Scotland, have every year a fresh recruit of flax-feed from the Baltic, because they find by experience their native feed and flax degenerate and grow worse every year. This is also our own case, our home-raised feed and flax frequently degenerate, by reason of bad seasons, bad husbandry, or some other cause, which creates a necessity and makes it incumbent on us to encourage the importation of good foreign feed, that we may never be in want of so useful a commodity.

I am informed, that North America feed answers near as well with us as feed from the Baltic; the soil there being as rich and as natural for the growth of flax, and as much covered with snow in winter, and exposed to as great a heat in summer, as any lands bordering on the Baltic; if this be the truth of the case, we should not fail to encourage the importation of feed from North America, because the feed we get from thence is paid for by the commodities we send thither in our own ships; but all the feed and flax we purchase from the Baltic are paid for in ready money, without our selling any of our commodities in exchange for them. But, wherever the best feed is to be got, we should from thence supply ourselves: and it is from frequent trials that we can judge which is best. But it is certain, that due care is taken by the magistrates in the several sea-port towns in the Baltic from whence flax feed is exported, that no feed shall be suffered to be exported from thence in barrels marked with the arms, and other seals of the place, but what shall be found good and merchantable; such caution they use to preserve the credit of their goods, which is a great security to the buyer. But I do not hear that any such care is taken in North America, to ensure the goodness of their feed. But, wherever the best feed is raised, this caution should be used, to have it directly from those countries where it grows, and not from those places where it is afterwards sown, as Holland

and Flanders, from whence we can expect nothing but the second or third crop of seed, which is then in a state of degeneracy.

The nation receives much more benefit by flax-feed than from flax imported. A barrel of feed may cost twenty shillings, and so may half a hundred of flax; but the produce of flax and feed from that barrel, if rightly managed (computed at 400 weight of flax, and three barrels of feed) may be worth at least eight pounds sterling, which is eight times the value of the prime cost, and is 700 per cent. clear profit to the kingdom, though not so much to the farmer. This advantage we gain by feed, more than from flax imported. But, as to the profit arising from the subsequent management of foreign or home-raised flax, it may be equal in both, viz. 700 per cent. over and above the prime cost, as is before set forth.

Since we may receive such great benefit by making use of foreign feed (the prime cost being very small in comparison of the profit that may accrue by the subsequent management thereof) and, in regard we cannot expect good flax or feed but from good flax-feed, it is manifestly our interest to encourage the importation of good feed; and, therefore, it is humbly recommended to the trustees of the linen manufacture to give premiums, for one or two years to come, to such merchants as shall import the greatest quantities of good merchantable flax-feed from the Baltic or North America into Ireland; excluding slack feed, as it is called, of the Baltic, or any other country, from any share in such premiums, such feed being light, lank, and poor, and fit only for oil-mills.

Though it is advised for the present to give premiums to encourage the importation of flax and feed, yet we have good reason to hope, that, if the methods herein recommended be carried into execution, we shall be able to raise flax and feed ourselves, in such quantities, and in such perfection, as not to stand in need of a supply of either from any other country.

The laws of England with regard to FLAX and HEMP.

I. Stat. 33 Hen. VIII. cap. 17. §. 2. It shall not be lawful to water hemp or flax in any river, stream, or common pond, where beasts be used to be watered, but only on the grounds, or in pits, or in their several ponds, on pain to forfeit 20*s.* one half to the king, and the other to the party grieved, or to any that will sue for the same in any court of record or leet.

II. Stat. 15 Car. II. cap. 15. §. 2. Any persons in any place privileged or not, corporate or incorporate, may set up the trade of breaking, heckling, or dressing of hemp or flax; as also for making and whitening of thread; as also of spinning, weaving, making, whitening, or bleaching, of cloth made of hemp, or flax only; as also the trade of making twine, or nets for fishery, or of flogging of cordage; as also the trade of making tapestry-hangings.

III. §. 3. All foreigners setting up and using any of the trades aforesaid three years in England, shall, taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy before two justices of peace near their dwellings, enjoy all privileges as natural-born subjects.

IV. §. 4. Foreigners exercising the aforesaid trades shall not be liable to any other taxes than such as shall be paid by natural-born subjects, unless they shall use merchandize into and from foreign parts, in which case they shall be liable to pay customs as aliens during five years, and no longer.

V. Stat. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. §. 1. Natives of England or Ireland may import into England, directly from Ireland, any sorts of hemp or flax, and all the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, free of all duties, the master of the vessel importing the same, bringing a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expressing the marks, number, tale, or weight, of the species in each bale mentioned in the bills of lading, with the names and places of abode of the exporters from Ireland, and of such persons that shall have sworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of the kingdom, and where and to whom in England consigned; and the master of the ship, on arrival in England, making oath that the said bales and goods are the bales and goods taken on board by virtue of the said certificates.

VI. Stat. 1 Ann. stat. 2. cap. 8. §. 2. All hemp or flax, and the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, imported directly from Ireland, by natives of England or Ireland, being of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, upon producing certificates, and making oath as by stat. 7 Will. III. cap. 39, shall be free from the additional subsidy of poundage, and all duties whatsoever.

R E M A R K S.

The quality and reputation of our linen manufactures, both in Scotland and Ireland, depending upon the goodness of the flax; and the improvement of our linen manufacture to the utmost, being a matter that nearly concerns the interests of our trade; we cannot have too minute and circumstantial an idea of the methods of raising flax of the best quality for that purpose.

It is not long since the method of managing in general our home-grown flax in Scotland and Ireland was so bad, that it would have been much better for our linen manufacture if we had raised none at all; for every fault, every imperfection in the flax, is, as it were, an error in the first concoction, and not to be cured afterwards by the utmost labour, skill, and address.

Yarn spun of unripe flax will never make good cloth; and, where it is mixed with other yarn, the cloth is ever disliked. Flax spoiled or discoloured in the watering, cannot be brought to that delicate whiteness which is required in fine cloth, unless the cloth be so much thinned and emptied as to lose its essential quality of strength; and where it is mixed with good yarn, the cloth can never be of the same colour.

Unless, therefore, we are at pains to reform our way of managing our lint in general, we had better purchase it intirely from the Baltic, Holland, and Flanders; but as we have been long in the practice of raising flax, it is weak and irresolute to give it up; and if we can be at a little more trouble, and some small expence, we shall reap, from the same ground, a third part, at least, more flax than we do at present, and that too 30 per cent. or more, better in it's quality.

We shall therefore give a short account of the method practised by the Flanders flax-dresser, who was some time ago introduced into Scotland by the trustees, upon public encouragement, in order to instruct us in their way of preparing their soil, sowing of flax-seed, raising, pulling, watering, and dressing their flax, and compare it with our own. According to the Flanders method, the best soil for fine flax is the tender and mellow black mould, or any light soil, mixed with loam and a little sand, that will not bind with any sudden drought. The lower the ground lies, and the flatter it is, the better, provided it be dry enough to be sown in the proper season: it should be fallow at least two winters and a summer. The first plowing should be as deep as the soil will admit of, and thereafter plowed with an ebb furrow, so often as the appearance of weeds makes it necessary. In October or November, before the ground is to be sown (or rather in October in the preceding year after the first plowing, if they have then dung enough, because the summer-plowing thereafter destroys the weeds that rise with the dung) it ought to be well dunged, and as well dressed at sowing as garden mould; and three bushels Winchester measure of good seed, is sufficient to sow one acre of ground thus prepared. More is too much to be sowed on one acre, because our soil is not prepared as it ought to be: the effect of which is, if our seed be good, all comes up, and one half of it is under growth; this unripe lint is rotten in the watering, before the rest is ready, and the whole is spoiled by it.

In ground prepared as before directed, the weeds are so very few, that one hand will clean as much lint-ground of weeds in a day, as eight can do in the ordinary way; and this is a considerable article of expence saved.

When flax thus prepared is fully ripe, and not 'till then, he pulls it, and, if any unripe stalks appear, he carefully separates them from the rest, and waters them by themselves. When his lint is pulled, he ties it up in small bundles, or sheaves, no bigger than one can grasp about with his two hands, and ties them up loosely with a few stalks of itself, a little below the seed, and then sets them up on one end, two and two, like flocks of corn, in the air and sun, until it be well dried, and then strips the seed-boll from it, as we do. He then ties two and two of his sheaves together, the seed end of the one always to the root end of the other.

Wherever he can find flat-lying ground, under level to any running water, there he digs his ponds for watering his lint, so large as the ground will allow, and near to three feet in depth: when his ponds are filled from the rivulet with water, he puts in his lint until the pond is full, but does not sink it. The reason why he ties the seed-end of one sheaf to the root-end of the other, is, that the roots, being heavier, would sink in the water, and the seed-end would be intirely out of the water; but, when thus ballanced, the lint being much of the same specific gravity with the water, it is just emmersed, and no more, and never comes near the ground or the mud. He turns it in the water every day, and, if the water is very hot, twice in a day. He tries when it is enough watered, by breaking a few stalks; and, if the boon breaks freely, and parts easily with the flax, then he takes it out, and carries it to a clear running stream, and washes it very well from all it's filth and nastiness, and then spreads it upon grafs (very thin) as we do.

If the water appears to be very much discoloured in the pond before his lint is sufficiently made, he lets off the water, washes his lint, and then fills his pond from the running brook, and puts it in again until it be enough done. When his first parcel is laid on the grafs, he puts another in the same pond, and continues to water his lint, so long as the season is warm enough. He turns his lint on the grafs once a day, and keeps it on the grafs so long as the dews fall, which gives the lint a fine colour, without hurting it, and makes the yarn spun of it wash and empty easily, without

washing or weakening it; and the cloth made of it comes soon to a fine colour, without being thinned in the least.

So much of his lint as he intends for his best seed, he builds up in a stack, like corn, after it is thoroughly winnowed, with the bolls upon it, and strips * it at sowing-time; and, in the month of May thereafter, puts it into the water, and follows the same method with that watered in the autumn. So much of his lint as remains on his hands undressed after the middle of March, when the dews begin to fall, he lays out again upon the grafs for a good colour, and always takes up his lint from the grafs in dry weather, and about mid-day.

* The lint keeps all the winter in the stalk, and is for his best seed, which he takes from the bolls by beating them with a light timber hammer with one of his hands.

N. B. Care must be taken, in rainy weather, that the lint receives no damage by rotting on the grafs, but gentle showers are as good as dews.

Our present general way is to sow our lint on any ground, which puts us to a great expence to weed it. We sow it thick (as we must do in ordinary ground) whereby one half of it is ripe before the other is ready; and thus the unripe seed, being mixed with the full ripe, spoils the whole, and the unripe lint is rotten in the water before the other is ready.

In the west of Scotland, where the finest spinning is, the people are rivetted in a most pernicious conceit, that unripe lint makes the finest flax; and, therefore, pull all their lint when the blossom falls. This kind of lint heckles away almost to nothing, and is indeed, in appearance, very fine; but then it has no substance, and the yarn spun of it is always weak and ouzy; it wastes much in the washing, and cloth made of it grows as thin as a cobweb in the bleaching, before it can be brought to a full colour.

In the country of Cambray in French Flanders, &c. where the finest flax is raised for fine cambrics, thread, and lace, the ground is fallowed summer and winter for three years successively, and very well dunged; and, at sowing, strewed over with human ordure, taken from their boghouses, where it ferments. This is a very great expence, including the want of profits of the ground so long; but then, if the season proves favourable for lint, they will have of dressed flax upon one acre from 800 to 1000 lb. weight, which is worth in Holland, even in good lint-years, two shillings sterling per pound weight.

Our seasons are too precarious to risque an expence of this kind, for hard-blowing winds, heavy rains, or sudden droughts in the beginning of summer, are all dangerous to the lint-crop: but it imports our manufacture much, that our present way of managing our flax should be reformed, especially now, when we make large parcels of fine cloth; for it is intirely owing to the mismanagement of our flax, THAT WE HAVE ANY BAD CLOTH AT ALL; and every person who sows lint, will find his account in practising the Flemish method, in managing of every part, from the first plowing to the bringing of the lint to the first heckle.

The half of our lint is, in many places, lost in the watering; whenever it is pulled, it is stripped off the bolls, and bound up hard like sheaves of corn, with bands of itself, and carried to the water-green, and then thrown into the nearest pit, or large pool, in any small river or burn.

The pool is dammed up with earth and stones, 'till the water swells to make the hole of a sufficient depth, and then the lint is crammed into it; one sheaf on the top of another, until it be quite full; and then sods of earth and large stones are laid on the top of it, to prevent it's being carried away by land-floods, in case of a thunder shower, or sudden fall of rain, which happen sometimes in the autumn season. If no running water is near; the lint is put in the same way into moss-water pits, and standing pools of stagnate water. In those places it lies in this condition, full of mud, and it's own slime and nastiness, for a certain time, without regard to the weather, and is then taken out, and set up an end, with the band pulled up towards the top, and opened wide at the bottom to dry; and after all the black stuff on it is dried in, it is then laid out on the grafs, to little purpose; for it is by this management so much spoiled, and the whole so discoloured, that it can never afterwards be recovered. The Flemish way costs more trouble and attendance, and some more expence, than ours does; but then, by their way, we should have double the quantity of lint we now have, and all of it good, at least 20 per cent. better in it's quality, than our best home-grown lint is now worth.

The right management of our flax then is of the greatest importance to the linen manufacture, and we ought, with all possible expedition (be the cost what it will) to have the Flemish method introduced, and universally practised over the whole country, that we may have no more cloth of any kind spoiled or disliked by the mismanagement of our home-grown flax.

An attentive and diligent person, who is kept close to the dressing of flax, and carefully observes every part of the

Flanders method of management, may, in a few months, become fully instructed in the art; and when this is well known, and practised by a few who are situated near our linen manufactures, the method will be soon propagated, and become general: and when our home-grown flax becomes, in the general, as good in quality as that which comes from abroad, our flax-dressers, as well as manufacturers, and the nation in general, will find their account in it.

In Scotland, the trustees for the advancement of manufactures, were at no small expence to bring to perfection a machine for dressing of flax by water, and at length happily succeeded; and this proves a great benefit and saving to the country on this branch of the linen trade. The best flax-dresser, when he does his utmost, cannot spinish of the best lint (for bad and unripe lint, or lint not fully watered, or spoiled in the watering, will not bear the expence of dressing, and is indeed not worth dressing, nor ought to be dressed) above 12 pounds weight in a day: but the lint-mill will dress, at the rate of every hand employed in it, 16 pounds in a day.

The cheapest that good lint can be dressed by the hand in Scotland, is 32 pence the long stone, and it is dressed at the mill for two shillings the stone.

The woollen manufacture of England never came to any perfection till the business of the woolstapler became a trade; and it must fare so with the linen. Here then is a fine branch of business for any gentleman who has the conveniency of water for erecting a lint-mill; he may either raise lint himself, or buy it in the boon from others, and dress it by his mill for heckle; he may have his heckles in a convenient house near to it, for dressing and stapling the lint, by proper heckles, into fine dressed flax, fine dressed tow, common tow, backings and breads, for the service of the country spinners.

This will greatly increase our spinning, when every person may be served with their staple of flax and tow they are most accustomed to spin; and which, by constant practice, they spin best, and with the greatest expedition; and when for many days that are now mispent by our spinners in heckling of lint (for very bad hecklers they generally are) shall be employed in spinning; for the article of spinning is the chief support of the manufacture; and as this article requires and employs the greatest number of hands, great care should be taken to diffuse and extend it over Scotland and Ireland.

The spinning-schools established in Scotland and Ireland, on the public encouragement, have much improved the people in spinning, and in making of thread: but as thread can be subject to no stamp or check, to ascertain it's sufficiency at a foreign market, and that our yarn brings in more money to the country, when it is wrought into cloth, than when into thread only, the article of thread-making may be carried too far.

The French spinning-school in Scotland has bred a great many good spinners of fine yarn; but many of them are persons of condition, and when such have gratified their curiosity in learning it, and spun as much as will make a piece of cambric for themselves, they give over the practice, and are of no further use to the manufacture. Fine spinning is a trade in the west of Scotland; but as their yarn is made of unripe lint, and not spun in the Picardy way, although it be as small and fine, yet it is weak, and cannot stand in the loom to be warp for cambric; all that can be made of it, in general, is only wool for cambric; and the cloth where it is, thins much in in the bleaching. See the article BLEACHING.

When the fine yarn comes in to contend for the prize, one can, at first view, distinguish the yarn spun by those taught by the French, from that which comes from the west of Scotland. Their yarn is fully as fine as ours; but, when tried by a magnifying-glass, theirs appears rough and ouzy, and of a bad colour; whereas the yarn spun of the foreign lint, by the French scholars, appears, through a glass, smooth and clear, like a horse-hair fishing-line, and is of a fine colour. It is fit for warp, as well as woof; and when it is made into fine cambric, comes to a fine colour soon, without thinning the cloth: if therefore the French method of spinning, which is, dressing their flax with brushes, as well as the Flemish method of flax-dressing, was universally introduced all over Scotland and Ireland, where the linen manufacture is carried on, we should soon have plenty of yarn to advance the cambric trade.

We do not want to raise flax so much, as we want to raise good flax. The improvement of this branch to the utmost justly claims the preference, since we know from experience that all our bad cloth has been principally owing to the badness of our home-grown flax, and that arising merely from our mismanagement of it.

When this Flemish method of flax-dressing shall be universally understood, application may be made for an act of parliament to prevent the management of flax by any other way, under proper penalties; for heedless persons, of a lazy and indolent disposition, and averse to all reasonable improvements, will suffer sloth and ease always to gain the ascendant, even over their own interest: wherefore, such persons

must be restrained by good laws, from doing harm, either to themselves or others.

But notwithstanding this method of flax-dressing is not so universally established, according to the information I have received, as could be desired, either in Scotland or Ireland; yet the perfection to which they have allowedly arrived in the linen manufacture, within a few years, is very extraordinary; and experiments demonstrate, how well judged the premiums and encouragements have been, which they have given to create an emulation among those who are concerned in the several branches of the manufacture.

But if, after all, we should not be capable of raising a competency of good flax for our linen manufacture in England, Scotland and Ireland, we should exert ourselves in America. For the soil of many parts of Virginia and Maryland is exceeding rich, and fit for raising good hemp as well as fine flax: and the same hands which hough and dress their tobacco grounds, and cut and cure their plants, may be employed all the winter in breaking and dressing hemp and flax. These commodities, being imported rough from our own plantations, may be manufactured at home, into cordage, sail-duck, and linen of several sorts, and will contribute to lessen our demands for these goods from Russia and Germany. Great quantities of hemp and flax may also be raised in Pennsylvania, North Carolina, and in several other of our plantations; and all so near navigable rivers, that by saving the expence of a long carriage by land, to which these commodities are liable in Muscovy, they may be imported cheaper than they can be had from thence, and, possibly too, of a better quality.

Several parts of our colonies lie in the latitude of Egypt; and as their soil in some places is equally fine and rich with the soil of Egypt, where the finest flax in the world is produced, and the season for preparing of ground and sowing of lint-seed is over, before the mulberry sets out; and the time of reeling off the silk from the worm-bag, past before the flax is fully ripe; the same hands that may be employed in producing silk in our colonies of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and North and South Carolina, and Georgia, may be also employed in pulling and stripping off the seed from the flax, and watering and grafting it*, and the breaking and dressing the flax will keep the people in work till the sowing season returns. By these means we may be furnished with flax of a finer quality than any that grows in Europe, even preferable to that which is raised about St Amand, for yarn to make their finest cambrics, thread, and lace.

* The dews in these parts are exceeding rich, and, when the flax is lying on the grass, it is thereby brought to an excellent colour, without impairing it's strength in the leaf.

Here is a fine field of business to enrich our planters in America, and to keep all their hands constantly employed in a very profitable manner: and if the silk, which they certainly may produce [see the article SILK] is sent home raw, and their hemp and flax rough, and all our spare and idle hands at home employed in working up these materials into manufactured goods; since all these subjects of manufacture may be had from our own plantations, of a better quality, and at equal rates than they can be imported from foreign parts, what hinders but we may vie with the Hollanders, Flemings, Germans, in fine linens, cambrics, thread, and lace, and with our great and only dangerous rivals the French, in the silk manufacture?

And if to the care of raising a competent quantity of good flax at home and in our plantations, we likewise add the care of performing to perfection every branch of operation, which relates to the linen manufacture: such as to relate to skillful HECKLING for dressing of lint for spinning; the SPINNING of it according to the Picardy way; the purging and washing of YARN, and the WEAVING, the BLEACHING, &c.

REMARKS since the last war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

That Great Britain and Ireland have not long before now supplied themselves from NORTH AMERICA with plenty of the best flax, has been astonishing to the whole world: but that now, when the last war and treaty of peace have made us masters of such extensive new acquisitions in that part of the world, if we should not turn those lands, without delay, to beneficial purposes, we may as well have remained without them. We have here such a variety of climates, that it cannot longer be pretended that we, on that account, shall not be able to accomplish this, for the advantage of our linen manufacture of the most delicate sort: and it is to be hoped, that we shall no longer stand in need of being reminded to cultivate this article to the utmost perfection, and thereby vie with and emulate every other nation upon the earth.

FLINTSHIRE, in North-Wales. The Irish sea, or rather a branch of it, viz. the great estuary of the Dee, into which that river runs, washes this shire on the north, and 'tis bounded

bounded on the east by Cheshire, on the south-east by Shropshire, and on the south-west by Denbighshire. 'Tis the least county of Wales, it's circumference being about forty miles only. The air is healthful, and it's vallies fruitful in corn and pasture, which feeds abundance of small cattle, from which they make plenty of butter and cheese. They have also great store of honey, of which they make metheglin, a liquor much drank in the Welsh counties. Some of it's mountains are very rich in lead-ore, and produce some mill-stones. There are also great quantities of pit-coal in this county.

FLINT, the shire-town, is seated on the æstuary of the Dee, where it has a small harbour.

R E M A R K S.

The principal manufacture carried on in this county is that of lead, which is smelted from the native ore with pit-coal. The chief of these works is that called the Quaker's Company, which is situated between the town of Flint and Holywell, a market-town. This company have leases of several of the capital lead-mines, within a few miles of their smelting-houses. There are also divers smelting-houses in this county belonging to private people, where the ore is melted, and the lead separated therefrom by pit-coal fuel; and also the silver extracted from the lead by the same firing. See the articles **LEAD**, **SILVER**, **SMEETING**.

FLORENCE in Italy. This is the most considerable part of the duchy of Tuscany, both in largeness and opulency. 'Tis bounded on the north by the Bolognese and Romania, on the east by the Ecclesiastical State, on the south by the Siense, and on the west by the territories of Lucca and Pisa, which last is often included within it.

The duke of Lorrain and Tuscany is now sovereign of Florence, which, with the dukedom of Tuscany, was allotted him when he ceded the dukedom of Lorrain to France. The adjacent mountains yield mines of copper, iron, and allum, and some quarries of marble, porphyry, and other fine stone. The hills and dales are covered with grapes, which produce excellent wines, besides citrons, lemons, oranges, olives, &c. and the plains with corn of various sorts, rice, and saffron, honey, wax, wood, flax, hemp, silk, and, in some places, excellent mineral waters, which effectually cure many chronic diseases. Several manufactures are carried on here, such as serges, and various other kinds of woollen cloths; silks, linen, tapestries, gilt leather, earthen ware, and perfumes; all which contribute more or less to the riches of it.

From England they take pepper, cloves, mace, indico, calicoes, lead, tin, cloths, bays, perpetuanas, herrings, white and red, pickled salmon, Newfoundland fish, pilchards, calvekins, and divers other commodities.

R E M A R K S.

The duke of Florence, formerly, was not only a great lover and encourager of merchants, but carried on merchandising himself; nay, he was the greatest merchant in his time, in all Europe, not forgetting that his ancestors raised themselves, by commerce, to that great dignity and splendor they enjoyed.

FLORIDA. This country lies on the east-side of the Mississippi river, extending to the west frontiers of Carolina and Georgia, is separated from New France on the north by the Apalachian mountains, and has the gulph of Mexico on the south. But what is properly called the peninsula of Florida, has Georgia on the north, the gulph of Mexico on the south-west, that of Florida on the south, with the channel of Bahama and the Atlantic ocean on the east.

The air is pure and temperate, and the country in general healthy; 'tis rather subject to heat than cold, but the heats are tempered by the sea breezes.

The country abounds with all sorts of timber and fruit-trees, and forests of mulberry-trees both white and red, logwood, and many other dyeing-woods, and shrubs, fustic, &c. And it produces abundance of saffras, which is exported yearly in great quantities. It's many rivers not only abound with fish, but render it inferior to no country, both for pleasantness and fertility.

As to that part of Florida which borders on the gulph of Mexico, it appears by a memorial presented to King William III. by Dr Daniel Cox, that England has had an undoubted title to it since the reign of Henry VII. by whose commission Sebastian Cabot discovered all this coast from north latitude 28 to 50. The south part, indeed, towards the gulph of Bahama, was visited by the Spaniards under Juan Ponce de Leon, as it was ten years after by Vaquez Aillon; but their cruelties so enraged the natives, that they expelled them all one after another. Nor have they ever since made any settlement on this part of the continent, except at St Augustin and St Mattheo.

R E M A R K S.

CAROLANA was granted by king Charles I. on the 30th of October, in the fifth year of his reign, to Sir Robert Heath,

Knt. his attorney-general*. The extent of this grant set out in the charter was, all the continent on the west of Carolina, from the river St Mattheo, lying, according to the patent, in 31 degrees of north latitude (though, by later and more accurate observation, it is found to lie exactly in lat. 30. 10) to the river Passo Magno, in north latitude 36. extending in longitude from the Atlantic to the Pacific sea, a tract which was not then possessed by any Christian power; together with all the islands of Veanis and Bahama, and several adjacent islands lying south from the continent, within the said degrees of latitude, to be called by the name of the Carolina Islands.

* See a description of the English province of Carolina, by the Spaniards called Florida, and by the French La Louisiana. As also of the river Mefcacebe, or Mississippi, &c. by Daniel Cox, Esq;

Sir Robert Heath conveyed Carolana to the earl of Arundel, who was at the expence of planting several parts of the country, and had effected much more, had he not been prevented by the war with Scotland, in which he was general for king Charles, and afterwards by the civil wars in England, and the lunacy of his eldest son. In the beginning of Cromwell's protectorate, Capt. Watts (whom king Charles II. knighted and made governot of St Christophers) being upon the coast, one Leet, an Englishman, being intimate with the king of the country, by his influence, was allowed to trade, and incited to settle here. Not long after, this king sent an ambassador to England, and the English had divers tracts of land given them by the Indians, and surveyed the continent (of which there is a map still extant) for above 200 miles square. It appears also from this memorial, that the **FIVE NATIONS** in the territory of **NEW YORK**, whom the French commonly call Iroquois, who have for almost eighty years voluntarily subjected themselves to the crown of England, and who had conquered all the country from their own habitations to the **MISSISSIPPI** river, and even beyond it, made a sale and surrender of all these their conquests and acquisitions, in the reign of king James II. to the government of **NEW YORK**, which is another proof of their being the **PROPERTY OF THE ENGLISH**.

The memorial here mentioned was presented to king William, as aforesaid, by the late Dr Cox; who, by conveyances from one to another, after the death of the earl of Arundel, became proprietor of Carolana; and who sets forth in the said memorial, that, at the expence of several thousand pounds, he discovered divers parts of it; first from Carolina, afterwards from Pennsylvania, by the Susquehanah river, and that then he made a discovery more to the south, by the great river Ochequigon.

And here it is proper to observe, that, in September 1712, the late French king granted letters patent to M. Cozac his secretary, for the **SOLE TRADE** to this country, by the name of **LOUISIANA**, extending about 1000 miles along the gulph of **NEW MEXICO**, and almost as much from the said gulph to Canada; and it appears by the patent, that the French **ALTERED THE NAMES OF THE RIVERS, HARBOURS, &c. AS WELL AS OF THE COUNTRY ITSELF**, which had been usually called **SPANISH FLORIDA**; and that, under pretence of a **NEW DISCOVERY** of it, they declared themselves possessors of this vast tract, which had been discovered and possessed for 200 years, partly by the Spaniards, and partly by the English; for, by comparing the patent with the **MAPS**, 'tis evident, that it inclosed and encompassed all the **ENGLISH COLONIES OF CAROLINA, MARYLAND, PENNSYLVANIA, NEW ENGLAND, &c.**—This is a fresh specimen of **FRENCH INCROACHMENT**. For more instances of the like kind, see the articles **BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS**.

The son of the above memorialist (Daniel Cox, Esq;) who was himself fourteen years resident on the continent of America, has published a particular description of this province of Carolana, as he all the way calls it; wherein he has given a succinct detail of some of it's most useful animals, vegetables, metals, minerals, precious stones, &c. And, as he declares his account is composed chiefly from memoirs drawn by his father, from several journals and itineraries of the English, whom he sent to discover it; and partly from the relations of other travellers and Indian traders of good understanding and veracity, who had passed through the heart of the country; we shall give our readers a short abstract of it, as the most satisfactory view of this country that has yet appeared.

There are almost every-where two, and in some parts of the country three, crops of Indian corn in a year. All along the coast, and 2 or 300 miles up the country from the sea, they have the root mendihoca, of which the cassavi flour and bread is made in the greatest part of America, between the two tropics, is esteemed as good as our manchet, and is considerably cheaper. Here is likewise another sort of grain like our oats, and, when rightly prepared, it exceeds our oatmeal. It grows spontaneously in marshy places, and by

the sides of rivers. They have excellent limes and prunes growing wild, which they eat plentifully from the tree, and keep some dry for winter provision. Here is also the tunas, a delicious food, especially in hot weather, and so wholesome, that, when 'tis ripe, the Europeans call it their cordial julap. Vines of different sorts grow naturally in this country; and the soil is admirably adapted, for producing as good grapes as most countries of Europe.

Here is good beef, veal, and mutton, and plenty of hogs, acorns, chefnuts, and other meats, abounding in this country. Here are horses for the saddle as well as draught; the former so cheap, that they may be bought for five shillings worth of European commodities. Their cattle have a long black sort of hair, or rather wool, so fine, that 'tis thought, with some small mixture, it would be preferable to ordinary wool, for hats, cloathing, and other necessaries.

The wild animals of this country, are the elk or buffalo, panther, bear, wild cats, beaver, otter, fox, racoon, squirrel. Cotton grows wild here, and some of the most civilized nations in this country, especially of the better sort, are cloathed with a substance like good, coarse, serviceable linen, very white, which is made of the inward bark of trees that abound here, is as becoming as most of the ordinary linen of Europe, and as durable: of the same, and other barks, they make thread, cords, and ropes.

Pearls are found here in great abundance, but the Indians value our beads more. On the whole coast of this province, for 200 leagues, there are vast beds of oysters: and, in fresh water rivers and lakes, there is a sort of shell between a muscle and a pearl-oyster, wherein are found abundance of pearls, and many larger than common. Here are two sorts of cocheneal, one that grows wild, which is far inferior to what is cultivated: and the plant of which indico is made, is very common in most of the south parts of this province. Ambergrease is often found upon the coast from Cape Florida to Mexico, the best of which is worth it's weight in gold; and on the same coast, both to the east and west of the Mississippi, is to be found also, after high south winds, especially, a sort of stone pitch, which the Spaniards, who call it copea, moisten with greafe, and use it for their vessels in the nature of pitch; than which, they say, it is much better in hot countries, it not being apt to melt with the heat of the sun.

On both sides the Mississippi river, there are many springs and lakes producing excellent salt. The plants which produce hemp and flax are very common in this country, and that sort of silk grass, of which are made those herba-stuffs that come from the East-Indies. Here are amethysts, turquoises, and the lapis lazuli; copper in abundance, and so fine, that 'tis affirmed, some of their ore yields above 40 per cent. and here is lead whose ore yields 60 per cent. In many places there are mines of pit-coal, and iron ore is frequently found near the surface of the earth, from which a metal is extracted little inferior to steel. Here are also mines of quick-silver, or rather of it's mineral, of which the natives make no other use than to paint their faces and bodies, in a time of war, or in high festivals. In divers parts of this province, there are great quantities of orpiment and sandarach.

Mr Cox says, that about 12 miles above the mouth of the river Mississippi, a branch runs out of it on the east side, which, after a course of 160 miles, falls into the north-east end of the great bay of Spirito Santo. About 60 leagues higher up on the east side, is the river of Yasoua, which comes into the Mississippi, 2 or 300 miles out of the country, and is inhabited by the nations of the Yasoues, Tounicas, Kourouas, &c. 60 leagues higher is the river and nation of Chouque, with some others to the east of them. The river Ouespere, which, about 30 leagues to the north-east of the lake, divides into two branches, whereof the most southern is called the Black River. The heads of this river are in that vast ridge of mountains that run on the back of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland; through which mountains there is a short passage to the sources of the great river Polomack, on the east side of them by the Indians, who are well acquainted therewith, and may possibly, one time or other, in conjunction with the French on the Mississippi, insult and harass our colonies.

The river Oyo, or Hohio, more to the north, is a vast river, which comes from the back of New York, Maryland, and Virginia. Several nations dwelt formerly on this river, as the Chawanoes, a great people, who, with many other nations, were extirpated by the Iroquois Indians. Twenty-five leagues above the Hohio, is the great island of the Tomaroas, with a nation over-against it, that goes by it's name. Thirty leagues higher is the river of the Illinouecks, corruptly called by the French the river of the Illinois, which nation lived about this river, and consisted of 20,000 fighting men, before they were destroyed by the Iroquois, and driven to the west of the Mississippi.

There are divers other considerable rivers and Indian nations, too numerous for this place. We shall only observe, that, near the mouth of the great river Coza, the French have erected a settlement called Fort Louis (20 leagues north-east of the mouth of the Mississippi) which is the usual residence of the chief governor of Louisiana, who is nevertheless subordinate to

him of Canada. From this garrison the French send detachments to secure their several stations among the Indians in the inland parts.

The Ulibalys, Chicazas, and Chattas, who are the most considerable nations upon and between the river Coza and the Mississippi, kindly entertained the English, who resided among them several years, and carried on a safe and peaceable trade with them, 'till about the year 1715, when, BY THE INTRIGUES OF THE FRENCH, THEY WERE EITHER MURDERED, OR OBLIGED TO MAKE ROOM FOR THESE NEW INVADERS; who have since unjustly possessed and fortified the same stations; in order to curb the natives, and to cut off the communication with the English traders; whereby the FRENCH have ingrossed a profitable trade for above 500 miles, of which the BRITISH SUBJECTS were a few years ago the sole masters.

A fine river enters the bay of Mexico, on the east side of the harbour of Pensacola, which is the best upon all this coast of the gulph of Mexico, which comes about 100 miles out of the country. The land here produces pine-trees, fit for ship-masts, of which many are cut down, and carried to Vera Cruz, by a ship which belongs to the SPANISH FLOTA that brings provisions, and returns with timber. There is a communication from hence by land with Apalachy, which is inhabited with Spaniards.

The peninsula of Florida lies between the gulph of Mexico on the west, the Atlantic Ocean on the east, and the Streights of Bahama on the south. It is about 100 leagues in length, but not above 30 where broadest. The only towns which the Spaniards are possessed of are St Augustine and St Mattheo.

ST AUGUSTINE, on the eastern coast of the peninsula, is about 70 leagues from the mouth of the gulph of Florida, or channel of Bahama, 30 south of the river Alatomacha, or May, as the French call it, and 47 from the town and river Savannah. The port is formed by an island, and a long point of land, divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the sea two miles above the fort.

This place was attacked by Sir Francis Drake, in 1586, by captain Davis, in 1665, by colonel Moor, in 1702, and lastly by general Oglethorpe, in 1740, who was obliged, for want of competent force, to raise the siege; and thus were the high expectations blasted which had been raised about this important enterprize; which, if it had succeeded, would have been attended with considerable advantages to the English, whose southern settlements on the continent of America would have been hereby secured against any attempts of the Spaniards by land; besides the great service this place would have been to our trade, not only by depriving the Spaniards of a port, from whence they might annoy us on that side, but also by enabling us to annoy them upon occasion, by cruising on their homeward bound ships coming from the gulph of Florida and the streights of Bahama.

According to the charter of king Charles II. in 1665, which fixes the limits of South Carolina at latitude 29, this town is, as well as Georgia, within the English dominions, and, consequently, belongs to us as a forfeiture. The Spaniards say, indeed, that grant is an invasion of their right, they pretending a right of possession to all the coast as high as Virginia. But, if the first discovery gives a title, which is generally the foundation of the Spaniards pretensions to their dominions in America, we shall find that it belongs to us: for Sebastian Cabot discovered it about the year 1497.

The sea upon this coast, and off as far as the Bahama Islands, which lie opposite to it, is called the channel or gulph of Florida. And here that mighty current, which upon all the south part of the gulph of Mexico, sets constantly in with a strong stream to the west, driving so all the way, to the very coast of Vera Cruz, turns again to the east, between the isle of Cuba and the south coast of north America; and, finding no vent 'till it passes by Cape Florida, it then turns from south to north, and runs through this gulph into the great Atlantic ocean. For this reason it is, that most ships from Jamaica, bound for England, come through this gulph to have the benefit of this current, though it is otherwise a hazardous passage, where many ships have been lost; nor is it very long ago, that a whole fleet of Spanish galleons, with a great treasure, just sailed from the Havannah, which had not entered the gulph above three days, were all drove ashore, and lost, by a violent storm at north-east.

These dangers oblige the navigators to make an allowance of about 5 points in the compass for the current, and to keep as near as possible to the Bahama side; it is by mistaking this allowance, that ships are insensibly drove towards the coast of Florida. On the other hand, it is observable that ships, by keeping near the Bahama side of this gulph, run some hazard from the Spaniards, who are masters of all these islands, except that of Providence. But as precarious as this passage is, for ships bound to Europe from Jamaica, there remains no other course for them to take, except that of the windward passage; and, in a course of above 160 leagues from Cape Morent, the east point of Jamaica, to the north side of Crooked-Island, which is what is called the windward passage, the English traders are in continual danger of being taken, by

by the Spanish guarda costas, besides encountering the perils of the seas.

Before I leave this point, it will not be unseasonable to observe, that as the colony of GEORGIA may be rendered a powerful barrier, against both the French and Spaniards in Florida; it becomes the wisdom of the nation, that it should not be abandoned. [See the article BRITISH AMERICA, and FRENCH AMERICA.]

Lord Bacon says, 'IT IS A MOST HEINOUSLY WICKED THING TO FORSAKE AND ABANDON A PLANTATION ONCE IN FORWARDNESS: FOR, BESIDES THE DISHONOUR, IT IS MERE TREACHERY, AND BEING GUILTY OF THE BLOOD OF MANY MISERABLE MEN.' And, in the same noble author's letter to king James, concerning the planting of Ireland, he says, 'It seems God has referred to your majesty's times two works, which, among the works of kings, have the supreme pre-eminence, viz. the uniting and planting of kingdoms. For though it be great fortune for a king to deliver his kingdom from long calamities; yet, in the judgment of those, who have distinguished the degrees of sovereign honour, to be a founder of states excels all the rest. For, as in arts and sciences, to be the first inventor is more than to illustrate and amplify; as, in the works of nature, the birth and nativity is more than the continuance: so, in kingdoms, the first foundation, or plantation, is of nobler dignity and merit, than all that follows.'

Now, as the colony of GEORGIA bears the name of our present most gracious and beloved sovereign, can any thing be a greater insult upon so august a prince, as any way to neglect, much more to give up and abandon a colony, which is dedicated to his royal name; and which may be rendered a GRAND BARRIER to all our colonies on that side of the continent of America?

R E M A R K S.

Since what is said above, FLORIDA has been annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763; whereby we have obtained an additional barrier to our colonies on the continent of America; a barrier that has at the same time, furnished us with a maritime one, by intitling us to the ports of ST AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA, and PENSACOLA and MOBILE, in the GULPH OF MEXICO; which together with the freedom of navigation on the river MISSISSIPPI, will enable us to defend our colonies on this side, while our maritime power shall be duly maintained for that purpose. See BAHAMA ISLANDS.

FLOTA, in Spain. The Spaniards call simply the fleet, or flota, a certain number of vessels belonging partly to the king, and partly to merchants, sent every year to Vera Cruz, a port in New Spain. It consists of the captains, admiral, and patach, or pinnace, which go on the king's account; and about 16 ships, from 400 to 1000 tons, belonging to particular persons. They set out from Cadiz about the month of August, and make it 18 or 20 months before they return.

1. Armada, in former times, signified a small number of fighting ships, and flota a great many, as appears by a law in the book called Las Partidas; but of late it is more properly decided, that Armada is a navy composed of fighting ships, and flota of merchants. Now, as to the particular business in hand, there is a royal armada, or navy, to secure the navigation to the West-Indies (commonly known by the name of the galeons); there is that they call armada, belonging to the New Spain fleet, which consists only of the admiral and vice-admiral ships, fitted and manned for service, to convoy the merchants; there are flotas, or merchant fleets for New Spain, and the Firm-Land. There used to be armadas, or convoys to the fleet, for the Firm-Land, which there is not now.

2. In the year 1521, on account of the pirates that infested the coast of Andalusia and Algarve, lying in wait for the ships homeward-bound from the Spanish Indies, it was ordered, that an armada, or convoy, consisting of four or five ships, should be fitted out; the charge to be defrayed out of the gold, silver, and merchandize, brought to the ports of Andalusia, from the Indies and Canary islands; whether belonging to the king or private persons, at the rate of a shilling per pound, which was accordingly put in execution. The following year 1522, the seas being still infested with pirates, it was resolved, another squadron should be fitted out, to be defrayed as the former, and to cruise, not only on the coast, but as far as the islands Acores, commonly called Terceiras. This was the original, not only of the armada, appointed to secure the navigation of the West-Indies, but of the Haberia, or duty of convoys, and other things relating to it: the first imposition towards defraying this charge, was one in the hundred; but, that not answering, it came to five in the hundred.

3. One of the principal duties of the committee of war, formed out of the council of the Indies, is, to give the necessary orders for fitting out of armadas and flotas; and, as the dangers increase, so to make the more effectual provisions against them. The laws of trade, in Spain, direct, that, provided there be no special order to the contrary, two flotas be sent

out, one for the Firm-Land, the other for New Spain, and the armada to convoy them; but this name of armada was meant of the admiral and vice-admiral only, which were fighting ships; and, at first, there was one man of war to convoy the rest; her burthen 300 ton, and carrying eight brass, and four iron guns; and, till that time, the merchant ships carried 100 ton less than their burthen, and 30 soldiers each, because they had no convoy of men of war.

The time appointed for these flotas to sail, was, that of New Spain in May, and that of the Firm-Land in August, both of them to go off with the first spring-tides: the galeons were appointed to be out in January, that they may coast along the Firm-Land, and come, about the middle of April, to Porto Bello; where, the fair being over, they might take aboard the plate, and be at Havannah with it, about the middle of June, where the New Spain fleet would soon join them, and they might come together safer to Spain: to which effect, the viceroy of Peru was to take care the plate should be at Panama by the middle of March: the plate is 15 days carrying from Potofi to Arica; eight days generally from thence, by sea, to Callao, and 20 from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Paita and Truxillo. To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has happened, it was proposed, to fit the galeons in the river of Seville, in August and September, and then send away to Cadiz, where they might go out with any wind, and need not expect spring-tides; and that, to secure the ports, two forts should be built upon the points of Puntel and Matagorda. The reasons why it was judged absolutely necessary, that the flota for the Firm-Land should sail in September, were because that was a safe season to ship off the goods; they came to Porto Bello at a healthy season of the year; the merchandizes were conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate, and with less danger of receiving damage; the merchants had leisure to sell their goods; the buyers had a fit season to travel to Peru with safety; and the armadas and flotas to return to Carthagen and Havannah, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the best month for the sea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is the fittest for the fleets to sail, and, though several accidents retard them till October or November, yet that season is fitter than March.

4. As to the number of ships, whereof the armada is composed, it is not fixed. In the year 1568, there were 20, which were built galley fashion, and carried oars, being about 200 ton burthen. Ever since that time, there are some frigates that can make use of oars, whence the name of galeons is derived; for as D. Sebastian de Covarrubias, in his treasure of the Spanish tongue, observes, galeasse and galeon take their names from a galley, though they are stronger vessels, and not so swift, but better to endure the sea, because of their high deck: afterwards, the charge increasing, it was found necessary to lessen the number, so that in the ordinances of Haberia, or duty for convoys in Spain, it was established, there should be 12 men of war, and five tenders fitted out every year; that is, for the armada of galeons, eight ships of 600 ton burthen each, and three tenders, one of 100 ton, for the island Margarita, and two of 80 each, to follow the armada. For the New Spain fleet, two ships of 600 ton each, and two tenders of 80 each; and, for the Honduras fleet, two ships of 500 ton each; and, in case no flota happened to sail any year, three galeons and a tender should be sent to New Spain for the plate. This was the regular method, but, upon occasion of wars, it has been altered; and so, in the year 1630, it was ordered, there should be 20 galeons; in 1634, there were 16, and, in 1638, they were fixed at 15. As the number has increased, in time of war, so has it been diminished in peace; and, accordingly, in 1653, there were but four galeons, and two tenders.

5. Although the time, after what manner, and in what place, the galeons are to be fitted and cleared, is settled: as also what ports they are to make in their return; yet several accidents, and sometimes his majesty's orders, have caused them to put into other harbours, as Lisbon, Corunna, Malaga, Gibraltar, and others; whence, for the most part, the plate has been conveyed to Seville by land. It has been much controverted, whether the galeons ought to be permitted to carry lading, entered at the India-house, or be absolutely forbid it. In the year 1613, it was ordered, that five galeons, of 600 ton each, should be fitted to sail with the fleet for the Firm-Land, and each of them to carry 200 ton lading; two more for New Spain, and two for Honduras, with each 350 ton lading, which proved so beneficial, that the whole charge of them all, besides the money made by freight, amounted but to 26,500 ducats: yet this order was recalled, upon application made by the corporation of sailors, who petitioned his majesty against it. Many reasons have been offered to the council, both for the loading of galeons, and against it; but it has prevailed, that they should not be admitted to take in any lading. Nevertheless, experience teaches, that whatsoever endeavours have been used to the contrary, they are always full stowed, and, what is worse, all their lading is custom free, being put in by stealth, and never entered; whence follows another mischief, which is, that those persons who have

their goods aboard the galeons, do, in the Indies, under-sell those that have entered theirs in Spain.

6. Though it has been ordered, in the general, that the galeons, flotas, and all ships whatsoever, bound for the West-Indies, are to set out from S. Lucar, and return to that port; yet we will here, more at large, set down the words of his majesty's order, of the year 1664, to that effect; which are as follow:—That the galeons, flotas, and any other ships whatsoever, for the time to come, set out for the West-Indies, from the port of Bonança, of S. Lucar de Barrameda, and return to it upon pain of 6000 ducats plate, to be paid by the admiral, captain, or owner of the ship, that shall do the contrary. The which sum is to be levied immediately upon their arrival, before they are admitted to shew the reasons that obliged them to it: moreover, they are declared incapable of going that voyage again, and the ships of being employed in that trade; and that, besides all this, they be constrained to go to S. Lucar, without unloading, referring it to further examination, to impose any heavier punishment on them, according to the malice that shall appear to have been in their putting by their ports. Yet, though this inhibition is so severe, and ought to be observed; it is to be considered, that sometimes ships may be forced into the bay of Cadiz, by frefes of weather, there being no other means left to save themselves. Because of many misfortunes that happened in getting over the bar of S. Lucar, it has been established, by particular order of his majesty, in the year 1665, that no ships be admitted to sail to the West-Indies, that exceed 18 cubits in breadth, and eight and a half in depth, which, allowing half a yard to a cubit, makes, of our measure, 27 feet in breadth, and 12 feet nine inches in depth. Another ordinance, of the year 1621, expresses, that they be not above 550 ton burthen.

7. These ordinances are now out of date, for it is long since the galeons and flotas have been appointed to sail from Cadiz, by reason of the great burthen of the ships: for, in the year 1588, the duke of Medina Sidonia represented to king Philip II. that it was requisite the admiral and vice-admiral of the flota should sail in ballast, from S. Lucar to Cadiz, to take their lading there, because they would be in danger to get over the bar loaden; and, in the year 1596, the president Peter Gutierrez Flores was taken by the English at Cadiz, being there dispatching the galeons and flota, and so upon several other occasions. There has been more strictness observed, as to the returns of the fleets, because the concern was greater, as the preventing the running of silver and gold, and defrauding the Haberia, or duty of convoys, and the king's other duties; and, therefore, as well as for the security of the port, in time of war, ships that have put into Cadiz, have always been obliged to resort to S. Lucar without unloading. Before we quit this point, it is to be observed, that, as Cadiz is a place of access, so it is of no security, being an open bay exposed to the winds, and no less to enemies; but that called Bonança, at S. Lucar, is a sure harbour, being inclosed on all sides, and subject to no danger, but just in the entrance.

8. By the laws and ordinances appointed for the well governing the armadas and galeons, it is forbid to make any cabbins or hen-coops on the quarter-deck, or over the round-house, or keep any swine or sheep there. The cook-room is to be in the fore-castle. The expence of making ships pressed fit for fight, is not to be charged upon the owners. By order of the year 1616, it is prohibited to load wood, at the Havannah, on board the galeons: and though, in 1622, leave was given to bring some pieces of coava, to make carriages for guns, it was afterwards prohibited again, and so continues, upon pain of forfeiture of the wood so brought, and further punishment to the captains, that should connive at it; the same inhibition is as to the loading any merchandize, or product of the country at the Havannah.

If a ship hired be cast away, the king is not obliged to allow the owner any satisfaction, unless it be so stipulated in the contract. Formerly the masters of the ships were tied to compleat their loading in 20 days after the second search, upon pain of being excluded the voyage: and the merchant who in that time did not enter the goods he had to ship, was not to load at all; and, in 1602, it was decreed, that no licences to load should be given after the 6th of May for New Spain; but this was in time of great trade, when there was abundance of lading, inasmuch that the flotas carrying then 8 or 9000 ton in May; yet, in the year 1608, an extraordinary fleet was sent out in January, whereas now it is a great matter if a fleet, carrying 3000 ton, can be sent out once in two years.

9. Formerly the New Spain fleet, and that for the Firm-Land, used to sail together and part at Dominica, the latter under the command of the admiral, and the other of the vice-admiral, and they set out twice a year, in January and April; but, in the year 1564, it was ordered, that they should go out single; that for New Spain in April, and that for the Firm-Land in August. Care has been always taken, that the fleet should not be greater than might be convenient to make the lading turn to a good account; and, therefore, in the year 1620, news being brought that commodities had been sold under-rate, at the time when a flota was fitting out

for New Spain, two ships already appointed for the voyage were laid aside, and satisfaction made the owners for the loss, by those that were to make the voyage; and in 1627, there being more fleet than lading, the biggest ship was laid aside.

In 1633, there being no store of cloathing in Seville, because it came late from the north and Levant, and the season being far advanced, leave was granted, for that time, to load in the bay, paying the duty there, without bringing the goods up to Seville, as was always used. It is worth observing, that, when it is found requisite to reinforce a fleet, it ought to be by adding some men of war to it; not by putting men on board the merchants; for experience has taught, that reinforcing the merchant ships is only an additional charge without any benefit; and this the king and council have been made sensible of, which has moved them upon several occasions, when the counselship, or corporation of traders to the West-Indies, have thought those parts overstocked with goods, and they have petitioned his majesty, that no fleets may be sent thither, which has sometimes been granted, other times refused; and, upon other occasions, some few galeons only have been ordered to be fitted out, to carry the quicksilver for the plate works, and bring home the plate of that year, yet with permission to take in a third part of their burthen in goods.

10. When the commanders of galeons, whether they belong to the king or private persons, undertake for the fitting of them out, they article to this effect: the commander obliges himself to do all the carpenters and caulkers work, either mentioned in the contract, or that shall appear to be requisite afterwards; to mast the vessel, and furnish all other sorts of rigging, cables, and sails, putting the galeon into a sailing posture. He is to make as many port-holes as are requisite; to furnish them with port-hooks, sledges, pulleys, port-ropes; to separate the gun-room, bread-room, powder-room, and find stowage for shot, quick-silver, and scaled paper.

If it be requisite, in the Indies, he shall new caulk the seams, and bestow all other repairs, proper for the safe return of the ship. It is left to him to chuse the master, mate, and handicrafts-men. It belongs to him to ballast the galeon. All stores belonging to the ship are to be duty free, and to be shipped in time. As soon as the ship is fitted, the commander is to have men allowed him to ship and stow provisions, but he is to bring down the vessel, from the dock into the port, at his own expence, and to return it when he comes home. The pay assigned is 3000 ducats for a ship of 100 ton, 5000 for one of 200, 7000 for one of 300, and after the rate of 2500 ducats for every hundred ton more, for a common voyage to the Firm-Land. This is in case the commander be owner of the vessel; but, if it be another man's, 4000 ducats are allowed for the owner, that is to say, if the ship be above 400 ton, and 2000 for those that are under. The payment to be made in the same place where the contract pass, and this allowance mentioned to be for a common voyage of eight months; for, if they are to winter abroad, the method varies; but, though some have been two or three months above their time, no allowance has been made them.

11. The commander is allowed 3000 royals plate, for the charge of lading, for which sum he is to pay, and give allowance to all the men employed on that account, 'till the men appointed for the voyage come on board; and he has bills for these 3000 royals, together with the charge of fitting, to be paid in the Indies by the king's officers at Panama; and, if they refuse to pay it, any master of plate may do it, and the plate be brought without being entered. But, before the bills are given him, the captain and masters of the workmen at the ship-yards, are to certify, that he has done all things completely, that are requisite about the ship. It is to be observed, that, in the bills so drawn, 4000 pieces of eight are to be payable to one of the masters of plate, by way of depositum, that is, not to be delivered to the commander they belong to, 'till the admiral and pay-masters have inspected his ship, to see whether it have all things necessary to return to Spain.

12. If the fleet happens, upon an extraordinary accident, to winter abroad, so as to make up the whole time allowed for wintering, which was twelve months, the commander articles to receive 4000 ducats plate, in that province; which is the same that was allowed when the ships wintered in the Indies, so as to require altogether new careening. Whatsoever accident the galeon is lost by, after it is fitted out, whether it be by fire, enemies, or hazards of the sea, it is declared the king, and revenue for convoys, run the hazard but of two thirds of the charge of fitting out, and of the wages; the other third, and all other losses, lie upon the owner and commander of the galeon, in whose charge it is before, after, and during the whole voyage.

It is also article'd, that the master carpenters, and caulkers, who have the fitting of the galeons in Spain, shall go aboard the same, and not any others. It is declared also, that the owner and commander shall be pur actually paid their contract, which they have performed on their part, and passed all the offices, that nothing may be missing. The same contract is made for admirals and vice-admirals of flotas, with only this difference,

difference, that it being known they are to winter at Vera Cruz, they have bills for 60,000 royals plate, over and above the cost in Spain, to careen completely in the Indies. The president of the India-house is charged to take care, that all ships of war, especially admirals and vice-admirals, be strong, well rigged, manned and armed, that every one be distinguished by it's proper mark, the admiral carrying the flag at the main-top-mast-head, the vice-admiral at the fore-top-mast, and the rear-admiral at the mizzen, that the other ships may know, and pay respect to their commanders. The vice-admiral of any flota, or armada, may oversee the fitting or repairing of any men of war, but since there are matters of the workmen, this is not much practised.

In the year 1720, the king of Spain issued an ordinance, in order to improve the commerce of his subjects in general between Old Spain and New, and to promote the fabrics of silk and wool, and other necessary manufactures, re-established in the inland parts of Spain.—For the encouragement of which, it is declared in the said ordinance, that nothing can so much conduce thereto, as that the galeons from the Terra Firma, and flota from New Spain, and register and advice ships for both kingdoms, should more frequently sail and return: to which end he orders, that there shall be always in readiness a sufficient number of men of war, under such proper regulations, as to ascertain the dispatch of frequent flotats and galeons, advice and other register ships, destined for the Indies, that the fleets of both kingdoms and the registers may fail in due time.

The substance of the regulations, made on this occasion, may be reduced to the following particulars, viz.

1. The quality of the ships, both men of war and merchantmen that are to fail to the Indies. 2. The choice of the supercargoes of the flotats and galeons. 3. The tariff of the duties to the king. 4. The passengers.

On the 20th of April 1720, his catholic majesty issued another regulation for the encouragement of this commerce, both from the reduction of some, and the annihilation of other duties, and preventing disputes and law-suits, by fixing the admeasurements and other points therein.

May the 23d, 1720, a letter was issued from the secretary of state's office to the intendants of the provinces of Spain, agreeable to the instructions of the royal ordinance, in order to enforce the due execution of the same.

June 23, 1720, his majesty issued another ordinance, the inconveniences of the high duties, and great abuses that raised to an excessive price the goods and fruits manufactured and produced in Old Spain, to be sold in New, to the end that other nations might be obstructed in this trade, to make way for that of the Spaniards themselves.

R E M A R K S.

These regulations in Spain, at this time of day, manifesting the dawning of that spirit of commerce which now begins glaringly to shew itself; it may deserve the attention of Britons to observe, by what gradations that kingdom have arose to that commercial system, which they have now so sanguinely adopted, to the surprize of other nations; who have been lulled asleep by scandalous and dilatory negotiations, while that nation has been laying the foundation of an active and extensive commerce, so long since as the year 1720. This will, in a great measure, account for the conduct of that court towards some of it's neighbouring nations, which otherwise would appear very strange and unaccountable.

His Catholic majesty says (in his letter abovementioned) out of his great zeal for the improvement of trade and navigation, whence so many vast advantages arise to his subjects, and especially from that which is carried on, and is capable of being enlarged, between Spain and the Indies, has resolved and given proper instructions, that there shall fail this summer, from Cadiz, a flota from 5 to 6000 tons for New Spain; and October following, the galeons for the Terra Firma, besides register ships, that shall, at the same time, fail for the other provinces, under a reform of the duties and other circumstances provided for in the schedule annexed; and his majesty reflecting, that neither this, nor any other branch of trade, will considerably enrich his vassals, and improve his revenue, unless it be carried on, at least in general, with the goods and fruits of these kingdoms; for the consequence of doing it with foreign manufactures is, that bullion to the value of them will naturally seek for the proprietor of the merchandize, and pass to those foreign parts whence the supply comes; he orders me to tell your lordships, that for these reasons you are, by a proper application to the manufacturers and traders of this kingdom, to encourage and dispose them to send to Cadiz as large a quantity of fruits, woven goods, and other SPANISH COMMODITIES, as can possibly be procured, and to ship them for the Indies, either by their own FACTORS, or by consignments to those employed in the commerce of the Indies, or to dispose of them to the merchants of Andalusia, giving them at the same time to understand, that the duties upon silks exported, under the measure of a cubic palm, are so moderate, that they scarce

amount to one per cent. of their value; that in the duty upon fruits, there has been also made a very considerable reduction; and that in shipping them, and every other occurrence, shall be given all manner of protection and assistance, by the intendant Don Francisco Varas y Valdas, who is charged with the disposition of the cargo, and the dispatches of the flota, galeons, and register ships for the Indies, and particularly directed to give the utmost assistance to all, that shall go from the other provinces of Spain to Cadiz with merchandize, to enable them to succeed in this traffic. With the same intent his majesty wills, that your lordships also give all the assistance in your power, and send letters with all such as shall carry these goods to Cadiz, to the said minister, who, by knowing whence they come, and the recommendations they bring, may be enabled to support and serve them in the manner it has been enjoined him, is convenient, and your lordships shall advise, in consequence of this charge which his majesty lays upon you, not doubting but your lordships will exert your utmost vigilance to effect what his majesty desires, and is so much for the interest of the kingdom, as has been already shewn; and if, for the easier and speedier accomplishment of this great purpose, of inducing the manufacturer and merchant to export SPANISH GOODS to America, your lordships should think of any prudent measure, that may promote and render it effectual, his majesty wills, that your lordships make a report of it. God preserve, &c.

Madrid, May 23, 1720.

Don Miguel Fernandez Duran.

A copy of this circular letter was sent to the said Don Francisco Varas, along with the king's order, in the form following:

His majesty, in consequence of what he was pleased to publish in the late dispatch, an ordinance for the galeons and flotats, in respect to a revival and improvements of silks, cloths, and other manufactures in the inland parts of Spain, in order to lay a foundation for this great design, has commanded the ordinance, of which a copy is annexed, to be dispatched to all the intendants of the provinces of Spain; and as it has been already done, his majesty directs your lordship fully and punctually to discharge every thing, that shall concern and is required of you in the above ordinance, by affording such assistance to the manufacturers and traders, who shall from thence remit to that city any goods whatsoever of the fabrics of Spain to be shipped for America, that they may be sensible how desirous his majesty is to promote their interest, giving the preference to our OWN GOODS above any other, whether belonging to foreigners or natives, who are not traders or manufacturers in the provinces of this kingdom, and granting them all the indulgences practicable; and that your lordship act in this affair with the necessary prudence and management, in order that the tenderness and concern which the MANUFACTURERS merit, in the dispatch and embarkation of their goods to the Indies, and the profits they may gain in return, be an encouragement to them, to continue and extend the commerce of their own goods to the Indies, as his majesty desires: and he also orders your lordship to continue an account of the fabrics of Spain, that, in consequence of the said ordinance, arrive from each province in that city, to be shipped for the Indies; your lordship being also adverted, that, whenever the traders of that city, Seville, San Lucar, and el Puerto, shall please to ship Spanish goods, they are to be preferred before any foreign ones whatsoever. This I communicate to your lordship by his royal order, for your information and observance. God preserve, &c.

Madrid, May 31, 1720.

Don Miguel Fernandez Duran.

Señor Don Francisco de Varas.

See the article GALLOONS.

FURTHER REMARKS.

Since by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, Great Britain has obtained FLORIDA, and the Ports of ST AUGUSTINE in the Gulph thereof; and also the Ports of PENSACOLA and MOBILE, in the Gulph of Mexico, as likewise the freedom of navigation on the MISSISSIPPI; the Spanish navigation of the FLOTA from LA VERA CRUZ is rendered far more precarious in times of war, than ever the same before was: for now it is far more liable to interception by the English, from the advantages reaped by their situation, derived from the DEFINITIVE TREATY before intimated.

FLOTSAM, JETSAM, and LAGAN, are in general, goods on or in the sea, and belong to the king, who by charter hath granted them to the lord admiral. In particular, flotsam is, when a ship is sunk, or otherwise cast away, and the goods float upon the sea. Jetsam is, where the ship is in danger of sinking, and, for lightening the ship, the goods are thrown into the

the sea, but notwithstanding the ship perisheth. Lagan is, when heavy goods that sink are cast into the sea before the perishing of the ship; and the master and mariners, that they may find and have them again, fasten a buoy-cork, or other sea-mark to them, whereby they may be the more easily directed to the place where they lie, if they shall be in a condition to retake them.

A man may have *flotam* and *jetsam* by the king's grant, and *lagan* within the high and low water-mark by prescription, as it appears in the west-country; where the lords of manors prescribe to have wreck in the sea, so far as they can see a Humber-barrel. And, by the grant of a wreck, will pass *flotam*, *jetsam*, and *lagan*, when they are cast upon land; for then they are a wreck, and belong to the lord intitled to the same: but if they be not cast on the land, the admiral hath jurisdiction, and shall have them, and they cannot be said to be a wreck. 5 Rep. 106.

The king, or admiral, shall have *flotam*, *jetsam*, and *lagan*, when the ship perisheth, and when the owners of the goods are not known; but if the ship doth not perish, it is otherwise; and it is held, that where the proprietors of the goods may be known, they have a year and a day to claim *flotam*. Fitz. N. B. 112. 1 Keb. Rep. 657. See the article WRECK.

FLUX, in metallurgy, is a certain matter added to an ore, or metalline substance, in order to make it melt, or fuse the easier, and yield a greater quantity, or a purer, more tough, and malleable metal, either in the art of assaying in small quantities, or smelting in large ones. See the articles ASSAY, SMELTING, and REFINING. Here follow some examples of certain fluxes.

We took four ounces of red-lead, an ounce of white sand in powder, and two ounces of dry decrepitated salt, and mixed them all together in a mortar; then putting the mixture in a clean Hessian crucible, fitted with a cover, we fused the matter in a wind-furnace for a quarter of an hour; when taking it out, and letting it cool, we afterwards broke the crucible, and found the salt at top, and a pure glass of lead at the bottom: this glass we carefully separated, and kept apart, as a powerful flux.

The salt is of no other use in this operation, than to serve as a flux to the sand, and make it more readily unite with the red-lead, so as to form a glass without any great violence of fire, or the necessity of being long detained therein: so that, by this means, a glass of lead may be readily prepared for the purpose of artificial gems, or other uses. See GEMS.

This glass of lead is an extremely useful flux in the business of assaying; and when kept long in fusion, passes through the pores of any common crucible, almost like water through a sieve; so as, upon the test, readily to vitrify, or carry off, all sorts of metalline and mineral matter, except gold and silver: on which property, therefore, the art of cupelling depends.

Fluxes seem reducible to two general kinds, viz. the vitreous and the saline. By the vitreous we understand all those which have, either of themselves, or readily assume, a glassy form in the fire; among the principal whereof we reckon the glass of lead, the glass of antimony, and borax.

By the saline kind of fluxes we understand all those that are composed of salts, whether tartar, nitre, fixed alkali, or the like; and among the principal of this kind, we reckon the black flux; which we formerly shewed how to prepare; sandiver, kelp, &c. See ASSAY.

The vitreous kind seem more immediately destined to act upon the stony, or vitrescible matter, wherewith stubborn ores are frequently mixed; and the saline kind, to act more immediately upon the ore itself, for the due exclusion, or separation, of the metal.

The more kindly ores require no flux to make them run thin, or to afford all the metal they contain; and sometimes ores are so kindly, as to contain their own fluxes within themselves. Thus we have met with copper ores, which being barely ground to powder, and melted, without any addition, in a common wind-furnace, have yielded as much, or even more pure metal, at the first operation, than we could obtain from them by means of the usual fluxes. Whence we see that artificial fluxes are not always necessary, or that the principal use of them is for the stubborn or less tractable ores. And these are sometimes so exceedingly hard to fuse, and reduce to a metalline form, that it requires the utmost part of art to treat them advantageously in the larger way of business, where no considerable expence can usually be allowed for fluxes. And on this account it is that many mines remain unwrought, as being intractable, without great charges: whence the improvement of the business of fluxes, so as to render them cheap and effectual, might greatly contribute to the improvement of metallurgy.

We would therefore recommend to farther enquiry what matter it is, in the more safe and tractable ores, which renders them so fusible, and easy to part from their metal. Certain experiments we have made with this view, seem to shew, that, in copper ores, it is a kind of bituminous substance, capable of melting, by a strong heat, into a soft and black kind of glass.

Some of the most powerful and cheap simple fluxes, hitherto known, are dried wine-lees, dried cow-dung and horse-dung, dried river mud, fuller's earth, iron filings, common salt, glass, kelp, or pot-ash, sandiver, &c. which may be used in the larger works; as nitre, tartar, borax, sal ammoniac, mercury sublimate, &c. may in the smaller, or for the making of assays.

As for compound fluxes, they are numerous, almost every operator having his favourite flux; and certainly some fluxes are better adapted than others to certain ores. But, perhaps, a few general ones might be fixed upon, which should serve instead of all those hitherto commonly known and used. We will here recommend three, which are powerful, almost general, and not expensive.

1. Take of nitre, prepared by long boiling it in lime-water, of sea-salt, melted in the fire, sandiver, and dry wine-lees, each one part; glass of lead three parts, and powdered glass eight parts: mix them all well together. This flux, added in an equal weight, will fuse a very stubborn ore.

2. For a still stronger, take equal parts of white tartar, common salt and nitre, prepared as above; calcine them to a white powder, and mix therewith its own weight of glass and lead; and of this flux add two parts to one of the stubbornest ore.

3. For a powerful saline flux, take of the strongest soap-boiler's lees four pounds, white tartar and common salt, melted in the fire, each one pound; boil them together, each with five gallons of human urine, to a dry salt. This flux is particularly proper where sulphur and cobalt abound, and render the ore very refractory.

But the great secret, in making and adapting of fluxes, is not only to separate the metal already ripened in the ore, but even to mature and ripen the crude or immature part of the ore in the fire. Something of this kind, we apprehend, may be effected; as having reason to believe, that certain fluxes will obtain a larger yield of metal from certain ores, than other fluxes in common use, though esteemed of the best, and though they are, perhaps, of the dearest kind. Thus clean iron filings will often do more than borax; but as the scales and crocus, or rust of iron, have been commonly used, instead of pure and perfect iron itself, for a flux, few operators appear acquainted with the excellency of perfect iron employed for this purpose: and many advantages are now commonly reaped by a prudent mixture of one ore with another of the same denomination, and with the slags, or recrement, of metals, in the way of a flux.

FORESTALLERS, REGRATERS, and ENGROSSERS.

By stat. 5 and 6 Edw. VI. cap. 14. a forestaller is one who buys, or causeth to be bought, any corn, or other victuals, coming to fair, market, &c. or persons dissuading the owners from bringing them to market, or, when there, persuading to advance the price, or shall make any bargain, &c. for having the same, or any part, before it be in the said market, &c. ready to be sold.

An engrosser is one who buys standing corn (otherwise than by demise or grant) or any butter, cheese, or other victuals, to sell again for unreasonable profit.

A regrator is one who, in open fair or market, buys up corn, &c. to sell again in some other fair or market, within four miles.

All victuals are within these acts.

Offenders herein are punished at the quarter-sessions: and, for the first offence, forfeit the goods, or their value, and two months imprisonment: for the second, double value and six months imprisonment; and, for the third, loseth all his goods, is pillored, and must be imprisoned during the king's pleasure.

The prosecution to be within two years of the offence; one moiety of the forfeiture goes to the king, and the other to the prosecutor.

Persons buying barley or oats, for malt or oatmeal, purveyors of any city or town corporate, &c. fishmongers, innholders, &c. or people living within a mile of the sea, retailing fish, badgers, carriers, &c. excepted.

Persons transporting corn or cattle, and licensed drovers, and things imported from beyond sea, are excepted.

Corn bought and sold in meal, contrary to law, is within the statute, because making meal of it is not an alteration of the corn; but meal bought, and made into starch, has been held not within the statute, being altered by a trade. C. Rep. 134, 135.

Apples, plums, and hops, are not within the statute. The indictment should set forth, that the things bought were sold again in the same market dearer.

And it must be certain, alledging how many loads of hay and straw, and bushels of wheat, &c. were ingrossed.

By stat. 13 Eliz. cap. 25. the aforesaid act is made perpetual; and, by stat. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 19. butchers in London and Westminster, or within 10 miles, are prohibited to buy fat cattle, and sell again to any other, dead or alive; and also all persons from buying fat cattle in Smithfield, and selling the same again there; but, by 7 Ann. cap. 6, butchers may sell to one another calves, sheep, or lambs.

By 13 Eliz. cap. 25. the statute of 5 and 6 Edw. VI. shall not extend to foreign victuals brought from beyond sea, fish and salt only excepted.

By stat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 22. it shall not extend to freemen of London buying butter and cheese, unless it be declared by justices they shall forbear to buy, &c.

By 1 Jac. I. cap. 22. no person shall regrate or ingross oak-bark, to sell again, on pain of forfeiture; and none shall forestal hides but in market, or buy any but of him that kills the beast to spend in his house, on forfeiture of 6s. 8d. for every hide.

Salt is a victual, and so within the statutes 5 and 6 Ed. VI. cap. 14. apples are not.

Davis was indicted and convicted for ingrossing and selling salmon; for, though fishmongers may buy to carry on their trade, they must not sell at unreasonable prices.

Information for ingrossing butter and cheese, sets forth the quantity and value, and prays the double value, and good: for first, it is sufficient to demand the value in general; secondly, the informer demanded his moiety, saying nothing of the king's, and well enough, for the informer is to have his first.

Whereas, by the laws and statutes of this realm, all forestalling, &c. of corn is prohibited, and it is, by 5 and 6 Ed. VI. particularly enacted, That, when it is above the prices in that act mentioned, all persons offending against the said act shall be imprisoned for two months for the first offence, half a year for the second, and for the third the pillory, and forfeiture of all goods and chattels, and be imprisoned during the king's pleasure. And whereas their excellencies the lords justices have been informed, that, though the prices of corn are raised far beyond those in the said act mentioned, divers ill-disposed persons, for lucre, ingross great quantities, to export beyond sea, contrary to the said laws, and to the great oppression of the poor: their excellencies have thought fit to order, that all the laws relating hereunto be strictly and effectually executed. And, for discovery of all offenders, do order the officers of the customs at the several ports, to take care, when any corn, &c. is entered for exportation, to inform themselves of the names and abode of the persons bringing or entering it, and of the places from whence it is brought, and who is the owner, and if really the growth of the exporter's land, or bought of any other, immediately acquainting two or more justices therewith, where such entry is made, that such persons may be proceeded against according to law, if they appear not to be within some of the excepted cases of the act; and that commissioners do forthwith send their orders to the officers of the several ports of this kingdom for these purposes, and requiring to use their utmost endeavours in putting this order in execution. And the lords commissioners of the Treasury order, That the keepers of the rolls of the several counties in England and Wales, do strongly recommend it to the justices of the peace in their respective counties and divisions, to cause the said act, and all other the laws against the forestalling, &c. of corn and grain, to be speedily and effectually carried into execution, and to take care that no licence be granted to any badger, lader, kidder, carrier, or buyer of corn or grain, but according to the directions of the said act, and other acts relating thereto, and that all offenders be effectually prosecuted according to law.

W. CARY.

R E M A R K S.

The public debts of this nation being now near trebled to what they were at the latter end of queen Anne's reign, and our tax-incumbrances augmented proportionally, whereby the prices of the necessaries of life, and consequently the price of labour in general is advanced, and thereby unavoidably the prices of our product and manufactures are increased; does it not more become the wisdom of the nation, even than ever it before did, to put a stop to all forestallers, regraters and engrossers in this kingdom, of provisions of all kind, that they may not be enhanced a single farthing beyond what the tax-incumbrances of the nation have rendered inevitable? It most certainly does. If we do not, it will always be in the power of forestallers to raise the prices of the necessaries of life by their arbitrary and oppressive taxations on the people, as may have a tendency to the utter ruin and destruction of our whole trade. See our articles LABOUR, DUTIES, IRELAND.

F O R F A R S H I R E, in Scotland. This shire is also called Angus; but, in the parliament rolls, it is always named the shire of Forfar. It is bounded on the north by the Binchinnin Mountains; has the Firth of Tay, and the British Ocean, on the south; the water of Tarf, and a line drawn from thence to the water of North-Esk, separate it from Merns on the east; and has Perthshire on the west and north-west.

It produces wheat, and all other sorts of grain; is diversified with large hills, lakes, forests, and castles; has several quarries of free-stone and slate, in which the inhabitants drive a considerable trade. There are mines of lead near the castle of Inner-markie, and plenty of iron ore near the wood of Dalboge; and their salmon-fishery turns to a very good account.

V O L. I.

DUNDEE, on the river Tay, has a good harbour, and is reckoned the best town in the shire for strength, situation, and trade. It's harbour will contain 100 sail of ships, but not of great burden. Though it is one of the best ports for trade in all Scotland, and particularly the foreign trade, it has also a considerable inland business, especially for corn and linen cloth, which makes the country round both rich and populous, being maintained by the quantities of goods the merchants of Dundee buy up for exportation; it ships off particularly large quantities of corn, for London and Amsterdam. As the town is full of trade, so the port is full of ships, of which here are almost as many as at Leith; and there are the more here generally, because the merchants ships of St Johnstoun, or Perth, often ride here, waiting for a wind, or to load or unload, as well as for other occasions.

MONTROSE, at the mouth of the river Southesk, is well situated for trade, and has a harbour for ships of considerable burden, with a good foreign commerce, especially to Norway. There are some merchants here who trade considerably abroad.

ABERBROTHOCK, or ARBROTH, on the same coast, is a market-town and royal burgh, and has a harbour conveniently situated for trade, near the promontory called Red-head, which is to be seen at a great distance.

F O S S I L S, are natural bodies, found either in the bowels, or on the surface of the earth, of so simple a structure, that the closest inspection, even by the best microscopes, has not always been able to discover any diversity between the vessels and their contents; but each part appears perfectly similar to the whole, though, in many of them, there is certainly a composition of solid and fluid parts.

This character holds of fossils, and of them alone: thus gold, silver, and other metals, antimony, salts, sulphurs, stones, and other minerals, really grow fixed to the earth; and, if they be divided into the minutest parts, they will appear the same similar solid matter, without any shew of vessels and juices. And thus, should it be urged, that spirit of wine must, on this footing, be a fossil, because homogeneous in all it's parts, and exhibiting no distinction of vessels and juices, the answer is obvious: since spirit of wine, as such, is not generated of, or under the earth; neither is it a vegetable, that denomination including the whole compages, or structure, out of which spirit of wine is prepared. Or if it be said, That antimony should then be no fossil, since it contains an homogeneous sulphur: it may be answered, That, as to our senses, it is, in all respects, a fossil; since, whatever portion you take thereof, it is the same indistinguishable matter, and has all the characters of antimony.

Fossils are either simple or compound: simple, are such whose parts, whosoever divided, are of all the same nature, that is, of the same gravity, magnitude, figure, hardness, and mobility: as quicksilver, though divided to infinity, is found every where the same in all these respects. Compound fossils are those which may be resolved into different, or dissimilar parts; or, whose parts are unlike in magnitude, figure, hardness, and mobility: as antimony, which may be resolved by fire into sulphur and a metallic part.

The simple fossils are, (1.) Metals. (2.) Salts. (3.) Stones, both vulgar and precious, and, (4.) Earths.

The compound fossils are, (1.) All sulphurs. (2.) Semi-metals, or properly minerals. (3.) Bodies combined of the preceding fossils, either simple or compound.

R E M A R K S.

The fossil kingdom affording a great variety of materials for commerce, both in their simple, compounded, and applicable nature to divers arts and trades, we refer those who would excel in this branch of knowledge to the perusal of the works of the learned Drs. Lister, Woodward, and Hill, who have professedly wrote upon this delicate subject. With respect, however, to many particulars that make pretty capital articles of trade, we have represented their quality and uses, so far as we have judged consistent with the general design of this work.

F O U N D E R, an artist who melts or casts metals into various forms, for divers purposes, as bells, guns, bombs, printing-types, and other sorts of works, as candlesticks, buckles, &c. From the different sorts of works they are differently denominated, as bell founders, gun-founders, letter-founders, &c. See FOUNDERY.

F O U N D E R Y, the art of casting all sorts of metals into divers forms. It likewise signifies the workhouse, or smelting-hut, wherein these operations are performed.

The methods of casting in sand all sorts of small works in brass.

The sand used for cast-work of this kind is, at first, of a pretty soft, yellowish, and clammy nature; but, it being necessary to strew charcoal-dust in the moulds, it, at length, becomes of a quite black colour. This sand is worked over and over on a board, with a roller and a sort of knife, and placed over a trough, to receive it, after it is thus sufficiently prepared.

After this they take a wooden board, of a length and breadth suitable to what is to be cast, and put a ledge round it, and

fill it with the sand, a little moistened, to make it duly coherent. Then they take either wood or metal models of what they intend to cast, and make their impression on the sand mould. Along the middle of the mould they lay half a small brass cylinder, as a chief canal for the metal to run through, when melted, into the models or patterns; and from this chief canal are placed several others, which extend to each model, or pattern, placed in the same frame. After this frame is finished, they take out the patterns, by very gently loosening them, that the sand may not give way. After this, they proceed to work the other half of the mould with the same patterns, in a such-like frame, with pins, which, entering into holes corresponding with the other, make the two cavities of the model coincide.

The frame, thus prepared, is carried to the melter, who, after extending the chief canal of the counterpart, and adding the cross canals to the divers models in both, and strewing mill-duff over them, dries them in a kind of oven for that purpose.

Both parts of the mould being dry, they are joined together by means of the pins, and, to prevent their giving way, by reason of the melted metal passing through the chief cylindrical canal, they are screwed, or wedged up, like a kind of press.

While the moulds are thus preparing, the metal is fusing, in a crucible of a size proportionate to the quantity of metal intended to be cast. Some of those small work-founder's furnaces are like a smith's forge, others stand a few feet underground, for the more easily and safely taking out a weighty pot of metal, with circular tongs, which grasp round the top of the crucible. When the metal is melted, the workman pours it through the chief canal of each mould, which conveys it to every distinct pattern.

When the moulds are coolish, the frames are unscrewed, or unwedged, and the cast-work taken out of the sand, which sand is worked over and over for other castings.

Of the casting of statues.

The casting hereof depends on the due preparation of the pit, the core, the wax, the outer mould, the inferior furnace, to melt off the wax, and the upper to fuse the metal. The pit is a hole, dug in a dry place, something deeper than the intended figure, and made according to the prominence of certain parts thereof. The inside of the pit is commonly lined with stone or brick; or, when the figure is very large, they sometimes work on the ground, and raise a proper fence to resist the impulsion of the melted metal.

The inner mould, or core, is a rude mass, to which is given the intended attitude and contours. It is raised on an iron grate, strong enough to sustain it, and is strengthened within side by several bars of iron. It is generally made either of potter's clay, mixed with hair and horse-dung, or of plaister of Paris, mixed with fine brick-duff. The use of the core is, to support the wax, the shell, and lessen the weight of metal. The iron bars and the core are taken out of the brass figure through an aperture left in the figure, which is soldered up afterwards. It is necessary to leave some of the iron bars of the core that contribute to the steadiness of the projecting parts, within the brass figure.

The wax is a representation of the intended statue. If it be a piece of sculpture, the wax should be all of the sculptor's own hand, who usually forms it on the core; though it may be wrought separately, in cavities moulded on a model, and afterwards arranged on the ribs of iron, over the grate, filling the vacant space in the middle with liquid plaister and brick-duff, whereby the inner core is proportioned as the sculptor carries on the wax.

When the wax, which is the intended thickness of the metal, is finished, they fix small waxen tubes perpendicularly to it, from top to bottom, to serve both as canals for the conveyance of the metal to all parts of the work, and as vent-holes, to give passage to the air, which would otherwise occasion great disorder, when the hot metal came to encompass it.

The work, brought thus far, must be covered with its shell, which is a kind of crust laid over the wax, and which, being of a soft matter, easily receives the impression of every part, which is afterwards communicated to the metal, upon its taking the place of the wax between the shell and the mould.

The matter of this outer mould is varied according as different layers are applied. The first is generally a composition of clay and old white crucibles, well grounded and sifted, and mixed up with water, to the consistence of a colour fit for painting; accordingly they apply it with a pencil, laying it seven or eight times over, letting it dry between whites. For the second impression they add horse-dung, and naturally earth, to the former composition. The third impression is only horse-dung and earth. Lastly, the shell is finished, by laying on several more impressions of this last matter, made very thick with the hand.

The shell thus finished, is secured by several iron girts, bound round it, at about half a foot's distance from each other, and fastened at bottom to the grate under the statue, and at top to a circle of iron, where they all terminate.

If the statue be so big that it would not be easy to move the moulds with safety, they must be wrought on the spot, where it is to be cast. This is performed two ways: in the first, a square hole is dug under ground, much bigger than the mould to be made therein, and its inside lined with walls of freestone, or brick. At the bottom is made a hole, of the same materials, with a kind of furnace, having its aperture outwards. In this is a fire to be lighted, to dry the mould, and afterwards melt the wax. Over this furnace is placed the grate, and on this the mould, &c. framed as above. Lastly, at one of the edges of the square pit is made another large furnace, to melt the metal. In the other way, it is sufficient to work the mould above ground, but with the like precaution of a furnace, and grate underneath. When finished, four walls are to be run up around it, and, by the side thereof, a massive made for a melting-furnace. For the rest, the method is the same in both.

The mould being finished and inclosed, as described, whether under ground or above it, a moderate fire is lighted in the furnace under it, and the whole covered with planks, that the wax may melt gently down, and run out at pipes contrived for that purpose, at the foot of the mould, which are afterwards exactly closed with earth, so soon as the wax is carried off. This done, the hole is filled up with bricks, thrown in at random, and the fire in the furnace augmented, till such time as both the bricks and mould become red-hot. After this, the fire being extinguished, and every thing cold again, they take out the bricks, and fill up their place with earth, moistened, and a little beaten, to the top of the mould, in order to make it the more firm and steady.

These preparatory measures being duly taken, there remains nothing but to melt the metal and run it into the mould.—This is the office of the furnace above described, which is commonly made in the form of an oven, with three apertures; one to put in the wood, another for a vent and a third to run the metal out at. From this last aperture, which is kept very close while the metal is in fusion, a small tube is laid, whereby the melted metal is conveyed into a large earthen basin over the mould, into the bottom of which all the big branches of the jets, or casts, which are to convey the metal into all the parts of the mould are inserted.

These casts, or jets, are all terminated with a kind of plugs, which are kept close, that, upon opening the furnace, the brass, which gushes out with violence, may not enter any of them, till the basin be full enough of matter to run into them all at once.—Upon which occasion they pull out the plugs, which are long iron rods, with a head at one end capable of filling the whole diameter of each tube. The whole of the furnace is opened with a long piece of iron, fitted at the end of each pole, and the mould filled in an instant.—This completes the work with relation to the casting part, the rest being the sculptor's or carver's business; who, taking the figure out of the mould and earth wherewith it is encompassed, saws off the jets with which it appears covered over, and repairs it with his chisels, graters, punchcons, &c.

Of bell foundery.

Before we enter upon this branch, the reader is desired to consult what has been said under the article BELLS. What has been shewn with respect to the casting of statues, holds, in proportion, with regard to the casting of bells: what is particular in the latter follows.

1. The metal, it must be observed, is different for bells to what it is for statues; there being no tin in the statue-metal, but a fifth part, and sometimes more, in the bell-metal.
2. The dimensions of the core and the wax for bells, if a ring of bells especially, are not left to chance; but must be measured on a scale, or diapason*, which gives the height, aperture, and thickness, necessary for the several tones required.

* Diapason, among musical instrument-makers, is a kind of rule or scale, whereby they adjust the pipes of their organs, and cut the holes of their flutes, haut-bois, &c. in due proportion, for performing the tones, semi-tones, and concords, justly.—A square being divided into eight equal parallelograms, the points wherein a diagonal intersects all these parallelograms, express all the usual intervals in music: and, on this principal it is, that the diapason is founded.—So the bell-founders have likewise a diapason, or scale, serving to regulate the size, thickness, weight, &c. of their bells.

It is on the wax that the several mouldings and other ornaments are formed, to be represented in relief on the outside of the bell.

The clapper, or tongue, is not properly a part of the bell, but is supplied from other hands. In Europe, it is usually of iron, with a large knob at the end, and is suspended in the middle of the bell. In China it is only a huge wooden mallet, struck by force of arm against the bell: whence they can have but little of that consonancy so much admired in some of our sets of bells. The Chinese have an extraordinary way of increasing the found of their bells, by leaving a hole under

under the cannon, which our bell-founders would reckon a defect.

The proportions of our bells differ very much from those of the Chinese. In ours, the modern proportions are to make the diameter fifteen times the thickness of the brim, and twelve times the height.

The business of bell-foundry is reducible to three particulars: 1. The proportion of a bell. 2. The forming of the mould. And 3. The melting of the metal.

There are two kinds of proportions, viz. the simple and the relative: the former are those proportions only that are between the several parts of a bell to render it sonorous. The relative proportions establish a requisite harmony between several bells.

The parts of a bell are the sounding-bow, terminated by an inferior circle, which grows thinner and thinner. 2. The brim, or that part of the bell whereon the clapper strikes, and which is thicker than the rest. 3. The outward sinking of the middle of the bell, or the point under which it grows wider to the brim. 4. The waist or furniture, or the part that grows wider and thicker quite to the brim. 5. The upper vase, or that part which is above the waist. 6. The pallet or crown, which supports the staple of the clapper within. 7. The bent and hollowed branches of metal uniting with the cannons, to receive the iron keys, whereby the bell is hung up to the beam which is its support and counterpoise, when rung out.

The particulars necessary for making the mould of a bell are, 1. The earth; the most cohesive is the best, which should be ground and well sifted, to take away whatever might occasion chinks. 2. Brick-stone, which is used for the mine, mould, or core, and for the furnace. 3. Horse dung, hair, and hemp, mixed with the earth, to prevent crevices, and render the cement more binding. 4. The wax for inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. 5. The tallow equally mixed with the wax, in order to put a slight lay of it upon the outer mould, before any letters are applied to it. 6. The coals to dry the mould.

For making the mould, they have a scaffold consisting of four boards, ranged upon tressels. Upon this they carry the earth grossly diluted, to mix it with horse dung, beating the whole with a large spatula.

The compasses of construction is the chief instrument for making the mould; which consists of two different legs, joined by a third piece. And last of all the founder's shelves, on which are the engravings of the letters, cartridges, coats of arms.

They first dig a hole of a sufficient depth to contain the mould of the bell, together with the case or cannon under ground, and about six inches lower than the terreprain where the work is performed. The hole must be wide enough for a free passage between the mould and walls of the hole, or between one mould and another, when several bells are to be cast.

At the center of the hole is a stake erected, that is strongly fastened in the solid ground. This supports an iron peg, on which the pivot of the second branch of the compasses turns. The stake is encompassed with a solid brick work perfectly round, about half a foot high, and of the proposed bell's diameter. This they call a mill-stone.

The parts of this mould are the core, the model of the bell, and the shell. When the surface of the core is formed, they raise the core; which is made of bricks, that are laid in courses of equal height, upon a lay of plain earth. At the laying each brick, they bring near it the branch of the compasses on which the curve of the core is shaped, so as that there may remain between it and the curve the distance of a line, to be afterwards filled up with layers of cement. The work is continued to the top, only leaving an opening for the coals to bake the core. This work is covered with a layer of cement made of earth and horse dung, on which they move the compasses of construction, to make it of an even smoothness every-where.

The first layer being finished, they put the fire to the core, by filling it half with coals, through an opening that is kept shut during the baking with a cake of earth that has been separately baked. The first fire consumes the stake, and is left in the core frequently an whole day. The first layer being thoroughly dry, they cover it with a second, third, and fourth, each being smoothed by the board of the compasses, and thoroughly dried before they proceed to another. The core is judged to be well prepared, when the profile carries the fresh cement off, without leaving any upon the last dry layer. They likewise put tempered ashes, smoothing them over the whole, by the circular motion of the compasses, in order to fill up the minutest chafms, that no metal may run therein during the casting.

The core being compleated, they take the compasses to pieces, with intent to cut off the thickness of the model, and the compasses are immediately put in their place to begin a second piece of the mould.—It consists of a mixture of earth and hair, applied with the hand on the core in several cakes that close together. This work is finished by several layers of a thinner cement of the same matter, smoothed by the

compasses and thoroughly dried, before another is laid on. The last layer of the model, is a mixture of wax and grease spread over the whole. After which are applied the inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. besmeared with a pencil dipped in a vessel of wax on a chafing dish; this is done for every letter. Before the shell is begun, the compasses are taken to pieces, to cut off all the wood that fills up the place of the thickness to be given the shell.

The first layer is of the same earth with the rest, sifted very fine. Whilst it is tempering in water, it is mixed with cow's-hair to make it the better cohere. The whole, being a thin cullis, is gently poured upon the whole model, that fills exactly all the sinuosities of the figures, &c. This is repeated 'till the whole is two lines thick over the model. When this layer is thoroughly dried, they cover it with a second of the same matter, but something thicker. When this second layer becomes of some consistence, they apply the compasses again, and light a fire in the core, so as to melt off the wax of the inscriptions, &c.

After this, they go on with the other layers of the shell, by means of the compasses. Here they add to the cow'-hair a quantity of hemp spread upon the layers, and afterwards smoothed by the board of the compasses.

The thickness of the shell comes four or five inches lower than the mill-stone, before observed, and surrounds it quite close, which prevents the extravasation of the metal. The wax should be taken out before the melting of the metal.

The ear of the bell requires a separate work, which is done during the drying of the several incrustations of the cement. It has seven rings; the seventh is called the bridge, and unites the others, being a perpendicular support to strengthen the curves: it has an aperture at the top, to admit a large iron-peg bent at the bottom; and this is introduced into a couple of holes in the beam, fastened with two strong iron keys.

There are models made of the rings with masses of beaten earth, that are dried in the fire, in order to have the hollow of them. These rings are gently pressed upon a layer of earth and cow's-hair one-half of it's depth, and then taken out, without breaking the mould. This operation is repeated 12 times for 12 half moulds, that 2 and 2 united may make the hollows of the six rings. The same they do for the hollow of the bridge, and bake them all to unite them together.

Upon the open place left for the coals to be put in, are placed the rings that constitute the ear. They first put in this open place the iron-ring to support the clapper of the bell; then they make a round cake of clay, to fill up the diameter of the thickness of the core. This cake, after baking, is clapped upon the opening, and soldered with a thin mortar spread over it, which binds the cover close to the core.

The hollow of the model is filled with an earth sufficiently moist to mix on the place, which is strewed at several times upon the cover of the core; and they beat it gently with a pebble to a proper height, and a workman smooths the earth at top with a wooden trowel dipped in water.

Upon this cover, to be taken off afterwards, they assemble the hollows of the rings. When every thing is in it's proper place, they strengthen the outsides of the hollows with mortar, in order to bind them with the bridge, and keep them steady at bottom, by means of a cake of the same mortar, which fills up the whole aperture of the shell. This they let dry, that it may be removed without breaking.

To make room for the metal, they pull off the hollows of the rings, through which the metal is to pass, before it enters into the vacuity of the mould. The shell being unloaded of it's ear, they range under the mill-stone five or six pieces of wood about two feet long, and thick enough to reach almost the lower part of the shell. Between these and the mould they drive in wooden wedges with a mallet, to shake the shell off the model whereon it rests, so as to be pulled up and got out of the pit.

When this and the wax are removed, they break the model and the layer of earth, through which the metal must run from the hollow of the rings between the shell and the core. They smoke the inside of the shell by burning straw under it, that helps to smooth the surface of the bell. Then they put the shell in it's place, so as to leave the same interval between that and the core, before the hollows of the rings or cap are put on again. They add two vents, that are united to the rings and to each other, by a mass of baked cement.

After which they put on this mass of the cap, the rings and vents over the shell, and solder it with thin cement, which is dried gradually, by covering it with burning coals. Then they fill up the pit with earth, beating it strongly all the time round the mould.

The furnace has a place for the fire and another for the metal. The fire-place has a large chimney with a spacious ash-hole.—The furnace which contains the metal is vaulted, whose bottom is made of earth rammed down, the rest is built with brick. It has four apertures; the first through which the flame reverberates, the second is closed with a stopple that is opened for the metal to run, the others are to separate the dross or scoria of the metal by wooden rakes. Through these last apertures passes the thick smoke.—The ground of the furnace is built sloping, for the metal to rundown.

Of the foundry of great guns and mortar-pieces of brass.

The method of casting these pieces of brass ordnance, is little different from that of bells; they are run maffly and without any core, being determined by the hollow of the shell, and they are bored with a steel trepan that is worked either by horses or a water-mill.

As to the metal, it is somewhat different from that of statues as well as bells; it having at the rate of ten pounds of tin to an hundred weight of copper. A cannon is always shaped a little conical, being thickest of metal at the breech, where the greatest force of the gunpowder lies, and diminishing thence to the muzzle; so that, if the mouth be two inches thick of metal, the breech is six.—With respect to the length, that is measured in calibers, that is, in diameters of the muzzle. Six inches at the muzzle require twenty calibers, or ten feet in length; about one sixth of an inch is allowed play for the ball.

The parts and proportions of a cannon about eleven feet long are, it's barrel, nine feet; its fulcrum fourteen, and it's axis seven; the bore, or diameter of the mouth, six inches, and two lines the play of the ball: the diameter of the ball therefore six inches, and it's weight 33 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$. The metal thick about the mouth 2 inches, and at the breech 6. It weighs about 5600 pounds; it's charge is from 18 to 20 pounds. It carries point blank 600 paces, and loads 10 times in an hour, sometimes more. Larry makes brass cannon the invention of J. Owen; and says, the first, known in England, were in 1535. He owns however, that cannon were known before; and observes, that at the battle of Cressy in 1346, there were five pieces of cannon in the English army, which were the first that had been seen in France: Mezeray says, that king Edward struck terror into the French army, by five or six pieces of cannon, it being the first time they had seen such thundering machines. Cannon are made cylindrical, that the motion of the ball might not be retarded in it's passage; and that the powder, when on fire, might not slip between the ball and the surface of the cannon, which would hinder it's effect.

Wolfius would have the cannon always decrease towards the mouth or orifice: in regard, the force of the powder always decreases, in proportion to the space through which it is expanded. The Spanish cannon have a cavity or chamber at the bottom of the barrel, which helps their effect. This sort of cannon is found to recoil two or three paces after explosion; which some account for from the air's rushing violently into the cavity, as soon as it is discharged of the ball: but the real cause is, the powder's acting, equally on the breech of the cannon and the ball.—For battering-pieces, the proportion of their length to their diameter, depends rather on experience, than any reasoning à priori; and has been accordingly various, in various times and places: the rule is, that the gun be of such a length, as that the whole charge of powder be on fire, ere the ball quit the piece. If it be made too long, the quantity of air, to be driven out before the ball, will give too much resistance to the impulse; and, that impulse ceasing, the friction of the ball against the surface of the piece will take off some of it's motion. Formerly, cannon were made much larger than at present; till some by chance two feet and a half shorter than ordinary, taught them, that the ball moves with a greater impetus through less space than a large.

The method of casting iron-cannon differs very little from that of brass. That the iron ore may melt the more easily, those founders generally mixed it with a sulphureous stone, that vitrifies a great deal of the gross earth adhering to the native iron ore; but this very often occasions the cannon not to stand proof; which might be easily prevented.

FRANCE, is separated on the north from England by the British channel; on the north-east it is contiguous to the Spanish Netherlands; on the east it borders on Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont, from the last of which it is separated by the Alps; on the south it is bounded by the Mediterranean sea, and by the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain; and on the west it is surrounded by the ocean.

The air is very temperate and wholesome, and not subject to the great cold of Germany, Sweden, and Muscovy, nor the excessive heats of Spain and Italy; but it is more or less hot or cold, according to the different situation of the several provinces.

The productions of France, as they are the subjects of trade, are,

I. Wines of	{ Champagne, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, and o- ther places on the Loire. }	II. The produce of	{ Brandy of Bour- deaux, Nantz, and Rochelle, Vinegar, Lees of wine, &c. }

III. Fruit, such as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears and apples in Normandy, oranges and olives in Languedoc and Provence.

IV. Corn, salt, i. e. bay-salt, hemp, flax, silk, rosin, oil, cork.

V. Kid skins in abundance, perfumes, extracted oils, drugs,

and chemical preparations, which are a produce rather than a manufacture, the growth being of their own.

VI. They have also minerals and metals of divers kinds, and are daily discovering others; and they are become great artists in the smelting and refining them, and perform those operations to as great perfection as any other country.

The manufactures of France are;

I. Silks, as {
 Lutefrings,
 Alamodes,
 Sarcenets,
 Broad flowered and brocaded silks,
 Velvets.

II. Woollen manufactures, in imitation of those of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poictou, Languedoc, Provence, Guienne, &c.

III. Linen, such as Normandy canvas, fail-cloth, at Vitry and other places; doulasses at Morlaix, and fine linens and lace in the inland provinces.

IV. Paper of all sorts.

V. Tapestry, which they make very rich and fine in Picardy and near Paris.

VI. Soap, which they chiefly make in Provence, and which is so considerable an article, that when their crop of oils fail, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant, to supply the soap-makers*.

* The French have some years since obtained the secret from Spain of making Castille soap, as it is called; and have set up very large manufactures thereof both at Marcellis and Toulon, and have thereby beat the Spaniards out of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit which France receives by this manufacture; for, as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap, is Levantine olive oil, together with the ingredients of sofa and barilla, their large vent for their soap gives them the advantage of constant back freights from the Levant, with these oils; which, it seems, has proved one great, if not the only means of the French advancing their Turkey trade upon the ruins of our's; for, we having no such manufacture of Castile soap, that will consume such quantities of Levant oil as the French, we can neither trade with the Turks so much to their advantage as the French do, nor so much to our own, as if our Turkey traders had the like benefit by constant back freights.

France being extensive in territory in Europe, and exceeding populous, they must necessarily drive a very great inland trade among themselves: and, as they have many large navigable rivers, their home trade is carried on with great ease, and much less expence than is done in England.

Five rivers empty themselves into the Seine, and this so near to Paris, that goods are brought thither from some of the remotest parts by these rivers. These are the rivers Marne, Aisne, Loign, Oyse, Yonne. Besides the canals of Orleans, and Briere, and by them from the Loire. Also up the Seine, by Roan from the sea.

So that, by means of these rivers, the traders of Paris can receive heavy goods from most of the northerly parts of France, also from Lorraine, Borgogne, Picardy, Normandy, and Bretagne, at very easy rates.

The Loire, without comparison, the largest river in France, and the farthest navigable; and on which stand the largest and most capital cities of the kingdom, Paris excepted; conveys their wines down from all the wine-making provinces to Nantes, and, in return, furnishes those countries with all necessary goods for the merchants and traders of those parts.

The Rhone, an inland river of a long course, takes in the Soan and the Douz from Burgundy, and the Durance from Dauphiné, and supplies all the province of Languedoc, as well as Burgundy, and the Swiss cantons, with merchandize from all parts of the world, as we shall see presently.

The Garonne does the same in Guienne, Gascoigne, Poictou, and French Navarre.

The home trade of France, which well deserves our regard, is their coasting trade by sea, in order to bring the product of the fourth parts of France to those of, the north, for the supply of the great city of Paris, and of all the northern provinces: and this, indeed, is a very considerable, as well as material part of their trade; and, next to the coal trade of England, is, perhaps, the greatest article of its kind in Europe; and employs more ships and more people.

The principal ports for this commerce, are the cities of Bourdeaux and Roan; but there are many other places which share in the trade by the way, both in the out-loading, and in the returns.

The first ships are loaded at Bourdeaux with wines and fruits of all sorts, as prunes, prunelloes, figs, and all the product of the southern provinces; and there setting out in a fleet, and under convoy, in time of war, stop at St Martins, and the isle of Rhee. Here they are joined by the ships from Rochelle, laden also with wines and fruits of all kinds, as well as with corn, which the adjacent country supplies. Hence they proceed to the coast of Bretagne, and anchoring at Belle-isle, are joined by another fleet from Nantes, Sherrant, and St Malo, laden with white wines, brandy, and corn; though generally the ships from Nantes, &c. take care to be ready for the convoy, and to be at Bell-isle, before them.

Their fleet thus gathered, and sometimes, even during a war, they make up from 150 to 200 sail, and they proceed to the mouth of the Seine; the ships designed for the trade of Paris put in at Havre, and taking the opportunity of winds and tides, make the best of their way up to Roan, while the rest separate for their respective ports, as Caen, Dieppe, St Valery, Bologne, Calais, Dunkirk, &c.

These are the chief ports where they unload. The gros of their loading is delivered in this manner; and from these places, the wines are dispersed over all the northern provinces of France and the Netherlands; for, Dunkirk being a free port, all the merchandizes destined for Flanders, on board these coasting vessels, are dispersed from Dunkirk by the canals and rivers, with which that country abounds.

Nor is this coasting trade only thus considerable in one fleet, but is passing and repassing all the year, especially in the autumn after the vintage.

Besides this trade, which is thus carried on by sea, the city of Paris receives, by the navigation of the canals of Orleans, and of Briarie, and by the navigation of the Upper Seine, a very extraordinary and constant supply of the wines and brandies produced in all the countries upon the river Loire, which are remarkable for lighter bodied wines, than those of Bourdeaux; and which are very pleasant, and in high esteem at Paris.

By the same river the wines of Burgundy are brought to Paris, and all the great rivers which flow into the Seine, bring down the growth of their several provinces to that great city, and return with what other goods they may have occasion for.

And as there is a great number of cities bordering on those rivers, and many of them exceeding large, rich, and populous; so the communication of trade by these conveyances, and the returns made from Paris to these cities, must be very considerable.

It would be endless to enumerate the cities and towns, which supply Paris with their manufactures; (for which see the particular provinces, under their respective names) such as fine linen from some provinces, coarse from others; bone-lace from one province, fine druggets, &c. from another: these again circulating from Paris to the towns, cities, and provinces, where, other goods being made, the rest are wanting.

Though the commerce of the royal city of Paris is mighty considerable, yet this capital city being no sea-port, it is not the center of the trade of the whole country, as is the case of London, Amsterdam, &c. nor is it possible to be so, the extent of the country being so exceeding great.

Yet Paris being the most populous city in France, there being, as computed, near a million of people, and near half as many more in the adjacent towns, for 10 or 12 miles round it: this great confluence of people must necessarily cause a proportionable accumulation of provisions and merchandizes, brought as well by the Seine, as by other rivers, from the remotest countries in France.

In consequence of such multitudes of people, it is scarce to be imagined, what numbers of boats and carriages, men, horses, and other cattle, are employed in the single article of bringing wood for firing to the city of Paris. This occasions a vast conflux of trade, and a prodigious carriage by water from distant inland countries; and this, as well as their coasting trade, is no inconsiderable nursery to use people to live on the water, and soon fit them for sailors. And as it is by their wines, brandies, and fewel, so it is by the innumerable throng of boats and barges, which come down or up continually to Paris, laden with corn for the supply of that great city.

And though there is no trade of malt in France, which makes so great an article in the corn trade in England, the French drinking little malt liquor throughout the kingdom; yet, as the French usually eat more than double, if not treble the quantity of bread, in their ordinary way of diet, than the English do, so the quantity of wheat and barley * may rise something in proportion, and, perhaps, near equal to that of both wheat and malt in England, considering the number of people in both countries.

* Wheat and barley are mentioned here promiscuously, the French making great part of their bread with a mixture of both, as in some parts of England they also do.

France being exceeding populous, as well as a far extended country, and the people universally eating much bread with all their food, the quantity of corn produced in France, in a plentiful year, must be extremely great, and then they supply Germany, Switzerland, Geneva, and several other parts with corn.

Yet, if either an extraordinary hot or wet summer happens, their crop is injured, and a scarcity ensues; and they are less able to support the want of corn than other countries, and much more oppressed on such occasions than the English would be, who, having so plentiful a supply of flesh, roots, and malt liquor, are able to live with the least bread of any nation in Europe. In these times of scarcity in France, the greatest quantity of corn brought to Paris comes up the Seine, being imported at Roan, and other ports not far from that river,

from England or Holland; or else at Nantes, and brought up the Loire by the canals before-mentioned.

As France is certainly the most populous and largest kingdom in Europe, so it's inland traffic is proportionate, and, in many particulars, far beyond any country in Europe. The great cities, which hold any considerable inland correspondence with Paris, are such as these:

On the Seine, {
 Chastillon, } manufactures of linen.
 Troyes,
 Montereau,
 Pont sur Seine,
 Corbeil,
 Villeneuf,
 Paris,
 St. Denis,
 St. Germain,
 Poissy,
 Meulan,
 Mant,
 Pont de Larch,
 Rouen,
 Caudebec, } great woollen manufactures set up here.
 Havre,

On the Marne, {
 Langrevés,
 Joynville,
 St Denier,
 Vitrye, } here is a great product of
 Chalons sur Marne, } corn for the city of Paris;
 Espernay, } also linen cloth made
 Castillon sur Marne, } here in great quantities.
 Chateau Thicrry,
 La Ferte,
 Meaux,
 Lagny.

On the Aisne, {
 Attigny,
 Rhetel,
 Chateau Pôscien,
 Soissons,
 Rheims, on a small river which runs into the Aisne,
 N. D. De Puy,
 Feures,
 Rouanne,
 Moulins, } great manufactures here of fine look-
 Nevers, } ing-glass, tin-ware, and earthen-
 La Charitie, } ware as fine as Delft.
 Sancerre,
 Bour,
 Pouilly,

On the Loire, and near it, so as to have a navigation by the Loire, {
 Cosne,
 Chastillon sur Loire,
 Sully,
 Jargeau, } silk manufactures here.
 Orleans,
 Beaugency,
 Blois,
 Tours, a fine manufacture of silk at this city.
 Saumur,
 Angers,
 Nantes,
 Le Mans, } the best white wines in France at this
 city, and the country round it.
 Poictiers,
 Bourges, } manufacture of fine bone-lace, also pa-
 per in great quantity.
 Rochelle.

On the Oyse, {
 La Capelle,
 Guise,
 La Fere,
 Chauny,
 Noyon,
 Campaign,
 Verberie,
 Beaumont,
 L'isle Adam,
 Pontoyse,

On the Yonne, {
 Clamacy, } a great thorough-fare city from Lan-
 Auxerre, } guedoc.
 Loigny,
 Sens,
 Pont sur Yonne,
 Mantereau faut Yonne.

On the canals of Briarie, and of Orleans, {
 Briarie,
 Chastillon sur Loing,
 Montargis,
 Nemours,
 Murette.

All these cities, and many more, have an immediate communication, by water, with the city of Paris, and many of them with the sea.

The inland navigation of France, thus centering at Paris, for so great a part of France, necessarily causes a conflux, as well of people as of trade, in the capital city. Whether it was so contrived by the first founders of the city, or not, we can't say; but, if not, the chance of it is something extraordinary; no city in the world being so happily situated for the universal commerce of the whole, and that in so extended a kingdom. For, what by sea, and what by these rivers, the remotest part of France has a conveyance for their product to the capital city, upon easy terms: and there is scarce any such thing as settled weekly or daily carriers for merchandizes by land, as is the case in England*, at a prodigious expence.

* Query.—Whether it would not be more for the benefit of trade, rather to promote navigable rivers throughout the kingdom, as much as possible, for the cheap carriage of merchandizes, than to turn our thoughts wholly, as it were, to turnpike road bills, for that purpose?

Two ports in particular serve for the reception of all such goods, whether produced or made in the remotest parts of France, as may be brought to Paris by sea, viz. Nantes, and Rouen. Hither the ships come from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, St Malo, and all the ports and islands of France, as well in the bay of Biscay, as on the coast of Bretagne; as also from the ports of France in the Mediterranean (for we are now speaking of the home trade of France only) and from all the navigating world.

By these water conveyances, Paris is made; as it were, a seaport; and there are many merchants, even in Paris, who carry on the foreign, as well as inland trade of that kingdom. But there is also another center of inland commerce in France, which has not an immediate communication with Paris by water, except by a very long circuit; and that is in the S. and S. E. parts of France: and the center of this trade may be placed at Lyons. For,

Lyons is seated, in some respects, in regard to commerce, like Paris: it is at near the same distance from the sea, and upon as great, or rather greater river, though not so happily navigable as that part next the sea, by reason of the violence of the current, and the weakness of the tides. As the navigation, however, respects inland commerce chiefly, it is happily supplied by the canal of Martigues, so that there is no want of larger shipping; and, for goods of foreign importation, they are conveyed by the ports of Marseilles in Provence, and that of Cete in Languedoc, sufficient for that part of the trade.

The confluence of the Soan and the Rhosne, which meet at Lyons, gives an advantage of inland navigation to that city, from a very great extent of the country round. The first receiving the river Doux from Burgundy, and even from the frontiers of Alsatia, commands all the trade of that part of France, till they come so near the Loire and the Seine, that a small voiture by land makes a communication that way: and the manufactures of this part of France are conveyed, by either of these rivers, into the north parts of France, and to Paris itself. Nor on the west side is it above eight leagues, till meeting with the waters of the Lot, a navigable stream in the Gevandau, which runs into the Garonne, their goods are likewise conveyed to Bourdeaux by water, and from thence by sea, not only to Paris, but to England, (when that trade was open) also to Holland, and most other parts of the world.

Next to the Soan and the Doux, which particularly maintain a trade with that part of Burgundy called the French-Comte, the navigation of the Rhosne itself (which, as is described already, rises in the mountains of St Goddard, in the farthest part of Switzerland, joining to the Grisons) brings to Lyons all the commerce of the city and lake of Geneva, and of all the adjacent cantons of the Swis; from whence there is a great and constant return of trade, especially from the city of Geneva; who particularly manage the rest of the trade from all the Swis cantons; and bring to Lyons abundance of manufactures, as well from Switzerland as from the Rhine, by the navigation of the Aar, and other rivers, by which they have a communication with the upper Alsace, Suabia, and other parts of Germany.

Also, by the Durance, a large river, and though very rapid, yet made useful for part of it's channel; the trade is supplied into Dauphiné and Provence, even to the mountains of Pignerol, and thence to the Po, and by that river into Piedmont and Italy.

It may be here observed, in regard to Lyons, that the distances from the river Soan and Rhosne to the Loire, the Seine, and the Garonne, by which the communication is maintained with Bourdeaux, Nantes, Paris, and other parts of the kingdom of France, the trade of that city is not so difficult as it would otherwise be: and so again; Lyons receiving the Turkey raw silk, and Italian thrown silk, &c. is likewise easy from Marseilles to Avignon, where it is embarked on the Rhosne, or from Marseilles to Martigues.

This commodiousness for inland commerce is exceeding beneficial to Lyons, and renders it a city of very great consequence to the kingdom: for, as Paris is to the north of France, so is Lyons to all the southern provinces, as Dauphiné,

Provence, all the Upper Languedoc, Burgundy, or the French Comte, Newchâtel, and also Geneva, Savoy, and the Swis cantons as above.

By the same inland navigation, the city of Lyons drives a very considerable trade in the woollen manufactures, made in Languedoc, about Nismes, Beaucaire, and other places; and which are brought up the Rhosne, at the proper seasons, and sold at the fair at Lyons. In like manner the wines of Burgundy, and of Champaigne also, are brought down the Soan and the Doux to Lyons, and sent from thence to all the principal cities of Languedoc and Guienne.

We shall next consider, how the kingdom of France is situated for foreign trade; and how extensively she carries the same on in Europe, Asia; Africa, and America.

Of the coast of France in the Mediterranean sea.

The French coast begins opposite to Perpignan, which is the first city on that side, under the French government; and the first port in France, on this side, though of no consequence, is port Vendre.

PERPIGNAN, is a frontier of Roussillon by land, and of importance, in case of a war, against Spain: on which account the French have made it very strong.

The sea on the coast of Roussillon, and onward to Montpellier, is called the gulph of Narbonne. The city of NARBONNE is particularly famous for the finishing that great work of a navigation between the two seas, that is, the joining the Cantabrian and the Mediterranean seas together, by a canal. This great work was set on foot by the late Lewis XIV, a prince born for great undertakings. This work was 15 years in completing, viz. from 1666 to 1681, and cost an immense sum. As they had the purse of a prince to supply them; who spared no expence to finish whatever he undertook, all difficulties were surmounted; vallies were filled up, mountains and hills levelled, and the boats continue to pass and repass with great ease, for the benefit of commerce.

Between the river Aude and the mouth of the Rhosne, there lies, parallel with the sea, a lake 30 miles long, and from 3 to 5 broad, extending from the river Eraut, and the city of Agde west, almost to the mouth of the Rhosne east. Agde is a small city on the river Eraut. The port is small; yet they have some ships, and they export wine and oil; and, within these 20 years, their trade has increased.

In the middle of this lake, there is an opening into the sea, which makes a very good port, called CETTE. Here ships of burthen may come in: and, the royal canal being carried on from Narbonne to Agde, the merchandize, which is brought from Italy to be sent by the canal to Bourdeaux, is generally landed at Cete; and thence carried, by the said lake, to Agde, and put on board the barges for the canal.

Between Cete and Marseilles, the great river Rhosne empties itself into the sea; of which we shall give a description, after having visited the port and city of MARSEILLES: which is the next port of consequence to Narbonne, east, about 50 leagues distance. The fame of this city for commerce is well known all over the world. It is, indeed, the only trading city of note in the South of France: the harbour is spacious and good, and receives the largest ships, though sometimes the biggest are obliged to lighten their loading a little before they come in. It is a fine, large, populous, and rich city, and is rendered so particularly by its commerce; the whole Italian and Turkey trade of France being carried on here.

Lewis XIV, as he well knew the importance of this city, so he took it into his particular favour, and gave such directions for beautifying it, and for encouraging men of trade and business to resort thither, that Marseilles became quite a new city to what it had been. The key is said to be one of the finest in the world, except that of Seville in Spain. The fortifications are so prodigiously strong, that no others scarce equal them: by sea nothing can hurt the city, and by land it would require 100,000 men to attack it in form. But, after it was visited with a plague, 1723, this city suffered a great eclipse, and it's commerce decayed, for near a twelvemonth, unspeakably, not a ship being suffered to pass or repass, nor would any nation admit them to come into their ports; so that the poor were left to starve, and the sailors perished miserably at sea: but it has surprizingly recovered itself, and daily advances in commerce.

The French trade to Turkey and Ægypt, as also to the coast of Africa, and to all the islands of the arches, centers at Marseilles. They have also a considerable trade to Venice, to Genoa, to Leghorn, to Naples, and Sicily; and they have consuls at almost all the islands and ports in the Mediterranean [See the article CONSULS] Marseilles being the only city of France for trading in those seas, but above all for the Turkey trade in general, wherein they, at present, exceed all other nations, and have surprizingly supplanted the English therein.

TOULON, a port town of Provence, situated on a bay of the Mediterranean sea, 25 miles S. E. of Marseilles. It has the most secure and capacious harbour of any port in France; here the largest ships of the royal navy of France are built, and stationed, and here vast magazines of all manner of naval stores and timber for shipping are deposited. Here likewise are the finest docks and yards, for the fitting out and finishing

nishing ships of war, in the whole world perhaps. In Toulon there are academies for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation; and there is a royal foundry for cannon and mortars, with all manner of utensils for cannoners and bombardiers. They had in the harbour of Toulon, when the confederates laid siege to it, in 1707, 16 first rate men of war, 8 second rates, 24 third rates, and 6 fourth rates; all which the English had very probably taken, if the Germans had not detached 1500 men to Naples, which were intended to constitute part of the army to form that siege.

From hence to the coast of NICE, and the frontiers of the dominions of the duke of Savoy, France affords nothing considerable.

The isles of HIERES lie off of the coast, under the west part of which there is a good road for the largest ships; and where the English fleet lay many months, anno 1744, and blocked up the French and Spanish Fleets in the harbour of Toulon; and, on their quitting that harbour, the combined fleets were engaged by admiral Mattheus, before whom they fled to the coast of Spain, and would have been destroyed, if he had not been deserted by one of the English admirals, and several of his captains: but, on the shore, no towns of note, or ports of trade, are found, till we come to the Antibes, on the east side of which lies the city of ANTIBES, the last in France: It lies at the bottom of a small gulph, but the harbour is not very good, nor is the trade considerable.

The river RHOSNE here seems to require our notice. It has its fountain in the mountains of Switzerland, and in the very center of the Alps, in the highest parts, in the canton of Ufi, and on the west side of the great mountain of St Godard, the largest in all the country, being a stage of mountains.

The Rhosne begins to be navigable, for small vessels and barges, a little below Sion, and, 20 miles farther, enters the great lake near Chillon: It is the greatest inland sea, or lake, in this part of Europe,

GENEVA is the first city of note upon it. There is a great inland commerce here; for as it lies in the middle, between the cantons and the country of Piedmont, it is the center of trade between all those countries and France.

There is no considerable town on the Rhosne, from Geneva to Lyons. There are some forts on the frontiers, as at Pont Gressin, and fort St Katherine. But as we are only describing the course, commerce, and navigation of rivers, the other is not our business. Many rivers fall into the Rhosne in this space; but the only navigable stream is the Dain, which rises in the Upper Burgogne, or French Comte, and brings some commerce with it, being able to carry boats up to Pont Dain, in the county of Bresse, and falls into the Rhosne at Gourdan.

LYONS, stands at the confluence of the Soane and the Rhosne, in the point of land between them: and therefore, to bring the Rhosne into its perfect state, we must consider the Soan also, which is a very large river, and of a long course: it rises on the frontiers of Champagne and Burgundy; and, as the Rhosne rises in mount Godard, among the sources of so many other rivers, so the Soan rises in the same country, and at a very little distance from, though not just in the same country, and, at a very little distance from, though not just on the same hills with the Seine, the Marne, the Meuse, and the Moselle; and when joined with the Rhosne, runs not a great way from the Loire also.

The SOAN, in its course, passes through some of the most considerable cities of the east parts of France, as particularly, Pont sur Soan, Gray, Auxonne, St Jean de Loifite, where it receives the Ouche from Dijon in Burgundy; Verdun, where it takes in the Doux from Dole and Benençon; Challons, Mescon, Balle Ville, Ville Franche, Lyons.

At Lyons, there are three large stone bridges over the Soan, and one stately bridge over the Rhosne, after the other is joined. This city is esteemed the second in France. It has innumerable advantages, by its situation, for people and commerce.

1. As it is on the great pass, or high Road from France into Switzerland, into Lombardy, and into Italy. 2. As, by so many navigable rivers, it brings, as to a center, all the commerce of Burgundy, French Comte, Geneva, and the Swiss cantons. 3. As, by the River Rhosne, it maintains a communication with the sea, by which it receives its supply of silk, and exports again its proper manufactures to all parts of the world. 4. As it has a very populous country round it, and at least 200,000 people in it. 5. As, by this means, it carries on the greatest, and once the most flourishing manufacture in France; and is the center of the like manufacture, in all the adjacent country, viz. Dauphine, Languedoc, Rovergne, Bresse, Lyonnais, and Savoy.

In the city of Lyons, there are some things peculiar to its commerce, and by which it is not a little aided, and which no other city in France possesses equal to this. As, 1. A bank. 2. A course of exchange. 3. A court-merchant.

Queen Anne's wars being extremely injurious to the commerce of France, it must necessarily affect the public credit of that nation, in the like degree; for public credit and commerce will not naturally prosper under tyrannical and arbi-

trary government, especially when the tyrant is at war with his neighbours: at such times every one, but especially foreigners, will draw all their property out of banks.

The course of exchange, established here, is as universal as that of Amsterdam, and affords extraordinary ease and convenience, with regard to the negotiation of money, by bills, throughout Europe; which is of the last consequence to the general commerce of this nation.

With regard to the COURT-MERCHANT, it still remains, and is an establishment extremely wanted in many other parts of the world, to decide, amicably and summarily, all controversies among traders, in respect to their traffic; which, without great injury to those concerned, admit neither of delay or expence of tedious law-suits, and the formalities of the ordinary courts of justice: this court is very pertinently christened THE TRIBUNAL OF COMMERCE. See the article MERCHANT, i. c. [COURT-MERCHANT.]

From Lyons, the Rhosne passes to Vienne, the capital of Provence, part of Dauphiné. It stands at the influx of the small river Gere. Here are some manufactures of paper, iron, and steel.

VALENCE, is the next city on the Rhosne, which has no trade of significancy. From hence the Rhosne passes close by the territory, and in view of the city of Orange, formerly the patrimony of the house of Nassau, but unjustly and violently taken away by the French, under Lewis XIV.—From hence the Rhosne passes on to AVIGNON, which is a very populous city, and enjoys a considerable trade, by the manufacture of silk, wherein the people are very profitably employed.

A little below this city, the Rhosne is augmented by the river DURANCE, which brings with it all the waters of Dauphiné, and the north part of Provence.—The Durance running west, as the Po does east, and taking in another, called Durance also, they meet at Guillestre, and go together to Embrun, which is not a town of trade, but a mere frontier.

In passing towards the Rhosne, the Durance almost fees AIX, the capital of Provence, which, as it has no great commerce, I pass on to the Rhosne, that hastens to the sea, passing by between two opposite small cities, called Terrefcon and Beaucaire; the first on the Languedoc side of the river, and the other on the side of Provence.

At BEAUCAIRE, on the Languedoc side, there is an extraordinary fair or mart held every year, about Michaelmas, which lasts eight days, being the greatest in all the south parts of France, and particularly for the vast quantity of silk sold here, as well raw, which is the product of the country, within these 30 years, as also for thrown silk from Italy; and likewise for great quantities of woollen manufactures, made in the adjacent countries, and some foreign brought hither to be sold.

Of the coast of France, from Dunkirk to St Malo's, and from thence to St Sebastian.

DUNKIRK, was once the most formidable place for strength, and terrible to all Europe; but its fortifications were destroyed by the treaty of Utrecht. Nothing supports this town at present, but it's being a free port, and the neighbourhood of the city of Lille; which last being a rich and great city, and, for its wealth and number of people, called Little Paris, has no other port but that of Dunkirk to carry on their trade at. [See the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS and FLANDERS.]

As the treaty of Utrecht, made between England and France, obliged the latter to ruin this famous port, so the vigorous adhering to the conditions of the said treaty obliged the French to discontinue their attempt, and even considerable progress, in forming a new port at Mardyke, between Dunkirk and Calais; and which, having a communication with Dunkirk, might have made them some amends for the loss of the old pier-heads, which were destroyed; and Mardyke remains only a small creek, with a large sluice to carry off the waters of the flat country behind, being part of the province of Artois and the district of St Omer's, and is not navigable for vessels of burthen.

CALAIS is the easternmost town of the antient kingdom of France. This was once a very considerable place, being long contended for between the two crowns of England and France; but the port, not being capable of receiving ships of burthen, has very little trade, unless in the smuggling way by small craft.

BOULOGNE is a large town, and stands on the sea-shore; but as the river is small, it is no port of any consequence. It lies in a large bay bearing its own name. The channel is here 30 miles over, reckoning from about Romney in Kent to the bottom of the bay of Boulogne.

There are some merchants here, and it is particularly eminent for the manufacturing trade, but highly injurious to Great-Britain for one article of it, the bringing of English wool over from Romney-marsh in Kent; a trade, which the French find so much their account in, that they have long experienced it to be their interest to give great encouragement to the English smugglers; and all the vigilance of the government, which has been remarkably severe upon this occa-

tion during the present administration, has not been able to put a stop to it, though it is certainly very greatly checked within these few years.

As Romney-marsh is the place where it is ordinarily shipped off, so this town of Boulogne, and the coast all along the bay, from Boulogne to the mouth of the Soam, is the usual place where it is brought on shore.

The river Soam is the principal river of the province of PICARDY; and running through several considerable cities and towns on the frontiers of this province, such as Amiens, Montreuil, and Abbeville, empties itself in the British channel at St Vallery.

The smuggling wool trade from England hither, being carried on at the mouth of the Soam, and from thence to Dieppe, has occasioned several considerable manufactories of Wool to be erected in Picardy and Normandy, particularly at Amiens in the former, and at Rouen for the latter, in imitation of the English manufactures: nor have they the advantage of the English wool only, but it is observable that they have constantly many English workmen among them; especially such as we call in England master-manufacturers; and these being brought over from England by the influence of extraordinary rewards and encouragements, and having the English wool to work on, have brought the French to a proficiency in the woollen manufactory, that may in time prove the ruin of the like trade of this kingdom.

DIEPPE, is a fine town, 'tis the best for trade next to Dunkirk on this part of the French coast: they have in particular a considerable trade to Newfoundland, and to the French settlements in North America. Their ships often unlade at Havre in the Seine, for the convenience of sending their cargoes up the river to Rouen and Paris. However, when they are unladen, they come with more ease into the haven of Dieppe to lay up, where they have water enough when they are in, and are laid safe. The seamen of Dieppe are accounted the best sailors in France.

It is 17 leagues from Dieppe to the mouth of the head of the river Seine, which is a noble river, and of the longest course of any in France, except the Loire, and is navigable farther, passing through many, and the richest provinces in France: it rises in the remotest part of Burgogne or Burgundy, and receives several very large and navigable rivers into it, as the Main, the Oyse, the Eure, the Yonne, the Aube, the Loing, and divers others.

This river rises in the mountains of Burgogne, near the city of Chanceaux; the river Tille rising at South Seine, on the other side of the same ridge of hills, and running south into the Soam, and thence into the Rhosne. So that the rivers on one side this ridge of mountains run into the narrow seas, or English channel, and those on the other side into the Mediterranean. Hence the Seine, taking its course north, passes through Chastillon sur Seine, called so to distinguish it from two other cities of the same name; one sur Main, and one sur Loing. From thence to Bar sur Seine, as also distinguished from Bar sur Aube, a large town upon the Aube, about 12 miles east from it, and thence to Troyes.

TROYES, is a large and populous city. All this part of the country is remarkable for the best wines in France, namely, Champagne and Burgundy. But the city of Troyes is particularly enriched by the LINEN MANUFACTURE.

THE SEINE is navigable here for barges of a middling size. About 20 miles north from Troyes, the Seine receives the river Aube; after which it's course turns to the west and north-west.—Hence the Seine, continuing it's course west, passes to Montereau sur Yonne.—This country is very populous, and they are employed in making of FINE LINEN, LACE, and divers other manufactures.

From hence it runs to Morett, where it receives the Loing from the south-west, which brings in the navigation of the canal de Briare, and the canal of Orleans, and joins the water of the Loire with those of the Seine.—Hence the Seine runs to Melun, passing by the forest of Fontainebleau.—Here is a large trade by water to Paris for provisions and all sorts of other merchandize, which the merchants bring from Nantes, and import these by the sea commerce.—Whence the Seine goes to Corbeil, a small city, yet the Seine makes it a place of some trade; and being so near to Paris, it supplies it with fire-wood, corn, and poultry in abundance.

Here the Seine, enriched with these additions of water, passes through Paris itself, the glory of France, and capital of the whole kingdom; the greatest city in Europe, London and Constantinople scarce excepted.—From Paris the Seine makes five such long windings so near to each other, that no river in the world can shew the like.—In the last of these windings, the Seine takes in the united streams of Aisne and the Oyse.—The latter of which is likewise a river of a long course, and which brings with it all the rivers of the north parts of France between the Maes and the Seine, and is at Point Oyse near as great a river as the Seine.

Below Paris the Seine passes by St Cloud, St Germain en Lay, and Marly, all three royal palaces, and very magnificent. Melun, Mante, Vernon, and Pont de l'Arch, are all populous towns upon the Seine. But the city of Rouen is the principal of them all, and is the sea port of Paris.

The navigation of the Seine is joined with that of the Loire, by two large canals made by art at a great expence, the one called the canal of Orleans, the other that of Briare; by which a communication is made with all the chief cities upon the Loire, and with the metropolis, Paris, to the great benefit of the commerce of Paris in particular, as well as that of the whole country in general. By this navigation the wines of Bretagne and Burgundy, the brandies of Anjou and Poitou, the imports of Nantes and Rochelle, with all the manufactures of Saumur, Angers, Tours, Blois, Orleans, and other great towns and provinces on that side the country, are conveyed to Paris by water-carriages at an EASY EXPENCE.

Besides the city of Paris, to which the navigation is easy, by reason of the tide running so great a part of the way, the famous city of Rouen lies on the northern bank of this river.

ROUEN, being the sea-port to Paris, becomes of course a great, rich, and flourishing city. The trade of Rouen is extraordinary, as it lies midway between Paris and the sea. It's trade consists of divers branches, in respect both to it's foreign as well as home parts, especially in the linen and woollen manufactures, and in the latter more eminently; which are here carried on with great industry and spirit, in imitation of the ENGLISH, and by the means of ENGLISH WOOL, which they obtain too easily from Dieppe and Havre, by the way of Romney-marsh, as before observed.

Rouen has also a great trade with Ireland, particularly for leather, butter, tallow, and other products of that country: they carry on besides a great coasting trade with Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, for the wines and brandies of that part of France, wherewith they supply the city of Paris, as also with olives, oil, prunes, raisins, oranges, and lemons, which they bring from the south parts of France, and they from Languedoc and from Spain.—Thus circumstanced, this city is become very opulent by it's traffic only.

HAVRE DE GRACE, stands at the mouth of the Seine; it is said to be the port of the city of Rouen, as Rouen is to the city of Paris, the merchants here laying up their ships, which are too large to go up so far in the river. There are a number of considerable merchants here, and especially for the Newfoundland trade; and there is a constant communication and connection of commercial interests between Rouen and Paris.

Havre has also the most considerable share in the FISHING TRADE, of any port in France; principally to the North Seas, and for the HERRING FISHERY, not only in the channel, but on the back of the sands off YARMOUTH; and since the French king laid high duties on the Yarmouth fish, they have wonderfully improved in curing them, in the Yarmouth way, to our no little detriment.

CAEN, is the first port beyond the mouth of the Seine west: it is a small port, but a pretty large city, and, having a communication with the English channel, does not want commerce, though not to the advantage of England.—The navigation of this coast, 'till you come to the island of Alderney, is safe and easy, afterwards there is need of good pilots. Alderney and Sark, Guernsey and Jersey, being part of the dominions of Great-Britain, we shall not take notice of their trade under this article.

ST MALO, is a city of commerce, and inferior to none that France has in the ocean. The road for shipping, and the harbour, is safe and convenient, which, with the commodious situation, open to the British channel, make it a place of the best trade to France on this whole coast.

The merchants here, were, particularly in the wars of queen Anne, some of the richest in all France, they being deeply embarked in the South Sea trade at that time.—They had then some ships that returned with such prodigious cargoes of bullion, that the like has not been known belonging to private merchants.—At this point of time, it has been said, that some merchants there, were not worth less than a million sterling.—They made abundance of prizes in the last war with England, which drew on our resentment to little purpose; and this place will always prove a great grievance to us, on these unhappy occasions.—It is at present a flourishing place of trade, especially for the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY to MARTINICO, to QUEBECK, and, indeed, to most of the French colonies in America.

St Malo is situated at the bottom of a large bay, extending from Cape La Hogue to the Seven Isles, after which the land falls away to Cape Ushant.—Between these lies the town of MORLAIX, at the mouth of a river of the same name.—It is a large beautiful town, full of people and trade: the port is good, the channel deep, and ships of above 100 tons come up to the key. There are abundance of mercantile people here, who are the grand spring of trade. There are several considerable manufactures here, which enrich the place, especially those of linen and paper.—Of the first dowlas and buckrum are made in great quantities, as also canvas and sail-cloth, and they are largely exported. The best printing paper in France is said to be made here, especially the demy and crown; as also writing post-paper, fine as the Genoa, yet not so thin, and finer than the Dutch, though not so thick.—This is no contemptible article in the French commerce to other nations. In fine, the increase of commerce here has greatly increased the wealth, the splendor, and happiness

pinets of the place, which are ever the invariable effects of it. Nothing remarkable to our purpose appears on this coast, from Norlaix till we come to Brest, except St Paul de Leon, a small city on the coast, between Treguier and Brest; it has a good port, and some home trade.

BREST, is a place of consequence upon this coast, being the largest and most capacious road and harbour that France is possessed of on the ocean.—When ships are here, it is the best defended, and safest harbour in France. Here the French fleets are oftentimes laid up, though the greatest of their men of war generally go to Toulon.—Here are warehouses and magazines to lay up naval stores for 100 sail of ships of war of the line, and some of 80 and 90 guns have been built here. France, in the year 1690, had here a royal navy, equal, if not superior, to all the naval power of England and Holland united, and which offered battle to them all, but they declined it: and may not France see those days again?—The inlet of the sea, which forms the harbour of Brest, is very large, the waters every way deep, and the anchorage good; so that nature seems to have provided them against the time when the like powerful fleets may occupy them.

The next place of consequence on this coast is the mouth of the river LOIRE, the greatest in France for the length of it's course, the number of great cities it visits by the way, and for the extent of it's commerce and navigation, as we have before briefly shewn. The Loire is navigable from the Lyons, and that side of Burgundy, to Nevers, and down to Briare, by large flat-bottom barges.—By this canal the glass-ware, tin-ware, and fine earthen-ware, for which manufactures the city of Nevers, and all the country about it, are so famous, are carried down to Paris, to the great advantage of the country.—By this canal the merchandizes of foreign countries imported at Nantes are also carried to Paris by water, to the great encouragement of the foreign trade, and enriching of the merchants at Nantes.—Also the wines and brandies of the country below Orleans, on the banks of the Loire, are carried to Paris the same way; and, indeed, the principal supply of that great city, as to wines and provisions, comes from those rich and fertile provinces on the banks of the Loire.

Towns of note on or near the Loire, below the canal of Orleans, and before it comes to Nantes, are Orleans, Blois, Amboise, Tours, Saumur, and Angers, all of them large cities: no country, except the Netherlands, can shew seven such cities, on the bank of one river, under one sovereign, and in so small a compass of territory.—All this country produces what we call French white-wines, and the best of the kind; and, indeed, the best wines of all the west parts of France are in the country about Angers.

ROCHELLE is the next city of consequence in France, upon the coast of the ocean, a considerable port of trade, though unfortified, for reasons too well known.—This city was once the strongest in the whole kingdom, and on account of it's opulence and splendor, for years the bulwark of the Huguenots. It supported their interest in the civil wars in France, during five kings reigns, and at length defended itself with almost incredible bravery and resolution, against the whole power of France, the French king, Lewis XIII. besieging them in person: nor had they been reduced, at last, if we may credit history, had not the Dutch, though Protestants, and some English ships too, to the ignominy of our own country, been hired by the French to master the Rochellers fleet, and deprived them of assistance by sea; whereas the Rochellers before were masters of the sea, and all the naval power of France was not able to match them.

But their fleet being beat, and the promised succours of the English failing, cardinal Richlieu contrived a sea-wall to be made, by an invincible industry, to block up their harbour; whereby being deprived of all relief, they were obliged to submit, by the extremity of famine, 30,000 people having perished here, in the year 1628, for want of bread.—Upon which occasion Rochelle not only lost all it's privileges, and the Protestant religion was banished the place, but it's fortifications demolished, and the city erected into a Popish bishopric.

Notwithstanding which, it continues to be a place of considerable trade, full of wealthy merchants, whose commerce extends to most parts of the world, but especially to the West-Indies, Martinico, St Domingo, and Quebec: from hence also is a very great part of the Newfoundland trade carried on, and likewise that of their Mississippi.—The French East-India company too make use of Rochelle as a port, though not always, for the return of their ships from India, and for disposing of their cargoes.

PORT-LEWIS is a harbour deserving our notice, and, if it had stood on the north part of France, in Normandy or Picardy, would have been worth a kingdom itself; but, as it stands on the coast of Bretagne, to the South of Cape Uhart, where France has many good harbours and safe roads for shipping, as well for war as commerce; such as the harbours of Brest, Rochelle, Nantes, Bourdeaux, &c. and the roads of Conquest, Bellisle, St Martin, and others; this makes Port-Lewis the less regarded: it is however, populous and

rich, and has many wealthy merchants, especially such two trade pretty largely to the West-Indies.—This, being a good harbour, is likewise a station for part of the royal navy, and for the ships of the French East-India company.

NANTES, lying on the river Loire, requires mention. It stands 30 miles within the land, upon the north bank of the Loire, which is here a very spacious and noble river, has a deep and safe channel, and makes a fine harbour: it has a flourishing trade, both domestic and foreign, few towns in France outdoing it.—The trade of this city has greatly increased within these 30 years, as well from their manufactures as from the flux of all sorts of merchandizes from the remotest inland provinces of France, and by means of the extraordinary industry of the inhabitants, and the navigation of the river Loire.—The great benefit of water-carriage between Nantes and Paris also, by means of the canal of Orleans joining the Loire and the Seine, as before intimated, is very sensibly experienced here; and all kinds of foreign merchandize imported here are carried at an easy expence to Paris, where the chief consumption of the kingdom lies, to the unspeakable profit of the merchants of this place.

But the great expectation of wines and brandies from hence are the capital constant articles upon which Nantes chiefly depends.—It is scarce credible to conceive how considerable this trade is, both of brandies and wines together; inasmuch that it has been ordinary to see 2 or 300 sail of ships in the Loire at a time, taking in wines and brandies*.

* The name of the city of Nantes is well known over the whole Christian world, for the famous edict of pacification, made by Henry IV. of France, for his Protestant subjects, anno 1598, by which their religious liberties were confirmed to them in the most solemn manner, the edict being signed by the king, registered in all the parliaments of France, and declared in the strongest and most express words that could be invented, to be irrevocable, and was confirmed and solemnly sworn to be observed by the son and successor, Lewis XIII.—But, in contempt of God and man, and to the eternal infamy of Popery, and the very name and memory of the French grand monarch, Lewis XIV. it was disowned, and revoked, by the command of that prince, in 1685, and the Protestants thereupon treated with such cruelty and inhumanity, as is not in the power of language to express.—Such, in particular, as the ravishing children and women, in the presence of their parents and husbands, besides innumerable other barbarities, as if studied by the most refined understandings, to pierce even the very souls of the sufferers.—Is not this sufficient to shew Protestants what they have to trust to, if once Popery should ever gain the ascendant over these the happiest of kingdoms, if we could but be truly sensible of our condition!

There is no port of any consequence between Rochelle and the river Garonne, nor upon the Garonne, except Bourdeaux, which is 40 miles up that river.—This is an exceeding large and populous city, and is so spread by vineyards, as to be accounted not less than 20 miles long.—The tide flows quite up to the city of Bourdeaux, and brings ships of good burden to the very key. It stands on the south of the river Garonne. The trade here is chiefly for wine, and that in such prodigious quantities, that, when our trade with France was open, it has been ordinary to see 4 or 500 ships in the river at a time, loading wines for England only, and for other nations many more. Hence come the clarets and strong white-wines of France, as that of Pontac, Graves, Frontinac, Caveac, &c. being the names of the vineyards, or of the towns where the vineyards are, the wines taking their names from the towns, or from the persons who own them.

Another branch of trade here is in prunes, which they export in great quantities.—They have a considerable traffic here to the West-Indies, as particularly to the French sugar-colonies in America, and they have many sugar-bakers here to refine them, which has brought them a great trade for refined sugars, both at home and abroad.—But they have still a much greater trade than all this, the wine and brandy excepted: this consists in goods brought from the Mediterranean Sea, by the royal canal from Narbonne to Toulouse, and from thence down the Garonne in barges to Bourdeaux; by which, as the waters of the royal canal join the two seas, the ocean and the Mediterranean, so the commerce of both seas is carried on here, which makes Bourdeaux not only rich, but populous, and all the country round it. The key is noble and spacious, and ships of ordinary burden may come close to it, the tide flowing a great height, up to the very wharfs. They have an exchange here for the merchants, some of whom almost from all the nations in Christendom reside here. They have also a great trading fair here, which is as considerable, and as much resorted to by foreigners as any other in France. See the article FAIRS.

BAYONNE is the last considerable town in the French dominions. It is an ancient, spacious, opulent, and populous city, has a great trade both in France and with Spain, and with many other parts of Europe. It has a very fine harbour in the mouth of the river Adour: the harbour reaches into the very heart of the city, and is so deep and safe, that the largest ships come up to the very merchants doors; and

the entrance into it is secured by a strong castle, regularly fortified, Bayonne being a frontier both by land and sea; for it is within 15 miles of the frontiers of Spain. There is a large trade driven here, and abundance of wealthy merchants reside in this place. A great quantity of wine is exported here, and they have a trade as well into the whole province as into Navarre.

France, by situation, has the advantage of commerce of all the nations on this side the globe, Britain excepted. The great extent of their coast, we have seen, qualifies them for it; they are extended upon the ocean from Bayonne, in the bottom of the Bay of Biscay to Dunkirk, a port that, leaving the British Channel behind it, looks into the German Ocean, and claims acquaintance with the northern commerce, as well as with the Wefer and the Elbe, the chief rivers of trade in the German Sea, and to the Baltic and the coast of Norway on one side, and North Britain on the other; and, lastly, to the HERRING FISHERY in the Caledonian Ocean, and the WHALE FISHERY in the seas of Spitzbergen and Greenland. The coast of France is above 400 miles in length, and there are in it, as we have seen, some as good harbours as any in Europe.

Add to this the Mediterranean Sea, lying full 60 leagues in length upon the shores of Rouffillon, Languedoc, and Provence, which open to France the commerce of Barbary, Italy, and the Levant.

No less is France advantageously situated towards the land for an inland navigation and commerce with her neighbours of Swisserland, Upper and Lower Germany, Holland, and Flanders. The Rhine opens a trade for her on the side of Alsace, into Suabia and Francônia, and into the heart of the empire, by the additional navigation of the Neckar and the Maine, two rivers which convey her merchandize within a few miles of Ulm upon the Danube. By the last they trade into Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, and even to Vienna; on the other hand, the Rhosne on the right, and the Upper Rhine on the left, give a communication of trade from Languedoc and the French Comte, into every part of Swisserland, as has been shewn.

On the north side of France, and through the country of Lorrain, France has the two great rivers of the Moselle and the Maes, which give them a free commerce to the Lower Rhine, and into the United Provinces; as likewise the Sambre, and the Scarpe, and the Schelde do into the Austrian Netherlands.—Add to all these, the extent of the kingdom of France, that it is the largest and the most populous of any country in the known world, except China.

To the prodigious number of their people must be joined the temper and genius of the nation: they are vigorous, active, industrious, and even (in trade as well as war) an enterprising people.

So greatly have they increased their trade since the treaty of Utrecht, that they now carry their wines and their brandies into the Baltic, where formerly the Dutch sent them in Holland bottoms; and the French bring their naval stores from Livonia, Prussia, and Petersburg, in French ships, where, before that treaty, no French ships had scarce ever been seen. The Hanse-Towns have little or no share now in furnishing France with iron and copper, with timber, with pitch, or tar.

The French also now trade with Sweden, as other nations do, and to Dantzic, and have greatly increased their commerce in Muscovy, as well as their neighbours.

With all these advantages of situation, extent of land, and numbers of people, France has laboured, from the beginning of it's commerce, under two difficulties, which rendered it next to impossible to produce any considerable staple manufactures, unless these difficulties could be effectually surmounted.—These were the want of a competency of wool, and of silk, the two fundamental articles in the general manufactures of Europe, and such too, which the French, from the activity and industry of their people, were well disposed to fall into; but, wanting these fundamental natural productions in ample quantities, suffered the discouragement many years, with no little affliction; for they fell into the silk manufacture to a very great degree, encouraged by the Italians, when the French were masters of the Milanese, in the reign of Francis I. and though they bought their silk in Italy and Turkey, as they do still in some quantities; yet all the southern parts of France, especially the Upper Languedoc, the Lyonnais, and part of Dauphiné, were employed in the manufacture of silk, and greatly improved in it, spreading it into Champagne, and even to Paris itself. This was from about the year 1520.

But, at length, the French conquered this difficulty. By the means of some Piedmontese, who became subjects to France after the seizing of Pignerol, in the reign of Lewis XIII. they first began to plant the white mulberries in Languedoc, and part of Provence: and, nourishing the silk-worms with unpeakable industry, and greatly encouraged by the court in the reign of the late Lewis XIV. they, after many years spent in the first experiments, at length brought the same to perfection, and produced the silk itself in good quantities, which is now become a natural produce of France,

as it was before of Piedmont, and other parts of Italy, who originally borrowed it from the Asiatics of Armenia and Georgia, as the French did from them, and as the English most certainly might from them both, and effectually establish the same in our colonies on the continent of America. But it hath not proved the same in France with regard to the produce of wool, with respect both to the quantity and quality, being equal to those of England and Ireland in general. The French, a vigilant and improving people, being deficient in the article of wool, have obtained sheep from England and Ireland, as they have wool, in order to try the possibility of raising wool, by the means of our sheep, as good in quality, and as large in quantity in general, as our wool is; but hitherto they have been disappointed, though it is said that there is, at present, another grand attempt to accomplish this design; and, if it is possible in nature, the French are determined to have as good wool, and as much of their own production, as ever England or Ireland have had: and no one can say what art and industry, supported by the royal purse, cannot effect.

We are apt to flatter ourselves with the impossibility hereof; yet we may one day find ourselves mistaken. The examples brought from our bull-dogs, hounds, and mastiffs, all which are said to alter their nature upon change of climate, supposing these things to be matter of fact, do not, perhaps, afford any thing conclusive with respect to the article of sheep. We shall not, however, enter into the philosophy of this matter; nor would it become Britons to be instrumental to let such rivals into a secret of that kind, was it in their power. Certain it is, that France still labours under the want of this essential production, to the degree that we have it. They have wool, indeed of their own growth in great quantities, since the success of their wollen manufactories; and in some places, as with us, it is better than in others, as in the Upper Languedoc, Poictou, Guienne, and those provinces lying towards Burgundy; but the best has been said not to be qualified for near so estimable a manufacture as ours is in general, neither will it mix or work with the foreign wools so well, the staple being too short, and the wool itself weak, and not sufficiently strong to bear the several needful operations of combing, carding, spinning, and weaving, to that perfection which ours does: so that the manufactures, when made of the best of it, are thin, slight, and not of that substance, duration, and beauty, as those made of the English and Irish wool are.

Yet this disadvantage by nature hath not discouraged this nation from attempting the wollen manufactures in every branch; for, since they have not wool so good in general as ours, they have been long determined to have our English and Irish wool, and which, being properly mixed with their own, or properly worked by itself, they have had art enough to impose their wollen manufactures upon several other parts of Europe, even for English fabrication, as we shall see presently.—This supplying France with English and Irish wool was first brought about by the indefatigable endeavours and profound policy of their great minister Colbert, to whom we owe that pernicious trade of owling, as it is called, or the running of wool from this kingdom into France.—After that distinguished minister had found out the means of supplying France with British wool, he was not long before he established wollen manufactories of divers kinds in France, facon d'Angleterre, or of the English method of fabrication.—He first set the poor to work all over France, in combing, spinning, weaving, dyeing of wool, and wollen goods. And what was soon the consequence of this? The French king saw all his subjects clothed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who, but a few years before, bought their cloaths from England, or, which was worse, at second-hand from Flanders and the Dutch. This was carried on with such a prodigy of success, that it would take up more room than we can spare to duly represent it.—This commercial minister decoyed, by rewards and encouragements, English artists into every part of France, where it was most eligible to establish these manufactures, where they taught the people so well all the several parts of the manufacture, and the French were so apt to learn, and so dexterous and chearful in teaching each other, that, in a few years, they could do without English instructors, even in the facon d'Angleterre.

The French being thus able to furnish their own people, to cloath the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himself (for he would wear nothing that was not the MANUFACTURE OF HIS OWN SUBJECTS) they not only, in a few years, excluded the English wollen manufactures from their country by a law, but began to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival the English in all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, as also in Asia and Africa, but especially in Turkey and Barbary. To effectuate which,

The great Colbert took these measures: he first informed himself of the several sorts of the British manufactures sold in every foreign market, whereof he had pieces and patterns brought him; and he erected particular works for the making those very goods; and, what was another master-stroke in politics, he wisely encouraged the merchants to export them,

by causing credit to be given them out of the public stock, that is, by the king, even 'till the RETURN FOR THESE GOODS CAME HOME. This was particularly done with the Turkey merchants at Marfeilles, who had credit out of the ROYAL TREASURY 'till the return of their ships from Smyrna and Scanderoon: by which politic encouragement the Marfeillians first supplanted the English in the Levant trade, wherein, we are too sensible, they have surprizingly increased ever since*.

* It is not unlikely that the French might take this maxim from the wise prince, Ferdinand I. great duke of Tuscany, who raised the trade of his subjects to an incredible height by the like policy. That prince, not content with having his royal coffers full for his private use only, was ambitious that his treasure should be subservient to fill those of his subjects also. Mr Mun (a) a very skilful and eminent English merchant, tells us, he himself experienced the duke's liberality, who lent him no less than forty thousand crowns gratis, although he knew he should send the whole away, and that in specie too, to Turkey, to purchase merchandize; the duke being well assured, said he, that, in the course of trade, that the same would return again, according to the Italian proverb, with a duck in the mouth. The judicious old gentleman further tells us, that, by this policy, the duke encouraged trade to such a degree, that, of his own knowledge, Leghorn, which was a poor little town, became, even in his time, a fair and strong city, being one of the most famous places of trade in all Christendom. How it has improved since, from that foundation, need not be said.

(a) Vide England's Benefit and Advantage by Foreign Trade, by Mr Mun.

The same was likewise done at the famous manufactory near Nismes in Languedoc, where the cloths by means of the instructions of our English woollen manufacturers and our English wool, are made so admirably well, that some have thought they have equalled, if not outdone the English: but the contrary of this the best judges allow.—Certain it is, they make very good cloths there, and dye and dress them to perfection; but many say that they fail of the substance, the firmness, and weight of the English.

They have likewise imitated the British serges, says, bays, long ells, perpetuana's, their druggets and stuffs; and they have extremely lessened the demand for these goods from us in Italy, Spain, and Portugal.

It is not much above 80 years ago since Lewis XIV. the French king, encouraged the making of cloth in large quantities in his dominions.—The first place he began at was Languedoc, where they made cloths of about 9 or 10 s. sterling per English yard; since which, they have made them here from 10 s. to 14 s. per English yard; and that prince raised a considerable fund for the carrying on this trade here with vigour. This sort of cloth is about seven quarters wide, like our Gloucestershire cloths: since which they have set up several more woollen manufactories here, where they make divers sorts of stuffs and stockings.

Before, as well as since the French king begun those fabrics in his dominions, we sent large quantities of woollen goods to France; but, since the clandestine exportation of our wool hath been carried on so vigorously to that country, the French king has prohibited the importation of all sorts of our woollen manufactures.—So extraordinarily are their woollen fabrics increased, that it is indubitably true, that they many years have, and daily do, greatly supplant us in the woollen manufactures at Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey, and several other places, and undersell us in most, if not all places, wherever they come with their woollen goods.—This they have begun and accomplished, all within about 80 years; and, if they continue to have our wool, and other foreign wools, so cheap as they have, in exchange for their brandies and wines, &c: and to go on with the like rapidity in those manufactures, the fate of this, the most lucrative branch of commerce belonging to the crown of Great-Britain, must certainly be deplorable; especially if we add to this melancholy consideration, that the woollen manufactories of many other countries, are so improved and increased, by the means of foreign wools, and which manufactures are said to be imposed on foreign nations for English woollen goods. This is the reason why our real English woollen goods go off so slowly in Holland, &c. If this is become the case, within these few years, what must we expect to be the consequence a few years hence? Will not other places, that continue to take off our woollen fabrics, be supplied from other nations? For the French play these tricks with regard to their woollen manufactures; they counterfeit the marks and seals of the English woollen manufacturers, and actually impose them upon foreigners for our make.

That we may have a more particular idea of the woollen manufactures of France, it may be more acceptable to enter a little more into particulars, for speaking in general cannot carry that weight.

At ABBEVILLE, a large town in Picardy, about 90 miles north of Paris, and 15 east of the British Channel, is a manufactory of fine broad cloths, which Lewis XIV. first established; and

which he did by advancing 40,000 livres to Mynheer Van Robais, a Dutchman.—The king also erected him a spacious and commodious place wherein to carry on this manufactory, and a fine house to live in, and granted him a patent for the sole making of superfine broad cloths in that part of France. And, as Mynheer was a Protestant, the French king granted him a further patent, renewable every 20 years, for the free exercise of the Protestant religion, for himself and family, and to all the people that did then, or should hereafter, work in any branch of the woollen fabrics at this town, &c.—Also, that if any woman, who was a Roman Catholic, should marry a Protestant that belonged to this manufactory, she should have it in her option to turn Protestant or not.—And, in order at once effectually to establish this manufactory, the king himself wore some of the first cloth that was made, and ordered all his court to do the same.—All these privileges are maintained to this day inviolably, and the factory is now carried on by three partners, that are nephews to old Van Robais, who first established it, and are of the same name.

There is made here, at Van Robais's manufactory, nothing but superfine broad cloths, wherein, it is asserted, that they use no wool but Spanish.—The place where they carry on this fabric is very spacious and convenient, is walled in, and lies close by a navigable river, not far from St Valery, a small sea-port town.—They here carry on every branch of this superfine manufacture, except the fulling of the cloth, and the spinning of the wool.

There are 108 broad looms, and about 600 men, women, and children, employed upon the spot, in picking of wool, winding, warping, weaving, shearing, rowing, dyeing, burling, scribbling, fine-drawing, pressing, packing, &c.—All employed are governed with extreme decorum and regularity. They all come to work, and leave it, at the beat of a drum. If any workman gets fuddled, or commits any offence, he is suspended his work by the foreman of the branch to which he belongs, during pleasure, but not exceeding a month's time; for every branch of the business, it must be observed, is under the conduct of a distinct foreman, who so disciplines the workmen as to make them excel in every branch of the whole; which is management worthy of notice.

One Cole, that went from London, was the first man that taught them to dye proper colours, to make mixtures of wool, as we do in England, to make into cloth.—This manufacture hath so enriched the Van Robais's family, that, upon public days, they appear in their coach and six horses, with half a dozen splendid valets to attend them, as grandly as any of the peers in France.

Though there is no English wool used in this superfine manufacture, if I am rightly informed, yet there is a large quantity used in the town of Abbeville; for this fabric, being crowned with such great success, induced other people to fall into the way of making other different sorts of stuff, as paragon, serge royal, druggets, shalloons, cloth-serge, &c. which are chiefly made of English and Irish wool alone. There are not less than 1000 looms going in this town on paragon, besides a great many more that are employed in the making of druggets, serge, cloth-serge, &c.—Those goods are chiefly sent to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and MOST OF THEM ARE ABSOLUTELY SOLD FOR ENGLISH WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, they being FACON D'ANGLETERRE. 'I HAVE BEEN TOLD (says an eminent English woollen manufacturer, who took a tour to France to see the progress of the woollen fabrics in that kingdom) BY A MANUFACTURER OF THE TOWN OF ABBEVILLE, THAT HE HATH KNOWN AN ENGLISH SHIP LIE IN ST VALERY ROAD (the port before-mentioned) WHILE THEY HAVE SENT A BOAT UP TO ABBEVILLE, WHICH IS NEAR FOUR LEAGUES, TO FETCH DOWN BALES OF WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, AND HAVE SHIPPED THEM ON BOARD THE ENGLISH VESSEL, AND CARRIED THEM TO FOREIGN MARKETS FOR ENGLISH GOODS, THE BALES BEING MARKED AND NUMBERED, AS IF THEY WERE MARKED IN ENGLAND, AND ARE SOLD AMONGST OUR ENGLISH GOODS*.'

* See a quarto pamphlet, intitled, Observations on the British Wool, and the manufacturing it in this kingdom; with remarks on the wool and woollen manufactories of France, Flanders, and Holland, &c. Printed by H. Kent, and sold by Simon Virtue in Swichin's-Alley, near the Royal Exchange, 1738. By a manufacturer of Northamptonshire.

And it is very much to be feared, that this to common a case, and has been an artifice of many years standing, to impose these French woollen manufactures, made FACON D'ANGLETERRE, upon foreign nations for English: and those too which have not been so good in quality may have been complained of by foreigners, and highly prejudiced the reputation of our manufactures in that respect also.—Nor could a more superlative trick be contrived than this, let it be taken in any light whatever, for the absolute ruin of our woollen manufactures, and the establishment of the French; and such Englishmen or Britons who are either merchants or masters of ships, that will be thus concerned in

a conspiracy of such destructive consequence to the whole woollen manufactory of this kingdom, deserve the gallows more meritoriously than any criminal, perhaps, that was ever exalted to it. And if this, upon due inquiry, should be found to be a very common practice, it may deserve the consideration of the great representative of the nation.

But if I had the favour to know one of these gentlemen, continues the honest manufacturer before quoted, and should ask why he thus buys French goods, and ships them with our goods to be carried to foreign markets, I know it will be given for answer, That they can buy paragon, druggets, &c. cheaper at Abbeville than in England, which I know to be true. And the reason that goods are to be bought cheaper in France than in England is, because the labour is above one third cheaper there than in England, where the same sorts of goods are made; for there the poor people work hard, and fare hard, as to their food and clothing. There is another pretty large manufactory carried on in this town, by four partners, two Dutch and two Frenchmen; the Dutchmen's names are Schalone, whose father was Van Robais's first foreman, when he set up this fine fabric that I have given some account of, which was done in Lewis the XIVth's time; the old gentleman was alive in 1732, when I had a great deal of discourse with him; and I remember one day, as I was talking with him, the Paris Gazette was brought in and read to the old man, and there was a paragraph in it, that the manufacturers of Great Britain had applied to parliament, to get an act to stop the running of wool to France, &c. Upon the old man's hearing that read, he said that he had remembered that there had been petitions of that kind for more than fifty years; and said, let them petition, and make what laws they will in England, if we can find French gold, I am sure we shall have English and Irish wool enough.

And it is my opinion, that those merchants that buy these goods at Abbeville, and send them to the foreign markets with our woollen goods, would not stop at sending them our wool, if it lay in their power, if they do not do it at this time: however, that I must leave to themselves. This fabric of the Schalonees is carried on with good success; the sort of goods that they make are serge royals, druggets, and some few shalloons and cloth serge; these goods are made mostly with Irish and English wool: they have several workshops in the town; they carried me to one of the comb-shops, where there were seven or eight men at work upon ENGLISH and IRISH wool; I combed a combful of it myself: they also shewed me their stock of wool, yarn, worsted, and goods wrought up, which was very large; I believe there was at least 10,000 l. stock, wrought and unwrought; I brought several of their patterns away with me, some serge and some druggets; the serge is the finest I ever saw: I shewed them to some of the best judges of serge in England, who declared that they had never seen any like them, for fineness and beauty, made in England. I told you before, that Van Robais had a patent for the sole making of superfine broad cloth, with other advantages besides; one of which was, that no person in that place shall use, or occupy, any fulling-mill, that goeth either by wind or water. So that when this factory was set up by the Schalonees, they were obliged to have a mill to go with horses, which they call a gigg-mill, and is one of the best contrivances that ever I saw for that purpose, for it fulls the goods to perfection.

When I was at Abbeville last, which was a little above six months ago, I found that these four partners had advanced their trade; and Mr Daniel Schalone told me, that they had good then in Italy and Messina, but was obliged to take off the town mark before they sent them abroad, and so ship them on board some English vessel; this he said they did, because there was a large duty on French woollen goods in those parts; but that they had applied to the cardinal de Fleury to get that taken off, which he promised that he would; and in a short time procure them the liberty of sending the French woollen goods to Italy, &c. duty free; for that there is now a large duty on the French woollen manufactory, even almost to a prohibition; and that they could not send any goods thither, but under the notion of ENGLISH MANUFACTORIES: but the English, being kind neighbours, do the French that piece of service, to carry their goods for them to other markets, where the French cannot go themselves: these are true Britons, to be sure, and have a great value for their native country!

Such is the seeming honesty and simplicity of this our woollen manufacturer's account, that I judge it most acceptable to continue his narrative in his own words:

At the same time, continues he, I was at another merchant's house, where they were all hands at work, in packing woollen manufactories to be shipped on board an English ship that they expected every day to come into St Valery road; this the master told me, and I saw the goods they were a packing: there were a great many bales, and were marked with English marks and numbers. I also saw

some Irish worsted at Mr Schalone's, that they had got to make shalloons with; I brought two skeins of it away along with me. The price of English and Irish combed wool, was about 10 d. English money a pound; and some that was deep and a long fine staple, was 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound. Of late years they have got the way of making good hose at this town in frames, which they chiefly consume amongst themselves: I do not doubt but, in a short time, this branch of the manufactory will find the way to foreign markets, along with the other goods, if they continue to have our wool: as to the method they have in mixing and managing of our wool with their own wool, it is as follows: in the finest serge druggets, &c. they put none of their own country wool; but, in the second sort of goods, they mix one third of theirs, with two thirds of ours; and so in proportion, as they would have their goods coarser or finer; for in some goods they mix two thirds of their own, with a third of our wool; for with their own wool alone, they can only make coarse cloth, cloth serge, hats, hose, &c. for the poor people of their own country.

I was told by a manufacturer of this town, that he had received advice, that there was forty or fifty thousand weight of my country wool landed at Nantes, and that he was to have part of it. And as near as I could learn, there are about 300 wool-combers in this town, and a great deal of the wool, combed here, is sent to Amiens, to be spun into small yarn or worsted, it being the best place in this country for good spinning.

AMIENS is in Picardy, and is a large city, about ten leagues from Abbeville; at this place are made a great many sorts of silk and worsted stuffs, in imitation of Norwich crapes, bombazines, Spanish poplins; and several sorts of flowered, spotted, striped and plain stuffs, mixed with silk and worsted, &c. which are the principal sorts of goods that are made in this city; those goods are generally mixed with our wool, and their own wool together: but the finest sort is made of all either English or Irish wool, mixed with silk, mohair, &c. They also comb our wool alone in this city, and have it spun into worsted yarn, &c. and send it to Tournay, Brussels, and other places, with which is made the finest of tapestries and silk stuffs. They have in this town some thousands of looms employed in making the several sorts of silk and worsted stuffs; and, when dressed and finished, they are all sent over to France, Flanders, and Holland; and some of them are sent to Spain, Portugal, &c. As to labour, it is above one third cheaper in this town, than it is in Norwich, London, &c. where the same sortment of goods is made; they make their goods full breadths, let them be half yard, half ell, three quarters, or yard wide: and also make them thicker than we do in England, which makes them in greater esteem in the Low Countries, than the English goods, which makes this manufactory daily increase.

At Mondidire in Picardy, about eight leagues from Amiens, within these two years, there is a factory set up by Monsr. Chavilian, the intendant of Picardy. In this factory they make shalloons and cloth serge: this being a new fabric, I shall not enlarge upon it; only observe, that, as the trade of the woollen manufactory increaseth at one place, they extend it to another, by giving encouragement to those that will engage in it. I know an Englishman that was offered 40,000 livres, as a stock to carry on the trade at this place, by the person that had the management of those affairs, besides all the privileges that the woollen manufacturers enjoy at Abbeville. By this you may see how zealous the French are to promote and support the carrying on these new woollen fabrics in their own country, when at the same time they cannot carry on those old ones, if they were not furnished with Irish and English wool: for the wool of this part of France is fit only to make coarse cloth, cloth serge, druggets, hose, hats, &c. which will serve for the poor peasants: but now they have our wool, they make goods fit for a prince's palace. Abbeville, Amiens, and Mondidire, being the principal towns in France, where the woollen manufactory for stuffs, stockings, &c. are carried on.

I will now proceed in my journey through Flanders, &c. I shall begin at St Omer. St Omer is a large town, 20 miles from Dunkirk, and about the same distance from Calais, and is in the province of Artois. At this place there is a manufactory of cloth, druggets, duroys, sagathies, shalloons, and stockings; the cloth factory is carried on by the town stock, and is increased, within seven years, double to what it was before. The master of this factory's name is Mr Robiare, who lately bought a large parcel of Irish wool of one Mr Obrien, an Irishman, that was landed at Dunkirk; one of his weavers, an Irishman, whose name is Richark Dally, gave me an account of the same. There are in this town 350 looms employed in the making several sorts of these goods, besides a great many stocking-frames; they make their hose very good, some are made of all our wool, and some are mixed with about half their own wool and half our wool; they sell those by the name of English hose.

hose. In the year 1735, I was at Newport in Flanders, and an English gentleman, wanting a pair of hose, got me to go along with him to a shop to buy them; and, when we came into the shop, they perceived that we were Englishmen, and so shewed us some English hose, as they called them. I knowing by the make of them that they were not made in England, caused me ask, Where those hose were made? To which the shopkeeper replied, That they were made at St Omers, and that he would assure me, that they were made of all English wool; they were good hose, but were made heavier than we generally make them in England; but the clocks not quite so curious as some of our's are.

At St Omers in the making of their duroys, sagathies, druggets, and ferges, they mix about one third of our wool, and two thirds of their own wool, and make their goods much stronger and heavier, than we do our goods of the same kind in England, which makes them much esteemed in that country.

In making their broad cloths, they make them fine, middling, and coarse; the fine cloth is made all of Spanish wool; the second is about half English and half their own country wool; and the coarse is made of all their own wool, which last sort is wore by the poor of the neighbourhood. Provision is very cheap at this town, and labour cheap in proportion. Wages is much the same price here, as at Abbeville; if any thing, it is a little cheaper in the spinning: they take the same methods to keep labour low, &c. as they do at Lisle. I was in the factory which is carried on by the town-stock: it is in a large house, built for that purpose; there I saw Richard Dally, an Irishman, a weaving of broad cloth, and had a boy that was apprentice to him, that worked with him in the same loom: this the magistrates do allow to the journeymen, to encourage and promote the increase of the manufacturers.

The next places to St Omer, where the woollen manufactory is carried on, is at St Paul and Fruge, which are about 20 miles from St Omer, in the province of Artois: these two towns lie near one another, and are about seven or eight miles on the right hand, as we pass from St Omer to Aire, Bethune, &c. and so to Lisle. But, as those people of Fruge and St Paul are principally employed by the merchants of Lisle, in combing, spinning, doubling, and twisting of worsted, and in making it fit for the weaver, and the stocking-maker, I shall say no more about them here, but proceed to Lisle.

Lisle is a large well fortified town in French Flanders, and is at this time in the hands of the French king. At this town they make some broad and narrow cloth, and a few druggets: but the principal assortments of goods that are made here, are divers sorts of stuffs and stockings, of which they make large quantities. There are near a thousand looms employed in making of camblets, some English ell wide, and some three quarters of a yard wide, all made of English or Irish wool; and a much greater number with mixed wool, in making the same sorts of goods. Besides, there are a great many hundred looms at work in the making of callimancoes, figured, striped, and plain, and several sorts of worsted stuffs, as cambletees, fattenets, pruneloes, plain, striped, and spotted stuffs, &c. with some stuffs that are mixed with silk and mohair, &c. There are also a great many stockings and caps made here, both knit and weaved. This branch is much increased within a few years; for, about twelve years ago, there were not above ten or twelve frames in this town; and now there are near 200 at work, and one half of those frames are employed in making hose, and caps, of all English and Irish wool, and are sold in all the shops for such. The other frames are employed in the making hose and caps, with about half their own wool, and half our wool. The first man that put them in the way to make fine hose, was one Abraham Thomas, that went from Bishopgate-street, to learn them this art. There are no Englishmen at work in this town now, and but one Irishman, whose name is Stockin, and is a stocking-maker: they comb a great deal of wool in this town, but send more to St Paul and Fruge, &c. which is near forty miles distance from Lisle; they send this wool in the rough, so have it combed, spun, doubled, and twisted, and made fit for the weaver and stocking-maker. I have seen, at those places, great quantities of worsted made fit and ready for the merchants of Lisle: those merchants at Tourcoin also have a great deal of worsted spun, &c. Tourcoin is about twelve miles from Lisle, and is a very large town for combing and spinning: I have seen a person of Tourcoin bring a sample of combed wool, and offered it to sale to a stocking-maker of Lisle, by the name of English wool; I had the top of the wool in my hand: and, at the same time, one Madam Dislobbes, that is a great manufacturer at Lisle, told me, That, in all the callimancoes and camblets they make, she used more or less English wool, and could not do without our wool; in some half, and in some two thirds of our wool. I saw several pieces, some scarlet, blue, and some white, which were for the Spanish and Portugal trade.

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The reason that the Lisle merchants send their wool to St Paul, Fruge, Tourcoin, &c. to be combed, spun, doubled, and twisted, is, because labour is cheaper at those places than at Lisle: and, upon the whole, labour is cheaper here by 30 per cent. at least, than it is in any part of England, where the same sorts of goods are made: as London and Norwich for camblets, callimancoes, crapes, and silk and worsted stuffs, &c. and London, Leicester, Derby and Nottinghamshire, for hose.

The poor people live hard at those places, their chief diet is bread, fruit, herbs, and roots, with a little dried fish: as for flesh, they eat very little. The magistrates take care, that the farmers and foretallers of markets shall not sell the corn at market to make bread dear, in order to pinch the poor manufacturers. In order to prevent this evil, the magistrates have built a store-house in a convenient part of the town, ten stories high; in the upper rooms of it they lay wheat, rye, and barley; and in the cellars they lay wine, oil, and brandy: those goods are bought up when they are cheap, and so soon as the markets are short, and goods begin to rise in the price, then the storehouse is opened for the poor, that they may buy what they have occasion for, at the old market price. This store-house was built since the woollen manufactory hath so increased in this town, in order to support that fabric, which is a great encouragement to the manufacturers, and a means to keep labour low; all other things that are needful for the poor are also cheap in proportion, as candles, soap, oil, &c.

They have all the proper methods imaginable, to help their facturers; they allow their poor journeymen that work in their own houses, to take apprentices; and none are taken above two or three years at most, and then the boys may work for others, if they please; and, if a boy has learned his trade well, his master that he worked for, will give him eighteen pence or two shillings a week; according to his merit he is paid: for that is the method at this place, to agree with them for weekly wages. I knew an Irish stocking-maker of this town took an apprentice of near 20 years old, who, before he had been six months at the trade, set up to make goods for himself; by this method, giving liberty to those boys to have a right to the trade for one, two, or three years service, they have always hands enough at their command to supply their factories; and this makes them that have a good place of work, take all the care imaginable to please their masters, that they may keep in work. For it is at this town, as at Abbeville; no man will employ another man's servant, without a good recommendation from his former master.

There are a great many camblets, callimancoes, stuffs, stockings, &c. that are made within a few miles of this town, which are brought and sold to the merchants, which are dyed, dressed, pressed, and packed here; and then sent to Spain, Portugal, and Italy: nay, in every town in France, Flanders, Holland, and in the German dominions, you will find Lisle stuffs, &c. they make all their goods full breadth, whether half-yard, three quarters yard, or yard and quarter wide, and fill them well with shoot and warp, which are heavier and thicker in proportion, than we make our goods of the same quality, which makes the foreigners esteem them better than ours; there is hardly a day in the year, but you may see carriages bringing of wool or woollen goods, to and from this famous trading town of Lisle.

The magistrates of this town, as a further encouragement to the woollen manufacturers, obtained a grant from the king of France, to prohibit the wear of India calicoes, or linses, cotons, &c. that were printed, painted, stained, or dyed: and a proclamation was issued out accordingly, to prevent the wearing or selling any of the above goods, or in any part of French Flanders. This proclamation was issued out May the 6th, 1736, and gave but three weeks time to the merchants and shopkeepers to vend their goods; and now there is none of those goods to be seen in any of those towns in all French Flanders, &c. This law was in France before, but did not extend to French Flanders: and now is punctually kept and observed throughout the French king's dominions. I could wish, for the sake of the woollen manufactory of this kingdom, that we had a law made, to prohibit the wear of those sorts of goods in Great-Britain and Ireland; and that as justly observed and kept: notwithstanding this law in France that prohibits the wear of those printed calicoes, &c. the king of France hath an India company in his country, but all that he looks over, to support the woollen manufactory of his own territories. I brought with me several patterns of their callimancoes, camblets, stuffs, and stockings, which I have now by me.

A few years ago, a merchant that lived in Goodman's-fields, persuaded one George Gwin to go to Lisle, to teach the French to cast and cut the bras-rolls, and make the other parts of an engine, to water harrateens and cheneys withal. And, when I heard of it, I went to Lisle to persuade him to return to England, and not to teach the French that art; at first he seemed to comply, and told me

he would return in a short time: but, when I left him, they still persuaded him to stay; and sometime after I applied to the board of trade, to have some iron that was cast at the bank-side, Southwark, stopped from going abroad to Mr Gwin; and, although I attended a great many times at the board of trade and the custom-house, I could not prevent those pieces of iron being sent abroad. This iron was to help to make another engine, that was to be sent to Toulon. I having had a great deal of trouble to get Gwin to England, and to stop, if possible, this cast iron from going abroad, but all was unsuccessful. Then I applied to a certain honourable gentleman to have him recalled, who was pleased to comply with my request, and wrote over to my lord Waldegrave, which is the king of Great-Britain's ambassador at Paris; who immediately sent an order to Mr. George Gwin at Lisle, by the hands of Mr. W—s, the messenger, and the purport of this order was, that Gwin should return immediately to Great-Britain, his native country, or he should be declared an alien, &c. as the law in that case directs. Upon Gwin's receiving of this letter, he immediately returned to London, his old place of abode; so that the rolls that were designed for Toulon were never finished, neither had the French learned how to cast them, and cut the figures on the rolls, &c. But, since the Lisle merchants have had those rolls, &c. finished, they have made, dyed, and watered a great many cheyneys and harrateens, both to serve themselves, and other countries that we had used to serve. But I do humbly hope, when this engine is worn out, no man from Great-Britain will go over to make them another.

Tourcoin is a large country market-town, about three leagues from Lisle, and is in the hands of the French king, and so is called French Flanders. This town is well stored with the woollen manufactory, there being many thousand hands employed in the combing, spinning, &c. and the greater part of the wool that is wrought up here is either Irish or English; and great part of it is brought to this place by the way of Holland. I was at this town in October 1736, when I bought a sample of worsted, which is some of the best spinning I ever saw in my life; I bought it by the name of English worsted, it being made of all our wool. The reason that whatsoever goods are sold in those parts for English goods, though made on the spot, is, because the English manufacturers formerly had the character of making the best of goods; and, would we keep our wool at home, we still should bear the bell away; for this worsted that is made and sold here by the name of English worsted, bears a better price, by 40 French pence a pound, than any worsted they do or can make of their own country wool: 40 French pence is about 20 pence English. They send this fine English worsted, as they call it, to Paris, Lisle, Holland, Flanders, &c. I have been at this town, when the roads were very bad from this place to Courtray, where the waggons come from Ghent to meet the waggons from this place; but the roads were so bad that the carriages could not pass cross the country, to carry the yarn that was spun here to Courtray, and bring from thence wool, as their custom is constantly every week: the people of this town were so careful of their masters trade, because the waggons from Courtray should not go away empty, hired men, and put the yarn upon large wheel-barrows, and had them drawn along a foot causeway, that is paved from Tourcoin to Minnin, which is about five or six miles distant, and is about as far distant from Courtray as Tourcoin; but, when they come to Minnin, it is the high road from Lisle to Courtray, and is always very good. I only mention this to shew, how very careful those people are of our wool when they have got it, and how careless we are at home, or they never would have it from us.

All the worsted that is carried this way belongs to the Hollanders, as I shall shew in it's proper place. I was told by the riding-general of the customs of this town, that there are 14 persons in the town that make wool-combs; though I suppose they do not wholly depend upon that particular branch of business; if they did, there must be a vast number of wool-combers in that neighbourhood, for there are but two wool-comb makers in this great city of London. The common necessaries of life are very plentiful and cheap at this town, viz. soap, oil, candles, and charcoal; four very useful things in the woollen manufactory. Both combing and spinning is cheaper here than at Lisle, which is the reason that the Lisle merchants have so much of their fine work done here. A gentleman of this town told me, that the fine spinning is, by the Dutch, sent to Spain, Italy, &c. The next town in this neighbourhood that is of note is Roubaix.

Roubaix is about four or five miles from Tourcoin; at this place they employ many hundreds of hands in the making of fine callimancoes, camlets, and other fine stuffs; the finest of those goods is made all with either English or Irish wool; but they do make a greater number of goods with our wool and their own country wool mixed together; these goods that are made here are chiefly made for the Lisle merchants,

labour being lower here than at Lisle, and about the same price as at Tourcoin; provisions, and other necessaries, are about the same price. The next town is Lannoy, which is another manufacturing town for woollen goods. Lannoy is about four miles from Roubaix; at this place they make great numbers of callimancoes, camlets, silks, and worsted stuffs mixed, &c. The provisions, and other useful necessaries for trade, are about the same price here as at Tourcoin; so is the labour. I have named only three towns in this neighbourhood, that are famous for the woollen manufactories; but, if I would go to small places, I might name a hundred villages round the country that have the woollen manufactory in them, for combers, spinners, weavers, &c. and are as plenty here as at any part of the West of England. But, before I leave this country, I must just observe, that, notwithstanding labour is so low in those parts, the poorer people all round the country are well clothed, and all their families (I wish I could say so by the great manufacturing towns in England) but, should I be so happy as to see the day that the owling of wool from Great-Britain and Ireland to foreign parts was stopped, then we should have our hands full of work, and our poor artificers once more be well fed and clothed; then we should see our poor once more have chearful looks, and pray for those that put their hands to this great and good work, which I hope will speedily be accomplished. As to the governing and managing their work-folks, they at this place take the same method as at Lisle.—Thus much the honest Northamptonshire manufacturer.

REMARKS on this manufacturer's foregoing narrative.

Although what this zealous manufacturer has related may not be absolutely true in every circumstance of his narrative, yet we apprehend that no one can make any doubt but (1.) That the French do import into that kingdom large quantities of English and Irish wool. (2.) That they work this wool up into manufactures for home-consumption, as well as for foreign markets. (3.) That the French have, from time to time, allured over many of our most ingenious workmen, who have excelled in divers branches of the manufactory. (4.) That, if the French have our native wool, and our workmen, they may certainly make as good woollen fabrics of every kind as we are able to do. (5.) That as the reputation of our woollen fabrics of every kind has been much longer established than that of the French, it is no way improbable but the French have imitated the English manufactures as near as possible in every circumstance: and, therefore, there does not appear an improbability but the French have also made use of the expedient of counterfeiting the English marks, seals, &c. as well as the façon d'Angleterre, or English manner, make, or fashion, in fabricating of our various species of woollen goods.—And, therefore, (6.) It is very natural to believe, that, in order to introduce their woollen fabrics of every sort into those foreign countries where the English had been long established before them, they made use of the expedient of imposing their woollen fabrics, made in France after the English manner, upon foreign countries for English foreign goods, and continue this practice to this day, by counterfeiting our seals and marks, the lengths and breadths of our goods, and the same method of package, &c. with every other circumstance that may be the more effectually deceiving.—And (7.) to the end that this may remain undiscovered, can any thing be a more natural disguise than to send French woollen goods to foreign markets with some English woollen goods, made and packed after the same manner; and, at the same time, to export them in English bottoms, and, by the confederacy of English captains of ships with English merchants, and consigned also to factors abroad, who are in the secret?

All this is so very plausible, and such measures are so likely for the French to fall into, in order to supplant the English in the woollen manufactory in foreign countries, that we may, without any difficulty or strain of belief, credit the same as matter of FACT: and especially so, when this Northamptonshire manufacturer asserts the same to be true, with such circumstances of truth and credibility.

And, if this matter should ever come to be thoroughly scrutinized into by authority, and proper measures are taken to get to the truth, we are inclinable to believe it will be found to have been the constant practice of the French for many years, and one of THEIR GRAND STROKES OF COMMERCIAL POLICY, to worm us out of the woollen manufactures of the whole world, if possible: and, if they can have English and Irish wool very cheap in exchange for their brandies and wines, &c. which our wool-smugglers run into our country; and, if their labour is considerably cheaper than ours, what hinders but France may inevitably ruin all our woollen manufactures?

This being an affair that so nearly and importantly concerns the kingdom, I am willing to flatter myself my readers, my truly British readers, will excuse it, if I dwell something longer upon the subject of the woollen manufactures of France.

We are told, and there is too much reason to believe it true, that France practises the same arts with respect to other of our manufactures, especially that of our silk; which is likely to turn all our Spitalfields weavers a grazing, if some wise and effectual measures are not soon taken by the legislature to prevent so great an evil. It would prove, perhaps, the easiest method to discharge the practice of wearing French silks in this nation, if they were first rendered unfashionable at court; and yet I have been informed that there is some difficulty made to discover French from English silks; for that some of our own people, who ought to be, and doubtless are the best judges, have been suspected, upon good grounds, if I am not misinformed, to determine FRENCH SILKS to have been made at SPITALFIELDS, on purpose to cover them, and prevent their seizure. Should this prove true, are not these people to be suspected to be instrumental, to be the chief private encouragers of a practice that they pretend loudly to complain of? Ought not every possible measure to be taken to detect a practice so highly detrimental to the manufactures of this kingdom?

The manufactures established in PARIS, and other parts of FRANCE.

The woollen manufactures of France are, cloth, serges, ratines, baracans, camlets, callimancoes, tammies, crapes, bays, perpetuana's, flannels, &c. frizes, anacothes, druggets, &c. all of wool, or of wool and thread mixed.

It is to Monsr. Colbert, superintendent-general of arts and manufactures, that this kingdom is indebted for the first establishment of these manufactures, which are now, says Monsr. Savary, become the most flourishing in Europe.

There have been many good regulations made concerning them, viz. in August 1669, August 1700, March and May 1701, &c. A royal manufactory is one established by letters patents from the king.

Several have been famous for the establishing of manufactures in France, particularly since Henry IV. Two especially have distinguished themselves in this way: 1. Nicholas Cadeau, who founded and brought to perfection the manufactory at Sedan. 2. Joseph Van Robais, who established that of Abbeville, which has been long in high reputation. The former obtained, for himself and company, by letters patents, the sole making, for 20 years, of black and coloured cloths, like those of Holland.—These patentees, and their children, born, and to be born, were ennobled and honoured with all titles, &c. of the nobles of France. The French king gave not only each of the three partners a pension of 500 livres yearly, during their lives, but also assisted them with a stock of 8000 livres a year, during the term of their patent. The success of this new manufactory exceeded all expectation. The cloths of Sedan, and those of Abbeville, are esteemed the finest of their kind in France.

Sieur Cadeau's exclusive privilege was near expiring, when Mynheer Van Robais, a Dutch merchant, desired to erect a new manufactory of fine cloths, after the fashion of Spain and Holland, which he proposed to do at Abbeville in Picardy. His patent commenced October 1669, the principal clauses of which were: for 30 looms; for a requisite number of fulling-mills, and 50 workmen to be brought from Holland, with passports for the same; exemption from all taxes, &c. for their looms, cloth, wool, &c. In short, to facilitate the establishment, the king gave him, as a free gift, 12,000 livres, and lent him 2000 livres for every loom he should set up, during the three first years, without interest.

Van Robais having fulfilled his engagement, had his patent renewed to him and his eldest son, in 1681, for 15 years more, on condition that he should set up 50 looms, instead of 30. In consideration whereof, the king remitted to him 20,000 livres, of the 80,000 that had been lent to him, with the three first years of his former grant.

In the year 1698 a third patent was granted to Isaac and Jos. Van Robais, two brothers, sons of the first undertaker, who had now set up 80 looms; which number, in 1708, was increased to above 100: when the said Jos. Van Robais, in partnership with his brother Isaac's widow, being desirous to erect still more buildings, in order to extend this flourishing establishment, the like whereof, perhaps, was not to be found, obtained that same year a fourth grant, with further privileges, for 15 years to come. One of which privileges was, a permission to all noblemen to enter into partnership, without derogation to their titles and honour.

Of the several sorts of woollen fabrics established in France.

Cloths are made of different qualities, some fine, some midling, some coarse; some dyed in wool, of different colours, that is, the wool of which has been dyed and mixed, before it was spun and worked in the loom. Others are made white, to be dyed scarlet, ble, or black, &c. Their breadths and lengths are different.

The fine cloths are of three qualities; the first is made of the fine wool of Segovia in Spain, without any mixture; the second of Segovia wool, with that of Albarazin, second Segovia,

and wool of Soris; the third, of other middle sorts of Spanish wool.

Many manufactories of this kingdom, particularly those of Languedoc, Dauphiné, and Provence, afford quantities for the Levant, from Marseilles. These cloths, whose names, qualities, lengths, breadths, &c. are different from those in the kingdom, have been the subject of many excellent laws to uphold their reputation.

The cloth called Londrins premieres, are to be made of wool, prime Segovia, both warp and woof. Londrins seconds, must have for the warp wool Soria, or wool of equal quality; for the woof, second Segovia. Londres larges must be made of the best wool of Languedoc, Lower Dauphiné, Gandié, Roussillon, grand Albarazin, and others of like quality. Londres must be made of le fleur de laine de Languedoc, low Dauphiné, Gandié, petit Albarazin, or others of like quality. Draps seizans, of wool of Languedoc, low Dauphiné, or Spanish wool, of like quality.

They shall not employ in the manufactory of Romantin other than the wools of Berry, Sologne, and wools of Spain, prime Segovia, prime Soria, and prime Segovian only, without employing other Spanish wools of an inferior quality, or the wools of Navarre or Barbary, or any other wool.

August 21, 1718. Rules are laid down for the making of cloth in the provinces of Burgogne, Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex, viz. of whites and of different colours, at Dijon, Selonges, Sommieres, Auxois, Auxerre, Montbard Avallon, Saulieu, Chatillon upon the Seine, Montcenis Louans, Les Chante de Macon, Cluny, and Pasay le Monial. Also for common cloths, called sardis, that are made at Bourgen Bresse, Pondeveaux, Montluel, and other places.

Besides full cloths, there is a manufactory of stuffs of wool, which are commonly used for linings, viz. serges of Aumale, of Beauvais, and others; frizes, frizons, feltins, &c.

Druggets are stuffs of wool, or of wool and thread, sometimes broad, but mostly narrow. They are often called pinchina's, though not like what comes from Toulon, and Chalons in Champagne, of that name. Druggets are made at Le Lude, Amboise, Partenay, Niort, Rheims, Rouen, Darnatal, Verneuil in Perche, Troyes, Chaumont in Bassigny, Langres, and Chalons in Champagne. There are also very fine druggets made, of a particular sort, at Badrieux in Languedoc, and many adjacent villages, which are sold in Germany.

The druggets of Lude are of wool intirely, both warp and woof. At Amboise are made of two sorts, of wool intirely, the one called croises, the other not croises. Those of Partenay are made some of wool only; others, the warp of thread, the woof of wool. Niort affords druggets, all of wool, some croises, others not, half-ell wide. The croises are the most esteemed, being close wrought and strong. The druggets of Rheims are not croises, half-ell wide, commonly made of nothing but wool, prime Segovia, spun very fine, which gives them a superiority to all the other druggets manufactured in France, which are generally made of the wool of the country, coarse spun.

At Roan are made three sorts of druggets, not croises: the one made of wool only, half-ell wide, &c. another called barluche, or breluche, the woof wool, the warp thread. The second sort of druggets comes very near in quality and price to those of Verneuil in Perche. The last, commonly called espagnolettes, are intirely of wool, hairy on one side, and sometimes on both, which makes them very warm. These druggets espagnolettes are made of different qualities; one very fine, of Spanish wool only; others less fine, of Spanish wool mixed with the wool of the country; others of the wool of the country only, which are the coarser, and of less value. They are made white, and dyed, after that, of different colours.

The druggets of Darnetal are like to those of Roan in goodness, length and breadth.

Verneuil in Perche affords druggets half-ell wide, from 42 to 65 ells long, the warp thread, the woof wool of the country, very coarse, and about 13 or 14 sols the ell. They are generally consumed at Beauvais, the Orleansois, and country adjacent to Paris, for cloathing the peasants. The druggets of Troyes are croises on one side, and not on the other; the wool is of wool, the warp of thread: they are much better than those of Verneuil. At Chaumont in Bassigny, and at Langres, are druggets like those of Troyes.

At Chalons in Champagne are made druggets, all of wool. They are called espagnolettes, and their quality is very good. There are few, except druggets espagnolettes of Roan and Darnetal, and some druggets with thread, that are dyed in the piece; the others are dyed in the wool, i. e. the wool of which they are made is dyed of several colours, before carded, spun, and weaved.

Serge is a stuff of wool, manufactured after a certain manner. They have different names, given by the merchants, and other makers, to distinguish and render them more esteemed. Their price is different, according to the different sorts and qualities, and places where made, viz. serge de seigneur, serge à la reigne, serge imperial, &c. serge raze, serge à poil, serge drapée, or cloth serge, both sides alike, and serge de Berry,

Berry, de Beauvais, de Mercy, de St Lo, d'Aumale, de Crevecoeur, de Blicour, de Chartres, &c. façon de Londres, d'Arcot, de Rome, de Segovie. All of these, which are made in France, are subject to certain regulations, by divers arrets, according to the places where they are made.

France owes the manufacture of serge after the fashion of London to Lewis Bezuet and Nicholas de la Coudre, partners. These two able manufacturers began the fabric at Aumale, a little city in Normandy, in consequence of an exclusive patent, for 15 years, of the 12th of September, 1665, granted upon the report of Monf. Colbert. It has since been transferred to Siegnelay, Gournay, Auxerre, Sedan, Abbeville, Beauvais, Boufflers, &c.—That of Siegnelay has always preserved the preference, either because they make use of better wool, or are better workmen, or because the earth and water are more proper.

As to the manner of making serges façon de Londres: the best wool for that purpose is that of England, viz. the longest for the warp, and the shortest for the woof. But as it is not easy to procure those sorts of wool, because they are prohibited, they have recourse for the warp to the longest and finest wool of Berry; and, for the woof, to the prime and second of Spain and Portugal.

Perpetuana's, a stuff like the serges of Sommiere, and are commonly made at Colchester and Exeter in England, and other places thereabouts. These are chiefly destined to Spain and Italy, but most to Spain, where there is a great demand for them. Of late years they make some also at Montpellier, Nismes, Castres, and other cities of Lower Languedoc, in Imitation of the English Perpetuana's. Some are also made at Beauvais, which are much esteemed at Cadiz, where the French merchants send them, dyed of different colours. The merchants of Languedoc also send a quantity of them into Italy, under the name of imperial serge, that are a little finer than those designed for Spain. The perpetuana's designed for the Spanish West-Indies are commonly sent in assortments of 40 pieces, viz. 15 green paroquet, 15 pieces blue, 5 musc-colour, 5 black. There is one species of perpetuana's, LESS FINE, which is mostly made in England, whence it is sent into Spain, chiefly for the Indies, commonly to the value of 200,000 livres a year. Here let the reader observe, how the Frenchman depreciates the English perpetuana's, without cause, in order to recommend those of his country to the Spaniards!

Say is a kind of serge, very light, all of wool, something like the serge of Caen. Some of the religious use them for shirts, other for linings, and hangings for furniture. They make abundance of them at Hanfocote, Ypres, and Turcoing, in Flanders. Those of Hanfocote and Ypres are about ell wide. Those of Turcoing, which are very fine, and all of wool, only of Segovia of ENGLAND, are $\frac{3}{4}$ wide. There are also some made in Artois, with the wool of the country.

Bays, a woollen stuff, not croisée, very loose made, with the hair on one side, a kind of flannel, very coarse. A quantity of these are made in England. They make a considerable number of them in Flanders, especially at Tournay and Lisle, and Neuf Eglises. Of late years, the French have manufactured some with success, especially at Beauvais, de Castres, Montpellier, and Nismes. The demand for them is very great in Spain and Portugal, and Italy.

The French begin to send abundance of them, white, black, and of all other colours, as did the ENGLISH and FLEMINGS heretofore.—A kind of stuff of the same name, but cheaper, is also made at Alba, and thereabouts.

Reveches, flannel. FORMERLY, ALMOST ALL THOSE THAT WERE SEEN IN FRANCE CAME FROM ENGLAND; BUT, SINCE THEY HAVE BEEN IMITATED AT BEAUVAIS AND AMIENS, THE ENGLISH HAVE SENT FEW OR NONE.

Crape, made only with two marches, all of wool. There are crapes made in different places, as well in France as elsewhere. Their length and breadth are different, according to the places where they are made. Sieur Paignon, a woollen draper of Paris, first set up this manufacture about the year 1687. His son Nicholas has since been more successful in his undertakings: to him we owe the fine black cloths of Sedan, that are as much esteemed, IF NOT MORE, THAN THOSE OF LEYDEN IN HOLLAND. At Amiens are made white crapes, with a mixture of thread. In Languedoc, particularly at Castres, certain slight crapes. In Flandres, and above all, at Turcoing and Lisle, a quantity of light crapes are made, and of different colours, for the Spanish trade. There are crapes which they call d'Angleterre, or ENGLISH CRAPES, made of silk and wool, chiefly at Alençon, Angers, and Amiens.

Blankets of wool are made in the suburbs of St Martin, Paris. There is at Ferte Gautier a small manufactory of serge.

COMPÈIGNE furnishes a quantity of stockings, &c. The cloths, camlets, and plushes, that are made at Margny, a village in that district, are esteemed. These manufactories are not very antient, but are well conducted. The cloths of Senlis formerly were in great repute; but the workmen having made them slighter, the business is lost, and the inhabi-

tants are reduced to wash and prepare the wool for the workmen at Beauvais.

PICARDY produces wool. They have manufactories of wool, &c. Besides 5 or 600 milliers of wool, produced there, the consumption there is almost as great of other wool, from Germany, Holland, England, Spain, and other provinces of France. In the city of Amiens only, are made 120,800 pieces of woollen stuff. The camlet-makers use about 80 milliers, half thereof wool of the country, half foreign wool. Besides these, there are sealed there 50,000 pieces brought from neighbouring parts, which, for that reason, are called etoffes foreignes. The cities of Picardy, which have the greatest trade for woollen manufacture, next to Amiens, are Beauvais and Abbeville.

In the serge manufactories at Amiens they make serges after the fashion of Arcot, Crevecoeur, serge Cordeliers, of many sorts; serges after the fashion of Chalons, white and mixed; serges de seigneur, quinquettes, or slight camlets; camlets after the fashion of Lisle and Arras; barracans and tammies, of wool only, others of wool and silk, &c.

The woollen stuffs made at Beauvais are ratines of different sorts, as wide, strong, fine, and common; tammies; serge, both sides alike, or after the fashion of England, or Arcot, or those that go under the name of common serge; bays, others, after the fashion of ENGLAND.

The manufactures of Abbeville, not to mention the fine cloths, made after the fashion of Spain, England, and Holland, whereof mention has been made elsewhere, and serge de LONDRES, razes de St Lo, ratines of Holland, serge de Mouy, bouracanes, after the fashion of Valenciennes, druggets, thread and wool, tiretaines, belingues, pinchina's, &c.

The other places in Picardy where woollen stuffs are made, are Tilley, Fienville, Naours, Beauchamps, Gravilliers, Feuquiers, Aumale, Anvoille, Glatigny, and Seules. In all these places are made only serges and tiretaines. Mouy gives its name to a serge that is well esteemed; and Crevecoeur, to others that are not less esteemed; Tricot, and eleven villages dependent upon it, give also its name to a very strong serge. The best spun wool of Picardy is at Abbeville, where vast numbers are employed in spinning, and a great quantity of the finest wool is consumed, as well of the growth of the country, as Spanish wool. These last are chiefly used for making the finest caps; the others, in the manufacture of cloth and other goods, of the make of Paris, Elbeuf, and Rouen. The Dutch, in the time of peace, take off a great quantity of it.

We must remark, that at Amiens they employ only wool of their country, England, Holland, and Germany, but especially that of the country and England. It is computed that the woollen manufacture of Amiens amounts to near 1,600,000 livres yearly. The principal manufactory of Abbeville is that of Monsieur Van Robais, as observed before.

In general, the stuffs made at Beauvais are wide ratines of five quarters, fine ditto ell wide, strong ratines also ell wide; the warp, wool of France; the woof, of the middle sort of Spanish wool. Common ratines, etamet de bures, serge both sides alike, of wool of France; serge a poll, ell wide, the warp, French, the woof, Spanish wool. Fine serge, of English wool $\frac{3}{4}$ wide; after the fashion of Fricot, of the best wool of France $\frac{3}{4}$ wide; espagnolets $\frac{3}{4}$ wide; the warp, fine French, the woof, Spanish wool; sommieres, half ell, and half ell half quarter, of fine French wool; reveches after the fashion of ENGLAND, $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, of French wool; flannels after the fashion of ENGLAND, ell $\frac{3}{4}$ wide; others half the breadth, all of French wool; common serge, half ell half quarter, of the wool of the country. In fine, common reveches, of different breadths, of the same wool as before. The masters that make the finest stuffs, and are therefore stiled the great company, are about seventy. Those of the lesser company, i. e. who work but common stuffs, are above a hundred. About 500 looms are employed in both together. It is computed that the great company employs in their fabric 115,000 pounds of Spanish wool, 2000 pounds of English wool, 160,000 pounds of French wool; the lesser company consumes 185,000 pounds of the common wool of France, the product of which is a third part less than of the others. In the whole department of Beauvais, are employed to the amount of 745,000 pounds of French wool, and 115,000 pounds of Spanish wool, of which they make 68,000 pieces of stuff. They have about 40 fulling mills. Wool grown in the province of Picardy, viz. at Amiens and thereabouts, 80 milliers; at Abbeville 2, St Quintin 100, Peronne 40, Nette 40, neighbouring villages 2, Ham 40, La Ferte Guise 30, Vervine 60, Laon 30, Vely pres de Laon 40, Chauny 20, Noyon 20. Total 524 milliers.

Of the generality of CHAMPAIGNE and SOISSONS.

The pasturage is admirable, maintaining 16 or 17,000 sheep, which afford three or four millions of pounds of wool. It is almost incredible how much of the woollen manufacture there is in these two provinces. At Rheims, they make cloth after the fashion of Berry, etamines, razes, cordeliers, serges,

ferges, &c. At Rhetel, the same as at Rheims, besides estamets and crapes.

At Chateau-Portien, at Mezieres, Donchery, Mouzon, Fismes, Sainte Manehould, Sommepy, Ville on Tartanois, Soissons, Chateau-Thierry, Charly, Orbaye, S. Martin Dublois, Bar sur Aube, Ferre en Tartanois, Neuilly, and S. Fond, they make only ferges, etamines, and defeverfins. At Sedan, they make a quantity of cloth, very fine and very good, also a great number of cloth ferges, and ferges after the fashion of LONDON. At Bouts, Pertes, and Joinville, villages near Rheims, they make only white etamines, which they sell to Rheims. At Montcornet, ratines, reveches, cloth serge, and estametes. At Vervins, Fontaine, Plumiere, the like, also some common cloth. At Montmirel, Langres, St Just, Anglure, Sezanne, La Ferte Gouchier, and La Ferte Sous-Jouars, cloth ell wide, and above, to five quarters, all of Spanish wool only. In short, at Brinnee, Chalons, Vitry, Joinville, Chaumont, Dionville, they make serge razes, serge after the fashion of LONDON, cloth serge, estametes, everfines, etamines after the fashion of Rheims, and druggets; besides, they make cloth at Chaumont. The wool, employed in these several manufactories, is partly foreign, partly French. The foreign is common Spanish wool, as de Castille, and les Segovianes, and the like. The French wool is de l'Auxois, de Berry, de Champagne, du Soissonnois, and de Picardy. They reckon 1400 looms.

At Rethel, they use the wool of Champagne, Picardy, and Soissonnois. The mixture, which the workmen make of common wool with fine, lowers considerably the price and quality of them.

The cloths made at Sedan, are some after the fashion of Holland, some after the fashion of England, and others after the fashion of Spain. The wool they make use of in the one and the other, are wool de Segovie, Segovianes, Albarazines, des Soris, and other of the better sorts.

The fabric of ferges is also very considerable at Sedan. The wool they use is that of Berry, Ardennes, Champagne, Brie, and common Spanish wool. They are sold in Holland, Poland, Germany, and within the kingdom.

At Donchery is made wide serge, cloth serge, serge DE LONDRES; the wool is that of Berry, Champagne, and Brie. At Mauion and Autrecott, cloth ferges, serge DE LONDRES, &c. they are all made of wool of the country. In the manufactory of St Manehould they use only wool of the country, with which they make serge after the fashion of Chalons, cloth ferges, estamets, and frizes. At Siuppe, or Suipe, the manufactory is considerable. All the stuffs are made of wool of the country, i. e. everfines, cloth serge, serge razes, and frizes. At Ville en Tartanois, wide ferges, cloth ferges, all of wool of the country. Routz Perthes, and Sunville, are three villages near Rheims, where they make only white etamines of the wool of the country. At Monteomet, are made ferges, ratines, estamets, reveches, cloth ferges, on which they employ only the wool of the country. Vervins, Fontaine, and Plumiers, afford common cloths, and ferges, of the wool of the country. At Neville St Front, are employed the wool of Brie, Champagne, and Soissons, in making ferges de Berry, and cloth serge wide. At Ferre en Tartanois, the manufactory is wide serge, cloth serge, and serge after the fashion of Mouy, the wool of the country only. At Charly, they make wide ferges, cloth ferges, &c. all of the wool of the country. These above are in the department of Rheims (those that follow, are in the department of Troyes and Chalons) where they make near 84,000 pieces of stuff, employing for that purpose 740,000 pounds weight of wool of Champagne, Brie, Soissons, and Bourgogne, besides above 530,000 pounds of Spanish wool, and above 50,000 of that of Berry. They keep there 14 or 15,000 sheep, which produce 3,000,000 7 or 800,000 pounds of wool.

At Chalons, they make a quantity of serge razes, serge of Rheims, estamines, everfines, cloth ferges, of the fashion of LONDON. Of these last, they make about 2500 pieces a year; of all the others, about 2000. The wools they make use of for the one and other, are some of Champagne, Brie, Soissonnois, and Bourgogne, and some Spanish wool. There are 325 master clothiers. Besides, there are 30 or 35 other looms for a manufactory, that some cloth merchants of Paris have got established by letters patent. They make also, in that manufactory, serge after the fashion of LONDON, ratines, pinchinas; and employ in the one and the other, according to their quality, wool, prime Segovia, fine Albarasin, and other Spanish wool, with that of Berry, l'Auxois, Champagne, and Brie. The product of this manufactory is in proportion as great as the others. They sell them throughout the kingdom, at Liege, and in Italy. Liege takes off a great number, they being well liked there. At Vitry, are made serge, razes, serge after the fashion of LONDON, cloth ferges, druggets, and estamets. The wools they employ are those of Champagne, Brie, and l'Auxois. At Chaumont, are made a quantity of cloths, ferges croiffes, druggets; of the last one is of wool only, the other of wool and thread. They use only the wool of the country.

VOL. I.

Of the trade for Spanish wool at BAYONNE.

It is to be observed, that the wools which the merchants of Bayonne have from Spain, have some of them different names from those given in the dictionary, under the article of WOOLS, but in truth they are the same, under different appellations.

It is computed, that the import of wool at Bayonne amounts to 15,000 bales, of all qualities, viz. fegovies, leoneses, superfines, common fegovies, fories, fogoviennes, burguletes, fories de caballeros, fories molines, grand albarazines, des cuencas, des etremenas, belchittes, compos d'Arragon, fleuretens de Navarre, and all sorts of lamb's wool, fine and common, serge, and washed.

Many of the merchants of Bayonne give orders to have part of the wools bought en serge, and to have them washed upon the spot on their own account. Others have them from the Spaniards who are flock-masters, or from the merchants of that nation, who trade in it, and every year send or carry them to Bayonne, all washed, and sell them there themselves: so that the people of Bayonne have always their wools at the first hand, and can afford them cheaper than others. Besides, the best conveniences for washing are nearer that city than any other, even nearer than to Bilbao. The wool that comes from Bayonne, is most profitable and best triaged of all that comes from Spain. The weight they make use of at Bayonne, is sixteen ounces to the pound.

The price of wool is different, according to the difference of exchange. We shall set it here upon the foot of the price they sold at in November 1724, when the pistole was at 16 livres. Upon that foot, the fegovies leoneses (R.)* were worth 52 sols the pound; (F.) 6 sols less; the common fegovies 48 sols; the fegoviennes 46 sols, fories fegoviennes, les burgales, les cavalleros, 44—45; les fories, 41—42, with the same diminution of 6 and 12 sols; for the (F.) and (S.) other wools in proportion to their quality.

* These three letters of the alphabet, R, F, S, are used in France, to distinguish the three sorts into which every parcel of Spanish wool is divided by sorting, and therefore called triage.

They load commonly at Bayonne every year 30 or 40 vessels, which carry 200 or 350 bales of fine wool to Roan and Nantes, and 8 or 10 vessels to Holland: Languedoc also takes off much wool of fories fegoviennes, and common fories, that are the most proper for Londrines seconds, which are best for the Levant trade.

Of the commerce of LIMOSIN, POITOU, &c.

At St Jean de Angelis, they make cloths ell wide, and etamines: at Nerac, commonly 1900 pieces of cloth, and 1250 ferges: at Angouleme, ferges and etamines: La Rouche-faucault, only serge: Limoge, reveches: Tulle, reveches, or petits razes: Brieve, reveches: St Leonard, strong and coarse cloths for soldiers and peasants.

The stuffs made at Poitiers are camblets, etamines, ferges, and crapes. At Chastelleraud, they make ferges and etamines, in which they employ only wool of the country. At Lusignan, they make two sorts of ferges, razes, and cloth serge, both of wool of the country. At St Maixant, they make serge razes, which are esteemed for their fineness, although they use but the wool of the country, for which they chuse the finest; and of the rest make reveches, and other coarse goods. They make abundance of double caps and stockings with wool of the country, and of Limoges. The serge made at La Mothe St Geraye, for quality, fineness, and the wool employed there, are the same as at Maixant.

At Niort, they employ only the wools of the country; the several sorts of stuffs, there made, are druggets of wool only, others of wool and thread, serge razes, etamines buretes, and coarse cloth ferges. At Fontenay le Comte, they make cloth yard wide, and etamines, both of wool of the country. At La Chateigneraye, are made cadiffes, fergettes, and cloth serge: this, with the wool of the country, the others with fleuretens de Navarre. At Cheuffois, the same as the former. At La Meillerøge, they make only tiretaines and narrow druggets. At Pouzanges the same. At St Memin the same.

At Brevire, is one of the most considerable manufactories in the department of the inspector of Poitiers. The stuffs made there, are tiretaines, of thread and wool, serge razes and cloth ferges, all of wool of the country only. At Moncontan, the stuffs are tiretaines of different fashions, of the refuse of wool, from Nicort, Bourdeaux, Xointes, and Sensa. At St Pierre, the stuffs are cadiffes, druggets, of fleureton de Navarre, and cloth ferges ell wide, of the wool of the country. At Thouan, cloth serge, serge razes, and some etamines. The druggets made at Partenay are much esteemed, and have a great vent; some are of wool only, others of thread and wool. These last are made of wool of the country, the first only of Spanish wool. At Azais are made druggets, some called imperial, others common; the last of wool only, or wool and thread; the first of wool and silk: to make the imperial, they employ only the wool of Campo; for the common, wool of the country. At Vivouine are

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made

made coarse serge, and some reveches of a low price. Messé serge razes of the wool of the country. Cuiray, coarse ferges. Gencay, some ferges, some reveches, both of wool of the country. Coulognes druggets, all of wool.

They grow, in the generality of Poitiers, about 250 milliers of wool, which they employ in the above-mentioned fabrics, and of stockings and hats. They consume besides a great quantity of Spanish wool, called wool de Campo, and fleuretens de Navarre; which they have by the way of Rochelle and de Nantes, to the amount of 2000 bales, every bale weighing 300 pounds. They make, in that generality, from 25 to 30,000 pieces of stuff every year.

Of the commerce of the generality of ORLEANS.

They make capes of Spanish wool, wool of Berry, and of the country, besides stockings. Their manufactories in cloth and other woollen stuffs, employ not only the wool of the country, but also a good quantity of the wool of Berry, Beaulieu, Brie, Soulogne. The principal manufactories of cloth are, those of St Genoux, Clamecy, Chatillon sur Loing, and Montargris. There are many more, of ferges and other woollens, viz. at Orleans, serge tremieres, ferges with two estains, frocs, and baguettes. At Baugency the same, and moreover, cloth serge. At Blois at Baugency, also crapes. At Vendome, and at Pierre Fitte, estamates, and ferges of several sorts. White ferges, called tourangelles, and white cloth ferges, are made at Montoir, Salbry, Sousfme, Nouan le Fuzilier, Vouzon, Jergeau, Chatres, St Fargean and Bron. There is at St Aignan a fabric of cordats, or cloth for the capuchins. The manufacture at Chateaufort and Brinont, are cloth ferges, baguettes, and tiretaines: at Gien, cloth tremiers, white and grey, white frisons and estamines. At Charite and Penthières, cloth ferges, and those called felins. At Pangoin, Chaudan, Razochoes, and Illiers, only serge of two estains. At Anthoin, different sorts of grey and white etamines, of wool of the country, etamines of Spanish wool, called langres; etamines, musc colour, of wool of the country; and other etamines, whereof the warp is of the wool of Maine; whence they have it ready spun, and the wool of Spanish wool, or fine wool of Berry.

Romorantin is the most considerable manufactory of the whole generality; they make above 5500 pieces every year, viz. white cloths five quarters wide, other cloths less wide, of the same colour, white serge, white grey, and grey and serge croiffée, partly of the wool of Berry, partly of the country. They have also settled there a fabric of white cloths, half of Spanish wool, half of fine wool of Berry, which cloths are fit to be dyed scarlet. The manufacturers of Romorantin having been used to employ the wool of Navarre and Barbary, they are forbid to do it, by an arret of council, April 1706, and again by the intendant of the generality, July 1716.

They consume in this generality 200 milliers of wool, for the most part of the country. They make 25,000 pieces of cloth, &c. Foreign pieces, to the amount of 14,000, are brought from neighbouring places and marked there.

Of the commerce of TOURAINE, ANJOU, MAINE, and PERCHE.

The commerce at Amboise for etamines and druggets made there is much esteemed, and a good many hands are there employed in them. In Touraine, they make little else but etamines, ferges, razes, and druggets. The principal places where they are made, are Chinon, Richlieu, Loudun, Loches, Beauclieu, St. Christophle, St Pater, and Laval, for etamines and ferges. At Beaumont, La Roue, and Roziers, besides these two sorts of stuffs, they make also razes and serge tremieres; and at Montefor, Villeloin, and Orbigny, only serge half ell, of wool of the country.

The druggets and tiretaines of Amboise, are partly wool of Touraine, partly wool of Berry. At Beugnay, they use wool of Beaulieu, instead of that of Berry. At Chateau, Renault, Neuville, Pontpierre, Maray, Neufay, and Loifant, the razes, serge tremieres, etamines, and druggets, are made of the same wool as at Beugnay. In the fabrics of Montrichard, which consists only of druggets and white serge, they employ but wool of the country.

At Angers, they make etamines of different prices, and serge tremiers, both of the wool of the country. At Chateau, Gontiers, etamines, and druggets after the fashion of Lude, serge croiffées. At La Fleche, etamines, ferges, druggets of the wool of the country. At Montreuil Bellay, the same. At Beaufort and Durtal, ferges, etamine, druggets, all of wool of the country.

They make etamines and serge tremieres at Mayette, Chateau de Loir, Ferte, Bernard, Beaumont le Vicomte, Mayenne, and Laval.

At Le Mans, are made double etamines and camblets, which are commonly dyed black, three parts of wool of the country, the rest of Poictou. At Manjette, strong serge tremieres. Chateau de Loir, serge tremieres, all of wool of the country. Ferte Bernard, all of wool, others of wool and silk, and druggets, thread and wool of the country.

At Bonnefable, the fabric is considerable; they make eta-

mines like those of Mans, except that they are all of the wool of the country, and that in the others a third is wool of Poictou. At Beaumont le Vicomte, they make much the same as at Bonnefable. At Mayenne, ferges tremiers, and druggets with thread. At La Vallée, etamines, serge tremieres, and druggets of thread and wool of the country. In the whole generality of Tours, viz. the provinces of Touraine, Anjou, and Maine, are made about 18,000 pieces of stuff, and above 11,000 foreign pieces are marked there. The wool they employ in those fabrics, are almost all of the wool of the country, which is commonly fold for 60 to 75 livres the quintal.

At Nogent are made etamines.

Of the commerce of the generality of BERRY.

Sheep and wool are the chief commodities of this district. The wool is good enough, but they employ only the worst themselves, the best and finest being bought up by the merchants at Roan; which is the reason why the manufacturers of Berry make only coarse cloth, called cloth of Berry; they are excellent in their kind, but only fit for soldiery, servants, and common people. The other stuffs of wool of Berry, are coarse serge, druggets, tiretaines, and pinchinate.

Bourges, Issoudun, Chateaux, Vierfon, Selles, Aubigny, and Romorantin, are the places where the best manufactories are settled, among which that of Romorantin is most esteemed.

The other places of manufacture of wool of Berry, are Le Blanc, S. Amant, La Chastres, Chaffillon, Mehun, Aubigny, Dun le Roi, St Benoist du Sault, Buzancois, Leuroux, St Savin, Sancerre, Linieres, Leret, La Chapelle Danguillon, Aifne le Chateau, St Gautier, Ivry le Pre, Argenton, Newuy, St Sepulchre, Argent, Valencay, Cinconet, Baugy, Sancergues, Les Aix, Blancasfort, and Enrichemont.

Besides what has been said above, of the quantity of fine wool which the province of Berry furnishes for Roan, for the fabric of cloth in Normandy, the merchants of that city (Roan) buy up others of the common wools of Berry for their manufacture of tapestry. What remains, is used for making caps of all sorts, made in the province, especially at Bourges.

In this generality, of 34 places where cloth and other woollen stuffs are made, there are seven, viz. Bourges, Issoudun, Chateau Roux, Romorantin, Verfon, Selles, and Aubigny, where they commonly make from 3 to 4000 pieces each; six, viz. Le Blanc, Sancerre, Chateaufort, Liniere, Ivoy le Prey, Concois, where they make from 2 to 3000 pieces; and 21 others, where they do not make above 8 or 900 pieces each. The stuffs at Moulins and thereabout, are ferges, etamines, and crapes. At Montlucon, Heriffon, Decize, the same. Cergy la Tour, partly ferges and partly etamines. Moulins Engilbert, cloths, and some other stuffs. The tapestry made in this generality amounts to 80,000 livres yearly.

In Auvergne, the manufacture of etamines, worsted camblets, burats, cadise, burailles, and other woollen manufacture, is very good.

Of the commerce of NORMANDY, as divided into three generalities, Rouen, Alençon, and Caen.

The principal commerce of the generality of Rouen consists of cloth, ferges, tapestry, wherein are employed 1200 looms. In the good manufactory, they use but Spanish wool, or the best of France; those of Normandy, are for stuffs of an inferior kind. They import to Roan, communibus annis, 9000 bales, of which 5000 are Spanish, the rest of the kingdom.

The principal fabric of the city of Roan, and which employed the greatest number of hands, was the cloth of Uffeau, ell wide, but now those after the fashion of Elbeuf have taken their place. This last is good, and improving daily, nevertheless it is not yet come up to the true cloths of Elbeuf. As to the cloths of Uffeau, they keep them up yet, but make less of them since those after the fashion of Elbeuf have prevailed. The third sort of cloth made at Rouen, after the fashion of ENGLAND; but of this last, not so much as of the two former. Other woollens made there are, white druggets, commonly called espagnolettes; other druggets, of all colours, half-ell wide, and white ratines, five quarters wide. They make also barracans of thread and wool, $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, very coarse, and berluchas, or druggets, of a better sort. The two last fabrics employ about 60 looms, and the other near 200.

At Darnetal, the woollen manufactory is very antient: their first statutes are in the reign of Henry III. (1587.) The different cloths there made are, after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND; cloths after the fashion of Elbeuf, Uffeau, druggets, or pinchinats. Their manufacture of blankets is the second branch of the trade of that town and it's valley.

At St Aubin la Riviere, the manufactory commenced in 1691, in virtue of letters patents of 1672, under the title of a ROYAL MANUFACTORY. They make cloths after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, with success enough.

The manufactory of cloth at Elbeuf is an antient establishment, and has always been in good credit for the sorts of cloth

cloth undertaken there at different times. Before the great regulation of 1669, they made there only white coarse cloths; but, all the manufactories of the kingdom having received encouragement from Lewis XIV. at the instance of Monsieur Colbert, those of Elbœuf were the first that reaped the fruits thereof, by two considerable establishments for fine cloths, after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, and by means of the perfection to which they are arrived in other cloths.

At Orival they make only cloths after the fashion of Elbœuf. At Louviers, there are two sorts of cloth made; the one after the fashion of England and Holland, the other after the fashion of Elbœuf. At Pont de l'Arche, the cloth manufactory is in great reputation; it was established in 1690: the drapery is after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND. At Gournay the manufacture is serge only, after the fashion of LONDON, well made. Bolbec is one of the most considerable places in the country of Caux for manufacturing a sort of stuff called frocs, which are esteemed the best of the kind made in Normandy. They are of two sorts; the one $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, the other half-ell $\frac{1}{2}$. They are both of pure wool of the country. Gruchet, the same as at Bolbec.

At Fescamp the manufacture is distinguished into old and new; the old are very strong serges, ell-wide, and frocs, the same as at Bolbec; the new are, fine cloths, after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND; the first all of wool of the country, the other partly of foreign wool, partly of the best wool of the kingdom. This manufactory met with difficulties in the beginning, by the fault of those intrusted with it by the undertaker. But the dexterity of three foreigners who had afterwards the management of it, hath carried it to such perfection, that cloth hath been produced there as fine, and in all respects as good, as those of ENGLAND.

There are a great quantity of frocs and belinges made in several villages of the bailiwick of Caux, especially between Fescamp and Dieppe, but of an inferior sort to those of Bolbec, either for the making or the goodness of the wool.

Cloth, and other woollen stuffs, made at Caen, are cloths after the fashion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, ratines, serges called lingettes, frocs and reveches. The cloths and ratines of one manufactory, established by Sieur Maffieu, about the end of the seventeenth century, are only of Spanish wool. The other woollen stuffs made here employ near 700 looms. St Lo is in reputation for the manufacture of strong serge, to which it has given its name. They make also there finettes and razes, very much esteemed. These different fabrics employ about 2000 workmen, 90 looms, &c. These stuffs are excellent, especially if they employ only the wool of Coutantin.

At Vire are made common cloths, yard wide, also serges linguettes; also in many villages thereabouts, especially at Conde, Caligni, Monfegre, Cartemont, Cerify, and Frènes. These manufactories employ above 300 looms; they make commonly 12,000 pieces a year. At Valogne is made strong cloth, of the wool of the country. At Cherborough, the same, but in greater quantity.

Coutance, is very fit for a wool manufactory, having all proper accommodations for that purpose. The wools grown there are excellent; the water good for dyeing, especially in scarlet. There are abundance of teazles. They were once famous; but the war of the league having dispersed the chief manufacturers into other parts, they make only at present some petty druggets, called belinges, and other slight stuffs partly of thread, and partly of the wool of the country. The rest of the wool is sold to other fabrics of the province, especially at St Lo, where the antient manufacture of serge of Coutance remains.

At Bayeux is made cloth, serges and ratines: they are good of their kind. At Fresne and St Pierre d'Antremont they make partly serge, like that of Caen, partly slight stuffs of thread and wool, all of wool of the country.

There is a great quantity of wool grown in the generality of Caen, but of different qualities, according to the place; those that grow about the city of Caen are worst; those that grow from Bayeux as far as Cherborough, and all along the coast, are the best: these last are employed at St Lo, Vire, Valogne, and Cherborough.

The generality of Alençon is very considerable for the manufacture of cloth, and other drapery. They make there 50 or 52,000 pieces, and mark besides 16,000. Besides the wool of the country, they are supplied from neighbouring provinces.

At Alençon they make strong serge, $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, etamines, $\frac{3}{4}$ ell, crapes the same. At Leez, some slight drapery, viz. serges, etamines. Argentan the same. Falais for the most part, serge sur estain, ell wide; serge tremieres, $\frac{7}{8}$, &c. Liseux, a quantity of woollen stuffs, called frocs. Vernevil, serge croisée, all of wool, druggets, thread, and wool. Dreux, cloth, strong serges, serges after the fashion of LONDON, estamats, and demi-estamats; these last are called linings, because they are employed to line cloth.

Aumale gives its name to a manufacture of serge much esteemed; they reckon near 1200 looms at work there, and round about. It is the only fabric of the king in the king-

dom; they reckon the commerce there amounts to 2,000,000 when wool is at a reasonable price.

Nogent le Retrou is a town of the province of Perche, but of the department* of the manufactories of Alençon. The stuffs there made are of three sorts, etamines, of wool, others of wool and silk; druggets, thread and wool; above 400 looms are employed there. The yarn made use of in etamines comes for the most part from Mortagne, to the value of 200,000 livres per annum.

* The kingdom of France, where is any woollen manufacture, is cantoned into several departments, or districts, called generalities, with an inspector to each, and superintendent-general of the whole: and thus we come by this more particular account of the woollen manufacture in France than of any other kingdom besides.

At Souence are made etamines, some all of wool, others of wool and silk. At Ecouchay, strong serge, ell-wide, and serge tremieres, $\frac{7}{8}$. At Laigle, partly serges, partly etamines, and the light slight stuffs.

At Vitre, serges are made of thread and coarse wool of the country, from 12 to 20 sols the ell: there are also etamines, from 15 to 30 sols per ell.

In Bretagne are employed 800 looms, in making slight stuffs of wool, viz. etamines, druggets, serges, moletops, crapes, and narrow cloths, of the wool of the country. The principal places are Nantes, Rennes, Bourg, Dinan, St Brieux, Lamballe, Chateau-Briant, Nozay, Redon, Joffelin, Le Guay de Pletant, St Croix, Auvray, Vannes, Malefroit, Rochefort, Chateaneuf, Lengonna, and Raviliac.

Of the commerce of BOURGOGNE, and the generality.

As great numbers of sheep are depastured in Burgundy, so wool is a very considerable commodity there: one part whereof is employed by the manufacturers of the province, who are numerous; the other part, which is not fit for their use, is bought up by the merchants of the neighbouring provinces.

In the room of which, some is also bought from Rheims and Troie, more proper for certain manufactures, viz. for serge, after the fashion of London and Siegnelay, where they mix the wool of Troie and Rheims with those of Auxerrois, which are the best in Burgundy. The principal manufacturers are, cloths of Beaune, Vitaux, Semur, Saulies, Montbart, Rovray, Avalon, Auxerrois, Nuits, Pont le Vauz, Autun, Jogny, Sens, Villeneuve, l'Archeveque, Bigny, and Ancy la France.

The manufactures of serges of all sorts, especially cloth-serges, and serges after the fashion of London, are not less considerable; they make them at Dijon, Marcy, Auxerre, in the hospital, as well as in that of Beaune, at Siegnelay, Amay le Duc, Auxonne, Chatillon upon Scine, and Chaffnelles. Druggets, tiretaines, tolanches, are made at Samur, Montbart, Auxerre, Nuits, Beaune, Louhans, Clungy, Macon, and Montluet; also in some of those cities, and especially at Autun, crapes called frater and freilles, three quarters and half wide. The business of stockings, after the fashion of Havre and England, is carried on at Dijon.

Of the state of the woollen manufacture of DAUPHINY and PROVENCE.

Grenoble is the chief place of the fabrics round about; they make cloth: at Virin, and five parishes, are made druggets, and coarse cloths: at Turio, and nine parishes, cloth only: St-Marcellin, and four parishes, cloth only: at Roybon, and seven parishes, cloth, ratines, and serge. At Serre, and eight parishes, cloths only: At Beaurepaire, cloths, as also in three parishes belonging to it. At St Jean en Royans, and six parishes, stuffs, and above 1000 pieces of cloth. This place is very commodious for a manufactory, by reason of its water. At Romans, and in 12 parishes, the most considerable of the whole province, (except Dienlefit) are made of four sorts of drapery, viz. cordelats 2000 pieces, ratines 1000, estameux 14 or 1500, cloths 15 or 1600. At Pont en Royans, and 17 parishes, are made cloths only; at Crest, and 13 places, ratines and cordelats.

At Montelimat is the greatest manufactory; they reckon up 25 places where ratines and sergettes are made: Toliman, and nine parishes, make sergettes: Dien de Fit, and 20 places, make sergettes only: Buis, and three places, sergettes and cordelets: Valence, cloths and ratines: Vienne, and 17 places, make druggets.

The wool of Provence is employed in different manufactures of stuffs and hats. Their woollen manufacture is, cloth made all of Spanish wool, and caps of the wool of the country.

At Toulon are made two sorts of pinchinets; one all of Spanish wool, the other only of the wool of the country. The cadis, and cordelats are made of the wool of Provence, viz. in Aix, Gordes, Apt, Ayquires, Auriol, Signe, Colmars, Digne, La Roque, Mauve, Soleres, Cuers, Pequant, Camoulles, Luc, Draguman, Lorgnes. They make also in Colmart and Digne, and thereabouts, cloths three quarters

and half wide, which are sold partly in the kingdom, and partly in Savoy.
 In many places of the principality of Orange, they make serge $\frac{3}{4}$ wide. At Arles, narrow raze; at Grignan, fergettes; all of wool of the country.

Of the commerce of LANGUEDOC.

The manufactures of wool established in the two generalities of Languedoc are, cloth, cadis, burats, serges, ratines, cordelats, bays, crapes, razes, tiretaines, druggets; the greatest part for the Levant, as the matrons and Londrins; the others for the Swifs and Germans, &c.

The places where these are made are, Rieux, Granges des Pres, Lodever, Carcaffone, Limoux, Castres, Alby, Alet, St Colombe, Lauclanet, Leiffac, La Grace, Saptès, Chelabre, Mezanet, Ferriers, Caune, Bedarrieux, St Sivran, Quiffac, St Hypolite, Bauzely, Vigan, Ganges, Saumennas, Anduze, Alais, St Gervais, Sommieres, Gardonnaque, Salle, Beziere, Aniane, and Beaucaire.

The wool employed in these manufactures is partly of the country, but the greatest part is brought from Marseilles, by the merchants of Montpellier, who buy them unwashed, and after they have dressed them, sell them, at the fairs of Pezanes and Montagnac, to the manufacturers.

At Alby in High Languedoc are but two sorts of manufactures, cordelats and bayettes, the former of the wool of the country. At Carcaffone the cloths are made of wool of Bezier, Narbonne, and Spain. At Saptès the manufacture* of cloth is very considerable, the wool Spanish, from the merchants of Toulonne, Bayonne, and Marseilles. Limoux and Alet, the cloths there are made of the wool of the country, and of Rouffillon. Saiffac, a manufactory of common cloth. La Grape, cloths; Montagne de Carcaffone, cloths of different colours and breadths; Castres, bayettes, burets, and coronines; Meizant, and it's dependencies, cordelats, white and mufc; Boiffafon, cordelats; Varres, serge; Ferrieres, serge; Caune, coarse cloths; Bedarrieux, two sorts of manufacture, one of druggets, the other of cloths; St Pons la Balhde, white cloths; St Chiman, white cloths, from 3 livres 10 sols, to 4 livres 10 sols per ell.

The manufacture of cloth at Lodeve is very considerable, and in great esteem; they make 45,000 pieces, white and grey. At Montpellier, stuffs, blankets, hats, fustians; the blanket-manufactory is very considerable. At Quiffac is a considerable munufacture of cadis; Sauve the same; St Hipolite cadis, 75 looms; Bauzely ditto, 60 looms; Vigan cloths and cadis, a very considerable manufacture; Ganges, some cadis; Alais, serge, cadis, ratines, 90 looms; Usez, serge, 60 or 70 looms; St Gignaux, cadis, 40 looms; Sommieres, cloth serge, ratines, and cadis; St Jean de Gardonnengue, cadis; La Salle, cadis, 30 looms; Nîmes, a considerable manufacture of cloth and stockings; Narbonne, knit stockings.

At Bezieres are different manufactures of wool, especially of fine cloth and druggets, like those of Badrieux, sold chiefly to Germany. The royal manufactory of fine cloths, established at Clermont, is very considerable: there are also private manufactures there. The manufacture of hats is also the most considerable in Languedoc. Aniane has a manufacture of cadis; Beaucaire, of cadis and stockings, and hats; St Andre de Val Borgne, cadis and hats; Marvais, cadis and hats.

The Sieur de Varenne, having brought workmen from Holland, undertook to make cloths for the Levant trade. Saptès, near Carcaffone, was the place where he first established it; and we may consider it as the model and mother of all the others in the province of Languedoc. That of Clermont and Lodeve followed soon after, viz. in 1678. The states of Languedoc lent them 130,000 livres for many years, without interest, and gave them besides, by way of bounty, a pistole for every piece of fine cloth made there*.

* Let it always be remembered, as it appears in a great variety of instances throughout this work, that when FRANCE has attempted to establish any new manufacture, and to supplant other nations in any valuable branch of trade, they have ever given such encouragements, in some shape or other, to effectuate it.

The third manufactory is that of Carcaffone, established and maintained by the Sieur Castenir, which has not succeeded less than that of Saptès, and Clermont Lodeve. The province gave him the same advantages as to the two other royal manufactories. The estates of Languedoc have since added two others, with the same encouragements, one at Rieux, under the conduct of the Sieur Guise, a Dutchman; the other in the Castle de la Grange des Pres, near Penzenas, under the direction of the French manufacturers.

The last royal manufactory of Languedoc is that of Monf. Chamberlin, established also under the authority of the states. It does not make for the Levant trade, but only woollen stuffs after the fashion of England, for the Spanish trade.

The annual product and manufacture of LANGUEDOC in the following articles is,

	livres.
Sheep	1,000,000
Fustians and bafins	90,000
Blankets	230,000
Bergames and tapestry	20,000
Woollen stuffs, fine and coarse	4,100,000
Cloths, fine and others	8,450,000
Woollen stockings	40,000
Hats	400,000
Total	14,330,000

They import wool of Spain, Constantinople, Salle, Algier, and other parts of Barbary, 40,000 quintals.

Of the commerce of LOW NAVARRE and BERN, FLANDERS, the AUSTRIAN LOW COUNTRIES, LORRAINE and BAR.

The wool of Navarre is good, and passes for Spanish wool; the finest sorts are bought by French merchants of different provinces; of the others they make some coarse stuffs for clothing of the common people.

The product of Flanders, is corn, cattle, wool, &c. Their manufacture, cloth, serges, ratines, and other woollen goods, and stuffs mixed with silk and thread; camlets, damasks, tapestry, stockings and breeches, and other works of Bonneterie, knit and wove; burats, crapes, blankets, and the like; all these at Lisse.

At Roubais and Turcoing there are many looms for stuffs of wool, or silk and wool, made chiefly for the Spanish trade, and other foreign countries; some are brought to France, and even to Paris. At Menin they make hats of wool; at Tournay stockings of wool, moquettes (a kind of pluff) the stockings are for Spain and the West-Indies.

There are also a number of different manufactories; those of fine cloths, that were once so flourishing throughout this province (where it was said were 400 looms) are now only at Ypres, Baiteul, and Poperingue. Their dyeing in scarlet is very fine in the first of those three cities; and they make also there, as well as at Hanscotte and some other places, serge which is greatly esteemed.

At Bruges is the great magazine of Spanish and English wool, &c. that serves to supply the manufactories of that important city. The stuffs made there, among others, are anacostes, lamparilles, and serges fit for Spain and the Spanish Indies, also bay and some camlets.

The woollen manufactures of Lorraine and Bar are only at St Nicholas and St Mary, and Aux Mines; the cloths are coarse.

Of the commerce of the three bishoprics, METZ, TOUL, and VERDUN, of ALSACE, ROUSILLON.

The best manufactures of wool in the three bishoprics, are at Metz, and thereabouts; they are not very antient, especially some of them, but have arrived to such perfection, and the trade is so great, that the COUNCIL ROYAL* OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE thought it necessary, in the beginning of the 18th century, to establish an INSPECTOR† of them. They make ratines of all sorts, different kinds of light serge for women's wear, cloth like pinchinats for the country people, and some druggets.

* The ROYAL COUNCIL OF COMMERCE for the advancement of the trade of the kingdom of France in general, as an institution, we may presume to say, superior to any other of this kind throughout the whole world. It had it's commencement the 29th of June 1700, and from that time the trade of this nation has been wonderfully increased. For the nature and constitution of this royal council, and also of the DEPUTIES OF THE COUNCIL OF TRADE in France, see the article FRENCH AMERICA.

† This is another admirable institution for the encouragement of manufactures in France, which is not to be paralleled in Christendom. See the article MANUFACTURES.

Toul and Verdun are less considerable in their manufactures; they knit woollen stockings in all their cities and round about; those of Metz are most esteemed.

At Strafsburg, the capital of Alsace, the woollen manufacture is tapestry, narrow cloths, blankets, fustians.

The wool of Rouffillon is fine, almost of the same quality with Spanish wool; therefore the manufacturers of France buy there every year, for considerable sums; and, though Rouffillon has no considerable manufactory, yet they make blankets, and some kind of bures or coarse cloths.

Of other branches of the trade of FRANCE.

The principal produce of France is their wine and their brandy, and their vinegar. Besides the quantity they consume

fame among themselves, they send abroad to foreign countries, according to a moderate computation that has been made, above 40,000 ton of wine annually from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Nantes, and the lesser ports thereabouts, and 25,000 ton of brandy and vinegar at least.

This extraordinary exportation of itself is enough to enrich a country. Next to these are the exportation of linen from France, which has many years proved, and still continues to do so, a very capital article in the commerce of that kingdom, by the exportation thereof to foreign countries: and the flax being of their own growth, as well as the workmanship the labour of their own people, this enhances the estimation of this great manufacture. Yet since Scotland and Ireland have made so exquisite a proficiency in the linen manufactures, we have abated in our imports of the French linens; though, it is greatly to be feared, that the quantity which is smuggled into this nation, and sold even for our own as well as those of Silesia, are very considerable. But as this is likely soon to come again before the consideration of parliament, we hope that an entire stop will be put to so great an evil.

And, since the admirable improvement in the silk manufactures of this kingdom at Spitalfields, near the city of London, the importation of this manufacture from France has greatly declined.

Yet the wrought silks of France are still extremely profitable to that nation, and are used for cloathing the ladies in most of the courts and countries of Europe. They have a vast trade for them in Germany, to which their frontiers join a great way up the Rhine, and from whence they send great quantities of manufactures quite thro' Swabia, Franconia, Bavaria, and even into Austria, Hungary, and Poland.

Nor is their commerce less in proportion into the Lower Germany, particularly upon the Meuse and the Moselle to the countries of Lorraine, Cologne, Munster, and throughout all the circles of the Lower Saxony, the Upper Saxony, Mentz, Triers, and Westphalia.

The Normandy window-glass of France is the same for kind, of which so great a quantity is now made in England, and which we call crown-glass. England formerly had it only from France, and imported annually large quantities of it; whereas they now make so much in England, that they not only supply themselves, but send it to other countries. The like is to be said of all sorts of plate-glass, for coaches, looking-glasses, &c. all which the English were formerly supplied with from France. However, the French have a very great trade for this glass still, as well for their own use, as to send to Germany, Switzerland, and even into Italy itself.

REMARKS BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

Their fabric of glass, at St Gobin, is esteemed one of the finest in all Europe. They are said to run plate-glass to great perfection, and of larger extent than in any part of Europe. In confirmation of which, it may not be improper to mention an instance of my own knowledge, which happened a few years ago. An eminent merchant, of St Petersburg in Russia, sent over a commission to England for the purchase of a quantity of plate-glass, to be fixed in the manner of our wainscot pannel, in some public room in the empress's royal palace; the exact dimensions of which I do not recollect, but the commission would not have amounted to much less than 2000 l. Accordingly I went to the glass-house at Vauxhall, belonging to Mess. Bowles and Dawson; and, talking with Mr. Dawson upon the occasion, he told me, that they had not conveniencies ready built for the running of glass of such large dimensions; and that to erect proper conveniencies for that purpose would be so expensive, that it would not answer; orders of that nature being so very uncommon, and perhaps they might never have another of the like kind, and therefore it could not be executed in England.—But this commission, as I was afterwards informed, being sent to France, was there executed.

They have also no inconsiderable share in the fisheries of various kinds [see the article FISHERIES] which has greatly promoted their brood of seamen, and increased their maritime power.

Their scarcity of black cattle makes them scarce of leather; wherefore they drive a great trade to St Domingo for hides, and buy abundance also in Spain and Portugal; the Spaniards bringing them from Buenos Ayres, and the Portuguese from the Brasils; notwithstanding which, they have a pretty large quantity from England and Ireland, such as calve's leather and neat's leather.

Their salt is partly a monopoly in the hands of the government, and is sold out to the subjects in an arbitrary manner, and at an excessive price. [See the article SALT.] What they sent abroad, is bought of the officers of the crown, and at a more tolerable price: this is what we call bay-salt principally, because it is made at several places in the bay of Biscay.

The colonies and plantations of France, like those of other European nations, are chiefly in America; and next to those

of the Spaniards, are the greatest in that part of the world, as to their extent on the continent, and the number of the islands. The Portuguese colony in Brasil is perhaps richer with regard to gold and diamonds, than the French: but, for largeness of territory, the French in Canada, and in their Mississippi pretensions, almost exceed any other nations. See the articles CANADA and FRENCH AMERICA.

The French colony of Canada, is a very valuable and important settlement upon the river of Canada, and the great bay or gulph of St Laurence, in which the French have extended themselves so far, as from within ten leagues of the English factory at Hudon's-Bay [see the article HUDON'S-BAY COMPANY,] to within about two leagues of Hudon's river, which runs into the sea at New-York, being from latitude $41\frac{1}{2}$, to latitude $51\frac{1}{2}$ —But, to leave the description of the extent of the French territories on the continent of America, we refer to the article CANADA, and to the article FRENCH AMERICA; we shall, at present, only speak to the trade of America in general, as connectively considered with the other commerce of France; lest, it's being separately and disjointedly viewed, the reader should not take that comprehensive survey of the whole trade of France together, which may enable him to form a right judgment thereof, when compared with that of other nations.

The grand product of this colony is corn and furs. This country chiefly supplies Cape Breton, and all the fishing vessels which resort thither, and which are very numerous, with grain in general, the island of Gaspe not yielding any quantity of corn sufficient for them.—Canada also supplies the French island colonies with corn, as we shall see presently; but these exportations do not carry off a quantity equal to the growth of such a vastly extended country as this of Canada.

The other exportations are peltry, viz. furs and skins, of which the principal produce is the beaver. They have a great variety of skins of other wild creatures, which these countries produce in common with the rest of North America: but the beaver is the chief, both as it is the most profitable and most numerous. See the article BEAVER.

So great is the multitude of beavers here, that the French in Canada are said to send over to France several hundred thousands of their skins every year; and yet they do not find the plenty of beavers to abate, but they are rather ready to over-run the whole country.

Besides beaver-skins, they take an immense quantity of other sorts of creatures, whose furs are valuable in Europe, and make a very large branch of commerce, considered as wrought up into divers general manufactures.—Such as the skins of otters, deer, bear, elk, buffaloe, mink, wild horse, wild cat, musquash, raccoon, fisher, martin, fox, white, ditto black, very valuable, bullock, &c.

At the mouth of the great river St Laurence, the French carry on the great fishery, commonly known by the name of the white fishing, or cod fishing of Newfoundland: how highly injurious this is to Great-Britain, and beneficial to France, [see the article BRITISH AMERICA.] For, though the island of Newfoundland is now wholly a colony of Great-Britain, yet it is certain, that the French employ more ships in this fishing than the English, and catch a much greater quantity; the reason whereof is, that the French carry the fish not into Spain and Italy only, but also to their own country, to Marfeilles and Toulon, and to the ports of France in the ocean; the French themselves eating much fish, especially in Lent; whereas the English bring little or none from thence, but what they sell to the Spaniards and the Portuguese, or Italians: the English, who keep little Lent, and being no fish eaters, in comparison to Roman Catholic countries.

Besides, the whole coast of Britain supplies so great a quantity of the same sort of fish, as well as of divers others, that they catch more by far at their own doors, than their home consumption calls for.

Quebec, west long. 74. lat. 47. 35. the capital of the French colonies in North America, situate on the west side of the river St Laurence, 300 miles north-west of Boston. This city is fortified, and defended by a castle: the English have made two or three unsuccessful attempts to reduce it, and had probably effected it the last time, but they entered on this expedition too late in the year, and wanted good pilots to carry them up the river of St Laurence, which occasioned the loss of some transports, and several hundred soldiers, in the latter end of the reign of queen Anne. The viceroy of Canada who resides at Quebec, styles himself governor, and captain-general of New France and Louisiana; which, according to the French, comprehends all Canada and Florida, of which the British colonies are a part; and no doubt they will attempt to drive our people into the sea, in the language of a French writer, if we suffer them to continue their incroachments on our frontiers, and do not possess ourselves of the lakes which lie between Canada and Florida.

There are two seasons in which ships sail from France to this country, viz. towards the end of April, or the beginning of May, and at the close of August, or beginning of September,

ber, that they may arrive as the ice is just broke, or a little before it is formed, there being no going thither all the rest of the year.

The French ships, employed in this trade, export all their goods custom-free, neither are they liable to any duties in Canada, except for Brasil tobacco, upon which there is about 20 s. sterling per hundred weight. The cargo of these vessels is much the same with what is sent to the French islands, and, as we shall mention that presently, we need not do it here.—We shall observe, however, that tobacco, sugar, and some other West-Indian commodities, make a part of those cargoes, the soil and climate of Canada not affording the like; and, for the same reason, there is a difference in the woollen goods exported thither, coarse cloths being sent to Canada, and thin and light stuffs to the French island colonies in America. The profits upon the goods are very large, seldom less than 50 per cent. and those that go off best are of least use, such as ribbands, laces, snuff-boxes, watches, rings, necklaces, &c.

As soon as the vessels arrive at Quebec, the merchants there send away the greatest part of their cargoes that are fit for the Indian trade to Montreal, and the THREE RIVERS where they have factors; but the finest goods remain at Quebec, and are sold among the French themselves; all their merchandize is paid for in money, in bills of exchange upon the merchants of Rochelle, in furs, or in lumber.

It seldom happens that these ships return full laden into France, the colony not producing roomy goods; and therefore, that their voyages may turn to the better account, they generally run down to Cape Breton, and there take in a large quantity of coal for the French sugar islands.

The next point requisite to be noticed in this part of America, possessed by the French, is Cape Breton, or the Isle Royal, as the French have christened it.—But having, under the article BRITISH AMERICA and FISHERIES, taken some notice hereof, and intending to make some addition thereto under the article FRENCH AMERICA, where we shall consider these points more minutely, we shall only observe here for the present, that, according to Charlevoix, the climate of this island is much the same with that of Quebec. Indeed, all the lands here are not good, nevertheless they produce trees of all sorts. There are oaks of a prodigious size, pines for masts, and all sorts of timber for carpentry work; the most common sorts, besides the oak, are the cedar, ash, maple, plane-tree, and aspin; fruits, particularly apples, pulse, herbs, and roots; wheat and all other grain necessary for sustenance; hemp and flax abound here less, but are every whit as good as in Canada.

All the domestic animals, such as horses, horned cattle, hogs, sheep, goats, and poultry, thrive well here. What is got by hunting, shooting, and fishing, is able to maintain the inhabitants a good part of the year. This island abounds in coal-pits. There is no part of the world where more cod-fish are caught, nor where there is so good conveniency for drying it. The fishery also of sea-pike, porpuffes, &c. is in great abundance here, and carried on with great ease.

The harbour of Louisbourg, called English Harbour, when this island was in English hands, is not above a league from the bay of Gaborie, and is, perhaps, one of the finest in America; it is near four leagues in circumference, and every where there are six or seven fathom water; the anchorage is very good, and you may, without danger, run a ship a-ground upon the mud.

After the cession of Placentia and Acadia to the crown of England, it is certain, the French had no other place, where they could dry their fish, or even fish in safety, but the island of Cape Breton. They began by changing it's name, and called it the Royal Island. The cod-fishing here is very abundant; they fish there from the beginning of April to the end of December, which employs many hundred sail of French shipping, and is a grand nursery of their seamen. See the article FISHERIES.

From our map of NORTH AMERICA, and our notes and explanation thereof, together with what we have said under the article BRITISH AMERICA, and what we shall also say under the article FRENCH AMERICA, the reader will be enabled to judge of the great designs of France upon the continent of America, from Canada to Florida, [see likewise the articles of CANADA and FLORIDA] comprehending all their settlements upon the Mississippi, and the country round about it, which is called Louisiana. See LOUISIANA. These French colonies being upon the borders of the whole range of British colonies upon the continent, and the French exerting their utmost policy to cement friendships, and making interesting alliances with the Indian nations, who are as well neighbours to them as to us, and exciting these people frequently to commit hostilities against the English; the security of our northern colonies calls aloud for due attention to the measures of the French in this part of the world, and to keep a vigilant eye upon them, lest they should one day be capable of doing us unspeakable injury in this part of America. [See the article FRENCH AMERICA.

REMARKS since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Thus stood our work in the two last editions, before the last war; wherein it will appear, that we have not proved false

prophets, and amused the public with visionary speculations, with relation to the late conduct of France towards this kingdom: on the contrary, our judgment being grounded on FACTS, the inferences we naturally and unbiassedly deduced therefrom, we have experienced to have come to pass.

With regard to CANADA and all it's DEPENDENCIES, the same are ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, which has been the consequence of the last war: and with respect to the Caribbee Islands, we have already noticed, under the article of AMERICA, where we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY at large, in what manner the said treaty has disposed of them: we have likewise represented that matter under our article BRITISH AMERICA and FRENCH AMERICA, as was requisite, in pursuance of the plan of this performance: and that the reader may not mistake us, we are obliged, where necessary, to make our REMARKS, consistent with the DEFINITIVE TREATY: to the end also, that the state of public affairs may appear in their true light, we have rather chose to let them stand as they were represented by us before the war, than only as they now are. For, by so doing, we shall be able the more impartially to make a truer judgment, how far the said DEFINITIVE TREATY has removed those COMPLAINTS on our side, that occasioned the last war. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS.

Of the FRENCH ISLANDS in AMERICA, as they stood before the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, took place.

To begin with Granada: it is situate in 12 degrees north latitude, about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and about the like distance north of Caribbiana, or New Andalusia: this island is 25 leagues in circumference, and has several good bays and harbours, some of which are fortified. It is esteemed a fruitful soil, and well watered; producing sugar, and such other plants as are found in the rest of the Caribbee-Islands; there are abundance of very small islands that lie at the north end of Granada, which are called the GRANADILLAS, or GRANADINES. Martinico is situated between 14 and 15 degrees north latitude, and in 61 degrees of western longitude, lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes. It is 20 leagues in length, but of an unequal breadth. There are several commodious bays and harbours on the coast, some of them so well fortified, that they bid defiance to the English, when they made a descent there with several thousand men in the last war. The produce of this island is the same with the English island of Barbadoes, and has been the great instrument, in conjunction with Guardaloupe, of enabling the French to rival us in the sugar trade at foreign markets. Marigalante is situated in 16 degrees north latitude, a little to the south-west of Guardaloupe, and is about five leagues in length and four in breadth. Du Pleffis says, 'tis full of hills, and abounds with tobacco.

The island is covered with trees, among which is the cinnamon-tree, that is always verdant, and it's other products are the same with the rest of the Caribbees.

Guardaloupe is situate in 16 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees of western longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and near as much south of Antigua. It is said to be the largest of all the Caribbee Islands, being 22 leagues in length, and half as much in breadth at each end. This, like Martinico, abounds in sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. and is in a very flourishing condition as well as Martinico; and agreeable to the consequence it is of to the French, they have taken care to fortify it with several regular forts and redoubts. This island makes more sugar now than any of the British Islands, except Jamaica.

Desfada, or Diserada, the Desirable Island, so called by Columbus, it being the first land he discovered in his second voyage to America, anno 1493. It lies 10 leagues north-east of Guardaloupe. It is but a small island, nor so fruitful as others that belong to the French.

St Bartholomew's is another small island, about 10 leagues north of St Christopher's. St Croix, or Santa Cruz, another small island, lying 17 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about 20 leagues east of Christopher's, and St Martin's, another small island, of no great consequence.

St Domingo belongs partly to the Spaniards, and partly to the French. It lies between Cuba and Jamaica on the north-west and south-west, and Porto Rico on the east, and separated from the last by only a narrow channel. It extends from longitude 67 35, to longitude 74 15, and from latitude 17 37, to latitude 20, being near 400 miles from west to east, and almost 120 where broadest from north to south; and by some reckoned 400 leagues in circumference, exclusive of it's bays, creeks, &c. which, 'tis said, would make 200 more.

This island, which is the greatest of all the Antilles, [see the article ANTILLES ISLANDS] is the most fruitful, and by much the pleafantest in the West Indies; having vast forests of palms, elms, oaks, pines, the juniper, caramite, acajou, &c.—In the meadows, there are innumerable heads of black cattle; horses enough in the western part, which belongs to the French, to supply all their neighbouring colonies.—There is scarce a country in the world better watered by navigable rivers full of fish, as the coast is of crocodiles and tortoises. It

It has many mines of gold, silver, and copper, which, though wrought formerly to great profit, the Spaniards at present find themselves too weak to carry them on for their own advantage, and take care to conceal them from the French.—The chief commodities of this island are hides, sugar, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, salt, wax, honey, ambergrace, and various kinds of drugs and dyer's wood.—The French here are said to outnumber the Spaniards, though both together are short of what the extent and fertility of the island is capable of maintaining.

It's principal trade consisted for many years in tobacco, in which, 'tis said, there have been from 60 to 100 ships employed, but that sunk to nothing on the establishing an exclusive farm of this commodity in France, and sugar afterwards became the staple commodity of the island: some think 'tis the very best that is made in the West-Indies, and generally it yields 3 or 4s. per hundred more than that of any of their other islands.—It was computed in 1726, that there were then 200 sugar works in this island; that, one year with another, they made 400 hogheads of sugar, each of 500 weight, and that it brought in 200,000 l. sterling per ann. to the French, and the indigo is reckoned to produce half as much. This French colony is allowed to be the most considerable and important that they have in these parts, and would be much more so, could they get a cession of the other part from the Spaniards, which they have extremely at heart, but 'tis hoped will never obtain, they being already possessed of so many noble harbours and forts, as give them an opportunity of disturbing and ruining the commerce of any nations which they happen to be at war with.

The island of Martinico is the chief of the French settlements; the governor-general and intendants reside there; it is also the seat of the sovereign council, which has jurisdiction, not only throughout the Antilles, but also over the French settlements in St Domingo and Tortuga. The number of people in this island are affirmed to be 10,000 whites, and 20,000 negroes. Whence it appears, that the French are very numerous in these islands; and, though they have been exposed to many great difficulties in establishing those plantations, yet they are now brought to a very flourishing condition, and are daily improving them to the utmost.

The principal commodity the French raise at present in these islands, is sugar, whereas formerly it was tobacco. Mons. De Poincy was the first who taught them the art of raising the sugar-cane, and curing the juice of it. He was a man of such extraordinary genius, that he improved upon the method then in use at Brasil and the Madeiras; the mills he caused to be erected, were stronger, neater, and better fitted for use; and his furnaces likewise were contrived to much greater advantage; so that he not only introduced it, but carried the art of sugar-making to a very high degree of perfection.

Besides sugar, the French raise a great deal of indigo.—They also cultivate cacao to great advantage, and draw considerable profit from the ginger, cassia, and piemento, or what we call Jamaica pepper, or all-spice, of which they export considerable quantities.—They also manufacture rocou, for the use of the dyers, and send home variety of medicinal gums, and wet sweet-meats of divers kinds.—These islands produce two several sorts of valuable woods, which are used for dyeing, inlaying, and cabinet-work; such as rose-wood, which, when wrought and polished, has a very beautiful appearance, as well as a fine smell.—The Indian wood is also of the same nature, and the iron-wood, so called from it's excessive hardness, is esteemed preferable either to cedar or cypress; Brasil wood they have in great quantities, and braziletto, yellow wood, or suttic, and green ebony, which is used both by the cabinet-makers and dyers. We may add, to these commodities, raw hides and tortoise-shell, and then the reader will have a tolerable comprehension of the riches of the French in the West-Indies; which added to their fisheries at Newfoundland and Cape-Breton, their peltry trade in Canada, and all their commerce with the Indian nations in their immense territory of Louisiana, must give us an extraordinary idea of the state of their commercial interests in America.

But, that nothing essential may be omitted, to enable our readers to form a right judgment of the benefits of the American commerce to France, it is necessary to give an account of the trade of these islands with their mother country, and of the effects thereof to the kingdom in general.

To which end, it is to be considered, that, though these islands produce so many rich and estimable commodities, yet they stand in need of very large supplies of various kinds of necessaries, without which they could not subsist; such as horses, and cattle of all kinds; corn, roots, dry fish, and all sorts of lumber, of which they receive considerable quantities from Canada, and the rest from our northern colonies, in exchange for sugar, tobacco, indigo, and other goods, which are sent to Canada, and for molasses to our colonies, where it is distilled into rum, of which kind of commerce we shall speak more largely under FRENCH AMERICA.

The inhabitants of these islands stand always in want of negroes, with which they were formerly supplied by their own

African and Senegal companies, which have been long ago united to the French East-India company, by whom this slave-trade is now carried on with great regularity, and extraordinary advantage.—The negroes are sent to Martinico, where they are purchased by the planters of the other islands, at a settled price of so many hogheads of sugar a-head, as in the Spanish ports they are bought for so many pieces of eight.

The quantities of sugar, together with their other productions, that are raised in the French sugar islands in America, employ in this trade about 400 ships, from the burden of 100 to 300 tons. The time in which they sail from France is between September and February, that they may avoid as much as possible, the hurricanes, and arrive in a fit season for completing their cargoes.

The vessels from Rochelle and Bourdeaux, are, generally speaking, laden with salt beef and pork, flour, brandy, all sorts of wine of the growth of that part of France, and also Madeira, which they take in that island; dried cod, pickled herrings oil, cheese, butter, tallow, iron, linen, and most sorts of mercery goods. The ships from Roan seldom carry provisions, but are freighted with woollen and linen goods, silk, ribbons, shoes, stockings of all sorts, hats, tin, copper, and brass ware, small arms, and sword blades, pewter, pins, needles, paper, pens, cards, and an infinite number of other things of the same kind. The ships from Marfeilles and Toulon are freighted with oil, dried fruit, wines, and several kinds of light stuffs, that are manufactured in Provence. Thus we see what prodigious advantages these settlements bring to France, by encouraging industry, employing a large number of ships, and consequently, raising and maintaining many hundreds of seamen. It is no wonder, therefore, that the French government pay so much attention to this important branch of their traffic, and are so careful in taking every possible method to encourage these colonies, and to protect their trade, which, however, suffered considerably in the wars of king William and queen Anne, and still more considerably at the beginning of the late war: which effectually convinced us that the commerce of the sugar colonies of France was far greater than we ever imagined.

Before we quit this subject, it is necessary to observe, that on the south side of the French part of St Domingo, there lies a little island, called Avache, at the distance of about 12 leagues from the continent; which is about nine leagues in compass, the soil very good, and there are two or three tolerable ports, one of which is capable of receiving ships of 300 tons. This island lies very convenient for carrying on a trade with the Spanish colonies on the continent of America; and, sooner or later, the French will, in that respect, make it turn to good account.—It is also very commodious for maintaining an intercourse with the only settlement they have on the coast of South America, the island of Cayenne.

This island has been a French colony ever since the year 1625; it lies close by the continent of Guiana, and only cut off, and made an island, by the rivers of Ovia on the east, and Cayenne on the west; from which last it takes its name. The town and fort, where the great road is; at the mouth of the river Guiana, are exactly in 4 degrees, 50 minutes of north latitude, and 3 degrees 32 minutes of east longitude, from Ferro. It is reckoned about 18 or 20 leagues in compass, standing high on the coast, and looks, at a distance, like part of the continent.

The soil of Cayenne, by reason of the continual rains, produces plenty of sugar-canes, which, though small and short-jointed, yield very plentifully; also mandioca, Indian wheat, rocou, cotton, acajou-apples, baellias, pete, ebony, letter, and violet-wood, anana's, tuberoses, very fine and large papia's, and several sorts of American and European grain and feed, besides lemons, oranges, indigo, and figs, &c.—The country abounds in wild boars, deer, agontils, woodcocks, ortelans, nightingales, anes, occo's, and other birds, remarkable chiefly for their delicious feathers.

The colony is partly subsisted by provisions brought from France in merchant ships, by way of trade, which commonly are wine, brandy, meal, and powdered or salt meat, for beef is very scarce there; besides that, they are not allowed to kill any, nor calves neither, without leave of the governor, that cattle may multiply in the island. All sorts of linen clothing, stuffs, silks, shoes, and other wearing apparel, are also carried thither from France, for the use of men, women, and children; and all sorts of tools and small wares, either for the service of the colony, or for the Amazons and Indian trade, are bartered for sugar, rocou, indico, tortoise-shell, tyger-skins, and other considerable curiosities of the country, which turn to no inconsiderable profit to the traders there.

The other necessary provisions of the product of the island are, manetada, and Indian wheat, of which each planter sows large quantities, both for the subsistence of their own families and slaves, and to sell to the other inhabitants.—The sea and river-fish, poultry, pigeons, quets, or ring doves, whereof there is great plenty, and delicate turkeys, hare, venison, agentils, hogs, and packs, are also a part of their subsistence.—The chief trade carried on here is an under-hand trade with the Dutch and the Portugeeze, and chiefly by the Jews, who re-
side

vide here; and what quantity of gold and silver they have is in their hands.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, with relation to the FRENCH ISLANDS in AMERICA.

In the last war Great-Britain conquered the following FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS in AMERICA, viz. The ISLAND OF GUARDALOUPE, MARIE GALANTE, DESIRADE, and MARTINICO, as well as CANADA on the CONTINENT, and CAPE BRETON. For the Definitive Treaty, see our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA.

At the peace, Great Britain gave up the said sugar islands, pursuant to the VIII article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and by the IX article of the said treaty, his most Christian majesty cedes and guaranties to his Britannic majesty, in full right, the islands of GRENADA, and the GRANADINES; and the partition of the islands, called NEUTRAL, is agreed and fixed, so that those of ST VINCENT, DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, shall remain in full right to Great Britain, and that of ST LUCIA, shall be delivered to France, to enjoy the same likewise in full right; and the contracting parties guaranty the partition stipulated. See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, AMERICA.

Of the EAST-INDIA and AFRICAN TRADES of FRANCE, as these articles stood before the last war.

It was under the reign of Henry IV. of France that this nation first attempted to share in the commerce of the Indies, which met but with bad success, till Monf. Colbert, so much distinguished by Lewis XIV. undertook the business. This active and intelligent minister conceived the design of reviving the French East-India company, notwithstanding all the misfortunes that company had met with, and which had, over and over, disappointed the skill and care of all his predecessors. But, before he made his intentions known to the public, he took care to make himself perfectly well instructed in the affair he undertook; which he did, by drawing to his acquaintance such merchants and seamen as were held to understand the subject best. And, although this company wanted no encouragement from the crown and the minister, yet, upon stating a general account in 1684, it appeared, that instead of gaining one penny by their commerce, they had run out about 300,000 pounds sterling, which was one half of their original capital stock.—These, and the subsequent misfortunes of the company, occasioned general clamours against it, and induced a general opinion, that it was absolutely impossible for the French nation to carry on a trade to the Indies with advantage.

But all these vexatious circumstances were nothing in comparison of the loss of their generous protector, Monf. Colbert, who was ready, at all times, to exert his influence in their favour.—The successor of Monf. Colbert was Monf. Pontchartrain, who neither wanted abilities or probity, but whose notions with respect to commerce were either crude or undigested, or, which was worse, narrow and obscure.—From the beginning of his administration he was no friend to this company, he crossing every thing they asked, and countenancing every attempt to injure them.

After a series of difficulties and discouragements, there still arose a new spirit in France of curbing and distressing this almost bankrupt company, under colour of augmenting the royal revenues, and protecting the manufactures, which afforded bread to the people: under which pretext, the company was first restrained from selling chintz, and other piece-goods to foreigners; which not only proved a great loss to the company, but to the French nation in general, among whom the money would have circulated for which the manufactures had been sold: whereas, by this prohibition, so much ready money was kept out of France, and not a thread more of their own manufactures vended.—They suffered many other obstructions to their prosperity, too tedious to enumerate.—And it was in particular the misfortune of the company, that, while they were distressed and maltreated abroad, to drive them out of the Indies, they were envied and persecuted at home, on account of the small trade they carried on, under the appearance of public spirit and concern for the poor, but, in reality, from private views and selfish principles.

The first seat of government of this principle in the Indies was at Madagascar; but, after the first Dutch war, they removed to Surat, and, after that, to Pondicherry.—This was in the beginning of the year 1674; and as the company at that time, had an extraordinary demand for piece-goods, they could not have settled in a better place.—This place was immediately well fortified by order of the court; so that in the year 1710, this place was become one of the most considerable in the Indies; and, if their affairs in Europe had kept pace with their improvements made in the Indies, the French company would soon have been upon a level with their neighbours, the English and the Dutch.

The settlement of Pondicherry becoming the capital residence of the French East-India company, it will be necessary to

give the reader some description of the place, and of the French government established there.—The town is situate in the province of Gingy, on the coast of Coromandel, in the latitude 12 degrees north, and in the longitude of 114 from the meridian of Paris.—It stands at a distance of 100 yards from the sea shore. The magazines of the company, and of private persons, are numerous and magnificent; a spacious and beautiful market-place, six fine gates, 11 bastions, for the defence of the walls, a regular citadel well fortified; upwards of 400 cannon upon their works, besides an excellent train of field pieces, bombs, mortars, and all sorts of military stores in their arsenal.—The governor lives with great splendor and dignity, and has, besides his own palace, another grand one, adjoining to a most beautiful garden, superbly furnished, for the reception of foreign princes and ambassadors, who, whenever they resort thither, are treated with infinite respect, all their expences defrayed by the company, which has been found by experience, of much greater consequence to the interest of their commerce, than the expence it occasions.

The governor general for the company, as he resides in a fine palace, so he makes a figure equal thereto. He has 12 horse-guards, clothed in scarlet, laced with gold, and an officer with the title of captain, who commands them.—He has also a foot-guard of 300 men, natives of the country, called peons; and, when he appears in public, he is carried into a palanquin, richly adorned. This state is displayed on the reception of princes and ambassadors; at other times his guards are employed in the necessary service of the company, and earn to the full the wages they are paid; for there are few settlements, better regulated, or more wisely governed, than this, which the reader will more easily believe, when he is told that according to the last account taken of the inhabitants of this place, there appear to be no less than 120,000 Christians, Mahomedans, and Gentiles.

There cannot be a place better suited for trade than this, being in the midst of the European settlements on the coast of Coromandel, and having all the bay of Bengal open before them; so that here the company's magazines are full of all the commodities and manufactures, not only of the coast of Coromandel, but of other parts of the Indies, such as Bengal, Surat, and the coast of Malabar, as also of such as are imported from Persia, and the coast of the Red Sea.—Here likewise are their warehouses for all sorts of European commodities, which are conveniently transported from thence, as occasion requires, to all the markets in the Indies.

However, the staple trade of the place is piece-goods, of which the finest are made in Golconda, and the best painted here; they have likewise great quantities of silk, raw and manufactured, gold and silver brocades, perfumes, spices, and diamonds; in which last branch of trade they have made a great progress of late, and for which it is certain they are very conveniently situated, as being at a very small distance from the finest mines in the Indies, and by having persons amongst them as well skilled in jewels as any in the world.

We shall now return to France, and view the state of things at home, as well as in the Indies, with respect to the commerce of the company.—And here they still laboured under such a continued series of mischiefs and misfortunes, as not only crushed the trade, but almost broke the spirits of the company, which obliged them to have recourse to expedients, which proved as little to their honour as their profit.—In the year 1682, it must be observed, they had entered into a scheme for permitting private trade, upon certain conditions; but their affairs were now fallen into such disorder, that they were not only content to submit to this, but even to resign it to them upon easy conditions.—From which expedient they found some relief, which induced them to extend their scheme, and for the preservation of their servants in the Indies, who, by this time, were above 10,000,000 in debt, they fairly sacrificed themselves. For,

In the year 1712, they entered into a treaty with some private traders at St Malo's, by which they yielded up to them all their privileges as a company, on the best terms they could obtain, with a view to furnish such as were employed by them in the Indies, with sums sufficient to keep under the interest of their debts, and thereby prevent all things from falling into confusion. So that on the expiration of their privileges, about the time of the king's death, they earnestly solicited a renewal of them, not from hopes of reviving their trade, but with intent to renew their agreement with the merchants of St Malo's, that they might gain enough thereby to preserve their settlements, and not to suffer such as they had employed to be utterly undone in their service.

By this means the private merchants of St Malo's were enabled to increase their fortunes, and carry on a trade to the East-Indies with advantages, under the authority of a company that was in a manner, become bankrupt; and this, notwithstanding they had considerable sums out of their profits for participating in its privileges; for, as private men, they could make an advantageous bargain with the company, with some reasonable assurance of having the terms of their contract complied with, because made only for a certain time; enjoying also the benefit of those settlements which the company had made,

made, without contributing any thing to the expence which they originally cost, or even to that by which they were supported; so that, considered in this light, the company stood between them and the government, and their private traders might be said to enjoy, in France itself, those advantages that could be expected only in a land of freedom, and by the enjoyment of which solely, their trade became advantageous*.

* It is clear from hence, that the injury, done to this time to the French East-India commerce, proceeded from the nature of the French government; for it must be observed, that the edicts for their establishment, and the extensive privileges granted by them, though they are necessary to the being and foundation of the company, yet are hurtful and disadvantageous in another respect. For all men of sense discern, that in a country where so much depends upon the mere will and pleasure of the crown, NO COMMERCE CAN EVER BE SECURE; for as the same power that gives may take away, so it may likewise alter, abridge, and even destroy, by NEW EDICTS, any of those privileges, though granted and confirmed in the strongest terms that words can express.

Besides, as the company must be almost supported by acts of royal favour, so the obtaining these must always depend on the will of the prime minister for the time being, which is such a precarious tenure, that no man who thinks at all can believe he has any property, while it depends thereupon. In the next place, the maxims of the government rendering it absolutely necessary to prefer the interest of the royal revenue to any other interest whatever; this is such a source of danger and disquiet, as must necessarily banish all trust and confidence in the faith of such a government. Whence it may be observed, that such as are engaged in the management of a company's concerns, under such circumstances, will look no farther than the time present; and, instead of placing their hopes in the future prosperity of such a company, will confine their views to the making the most they can of immediate advantages, in order to secure their private fortunes, let what will become of the public.

There are in arbitrary governments certain seasons, when, from a variety of accidents, there appears a strong spirit of promoting the public welfare, not from any real principle of that kind, but to cover some other design, which could not otherwise be carried into execution, as in changes of administration, especially in minorities, &c.—This happened to be the case at the time when the French East-India company were struggling for a new grant of privileges, which they had enjoyed for 50 years, though sometimes in a larger, sometimes in a less degree.

The duke of Orleans, who defeated the old king's will, and established a new kind of government, as it were, in France, found himself obliged to sustain his authority, by endeavouring to acquire to his administration such a reputation as had never attended all the victories and power of Lewis the Great. Therefore, from the time he took the reins of government into his hands, he affected to act on motives directly opposite to those of his predecessors; he declared, that the great end of government was the good of the people; that it was impossible this should be promoted by perpetual wars or quarrels with neighbouring states; that peace was an universal blessing, to France as well as other nations; that commerce was the natural effect of tranquillity; and that the consequences of an extensive trade were more certain resources of power than conquests or arbitrary dominion.—This gave the company great expectations; but the regent's scheme was diametrically opposite to what they expected; for his intent was to establish what is called in France THE SYSTEM.* To give a specious colouring to this profound project, the East- and West-Indies companies were necessary to be made instrumental.

* This was the famous scheme of Mr. Law, to pay the national debts of France without money; which proved a superlative bubble, called the Mississippi scheme, like to that of our South-Sea company in the year 1720.—See the articles ACTIONS, BUBBLES, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

And, when the East-India company represented their condition, and sued for assistance and protection, they found they had to do with those who understood their affairs as well as themselves; and, therefore, instead of governing them, as in many other respects they had done former ministers, they were obliged to throw themselves into the new ministry's hands, and submit on their generosity; which proved the dissolution of the company, or, which is the same thing, its union with the Western company, which had already swallowed up some others.—The edict of union extinguished the title of both these companies, as well as the others comprized therein, and gave to the whole the comprehensive and significant name of the COMPANY OF THE INDIES.

In the preamble to this edict we have an excellent history of the transactions upon which this union of the compounded company was founded; for therein it is said, that the king having principally applied himself to the restoring the commerce of the kingdom, and thereby repairing the losses and decays occasioned by a very long and expensive war, and ha-

ving already had the pleasure to see the circulation of money wonderfully quickened, by the establishment of the WEST-INDIA COMPANY*; his majesty had from thence been induced to look into the state of the old companies, erected before his accession to the throne; and, in particular, into the state of the East-India company, which he found to be deplorable. For, in the space of 50 years, they had, notwithstanding repeated assistances from the crown, managed their affairs so indifferently, as to be obliged to abandon their commerce intirely, and to take up with such trifling advantages as could be obtained by letting out their privileges to hire.

* It was with this view that the regent shewed so much favour to the West India company, and established its capital at one hundred millions, and thereby he procured an opportunity of lessening that immense quantity of paper-money which the long war had made requisite, and which was of great injury to the public credit.

The king declared he was satisfied that this did not proceed at all from disadvantages in the nature of that commerce, but from the mistakes and ill conduct of such as had been intrusted with the management of the company's affairs, who, in the first place, had made their bottom too narrow, and had undertaken the traffic of the Indies upon much too small a capital.—That, to keep up the credit of their own administration, and to countenance their taking such considerable salaries to themselves, they had made large dividends, where there was no profit; and having, by this means, exhausted the company's stock, they carried on their trade by borrowing as much money as they could, at very high interest.—That, however, the king his great grandfather having always protected and encouraged this company, and even granted them a new term towards the end of his life, they might have drawn profits from it, if their conduct had not become so flagrantly bad, that neither the glory of the king, nor the interest of his people, would permit him to overlook it any longer.—On the one hand, there were continual complaints from the Indies, that the company had borrowed vast sums of the Gentiles, without paying them either capital or interest, having, in the space of 16 years, not sent so much as one single ship to Surat.—On the other, the private merchants carrying on this commerce in the name, and under the authority, of the East-India company, were so oppressed by the duty, and other gratuities they paid to the company, that they are unable to pursue their trade with the same spirit and advantages which are enjoyed by the subjects of other nations; and moreover, being afraid to go to Surat, on account of the danger they were in of having their ships seized for the company's debts, they found themselves obliged to purchase most of the Indian commodities and manufactures, which they brought into Europe, from foreigners, at a very high price, and this equally to their own and the nation's disadvantage.

For these reasons, and others of the like nature, alledged against the China and African companies, his majesty declares, that the privileges of all these companies are, by this edict of his, dated in the month of May, 1719, revoked, extinguished, and suppressed.—He granted, at the same time, to the new company of the INDIES, an exclusive privilege of trading from the Cape of Good Hope to the utmost extent of the East-Indies, as also to the islands of Madagascar, of Bourbon, and of France, the coast of Soffola in Africa, the Red Sea, Persia, the dominions of the Mogul, of the king of Siam, and of the emperors of China and Japan, as also of the South Seas, from the Streights of Magellan, or La Maire, to the East-Indies that way, forbidding all the rest of his subjects their several trades, under pain of the confiscation of their vessels and effects.

He likewise gives and grants to this company the possessions and effects of the other companies, at the same time charging them, however, with all the just debts which these companies had contracted.—The better to enable them to discharge which, and to carry on the extensive trade granted them by this edict, he creates in their favour 25,000,000 of new actions, to be purchased for ready money, on the terms that the West-India company possessed 100,000,000 of actions, and with the like privileges and advantages.—He also grants full licence and authority to import all sorts of manufactures of silk, silk and cotton, gold and silver stuffs, dyed cottons, and also painted and striped, on condition that none of these shall be vended in his dominions, but be sold and disposed of to foreign nations; for which reason they were to be deposited in magazines, under double locks and keys, of one to be kept by the farmers-general, and the other by the directors of the company, for the better preventing frauds and collusions.—He likewise grants them permission to import all sorts of white cottons, raw silks, coffee, drugs, spices, metals, and whatever else the East-India company might have imported under their privileges.

This edict had all the effect, and even more, than was expected; such an eagerness appeared of subscribing, that, instead of 25, the subscriptions amounted to 50 millions; which encouraged the French ministry to venture upon some new regulations, that were made public by an edict of the month

of June in the same year : the principal of which was, that they should take off four times the number of old actions, in order to be intitled to the new : so that, in order to purchase 5000 livres of the new actions, the subscribers were obliged to take 20,000 of the old.

The great end proposed by all this was, to find the means of suppressing that immense quantity of paper-money, which was so heavy a burden on the state. To which end, annuities to the value of 25 millions are created ; which not answering that intention, the new company of the Indies offered their assistance, and undertook to discharge them at the rate of 50 millions in one month : so that the whole load of this paper-credit, amounting to near 60 millions of our money, was to be extinguished by the end of July 1721.

In consideration of the zeal and public spirit manifested by the company in this proposal, the king, by his arret, dated in the month of July 1720, changed the terms on which the company held their privileges, and declared them perpetual, restraining himself and his successors from ever treating them as other companies had been, in order to their establishment : thus this company acquired the title in France of **THE PERPETUAL COMPANY OF THE INDIES**, with all the privileges of the other four companies confirmed to them for ever.— In two years time it was declared, that, in consequence of the annuities granted and assigned to the company from the crown, they should be able to divide annually the sum of 10 per cent. which should be paid duly and exactly for ever ; in consequence whereof, the directors were to be at full liberty to export and import what they thought proper, without being accountable annually to their constituents, because the dividend was to be certain and regular, and they were to manage things so, as that the deficiencies of one year might be made good by the profits of another.

This course of management, though it had certainly one great convenience, in ascertaining the interest as the proprietors were to receive it, yet the circumstance of not accounting for the profits has proved of such ill consequence, that, notwithstanding these dividends have been all along regularly paid till lately, yet the proprietors could never be cured of a suspicion they entertained, that the East-India commerce has not been carried on to that advantage but in their name, for the king's ; and this has contributed to keep their actions low, though they had such extraordinary interest paid them, with such regularity.

The grounds of this suspicion lying in the annuities paid by the crown to the company, which are sufficient for securing such a dividend, without the least assistance from the profits of their trade, made the thing not altogether incredible ; especially when it was perceived, that, for 20 years together, the dividends remained fixed and settled, though the trade of the company has, for that time, been apparently increasing.

But, to understand this matter rightly, as well as the true state of the company's affairs in general, and how they came to have a fund capable of discharging regularly so high an interest for such a number of years, as well as to clear up some things that may seem obscure in the establishment of the company now subsisting, it will be requisite to give as clear and concise a relation, as is possible, of the rise and progress of the other companies that have been incorporated with this, by the edict beforementioned, and of the West-India company in particular, in which abundance of curious and instructive particulars will occur.

The **CHINA COMPANY** in France was originally set on foot in the year 1660, but was very soon after absorbed by that of the East-India company, which had the sanction of royal authority given it in 1664 ; but, when the company began first to decline in its affairs, those who had the management were content, in some measure, to revive this old company, by granting their licence, which was likewise confirmed, by the crown, to one Mr Jourdan, a very rich merchant, who fitted out a very large ship for that voyage, which sailed in March 1698, and returned safely to France on the third of August, 1700, very richly laden.

The success of this voyage encouraged this great merchant, and those who were interested with him, to fit out the same ship again, which they accordingly did in the following spring, and he returned in the month of September, 1703, with as great profit as from her former voyage. This success, one would have thought, might have established this new company ; but the general war in which France was then engaged against most of the powers of Europe, rendered it impracticable : and thus the company lay dormant, though still possessed of its rights, which extended to the coasts of China, Tonquin, Cochinchina, and the isles adjacent, till such time as, for reasons of state which we have shewn, it was united to the Western company.

The company of Senegal, though under another name, was one of the earliest in France, being carried on by a society of merchants at Dieppe, though without the sanction of any public authority. They fixed a little settlement in an island at the mouth of the great river Nigra, called also the river of Senegal in Africa, and carried on a considerable trade thither. This commerce came afterwards into the hands of the merchants of Rouen, who, in the month of November 1664, yielded it up to the West-India company.

But, when that company was dissolved about ten years afterwards, the old company of Senegal was revived, and three rich merchants undertook that commerce ; which they carried on with great profit to themselves till the year 1681 ; when the minister, M. Colbert, conceiving this traffic might be greatly enlarged, prevailed upon these merchants to accept of a valuable consideration for their privileges, and to admit of its going into the hands of a larger number of persons, with new privileges, which they enjoyed for many years. But, it being discovered, that the exclusive rights they had, were by much too extensive for their capital, it was thought, for the public benefit, to divide this company ; and hence arose the Guinea company of France, to whom the greatest part of their privileges were assigned, and the rest remained to the old company of Senegal, which still continued in a prosperous condition.

Yet, from variety of accidents, this company came to be so reduced, that they were obliged to give up their privileges to some rich merchants of Rouen, who carried on this trade with tolerable success, when it was united, as we have seen, to the company of the Indies.

As to the company of Guinea, that also had several rises and falls, till the accession of Philip V. to the crown of Spain, who, in the year 1701, granted them the liberty of transporting negroes to the Spanish West-Indies ; whence it took the title of the **ASIENTO COMPANY** [see **ASIENTO COMPANY**] under which it continued to flourish ; but it lost its being at the treaty of Utrecht, which revived the other branches of the French trade, and conveyed this to the English, which gave rise to the English South Sea company ; and, how large their gains have been upon this occasion, will appear under the article **SOUTH SEA COMPANY**.

At this conjuncture the Mississippi scheme took place in France, in consequence of the discoveries formerly made in America, by Mons. de la Salle, a native of Rouen. See the articles **BRITISH AMERICA**, **CANADA**, **FRENCH AMERICA**. The regent was considering, at this time, of the project offered him, by the famous Mr Law, a Scotch gentleman, whose name is well known to the present generation, whose abilities were extraordinary, and might have been rendered importantly useful to France, or any other kingdom, under proper controul.—The end, aimed at by his project, was to reduce all the public debts in France into some form ; for which purpose, 'twas necessary to erect, under plausible appearances, a new company in like manner, that, by the advice of Sir John Blount, the lord treasurer Oxford had done in England, by establishing the South Sea company ; rejecting only that part of the project, which was cheating credulous people of their money, by running the actions of the new company into an excessive rate : but this part was accepted by the regent of France, and made that part of the design, which is styled the system in France, as before observed ; and which was at once the most iniquitous contrivance that ever entered into the heart of man. See the articles **ACTIONS** and **BUBBLES**.

As it was necessary, to carry this scheme into execution, that a new company should be set up, with such privileges as might create probable hopes of extravagant gains to the proprietors, this new settlement was thought of for that purpose ; whence the project is called the Mississippi scheme, though that was not the title of the company.—But I shall not here enter into the enormity of this infamous scheme, we having done that elsewhere.—All aimed at, at present, is to delineate the several steps, whereby a very considerable part of the foreign commerce of France was thrown into the hands of this great French company of the Indies. To complete this grand French system,

The royal bank of France was likewise united to the company of the Indies.—This was the grand engine employed to bring about the great end of the system ; which being once effectuated, the regent and his ministers turned their thoughts on the means of recovering the company from that dreadful confusion into which it had been thrown, by undertaking the execution of a design equally prejudicial to the general commerce, and private property of the inhabitants of France ; which had destroyed the public credit, and put it out of the company's power to carry on their trade.

The welfare of the kingdom was so closely connected with that of the company of the Indies, that it was not in the power of the government to neglect either, or to separate their interests, which had been ministerially conjoined, to answer more mysterious purposes than the world in general is acquainted with.

The company of the Indies, at this time of day, was considered as the center of the French commerce, it monopolizing so great a share of it ; or, in other words, the rise and fall of that company's stocks might be then looked on as a political or commercial barometer, which pointed out the condition of the trade of France in general.

This company has for many years divided 10 per cent. annually on their capital, which, till the late war, was regularly paid.—But this dividend never arose from the profits made by the company in the way of trade, but was paid to the proprietors, as creditors of the public (as is done to the proprietors

proprietors of our South Sea company) on settled FUNDS assigned them for that purpose: wherefore we can attribute the lowness of the French stocks, in times of peace, to nothing but the diffidence that the people had of their own government.

The regular dividends made by this company had a double effect; they sustained the public credit, and that of the company.—The former was necessary to prevent those confusions, which happened on the ruin of the system, which was near ruining the nation; the same regular payment of dividends was of unspeakable service to the company in their trading capacity, without which they could not have subsisted; this policy keeping the proprietors from either enquiring, or receiving any GENERAL ACCOUNTS OF THEIR DEALINGS. This was one of the great secrets of the French councils, and the design of restoring the affairs of the company; and is what, of all others, they have conducted with the greatest address; for by this means they gained time for the company, and, by affording them monies in season, they revived the East-India trade, put all the company's debts into a train of payment, replaced all her factories; and if the last war had not broke out, would have soon placed her, as a trading company, in as good condition in that capacity, as she was as a corporation of public creditors.—And such is the policy of France, that they have now conquered all things in regard to this company, and made it as substantial to their general commerce, as to their public credit.

The effectual establishment of this great company may be justly attributed to the wise and peaceable administration of the late cardinal Fleury; but was no otherwise due to him, than as he continued the direction of these affairs in the hands of Monsr. Orry, who, perhaps, has done more service to this nation, than all the statesmen and generals that have been employed in this reign: and although his management was somewhat thwarted and thrown into disorder a few years since, yet he has overcome the greatest difficulties in regard to this company, and put her concerns into such a channel, as will, in very few years, perhaps, render this trading company formidable in comparison to any other in Europe.

The capital of the present company, as before observed, was composed of the original capital of the western company, and of 25 millions added thereunto, upon the incorporation of the East-India company therewith; but after the ruin of Law's system, and all things were in confusion, it was found requisite, that the king should make a revision of the actions possessed by the proprietors, in order to distinguish between such as had acquired their property fairly, and such as had thrust themselves into the company's books, to serve the purposes of mere stockjobbing. In consequence of this revision, the king fixed the actions of this company to 56,000, and which formed a capital of 112 millions; for their dividend upon which, they had a yearly revenue assigned them of eight millions four hundred thousand livres.—By another arret in 1725, 5000 of these actions were cancelled and burnt; so that the capital of the company, by this means, was reduced to 51,000 ACTIONS, and their DIVIDENDS secured by the annual payment of eight millions from the farmers-general of the farm of tobacco; the exclusive, perpetual, and irrevocable privilege of vending which, was granted to the company in 1723, and confirmed to them in 1725, together with the profits arising from the furs imported from Canada; so that the fund for the payment of their annual dividends was as effectually settled and secured, as it was possible a matter of that nature could be in France.—Yet the affairs of this company went on in a very precarious way for about fourteen years.—But in the year 1737, Monsr. Orry being at the head of the finances of France, which he managed with surprizing success, the company fell under his care.—He saw that great supplies were necessary to extricate them from the difficulties under which they laboured, and therefore, having made a strict scrutiny into their affairs, he furnished them with such sums as were necessary for augmenting their commerce; so that in the short space of two years he doubled their returns, and, in three years more, brought them to thrice as much as they had formerly been.

By the management of this able minister, the company's sales at Port de l'Orient became regular and considerable, increasing in such a manner, that the public sale in the year 1742 produced about a million sterling; besides which, they reserved in their magazines goods, to the value of four millions of livres more; and the first ships that arrived in 1743, brought home still a richer and more valuable cargo.—This sudden and extraordinary change in the company's affairs alarmed all Europe, but more especially the maritime powers, who saw, with unspeakable concern, a company, that but a few years before was looked upon as annihilated as to its commerce, now rising into as high credit as any in Europe; which animated the northern powers to prosecute schemes of falling into the East-India trade likewise.

But what was still more extraordinary than all the rest, upon the first breaking out of the last war, the company did not seem to be affected so much as might have been expected, their dividends being still regularly paid; and which kept up their credit to such a degree, that at Christmas 1744, their

actions were at 2000.—But the war with Great-Britain increasing the expences of France on the one hand, and lessening her income on the other, the secret at last came out, that Monsr. Orry was obliged to acquaint the directors of the company, that the king's affairs were so circumstanced, as not to permit him longer to supply the company in the manner he had hitherto done; so that now they were to stand upon their own bottom, and carry on the trade for the future as well as they could.—This unexpected stroke reduced the actions to 800.—And, during the time of the late war, their affairs were in a lamentable condition; for that occasioned so high a demand for money in France, that it brought on a suspension of their dividends, and thereby gave a severe stroke to their credit; and the blow struck by commodore Barnet in the Indies, and the loss of their ships we took at Cape Breton, went so far towards the ruin of their commerce abroad, that another such stroke, from Great-Britain, would probably have absolutely annihilated the company as a trading corporation, for one 20 or 30 years at least.—But, since the peace, the company has surprizingly recovered itself.

That some tolerable judgment may be made of the progress of this company, the following account of the number of ships returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes, may be useful.

Of the commerce of the French company of the Indies, shewing the number of ships returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes *, from 1727 to 1742 inclusive.

		Ships.	Pagoda's.
In 1727	October		
1728	January	3 —	248,265
	September		
1729	January	3 —	20,032
	September		
1730	January	3 —	248,083
	October		
1731	January	4 —	600,711
	October		
1732	January	4 —	302,006
	September		
1733	January	4 —	260,640
	September		
1734	January	4 —	392,987
	September		
1735	January	4 —	375,341
	September		
1736	January	3 —	223,484
	October		
1737	January	5 —	351,691
	October		
1738	January	5 —	522,315
	October		
1739	January	5 —	586,156
	October		
1740	January	4 —	485,732
	October		
1741	January	4 —	555,643
	October		
1742	January	7 —	954,376

* The reader is desired to observe, that the same number of ships were sent annually from Bengal as from Pondicherry, and consequently the number of this list are to be doubled. He is desired to take notice also, that the sums set down are the prime cost of the goods in India.—And lastly, that the value of a pagoda is about 9 Fr. nch livres, or 7 s. 6 d. sterling; by the help of which directions, this table will be found to comprehend a short history of the progress of this company.

From what has been said, 'tis apparent, that the French have spared no expence, nor left untried any point of policy, to uphold their company of the Indies; and, notwithstanding what it suffered in the late war, of 1740, we find they are still in a flourishing condition. Nor can it be otherwise; for this company is established on so broad a bottom, that if one branch of trade proves temporarily bad, their other branches generally make them some compensation: as the interest of this corporation is so intimately interwoven with that of the state, we find, upon all critical emergencies, it stands in need of no aids which the state can afford it.

REMARKS ON THE FRENCH EAST-INDIA TRADE, since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF 1763.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF 1763, article the XI. it is said, that, "In the East-Indies, Great-Britain shall restore to France, in the condition they are now in, the different factories which that crown possessed, as well on the coast of COROMANDEL and ORIXA, as on that of MALABAR, as also in BENGAL, at the beginning of the year 1749. And his most Christian Majesty renounces all pretensions to the acquisitions which he had made on the coast of

“COROMANDEL and ORIXA, since the said beginning of the year 1749. His most Christian Majesty shall restore, on his side, all that he may have conquered from Great-Britain in the East-Indies, during the present war; and will expressly cause NATTAL and TAPANOLLY, in the ISLAND of SUMATRA, to be restored; he engages further, NOT TO ERECT FORTIFICATIONS, or to keep troops in any part of the dominions of the SUBAH of BENGAL. And in order to preserve future peace on the coast of COROMANDEL and ORIXA, the English and French shall acknowledge MAHOMET ALLY KHAN for the lawful NABOB of the CARNATICK, and SALABAT JING for lawful SUBAH of the DECAN; and both parties shall renounce all demands and pretensions of satisfaction, with which they might charge each other, or their INDIAN ALLIES, for the depredations, or pillage, committed, on the one side or on the other, during the war.”

Of the AFRICAN TRADE of FRANCE, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

One of the greatest advantages that this company has been to France, seems to be the encouragement which has been given, by means thereof, to the French sugar-islands and colonies in America; for the French Senegal company (which was the African company of that nation) being united to this India company; and this company having granted them such bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements, as amount to above 40,000 l. sterling per ann. [See the article FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE] in order to enable them to carry on their African commerce to the greater advantage of the company, as well as of their sugar-colonies; 'tis not to be admired, that the French should make so rapid a progress in the trade of America, as we experienced they had done in the late war.

But what gives the French still a greater weight of interest in Africa than the benefit of these encouragements, is the company's sole privilege of this trade, exclusive of all the other subjects of France. For, by virtue of these powers and immunities, the French have supplied their colonies with 10,000 of the choicest and most robust negroes from Anamaboe on the coast of Africa, to 1000 that have been carried by all the British traders to our own plantations. They have also incroached on our trade at Wydah, from whence they have many years carried considerable numbers of negroes no way inferior to those brought from Anamaboe; nay, they have absolutely excluded us from the whole trade of the Gum Coast, which extends between 4 and 500 miles, from Cape Blanco to the north of the river Gambia.

Before the French got possession of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the islands of Arguin and Goree on the north coast, the English traded freely and openly to all places on that coast, without any molestation whatever: since the French have been in possession of these forts, they have assumed the right and authority to EXCLUDE the British nation from these ports, and have actually taken and confiscated such British ships and vessels as ventured to go thither.—Nay, by the authority of two forts, the one in the river Senegal, and the other in the island of Goree, they not only claim the exclusive right of trade, as before observed, but carry on a considerable commerce in the river Gambia, within sight of Cape Coast Castle, the principal British fort on the Gold Coast. How beneficial this uncontrollable right to the whole African trade, as it were, the French have many years usurped, has really proved to the French sugar-colonies in America, will appear under the article FRENCH AMERICA, where we shall defend to particulars, more minutely than we can do under this head. And if they gain their point with regard to the islands of St Lucia, Dominico, St Vincent, and Tobago, the fate of the British sugar-colonies must be deporable.

Particular REMARKS on the trade of FRANCE in general, as before given, and the manifest tendency of the extent thereof, and their SCHEMES of POWER to arrive at UNIVERSAL MONARCHY; as the same was given before the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763.

From the plain narrative which we have given of the trade of France (and which we have crowded into as few sheets as possible) the following observations will naturally occur.

That for many years before, as well as since the treaty of Utrecht, the steady system of the French court, under all administrations, has been the advancement of their commerce and navigation in general.—This is indubitably true, from the series of facts we have laid before the reader, and more especially with regard to the great point of the WOOLEN MANUFACTURES of this nation: which, as they have met with such unparalleled encouragement from the state in their first establishment, so their progress has been equally admi-

nable, and the great perfection to which they have attained in their fabrics, is no less extraordinary.

We have seen likewise, that the kingdom of France in Europe is very happily situated for commerce and navigation; and in order to lessen the price of carriage of all merchandizes throughout their dominions, they have spared no expence to add artificial to their natural navigable rivers. In order also to keep down THE PRICE OF LABOUR AMONG THEIR MANUFACTURERS, TO THE END THAT THEIR MERCHANDIZE MAY BE AFFORDED CHEAPER TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES THAN THOSE OF OTHER NATIONS, THEY BUY UP PLENTY OF GRAIN, WHEN CHEAP, TO SELL TO THE POOR, WHEN DEAR, AT THE ORDINARY PRICES.

From variety of instances throughout this work it further appears, that they have grudged no expence, nor left unpractised any measures, to obtain the most ingenious workmen and manufacturers from all countries, whence they could allure them, in order effectually to establish the credit and reputation of their own manufactories.—They have, in particular, highly encouraged the imitation of the woollen fabrics of every kind in this nation, and have also invented no little variety of their own; which they have wisely adapted to the taste and climate of other nations, to encourage their exportation.—By the former, and the use of THE COUNTERFEIT ARTS OF PRACTISING THE MANNER AND CUSTOMS OF THE ENGLISH MANUFACTURERS, IN EVERY CIRCUMSTANCE RELATING TO THEIR MANUFACTURES; by these and other artifices before intimated, they at first deluded foreign nations into the purchase of their fabrics; and, by the quality and cheapness of them since, have supplanted this kingdom at foreign markets far more, I am afraid, than we are yet thoroughly sensible of, though the decay and complaints of our manufacturers too evidently manifest the truth thereof.

'Tis observable, throughout the regulations of the commerce of France, that the meanest trade, as well as the highest, is under some proper and rational rules for it's good government, and wise regulation, even from the BIRD-CATCHER to the greatest manufacturer and artist, and to the supreme merchant: this is evident from manifold instances throughout our undertaking; and these regulations are so calculated, as to put these artists and manufacturers under the necessity of excelling in their respective employments; the state well knowing, that their ingenuity is the soul of all their commerce and navigation; for that nation, which can beat all others in the quality, as well as the price of their commodities, will carry away the trade from the rest.

That the measures taken by France for the raising of her commerce to the pitch it is now manifestly advanced, may appear; we shall cite some parts of various of their royal edicts and ordinances, which have been, issued by authority for these salutary purposes, they being too little known in these kingdoms, even by our great statesmen themselves. See FRENCH AMERICA, also.

Of some of the measures taken in FRANCE for the promotion of COMMERCE, extracted from the introduction to the French TARIFF of 1664.

‘But finding that these abatements [of taxes] would only lessen the present miseries, and give our people the opportunity to live with more ease, but did not tend to bring in wealth from abroad, and that trade alone is capable of bringing this to pass: for this purpose we have therefore from the beginning applied to the proper means to support, encourage, and increase the same, and to give all possible ease to our subjects therein: and, in order thereunto, have caused a general inquisition to be made into all the tolls which are raised upon all the rivers in our kingdom, which any way hinder the commerce, or the transporting goods and merchandizes from place to place; and having inquired into all the pretences every-where made for the raising and levying the said tolls, we have suppressed so many of them, that the navigation of our rivers is thereby made extraordinary easy.

‘At the same time we have established commissaries in all our provinces, to examine the dues of all our communities or corporations; upon which we have made such regulations as would reduce the same for the present, and afterwards intirely discharge them: and in the mean time, we have given a general liberty of trade to all people, which they have been deprived of by the violences aforesaid.—After this, we have endeavoured to cause all our bridges, causeways, moles, banks, piers, and other public buildings, to be repaired; the bad condition whereof have been a great hindrance to trade, and to the carrying of merchandize from place to place. Also we have powerfully established the safety and liberty of the highways, appointing several punishments to highwaymen, and obliging the provosts of our counsils, the marshals of France, to a careful discharge of their office.

‘And, after having thus done every thing that was in our power

power to restore trade within the kingdom, we have applied the greatest of our care for the encouraging of navigation and commerce also without, as the only means to enrich our subjects. To this end, having found by experience that foreigners had made themselves masters of all the trade by sea, nay even of the coasting trade from port to port, of our kingdom; and yet the small number of ships which remained in the possession of our subjects, were every day taken just at our own doors, as well in the Levant Seas as in the Western Ocean; we have established the imposition of 50 sols per ton, on the freight of all foreign ships, at the same time discharging those of our subjects; encouraging them thereby to build and fit out sufficient numbers of ships for their coasting trade. At the same time we have put to sea so considerable a fleet both of ships and galleys, as should oblige the coasters of Barbary to keep their ports and places of retreat. And, the better to suppress all manner of piracy, we have resolved to attack them in their own country; to the end that, having fortified some considerable ports, we might be able to keep the same in possession. At the same time, we have secured the navigation of our subjects against all other pirates, by allowing them convoys of our men of war. We have fortified and augmented the French colonies settled in Canada, and the islands of America*, by having sent our ships thither, making them acknowledge our authority, by settling our courts of justice among them. Also we have laid the foundation for the settlement of our East-India and West-India companies, which are now set up in our kingdom, to our entire satisfaction.

* This was the first effectual establishment of the French colonies in America.

But, although these great things are very much to our satisfaction, yet the said love which we have for our people, and it is every day stirring us up to forget what is passed, and to look forward to what may be further done, to the increase of their happiness, we have resolved to erect a COUNCIL OF TRADE*, to meet in our presence, and to employ to that end one of the councils of the finances, which, for that purpose, we shall dissolve: in which council of trade shall be considered all the means possible for the increase and encouragement of trade, both within and without our kingdom, and also of manufactures; which having been happily performed in the first day of their meeting, we have made known to all our companies, as well sovereign as inferior, to all governors of provinces, and their intendants, how tender a regard we have to the prosperity of the said commerce, with orders to them to employ all that authority which we have committed to them, for the protection of the merchants, and to do justice to them, even with preference to others, that they may not be injured or cheated, or any way discouraged in their business. And we have, by circular letters, invited the merchants to address themselves directly to us, upon all occasions; and to depute some of their body near our person, to present to us their memorials and petitions; and in case of difficulty, we have appointed a person to receive all their petitions, and solicit for them at our expence. And we have ordained there shall always be a house appointed for that purpose. We have also resolved to employ a million of livres yearly for the settling of manufactures, and the increase of navigation. But, as the most effectual means for the restoring of trade is the lessening and regulating the duties upon goods and merchandize coming in and going out of the kingdom we have appointed our trusty and well-beloved the Sieur Colbert †, counsellor in our royal council, and intendant in our finances, &c.

* This was another admirable establishment, for the benefit of trade, and has been productive of unspeakable advantages to France. This council consisted of some of the principal officers of state (as the comptroller-general of the finances, secretary of state, and other particular counsellors of state) who communicate what passes at this council to the royal council, as occasion may require. The council of commerce consists of 12 of the principal merchants of the kingdom, or such who have been a long time in trade: of this number two are of the town of Paris, and each of the other 10 are of the towns of Rouen, Bourdeaux, Lyons, Marseilles, Rochelle, Nantes, St Malo, Lille, Bayonne, and Dunkirk; and they are elected annually by the corporation and magistrates of the town; and the trading merchants in each of the said towns; and every one of these towns has a chamber of commerce within itself, which hear representations concerning abuses and difficulties in trade, and also complaints concerning impositions in trade, by governors, and other public officers in the French plantations, which are represented by them to their respective deputies, elected as aforesaid.

† This great minister of state having been frequently mentioned throughout this work, it may be satisfactory to our readers to give some account of him.

John Baptist Colbert, born in 1625. He was the son of a wine-merchant at Rheims, in Champagne, and rose to be comptroller-general of the finances under Lewis XIV, who

knew how to distinguish merit, and reward it. M. Colbert was equally able and fortunate; he had a prodigious genius, and to vast natural parts added indefatigable application. The discharge of his duty, the good of France, the glory of his master, were all the objects of his attention; and the toil he underwent, joined to his emulation of the famous marquis de Louvois, is said to have occasioned his death, on the 6th of September, 1683, at the age of 58.

To encourage the woollen manufactures of Languedoc, and facilitate their vent in the east, his most Christian majesty, by an arret of October 3, 1712, granted the manufacturers and merchants of that province an exemption from the duty upon cocheneal imported, as far as 210 quintals annually, under certain restrictions.

Sensible of the bad quality of the silk brought to France from the East-Indies and China, and that the commodities made of it were very defective, and brought under disreputation such as were made in the kingdom of good French, Spanish, or Italian silk, the importation of silk from China or the Indies, as well as the silks from those parts, was prohibited by an arret of March 13, 1714.

His most Christian majesty, desirous that the province of Languedoc be well supplied with wool for their manufactories, by an arret of April 7, 1714, prohibited the buying up the wool in the said province, to send abroad, under pain of confiscation, and a fine of 250 l. sterling.

His majesty, in consideration there was great quantity of grain in Languedoc the last harvest, and a favourable prospect of fine crops the next season, by an arret of August 1703, permitted them to export grain to foreign countries free of all duty.

By an arret of September 9, 1713, his most Christian majesty granted an exemption from the duties of imports, for 10 years, upon bacalao, and oils that should proceed from the fishery of his own subjects, in L'Isle Royal, before called Cape Breton, in order to encourage the trade and fishery, but under certain restrictions.

And, by another arret of December 30, 1713, his most Christian Majesty permitted such of his own subjects as were engaged in the fishery of bacalao, to export free of duty, the stores, arms, ammunition, utensils, wine and provisions, that should be shipped on board the vessels employed in the said fishery, as also the salt necessary to cure their fish.

Several other very essential provisions made by the most Christian king Lewis XIV, both in favour of trade and navigation, and other points of civil government.

The reign of Lewis XIV. has left so many illustrious examples to future ages, to shew how to insure the same success he himself obtained in the grand affair of commerce, and other policies of civil government, that I have thought proper to subjoin a short account, says the wife Spaniard Uztariz, which I gave myself of that great monarch, in my approbation of a book mentioned above, under the title of, The Commerce of Holland, and of the reasons for the translation of it at Madrid in the year 1717, and referred to me by the royal council of Castile.

This monarch observing that the indulgences allowed to the people on pretence of fairs, to facilitate buying and selling, or the barter of the fruits and commodities of their own country, were abused and converted to the advantage of foreigners, and a great injury to the trade of his own subjects, he reformed also this disorder, by several regulations and wise provisions.

In every province he appointed commissioners, to examine into the debts and charges upon every trading company; the condition, management, and disposal of their revenues, and what charges and expences might be remitted. Thus, by a thorough acquaintance with the situation, he formed general and particular rules, to prevent disorders, ease their charge and expence, pay off their debts, and settle regular payments for the future, appointing officers of zeal and abilities to do it annually; by which provisions and relief, the people found themselves in a condition to improve their commerce.

He ordered the repair of bridges, causeways, pavements, and other public works, that were in so wretched a condition as to render travelling difficult, and the carriage of merchandize expensive.

He ordered his ports to be repaired, enlarged, and protected in both seas, and new ones to be made, and executed his schemes with all the success and perfection the event manifests.

He instituted several academies, under the direction of able engineers, to instruct youth in cosmography, the art of navigation, fortification, and the other branches of mathematics which have a reference to war, either by sea or land, not omitting the architecture, or building of ships.

He caused to be drawn up very precise and well-adjusted ordinances, for the service, discipline, polity, pay and fitting out of his fleet, the building of his ships, the government and preservation of the ports, and for the establishment and direction of the arsenals, docks, and magazines.

He gave also stated rules for the navigation, freights, contracts, polity, fitting out, and other concerns of merchantmen, and the form of traffic in them, and deciding all their causes and disputes in these and any other points, by a short process.

He made some rivers navigable, and opened several canals, with the design of conveying, at the least expence, both outwards and inwards, the merchandize and fruits of his several provinces, that they might mutually supply each other, without the heavy charge in transporting them from place to place by horses and carriages; and lastly, proved the greatness of his soul, as well as power, in uniting the two seas by means of long and expensive canals.

He invited and encouraged the nobles, either in single or in partnership, to embark in trade as merchants, by sea and land, declaring that it should never be any imputation upon their honour.

He ordered these provisions and maxims, suitable to his royal pleasure, to be communicated to the tribunals, both in the capital and out of it, as also to the governors-general of the provinces, to the intendants, and trading companies of the principal cities and towns, shewing them the particular attention his majesty gave to this great affair, and strictly enjoining them to exert the authority he had invested in them, for the encouragement and protection of all traders and merchants, by administering justice to them in a brief manner in preference to all others, that they might not be drawn away from their business by the chicanery and tricks of the law.

He banished idleness, by employing the poor and vagabonds to advantage, and made several other ordinances and provisions, that rendered his reign happy and glorious; but these I have not thought proper to mention here, as I confine myself to such as relate to the point in hand.

But what gave life and spirit to all these provisions, was the reputation of the government, and the good faith he established and maintained by a certain and punctual execution of his proposals and resolutions, and a sacred observance of all contracts and agreements made with the trading companies, men of business, and others. And it was also a great encouragement, that his Majesty's whole life was a continued and vigilant protection of commerce and navigation, and imitated by the ministers he had chosen for this important direction, and whom he also encouraged not only with repeated favours, but also supported against the struggles of envy and emulation; and without such a powerful support, all his establishments, though solid, prudent, and interesting, as the happy effects manifested, would have been defeated.

The particular protection commerce has received from several great kings of FRANCE.

I think it also not unseasonable to insert here the substance of what Lewis Morrieri, in his Historical Dictionary, of the impression 1718, says in regard to commerce, on which subject he has among others the following reflections:

Commerce is carried on within a kingdom, and in foreign parts. This powerful means of enriching states has engaged and become the care of most kings, sovereign princes, and republics. Under the government of the first line of French kings, who reigned from the year 418 down to 751, it is not known what state of trade was, because those princes, regarding only conquests, were more attentive to the profession of arms, than to enrich the kingdom by traffic and commerce with foreigners. Charles the Great, the second prince of the second line, desirous of having commerce flourish, created an office of king of the merchants, with an inspection and superintendency over all persons of that denomination, whose jurisdiction was exercised by deputies in every province and city of note.

The great chamberlain, an officer of the crown, and who had already the jurisdiction of arts and manufactures, was appointed in lieu of king of the merchants by Francis I. in 1544. The father of arts and letters was the first of our kings, that projected the introduction of trade into France by distant voyages into the remote parts of the world.

By the orders he gave to admiral Chabot, Cape Breton was discovered, as far as Florida and Virginia, as also the Marannan, and Canada in America.

He resolved to fit out ships for the East-Indies, but his wars with Charles V. prevented it.

In 1545, the employment of grand chamberlain of France was vacant by the death of Charles duke of Orleans, and his father king Francis I. annihilated the office, and revived that of king of the merchants, which continued till Henry the Great put an end to it, in 1587, and took upon himself the charge of commerce, and was very zealous in it, setting up a fabric of tapestry in the Gobelins, in the suburbs of St Marcel at Paris, and another of gilt leather-hangings in the suburbs of St Honoré and Jacques; the mills of Estampe to split and cut iron; a manufacture of gold and silver stuffs in the royal palace; those of gawle, &c. in Mante; of glass at Paris and at Nevers, in imita-

tion of those at Venice, and several other useful manufactures.

He formed also a council of commerce made up of ministers out of several tribunals, in which was debated and decided every thing relating to trade.

In 1607, he appointed a new officer of master visitor and reformer-general, to inspect all the manufactories, which made up the principal branches of commerce.

Lewis XIV. has added, in his conquests, plenty and riches in the kingdom, making the commerce of the French flourish in all the four quarters of the world. The vigilance of Monf. Colbert contributed very much to this grand point. I shall not dwell longer here upon representing all the measures that this kingdom has uniformly and uninterruptedly taken for above this century past, in order to raise their trade and navigation to the height it is at present arrived to: this work will not admit of my saying all under one head; but the reader will please to observe, that under every capital branch of trade, we do not deal in generals, but so far descend, and in such a manner, to particulars, as is requisite to give a proper idea of the commercial policy of this nation, and that from facts that appear to be incontestible. But if our authorities are not authentic, or if our intelligence is erroneous, or if we are mistaken in point of judgment, in the deduction of consequences, we shall most thankfully be set to rights, by those who are better informed and have superior discernment; for we have no motives to induce us to impose visionary things upon our readers, nor rancour to influence us to misrepresent any thing to serve temporary turns.

We have declared ourselves not to have any glimmering of antipathy against the French, considered as a nation: on the contrary, we admire them as a wife, a judicious, an industrious people: their statesmen, the world knows, do not want heads to contrive, or hearts and hands to execute, the greatest designs. If they were in general as upright in their negotiations with other nations, as they are sanguine in promoting the interest and glory of their own, at the expence of, or on the ruin of others, their statesmen would not be less admired for their honour, than the nation in general is for it's wisdom and politeness.—But long experience hath convinced the whole world, as well as England in particular, that this is not the case; for, instead of acting upon the square, they act upon the round of chicanery, upon principles that no nation can long maintain friendship with them.—In a word, their politicians seem to be successively trained up in the grand arts of ———, and to so superlative a degree, that they scarce ever fail to outwit or deceive those of all other nations, as might be shewn in numberless instances; but that is not my business.

—All that I aim at, is no more than to excite my countrymen to be as vigilant and zealous in advancing their own commerce and navigation, as the French have been to destroy them. If, indeed, they can fairly beat us out of the trade of the world by their superior industry and ingenuity, not by superior craft and Machivillian policy, they would deserve to be our masters, and we to become their vassals.—But this is far from the case. Our artists and manufacturers, properly encouraged, are a match for those of any nation whatsoever; nor do our merchants want skill and penetration to extend our commerce to the remotest parts of the globe, nor our representatives wisdom and sagacity to regulate and advance it to the utmost, when the true state of any branch of trade is faithfully laid before them for their consideration.

But let the wisdom of the British legislature be ever so profound, and their zeal in the great cause of commerce ever so warm; let our statesmen and our ambassadors be ever so sagacious, yet, while this nation shall act towards France perfectly consistent with the principles of reason, consistent with her treaties and the national faith: while this shall be the irreproachable conduct of Great-Britain towards France, and all other nations, and a conduct the reverse hereof is shewn towards this kingdom, are we not under these circumstances, whenever this shall happen, obliged to be upon our guard in negotiating with such nations, that we may not be perfidiously tricked out of our commerce and possessions, which we have been so many centuries in raising?

That France, in particular, has not for many years acted by this nation as she ought to have done, is apparent enough from what she has done, and what she is still attempting to do, in North America, to the great injury of the British colonies there. For the truth of which, see our articles BRITISH AMERICA and FLORIDA.—And, for the further injury she had endeavoured to do, and is still attempting to do to our sugar-colonies, see what we have under the former of these articles, with regard to St Lucia, St Vincent, Tobago, and Dominico.—For what incroachments also they have made upon our trade on the Gum Coast of Africa, and how they have usurped the right of trade at the British settlement of Wydah, and in the river Gambia, and at Anamaboe; and how, in consequence thereof, they have aggrandized their own sugar-colonies at the expence of ours, by supplanting us in this capital branch of trade at foreign markets; see the articles ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AMERICA and GUINEA TRADE. See also our maps of NORTH AMERICA, of AFRICA, and our particular map of

of the forts and settlements in Africa, belonging to the several European powers, as also that of the GOLD COAST. If these things are candidly and impartially examined into, we conceive it will appear, that no nation has suffered so much in her commerce, by French policy, as Great-Britain: and as it will also appear presently, that this restless kingdom is still steadily pursuing the same system, which they have many years been governed by; is it not requisite that we should be duly apprized and alarmed of the danger?

In order to cherish and support the spirit of trade in France, hear what one of their most judicious writers urges, and of which Britons ought to make a proper use: 'What would become of the nobility and ecclesiastical estates, says this gentleman*, were they not supported, by labourers and traders? This is what we may learn from a noble lord, one of the first quality in France, a good patriot and great minister, I mean the duke of Sully; who, in his *Oeconomies Royales & Servitudes Loyales*, expresses himself to this purpose. After having pleaded the cause of the nobility, he says, It will, however, be found true, if all circumstances are minutely and well examined, that this body, with all its pomp and splendor, whatever they may proudly boast, would become not only useless, but even dangerous to the state, were they once destitute of the aid, support, and assistance, which they derive from the merchants, artists, shepherds, and labourers. Thus that great man lays out the advantages of the one and the other, and concludes, That, as to the blessings and conveniencies of human life, a sovereign state could more easily dispense with the churchmen, nobles, officers of justice, and all those who are concerned in the management of the revenue, than with merchants, artists, shepherds, and labourers.

* *Reflections politiques sur les finances.*

Why not then give more honour, esteem, and protection, to a profession which is so beneficial to us? Why not annex to it degrees of distinction and preferment, such as would hinder those whose talents are most proper and useful for it, from leaving it, to buy titles and distinctions, which are not to be got in their body? This evil is not perceived by us, nor do we give sufficient attention to it: it is, however, an obstacle to our trade, and consequently to the power of the state. If from the faint parallel I have drawn between the services of the nobility, and those of the trading part of the nation, we will balance them with equity and free from prejudice, both will be found useful and honourable; we shall see that prudence and capacity are no less necessary to carry on a great trade and extensive navigation with advantage, than valour and prudence to conduct a company or regiment. Nay, I know not whether the state ought to make so great a distinction between the action of an officer, who defeats, either in person or by his orders, some troops of the enemy, and the action of a trader, who in time of war builds and fits out one or more ships at his own expence, commands them himself, or appoints captains over them, to fall upon the enemies of the state, pursue them and conquer them, with the hazard of being vanquished in a bloody and obstinate engagement; if victorious, he brings his prize into France, frequently very richly laden; from this the public reaps advantage as well as the trader: to me it would seem there is no less valour on the one side than on the other; they both weaken the enemies of the state: why then are the honours and rewards so different?

In short, maritime trade, and in wholesale, has nothing in itself but what is honourable. Antiquity furnishes us with illustrious testimonies, in favour of those who practised it. Solomon, king of Israel, according to scripture history, carried on a great trade abroad. Solon, that great legislator of Athens*, who was of one of the noblest families in that flourishing republic, being by the father's side descended from Codrus, the last king of Athens †, in order to repair the decays of fortune, into which his family was fallen by the excessive liberality of his father, chose rather to carry on trade, than to take money from rich persons, who offered him large sums, and promised never to allow him to be in want. Now, at that time, says Plutarch, according to Madam Dacier's translation, after Hesiod, no handicraft was shameful, no art or trade made any distinction between men. Merchandize especially was honourable, because it opens a communication with barbarous nations, affords the means of making friendship and alliance with kings, and leads to the knowledge of an infinite deal of things which would be unknown without it. There have been merchants founders of great cities, as Protus, who founded Marseilles, after having gained the friendship and esteem of the Gauls, who live upon the banks of the Rhone. We are told also, that the wife Thales and Hippocrates, the mathematicians, applied themselves to commerce, and that Plato defrayed the charges of his journey into Egypt, by selling oil in that country.

* He lived 598 years before Christ.

† Plutarch's Life of Solon.

Cato, the censor*, that Roman Demosthenes, a man of such rigid and delicate sentiments of virtue and honour, thought it not below him to acquire an estate by commerce; wholesale trade, he said, depended chiefly upon the mind, whereas trade in retail gave only employment to the hands. As all the acts of the mind are noble, the laws, which have neglected the distinction and illustration of trade in retail for certain moral reasons, have honoured and distinguished wholesale trade.

* Plutarch's Life of Cato. He lived 196 years before Christ.

According to Cicero †, trade in retail is mean and fordid, but wholesale trade is not: this brings from all places in the world commodities and plenty; it requires genius and prudence, and 'tis as useful to the public as medicine, architecture, &c. which Cicero reckons honourable.

† *Offic. lib. I.* towards the end: he lived 78 years before Christ.

As a proof that commerce had nothing in it base and derogatory among the Romans, the emperor Pertinax exercised it the greatest part of his life, and even after he was emperor ‡.

‡ *History of the commerce and navigation of the Antients, by M. Huet, chap. 57.*

Caracalla, in the cruel massacre he caused to be made at Alexandria, had great regard to the body of merchants, who were very numerous in that city: in giving orders to all foreigners to remove from it, he excepted the merchants, and allowed them to stay there at liberty. Alexander Severus, from a view to make trade flourish at Rome, and to bring in merchants thither, granted them large immunities. Maximinus himself carried on trade with the Goths, &c. We may find a great many other examples, had we a mind to seek after them, which would shew us, that great men have thought it no disparagement to them to acquire estates by trading; such examples are common among the Greeks and Romans, and these people had as delicate notions of honour as we. The English, the Dutch, &c. have the same sentiments in this respect, as the old Greeks and Romans. Why we should not imitate them, is what I cannot account for. The Venetians, in order to train up the sons of their nobility in the knowledge of the navy, oblige the merchant ships that sail into foreign countries to take always two of them, whom the captain is obliged to maintain at his table, without being bound to any work, but only to take notice how the ship is wrought, and what observations are made by the pilots. In fine, maritime trade was so honourable among the antients, that the emperors granted it a particular protection. They honoured the cities that signalized themselves in commerce, or in building ships, or that were famous for some considerable sea-port. These cities caused their medals to be stamped either with a ship, or with a prow, or sometimes with a Neptune and his trident, or with a dolphin. Such were the medals of Tyre ‖ and Sidon, of Bizantium, of Leucate, Chelidonium, Syracuse, &c. *History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Antients, chap. xlvii.*

‖ The scripture, Ezek. xxvii. furnishes us with a glorious testimony of the riches and maritime forces of the city of Tyre, which the prophet extols as well as her sailors, her shipping, her great trade, &c. But this might be the old Tyre. The new city far surpassed it, according to the late M. Huet, in his *History of the Commerce and Navigation of the Antients, chap. viii.* According to Herodotus, the Tyrians came from the Lydians.

France, as well as the Roman empire, has maritime and trading towns that deserve medals, and are undoubtedly of consequence to be honoured and protected, because they have signalized themselves in trade, and by building of ships. Nay, she has some that have done more, and, though they have neither lands nor manufacture, have found a way to carry on navigation. They are accustomed to hazards; their ships have braved the dangers of the main; they have grown formidable to their neighbours by harassing them continually, and by weakening them to such a degree, that those enemies, in revenge of their losses, swore the destruction of one of those cities; and to that effect, invented that formidable machine, so celebrated, which was to reduce it into ashes. What wonders have been done by the courageous inhabitants of that city, equally distinguished in its warlike and trading capacity, in defiance to all the efforts of the enemies to the crown? Bounded to some rocks, they had found a way to render it inaccessible on all sides, to build fortresses, which secure their port; in a word, to make their rocks a prodigy of art, and an eternal monument of a genius for war, matched with a genius for trade. How many excellent sea-captains have been produced in that city, and some others like it, which cultivated trade! How many ships have they built and fitted out! what noble sailors! what excellent artists! how many young combatants

batants have they trained up! and then, how much gold and silver have they brought into the kingdom! Their ships, happily arriving from the South Sea in 1709, brought home gold and silver bullion to the amount of thirty millions, which were a supply to the state of so much the more importance, as those cities lent the king fifteen millions in a very pressing exigence. This is what we are told by the master of the finances himself, in the 13th page of his Memoir. What spoils of the enemy have those trading towns brought home, ruining the commerce of our neighbours, and securing our own! Shall the nobility, then, most of them, live idly in their castles, be thought more serviceable to the state, more brave, more warlike, than those heroic citizens? How would the republics of Genoa and Rome have heaped honours and rewards upon citizens so worthy of that name!

The maritime forces of the Romans contributed not a little to their great power. Accordingly we see in the digests some laws, which inform us how much they applied themselves to sea affairs in certain conjunctures, even during the heat of their wars. The exemptions from all municipal charges, which they granted to the citizens to invite them to build ships and cultivate trade, are invincible proofs of their having been perfectly sensible, that maritime force and commerce were necessary to the preservation and advancement of their power.

Cardinal Richlieu, who had so extensive views for aggrandizing the state, found no way more effectual to promote the power of the king and the riches of the nation, than to improve navigation and trade; and indeed there is no other that can bring us in gold and silver. That great statesman shews us, very well, the necessity and usefulness of a power by sea*. According to him, trade has a necessary dependence upon that maritime power.

* The Political Testament, chap. 9.

After having shewn the advantages which the English would have over us [the French] if our weakness by sea should cut us off from all means of attempting any thing to their prejudice, he cites, by way of example, the insult offered by that proud nation to the duke of Sully, sent by Henry IV. into England, in quality of ambassador extraordinary; and he counsels Lewis XIII. to put himself in such a posture, that he may not suffer the like again. He shews all the advantages of a powerful navy; he proves the usefulness of it and of trade, by the example of the Dutch, who owe their power only to their navy and their trade. It was in time of his ministry, that Lewis XIII. made that glorious statute of February the 1st, 1629; where, in order to induce the subjects to carry on sea trade, he declared by the 452d article, That the gentlemen who should apply themselves to commerce in their own persons, or by substitution of others, should derogate nothing from their nobility, &c.

It was upon these same principles that the great Colbert, that faithful minister, protected arts and manufactures. There were at that time in France a great many factors and commissioners from foreign nations, and very few traders. He looked upon societies or companies, as the most proper means at first to engage the French to carry on trade by themselves: and as, among all the examples of commerce that are extant in several parts of the world, there is none richer nor more considerable than that of the East-Indies, he discovered thereby the importance of navigation and of long voyages; he observed, that those voyages not only were indications of the power of a state, but also an infallible means of introducing plenty into it. He was of opinion, therefore, that it suited with the glory of the king and the interests of his people, to undertake that trade, which Henry IV. and Lewis XIII. could not carry to it's perfection. He determined the king to form the same design in 1664, and to spare nothing for the accomplishment of so great a work, which might be ranked among the most famous transactions of the reign of Lewis le Grand. He formed an East-India company, he protected it with all his power, assisted it with his money, and took upon himself the heaviest charges of the execution, though he would have no share in the profits of the success. You will even find, in Father Charlevoix the jesuit's History of Japan, that, knowing the Japanese received into their ports only Dutch ships, and would traffic neither with the Spaniards nor the Portuguese, upon account of their professing the Catholic religion, whereby they became odious to them, this minister proposed, that the emperor of Japan should be told, that the king of France had a great many subjects who followed the religion of the Dutch, and that, if he thought fit, the king would send ships to him manned by none but those of that religion. This is called thinking like a minister. The project, however, did not succeed, by reason of the prejudice of the Japanese government, which is terribly apprehensive of foreigners, having got intelligence of what passed in the East and West-Indies.

In this manner did that great minister encourage traders to

apply themselves to maritime commerce, and to build ships proper for long voyages. That company was not the only one he formed; he established one for the West-Indies, for the trade in the Levant, and for that in the North Seas. He laid out himself for the improvement of our old manufactures, he established new ones; in fine, he gave powerful protection to trade, arts, and manufactures, which he justly considered as the most effectual means to encrease the power of the king, and the riches of the kingdom. And, indeed, to say it over again, there is no other way that can bring us in gold and silver.

Monf. Colbert had the satisfaction to see that his endeavours were not useless; he left trade in a flourishing state: and though, as we have seen, the East-India company, after his time, laboured under great difficulties, yet these are, since, surprizingly overcome.

Navigation, says the same judicious French writer, which is the soul of commerce, procures always a vast profit to the state. The building of ships, their victualling and stores, considerable articles of expence, which being laid out within the state, furnish several inhabitants with the means of living and enriching themselves. It employs all the inhabitants of the sea-coasts, who can hardly be useful in any other capacity, and, for want of this navigation, are in a manner necessitated to serve in foreign countries*; this is what happened, whenever we gave over our sea-trade. By losing them we sustain a double loss; our coasts become desolate, our navigation languishes, and that of our foreign neighbours encreases at our expence. Prohibitions against sailors going out of the kingdom are useless: they are bred only to sailing, the sea is their element; if we do not employ them that way ourselves, no prohibitions will prevent their going elsewhere to seek for employment.

* It is observable, that there are fewer of French sailors in the service of other nations (though they are extremely numerous, as we shall shew under the article SAILORS) than of any maritime country whatsoever, they having full employment for them always in their own kingdom.

Then this author continues to shew, with great judgment, the state of the French fleet in the year 1681, the most flourishing one that France ever had; but as entering into this matter would lead us too far at present, we shall consider this point under the article of NAVAL POWER.

That the grand system of policy in France, is still to encrease her commerce, and raise her maritime power, beyond those of England and Holland, appears from the concurring sentiments of all their ablest French writers themselves, upon these topics.—Monsieur Deslandier says, in his address to his late excellency the count de Maurepas, secretary of state, and of the marine in France, 'I cannot help telling you, sir, that maritime power is the pillar, the support of the state; and that when it shall be numerous, and under a proper regulation, it will be able to give law to all the maritime powers in Europe, the state itself will be secure, and have nothing to fear.'—And in another place, he says, 'All the nations of antiquity, that were desirous of raising an universal reputation, and to distinguish themselves above others, have cultivated a maritime force; and the more they have cultivated it, the greater power and authority they acquired. Amongst the Greeks, Themistocles, and Pompey amongst the Romans, said loudly, that whoever would command on the continent, must begin by gaining the command on the sea.' And again he observes, in another place,

That, from the beginning of this monarchy, we have always understood, in France, the utility of a maritime power not only under the more politic reigns, but even in the midst of those revolutions, with which it has been sometimes shaken, that our greatest kings have sought to establish it, and that the most judicious of our ministers have likewise bent all their study, all their industry that way; but divers obstacles have, from time to time, risen and prevented their councils taking effect. The honour of establishing a maritime power seems to have been due to cardinal Richlieu, as the perfecting of it was to Lewis XIV. seconded by the great Colbert, whom sciences, arts, genius, and manufactures acknowledge for their creator.

To keep up the spirit of commerce and maritime power, this author further urges, 'That, of all the kingdoms of Europe, France is that which has the greatest resources, and possesses more advantages than any other, for rendering a maritime power flourishing; and that it is likewise that kingdom, which, of all the rest, stands most in need of such a force, on account of the large extent of it's coasts, and it's many ports and havens.' 'It is one of my old griefs, says the great cardinal d'Ossat, and one of the most notorious and shameful fallings in the first kingdom of Christendom, flanked by two seas, and seated, by nature, in the fairest and most advantageous part of Europe, for executing, assisting, or thwarting all great enterprizes, either by sea or land: it is, I say, one of my old griefs, to see that this kingdom is wanting to herself.'

• The

The last of this gentleman's propositions is, that maritime power, supported by the royal authority, should serve to protect commerce, to extend it, to gain it, every day, fresh acquisitions, and that commerce should serve to introduce abundance, and, by spreading riches through the whole kingdom, render it as powerful as it is possible it should be. Never, says Maximilian de Bethune, duke of Sully, never shall the kings of France, supported by the brave and warlike people whom God has subjected to their authority, unless they place their principal delight in augmenting the grandeur, trade, reputation, and indisputed pre-eminence of the French monarchy, arrive, without difficulty, at being sole arbiters of Christendom, and giving absolute law to their neighbours, by their prudence, and by their alliances.

As to the advantages, says this author elsewhere, which regard the marine, and which France may find in her own proper bosom, they may be reduced to four; of which, the first, without contradiction, is her situation, the most commodious, and the most advantageous that can be in the world, as well for attacking as defending, for disturbing the commerce of others, as for cultivating her own, sending to all places, and receiving trading vessels from all parts of the earth. Hence it was said to the late Czar, Peter I, whose head was always full of vast projects, and to the king of Sweden, Charles XII, that, if any kingdom could aspire to be the mistress of all her neighbours, it must be France. In effect, she is placed in the middle of Europe, nothing can impede, nothing can prove an obstacle to her. She commands, on one side, over the ocean, and it seems, by the vast extent of her coasts, by their turnings and windings, that the seas of Spain, Germany, and Flanders, struggle to pay her homage*; on the other, she is bounded by the Mediterranean, looking full upon Barbary, having on her right hand, Spain; at her left, Nice, Genoa, the dominions of the grand duke, and all the rest of Italy. What a situation is this, if we knew how to make use of it, and of opening our eyes to our interest, we no longer languish in soft effeminate idleness!

* Hear, Britons, are not these alarming sentiments?

The English and the Dutch are forced to strike out far for whatever is necessary to them, and are constrained to put out to sea, in order to reconnoitre and attack their enemies; whereas France is able to attack them, as it were, hand in hand, to combat with advantage, and to retire with ease, which are advantages of no small consequence at sea, where dangers are so frequent and so sudden. But what is still more, foreign vessels, that return from long voyages, worn and beaten by the winds, and by the tempests, foul in themselves, and weakly manned, pass, as it were, under our eyes, before, in the view, and at the mercy of France, as cardinal d'Ossat observes, and in spite of themselves, must approach our coasts. One may easily judge what a facility this gives, of carrying them off, or at least disturbing their navigation, which must turn, says the same cardinal, to the profit and commodity, to the safety, grandeur, and reputation of the crown.

A wife prince, continues he, and one who has regard to his interest, ought to watch attentively over every thing that may contribute to the service, or prejudice of his crown. He ought, with the same vigilance, to weigh daily the present situation of his own kingdom, and of the other kingdoms that surround him. While the balance continues even, an easy and pleasant union will certainly reign; but, as soon as this fails, quarrels, animosities, and dissensions will arise, and will increase. France is too clear-sighted ever to be ignorant of the extent of her power, and nothing can enrage her more sensibly, than to suspect her being ignorant of it.

The second advantage in which we ought to think ourselves happy, is the security of our coasts, which, in a manner, defend themselves, and which have hitherto defeated all the descents that ever were attempted on them. Witness those that admiral Tromp would have made in 1674, not only at the mouths of the Loire, and of the Groyne, but along the coasts of Bretagne, Poitou, Saintongue, and Guienne. He found that all was so well guarded, and that every-where so good orders were given, that he durst attempt nothing considerable. Witness again, the descent attempted by my lord Berkeley, in 1694, at Camaret, in which the English lost upwards of 1200 men with general Talmash, who commanded the troops that were debarked. The French, however, opposed him with no more than two independent companies of marines, and the militia appointed for the defence of the coast. Piqued at this unfortunate expedition, lord Berkeley attempted several other descents on Normandy and Flanders, none of which, however, were attended with any better success.—So much for the self-security of the French. These writers seem to think, that they have nought to do with the defensive; their policy is only to act offensively, and to bring other nations under their subjection! These are the sentiments of those able

French writers, within these few years; the one even since the late war, the other only a few years before it.

A man of genius, and one well acquainted with the intrigues of Lewis XIII, assures us, that the cardinal minister received with the best grace in the world, whatever propositions were made him on the subject of commerce; that he excited the principal merchants in the kingdom to travel into foreign countries, in order to examine there the most curious manufactures, and to penetrate the secrets of particular traders; that, besides this, he brought, at his own expence, several rich traders into France, such as Nicholas Witte, of Alcaer in Holland; Francis Billoty of Brussels; John de Meurier, lord of St Remi de Redon, in Bretagne; with whom he was wont to retire, and to spend several hours together in a free conversation.—There he weighed all the forces of the kingdom, entered into the most perplexed calculations, and the most laborious enquiries; the principal design of which was, to bring over foreign manufactories, and naturalize them in France.—These are the measures, by which France has arose arose to that greatness of commerce and maritime power, we now see, with astonishment, they possess.

That Britons may have a true idea of the grand system of France, with respect to the increase of their commerce and maritime power, from the time of Richlieu to the present day, under every administration since; we cannot give it in so narrow a compass, as by quoting an excellent English author of authority, intitled, *Britannia Languens*, or a Discourse of Trade, published in the year 1680; who lets us into the great secret of the cabinet councils of France; and their notorious conduct since, will shew this to be the great key to all their mysteries of state, let the pretence be ever so much otherwise.

This author mentions a treatise, written by a gentleman bred under Monf. Colbert, which he gave to the King in manuscript, and which coming afterwards to be printed, about the year 1664, the gentleman fell into disgrace, and was sent to the Bastile, and afterwards banished*; out of which he quotes several passages, part whereof will be worth transcribing, to shew the projects entertained by the French, in order to establish manufactories, and raise a naval power, and plain the way to an universal monarchy; such as: 'The state is no further powerful, than in proportion to it's public treasure.—The foundation of the wealth of a state consists in the multitude of it's subjects; for it is men that till the ground; that produce manufactories; that manage trade; that go to war; that people colonies; and, in a word, that bring in money. There cannot be too great a number of husbandmen in France †, by reason of the fertility of the country to produce corn, which may be transported, and therefore we ought to make great stores of it, and have it, as much as may be, in readiness.—Handicraftsmen and artificers [See the article ARTIFICERS] are no less useful; for; besides that manufactories do keep men at work, they are the cause that the silk, wool, skins, flax, timber, and other commodities that grow in France, are made use of; which being wrought up into wares, not made in foreign parts, the country people find a vent for them. And we may grow further into the making of more valuable manufactures, as we now do of hats for Spain, and stuffs for all Europe; a matter of great consequence: for this quickens trade, and makes money pass to and fro, which promotes the public, and therefore every one's private advantage ‡. There must be merchants || also; for without their industry, our commodities might be locked up in warehouses. All things conspire to give France hopes of success; the work, however, is such as must be leisurely carried on, and perfected by little and little, so great a design continually alarming Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, friends and foes, the precipitation of it would be it's ruin: six or ten years time ought to be allowed for it.—The king may keep 100 galleys and 100 ships in the Mediterranean, and 200 sail upon the ocean: the more vessels he shall have, the more able he must be to recover the expences made about them: the sea will yield maintenance for the sea, by commerce or war: there is timber in France; there is cordage; there are sails; there is iron and brass, &c.

* This was for suffering so extraordinary an affair to become public.

† The French have wonderfully encouraged agriculture since Colbert's time.

‡ Have they not done this to admiration, as we have just seen in our narrative of the trade of France? and is not this demonstrably confirmed, in numberless other parts of this work, from particular indubitable instances?

|| Have we not seen what mighty encouragement they have given to merchants, as well as manufacturers, within this period?

When things have taken their course, seamen will be had in time, and the profit that will increase, will afford store, and bring them in from all the parts of the world [a].

The fleets which the king needs keep upon the ocean, will make

‘ make him master of all the powers and trade of the north : yea, though Holland and England should unite against France, they could not avoid their ruin in the end ; for, how could the one or the other make good their commerce, (which is all they have to trust to) if they were forced to keep great armadas to continue it ? The point of Britain is the gate to enter into, and go out of the channel ; fifty ships of war at Brest would keep those gates fast shut, and they would not open them but by the king’s command. Thus there would need no war to be almost for all these things, nor his majesty’s forces hazarded : it will be sufficient to give his orders to foreigners ; nor will it be difficult to cut them out work in their own countries [b], and, by that means, stay their arms at home, and make them spend their strength there. His majesty’s power being thus strongly settled in each sea, it will be easy to secure the commerce of France, and even draw merchants thither from all parts ; I say secure, for, till this be done, it will always be uncertain and dangerous.—It must studiously be prevented, that commerce introduce not, into the state, superfluity, excess, and luxury [c], which are often followed with ambition, avarice, and a dangerous corruption of manners.—It were to be wished the king did add to this kingdom all the Low Countries [d] to the Rhine, which would make him master of the north seas. It would be convenient that he had Strasburg [e], to keep all Germany quiet. He had need to have Franche Comte [f], to lay a restraint upon the Switzers. Milan [g] is necessary, in respect of Italy. Genoa [h] would make the king master of the Mediterranean sea. Sicily [i] might easily make an insurrection. Portugal [k] is a perpetual instrument for weakening Spain. The Venetians [l] and people of Italy are wife ; to reduce them to our intention, we must work by downright force. The pope will ever respect France, because of the county of Avignon [m]. Holland will keep themselves to our alliance, as much as possibly they may : they are rich, it is expedient the king did interpose in their affairs, and that some divisions [n] were sown among them. The Switzers are mercenary, who will always serve the king for his money [o]. The king of Denmark [p] is a prince whose state is but small. The Swedes will never break off from the interest of France [q]. We ought to consider all the instruments which, for our money [r], we may make use of to divert the forces of England and Holland, when his majesty makes any enterprise which pleases them not. The friendship of Turkey [s] is very good for France. Lastly, he speaks of the English as easy to be conquered, having no friends, and is positive, that a war with France would ruin them in three or four years, and that no peace should be made with them, but upon conditions of the greatest advantage to France [t], unless the king thinks fit to defer the execution of his projects for another time. But that the league with Holland should be renewed, and they put into a belief [u], that France should give them all the trade still, because they have the knowledge of it, and are proper for it ; but that the French (as it is to be suggested) have no inclination that way, and nature cannot be forced [w] : they must be told they are come to the happy time for advancing their affairs, and ruining their competitors in the sovereignty of the northern seas.’

[a] A few years after this grand scheme of trade and maritime power had been hatched in France, they had a very flourishing navy, accordingly—This navy was as splendid and magnificent as it was powerful. It actually consisted of 115 ships, of the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth rates ; of 24 small frigates, 8 fire-ships, 10 barcalongas, and 22 pinks ; making, in all, 179 ships, consisting of 7080 pieces of cannon, 1028 major-officers, 7955 marine-officers, 20618, mariners, 10904 soldiers, the whole crew being 39477, (the 1028 major-officers not included.)

[b] Are not the seeds of dissention so effectually sowed by somebody in Holland, that this republic is so sinking, in it’s commerce, as to implore the Almighty, in their daily public prayers, to prosper the same ? And is not their marine in a languishing condition ? And have not rebellions also been cherished in Great Britain ?

[c] France does not only, at present, supply themselves with all those woollen manufactures which they formerly took from England, and exclude the luxuries of other nations from their dominions, but they supply them with their own superfluities ; which are the greatest luxuries to foreign countries.

[d] Have they not had this in their power, and how far are they off the same at this juncture ?

[e] Strasburg was a city of Germany, before this scheme was formed, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, capital of Alsace, situate near the west bank of the river Rhine, 55 miles west of Stuttgart, and 60 miles east of Nancy in Lorraine, a free imperial city and sovereignty state, till it was treacherously surprized by the French, anno 1682, in consequence of the grand project. It had then a great and flourishing trade, and the protestant religion was established there ; but they have ever since been obliged to submit to French tyranny and bigotry. Their new masters have improved nothing but the fortifications, which are very formidable ; and as long as the French are possessed of this capital (which, in a manner, commands Alsace, and gives

the French an easy passage into Swabia) the Germans will never be at rest long.

[f] Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy, was part of the duchy of Burgundy, and subject to the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, before this scheme, but taken from them by Lewis XIV, and confirmed to France by the treaty of Nimwegen, anno 1678. It is now a principality of France, is bounded by Lorraine on the north, by Alsace and Switzerland on the east, by La Brasse and the Bugey on the south, and by the duchy of Burgundy, and part of Champagne, on the west.

[g] Milan, a duchy in Italy, bounded by Switzerland on the north, by the territory of Venice, and the duchies of Mantua and Parma, on the east, by the Appenine mountains, which separate it from Genoa, on the south, and by Piedmont on the west, being about 80 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, well watered with lakes and rivers, a temperate air, and the whole country one fruitful plain, almost abounding with corn, wine, and delicious fruits, intermixed with great numbers of fine towns and villages, and subject to the house of Austria.—This part of the grand system the French have not hitherto accomplished : yet they have struggled hard for it, but Italy has hitherto proved the grave of the French.

[h] Genoa, a republic in Italy, well enough known.—In order to perpetrate the grand French scheme, Lewis XIV. ordered the city to be beat about their ears, but it has been since rebuilt to great advantage, with respect both to beauty and strength.—When the Spaniards possessed Milan and Naples, this republic was obliged to be governed by Spanish councils, and, when the Austrians possess those countries, they influence their affairs, which frequently draws on them the resentment of other powers, particularly the French, who have not only bombarded their towns, but obstructed their foreign trade ; and their formidable fleets, which heretofore gained so many victories over the Greeks, the Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, &c. and settled so many colonies in Asia, and the Euxine sea, are now dwindled, and chiefly by the power and policy of France, to a few pauly galleys ; and when they would have increased them, it has been said, that the French commanded them to forbear at their peril.—When the doge of this republic is elected, a crown of gold is set on his head, and a scepter in his right hand, as king of Corsica, which island is subject to this republic.—This island lies in the Mediterranean, between 8 and 10 degrees of east longitude, from London, and between 41 and 43 degrees of north latitude, about 100 miles south of Genoa.—As the wars and machinations of France have reduced this republic already to a very low condition, and as the French have got footing in the island of Corsica, we may reasonably enough believe, that, as the grand scheme says, in order to become masters of the Mediterranean sea, they would be glad themselves to be masters of all the Genoese territories, let their pretensions to the contrary be what they will.

[i] Sicily, the largest of the Italian islands, situate between 12 and 16 degrees of east longitude, from London, and between 37 and 39 degrees of north latitude ; it lies in a warm, but pleasant, healthful climate, being constantly refreshed by cool breezes from the sea, or the mountains. It is exceeding fruitful, which has occasioned it’s being called the grainery of Rome.—It’s produce is corn, wine, oil, silk, and excellent fruits, of which they export great quantities.—It lies very convenient for the Turkey trade, and the present king has opened a trade thither, which they never had before to signify.—This island, doubtless, would be mighty convenient for the French, but it may occasionally answer their purpose, to make insurrections only, as the scheme says, to weaken Italy, when it suits their purpose. Portugal [k] is to be played against that crown, and the Venetians [l], it seems, they think to be too wise to bend, but by dint of force.

[m] Avignon, a large city of Provence in France, and the capital of the territory of Venaissine, subject to the pope.—Here is an university, and an inquisition, we may suppose, to please the pope, there being none in any other part of France.

[n] Whether divisions have been sowed by France in Holland, to distract their councils and sink the state, or no, we leave others to determine, who are acquainted with the mysteries of state, and judges of the present condition of that republic.—[See the articles FLANDERS and HOLLAND.]

[o] The French are seldom without many thousands of these hired troops in their pay : and, to induce them to enter into the service, they have, in France, extraordinary privileges and immunities.

[p] Though these great politicians seem to quite overlook the kingdom of Denmark, as an insignificant state ; yet, the face of that kingdom is changed, since the first broaching of this scheme ; and, being blessed with a wife prince on the throne, who is daily advancing the trading interest and power of his people, and has above 50,000 good troops at his command, Denmark may be made instrumental, in some shape, to thwart those parts of this great design, which remain unexecuted.

[q] The French, perhaps, are too sanguine, to imagine that they shall always be able to purchase the friendship of Sweden. The present prince is wise and good, and knows the true interest of his kingdom, as well as numbers of wife, brave, and incorrupt Swedes ; who, however they may temporize occasionally, will hardly desert the protestant interest, when they find it in imminent danger.

[r] Engaging subsidies, and money otherwise properly applied, may, and certainly will, do mighty things towards the

the completion of this great design; and, very probably, the sagacious application of Louisdors has proved a bewitching charm to many mean and beggarly princes, to become the dupes of this enterprising court. It is pity, however, but such should become eternal and ignominious slaves themselves, who will fall in with schemes to enslave all Christendom.—But if the wise states of Holland will act heartily and zealously, in concert with the measures of Great Britain, to support their common trade and liberties, [See the article FISHERIES] the protestant-trading-interest may still be more than a match for that of the popish-trading-interest, which is surprizingly gaining ground every day. See the articles BISCAY, CASTILE, CATALONIA, and SPAIN, ITALY, PORTUGAL, and all the chief trading nations in EUROPE.

[s] The friendship of Turkey is good for France, it seems, because she can play the Turks against the house of Austria, and the Muscovites, when it suits her system. Certain it is, that such is the policy of this nation, that they have the art of insinuating themselves, some how, into the good liking of the great men of most courts, that they rarely miscarry in their state intrigues: whether it be owing to their superior address and urbanity of their public ministers, or being better skilled, in general, in the pleasing arts of b—y and in—gue, or more profuse in their presents, or living with more pomp and magnificence, than the appointments of the ministers of other nations will admit them to do in foreign courts, which gives a more exalted idea of their monarch we know not: true, however, it is, that they are, in the general, more successful in their negotiations, and commonly jockey their brethren of other countries; who are obliged, at length, to obtain that by mere dint of fighting, which the other can accomplish by intrigue.

If this may be attributed to the extraordinary advantages of a French education, as a late French writer, with great vanity, would insinuate (L'Esprit des Nations), it is the best apology that can be made, perhaps, for the travel, at least, of our nobility and gentry into that enchanting kingdom. But we rather ascribe this to the great power of F—h G—d, than to judgment and address so infinitely superior to those, which other public ministers may be endowed with.

[t] However omnipotent we Britons may presume to think ourselves, it is certain that France thinks quite otherwise, and their conduct has often shewn it within these few years. But, before ever the grand stroke of reducing this kingdom to a state of vassalage to France is to be struck, it is no bad policy to try our strength, and effectually to feel the pulse of those who pretend inviolable attachment to the French interest.—And, we may reasonably enough suppose, the rebellions that have been excited, since the present establishment took place, have been faint essays only, tending to try the experiment, at length, effectually: and, if some people, who are reckoned no small fools, are not quite out in their politics, there is no intention, any more than occasion, to make any fresh faint essays, but to strike the grand stroke at last; for it is said, it seems, by the Don Quixots of a neighbouring nation, Aut nunc, aut nunquam.—Is this the reason, why a certain person, that has made some noise in the world, plays at bo-peep with us? Is this the reason too, that dust is to be thrown in our eyes, by pretended divisions at home while they are really dividing other nations abroad, in order the more successfully to execute the grand system?

[u] To this end, has Holland been some years made to believe only, that France would enter into alliance with them to give them the trade still, by flattering them that they only have the knowledge of it, and are proper for it, and that the French (and as it is to be suggested, suggested only, indeed!) have no inclination to trade, and nature cannot be forced.

[w] Exquisite policy truly! And, has not Holland been some years thus amused and cajoled, that they are come to the happy time for advancing their affairs, and ruining their competitors [meaning Great Britain] in the sovereignty of the northern seas?

Let the eyes of Holland as well as Great Britain be at length opened! For they may both see clearly enough, if they will not obstinately shut their eyes, the mysterious scheme revealed, that has been long contrived for the ruin of the trade and liberties of both nations! And, can any thing more effectually accomplish this glorious plan, than distracting them in their domestic concerns, as well as dividing them both in friendship and alliance as nations? As these are some of the chief arts of conquest, ought not both nations most heartily to condemn them? The world will afford trade enough both for Holland and Britain; and, if they heartily and sincerely unite against the common enemy to both, there is no great difficulty so to distress their trade, as to put all schemes for universal empire for ever out of their power: and nothing but this, we have reason to believe, will put them out of their intention.

Before we conclude these remarks upon this French system, it may not be amiss to put the reader in mind in few words, that, since it first took place, the new conquests and acquisitions that France has made to her dominions, are those of Alsace and Lorraine on the side of Germany; those of Artois, the Cambresis, part of Flanders, Hainault, and Luxemburg, on the side of the Netherlands; and Roussillon, formerly a part of Catalonia, on the side of Spain.—Besides the mighty things they have done, and are still attempting to do, in America. For confirmation of which, see the ar-

ticles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA: to all which may be added, to take in the whole at one view, the mighty trade they have settled in all parts of the world, as we have seen at large, and shall make appear more minutely in the sequel of this work.

Further REMARKS ON FRANCE.

We judging this article of the last importance to the commercial interests of Great Britain in particular, as well as Europe in general, is the reason we have dwelt so long thereupon; and, with respect to what may concern the practical merchant, with relation to the commerce of France, we shall give under the articles of those provinces of France, wherein the chief trading cities of France are; as that of LYONS, under the article LYONNOIS; ROUEN, under the article NORMANDY; MARSEILLES, under the article PROVENCE; PARIS, under the article ISLE OF FRANCE, &c. But, in order to judge still more minutely of the trade and navigation of France, and of the extent of their territories, see, in particular, the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FRENCH AMERICA, and other heads, from these, to which we refer.

REMARKS ON our article FRANCE, since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, made in the year 1763.

We have here, with all brevity, traced the capital out-lines only of the conduct of France, both before and since the treaty of Utrecht, in relation to the incredible progress which that nation had successfully made in their commerce and navigation before the last war, as well as their advances towards that UNIVERSAL EMPIRE, over Europe, with which they have been many years charged with attempting. Whether this imputation has been wrongfully laid, let the preceding short state of their affairs, as given before the last war, determine,—together with no little variety of other matter no less alarming, which has been interspersed throughout the course of this work. See FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY, and such other heads as we refer to from them.

Hence may be judged, whether it was become necessary to restrain the power and dominion of France within narrower bounds, as well for the greater security of Europe in general, as this kingdom in particular? And whether the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF 1763, has effectually done that, time will shew.

Most certain it is, that this nation has incurred an immense public debt by the last war; a debt near treble what the nation laboured under at the demise of queen Anne; and which has been thought insupportable by some of our greater statesmen.

Had the treaty of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE contributed to have lowered the crest of our restless enemy, and reduced their power, as ought to have been done, in that war, France would not have dared instantly to prepare for a fresh rupture with this nation. Experiencing that they had sustained little injury by such a peace, and knowing that war had burdened us with a debt of THIRTY MILLIONS, and that from the weight of our additional taxes thereby occasioned, our whole commerce was become burdened with proportionate additional incumbrances, they hoped afterwards to obtain THAT by dint of COMMERCE, which they, in that war, had not done by the SWORD.

The plan of commercial empire which they had laid for that purpose, appears throughout this work. They too suddenly attempted its execution; but judged, if they failed, by another rupture with Great Britain, that they should still more and more oblige her to augment their PUBLIC DEBTS, and thereby more and more compel her to load and incumber her commerce with a multiplicity of oppressive taxes; and in consequence thereof, that they could not fail to gain in point of trade, what they should lose by war.—This seems to be the key that unlocks the political cabinet of France.—Nor can it be yet said, that they are mistaken in their system.—For our military conquests seems to have afresh animated them to exert and extend their commercial.—We have extended our territories, and contracted those of France; we have near trebled our tax-incumbrances, and oppressed our trade in general.—Of this we must and will take advantage, say our politic rivals; on this we chiefly depend still to beat the haughty islanders.

Let us not deceive ourselves; let us not flatter ourselves with security, when danger seems at hand. Are they the best friends to this kingdom, who point out the danger, or they who sooth us with lethargic safety? To alarm the nation with false and visionary fears, is what every well-intentioned man will detest. True it is, that for many years past, I have endeavoured to put my country upon it's guard.—Have not most of the essential points hitherto come to pass, that have been prejudged by the writer hereof? and had many measures suggested by him, been duly adopted, they might have been instrumental to have prevented millions upon millions of the

the public debts we have contracted; and yet have been never the less victorious than we have been, nor less secure by conquest.—And would not our **COMMERCIAL INTERESTS** have been more secure, with many millions of less public debts and taxes that we at present labour under?

The danger we are at present in, lies in the weight, the great and oppressive weight of taxes, with which our whole trade and navigation are loaded. Does not this render the whole produce and manufactures of England so excessively dear to foreign nations, that they are not able; they cannot afford to purchase them; however they may be inclined to it? Is not this the great objection against our manufactures in general, in every foreign nation, with which we have dealings? Will not this give every commercial competing nation, whose commodities are cheaper, an advantage over England? Can we flatter ourselves with the continuance of our ancient customers, when they can buy the like commodities from 20 to 50 per cent. cheaper? Will the supposed superior quality of an English commodity obtain the preference, though so great a difference in the price? Is there any thing magically captivating in the term English? Let us not be vain enough to flatter ourselves, that old customs and usages may not be so easily laid aside in foreign countries; have we not seen how France has made their advantage hereof? Have they not politically imitated every capital English manufacture, and that not only in length, and breadth, &c. but in the very manner of package, &c. and have they not, and do they not daily continue to impose them more or less in foreign nations for English commodities? And while English factors or merchants in foreign countries can dispose of French commodities, by reason of their price, preferably to English, under the counterfeit disguise of being such, will they not combine with the French to carry on the deception? We know they will not scruple any thing of this kind, the reader to sell their wares. And provided the difference in **PRICE** is greatly in favour of the sale of the French commodities, though their **QUALITIES** shall be something inferior to the English, which may not be the case in the general; yet their greater cheapness will induce foreign nations to give them the preference to real English commodities.—And by what means can practices of this nature be prevented effectually? Certainly by none so effectual, as by those of being able to sell as good, or even better, a commodity for as little money as any foreign nation whatever shall be able to do.—This will not only preserve our old foreign customers, but attract new; and without it, we shall lose our old, and obtain no new to supply their place.—I could wish that our rulers would most seriously think of a matter, wherein the **GREATEST INTERESTS** of England is concerned; think of it so as to devise all possible measures to prevent an evil so absolutely ruinous and destructive of our whole commercial prosperity.

'Tis true, we have beat both France and Spain in the field, and we have annexed very great and extensive new territories to the British crown; but I desire to be informed, whether France, in particular, is not likely to beat us in their turn in point of trade, by being able to sell their commodities considerably cheaper than the English will ever be able to do, while their trade is oppressed with such a multitude of **Tax—Incumbrances** as the last and our former wars have occasioned? France must and will most certainly gain the commercial conquest, though we have the military, unless our statesmen take and execute vigorously the proper measures to prevent it: and this without delay. For, when France have established a universal commerce over the world, by dint of the cheaper, and fascinating modes of many of their commodities for which they are famed, will England be able soon or ever to supplant them? Should that be ever accomplished, must it not be by lowering the prices of our English wares in general, and yet not by depreciating their quality? Because, if we degenerate in quality, in order to lessen the price, that will totally ruin, instead of promote, the reputation of the English; and then it would be to the disadvantage of a rival nation to counterfeit the *Façon d'Angleterre*. They would raise their own credit upon the ruin of ours.

Provided then the excessive dearth of our commodities, compared with those in general of our foreign competitors, is likely to prove destructive of the English trade; and that this is occasioned by the prodigious height and multiplicity of our **Tax—Incumbrances**, is it not the natural way to remove the cause, that the effect may cease? It requires no depth of understanding to start this policy.

If then we shall not be able to sell our English commodities to foreigners, how long shall we be in a capacity to buy of other nations? Not long certainly. When this comes to be our case, how will the **REVENUE OF CUSTOMS** BE AFFECTED? If our **IMPORTS DWINDLE** AS OUR **EXPORTS SHALL**, WILL NOT THIS GREAT BRANCH OF THE **PUBLIC REVENUE DECLINE IN PROPORTION**? Should our customs diminish in yearly produce, from one to two millions, how will the legislature be able to supply such deficiency? And are not our custom-house funds mortgaged for the payment of interest to our public creditors, for as many millions of principal money, as the diminution of the re-

venue shall amount to? Nay, are they not mortgaged for the payment of the principal, as well as interest of our public creditors?—But if once their interest funds fail, by their annihilation, will not public credit inevitably sink, and the alarm of a **GENERAL BANKRUPTCY** ENSUE? For we know not when it may stop, when such a dread should take place. When the custom funds so diminish, in what plight can we expect to experience our excise ones? If our imports decline so sensibly, will not that be a sure criterion that our exports do? And, if that be the case, how will the people be able to consume excised commodities? Can we restrain our artists and manufacturers from stealing out of the nation? What will it avail us to detain them to starve?

In what condition this nation is to get rid of a competent proportion of its **TAX—INCUMBRANCES**, in order to prevent so melancholy a catastrophe, is considered under **FUNDS**. See **LABOUR, DUTIES**.

FRANCHE COMTE, or county of **BURGUNDY** in France. This province is bounded on the north by Lorraine, on the east by mount Jura, on the south it borders on the countries of Bresse and Burgoy, and has the county of Aufsonne on the west.

There are in this country mines of copper, lead, iron, and silver: also mineral waters, and quarries of all sorts; in some of which, are very clear and white alabaster, black marble, and Jasper of several colours; some blocks of which, about Salini, are large enough for columns 12 or 15 feet high.

The surface of the earth produces abundance of wheat, wine, hay, flax, walnut-trees, &c. and the hills feed great quantities of cattle.

Along the rivers Soan, Doux, and Lognon, are about thirty forges, where they make a vast quantity of excellent iron-works, as also bombs and bullets. And at Besançon and Pontarlier are a great many armourers, who work extremely well. In the hilly parts they breed a great number of horses, which is the most profitable trade of this province. They make also here about twelve hundred thousand pounds weight of saltpetre yearly, and could even make more, if required.

GRAY, on the river Soan, drives a greater trade than any other city in the province, for here they load the vessels which carry wheat and iron to Lyons.

SALINS, is a populous city, and famous for its springs of salt water, which are the most profitable produce of this province.

FRANCONIA in Germany. This duchy, which is one of the chief circles of the empire, is bounded on the north by Thuringia, Saxony, and Heflia, on the south by Swabia, on the east by the palatinate of Bavaria and part of Bohemia, and on the west by that of the Rhine, part of Heflia and Watteravia.

The soil is in some parts mountainous and barren, but in others very fruitful, producing corn, wine, liquorice, saffron, and fruits.

ERLANGEN, is a well built town, though fifty years ago it was only a little village in a forest of fir-trees, but owes its flourishing state to a colony of French people flying hither from persecution. They have set up all sorts of manufactures here, and have made it one of the prettiest towns in Germany.

ANSFACH, is a small but pretty town, and has also good manufactures erected by the French refugees.

WERTHEIM, trades chiefly in making of wine, with which it drives a considerable trade on the Mayne.

NUREMBERG, is reckoned one of the largest, finest, and richest cities in the empire, and the glory of Germany; and, considering its great distance from the sea, is the wonder of Europe for trade and number of people.

No city in the world has a greater number of curious workmen, in metal of all sorts, ivory, wood, &c. nor affords artificial commodities so cheap. The Nuremberg brass is said to be the most ductile, the brightest, and least subject to flaws of any in Europe; and is made, chiefly, out of the Tyrol copper. They are particularly famous for clock-work. The citizens began to trade to foreign parts about the year 1300, and their merchandize was not only carried throughout Europe, but to the East-Indies and America; and they have a bank on the same regulation almost, as that of Venice. Here are two annual trading fairs, [see the article **FAIRS**]; and 'twas from this part of Germany, that those we called Dutch toys, used to be imported hither.

The Dutch, particularly the merchants of Amsterdam, carry on a great trade to Nuremberg; 'tis from thence they have such incredible quantities of mercery wares and toys, which are afterwards sent all over the world, and at so low a price, that 'tis not easy to conceive, how they can make and export them. The Dutch, in return, send pepper, all sorts of spicery, ginger, indigo, logwood, sugar in powder, and refined ivory, Russia leather, thin woollen stuffs and camblets, clothes, ferges, flannels, India goods, muslins, &c. The duties of exports from Nuremberg are very moderate; their fairs every year hold three weeks, during which time, all goods, of whatever value or quality, are exempt from duties; for which reason, all merchants, at this time, take what foreign goods they may have occasion for: this exemption begins on Easter day.

The bank in this city takes in only valuable coins ; all bills of exchange ought to be paid into this bank, where exchange, or returns of cash, is as low as at Amsterdam ; all bills of exchange have six days grace, exclusive of Sundays and holidays. The sixth day it should be protested, lest the bill be returned while the bank is shut up, for those six days are not reckoned, but as days of favour or grace ; and though there intervenes a holiday during the six days of grace, it is payable at the expiration of them, if the bank is open. There is no constant open exchange between Amsterdam and Nuremberg ; that is, Amsterdam rarely draws upon Nuremberg, but Nuremberg often does upon Amsterdam, upon paying in at Nuremberg from 130 to 140 rixdollars, to receive at Amsterdam 100 rixdollars bank money : Nuremberg bills are commonly drawn 14 days after sight. The pound of Amsterdam is two in the hundred lighter than Nuremberg ; so that a hundred pound of Amsterdam is equivalent to ninety-eight of Nuremberg.

100 Ells Nuremberg is 104½ of Amsterdam.

ROTTEMBURG on the Tauber, in the marquisate of Anspach, is a very pretty trading city.

SCHWEINFURT, on the Mayne, is neither large nor populous, but the territory belonging to it is very fertile, and said to be the richest spot in Franconia ; so that the inhabitants drive a great trade in corn, which they export by water, together with woollen and linen cloth, and goose feathers.

FREIGHT, is a term of naval commerce, signifying the hire of a ship, intirely or in part, to carry goods from one port to another. It is called *Nolis* in the Levant.

With regard to France.

When a ship is intirely hired, and the freighter does not load it, the master may not, without his consent, or accounting for the freight, take in other goods to load his ship up.

The merchant not loading the quantity specified in the charter-party [see CHARTER-PARTY] must pay the freight as if he did ; and, if he load more, must pay for that overplus.

A master, reporting his vessel of greater burden than she is, is liable to pay damages and interest to the merchant, but not unless it exceed a fortieth part.

When a ship is laded by the hundred, or ton, the merchant may unlade before the ship's departure, paying the charges of unlading, and half the freight.

The master may put on shore any goods he finds on board, that were not mentioned to him, or take what freight for them he thinks fit.

A merchant, unlading his goods during the voyage, must pay the whole freight, provided it be not the master's fault.

If a ship be detained in her voyage, or at the delivering port, by the freighter's fault, or having been freighted out and home, is forced to return light, interest for delay, and the whole freight, are due to the master ; but, if it were the master's fault, he must answer damages and interests to the freighter, to be settled by persons skilled in such matters.

If a master be forced to refit during the voyage, the merchant must wait, or pay the whole freight. If the vessel cannot be refitted, the master must hire another immediately ; if he cannot, he is not to have freight but in proportion as the voyage shall be advanced. If the merchant can prove the vessel was not in a condition to sail when she departed, the master loses his freight, and must answer damages and interests to the merchant.

Freight is due for goods thrown over-board at sea for the common safety, at the charge of the contribution. Freight is also due for goods the master may be forced to sell for victuals, refitting, and other pressing necessities, accounting for their value at the price the rest shall sell for.

If trade be prohibited with the country to which a ship is bound, and the master be obliged to return laden, he can only expect his freight outwards, though he were freighted both out and home : and if the ship be stopped by sovereign order during her voyage, no freight is due for the time she is detained, if by the month, nor additional freight, if by the voyage ; but an average is allowed for the sailors wages and maintenance during that time.

When the person named in the bill of lading refuses to receive the goods, the master may sell them to pay freight, and lay the rest in a warehouse, but must do it by authority of justice.

The master can claim no freight for goods lost by shipwreck, or taken by pirates or enemies, and must even restore any already advanced to him, unless it be otherwise agreed ; but if the ship and goods were redeemed, the master must then be paid his freight to the time of capture, even the whole freight, if he hath carried them to the intended port, contributing to the ransom of them.

The contribution for ransom is to be at the current price of the goods at the place where delivered, deducting for charges ; and on the ship and freight, deducting for provisions consumed, and advances to the sailors, who must also contribute to the discharge of the freight, proportionable to what is due of their wages.

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The master is also to have freight for goods saved from shipwreck, conveying them to the intended port ; and if he can find no vessel to convey them, he must have freight only for so much of the voyage as is made.

A master may not detain goods on board for freight, but only at delivering opposte the transporting them, or cause them to be seized in the lighters.

The master is preferred for his freight, whether the goods be on board, in barges, or on the quay, even 15 days after delivery, provided they are not in the hands of a third person.

A merchant may not oblige the master to take for his freight goods lessened in price, spoiled by his own fault, or by chance. But if goods in casks, as wine, oil, honey, and other liquors, have leaked almost out, merchants may leave them for the freight.

No person whatever may under-freight ships at a higher price than the first contractor, on pain of fine and imprisonment, according to the case ; but the freighter may, to his own profit, take freight of other goods, to load up the vessel intirely freighted by him.

These regulations are all taken from the book of marine ordinances of August 1681.

Receipt of freight is limited to one year after finishing the voyage, and after that the master cannot demand it.

The custom of Amsterdam, and other ports of the United Provinces, in freighting ships.

The brokers usually transact these affairs, to whom the merchants apply, whether they have goods sufficient to freight intirely, or only part of a ship.

When the broker has produced a proper ship, the owners and freighters bargain about the price, either by the whole, or at so much the last or ton. When they freight a whole ship, it must be expressed whether she is to be laden out and home, or to return free, or, lastly, to go light, and return laden.

It must be observed, that if the cargo is intended for foreign countries, the price must be agreed for in money there current, as in livres Tournois, if for cities of France situated on the ocean ; in piasters for Marseilles, and others in the Mediterranean ; in pounds sterling for Great-Britain ; in cruzados for Portugal ; in piasters or ducats for Spain ; in marcs lubs for Hamburg ; in rixdollars for almost all the Baltic ; in rubles for Muscovy, and so of others.

When a ship is freighted out and home, the freight is in florins current at Amsterdam, or other loading port.

The freighter can oblige the captain freighted by him, to shew all his dispatches, letters of mark, passports, &c. necessary for the voyage.

In war time the freighter usually furnishes the passport, if he freight the whole vessel, otherwise the captain.

To avoid all disputes in general with regard to affreightments, the agreement must be for all the ship can carry, not what the captain says she can, which often exceeds the real burthen.

When a ship is freighted for foreign countries, a charter-party must be made by a notary, to be paid by the freighter and master equally : but the master must pay the broker.

The charter-party should contain, beside the price of freight, the averages and expences to be paid by the freighter, the days of demurrage on arrival at the delivering-port, the allowance for every day after, if the ship be not laden within the time agreed on.

At Amsterdam, when the ships are of too deep draught of water to pass the Pampuis, either going out or on return, the owners must find lighters ; but if they are got by reason of some accident happening to the ship at going out or in of the Texel, the charges are to be accounted as average.

The master, on return, may claim his freight before delivery of the goods, but the custom is to deliver them to those who come for them, with the bill of lading indorsed by the merchant, to whom they belong ; and some days after the master, or broker, make out the account of freight and averages on the back of the bill of lading, subscribing their acquittance on receiving the amount.

At Amsterdam, when they freight boats or small vessels for the neighbouring cities or provinces, the agreement with the watermen is by the last, ton, piece, or bale, or for what the boat can take in. If the boats can strike their masts, and are not too big to pass the bridges, the watermen are obliged to take in their lading before the merchant's house or warehouse ; or if too large, must come as near as possible ; but the goods must be brought thither at the merchants cost, who must also find all the necessary passports, &c.

'Tis customary and proper to agree with the watermen for the time they are to lie at the delivering-port, without being paid more than the freight : these days of demurrage are settled in some places.

FREIGHT, signifies also in France, a certain due of 50 sols the sea ton, paid into the offices of the king's farms, by the masters of foreign vessels, at going in or out of the several ports of the kingdom, pursuant to the declaration of June 1659.

'Tis to be observed here, that vessels, not built in France, are accounted

accounted foreign, though belonging to the king's subjects, and as such are liable to the payment of it, unless otherwise exempt, and two thirds of the crew are French.

By the treaty of Utrecht in April 1713, between France and the States General, Dutch vessels were freed from this tax, and a decree made the May following to secure the enjoyment of this exemption to them, in all ports of France, to or from what country soever bound, laden or light, except only when conveying goods from one French port to another. By the 11th article of the treaty concluded also at Utrecht, the English are exempted from it, on taking off at the same time in favour of the French the tax of five sols; but the execution of this act was suspended, as well as the tariff proposed between the two nations.

The vessels of the Hanse-Towns were also freed from it, in as full and ample manner as the Dutch, conformable to the fourth article of the treaty concluded at Paris in September 1716, between France and the cities of Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen.

An order of the council of state in France, in April 1701, regulating the payment of the duty of freight.

The king, being informed of the frequent contests among the commissioners of his farms, merchants, and masters of ships, concerning the freight of 50 sols the ton, and desiring to put an end to them, ordaineth as follows:

Art. 1. It shall be paid by masters or owners of foreign ships, &c. which are liable according to the import of the declaration.

2. Masters of vessels must make true reports of the burden and contents of their vessels, &c. within 24 hours of their arrival.

3. If the commissioners of the farms agree not as to the number of tons reported by the master, it may be amicably adjusted between the parties by the gauge of the vessels.

4. If they cannot so adjust it, it must go before the judges who have cognizance of this tax, and are to cause admeasurement by persons skilled, but without hindrance to the unloading or departure of the vessel.

5. The charge of admeasurement to be borne by the farmers or their deputies.

6. If the vessel be found not to exceed the burthen declared by the master, above one tenth, he is to be no otherwise sentenced than to payment according to the gauge.

7. If the vessel's burden exceed the master's declaration more than a tenth, he shall pay the tax for that excess, and 50 livres fine for every ton so exceeding the number declared, and all expences.

8. If the vessel be found not to exceed the burthen declared by the masters, the farmers shall pay all costs and damages.

9. Masters of foreign vessels, &c. liable to the tax, must pay it at the delivering-ports, unless specified in the charter-party, bill of lading, &c. that part of the cargo is to be delivered in one port, and part in another, or several others of the kingdom, in which case it shall be all paid at the first of these ports.

10. If, however, a foreign vessel enter any river of the kingdom laden, on which are several ports, she shall not be reputed to have made more than one voyage, and pay but once, namely, at the first she begins to unlade at, though in the bills of lading, &c. but one of those ports be mentioned.

11. If the masters of vessels lade in the first or other of the ports mentioned in the bills of lading, &c. goods of the kingdom, to carry them with the rest of their cargo to some other ports of the kingdom, the whole tax shall be due at every delivering-port, though it were those signified in the bills of lading.

12. A foreign vessel having unladed in one or more ports of the kingdom, and pay the tax, and proceeding afterwards to load in any other port or ports of the kingdom, for foreign parts, shall not pay again.

13. And moreover, the said ordinance of the farms of July 1681, and other regulations, concerning the tax of freight, shall be executed according to their form and tenor.

We have already mentioned the foreign nations exempt from this tax by treaties of commerce made with them. But it may be noted that, in time of war, the French king often grants the same exemption to neutral nations, in order to facilitate the trade of his subjects with strangers. Such are, amongst others, the Swedes and Danes, in whose favour Lewis XIV. made several decrees.

It may also be observed, that foreign nations, though discharged of this tax by their treaties, and in particular the Dutch, are nevertheless to pay them, if at war with France, and obtain passports to load wine, brandy, and other goods permitted to be exported, to import those permitted by their passports. For this purpose were the decrees of October 1704, of March 1705, and of August the same year.

Of FREIGHT according to the laws and usages in England.

I. Respect is always had herein to the ship itself, or a certain part of it. Again, merchants freight either by the month, the

voyage, or the ton; for to freight a ship, or to take certain tonnage to freight, are different things, as are also to be a cap-merchant, or under freighter.

II. There was of old another way of freighting, the merchant agreeing with the master for a sum, to convey his goods insured against all peril, being responsible for any loss, but 'tis now out of use.

III. Freight is governed generally by the written agreement called a charter-party, executed between the owners or master and merchants, or else by parole.

The master or owners generally covenant to provide a pilot, and all necessaries for the voyage, and for lading and delivering.

If there be agreement and earnest, but no writing, the merchant breaking off loseth his earnest, but the owners or master double the earnest.

But by the common law of England, the party damnified may bring his action, and recover all damages on the agreement.

If a time be appointed by charter-party, and either the ship be not ready to take in, or the merchant to put on board, the parties are at liberty, with remedy by action, for the detriment. [See the article CHARTER-PARTY.]

If part be on board, and some misfortune prevent the merchant's sending the whole in time, the master may contract with another, and have freight as damage for the time they were on board longer than limited. And though it be not prudent for every merchant or master to break the contract, though the agreement as to lading be not according to promise (seldom or ever done, if part be aboard) yet 'tis highest justice, that ships and masters be unfettered and free: as, by the bare lading of a cask or bale, they may lose the passage or season of the year.

So on the other hand, if the vessel is not ready, the merchant may ship the remainder of his goods aboard another, and recover damages against the first master or owners. This is grounded on the like reason.

Therefore, by the law marine, chance, or other notorious necessity, will excuse the master, but he loses his freight till he breaks ground.

But if the merchant be in fault, he must answer the damage, or be liable to maintain the crew ten days; but if after that, the full freight: if damage afterwards, 'tis the merchant's risque. But by the common law, while the goods are on board, the master must see them forth-coming.

IV. Charter-parties have always, by the common law, had a genuine construction as near as may be, not according to the literal sense of traders, yet must be regularly pleaded. Wherefore, in an action of covenant on indenture of charter-party, dated Sept. 8. 38 Eliz. between the plaintiff and Francis Cherry; whose ship the plaintiff hired for a voyage to Dantzick, where (on taking the ship) it was agreed she should take in corn for Leghorn. By agreement the defendant was to have half of the corn, which then was, or afterwards should be laden during the voyage, covenanting to pay half of the money for it, &c. and alledgeth in fact, that Oct. 9. 38 Eliz. the ship was laden with sixty lasts of corn, and for not performing this covenant the action was brought; and the defendant pleaded, the deed was sealed and delivered, Oct. 28. 38 Eliz. and, as to then or after, there was not any corn laden there, and traverseth the delivery Oct. 9. or at any time afterwards, before 28 Oct. 38 Eliz. And it was adjudged upon demurrer, That in regard the plaintiff declared upon a deed dated Oct. 9. 38 Eliz. it shall be intended to have it's essence and delivery at that time, and no other; and if he should confess it to be delivered at any other time, it would be a departure from his declaration, and the word (then) is referred to the delivery, and not to the date; and, if delivered ten months after the date, he should not have the benefit of the corn laden before the delivery: and therefore, the defendant was adjudged not to be charged with paying for any corn before delivery of the deed, the words of the deed being, to pay for the corn then laden, &c. which (then) is referred to the time of the essence of the deed by the delivery, and not to the date.

Atkinson did contract with Buckle for carriage of 100 quarters of barley, and promised to deliver unto him the 100 quarters of barley, a ship-board at Barton haven, in the county of York, to carry them for him, and for the carriage did promise to pay him so much; and Buckle did promise carriage, and accordingly brought his ship to the said haven, expecting there the delivery of the barley; but Atkinson came not to deliver it, whereupon Buckle brought his action of the case upon the promise, and, upon non assumpsit pleaded, had a verdict and judgment, affirmed upon a writ of error. Charter-party (i. e. a deed or writing divided) is the same, in civil law, with an indenture at the common law. It settles the agreement and bills of lading, contents of the cargo, binding the master to deliver them well conditioned at the place of discharge; and, for performance, the master obliges himself, ship, tackle, and furniture.

Covenant on a charter-party between Bolton owner and Lee and Morgan merchants, freighters of a ship, by which Bolton put to freight the ship in a voyage to Guinea, at 48 l.

the month; and there was a mutual covenant between the parties, and every one of them in manner following; and then divers covenants follow, concerning the ship's tackle and performance of the voyage; and then a covenant for the payment of the freight, viz. when the ship arrived at Guinea, the freight then due was upon notice to be paid in England, and on arrival there, the residue from the time of the last payment was to be paid. And saith, that at such a time the ship arrived, and that six months and ten days were then past; which came to so much, of which notice was given: and that after such a time the ship arrived at England, and the freight for six months, from the time of the last payment, and the freight came to 287 l. 4 s. and that the defendant had not paid any of the sums, upon which the defendant demurred, and took these exceptions to the declaration:

1. For this, that the action is brought against one of the defendants only, omitting the other.

2. For that it appears on computation, the plaintiff demanded more upon the first breach than is due by 30 s. and less than is due upon the second by 16 s. and though the first may be cured by the jurors finding less, or the plaintiff's releasing the overplus, yet where he demands less than due, 'tis incurable; and cited several books there quoted for that purpose in assumpsit; whereas, in this case, only damages are to be recovered; and on the other part was cited Cro. Jac. 498. Pemberton versus Skelton, and 529, &c. Hale chief-justice took a difference between this case of covenant and debt, and held, that after verdict it had been cured without question, but upon demurrer there may be some doubt, it being general; but, had it been special, it had been ill, and ruled judgment.

V. If goods are fully laded, and the ship hath broke ground, the merchant afterwards declines the adventure, and will unlade again; by the law marine the freight is due.

And if the ship on her voyage become unable without the master's fault, or he be arrested by some prince or state in her voyage, he may either mend his ship or freight another. But if the merchant will not agree to it, the freight becomes due for what the ship has earned, otherwise the master is liable for all damages that shall happen. If therefore the ship to which the goods were passed, perished, the master shall answer; but if both perish, he is discharged. But if there be extreme necessity, as the ship a sinking, and an empty ship pass by, or at hand, he may translate the goods; and if that ship perish, he is excused: but it must appear the ship seemed probable and sufficient.

VI. If a set time be agreed on between the merchant and master, to begin and end the voyage, it may not be altered by the supercargo, without special commission.

If a master shall sail on his voyage, after the time agreed on for his departure, if damage happen afterwards, he shall make it good. Yet if a charter-party is made, that the plaintiff shall sail from London to Lisbon with the first opportunity, &c. in consideration of which the merchant covenanted for so much freight; the ship departs not with the first wind, yet afterwards breaks ground, and arrives at her port, the freight here is due; for nothing can debar the ship of it but the not departure, which only is in law traversable, being material to avoid payment of freight.

If it be agreed, the master shall sail from London to Leghorn in two months, if he begins the voyage within that time, though he does not arrive at Leghorn in the time, the freight is due.

Where the East-India company by charter-party might keep the ship a long time in India, and did till she was unfit for service, and could not come home, they were obliged in Chancery to pay the damage, though by the charter-party it was payable at the ship's return.

So where no freight was to be paid for the cargo outwards but homewards, and the factor abroad had no goods to load her homewards, payment of freight was decreed.

So though the officers and mariners gave bond not to demand wages unless the ship returned to London, she arrived at the delivering-port, and was afterwards taken by the enemy. They had their wages to the delivering-port.

VII. If the ship be freighted from one port to another, thence to a third, &c. and so home to the port whence she first sailed (commonly called a trading voyage) 'tis all but one and the same voyage, if in conformity to the charter-party.

A merchant agrees to pay a master a certain sum for carrying his goods to such a port; in the voyage the ship is assaulted and robbed by pirates of part of her lading, and the remainder is carried to the delivering-port, yet the sum agreed on is not due, the agreement being not performed by the master. But, by the civil law, this is vis major, or casus fortuitus, there being no default in the master or mariners, and the same is in danger of the sea, which, if not expressed in naval agreements, is naturally implied: for, had those goods which the pirates took, been in stress of weather thrown overboard, navis levandæ causa, it would not have disabled receipt of the sum agreed on; for, by both common and marine law, the act of God, or of any enemy, shall no ways work a wrong in actions private.

VIII. If a ship freighted by the ton be full laden according to the charter-party, the freight is payable for the whole, otherwise for the amount of the tons only.

If freight be contracted for lading certain cattle, or the like, from Dublin to West-Chester, if some die before the ship's arrival, the whole freight is due as well for the dead as living.

But if contracted for transporting them, if death happens, freight is due on delivery for the living only.

If the cattle or slaves are sent abroad, and no agreement made either for lading or transporting them, but generally, then freight shall be paid for both dead and living.

If freight be contracted for women, and in the voyage they be delivered of children, no freight is due for the infants.

The charter-party settles the agreement, and the bills of lading the contents of the cargo, and binds the master to deliver them well conditioned at the place of discharge, according to the agreements; and, for performance, the master obliges himself, ship, tackle, &c.

If goods are sent aboard, generally the freight must be according to freight for like voyages.

If a ship be freighted for 200 tons, or thereabouts, this last word is meant of within five tons, more or less, as a moiety of the number ten, of which the whole number is compounded.

If a ship be freighted by the great, and the burden not expressed, yet the sum certain is to be paid.

IX. If the ship, by any fault of the freighter, as lading aboard prohibited goods, be detained, he shall answer the freight contracted.

If a ship be freighted out and in, no freight is due till the voyage be performed: if, therefore, the ship perish coming home, the whole freight is lost.

13 July 1680, in Chancery, a part owner of a ship sued the other owners, for his share of freight of a voyage finished; but he would not join with the other owners in the charge of fitting her out; on which they complained in the admiralty, and were ordered to give security for the plaintiff's share, if the ship perished in the voyage; in such a case, by the law marine, and course of the admiralty, the plaintiff was to have no share of the freight. It was referred to Sir Lionel Jenkins, who certified, that it was so in all places, for otherwise there would be no navigation; so the plaintiff's bill was dismissed.

X. A master freighting his ship, and afterwards secretly taking in other goods, loses his freight; and if any of the freighter's goods should, for the ship's safety, be cast overboard, the rest shall not be subject to average [see AVERAGE] but the master must make it good: but if the goods are shipped unknown to him, 'tis otherwise, and they are subject to what freight the master thinks fit. The ship putting into any other port than she is freighted to, the master shall answer damage to the merchant; but if forced in by storm, enemy or pirates, he then must sail to the port conditioned at his own costs.

Generally, the touching at several ports by agreement, imports not a diversity, but a voyage entire.

XI. If passengers having goods die on ship-board, the master is to inventory their concerns, which if none claim within a year, he becomes proprietor defeasible: but the bedding and furniture become the master's and his mates, and the cloathing must be brought to the mast-head, and there appraised and distributed amongst the crew, as a reward for their care in seeing the body put into the sea.

The captain died leaving money on board, the mate became captain, and improved the money, he shall, on allowance for his care, account both for interest and profits.

XII. The ship's lading, in construction of law, is tacitly obliged for the freight, it being, in point of payment, preferred before any other debts to which the goods laden are liable, though such were precedent to the freight, for the goods remain as it were bailed for the same: nor can they be attached in the master's hands, though it is vulgarly conceived otherwise.

Ships deserve wages like a labourer; and therefore, in the eye of the law, actions, touching them, are generally construed favourably, for the Ship and owners: and therefore, if four part-owners of five account with freighters, and receive the proportions, yet the fifth man may sue singly both by common and marine law.

XIII. A ship in her voyage is taken by an enemy, and retaken by a ship in amity, restitution is made and she proceeds on, the contract is not determined, though taking by the enemy divested the owners of their property; yet by the law of war that possession was defeasible, and being recovered in battle, the owners became re-invested: so the contract, by fiction of law, became as if she never had been taken, and so the whole freight is due. Covenant by charter-party, that the ship shall return within the river Thames by a certain time (dangers of the sea excepted) within which time she is taken on the sea. Resolved this impediment was within the exception, the words intending as well the danger of pirates and men of war, as of the sea, by shipwreck, tempest, or the like. Pickering and Berkley's case.

XIV. If

XIV. If freight be taken for 100 tons of wine, and 20 leak out, so that there's not above 8 inches from the buge upwards, yet the freight is due; because from that gauge the king is intitled to custom; but, if under 8 inches, 'tis then conceived to be in the freighter's choice to fling them up to the master for freight, and the merchant is discharged. But most conceive otherwise; for if all had leaked out (if no fault in the master) 'tis no reason the ship should lose her freight, which arises from the tonnage taken; and if the leakage was occasioned by storm, the same may, perhaps, come into an average. Besides, in Bourdeaux, the master stows not the goods, but officers appointed for the purpose, which note. A special convention may alter the case.

Certainly if a ship freighted be cast away, the freight vanishes; but if by the ton or pieces of goods, and part be saved, doubted whether, pro rata, she ought not to be answered a freight.

Debt on a charter-party on a penalty; the covenant was to pay so much a ton freight, and breach was assigned on non-payment of so many tons and an hoghead, which came to so much: on demurrer, the declaration was held to be ill, the covenant being only so much a ton.

XV. A merchant freights by contracting with a mariner that is not a master; if loss happens, he must be content without remedy against the owners; but the mariner, perhaps, subjects himself to an action.

But if the mariner were hired or put in by the master or owners, there for reparation the owners become liable.

XVI. The master is not bound to answer freight to the owners for passengers, if they are unable to pay.

If a ship by charter-party, reciting to be of 200 tons burden, is taken to freight for a sum certain, to be paid at her return, it must be paid, though the ship amounts not to that burden.

If a ship freighted at 20 l. every month she shall be out, payable on arrival at London, the ship is cast away coming round from the Downs, but the lading all preserved, the freight is due: for the money is due monthly by contract, and the place mentioned only to shew where payment is to be made. Besides, 'tis due on bringing the goods to London, not the ship.

If a man freights a ship out, and covenants that, with the first wind, she sail to Cales, covenanting, that for the freight of all the premises he would pay to the master 184 l. the master not averring, the ship did arrive at Cales, cannot maintain an action against the freighter.

The master, entering into a charter-party for himself and owners, in that case may release the freighters without advising with the owners; but if they let out the ship to freight, though the master subscribe the charter-party, his release will not bind the owners, but theirs will conclude him: the reason is, for that the master is not made a proper party to the indenture. And so 'twas ruled in the case of Scudamore and other owners of the ship B, of which Robert Pitman was master on the one part, and Vandensstone on the other; in which indenture, the plaintiff covenanted with Vandensstone and Pitman, and bound themselves to the plaintiff and Pitman for performance of covenants in 600 l. and the conclusion of the indenture was,—In witness whereof the said Robert Pitman put his hand and seal, and delivered the same, in an action for not performing certain covenants in it; the defendant pleaded Pitman's release, whereupon the plaintiff demurred: and it was adjudged, that Pitman's release did not bar the plaintiff, he being no party.

If an indenture of charter-party be made between A and B owners of a ship of the one part, and C and D merchants of the other, and A only seals the deed of the one part, and C and D of the other; but in the indenture A and B covenant with C and D, and C and D covenant with A and B, who in this case may join in action against C and D, though B never sealed the deed to which he is a party, and C and D have sealed the other part to B as well as to A.

XVII. Covenant on a charter-party, by which the master is to sail with the first fair wind to Barcelona, and the mariners to attend with a boat to relade the ship, and then return with the first fair wind to London and deliver the goods, and the merchants covenant for so much freight and demurrage every day; for which the master brought his action, and declares he sailed with the first fair wind, and upon all the other points. The defendant as to the freight, that the ship did not return to London, but went to Alicant and Tangier, and by these delays the goods were spoiled, and that the demurrage was occasioned by the mariner's negligence, in not attending with the boat to relade the ship; to which the plaintiff demurred, the covenants being mutual and reciprocal, on which each shall have his action against the other, but not plead the breach of one in bar of another; for, perhaps, the damages of the one and of the other, are not equal.

In covenant the plaintiff declared, he covenanted to sail with a ship to D in Ireland, and there take 280 of the defendant's men, and carry them to Jamaica; and defendant covenanted to have them ready, and to pay 5 l. each for their passage; but there were only 180 whom he carried, but defendant had not paid for them; defendant pleaded he had the 280 men

ready, and tendered to the plaintiff, who would not receive them, but said nothing as to carrying the 180, nor to the payment; and, for that it was not a plea at all, judgment was given for the plaintiff on demurrer.

Some general allowed maxims, in regard to Freight.

I. All articles, for freighting of ships, shall be reduced to writing, and agreed to by the merchants that freight, and the master or owners of the ships freighted.

II. The master shall observe the owners orders, when he freights the ship at the place of their residence.

III. The charter-party shall contain the name and burthen of the vessel, of the master and freighters, the place and time of lading and unlading, the freight, the time the vessel is to stay at the respective ports, and the conventions about demurrage; to which the parties may add what other conditions they please.

IV. The time of lading and unlading the goods shall be regulated according to the custom of the respective ports, unless determined by the charter-party.

V. If a ship be freighted by the month, and the time of freight be not regulated by the charter-party, it shall only commence from the day the ship shall sail.

VI. He who having received a summons in writing, to fulfil a contract, refuses, or delays it, shall make good all the loss and damage.

VII. But if, before the ship's departure, there should happen an embargo, occasioned by war, reprisals, or otherwise, with the country whither the ship is bound, the charter-party shall be dissolved, without any damages or charges on either side, and the merchant shall pay charges of lading and unlading his goods; but if the difference be with one another, the charter-party shall be valid in all it's points.

VIII. If the ports be only shut, and the vessels stopped by force, for a time, the charter-party shall still be valid, and the master and merchant reciprocally obliged to expect the opening of the ports, and liberty of the ships, without any pretensions for damages on either side.

IX. However, the merchant may, at his own charge, unlade his goods, during the embargo, or shutting up of the port, on condition to lade them again, or indemnify the master.

X. The master shall be obliged, during the voyage, to have on board the charter-party, and the other necessary deeds concerning his lading.

XI. The ship, rigging and tackle, freight and goods laded, shall be respectively affected by the conventions of the charter-party.

XII. The freight of ships shall be regulated by the charter-party, or bill of lading, whether the ships be freighted in whole or in part, for the voyage or the month, expressing the burthen by the ton, the quintal, by parts, or any other way.

XIII. If the vessel be hired for the whole, and the freighter does not put her full lading on board, the master shall not take on board any other goods, without his consent, or rendering him an account of the freight.

XIV. A merchant, not lading the quantity of goods mentioned by the charter-party, shall, notwithstanding, pay the freight, as if he had done it; and if he lades any more, he shall pay freight for them.

XV. A master, declaring his vessel to be of greater burthen than he is, shall sustain the damages thereby happening to the merchant.

XVI. It shall not be deemed an error, in the declaration of the ship's burthen, if the difference exceed not one fortieth part.

XVII. If the vessel be laded by parts, by the quintal, or ton, a merchant, being desirous to take out his goods before her departure, may do it at his own charge, paying half freight.

XVIII. A master may likewise unlade, and lay down upon the shore, any goods found in his ship, and put on board there without his knowledge, or take the freight at the highest rate that any goods of that quality pay.

The master of a ship, letting her to freight to the merchants, should shew them his cordage, ropes, and slings, for hoisting the goods in or out: and if they need it, he is to repair them; for if a pipe, hoghead, or other vessel, should, by default of such cordage, be spoiled or lost, the master and mariners ought to satisfy the merchants. So also, if the ropes or slings break, the master, not shewing them beforehand to the merchant, must make good the damage: but if the merchants say they are good and sufficient, and they break, in that case they should divide the damage between them; that is to say, the merchant, and the master with his mariners.

By the 12th article of the laws of Wisbuy, and the 7th of king Philip's, the master, letting his ship to freight, must shew her to the merchant or his agents. The consulate requires the same, and that the master should let the merchants visit, not only the ropes, but all the ship above decks and below, that they may see what is wanting, and have it mended; and if not mended, and the merchandise be damaged, the master shall make good the loss. The 49th article of the laws of Wisbuy enjoin the mariners to give the master notice of the faults

faults and defects in the cordage, or they shall be responsible for all accidents: and if, after such notice, the master does not take care to have them mended, he shall answer the damage.

The Rhodian laws ordain, That the merchant, loading a ship, shall inform himself exactly of every thing, enquiring of those who have sailed in her before; but that is of little use, except as to her sailing, for ships grow daily more and more out of repair, and should always be viewed by the person going to be concerned in them, not trusting to the information of others.

Of the validity of Charter-parties, with respect to Freight.

If there is a charter-party in being, between the merchant and the master, it shall be valid; and though the merchant does not completely lade the ship, he shall pay the freight, according to the contents of that instrument. These articles want no illustration.

Of Lets and Impediments in Voyages.

If, the master having received half of the freight, and setting fail, the merchant will return, notwithstanding the charter-party, he forfeits the sum he has paid for that impediment. But the master, breaking the articles, forfeits the value of the whole freight to the merchant.

I L L U S T R A T I O N .

That the reader may not mistake the true meaning hereof, he is desired to observe, that where the breach of verbal bargains is spoken of, the case is otherwise; whereas the penalties here are for breach of charter-parties, which are written instruments, solemnly signed and sealed. And besides, it is more properly the impediments that may happen during the voyage, that are here treated of.

If a ship be detained by the merchant, ten days longer than appointed by charter-party to remain in any port, he shall find the company in victuals and drink; and if ten days more pass, the master shall pay the freight, and quit the ship, except he be willing to add a reasonable sum to that before agreed to; on payment of which, he may sail as he sees convenient.

Of freighting ships, and giving earnest.

If any person, hiring a ship, and giving earnest, says afterwards he has no occasion for her, he shall lose his earnest; but if the master recede from the agreement, he shall give double the earnest.

This article needs no explication.

Of Charter-parties.

In hiring of ships, the charter-parties shall not be valid, except they be sealed; and the penalties may be inserted with the consent of the parties. But if there be no charter-party, and either the master or freighter go from their word: as, suppose the merchant should not give the money agreed to, he must pay half freight to the master; or, if the latter break his word, he shall pay to the merchant half of the freight. But if the merchant pretend entirely to recede from the bargain, he shall pay the master the whole freight, as a punishment for breach of promise.

This wants no illustration.

Of merchants freighting a whole ship.

If a merchant, freighting a ship, agreed to lade it entirely himself, the master shall carry nothing in it but water, provisions, ropes, &c. and other ship's necessary tackle. However, if the master will put in other goods, he may, if the can carry them. But if the merchant, in presence of three witnesses, protest against it, and an ejection happen at sea, the master shall suffer the damage; but if the merchant do not forbid it, they shall contribute to the damage.

Some regulations, in regard to Freight, from OLD SPAIN to NEW.

1. There are two ends in building and gauging of ships [See the article GAUGING OF SHIPS], the one to serve in war, the other to transport commodities from one country to another. Having therefore explained the manner of ship-gauging, and given an account what a ton is, and how much room it fills, the next thing of course to treat of, seems to be the freight for every ton carried to or from the Indies, and how they settle, what stowage every parcel will take up, that is sent abroad, which the masters or merchants in Spain call valuing or rating. Freight is the price paid to the master or owners of the ship, for the carriage of goods, from one port to another; some will have it to be derived from the Latin word *fero*, to bring or carry, and others from *flando*, from the winds blowing, because there is no sailing without wind; but this we will leave to be decided by others.

2. All the laws relating to the form of adjusting the bulk of

commodities, are derived from an ordinance of the year 1543, when it was thought convenient to prescribe the bulk that should be allowed for every ton, that the ships might never be over-loaded, nor under; but there was never any rate set upon the freight, that being always left to the will of the owners and masters, for their greater encouragement. Thus, formerly, the bulk that went to make up a ton was fixed, but not the price that was to be paid for it; whereas, for many years last past, it falls out quite contrary; for there is a settled rate to pay for freight, which is 44 ducats strong, for which the master obliges himself to deliver the goods, well conditioned, in the Indies, besides 14 ducats down, or to make good the damage. And there is no rule for computing the bulk, but the master and merchant judge it by the eye, computing the parcels by twelve parts; and so many twelves as they make, so many tons freight they pay, and so much proportionally for the answering of damages, which they now call valuing, as has been said; and this is practised with all sorts of lading, except pipes of wine, which are taken according to the ordinance, for six twelfths, or half a ton each; but if there be little stowage, there is a consideration, either in the price, or in the owner of the pipes, lending the master money to fit him out. Though, considering the present practice, it seems needless to give an account of the rules formerly prescribed, for fixing the bulk of commodities to be shipped, yet I will briefly acquaint the reader with it, that he may make the better judgment of the goods he may have occasion to ship off.

3. The law directs, that 5 butts be reckoned 3 ton, and 2 pipes 1 ton: and it is to be observed, that these pipes are to be of the size appointed by the ordinances of Seville, which are to hold 27 arroves a pipe, an arrove liquid being 32 pounds. As for chests, that which is nine spans in length, four in breadth, and three in depth, is accounted two thirds of a ton. Seven spans long, two and a half deep, and as broad, the same, observing that these spans are to be such, as four make a yard. Bales of two cloths each, six to a ton, of French canvas, six to a ton, and so proportionably for bigger or lesser; iron, in sheets, 22 quintals, or one hundred and a half weight, to pay as a ton; barrels, of an hundred weight each, 15 of them to make a ton; four hogheads, or eight half hogheads, to pay as a ton, unless they be those of Santo Domingo, which take up twice the stowage. Small barrels of olives, 40 to a ton, and proportionably if bigger or less; and though one of the laws expresses, that 56 arroves, or quarters of an hundred casks or jars, make a ton, it is not to be understood of so many jars, but of so many arroves, or quarters of an hundred, as is expressed in the ordinance from which that law was derived. And if they are of oil, 40 jars make a ton; though they be in jars of half an arrove; and if wine, 46 jars of an arrove and a quarter, which is the size according to the ordinance of Seville, make a ton, and proportionably, if they are bigger or less.

4. Some of the laws appoint what bulk of flag-stones, bricks, tiles, and such things then carried to the Indies, made a ton, but there being none carried now, it is needless to speak of them. Sixteen quintals of pitch make a ton, the same quantity of rigging, wine, barrels of alquitran, a bituminous matter used in Spain, and three large bales of paper of 60 reams each. Many other things are mentioned, which are not now carried over, and therefore we pass them by.

5. Under the same head of laws, we find the court of Panama is directed to settle a rate for carrying the king's plate from thence to Porto Bello; and it is prohibited to carry any gold or silver, either coined, or any way wrought, to the Indies; the penalty is the forfeiture of all that shall be so carried. Among other things prohibited to be carried over, without his majesty's leave, are all sorts of arms, particularly pistols, and all sorts of German iron, either wrought or in bar, but only that of Biscay is to be transported. There is also a prohibition against carrying over any fabulous histories, or profane, or immodest books; and there must be leave from the inquisition, for all that are carried. Books pay no duty, but that for convoys; and the new prayer-books pay neither that nor freight.

6. That the masters of ships may be at full liberty to agree the best they can, for their freight with the merchants, it is ordained, that no commissioner, or officer of the India-house, desire, intreat, or oblige the said masters to take on board any merchandize they have not agreed for the freight of before-hand. In the year 1656, there arose a controversy concerning freight, which was, that his majesty took up a quantity of indigo in the custom-house, and sent it away to Flanders. The masters demanded the freight of the owners of the said indigo, who had recourse to the council; where it was determined, that such as had received as much of the king as made the value of the freight, should pay, and those that had received none should be forborne; which shews that the freight is to be paid, though the whole product of the commodity should be no more than the value of it.

7. All the expence of transporting the plate on the South-Sea, as the carriage from Lima to Callao, house-rent in Panama, and removing from port Perico to the shore, is paid out of the king's revenue, as well that of his own plate, as that

of private persons; and these only pay the carriage to the water-side, in the ports of the South-Sea, and half the charge of loading and unloading the plate and goods at Panama, and carrying of it to the master's house, and the goods from thence to port Perico, the master paying the other half upon the king's account; for there the masters are only stewards of the freight, which is not their own, but the king's, and therefore they are paid all the expence they are at in managing it, and are allowed a salary, or consideration, for their labour. Therefore, the practice of the North Sea can be no precedent for the South-Sea, because, in the north, the masters are at all the expence with the plate and commodities, till they deliver them to their owners, without reckoning any thing for the expence, because the freight is their own, and they are obliged to answer all damage.

R E M A R K S.

The article of freight or carriage of merchandizes by shipping, is, next to their fisheries, the sheet anchor of the commerce of the Hollanders, upon account of the great emoluments they derive from it, far beyond all other nations: and this is owing to the greater cheapness of their ship-carriage, than that of other countries; the cause whereof, is the great plenty of seamen, which their fisheries and carriage trade breed, and the hard and parsimonious way of living of their sailors, who sail for less wages, and are maintained at less expence than those of other states.

The cheapness of freight being a very material article, with regard to the exportation of our British commodities to foreign countries, they being to be afforded cheaper by our merchants to foreigners, in proportion to the cheapness of our freights; it is certainly highly for the interest of Great Britain to embrace every occasion of increasing their seminaries of seamen. Our fisheries, as well as our coasting trade in general, having so apparent a tendency to augment the number of British seamen, to diminish the price of freights, and to strengthen our royal navy (which we have more need of than ever); we must be enemies to our own commerce, our own security, and salvation, as a free people, if we neglect taking any measures whatever, that nature, or good policy, can put in our power, to advance every branch of our maritime trade and power. For we may discern, from what has been laid before the reader, under the article of FRANCE, to what a pitch the French trade is really increased, and what effectual measures they are actually taking, to render their naval power superior to that of Great Britain and her allies. And under the articles BISCAY, CASTILE, SPAIN, and the principal maritime provinces of that kingdom, will appear what effectual measures are taken to increase the trade and navigation of the Spaniards also, at the expence of Great-Britain in particular. For further confirmation, how irretrievably this nation is likely to lose her trade, if she does not exert herself therein, to the utmost, See likewise, all the chief states and countries in Europe.

FRIEZLAND, one of the most northern provinces of the United Netherlands, bounded by the ocean on the north, by Groningen and Overijssel on the east, by the Zuyder-Sea and Overijssel on the south, and by the ocean on the west.

The air of this country is not unwholesome, and the soil, in many places, affords good pastures, and some arable lands, especially in Oostergow. Westergow, which is the largest tract, is more level and fenny, but abounds with fish and fowl.

The province is divided into Oostergow, Westergow, and Seven Wolden, or Seven Forests.

I. OOSTERGOW, the most northern part of the country, has the German Ocean on the north, part of the province of Groningen on the east, Seven Wolden on the south, and Westergow on the west.

LEEWARDEN, the capital of this division, is the largest, richest, best built, and most populous of the province. It stands in a fruitful soil; and, by its navigable canals, the largest of which runs to the ocean, they have a good trade with Hamburgh, Bremen, Embden, and Holland; and are plentifully supplied with necessaries from the neighbouring countries.

II. WESTERGOW, has Oostergow on the east, Seven Wolden on the south, the Zuyder-Sea on the west, and the German Ocean on the north.

FRANCKER, 10 miles westward of Leewarden, abounds with channels, two of which run through the length of the town, and, by their communication with others, make it very neat, and advance its trade.

HARLINGEN, the largest city of this province, except Leewarden, is 4 miles west of Francker, at the mouth of the canal that comes from that city, and on the bank of the Zuyder-Sea. Though the harbour be large, and much frequented, it will not admit vessels of great burthen, which must either lie off at a great distance, or lighten before they can get in. Their chief trade is in making sails, and importing and exporting corn, pitch, tar, fir-trees, and deal.

BOLSWORT, had formerly a considerable trade by sea, but now the inhabitants deal chiefly with the neighbouring towns, by means of the canals.

SNEEK, situated on a lake of the same name, is a neat town.

The inhabitants trade with the neighbouring towns, by means of the canals, in fish and other commodities, and are well furnished with fresh-water fish by the neighbouring lakes, both for consumption and sale.

WORCUM, though its harbour be choaked up, has a good trade also with the neighbouring country, by the canals, and is well supplied with fish from the lakes near it.

STAVEREN, was a flourishing place formerly, and prodigiously rich; but the harbour being choaked up, the trade is now very much decayed, and consists chiefly in fishing, and passage-boats over the pools and lakes of the neighbourhood.

III. SEVEN WOLDEN, is situated between Westergow, Oostergow, Overijssel, and the Zuyder-Sea. It is a barren, heathy, and marshy country, but thinly peopled.

SLOOT, or **SLOOTEN**, the only town of any note, stands on a navigable current, which comes from a neighbouring lake, called the Slooten-meer, and falls into the sea about 3 miles below the town, by which it has a trade with Holland, and other parts.

EAST-FRIEZLAND. This county or earldom belongs properly to Germany. It has the German Ocean on the north, the gulph Dollert, with the mouth of the river Ems, on the west, which parts it from the province of Groningen; the bishoprick of Munster on the south, and the county of Oldenburg on the east.

EMBDEN, on the river Ems, and on the bay called Dollert, is a rich, large, and populous city. The island Veffey, which lies in the Dollert bay, over-gainst this city, makes the harbour as large and convenient as any on the German coast. They have also artificial canals, by which they can bring large vessels into the heart of the town. The inhabitants are very industrious, and much addicted to trade.

The river Ems rises in the bishoprick of Paderborn; and though it runs through a great part of the bishoprick of Munster, the counties of Bentheim and Linghen, and divers others, and receives abundance of small rivulets; yet it takes in no considerable river, nor sees any city or town of note, till it comes into the dominions of East Friesland, where it visits the city of Embden, capital of that province; a little below which, it opens into the sea, among a throng of difficult sands and islands.

This city of Embden is large, populous, and beautiful. Its friendship is very satisfactory to the Dutch, who have frequently taken the citizens into the protection of the United Provinces, even upon their own terms. The goodness of the harbour induces the Dutch merchants to direct many ships to load and unload here. By the inland navigation of this river, there is carried on a very considerable traffic, by vessels of good burthen, into Germany, Westphalia, &c. and that a great way: this is no considerable advantage to the city, by increasing the commerce of the port, and filling it both with wealth and inhabitants.

The English merchants once kept their staple here for woolen manufactures; but thinking themselves not far enough out of the reach of the Spaniards, they removed to Hamburgh. The merchants of this city have a very good character for just and upright dealing, and are esteemed for it abroad, wherever they correspond.

The last count of East-Friesland dying without issue, the king of Prussia claims that country, to which other princes have also pretensions; the determination of which must be referred to time.

FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.

Under the article FRANCE, we have given a state of the commerce of that kingdom, in as succinct a manner as we could, so as to give the reader a pretty strong and adequate idea thereof: to this end, it was necessary to take notice of the African trade of France, in conjunction with its other capital branches: but as under that general head, we could not so minutely descend to particulars, as to enable the reader to form a true judgment thereof, we shall here resume the subject.—Previous to which, we desire it may be observed, that, under the article FRANCE, where we speak of their India-company, notice is taken of the French West-India, Senegal, and Guinea companies, which are united to their India-company: so that the African trade of this kingdom is now carried on by their India-company, with privileges and immunities, exclusive of all other the subjects of France.

For distinction sake, however, we shall treat of the French African trade, under the title of the Senegal company, from the year 1718, when it was incorporated with the India-company.

This company had then six departments, or distinct factories, viz. those of Senegal, Galam, Goree, Joal, Gambia, and Bisseaux. The Senegal factory, at this time, supplies annually about 50 slaves, 4000 hides, 1200 quintals of gum, and 20 quintals of elephant's teeth; Galam, about 600 slaves, 20 quintals of teeth, and 50 marks of gold; Goree, 400 slaves, and 2400 hides; Joal, 100 slaves, 400 hides, and 10 quintals of teeth; Gambia, 400 slaves, 200 quintals of wax, and 200 quintals of teeth; Bisseaux, 250 slaves, 250 quintals of wax, and the like quantity of teeth.

REMARKS on the French trade of SENEGAL, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

The kingdoms of Ovals and Foules border upon the river Senegal, and have each their king, one called Le Brac, the other Seratic. It is always the interest of these petty princes to live in friendship with the company; but king Le Brac committed hostilities, and the company made reprisals; but the difference was pretty well accommodated by Damel, another of their petty princes, who interposed in behalf of the other Negroe king.

Le Seratic the king is powerful, and must be kept in some subjection, or he is frequently inclined to enhance the duties upon European commodities, when exchanged for theirs. The French commissaries, however, are very vigilant on these occasions.

The gums are gathered twice a year, in December and March.

They begin to trade in February, before the first gathering, and continue 'till May; their second trade begins in April, and holds till June.

The moors that sell the gum, are called Auladelhagi, in the Arabic tongue, and Darmenios, in the Negroes; their chiefs are called Chems, who lay a duty, of an eighth, upon all the gums the French buy. They trade at these places, for 1200 quintals of gum, weighing 450lb. each.

The other goods sold at these two principal ports, are about 300 oxen, and 400 sheep, some ambergrease and ostrich feathers. 50 packs of feathers are worth a quintal of gum. At the neighbouring places of Senegal they purchase a quantity of millet, with which they feed the negroes, as well those in the company's service, as those they transport, and even sometimes the French are glad of it themselves.

When the waters are out, they trade to the adjacent lakes, at some of which they get ebony, at others ivory, peas, hides, and sometimes ambergrease.

There are fixed times and seasons for buying salt, for the service of the company of Senegal, as well as the curing the hides, and stated times for buying provisions.

But the last observation, is the time and season for going over the bar of the river, which is between April and July; after which, the bad season begins, and the waters are out.

The Trade of GALAM.

The old company of Senegal had a fort at Galam, built in 1700, but was carried away by the rapidity of the river. The new company afterwards built another, a league lower where they now trade.

They trade chiefly, at Galam, in negroes, gold, and ivory. It is thought, that the countries inhabited by the negroes, who are in the French alliance, have mines of gold, silver, copper, precious stones, and saltpetre. That there is among them fine marble, and curious wood, both for scent and colours, is certain; but the negroes of this part are an untractable sort of people, and their king is with difficulty brought to reason sometimes, with regard to the price of his slaves, or the duty on them; yet upon the whole, the French purchase them upon very moderate terms.

The trade of GOREE.

The island of Goree is the center of the company's settlements, and it is there the slaves are kept, 'till they have a sufficient number, or till they have ships ready to transport them to their Sugar-isles.

The leather trade was formerly considerable in this isle. They have had 50,000, and sometimes 80,000 hides a year, which has diminished of late years.

This was occasioned by the usurpation of a tyrannical prince, who raised the duties upon leather. But as the negroe trade is considerable, having 4 or 500 annually, the French connive at trivial things.

Their slaves are fine, but must be neither too young nor too old.

The hides are equally good, but must be salted and doubled together, and during the hot season, beat every fortnight.

At Rufich and Portugal, they buy all the millet they have occasion for, and always keep their graineries full, for fear of a famine; which often happens, their harvests being destroyed by locusts. The greatest care imaginable must be taken of it, and often turned over for fear of heating.

The trade of JOAL.

This is the last settlement of the French company's, and was built to secure a port of trade, when this king first began his reign. The several branches of this commerce, are salt, millet, negroes, ivory, hides, wax, and rice.

The trade of GAMBIA:

The company has two settlements on the river Gambia, one at Albrede, and the last at Bintau, established in the year

1718. This last place has great plenty of millet, rice, kids, oxen, and fowls, all which are very difficult to have at Albrede, but there are wax and slaves.

Their merchandizes are exchange for fire-arms, swords, powder, ball, and flints, they being a warlike people.

The English have settlements upon the river Gambia, as well as the French; but besides them, there are Portuguese, Dutch, English, and even French interlopers, that very much hinder the trade of the established companies.

The Portuguese have some settlements up the river, and are protected as natives, but in no esteem with the companies.

The proper season for the trade of negroes, is in the months of May and June. The Mercadois and Guineas bring down there 7 or 800 slaves yearly.

CANTOR, or CANTORY, a small kingdom of Africa, upon the borders of the river Gambia. The inhabitants keep a good correspondence with the Europeans, especially the Dutch, who trade with them for ivory, gold, and raw hides; salt and iron are good commodities there: The French trade considerably on these coasts, where they have a fort, for the defence of their settlements. Their chief trade is in furs and skins, of different sorts, where they pay to the king 16 per cent. duty. Besides this tax, every vessel that comes into the port, pays three bars of iron: this king has a custom-house to receive the duties.

The inhabitants are either smiths or weavers. They make a kind of blankets, which is their clothing. The Europeans trade along the coast with them. There are different sorts of these blankets.

The Portuguese, who have a settlement in Cantor, have a number of slaves from thence. The moors of Barbary also trade there for gold dust.

CASSAN, a small kingdom in Africa, on the north of the river Gambia, called Great Cassan, to distinguish it from another place, called Little Cassan.

In these two places is the chief trade of this part of the country. At the last of these places is a market every Monday, and Great Cassan has two fairs yearly, where there are, not only negroes from all places, as Rio Fresco, Porto-Dale, and Juda, but also Europeans, French, Portuguese, English, and Dutch, and where the king of Cassan has an open trade.

The merchandizes brought there are leather, ivory, oxen, and cows, cotton-dresses, tobacco, gold, slaves, salt, cotton, mats, pullets, and other productions of the country.

The trade of BISSEAUX.

This settlement was of the longest standing of any the French company had; and there is to be seen, in the journals of the commissaries, 1685 and 1686, that they traded there yearly for 1800 slaves, and 300 quintals of wax; but, by interlopers, and the creole Portuguese, it was discredited, that the French abandoned it, and settled and re-established a factory in 1700. The season for the trade of Bisseaux, and the neighbouring isles, is before the rains. It consists in slaves, ivory, and wax. In the rainy seasons, the negroes drink a great deal of brandy, because they have no palm wines.

ABASSIN, or ABASSON, is about seven leagues in length; it's breadth, on land, uncertain. Trading vessels rarely touch there for provisions, because almost all the gold coast is barren, are rarely cultivated. We can give no certain account of the inland countries along the gold coast, any farther than saying, that those of the north, and north-east of Vetteres, and the rivers Albini and Iffini are fruitful and well cultivated, and not only supply themselves with necessaries, but those countries that are barren, as are all places that have rich gold mines, of which they have many among them. It is not certainly known in what manner they dig or work in their mines, but that there are great quantities of gold, sufficiently appears from what they exchange continually for their provisions, and merchandizes that are brought to them.

I shall not here give any particular account of a project which the French had formed, and actually put in execution, for establishing a settlement among them, but through the jealousy of the Dutch, they were destroyed for want of assistance; nevertheless, the negroes seemed greatly to like them. The villages of Albiani and Tabo, the one about 6, the other about 10 leagues off Iffini, have generally trading ships that anchor, and hoist their colours, as signals of trade near them. The negroes, as soon as assured that they are friends, never fail to go on board and visit them. As soon as they are presented with a glass of brandy, it is customary to ask, how long since they had any trading ships that way, it being a general rule with them, to set a value upon their commodities, more or less, according to their want of European merchandizes.

GIOMERE, the nighest to cape Apollonia, though but small, on the sea coasts, is considerable within land; the people are very numerous, rich, and trade largely. Whether their riches are the produce of their mines, or their industry and great commerce among themselves, it is very certain they have much gold, and deal considerably in slaves and ivory. About 8 leagues from St Apolline, is the village of Axim.

The

The French say, that the Portuguese took this place from them, and built a fortification there, in 1515, under king Emanuel; and kept it 'till February 1642, when the Dutch besieged and took it, and remain in possession of it. This fort is on the east of the river Axim, and is only remarkable for it's sands, which have much gold in them, as before-mentioned.

R E M A R K S.

It will not be unacceptable, perhaps, to give some account of their manner of diving, and finding these sands.

The negroes of this country do nothing else but dive for this metal, and are brought up to it from their very infancy, and will stay under water so long, that it is scarce credible what is reported. In order to reach the bottom the sooner, they plunge in, with their heads directly downwards: in their hands they have a flat piece of wood, and part of a calabasse, with which they dive, and keep themselves under water, until they have filled it with the heaviest part of the sand, which, holding upon their heads with one hand, and swimming with the other, with incredible dexterity, they bring it above water. After having got a sufficient quantity, or well tired themselves, they bring it on shore, where, in a bowl or platter, they wash away the sand, by a handful or two at a time, the metal always remaining at bottom, which they call gold dust, and sometimes it has grains of different sizes.

Next Axim is cape Three Points, formed by three mountains, between which are three very convenient bays to anchor in. It lies about four degrees of north latitude. The Prussians had formerly a settlement and built a fort there, which they relinquished in 1720, and the blacks took possession of it, who acquainted the French, that they would deliver it up to them, and trade only with them; who mistrusting their sincerity, the Dutch made use of the opportunity, and, under the conduct of the captain of their mine, took possession of it in 1725.

This port is the most considerable on this coast, has good anchorage and landing, the country is fruitful, and the people do not neglect the culture of their ground, like their idle neighbours, though they have much gold. Besides gold, there is a great trade in ivory. The slaves that cannot dive, are employed in carrying European commodities to the inland parts of the country, who return with ivory and gold, which turns greatly to their advantage. The women work mostly in the salt-pits, in which article they deal considerably. These people, though negroes, are very sincere, and, though somewhat near and hard in dealing, yet afford great satisfaction to all that trade with them.

The commerce of Grand Sestre consists chiefly in pepper, teeth, and provisions, in great plenty, and extremely cheap. The king's dues are very trivial, and licence is granted for wood or water upon very easy terms. The negro prince has his residence about a league and half up the river. The negroes bring the water to the boats, and think themselves well paid, when the casks are all full, if you give each of them a necklace of glass-beads. There are sometimes slaves, but 'tis rare; some were bought in 1704 and 1712, at 40 livres each, and some for two brass trumpets a-piece. Pepper is the chief trade of these coasts. This pepper is not so much valued as the East-India sort, but turns to very good account, when the Dutch have brought but little, this being sold for 3 livres per quintal, and that paid in merchandize. The whole coast of Malaguette has all sorts of provisions in great plenty, as fowl, sheep, oxen, and cows, at a very small expence; likewise rice, millet, peas, beans, &c. The fruits, which are very excellent, as citrons, oranges, plums, and other fruits, are at so very low a rate, as to be scarce worth mentioning at all.

The Tooth or Ivory-Coast, which is joining to Malaguette, and which extends as far as the river Suero da Costa, that separates it from the Gold Coast, has the name for it's inhabitants being very savage and uncivilized, for which reason the Europeans rarely go ashore, but are upon their guard, and generally trade on board.

They trade in little else except elephant's teeth, but in such abundance, that the great number of ships that come that way from all parts of Europe, can always load there; nor is it a thing extraordinary, to see teeth there of 200lb. weight. 'Tis reported, that these animals shed their teeth every three years, which is the reason partly that ivory is common upon these coasts. The elephants are in such numbers, that the negroes are obliged to have their habitations under ground, in order to preserve themselves from danger. There is likewise some gold upon this coast, yet not much traded in; but, in places that border upon it, that commodity is in greater abundance, and is called the Gold Coast. They take from this place a sort of blue and white cotton, which is a good commodity for the Gold Coast, used by the natives to wear round the middle; also steel menacles or bracelets, and little bells and toys are wore almost all over the legs and arms of these wild sort of people, and are the chief commodities with which the Europeans trade, in exchange for their ivory, &c. Provisions are in great plenty in this place.

The Gold Coast begins at the river Suero de Costas; 'tis about 130 leagues in length from east to west, between 4 and 5 degrees of north latitude, and between 16 and 21 of longitude. This coast is the most frequented of any in Africa by Europeans; and none have settlements there, but the English, Dutch, and Danes. Yet the French have many years traded under the very nose of our English forts at Anamaboe, and plentifully supplied their American colonies with the choicest negroes on the whole African coast.

Upon this coast, the gold of Axim is esteemed the best, and is from 22 to 23 carats; that from other coasts is less fine, and that from Jetu is coarse enough. Some of it is found by the negroes on the banks or in the sands of rivulets and currents, and 'tis that which we commonly call gold dust, where there is more or less in quantity found, according as the rains have fell upon those mountains, from whence these rivers, or currents, have their spring. There is another kind of gold, called mine gold, or gold from the mines; of which 'tis reported, there is a considerable one in the mountains of Tafou, about 30 leagues from Acara. It seems almost incredible what some who have traded on those coasts report, concerning the bigness of some pieces of gold found there. The third sort is that from Acanis and Fetu, which is found in the earth, that must be deeply searched into, and dug up first, according to the veins. This gold is only from 20 to 21 carats. The gold that is taken out of the mines and the earth, is not refined nor washed thoroughly, when brought on board by the negroes to trade with the Europeans, but directly as 'tis found; which makes it necessary for a person to have judgment, not only of it's goodness, but of the richness of the ore, lest he is cheated. He must not be unexperienced, that trades in gold dust. These negroes frequently mix with the dust small pieces of brass and copper, or filings of pins, or mix them in melting, particularly at Comenda, who are the greatest cheats of all on this coast; yet these are little dealers that must not be trusted; the considerable merchants, or even their brokers, are honourable enough.

Those that come on board to traffic, are generally officers, or in power, who are all merchants. As they come from different parts of the country, so their methods are different in trade; those settled upon the coast, trade for themselves; they that reside more distant, or inland, and are unacquainted with the language, as well as the manner of the Europeans dealing, are served by brokers, who are commonly great merchants themselves, but are glad of these opportunities of gaining brokerage. They are generally the merchants upon the coasts, or within 10 or 12 leagues of it, that buy up all the goods from on board the ships which anchor in the road, who, after these ships have set sail, sell them again to the inland traders with a profit. The negroes have a custom among them, when they deal with Europeans, to ask for a present, and scarce ever conclude a bargain without it. The Dutch introduced this custom, to disengage the negroes from the Portuguese; but what was first only voluntary, is by use become necessary; and, at present, no negro will conclude any business, without being assured of a present. They are utter strangers to credit, and make their payments immediately in gold; for which reason they carry small scales with them to weigh it, if a large quantity; otherwise guess at it, by taking a sufficient quantity up with their fingers.

Their scales are only two small plates, hung at each end of a small stick, by a thread, and tied about the middle of the same with another thread. Instead of weights, they make use of little red grains, with which they weigh to the value of two pence in gold. Thus they weigh little by little, until it amounts to a marc of eight ounces; but this practice is only among the mean negroes and ordinary people; merchants and such as trade largely, have scales and weights from Europe, and know perfectly well the use of them.

There is likewise an inland trade, which the negroes of the coast, and those that live up the country, carry on with the Europeans that live among them on their market days, and fairs, kept once or twice a year. But they take care never to keep fairs on the same days, at two different places: at these places, they bring whatever they have got, that is curious and fine, whether from Europe, or bought up in their cities or villages, though 200 leagues off. They keep their markets generally in the middle of the villages, where they range themselves every one, according to the merchandize he sells, that they may be the more easily found, in great order and silence, each smoking his pipe. At day-break the country people bring their sugar-canes piled up in bundles, fruits, and all sorts of provisions, as rice, millet, melons, pepper, fowl, eggs, and bread; at noon palm wine is brought, and, between four and five, the fishermen bring what fish they have caught. At the fairs none but blacks are suffered to trade, but at their markets, if their villages are near the European settlements, the white people may deal in what they will.

REMARKS ON THE FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE IN GENERAL, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

The African trade is estimable to the French as well as other European nations, on account of the gold, the ivory, and the slave trade. The produce of this country in general, though it makes but few articles, in comparison to those of other countries, yet it is very valuable; and the more so, in that it is so necessary a commerce to the European nations, as things are at present circumstanced. The returns of gold and silver were had formerly for trifles, such as small pieces of iron, painted glass, knives, hatchets, glass beads, and the like: so that one of the English ships, which traded thither in the time of queen Elizabeth, brought away 170 pounds weight of gold dust; the goods, wherewith the same was purchased, not amounting, as then valued in England, besides the charges on board, to above 250l. sterling: whereas the gold, at that time, was worth above 14,000l. without reckoning the elephants teeth, and other things of great value, which they brought from thence besides.

The negroes of Africa, as they are improved and made crafty by their long acquaintance in the trade, and by the envy and animosities between the separate English traders in particular, and the late Royal African company, the Europeans in general do not now trade with them upon such advantageous conditions as formerly, but know how to trade with great art and subtlety. On the other hand, and which contributes to make some recompense for their wileiness, they are brought to take off very large quantities of European commodities from the several nations with whom they traffic.

Nor is this commerce profitable only to the respective Europeans, in the direct way of trading from their respective countries to the coast of Africa, but is so much the more to those nations, which have colonies and plantations in America to support, by dint of the labour of negroes, for want as is pretended, of a competent number of white men, for the cultivation of their sugars and tobacco, &c.

How extremely beneficial this commerce has proved to the French nation in this respect, we may judge from the very extraordinary increase of their sugar-colonies in America. For it is not much above half a century, as will presently appear from authentic vouchers, since they did not employ above 100 sail of ships, for the supply of their own kingdom with sugars; but in the late war of 1740, it was discovered, that they employed above 600 sail; and have, by the wise management of their African trade for the benefit of those colonies, supplanted us more or less, at most foreign markets, in this general article of traffic.

This is an indisputable truth: and, although we very sensibly feel the effect, yet we do not seem to enter sufficiently into the cause hereof; if we did, we should not admire, that such causes should be productive of such consequences.

That the reader may have the real causes of the success of France in their sugar-islands laid before him, I shall make no further retrospection in the French policy, in regard to their African trade, than from the year 1700, when the deputies of the council of trade in France, presented a memorial to the royal council in the year 1701, concerning the commerce of that nation to their American islands, Guinea, the Levant, &c.

As I am, at present, confined to the African or Guinea trade of that nation, I shall not take into consideration what is not directly pertinent thereunto.—And all that is necessary for that purpose, is only to take notice of the preamble to this memorial, and to shew the subsequent measures that were taken in consequence thereof.

This memorial is introduced in the following manner, viz.

‘ The commerce of Guinea, say the French memorialists, has such relation to that of the French islands in the West-Indies, that the one cannot subsist without the other. By those trades, we have deprived our competitors in traffic of the great profits which they drew from us*, and may put ourselves into a condition, by their example, to draw profit in our turn from them, and especially from the English †. We may increase those trades considerably, seeing that nation in their islands, with less advantage than we, in territories of less extent, and in much less time, have found means to employ yearly above 500 ships, while we do not, without great difficulty, employ 100.

* Before the French were able to supply themselves with sugar, we had a considerable share in their supply.

† Their drawing profit from us in their turn, may signify their view to supply us with sugar in time, as well as to supplant us, as they have done from this time, at foreign markets; so that they seem, even then, to have had a view to the ruin of our sugar-colonies.

‘ Every body is sensible of the benefit of navigation, and that the happiness and glory of a state very much depend upon it: there can be no commerce without it; it governs the fortunes of the merchants; it maintains a great number of subjects, seamen, and mechanics. No one is ignorant, that the navigation of France owes all its increase

‘ and splendor to the commerce of its islands, and that it cannot be kept up and enlarged, otherwise than by this commerce.

‘ ’Tis beyond all doubt, that this commerce is more beneficial to the state, than all others (of long voyages) that are driven by the French; because ’tis carried on without exporting any money, and without the help of any foreign goods and manufactures, so that none but the subjects of the king and kingdom have the profit of it, &c.

In consequence of this memorial, proper measures were taken to render the trade to Africa successful; upon which, as the memorialists say, the prosperity of the French colonies and plantations in America absolutely depend.

REMARKS.

As these measures, taken from time to time, cannot be so effectually represented, as by giving the authentic ordonnances, arrets, edicts, and patents, &c. which were issued on this occasion, we shall lay before our readers some of the most essential, according to the order of time.

The king’s letters patent for the liberty of trade upon the coast of Africa, published at Paris in January 1716.

Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting: By letters patent of the late king, our truly honoured lord and great grandfather, dated January 1685, there was established a company, by the name and the title of the Guinea Company, to continue for the space of twenty years, excluding all others the trade of negroes, gold dust, and all other merchandizes trafficked in upon the coast of Africa, from the river Serre Lionne, to the Cape of Good Hope; and likewise granting to this company divers privileges and immunities; and, among other grants, exempted them from half the duties of all merchandizes, brought from all places within their district and isles of America upon their own account, although the time limited by those letters patent should be expired: the late king, our most honoured sovereign, thought good on account of engagements this company had made, in order to supply the Spanish West-Indies with negroes by the Assiento contract, to continue to them the same privileges and immunities, under the title of the Assiento treaty [see the article ASSIENTO] unto the month of November 1713. The merchants of our kingdom having represented at this time, how much it tended to the benefit of trade in general, and in particular to the improvement of the French islands in America, that the commerce of the Guinea coast should be free and open to all his majesty’s subjects; the late king did not think it proper to form a new company, though there were many persons ready to offer themselves and enter into such an association; and, as we are willing to encourage the freedom of commerce, and deal favourably with the merchants and traders who shall undertake this traffic, and afford them every thing necessary to render it more considerable than it has been, and by that means to provide for our subjects of the French isles of America a sufficient number of negroes, for the improving the cultivation of their lands: for these and other reasons moving us hereunto, we have thought fit, by the advice of our most dear and truly beloved uncle the duke of Orleans regent, of our most dear and truly beloved cousin the duke of Bourbon, &c. and other peers of France, &c. we have declared, resolved, and ordained, be it therefore declared, resolved, and ordained, That

ARTICLE I.

We have permitted, and do permit, to all merchants of our kingdom for the time to come, to have a free trade for negroes, gold dust, and all other merchandizes that may be brought from the coast of Africa, from the river Serra Lyonne to the Cape of Good Hope, provided their ships are fitted out in the harbours of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes.

II.

The masters and captains who trade to the coast of Guinea, shall be obliged to declare at the secretary’s of the admiralty office, established at the place of their departure, and give security at the receipt of customs, to oblige them to return into one of the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes; except, nevertheless, those ships which shall go out from Rouen, Rochelle, and Bourdeaux, should be drove at their return into Nantes or St. Malo.

III.

The merchants of those ships that shall transport to the French isles of America negroes bought upon the coast of Guinea, shall pay, upon the arrival of their ships in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, into the hands of the treasurer-general of the marine in being, the sum of 20 livres for every negro that shall be carried to the said islands, for which they shall give security to the secretary of the admiralty, on their being permitted to take their leave of our most dear and truly beloved uncle, Lewis Alexander of Bourbon, count of Thoulouse, admiral of France: and

as to those merchants, whose ships shall only trade for gold dust, and other commodities upon the said coast, they shall likewise be bound, upon the arrival of their said ships in the said ports, to pay, into the hands of the treasurer of the marine, the sum of three livres for every ton his ship's burden shall contain; which twenty livres aforesaid, and three livres, shall be employed, by order of the council of the marine, for the keeping in repair the fortifications, factories, and custom-houses, which are or shall be settled on the said coasts of Guinea, which expences we will defray for the time to come.

IV.

Nevertheless, the payment of the said three livres per ton duty is excused during the three next following years, from the day and date of these presents, to all our subjects, whose ships shall trade to the Guinea coast, for gold and other merchandizes, slaves only excepted.

V.

Be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that all manner of merchandizes that shall be brought from the coasts of Guinea, by our subjects, directly to the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, we exempt from one half the duties of importation, that are farmed, or may be farmed; likewise our will is, that all sugars, and other merchandizes of all our subjects that shall be brought from the French American Islands, arising from the sale and truck of negroes, be equally exempted from the said half duties of importation, on their producing a certificate from the superintendant of the isles, or commissary governor, or commissioner of the customs in the West-Indies, that the goods shipped at the said islands, arose from the sale and barter of negroes, which the said ships had there unloaded, the said certificate specifying the ships names, number of negroes that shall be shipped to the islands, and lodged in the receiver's office, who shall grant to the captains and masters a duplicate of the same, without any expence.

All our receivers, commissioners, or deputies, are forbid to take more duties, upon pain of four times the value.

VI.

Linens of all sorts, toys, mercery, glass ware, wrought and plain, iron-bars, plate-iron, guns, swords, and other arms, gun-flints, being the manufacture of this kingdom, shall be free from all duties of exportation, usual both in our receiver's office, and all the offices in their passage, and the ports they are bound to, on condition it is proved they are intended for the Guinea trade; until which is confirmed, the said goods shall be lodged in the custom-house, under two different keys; one kept by the receiver-general of our customs, the other by whomsoever the merchants shall propose, at their own expence. As for the wines of Anjou, and other products of the river Loire, bound to Guinea, they shall be under the same restrictions as those bound to the French American Islands, according to the arret of council 23 September 1710. And, with respect to the wines of Bourdeaux, we will and ordain, that they are regulated, as if shipped for the American Islands, on taking a bill of lading there of the said wines, and giving them the usual security.

VII.

We grant to the said merchants leave to lodge, in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, the goods called cowries, striped blue and white India cottons, printed linnens, grain crystal, small Dutch looking glasses, Dutch tobacco-pipes, and others from the north, coming only by sea for the Guinea trade: we grant likewise the same room in our custom-house for two years and no longer, from the date of these presents, for Dutch knives, kettles, and other sort of copper utensils. Provided the aforesaid foreign goods shall be specified to the commissioner of the customs upon their arrival, and afterwards deposited in the king's warehouse for that purpose, locked with two keys, one to remain in the hands of the commissioner, the other with whom the merchant shall name, all at their own expence.

VIII.

The commissioner of the customs in each of the aforesaid ports shall keep a register, which shall be lettered and marked by the director of the customs, in which the aforesaid commissioner shall register in parcels the goods specified in the two foregoing articles, as soon as they shall be deposited in the warehouse. The aforesaid commissioner is forbid to give a certificate for their clearance, upon the security that was taken at the first office, until the proof, the register, and the unloading of them, shall be examined into in the aforesaid staple warehouse, from whence they shall not be taken until they are to be put on board the ships bound to the coast of Guinea. And, at the loading of the aforesaid goods, both foreign and French, for the coast of Guinea: our will is, that there be mentioned in the margin of the register, &c. the name of the ship they were put on board, and signed by the commissioner, the merchants they are consigned to, and the captain who receives the goods on board, &c.

IX.

Nevertheless, we grant leave to the merchants and traders of the city of St. Malo to fit out and equip, in their ports,

ships for the coast of Guinea, and for the French coasts of America, and to make their returns to the aforesaid ports on the foregoing clauses, articles, and exemptions, already mentioned, paying us for the goods which shall come from the coast of Guinea, and the French isles of America, the settled duties, according to the usual custom in the aforesaid port of St. Malo, for the profit of our most dear and truly-beloved uncle Louis Alexander de Bourbon, count of Thoulouze, duke of Penthièvre, admiral of France, and governor of Bretagne, &c.

Signed Lewis,
Duke of Orleans, regent,
Present Phelypeaux.

Letters patents, containing regulations for merchandizes, which traders of this kingdom import from Holland and the North, for the Guinea trade. Given at Fontainebleau, September 7, 1728.

Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre: to all our friends and faithful counsellors, members of our court of parliament of Paris, greeting: it being represented unto us, that our letters patents of the month of January 1716, for the liberty of commerce upon the coast of Africa; in the seventh article of which we have granted to all our merchants permission to warehouse in the ports therein mentioned, among other merchandizes, white, blue, and striped cottons, printed linnens, which they shall import from Holland and the North, by sea only, for the trade of Guinea: and being informed that, by the indulgence of this grant, they have introduced into our kingdom, to the prejudice of our established manufactures, India cottons, of a finer quality than what need be sent for that trade; we have provided against it by the arret of this day, given in our council of state, we being there present; for the due execution of which, we have ordered all necessary letters to be dispatched: for these, and other reasons hereunto moving us, by the advice of our council, we have, by these presents, signed with our own hand, ordained, and we do accordingly ordain, as follows:

I.

We expressly forbid, and prohibit, all ships in the Guinea trade, or other kind of trade, to import from Holland, or any other country of the North, into our kingdom, to commence from the publication of these presents, under the pretence of warehousing, any white India linnen, called caladaris, painted India linnen, called chints, or stuffs of all silk, or half silk, upon pain of confiscation of the said goods, and a penalty of 3000 livres.

II.

We permit, nevertheless, all merchants and traders to import from Holland and the North all other sorts of linnen and stuffs fit for the Guinea trade, except those comprised in the foregoing article, on condition they first acquaint the secretary of the admiralty of the place of their abode, the ship's name on board which they are laden, and the office of customs, of the quantity and quality of the linnens and stuffs which they shall require to be imported from the said foreign countries.

III.

The captain who, in consideration of the aforesaid declarations, shall import merchandizes fit for the Guinea trade, and allowed by the above article, shall be obliged to load them on board the ship fitted out for that purpose, and send them, in six months at farthest, to the coast of Guinea, upon pain of confiscation of the said goods, and 1000 livres penalty.

IV.

If, nevertheless, the merchant-adventurers should be, by any unforeseen accident, obliged to alter the voyage of the ship which was intended for the coast of Guinea, he may, in the space of six months, appoint another, on board of which he shall be obliged to load the said goods, and, that time being expired, counting from the time of their goods being landed, they shall be confiscated, and the adventurers shall be condemned in 1000 livres penalty.

V.

The owner of the goods ordered from Holland, or other country of the North, shall be obliged to send, by his factor or supercargo, the bills of lading, of which the captain is the bearer, the invoice of the said goods, mentioning the particulars of their qualities and quantities, the bails, chests, or casks, &c. in which they are contained.

VI.

In case the aforesaid invoices are not according to the declaration beforementioned, we will and ordain that the merchandizes specified in the invoice be seized and confiscated, and the adventurers condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres.

VII.

We also forbid the adventurers to make any declarations, in ambiguous terms, of goods unknown, and the commissary to receive them, upon pain of confiscation of the said goods, and the commissary deprived of his place for receiving such declarations.

VIII. We

VIII.

We further will and ordain, that our foresaid letters patents, of the month of January 1716, be executed, according to their form and tenor, wherein they deviate from these presents. Thus we will and ordain.

Signed L E W I S,
P H E L Y P E A U X.

The king's proclamation, concerning the commerce of GUINEA; ordering that three negro boys should be paid for upon the footing of two negroes of maturity; and two negro girls for one negro. Given at Paris the 14th of December, 1716. Registered in parliament.

L E W I S, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all whom these presents may concern, sends greeting: the late king our most honoured lord and great-grandfather, having permitted, from the month of November 1713, to the traders of the kingdom to go, by virtue of passports, which were delivered to them, to contract for negroes at the coast of Guinea, and afterwards to export them to the American islands; on condition of paying, for each of those as shall be sent to St. Domingo, 30 livres, and 15 for those which shall be carried to the Windward islands, according to which they are to submit; we have judged it necessary, in the month of January in the present year, to grant, by our letters patents, the free liberty of commerce to that coast (of which the Guinea company had the exclusive right of trade) till the said month of November 1713. And, in consequence whereof, we have granted permission, by the said letters patents, to the traders of our kingdom, to send their vessels thither, to agree for the purchase of negroes, and afterwards to transport them to the said islands; for every one whereof that should be disembarked, we ordain that they should pay to the treasurer-general of the navy 20 livres. We also ordain, by an arret of the 28th of the said month of January this year, that the merchants who have taken passports since the month of November 1713, shall pay to the said treasurer-general the sums specified pursuant to their obligations; but, the merchants having represented to us that the same duties were required for the boys and girls, as for the men and women negroes, although three negro boys cost no more in Guinea than the price of two negroes of maturity, and are only sold in the like proportion at the islands; and the same for two negro girls, who are bought and sold for no more than one negro; whereupon we have resolved to explain our intentions: for these and other reasons moving us thereunto, and according to the advice of our most dear and well-beloved uncle of Orleans, regent, of our most dear and well-beloved cousin the duke of Bourbon, &c. we have by these presents, signed with our hand, declared and ordained, and hereby we declare and ordain, That such merchants who have sent, or shall send their ships to the coast of Guinea, to contract for negroes, and afterwards transport them to the islands of America, shall not be obliged to pay for every negro boy of 12 years of age, or under, that shall be disembarked at the said islands by the passport-ships of the late king, only the two-thirds of the duties to which they are liable for each negro; and for every negro girl, also, of 12 years of age, and under, the moiety, or half part of the said duties shall only be paid; and for every negro boy of the same age that should have been, or shall be disembarked at the said islands, by virtue of the said letters patents, the two-thirds of the duties shall be paid that is for each negro; and for every negro girl of the same age, the moiety of the said duties, &c.

Signed L E W I S,
O R L E A N S, regent,
P H E L Y P E A U X.

An arret of the king's council of state, concerning the commerce of Guinea, of the 13th of September, 1729. Extracted from the register of the council of state.

The arret of his council, of the 8th of September 1729, being laid before the king, and his letters patents dispatched upon it the same day, containing regulations for merchandise imported from Holland and the North, for the Guinea trade; by the second article of which, his majesty has permitted to all merchants and traders to cause to be imported from Holland and the North all sorts of linens or stuffs, excepting those comprised in the foregoing article; provided they first acquaint the secretary of the admiralty with the place of their abode, and the ships they are put on board of. His majesty being informed, from the complaints of some merchants, that the officers of the admiralty retarded their voyages, but refusing to receive their declarations, upon the terms of the said second article, by reason the said letters patents were not addressed to the admiral of France, nor registered: all which we being willing to remedy, the king being in council, and attending to the report of Sieur le Pelatier, counsellor of state in ordinary, and comptroller-general of the finances, hath ordered, and accordingly orders, that the said letters patents of the 7th of September 1728, be

executed, according to their form and tenor, to the intent that they may be registered at the admiralty-board, established in the ports, destined by the first article of his majesty's letters patents, given the month of January, 1716, for the general freedom of commerce upon the coast of Africa: his majesty commands and ordains Mons. the count of Thoulouze, admiral of France, to see the present arret put in execution, which shall be registered in the admiralty, established in the ports destined for the general freedom of the commerce of Africa. Made at the king's council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles, the 13th of September, 1729.

Signed P H E L Y P E A U X.

The king's ordinance, prohibiting captains of ships that shall bring negroes to the islands, from landing, or sending their crews and cargoes thither, without permission from the governors. Of the 3d of April, 1718. By the king.

His majesty being informed that the captains of ships that bring negroes into the islands of America, have communication with the inhabitants of the said colonies, and suffer their crews, their negroes, and other parts of their cargoes, to be landed, although the negroes that they bring, and other parts of their cargoes, are infected with the plague, which it is of high importance to prevent. To the end that from the frequency of these practices the said contagious distempers may not infect the inhabitants of the said islands: his majesty, by and with the advice of Mons. the duke of Orleans, regent, forbids all captains of ships who shall import negroes into the said islands, from coming on shore, or to suffer their crews or cargoes to be landed; and likewise to have no correspondence with the inhabitants, either by themselves, or by any of their ship's crew or cargoes, without permission first had and obtained from the commanding officer of the place where they shall arrive; which permission shall be allowed them, provided there is no infectious disease on ship-board; and, in case there is, a place shall be provided for them, where they might land the infected, in order to have them cured before they have the least communication with the said inhabitants. His majesty orders and commands Mons. the count of Thoulouze, admiral of France, and all governors and lieutenant-generals in South America, particular governors, and other officers, to pay due regard hereunto, &c.

Signed L E W I S,
P H E L Y P E A U X.

An arret of the king's council of state, for the payment of the bounty of 13 livres for each negro, and 20 livres for every mark of gold that the Senegal company from the African coast shall cause to be imported into France, coming from those countries, granted to the said company by the 24th article of his majesty's letters patents of the month of March, 1696, during the establishment of the said company. Of the 22d of August, 1724. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

Upon a petition presented to the king in council, by the old directors of the royal Senegal company of the coast of Africa, established by his majesty's letters patents of the month of March, 1696, registered where needful; containing that by the 24th article of the said letters patents, his majesty had granted to the said company, by way of bounty, the sum of 13 livres for every negro that the said company should import into the islands and colonies of America, and which should be paid to the said company by his royal treasurer, in consequence of certificates granted by the intendand of the said islands, or the governors in his absence; and, by the 25th article, his majesty likewise granted to the said company the sum of 20 livres for every mark of gold that should be imported into France, coming from those countries within the company's charter, which should be paid him by the royal treasury, upon the certification of the director-general of the mint at Paris. In execution of these two articles, his majesty granted two ordinances to the said company, the one of the 13th of June, 1717, of the sum of 34,374 livres, 7 sols, and 6 deniers, in consideration of the importation into Cape Francois, on the coast of St. Domingo, 2635 negroes, from the 17th of April, 1714, to the 27th of August, 1716, pursuant to the attestations of the captains of those ships by which they were imported, as well as of the directors of the said company established at St. Domingo, and the certificates annexed, of Sieur de Boismorant, chief secretary of the marine of the 15th and 16th of November, 1716, and what the said company had imported, from the 6th of October, 1715, being five marks, seven ounces, six gros, of gold dust, which were sent to the mint of Paris, pursuant to the director's certificate of the said mint: the other ordinance, of the 10th of June, 1718, the sum of 14,963 livres, for 1151 negroes that the said company imported to the said Cape Francois, from the 2d of February, 1717, to the 22d of February, 1718, according to five certificates for that purpose; two of which are from the said Sieur de Boismorant, one from Sieur Mithon, commissary-general of the marine, and two from Sieur

Chaſtenoye,

Chaftenoye, major and commander of the island of the said Cape Francois, bearing date 2 February, 26 March, and 30 November, 1717, and 22 February, 1718; all these certificates being dated and attested in the said two ordinances: but, as the said company are not liable to produce these certificates to the Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, they having been deposited in the office of marine, where they were represented; that it is impossible to obtain duplicates, as well by reason of the death as of the exchange of officers who signed them; and moreover, because it would be a great difficulty upon the said company, under pretence that the said certificates have not been given by the Sieurs intendants, governors of the said islands, pursuant to the terms of the said letters patents, but only by the principal officers, who were then on the spot: the company hope that his majesty will be pleased to order the payment of the said sums of 34,374 livres, 7 sols, and 6 deniers, on the one part, and of 14,963 livres on the other, in producing only, to the said Sieurs Gruyn and de Turmenyes, the said two ordinances, with the acquittances of the cashier, attested by two of the directors, without being obliged to produce the said certificates, which cannot be obtained, &c.

In consequence of which petition of the company, the following patent passed the royal council; which shews how inviolably those acts, in regard to trade, are observed:

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. The old directors of the royal company of Senegal, and of the coasts of Africa, established by our letters patents of March 1696, registered, where it was necessary, have represented to us, that by the 24th article of our said letters patents, we have granted to the said company, by way of bounty, the sum of 13 livres for each negro that shall be imported into our isles and colonies of America; which should be paid to the said company by our treasurer, on the certificate of our intendant of the said isles, or our governors in his absence. And, by the 25th article, we have likewise granted to the said company the sum of 20 livres for each mark of gold that they shall cause to be imported into France, coming from places within the limits of the company's charter, which should likewise be paid by our treasurer, upon the certificate of our director-general of our mint in Paris: that, in due performance of these two articles, we had granted two orders to the said company, the one of the 13th of June, 1717, of 34,374 livres, 7 sols, 6 deniers, in consideration that they had sent, from those parts of Africa to Cape Francois on the coast of St. Domingo, 2635 negroes, from the 17th of April, 1714, to the 27th of August, 1716, according to the copies of the declarations of the captains of the ships who brought them, and the directors of the said company, settled at the said St. Domingo, and the certificates of le Sieur Boismorant, principal secretary of our marine, commissary of the port of Cape Francois, of the 15th and 16th of November, 1716, and that the said company had caused to come from Africa, the 6th of October, 1715, five marks, seven ounces, six grains, of gold dust, that they had remitted to the officer of our bank at Paris, according to the certificate of our director of the bank. The other order of the 10th of June, 1718, of the sum of 14,963 livres, for 1151 negroes, which the said company had caused to be brought from Africa to the said Cape Francois, according to five certificates, two of which were of the aforesaid Sieur Boismorant, one of the Sieur Mithon, commissary-general of our marine, governor of the said counties, and two of the Sieur Chaftenoye, major of the island, our commandant of the said Cape Francois, dated the 2d of February, the 26th of March, and the 30th of November, 1717, and the 22d of February, 1718; all which certificates were examined and dated in our two said orders: but as the said company could not send them to the Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, our royal treasurers (as mentioned in the preceding petition) being sent to the office of our marine, where they were exhibited and deposited, it was not possible to bring duplicates of them, on account of the death of the officers that had signed them, and likewise would occasion the company some difficulty, upon pretence that the certificates were not signed by our governors and intendants of our islands, in the terms of our letters patents, but only by our principal officers that were there; the said company petitioned that we would have ordered the payment of the said sum of 34,374 livres, 7 sols, 6 deniers, for the one, and 14,963 livres for the other, producing only, to the said Sieurs Gruyn and de Turmenyes, our said two orders, with the receipts of his cashier, examined by the two directors of the same, without being obliged to produce the said certificates, which they should have done, if they had had them, &c. Upon which our orders were granted, which were sufficient warrant and authority, to our treasurer: whereupon we have, by our arret of council of the 22d of August last, provided in favour of the petitioners, and ordered all necessary letters to be dispatched for the execution of the same; which the petitioners have most humbly accepted: for which reasons, and by the advice of our council who have seen the arret, made the said 22d of August last, an extract of which is hung to the seal of our chancery, we have, by these presents,

signed with our hand, conformably to the arret, ordered, and we do order, that the Sieur Rolland Pierre Gruyn, our treasurer, and commissary in the office of his late father, Pierre Gruyn, shall pay unto the said company, upon the cashier's receipt, the sum of 34,374 livres, 7 sols, 6 deniers, expressed in our order of the 13th of June, 1717; and that le Sieur Turmenyes de Nointel, also our treasurer, pay the sum of 14,963 livres, mentioned in our order of the 10th of June, upon the receipt of the said cashier; which sums shall be allowed in the accounts of the said Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, by virtue of the said receipts, examined by the two directors of the said company only, without being obliged to produce the certificates upon which our said two orders were granted, which we have dispensed with, and do dispense with the manner in which it was done, nevertheless not to be made a precedent, &c. This is our pleasure. Given at Versailles, the 2d of December, 1724, and the 10th of our reign.

Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

The king's declaration concerning negro slaves of the colonies. Given at Versailles, 25 December, 1738. Registered in the parliament of Paris.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. to all that shall see these letters, greeting: the account we ordered to be laid before us, at our coming to the crown, touching the state of our colonies, has made us sensible of the reasonableness and necessity of those orders, contained in the letters patent, in form of an edict, of the month of March 1685, relating to negro slaves. We ordered them to be put in execution, by the first article of our edict of the month of October 1716, and it being represented unto us, at the same time, that many of the inhabitants of our islands of America were desirous to send into France some of their slaves, to be instructed in the principles of religion, and learn some art or trade, but were fearful lest such slaves, upon their arrival in France, should pretend they were free, and not slaves; we have explained our intentions, upon this subject, by the articles of this edict, and have laid down regulations, which we have thought proper to be observed by masters, who shall bring or send over slaves to France: We have been informed, that, since that time, there have been great numbers sent over from thence; so that the inhabitants, who have chose to leave the colonies, and are come to settle in the kingdom, keep their slaves with them, contrary to the meaning of the 15th article of the same edict, whereby many of the negroes there have contracted bad habits, and entertain notions of independency, which may be of dangerous consequence; and besides, their masters have neglected to have them taught some useful trade; inasmuch that, among the numbers that are brought to France, there are but few that have been sent back to the colonies, and those that have, were of little service, and of very dangerous principles. The care we have always had, to the support and increase of our colonies, would not suffer us to let such abuses continue, which are so contrary to both; in order to put a stop to which, we have resolved to make some alterations in our edict of the month of October, 1716, and to add others, that seem to us necessary: for these, and other reasons of our own knowledge, full power, and royal authority, we have declared and ordained, and by these presents, signed with our hand, we do declare and ordain, as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The inhabitants and officers of our colonies, who shall send over negroe slaves into France, of either sex, for their improvement in the principles of religion, and instruction in some trade or employment, proper for the colonies, shall be obliged to have permission for so doing, of the governor, general, or commanding officer of the island, where they shall be; which permission shall express the owner's name who sends such slaves, or the name of him to whose care they shall be committed; the names of the slaves, with their age and marks; and the owners of the said slaves, and those who shall be charged with their conduct, shall be obliged to register the said permission, as well at the office of the place of their residence before their departure, as at the place of their embarkation, in 8 days after their arrival, in the manner as is expressed in the 2d, 3d, and 4th articles of our edict of October 1716.

II.

In the registers that shall be made of the said permission, in the admiralty of the ports of France, there shall be mentioned, of the day of the arrival of the slaves in the harbours.

III.

The said permission shall be registered again, at the marble table of the palais at Paris, designed for slaves that shall be brought into our said city, or at the register of the places where they shall be brought to reside; and it shall specify in the said register, the trade which the said slaves shall learn, and the masters who shall instruct them.

IV.

The slaves, of either sex, who shall be brought to France by their master, or by whomsoever sent, shall not pretend they have their liberty, because they are come into this kingdom; but shall be obliged to return into our colonies, whenever their masters shall think proper: but, if the master does not observe the forms prescribed in the foregoing articles, the said slaves shall be confiscated to our use, and sent back to our colonies, and employed as we think fit.

V.

The officers employed, by our authority, in the colonies, who shall have leave to come to France, and shall have brought slaves to serve as domestics, shall not keep them longer than the time limited for their stay; but, at the expiration, shall be sent back to the colonies; upon failure of which, they shall be confiscated and employed there, to our service, as we shall think proper.

VI.

The inhabitants, who shall bring or send slaves to France, to learn some trade, shall not retain them there longer than 3 years, reckoning from the day of their arrival in the port; such slaves as are not sent back, as aforesaid, shall be confiscated to our use, and employed in the colonies in our works.

VII.

The inhabitants of our colonies, that are willing to settle in our kingdom, cannot there keep, in their houses, slaves of either sex, when they have not disposed of their habitations in the colonies; and the slaves which shall remain, shall be confiscated, to be employed in the colonies for our use. They may, nevertheless, send them to France, observing the rules above prescribed, leaving the colonies to learn some employment, in order to make them more useful, at their return, to the said colonies; and in this case, they conform to the regulations prescribed in the foregoing articles, under penalty of being carried there again.

VIII.

All who shall carry or send negro slaves into France, and shall not send them back, according as prescribed in the 3 foregoing articles, shall be obliged, besides the loss of their slaves, to pay for each slave, not sent back, the sum of a thousand livres, into the hands of the commissioner-general of the treasury of the marine at the colonies, to be employed in the public works; and the licence, which they might otherwise have obtained from the governor-general, and the commanding officers, shall not be granted, until they have given security into the hands of the aforesaid treasurer of the marine, for the payment of the said sum, which security shall be mentioned in the said licence.

IX.

All those who have negro slaves in France, of either sex, shall be obliged, in three months, reckoning from the day of the publishing these presents, to make a declaration of them, to the board of admiralty nearest their habitation, and give security to send back, in a year from the date hereof, the said negroes into the said colonies: upon failure of which, or not giving the aforesaid security, the said slaves shall be confiscated, and employed in the colonies for our service.

X.

The negro slaves who shall be brought to France, shall not marry there, without consent of their masters, notwithstanding what is mentioned in the 7th article of our edict, of October 1716.

XI.

Masters that shall have brought slaves, of either sex, into France, shall not make them free, under any pretence whatsoever, only by will; and such freedom, thus given, shall not be of force, unless the testator dies before the expiration of the time, in which slaves, brought into France, ought to be sent back to the colonies.

XII.

All slaves brought into France to learn trades, as aforesaid, their masters, who are to instruct them therein, shall take care that they are brought up in the catholic religion.

XIII.

Our edict of October 1716 shall be in full force, where it does not derogate from these presents.

Thus we give in command, to our friends and faithful counsellors, members of our court of parliament at Aix, ordering these regulations to be read, published, and registered, and their contents kept, observed, and executed, according to their form and tenor, notwithstanding all edicts, ordinances, declarations, arrears, regulations, and usages to the contrary, wherein they differ from this.

This is our pleasure.

Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of state, which prohibits GUM* from the river Senegal, being exported out of the kingdom, for one year, under pain of confiscation, and three hundred livres penalty, 2d November, 1751. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

The king in council being informed, the great quantity of

gum from Senegal, that was exported to foreign countries, would occasion a scarcity of the said drug in his own kingdom, which his majesty willing to prevent: the king being in council, and hearing the report, hath ordered, and does, by these presents, order, that, reckoning from this present arret to the 1st November 1752, no gum Senegal shall be exported out of the kingdom to foreigners, on pain of confiscation, and three hundred livres penalty. Therefore, his majesty commands and enjoins the intendants and commissaries, in the several provinces of his kingdom, to have due regard that this arret of council be strictly put in execution; which shall be read, published, and fixed up, wherever it shall be requisite, that none may plead ignorance thereof. Done in the king's council of state, his majesty there present, held with regard to the finances, at Fontainebleau, 2d November 1751.

Signed M. P.
D'ARGENSEN.

* This gum is an exceeding useful material, in the silk manufacture of France; and therefore the French have engrossed almost the whole gum trade of the coast of Africa, and even prohibited the exportation of the gum Senegal, lest they themselves should have a scarcity, or rather other nations the benefit of the same, in their manufactures,

R E M A R K S.

We have been thus particular with respect to the measures that France has taken, in relation to their trade of Africa, in order to make a proper use thereof, occasionally, in the subsequent parts of this work: but what gives the greatest weight to the African trade of this kingdom, at present, is perhaps, their great India company, which has the right in this trade, exclusive of all other the subjects of France; to which privileges and immunities, they have also added the following.

An account of the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements given by the French to their African company, taken from a memorial of the deputies of the council of trade in France, to the royal council of commerce there.

1. An exemption from all local and provincial inland duties of any kind, upon their goods and merchandize in France, as also from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, wherewith to purchase negroes, gold, ivory, &c. which, considering the number of ships they employ in this trade, cannot be computed at near so small a sum as 150,000 l. sterling per annum; nor the whole exempted at so small a rate as 3 per cent. per ann. sterl.
3000l. thereon.

2. An exemption from half the customs on all sugars, and other merchandize imported from the French islands and colonies in America, being the produce of the sale of negroes there: the amount of which will appear by the following moderate computation, viz.

Suppose 15000 negroes only, (whereas good judges reckon them not less than double that number) are imported into the French sugar islands annually; and that 10000 of that number should be sold for sugar to be returned to France, at the rate of forty hundred weight of sugar only per head.

The duty on importation of sugar into France is 3 per cent. on about two-thirds of the value; which is at the rate of 2 per cent. And there is also an inland duty of three livres, or 2s. 9d. sterling per hundred weight.

Suppose the price of such sugar is computed at no more than 25s. per hundred; which, upon 10000 negroes, makes 400,000 weight of sugar; and this, at 1 per cent. being one half of the duty upon importation, amounts to — 5000l.
400,000 hundred weight of sugar at 1s. 4d. per hundred, being half of the above inland duty of three livres, or 2s. 9d. sterling per hundred weight, is — 27,500l.

3. A bounty of ten livres, or 9s. 2d. sterling to be paid out of the king's revenue, for every negroe carried to the French islands and colonies in America; which upon the said 15000 negroes only, amounts to — — — 6875

4. A bounty of 9s. 2d for every ounce
10 Z

of gold dust that shall be imported from Africa into France.

Suppose only 5000 ounces of gold imported from Africa into France, which is quite trifling and inconsiderable, when we recollect how rich their ships in the Guinea trade are in gold, as hath appeared by some late captures, is — — 2296

The total is per ann. in sterl. money — 44,671 l.

N. B. The exemption of duties on what the other five thousand negroes produce in coffee, indigo, cotton, cocoa, &c. is left out in this account, lest any exaggeration should appear; and in every other article, things are extremely under-rated, which every one at all acquainted with the extent of the French trade to Africa and America, need not be apprized of.

So well calculated for the advance of the French trade of Africa, as well as of their sugar-islands in America, do these measures appear, that the rapid increase of those trades, in that kingdom, is not at all to be admired, and especially so, since, from the treaty of Utrecht, they have had no competitors in those trades, who have been able to do them any injury. Such has been the sinking, and almost bankrupt state of our late African company, from this era, and such the jarring interest between them and our separate traders, that France has taken advantage of both; for they have some years since absolutely excluded our separate traders, as well as the company, from the whole trade of the Gum Coast; and from the impotent condition of the company to support their dignity and authority, pursuant to their charter, in Africa; this nation has, by means of their great company to the Indies, traded uninterruptedly under the nose of our British forts and settlements, while our traders have not been suffered to approach theirs with impunity.

Can we wonder then, that the French should so well stock their sugar colonies with negro-labourers, as to be able not only amply to supply their own European dominions with sugars, which they formerly took from us and the Portuguese, but to engross so considerable a share of the sugar-trade out of our hands in foreign markets?

Before the peace of Utrecht, the French had the Assiento for supplying the Spanish West-Indies with negroes; which proved the means of introducing immense quantities of the French manufactures into Spanish America; and, therefore, as the negro trade was carried on by France, it was extremely beneficial to that kingdom. But, when they had greatly enriched themselves*, and had so overdone that trade, as to render it good for little to any successor, they very wisely parted with it; and by the treaty of Utrecht, transferred the Assiento to the English South-Sea company; and, what advantages they have made by it, is too well known to need explanation. See ASSIENTO.

* To such a degree did the French trade in the South Seas in the reign of Lewis the XIVth, that they were enabled by a computation made from the several registers in Spain, and remittances otherwise made (according to authentic intelligence now before me in manuscript) to import, into the French dominions, TWO HUNDRED AND FOUR MILLIONS OF PIECES OF EIGHT; which reduced the Spanish West-Indies to such a degree of misery, as obliged the viceroy of Peru to present a memorial to his catholic majesty, shewing the causes of the inexpressible grievance the trade laboured under by the French being permitted and countenanced in the carrying on such a destructive trade in the South-Seas; which had, according to the words of the Spanish memorial, occasioned—
The whole trade to be at a stand.
The treasure of the kingdom to disperse different ways.
The negotiations of commerce to be embarrassed.
The merchants to be ruined.
The subjects to be poor.
The quinto's (or king's duties of $\frac{1}{5}$) to be decreased.
The duties to be unjustly applied.
The public revenue to be dissipated.
The traders in general to be without money:
And foreigners reaping the benefit.

By getting rid of the Assiento, at the time when they had made it worth nothing to any body else, they received this advantage by giving it up; they had greater plenty of negroes wherewith to stock their own colonies, and they came cheaper by them; whereas the acceptance of the Assiento, at that time of day, rendered them dearer to the British plantations, and they have continued so ever since: and yet the French have preserved a great share of the Spanish West-India trade ever since likewise.

REMARKS ON THE FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE SINCE the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the last war Great-Britain made conquests of the river SENEGAL, and the ISLAND OF GOREE in AFRICA; and

by the Xth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY, his Britannic majesty restores to France the island of Goree, in the condition it was in when conquered: And his Most Christian Majesty cedes, in full right, and guaranties to the king of Great-Britain the river Senegal, with the forts and factories of St Lewis, Podor, and Galam; and with all the rights and dependencies of the said river Senegal. See ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

To what a degree, and by what measures, this nation has so greatly and so suddenly advanced their commerce and navigation in America, we shall next take into consideration, under the article of FRENCH AMERICA.—See FRENCH AMERICA.

FRENCH AMERICA BEFORE THE LAST WAR. Although we have taken notice of this point under the general article of FRANCE, yet we have there only touched it in a general way, and in one peculiar light, as preparatory to what we have said under the article BRITISH AMERICA, and what we shall further offer under the present head.

Under the foregoing article of FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, we have shewed, from the authority of the deputies of the council of trade in France, what necessary dependency and connection they have judged there is between the trade of Africa, and that of the French islands in America; and also of what high importance those deputies thought those colonies to be to the commerce and navigation of that kingdom in general.—This appears from a memorial of the said deputies of the council of trade in France, to the royal council in 1701, &c. the preamble to which I have just quoted under the article of FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE.

That the commercial state of the French islands in America may be duly represented as they really were at this time (1701.) we shall give the reader an authentic account thereof in as narrow a compass as we can, from the above-mentioned memorial: and by comparing their past with their present state, [that is before the last war] we shall be able to make a true judgment of the advancement of the trade and navigation of those French American colonies.

After the deputies of the council of trade having represented to the royal council, in the aforesaid memorial, THE DEPENDENCY OF THE COMMERCE OF THEIR AMERICAN ISLANDS UPON THAT OF AFRICA, they lay before them the then state of their island colonies, which is as follows:

The small island with the terra firma of CAYENNE, comes first in view. It's coasts are about 60 leagues in extent, not above 10 or 12 of it are inhabited. It's soil is very good; the sugars it produces, which are the brown, clayed, white, and middling sorts, do near equal in goodness the white sugars of Brasil. It affords rocou, which is a drug for dyeing red: it has not above 600 whites, men, women, and children, with about 2000 blacks of both sexes; so that this large tract of land is almost uninhabited. And as this island is situated in very near the same parallel as the Moluccas, where the fine spices grow, 'tis believed that it might be easy to cultivate them there, and so spare the buying them of the Dutch; the rather, because the Portuguese on this side of the river Amazons, in a situation more distant from the line, have cinnamon.

The island of GRENADA, is in circuit about 15 leagues. The number of whites there is about 200, and of blacks of both sexes about 600. There is a pretty good fort on it. It produces sugar, indigo that is excellent; also rocou, cotton, and caffet. The soil is very good, and the colony might be considerably augmented.

MARTINICO is the principal colony; the governor and the intendant of our American islands have their residence there. It's circuit is about 60 leagues. The soil is good, and very fertile in sugars rough and white; cacao, caffet, rocou; it affords likewise some indigo and cotton. It had formerly 3500 men bearing arms, and about 16,000 blacks of both sexes. It has three good harbours, several good roads for shipping, and two small towns unwall'd. It has a good fort in the Cul de Sac Royal.

GUARDALOUPE, and the land belonging to it, are about 50 leagues in compass. The soil is pretty good, it's sugars very fine, it affords cotton and ginger. 'Tis not peopled. It had formerly 1500 men bearing arms, and about 8000 blacks of both sexes.

MARIE GALANTE. It's circuit is about 16 leagues. The soil is pretty good, it's sugar somewhat of the finer sort: it produces indigo, cotton, and ginger. It was taken the last war by the English, who afterwards abandoned it. It is not yet able to recover itself, having but three or four sugar-plantations set up again. It has a small fort, which the English demolished: we have begun to rebuild it.

The island of St CHRISTOPHER has 28 leagues in circuit. The soil is of an excellent quality. The French possess one half of it, and the English the other. In the last war we drove the English out of it, two years after they retook it: by the treaty of peace, we were restored to the possession of our part. It will be difficult to re-establish that colony in it's first condition: it would then have above 2000 whites bearing arms, and 12,000 blacks. 'Tis to be feared, that, the next rupture, the English will beat us out of it; the more easily,

easily, because they have the islands of Antigua, Montserrat, and Nevis, which lie very near, and are very well peopled. This came true, St Kitts being ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht.

SAINTE-CROIX is about 25 leagues round: formerly it had 600 men bearing arms, and many sugar-plantations. During the last war the king caused it to be abandoned, because of the difficulties of defending it: the inhabitants were transported to St Domingo. Yet this island is a very good one, and produces sugars, indigo, cotton: it has a very good harbour, and a very good basin, proper for careening ships: it's harbour is very safe, and sheltered from hurricanes.

The last colony is **ST DOMINGO**. 'Tis about 500 leagues in circuit; the French possess one half of it, from Cape François to the island Vaches, and the Spaniards have the other half.

At **CAPE FRANÇOIS** there is a good port: there are 900 men bearing arms, and about 2000 blacks of both sexes. Southward is **PORT DE PAIX**, which the English have in part destroyed, after plundering it. The inhabitants are dispersed, the place is almost abandoned. The district of **LEOGANE** is more considerable; there the governor lives, and the sovereign council is held. It had about 2000 men bearing arms, and about 15,000 blacks of both sexes.

PETIT-GUAVE has a good port, and had about 600 whites and 2000 blacks.

There are some other islands, as **LA DOMINIQUE**, **LES XAINTES**, **ST MARTIN**, and **ST BARTHELEMY**, which are of very little importance, and almost uninhabited.

The last war, and the sickness known by the name of Siam, which a ship brought thither from that country, have much diminished our colonies; this, and the neighbourhood of the islands which the English possess, are very pressing motives to our studying seriously the safety of those islands and colonies. Nothing but the trade of blacks can furnish us with hands enough to people and cultivate our islands.

After this the deputies go on in their memorial, representing the disadvantages of carrying on the Guinea trade by means of an exclusive company, which not being to my purpose at present, I shall wave.

When once, continue the deputies of the council of trade, this commerce shall be well established, and our colonies shall be sufficiently stocked, it will not be difficult for us to imitate the **ENGLISH OF JAMAICA, IN THE TRAFFIC THEY HAVE WITH THE SPANIARDS**. We may, by the way of **ST DOMINGO, TRADE IN NEGROES**: by favour of that trade, we might vend great quantities of our goods and manufactures to the Spaniards of the neighbouring islands, and on the coast of the continent, and might get of them a great deal of gold and silver in exchange*. The grand occurrence of the union of France and Spain gives us hopes of an open commerce, and an easy correspondence, which may enable us to undertake any thing. We have a great many ships that lie useless in our ports, and are rotting for want of employment. The intendants of the maritime provinces can attest this truth: 'tis grievous to the king's subjects to see their shipping perish thus, while they might make good use of them, had they the liberty which they desire.

* This we have seen they did, from the memorial of the commerce of Peru to his Catholic majesty, and have done so more or less ever since.

R E M A R K S .

Besides the foregoing islands, except St. Christophers, France possessed **CANADA**, and all its **DEPENDENCIES**, as well on the continent, as the gulph and river St Lawrence. See **CANADA, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA**.—They possessed also **CAPE BRETON**.—By the last war we conquered **CANADA**, and **CAPE BETON**:—And by the **DEFINITIVE TREATY** of 1763, **CANADA** and all its **DEPENDENCIES** are ceded to the crown of England, and also **CAPE BRETON**; and the small islands of **ST PETERS** and **MIGNOLEN**, near Newfoundland, are ceded by Great-Britain to France, as a shelter for their fishermen only, it being stipulated, that they shall make therein no fortifications, nor have a guard of more than 50 men for the police. See **AMERICA** for the whole of the **DEFINITIVE TREATY** of 1763, article VI.

We having also by the last war conquered the French Sugar-Islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe, Marie Galante, and Desirade, and by the VIIIth article of the said treaty, Great-Britain cedes them to France; and by the IXth article France cedes to Great-Britain the islands of Grenada, and of the Grenadines; and the partition of the islands, called Neutral, is agreed and fixed, so that those of St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, shall remain in full right to Great-Britain; and that of St Lucia shall be delivered to France, to enjoy the same likewise in full right. See **BRITISH AMERICA**.

A CONTINUATION OF THE FRENCH DEPUTIES REPRESENTATION.

To omit nothing in a matter so important, [as that of the French colonies] it is necessary to represent, that the duties

which were settled by the arret of the 20th of June 1698, on the white sugars imported from the islands, at 15 livres the hundred weight, and on the brown sugars at 3 livres, over and above the 3 per cent. duty to the domaine of the west, are too high, and prejudicial to the commerce of France, and advantageous to the trade of foreigners, for the reasons following:

I. The Portugal sugars which are imported into France, pay but 15 livres the hundred weight, and are exempted from the duty of 3 per cent. of the western domaine, which those of our colonies pay.

II. High duties hinder great consumption; the dearer any thing is, the more sparing are people in using it; this is contrary to the design of improving the colonies. Besides, 'tis certain, that, when sugars come to sink in their price, they cannot bear so high a duty: it will therefore be expedient to reduce the duty of 15 livres to 8, and the duty on brown from 3 livres to 30 sols; for, at this very time, white sugars are worth but from 25 to 30 livres the hundred weight, and the brown from 12 to 13 livres.

III. When the crop of sugars shall be in any degree plentiful, the entrepost ought to be allowed, to favour the vending of it, and the carrying of the over-stock to foreigners. In Holland the brown sugars pay but 20 sols, and the white but 30 sols; it would therefore be convenient to reduce the duties in France to such a foot, that our sugars might be carried out with the same advantages as those of nations.

The royal council seems to have designed to remedy these inconveniences, by the arret of the 28th of June 1698, which allows the carrying directly to foreign parts clayed and refined sugars, paying only the 3 per cent. duty on the western domaine.

But the execution of this arret would be prejudicial to the state, because the French ships, going directly from the American islands to foreign ports, are necessitated, after they have unladen, to rest; this creates expence; money must be laid out in subsisting the ships companies, and in re-victualing to return to France. This is consuming foreign commodities; our carpenters, sail-makers, rope-makers, and other mechanics who work to the sea, are deprived of the profits, which they would reap, if the ships made their voyage directly back to France.

The crews oblige the captains to pay them their wages; it cannot be avoided, the cargo being a security for the wages of the seamen; this money is dissipated among foreigners in debauchery, and their families, which are in France, are deprived of their subsistence: in a word, this practice will ruin our navigation instead of increasing it.

IV. The mismanagement of the clerks (or agents) of the farmers, is very prejudicial to this commerce; they make a difficulty to return the duties (or pay the drawbacks) which they are obliged to do, when the sugars refined in France are sent out of the kingdom: they take advantage of their authority, and of the protection with which the council honours them; the length and charge of the proceedings discourage the merchants.

V. Provision should be made by proper regulations, against the frauds which the inhabitants of the islands are apt to commit. Care has been already taken to correct those which they used in making of sugars, by ordering every one to put his mark on the calks with a hot marking-iron, in order to discover and proceed against the culpable: 'tis necessary to oblige every one of the inhabitants to keep in his house a good beam and scales, with weights of lead or iron, marked according to the standard, and to forbid them to make use of stilliards and weights of stone. It is likewise necessary to oblige the director, who was paid a duty for weighing after the rate of one per cent. for all goods, though he does not weigh them, to send every year an expert master-weigher, with brass weights, and other necessaries, for ascertaining, and marking according to the standard, all the weights of the inhabitants, making them pay for the materials added to defective weights, and this for remedying the frequent abuses which are committed by false weights.

The deputies are obliged to observe further to the royal council, that, for three or four years past, a duty is levied at St Domingo of two sols per livre on indigo shipped off there. This novelty is the more pernicious, because that drug serves for dyeing our manufactures in blues or blacks, and because we make a considerable traffic thereof to the north. 'Tis of great importance for the royal council to be pleased to take off this duty, which is capable of ruining the cultivation of this drug, which is very near as good as that of Guatamala.

VI. It might be proper to add to the regulation by which the council enjoins every ship to carry a certain number of lads or fellows, who hire themselves to service for augmenting the colonies, which might be taken out of the Hôtel Dieu, and maids brought up to, and expert in manufactures, to be married to the hired men-servants after they have served out their times; and to forbear sending the common prostitutes, who are more likely to corrupt and infect the country, than to people it; and, as there are abundance of beggars in France able to work, who live in perfect idleness, it would be essential

essential to order the justices to cause numbers of them to be taken up, and shipped off to our colonies.

VII. Lastly, it would be convenient to establish four consular jurisdictions, in the islands of St Domingo, St Christopher, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the nature of those established in France: they might be composed of one judge and four consuls, who might decide sovereignly all causes to the sum of ———, and for greater sums give a liberty of appeal to the sovereign court of the place.

About sixty years ago the French were little versed in commerce, and little skilled in navigation. In those days it was necessary to form companies, and to grant them privileges, in order to engage them to beat out, for the king's subjects, tracks of commerce which were unknown to them. 'Tis expedient and very beneficial to the state to act in the like manner, as often as new settlements of colonies, clearing and cultivating of new discovered places, or new inventions are proposed; yet, in these cases, the privileges ought not to be granted but for a certain number of years: but, unless on such occasions, nothing is more destructive to a state than exclusive privileges.

REMARKS with regard to the FRENCH LAWS, ORDINANCES and REGULATIONS of their American colonies before the last war.

No man of sense, and acquainted with the nature of trade, can read these sentiments of the French deputies of commerce, which they laid before the royal council, but must applaud them, they being so well adapted to the advancement of colonies, especially in their infancy, as it were: nay, we find, from the sense of these deputies themselves, that the whole trade of France was then but in it's infant state; for they acknowledge, that, about forty years before this, the French were little versed in commerce, and little skilled in navigation: and, although England has had the start of them in trade and navigation by some ages, yet we experience, that they have already overtaken us. Could they have possibly effectuated these great things, if the laws and regulations of their trade, and the encouragements they have constantly given within this century, were not exquisitely well calculated to answer the end proposed? They had the advantage, indeed, of our laws for their guidance; and they have shewed as much sagacity in imitating the best, as in rejecting the worse: whereby they have, in many respects, improved in their laws and regulations of commerce and navigation upon our's; and, if there is any thing importantly useful to be borrowed from them in our turn, 'tis to be hoped, that we shall not be so unwise as to condemn it, because it is of French production.

There is one thing of which our readers should be put in mind, especially as it frequently occurs, not only in the memorials of the French deputies of trade, but in many of their best political writings; that is, not to be led away with the praises they often bestow upon this nation, with relation to our laws for the regulation of trade, or pay too much regard to the profuse encomiums they have given upon the wisdom we have shewn in conducting our colonies, an instance of which we just now had from the French deputies. These are not to be considered as genuine and candid representations, flowing from the real sentiments of their authors in general, but as artificial colourings, necessary to raise the jealousy of those to whom they write, and making them thereby the more keen for taking proper measures for the destruction of our trade. When the old Roman senator produced the fruits that came from the neighbourhood of Carthage, it was not so much to magnify the soil where they grew, as to warn his countrymen into a desire of subduing the inhabitants of the region that produced them.

Nor should it be less observable by the British reader, with what freedom, with what becoming, yet unrestrained freedom, the deputies of commerce, chosen by the merchants*, address themselves to the king in council. What is still more encouraging and extraordinary is, that the deputies of particular trading cities are permitted, and, indeed, frequently commanded by the royal council, to make their objections against what shall be urged by the deputies of other cities: nay, they suffer their replies and rejoinders to be laid before them, as long as either of the parties have any significant matter to urge. By this means, they have the subject so effectually canvassed by the deputies, previously to their own determinations, that the royal council rarely fail to obtain so thorough an insight into the case at last, as to enable them to take their resolutions for the public interests. To shew the nature of which, is one reason for giving our readers a part of the memorial before represented. But it must be observed, that what these memorialists shall submit to the consideration of the royal council, is not to be taken as the real laws and regulations of the trade of France; these are only to be found in the arrets, edicts, ordinances, and letters patents; all which are the result of the determinations of the royal council, in consequence of the information that has been laid before them by the deputies of commerce. I had taken no notice of this, had I not frequently observed, that the memo-

rials of those deputies had been quoted by some of our English writers upon trade, as French laws and regulations of validity: whereas they are to be no otherwise considered than in the light wherein we have represented them.

* For the nature of this institution of the deputies of commerce in France, see the article CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Another reason which induced me to cite so much of the beforementioned memorial as I have done, is to shew, from the pen of the deputies of commerce themselves, what was the state and condition of the French islands in America when this memorial was drawn up; and, by comparing their state in 1701 with what it is at present, we shall be able to form a good judgment to what degree the commerce of their colonies has advanced in that number of years. This will an useful enquiry. Moreover.

As it will appear that these colonies have extraordinarily increased in their trade and navigation from the year 1701, and that to such a degree as greatly surprized this nation in the late war of 1741, it may be further useful, and highly satisfactory, to have before us in miniature the real measures that have been taken by France, from time to time, to raise this commerce to the height they have done; and more especially so, as those French laws and regulations may afford many important hints for future consideration, with respect to our own colonies in general.

Upon turning over the arrets, edicts, ordinances, declarations, and patents, issued by the royal council, in relation to the French colonies in America, I shall take notice of some of the essential, subsequent to the foregoing memorial.

Regulations concerning hired servants, and fire-arms, exported by merchantmen to the French colonies in America and New France. November 16, 1716, registered in parliament.

The king, being informed that there were divers laws and ordinances which obliged merchants, at different times, to export, to the French colonies of America, cattle, hired servants, and as much flour as the colonies had occasion for; and, by those laws of the 19th of February 1698, the 8th of April 1699, the 26th of December 1703, the 17th of November 1706, the 3d of August 1707, and the 20th of March 1714, they were obliged to send, both to the said islands and New France, a certain number of hired servants and buccaneer guns for hunting; which obligations were declared in his majesty's passports: but those merchants believing themselves to be exempt from such obligation, by an edict of February 1716, they desisted from sending the particulars aforesaid. His majesty, never intending to free the merchants, by the said edict, from the said obligations, the inhabitants having now as much need of hired servants and those guns as ever, has thought proper, by the advice of Mons. the duke of Orleans, his uncle, regent, to explain his intentions, and make the present regulation, which he requires to be executed for the future.

T I T L E I.

Of hired or articed servants.

A R T I C L E I.

All captains of merchantmen that shall go to the French colonies of America, and New France, or Canada, excepting those in the negro trade, shall be obliged to carry thither hired servants, viz. a ship of 60 tons, and under, shall carry three hired servants; from 60 to 100, four ditto; and, from 100 and upwards, six hired servants.

II.

The terms of carrying these servants shall be mentioned in the permission given by the admiral to the captain for sailing.

III.

Those servants shall be between the age of 18 and 40, none less than four feet in stature, strong, fit to work, and shall serve three years.

IV.

Such servants shall be examined by the officers of the admiralty at the port from whence the ships shall sail, and those shall be rejected who are not qualified according to the preceding article, and of a good constitution.

V.

Their particular characteristics of the servants shall be mentioned in the ship's book.

VI.

Such of them that are handicraftsmen and mechanics, useful to the colonies, shall be accounted as two, and the trade each is of shall be specified.

VII.

The captains of such merchantmen, as soon as arrived, shall deliver them to the commissary appointed for the purpose, who shall examine whether they answer the descriptions required, and are the identical persons who embarked.

VIII. The

F R E

VIII.

The captains and inhabitants of the colonies shall agree upon the price; but if they cannot agree, the commissaries shall oblige those inhabitants that have not the number of hired servants required by the ordinances, to take them, and settle the price.

IX.

The captains shall bring a certificate from the commissioners, testifying the said servants to be the same as embarked.

X.

The captains, on their return to France, shall produce the said certificate to the officers of the admiralty.

XI.

The captains and owners of ships shall be absolutely condemned in the penalty of 200 livres for every such articulated servant not carried to the colonies, without appeal.

T I T L E II.

Of fire-arms.

A R T I C L E I.

All captains of merchantmen who shall sail to the French island colonies in America, and New France, or Canada, except those who are concerned in the negro-trade, shall be obliged to carry thither in each vessel four buccaneer-guns, or four fuses for hunting, mounted with brass.

II.

The condition upon which these guns may be carried, shall be inserted in the permission given by the admiral for such ships to sail.

III.

These buccaneer-guns shall be four feet four inches long, light, and carry balls of 18 to the mark pound weight.

IV.

The fuses for hunting shall be four feet long, and light.

V.

The said captains shall, on arrival in the colonies, deposit the said arms into the king's arsenal where they shall land, in order to be examined and proved in the governor's presence.

VI.

If any piece shall not hold in the proof, the captain shall be fined 30 livres.

VII.

The said 30 livres shall be immediately laid out by the governor in buccaneer hunting-guns, and distributed to the poor inhabitants.

VIII.

The said captains shall leave the said arms 'till they are sold, or 'till the governor shall have distributed them among the companies of the militia; in which case he, in concert with the intendant or commissary, shall order payment for the same.

IX.

The captains shall take a certificate from the governor, attested by the intendant, of the sending back such guns, and of the sum paid on account of not standing proof.

X.

They shall also be obliged, on their return to France, and in making their declaration, to carry with them the said certificate to the officers of the admiralty.

XI.

The captains and owners of such merchantmen shall be condemned by the officers of the admiralty in 50 livres fine for every such gun that they shall omit to carry into the colonies, without appeal.

T I T L E III.

Of prosecutions and fines.

A R T I C L E I.

All prosecutions, occasioned in disregard to the said regulations, shall be undertaken by the king's solicitor of the admiralty.

II.

The fines made to the admiralty shall belong to the admiral; and those made by the marble-table, the one half shall go to the admiralty, the other to the king, according to the ordinance of 1681.

The governors, intendants, or commissaries in the colonies, shall jointly transmit an account every half-year to the council of marine, of the number of articulated servants and guns that every merchant shall send to the colonies, of the sums paid for defective arms, and how the arms have been employed.

Signed LEWIS.
PHELYPEAUX.

In consequence of which, letters patents were granted by the king, in the manner we have before given instances of, to cause the said regulations to be duly observed in his dominions.

F R E

R E M A R K S.

It is obvious enough from the least reflection, that, (1.) The intention of the preceding regulations is, to people the French colonies with a number of Whites proportionate to that of Blacks, that the latter might not be an over-match for the former, and disturb the plantations with insurrections. (2.) That, by sending over French workmen, as articulated servants, is to render labour cheaper in the plantations, and so far to instruct the negroes in such workmanship as may render them the more serviceable to the planters. And, (3.) To accustom the people to, and instruct them in, the use of arms, as well to defend their colonies at the least expence to the crown, as to train them to hunting; and that not only to supply themselves with food at the least expence, but for the sake of the peltry trade in New France, or Canada, which is the essential article of that commerce.

Nor are these regulations wisely adapted only to those good purposes, but so judiciously are the checks contrived among the officers, both in France and the colonies, who are to see those regulations duly put in execution, that they are rarely neglected: and this is the case of most of the laws in France; they are as vigilantly executed, as properly accommodated to the ends thereby designed to be answered. Do not such-like measures give spirit to the laws, and prevent their remaining a voluminous dead letter, or incumbrance upon the people, made use of only by iniquitous law-trappers, the greatest pest of society, to fill the people with eternal inquietudes, at length to ruin them, and unfit them to carry on their commerce?

Marine laws to be observed in all the ports of the islands and French colonies, wherever situated. Of January the 12th 1717.

The ordinances made by his majesty in the year 1681, being represented to the king relating to the government of the marine, to be observed in all places of his dominions, and which have never yet been put in execution; and there being no court of admiralty at present established in the colonies of America, nor in the East-Indies, which gives room to ignorant pretenders to set up for judges in maritime affairs, to the great detriment of trade and navigation, which the kings, his majesty's predecessors, always looked upon of the utmost importance, and what cannot be well regulated but by wise and salutary laws, adapted to that purpose: his majesty, by the advice of the duke of Orleans, his uncle, regent, &c. has resolved on the present regulations:

T I T L E I.

Of the judges of the admiralty, and their jurisdiction.

A R T I C L E I.

There shall be, for the future, judges appointed, well skilled in MARITIME AFFAIRS in all the French colonies, and in all places where the French have settlements, called officers of the admiralty, distinct from the civil ones, who shall conform themselves according to the ordinances made in 1681, and other marine laws.

The king's * lieutenants and solicitors cannot be admitted 'till 25 years of age; if they are not graduates, yet that shall be dispensed with, provided they have a competent knowledge of the maritime laws and ordinances, in which they shall undergo an examination before admittance.

* A lieutenant, in this sense, is a magistrate that presides in the courts of admiralty, to see that the royal edicts, ordinances, &c. are duly put in execution.

T I T L E III.

Of the methods of proceeding in the courts of admiralty and their judgments.

Demands for the payment of part, or all a ship's cargo, ready to sail to France from the colonies, shall be tried summarily, and executed, notwithstanding an appeal, and the detainers of such merchandizes shall be compelled, by the sale of their effects, and even by the detention of their person, to discharge their obligation, &c.

T I T L E IV.

Of granting permission for sailing, and reports relating thereunto.

No vessel shall sail from the ports and havens of the colonies, and other French establishments, either to return into France, or to pass from one colony to another, without permission or licence from the admiral, on pain of confiscation of ship and cargo, &c.

The masters of ships whose ordinary navigation lies in carrying sugars, or other merchandizes, from one port to another

ther in the same island, as also those who navigate from island to island, and go from Martinico to the islands of Guadeloupe, Grenade, Grenadins, Tobago, Mary Galante, St Martin, St Bartholomew, St Alouzie, and St Vincent, St Dominico, and those that go from the island of Cayenne to the province of Guiana, to the coast of St Domingo, and to the island of Tortuga, shall take licences from the admiralty, which shall be granted to them for one year.

Those who carry on trade from the Isle Royal, or Cape Breton, from port to port, or who go to the adjacent islands, as the island of Sable to that in the gulph of St Lawrence, and to the coasts of the said gulph, shall likewise take out licences from the admiralty, which shall be granted them for one year; but if they come to Quebec, they shall take out a new licence.

The masters of the said ships, before receiving their licences, shall give security not to go into any island, or to any foreign coast, on pain of confiscation of ship and cargo, and a fine of 300 livres.

The masters of ships, who shall trade in the river and gulph of St Lawrence, shall also take licences from the admiral, which shall be granted them for a year; and those that shall go from Quebec to Cape Breton shall do the same.

Licences for fishing shall not be granted without the consent of the governors, who shall take cognizance of that branch of trade, that it is not abused by trading with foreigners.

All masters of ships arriving in the colonies and other French settlements, shall be obliged to make their report to the lieutenant-general of the admiralty, 24 hours after their arrival, on pain of suffering an arbitrary fine.

Excepting only those who arriving at Cape Breton on the fishery account, for they may enter into the ports and havens where there is no admiralty; in which case they shall make their report at the nearest place where there is a court of admiralty, and that within one month from the time of their arrival, under the same penalty.

His majesty forbids all masters of ships from unloading any merchandizes before making their report, unless in case of imminent danger, on pain as well of corporal punishment, as confiscation of the merchandizes so unloaded.

The king's solicitor of every court of admiralty shall be obliged, at the end of every year, to send to the admiral a state of the officers of the admiralty of their jurisdiction, and of whatever has occurred of importance, as likewise a list of the ships arrived there, with the day of their arrival, and of their departure, according to the manner that shall be prescribed them.

All merchants, masters, and captains of ships, are forbid navigating in the American seas, to carry on any commerce with foreigners, or to land with this intent on the coast or islands of their settlements, under pain the first time of confiscation of ship and cargo; and in case of repetition, the master and sailors shall be sent to the gallees.

The masters and pilots, in making their report, shall represent their licences, declare the time and place of their departure, and the loading of their ships, the course they have steered, the hazards they run, the accidents happened to their vessel, and every circumstance relating to their voyage.— They shall also represent the journal of their voyage, which shall be returned to them, if desired by the officers of the admiralty, within eight days, and without any expence, after they shall have extracted whatever is requisite to render the said navigation more secure*, of which they shall take care to give an account to the admiralty every three months.

* This is certainly a very judicious regulation, and tends greatly to the security of navigation.

The captains and masters of ships who arrive from the French colonies in the ports of France, shall be obliged, in making their report, in what manner they were received in the colonies, how justice was administered to them, and what charges and averages they were obliged to pay from their arrival to their departure: his majesty commands the officers of the admiralty to interrogate the masters and captains upon these particulars; to receive the complaints of the passengers and sailors, who have any to make †, and to direct a verbal process thereof, which shall be made, in order to be sent to the admiral of France.

† This also is mighty well calculated for the regulation of navigation.

T I T L E V.

Of the visiting of ships.

On the arrival of ships, the officers of the admiralty shall visit them, according to the edict of 1711. They shall take account with what merchandizes they are laden, what sailors they have, what passengers they have brought, and they shall signify the day of the ship's arrival, and shall verbally give an account thereof.

The visitation of ships intended to return to France, shall be made before their loading is taken in, by the officers of the

admiralty, with an approved carpenter, and in presence of the master, who shall be obliged to assist therein, under pain of an arbitrary fine, to examine if the vessel is in fit condition for the voyage intended.— They shall likewise examine into all the ship's tackle, and every thing thereunto belonging, excepting the sailors and the provisions, and this before one or two captains appointed for that purpose by the officers of the admiralty, in order to know whether the ship is fit for the voyage in all respects; and the masters of ships who are preparing for their loading, shall be obliged to apprise the officers of the admiralty thereof, two days before they begin so to do, under the penalty, for disregard hereof, of the expence of unloading the said ship, and reloading of another ‡.

‡ Is not this exquisite policy, for many reasons that will naturally occur to the judicious reader?

They shall also take the declaration of the master, with regard to the quantity and quality of the provisions, in order to judge whether they are competent to the length of the voyage, and the number of sailors and passengers.

If two thirds of the sailors make declaration against the master of the ship and the purveyor, that the provisions are not of good quality, or that there is not the quantity mentioned in the master's declaration, the officers of the admiralty shall testify the same; and in case the declaration proves false, the master and the purveyor shall be each condemned in the fine of 100 livres, and to take the provisions themselves as shall be ordered, which shall be prosecuted by the solicitor of the admiralty, and of another whom the sailors shall nominate, &c.

The officers of the admiralty shall prepare a verbal process of the condition of the ship, of the tackle and the provisions; a copy of which shall be delivered to the masters, who are obliged to represent the same to the admiralty at the place of their return, under the penalty of an arbitrary fine.

Done at Paris,
12 Jan. 1717.

Signed LEWIS,
And below,
PHELYPEAUX.

Then follow letters patents of the same date, ratifying the foregoing, and ordering the strict execution thereof; of the nature of which, as we have given instances before, so we shall not repeat the same.

The king's letters patents, concerning the regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, of the month of April, 1717.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. The late king our most honoured lord and great-grandfather, having, by an edict of the month of December 1674, suppressed the West-India company, before established by an edict of May 1664, with an exclusive privilege of trade to the French islands of America, and having united the lands and countries thereunto belonging to the crown of France, and permitting all his subjects to trade freely to these parts: his majesty being desirous to render this commerce more flourishing, by additional favour: this consideration excited him to issue divers arrets of the 4th of June, 25th of November 1671, the 15th of July 1673, the 1st of December 1674, the 10th of May 1677, and the 27th of August 1701; by which he exempted, from all duties of exportation whatsoever, all provisions and merchandizes, being the product and manufactures of this kingdom bound to the French colonies; and by the arrets of the 10th of September 1668, the 19th of May 1670, and the 12th of August 1671, he granted them the liberty to admit, into the ports of his kingdom, merchandizes coming from the said colonies: and we being informed, that the different situation of public affairs occasioned a multiplicity of other arrets, irreconcilable with each other, and in consequence thereof created litigations between merchants and our farmers-general of the revenues, and prevented our subjects from extending our commerce, proved a clog to trade, so useful and advantageous to our kingdoms: we have judged proper to provide against these litigations, by a fixed and standing law, after having examined the memorials that have been presented to us upon this head, by the merchants of our kingdom, the answers of our farmers of the revenue, and all edicts, declarations, and arrets, relating to this matter: these, and other reasons moving us thereunto, we have by the advice of, &c. and we will and decree, &c. as follows:

A R T I C L E I.

The armaments of ships intended to sail to the said island colonies, shall be made in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, St Malo, Morlaix, Brest, Nantes, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cette.

II.

Merchants, who shall fit out ships in the ports of the cities aforesaid, for the French islands and colonies, shall give security to the secretary of the admiralty, whereby they shall

be bound under the penalty of ten thousand livres to cause their ships to return directly from the colonies into the same port from which they sailed, unless otherwise compelled by stress of weather or shipwreck; and the merchants shall cause such securities to be deposited in the farmer of the revenue's office.

III.

All provisions and merchandizes, either of the production or fabrication of the kingdom of France, even silver plate, wines and brandies of Guyenne, or other provinces, designed to be exported to the French island colonies, shall be exempted from all duties of exportation and importation, as well from those of the provinces of the five great farms, as of those reputed foreign provinces; and likewise from all local duties, in carrying merchandizes from one province to another, and in general from all other duties, which tend to our advantage, those only excepted, which relate to the general farm of aids, &c.

IV.

All warlike ammunition, provisions, and other things necessary, bought in the kingdom for the victualling and fitting out of ships appointed for the French islands and colonies, shall enjoy the same exemption from duties.

V.

The provisions and merchandizes of the kingdom, appointed for the French islands and colonies, and coming from one sea-port to another in the kingdom, shall be, upon their arrival in the ports, where intended to be landed in the said isles and colonies, warehoused, and not be moved from ship to ship, on pain of confiscation, and a thousand livres penalty.

VI.

Merchants who shall have brought provisions and merchandizes of the kingdom into the port, appointed for embarkation, shall be obliged to declare, at the custom-house of the place of their unloading, if there is any one; if not, at the nearest to the said place, the quantity, quality, weight, and measure of the provisions and merchandizes designed for the French isles and colonies, in order to have them visited, leaded, or marked, by the commissioners of the farms, to have their security discharged, and be obliged to return, within three months, a certificate of their being taken from the depository warehouse for embarkation, as before declared; but such embarkation may be made without warehousing of provisions and merchandizes brought by land or river-carriage.

VII.

Carriers shall be obliged to represent, and cause to be examined, those discharges of security by the commissioners and directors of the farms in the cities, wherever they are established; and the said commissioners shall testify, without any delay or expence, the number of tons, casks, &c. included in the said discharge, and observe if the leads and marks affixed, &c. are entire and undefaced, without minutely examining into the said provisions and merchandizes, or opening the tons, bales, or casks, &c. unless the leads, &c. shall be broken, defaced, or changed.—And if, on examination, any fraud appears, the goods shall be confiscated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres penalty.

VIII.

The said provisions and merchandizes shall, before their embarkation, be visited and weighed by the commissioners of the farm, in order to ascertain the quantity, quality, weight, and measure thereof, and they shall not be laden in any vessel without the said commissioners being present.

IX.

Merchants shall give security to the officer of the farms at the port of embarkation, to report, in a twelvemonth or more, a certificate of the discharge of the said provisions and merchandizes in the French islands and colonies; and the said certificate shall be wrote on the back of the discharge of the security, and signed by the governors and intendants, or by the commandants and commissioners subdelegated in their respective districts, and by the commissioners of the farms of the western domaine, on pain of paying four times the duties.

X.

Provisions and merchandizes coming from foreign countries, whose consumption is allowed in the kingdom, even those which come from Marseilles and Dunkirk, shall be liable to the duties of importation due to the first office of farms, by which they shall enter into the kingdom, notwithstanding they shall have been declared to be intended for the French islands and colonies; but when they shall be exported to the said islands and colonies, they shall be intitled to the exemptions mentioned by the third article.

XI.

We permit, notwithstanding, to come from foreign countries, into the ports beforementioned in the first article, salt beef, to be sent into the said islands and colonies, and the same shall be free from all duties of importation and exportation, on condition that it shall be warehoused as aforesaid, on pain of confiscation.

XII.

Merchants of our kingdom shall not load for the French islands and colonies any foreign merchandizes whose importation and consumption are prohibited, on pain of confiscation, and 3000 livres fine, which shall be imposed by the officers of the admiralty.

XIII.

The silk, and other merchandizes of Avignon, and the county of Venaissine, which shall be declared for the French islands and colonies, shall pay the duties required at importation, and be exempt from all duties of exportation, and all others, those excepted which depend on the general farm of aids and domaines.

XIV.

Swiss linens that are free from all duties of importation, shall not be allowed the exemptions mentioned by article the third, although designed for the French islands and colonies.

XV.

Merchandizes and provisions of all sorts, of the produce of the French islands and colonies, shall be warehoused at their arrival in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cete; to the end that, when they are unhousted to be exported into foreign countries, they shall be intitled to the exemption of duties of importation and exportation; even to those belonging to the farms of the western domaine, with a reserve only of three per cent. to which they shall be liable, &c.

XVI.

Merchants of the cities beforementioned, who shall export by sea merchandizes which come from the said islands and colonies, shall be obliged to make a declaration at the office of farms established in the port from whence they shall depart, of the place where they are intended to be sent into foreign countries, and to give security, within six months, or longer, to report a certificate in proper form of their unloading, signed by the French consul, and, in case of his absence, by the judges of the place, or other public persons, on pain of paying four times the duties.

XVII.

Merchants belonging to the ports mentioned in the first article, shall be allowed to send by land, into foreign countries, raw sugars, indigo, ginger, rocou, and cacao, which come from the French islands and colonies, and cause them to pass, by transit, through the kingdom, without payment of duties of import or export, nor other duties, except those depending on the general farm of aids and domaines, on condition of declaring to the office of farms, at the port of their departure, the quantities, qualities, weights, and measures, and of having them visited and leaded, and taking the discharge of their security, and promise, within four months or later, to produce a certificate of the sending such merchandize out of the kingdom; which certificate shall be wrote and signed on the back of the said discharge of the security, by the commissioners of the last office of farms at their going out of the kingdom, after the said commissioners have allowed the leads, and visited the said merchandizes; and the carriers shall be obliged to cause the said discharges to be inspected by the said commissioners of the farms of that rout, and by the directors of the farms, where such are established: all which must be done and performed on pain of paying four times the duties, and confiscation of the carriages and horses of such who shall neglect or offend as carriers.—These precautions taken, the said merchandizes shall not be opened, and the said directors and commissioners shall verify, without any delay or expence whatever, the number of tons, casks, bales, &c. and examine if the leads thereunto affixed are whole and entire; but in case the said leads are broke or altered, or any way defaced, then they are to visit the said merchandizes, and seize them in case of the laws being violated, the goods to be confiscated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres fine.

XVIII.

The five following sorts of merchandizes, which shall be sent by transit into foreign countries, shall go out of the kingdom by no other places than those hereafter named, viz. those appointed for the ports of Spain, situate on the Mediterranean Sea, by the ports of Cete and Agde.

XIX.

Those which shall go out of the kingdom by land for Spain, by the office of farms, from Bayonne, by the way of Beobie, Ascaing, and Dainhoa.

XX.

Those designed for Italy, by the said ports of Cete and Agde.—Those for Savoy and Piedmont, by the office of Pont de Beauvoisin, and of Champarillan.—Those for Geneva and Switzerland, by the office of Seiffel and Cognes.—Those for Franche Comte, by the office of d'Auxonne.—Those designed for the three bishoprics, and Lorraine and Alsace, by the office of St Mineould and Auxonne.—And those designed for the Low Countries, belonging to foreign nations, by the office of Lille and Maubeuge.

XXI.

We absolutely forbid the said merchandizes going out of the kingdom by other ports and offices, when they pass by transit.

fit, with exemption of duties, on pain of confiscation of merchandizes, carriages, and horses, and liable to 3000 livres penalty.

XXII.

The merchandizes hereafter specified coming from the French islands and colonies, and allowed to be consumed in the kingdom, shall pay, for the future, for duties of importation in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cete; viz. Muscavado, or raw sugars, the hundred weight, 2 livres 10 sols; 33 sols 4 deniers of which shall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the western domaine revenue, and 16 sols 8 deniers to the farmer-general of the five great farms.—The clay or cassonade sugars, 8 livres per hundred weight; 2 of which shall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the five great farms.—Indigo, 100 sols per hundred weight.—Ginger, 15 sols per hundred weight.—Cotton-wool, 30 sols per hundred.—Rocou, 2 livres 10 sols per 100 weight. Sweet-meats and preserves, 5 livres per hundred weight.—Cassia, 1 livre per hundred weight. Cacao, 10 livres per hundred weight.—Dry raw hides, 5 sols a piece.—Tortoise-shell of all sorts, 7 livres per hundred weight.

XXIII.

The sum total of the duties on the said 9 last species of merchandizes shall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the five great farms of the revenue.

XXIV.

The merchandizes specified in the preceding article, which shall be carried by sea into the ports of St. Malo, Morlaix, Brest, and Nantes, may not be brought into the other provinces of the kingdom to be consumed, but upon payment of the same duties.

XXV.

All merchandizes coming from the French islands and colonies shall pay, upon their arrival in the said ports of Bretagne, above and besides the ordinary duties, those of provostship, such as are done at Nantes, without any drawback thereof, when the said merchandizes shall be exported to foreign countries, nor any diminution of the duties declared by the 19th article, when they are brought into the provinces of the five great farms, or other provinces of the kingdom.

XXVI.

White unrefined sugars coming from the colony of Cayenne, and entering by the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Cete, and intended for home-consumption, shall only pay 4 livres per 100 weight, in conformity to the arrets of the 19th of September, 1682, and the 12th of October 1700. And, with regard to those which shall be carried into the ports of Bretagne, they shall three pay the same duties as the clay sugars coming from the other French colonies; viz. at their arrival, the duties of the provostship of Nantes, and other local duties; and at their passing out of Bretagne to go into the province of the five great farms, and other provinces of the kingdom, for consumption, the 8 livres mentioned in article 19.

XXVII.

Merchandizes coming from the French islands and colonies, and not mentioned in the 19th article, shall pay the duties fixed by the tariff of 1664, in the provinces of the five great farms, and the local duties, as has been heretofore done in the provinces reckoned foreign; excepting refined sugars coming from the said islands and colonies, which shall pay, at every entrance of the kingdom, even in the ports of the province of Bretagne and Bayonne, 22 livres 10 sols per 100 weight, conformably to the arrets of the 25th of April, 1690, and the 20th of June, 1698.

XXVIII.

The duties required by the said arret of the 25th of April, 1690, upon foreign sugars of all qualities, shall be also paid in all the ports of the kingdom, even in the ports of Bretagne, and in those of Marfeilles, Bayonne, and Dunkirk, notwithstanding all privileges and exemptions before granted: and the said sugars need not be warehoused, as required by the said arret of the 25th of April, 1690, or other subsequent arrets, which shall be made null and void; except nevertheless with regard to the cassonade sugars of the Brazils, which shall be warehoused in the ports only of Bayonne and Marfeilles, and shall not go out of the warehouse with exemption from the duties required by the arret of the 25th of April, 1690, but to be exported into foreign countries, &c.

XXIX.

All merchandizes of the production of the French islands and colonies shall pay to the farmer-general of the revenues of the western domaine, at their arrival in all the ports of the kingdom, even in the free ports, and in those of the provinces reputed foreign, once for all, 3 per cent. ad valorem, when they shall be declared to be exported into foreign countries.

XXX.

We expressly forbid all the inhabitants of our islands and colonies, and all the merchants of our kingdom, to export from the said islands and colonies, into foreign countries, or

into the foreign neighbouring islands, any merchandizes of the produce of the French islands, on pain of confiscation of ship and merchandize, and of 1000 livres penalty; which shall be inflicted by the officers of the admiralty, and the captains and masters of ships to be answered in their own name, besides imprisonment for a year, and also to be declared incapable of commanding or serving in the quality of an officer aboard of a ship: wherefore, all captains shall be obliged to represent, at their arrival in France, a state of the merchandizes that shall have been loaded at the said islands, signed by the commissioners of the western domaine.

XXXI.

We prohibit also, under the like penalties, all merchants of our kingdom, captains and masters of ships designed for the French islands and colonies, from taking or loading in any foreign country, even in the island of Madeira, any wines, or other provisions and merchandizes, to be carried into the said colonies.

XXXII.

All sorts of sugars and syrups of the French islands and colonies shall be declared, at their arrival in all the ports of the kingdom, by the quantity of the casks, without the merchants, captains or masters of ships, being obliged to declare them by weight; but the declaration of other merchandizes shall be made according to custom, by the quantity, quality, and weight; nor shall any merchandizes be unloaded but in the presence of the commissioners of the farms of the revenue.

XXXIII.

The warehouse wherein to deposit the merchandizes and provisions of the kingdom, intended for the French islands and colonies, as also those of the produce of the said islands, of salt beef from foreign countries, and of cassonade sugars of the Brazils, shall be chosen by the merchants themselves, at their own expence, and locked with three different keys; one of which shall be given to the commissioners of the great farms of the revenue, the other to the commissioner of the farm of the western domaine, and the third into the hands of an overseer appointed by the merchant himself.

XXXIV.

The easiness of the duties of importation, by these presents laid upon all raw and muscavado sugars, coming from the French islands and colonies, the taking off the duties imposed by the arrets of the council of September 1684, and the 1st of September, 1699, upon the footing of 9 livres, and 6 livres 15 sols, shall remain, for the future, regulated at 5 livres, 12 sols, 6 deniers, per 100 weight of refined sugar, in the cities of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Rouen, and Dieppe, which shall be exported into foreign countries; and, of the said 5 livres, 12 sols, 6 deniers, there shall be restored 3 livres 15 sols by the farmer-general of the western domaine, and 1 livre, 17 sols, 6 deniers, by the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath, The Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
Present PHELYPEAUX,
DAGUESSEAUX.

On April the 3d, 1718, a royal ordinance was made, prohibiting all captains of ships who shall carry negroes to the French islands, against landing them, or any of their cargo, without leave had and obtained from the governors, in order to prevent any contagious distemper being spread among the inhabitants.

Royal letters patents, containing regulations of trade between Marfeilles and the French islands of America, given at Paris in the month of February, 1719.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France, &c. greeting.—Whereas the maior, sheriffs, and deputies of the council of commerce established in the city of Marfeilles, have represented to us, that although this city lies further from the French islands of America, than the other cities of our kingdom situated upon the ocean, she has heretofore supplied those colonies with considerable quantities of necessaries; such as wines, brandies, soap, wax, glass wares, oils, olives, draperies, silks, shoes, drugs from the Levant, and other provisions and merchandizes, which are collected and fabricated in Provence, or that arise from the course of it's commerce; and which are requisite for the subsistence of the inhabitants of those colonies; and the merchants of Marfeilles have, in return, imported sugars, indigo, cacao, ginger, and other species of merchandizes, which they have afterwards re-exported to Spain, Italy, Geneva, and to the ports of the Levant: and whereas the deceased king, our most honoured lord and great-grandfather, being desirous to encourage them to undertake the navigation and trade of those colonies, &c.—On these considerations, the maior, sheriffs, and deputies of the council of commerce of Marfeilles, hope that we would permit the merchants of that city to continue a commerce, from which they seem to be excluded, the port of Marfeilles not being included in the number of those designed by our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, which contain, indeed,

indeed, many regulations they cannot comply with, the port of Marfeilles being a general magazine for all sorts of merchandizes, as well of the produce and fabrics of our own kingdom, as those of other nations, which are sold and consumed according to the exigencies of their commerce; it would be impossible to distinguish those which, on their arrival, may be required, for the French islands in America, or for other places; so that the uncertainty of their vent would subject all indiscriminately to the entrepost, or warehousing, appointed by the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th articles of the said letters patents.—To these considerations may be added the freedom of commerce which that port enjoys, and which does not allow of the merchandizes coming from the said islands to be housed in a warehouse of entrepost, nor that the merchants should be obliged to give the securities required, and certificates of unloading those merchandizes in such places whither they shall be exported.—These precautions not having been appointed for the merchants of other places of our kingdom, with design to prevent being defrauded of our duties by spurious declarations, and can be of no benefit, with respect to the port of Marfeilles, where the importation and exportation of provisions and merchandize of all kinds are exempted from our duties: we have therefore judged it necessary to enable the inhabitants of Marfeilles to recover a commerce, which they carried on successfully before our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, wherein we have not comprehended them. The freedom of trade granted to the port, city, and territories of Marfeilles, is incompatible with many of our regulations contained in the said letters patents for the maritime cities of our kingdom, which do not enjoy the same franchises: we have reserved to establish, by a distinct law, the manner in which the Marfeillians may be admitted to send from their port ships to the French American islands, without prejudice to our duties, nor to the sale of the provisions and merchandizes of our kingdom, or of those which come from the said American islands: from these considerations, and others hereunto moving us, with the advice, &c. We now have declared and ordained, by these presents signed with our hand, and we do declare, ordain, and appoint, as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The fitting out of vessels designed for the French islands and colonies of America, shall be done in the port of Marfeilles as in the ports mentioned by our letters patents of the month of April, 1717.

II.

Merchants, who fit out such ships, shall be obliged to apply to the secretary of the admiralty of Marfeilles, to oblige themselves, under the penalty of 10,000 livres, to cause such ships to return directly into the port of Marfeilles, unless compelled by shipwreck, or other inevitable accident, justifiable by verbal process. The merchants shall give such obligation into the office of farms, and shall not embark in the said ships any provisions and merchandizes without permission first had and obtained in writing, and in presence of the commissioners of the farms of the revenue, under pain of confiscation of the said provisions and merchandizes, and a penalty of 3000 livres, which shall be laid by the officers of the admiralty.

III.

All provisions and merchandize of the produce or fabrication of the kingdom, even silver plate, wine, and brandies, of Provence, Guyenne, or other provinces of our kingdom, arms and ammunition, and all necessaries of our kingdom for the victualling and fitting out of ships, which shall come into the port of Marfeilles to be exported to the French islands and colonies, shall be exempted from all duties of export or import, as well those of the provinces of the five great farms, as those reputed foreign provinces; and likewise from all local duties, in passing from one province to another, and generally from all other duties, which are to our advantage, except those depending on the general farm of aids and domains; which exemption the merchants of Marfeilles cannot be intitled to, without observing what is hereafter ordained.

IV.

The provisions and merchandizes mentioned in the preceding article, coming by sea from another port of the kingdom into that of Marfeilles, shall, at their arrival, be put into the warehouse of entrepost, and shall not be moved from ship to ship, on pain of confiscation, and of 1000 livres penalty.

V.

Merchants, who shall cause to be brought to Marfeilles, either by sea or land, the said provisions and merchandizes designed for the French islands and colonies of America, shall be obliged to declare, at the office of farms at the place of their unloading, if such office be there, if not, at the nearest there is, the quantities, qualities, weights, and measures, to cause them to be visited and leaded by the commissioners of the farms, to take their discharge of security, and to submit to report, within three months, a certificate of their unloading into the warehouse of entrepost, on their arrival at Marfeilles: we will and decree, that, in six months from the registering of these presents, the merchandizes manufactured in different provinces

and places of our kingdom, except those in the city and territory of Marfeilles, shall be reputed as foreign merchandizes, and shall not be shipped upon vessels which shall depart from the port of Marfeilles for the French islands and colonies, without paying the duties that shall be hereby decreed, if, in the place the nearest to their unloading, declaration has not been made, that they intended for the said islands; and if, upon their arrival in Marfeilles, they have not been put into a warehouse of entrepost.

VI.

The land-carriers shall be obliged to represent, and cause to be examined, their discharges of security by the commissioner of the office of farms, and by the directors of the farmers of the revenue, in those cities wherein they are established, through which the said provisions and merchandizes pass; and the said commissioners and directors shall certify, upon the spot, and without delay or expence, the number of tons, casks, and bales, &c. contained in the said discharge of security, and shall inspect whether the leads affixed thereunto be whole, undefaced, and unchanged, without visiting the said provisions and merchandizes, or opening the said tons, cases, or bales, unless the leads are broken or altered: and if, on examination, any fraud appears, the merchandize shall be confiscated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres yearly.

VII.

The said provisions and merchandizes shall be, before their embarkation, visited and weighed by the commissioners of the farms, in order to certify the quantity, quality, weight, and measure thereof, and they shall not be loaded in any vessel, but in the presence of the said commissioners.

VIII.

Merchants shall make at the office of farms their report, within a twelvemonth or more, a certificate of the unloading of the said provisions and merchandizes in the French islands and colonies; and the said certificate shall be wrote on the back of the discharge of the security, and signed by the governors and intendants, or by the commandants or commissaries, subdelegated by the commissioners of the office of farms of the western domaine established at Marfeilles, on pain of forfeiting four times the duties.

IX.

Provisions and merchandizes coming from foreign countries, the consumption of which is allowed in the country, and which shall be received in the port, city, or territory of Marfeilles, shall not be embarked to be exported to the French islands in America, 'till declaration has been made at the office of farms, of their quantity, quality, weight, and measure, and that the same duties have been paid at the office as required, when they were first imported into the kingdom.

X.

Foreign provisions and merchandizes, which shall be consumed in the kingdom, and which, after having paid the duties of import at another office of farms, and brought into the said city of Marfeilles, to be exported into the French islands and colonies of America, shall be intitled to those exemptions contained in article the 3d, by observing the same regulations, which have been before prescribed for the original merchandizes of the kingdom.

XI.

We allow to be brought from foreign kingdoms into the port of Marfeilles salt beef, in order to be exported to the said islands and colonies; and it shall be exempt from all duties, even that of 40 sols, which is known by the farm of the gabelles, or excise duty, on condition that on it's arrival it shall be housed in an entrepost, 'till embarkation, on pain of confiscation.

XII.

There shall not be loaded in the port of Marfeilles, for the French islands and colonies, any merchandizes; which import and consumption shall be prohibited in the kingdom, on pain of confiscation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, that shall be inflicted by the officers of the admiralty.

XIII.

The silk and other merchandizes of Avignon, and the county of Venaissine, which shall be declared for the French islands and colonies, and which shall have paid the duties of the custom-house of Lyons, with which they are charged in going out of the said county, to come into the kingdom, shall be exempt from all duties, as well upon their entrance into the territory of Marfeilles, as on their embarkation; provided, on their arrival at Marfeilles, they shall be housed in a warehouse of entrepost, 'till their embarkation; and the same shall be observed, for the rate of the said merchandizes, as has been before decreed in regard to those fabricated in our kingdom.

XIV.

Swiss linens, which are exempted from all duties at importation into the kingdom, shall pay to the offices of farms, upon the confines of the territories of Marfeilles, the ordinary duties of export, although designed for the French islands and colonies.

XV.

Merchandizes and provisions of all sorts, coming from the French islands and colonies, shall pay, on their arrival at

Marseilles, once for all, the duty of 3 per cent. ad valorem to the farm of the western domaine, and that when even they shall be intended to be exported into foreign countries.

XVI.

The merchants of Marseilles may transport by land, into foreign countries, clay and cassonade sugars, ginger, and rocou, coming from the French islands and colonies, and cause them to pass by transit across the kingdom without paying any duties at importation and exportation, nor any other duties, excepting those depending on the general farm of the aids and domaines; on condition of declaring, at the office of farms, the time of their departure, the quantity, quality, weight, and measure, in order to be visited and leaded, to take a discharge of the security, and be obliged to report, within four months or longer, certificates of the exportation of the said merchandizes out of the kingdom; which certificates shall be wrote and signed on the back of the said discharges of security, by the commissioners of the last office of farms at the said exportation, after the said commissioners have inspected the leads and visited the said merchandizes; and the land carriers shall be obliged to cause to be inspected the said discharges of security, by the commissioners of the offices of farms lying in the rout, and by the directors of the farms, where any are established; the whole hereof to be done and performed on pain of paying four times the duties, and of confiscation of the carriages and horses of the carrier so offending; which precautions being taken, the said merchandizes shall not be opened, and the said directors and commissioners shall certify only, without any delay or expence, the number of tons, cases, or bales, and examine if the leads thereunto affixed be whole and entire: in case the said leads shall be broke, altered, or defaced, we do permit the said commissioners, to visit the said merchandizes, and to seize them in case of violation of the laws, to be confiscated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres penalty.

XVII.

The said three forts of merchandizes which shall be sent by land from Marseilles by transit into foreign countries, shall not be sent out but by way of the places hereafter named; viz. those destined for Savoy and Piedmont, by the office of farms at the bridge of Beauvoisin and Champarillan.—Those designed for Swisserland or Geneva, by the office of Seissel and Coulonges.—Those for Franche Comte, by the office of Auxonne.—Those for the three bishoprics, Lorraine and Metz, by the office of St Menchoult and Auxonnie.—And those designed for the Low Countries, under foreign dominion, by the office of Lille and Maubeuge.

We expressly prohibit the said merchandizes from going out of our kingdom by any other offices, when they shall pass by transit with exemption of duties, on pain of confiscation of merchandizes, carriages, and horses, and a fine of 3000 livres.

XVIII.

Merchandizes hereafter specified, coming from the French islands and colonies, and which, after their arrival in the port of Marseilles, shall be brought into the kingdom, accompanied with certificates of the commissioners of the offices of weights, &c. shall after pay only for the duties of entry, viz.

Raw or muscovado sugars, the hundred weight, 2 livres 10 sols; 30 sols 4 deniers of which shall be appropriated to the farmer of the western domaine; and 16 sols 8 deniers to the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Clay or cassonade sugars, 8 livres the hundred weight; two livres whereof shall be appropriated to the farmer of the western domaine and six livres to the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Indigo, 100 sols per hundred weight.—Ginger, 15 sols per hundred weight.—Cotton in the wool, 30 sols per hundred weight.—Rocou, 2 livres 10 sols per hundred weight.—Sweet-meats, 5 livres per hundred weight.—Cassia, one livre per hundred weight.—Hides, raw and dry, 5 sols a piece.—Tortoise-shell of all sorts, 7 livres per hundred weight.

The sum total of the duties upon the said nine lasts forts of merchandizes shall be raised for the benefit of the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Cacao, indigo, cotton-wool, and hides raw and dry, coming from the French islands and colonies, shall be liable to those easy duties before decreed, only on condition that they are housed, on their arrival at Marseilles, in a magazine of entrepost, from whence they shall not be moved, but in the presence of the commissioners of the revenue-farms, to whom they shall deliver their certificates; in default whereof, the said merchandizes shall pay, at their importation into the kingdom, the same duties as foreign merchandizes do.

XIX.

Cacao and indigo, produced in the said islands and colonies, and which, on their arrival, have been housed in a magazine of entrepost, and taken thence in presence of commissioners of the farms, may be sent into foreign countries, and pass, by transit, over the kingdom, in observing what is required by the 16 and 17th articles.

XX.

White and unrefined sugars of Cayenne, which shall be ware-

housed as aforesaid, on their arrival in the port of Marseilles, and which shall afterwards be brought into the kingdom, shall pay only four livres per hundred weight.

XXI.

Merchandizes coming from the French islands and colonies, and not mentioned in the 18th article, shall pay, at entrance into the kingdom, such duties as before known and usual, except refined loaf sugar, which shall pay at every place of entrance into the kingdom (when even they are intended for the consumption of the city and territories of Marseilles) 22 livres 10 sols per hundred weight, in conformity to the arrets of our council of the 25th of April 1690, and 20th of June 1698.

XXII.

The duties required by the said arret of the 25th of April 1690, on foreign sugars of all sorts, shall be paid in the port of Marseilles, notwithstanding all privileges and franchises before granted to that city; and the said sugars shall not be intitled to the benefit of the entrepost, granted either by the said, or other subsequent arrets; excepting, however, the cassonade sugars of the Brasils, which shall be warehoused in the port of Marseilles, and shall not be taken out of the same with exemption of duties required by the said arret of the 25th of April 1690, unless to be exported into foreign countries.

XXIII.

We expressly forbid the inhabitants of these islands and colonies, and all merchants of Marseilles, to export from the said islands and colonies into foreign countries, or into the neighbouring foreign colonies, either on French or foreign bottoms, any merchandizes of the produce of the French islands, on pain of confiscation of ship and merchandize, and a fine of 1000 livres penalty; which shall be laid by the officers of the admiralty, and against the captains and masters of ships, to answer the same in their own person, to suffer a year's imprisonment, and be rendered incapable of commanding, or serving again as an officer on shipboard: wherefore, all captains shall be obliged to represent, at their arrival in France, an account of the merchandize they have loaded in the said islands, signed by the commissioners of the western domaine.

XXIV.

We expressly prohibit also, under the aforesaid penalties, all merchants of Marseilles, captains and masters of ships, bound for the French islands and colonies, from lading, in any foreign country, even in the island of Madeira, any wines or other provisions and merchandizes to carry them into the said colonies.

XXV.

The duties of import which shall be paid upon merchandizes of the islands and colonies, shall not be drawn back, when even they shall be sent to foreign countries, and they shall be liable to the duties of exportation; excepting, nevertheless, sugars of all sorts, indigo, ginger, cassia, rocou, cacao, drugs, and spiceries.

XXVI.

Sugars of all sorts, and syrups of the French islands and colonies, shall be reported at their arrival, by the quantity of casks or cases, without subjecting the merchants, captains, and masters of ships, to report them by weight; but the report of other merchandizes shall be made according to ordinary usage, by the quantity, quality, and weight; nor shall any merchandize be unloaded, but in the presence of the commissioners of the farms.

XXVII.

Warehouses serving for the entrepost, required by the articles 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 13, 18, 19, 20, and 22, shall be chosen by the merchants themselves, at their expence, and locked with three different keys; one of which the commissioners of the five great farms shall have, another the commissioners of the western domaine, and the other any overseer appointed by the merchants.—Thus we order and decree, &c.

Signed LEWIS,

And a little lower, The Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordonnance, forbidding all governors, and lieutenant-generals, all particular governors, and intendants of colonies, from having plantations.—Paris, 7 November 1719.—By the king.

His majesty being informed, that, among the governors and lieutenants-general, particular governors and intendants of the French colonies in South America, there are some who possess plantations of sugar, indigo, cacao, and other provisions and merchandizes of the said colonies; and that some intend to settle new ones, which being inconsistent with his majesty's service, and, besides, their residence in the said colonies being only for a time, this may prove injurious to them in the consequences, when his majesty shall require them elsewhere for his service: his majesty has, with the advice of his uncle the duke of Orleans, regent, ordered, and does hereby order for the future, that no governors or lieutenants-general, &c. shall purchase,

purchase, or otherwise establish, any plantations of sugar, indigo, tobacco, cacao, cotton, ginger, rocou, or other provisions or merchandizes of the said colonies; his majesty, notwithstanding, permits them to have gardens for fruits, pulse, and herbage, for their own use only; and, with respect to those who have plantations already, his majesty forbids them to make any increase thereunto, upon any pretence whatsoever, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And a little lower, FLEURIAU.

A royal ordonnance, issued against captains and supercargoes of merchantmen, who shall carry on foreign trade to the French islands in America. Paris, 26 November 1719.
By the king.

His majesty being informed, that, notwithstanding the great attention and care that he is desirous of taking to prevent foreigners trading to the French islands of America, the captains and factors of the ships of his subjects that go to the said islands, receive on board their vessels, in the roads, provisions and merchandizes, that are brought to them by foreign boats, and that they purchase them, either with ready money, or with French or Indian provisions, from the facility they have to unload and sell them to the inhabitants: it being of importance to prevent a contraband trade so prejudicial to the commerce of the kingdom, that it hinders the sale of the merchandizes and provisions brought from France, retards the vent of the cargoes of the said ships, prolongs their stay in the islands, which occasions mortality among the sailors, and great expence to the merchants: all which being necessary to put a stop to, his majesty, with the advice of the duke of Orleans regent, forbids all captains, factors, or supercargoes of French ships, from carrying on any commerce, directly or indirectly, with foreigners, on pain of the offenders being sent to the galleys for ever. His majesty orders and commands Monf. the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, and all governors and lieutenant-governors of the said islands, all particular governors and officers of the superior courts of the colonies, and other officers belonging thereto, to pay strict obedience hereunto, &c.

Signed LEWIS
And underneath FLEURIAU.

Regulations by the king, concerning foreign or contraband commerce carried on in the French colonies.—Paris July 23, 1720.

The king being informed, that commerce with foreigners continues to be carried on in some of his colonies, notwithstanding the prohibitions to the contrary that have been made by divers ordinances and regulations, and especially by that of the 20th of August 1698. And being desirous to prevent the continuance of this disorder, and to secure to his subjects the whole commerce of all his colonies, his majesty has judged it necessary, by and with the advice of Monf. the duke of Orleans his uncle, regent, to make the present regulations.

ARTICLE I.

His majesty orders all officers and captains of ships to seize all vessels, barks, and others, as well French as foreign, carrying on contraband commerce with his colonies in America, and to reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the nearest island where the prize was taken.

II.

His majesty permits all his subjects to steer the proper course for the taking of the said ships and vessels carrying on foreign commerce; and orders that, for the future, it shall be inserted in the commissions of ships of war and merchantmen, that shall be granted by the admiral of France, that the bearers thereof shall be permitted to run upon those ships, barks, and other vessels, as well French as others, carrying on a foreign commerce to the French colonies of America, to reduce them by force, and carry them into the islands nearest to the place where they were taken; the said commissions however, shall not be granted without the same security being given as in times of war.

III.

The prizes thus made, either by his majesty's ships, or those of his subjects, shall be judged of by the officers of the admiralty, conformably to the ordinances and regulations made for that purpose, without appeal to superior courts; except in time of war, when the proceedings shall be sent to the secretary-general of the marine, to be judged by the admiral as usual; and, if the prize be condemned, one tenth shall go to the admiral, according to the ordonnance of 1681.

IV.

The produce of the prizes made by his majesty's ships shall be divided, after the one tenth part thereof appropriated to the admiral; viz. one tenth to the commander of the ship that took the prize, one tenth to him who commanded the squadron, one tenth to the governor and lieutenant-general

of the colony whither the prize shall be carried in, one tenth to the intendant; and one half of the surplus moiety to the sailors, the other to the commissioners of the treasury of the marine, for the maintenance of the colonies, according to his majesty's orders.

V.

Prizes, made by the ships of his majesty's subjects, shall be adjudged to him who took them; except the one tenth to the admiral, and upon the surplus of the produce there shall be raised one fifth; one half whereof shall be deposited in the hands of the commissioners of the treasury of the marine in the colonies, in order to be employed for the maintenance of the hospitals of the said colonies, according to his majesty's pleasure; and the other moiety shall be divided thus, two thirds to the governor and lieutenant-general, and the other third to the intendant of the colony, where the said vessel making the capture shall have been fitted out: and, with regard to those prizes, which shall be made by ships fitted out in France, the said moiety shall be divided, as aforesaid, between the governor and lieutenant-general, and the intendant of the colony where the prize shall be carried in.

VI.

His majesty orders, that the particular governors of the colonies of Cayenne and Cape Breton shall enjoy, for the prizes which shall be brought into the said colonies, either by his majesty's ships, or by those of his subjects, as also by those fitted out in the said colonies, such proportions as specified in art. the 4th and 5th of the present regulations made for the governors and lieutenants-general, and the commissioner of the ordinances of the said colonies shall be intitled to those parts allotted to the intendant.

VII.

His majesty requires, that the present regulation shall be executed according to its form and tenor, notwithstanding all ordinances and regulations to the contrary, which his majesty hereby makes null and void. His majesty orders and commands Monf. the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, to have a strict regard to the execution of the present regulations, to cause them to be made public wherever needful, &c.

Signed LEWIS.
And underneath FLEURIAU.

The king's declaration, with regard to merchandizes of the French colonies.—Paris, 14 March 1722.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, greeting—Whereas by the 26th article of our letters patents of the month of April 1717, containing regulations for the commerce of the French islands and colonies, we have expressly forbid the inhabitants of the said islands and colonies, and the merchants of our kingdom, to export into foreign countries, or into foreign neighbouring islands of the said colonies, either by the means of French or foreign vessels, any merchandizes of the produce of the French islands, on pain of confiscation of ships and cargoes, and a penalty of 1000 livres; and, besides the captains and masters of such ships being obliged to answer the said confiscation and penalties in their own person, to suffer a year's imprisonment, and also to be declared incapable of command, or of serving in the capacity of an officer on shipboard again: in consequence whereof, the captains are obliged to represent, on their arrival in France, a state, signed by the commissioners of the western domaine, of the merchandizes which they have laden at the said islands and colonies. Although the last disposition of the said article is essential, and the greatest security that can be taken against such foreign trade, by the certification that should be made of merchandizes, on the arrival of ships in France, from the state of the loading made in the islands, yet we are informed, that the greatest part of the masters of ships returning from the said islands, are dispensed with, in regard to their report of a state of their loading, according to the form required; and that the commissioners of our farms in the ports of France cannot subject them thereunto, nor proceed securely against them, apprehending that our judges will not have due regard thereunto, by reason that the said 26th article of the regulations of 1717 does not inflict any penalty against those, who shall neglect to make such report, signed by the commissioners of the western domaine, but only against those who shall carry on foreign trade; which renders the prohibitions in regard to this commerce ineffectual, from the impossibility of knowing in France, whether all the merchandizes which have been loaded in the said islands are faithfully reported, at the ports of their return, and whether no part thereof has been unloaded in foreign countries: whereupon we judge necessary to remedy the same, by a certain disposition which declares the penalties inflicted by the regulation of 1717, against the masters of ships, who shall carry on foreign commerce; that the same penalties shall be incurred by those, who shall neglect to report the state of their loading, signed by the commissioners of the French islands and colonies, &c.—For these and other reasons us hereunto moving, with the advice of, &c. &c.—We have, by these presents, signed with our hand;

hand; and we decree, will, and ordain, &c. that the 26th article of our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, shall be executed, according to the due form and tenor thereof, and, in consequence of the same, that masters of ships, returning from the French islands and colonies, shall be obliged to represent, on their arrival in France, a state, signed and certified by the commissioners of the western domaine, of the merchandizes which they shall have loaded at the said islands and colonies.—We decree, that on failure of the said masters making a report within 24 hours of their arrival in the ports of France, to the commissioners of the office of our farms, the said state of their ship's loading, or on failure of reporting the merchandizes agreeably to the said state, such masters of ships shall be looked upon as having carried on a commerce at these islands with foreigners; in consequence whereof their ships and merchandizes shall be confiscated, the owners of the said merchandize and the captains and masters of the said ships condemned in the whole fine of 1000 livres, and be liable to the other pains and penalties inflicted by the said 26th article of our letters patent of the month of April 1717. Thus we give and command &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
PHELYPEAUX,
LE PELLETIER DE LA HOUSSAY.

Letters patents, upon the arret, which fixes the time of a year of the entrepôt of merchandizes coming from the French islands and colonies into the ports therein mentioned, and of those which shall be declared by the entrepôt for the said islands.—Versailles, May 23, 1723.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—Whereas, by our declaration of the 19th of January last, we have, for the causes and considerations therein given, in confirmation of our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, for regulating the commerce of the French islands and colonies, ordered, that the merchants proprietors of the provisions and merchandizes which shall be housed according to the entrepôt, and designed for the said islands and colonies, shall be obliged, after one year's entrepôt, to declare to the offices of farms at those places, the quantities, qualities, weight, and measure of the said provisions and merchandizes, which shall remain in warehouses; which declaration shall be certified by the adjudicatory commissioners of our farms, and, in case of neglect, and false declaration, that the merchants proprietors of the said provisions and merchandizes shall be condemned in 500 livres penalty, besides the payment of the duties of the merchandizes which shall be found wanting in their declaration: and, in case of the sale of the said merchandizes so warehoused the merchants proprietors thereof shall be obliged to discharge the duties thereupon, one month after sale, on pain of the like penalty, and of 500 livres.—And being informed that it is yet necessary to limit the time of entrepôt, as well for the provisions and merchandizes declared and intended for the commerce of the French islands and colonies, as those which come from the said islands and colonies; in order to prevent the abuses introduced, and which will always increase, by reason of those entrepôts, if they subsist for an unlimited time: we have provided, by an arret made in our council of state, we being present, the 3d of the month and year of the date hereof, for execution of which, what we have ordered is requisite.—For these reasons, with the advice of our council, who have considered the said arret hereunto annexed, under the counter-seal of our chancery, &c. we have decreed and ordained, and by these presents, signed with our hand, we decree and ordain, that the time of the entrepôt, as well with regard to merchandizes which shall come from the French islands and colonies into the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Cette, Marseilles, and Dunkirk, as those which shall be declared and intended for the said islands and colonies, and warehoused in the same ports, and in those of St. Malo, Morlaix, Brest, and Nantes, shall be and remain fixed, for the future, to one year, to be accounted from the day that the said merchandizes and provisions shall have come into port. And, with respect to those which are actually warehoused, they shall be intitled to the benefit of the entrepôt for one year, from the day of the publication of the said arret, and of these presents; after which time, the said merchandizes shall be liable as follow, viz.—Those declared and housed for the French islands and colonies, to the same duties as they should have paid, had they not been declared for the islands; and those that come from the said islands and colonies, shall be subject to the duties regulated according to our letters patents of the month of February, 1719, and according to those of the month of October, 1721.—Thus we command, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of state, revoking those permissions before granted to the merchants of the kingdom,

to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, directly from the French islands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the said islands. June 14, 1723. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

The king having been informed that to facilitate, during the time of the plague with which the city of Marseilles, and some other places of the kingdom, have been afflicted, the exportation of merchandizes of the French islands of America into Spain and Italy, where the admittance of French ships coming directly from the ports of France was refused; it was allowed to all merchants of the kingdom, to send merchandizes to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, of the produce of the French islands of America, without putting them into entrepôt warehouses, required in the ports of France by virtue of the 15th article of letters patents of the month of April, 1717. But, the motives to this toleration ceasing, it becomes necessary to re-establish the execution of the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April, the intent of which is very important for the security of the duties of the farms, and to prevent the contraband exportation of the merchandizes of the French islands of America into foreign countries: against which his majesty being willing to provide, and being present in council, having heard the report of the Sieur Dodun, counsellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, hath revoked and annulled the said permissions granted to the merchants of his kingdom, to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, directly from the French islands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the said islands: wherefore his majesty orders and decrees, that all ships which shall depart from the ports of France, designed, according to the first article of the said letters patents, for the commerce of the French islands and colonies in America, as likewise those which shall depart from the ports of Dunkirk and Marseilles, in order to send the merchandizes of France to the said French islands and colonies of America, shall be obliged to make their return directly into the port of their departure; and, to this end, the merchants who shall fit out the said ships, shall make the submission required by the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April, 1717, to the secretary of the admiralty, which shall be executed, for the time to come, according to their form and tenor. Done at the royal council of state, held at Meudon, the 14th day of June, 1723.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordinance, declaring Gilles Robin, captain of the ship St Michael, of Havre, incapable to sail, for the future, in any ship intended for the colonies, for having carried on a contraband trade at St Domingo. The 25th of July 1724. By the king.

His majesty being informed that, in violation of the prohibitions so often made and repeated, to prevent carrying on a contraband commerce with foreigners in the islands of America, several captains and traders have occasioned the loss of their ships, by foreign merchandizes, which have been brought to them by foreign vessels in the roads of the said islands, which is not only contrary to the trade of the kingdom, but causes the ruin of those who fit such ships out, these captains consuming, by the long stay they make in the colonies, in carrying on this fraudulent traffic, the advantages the proprietors might have reaped, if their voyage was shorter: the above-named Gilles Robin, commanding the ship called the St Michael, of Havre, fitted out for Leogane, upon the coast of St Domingo, was surprized, in the month of February last, carrying on, in the night-time, contraband or foreign trade, with a small English ship; upon which, he being tried in the court of admiralty of the said place, his merchandizes were confiscated, and the said Gilles Robin condemned in the penalty of 2000 livres, and six months imprisonment. His majesty thinking it necessary to suppress the like abuses, by examples which may include in their consequence captains of merchantmen, who may fall under the like circumstances, he hath declared, and does hereby declare, the said Gilles Robin incapable of sailing for the future in any ship bound for the colonies.—His majesty orders and commands Monsieur the count of Toulouse, admiral of France, the governors, and lieutenant-governors of America, intendants of the marine officiating in his ports and colonies, &c. to have strict regard to the due execution of the present ordinance, which shall be registered by the secretaries of the admiralties at the ports which have permission to fit out ships for the said islands and colonies; and also read, published, and fixed in the said ports, &c.—Done at Chantilly, the 25th of July, 1724.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Royal letters patents, in the form of an edict, concerning the foreign or contraband commerce to the islands and colonies of America.—Given at Fontainebleau, in the month of October, 1727.

F R E

F R E

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—The care that the late king, our most honoured lord and great-grandfather, took for the advancement of the commerce of our islands and colonies, that which we also have taken by his example, since our accession to the crown, the expence that has hitherto been for this purpose, and that we still annually continue, have only in view the security and the increase of the trade and navigation of the said islands and colonies: and herein we have had all the success that could be expected; our said colonies being very greatly augmented, and in condition to carry on a considerable trade and navigation, by the sale of negroes, provisions, and merchandizes, carried thither by the ships of our subjects, in exchange for sugars, cacao, cotton, indigo, and other productions of the said islands and colonies. But we have been informed, that a fraudulent contraband commerce has been introduced, which, besides diminishing the commerce and navigation of our subjects, may prove of dangerous consequence to the support of our said colonies.—The just measures we take that they may be supplied from France, and from our other colonies, with the negroes, provisions, and merchandizes they need, and the protection we owe to the trade of our subjects, have determined us to fix, by a certain law, such precautions, and lay such severe pains and penalties upon the offenders, as may put a stop to such fraudulent traffic: for these, and other reasons us hereunto moving, with the advice of our council, and of our certain knowledge, full power, and royal authority, we have, by these presents, signed with our hand, decreed and ordained, that there shall not be received, into the colonies submitted to our obedience, any negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes, unless carried thither in French ships or vessels, which shall take in their lading in the ports of our kingdom, or in our said colonies, and which shall belong to our subjects born in our kingdom, or our said colonies: in consequence whereof we will and decree as follow, viz.

T I T L E I.

Of ships carrying on foreign or contraband commerce.

A R T I C L E I.

We forbid all our subjects born in our kingdom, and in our colonies, to cause any negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes to be brought into our said colonies from foreign countries, or foreign colonies, except salt beef from Ireland, which shall be brought in French ships, and which have taken their loading in the ports of the kingdom, on pain of confiscation of ship and cargo, and 1000 livres penalty against the captain, who shall also be condemned to the galleys for three years.

II.

We forbid, under the same penalties, all our subjects to export from our said islands and colonies any negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes into foreign countries, or into foreign colonies: we permit, nevertheless, our French merchants to carry directly, from our islands of America, into the ports of Spain, sugars of all sorts, excepting raw sugars, together with all other merchandizes of the produce of the said islands, according to the regulations made by the arret of our council of the 27th of January, 1726.

III.

Foreigners shall not land with their ships, or other vessels, in the ports, roads, or havens of our islands and colonies, not even in our UNINHABITED islands, nor navigate their ships within a league round those isles and colonies, on pain of confiscation of their ships and vessels, and also of their loading, and 1000 livres penalty, &c.

IV.

We order all our officers, captains, commanders of our ships, &c. to pursue all foreign sea-vessels which they shall find within the said latitude, and even those belonging to our own subjects carrying on foreign or contraband trade, and reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the island nearest to the place where such prize has been taken.

V.

We permit all our subjects to pursue the said ships and sea vessels, and those belonging to our own subjects carrying on foreign or contraband commerce; and we decree, for the time to come, it shall be inserted in the commissions granted, either for war or commerce, by the admiral of France, that those who bear such commissions may pursue the ships, and other sea-vessels, which they shall find under the beforementioned circumstances, and reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the island nearest the place where the prize has been made; but these commissions shall not be delivered to them without giving the same security as is done in time of war.

VI.

Prizes made on these occasions, either by our ships, or those of our subjects, shall be adjudged by the officers of the admiralty, consistently with the ordinances and regulations issued on this occasion, without appeal to the superior council of the islands or colonies where the prize shall be adjudged; with this exception, that, in time of war, the proceeding of the court, with regard to the prizes made upon those

nations with which we may be at war, shall be sent to the secretary-general of the marine, in order that the case may be adjudicated by the admiral, as usual on those occasions; and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the produce of those prizes determined lawful shall be appropriated to the admiral, according to the ordinance of 1681.

VII.

The produce of prizes made by our ships shall be divided, after deduction of the admiral's tenth; viz. $\frac{1}{10}$ to the commander of the vessel which makes the prize; $\frac{1}{10}$ to the governor, or lieutenant-general of the colony whither the prize shall be carried in; $\frac{1}{10}$ to the intendant; and the surplus of the moiety to the sailors; and the remaining half part shall be deposited in the hands of the commissioners of the treasury of the marine in the said colony, to be appropriated according to our orders, &c.

VIII.

Prizes made by the ships of our subjects shall be adjudged to him who made them, except the $\frac{1}{10}$ to the admiral, and he shall be intitled to $\frac{2}{3}$ upon the surplusage of the produce; the half whereof shall be deposited in the hands of the commissioner of the treasury of the marine in the colonies, to be employed as we shall judge proper; and the other half shall be divided, the $\frac{2}{3}$ to the governor, our lieutenant-general, and the other third to the intendant of the colony where the ship taking the same shall have been fitted out: and, with respect to prizes made by ships fitted out in France, the said moiety shall be divided, as before said, between the governor, our lieutenant-general, and the intendant of the colony whither the prize shall have been carried in.

IX.

The particular governors of the colonies of Cayenne, Guadaloupe, and Cape Breton, shall be intitled, for prizes carried in thither, either by our ships, or those of our subjects, fitted out in France, or in the said colonies, to those proportions settled by the 7th and 8th articles of the present edict, to the governor our lieutenant-general; and the commissioners of the ordinances of the said colonies shall be intitled to those appropriated to the intendant.

X.

We command all officers of our troops, or militia, commanding in the different parts of our colonies, even the captains of the militia in their divisions, to arrest such foreign vessels as shall be found in the ports, roads, and havens of their district, and also French ships carrying on a contraband trade in those places: and $\frac{1}{10}$ of the produce thereof shall belong to the admiral, and $\frac{1}{2}$ to the officer who made the prize; $\frac{1}{2}$, which shall be divided into halves, between him that commands the detachment, and the soldiers or inhabitants who have composed the same. The remainder, or the whole, shall be deposited in the hands of the commissioners of the treasury of the marine, to be employed according to our order, &c.

XI.

Ships, or other foreign vessels, either of war or merchantmen, which by storm, or other urgent necessities, shall be forced into our colonies, shall not water, on pain of confiscation of merchants ships and cargo, except in ports or roads where we have garrisons, viz. in the island of Martinico, Fort Royal, in the borough of St Pierre, and à la Trinité; in the island of Guardaloupe, at the road of La Basse Terre, at Little Cul-desac, and at Fort Lewis; at Grenade, in the chief port, as well as at Marie Galante, and in the island of St Domingo, at Petit Goave, Leogane, St Lewis, St Marc, Port de Puisse, and Cape François: at which places they shall not be stopped, provided they make appear they were not intended for our colonies; and, upon this appearing, all desirable succour and aid shall be given them. We order the governor, our lieutenant-general, or other commanding officers, to send a detachment of four soldiers and a serjeant on board the said ships and vessels, to prevent the embarkation and debarkation of negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes, under any pretence whatever; which detachment shall remain on board such vessels, at the expence of the proprietors thereof, so long as they shall remain in the ports and roads of our colonies.

XII.

Captains of the said vessels thus at liberty, who shall have occasion for provisions, rigging, or other utensils, to enable them to continue their voyage, shall be obliged to ask permission of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander, in his absence, and of the intendant, to embark them; which permission shall not be granted 'till their request is communicated to the director of the domaine; and these shall be granted by the said governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his absence, and the intendant, shall be transmitted, with a copy of the said ordinance, to the secretary of state for that department of the marine, to give us an account thereof: we require, however, that the said ordinance be provisionally executed, &c.

XIII.

It is absolutely necessary to rest or careen the ships of foreigners thus at liberty, to unlade their effects, provisions, and merchandizes, the captains thereof shall be obliged to ask permission of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander

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mander in his absence, and of the intendant; which permission shall not be granted till the request be communicated to the director of the domaine: and there shall be granted an ordinance importing the said permission. And, in case the director of the domaine opposes the said permission, his motives, as well as those of the governor, our lieutenant-general, &c. shall be represented, together with a copy of the ordinance, to the secretary of state of the marine, to acquaint us of the same: we require, however, that the said ordinance be provisionally executed; and, in case of the landing of the said merchandizes, there shall be given a verbal account, in presence of the director of the domaine, containing the quantity and quality thereof, signed by the captain of the ship, and by the said director of the domaine; which account shall be sent to the secretary of state of the marine; and the said governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his absence, shall place a centinel at the gate of the warehouse where the said merchandize shall be deposited, to prevent any being taken out, or sold in the said colonies; and, while the said merchandize shall remain in the said warehouse, which shall be shut with three locks, one of which keys shall be given to the intendant, another to the director of the domaine, and the other to the captain of the said ship. We require also, that, in case he has landed negroes, he shall draw up a list, wherein they shall be exactly characterized, who shall be sequestered in the hands of some responsible person, that they may be restored again, &c. the whole hereof must be performed on pain of confiscation of the value of the said negroes, and also the ship and cargo.

XIV.

The expence of such ships or vessels in our islands and colonies shall be made there, and paid in cash or bills of exchange: and, in case the captain has not money, nor can find any one in the said islands and colonies, who will answer for the payment of the said bills of exchange, permission shall be granted by the governor, our lieutenant-general, or the commander in his absence, and the intendant, on the request of the captains of the said ships (which shall likewise be communicated to the director of the domaine) for the sale of a certain number of negroes and merchandizes, to make good the said expence ONLY; and an ordonnance granting the said permission shall be made, signifying the said expence, together with the quantity and quality of the negroes, and merchandizes sold: and, in case the director of the domaine should oppose such sale, his motives, together with those of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his absence, and the intendant, shall be represented to be sent, with a copy of the ordonnance, to the secretary of state of the marine: and we require that the said ordonnance shall be executed provisionally, and that the sale, so permitted, shall not exceed the amount of the expence incurred, under any pretext whatsoever.

XV.

We require, that as soon as the said foreign ships shall be at liberty, and in condition to take in again their loading of negroes and merchandizes so landed, there shall be a re-examination of the same, signed by the director of the domaine, a copy whereof shall be sent to the secretary of state for the marine, and after the said embarkation the said vessels shall put to sea.—We require also, that those which shall be thus at liberty, depart the first favourable opportunity, after being in a condition for sailing, on the penalty against the captain of 1000 livres, and confiscation of ship and cargo: the governors, our lieutenant-governors, particular governors, or other officers commanding in our colonies, shall not permit the said ship to make any longer stay, than what shall be absolutely necessary to fit them for sea.

XVI.

We forbid the captains of the said foreign ships, supercargoes, and others thereunto belonging, to land or sell any negroes, or other merchandizes brought by the said ships, nor to ship any negroes or merchandizes of the French colonies, on pain of confiscation of the said ships and loading, and 1000 livres penalty besides, which shall be paid without abatement by the captains and sailors.

T I T L E II.

Concerning negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes, found on the sea-shores, and in the ports and havens, brought as well in French ships carrying on contraband trade, as in foreign ones.

A R T I C L E I.

Negroes and merchandizes found on the shores, ports, and havens, brought by French ships carrying on unlawful commerce, shall be confiscated, together with the ship and loading, and a penalty of 1000 livres laid on the captain, besides being condemned to the galleys for three years; the moiety of which penalty shall go to the informer.

II.

Negroes and merchandizes so found upon the shores, and in the ports and havens brought by foreign ships, shall also be

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confiscated, together with the vessel from whence they were unloaded, and the cargo, and the captain condemned in 1000 livres penalty, which shall be paid without deduction by him and the sailors, and one moiety thereof shall go to the informer.

III.

The said confiscations, pains and penalties, shall be adjudged by the officer of the admiralty, without appeal to superior courts.

T I T L E III.

Of negroes, effects, provisions, and merchandizes, found on land, coming as well in French ships carrying on contraband commerce, as in foreign ones.

A R T I C L E I.

Negroes and merchandizes found on land, brought by ships belonging to our subjects; carrying on illicit trade, shall be confiscated, together with the ship and cargo, and the captain condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres, and sent to the galleys for three years.

II.

Negroes and merchandizes which shall, in like manner, be discovered landed, brought by foreign ships, shall also be confiscated, together with the ship and cargo, and the captain condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres, which shall be paid without abatement, by him and the sailors.

III.

Those in whose possession such negroes and merchandizes shall be found, brought by French ships carrying on illicit trade, and by foreign ships, shall be condemned in 500 livres penalty, and be sent to the galleys for three years.

IV.

One moiety of the said fines and confiscation shall go to the informer, the other to the farmer of the revenue of our domaine.

V.

Prosecution of such offenders shall be made before the judges in ordinary, without appeal to superior courts.

T I T L E IV.

Of appeals in regard to sentences past, as well with respect to French ships carryin on contraband commerce, as foreign ships doing the same.

A R T I C L E I.

Appeal lodged in superior courts, with respect to sentences passed in the ordinary courts of law, or in those of the admiralty, on occasion of contraband trade being carried on by French ships and foreign ones, shall be adjudged in the following manner:

II.

Our superior courts shall continue to assemble after the usual manner.

III.

The sittings which they commonly hold, and during which all causes are dispatched that are ready to be heard, shall be divided into two parts.

IV.

At the first sitting there shall be heard as well civil as criminal causes, which concern individuals, and others that concern foreign or contraband trade, or have any relation thereunto, as foreign ships, &c.

V.

All causes which concern the said foreign or contraband trade, or have any relation thereunto, and also all those concerning foreign ships, shall be heard at the second sitting, which shall be held immediately after the first.

VI.

The governor, our lieutenant-general, the intendant, major officers, only shall assist at the said second sittings, and also five counsellors that we shall name for this purpose, the solicitor-general and the secretary: we require, that in case any of the said counsellors should not be at the said sittings, either by absence, sickness, or any other lawful cause, sentence shall be passed, when there are but three of the said counsellors only.

T I T L E V.

Of merchandizes coming in foreign ships, and brought by means of French vessels.

A R T I C L E I.

Merchandizes coming in foreign ships that shall be found in ships belonging to our subjects, shall be confiscated, and the captains of the said vessels, factors, &c. fined in three thousand livres penalty without deduction, and moreover the captains to be sent three years to the galleys, and the factors, &c. suffer

suffer six months imprisonment: the said confiscations and penalties shall go, the one half to the informer, and the other part shall be deposited in the hands of the commissioner of the treasury of the marine in our colonies, to be employed as we shall direct, either for the increasing or maintaining hospitals, buildings, or to other necessary works of the said colonies.

II.

The said captains, factors, &c. shall be obliged to justify by invoices, manifestos, charter-parties, bills of lading, &c. in regular form, and this before the intendant at the first requisition, that the merchandizes sold are the entire produce of those laden in France; and, for want of those, they shall be censured and reputed to have sold merchandizes coming in foreign ships, or French ships trafficking in foreign or contraband trade, and as such shall be condemned in the penalties contained in the preceding article.

III.

We refer the cognizance of causes that may require expedition, to the intendants of our colonies, and these we forbid to be tried in other courts.

IV.

We require, that, in cases where the said captains shall be convicted of the said offence, the said intendants shall place some reputable person on board such ships, in order to be carried into France to their owners.

V.

We require, that all persons of what rank or condition soever, who shall be convicted of contraband commerce by vessels belonging to them, or that they have hired ships on freight that have favoured such trade in foreign vessels, or who have sent, into foreign countries or colonies, negroes, effects, provisions, or merchandizes of our colonies, may be condemned, besides the penalties imposed by these articles, to the galleys for three years.

VI.

We require, that such foreigners who carry on foreign commerce, and import negroes, and foreign merchandizes into our colonies, and likewise those who send negroes and merchandizes from our colonies into foreign countries, shall be liable to prosecution for the same, five years after commission, and that the proof thereof may be made within that time.

VII.

All contests of this kind, either as plaintiffs or defendants, shall be referred to the jurisdiction and cognizance of the intendants of our colonies, and we forbid all other courts and judges from trying the same.

VIII.

We empower our commissaries of ordonnances, and our first counsellors in the islands and colonies, where there is no intendant, to supply their place.

T I T L E VI.

Of foreigners settled in the colonies.

A R T I C L E I.

Foreigners settled in our colonies, even those who are naturalized, or who may be so hereafter, shall not act as merchants, brokers, and agents, in affairs of commerce, in any manner whatsoever, on pain of 3000 livres penalty to the informer, and be banished for ever from our said colonies; we permit them only to purchase lands and plantations, and to deal solely as planters in commodities produced therefrom.

II.

We grant, to those who are at present engaged in trade, three months time, from the day of registering these presents, to lay the same aside, and the offenders shall be condemned in the penalties laid by the preceding article.

III.

We forbid all merchants and traders in our colonies, from having any agents, factors, book-keepers, or other persons concerned in this commerce, who are foreigners, although they be naturalized: we require them to be dismissed within three months at the farthest, from the day of registering these presents, on the penalty of 3000 livres inflicted on such merchants and traders, and against the said agents, factors, book-keepers, or other persons who shall be engaged in their affairs, and to be banished for ever from the said colonies.

IV.

We enjoin and command our sollicitors-general and their substitutes, to attend duly to the execution of these three preceding articles, on pain of answering the same in their own persons.

Thus we require and command all our faithful friends who enjoy superior posts in the said islands and colonies, that these presents may be known, published, and registered, and the contents hereof strictly observed according to their form and tenor, notwithstanding all edicts, declarations, arrets, and ordonnances, to the contrary, which we have by these presents made null and void. For such is our pleasure. And, to the end that this may be for ever in force, we have hereunto affixed our seal. Given at Fontainebleau in the month

of October, in the year of our Lord 1727, and in the 13th year of our reign.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath, PHELYPEAUX,
CHAUVELIN,

And sealed with the great seal with green wax.

An arret of the royal council of state, containing regulations on the point of contests between the admiralty of France, and the farmers-general of the revenue, with regard to contraband and prohibited commerce made as well at sea, and in the ports, havens, and water-side of the kingdom, as in the French islands and colonies of America.—Of the 25th of May, 1728. Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

The king being in council, and the memorials presented as well by the admiral of France, as by the adjudicatory of the united body of farmers-general of the revenue, on the subject of controversies arisen between the admiralty of France, and the said farmers-general, in regard to contraband and prohibited commerce, &c. And, in regard to the application of the penalties and confiscations made, which have occasioned contests between the judges of the admiralty, and the judges of the said adjudicatory of farmers-general: his majesty, to put an end to those contests at present, and to prevent others, for the future, having determined by a certain regulation what are the rights, that belong to the one and the other, hath attended to the report of the Sieur Le Peletier, counsellor of state in ordinary, and to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances: and his majesty, being in council, has decreed, and doth decree, &c. what follows, viz.

A R T I C L E I.

The knowledge of offences committed, and discovered in France, on the vessels, and in the ports, roads, coasts, and shores of the sea, with respect to contraband and prohibited commerce, carried on by importation and exportation of merchandizes, shall appertain to the Sieurs intendants, and commissaries, resident in the provinces and generalities of the kingdom, in conjunction with the officers of the admiralty, without appeal to the council in civil affairs, and shall be the dernier resort in criminal cases, &c.

II.

The produce of the penalties and confiscations shall belong to his majesty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, at whose request and expence all prosecutions shall be carried on, without the admiral of France pretending any thing thereto, under any pretext whatsoever.

III.

The officers of the admiralty shall have cognizance in the first instances of offences in regard to foreign commerce, as well in regard to affairs of a civil as criminal nature, and contraband or prohibited merchandizes, which shall be discovered to be carried on by ships, and in the ports, roads, coasts, and shores of the sea in the French islands and colonies, with appeal to superior courts, except those offences contained in title 5 of the letters patents of the month of October 1727; the cognizance whereof shall belong to the intendants and officers of the admiralty, in calling to their assistance, if need be, the number of graduates, or officers, required by the ordonnances in cases of pronouncing corporal punishment.

IV.

The produce of the penalties and confiscations arising from such offences which shall be discovered by the commissioners of the western domaine, in the ports, coasts, and shores of the sea in the French islands and colonies, shall be remitted to the account of cash of the domaine, and belong one moiety to his majesty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, and one moiety to the informers, and employed by the domaine that shall have contributed to the discovery and the capture.

V.

The cognizance of such offences as shall be discovered on land by the officers of the domaine to the said islands and colonies, shall belong to the intendants, without appeal to the council, except where corporal punishment is inflicted; in which case, the cognizance in the dernier resort shall be left to the said Sieurs intendants, in calling to their assistance the number of graduates, or officers, required by the ordinance; and the produce of the penalties and confiscations that shall arise, as well in civil as criminal cases, shall be remitted to the cash-account of the domaine, one moiety whereof shall belong to his majesty, or to the adjudicatory of the farms, the other moiety to the informers, and the servants of the domaine who have contributed to the discovery and capture.

VI.

The product of the penalties and confiscations, which shall arise from the prizes at sea by the pinnaces and commissioners of the farm, authorized by commissions from the admiralty of France, shall be remitted to the domaine, and be appropriated ($\frac{1}{5}$ belonging to the admiral being deducted) one moiety to his majesty, or the adjudicatory of his farms, the other

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other moiety to the informers, and those employed by the domaine who have contributed to the capture.

VII.

The penalties and confiscations, with regard to affairs undetermined in France and America, shall belong to his majesty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, according to articles 4, 5, and 6 of the present regulations.

VIII.

Effects and merchandizes seized, as well in France as in the French islands and colonies, by the commissioners of the adjudicatory of farms, shall be deposited only in the office of farms; and, with relation to prizes taken at sea ($\frac{1}{10}$ of which fall to the admiral of France) the adjudicatory of farms, or their commissioners, shall be obliged to secure them in a warehouse, under two different keys, one of which shall remain with the officers of the admiralty, and the other with the receiver of the depository of farms, till definitive judgment be given.

IX.

And, to indemnify the admiral of France for those rights which may be pretended to belong to him, as well in respect of contraband trade in France, as that in the French islands and colonies, and to put an end to the litigations which such pretensions may occasion, there shall be paid to him annually, on the first day of the year, by the adjudicatory of farms, to commence from the present year 1728, the sum of 20,000 livres; which, for the future, shall put an end to all pretensions of this nature in the present admiral and his successors; nor shall the farmers of the revenue interfere with the determinations of the officers of the admiralty, with respect to confiscations, nor any thing which does not immediately concern contraband and prohibited trade, and the care of the duties of the farms.

X.

The farmer of the revenue, under pretence of care thereof, be it either for the loading of salt, and to prevent contraband trade, or for whatever other reason, shall not have, or put to sea, any vessel of what size soever, without leave and commission from the admiral of France, registered at the admiralty of the place, under the penalty contained in the ordinance of 1681; except, however, small boats requisite to visit ships in creeks, ports, and roads. With respect to the loading of salt, there shall be permissions granted for such ships every voyage: and, in relation to vessels and pinnaces that are always on the sea for the service of his majesty's farmers of the revenue, their leave and commission shall be granted them annually.

XI.

The adjudicatory of the farms shall be allowed to have upon the sea and at the mouths or entrances of rivers, armed vessels, pinnaces, and shalops, on condition of the said vessels transmitting, every six months, to the secretary of the admiralty of the province, an account, certified by the commissioner-general of the farms, of the fur and christian-names of all persons therein employed.

XII.

The adjudicatory shall be permitted to fit out the said vessels, and to chuse their sailors, provided they are not in the service of the royal marine.

XIII.

Licences shall be granted them from the admiral of France for such vessels and pinnaces which they may judge requisite for their purpose, in order to be armed upon the coasts of the kingdom; and these licences shall remain in force for one year, and be renewed annually at their expiration, under the penalties contained in the ordinance of 1681.

XIV.

With relation to those pinnaces, boats, or other vessels that the farmers of the revenue may think necessary to arm at the island-colonies in America, to go within the extent of the limits prescribed by the regulations made in regard to vessels carrying on contraband commerce, they shall be obliged to take out a commission of the admiral of France, as required by article the 5th of the letters patents of the month of October, 1727, which commission shall remain in full force for one year only.

XV.

If any vessel, carrying on contraband commerce on the coasts of the islands of America, should be attacked by an armed vessel commissioned by the admiralty of France, and also by a vessel armed by the farmers of the revenue, under the like commission from the admiralty, the prize shall be divided between them, according to the number of sailors and cannon in the respective armed vessels, conformably to the ordinance of 1681.

XVI.

There shall be no innovations made with regard to prizes and offenders, which concern damaged salt and tobacco, in the ports, and on the coasts of the kingdom; the full power to judge of which remaining in the officer of the gabelles, and others who have cognizance thereof, according to the regulations issued for that purpose; all which shall be executed according to their form and tenor, without deviating from the present arret.

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XVII.

Upon this occasion, our letters patents of the month of October 1727, shall be taken into consideration, as likewise other regulations concerning contraband and prohibited merchandizes. His majesty enjoins the Sieurs intendants and commissaries throughout the provinces and generalities of the kingdom, and the said French islands and colonies, to be vigilant in the execution of the present arret, which shall be executed, notwithstanding any obstructions thereunto; of which, if any arise, the cognizance thereof shall be left to his majesty in council, and all courts and ordinary judges are hereby forbid to interfere in these cases.—Done at the royal council of state, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 25th of May, 1728.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—To our faithful friends and counsellors, concerned in our councils, masters of requests of our household, Sieurs intendants and commissaries throughout the provinces and generalities of our kingdom; and our French islands and colonies in America, greeting, &c.—We command and injoin you; by these presents, signed with our hand, to be vigilant and attentive, each in his respective station, to the due execution of the arret, the extract whereof is hereunto annexed, under the counter-seal of our chancery, issued this day in our council of state, we being present, for the reasons therein contained.—In the first place, we order and command our serjeant, on this requisition, to signify and publish the said arret, to all whom it may concern, that no one may be ignorant thereof, and to take all requisite measures to put our commands in execution, without other permission, notwithstanding any impediments hereunto; the cognizance of which we reserve to ourselves and our council, and forbid all other courts or judges any way to interfere therein.—We will and ordain, &c.

Signed LEWIS.

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Upon the 3d of October, 1730, a royal declaration was issued, concerning the regulation and collection of the capitation tax at the Windward islands of America: and, on October the 4th, 1731, instructions were also issued, to facilitate the execution of the said declaration. In regard to the first of these, although there is every thing done that could be, to prevent the evasion of the tax, and all frauds in the collection, yet there does not seem less judgment in joining moderation with rigour and severity. Example: in article the 9th of the said declaration it is said, 'That such who shall break up fresh land in the French islands and colonies shall be exempted, for two years, from the said tax of capitation, not only for their own persons, but for their domestics and negroes employed therein.—Likewise those who shall establish new plantations, either for cacao or indigo, shall be intitled to the same privileges.'—These being the chief particulars which relate to traffic, we shall take no other notice of the beforementioned declaration than to observe, that the latter, viz. the instructions for execution of October the 4th, 1731, contain such plain and intelligible rules for the execution of every distinct article of the former, that it is not possible either for the officers of the crown to mistake their duty, or the people the intention of the legislator.

THE next essential particular that occurs, according to the order of time, with regard to the laws of France, in relation to their American islands and colonies, is a royal regulation with respect to the wheat-meal of Canada, which was issued by the king the 18th of May 1732; and which is introduced with the following preamble:

'His majesty being informed, that the meal sold in Canada, and which is exported thence to Cape Breton, and other of the French islands in America, is frequently of a bad quality, there being mixed therewith meal of other grain than that of wheat-corn, and that the same is barrelled up too moist, or in casks not sufficiently dried: his majesty desirous to prevent a continuation of the like abuses, which will absolutely ruin and annihilate the said commerce of meal, which is highly beneficial to the said colony of Canada: his majesty has ordered, and does order, &c. as follows, viz.'

A R T I C L E I.

Merchants and manufacturers of wheat-meal in the colony of Canada shall be obliged, from the day of the publication of the present ordinance, to mark with fire both ends of the barrels wherein such meal shall be packed, before the sail or embarkation of the said barrels, on pain of three livres penalty for every barrel not so marked, that shall be offered to sale, be sold, or embarked.

II.

Merchants and others shall be obliged, on pain of 20 livres penalty, to deposit the image or impression of the said fire-mark which they use (viz. those merchants and other manufacturers of meal residing in the city of Quebec, or under its government) in the rolls of the admiralty established in the said city; and those dwelling in the cities of the three rivers, and

and at Montreal, or under the government thereof, shall be deposited in the rolls of the royal jurisdictions of the city, within the districts of their habitation.

III.

Those who shall embark the said barrels, if meal, shall be obliged to mention, in their invoice of the said barrels, the distinct mark thereof, and to mention the same likewise in the bills of lading, on pain of 20 livres penalty for every offence.

IV.

The captains of those ships on which the said barrels of meal shall be laden, shall be obliged, before their loading, to certify whether the said barrels be marked; and, in case they are embarked without marking, they shall be condemned in the penalty of three livres for every barrel so embarked.

V.

Meal barrelled and offered to sale in Canada, which shall be found to be of bad quality, shall be confiscated, and the proprietor thereof condemned in four livres per barrel penalty.

VI.

Meal sent from Canada to Cape Breton, and to other of the French islands in America, which shall be found to be of bad quality, shall likewise be confiscated, and the proprietor thereof condemned in a penalty of four livres per barrel.

VII.

Cognizance of offences committed in Canada against the present ordinance, on account of barrels of meal being exposed to sale on the land, and before having been embarked, and which barrels shall not be marked, and on default also of not depositing the said mark with the secretaries of the royal jurisdiction, together with the bad quality of the said meal; shall belong to the intendant of New France, or to his subdelegates in his absence; but, if the said offences shall be discovered in other places than on the keys, and in the ships and vessels, or in the warehouses wherein they shall be put from the first time of their landing; and, in case the said fire-mark hath not been duly deposited, in conformity to the present ordinance, in the rolls of the admiralty of Quebec, the officers of the said court shall take cognizance of the said offences.

VIII.

The officers of the admiralty of Quebec, and those of Cape Breton, and of other French islands in America, shall take cognizance, each within the extent of his district, of offences committed by neglect of the fire-mark required at both ends of the said barrels, and also of the bad quality of the meal, provided the offence be discovered upon the key, or in the ships or other vessels, or in the warehouses where they shall be deposited for the first time of their being landed: they likewise shall take cognizance of the default, in omitting to mention the mark of the said barrels in the invoices and bills of lading of the concerned.

IX.

The officers of the admiralty of Cape Breton shall be obliged to direct a verbal process, with respect to the bad meal; which process shall be sent to the intendant of New France, in order to be transmitted to the officers of the admiralty of Quebec: on which account the proprietors of the said meal shall be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres per barrel, as aforesaid.

X.

The officers of the admiralty of the other French islands in America shall, in like manner, be obliged to direct a verbal process, with regard to the bad meal; which process they shall send to the secretary of state, having there the jurisdiction of the marine, to be transmitted by him to the officers of the admiralty of Quebec, to the end that the proprietor may be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres for every barrel of bad meal.

XI.

Cognizance of offences committed against the present ordinance, which shall be discovered after the landing of the said meal at Cape Breton, or at other French islands in America, and after they shall have been bought up from the keys or warehouses wherein they may have been put, shall belong to the intendant of the island where they shall have been landed, and, in his absence, to his subdelegate.

XII.

The intendants of the said islands, or their subdelegates in their absence, shall be obliged to direct the like verbal process, in relation to bad meal; which process they shall send to the secretary of state for that jurisdiction of the marine, to be transmitted by him to the intendant of New France, to the end that the proprietors may be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres per barrel which shall be found bad.

XIII.

These verbal processes, made on account of the bad quality of meal arriving at Cape Breton, and other the French islands in America, shall signify the quality and condition in which the meal shall be found, together with the mixture of what other grain shall be therein made; they shall mention likewise to what the bad quality of the said meal is to be attributed.

XIV.

The penalties and confiscations which shall have been adjudged by the intendant of New France, shall belong (*viz.* for offences committed in the government of Quebec) to the general hospital of the said place; for those committed in the government of the three rivers, to the Hotel-Dieu of the said city; and, for those committed in the government of Montreal, to the Hotel-Dieu there established.

XV.

The penalties and confiscations decreed by the judge-commissary of Cape Breton, subdelegated by the intendant of New France, shall belong to the hospital of the said island; and those decreed by the intendant of the other French islands of America, or other subdelegates, shall be appropriated to the nearest hospital.

XVI.

The penalties and confiscations decreed by the officers of the admiralty, shall belong to the admiral of France. His majesty orders and commands Monsr. the count of Thoulouse admiral of France, and the governors, his lieutenant-general; and intendants in America, to keep a vigilant eye, every one in his own person, to the due execution of the present ordinance, which shall be read, published, and fixed up in every place where needful, and registered in the rolls of the admiralty of the respective colonies wherein they have jurisdiction.—Done at Compeigne, the 18th of May 1732.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Upon the 21st of May following the count of Thoulouse, admiral of France, issued his orders to all concerned, to have strict regard to the execution of the preceding ordinance.

An arret of the royal council, forbidding all privateers and merchants, carrying on trade in the French islands and colonies, to send stuffs or painted linens of the Indies thither, or those of Persia, China, or the Levant.—May 9, 1733. Extracted from the registers, of the council of state.

The king causing to be laid before him the letters patents of the month of April 1717, touching the regulation of the commerce of the French islands and colonies of America; by the 12th article of which it is declared, that the merchants of the kingdom shall not ship for the said islands and colonies any foreign merchandizes, whose import and consumption in the kingdom are prohibited, on pain of confiscation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, which should be decreed by the officers of the admiralty: also other letters patents, of the month of February 1719, including regulations of trade from Marseilles to the said islands and colonies, the 12th article of which contains the same disposition: also those of the month of October, 1721, by which his majesty granted to the city of Dunkirk the privilege and liberty to carry on trade to the said islands; and ordained, by article 14, that the general regulation of the month of April 1717, should be executed in whatever was not repugnant to the dispositions made by those last letters patents: and his majesty being informed that the merchants who carry on the commerce of the said French islands and colonies, might export thither stuffs and painted linens of the Indies, Persia, China, or of the Levant, under pretence that these sorts of merchandizes (whose use and importation are nevertheless prohibited) are not expressly comprehended in the said 12th article of the general regulation of 1717; against which his majesty desiring to provide, and considering the advice of the deputies of the council of commerce, heard the report of the Sieur Orry, counsellor of state, and counsellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, the king, being present in council, has ordained, and does hereby ordain that the letters patents of the month of April 1717, of February 1719, and October 1721, shall be executed according to their form and tenor. In consequence of which, his majesty expressly forbids all privateers and merchants, carrying on trade to the French island and colonies of America, to carry thither stuffs or painted linens of the Indies, of Persia, China, or the Levant, under what denomination soever, on pain of confiscation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, and to be EXCLUDED from being concerned in the said commerce for the future.—The like prohibitions are made to all captains, master-pilots, marine officers, sailors, passengers and others who make up the crews of ships designed for the said islands and colonies, to carry thither, in any shape whatsoever, any of the said stuffs and painted linens, on pain of confiscation, and of 3000 livres penalty against the captains, master-pilots, marine officers and passengers, besides their being rendered incapable of commanding and serving in any vessel whatsoever; and, with respect to sailors, and others whereof the ship's crew consists, on pain of one year's imprisonment, or more, according to the case: his majesty commands and enjoins the Sieurs intendants and commissaries in the marine provinces of the

kingdom, and the officers of the admiralty, and likewise the governors and intendants of the said French islands and colonies, or all commanders and commissaries subdelegated, to have a strict regard, each for himself, to the execution of the present arret, which shall be read, published, and fixed up, wherever needful. Done at the king's council, his majesty being present, held at Versailles the 9th of May, 1733.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—To our friends and faithful counsellors, concerned in our councils, the Sieurs intendants and commissaries, dispersed, for the execution of our orders, throughout our maritime provinces, and to the officers of the admiralty; also to the governors and intendants of the French islands and colonies, or to the commanders and commissaries subdelegated in their districts, greeting: we command and injoin, by these presents signed by us, to have a strict regard, every one in his own person, to the execution of the arret hereunto annexed, under the counter-seal of our chancery, this day given in our council of state, we being there present, for the reasons therein contained, &c.

Signed LEWIS,

And underneath, PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the royal council of state, which grants the merchants of St Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod fisheries at Canada and Cape Breton, the same rights, privileges, and exemptions granted by letters patents, of the month of April 1717, for the trade of the French islands and colonies of America.—July 20, 1734. Extracted from the registers of the royal council of state.

Upon a petition presented to the king in council, by the merchants of St Jean de Luz, containing, that as yet, with regard to the cod and whale fisheries, which is the only commerce of that city, they are under the necessity of sending ships, as well to the island of Terra Nova, which makes part of the French colonies of America, as to Davis's Streights in North America; notwithstanding they have never enjoyed an exemption of duties on merchandizes designed for the French colonies, with respect both to the cargo or the victualling of their vessels; of which they have always refused the acquittance of security at Bourdeaux, under pretence that there is no warehouse of entrepôt established in their port; and that in the letters patents of the month of April 1717, containing regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, which signify the ports where vessels are to be fitted out, that of St Jean de Luz hath been omitted: and, as that omission makes it impossible for them to carry on the commerce of the colonies upon an equality with other merchants of the kingdom, included in the said letters patents, they being liable to these duties, from which others are exempt; which have proved so burdensome, that they have sustained considerable losses for some years passed, in their cod and whale fisheries: for these reasons they request, that his majesty would please to order the establishment of a warehouse of entrepôt in the said city of St Jean de Luz, for fitting out ships for the French colonies of America, and that they may enjoy those exemptions of duties, and other privileges and advantages, granted to the merchants, contained in the letters patents of the month of April 1717. His majesty having seen the said petition, heard the sentiments of the deputies of commerce, and the report of the Sieur Orry, counsellor of state, and comptroller-general of the finances; and the king being present in council, hath granted, and doth grant, to the merchants of St Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod-fisheries at Canada and Cape Breton, the same rights, privileges, and exemptions which are granted for the commerce of the French colonies, to the merchants of the kingdom, included in the letters patents of the month of April 1717; to which end, his majesty orders that there may be established, in the said city of St Jean de Luz, a warehouse, wherein the merchandizes and provisions designed for the victualling of ships fitted out for the said fisheries, shall be lodged, according to the entrepôt, and in conformity to the 30th article of the said letters patents.—Done at the council of state, held at Versailles, the 20th of July 1734.

Signed GUYOT.

An arret of the royal council of state, and letters patents in consequence thereof, concerning the entrepôt, as well in respect to merchandizes, intended for the French islands and colonies, as those which come from thence.—Of the 6th of May 1738. Registered in the council of aids.

The letters patents of the month of April 1717, being represented to the king in council, containing regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, by which his majesty hath ordered, by articles 5, 6, and 30, that the provisions and merchandizes of the kingdom intended for the said colonies, together with those also of the said colonies, shall be warehoused, according to the entrepôt in the ports therein designed, and that the warehouses for that purpose shall be chosen by the merchants, at their expence, and locked with

three different keys, one of which shall be deposited with the commissioner of the five great farms, another with the commissioner of the western domaine, and the third with the overseer appointed for that purpose by the merchants: the declaration of his majesty, of the 19th of January 1723, which orders that the merchants, the proprietors of the provisions and merchandizes designed to be warehoused, and intended for the French islands and colonies, shall be obliged, after one year's entrepôt, to declare, at the offices of farms of those places, the quantities, qualities, weights, and measures of the said provisions and merchandizes, which shall remain in the entrepôt warehouses; which declaration shall be certified by the commissioners of the adjudicatory of the farms; and, in case of offending thereagainst, by a false declaration, the merchants proprietors of the said interposed merchandize shall be condemned in the penalty of 500 livres, and likewise obliged to the payment of the duties of the merchandizes which shall be found wanting according to their declaration: and lastly, in case of the sale of the said merchandizes, the merchants proprietors thereof shall be obliged to discharge the duties one month after sale, on pain of the like penalty of 500 livres. The arret of the council of the 3d of May 1723, and letters patents, in consequence thereof, of the 21st of the said month, by which his majesty hath fixed the time of entrepôt, as well with respect to the merchandizes of the islands and colonies, as of those declared and designed for the said islands and colonies, shall be to one year, reckoning from the day that the said merchandizes shall have been so warehoused; which time being expired, they shall be liable to duties. And his majesty being informed, that, in the cases where the farmer of the revenue, on account of the difficulties which attend warehouses under keys, permits the merchants to make the entrepôt in their own warehouses, many of whom lodge the said merchandizes, or change the warehouses, without making any declaration thereof to the farmer, which hath occasioned divers abuses: his majesty, being resolved to remedy the same, by adding to the above-said regulations fresh precautions, which may, in some measure, supply the default of the keys, which, in the terms of the letters patents of April 1717, should be deposited with the farmer of the revenue, &c. The king having heard the report of the Sieur Orry, counsellor of state, and comptroller-general of the finances, being present in council, hath ordered, and doth hereby order, that, in case where the farmer of the revenue shall permit merchants to put merchandizes in their own warehouses, the said merchants shall be obliged to declare to the commissioners of the farms, the warehouse wherein they design to place them, and to give to the officer of farms security to represent them in the same quality and quantity, at the time required, under the pains and penalties hereafter mentioned.—His majesty forbids the merchants to take out the said merchandizes from the warehouses wherein they shall be deposited, or even to shift them from one warehouse to another, till they have made a declaration thereof to the said office, and taken out a licence for that purpose, &c. His majesty orders that, in case of fraud, the said merchants shall be condemned to the confiscation of the value of the merchandizes wanting, and besides in the penalty of 500 livres, &c. and, in case of a change of warehouse without declaration made thereof, they shall be deprived of the benefit of the entrepôt, and liable to the payment of all the duties, &c.

Signed DE VOUGNY.

Then follow letters patents to enforce the same.

Signed LEWIS.

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

May the 21st, 1741, was issued an arret of the royal council of state, permitting privateers for the French islands and colonies to load salt in Bretagne, or in other parts where customary, to be employed at Cape Verde, for the salting of beef designed for the said islands, without paying any duties, &c. On July the 19th, 1742, a royal ordinance was made, forbidding all captains of ships disarmed in the said islands of America, from paying, in the said islands, the balance due to their ship's crew, and injoining them to make the discounts in presence of the officers charged to take an account of several classes of the sailors, and regulating the peculiar forms requisite upon these occasions, &c.

This ordinance being too long to introduce here, and yet having something deserving notice, we shall refer the same to the article SEAMEN.

The 13th of June 1743, a royal ordinance was published, concerning the regulation made on the reception of captains and masters of ships in the French colonies of America.—Which we shall take notice of under the article PRIVATEERS.

June the 24th, 1743, an arret of the royal council of state was issued, ordering that the merchandizes of the produce of the French islands of America, intended for Cape Breton, shall be discharged to the 1st of January, 1747, of the duty of weight of 1 per cent. and that those merchandizes of the produce of the said islands, designed as well for Cape Breton as for Canada, shall be discharged, during the said time, of the

the duties of 3 per cent. of the western domaine, together with the duty of 40 sols per 100 weight upon sugars of the said islands, which shall be sent there.

Extracted from the registers of the council of state.
See the article SUGAR.

October the 29th, 1743, an arret of the royal council of state, was issued, ordering that the merchants and privateers of Marseilles shall be obliged to bring to the office of the western domaine all merchandizes coming from the French islands of America, so well as those which shall be embarked for the said islands, to be there visited, and the duties discharged.

Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

April the 20th, 1744, an arret of the royal council of state was made, suspending, during the late war, the execution of the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April 1717, concerning the commerce of the French islands of America.

Extracted from the registers of the council of state.

On the 22d of December, 1750, an arret of the royal council of state was declared, containing an exemption of the duty of 3 per cent. of the western domaine, on cottons brought from the French colonies of America, for home-consumption, and to subject them to the same duties of exportation that they paid before the arret of the 12th of November, 1749. Also, Ordaining that the duty of 3 per cent. of the western domaine shall continue to be collected upon cotton of the French colonies exported to other nations; that the duty of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. established by the declaration of the 10th of November, 1727, shall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the said colonies, in the same manner as collected upon other merchandizes which come from thence.

Extracted from the registers of the royal council of state.

On the 17th of August 1751, an arret was issued by the royal council of state, fixing at 8 livres per 100 weight the duties on the exportation of cotton-wool out of the kingdom, coming from the French island colonies, and those on cotton-yarn at 10 livres per 100 weight, as well for the duties of the five great farms, as for those of the western domaine: ordaining, also, that the duty of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. augmentation of the western domaine shall remain to be collected at importation in the kingdom upon cottons coming from the said islands.

REMARKS ON FRENCH AMERICA in general, as the same stood before the last war.

We have dwelt the longer on the laws established in France for the regulation of their trade of the American islands and colonies, because these things seem to be little known in this kingdom, and because they point out the measures which that nation has taken, from the year 1700 to the present time, for the advancement of the commerce of their islands and colonies in America: and, as the success and prosperity of this neighbouring nation, in these islands and colonies, have been so remarkable and conspicuous to the whole world, within a little above half a century, a knowledge of those laws whereby such great things have been effected, one should seem to think, must be acceptable to all who would enter into the causes of such extraordinary, and, indeed, unparalleled consequences.

That our readers may form a right judgment of these laws and regulations, we shall observe the following particulars, viz.

1. That they are grounded on the representations of the DEPUTIES OF COMMERCE, made, from time to time, to the ROYAL COUNCIL OF STATE: that those deputies of commerce are persons well skilled and experienced in those branches of trade about which they lay their sentiments before the royal council. See the article CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

2. That these laws and regulations, in general, are extremely minute, and appear to be derived from a very exact and circumstantial state of the commerce, as carried on by the PRACTICAL MERCHANTS AND TRADERS; which indicates that THE LEGISLATORS IN ALL COUNTRIES CANNOT BE TOO FULLY AND PARTICULARLY INFORMED OF ALL THE VARIOUS METHODS AND ARTS MADE USE OF BY TRADERS in the prosecution of their respective branches, the better to enable them so to adapt and conform their laws to the nature of peculiar branches, that the national prosperity cannot fail of being promoted.

3. That the fines and penalties on traders violating those laws are very rigorous and severe; and that the French nation are as strict in the execution of those laws, as they are circumstantial and deliberate in the enacting them: witness the case of captain GILES ROBIN, for carrying on illicit trade with an English vessel at ST. DOMINGO.

4. That the laws of trade in France should seem, suitably to

the nature of the constitution of their government, to be wisely accommodated to preserve the whole trade of their SUGAR ISLANDS AND COLONIES TO THEMSELVES, in order to render them absolutely subservient to the prosperity of their MOTHER-KINGDOM.—That, to this end, we find them, by their laws, extremely vigilant to prevent all contraband trade from being carried on with foreign nations in their colonies, they judging it highly detrimental to the interest of their colonies, as well as of the kingdom of France in general.

5. That, since the laws of France in general are so well-calculated to prevent such contraband trade, we may presume that, whenever this nation permits, or winks, at such trade with their AMERICAN COLONIES, they are certain to be GAINERS BY IT; otherwise we may reasonably enough believe, that they would soon put an effectual stop thereto, AS THE DUE EXECUTION OF THEIR LAWS COULD NOT FAIL OF BEING EFFECTUAL TO THAT PURPOSE.

6. That as the French wink at, and countenance a trade being carried on between the BRITISH NORTHERN COLONIES AND THE FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS IN AMERICA, it is to be feared that the French are too sensible of the advantages arising from that trade, or they would as little admit of that in particular as any other; and if that proves a gainful branch of trade to the French, does it not become the wisdom of Great-Britain so thoroughly to examine into this commerce with the French colonies, as to determine WHETHER A COMMERCE BENEFICIAL TO FRANCE CAN BE SO IN IT'S CONSEQUENCES TO GREAT-BRITAIN?

7. That the French take all proper care to promote a trade between CANADA, OR NEW FRANCE, and their island colonies; and that it should not seem to appear bad policy in Great-Britain to promote, as much as possible, the commerce of our NORTH-AMERICAN COLONIES WITH OUR OWN SUGAR-ISLANDS, rather than to permit them to carry on a trade to the FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS.

8. That the French have surprizingly increased in their SUGAR-TRADE, AS WELL AS IN EVERY OTHER PART OF THE COMMERCE OF THEIR ISLANDS AND COLONIES IN AMERICA, is a fact uncontrovertible; and that their maritime power, in general, has augmented, in the like proportion, is as little to be disputed.

9. The English nation are very apt to have too mean an opinion of the trade and navigation of other nations, particularly the French, notwithstanding the superiority they have insensibly gained over us in several branches of commerce since the peace of Utrecht.

10. The number of prizes that were taken from the French in the late war 1740, and the frequent arrivals of their numerous fleets, have roused and opened the eyes of many that would not be convinced before: and, since our indolence is at length awakened, our security alarmed, and every breast seems to be filled with those passions which are inkinded by the love of our country, not only from this instance, but also from many other proofs that the French have of late years gained very great advantages over us in trade; surely no opportunity ought to be lost to excite every Briton to the exertion of all his faculties to discover the cause of such a surprizing change, and to find out such expedients as may enable us to bear up against the flourishing state and ambitious views of the common disturbers of Europe.

11. In order to answer so desirable an end, it will be necessary to search narrowly into the present state, laws, establishments, and rules of commerce, as well foreign as domestic, and to retrench what is superfluous and inconvenient in our own laws, and to supply what is insufficient by prudent regulations.

12. In the arret for establishing a council of commerce in France, done in the king's council of state, his majesty present, at Versailles, the 29th of June, 1700, as observed on another occasion, it is said, 'Lewis XIV. king of France, having at all times been sensible of what importance it was to the welfare of the state to favour and protect the commerce of his people, as well within the kingdom as out of it: and being, in the year 1700, more disposed than ever to grant a particular protection to commerce, to shew his esteem for the good merchants and traders of his kingdom, and to facilitate to them the means of making trade flourish, and extending it: and judging that nothing could be more capable of producing this effect than the forming a COUNCIL OF COMMERCE, to be wholly attentive to the examining and promoting whatever may be most advantageous thereto, and to the manufactures of France in general, established a council accordingly,' which consists of some of the principal *OFFICERS OF STATE, and 12 of the PRINCIPAL MERCHANTS of the kingdom, as I have elsewhere observed.

* The comptroller general of the finances, secretary of state and other particular counsellors of state, who communicate what passes at this council to the ROYAL COUNCIL, as occasion may require.

13. In this council of commerce, which sits at least once in every week at Paris, or where the court resides, are discussed and

and examined ALL PROPOSITIONS AND MEMORIALS WHICH ARE SENT TO IT, together with the affairs and difficulties which may arise concerning commerce, as well by land as by sea, within the kingdom and out of it, and also concerning FABRICS AND MANUFACTURES.

14. Immediately upon the establishment of this council of commerce, the * deputies of the said council applied diligently to the duty of their office, and the ensuing year presented to the royal council no less than 20 memorials concerning the commerce of that nation to their American islands, Guinea, the Levant, Spain, England, Holland, and the North; the raising nominally the value of coin, and the effects that has upon commerce; the granting monopolies; the erecting of exclusive companies; and other chief points in trade.

* These deputies have 10,000 livres per annum salary (which is about 400 l. sterling) allowed by their respective towns that elect them.

15. In these MEMORIALS are contained several propositions for regulations and remedies in trade, many of which have since been thoroughly executed, to the honour of those deputies, and to the great advantage and reputation of that nation, as they have, since the representations of the said memorials to the royal council*, extended their trade to the LEVANT, the NORTH, AFRICA, NORTH AMERICA, the SOUTH SEAS, and to the EAST AND WEST-INDIES, even so far as to make more than double the value in SUGAR, INDIGO, GINGER, and COTTON, in their WEST-ISLANDS, than what is now made by the ENGLISH, who, before that time, EXCEEDED THE FRENCH IN THIS BRANCH OF TRADE ABUNDANTLY.

* It is computed that, before the year 1720, there was no more than 30 sail of ships annually employed in the AMERICAN trade from BOURDEAUX only, and that there are now 300 sail employed annually in that trade from that city only.

16. In the article of sugar only, they have, within that time, increased, from the quantity of about * 30,000 English hogheads per annum, to 120,000, or thereabouts, whereof about two thirds are shipped to Holland, Hamburgh, Spain, and other foreign markets; and the English have increased from about 45,000 to no more than 70,000 hogheads within that time, of which they now send but little to foreign markets, although they had formerly the best share of that trade, and even supplied France with sugars. This increase of the importation of sugar into Europe from America, by the FRENCH and ENGLISH, is owing to the great increase of the general consumption of sugar in Europe, and the declension of the Portuguese sugar-trade.—And, moreover, the French have already engrossed the indigo-trade from the English, and have greatly increased in their fisheries, and and beaver and other fur-trade in North America, since their settlement of CAPE BRETON, which they have fortified at a † vast expence; and it is from this last-mentioned trade, and their fisheries, that they find a vent for most of their melasses and rum that the English do not take off their hands.

* A hoghead of sugar, including freight, and other charges home, may be computed, on an average, at 12l. to 18l. per hoghead, according to the plenty or scarcity.

† The fortifications of Louisburg, in the island of Cape Breton, cost the French king some millions of livres, besides a vast annual expence in maintaining them and the garrisons there, before the late war; and that it has cost them considerably since, is recent in every one's memory.

17. They have also gained a great superiority over us in the fur-trade. It is computed they import into France from Canada only, to the value of * 135,000l. sterling per annum in beaver and other furs, including deer-skins; and the English, from all our northern colonies, not above † 90,000l. sterling. And the French are so tender of this branch of trade, and so sensible of the advantages that arise from the manufactory of these American commodities, that no one can re-export beaver from France unmanufactured, under the severest penalties. When these goods are manufactured, they exceed the value upon importation, in some cases, ten fold, and have greatly improved this branch of trade, and supply most parts of Europe and Spanish America with hats.—In the late war of 1740, there was a ship taken, bound from France to the Spanish West-Indies, in which was a quantity of white beaver, and other hats, which were sold in London, and were so much superior in quality to any thing of the like sort, that our manufacturers were surprized at it, as they were much beyond what they could have imagined.

	In beaver.	In deer-skins.	In furs.	Total.
* The French import from	1,75,000	20,000	40,000	135,000
† Canada				
The English import from	37,000	25,000	28,000	90,000
North America				
	1,112,000	45,000	68,000	225,000

18. The great advantages gained by the French from such a surprizing increase in trade, is conspicuous from the immense sums they draw annually from other countries, in return for their American products, as well as for their cambrics, tea, brandy, wine, and other home manufactures.

19. It is from hence they chiefly maintain such powerful armies, and afford such plentiful subsidies and pensions to several powers in Europe, when subservient to their views and interests: it is from hence they build their ships of war, and nourish and maintain seamen to supply them.

20. It is computed that they draw from two to three millions of pounds sterling per annum from foreign countries, in return for sugars, indigo, coffee, ginger, beaver (manufactured into hats) salt-fish, and other American products, and near one million more from Great-Britain and Ireland only, in wool and cash, in return for cambrics, tea, brandy, and wine, and thereby fight us in trade, as well as in war, with our own weapons.

21. Whether this great increase of the French commerce is owing to the extent and fertility of their territories, or to their prudent regulations and encouragements thereof, both at home and abroad, or to the experience and vigilance of the COUNCIL OF COMMERCE, we will not determine; though, perhaps, chiefly to the latter.

22. The French, for the encouragement of the American isles and colonies, have, since the year 1698, laid little or no duties on the importation of their SUGAR, or any other of their American products, however pressing the exigencies of the government might have been since then.

23. They pay but 3½ per cent. on a low valuation, which reduces it to about 2 per cent. on the importation of their sugar into France, besides an inland duty of 3 livres, or about 2s. 8d. sterling per 100 weight; yet sugars, and other effects of their African company, are exempted from half the imposts payable at the customhouse, and from all local duties on what is imported or exported by them [as observed under FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.] The French planters pay but one per cent. on the exportation of their plantation products from their islands, whilst the planters of Barbadoes, and the Leeward Islands, long paid 4½ per cent. on their exports.

24. The French king has many years since allowed his subjects that trade to Africa a bounty of 10 livres, or about 9s. sterling a head for every negroe, and as much for every ounce of gold-dust which they carry from the coast of Guinea.

25. Although the French king's edicts and arrets, or laws, are as strict as our acts of trade and navigation, as to the prohibition of foreigners from trading in their islands and colonies in America, yet their great officers have discretionary power to dispense with those laws, where it shall appear for the benefit of their colonies, and without prejudice to the TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF FRANCE—Whence it is they are permitted to exchange their surplus rum and melasses with the English, for cash, horses, shipping, timber, and other plantation necessaries.

26. There is also a considerable traffic carried on between the French islands and the Spanish islands of Margueretta, Trinidado, Porto Rico, and other Spanish ports in America, whereby the French receive from the Spaniards money, horses, mules, cacao, cocheneal, tobacco, and other American products, in return for French manufactures and negroes; and the French employ between 100 and 150 sail of sloops and other vessels, in and about the island of Martinico.

27. The French king grants lands in his plantations gratis, to poor industrious people, sent thither from France, and gives them other encouragements to go over and settle there; and moreover lends money to his AMERICAN SUBJECTS, in cases of hurricanes, or other unavoidable misfortunes.

28. They check exorbitant fees, extravagant port-charges and extortions, and discountenance usury and high interest in their colonies, and take the greatest care that none of their planters estates are broke up by hasty creditors. In a word, they neglect scarce any measures that have a tendency to the advantage of all parties interested, as well as to the benefit of the colonies, in conjunction with that of their mother-nation.

29. The fortifications in the French sugar islands are erected and maintained at the king's expence, which, in the English islands, is chiefly done by the inhabitants.—They pay wages to marines that are taken on board their private ships, which ships are at the expence of victuals only for such marines; and they observe the most prudent regulations with regard to their marine in general; they punish defaulters, and reward the meritorious according to their deserts. See the article MARINE LAWS.

30. They coin small pieces of silver in France, for the particular uses of their sugar-colonies, and send them there to pay off their governors, and other public officers, and to ease their trade: on the other hand, the British sugar-planters raise money to pay not only their own governors, and other public officers, but also the governors of Bermuda and the Bahama islands in America, as well as the governor of the island of Jersey in Europe.

31. The tender care the French take of their trade is further evident from the following extract, taken from the before-mentioned

mentioned memorial, presented by the deputies of the council of commerce to the royal council in 1701, viz.

'The deputies are obliged to observe further to the royal council, that, for three or four years passed, a duty is levied at St Domingo of 2 sols [above 1d. $\frac{1}{16}$ sterling] per pound weight of indigo, shipped off there. This novelty is the more pernicious, because that drug serves for dyeing our manufactures into blues or blacks, and because we make a considerable traffic thereof to the North. It is of great importance for the council to be pleased to take off this duty, which is capable of ruining the cultivation of this drug.'—How the French have advanced in the indigo-trade since this time, see INDIGO.

32. The French ministers seem successively, from the time of Richlieu, to have let their hearts on regulating commerce, and to turn every article thereof to the national emolument.

33. The French do not think their laws ought to remain unalterable, according to the maxim of the Medes and Persians, for they at all times readily change their laws, when they experience the exigencies of commerce require it. We have a recent and remarkable instance of this during the late wars; they permitted Dutch ships to load sugar, and other commodities, at their West-India islands, and carry them directly to Holland, or to any other part of Europe.

34. By this measure the French encouraged their colonies in time of war, by easy insurances and low freights, besides getting early with their plantation-produce to foreign markets. In regard to the important article of sugar, melasses, rum, rice, &c. the productions of the British plantations, and the laws to which they are subject in England and France, comparatively considered, we shall take notice of them under their distinct heads.

35. In the mean time we shall observe, that, whatever practices among British traders have any tendency to promote and advance the prosperity of our rival American islands and colonies, and injure our own, they ought to be thoroughly enquired into, and a stop put to them. The practices, at present alluded to, are those of our British northern colonies in America, carrying on a commerce with the French island colonies there.

Further R E M A R K S.

Whether the charge of our West-India merchants against those of the northern colonies be well grounded, we will not take upon us to say; but leave the decision thereof, after giving a short state of the argument on both sides, to the impartial public; it being indifferent to us on which side the truth may lie, if we can but be instrumental to bring it to light.—According to the representation of the West-India merchants the case is as follows, viz.

By the act of navigation, passed 12 Car. II. cap. 18, it is enacted, That no goods shall be imported into, or exported out of, any territories belonging to the king in Asia, Africa, or America, in other vessels than such only as belong to the people of England, Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, or are built in the British plantations, and owned by British subjects, and whereof the master and three-fourths of the mariners are English, on pain to lose such goods and vessels; and commanders at sea, having commissions from the king, are impowered and required to bring in, as prize, vessels offending contrary to this act; and, in case of condemnation, one moiety shall be to the use of such commanders and their companies, the other moiety to the king. And, by the same act, it is further enacted,

That no goods of foreign growth or manufacture, brought into England, Ireland, Wales, Guernsey, Jersey, or Berwick, in English or other shipping, belonging to some of the said places, and navigated as aforesaid, shall be brought from other places than those of the growth and manufacture, or from those parts where they can only, or have usually been shipped for transportation, on pain to forfeit such goods and vessels.

That, by another act of parliament, passed 15 Car. II. it is enacted, That no commodity of the growth or manufacture of Europe shall be imported into any of the king's plantations in Asia, Africa, or America, but what shall have been shipped in England, Wales, or the town of Berwick, and in English-built shipping, navigated as aforesaid, and carried directly thence to the said plantations, upon pain of forfeiture of the goods and vessels,

In the making of these laws (always looked upon as the bulwark of the English commerce) Great-Britain had two vast objects in view, One, the increase of her naval power (by making her own people the sole carriers of the whole British commerce:) the other, the appropriating and securing to herself, and her own subjects, all the emoluments arising from the trade of her own colonies; well knowing the importance of these two great sources of her wealth and power: and the nation has continued to enjoy the full fruits of these excellent provisions, from the time of making these laws down to the peace of Utrecht.

Nor has this been the policy of Great-Britain only, but every other nation also sees the advantages thereof, and think they

have a right of preserving the trade of their own colonies to themselves. France, in particular, has been so watchful in this respect, that they seize every foreign vessel (except those concerned in the lumber-trade) coming within two leagues of their own shore; and several British vessels have been confiscated at Martinico, for approaching within that distance, looking on that as proof enough of an intention to trade, unless they, on the other hand, shewed that they were forced in by fits of weather.

But, soon after the peace of Utrecht, a pernicious commerce began to shew itself, between the British northern colonies and the French sugar-colonies, which began with bartering the lumber of the former for French sugar and melasses. The French, who before that time had no vent for their melasses, and could make no better use of it than to give it to their hogs and horses, soon found the way (after they became acquainted with the northern traders) of distilling it into rum, which their new correspondents were as ready to take off their hands, as they had before been to take their sugar and melasses; and from hence they derived a new mine of profit, unknown to them before, and transferred to themselves the benefit of a trade, which it was the chief design of these laws to preserve to Great-Britain alone.

This being made appear to parliament, a further provision was made for putting a stop to this manifest subversion of the fundamental maxims of the British policy, for preserving her commercial interests, by an act in the 6th year of the reign of George II. intitled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar-colonies in America, whereby such high duties were laid on all foreign sugars, rum, and melasses, to be imported into any of his majesty's colonies in America, as it was thought were equal to, and would answer all the ends of a prohibition.

But experience has shewn, that all these laws are too weak to answer the purposes for which they were designed, and that some more effectual remedies might be found to keep the British traders in North America within bounds, if Great-Britain resolves to preserve her right of controuling the trade of her own subjects in that part of the world, and turning it into such channels only as her wisdom shall direct, and think most conducive to the interests of the whole community: for it can be made appear, beyond contradiction, notwithstanding all the laws which have hitherto been made,

I. That a settled course of traffick has been carried on for several years, by many of his majesty's subjects in North America, to the ports of Marseilles and Toulon, in which their ships have gone directly thither, laden with pitch, tar, train-oil, timber-trees, and planks, for building ships; spars, staves, logwood, beaver, martins, deer, and elk-skins, furs, and naval stores; and have returned back again, without ever touching in Great-Britain, with goods of the growth and manufactures of France, and other foreign nations.

II. That they have carried on the like trade with Holland.

III. That, notwithstanding the act made in the 6th year of his present majesty's reign, the British northern colonies serve themselves chiefly with foreign sugar, rum, and melasses, without paying the duties imposed by that act, and sometimes import them in vessels owned by foreigners; and that this trade is now carried to such a height, that vessels have been purchased for, and fixed in this commerce only, and constantly and regularly employed in trading backwards and forwards between the foreign sugar-colonies and the British colonies in North America; and that, in order to facilitate it, they have settled correspondents and factors in the French islands, and the French have done the like in our colonies in North America.

IV. That this trade is not only connived at, but cherished and encouraged, by the foreigners with whom it is carried on, who well know how much it tends to enrich their own colonies, and impoverish ours.

Some of the many ILL CONSEQUENCES arising from this trade to GREAT-BRITAIN.

I. It will deeply affect the manufactures and products of Great-Britain, and in a much greater degree than is at present felt, if it be not timely stopped, cause a great declension in the trade of the kingdom, and not only deprive the nation of a profit to which they have a natural right, but many persons now employed in these manufactures will be brought to want the means of subsistence.

II. The number of English shipping, and, consequently, of sailors, will decrease in proportion as this trade increases, which saps the very foundation of the naval power of the kingdom.—The design of the act 15 Car. II. forbidding the importation of any commodities or manufactures of Europe into the king's plantations in America, was intended to make a double voyage necessary, where these colonies used any commodities of the growth and manufactures of Europe, but British; for, if they could not be shipped but in Great-Britain, they must first be brought thither from the places of their growth or manufacture, and Great-Britain would consequently have the benefit not only of that freight, but of as many

ships and sailors as must be employed in bringing them from thence. But, if the northern colonies should be allowed to carry them directly from the places where they grow or are manufactured, not only these benefits will be lost to the nation, but likewise the profits arising to the importers, the duties retained by the crown, where the whole is not drawn-back, the warehouse-rent, commissions, and many other incidental profits, not necessary to be enumerated.

III. If a stop is not put to the progress of this trade, it will lessen the dependence of these colonies upon their mother-country, and, in time, produce such connection of interests between them and foreigners; as will, by degrees, alienate them from Great-Britain.

Some of the many ILL CONSEQUENCES arising from this trade to the SUGAR-COLONIES.

I. It may be laid down as an undoubted truth, that, as the enlarging the vent of any commodity is one of the best means that can be used to encourage its growth, and the lessening of it is the certain way to discourage it; and from thence it necessarily follows, that, as we have many rivals in this trade, nothing can be of more fatal consequence to the British sugar-colonies, than to suffer foreign sugars to be consumed in any of its own dominions; it being obvious, that this must check the growth of sugar in our own islands, and increase it in theirs; and, therefore, would manifestly tend to the strengthening their colonies, and weakening our own.

II. This trade, as carried on, raises the price of lumber to the British planters, and, as the northern traders often refuse to take any thing from them but ready money, drains them so much of their gold and silver, that they are often brought into great distress for want of it.

III. All the money which these northern traders receive from the British planters, is carried to the foreign sugar-colonies, and there laid out either in the purchase of foreign sugar, rum, and melasses, or of foreign European and East-India commodities, which are carried to the British northern colonies, and there supply the place of British manufactures, and British sugar, rum, and melasses, and, consequently, rob the nation not only of the consumption of so much of its own commodities, but of so much gold and silver too: whereas, if the foreign colonies (who cannot be supplied with lumber but from the English) were constrained to purchase it with ready money only; and not allowed to give their sugar, rum, and melasses, in exchange for it, this would turn the tables upon them, and make the balance of the lumber trade as much in our favour as it is now against us.

BENEFITS which GREAT-BRITAIN may derive to herself, and her SUGAR-COLONIES, by putting an effectual stop to this trade.

It is well known to every one concerned in the sugar-trade, that the profits of the planter depend upon the vent which he finds for his rum and melasses; for, if sugar only, and no rum or melasses, could be produced from the sugar-cane, it would hardly pay the expence of the culture and making; consequently, as the vent of rum and melasses is stopped or increased, the sugar colonies (whether English or foreign) must respectively thrive or decline. And, as rum is not allowed to be imported into Old France, or any of its colonies (because it inteferes with brandy, which is the product of the mother country) this evidently shews how much it is in the power of Great-Britain to check the progress of the French sugar-islands and advance that of her own: for, if the bringing French rum and melasses into any of the British dominions were once effectually stopped, all the profits made by rum and melasses, in the French sugar-colonies, would be lost to them, as they could find no vent for it in any other part of the world. This point, therefore, strictly attended and invariably adhered to, would, in its natural tendency, damp the growth of the sugar in the French islands, and increase it in our own; and might, very probably, in the course of some years, be the means of enabling the English to beat them out of all the foreign markets in Europe, and confine them to their own consumption.

It may not be improper to mention two things more, to shew that Great-Britain is now more concerned, than at any time heretofore, to give attention to the trade of her sugar-colonies; because the other trading nations in Europe seem now to be more intent than ever upon wresting this trade out of her hands, and grafting it themselves. Of these,

The first is, That the Danes have lately settled a sugar colony at Santa Cruz, an island in the neighbourhood of the British Leeward Islands, and to which several of the British subjects in the Leeward Islands have lately gone to settle, upon the invitation and the encouragements offered them by the Danes. As the growth of sugar will be considerably increased by this new settlement, the demand for a consumption of British sugars abroad, will in consequence be lessened; and there is therefore the greater necessity for obliging British subjects to consume no sugars but what are of British growth, lest our own

colonies should not find a sufficient vent for what they grow; for, if that should ever be the case, they would soon dwindle to nothing.

The second is, That all other nations, possessed of sugar colonies, seem to be so sensible of the advantages arising from the sugar-trade, that they are more intent than ever upon extending it, and use their utmost industry to introduce their own sugars into Great-Britain; and it is but too notorious, that they have been so successful as to find the way of corrupting the traders in our sugar-colonies, and making them the instruments of introducing foreign sugars, under the denomination and disguise of British, into Great-Britain itself: from whence it is very apparent, that, without some vigorous efforts of parliament, a great part of that wealth, which Britain might and ought to derive to herself from the trade of her own colonies, will be ravished from her by the intrigues of foreigners, and the treachery of her own subjects.

It is humbly submitted to the consideration of parliament, Whether this smuggling trade (as the West-India merchants are pleased to call it) so apparently destructive of the national interests of this kingdom, ought not to be stopped without delay, and the importation of foreign sugar, rum, and melasses, into any of the British colonies in North America, PROMOTED UNDER SUCH PENALTIES, AND WITH SUCH ENCOURAGEMENTS TO SEIZE AND INFORM, AS MAY BE ADEQUATE TO THE DISEASE, AND EFFECTUALLY CURB THIS LICENTIOUS COMMERCE.

In opposition to this, it was urged in favour of the northern colonies, That the trade carried on by them with the French and Dutch West-India settlements, instead of being prejudicial to the interest of Great-Britain, the taking off the duties already laid thereon, would tend greatly to her advantage, by promoting the exports of her manufactures to the northern colonies; which, in consequence of a prohibition, must sensibly decrease.—That, when the honourable the lords commissioners of trade, according to the advocates for the northern colonies, examined the evidences brought, respecting the quantity of melasses made in the British West-India islands, it appeared, all of them, together, did not export 12,000 hogheads, and that they never had any left on their hands.—That a vessel or two only went to Holland from the northern colonies, whose whole cargoes did not amount to a 1000l. each; and that 2 or 3 others, in the late war, that is of 1746, went as flags of truce to the French islands, under cover of which, they purchased a cargo of melasses for fish.—That now and then a vessel from the northern colonies traded with the British island colonies, the masters of which would not take rum, sugar, or melasses, for their cargoes, but insisted on cash, with which they would buy these commodities in the French sugar-islands.—The true reason whereof, as acknowledged, was, because those persons could go to these foreign islands, and purchase the same articles 10 or 15 per cent. cheaper; or, perhaps, to the next foreign island, and get them a third part cheaper, and not because they did not want those articles.—Then say our northern colonies again, that, within these 15 years, the West-India planters have given above double the price for lumber that they do now, and yet fold their rum and melasses for less than half what they get for it now; and that, at this present day, they do not give the northern colony people the first cost for what they buy of them.

It was said also, before the lords of trade, that the northern colony people sent their vessels to these foreign islands, under pretence of getting melasses, and there purchased East-India goods, &c. The place meant here was St Eustatia, one of the least of the Caribbee Islands in America, belonging to the Dutch.—To this it was answered, that the West-India traders well know this not to be currently the case; for that there is not one vessel in ten that goes from the northern colonies to the British island colonies in America, whose cargoes, neat, are sufficient to purchase even a load of melasses, of the value of 4 or 500l. and not one out of twenty that ever purchases a pennyworth of dry goods; but if, by accident, a master of a vessel has 40 or 50l. more than he can lay out in melasses, and should purchase a few pieces of duck, or quilts of rigging, which is the most they do, what mighty smuggling is that? Yet, where one person lays out such a sum in dry goods, there are ten who carry home the produce of their cargoes in silver and gold.—And that they sometimes cannot get rum, sugar, and melasses, was allowed, it seems, before their lordships.

Much of the same nature with the above-mentioned trade is, that the northern colonies are said to carry on to Marseilles and Toulon; and that ten fail of vessels from these colonies had not been at either of these places for these ten years past; and when, by accident at any time, a vessel was sent with such a cargo, as mentioned, of oil, pitch, tar, furs, timber, logwood, spars, oak, &c. yet the whole quantity, together, scarce ever produced 500l. out of which the charges of the vessel was to be paid, and a load of salt to be purchased in the first place, and no great quantity of velvets, silks, gold and silver-lace, &c. could be purchased with the remainder of her cargo.—It may probably have happened, that the

the matters of some such vessels may have sometimes, with their own private adventure, of the value, perhaps, of 40 or 50 l. purchased a piece of velvet, with the pattern of silk for a gown, and several of these small articles enumerated by the West-India traders, for some friend or other; and this is pretty near the extent of the mighty smuggling trade carried on from the northern colonies to *Marfeilles* and *Toulon*.

After this the northern colony agents retaliate upon the West-India traders, and charge them with aiming at engrossing the whole of the French trade by smuggling; for that they at present have a good share thereof, by their own confession; that great quantities of foreign sugars are cleared out from the English islands as British manufactures, but that no such sugars are ever shipped in the northern colony vessels, is a fact not to be gainsaid.

After a little flourish and asperity against the West-India traders, all which I pass over, the advocates for the northern colonies reduce the matter to the following heads of enquiry, in justification of their cause. As,

First, What sort of manufactures, and what value, are exported from Great-Britain to the British sugar islands, in proportion to what she exports to the northern colonies?

Secondly, What returns does Great-Britain receive in lieu of what she exports to the British sugar-islands, and what becomes of these returns?

Thirdly, What sort of manufactures, and what value, does Great-Britain export to the northern colonies, in proportion to what she exports to the British sugar-islands?

Fourthly, What returns does Great-Britain receive in lieu thereof, and what becomes of them?

Fifthly, How does the trade, carried on from the northern colonies to the French and Dutch West-India settlements, affect Great-Britain?

Sixthly, What end will a prohibition of this trade carried on from the northern colonies to the French and Dutch settlements serve, and how will it affect Great-Britain?

Seventhly, What end will the taking off the duties already laid on this trade carried on from the northern colonies serve, and how would it affect Great-Britain?

Lastly, Would the preventing the northern colonies from carrying on this trade to the French and Dutch West-India settlements be of any real disadvantage to their sugar-trade, and could the French supply themselves with fish and lumber without the assistance of the northern colonies?

In answer to the first of these enquiries it was said, that at least two-thirds of the manufactures, exported from Great-Britain to the British sugar-islands, are what she imports from foreigners; and that the whole, put together, does not amount to one half the value she exports to the northern colonies.

To the second it was said, that they are chiefly sugars, and the price of them so high, that none of them can be exported, but are all consumed by herself.

To the third, that three quarter parts of the manufactures Great-Britain exports to the northern colonies are of her make, and that she exports to those colonies above double the value that she does to the sugar-islands.

Fourthly, it was answered, cash, and bills of exchange, for almost all the fish exported to Spain and Portugal; together with naval stores, logwood, furs, &c. a considerable part of which Great-Britain exports again to her advantage.

Fifthly, inasmuch as it serves to encourage the northern colonies in catching of fish, making oil, and cutting of lumber, &c. this supplies them, in a great measure, with returns to Great-Britain for her manufactures; for want of which, those colonies could not take off near the quantity they now do, as they have no other way of paying for them; consequently, if a stop should be put to that trade of theirs with the French and Dutch West-India settlements, they would be necessitated to set up the MANUFACTORIES OF GREAT-BRITAIN AMONG THEMSELVES, TO HER VERY GREAT DETRIMENT.

Sixthly, only to encourage the British sugar-islands, in distilling up all the coarse sugars they now send to Great-Britain into rum, which they will dispose of to the northern colonies on their own terms; by which means, not above two thirds of the rum and sugar will come to Great-Britain that now does; consequently the price of what does come, will be proportionably enhanced.

Seventhly, this would give the northern colonies further encouragement to out-rival the French in the fish trade (especially in the West-Indies) and enable them to make larger remittances for the manufactures of Great-Britain, and thereby increase her trade.

Lastly, it is a certain fact, say the northern colony advocates, that the French, in the West-Indies, sell their sugars from 40 to 50 per cent. cheaper than the English do; therefore, if they had no vent for their melasses, but were obliged to throw it away, as the West-India gentlemen pretend they would; although it was roundly asserted, that a great number of French vessels GO YEARLY TO CANADA, WHOLLY LOADED WITH RUM, WHICH IS MADE OUT OF IT (for the northern colonies seldom or ever take any of their rum or sugar) yet, as it produces them such a trifle, they selling it for one

third the price that it is sold for in the British islands, the addition of 2 or 3 per cent. on their sugars at the foreign markets (where they are not in any danger of being rivalled by the English, as it is not in our power ever to raise the quantities of sugar the French do *) would fully make up for it; besides, there needs no stronger argument to prove, that the French do not look upon the trade from the northern colonies as beneficial to them (notwithstanding the West-India gentlemen affirm, that the French do all in their power to encourage it) than their prohibiting it under the severest penalties †.

* This is a melancholy consideration, and well deserves consideration to improve our sugar-colonies to the utmost.

† This, we are afraid, is fallacious; for so rigorous are the laws of France in relation thereto, that it would be impossible for a British ship to carry on any trade with them, WITHOUT THEIR OFFICERS HAVING ORDERS TO CONNIVE AT IT; and this they would not have done, without they were convinced of its being beneficial to them; and its being so likewise to our northern colonies, is their motive for carrying on trade with them; but, if our own northern and island colonies could reap the like mutual advantages by trade, it would be more eligible; AND THIS OUGHT TO BE THE STUDY OF THE NATION THAT THEY MIGHT.

With respect to the French being able to supply themselves with lumber, it is beyond dispute, say the advocates for the northern colonies, that they may (fish no body can deny but that they catch them at a cheaper rate than the English do) and the quantities of lumber they take from the English are trifling, as one of the West-India gentlemen is said to have declared before the lords of trade, they having the same sorts of trees grow both in CANADA AND MISSISSIPPI, that do in the northern colonies; and the only reason they do not cut them, is on account of the navigation's being something more difficult; which would, perhaps, make the lumber turn out at a higher price than they give the English; but, suppose the French planters were obliged to give double the price for it to what they do at present to the English, yet it would be giving it to their own people, and the addition of 2 or 3 per cent. more on their sugars would make up for it; mill-timber, staves, and heading, are the natural growth of Hispaniola, where they always use them; at Martinico, the most of the staves and hoops they use there, are brought from Old France.

REMARKS on these different representations, as stated before the last war.

The reasons that induced me to introduce the heads of this debate are, (1.) To shew, that it is allowed on all hands, that the French sugar-colonies are in a very flourishing condition, and have supplanted the British in that great article of traffic, at most of the foreign markets of Europe, to the very great and extraordinary advantage of the kingdom of France, and the proportionable detriment of Great-Britain. (2.) That these effects have been apparently owing to the exquisite laws of France, for the regulation of the trade of their islands and colonies in America; and to that in particular among the rest, which lays such severe pains and penalties upon their own subjects, as well as those of other nations, who carry on FOREIGN OR CONTRABAND COMMERCE WITH THE SAID ISLANDS. (3.) That the remarkable rigour of the French, in regard to this matter, should seem to argue strongly, that they would by no means suffer the British northern colonies to carry on trade with their sugar-islands, if it was not to the advantage of these islands. (4.) That this, if true, therefore, must tend still more and more to the benefit and splendor of the French colonies and kingdom. (5.) That, from the different and repugnant states of the foregoing question, by the parties therein interested, it must convince every one, how difficult it is for the British legislature to be rightly informed of the true state of any branch of trade, when it shall come under the solemn consideration of that august assembly. (6.) That, to prevent any impositions of this nature, which may be attended with very injurious consequences to the interests of the kingdom, it seems indispensably necessary, that more effectual measures should be taken, than hitherto ever have been in this nation, to prevent any misrepresentations of the state and circumstances of any branch of commerce; to the end that the representative wisdom of the nation should not be misled in their councils upon these occasions. (7.) To which purpose we would, with all humility and deference, suggest, that nothing appears more naturally conducive hereto, than the authoritative establishment of a special council of commerce, to consist of experienced merchants, or such who have been long engaged in the concerns of trade and colonies, and who ARE ABSOLUTELY DISENGAGED FROM THE PRACTICE OF TRADE, AND HAVE NO VISIBLE INTEREST IN DECEIVING THE LEGISLATURE IN WHATEVER THEY SHALL LAY BEFORE THEM. (8.) That such members be properly elected by the principal trading cities and towns of Great-Britain and Ireland, together with deputies from our colonies in America, the interest of those colonies being intimately interwoven with that of England;

England; and that such a council be authorized and joined to sit at least once in every week in London throughout the year, in order to receive, examine, and discuss, all propositions and memorials relating to the colonies, and all branches of commerce and manufactures that shall be transmitted to them, and to consider of adequate encouragements to such who shall communicate any thing importantly useful to our trade and navigation. (10.) That the said council of commerce shall be authorized to correspond with all the consuls, residents, and British factories in foreign countries, for due information into whatever may be requisite in regard to trade, for them occasionally to lay before his majesty in council, to be referred to the lords of trade and plantations, in order finally to be laid before the parliament, when they shall require it.—And that the information, so collected by the council of commerce, shall be properly registered, and so alphabeticated, that immediate reference may be had thereon on all emergencies. (11.) That the reports of such a council of trade, from time to time, being made to his majesty in council, and referred to the lords commissioners for trade and plantations in the usual course: the parliament will, with far more ease, and less liability of deceit and imposition, have the true and genuine state of all branches of trade laid before them: nor should any thing of this nature be laid before the parliament, but what had been previously examined, discussed, and reported, both by the lords of trade, and by this subordinate council.—These proceedings would effectually lead to the discovery of truth, carry more weight, and be received with more attention by parliament, we humbly conceive, than the applications of any private man, or any particular set of men, as is done in the usual manner; which are too frequently, I am afraid, attended with tedious delays, and such artful oppositions, which not only give the legislature great fatigue, but often tend to misguide, perplex, and confound them, in their deliberations.

Had these measures been effectually taken, and not made a matter of superficial form only; we should always have been properly apprized of whatever was doing, in regard to trade and navigation in foreign countries, and the interesting advancements which they were therein making to the detriment of Great-Britain. By this means we should have been able to have promoted the prosperity of our own sugar-colonies, that it would never have been in the power of the French to have raised theirs upon the destruction of ours, to their unspeakable benefit, and our no less loss and injury; for, as we had the start of them so many years, we might easily have maintained our ground, and not have suffered them to have supplanted us at foreign markets as they have done, if our parliament had been rightly informed, from time to time, of the progress which they were making.—But 'tis the constant policy of that nation, as I have shewn in many instances, and shall shew in many more, to secrete, as much as possible, the progress of their trade; and, with respect to that of their sugar-colonies, nothing shews it more conspicuously, than their not suffering any foreigners in their islands to carry on trade, or even to act there in the capacity of a merchant's book-keeper, as we have seen by their royal arrests, edicts, and ordinances, which were never made public in this kingdom till now.

Before we take leave of this article of FRENCH AMERICA, on which we have enlarged longer than ordinary, because it so importantly concerns the trading interest of these kingdoms, and because we look upon such like capital articles as the stamina of our whole work; it may be necessary to refer the reader to what is said upon this subject under other heads; for we do not confine ourselves to the consideration of essential subjects in one light only, that being to take a very superficial and imperfect view of them. If the reader, therefore, will be pleased to conjoin what we have here said, with what we have done also, under the articles of BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, and FLORIDA, and what we shall further urge under the article of PLANTATIONS, and divers others to which we have referred, and shall refer, he will be enabled to make a pretty good comparative judgment, perhaps, of the state of the BRITISH and FRENCH TRADING INTERESTS in America: he will be enabled to discern, that, if the French carry the further great points which they at present aim at, in NORTH AMERICA and in the WEST-INDIES, the BALANCE OF TRADE in AMERICA must pass into French hands; and who will then hold the balance of trade in EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA, no one need be told. For the further increasing trade and power of France, see also the articles FLANDERS, FRANCE, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE, FISHERIES, SEAMEN, MARITIME POWER.

REMARKS on this article FRENCH AMERICA, since the last war, and the Definitive Treaty of Peace of 1763.

The preceding observations made on this article before the last war, and soon after the peace of AIX LA CHAPPELLE, shew the reasons, amongst numerous others, throughout this work,

why we had cause to dread the rising and formidable power of France in America; and that the fulness of time was come, that Great-Britain should exert herself to the utmost, in order effectually to stop the career of our great competitors in the commerce of that part of the world; and this article, together with various other parts of our performance, will stand remaining monuments, shewing the necessity of the last war; and therefore we judge it proper to continue unaltered.

Whether the Definitive Treaty of 1763, has given such a check to the power of France in America, as we could have desired and expected, the reader will be able to judge by consulting our article AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, CANADA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, NEWFOUNDLAND, LEWARD ISLANDS, INDIAN AFFAIRS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Certain it is, that the cessions made to Great-Britain of the French territories in North America, has at once annihilated all their foregoing laws, and royal edicts relative to their commercial intercourse between their northern colonies and the French island.—They have likewise put an end to their long meditated enterprizes against the British colonies upon the Continent.—By our possession of CANADA, and all its dependencies, especially that of CAPE BRETON; and leaving the French no other territories in this part of America, than the small islands of St Pierre and Miquelons for a shelter to their fishermen at Newfoundland, and these upon express condition never to be fortified, nor have more than 50 men there for the police, should seem to promise fair to keep that turbulent nation in awe for the future in these parts, lest the government of England should at length be compelled to deprive them of all share in the Newfoundland fisheries; in doing which, there does not appear any great difficulty at present, should that nation attempt a fresh rupture with the crown of Great-Britain: and what would, in such a case, be the fate again of their sugar-islands, is easy to prejudge.

FULLER, a workman employed in the woollen manufactories, to mill, or scour, cloths, serges, and other stuffs, in order to render them more thick, compact, and durable.

Fullers, in conformity to the regulations of the manufactures in France, are obliged to mark their stuffs with a particular lead after fulling.—They are forbid, by the same regulations, to draw out or tenter-stretch their manufactures, that they may be made greater in length and narrower in breadth, &c.

FULLERS-EARTH, a fat fossil earth, abounding with a nitrous quality, serving to scour cloths, stuffs, &c. and imbibing all the grease and oil used in the preparing, dressing, &c. of the wool.

An account of fullers-earth in Bedfordshire, as given by the Rev. Mr Hollaway, F. R. S. No. 379.

I went, says this observer of nature, to the fullers-earth pits at Wavendon near Wooburn, where there are several pits now open; but, as men were then at work only in one, and I understood the earth was disposed in much the same manner in all, I did not trouble myself to go down into more than that wherein they were then digging, in which I found things disposed thus:

From the surface, for about six yards depth, there are several layers of sand, all reddish, but some lighter-coloured than others, under which there is a thin stratum of red sand-stone which they break through; and then, for the depth of about seven or eight yards more, you have sand again; and after that come to the fullers earth; the upper layer of which, being about a foot deep, they call the cledge; and this is by the diggers thrown by as useless, by reason of its too great mixture with the neighbouring sand, which covers, and has insinuated itself among it: after which they dig up earth for use, to the depth of about 8 feet more, the matter whereof is distinguished into several layers, there being commonly about a foot and a half between one horizontal fissure and another.

Of these layers of fuller's-earth, the upper half, where the earth breaks itself, is tinged red, as it seems by the running of water from the sandy strata above, and this part they call the crop; betwixt which and the cledge above-mentioned, is a thin layer of matter not an inch in depth, in taste, colour, and consistency, not unlike to terra Japonica. The lower half of the layers of fuller's-earth, they call the wall-earth; this is untinged with that red above-mentioned, and seems to be the more pure and fitter for fulling; and underneath all is a stratum of white rough stone, of about two feet thick, which, if they dig through, as they very seldom do, they find sand again, and then is an end of their works.

One thing is observable in the site of this earth, which is, that it seems to have every-where a pretty equal horizontal level; because they say, when the sand-ridges at the surface are higher, the fuller's-earth lies proportionably deeper.

In these works they seldom undermine the ground, but, as they dig away the earth below, others are employed to dig and carry off the surface, otherwise the matter above, being of so light and flitting a nature, would fall in and endanger the workmen: for, as was observed before, the stratum of sand-stone, which occurs before they come to the fuller's-earth,

earth, does not lie, as in coal-pits, immediately over the matter they dig for, like a ceiling, but even in the midst of the superjacent strata of sand, and therefore can be no security to them, if they undermine.

The perpendicular fissures are frequent, and the earth in the strata, besides its apparent distinction into layers, like all other kinds of matter, by reason of its peculiar unctuousness, or the running of the adjacent sand imperceptibly among it, breaks itself into pieces of all angles and sizes.

For the geographical situation of these pits, they are digged in that ridge of sand-hills by Wooburn, which near Oxford is called Shotover, on which lies Newmarket-heath by Cambridge, and which extends itself from east to west everywhere, at about the distance of eight or ten miles from the Chiltern-hills, which in Cambridgeshire are called Gog-Magog; in Bucks and Oxon, the Chiltern-hills, from the chalky matter, of which they chiefly consist: which two ridges you always pass, in going from London into the north, north-east, or north-west countries in the manner I before-mentioned: after which you come into that vast vale, which makes the greater part of the midland counties of Cambridge, Bedford, Bucks, Northampton, Oxford, and Gloucester; in which are the rivers Cam, Ouse, Nen, Avon, Isis, and others; which I take notice of, because it confirms what you say of the regular disposition of the earth into like strata, or layers of matter, commonly through vast tracts, and from whence I make a question, whether fuller's earth may not probably be found in other parts of the same ridge of sand-hills, among other like matter.

By 9 and 10 Will. III. it shall not be exported under the penalty of 1s. for every pound weight, yet there are several species of earths in foreign countries, which we make no doubt but would serve for the same purposes that fullers-earth does in England.

R E M A R K S.

Soap-earth, or a fullers earth, if you please, is found in two places near Duraclea, a large open village about six leagues to the eastward of Smyrna; and in a very flat plain, about a league west-ward of the river Hermus, and several leagues from the sea. 'Tis a fine soap, and at the first gathering whitish earth, which boileth or shooteth up out of the earth. 'Tis gathered always before sun-rise, and in mornings where there falls no dew, so that a stock must be laid up for the whole year in the summer months. It comes up in some places an inch or two above the surface of the ground. But the sun, rising upon it, makes it fall down again. Every morning there is a new crop, though all be taken away which the preceding day afforded. The earth producing it lies low in both places, and is in the winter washy; 'tis covered, though but thinly, with grass.

Three hundred drachms of this earth put into a retort in balneo arenæ for 12 hours, cum igne violento, gave between five and six ounces of an insipid phlegma, the smell only such as proceeds in the like operations from the fire.

Finding therefore no volatile salt, as what must have come over by the foregoing experiment, 200 drachms calcined at a bagnio fire, in a German crucible, were dissolved in water. The composition of earth and water, boiled into a lixivium, made 500 drachms.

It was boiled for three hours, still scumming off the froth, then filtrated, after evaporated over a gentle fire; it was kept to crystallize, and appeared of a fixed salt.

At the soap-houses they mix $\frac{1}{2}$ of earth with $\frac{1}{4}$ of lime, and dissolve the composition in boiling water; where, stirring it often with a stick, there floats a-top a thick brownish substance; which scumming off, they preserve in basons apart, and this scum is much richer than the liquor underneath, yet both are used in making the soap. Into a large copper caldron they put 50 quintals of oil, applying a very hot fire, which burns continually until the soap is made. When the oil has boiled, they begin to throw in of the scum, and sometimes of the liquor from which the scum was taken. They often repeat this throwing in of the scum and liquor for 13 or 14 days, in which time the soap is usually perfected. The brownish scum, and what is useful of the liquor, incorporating with the oil, what is useless sinks to the bottom of the caldron, where it is let out, to make room for throwing in more. The water, thus let out, is again thrown upon a new composition of earth and lime; but, when the liquor becomes wholly insipid, it is then judged to be exhausted. After 13 or 14 days, when the soap is finished, it is laded out of the boiler, and laid upon a lime-floor to dry.

They proportion two loads of earth, of five quintals each, to 50 quintals of oil, the produce is between 70 and 80 quintals of soap.

The earth is bought at a dollar a load, and the soap, when this account was made, at 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ a quintal. There are employed, in making soap yearly at Smyrna, 1000 quintals of oil. Bringing soap-earth employs 1000 or 1500 camels daily, for eight months, the four summer months being too hot for camels to travel.

An ordinary soap-house produces 1000 dollars a year clear profit, communibus annis.

FULLING, the workmanship of scouring and pressing cloths, stuffs, and stockings, &c. to render them more firm and strong. It is performed by a water mill, which, except in what relates to the mill-stones and copper, is much like a corn-mill; and there are mills in France, according to Savary, that serve indifferently for either use, corn being ground, and cloths full'd by the same; and the like is done in England.

The principal parts of the fulling-mill are, the wheel, with its trundle, which gives motion to the tree, or spindle, whose teeth communicate it to the pestles, or stampers, which are hereby raised and fallen alternately, according as its teeth catch on, or quit a kind of latch, in the middle of each pestle. The pestles and troughs are of wood, each having two or three pestles, according to the force of the water.

In these troughs the cloth, stuffs, &c. are laid, which are intended to be full'd: after which, letting the current of water fall on the wheel, the pestles are successively let fall thereon, and, by their weight, press the stuffs very powerfully; which, by this means, become condensed and thickened.

In this operation they use fullers earth, with some proportion of soap: proper soap alone would do much better, was it not dearer than fullers-earth.

Monsieur Colmet's method of fulling with soap, grounded on experiments made by order of the marquis de Louvois, then superintendent of the arts and manufactures of France.

Of fulling cloths and woollen stuffs with soap.

Let a coloured cloth, of about 45 ells, be laid in the usual manner, in the trough of a fulling-mill, without first soaking it in water, as commonly practised in most places.—To full this trough of cloth, 15 pounds of soap are required, one half of which is to be melted in two pails of river or spring-water, made as hot as the hand can bear. Let this solution be poured, by little and little, upon the cloth, in proportion as it is laid in the trough: thus it is to be full'd for at least two hours; after which, let it be taken out and stretched.—This done, let the cloth be immediately returned into the same trough, without fresh soap, and there full'd two hours more. Then take it out, wring it well, and express all the grease and filth.—After the second fulling, dissolve the remainder of the soap, as the former part, and throw it at four several times on the cloth, not forgetting to take it out every two hours, to undo the plaits and wrinkles it got in the trough.—When it is sufficiently full'd, and brought to the requisite quality and thickness, it is scoured out for good in hot water, keeping it in the trough till it be thoroughly clean.—White cloths fulling more easily than coloured ones, a third part of the soap may be spared.

Fulling of caps, stockings, &c. is performed either with the hands or feet, or a kind of wooden machine, either armed with wooden teeth, or those of horses or bullocks.—The ingredients generally used on this occasion are urine, green soap, white soap, and fuller's-earth.—But a water softened with chalk is far preferable.

FUNDS. This is a term adopted by the monied men, and those who speak of the public revenue of nations, to signify the several taxes that have been laid upon merchandizes, either by way of duties of custom or excise, or in any other shape, to supply the exigencies of the state, and to pay interest for what sums of money it may have occasion to borrow. Thus we say, Such a duty, or such a tax, is a good fund to answer such a purpose. The term is also applied to the stocks of great trading and monied corporations.

The funds, or taxes if you please, of this kingdom, are, to speak in the language of parliament, either temporary or perpetual. Temporary ones are such which are imposed for a certain number of years, or annually, as the land and the malt-taxes; the perpetual funds are such whereon monies have been borrowed for the public service, and which are appropriated for the secure and certain payment of the interest of such monies, till the discharge of the principal is borrowed.

R E M A R K S.

The following stands as this article did before the last war, and the additional NATIONAL DEBTS and TAXES, we have accumulated since.

It is not within my intention to enter further into the causes of our various funds than to observe, that the three great wars in the reigns of king William, queen Anne, and his present majesty, have given being and existence to them: the more immediate concern of the nation is, what measures are eligible to get rid of these tax-funds?

The previous question, indeed, with some is, whether it is needful at all for the state to concern itself with the payment of its debts, and the annihilation of taxes in consequence thereof?

thereof? Much pains have been employed by some, and very new doctrines devised, to render a great national debt less formidable than it really is in the general opinions of men. This may be pretty amusement enough for stock-mongers and usurers, over their cups, but a pernicious doctrine to be espoused and propagated by the SAGE STATESMAN: and yet, I am sorry to say, these things have been. I have now several papers before me, calculated for that purpose; two of which, in particular, I would only take notice of at present: the one called, A Defence of several Proposals for raising three Millions, &c. for the year 1746, with a Postscript, containing some notions relating to Public Credit; and a name prefixed to it, of great authority in mercantile and monied matters.—The other, An essay on Public Credit, by an anonymous author, published in 1748, occasioned by the fall of stocks.

Before we remark any thing upon these pamphlets, it may not be useless to observe, that whatever is published in print upon TEMPORARY OCCASIONS, is too generally calculated to answer TEMPORARY PURPOSES ONLY; and, in these alterations, if the reader has judgment to discern and distinguish the solid and essential matter from that which is either of a personal or party complexion, or propagated to answer the turn of the day, much useful knowledge may be collected, that may be ever pertinently applied to the national interests. But the great difficulty, in the maze of controversy of any kind, is to be able to separate the good from the impertinent matter; the one leading to error and fallacy, the other to truth.

Whenever, therefore, we make use of any author, we endeavour, to the best of our ability, to collect such principles and sentiments as are national, and to apply them to national purposes only, we having no turn to serve but that of the PUBLIC INTERESTS. With this view we shall extract such matter from the beforementioned pamphlets as we apprehend may be useful to shew the necessity of discharging our DEBTS AND TAXES, and on some other occasions; for, if people are not convinced of the necessity thereof, it is fruitless to point out ways and means to effectuate it.

The last of the two writers, not contented with asserting, 'That, if 60 millions of our debt be the property of the people of Great-Britain, we are not the richer nor the poorer for that part of the debt, proceeds to affirm, That it is to the NATIONAL DEBT WE OWE OUR PUBLIC CREDIT; and that, if it were possible honestly to discharge the whole national debt, which would thereby annihilate the whole PUBLIC CREDIT, such losses and inconveniences would arise, from the loss of it, to trade and commerce, as would GREATLY DIMINISH THE TRADE OF OUR COUNTRY.

And, what confirms him in this opinion is, that, notwithstanding we have been engaged in two long and expensive wars, since the commencement of the public debts, he verily believes that more riches have been accumulated to Great-Britain than any two centuries can boast of before that time.'

To which it was nationally replied, we apprehend, by another very judicious and anonymous reasoner, in a tract intitled, Considerations upon a Reduction of the Land-Tax, in the year 1749,—'And no wonder, says he, it should be so, in this author's hypothesis; since according to his reasoning, WAR AND EXPENCE ARE BLESSINGS, AS THEY ARE THE SOURCES OF DEBT: AN ENORMOUS DEBT IS A BLESSING, AS IT IS THE FOUNTAIN OF PUBLIC CREDIT; AND TAXES BRING NO DETRIMENT TO TRADE.'

The author of the Defence of the several Proposals, &c. does not barefacedly go so far as the last mentioned. However, in his Postscript, p. 63. 'He conceives, that the prices of funds do not in the least depend upon the quantity of them, either taken in the gross, or any particular sort of them: that, if they were DOUBLE to what they are now, it would not necessarily follow that the prices would be lower; nor yet, if they consisted but of half what they do now, would the price be from thence increased.'

The high character of this author (the honourable and judicious Sir John Barnard, Knt.) acquired by many essential services to his country, which I shall shew in its place, will excuse our endeavours to confute him; since it becomes necessary to oppose his own words to his authority, which with multitudes, would have greater weight than the most substantial reasons from any other.

However useful his doctrine might have been, when the exigencies of the times obliged the public to increase its debt, yet, the necessity of borrowing having now ceased, it becomes expedient to discover the errors of a doctrine, which, through inferences to be drawn from it, may tend to double our national incumbrances*. For,

* It is to be feared that the propagation of such wrong principles as these are, have been the cause, why our rulers have never exerted them to raise the SUPPLIES, within the years, which would have prevented the INCREASE of our PUBLIC DEBTS AND TAXES, to that enormous and dangerous size they have arisen.

If a greater or less quantity of subsisting funds be quite indifferent as to the raising or falling of their value, more remote

consequences will the easier give way to any new scheme of expence. Nor in this author's opinion are the most distant evils to be apprehended, even from an increase of our debt beyond what it now is: for 'It is the quantity, says he, brought to market, compared with the purchasers, which rises or falls the prices of funds.' And, p. 69, 'When funds are sold directly by the government, to persons who design to keep them, they are immediately put out of the market, and affect the price no more than all the quantity of the public funds which remains in the hands of persons who never think of selling them.' Ibid. 'And, if timely notice were given every year, there would probably come in buyers, with a design to keep, sufficient to take off all the funds created that year, provided they may come in freely at the original price.' Ibid.

If this probability be well founded, it arises not in a small part, but almost in the whole, amongst those described in p. 71. 'Who live upon their income, whether by estates in land, or in the funds, or in mortgages: many of whom are always saving a part of their income, and want to lay out.' Ibid. And 'among people who thrive in trade, and who are willing, as they can spare money, to lay it out in something to support them more at their ease.' Ibid. And, lastly, as war necessarily contracts trade, and, consequently, so much money cannot be employed therein as in time of peace, those who have large estates in trade must have money gradually coming in; which, when the funds are reasonable, they may chuse to lay out therein; and some, from this beginning, go on to draw all their money out of trade, to place it in the funds.' Ibid.

In answer to which it was said, From these several descriptions, deduction must be made of those who, with their savings, purchase lands or houses, or who lay out their money on private securities; who increase their stock in trade in proportion as they thrive; who, in time of war, contract their trade, in order to enlarge it in time of peace, and who place their money in the funds for temporary advantage, till an opportunity serves of attaining some of these purposes; not one of whom is a buyer in the funds with a design to keep.

If to these we add, whoever in time of public distress withdrew their money out of the funds; and if the remaining number be clear sufficient to take off every year all the funds created in that year (which, in the year immediately succeeding, amounted to 63 millions) we may pronounce the annual gains, through lands, mortgages, funds, and trade, immensely higher than ever computed, and the parsimony of our people misrepresented by declaimers against luxury.

The position in page 74, 'That any quantity of new funds, to be created and sold in any one year, will not occasion there being less money the next year;' WAS FALSE IN THAT VERY YEAR, AND IN THE SUCCEEDING; as it ever will be, when new funds are created to defray foreign expence, which has been the case of almost all our funds. The argument, therefore, to be true, should rather have stood thus: 'Any quantity of new funds, to be created and sold in any one year, will occasion there being less money the next year; because, as the government issues out all the money received (a great part of which is sent into other countries) the same quantity will not be in private hands, as the year foregoing.'

If our author's calculation was true, it would not only justify the doctrine opposed by him under a former administration, That the creditors of the public could not bear to receive above an ANNUAL MILLION IN DISCHARGE OF OUR DEBTS; but would bid fair for proving, with the nameless author of the Essay upon Public Credit, that our debt is AN ADVANTAGE, AND EVERY INCREASE A PUBLIC BLESSING; since it would be hard to say, how so much superfluous wealth could be otherwise disposed of.

Every increase of DEBT CAUSES AN INCREASE OF ANNUITY; and an increase of annuity must be either defrayed by NEW TAXES, OR BY SUCH AN APPROPRIATION OF THE SINKING FUND AS WOULD RETARD, IF NOT TOTALLY EXTINGUISH, EVERY POSSIBILITY OF REMOVING ANY OF THE OLD.

Either of these would prejudice trade; and what prejudices trade must affect the value of the funds.

Yet our author asserts, 'If they were DOUBLE to what they now are, it would not necessarily follow that the prices would be lower; nor yet, if they consisted but of half what they do now, would the price be from thence increased.'

Experience hath taught us, when large sums must be expended, and must be borrowed, how very soon a combination of monied men can raise the price to the borrower. Nor does the evil end here; for the same combination will afterwards operate, probably more effectually, towards preventing its reduction; as it is found easier to advance the price of things upon those who are in want of them, than to lower the price when once advanced.

Such combinations are great and powerful in proportion as THE DEBT IS GREAT: and, if it be raised to such a size as to admit no probability of ever discharging it, or if the means for such discharge be neglected or misapplied, other men

may be deterred from releasing the public out of this bondage to their creditors, by new loans; and CREDIT will be affected by an INCREASE OF PRINCIPAL, let the interest be never so well secured.

Whatever the advantages may be resulting from the funds, through the facility of transfers, the punctuality of payments, and the certainty and sufficiency of the security, yet they receive a considerable diminution from this single circumstance, that the creditor is not intitled to demand the principal in any future RISE OF INTEREST, but must, if called upon by necessity, sell out AT LOSS.

This condition, as it was not felt, was not much attended to in settled times, when the price of money was likely to remain unaltered; but at other seasons, we have seen it become an object of great importance; and it is now of weight and importance to those who apprehend, that, if all possible means be not employed to LESSEN OUR DEBTS, future exigencies, possibly not far off, may seize us unprepared, sufficient to swallow up the whole SINKING FUND IN ONE PERPETUAL MORTGAGE.

Extravagant as this apprehension may appear to some, it will not be so to those who computed the debt accumulated by the late war, (that was the war in 1740) and find it amount to 32,818,220*l.* and lamentable will our situation be, if the only security against such another be an improbability of supporting the expence.

In this situation, therefore, the apprehensions of men may go farther, and transport them to a time when, after having appropriated every thing fundable, new expences may become necessary. What the effect would be, imports us all to consider, for it regards us all: ruined credit, total stagnation, universal bankruptcy.

It is true, a nation cannot be powerful where the individuals are poor: but it is certain, on the other hand, that the individuals of a nation may be rich, and the community poor, and without resources.

This was evident throughout the late war, in the case of the Dutch. And if, after being driven to an impossibility of raising the necessary supplies, we can reduce interest, this country will furnish another instance of the same truth within the same period: for such reduction will be an incontestable proof of the wealth of individuals, although that wealth was unavailing to the public in the time of trial.

But, wherever this case exists, it constantly proceeds from the same cause; from a load of debt, over-burdening the frame of public credit, frightening monied men from settling within its reach, while all uniform and general means are exhausted of drawing further supplies from the drained bulk of the people.

Thus far it hath been endeavoured to shew how falsely and dangerously they reason who would center our whole concern in the reduction of interest, and regard the principal of our debt as an immaterial circumstance.

Notwithstanding these inferences are apparently deducible from Sir John Barnard's tract, yet I cannot believe that honourable gentleman intended the propagation of the doctrine of non-payment of the public debts: we have great reason to judge otherwise: for, in another pamphlet of that gentleman's writing, now before me, in the year 1737, intitled *Reasons for the more speedy lessening the National Debt, and taking off the most burdensome of the Taxes; we find these express sentiments:*

'It is true, says Sir John, some modern politicians have run upon a notion, and several persons are weak enough to believe, that the not paying off the public debt will engage people the more to preserve the present government: this policy, indeed, of theirs would hold good, if it could be made out that the public creditors are stronger and more in number than those concerned in the payments to the public. But it rather seems to hold in sense and reason, THAT THE THRONE OF THAT PRINCE, IN A FREE NATION, MUST BE MOST FIRMLY ESTABLISHED, WHOSE AFFAIRS WILL PERMIT HIM TO ASK, AND WHO DESIRES TO COLLECT, THE FEWEST TAXES FROM HIS PEOPLE.'—And, with regard to the maxim quoted from Sir John's postscript in the pamphlet beforementioned, which occasioned the other learned author's reply, it should be further observed, in justice to this great patriot, that, in the introduction to the said postscript, he has the following paragraph: 'I shall, says Sir John, now lay together some notions relating to public credit, for the consideration of my readers. Many of them may be found scattered through the foregoing work, which I did not think a sufficient reason for omitting them in this place, because they may serve to exercise the thoughts of those who are desirous to be acquainted with these matters: I will not take upon me to say that they are all right, although they now appear to me to be so; but, when objections are started, I may find myself mistaken.'—This is candid and ingenuous, and worthy the imitation of all who would not set up for infallibility; and those who have been conversant with studies of this, or indeed of any other nature, that will not admit of pure mathematical demonstration, well know, that they ought rather to be modest than dogmatical.

But to resume the topic of paying the national debts.—It has been a question with several judicious gentlemen, Whether, upon the whole, the nation would be in ever the worse condition, provided the national debts were never paid, and that a considerable proportion of the public creditors remained PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS ONLY? To which it may be observed, that the two principal national evils that attend the continuance of the public debts, to the degree they are at present advanced, are, (1.) The annuity we are constantly obliged to pay to foreigners, for the proportion of the principal money debt, which has been estimated by some at $\frac{1}{3}$, and by others at $\frac{1}{2}$, of the whole debt; and, (2.) The other evil is, the weight of our tax-funds, occasioned by our debts, upon our trade in general. The first of these drains the nation annually of so much hard money; the latter renders our manufactures dearer to foreign countries, by the whole weight that our tax-funds bear upon commodities.

To exonerate the kingdom from evils of this nature is certainly very desirable; and I can hardly believe that any one would undertake to prove the contrary. If our whole national debts were wholly owing among ourselves, and the annuity paid for their interest circulated wholly among ourselves, the former evil would be lessened by all the saving to the nation; and, if the annuity for the debt due to ourselves only was no clog or incumbrance upon our foreign commerce and navigation, it would not matter greatly, perhaps, to the kingdom in general, if the debt due to ourselves only was never discharged.

But how can we pay foreigners off only, without affecting the public faith, and without precluding ourselves for ever from the aid of a foreign purse, whenever our affairs may require it? These are difficulties easier raised than answered. For my own part, I can discern but one way of doing this; which is, by discharging the whole of our present debts with all possible expedition, and those of foreigners will be gradually discharged with the rest: and, if we have occasion TO CONTRACT NEW DEBTS, WHILE THE OLD ARE GRADUALLY PAYING OFF, LET THEM BE CONTRACTED UPON NEW FUNDS, WHOLLY AMONG OURSELVES, IF THAT BE POSSIBLE AND PRACTICABLE. I am aware of the objection, that, while public securities are transferable (and they cannot be otherwise) and while foreigners have an opinion of the stability of our public credit, they will become purchasers in our funds, unless they were absolutely excluded by act of parliament, which might be dangerous, when we stood in need of their money: and, when we did, the restraint might be taken off. This would be an effectual way to try the wealth of the nation among ourselves; and, perhaps, prove a preservative against running in debt to foreigners ever after. And foreigners would entertain so high an opinion of the public credit of the nation, when we should be able to do without any of their money, that numbers of the more opulent would take up their abode among us, become naturalized, and they and their families become one with ourselves, for the sake of being proprietors in our public funds.

And if, in the course of payment of our old debts, and the contraction of new, the tax funds for the new debt should be gradually and equally laid all over the nation, by some such scheme as that of the late Sir Matthew Decker, or by some other that possibly might be thought of, this would be paying the way to take off all our old tax-funds, that now lie heavy upon our trade, and removing them, by reason of any new-contracted debt, in such a manner as they might be no clog or incumbrance whatever upon our trade: and this, we humbly apprehend, carries nothing of the face of impracticability.

Let it be supposed, that the nation is not in a condition to pay off any of its present debts (which, for distinction-sake, I will call old debts) and that, even as fast as we pay off one million of old debt, we are necessitated to borrow a million of new debt, yet if, by this means, we shall be enabled so to change the nature of our tax-funds, as to take them absolutely off from our trade and navigation, and lay them equally all over the nation, this would answer the next good purpose to the absolute discharge of our debts: for, if the annuity for the payment of interest of our new national debts was so universally equalized among the people, by gradual small tax-funds being laid for that purpose, and as unexpensively collected as the land-tax, this would in a few years, we humbly conceive, so effectually demonstrate the efficacy of changing our OLD DEBTS, BY THE MEANS OF CONTRACTING NEW, and so effectually convince the nation that it is more eligible to raise the whole annuity for the interest of the public debts, BY ONE EQUAL AND GENERAL TAX, in the nature of Sir Matthew Decker's scheme, that, upon thus shifting and changing the principal money-debt from the old to new, upon new tax-funds, we should experience, before we had thus changed ten millions of the debt, the reasonableness and practicability of thus changing the whole of our OLD TAX-FUNDS, for one or more NEW GENERAL FUNDS, that would raise the annuity requisite, without any burden to trade, and without putting the nation under the necessity, even in case of creating still greater national debts than we now have, of laying any taxes upon commodities, except upon such FOREIGN IM-
PORTS

PORTS OF LUXURY, &c. whose consumption it may be good policy to check.

Here then seems to be a plain easy way chalked out, whereby to relieve our commerce from the burden of all its tax-fund incumbrances; and this without the least injury, nay, with great advantage to the public credit.

The next point that obviously falls under consideration is, how, and in what manner, this change of the national debt, and of the tax-funds to answer the same, may be effected? And this, the intelligent reader will please to observe, upon the supposition that we are under the necessity of contracting NEW DEBTS, as fast as we discharge the OLD DEBT, or rather change it for a NEW, for the sake of changing the OLD tax-funds for NEW tax-funds. I hope I am understood; for I regard plainness and simplicity of language more than pompous unintelligible elegance.

With respect to the ways and means of paying the nation's debt, several very ingenious gentlemen, warm in their country's interest and glory, have offered to the public consideration various expedients; but it is to be feared that none of those propositions, none, however, that have fell in my way, seem to be immediately practicable; and the reason is plain, because they have not been directly coincident with the established system and constitution of our public funds; but, being attended with two great innovations upon the established system, they have been apprehended, we may presume, to be liable to endanger the public credit.

It is not my intention to enter into a critique upon those divers propositions; every gentleman deserves the thanks, the applause, and reward from the public, who communicates anything, with candor and decency, for its real interests. Nor is it my design to depreciate the merit of any gentleman's proposition of this kind, with the mean view to set off my own; for I have none of my own to propose there: I shall at present, only consider the parliamentary measures that have obtained by the establishment of a sinking-fund, for near 50 years past.

What effect the invariable application of this fund would have had, by this time, upon the public debts, has been already shewn under the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS.] We have there shewed how efficacious this fund would have proved, had it been sacredly and inviolably appropriated, as was certainly first intended by parliament, to the payment of the debts contracted before 1716.

But, as this fund has been differently applied, I shall not enter into the rectitude or the otherwise of that measure. I have some years since attended to what has been said on both sides of that important question, both within doors and without; but retrospection is not my business here; we must take things as they are, and make the best use of them now, as things are circumstanced.

If, then, the state of public affairs hath occasioned us to run deeper into debt, instead of being favourable to their discharge, it behoves the wisdom of the nation to consider whether this fund [the SINKING FUND] can still prove of any use towards the ease of the public in any shape, if it cannot be applied to the real discharge of its principal money-debt: for, if it cannot be applied to what it was originally designed, the next best use ought to be made of it that can. And, First, Let this fund be absolutely redeemed, and set free, we will suppose, from every incumbrance, for it can be no way salutarily operative till it is so.

Secondly, The most easy way to do this should seem to be by some general easy duty, laid equally throughout Great-Britain and Wales (called the general fund of REDEMPTION from all taxes on trade) upon the plan of that of Sir Matthew Decker, or any other that may no way effect our trade, commodities, and manufactures, and to collect the same as cheaply as the land-tax is. For, as the benefit of taxes to the public results only from the clear income, and the evil to individuals extends not only to the gross produce, but to every other expence and loss incident and consequential; that tax is most beneficial to the public, and least hurtful to the subject, which produces a large sum through a cheap collection, and which is free from every other eventual charge. To use a familiar instance: he who attends to his own affairs, lives upon his own land, employs but one steward, at a small salary, to receive his rents, and buys at the first hand, may, from a small and compact estate, thus conducted, spend and save more than the lord of an immense rental, widely dispersed, gathered by many hands, profusely paid; he living at a distance, and purchasing what he consumes from the fourth or fifth retailer.

An essay being made (to carry on the supposition) by this GENERAL FUND OF REDEMPTION, the two following ends would be soon answered by it. (1.) It would redeem the sinking fund. And, (2.) it would give the nation experience of the net produce of a general duty, laid equally throughout the kingdom; and, being collected as cheaply as the land-tax is, it would prove so great a saving with regard to the collection, and of no incumbrance to trade, that the nation would soon be able to judge, whether one such general fund of redemption would not effectually redeem them from all taxes on trade whatso-

ever. And, if it is once experienced that so simple and unexpensive a fund of redemption, in the collection, will redeem the sinking fund, we shall be certain that this fund of redemption, gradually increased, will absolutely free us from all other tax-funds whatsoever.

And, when the sinking fund shall be set free, by means of a general fund of redemption, what hinders but all our present national debts may be discharged by it, and those of foreigners among the rest? If the necessities of the state require the borrowing of more monies, while the sinking fund is operating in the payment of our present debts, let them be borrowed within our own nation only, upon the general fund of redemption, and let foreigners be excluded: such measures would not obstruct the payment of our present debts, by the inviolable application of the sinking fund to that purpose. Nay, the gradual contraction of new debts, upon the new general fund of redemption, would prove the means of preventing some disadvantageous consequences to the old public creditors, while that debt was paying off by the sinking fund: because the subjects of Great-Britain would have fresh occasions of laying out a part, if not the whole of the money received upon the new fund of redemption, by new debts: so that, by the invariable application of the sinking fund to the payment of the old debts, all our present duties and taxes on trade in general would be in a certain state of redemption, and the new contracted debts would be borrowed upon the new general fund of redemption, which would reduce all our tax-funds to that one general fund, as before observed, and put the whole kingdom into the most prosperous condition, with regard to its public credit, and all its other interests.

But, if it should not be found practicable to keep out of debt to foreigners, especially upon so advantageous a change in the whole system of our funds and taxes (which, perhaps, will make it impossible, for all foreigners then, either in their own or borrowed names, would get into our funds, let whatever measures, perhaps, be taken to prevent it) yet, if we put our present debts into a certain way of payment, and were obliged to contract as much new debt upon the new fund of redemption, the public creditors need not be alarmed with such apprehensions of the payment of the national debt, as suggested by Erasmus Philips, Esq; and which, I am sensible, is the opinion of many other very judicious gentlemen. It may not be improper, therefore, to quote what this learned author observes, in order to shew that what I have offered to consideration seems to obviate those inconveniences of which that gentleman seems apprehensive. The chapter I shall cite is intitled,

The possibility of paying the public debts depends on circulation.

‘ The paying the public debts, says Mr Philips, is a matter
‘ of the greatest concern, and seems to be the chiefest care
‘ of the administration; the measures that have been already
‘ taken will, in all probability, in the year 1727, produce a
‘ sinking fund of above a million of money.
‘ And, suppose we state the debt at 53 millions, the fund at
‘ 1,200,000, it is no great discovery to say, that, in less than
‘ 26 years, this great debt may be paid off.
‘ But I must beg leave to observe, that, notwithstanding this
‘ account is mathematically true, upon the supposition of so
‘ much money received annually, yet, upon the whole, ei-
‘ ther the creditor or the community must lose so much of
‘ their principal before this debt can be paid off, or else they
‘ must acquire a new estate.
‘ For instance; A, the government, owes B, C, D, 200 l.
‘ E, F, G, H, have lands and goods to the value of 20,000 l.
‘ and the whole community have but 500 l. amongst them
‘ in money, of which 100 l. a year are the revenues of A;
‘ if the debt is at 4 per cent. the revenues of A, in less than
‘ 20 years, will be sufficient to pay. But how? It must be
‘ out of the estates of B, C, D, E, F, G, H; so that their
‘ estates must be diminished by so much, or they must ac-
‘ quire a new estate, answerable for this debt.
‘ It is true, the loss may not fall upon B, C, or D, the im-
‘ mediate creditor, because any of them may purchase the
‘ lands or goods of E, F, G, or H: but then at last it must
‘ fall on him or them that have the money, because that A
‘ has no other estate to pay with but the money of B, C,
‘ D, E, F, &c.
‘ If it could be supposed that B, C, D, state creditors,
‘ should keep all the money that was paid them by A, in five
‘ years time they must have all the money of the communi-
‘ ty; but, as this is unlikely, and their necessary expences
‘ must make a circulation, so of course it must come about
‘ to A, who has a part of almost every thing that is bought
‘ or sold.
‘ Perhaps it may be asked how so large a money-debt could
‘ grow out of so small a capital? To which I answer, that, the
‘ annual charge of our fleets and armies chiefly consisting in
‘ commodities of our own growth, the creditors were satisf-
‘ fied with an interest for their money, so that the annual
‘ payment of the eighteenth or twentieth part of the value
‘ of

of their goods was satisfaction till the whole could be paid.

And, as to the money, it was generally lent by the same people who sold their securities to others at an advanced price, and by this means were enabled every year to lend more, they being the reservoirs of all those little streams or parcels of money which belonged to the multitude, who demanded an interest for them, the punctuality of payments, and sacredness of the security, in some time making the interest more valuable than the principal.

Hence it is that people, finding themselves in a state of safety, and that their interest is well paid, raise the price of their public securities, which of necessity lessens the value of money.

If a million of the public debts were paid off, this money must come again to market, to look out for interest, and, consequently, the remaining part of the debt would increase in its value from the difficulty of finding employment for that million elsewhere; but then it must be allowed, that there is a million less in circulation than there was before, because this million, call it annuities or stock of any kind, bid the office of so much money; the same thing must be said of every million that is paid off.

It may be a question, whether, after ten millions paid off (and, consequently, so much less in circulation) there will be the same consumption of commodities as there is at present; if not, the same annuity cannot be collected, and, consequently, the debt will take a longer time in clearing off.

It is demonstrable, unless people spend out of their capital, the consumption cannot be so great, because, after ten millions paid, there must be so much principal and interest less in circulation than there was before, unless we suppose that, by the application of this money in trade, we get a sum equal to the interest and principal.

If, after 20 millions paid, the difficulty of employing money will become so great as that half of it may become useless, that is, hoarded up, which may very well be the case; it is not then to be imagined the consumption of goods can be so great as now; the duties then of necessity must be less.

If the consumption diminishes, who is it that is most likely to suffer? Why the trading man, mechanic, and landed man. For instance: if the monied man is reduced to live on three-fifths less than heretofore, or, which is the same thing, the monied estate is three-fifths worse than it was before, the consumption of the proprietors must abate in proportion; and, consequently, this must fall on the trading man, mechanic, or landed man, because under these three heads all the necessary expences of life almost must be ranged.

The landed man will be very much surprized to find his rents diminish, and yet his land rise in value, as to the purchase of it; the merchant will wonder that, in a profound time of tranquility and plenty, he has not that vent for his commodities he was accustomed to have. The poor mechanic will pine for want of employment: and this must be the consequence, if we have less to spend than we had before.

But, perhaps, it would be thought advisable to leave open all the gates of circulation, that this alteration may come gradually, and not surprize us, that the advantages we may have from trade may fill up those gaps which must be occasioned by such a stagnation as the payment of ten millions will make. If an annuity-office should be open to all purchasers for their lives, people would, doubtless, rather than have money lie idle, buy annuities for themselves or their children; and this would be always money in circulation; and I am certain, that, were this under a good regulation, at the price annuities are now; the government would be gainers by the project, and, were it to continue, would, in the process of time, raise a sum of money for any emergency.

One thing I am sure of, it would greatly facilitate the circulation of money, without which our debts can never be paid off.

R E M A R K S.

When the present tax-funds upon trade shall be annihilated, by the payment of our present public debts, for which they are mortgaged; and when the general fund of redemption, before submitted, should become established in their stead, our commerce in general will be so relieved, as to employ very great additional sums of money therein; and, if every prudent measure, under such circumstances, should be taken by the nation to advance our trade, as that increased, it would call for a proportionable increase of trading capital, wherewith to carry it on. But, if it was possible to pay off our public debts without an increase of our trade, the public creditors might be liable to those disadvantages which Mr Philips suggests; and to continue the public debts, which occasion the continuance of all our taxes on trade, the nation

must lose its trade; and, if so, the taxes arising therefrom must cease in their produce, the creditors in time have no interest for their money, and the principal become nothing worth. If trade, however, is relieved of its present taxes, and one easy general fund of redemption be substituted in their place, an unincumbered trade will support every thing; it will either enable the nation gradually to pay its debts, with little disadvantage to the public creditors, or that alone will enable the nation to pay duly the interest-money for our debts, without any incumbrance to trade, if it should never be able to pay the principal. But, if it should ever become indifferent to the nation, whether their debts are paid or no, and that the creditors should be continued only as perpetual annuitants, then there is the greater necessity to alter the system of tax-funds on trade, by converting them, at once, into one GENERAL FUND OF REDEMPTION, which may fall lightly and equally, according to the circumstances of people, upon the whole nation, without any incumbrance whatsoever to our commerce. But, as the nation may be liable to increase its debts in time of war, the policy of making the public creditors perpetual annuitants is the way to increase the debt to such an enormous degree, that the taxes to pay its interest must inevitably ruin the nation; because further reductions of interest, beyond certain limits, defeat their own intentions: for, the less the creditors have to receive for interest, the less they must spend, and the less must those taxes produce which are to pay their interest, and provide for the exigences of the government: so that, if the taxes, as at present constituted, decrease as much in their real produce as any future reduction of interest below 3 per cent. amounts to, where lies the advantage?

Our large national debt is fraught with numberless inconveniences.

First, It has grievously injured our trade, by serving for a pretence to continue those taxes on commodities, the destructive consequences of which to trade are apparent to every man that will open his eyes.

Secondly, It destroys private credit. The annals of Europe for the year 1739, p. 444, justly remark, that these funds first drew out of private hands most of that money which should, and otherwise would have been lent to our merchants and tradesmen; this made it difficult for such to borrow any money upon personal security; and this difficulty soon made it unsafe to lend money upon such security, which of course destroyed all private credit, and greatly injured our trade in general.

Thirdly, It encourages idleness; for several people, making from 3 to 4 per cent. of their money sleeping, are mere drones in the hive, improving no land, nor extending any trade.

Fourthly, It encourages luxury. Idleness is the mother of vice; and a mere stockholder, being the idlest person upon earth, has nothing to study but how to kill time by vanities and luxuries, in which this nation has of late days made a great proficiency.

Fifthly, It wastes the body politic; for a great part of our national debt belonging to foreigners not residing here, but whose interest is remitted abroad, they are in the same state, with respect to the nation, as landholders-absentees, those cankers to the riches of a country. Supposing the interest remitted abroad to foreigners to be only 750,000 l. per annum, if our trade prove but a little beneficial, so large a sum going out yearly will certainly keep us poor.

If our trade brings us in neither profit or loss, and the current cash of the nation is 12 millions, the interest paid foreigners, in 16 years, will run away with all.

But, if the general balance of our trade comes to be against us, the sending abroad yearly money to pay that balance, joined to the above 750,000 l. per annum interest, must bring destruction upon us like a whirlwind. So fine a situation have our debts brought us to!

Having thus made ourselves tributaries to foreigners, poverty must be our portion: for a foreigner who for 50 years past has received from us, for his dividend in our funds, 1000 l. yearly, computing the interest of money at 4 per cent. only, has drained us of 156,115 l. having his capital still unsatisfied. Nay this plunder, though monstrous, is much underrated; for the interest of money, at the beginning of this term of years, was much greater than 4 per cent.

We owe above 30 millions more than we did at the commencement of the last war, (1740.) Who will believe that the present peace is likely to endure till this additional debt is discharged? And is it not as plain as experience can make it, that a new war, with this new debt upon us, must contribute to our undoing, if effectual means are not taken to lessen our debts, if we cannot discharge the whole of them; or so to change the form of our tax-funds that lie heavy on trade, to that of one general fund, which may lie light and easy upon the whole people. This is in our power, if it is not so to discharge our debts or any part of them.

Was not trade prejudiced by taxes before the war in 1740? Did not our rivals gain advantages over us from this cause? Was not France become a great mercantile power by reason thereof? Was not our debt such at the commencement of the said war, as rendered the load unmanageable during its progress?

grefs? Did not national credit sink, and interest of money rise? Did not payment upon subscriptions fail? And was not the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle concluded, because we experienced it so difficult to carry on war?

If our taxes on trade were grievous, they are now multiplied: if our debt was heavy, it is now then found increased: if the sinking fund was casually applied to the current service of the year, it is now deeply mortgaged: and, if France suffered in her trade during the war, she is now at liberty to repair those losses. She hath the same skill, the same industry and parsimony, the same good policy, the same possessions, and aiming at great additional ones in America, Asia, and Africa: she hath numbers, she hath wealth; and a far more extensive influence is derived to her since than she had before the war. She hath experienced where she hath been unsuccessful, to improve the advantages of her success. Is not every prince in Europe, that has it the least in his power, encouraging trade by every possible measure? Is not Prussia taking large strides to establish a new commercial and maritime power; and is not——likely to fall a sacrifice, either to——, on the one side, or——, perhaps, on the other? And what a chance Great-Britain will then stand, is left to the judgment of others. [The whole of these REMARKS, the reader will observe was urged before the last war.]

These are unaggravated facts. These cannot, like general epithets, be applied to all times, and to all nations. They speak our specific situation; and they would speak it as strongly, were the words BANKRUPT and RUINED expunged out of the English language.

Some people seem to be unaffected with these clogs upon our trade, which are made by near an hundred different kinds of tax-funds. But,

In order to prove the evils arising to our trade from the heavy taxes with which it is incumbered, it were, perhaps, not just to consult the opinions of actual merchants, who, upon this subject, are prejudiced judges.

But the testimony of those who have withdrawn themselves out of trade hath ever been deemed the best authority; and, as such, the late Sir Matthew Decker's cannot be refused.

He tells us, in favour of this scheme, that 'It would set the merchant and shop-keeper free from a multitude of false and vexatious, or frivolous informations, which may now be lodged against them: that the charge upon the revenue is now computed at above one million: that, as the duty upon merchandize imported from abroad, as well as upon our own exciseable goods, amounts, on an average, to about 50 per cent.' (And, since he wrote, it hath been greatly increased, by an immense additional duty on imports.) 'It would enable the merchant, as well as the shop and warehouse-keeper, to trade with half the stock, and make his profit the same, or rather increase it, in proportion to the lesser sum for which he can purchase the same commodity. This would create a greater plenty of money, and, of consequence, greatly help to reduce the national interest.

It would also encourage the great merchants, when they buy any goods upon speculation, as they call it, to keep the said goods at home, and employ their own warehouses; whereas, as the case now stands, they are, in prudence, obliged to ship off such goods as are intitled to a drawback of 30, 40, and even more per cent. for Holland, or other places; whereby the Dutch are not only benefited, but we pay commission, warehouse-room, and other incidental charges, which our own people might put in their own pockets, and have the goods in their own possession.'

Mr Wood, besides much excellent reasoning upon the same principle, refers us, for farther proof, to the customs, which, since the additional duties and impositions on so many species of goods, have not actually produced so much as before.'

It is computed by the British Merchant, that, out of 49,000,000 l. expended and consumed by our people at home, not more than 4,000,000 l. are of foreign commodities.

There remain, therefore, 45,000,000 l. for an annual expence and consumption in home product and manufactures. Of these the land-owner can expend and consume no more than his rents, and they are computed at no more than 14,000,000 l. therefore above two parts in three of home product and manufactures are expended and consumed by all other denominations of our people.

Whatever is consumed and expended at home, or exported into other countries, whether of home or foreign commodities, is the fruit of our lands, of the labourer and artificer, or is purchased by these fruits.

In 1713, the British Merchant computed our imports at 5,000,000 l. and our exports at 7,000,000 l. of these, one million he supposes to be of foreign commodities. Therefore, even at that time, our home consumption and foreign exportation amounted to 56,000,000 l.

But whatever is produced by land, by the labourer and artificer, is paid by those who rent lands, and employ labourers and artificers: therefore the farmer and trader contribute

three parts in four more than the land-owners can to the employment of our people, and to the wealth and expences of the nation.

R E M A R K S.

Since I have been upon this subject, a tract has fell in my way, which merits attention. It is intitled, an *Essay on the National Debt and National Capital*: or, *The Account truly stated, Debtor and Creditor*; by Andrew Hooke, Esq; wherein the learned and ingenious author hath corrected some mistakes committed by our two great masters of political arithmetic, Sir William Petty and Dr Davenant, who differ from each other, and both, as Mr Hooke hath endeavoured to shew, from the truth, that we have little or no assistance from either of these gentlemen. At present, I am confined to observe only a scheme that I find this gentleman has proposed for paying off the national debt; which, as it contains something new and curious, it may deserve the public regard, and, therefore, I shall give it in the author's own words.

The scheme for paying off the NATIONAL DEBT.

'It has been observed, in the course of this essay, that the national debt, reckoning it at 80 millions, is not a twelfth part of the national capital; nor the annual interest of it, at 4 per cent. a thirtieth part of the national income; and that the annual increment of stock, over and above the yearly expences of the people, is 11 millions and a half nearly. Now this being proved, as clearly as the nature of such arguments will allow, and, in our opinion, shewn to be the present state of the nation, beyond all reasonable contradiction, we shall have very little trouble to demonstrate the facility of discharging the principal sum of 80 millions, not only without the least inconvenience to the crown or people, but with great and immediate advantages both to the one and the other; viz. by an actual sale, for a term of years only, of a less portion of the national income than is at present annually applied towards the discharge of the interest thereof.

As thus:

If but seven-eighths of the interest of 80 millions, or two millions eight hundred thousand pounds (which is not a thirty-sixth part of the national income, nor a fourth part of the annual increment of the national capital) were to be converted into annuities at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and granted, in equal proportions, for a term of 99 years absolute, unto a certain number of subscribers, in manner as follows, the whole sum of 80 millions might, in our opinion, be soon raised to discharge the like principal sum of the national debt.

The method this:

Let the 80 millions debt be divided into 80 equal parts, of a million each, to be paid off severally, by an equal number of separate and independent classes of subscribers, whose respective constituents shall, in consideration of such subscriptions, be, jointly and severally, interested in an equivalent annuity to be granted to each class, for the term aforesaid, with benefit of survivorship.

An instance of one class will serve for all.

Let it be enacted then, that the interest of one million, at 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. be converted into a capital annuity of 35,000 l. and granted for 99 years absolute, to any body or class of subscribers, who, in consideration thereof, will advance the sum of one million towards discharging so much of the national debt.

That the one million, so to be subscribed, be divided into four thousand parts, or shares, of 250 l. and the capital annuity of 35,000 l. into four thousand lesser annuities of 8 l. 15s. each, answerable to the said number of shares, and vested in the individuals of each class, in proportion to the number of shares subscribed by them severally and respectively. That every person subscribing 250 l. or one share, be intitled to one of the said lesser annuities, during the life of any person he shall nominate, subject to the limitation in the said grant; and so in proportion to any greater number of shares, provided always, that the number of his nominees be ever equal to the number of his shares.

That in consideration of his sinking the principal money, every subscriber be further intitled to such annual augmentation of his annuity, or annuities, as shall from time to time accrue by casualties of mortality among the nominees of such class; so that before the expiration of the original term, the whole capital annuity of 35,000 l. may vest in such subscriber, or subscribers, or his or their representatives, as the case shall happen, whose nominee, or nominees, shall be the last survivor, or survivors, of the said class.

That the government creditors have the preference to all other subscribers, for so much principal money as shall, at the time of such subscription, be actually and bona fide due to them from the crown; and that, notwithstanding the classes, as such, are, by this plan, to be independent of each other, yet, that individuals may become subscribers in as many classes as they please, and their nominees in one class

be nominees in every other class, if they shall think fit. And, lastly, That the government, on payment of the capital annuities of 35,000l. to the several classes, be absolutely discharged from all future claims of individuals, touching their respective shares, proportions, and interest therein; and that all matters relating thereto be transacted among themselves, and determined by a court of directors, to be elected and appointed in such manner as shall be thought fit; who, by law, shall be fully authorized and empowered to make the respective dividends, and from time to time adjust all claims thereto: subject, nevertheless, to an appeal to the lords of the Treasury, who, in a summary way, shall finally hear and determine the same.

The practicability of this scheme, says the author, will best appear by shewing the advantages of it to subscribers.

A clear annuity, then, for 99 years absolute, with government security, is worth, at least, 30 years purchase, and, consequently, every class, subscribing a million, will gain 50,000l. which is 5 per cent. on the whole sum; of which gain the individuals will severally have a share, in proportion to their subscriptions respectively: for, by multiplying the capital annuity of 35,000l. by 30, the rate of purchase, or value thereof, the product will be just, 1,050,000l. as aforesaid.

The single consideration, if people generally understood the real value of annuities, would be sufficient to insure the event; but, there being few who are much conversant with that subject, it is not probable so large a sum as 80 millions could be raised without the addition of some more striking and interesting motives; for which reason, it was thought most proper to fall in with the popular passion of lotteries, and to erect one of so peculiar a kind, as might hit every taste, and, upon the strictest examination, appear more advantageous to adventurers than any yet extant. For,

1. Every adventurer here will have a better interest for his money, with government security, during the life of his nominee, than he can reasonably expect to make by laying out the same sum in the purchase of lands in fee, in any part of the kingdom.
2. He will have a moral certainty of increasing his income annually, for 30 years to come,* a probability of the like augmentation for many years afterwards, and a possibility of enjoying the whole capital annuity of 35,000l. before the expiration of the original term.

* By the London bills of mortality, taken at a medium of 10 successive years, it appears that a life aged 4 is equal to a term absolute of 38 years and a half; and one aged 19, to a like term of 27 years and a half: the mean of which two numbers is 33 years for the term absolute, to which every life between those two ages (which I suppose will comprize all the nominees) is actually equal. Now, as 30 is just three years less than his equal chance of life, such person may properly enough be reputed morally certain of surviving that term.

3. The advance of so small a sum as 250l. by any one who ought to become an adventurer in this lottery, cannot be injurious to his private fortune or family in any degree, because he hath immediately more than a valuable consideration for his money, and may, if he pleases, appropriate the benefit of it to the uses of his family after his decease.

4. As the care of making provision for children, and old age engrosses the attention of the greater part of mankind, and is the main point on which the views of the wisest terminate; so, by this scheme, a way is shewn of doing it, at an easier rate, and with more certainty, in case of life (and death provides for every body alike) that can possibly be done by any other known method whatsoever.

These reasons, taken together, are, in our opinion, sufficient to convince the most cautious person that such annuity, with benefit of survivorship, though the adventurer, for want of knowledge, may not readily see a strict arithmetical equivalent for his subscription, yet politically considered, it will appear vastly more valuable; and there is little doubt but this scheme, when tendered properly to the public, will operate so strongly on the ruling passion of human nature, that every thinking person in the kingdom, who has a child or near relation to provide for, and 250l. to spare, will gladly become an adventurer in this lottery.

The advantages accruing to the government and community by this scheme are these:

1. The national debt will be discharged at once, with less than the present interest thereof; and the interest itself be annihilated at the end of the term for which the annuities are to be granted.
2. The reduction will create an immediate annual saving of 400,000l. which may be added to the sinking fund, or applied to the current service, as shall be thought most convenient.

3. The national capital may for ever remain untouched, since the annual increment of stock, as stated at 11 millions and an half, together with the sinking fund, will be more than sufficient, even in times of war, to answer all the demands of the government.

4. This scheme will be the best pattern for raising supplies for the future, without burdening the people with new taxes, or incurring any such-like national debt; the sinking fund itself, when converted into like annuities, being sufficient to furnish a million a year for 50 years together. And,

5. In which consists its distinguishing excellency, this scheme obviates all political objections to the execution of it, by preserving the same dependencies, and equally securing the stability of the throne; is inimitable by the French, our natural enemy, or any other arbitrary government; executes itself; is infallible in its operation; and absolutely puts it out of the power of any future ministry to defeat the event.

The only objection of weight to it, as far as we can foresee, is this, viz. that, in this way of paying off the national debt, a heavy load of grievous taxes on the necessaries of life, such as soap, candles, leather, salt, &c. must inevitably be fixed on the subject for a long term of years to come, irredeemable by parliament.

This objection, it must be owned, has a frightful aspect, and, were it unanswerable, ought to damn the whole; but, in our opinion, the force of it is very easily removed, by a short proviso in the act to this effect, viz. That whenever the circumstances of the government will admit of a reduction of any of the more burdensome taxes, appropriated to the payment of the said debt, such reduction may at any time take place, provided the funds annihilated thereby be, from time to time, replaced out of the sinking fund (which with the additional savings upon this plan, will be near 1,800,000l. per annum) or otherwise provided for by parliament.

It would be no difficult matter to enter into a particular detail of the great benefit the community might receive from the execution of this scheme, by shewing, in particular, which and how many of the more grievous and burdensome taxes, during a time of peace, might be immediately repealed, without injury to the revenue; and in what manner an equivalent, in time of war, might be raised for the service of the government, without a revival of those taxes, or any new impositions on the people; but this being out of our province, which is only to give general hints, we shall leave the application of it to those who are more immediately concerned and interested in that affair. Here ends Mr Hooke's scheme.

Sir Matthew Decker's sentiments with regard to the NATIONAL DEBT.

PROPOSALS.

'To pay off our debts by public bonds, bearing interest, negotiable by indorsement, and liquidating part of our debts yearly.

That books being opened at the Exchequer for receiving money from any person or persons desiring public bonds, which money is to be applied immediately to pay off our national redeemable debts; those that bear the highest rate of interest, and are of the longest standing, to be first paid off.

That the said bonds, for the convenience of trade, be for any sums not less than 5l. nor exceeding 1000l.

That they be divided into classes, according to their rates of interest.

That the 1st class does not exceed	3 millions ster.	at 3 per cent.
2	6	at 2½ per cent.
3	9	at 2 per cent.
4	12	at 1½ per cent.
5	15	at 1 per cent.
6	for the remainder of the debt	at ½ per cent.

That the bonds of every class be numbered, and the numbers never altered.

That the interest be payable at an office to be erected for that purpose, whenever it be called for, and a new bond given in the name of the person receiving it, with its original number, and the date the interest is paid to.

That the bonds be negotiable by indorsement to any creditor, and for any tax to the government.

That the bonds for the amount of both principal and interest by a legal tender for any tax, bill of exchange, note, or any debt whatsoever.

That a sum equal to the amount of one subsidy be granted yearly by parliament, to pay off our redeemable debts and public bonds; those that bear the highest rate of interest, and are of the longest standing, to be the first paid off.

That public notice be given in the Gazette monthly, by the commissioners of the office, how far they can pay off the bonds, specifying the number of the class, and the number of the bond they pay to: the interest on all the included numbers to cease and determine at the expiration of three months after such notice.

That accounts be delivered yearly to parliament by the commissioners.

That a curious stamp be added to the bonds; for, though their being negotiable, by indorsement only to creditors, may make forgery difficult, yet too much caution cannot be used to prevent it intirely, and give the bonds the greater credit.

Of the benefits arising by paying off our debts by public bonds.

1. It will increase trade.

By putting our debts, that have almost ruined us, on a footing of being speedily paid off with honour.

By creating currency more valuable than our coin; money lying by brings in nothing, but all these bonds pay something for keeping; and I presume that no persons (much less the bank or the bankers) would keep money by them lying dead, when they could have current bonds that bore only a half per cent. interest. Would the bank, who are computed to have always a dead cash of above one million by them, refuse making 5000l. per annum profit of it, at a half per cent. in bonds? Could the directors answer to the proprietors the neglect of not adding such a sum yearly to their usual profits? Would any person take out a bank-note, that bore no interest, when he could have a bond carrying a half per cent. and equally convenient; for any trader would as soon give change for it as for a bank note!

By increasing the currency of the nation: for, as trade always languishes where money is scarce, so the benefit by taking off all monopolies might be defeated, for want of a proper currency to carry on the flow of trade thereby caused; whereas, adding an increase of currency to an increase of trade, must carry it to a greater height than we ever yet knew.

By reducing the interest of money, which is a great encouragement to trade, by forcing people to industry, who would otherwise live idle on the high interest of their money; whereas, the interest of those bonds sinking gently to a degree too low to indulge people in idleness, the possessors of them, who have not lands to improve, must either find out new branches of trade, or study to improve the old; enter into partnership with traders of experience, or lend them their money to trade with, whereby private credit will be increased, and our traders enabled to buy at home with ready money, and sell at long credit abroad, which will make them steal away the trade of all those nations whose high interest will not enable them to do the same; and, the lower the interest, the more moderate profits our traders can content themselves with, whereby the vent of our goods must be increased: for, was the natural rate of interest at 2 per cent. a trader who borrowed money would think 4 per cent. good profit; whereas he who borrows money at 4 per cent. cannot be satisfied with less than 6 or 7, and must neglect all trades that will not give that profit, which the Dutch, by their low interest, are glad to undertake, and, when our case is the same, so shall we.

By making our people frugal: for, a low rate of interest forcing a low profit in trade, people's expences must grow more moderate, and, the less we consume, the more we shall have to sell, which is the most solid way to make a nation rich.

By gaining more experience: for, low profits raising estates slowly, men cannot quit business so soon for idle country-lives as they do now, but must bring up their children to their business, in order to assist them in their old age, which may go on to the fourth or fifth generation, before an estate is raised to turn country esquires upon; whereby a foreign correspondency with the best houses, the knowledge of proper workmen, and the characters of masters of ships, are secured to the son by the father's experience; consequently, from such a foundation, the utmost skill in trade must be attained.

2. It will employ our poor.

3. It will increase the stock of people.

These having been already proved to be the consequences of the increase of trade, the reader is refer'd back to these heads in the remarks on the foregoing proposals.

4. It will increase our riches.

Not only as a consequence of the above remarks, but also by reducing those vast dividends the foreign proprietors of stocks have now remitted to them, whereby more money will be kept in the nation.

5. It will increase the value of our lands.

This is the consequence of all the above remarks; for whatsoever causes trade, employs our poor, increases the stock of people, and increases our riches, must increase the value of our lands; for the proof of which, the reader is referred to what we shall hereafter say.

The paying off our debts by public bonds is proved to be the cause of trade, which is the cause of all the other remarks; therefore, the paying off our debts by public bonds is a great increaser of the value of lands.

Besides, where plenty of currency is to be had, there it will be borrowed by the land-holders, and employed in different

cultures, plantations, new products, whereby yearly improvements will be made, and, when the corn-magazines are compleated, there being no other employment for money but in trade or lands, those who did not understand trade, or care to trust their money to those who did, or who had raised sufficient estates by it, must become purchasers of land; which number, by increasing, must increase their value.

Having thus attempted to shew that our natural advantages in trade are undoubtedly superior to any nation's whatsoever; that, if properly cultivated, they would render us more formidable than France, consequently, than any country in Europe; that, if we had no taxes but on the voluntary consumers of luxuries, and if our trade was quite free, all fictitious value would be taken from our goods, whereby they might be afforded cheaper than any in Europe; and, if those vast sums that now lie dead in our funds were circulating in bonds, we should raise an immense trade all over the world, a vast navigation for our protection, increase the number of our people, give employment to all our poor, accumulate riches yearly, and that all this cannot be done without vastly increasing the value of lands, which, in the remarks on the several proposals I have endeavoured fully to prove, to the conviction, I hope, of those gentlemen for whose benefit this essay chiefly was intended, viz. our country-gentlemen, the land-holders of these three kingdoms.

Before concluding I must repeat, that my chief intent herein was to remove that destructive prejudice arising from the false distinction of landed and trading interests, by shewing that there neither is or can be any difference of interest between them; for, whatever clogs trade, must sink the value of lands, and that any benefit to trade, how remote soever it may seem from land, will at last terminate in increasing its value; therefore, I dare boldly affirm, that the giving trade the utmost freedoms and encouragements is the greatest and most solid improvement of the value of lands. It must be evident, says the author of *Britannia Languens*, p. 290, that, were our trade eased as our neighbour nations, England would have the superiority, since the same causes must produce greater effects in England, being invigorated with these our national advantages, which no other nation doth or can enjoy.

Was our trade eased and encouraged by the foregoing proposals, beyond that of our neighbours, to what a height of riches and power would not our natural advantages carry us? The consideration of which is hereby submitted to the legislature, which can, whenever it pleases, make us the most flourishing people in the world.*

Sir Matthew Decker's Proposition for one GENERAL FUND of REDEMPTION, as I have called it, to answer the end of all taxes on trade.

* My proposal in short is this, that there be but one single excise-duty over all Great-Britain, that upon houses. As for England alone, exclusive of Scotland and Wales (to which I reserve myself to say something hereafter) the number of houses, upon the strictest enquiry, amounts to no less than 1,200,000, and, according to the common computation, every house being reckoned at seven persons, makes in all 8,400,000 souls.

Now consider only what a number of things must be used by every one of these, for which high duties are paid, if imported from abroad; or high excises, if of our produce; and consider to what an additional price the seller of every commodity will exact from the consumer upon the score of duty and excise; reflect, likewise, upon the numerous articles which every family actually pays for, such as soap, candles, windows (and, what is the most considerable of all) malt and land: and then judge if I am mistaken in my calculation, when I suppose that every one of the 8,400,000 persons, above computed, pays, on an average, 40s. a year, without being a penny the better for it, either as to victuals or clothing; and yet, according to this calculation, 16,800,000l. will, in effect, be raised upon the subject*.

* I have been told that many people object to this calculation, and think me mistaken when I compute that every person pays, in the consumption, 40 s. per annum towards the several taxes, and, by consequence, every family, at seven in number, 14l; I shall, therefore, only subjoin a list of such things as are either charged with high duties at their importation, or high excises at home, and such as every family almost is either more or less obliged to make use of; and then leave it to the judgment of every considering man, whether I have over-rated this matter, or not. Velvets, and all foreign-wrought silks; lace, calicoes, mullins, and all foreign linnen; all foreign wines, arrac, rum, brandy; all home-distilled spirits, beer, ale, cyder, mum, perry, sweet wines, and vinegar; china ware, wrought plate, wire, cards, and dice; hides, leather, parchment, vellum, paper, paste-board, whale-fins, and oil; coffee, tea, and chocolate; cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, mace, ginger, pepper; all manner of apothecaries drugs; almonds, raisins, plums, and all sorts of grocery-ware; melleasses, sugar, soap, candles, snuff, starch, tobacco, salt, and hops. Now I say, when we take a view of this formidable list, and consider the large

quantities of some of these things which are used and consumed in the families of noblemen, gentry, merchants, shopkeepers, farmers, and that no family can subsist, however mean, without the use and consumption of many others of them; I believe we shall be tempted to think that I have rather made my calculation too low, when I place it, on an average, at 40s. per ann. each person, or 14l. per ann. each family, taking one family with another.

That the most wealthy and most substantial part of any nation should bear the greatest part of the burden, is certainly most reasonable, but as seldom put in practice; but it is a consequence of the method I propose, and thus I prove it: I will suppose, that, in the foregoing computation of 1,200,000 houses, there may be 100,000 at several times uninhabited; it would not be reasonable to expect that they should pay duty, whilst they remain such.

Next, I would fix upon 500,000 houses, which we may suppose inhabited by the lowest and poorest sort of people; from these I would expect no duty, that thereby their labour might become so much the cheaper, and the goods, which are the produce of their labour, might, by this means, be sold at as low, or even a lower rate, than can be afforded by other nations; for I do not know any country in Europe where the poorest do not pay some tax or other; whereas, by the present scheme, those of this kingdom would be absolutely free.

After this deduction of houses, there will still remain 600,000, which are to pay the whole duty, not including parochial charges, or the poor's rate, which, being things of a different nature, belonging to every parish in particular, are not comprehended in the general scheme, but are left as they were.

Let us see now, whether from these 600,000 houses may not be raised a sufficient revenue to answer the uses of the public: but, before we enter upon this, we must compute a little what the public really wants. I would be understood to make this computation, on supposition that providence may soon be pleased to bless us with an honourable peace, that, the interest of the house of Austria being once effectually settled, we may not in haste be under a necessity of intermeddling so much again with the affairs of the continent, and be driven to find out funds for such immense sums of money as have lately been raised, and (to the great detriment of the nation) partly spent abroad.

The question therefore is, what are the exigencies of the state in times of peace?

- I. His majesty's civil list, amounting to - - - 1,800,000
- II. Interest money to discharge the public debt, } 2,000,000
near, but not quite
- III. Money for the current service of the year - - - 2,200,000

In all 1,5,000,000

In order to raise this money, I would propose, that a duty of 10l. a year should be laid upon every house, which, upon the 600,000 houses, would amount to 6,000,000 l.

That I do not mean the same sum of 10l. to be laid upon every single individual house, I presume every body will understand; I suppose only, that so much money may be raised upon the whole.

There will be a difficulty in fixing the proportion for each house, but this difficulty might be got over by the government's procuring an estimate of the respective rent of these houses. And as the inhabitants would, by this means, be discharged from paying any duties whatever, but such as are merely parochial, they would have no reason to complain, if such an estimate was made: for I believe they would find, that there would be a considerable saving to every family, by paying one duty only, in lieu of the many which they now pay.

The method I would point out for collecting this duty is, that every house in England which is either let for, or inhabited by its owners, worth 200l. a year, or upwards, or where the inhabitant is in possession of a real estate of 1000l. a year, or more, let the house he liveth in be great or small, should pay 10l. and that all houses may be ranged in their several classes, the lowest at 5l. and the middle ones in proportion, with the addition of real estates annexed to them. This is, in general, my notion of laying this duty.

Thus 6,000,000l. might be easily raised; and as the government, by the above computation, wants only 5,000,000l. there would be an overplus of 1,000,000l. This 1,000,000l. therefore, together with what may hereafter be saved by the reduction of interest (which I have likewise in my present view) I would propose should be applied to the sinking fund*, towards discharging the national debt: and I am persuaded that the plenty of money would soon of itself occasion a reduction of interest, without any force or compulsion.

* Sir Matthew did not seem to be aware, that, if all other taxes are taken off, and his general fund substituted in their stead, the sinking fund would cease.

The same sinking fund would have a very considerable addition, if the legislature should think fit to charge all the houses in Wales and Scotland, which have not been yet mentioned (after the same deduction of those inhabited by the poor) with the half of what those in England pay; which must amount to a considerable sum; for, according to the best account, there are in Scotland about 250,000 houses, and in Wales above 150,000. If all this was faithfully laid out in clearing the public debt, it would be surprizing to see how much it would be lessened in the short space of 10 or 12 years.

If in future times the public should want to raise a greater sum for the current services of the year, it might easily be procured by adding, for every million they wanted, one sixth part upon every house; and such an addition would be raised within the year, a thing greatly desirable by every body, and the want of which has been the cause of our present debt.

Before I dismiss this subject, I think it incumbent upon me to remove one objection, which may probably, and with some shew of reason, be made, viz. that, by thus securing six millions to be annually raised for any determinate number of years, we shall make it unnecessary to have a session of parliament every year; and, since this would be apparently detrimental to the subject, as it might prevent redress of grievances, and tend to make the crown more independent on the people than is consistent with the constitution, I would propose (in order to obviate this inconvenience) that only 6l. on a house should be fixed, to be certainly raised every year, and the remaining 4l. should be annually granted by parliament, for answering the exigencies of the current year, in the same manner as the land and malt-tax are at present granted.

And now give me leave modestly to hint what I would have the legislature do towards the furtherance of this scheme.

I would humbly propose, that the parliament should, first of all, in the most solemn manner, engage itself, that, if ever there should be a deficiency in the duty upon houses, the interest should, previously and before any thing else, be faithfully paid to the several proprietors of the public debts, for which the whole revenue should stand engaged.

Next I would have them provide, that all acts of parliament which ever passed, and laid any duty whatsoever; all penal laws, either upon goods imported or goods now under the burden of excise, and, consequently, all forfeitures to be levied by any of the said acts; should be repealed.

The only act which I would have remain in force, is that most glorious bulwark of our trade, the act of navigation; and even here I would have a small alteration made, the present practice being a hardship on the subject, by which many an innocent person has suffered wrongfully: I mean in relation to the clause by which owners of ships are liable to forfeiture for crimes committed by masters or sailors, which they themselves know nothing of, or, if they did, would not be able to hinder. This is the only alteration which I think requisite; for, supposing that clause to be left out, I look upon this act as the best which ever passed for the benefit of trade.—So far Sir Matthew Decker.

REMARKS upon the whole of this article of FUNDS.

Before we conclude this article of the funds, it may be proper to observe, that, under the article of DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] it is said a sinking fund of 1,200,000l. inviolably applied to the payment of the public debts, would have discharged 50 millions of debts in 25 years and a half; and that, if the nation had contracted a fresh or new debt of the said sum of 1,200,000l. annually upon new funds, provided for the payment of interest of these new loans, the nation would have been less in debt by the sum of 19,400,000l. But my meaning having been misapprehended by some worthy and ingenious gentlemen, it may be necessary to explain myself further upon this matter.

The reader, therefore, is desired to remark, that I am there speaking of the efficacious operation of the sinking fund, provided it had been annually and inviolably applied to the payment of the public debts. And if it be true that a sinking fund of 1,200,000l. invariably applied (interest reckoned at 4 per cent.) would have discharged 50 millions of debt, and the nation had even borrowed the same sum of 1,200,000l. by a new-contracted principal debt, upon new-appropriated funds for the payment of interest, and the interest was duly paid for such principal debts, it is very obvious, we apprehend, that the nation could be no more principal money in debt at the end of 25 years and a half, than 25 times and one half the said sum of 1,200,000l. which is 30,600,000l. and this sum, being deducted from 50 millions, leaves the sum of 19,400,000l. which the nation would have been less in debt of principal money; because it is taken for granted upon this supposition, that the interest was duly paid by new funds, raised annually for that purpose, for the new-contracted principal debt: and, if the interest be duly paid, that interest-money cannot be reckoned as a principal money-debt at the end of the said 25

years and a half, when the nation does not owe one farthing of it.

The plain question is, What the nation is really indebted of principal money at the end of 25 years and a half, provided it invariably applies a sinking fund of 1,200,000l. to the discharge of 50 millions of debt, and borrows annually the same principal sum of 1,200,000l. where interest is annually provided for by new-appropriated effective funds? But if the simple interest, paid from year to year, or half-yearly, &c. may be reckoned, by an objector, as a new principal debt, when the nation does not really owe one shilling thereof, the interest of that interest may, with equal reason be added to that aggregate, and swelled into a principal money-debt, at the end of the said term; all which is quite beside the question.

The attentive reader will easily discern, by connecting what is here said with what has been also said under the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] that, if the nation invariably applies a sinking fund of 1,200,000l. to the payment of the present national debt, and is under the necessity to contract annually a new debt, upon new loans of no more than one half of the said sum of 1,200,000l. the old national debt will be much sooner discharged, and the nation ever after in a certain situation to pay off all its debts gradually, from this principle; for if, after the first old debt shall be absolutely discharged, and all the funds appropriated for the same annihilated, the nation would be enabled to establish a new sinking fund for the payment of the new-contracted debt: and if, during the progress of payment of the new-contracted debt, the necessities of the state required still a further new-contracted debt, if the nation borrowed less from year to year than it paid off, all our debts and taxes would nevertheless be in a certain state of redemption, and the public credit thereby wonderfully upheld. So that we may very clearly discern, that, if the funds of this kingdom were once happily bottomed upon the system of paying off old debts, only by the means of contracting one half the quantity of new debts, by new loans,

our funds would ever remain in a sure and certain state of redemption. Moreover,

By this system of diminishing of old debts, by the means of contracting of less new debts, the nation will, from time to time, ever have it in its power to shift the tax-funds, so as to lay the easiest upon the people, and to be of the least burden possible to our trade, if they need be of any at all.— These are the happy effects of preserving an unincumbered sinking fund, to pay off old debts, by the means of contracting new gradually, less in quantity than what shall be paid off: and, by such an established system of borrowing one half, or three quarters of the same sum paid off, by new debts upon new loans, the public creditors would never be great sufferers by the thus gradual payment of old debts, because they would gradually find a market for their money in the contracting of new debts; and from the easement of commerce, by shifting of the tax-funds, as before submitted, and opening every channel of trade that shall be possible, the national trading capital will be so augmented, as to find constant employment for all the money the nation can raise! and, by this means, gradually convert the whole principal money-debt into a kind of a live-trading national stock: which will enable us to drive every branch of trade on for the lowest profit, and thereby prevent other nations supplanting us in whatever branches of trade we judge proper to preserve. But it is well enough known, that my opinion upon RAISING ALL SUPPLIES that may hereafter be necessary, is, that they ought to be raised WITHIN THE YEAR, without the further increase of our public debts*; though when I wrote upon that subject, I never thought, I must confess, that the SUPPLIES raised would ever have rose to so high a pitch as they did in the last war. For more matter on this head, see the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT,] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS,] MERCANTILE ACCOMPTANSHIP, TAXES.

* See POSTLETHWAYT'S GREAT-BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued.

F E E S—See our article FEES in particular, for the table thereof at the Custom-house.

—Goods not paying 20s. custom, whether inwards or outwards, to pay but half fees.

—For butter, corn, grain, meal, and other goods which may be exported free, carried to or from any place within the port of London, to be 3s. 5d. and such goods to pass by transire, without cocket or bond. 1 Ann. cap. 26. § 1.

—For corn not exceeding 50 quarters, or hops not exceeding 50 bags, to be 1s. 8d. $\frac{1}{2}$. 1 Ann. cap. 26. § 2.

—For a cocket or certificate outwards, to be paid in one sum to the officer granting the same, Rule 25th, at the end of letter A, signed Harbottle Grimstone, speaker of the house of commons.

—In other ports than London, to be such as were taken in the 4th year of the reign of Jac. I. till otherwise settled by parliament. Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

—In London, copies of the Table of fees, and of the order of the house of commons, establishing the same, to be set up to public view in the Custom-house, in such places where the fees are received. Ditto.

—Payable to the officers of the customs in any port.

—For a port entry, when the custom is under 5s. nothing; exceeding 5s. and under 40s. 6d.; above 40s. the same fees as for the prime entry.

—But one fee to be paid by British, for his own goods entered at one time in one ship, though the duty be distributed into several offices.

—The merchants are to pay for weighing all goods short entered above 10s. custom; but if duly entered, not to be at any charge.

—Goods in partnership to pass as the property of one person.

—Societies or companies of merchants, trading with a joint-stock, and entering a whole ship's cargo inwards, in one entry, the officers may take such gratuity as they shall voluntarily give them.

—Unlawful fees exacted by officers; penalty, loss of em-

ployment, and incapacity to hold any office in the customs for the future, and to be liable to double costs and damages. Rule 24, at the end of letter A. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 34.

—Legal, not paid, dispatches may be stopped. Ditto.

—None to be paid for foreign coin and bullion inwards and outwards.

—Nor for diamonds, precious stones, jewels, and pearls, inwards and outwards.

—None to be paid for goods under the value of 5l. in the book of rates, paying for subsidy 5s. or less. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

—Not for corn exported, nor corn debentures. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. § 2. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 44. § 1. and 7 Ann. cap. 11. § 2, 10.

—Not for gunpowder debentures or certificates. 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. § 1.

—Nor for salt debentures. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. § 13.

—Nor for the premium or naval stores. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. § 18. and 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. § 11.

—Nor for any entry, warrant, debenture, certificate, cocket, &c. in relation to the one-third or two-third subsidies only, upon forfeiture of 40l. for each duty, one third to his majesty, and two thirds, being costs of suit, to the party grieved. 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 9. § 4. and 3 & 4 Ann. cap. 5. § 3.

—Nor for passing debentures for goods chargeable with any additional duties, more than was before payable for debentures, for repayment of the half subsidy; nor any fee for any oath administered upon this act. 4 & 5 W. & M. cap. 15. § 15.

F I S H—taken or imported by strangers, may not be dried within Great Britain, to be sold, upon forfeiture, or the value, to any person that will seize the fish, or sue for the value; to be applied to the repair and maintenance of the port, &c. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. § 6.

—Herring, cod, pilchards, salmon, or ling, fresh, salted, dried, or bloated; grill, mackerel, whiting, haddock, sprats, codfish,

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued.

colefish, gullfish, congers, any sort of flat-fish, and any sort of fresh-fish, may not be imported in any foreign ship into, or sold in England, having been taken by, bought of, or received from foreigners, or out of a foreigner's ship (except protestant strangers inhabiting this kingdom) upon forfeiture thereof, and the ship and tackle; and also 100 pounds by every offender herein. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. § 16. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. § 2. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. § 13. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 1. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 1.

—Except eels, stockfish, anchovies, sturgeon, botargo and caviar, and lobsters or turbot, which may be imported in any ship, and by any person, whether of British or foreign catching. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 10.

—Masters of fishing-smacks, hoys, &c. bringing in fish of foreign taking, &c. are to forfeit 50 pounds. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 2. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 1.

—But prosecution must be commenced within 12 months after the offence committed. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 9. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 2.

—The forfeitures above may be recovered by any informer, in any of the courts in Westminster-hall, and distributed, one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the parish where the offence is committed. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 1.

—Herrings, pilchards, scads, codfish, ling, hake, salmon, or dried red-sprats, by whomsoever caught or cured, may not be imported, unless oath be made before the salt-officer, by the owner of the fish, or master of the vessel, that all the salt wherewith they were cured, was taken on board in Great-Britain, mentioning the time and place; and that no drawback was, or is intended to be obtained for the same, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 14. and 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 14. § 13.

—Herrings, white or red, to be packed in lawful barrels, justly and exactly laid by sworn packers, who are to brand the cask with a mark denoting the gauge, quantity, quality, and condition of the herrings, and the place where packed. Magistrates neglecting to appoint and swear such packers yearly, forfeit 100 pounds. 15 Car. II. cap. 16. § 1. and 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8.

—Herring barrels to contain 32 gallons. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. § 15. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15.

—Salmon barrels to contain 42 gallons. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15.

—Herrings and Salmon, exported in barrels of any other size (except half-barrels) not entitled to the bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15 & 16.

—Pilchards, exported, the words SEYN or DRIFT must be burnt with an iron, in some visible part of the cask or hog-head, with the name and surname of the owner, and the number of pilchards contained in each; upon forfeiture of double the value of the fish. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 31.

—Pilchards, scads, codfish, ling, hake, red or white herrings, exported from Great Britain, the exporter to make oath before the principal officer of the port, that they were British taken, and really exported for parts beyond the seas, and not reloaded or intended to be reloaded in Great Britain.

—The salt-officer is to pay the debenture within 30 days after demand, or, if he has not sufficient money in his hands, to give a certificate thereof gratis, and without delay, upon penalty of the forfeiture of double the sum to the party grieved; and upon such certificate, the commissioners of excise upon salt are chargeable with the payment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

—But if exported from Scotland, to be paid by the commissioners of excise or customs there, at the option of the merchant. Ditto.

—Laws in force in either kingdom, for preventing frauds in curing and packing of fish, extended to Scotland. Art. 8. 5 Ann. cap. 8. § 1.

—Codfish, ling, or hake, before laid on board for exportation, part of the tails to be cut off; and pilchards, scads, herrings, salmon, or sprats, the barrels or casks to be marked by the salt-officer. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 16. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 6. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

—Such fish, after exportation, fraudulently reloaded, or reimported, are forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 17. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

—Such fish and congers, not well cured, or unmerchantable, not entitled to any bounty. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 25. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

—After such fish are put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign ports, may not be taken out, unless to be put into the ship wherein they are to be exported; nor landed in Great Britain, except in the presence of the salt-officer: upon forfeiture thereof, and the vessel, with her tackle and apparel, and 20 pound by every person concerned, or six months imprisonment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 23.

—The former allowance or bounty on exportation, granted the 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 7. the 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 31. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. 1 Ann. cap. 11. 5 Ann. cap. 8, and 29. 7 Ann. cap. 11. is taken away. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 1.

—The present allowance or bounty, and the regulations

of exportation. See the conclusion of the second volume of this work.

—Officers refusing or neglecting to pay the bounty due on exportation, or to certify the want of money to the commissioners, are to forfeit double the sum of the said bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

—White herrings fraudulently reloaded, forfeited, and 20s. per barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 7.

—Duly entered and shipped for exportation, lost or spoiled before the ship proceeds on her voyage, upon due proof on oath, to enjoy the same bounty as if really exported; provided the fish was sunk in the sea or port, where the ship was lost or destroyed, in sight of the proper officer, where any of the said fish shall come on shore, and that no use be made of the fish by the proprietor or his agent; and the officer is to cause the fish to be burnt, or otherwise destroyed. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 8.

—Red herrings or sprats, consumed in curing, to be taken as if actually cured. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 10.

—Salmon and codfish cured in Scotland with foreign salt, that has paid the duty, to be allowed the same bounty on exportation, as was payable before June 24, 1719. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. § 42.

—White herrings cured with British or foreign salt, may be imported from Scotland into any port of England, for home-consumption, the importer paying at the port to which they are brought, 3s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 gallons, and so in proportion for half or quarter barrels. Also salmon, cod, ling, tusk, and other white fish, cured with salt made in Scotland, for which the duty hath been paid or secured, may be so imported for home-consumption, and the importer, paying at the port to which the same shall be brought 2s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 gallons of such fish wet, and 1s. 2d. for every hundred weight of such fish dry; and so in proportion for a greater or less quantity. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 7 and 8.

—Herrings, salmon, cod, ling, tusk, or other white fish, may be imported from any place of Scotland, or the islands thereunto belonging, to any port of England, for re-exportation, the owner of the fish, or master of the vessel, making oath that they were caught in North-Britain, or on the coasts thereof, and cured with salt, delivered duty free, from some part of Great Britain, and when and where the same was so delivered: and such fish shall be entitled, upon exportation, to the same allowance and bounties, as by 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. are allowed on exportation of fish cured in England, and be subject to the same rules and regulations. See last page of Vol. II. of this work. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 9, 10.

—Such fish shipped in Scotland for England, whether for home consumption or exportation, the proprietor or his agent must, before the vessel departs, make an entry, with the collector or principal officer of the customs there, of the fish so shipped, expressing the number of barrels of wet fish, with the mark and numbers; and the number and weight of each species of the dry fish; and declare on oath, that the said fish were cured in Scotland, or on the coasts thereof, and whether they were cured with salt delivered duty-free, or with salt for which the duty has been paid or secured; and that the said salt was taken on board from some port or place in Great Britain, and when and where it was put on board, and that no drawback for the same hath been had, or intended to be had, upon the exportation of the said salt. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 12.

—The said officer is to deliver to the master of the vessel, without delay, fee, or reward, a certificate or cocket, under his hand, that such entry and oath have been made; and the master of the vessel, or the proprietor of the fish, or their respective agents, are, before landing any part of the said fish, or putting it on board any other ship or boat, in any other port or place in England, to deliver the said certificate or cocket to the proper officer of the customs in the port of importation, upon forfeiture of such fish and double the value thereof, and also the casks or vessels in which such fish shall be found; to be recovered of the importer, or proprietor, or master of the vessel. To be sued for, and levied in such manner, and with such power of mitigation, as any fine, penalty, or forfeiture, may, by any law of excise, or by any action of debt, &c. and seizure may be made by any officer of the customs or salt duties, &c. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 12.

—Any person, who shall counterfeit, raze, or alter, any certificate or cocket required by this act, or knowingly use such a one, shall incur the pains by law inflicted on persons found guilty of forgery; and any person legally convicted of falsely making oath required by this act, shall forfeit 200 pounds, and be imprisoned for 12 months. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 14, 16.

—A master of any boat or vessel, bound on a fishing-voyage to the North-sea, or Iceland, may take on board, in any part of Great Britain, any quantity of British salt, paying or securing the duty. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 2.

—Codfish, ling, or hake, may be imported and landed, upon oath being made, by the proprietor of the fish, or master of the vessel, that they came from the North-seas, or Iceland, and were caught or cured there: but on landing, and before they are removed from the shore, they are to be tendered to the officer, to have part of the tails cut off, that no allowance be obtained

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued.

obtained upon exportation; upon forfeiture thereof, and double the value, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 3.

—Foul salt, so made use of, remaining, to be thrown overboard, in presence of the officer. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 4.

—Salt remaining unused, to be entered, and the duties paid down within ten days after the ship's arrival into port, otherwise forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the proprietor or master of the vessel (except in case of being driven in or detained by stress of weather, or other unavoidable necessity. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 5.

—The master of such boats or vessels, upon producing the certificate aforesaid to the collector of the salt duties, and making oath to the quantity of salt in such certificate, and that the fish were cured and tendered as above, is to receive gratis, from the said collector, a certificate of the payment of the duty of the remainder of the salt, being produced to the collector of the salt duties where the duty was paid or secured, the security is to

be discharged, and the money repaid by the collector, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 6.

—Boats or vessels having taken in such salt, perished at sea, or taken by enemies, the proprietor, upon proof at the quarter sessions for the county, &c. where he inhabits, within 9 months after such loss, is to receive a certificate of such proof; which being produced to the officer where the duty was paid or secured, the security is to be discharged, and money repaid by the officer, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 7. Vide HERRING FISHERY.

FLESH—viz. beef and pork, entitled to a bounty; before laid on board for exportation, the casks to be marked by the salt officer. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 8.

—After exportation, fraudulently reloaded, or re-imported, forfeited, and 40s. per barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 29.

—The allowance and bounty, vide last sheet of Vol. II.
FORFEITURES—See the business of the customs, the latter end of letter I, INFORMATIONs.

G.

G A L

GABEL, according to the French duties of customs, is a tax upon salt.

The gabel-duty is farmed, and makes the second article in the king's revenue.

There are three farms of gabels; the first comprehends the greatest part of the kingdom; the second is that of the Lyons and Languedoc; and the third that of Dauphine and Provence. There are several provinces exempt from the gabel, having purchased the privilege of Henry II.

This tax had its rise in France, in 1286, under Philip the Fair. Philip the Long took a double per livre on salt, by an edict in 1331, which he promised to remit when he was delivered from his enemies, and which he did accordingly in 1345. King John resumed it in 1355; and it was granted the dauphin in 1358, to ransom king John. Charles V. made it perpetual; Charles VII. raised it to 6 deniers; Lewis XI. to 12; and Francis I. to 24 livres per muid: it has been greatly augmented since. Philip de Valois first established granaries and officers of the gabelles, and prohibited any persons from selling salt: from which time the whole commerce of salt, for the inland consumption, has lain only in the king's hands, who sells the whole thereof by his farmers of the revenue.

The produce of this duty is computed to be no less than one fourth part of the whole revenue of the kingdom.

GALICIA, a kingdom in Spain, is washed on the west by the ocean; on the north by the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biscay; on the east it borders upon Asturias and Leon; and on the south upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the sea by the river Minho.

It produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle, especially hogs, whose bacon far exceeds that of Westphalia; strong mules, good horses, though not large: but is most famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. The country is by its situation one of the coldest in Spain; but is well sheltered by its mountains, which also afford them plenty of firing, and timber for building houses and ships, as they did formerly produce great quantities of gold, silver, and other metals; but those mines are at present either exhausted or neglected, and only some few of marble, which is here excellent, are now minded.

GALLOONS, GALLIONS, or GALLEONS, are a part of the ships employed in Spain, in the commerce of the West-Indies. The Spaniards send yearly two fleets; the one for Mexico, which they call the flota; the other for Peru, which they call the galloons. See the article **FLOTA**.

Don Sebastian de Covarrubias, in his treatise of the Spanish tongue, observes, galeasse and galleon take their name from a galley, though they are stronger vessels, and not so swift, but better to endure the sea, because of their highdeck. Afterwards the charge increasing, it was found necessary to lessen the number; so that in the ordinances of the hiberia [See **HI-BERIA**] or duty for convoys, it was established there should be 12 men of war and 5 tenders fitted out annually, for the armada of galleons; 8 ships, of 600 ton burthen each, and 3 tenders, one of 100 tons, for the island Margarita; and 2, of 80 each, to follow the armada. For the New Spain fleet, 2 ships, of 600 tons each, and 2 tenders, of 80 each; and, for the Honduras fleet, 2 ships, of 500 tons each: and, in case no flota happened to sail any year, 3 galloons and a tender should be sent to New Spain for the plate.

This was the regular method; but, on occasion of war, it has been altered. In the year 1630 it was ordered there should be 20 galloons; in 1634 there were 16, and in 1638 they were fixed at 15. As the number has increased in time of war, so it has diminished in time of peace; accordingly, in 1653, there were but 4 galloons and 2 tenders.

The galloons were appointed to be out in January, that they might coast along the Firm Land, and come about the middle of April to Porto-Bello, where, the fair being over, they might take aboard the plate, and be at Havanna with it about the middle of June, where the New Spain fleet would soon join them, and they might come together safer to Spain:

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to which end, the viceroy of Peru was to take care that the plate should be at Panama by the middle of March: the plate is 15 days carrying from Potosi to Arica; eight days generally from thence, by sea, to Callao, and 20 from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Paiza and Truxillo.

To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has happened, it was proposed to fit the galloons in the river of Seville, in August and September, and then send them away to Cadiz, whence they might sail with any wind, and need not wait for spring-tides.

The reasons wherefore it was judged necessary that the flota from the Firm Land should sail in September were, because that was a safe season to ship off the goods; they came to Porto-Bello at a healthy time of the year; the merchandize was conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate, and with less danger of damage; the merchants had time to sell their goods; the buyers a fit time to travel to Peru with safety; and the armada's and flota's to return to Carthagena and Havanna, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the best month for the sea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is the fittest for the fleets to sail; and, though accidents retard them till October or November, yet that season is fitter than March.

By the king's orders, the galloons have put into other ports than those before mentioned, as Lisbon, Corunna, Malaga, Gibraltar, and others, where the plate has, for the most part, been conveyed by land to Seville.

Though it is requisite in general that the galloons, flota's, and all ships whatsoever bound for the West-Indies, are to set out from St. Lucar, and return to that port, yet there is an ordinance that the galloons, flota's, and any other ships whatsoever, for the time to come, set out for the West-Indies from the port of Bonanca of St. Lucar de Barrameda; and return to it, on pain of 6000 ducats plate, to be paid by the admiral, captain, or owner of the ship that should do the contrary: which sum is to be levied immediately upon their arrival.—They are also declared incapable of going that voyage again, and the ships of being employed in that trade; and they are also constrained to go to St. Lucar without unloading; it being referred to further examination to inflict heavier punishments.

Though this inhibition is so severe, yet ships may be forced into the bay of Cadiz by stress of weather. By reason of many misfortunes that happened in getting over the bar of St. Lucar, it was established in 1665, that no ship be admitted to sail to the West-Indies that exceeds 18 cubits in breadth, and 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, which, allowing half a yard to a cubit, makes, of our measure, 27 feet in breadth, and 12 feet 9 inches in depth.—Another ordinance, in the year 1621, expresses that they be not above 550 tons burden. See the article **GAUGING** of Ships.

These ordinances are now out of date, the galloons and flota being appointed to sail for Cadiz, by reason of the great burden of the ships. There has been more strictness observed, as to the returns of the fleets, by reason the concern was greater, as the preventing the running of silver and gold, and defrauding the hiberia, or duty of convoy, and the king's other duties; and therefore, as well as for the security of the port, in time of war, ships that have put into Cadiz, have always been obliged to resort to St. Lucar, without unloading. Before we quit this point, it is to be observed, that, as Cadiz is a place of access, so it is of no security, being an open bay, exposed to the winds, and no less to enemies; but that called Bonanca at St. Lucar is a secure harbour, being inclosed on all sides, and subject to no danger but in the entrance.

By the laws and ordinances appointed for the well governing the armada's and galloons, it is forbid making any cabbins or hen-coops on the quarter-deck, or over the round-house, or keeping any sheep or swine there.

R E M A R K S.

In the year 1513, a council of commerce for the Indies was

erected in Spain, and the house where they sat in Seville was called La Casa de Contractacion, for regulating this trade. In 1556 a royal court of justice was also erected, for determining all disputes about that commerce, and all other things relating to it.

By virtue of these regulations, and their being strictly observed, the state of the trade is punctually kept up to the first intention, and is, perhaps, the best regulated commerce in the world. Some, among others, of those prudent and politic regulations, are as follows :

1. No ships are allowed to go to any of the king of Spain's dominions in America, without special licence from him, which licences are directed out at this court, or chamber of commerce, at Seville.
2. No foreigner is allowed to go to the said New Spanish dominions in America in any of the said licensed ships, upon any terms whatsoever, whether to settle in the said West-Indies, or only to trade there, Irishmen only excepted, and these to be all Roman Catholics.
3. No person whatever, though he were a Spaniard born, and the king of Spain's subject, can go to the Spanish West-India dominions without special licence to be obtained at the said contractation office.

Besides these fundamentals, there are certain limitations to the number of ships, and the quantity of goods ; that is to say, the tonnage or burden they shall carry, which is always in the breast of the aforesaid council of commerce, because the quantity of goods sent should not exceed the demand, and, consequently, glut the markets, and also abate the price and the profits of the trade * : likewise it is regulated there, at what times the several fleets of ships shall go out, and to what several places, and when they shall be obliged to come away, in order to their return.

* This seems to be a very wise regulation.

It is also regulated, that all the silver, gold or jewels, which shall be brought over, for whose particular private interest so ever it be, shall be registered and entered into the ship's books of every ship, and likewise in a general register in the port from whence the ships come, where also it is to be seen, and duplicates thereof are transmitted to the council at Seville. Some particular goods are not permitted to be loaden in Old-Spain in any of the ships, though these ships are licensed to go, these goods being reserved to the king to export thither in his own name, or to give licence to others to do it ; without which licence the said goods are forfeited, if taken.

The gallions may be increased in number, as the king or the council of commerce see fit. They go from Old Spain to and from Carthagen and Porto-Bello, and no where else. How often or seldom the gallions go out, the next fleet of gallions never go out till the last are returned.

The other ships that sail from Old Spain to New, are the flota, and Azoga ships. See those articles.

The gallions, on their return, go to the Havana, where they meet with the flota ; and then beating through the gulph of Florida till they come to the height of St. Augustine, or, perhaps, to South Carolina, they steer away for Old Spain. Some have attempted to make calculations of the magnitude and value of the trade between Old Spain and New ; and, if the account taken out of the registers of the said council of trade may be depended on, it is a prodigy in itself, nor can we venture to vouch the truth of it : for they tell us, according to the registers of the council of commerce from the year 1519 to the year 1619 inclusive, being the first hundred years of the trade, the value entered or registered, besides all private trade, was 5000 millions in gold, silver, pearl, jewels, and other merchandizes, though, for the first 20 years, very little was brought : so that it may be called rather 80 than 100 years.—There is now passed about another century ; and, if the former account is true, we are certain that the amount must have been considerably more within the last hundred years.

But, as the merchandizes that have been thus sent from Old Spain to New, have been considerably more for the account of the various other trading nations of Europe, this has tended to the enriching of other nations, rather than Spain.—But the commercial system of Spain seems now to be intirely changed ; and they are likely to become greater gainers by Spanish America than ever they were.—See the articles SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA.

GASCONY, the most south-west principality of France, is bordered on the east by Armagnac ; on the north by Bazadois ; on the west by part of the sea of Biscay ; and by Bearn on the south.

It consists of the territories of Landes, Chalosse and Tursan. **DAX**, or **ACQS**, the capital city of Landes, drives a good trade, by means of the river, which falls into the ocean about nine leagues below it, and its neighbourhood to Spain.

ST. SEVER is reckoned the capital city of Gascony. They trade here in wine, which they send to Dax and Bayonne.

GAUGING. In cask-gauging the officers ought to follow the most approved authors on that subject. The method which universally obtains, and is indeed the best for common use, is to reduce the cask to a cylinder of equal content ; and

this is done by considering what is called the variety of the cask. If you suppose a cylinder inscribed in any cask, and another cylinder circumscribed about the cask, there will be a cylindrical space included between the superficies of the two cylinders, the diameter or thickness whereof is equal to the difference between the bung and head diameters of the cask ; now the curvature of the staves of the cask takes in a certain proportion of this cylindrical space ; which is greater or less, according as the curvature, bend, or bulging of the staves is more or less ; and this is what determines, and is called, the variety : viz. first variety, if very much bulging ; second variety, if less, and so on. It is therefore evident, that the diameter of the inscribed cylinder may be increased, so as to take in a portion of the interjacent cylindrical space equal to that taken in by the curvature of the staves of the cask ; and then the cask and increased cylinder will be equal in content. The diameter of the inscribed cylinder is the head-diameter of the cask ; the thickness of the cylindrical space is equal to the difference between the bung and head diameters. All the difficulty, therefore, lies in determining what portion of this difference we must add to the head diameter of the cask, in order to obtain the diameter of the mean cylinder, or the cylinder of equal content.

Now experience shews, that, if $\frac{7}{10}$ of the difference between the bung and head diameters of any cask be added to the head diameter, the cylinder whose diameter is equal to this sum, and whose length is equal to the length of the cask, will contain as much or more than that cask, though the staves of the cask have the greatest degree of curvature that is ever given to them.

And as the difference between the bung and head diameters of casks is seldom very great, the contents of a cask whose staves are quite straight from bung to head, or of a cask made up of two equal frustums of two equal cones, will generally be nearly equal to the contents of a cylinder, whose diameter is equal to the sum of the head diameter of the cask, and a little more than half the difference between the bung and head diameters, and whose length is equal to the length of the cask. Therefore all the varieties whereof casks are capable lie between $\frac{7}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$ of the difference between the bung and head diameters : and all that a gauger has to do, is to take such a part of the difference between the bung and head diameters (but always between $\frac{7}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$) as his judgment and experience tell him suits best with the curvature of the cask ; this, added to the head-diameter, gives the diameter of the mean cylinder.

I think it not amiss to note here, that the difference between the bung and head diameters may be very great, and yet the cask have no bulging at all ; for the bulging is the bend, or curvature of the half stave between the bung and head. Mathematicians give us abstruse theorems for computing the contents of casks, founded upon a supposed resemblance between the curvature of the cask and that of an ellipsis, parabola, or hyperbola ; but they may be as much mistaken in judging of the curvature, as an experienced gauger between $\frac{7}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$: for, after all, the contents of casks cannot be determined to a mathematical exactness, because the forms of casks do not exactly answer to any mathematical figures. The business of gauging is at best but guess-work ; but it is such a way of guessing as comes near enough to the truth for the common purposes of life.

I thought these observations properly belonged to the article I am upon, and might help to illustrate and explain the method of cask-gauging, and remove that heap of hard words under which the rationale of it lies pretty much concealed at present. The rest I leave to the authors who have treated the subject ex professo.

Let me add here such decimal multipliers, for the difference between bung and head diameters, as have been found by experience to be the truest, and best suited to the several varieties or curvatures of casks.

First variety, or staves very much bulging - .7 or 695
 Second variety, or staves not so much curved - .65 or 63
 Third variety, or staves still less curved - .6 or 56
 Fourth variety, or staves almost straight - .55 or 51

EXAMPLES of the practical methods to gauge casks, both by pen and sliding-rule.

R U L E.

Take the difference of the bung and head diameters of any cask, and multiply that difference by the number which stands against the name of the cask given in the following table : add the product to the head diameter, so will the sum be the diameter of a cylinder (which, being of the same length with the given cask, will contain as much) square the diameter thus found, and multiply that square by the length, and divide that product by 359 for beer gallons, and 294 for wine.

The multipliers for a cask, which is taken for varieties.

The middle frustum $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \text{ Of a spheroid} \quad .7 \\ 2. \text{ Of a par. spind.} \quad .63 \\ 3. \text{ Two conoids} \quad .56 \\ 4. \text{ Two cones} \quad .51 \end{array} \right. \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Greatest bulge.} \\ \text{Next less.} \\ \text{Next less to that.} \\ \text{Next less to that.} \end{array} \right.$

G A U

E X A M P L E.

Let a cask be taken as the middle frustum of a spheroid, let the bung diameter be 32 inches, the head 26, and length 50 inches: what is the content in beer and wine gallons, according to this rule?

Bung's diameter 32 inches
 26

Difference is 6
 Multiplied by .7 as in the table

4.2
 Add the head diameter 26

The mean diameter 30.2
 Multiplied by itself 30.2

604
 906

912.04
 Multiplied by the length 50

Divided by 359)45602.00(127 beer gallons
 And divided by 294)45602.00(155.1 wine gallons.

More examples of this kind would be superfluous; for what is said of a cask taken as the middle frustum of a spheroid, may be understood of the other three, only, instead of multiplying the difference of the diameters by .7, as above, you must use .63, .56, or .51, according to the denomination of the cask you are to gauge.

To gauge casks by the sliding-rule.

Upon the side of the sliding-rule is placed a line of inches, and under it the three first varieties of casks, viz.

The middle frustum of a spheroid,
 The middle frustum of a parabolic spindle, and
 The middle frustum of two conoids.

The use of these lines is, to reduce a cask in any of the before-mentioned forms to a cylinder; for which purpose you may observe the directions following:

E X A M P L E.

Let a cask be given to be gauged, in the form of the middle frustum of a spheroid, having the same dimensions as before, viz.

Bung 32 inches }
 Head 26 inches } What is the content?
 Length 50 inches }

First subtract the head from the bung, and in this case you will find the difference to be 6 inches; find this difference in the line of inches, and against that (in the line for the first variety) you will find 4.2; which add to the head diameter, viz. 26, and the sum will be 30.2, the mean diameter of an equal cylinder.

Then set 18.94 (the gauge-point for cylinders) on D to the cask's length, viz. 50 upon C, then against the mean diameter, viz. 30.2 on D, you will find 127 on C, which is the content of the cask in beer gallons.

For wine.

Set 17.14 on D, to the cask's length, viz. 50 on C; then against the mean diameter, viz. 30.2 on D, you will find 155.1 on C, the content in wine gallons required.

To find the ullage of a standing cask.

R U L E.

Divide the wet inches by the cask's length, and, if the quotient exceeds .5000, add to the said quotient one-tenth part of the excess; but, if it be under .5000, subtract one-tenth part of the want; so will the sum, or remainder, be a decimal number, by which if you multiply the content of the vessel, the product will be the quantity of liquor therein.

E X A M P L E.

Length 50 inches,
 Content 155.1 gallons,
 Wet 18 inches.

Length 50)18.000(.3600 this wants .1400 of 5000
 .0140 is one-tenth part of 1400

The remainder .3460
 Cask's whole content 155.1

3460
 17300
 17300
 3460

Liquor in the cask 53.66460

G A U

To find the ullage of a lying cask.

R U L E.

Divide the wet inches by the bung's diameter; if the quotient be above .5000, add to it one-fourth part of the excess, but, if it be under .5000, subtract one-fourth part of the want; so will the sum, or remainder, be a decimal number, by which if you multiply the content of the vessel, the product will be the quantity of liquor therein.

E X A M P L E.

Bung 32 inches,
 Content 155.1 gallons,
 Wet 09. inches.

Bung 32)9.000(.2812 this wants .2188 of .5000
 (.0547 is one-fourth of .2188

Remainder .2265
 Content of the cask 155.1

2265
 11325
 11325
 2265

Liquor in the cask 35.13015

E X A M P L E II.

Bung 32 inches,
 Content 140 gallons,
 Wet 23 inches.

Bung 32)23.0000(.7187 this exceeds .5000 by .2187
 (.0544 is one-fourth of .2187

The sum .7731
 Whole content 140
 309240
 7731

Liquor in the cask 108.2340

Note, If the quotient proves under .2000, or above .8000, instead of one-fourth part, add or subtract one-fifth part.

E X A M P L E.

Bung 32 inches
 Content 140 gallons,
 Wet 04. inches.

Bung 32)4.000(.1250 this wants .3750 of .5000
 (.0750 is one-fifth of .3750

Remainder .0500
 Whole content 140

20000
 500

Liquor in the cask 7.0000

If the cask you are to ullage be a cylinder, or near that form, the preceding rule will be very near the truth; but, if the bung-diameter be much greater than the head-diameter, then, instead of one-fourth part (as above) you must add or subtract but one-third part, and multiply the sum, or remainder, by the content, so will the product be what is required.

E X A M P L E.

Let the content of a cask that bulges much be 136 gallons,

Bung 31 inches,
 Wet 11 inches.

Bung 31)11.0000(.3548 this wants .1452 of .5000
 (.0484 is one-third of .1452

Remainder .3064
 Whole content 136

18384
 9192
 3064

Liquor in the cask 41.6704

To ullage casks by the sliding-rule.

To answer this purpose, you have two lines of segments, which are noted at the right end with Seg. ly, and Seg. ft, which signifies a line of segments of a lying cask, and a line of segments for a standing cask. To these lines belong a line of numbers, marked at the right end with N: the uses of which are as follows:

E X A M P L E.

G A U

E X A M P L E.

Let a cask be in the form of the middle frustum of a spheroid,

Whose bung is 30 inches,
Content is 136 gallons,
Wet is 10 inches.

1. Set the bung-diameter, viz. 30 upon the line of numbers, to 100 on the line of segments; then against the wet inches, viz. 10 on the numbers, you will find 27.4 on the line of segments, which keep.
2. Then set 100 on B, to the cask's content, viz. 136 on A, then against the number last found, viz. 27.4 on B, you will find 37 gallons on A, and so many gallons are now in the cask.

EXAMPLE of a standing cask.

Length 46.5 inches,
Content 138 gallons,
Wet 17.5 inches.

1. Set the length, viz. 46.5 on the line of numbers, to 100 on the line of segments standing; then against the wet inches, viz. 17.5, you will find 36.5 on the line of segments, which keep.
2. Then set 100 upon B to the cask's content, viz. 138 upon A; then against the number last found, viz. 36.5 on B, you will find 50.5 gallons on A; and so many gallons are now in the cask.

A T A B L E, shewing (by weight) the quantity of gallons any cask of spirits contains, from one gallon to a tun.

C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal.	C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal.	C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	ga
7	12			1	4	1	24	12	61	8	1	13	12	121
15	8			2	4	1	4	8	62	8	1	21	8	122
23	4			3	4	1	12	4	63	8	2	1	4	123
1	3			4	4	1	20		64	8	2	9		124
1	10	12	5	5	4	1	27	12	65	8	2	16	12	125
1	18	8	16	6	4	2	7	8	66	8	2	24	8	126
r	26	4		7	4	2	15	4	67	8	3	4	4	127
2	6			8	4	2	23		68	8	3	12		128
2	13	12	9	9	4	3	2	12	69	8	3	19	12	129
2	21	8	10	10	4	3	10	8	70	8	3	27	8	130
3	1	4	11	11	4	3	18	4	71	9	7	7	4	131
3	9		12	12	4	3	26	12	72	9	15			132
3	16	12	13	13	5	5	2	23	73	9	22	12		133
3	24	8	14	14	5	5	13	8	74	9	1	2	8	134
1	4	4	15	15	5	5	21	4	75	9	1	10	4	135
1	12		16	16	5	5	1	1	76	9	1	18		136
1	19	12	17	17	5	1	8	12	77	9	1	25	12	137
1	27	8	18	18	5	1	16	8	78	9	2	5	8	138
1	1	7	19	19	5	1	24	4	79	9	2	13	4	139
1	1	15	20	20	5	2	2	4	80	9	2	21		140
1	1	22	12	21	5	2	11	12	81	9	3	3	12	141
1	2	2	8	22	5	2	19	8	82	9	3	8	8	142
1	2	10	4	23	5	2	27	4	83	9	3	16	4	143
1	2	18		24	5	3	7	12	84	9	3	24		144
1	3	25	12	25	5	3	14	12	85	10		3	12	145
1	3	5	8	26	5	3	22	8	86	10	11	8		146
1	3	13	4	27	6	6	2	4	87	10	19	4		147
1	3	21		28	6	6	10		88	10	27			148
2		12	29		6	6	17	12	89	10	1	6	12	149
2		8	30		6	6	25	8	90	10	1	14	8	150
2		16	4	31	6	1	5	4	91	10	1	22	4	151
2		24		32	6	1	13		92	10	2	2		152
2	1	3	12	33	6	1	20	12	93	10	2	9	12	153
2	1	11	8	34	6	2	1	8	94	10	2	17	8	154
2	1	19	4	35	6	2	8	4	95	10	2	25	4	155
2	1	27		36	6	2	16		96	10	3	5		156
2	2	6	12	37	6	2	23	12	97	10	3	12	12	157
2	2	14	8	38	6	3	3	8	98	10	3	20	8	158
2	2	22	4	39	6	3	11	4	99	11				159
2	3	2		40	6	3	19		100	11		8		160
2	3	9	12	41	6	3	26	12	101	11	15	12		161
2	3	17	8	42	7	7	6	8	102	11	23	8		162
2	3	25	4	43	7	7	14	4	103	11	1	3	4	163
3		5	4	44	7	7	22		104	11	1	11		164
3		12	15	45	7	1	1	12	105	11	1	18	12	165
3		20	8	46	7	1	9	8	106	11	1	26	8	166
3	1	8	4	47	7	1	17	4	107	11	2	6	4	167
3	1	8	4	48	7	1	25		108	11	2	4		168
3	1	15	12	49	7	2	4	12	109	11	2	21	12	169
3	1	23	8	50	7	2	12	8	110	11	3	1	8	170
3	2	3	4	51	7	2	20	4	111	11	3	9	4	171
3	2	11		52	7	3	7		112	11	3	17		172
3	2	18	12	53	7	3	7	12	113	11	3	24	12	173
3	2	26	8	54	7	3	15	8	114	12		4	8	174
3	3	6	4	55	7	3	23	4	115	12		12	4	175
3	3	14		56	7	3	3		116	12		20		176
3	3	21	12	57	8	8	10	12	117	12		27	2	177
4		1	8	58	8	8	18	8	118	12	1	7	8	178
4		9	4	59	8	8	26	4	119	12	1	15	4	179
4		17		60	8	1	6		120	12	1	23		180

G A U

C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal.	C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal.	C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal.
12	2	2	12	181	14	20	12	205	15	3	10	12	229	
12	2	10	8	182	14	1	8	206	15	3	18	8	230	
12	2	18	4	183	14	1	16	207	15	3	26	4	231	
12	2	26		184	14	1	24	208	16		6		232	
12	3	5	12	185	14	1	32	209	16		13	12	233	
12	3	13	8	186	14	2	3	210	16		21	8	234	
12	3	21	4	187	14	2	11	211	16	1	1	9	235	
13		1		188	14	2	19	212	16	1	9	4	236	
13		8	12	189	14	2	27	213	16	1	16	12	237	
13		16	8	190	14	3	6	214	16	1	24	8	238	
13		24	4	191	14	3	14	215	16	2	4	4	239	
13	1	4		192	14	3	22	216	16	2	12		240	
13	1	11	12	193	15		1	217	16	2	19	12	241	
13	1	19	8	194	15		9	218	16	2	27	8	242	
13	1	27	4	195	15		17	219	16	3	7	4	243	
13	2	7		196	15		25	220	16	3	15		244	
13	2	14	12	197	15	1	4	221	16	3	22	12	245	
13	2	22	8	198	15	1	12	222	17		2	8	246	
13	3	2		199	15	1	20	223	17	1	10	4	247	
13	3	10		200	15	2		224	17		18		248	
13	3	17	12	201	15	2	7	225	17	1	25	12	249	
13	3	25	8	202	15	2	15	226	17	1	5	8	250	
14		5	4	203	15	2	23	227	17	1	13	4	251	
14		13		204	15	3	3	228	17	1	21		252	

GAUGING of ships in SPAIN.

1. Under the same head which treats of the builders and building of ships, in the abridgment of the laws, there are several relating to the gauging of ships: one of which ordains, that there be a gauger and measurer of ships belonging to the India-House, who is to have 20 crowns a month salary. In Spain the custom is to reckon the contents of a ship by tons, each ton being the bigness of two pipes, or eight cubical cubits, measured by the royal straight cubit of 33 inches, such as a vara, or yard of Castille, has 48; or, as it is vulgarly expressed, of two-thirds of a yard of Castille, and one two-and-thirtieth part of the two-thirds. The standard of this cubit is kept in the India-House, as is that of the yard of Castille at Burgos, that of wine-measure at Toledo, that of the peck and bushel at Avila, and so of others. This measure of a cubit was formerly used, but was of several lengths; for, as Covarrubias writes, there was a cubit of six handfuls, another of a foot and a half, and another literally taken, which was from a man's elbow to his hand, which some pilots have made use of in founding the bar, which was forbid in the year 1666, and they were all ordered to make use of the royal cubit, sent them for that purpose, made and marked by the cosmographer instrument-maker of the India-House.

2. For many years the visitors measured the merchant-ships, and some persons, appointed by the president and commissioners, the men of war; afterwards it was found convenient there should be a gauger, and accordingly the employment has been distinct ever since.

Of some of the principal particulars relating to gauging of ships, extracted from the ordinances of Spain.

3. It is there declared, that there are five principal parts in a ship to be considered as to its dimensions, which are, the length upon deck, from the stern-post to the stern, the breadth at the deck, the depth, the length of the keel, and the breadth in the hold: for, before that time, they only took notice of the three first of these five dimensions, but since they are ordered to take not only the five, but also the narrow of the ship both at head and stern, and the middle distance between the breadth and narrow at both ends; and the owners are to have certificates of the same from the superintendent, overseers, or comptrollers of the docks; or, where there are none, from the magistrates, to be drawn by the clerk of the common-council of the place, that by those measures the council may compute the burden; and, in order to it, the directions are as follows:

4. The breadth is to be taken from starboard to larboard, upon the upper superficies of the main deck, in the clear, from side to side, whether the said deck be in the broadest part of the ship, or above or below it.
5. The height is taken from the main deck, in the same part where the breadth was measured, to the flooring at the bottom of the hold, without taking up the planks at the bottom of hulks, or other vessels, built abroad, to thrust the pole down to the timber, unless there be any false floor, which shall be opened close to the pump, to lay open the bottom plank, and, laying a board on it three fingers thick, the measure shall be taken there.
6. The length of the ship on the deck is to be taken from the stem to the stem-post, along the deck, in the clear, without including the thickness of any timbers in the head or stern, but from plank to plank.
7. The breadth in the hold is taken directly under the place where the breadth was taken on the deck.
8. The length of the keel, when the ship is upon the stocks, or carening, is taken from the points where the prow and poop

poop begin to be formed; but, if the vessel be in water, the ordinances appoint a method of taking it on the inside, which has much of geometry and arithmetic, and therefore seldom used by the gauger.

9. Though the five principal dimensions are sufficient to work gauges by, whilst the superficies of the breadth, both on the deck and in the hold, diminish, or grow narrower, towards head and stern, according to the known and settled proportions, yet, when these vary, the computation must be altered. And it being rare for ships to diminish, or narrow away so regularly, the ordinances have, therefore, appointed how to adjust the difference, in case ships vary in proportions, and settled the matter in respect to a ship that is 16 cubits in breadth, which is to narrow a cubit in that part which is one-fourth part of the length on the deck, from the broadest part towards the head; and two cubits in the fourth part of the same length, from the broadest part towards the stern; and half the breadth of the bottom of the hold, at the fourth part of the same length, from the superficies of the said broadest part of the bottom towards head and stern, which are the places where the ship sharpens, that the water may run the stronger to the helm; so that, if the greatest breadth at the bottom be eight cubits, each distance of these towards head and stern shall be four cubits wide. And to the end the true proportion may be observed in the aforementioned lines, and frauds prevented, it is appointed, that when a vessel is gauged, the measure of the lines along the upper or lower superficies be taken at equal distances from the place where the widest part is found, and that they be the fourth part of the length upon deck from it, and the same in the bottom, observing the direction given for taking the greatest breadth both above and below.

And, to try whether the two lines measured parallel to the line of the greatest breadth are to be multiplied by 15, and the product divided by 16, and if the quotient, or fourth number, give the cubits found in the line measured towards the head, then it bears a due proportion to the greatest breadth; but, if it produce more or less, the overplus or deficiency must be set aside. The greatest breadth shall also be multiplied by 14, and the product divided by 16; and, if the quotient be the number of cubits found towards the stern, the proportion is right; if not, what is over or under must be noted, and the cubits of half the greatest breadth of the said ships shall be divided by 8; and for every one of these 8 parts that is wanting in each of the four numbers of the two rules of three, to make up the cubits found in each of the said two lines, there shall be added one and half in the hundred, to the burden or bulk assigned by the rule of gauging; and, for every one of the said eight parts, the same four numbers exceed the cubits found in each of those same lines, there shall be one and a half abated of what the rule allows.

10. As for the two narrow parts, the ordinance directs, that the two lines taken in the narrow of the hold be tried, to see what proportion they bear to the broadest part; and, if each of them makes half the line in the broadest part, they are right; if not, the cubits of the broadest part shall be divided by 8, and, for every eighth part each of the said lines shall fall short of half the broadest part, there shall be one and a quarter in the hundred abated of what the rule of gauging allows, and as much added for every eighth part there is over.

11. Having given these rules as to the dimensions, the ordinances direct how to cast them up three several ways. The first, and most used by the gaugers, is thus: if the breadth of the ship in the bottom of the hold be half the breadth upon deck (let the length above and below, and the depth be what it will) the whole number of cubits of the one is to be multiplied by half the cubits of the other, and the product by half the sum of the length upon the deck and along the keel, which will produce the content in square cubits, and that divided by 8 will give the content in tons. But, if the breadth in the hold be more, it is to be computed as above has been shewn; and the difference between that bottom breadth, and half the breadth above, shall be deducted, and, subtracting this sum from that which ought to be the aforesaid half, the said difference shall be multiplied by half the cubits of the height, and the product hereof by half the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together; and that sum, if the breadth in hold be more than half that on the deck, shall be added, or deducted, if it be less, and there will remain the content.

The second way is, when the breadth in hold is more or less than half the breadth upon deck, the difference be subtracted, and the half of it deducted from the cubits of the breadth upon deck, if the half of it be more than the breadth in hold, or added, if less. When this is added, or subtracted, what remains of the breadth upon deck is to be multiplied by half the depth, and the product by half the sum of the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together.

The third way is, that when the ship, either great or small, has the breadth in hold equal to half the breadth upon deck, three fourth parts of the breadth above be added to half the breadth below, and the product multiplied by half the depth, and that again by half the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together, and it will produce the same as the other

ways. Which is to be understood, when all other dimensions are regular; so if they vary, the difference must be adjusted, as has been mentioned before, and shall be demonstrated.

12. The ordinance declares, that either of these three methods above mentioned stands good, when the deck is in the broadest part of the ship; but, if the breadth be above it, there must be 3 per cent. deducted for every half cubit; or, if the breadth be below, so much must be added; to which purpose, the broadest part of the ship is to be observed; and when the whole sum of what the said three in the hundred amounts to, is added or deducted, five in the hundred are to be deducted, for the space the masts and pumps take up, and the remainder will be the clear content in merchant-ships; but, if they are gauged for men of war, and to be hired for that use, there must be 20 in the 100 added for all the space between decks, and in the stern and forecabin; for there is different regard had to merchantmen and men of war, for, in the latter; all is considered that is for strength and use, but, in the former, only that part which serves for stowage, and is called the hold.

13. Though we have set down the rules for taking the gauge of a ship, yet it being difficult to practise the same, by only reading the method and instructions prescribed, we have thought it would not be amiss to give an example of the manner of working this question; the instance shall be from the galloon S. Joseph, which served for some years as admiral of the armada, or navy for securing the navigation to the Indies, and afterwards as vice-admiral to the royal navy of the ocean.

14. The galloon S. Joseph was 21 cubits in breadth upon the first deck, 10 cubits and a half in the hold, 10 in height; the broadest part of it was in the hold three quarters of a cubit below the deck; 60 cubits in length by the keel, 72 and two thirds along the deck, 20 and three quarters at the half was from the broadest part towards the head, 18 and a half at the half way from the broadest part towards the stern, and 14 and one sixth in the narrowings at the bottom of the hold, half way towards stern and stern. Now working by the whole breadth at the deck, because the breadth at the bottom of the hold is just half, the 21 cubits of the breadth above are multiplied by 5, which is half the depth, and produces 105 cubits; these again multiplied by 67 and one third, which is the half of 134 cubits, and two thirds the length of the keel and upon deck, 7070 cubits. Adding to this sum 318 cubits, and 15 hundredth parts, to be allowed at the rate of 4 and half in the hundred, for three quarters of a cubit breadth, there is in the hold, under the first deck, more than upon it where the dimensions are taken, after the rate of three in the hundred for every half cubit, as is appointed by the last ordinances; which same ought to be deducted, if the greater breadth were above the deck. Adding these two products, the total is 7388 cubits and 15 hundredth parts, and there being five in the hundred to be deducted for all the room the timbers take up in the hold, and 20 in the hundred to be added for all the space betwixt decks in forecabin and poop, as is appointed by the ordinances, it turns to the same account, to avoid tedious working, to add to the last product 14 per cent. the said 14 per cent. make 1034 cubits 34 hundredth parts, which, added to 7388 and 15 hundredth parts, make the sum total of 8422 and 49 hundredth parts, produced by the dimensions, and the breadth of the ships under the deck more than upon it.

The ordinances direct, that the proportion for 16 cubits breadth, in the widest place upon the deck, be 15 cubits breadth, half way from that towards the head, and 14 cubits half way towards the stern; this being known, we must add together the twenty cubits, and three quarters this galloon had in breadth, half way from the greatest middle breadth towards the head, and 18 and half at the half way towards the stern, and they make 39 and a quarter: then say, if 16 cubits, in the greatest breadth, give 20 cubits, that is, 15 half way forwards, and 14 half way towards the stern, what should 21 the great breadth of this galloon give? The answer is 38 cubits and $\frac{1}{2}$, which is the due proportion to its greatest breadth. Now, because this galloon had 34 cubits and a quarter, in the two dimensions half way forward, and half way towards the stern, the aforesaid 38 cubits and $\frac{1}{2}$ are subtracted, and the difference is one cubit and $\frac{3}{8}$, which this galloon was bigger in those parts than the true proportion: then say, if 1 and $\frac{3}{8}$ come of the eighth part of half 21 cubits, the greatest breadth of this galloon, and gain 1 and $\frac{1}{2}$ in the hundred, what will one cubit and $\frac{3}{8}$, this galloon was bigger than the proportion, gain? The product is 1 cubit and $\frac{1}{2}$, which must be multiplied by the last product of 8422 cubits and 49 $\frac{49}{100}$, and gives 114 cubits and $\frac{25}{100}$, the product of one and a half per cent. for the eighth part of half the greatest breadth; which, added together, make 8536 cubits and $\frac{3}{8}$. The greatest breadth, at the bottom of the hold, is 10 cubits and a half, which are subtracted from 14 cubits and $\frac{1}{2}$, the breadth of the narrowing of the ship in the hold, half way towards the head and stern, and the remainder is 3 cubits and $\frac{3}{8}$, which the said narrow parts are together more than the widest: then take the eighth part of 10 cubits and $\frac{1}{2}$,

the greatest bottom breadth of this galloon, and the product is $1 \frac{2}{3}$, and if these yield $1 \frac{1}{4}$ per cent. what will 3 cubits and $\frac{2}{3}$, the excess of bigness of the lesser breadths over the greatest? and I find the 3 cubits and $\frac{2}{3}$; these are multiplied by the last product 8536 cubits and $\frac{2}{3}$, and it gives 298 cubits and $\frac{10}{100}$, which two sums added, make 8834 cubits and $\frac{17}{100}$, which, divided by 8, give 1104 tons, and $\frac{21}{100}$, the fraction being the third part of a cubit, the content of the said galloon, according to the given dimensions, as appears by the following demonstration:

Cubits produced by the five dimensions of the breadth on the deck, and in the bottom of the hold, the length upon deck, and along the keel, and the depth	}	8104 $\frac{22}{100}$
Cubits for the breadth, being more in the hold than upon the deck		
Cubits for the excess of the narrowing upon deck, half way towards stern and stern, above the proportion	}	114 $\frac{26}{100}$
Cubits for the excess of the two narrow parts, half way forward, and towards the stern, at the bottom of the hold, above the breadth of the widest part		
		8834 $\frac{17}{100}$
	Tuns	1104 $\frac{21}{100}$

To avoid the trouble of so many fractions as occur in casting up of gauges, the best way is to reduce the cubits of every dimension into inches, such as 33 make a royal cubit, so adding, multiplying, dividing, and subtracting under that denomination, and then the total sum produced is to be divided by 35937, the inches of a cubical cubit, and the product will be royal cubits, which, divided again by 8, will give the tons of the ship gauged.

15. The salary allowed at first to the gauger was 20 ducats a month, which soon after was cut off, and no salary allowed, but only that the person employed, who was therefore either the cosmographer or pilot of the India-house, when he was sent to gauge any ship, should have a present allowance for his trouble, which was only proposed by the president and commissioner of the India-house, but never practised, and he that is now gauger serves the place without any salary, being at the same time chief pilot of the India-house.

The laws of England relating to GAUGING.

I. Stat. 27. Edw. III. stat. 1. cap. 8. All wines, red and white, which shall come into the realm to sell, shall be gauged by the king's gaugers; and, if any will not suffer the same to be gauged, he shall forfeit the wines, and be punished by imprisonment, and ransomed at the king's will; and, if default be found in the gauger, that he be not ready to do his office, when required, or that he do fraud in doing his office, to the damage of the buyer or seller, he shall pay the party grieved his treble damages, and lose his office, and be punished by imprisonment, and ransomed at the king's will; and, in case less be found in the tun or pipe than ought to be, the value of as much as shall lack shall be deducted in the payment.

II. Stat. 31. Edw. III. stat. cap. 5. If any sell a tun or pipe of wine not gauged, the seller shall forfeit the wine, or the value, to the king.

III. Stat. 4. Rich. II. cap. 1. All vessels of sweet wines of the Rhine, and of other wine, and other vessels of vinegar, oil, honey, and of all other liquors gaugeable, which shall come within this realm, shall be lawfully gauged; and, if any will not suffer the wines, &c. to be gauged, he shall incur the pain ordained by the other statutes.

IV. Stat. 14. Rich. II. cap. 8. None shall be distrained nor grieved in the Exchequer, nor elsewhere, for not gauging of wines of the Rhine, otherwise than has been done of old times.

V. Stat. 18. Hen. VI. cap. 1. sect. 1. Whereas every tun ought to contain 252 gallons, every pipe 126 gallons, every tertian 84 gallons, and every hoghead 63 gallons; from henceforth all tuns, pipes, tertians, and hogheads, as well of wine, as of oil, to be sold within the realm, shall be gauged by the king's gauger before they be sold, upon pain to forfeit to the king all the wine, &c. contrary sold, or the value. And, in case any person sell to any of the king's people, for any price in certain, any tun, &c. of wine, oil, or honey, which wanteth of the affize aforesaid, he shall abate of the price as much as such default shall amount unto, upon pain to forfeit to the king the value of all the wines, &c. contrary sold; any privy covenant to be made betwixt the seller and buyer notwithstanding: and every person that espieth any of the forfeitures aforesaid, and doth inform the treasurer or the barons of the Exchequer, shall have the half of the forfeitures.

VI. Sect. II. The gauger shall have for the gauging of every tun and pipe of oil and honey, as he hath of every tun and pipe of wine, and for every tertian and hoghead after that rate.

VII. Stat. 23. Hen. VI. cap. 16. The gauge-penny shall not

be paid to the gauger, till he or his deputies have gauged the wines, and then he to take his penny without increase; and he or his deputy shall be ready to do his office in all places, when required.

VIII. Stat. 1. Rich. III. cap. 13. No person shall bring into this realm any butt of malmsey to be sold, unless it contain at least 126 gallons, nor no vessels with wines, nor of oil, unless the same contain the affize following, viz. every tun 252 gallons, and every pipe 126 gallons, every tertian 84 gallons, and every hoghead 63 gallons, and every barrel 31 gallons and a half, and every rundlet 18 gallons and half; and vessels of wine and oil shall not be put to sale till they be gauged by the king's gauger, upon pain to forfeit to the king all the said wines and oil sold contrary to this ordinance, or the value. And in case any person sell to any of the king's people, for any certain price, any butt, tun, pipe, tertian, hoghead, barrel, or rundlet, of wine or oil, lacking of the affize, the seller shall rebate of the price to the buyer, as much as such lacking shall amount to, upon pain to forfeit to the king the value of all the wine and oil so sold; any privy contract to be made betwixt the buyer and seller notwithstanding.

IX. Stat. 28. Hen. VIII. cap. 14. sect. 5. All the statutes for gauging of wine, oil, honey, or other liquors, shall be put in execution.

X. Sect. 6. Every gauger shall truly, within the limits of his office, gauge all tuns, butts, tierces, puncheons, tertians, hogheads, barrels, and rundlets, and mark on the head of every vessel the content; upon pain to forfeit to the party, to whose use the wine, &c. shall be sold, four times the value of that which the vessel marked shall lack of his content; the same forfeiture to be recovered, besides costs, by original writ, &c. And every person selling the wine, &c. in the vessel marked, shall allow of the price, the value of the lack of gauge, or default of filling, upon pain of forfeiture to the buyer, double the value, to be recovered with costs as before.

XI. Stat. 31. Eliz. cap. 8. sect. 1. No brewer shall put to sale any beer or ale in vessels brought from beyond the sea, within the city of London, or suburbs of the same, or within two miles compass without the suburbs, before the same be gauged, and the true content of every such vessel set upon the same, by the gallon appointed for beer and ale, according to the standard by the master and wardens of the coopers of London; nor shall put to sale any beer or ale in any such vessels, in any other place within England and Wales, before the same be gauged, and the content set upon the same, by such as by statute 23. Hen. VIII. cap. 4. are to have the gauging of barrels, kilderkins, and firkins, made for beer and ale in such other place, upon pain to forfeit all such vessels, and the beer or ale therein contained, to them that will seize the same, and upon pain also to forfeit for every such vessel 10s. the one moiety of which forfeitures shall be to the queen, and the other moiety to him that will sue for the same. And there shall be taken for the gauging of every such vessel in London, and within two miles compass without the same, by the master and wardens of the coopers of London, for every butt one penny, for every pipe one penny, for every puncheon one halfpenny, for every hoghead one halfpenny, and for every tierce one halfpenny, and for every other vessel after like rates; and there shall be taken for the gauging of every such vessel in all other places, after such rates as are herein appointed to be taken within the city of London.

G E L D E R L A N D, a principality of the United Netherlands, bounded on the north-west by the Zuyder Sea, on the north by Over-Iffel, on the east by the bishopric of Munster, on the south by part of the dutchy of Cleves and Dutch Brabant, and on the west by the provinces of Holland and Utrecht. The air is much healthier and cleaner than in Holland, and the maritime provinces; and the soil in general fruitful in corn and pastures, and great droves of cattle are annually brought from Denmark to be fattened here.

This province is divided into three quarters, namely, those of Nimeguen, Arnheim, and Zutphen.

I. The quarter of NIMEGUEN is bounded on the north by that of Arnheim, from which it is separated by the Rhine; on the east by the dutchy of Cleves, on the south the Maefe parts it from Brabant, and it has Holland on the west.

NIMEGUEN, on the river Waal, is a large city. The citizens are addicted to trade, and make great profit by brewing of beer and feeding of cattle.

II. The quarter of ARNHEIM is bounded on the west by the province of Utrecht, on the north by the Zuyder Sea, on the east the Iffel divides it from Over-Iffel, and from the country of Zutphen; and on the south the Rhine parts it from the quarter of Nimeguen.

ARNHEIM, the capital of this quarter, is situated on the north bank of the Rhine.

WAGENINGEN is situated also on the Rhine. The chief riches of the inhabitants arise from their cattle, and the tobacco trade.

HARDEWYK stands on the banks of the Zuyder Sea. In the neighbouring woods they have such plenty of blue berries in the

the feason, which continues but six weeks, that the very freight of what they sell at Amsterdam, where they are much esteemed, amounts to 400 crowns.

III. The county or earldom of ZUTPHEN, has Gelderland, properly so called, on the west, Over-Iffel on the north, on the east the bishopric of Munster, and on the south the dutchy of Cleves.

ZUTPHEN, the capital of the earldom, on the eastern bank of the river Yffel, is a rich and populous city.

The country called the HIGH QUARTER of GELDERLAND, and PRUSSIAN GELDERLAND, though it does not entirely belong to the king of Prussia, has Dutch Brabant, and part of the bishopric of Liege, on the west; part of the dutchy of Cleves on the north; part of the same dutchy, and of the electorate of Cologne, on the east; and part of the dutchy of Juliers on the south; so that it is entirely divided from Dutch Gelderland.

GEMS, a common name for all precious stones or jewels.

The diamond, or adamant, is the hardest, and most transparent of all precious stones, as also the most simple and homogeneous; seeming to be, among stones, what gold is among metals. The pseudo-diamond is sufficiently pellucid, compact, and weighty, but not so hard, nor capable of the lustre and polish of the true. See DIAMOND.

Some naturalists divide them more minutely: bishop Wilkins, considering them in respect of their value, makes an intermediate kind, viz. middle-priced. He also divides them into more and less transparent, distinguishing these last, by their colours, into red, as the sardin and cornelian, &c. the more transparent into such as are colourless, as the diamond and white sapphire; and coloured, as the ruby, carbuncle, &c.

Dr. Woodward, considering them in another light, the value being arbitrary and extrinsic, divides them into those found in larger and in lesser masses; subdividing into such as do not exceed marble in hardness, and such as do. These last make the class of precious stones. He divides them more precisely into (1) Opake, which are either of one colour, as the turquoise; or of various, as lazuli and jasper. (2.) Semi-opake, of permanent colours, as the agate, chalcedony, &c. or varying, according to the position of light, as opal and cat's-eye. (3.) Transparent stones, coloured as the topaz, garnet, sapphire, &c. or uncoloured, as the crystal, white sapphire, and diamond.

Dr. Slare seems to make the specific gravity their adequate standard, as many bodies appear in all respects like stones, but want the necessary weight; such, e. gr. is chalk, and various other bodies, granted to be stones, some of them nearer to earths, and others nothing but earth, sulphur, and metal. Of the former many fall short of the standard of stone, and others exceed it: whereas true stones, says he, though differing in hardness, whether pebbles, flints, petrified waters, &c. answer the same standard of specific gravity as a diamond does; which is to that of water as $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1*.

* Philosophical Transactions, No. 182.

The hydrostatical balance, says Mr. Boyle, is of prime use in discerning genuine gems from counterfeit, which too often pass for true; for, as no qualities are more essential to bodies than their ponderosity, so there's scarce any more difficultly altered by impostors, without discovery. In several cases, indeed, 'tis not so; yet it may be impracticable to make any considerable alterations in the quality, without a sensible alteration in some other qualities, subjecting the cheat to a discovery.

Many authors are full of the virtues and medicinal properties of gems, but their reputation in this respect is a little fallen. Yet, as the fragments are still preserved by the physicians, in some of the most celebrated compositions, and as several candid and curious persons have related considerable effects of them, on their own observations, and lastly, as 'tis no way improbable the softer ones may operate on the body, they are not indiscriminately to be rejected.

On such considerations, Mr. Boyle wrote of the origin and virtues of gems, to shew that such stones were originally in a fluid state, or made of substances that were so; and that many of their general virtues are probably derived from the mixture of metalline, and other mineral substances usually incorporated with them: while the great variety and particular efficacy of their virtues arise from some happy concurrent substances of that commixture, e. gr. the peculiar nature of the impregnating liquor, the proportion in which 'tis mixed with the petrescent juice, and the like.

To support this hypothesis, he shews that many of them are not concretions of any petrescent liquors, but consist also of other mineral adventitious parts; which he argues from their separability in some stones, the specific gravity in others; and the different tinctures in gems of the same species, as rubies, sapphires, granates, and even diamonds, of which some are yellow, some of other colours, and some green, almost like emeralds. There may, therefore, be in some gems numberless adventitious corpuscles, some of which may be indued with several medicinal virtues, and many gems are richly impregnated with them. This is the substance of what is directly alledged in behalf of gems.

The stress of the objection is this. The mineral substances in them are so closely locked up, that they can have no medicinal operation, being unconquerable by so small a heat as that of the human body.

But there are several particulars which obviate this objection. For a vigorous load-stone, though frequently harder than many gems, is known to emit copious effluvia; and have sometimes had a manifest and inconvenient operation on the body, being wore in the pocket, or long held in the hand. Mr. Boyle has found many transparent pebbles, which when cut resembled diamonds, that would emit copious and strong-scented steams. And, if electrical attractions be owing to the effluvia of bodies heated by rubbing, very slight alterations may procure expirations from transparent gems, many of which are electrical, even diamonds, one of which Mr. Boyle kept by him, that upon a little friction would attract vigorously.

To the objection of their not being digestible by the heat of the stomach, it may be replied, we know not how far digestion is owing to heat. Nor is it proved they can have no operation without digestion, as we know not what analogy may be between some juices in the body and the mineral parts of the gems. And tinctures have been obtained from hard bodies without heat.

If it be objected, that 'tis unlikely they should part with any effluvia, as they lose none of their weight, it may be answered, that the antimonial cup imparts a strong emetic quality to wine or other liquors, without any sensible diminution of weight.

R E M A R K S.

Before we quit this subject of gems, as they are aggregates of the most perfect earth, it is to be observed, that a knowledge thereof depends upon two principal things, viz. their hardness and their colour.

Their hardness is commonly allowed to stand in this order; the diamond first, as most compact of all, next after which comes the ruby, then the sapphire, the jacinth, the emerald, the amethyst, the garnet, the carneol, the chalcedony, the onyx, the jasper; and these succeed the agate, porphyry, and marble. This difference, however, is not regular and constant, but frequently varies. Good crystals may be allowed to succeed the onyx, but the whole family of metallic glassy fluors seem to be still softer.

In point of colour, the diamond is valued for its transparency, the ruby for its purple, the sapphire for its blue, the emerald for its green, the jacinth for its orange, the amethyst carneol for its carnation, the onyx for its tawney, the jasper, agate, and porphyry, for their vermilion, green, and variegated colours, and the garnet for its transparent blood-red.

All these gems, as they are sometimes found coloured or spotted, along with their transparency, so are they sometimes perfectly limpid and colourless; in which case, the diamond-cutter or polisher knows how to distinguish their several species, from their different degrees of hardness upon the mill. For the cutting or polishing of gems, the fine powder of the fragments of those that are next in degree of hardness, is always required to grind and wear away the softer; but, as none of them are harder than the diamond, this can only be polished with its own powder.

Mr. Boyle has many curious observations upon this subject of gems, in speaking of a diamond that shone in the dark; where he finds that such diamonds are as left with small asperities or inequalities upon their surface, through an imperfection in the polishing, have all of them this faculty, viz. of shining luminous in the darkest place.*

* See Boyle's Abridgm. Vol. III. page 152—155.

As to the thing that gives the colour to gems, there are many different opinions, or rather bare conjectures. Thus much is certain, that, whatever it be, 'tis a real substance, or certain individual opake corpuscles, that variously reflect the light in its motion. But that this body should be copper, for instance, which gives the fine blue to the sapphire, or to lapis lazuli, because it gives the like colour to spirit of sal ammoniac, seems the less probable, as this colour does not absolutely depend upon the copper, but upon the property of the spirit united with it: for the same copper turns an acid spirit of a green colour, and with a glass sometimes make a green, sometimes a red, sometimes a blue, and sometimes a black. Upon no better foundation also stands that opinion of the garnet, as receiving its colour from iron, because iron exhibits such a colour in its glass; for iron does not produce such effects as it is iron, but as iron differently prepared; and such preparations thereof are no where to be found natural: for instance, the crocus martis made with vinegar*.

* See more of this apud Kunkel. in Neri Art. Vitrar. cap. 32—35. and Mr. Boyle of Gems, Abridgm. Vol. III. pag. 118, 119, 120, 126, 127, &c.

With respect to the making of artificial precious stones, see the heads of the several natural stones of that sort.

Upon

Upon knowing the different methods, says Mr Boyle, of producing the adventitious colours of metals and minerals in bodies capable of vitrification, depends the art of making counterfeit gems: for whilst pure sand, or calcined crystal, gives the body in their preparation, 'tis, for the most part, some metalline or mineral calx, mixed in a small proportion with it, that gives the colour. Calcined lead, fused with fine white sand, or crystal, reduced by ignitions and subsequent extinctions in water, to a subtil powder, will, of itself, be brought, by a due decoction, to give a clear mass, coloured like a German amethyst. But this colour may be easily over-powered by those of several other mineral pigments, so that with a glass of lead, you may emulate the fresh and lovely green of an emerald; though, in many cases, the colour which the lead itself, upon vitrification, tends to, may vitiate that of the pigment designed to appear in the mass. These colours also depend so much upon the texture of the materials, that we have made the glass of lead itself, composed of about three parts of litharge, or minium, fused with one of crystal, or sand, very finely powdered, pass through different colours, according as we keep it more or less in fusion. But the degrees of coction, and other circumstances, may so vary the colour produced, that, in a small crucible, I have had fragments of the same mass: in some of which, perhaps not so big as a hazle-nut, four distinct colours might be discerned.

Besides the three mentioned sorts of adventitious colours in metals, there may be others reducible under the same head, of which I shall instance only in two.

The first is afforded us from the practice of scarlet dyers. A most famous master in this art assured me, that neither he, nor others, can strike the lovely colour called the bow-dye, unless their materials be boiled in vessels of a particular metal. Secondly, metals will afford uncommon colours, by imbuing several bodies with solutions of them, made in a proper menstrua. Thus though copper, plentifully dissolved in aqua fortis, will communicate to several bodies the colour of that solution, yet some other metals will not, as I have often tried. Gold, dissolved in aqua regia, dyes the nails and skin, the hafts of knives, and other things made of ivory, not with a yellow, but a purple colour; which, though it manifest itself but slowly, is very durable, and can scarce ever be washed out. Thus we formerly said, that the purer crystals of fine silver made with aqua fortis, though they appear white, will presently dye the skin and nails, of a black not to be washed off like ordinary ink. And many other bodies may, in the same manner, be dyed, some of a black, and others of a blackish colour.

GENEVA REPUBLIC, exclusive of the city of Geneva, is but of a small extent, not containing above 11 parishes. The country in general is very fruitful and populous; it abounds with good fruit-trees, and produces wine, both white and red; the former small, the latter excellent. The only corn sowed here is wheat, which its soil bears in great plenty; and the republic constantly keeps a great magazine of it, against a time of scarcity, when they sell it out at reasonable rates, and at all other times sell it extremely reasonable.

The city of **GENEVA** is considerable for its situation, as well as its commerce, it being the key and the most flourishing city of Switzerland. Its manufactures are chiefly gold and silver lace, thread-lace, silks, shamoy leather, pistols, watches, and book-printing, of all which they have a good foreign trade. Dr. Burnet says, it is surprizing to see the learning there is here, not only among the professors of it, but the very magistrates and trading citizens are well versed in the Latin tongue, mighty well acquainted with history, and generally men of good sense.—Mr. Addison says, that here are merchants reckoned worth two millions of crowns, though, perhaps, not one of them spends 500l. a year.—He also says, there are three of the little council deputed for this office, who are obliged to keep together sufficient provision to feed the people at least two years, in case of war or famine; that they must take care to fill their magazines in times of the greatest plenty, that so they may afford them cheaper, and increase the public revenue at a small expence of its members. They must not, upon any pretence, furnish the granaries from their own fields, that so they may have no temptation to pay too great a price, or put any bad corn upon the public; and they must buy up no corn growing within 12 miles of the city, that the filling of their magazines may not prejudice their markets, and raise the price of their provisions at home.

The lake of Geneva is very remarkable; it is the largest in this part of Europe, and, perhaps, in Christendom, except Sweden and Muscovy. It is navigable by greater vessels than are ordinarily seen in rivers, which, by some, are called Geneva ships, by others the Rhone ships. This lake abounds with perch, and other excellent fish, especially trout, so large that they are often sent as presents to princes, and persons of the first quality.

GENEVA, a liquor commonly called **GIN**, a sort of compound spirit, which is so denominated, as being extracted partly from juniper-berries, &c. It is a liquor common in Holland and England.

R E M A R K S.

The Dutch have an incredible trade to Straelsund, Stetin, Colberg, Dantzic, Elbing, Koningsberg, Memel, Riga, Revel, Narva, and Petersburg, for their geneva, which is only a malt-spirit tinctured with the juniper-berry.—And it is said that the English have arrived to so great perfection in the making of malt-spirits, that they thereby surpass the Dutch in the article of geneva, and rival the French even in their brandies. See the article **DISTILLATION**. If so, we may hope for an increase in the exports of our malt-spirits of every kind, that less may be consumed at home, and more in other countries: for the Dutch buy large quantities of English malt for distilling, to supply other parts with their geneva.—It is scarce credible how this liquor is universally drank at this time in Muscovy and Poland; and why may not the English come in for a considerable share of this trade?

GENOA, a republic in Italy, whose territories lie in the crescent, on the Mediterranean Sea, for 150 miles from the town of Ventimiglia on the west, almost to the territory of the republic of Lucca on the east, and is called the Riviere, or coast of Genoa, their country no where extending 20 miles from the sea, and in some parts not 10: the Appenine Mountains in a manner cover it on the land side, and separate it from the countries of Milan, Piedmont, the Monferrat, the Milanese, and Parmesan. The tops of these mountains are perfectly bare, having neither trees or herbage upon them; but, towards the bottom, they are well planted with vines, olives, and other fruit; but the soil yields scarce any corn, and their sea not many fish.

GENOA CITY, the capital of this republic, is situate in 9 degrees 30 minutes east longitude, and in 44 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, part of it on a level strand near the sea, but rises gradually to the top of the hill. The harbour is large and deep, but exposed to the south-west wind, only there is a mole for the security of their gallees and small vessels, and the city lies pretty much exposed to a bombardment, as they experienced in the year 1684, when Lewis XIV. ordered the town to be beat about their ears. See the article **FRANCE**. There are here large quantities of silk manufactured, also velvets, tabbies, fattins, silver and gold brocades, &c. as likewise fine point, gloves, and sweet-meats, which are in great request, as well as their soap.

ST REMO is a small, but neat sea-port town, on the coasts of Genoa, and belonging to that republic, and esteemed a place of some importance. It stands on a fertile valley that produces vast quantities of oranges, citrons, olives, and other fruits, and particularly many plantations of palm-trees.

NOLI, NAULUM, NAULIUM, stands on a pleasant fertile plain, on the coast of Genoa, and was founded by the inhabitants of that metropolis, and those of Savona. It hath a very good harbour, and was once a free port, and very profitable to its citizens; but it hath since been stripped of that privilege, and much reduced from its ancient opulence, by the Genoese wars, since it hath been subject to their dominion.

SAVONA, OF SANA, stands on the west coast, about 10 miles to the north-east of Noli, and, next to Genoa, is the most considerable city in this state. It appears, however, to have formerly made a much nobler figure than it does now, it having had a very good haven, which brought no small trade thither, but which the republic hath caused to go to ruin, that the commerce of Genoa might not be impaired by it. Yet, here is a considerable silk manufacture carried on, and the place is famed for making the finest sweet-meats. The territory about it is very well cultivated, and produces great variety of fruits, particularly lemons, limes, and bergamots.

PORT ST MAURICE, is another of those places which the republic of Genoa has caused to be destroyed, to bring the greater trade to their metropolis; so that both it and the town are gone to decay.

R E M A R K S.

The trade of Genoa is in wrought silks, which was carried on here when all the silks made in the Milanese and the Mantuan were formerly negotiated here (that is, silks were bought here by commission from England and Holland) but this trade is extremely decayed, and both those countries are grown wise enough to employ their own people in the silk manufacture, and make the goods at home which were formerly bought here.

But there is another trade carried on here, in which the Genoese have so great a share, and have managed so well, that it is thought they have gained more by it than they did by all the commerce of the Milanese: this is, that they make most of the silks which they bought before, in their own little dominion, and employ their own subjects: and, as the trade they carry on in these goods to Lisbon and Cadiz is prodigiously increased, it is said they flourish more in these branches of it, than they did before with all the rest, not forgetting that they have still a considerable commerce with Holland, and some with England.

They

GEN

OPERATION.

2040 liras $3 \frac{1}{2}$ fols
 20

40803 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols, to be multiplied by
 673 marvedies the price of exchange.

122409
 285621

186 fols
 34 marvedies 244818

764
 558

6344

336 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the $\frac{1}{2}$ Quotient
 27460755 $\frac{1}{2}$ dividend (4342 rials, 10 marvedies, which, divided by 8, gives piaftres 542. 6 rials, 10 marvedies, old plate of Spain, for which the draught should be made upon Madrid.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the liras into fols, and take in the 3 fols. Multiply the product by 673 marvedies, the price of exchange, it will produce 27460755 $\frac{1}{2}$ for a dividend.—Multiply separately the fols in a crown mark, by the marvedies in a rial (34, and the quotient will give rials. The remainder 1947 $\frac{1}{2}$ multiply by 34, and divide the product by the common divisor, and it will produce 10 marvedies.—To reduce these rials into piaftres, you divide by 8, so many rials making a piaftre; and the quotient gives the piaftres, &c.

N. B. If what has been said, in relation to the preceding cafes, be attended to, the proof must be easy.

CASE VI.

The Exchange of GENOA upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 2000 liras, bank-money of GENOA, into piaftres, fols, and deniers of Leghorn, exchange at 39 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols per piaftre of Leghorn.

OPERATION.

2000 liras
 40 demi-fols

93 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols
 2 demi-fols

187, divisor
 427 . 16 fols, 2 deniers, for which the draught must be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 2000 liras of Genoa into half-fols, and the price of exchange likewise; and divide the former by the latter product, the quotient will give 427 piaftres; for the remainder 151, multiply and divide as directed in the foregoing cafes.—For proof attend also to what has been said.

CASE VII.

The Exchange of GENOA upon ROME.

To reduce 1500 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into Roman crowns of 10 julio's exchange at 102 fols per said crown.

OPERATION.

1500 liras, multiplied by
 20 fols

30000 fols, to be divided by the fols in the price of exchange, viz. (102) gives 294 Roman crowns, 1 julio, 1 rayoc, for which the draught upon Rome should be made.

INSTRUCTION.

The sum and price of exchange being reduced into the like denomination, the former is divided by the latter, and consequently gives the quantity of Roman crowns. For the remainder 12, multiply by 10 julio's, the value of the said crown, and divide by the same, it gives 1 julio, and, for the remainder 18, multiply and divide as before.—The reason, and proof hereof is so plain, that no further explication can be needful.

CASE VIII.

The exchange of GENOA upon VENICE.

To reduce 1800 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into bank ducats of Venice of 24 grosche, exchange at 103 marchetti, or fols of Venice, per crown current of 4 lira bank money of GENOA.

GEN

OPERATION.

1800 liras, $\frac{1}{4}$ of which is 450 crowns of 4 liras, to be multiplied by the - 103 marchetti of exchange.

1350
 4500

46350 To be divided by 124 marchetti, the value of a ducat, you will have a quotient of 373 ducats; 15 fols; for which the draught on Venice should be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Take the quarter of 1800 liras, and it will give 450 crowns of four liras. These multiplied by the price of exchange of 103 marchetti, and divided by 124 marchetti, the number contained in a ducat, you will have 373 ducats, bank money, and 98 for a remainder, which multiply by 20, and divide by the same divisor 124, it gives 15 fols; and for what else remains, multiply by 12, and divide as before, and you have the money to be received at Venice.

CASE IX.

The Exchange of GENOA upon NAPLES.

To reduce 1400 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into ducats, carlins, and grains of the kingdom of Naples, exchange at 82 fols of Genoa per ducat of 10 carlins.

OPERATION.

1400 liras, to be multiplied by
 20 fols

82)28000 fols, (341 ducats, 4 carlins, 6 grains reggio, for which the draught should be made upon Naples.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 1400 lira into fols, multiplying them by 20, the value of the lira, and divide the product 28000, by the price of exchange, (82 fols) you will have a quotient of 341 ducats. The remainder 38 multiply by 10 carlins, the value of the ducat, and divide by the said 82, it will produce 4 carlins, and 52 still remaining; which multiply and divide as before, it will give 6 grains: so that 341 ducats, 4 carlins, and 6 grains, are to be received for the draught at Naples.

CASE X.

The Exchange of GENOA upon MILAN.

To reduce 2500 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into livres, fols, and deniers, current money of Milan, exchange at 77 fols exchange of Milan for a crown of 4 liras bank of Genoa.

OPERATION.

106 fols exchange
 4 liras

2500 liras bank, multiplied
 by 77 fols exchange.

424 liras, for
 a divisor 17500
 17500

192500, to be multiplied
 by 7 : 6 fols current

1347500
 48125, for 5 fols the $\frac{1}{2}$
 9625, for 1 — the $\frac{1}{3}$ of 5

424)1405250 livres, for a dividend, will give 3314 livres, 5 fols, 4 deniers, current money of Milan, for which the draught is to be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 2500 liras, by the price of exchange of 77 fols of Milan, and the product 192500 fols, by 7 livres, 6 fols (because 7 livres, 6 fols, or 146 fols, current money of Milan, make 106 fols of exchange money;) divide therefore the product, 1405250, by the said 106 fols, reduced into liras, viz. by 424, because the exchange crown of Genoa is 4 liras, and you will have a quotient of 3314 livres, and a remainder of 124, which multiply by 20 fols, the value of the livres of Milan, and divide by the said divisor, it gives 5 fols, and a further remainder of 160; which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 4 deniers current; the sum to be received at Milan for the said 2500 liras of Genoa.

CASE

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CASE XI.

The Exchange of GENOA upon VIENNA.

To reduce 1200 liras, bank money of Genoa, into florins, kreutzers, and fenins of Vienna, exchange at 52 fols of Genoa, per florin, of 60 kreutzers.

OPERATION.

1200 liras, to be multiplied
by 20 fols,

by the price of exchange 52) 24000 fols, to be divided, will produce 461 florins, 32 kreutzers, 1 fenin; for which sum the draught should be made upon Vienna.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 1200 liras into fols, by 20, and divide the product 24000 by the price of exchange of 52 fols, and you will have the quotient 461 florins, with a remainder of 28, which multiply by 60 kreutzers, the value of the Vienna florin, and divide by the said divisor, it gives 32 kreutzers, and also a remainder of 16; which multiply by 4 fenins, the value of the kreutzer, and divide as before, you will produce 1 fenin; which sum must be received at Vienna.

CASE XII.

The Exchange of GENOA upon PALERMO.

To reduce 1700 liras, 12 fols, bank-money of Genoa, into ounces, tarines, and grains of Palermo, Sicily, exchange at 45 carlins, per crown mark of Genoa.

OPERATION.

1700 liras $\frac{2}{3}$ bank, to be multiplied
by the 45 carlins of exchange

186 fols	8500
3	6800
558 divisor	27 for the $\frac{2}{3}$ or 12 fols

558) 76527 dividend, (137 ounces, 4 tarines, 7 grains; for which the draught should be made upon Palermo, or Sicily.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the sum of 1700 liras, 12 fols, by the price of exchange of 45 carlins, the product 76527 will be the dividend; multiply also separately 186 fols, the value of the crown mark, by 3, the product 558 will be the divisor, which will give a quotient of 137 ounces, and a remainder of 81.— This multiplied by 30 tarines, the value of the ounce, and divided by the said divisor, will give four tarines, and another remainder of 198; which multiplied by 20 grains, the value of a tarine, and divided again by the same common divisor, it gives 7 grains; which sum must be received at Sicily. The reason for multiplying by 3 the 186 fols, which are the value of the mark, is because the ounce of Sicily is composed of 60 carlins, and the lira of Genoa of 20 fols, which is the $\frac{1}{3}$ of 60: the operation is expedited by this abridgment; without which, you must have reduced the sum into fols, by multiplying by 20, and multiplied afterwards the said 186 fols by 60, which is avoided by this abbreviation.

The USANCE of GENOA with regard to Bills of Exchange.

London is 3 months Lisbon, Cadiz, and Madrid, 2 months Amsterdam and Hamburg, 2 months Rome and Venice, 15 days Florence, Leghorn, and Milan, 8 days Naples, 22 days	}	From the date of the bills. Sight.
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They allow 30 days grace, after the expiration of the time of the bill, during which, the bearer may nevertheless protest the bill, and return it, if he will.

Of the Weights and Measures of Genoa.

Their measure is a cane, and that is of divers sorts, viz. for woollen, the cane contains 9 palms; another for linen, containing 10 palms; and a brace of 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ palms for silk. Genoese canes have been found to make 15 ells in Lyons. 100 Genoese canes make 328 ells of Holland, 245 $\frac{1}{4}$ yards in London, 392 ells in Leipzig, 438 ells in Breslaw, and 367 in Dantzic.

Their weights are as follow, viz. 12 ounces to a lb. 18 ounces to a rotello, 25 lb. to a reve, and 6 reve to a quintal.

GEN

100 lb. of Genoa make in Holland 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb.; in Lyons 77 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb; in London 73 lb; in Hamburg 68 lb; in Franckfort 64 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb; in Leipzig 70 lb; in Leghorn 96 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb; and in Venice 110 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb.

The Genoa weights for gold are reckoned thus: 24 grains to a denier, 24 deniers to an ounce, 8 ounces to a mark, of which 130 make about 100 pounds troy weight.

And 100 lb. troy weight is equal to 86 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of their weight of silver, wherein they reckon 12 ounces to the lb.

They sell their wine by the miserold, reckoning 2 barrels to a miserold, and 5 miserolds make a botta divina, which is about 100 pints.

Corn is sold here by the mina; 20 minas make a tun of 40 bushels, Winchester-measure.

Oil is sold by the barrel; 14 whereof make a tun of 236 gallons of London civil gauge.

Of simple Arbitration of the Exchanges, by Orders and Commissions, given and received by Draughts and Remittances between Amsterdam and Genoa.

EXAMPLE.

An order comes to Amsterdam, to remit to Genoa at 82d. and to draw upon London for the value at 34 : 4. When the order came to hand, bills for Genoa were at 85d. I would know at what price Amsterdam must draw upon London, to compensate the said loss by the remittance to Genoa?

33 4
85

166 8
2666 8

82) 2833 4 (34 6 $\frac{2}{3}$. The answer at 34 : 6 $\frac{2}{3}$
Amsterdam must draw upon London, to satisfy the loss upon the remittance from Amsterdam to Genoa.

373
45
12

82) 544 (6

52
8

82) 416 ($\frac{5}{8}$
6

Of compound Arbitration of Exchange.

Suppose Amsterdam has orders to remit a certain sum to Genoa. At the time of this order, Amsterdam can remit at 76 $\frac{2}{3}$ to Genoa, and London to Genoa at 41d. The query is, Whether it will be most advantage to Amsterdam to remit directly to Genoa, or to do it by the way of London, the exchange between Amsterdam and London being at 34 : 6, and what is the difference per cent.

If 1 crown be 41d. sterling.
20s. sterling be 34 : 6 Flemish.
How much Flemish will 1 crown cost?

34 : 6
41

1394
20 $\frac{2}{3}$

2) 1414 $\frac{1}{2}$

70 $\frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{5}{8}$

Then as 76 $\frac{2}{3}$: 100 : 70 $\frac{2}{3}$ to 92.182 decimals.

4	4	decimals
307	307) 283.00000 (92.182 decimals, which
	.670	subtracted from
	.560	100
	.2530	92.182, &c.
	.740	
	.126	

7.817 or 1. 7 : 16 : 4
per cent. It is better for Amsterdam to remit by the way of London than directly from Amsterdam to Genoa.

REMARKS.

The better to understand the nature of these sort of questions in the exchanges, we refer our readers to the article ARBITRATION

They have likewise a very considerable traffic in paper, large quantities of which are brought to England, besides what they send to Portugal and Spain, as well for their trades to America respectively, as for their own consumption.

This republic, for near three centuries, rivalled Venice in the dominion of the Mediterranean, and the commerce to the Levant; but, after the memorable victory of Chiozza, the Venetians bore away the maritime empire; yet they still maintain no inconsiderable share in the commerce of the Levant, and by the medium of Genoa foreigners carry on the trade of Lombardy.

Their manufactures for foreign markets are, plain and flowered velvets, and others with gold and silver grounds; satins, tabbies, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and variety of other kinds of rich silks. Besides these they traffic in all the produce of the Levant to a considerable advantage.

What figure the Genoese fleets have formerly made, by means of their commerce, may be easily conceived, by the many victories they have gained over the Saracens, Pisans, Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, &c. as well as from their many large conquests; such as those of the islands of Crete, Sardinia, Majorca, Minorca, Negropont, Lesbos, Malta, and their settlements in Scio, Smyrna, Achaia, Theodosia, and other towns on the eastern confines of Europe; but, at present, their whole navy is reduced to a small number of galleys, which serve only to fetch them some corn, wine, and other provisions; insomuch that when, in the late queen Anne's war, they had but six of these galleys in all, and had resolved to build more, the French king sent expressly to forbid it, telling them, that he knew better than they how many they had occasion for. See the politic intentions hereof under the article FRANCE.

The great wire-draw to the traffic of Genoa is a kind of free, as well as a fine port; for, on the arrival of foreign ships, the merchandizes are deposited in a grand free warehouse, no duties of import or export being paid, except in proportion to the sales that are made, and what remains unfold is re-imbarked without duty.

Of the BANK of GENOA.

The most considerable body in power in this republic, is that which is called St. George's Bank, and is constituted of such branches of the public revenue as have been set apart by the government for the payment of such sums as have been borrowed during the exigencies of the commonwealth, and which hath never been violated, under the greatest troubles and perplexities of the state. The administration of this bank being for life, and partly in the hands of the citizens, gives this body a great authority in the state, and a powerful influence over the people. This bank is generally thought a great load to the state, and as a kind of inferior senate, which breaks the uniformity of their aristocratic government. The people, however, receive no small benefit from it, both as it is a check to their aristocracy, and distributes the power among more private members of the republic; and, while the republic kept out of the broils of Europe, the bank maintained a circulation for the support of the public credit and their commerce.

But this state having unhappily taken part in a late war, wherein they exhausted their public treasure, on which foundation the bank was constituted, its credit has received so violent a shock, as not easily to admit of a flourishing revival.

Of CORSICA, considered as a part of the Genoese territories.

It is an island, situated between that of Sardinia and the southern coasts of Italy, extending itself in length from 41 to 43 degrees of latitude, and from 9 to 10 degrees of east longitude. Its breadth, from the promontory called Capo di Faro, on the west, to Aleria Desfrutta, on the east coast, is about 80.—It hath the state of Genoa on the north; Sardinia on the south, from which it is separated by the Straights of Bonifacio; the Tuscan Sea, Patrimony of St. Peter, and Naples, towards the east; and the Mediterranean on the west.

The island in general is woody and mountainous, and the ground so dry and stony, that few things grow on it, of fruits, corn, &c. but by dint of labour. Some parts, however, are more fertile, and produce, with less trouble, good corn, neat wines, figs, almonds, olives, chestnuts, &c. and some pasture grounds breed quantities of cattle, as their forests do plenty of deer, and other game; and the fish that is caught about its coasts is in great plenty; and very good, particularly the tun, a kind of sturgeon; and their small fish called, from the neighbouring island, sardines. Some good coral is found about the coast, especially in the Straights of Bonifacio. The people having endured so great hardships and oppressions from the Genoese, they revolted from them, and put themselves under the protection and command of Theodore, baron Newhoff, whom they proclaimed king of Corsica, and who, in an extraordinary manner, maintained himself in that dignity for some time, and was not a little beloved by them.

The principal articles of king Theodore's propositions were,

I. That they ought, as soon as possible, to set about making salt ponds, as the climate of the country promised so great a

quantity of that commodity as might load an hundred ships annually; so that the crown and subjects might draw great advantages from this branch of commerce.

II. That they ought to encourage the working of the iron, copper, and lead-mines, which are discovered to extract not only iron for common uses, but for cannon, bullets, and other things necessary to put an end to this tedious troublesome war, and thereby save the gross sums sent out of the isle to purchase them.

III. And, as this island greatly abounds with brimstone, and salt-petre, they ought to erect gunpowder-mills on the most commodious river, to make what quantity they shall need in the kingdom, and repair the want under which they have hitherto laboured in this particular, and which has occasioned vast expences to the state.

IV. Agriculture also should be studiously cultivated, the majority of the best lands being neglected: to which end, there should be established in each pieve commissaries, intelligent in this art, who shall be particularly charged to take care that the peasants till each a certain spot in their several districts, for their own advantage; and, in parts improper for the plough, each peasant shall be obliged to plant at least 4000 vines, or 1000 olive-trees; and all sorts of exemptions shall be granted during 10 years, for those grounds so newly cultivated.

V. By an ordinance published throughout the kingdom, one constant and uniform measure shall be established for all the fruits growing here, such as oil, wine, honey, pitch, tar, and other casked commodities; and, at the same time, one ell, one weight, and one bushel, conformably to the standards of other trading nations.

VI. All care shall be taken to advance the silk trade, as the kingdom is so well situated for it.

VII. And, as nothing can contribute more to the advantage of this nation than a regular foreign trade, and as our kingdom is better situated than any other for it, with so great a number of good ports and bays, we would have our good citizens accustom themselves to it, by making them sensible of the advantages arising from such an application. To which purpose, we have thought proper to establish a council of commerce, at the expence of the crown; the commissioners of which shall be obliged to purchase of our subjects all the products of the country fit to be sent abroad, at a market-price, paying them in manufactures, or our silver coin: but if the peasant will not exchange his products at such a price, he shall bring them into the crown-magazines, where a receipt shall be given him. The commissioners shall send these products with others, and their respective invoices, to the consuls and correspondents of the crown in foreign parts, with an order to draw out the particular accounts of the produce of these effects, in order that there be given to every one what belongs to him. The proprietors shall receive at the council of commerce the returns or import of their accounts, on paying (besides the carriage) 5 per cent. on the capital, to defray the charges; and, if the peasant be necessitous, and cannot wait for the returns unassisted, he may receive from the council the half, or two-thirds of the value of what he delivers, for which he shall pay, on ballancing accounts, one half per cent. for six months, besides the 4 per cent. above mentioned. And, to give a greater credit to the said council, we engage ourself and crown for it. And we order our consuls, residents, or correspondents, to contract and negotiate only with the said council, and they shall send us whatever we cannot do without in our isle. No vessel shall be admitted without the permission of the said council; and our correspondents abroad shall have the same credit as those here, and, besides that, the character of counsellor of commerce of this kingdom.

VIII. And whereas our kingdom abounds in wood, pitch, tar, hemp, and every thing necessary for the ship building, this article should be taken seriously into consideration, as also what concerns the fishery, &c.

MONIES of account and exchange in GENOA.

Books of accounts are kept in piafters, fols, and deniers, and in livres, or lira, fols, and deniers bank, whose subdivisions are by 20 and 12.

The piafter is equal to 20 fols d'or, or 100 fols bank, or 5 lira.

The fol d'or is equal to 12 deniers d'or, or 5 fols bank.

The livre is equal to 20 fols bank.

The fol bank is equal to 12 deniers bank.

The current crown is equal to 4 liras, or 80 fols bank.

The silver crown, or croizat of Genoa, is equal to 7 liras 12 fols bank.

According to Mons. Larue's Bibliotheque des Jeunes Negocians, &c. published at Lions in 1747, this silver crown weighs in France 720 grains, and it is received at the standard of 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ penny-weights.—The mark crown is equal to 9 liras, 6 fols bank, or 180 fols bank.—The pistole of gold is equal to 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ liras current money, and is received in France at the standard of 21 $\frac{3}{4}$ carats, and it there weighs 126 grains. The

GEN

The established courses of exchange between these places which follow are,

GENOA,		
Upon	Gives in bank	To receive
Berlin	100 piaftres of 5 liras	125 ixdollars
Breflau	100 ditto	126 ditto
Cologne	100 ditto	128 ditto
Frankfort	100 ditto	130 ditto
Lucca	113 fols bank mon. more or lefs	1 crown of 7 1/2 liras
Novi	122 crowns of 7 1/2 liras, idem	100 crowns mark
St. Gall	1 lira	20 kreutz. more or lefs.

Suppofe that a merchant owed at Genoa, in bank money, the following fums, and would remit them to his correpondents.

		Course of exchange	
Of Paris	297 11 10	at 99 1/2 fols	Tournois per 1 piaftre
Amfter.	574 12 10	at 92 1/2 deniers de gros	per idem
London	155 14 1	at 54 1/2 pence	ftirling per idem
Lifbon	650 5 2	at 880 rees	per idem
Madrid	2040 3 6	at 673 marvedies	per 1 crown mark.
Legho.	2000	at 93 1/2 fols bank	per 1 piaft. of 2 os. or
Romé	1500	at 102 fols	per 1 crown of 10 julio's.
Milan	2500	at 77 fols	exchange per 1 crown of 4 liras
Venice	1800	at 103 marchetti	per idem
Naples	1400	at 82 fols	per 1 ducat of 10 carlins
Vienna	1200	at 52 fols	per 1 florin of 60 kreutzers
Palermo	1700	at 45 carlins	per 1 crown mark

CASE I.

The exchange of GENOA upon FRANCE.

To reduce 297 piaftres, 11 fols, 10 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into livres, fols, and deniers Tournois of France, exchange at 99 1/2, as above.

OPERATION.

Piaftres 297 : 11 : 10 fum
The 99 1/2 exchange

2673	
2673	
148 fols 6 den.	for 1/2 of the fol
49 9	for 10 fols, the 1/2 of the exchange
4 11 7/10	for 1 fol, the 1/10 of 10
2 5 8/10	for 6 den. the 1/2 of a fol
1 7 2/10	for 4 den. the 1/2 of a fol
2 0 296 0	1 4/10(

livres 1480 : 10 : 4 1/10 Tournois of France, the answer.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 297 piaftres 11 : 10, by the price of exchange of 99 1/2 fols, and take the aliquot parts, as above, and the fum total will be fols of exchange, becaufe you multiply the fum of piaftres thereby; which, being divided by 20, reduces them into livres, fols, and deniers of France, and makes the fum to be received at Paris 1480 livres, 10 fols, 4 deniers, 1/10 Tournois.

Proof of the foregoing.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the French livres 1480 : 10 : 4 1/10 Tournois, into tenths of fols, and the price of exchange into the fame, and divide the fum by the price of exchange, and you will have the answer in piaftres. For what remains, multiply by the fubdivifions of the piaftre, 20 and 12, and divide by the common divifor (the tenths of fols in the price of exchange) and you will have the fractional parts.

CASE II.

GENOA exchanges upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 574 piaftres, 12 fols, 10 deniers, bank money of Genoa into florins, ftivers, and pennings, bank money of Amfterdam, exchange at 92 1/4 pence gros per piaftre of 5 liras, or 20 fols.

OPERATION.

Piaftres 574 : 12 : 10
92 1/4 den. gros

1148	
5166	
143 1/2	= 1/4 for the 1/2
46 1/2	of 1/4 = 1/4 for the 10 fols
9	near for 2 fols the 1/2 of 10
2	near for 6 deniers the 1/4 of 2 fols
1	for 3 deniers the 1/2 of 6 deniers
	for 1 denier the 1/2 of 3 deniers

4|0|530|10

Florins 325 : 10 gros = 5 fols, or ftivers, 5 pennings, bank money of Amfterdam, for which the draught fhould be made upon Amfterdam.

GEN

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the fum of piaftres, fols, and deniers, by the price of exchange, 92 1/4, and take the aliquot parts as above, and the product will be gros of Amfterdam, 40 of which making a florin or guilder, you divide thereby, and the quotient gives guilders, ftivers, and pennings, bank-money of Amfterdam.

N. B. As 2 gros is a fol, or ftiver of Amfterdam, for the remaining 10 gros, you may call it 5 ftivers; and, as 1 gros is 8 pennings, the 1/2 of a gros is five pennings.

For proof of the foregoing.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the fum of florins, ftivers and pennings, and the price of exchange, into the fame denomination of pennings, and divide the fum by the price, and the quote gives the answer in piaftres of Genoa.—To find the value of the fractional remainder, multiply by the fubdenominations of the piaftre, and divide by the common divifor in the price of exchange, and that will give you the fols and deniers.

CASE III.

Exchange of GENOA upon ENGLAND.

To reduce 1551 piaftres, 14 fols, 1 denier, bank-money of Genoa, into pounds, fhillings and pence ftirling of England, exchange at 54 1/4 pence ftirling per piaftre of 5 liras.

OPERATION.

Piaftres 1551 : 14 : 1
54 1/4

6204	
7755	
387 1/2	= 6/8 for 1/2 of 1551
27 1/2	of 1/4 = 1/4 for 10 fols, the 1/2 of the price of exch.
10	near = 6/8 for 4 fols, the 1/2 of 20 fols
	3/8 for 1 denier

12|84180(pence ftirling

2|0|701|5(10d.

l. 350 : 15 : 10 ftirling

For proof hereof.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the fum and price, being both ftirling money, into one denomination, and divide the product of the fum by that of the price, and the quotient will give the piaftres: for the remainder obferve what has been faid already.

CASE IV.

Of the exchange of GENOA upon PORTUGAL.

To reduce 650 piaftres, 5 fols, 2 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into cruftadoes of Portugal (of 400 rees) exchange at 880 rees per piaftre of 5 liras bank.

OPERATION.

Piaftres 650 : 5 fols, 2 deniers, bank money
880 rees, exchange

52000	
5200	
176	for 4 fols the 1/2 of the exchange price
44	for 1 fol the 1/4 of 4 fols
7 1/2	= 1/2 for 2 deniers the 1/2 of 1 fol

Rees
4|00|5722|27 1/2

Cruf. 1430 : 227 rees, for which the draught fhould be made on Lifbon.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the piaftres by the Portugal price of exchange (880 rees) and take the fractional parts as directed. The fum total being of the fame denomination with the exchange, viz. rees, thefe muft be reduced into cruftadoes, the fpecies whereon Genoa exchanges with Lifbon: and, 400 rees being a cruftado, that is the divifor.

For proof.

Reduce the cruftadoes into rees, and divide by the price of exchange, and you have the answer in piaftres: for the remainder, proceed as in the foregoing cafes.

CASE V.

The exchange of GENOA upon SPAIN.

To reduce 2040 liras, 3 fols, 6 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into piaftres, rials, and marvedies of old plate of Spain, exchange at 673 marvedies for a crown mark of 186 fols.

OPERA-

TRATION of the Exchanges, the article ENGLAND, and the article EXCHANGE.

The Florentines, Genoese, and Venetians, are said to have been the first trading countries who fell into the way of negotiating money by bills of exchange, and first discovered the profits and advantages to be occasionally made thereby. It was they also that discovered the admirable art of accountanship by charge and discharge, according to the method of double entry; the nature of which we have particularly shewn upon a single sheet, under the article BANKING.

GERMANY. The empire consisting of various states, the reader will find their trade described under those respective states.

GEORGIA, in Asia, is bounded on the N. by Circassia, on the E. by Daghestan and Shirvan, on the S. by Armenia, and on the W. by the Euxine, or Black Sea.

It abounds with woods and mountains, but hath also many fine and fertile plains, if rightly cultivated. It is but thinly peopled, and hath but few cities, in proportion to its extent and fertility, which must be ascribed to their neglect of manufactures, and infamous traffic in boys and girls, which they dispose of to the Turks, Persians, &c. Their most noble product is their wine, inferior to none; great quantities of which they export into Media, Armenia, and particularly into Persia, for the king's own table. Though excellent, it is cheap; a horse-load, or 300 weight of the very best, selling at the rate of 8 or ten shillings of our money, and the middling sort for half that price.

The country produces likewise a good deal of silk, which they scarce know how to manufacture, but chuse rather to send it into Turkey, especially to Erzerum, where it is wrought in great quantities.

TEFLIS is one of its chief cities; its trade is in furs, which are sent to Constantinople by the way of Erzerum. They also send from this territory, and others of Georgia, above 2000 camel-loads of the root boya, into Diarbeck, for the use of the linnen-dyers, as also great quantities into the province of Indostan for the same use.

GORI is a small and ill-built town, but very well peopled, and most of its inhabitants merchants, many of whom are rich.

GEORGIA, an English colony in North-America. See BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and SPANISH AMERICA.

GHILAN, with TABRISTAN, provinces in Persia.

GHILAN is bounded on the E. by the Caspian Sea and province of Tabristan, by Persian Irac on the S. Aiderbetzan on the W. and the heath of Mockan on the N.

The country is very beautiful and even, and watered by several fine rivers, that abound with fish, as does also the Caspian Sea, into which they fall, and even to such a degree, that the farming out the privilege of fishing there brings in a very considerable revenue to the king of Persia.

This province is the finest and most fruitful of all Persia, and produces silk, oil, wines, rice, tobacco, and all sorts of the best fruits, so abundantly, that it furnishes a great part of Persia, and even several foreign countries, with them.

The province of Tabristan has the Caspian Sea on the N. Ghilan on the W. Persian Irac on the S. and Corafan on the E. The country is fruitful, but the air unwholesome.

AMOU is a large town, and drives a considerable trade in provisions to Bukara, and especially in plums, which the soil of this city produces in abundance, and are delicious.

TABARISTAN is a considerable city for weaving and selling silks and velvets.

GINGER. This root was brought to us heretofore from the East-Indies, but what is cultivated in the Western Islands is more used, and much better, being dried with more care, so that it is not parched and withered.

Chuse such as is new; dry, well fed, not easy to break, of a greyish colour, resinous within, and of a hot piquant taste.

Ginger is hot and drying; 'tis used in the theriaca, and other compositions. Great quantities are used in France by the country hawkers and chandlers, who mix it with their pepper.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, in Wales, is a maritime county, having on the south the Severn Sea, or British Channel, Monmouthshire on the east, Carmarthenshire on the west, and Brecknockshire on the north. It is about 116 miles in circumference. The air and soil of it are various. Sheep and other cattle abound in all parts of it, there being fruitful vallies among the mountains, which produce very good pasture. Other commodities are lead, coals, fish, and butter. It has many small harbours, from which they ship off their coals and provisions, which they send in great quantities; the first to all the coasts of Devon, Somerset, and Cornwall, and some to Ireland; and the last they send to Bristol, especially butter.

CARDIFF, the capital town, is seated on the river Tauye, which falls into the sea four miles below it, where is a commodious haven; but small vessels may come up to its very bridge to lade and unlade. 'Tis a pretty large town, is well frequented, and has a good trade with Bristol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, sheep, horses, and swine. Though the Welsh coast is generally foul and dangerous, and

has never, it seems, been well surveyed, yet there is a good road before this place, and the course to it from the Flat Holmes, or Hungroad by Bristol, is north-north-west.

COWBRIDGE, on the river Ewenny, not far from its entrance into the Severn Sea, has a market well frequented for cattle, sheep, corn, and other provisions, and a harbour for boats.

SWANSEY, a large, clean, well-built town, and drives the greatest trade of any in the county, especially in coals; holds a great correspondence with Bristol, and has an exceeding good harbour, where sometimes a hundred ships at a time come in for coals and culm, there being several very large good coal works in and near it, from whence they are carried into Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall, and also to Ireland, to the great enriching the town and country round.

GLASS. 'Tis controverted among naturalists, to what class of bodies glass should be referred; some making it a concrete juice, others a stone, others again rank it among semi-metals; but Dr Merret observes, that these are all natural productions; whereas glass is a factitious compound, produced by fire, and never found in the earth, but only the sand and stones that form it; but metals are perfectly formed by nature into certain species, and fire only produces them by its faculty of separating heterogeneous, and uniting homogeneous bodies; whereas it produces glass by uniting heterogeneous matters, viz. salt and sand; of both which it evidently consists, 100 weight of sand yielding above 150 pounds of glass.

The chief characters or properties of glass are, that it fuses in a vehement fire; when fused, cleaves to iron; does not waste in the fire, and is the last effect of it; is ductile and fashionable into any form while red-hot, but not malleable; friable when cold; diaphanous, either hot or cold; flexible and elastic; disunited, and broke by cold and moisture, and especially by saline liquors; is only cut by a diamond or emery; acid, or other juices, extract no quality from it; it does not wear by the longest use; nor will any liquor make it mufty, change its colour, or rust; it softens metals, and makes them fusible; receives all metallic colours, both externally and internally; will not calcine, and may be cemented, like stones and metals.

Making of glass.

The materials, as already said, are salt and sand, or stones. The salt is procured from the ashes of a water plant called kali, cut down in summer, dried in the sun, and burnt in heaps on the ground, or on iron-grates: the ashes, called pulverine, falling into a pit, grow into a hard mass fit for use. To extract the salt, they are powdered and sifted, then kept in boiling water till one third be consumed, stirring from time to time for the better extracting all the salts; then the vessel is filled, and boiled again till half be consumed; what remains is a sort of lee, strongly impregnated with salt. Which lee, boiled over again in fresh copperas, thickens, and in about 24 hours shoots its salt; which is to be laded out, as it shoots, into earthen pans, and thence into wooden vats to drain and dry. Then 'tis grossly powdered, and dried in a sort of oven. Other plants, besides kali, yield a salt fit for glass, as alga, common thistle, bramble, hops, wormwood, woad, and the whole leguminous tribe, as pease, beans, &c. The sand or stones, called tarso, is the second ingredient, and what gives it the body. They must be such as will fuse, and the whitest are the best, so that crystals are preferable to all others. At Venice they chiefly use a sort of pebble, resembling white marble. Flints are admirable, and make a pure crystalline metal, but the expence of preparing them makes the glassmen sparing of their use. Where stones cannot conveniently be had, sand is used; which is to be white, small, and well washed before it is used. Our glass-houses in England are furnished with a fine sand from Maidstone, the same as is used for sand-boxes, and in scouring; and with a coarser for green-glass, from Woolwich.

For crystal glass, to 200 pounds of tarso, pounded fine, they put 130 of salt, mix them, and put into the oven or reverberatory furnace, first well heated. Here they are calcined for five hours, during which they are mixed with a rake; and, when taken out, 'tis called frit, or bollito, of which are three kinds; this is crystal frit: the second, or ordinary frit, for the common white metal, is made of the bare ashes; the third, for green glass, is made of common ashes, unprepared, and a hard sand above mentioned.

Now to proceed to the operation of making glass itself; they set off this frit in melting-pots in the working furnace, adding in each a due quantity of blackish stone, called manganese, which purges off that greenish cast natural to all glass, making it more clear and azure. While 'tis in fusion, the workman mixes the metal well together with his square, skimming off the sand, over which is a white salt, called sandiver, continually cast up from the metal, and swimming on it's surface; which, unless purged off, would make the glass brittle and unfit to work. When the vitrification is completed, and the metal sufficiently clear, 'tis formed into the works required, by dipping a hollow iron into the melting-pot, and taking out enough for the work intended. While red hot,

the work-man rolls it to and fro on a marble, to unite its parts more firmly; then blowing gently swells it, repeating till 'tis large enough; then whirling it about his head, he lengthens and cools the glass; moulds it in the stamp-irons, and flats the bottom, by pressing it on the marble: 'tis afterwards further fashioned as occasion requires, being first broke from the blowing-iron. As fast as the master finishes them, another takes them up with an iron fork, and places them in a tower over the melting furnace to anneal, and, having stood some time, they are put into iron pans, which by degrees are drawn further off, that they may cool gradually.

Though crystal, in not being fusible, becomes unsusceptible of dyes in substance, yet chemists have found means to make it serve for the basis of precious stones. For, though it will not fuse, it will calcine and make frit.

The art of making precious stones in glass is too curious to be passed over; we shall, therefore, briefly point out some of the leading compositions.

To make a sea-green glass, take crystal frit, without manganese; melt it, and, when clear, a salt will be on the top like an oil, which skim off, while any rises. Then mix calcined brass and zaffer, and add it to the melted crystal. Let the whole stand three hours, to incorporate the colour; then stir and mix again; take a proof, and either heighten or lower the colour.

For an emerald-coloured glass, take the same frit as before, pass it through water once or twice to get out all the salt; add half the quantity of common white metal; and, when the mixture is well purified, add brass thrice calcined, and crocus martis calcined with brimstone and reverberated: if any blueness remain, add more crocus.—For a turquoise-coloured glass, evaporate all the moisture from sea-salt, till it become white; then powder and add by degrees, to a sea-green crystal metal, mentioned above, mixing well, till the green become opaque, which the salt, now vitrified, effects. Upon this a little paleness arises, and by degrees the sky-blue required.—To make chalcidies, jaspers, and agates, in glass; dissolve silver in aqua fortis; mix it in a glass body, and add sal armoniac; when dissolved, add zaffer, manganese, ferretto, crocus martis, thrice calcined copper, blue smalt, and red lead, all in powder; keep the body stopped ten days, stirring daily: then set in a sand-furnace; in 24 hours the aqua-fortis will be evaporated, leaving a powder at bottom. Lastly, take very clear metal, adding to 20 pounds of it two ounces and a half of the powder, mix and let it stand in the fire 24 hours; and, when cold, waves and clouds of beautiful colours will begin to appear. Add tartar, vitrified foot, and crocus martis, calcined with brimstone, all powdered and mixed: let it boil and settle 24 hours; and then make a glass body of it, putting it in the furnace again and again, till fine streaks and shades of blue, red, sea-green, and all other colours, appear; in which state 'tis ready to be wrought into variegated vessels, &c.

To make a gold yellow in glass, mix crystal frit with common glass frit, and add sifted tartar and manganese; place them in a furnace four days, with an ordinary fire; when well purified and coloured, work it.—For a granate colour, to crystal and common frit mixed, add manganese and zaffer; put them in a pot, and keep them in the furnace 24 hours.—For an amethyst colour, to crystal frit, add manganese and zaffer as before.—For a sapphire colour, either to common or crystal frit, add zaffer and manganese; mix and melt them in a furnace, and, when well coloured, work it.—For a black colour, to crystal and common frit, add calx of lead and tin; mix, and set in a furnace: when melted and pure, add powder of calcined steel, and scales of iron; after boiling with the mixture, let it stand and settle 12 hours.—For a snow white, to crystal frit add calcined tin and manganese; mix and set it in the furnace to refine, for 18 hours: then cast the matter into water, and make a proof: if too clear, add more tin.—For a marble colour, crystal frit melted, and worked without purifying, suffices.—For a deep red, put crystal frit, broken white glass, and calcined tin in a pot to melt and purify; when in fusion, add calcined steel, and scales of iron, well powdered, thereto; mix and let them incorporate five or six hours. Make an essay, and, if the metal be too black or opaque, add brass calcined to a redness; mix, refine, and make an essay as before, till it be of a blood-red; and work it speedily, lest it lose its colour.

It is no inconsiderable improvement of the art of imitating gems, to make use of glass of lead; the stones, so produced, far exceeding those made of common glass, or even of crystal in point of colour. To prepare this glass, the lead is first fused and calcined in a kiln; then recalcined in a reverberatory fire; and, lastly, pulverine or rochetta frit being mixed with it, and the whole set in the furnace for ten hours, 'tis cast out into water, and the glass separated from the lead. This glass may be blown or worked into vessels, after the usual manner.—It becomes of an emerald colour, by adding pulverine frit to purify it, and brass thrice calcined, and crocus martis, made with vinegar.—A topaz colour, by using

crystal frit instead of pulverine frit, and half the quantity of yellow glass.—A granate colour by adding crystal frit, manganese, and zaffer.—A gold colour, by adding crystal frit, brass thrice calcined, and crocus martis.—Colour of lapis lazuli, by adding the snow white glass already mentioned, with the painters blue smalt.

R E M A R K S.

Neri traces the antiquity of glass as far back as the time of Job: that writer, speaking of the value of wisdom, chap. xxviii. ver. 17, says, that gold and glass are not to be equalled to it: so at least our version has it, after the Septuagint, Vulgate, the Syriac, St. Jerom, &c. But in other translations, as well as in the original Hebrew, the word glass is not seen: instead thereof, the Chaldee uses crystal; the Arabic jacinth; the Italian, Spanish, French, Dutch, a diamond; the Targum, a looking glass; Pagninus, a precious stone; Vatable, a beryl, &c. The reason of all this diversity arises hence, that the original word zechuchich comes from the root zacac, which signifies to purify, cleanse, shine, be white, or transparent; whence the same word is applied to frankincense, Exod. xxx. 34. where the Septuagint renders it pellucid: so that the word may equally signify any thing beautiful and transparent, and is by no means peculiarly appropriated to express what we now call glass*.

* Merret Observ. in Anth. Neri.

Pliny relates, that glass was first discovered by accident in Syria, at the mouth of the river Belus, by certain merchants driven thither by the fortune of the sea, and obliged to continue there, and dress their victuals by making a fire on the ground; where there being great store of the herb kali, that plant burning to ashes, its salt mixed and incorporated with sand, or stones, vitrified †.

† Hist. Nat. lib. 36.

Dr. Merret will have glass as ancient as either pottery or making bricks; for that a kiln of bricks can scarce be burnt, or a batch of pottery be made, but some of the bricks and the ware will be at least superficially turned to glass: so that it must have been known at the building of Babel, and as long before as that art was used; and likewise by the Egyptians, among whom the Israelites were many years employed in making bricks*. Of this kind, no doubt, was that fossil glass mentioned by Ferrant, Imperat. to be found under ground in places where great fires had been †.

* Observ. in Anth. Neri.

† Lib. 25. c. 7.

'Tis controverted among naturalists, to what class of bodies glass ought to be referred: Agricola, lib. xii. de re metall. makes it a concrete juice: Vin. Belluacensis, lib. xi. calls it a stone; and Fallopius reckons it among the media mineralia, or semi-metals: but Dr. Merret observes, as intimated, that the fore-mentioned are all natural productions; whereas glass is factitious, a compound made by art, a production of the fire, and never found in the earth. To obviate this, Fallopius distinguishes between glass contained in its own mine, or it's own stone, and true glass that is extracted from the same. Now, the latter, says he, is more artificial than a metal is, extracted from its mineral; and as to the former, he urges, that as metal, by having its existence in the ore, so glass, by having it in the stone out of which it is educed, is natural. But this argumentation Dr. Merret overturns, by shewing, that glass is never found in that form in any mine, but only the sand and stone whereof it is formed; whereas metals are perfectly formed by nature into certain species, in proper veins, though frequently in such small parcels, that they lie hid till the fire has collected them together, by separating from them the other matters wherewith they were mixed. Accordingly, fire only produces metals by its faculty of separating heterogeneous, and congregating homogeneous bodies; whereas it produces glass by uniting and mixing heterogeneous matters, viz. salt and sand into one. Fallopius, indeed, denies this, and pleads that 'tis false to say that glass is at all made of ashes: the ashes are only added instead of the nitre used among the ancients, the better to extract the glass out of the substance of the stone: but this is easily refuted: for, if the glass were procured from the stone alone, the weight of the metal must be less than that of the stones; whereas in reality it far surpasses it, 100 weight of sand yielding above 150 pounds of glass. Add, that the salts made use of are of the most fixed kind; which, therefore, we cannot suppose to be carried off by the fire; and that in the coarser glasses, which are corroded by the air, one may discern, nay, pick out pieces of salt, discovering themselves to be such by their taste.

Flint, sand, stones, afford different species of glass; and the calces, according to the different manners wherein they are burnt and extinguished, produce different degrees of beauty

beauty in the glass. So the ashes of plants used herein, also, vary the goodness of glass. A fixed alkaline salt, sharp and well purified, mixed with a pure calx of flints, yields a glass clearer than amber itself. It must be owned, that by using a great deal of salt to a small quantity of flints, the glass becomes very clear; but is weak and frail, apt to crack by fire and water, and by age grows dull; and even infects liquors put into it, and sometimes destroys them utterly. So tea remains uncorrupted in green glass, but in the clear kind is totally spoiled. Hence, for our art, we chuse a green durable glass, made of a great proportion of earth and a less of salt, kept long in fusion, and well elaborated by a strong lasting fire. Consult Anton. Neri de arte vitraria; the excellent Agricola in his book of metals; Christopher Merret in his observations on Neri; and Jo. Kunkel, who, at the expence of that generous prince, the late elector of Brandenburg, has brought the art of glass to its highest perfection, in a comment on Neri, Lips. 1679, 4to, and more especially in a treatise of artificial gems annexed thereto.

There is another species of glass contrived by chemistry, which, though transparent, is at the same time adorned with a beautiful colour, so as almost to equal the brightest native gems. It is made of the purest and most perfect glass, intimately penetrated, and embodied with metals, which thus communicate to it a durable lustre: in effect, there is scarce any gem or stone valuable for its colour, but may be imitated in glass prepared after this manner. If the art of glass-making should once arrive at perfection, as that by means of fire, we might be able to make glass once and half heavier than at present, we should then, with the assistance of metals, make artificial gems equally bright and beautiful as the natural ones; since, by how much the transparent matter is more dense and solid, the more lively and glittering will the metal appear through it. But as art has not yet discovered any such method of giving density to glass, the matter of facitious gems is too porous and rare, and thus produces a weaker and more languishing reflection of the rays, which renders them inferior to the native kind. Some have endeavoured to increase the weight of glass, by adding lead to it, but this at the same time increases its softness. There is, therefore, still ground for those who pursue chemical enquiries, to endeavour at a method of condensing the substance of glass, which will amply reward them for their pains.

Decrees of his late majesty the king of Spain, for settling a fabric of crystal and glass in Spain.

His majesty, in consideration of the great importance it is to establish in this kingdom a fabric of crystal, which foreigners supply us with, and by that means drain us of great sums of money, making use of our own sofa and barilla, the principal materials of the manufacture, of which there is great plenty in Spain, and in quality superiour to that of all other countries; his majesty has been pleased to grant, at several times, the three patents mentioned in the royal decree, which was dispatched to the councils of Castile and the finances, January 30, 1720, and is as follows:

Since the fabric of crystal has not taken effect, with which Don Thomas del Burgo, and company, charged themselves in the year 1712, when I granted them a patent; and that also, which Don John Baptist Pomeraye, undertook by virtue of a patent I granted him two years ago, met with no better success; and sensible of the great loss my people and my own interest sustain, from the decay of this manufacture, I have permitted Don John Goyeneche to collect together, in a place called New Baztan, masters and workmen, that withdrew out of my kingdoms upon the disappointment of the fabric set up by the said Don Thomas del Burgo, though the other be not expired, in order to set up a new one in the said place; in consequence of which, he has collected to the number of twenty families of foreign workmen, built for them in the said place a very spacious dwelling-house, together with ovens, and other workshops, necessary for all the materials and instruments in this important undertaking, and ever since its establishment has maintained all the people at his own expence; and, having in view the great advantage that must accrue to my kingdoms from the establishment of the said fabric and others of the like kind; on which account, as it is my royal disposition to cherish and encourage them as much as possible, I have granted the said Don John de Goyeneche a patent for thirty years for the manufacture and free vending of crystals and glass, on the same favourable footing, which I granted to the said Don Thomas del Burgo and Don John Baptist Pomeraye; and that, on no pretence whatever, he be taxed for the barilla, which under his own direction, or charge, shall be sown, gathered and consumed, in the quarter adjoining to the said fabrics, nor for any other portions he shall be obliged to purchase, of the product of these kingdoms; empowering him also to have the first refusal of these materials, at the usual prices, and also of the wood which it shall be necessary for him to buy in the places adjoining to his fabric. It shall be examined in the council of the finances, and the instruments for putting this order in execution be speedily dispatched.

From the face of this royal decree it is visible, that neither the first nor second co-partnership, which undertook this fabric, could surmount the difficulties, or furnish the considerable expences such an establishment usually occasions at its setting out, especially when the master-directors happen not to act with honour, a thing often experienced in new projects; or the hands employed in the several works are not equally dextrous, for the skill of some may be defeated by an ignorance in others, which is too often met with in those foreigners that have come over on their own heads, (and are not procured) and who generally leave their own country and original business out of levity, or are rejected by the trade for their unskilfulness.

And, even when the masters and workmen are very capable and do their duty, these difficult and chargeable enterprises too often miscarry, as it has sometimes been found in France, notwithstanding they collected and brought over artificers from Venice to lay the foundation, and Lewis XIV. for their encouragement, had granted the directors and proprietors many privileges, immunities, and supplies of money; however, by perseverance, and the application of his exalted measures, this interesting project was at length so happily executed, that the crystals of that kingdom exceed those of Venice both in quality and quantity; and in this instance is verified the maxim, that founding such important establishments resembled but sowing the seeds of plants, and wanted the steady and due cultivation of a ministry, as well as a firm and powerful protection of the prince, to ripen and gather the fruits.

And in every respect his most Christian majesty took also especial care to facilitate and secure a good market for the crystal that was manufactured (a thing most material for the preservation of manufactories) by an edict, that laid a duty upon foreign glass imported into France of 2000 Spanish reals per quintal, while that of French manufacture paid but 15 reals per quintal exported, with a view to encourage, as well the home consumption of their own goods, as the exportation of them abroad, discouraging at the same time by such heavy duties the importation of a foreign manufacture.

A few years after, the better to accomplish these two interesting points, he employed another measure, which was an absolute prohibition of foreign glass; so that now France not only answers her own demands, but exports also to other countries; and by this means has drawn money into the kingdom, and put a stop to the extraction of considerable sums that went to Venice, in payment for the great quantity of glass they formerly had from thence, as every person must think, who reflects upon the large consumption there is of it in France, both for what is expended for coaches, windows, looking-glasses and other ornaments, and its being so frail a commodity, that, as one blast of wind forms, another destroys it. Upon the same account it is also evident, that the consumption of this commodity must be considerable in Spain, which calls upon us to employ the most vigorous and effectual measures, that are any ways practicable, for the encouragement and preservation of such a fabric, in imitation of his present majesty's grandfather, says a learned Spaniard.

Though these difficulties, a prodigious expence, and the recent miscarriage of the two partnerships above mentioned in Spain, that had charged themselves with this undertaking, twice defeated within the compass of a few years, disheartened, as it is natural to imagine, the generality of the kingdom, they were not sufficient to damp the zeal and resolution, with which Don Joseph de Goyeneche, treasurer of the kingdom, undertook and pursues every measure in this important project, which tends to his majesty's service, and the interest of the public; as is visible from the contents of the same royal decree, and will appear farther from other decrees, that shall be produced hereafter, when we speak of the many other useful manufactories that are set up by the same person, and still subsist in his two towns of Yllana and Almeda, in New Baztan, peopled at his own charge, and in other places, that shall hereafter be taken notice of. For, in spite of the above difficulties, the recent and repeated disappointments of the project under two partnership, he engaged in it at his own risk, without any association; but his own industry and fortune laid the foundation, and maintains it at an immense charge in New Baztan, where glass is already manufactured fit for all uses.

And though he might have been discouraged, by finding it could no longer be supported in that place for want of wood, great plenty of which is requisite for such a purpose; yet he has had the spirit to engage in the new enterprise of transplanting it to the new town of Coron, near the vast and spacious forests of Cuenca, and has succeeded in it with a new charge of rebuilding dwelling-houses and work-shops; and also to great advantage, both for the goodness and plenty of the crystals, and the duration of the manufactory.

By the very same accident, a scarcity of wood, the like mischance befel one of the partnerships that undertook this fabric in France; for, having set it up in the suburbs of Paris, they were obliged to remove into the neighbourhood of large forests, with the advantage of a river to ease the expence of carriage.

We have avoided in this memoir a too exact account of many measures and essential precautions, to be observed either in the structure of the furnace, or in the work; because it is just to let the undertakers of this manufacture keep to themselves the knowledge of the particulars, to which they are intitled, exclusive of all others.

The building where the glasses are run is called the hall, which may be eleven fathoms long, and about ten and a half broad in the clear. The furnace is in the center, and is three fathoms long, and two and half wide. It is built of very good brick. We shall not determine the thickness any more than the height of its walls.

There are two doors three feet high on each of the sides, of two fathoms and a half, and a door three feet and a half high on the longer side. The two former serve to throw wood continually into the furnace, and the last to get the pots and pans in and out, as will be taken notice of hereafter.

This furnace is upon solid foundations, and paved with square tiles of a well-baked earth, of the same quality as that of the pots into which the matter is put to be melted: It is arched within to the height of ten feet. The tube for the venting of the smoke is in the center.

On one of the sides of the length of the furnace, and at the height of three feet and a half, is the great arched aperture, ten feet wide and three feet high, and shaped like the mouth of an oven. They through this aperture put in the folder and sand to be melted in the pots, and through it take out the melted matter which is carried into the pan, when they are ready to run it.

Round the furnace are the walls of the hall, well built with free-stone: there are, in these walls within, apertures like the mouth of a common oven: the hearth of these apertures, which are about four fathoms and a half deep, is two feet and a half from the ground floor. These small furnaces are called carquailles, and serve to Neal the glasses after they have been run.

These furnaces make so many small buildings round the hall, and much lower than the under part of the roof that covers it. There are without a like number of apertures of the same shape, right over-against those that are within the hall, which makes a parallel arch three feet high. There are by the sides of these apertures small arched niches, with pipes to give vent to the smoke. They light the fire in them to heat the carquailles. A large gallery terminates these small buildings, and helps the outward service of the carquailles.

The manufacture is composed of many of these halls, and of a multitude of large rooms, the upper part of which serves to lodge the workmen. It has fine buildings to lodge the masters, a very pretty chapel, and wide yards, many of which are full of stocks of wood of several kinds. The compass of the furnace is very large, and inclosed with good strong walls. The whole is situated at the top of a small hill, close to the village of St. Gobin, near La Fere and Chauny, two towns of Picardy. The forest of St. Gobin, which is of a considerable extent, has given birth to the establishment of this manufacture. There are fine springs in the forest, that supply on the declivities of the hill all the water necessary for the work. Stone is very good and very common there: they even now and then draw some out of the inclosure of the manufacture.

The matter of which the glasses are made, is a composition of folder, and of a very white sand, which is fetched from the neighbourhood of Creil, a place 11 leagues distant from Paris. There are above 200 people employed round tables in the halls, about cleaning and picking the folder and sand, to take all heterogeneous bodies out of them. After this, the whole is washed several times, and dried so as to be pulverized in a mill, consisting of many pestles, which are moved by horses that turn round with their eyes blindfold. This done, the sand is sifted through silk sieves, and then carried to be dried in narrow places, contrived in the corners of the furnace; four feet and a half from the ground-floor, whence it is put into the pots to be melted, in the manner hereafter mentioned. The largest glasses are run: the middle-sized and small ones are blown. I shall begin with the description of the running. The above-said furnace is not sufficiently heated before it has consumed 50 cords* of wood: it is able, after that, to melt the folder and sand. It keeps the same degree of heat, by a continual supply of wood. This is done by two men in their shirts, who are relieved every six hours. The furnace is never extinguished but at six months end, in order to be rebuilt. During this time, they rebuild that which was extinguished before the furnace actually made use of was employed, and make the necessary repairs in both the hall and the carquailles.

* The French cord is two cart loads.

The furnace contains many pots, formed like crucibles, three feet high, and about as much in diameter, of a well-baked earth, of a whitish colour, inclining to that of tripoly. These pots may hold the quantity of a hoghead of wine, and are

very costly: Few of them will hold out the full six months of the furnace's being hot. It happens sometimes that the pots break when full of matter, which is a considerable loss to the manufacture.

These pots being in the oven, the folder and sand are put into them by the men who run the glasses, who have in hand an iron shovel, in form of the scoop that serves to take the water out of a boat, and which is full of either sand or folder: they pass one after another before the master-poker, who puts a small quantity on each shovel-ful, to facilitate the melting of it, by repeating the same mixture till the pots are quite full. The folder and sand remain in the pots for 36 hours together, after which the matter is fit to be run.

All hands are now ready for the running of the glasses. They begin by emptying, with a large iron ladle, the matter out of one of the pots into a pan, which is put into the furnace for that purpose. This pan is of the same earth as that of the pots, and may be 36 inches long, 18 inches wide, and as many deep: there are some 30 inches long, with the same depth and width as the rest. There are in the length of these pans notches three inches wide, to stop them on the sides of the sledge, which is all iron, and very low: the tail of this sledge forms a square kind of pincers, which, when shut into the pan, takes off the notches. The two sides of these pincers, stretched out in the form of an X, make the shaft of the sledge. The motion of these pincers is made upon the axle-tree of the sledge, where there is a large iron peg that crosses it, and is stopped with a pin. They fix the pan upon the sledge, with an iron chain on the side of the shaft.

Several workmen carry the sledge over against one of the heated carquailles, where the glass is to be run upon a table of cast iron, which is horizontal, and level with the hearth of that carquaille. This table is 10 feet long, and 5 feet wide, and stands solid upon a timber-support.

They put, in a parallel direction upon this table, a couple of flat iron bars, or rulers, of the thickness intended in the glass, and which serve also to fix the width of it; by their distance from each other. They put on the right side of the table an engine, in form of a crane, which is fastened to the wall at top, and ends at the bottom in a pivot, to make it turn as occasion requires. This machine is full three fathoms high, its cross-piece a fathom in length, and its upright beam 8 or 10 inches thick. This engine is moveable, and they carry it to all the carquailles. It serves to lift the tub above the table, by means of a couple of iron bars, nine feet long, and forged so as to clip the whole tub, that it may be easily inclined, and the matter run out of it upon the table. There are four iron chains to support the pincers, which unite at a big rope, that runs through a couple of pulleys in the cross-beam of the crane. The whole is lifted up or lowered with a cric*.

* Cric is the French word to be translated here: it is the named machine that serves wheel-wrights and coach-makers to lift up the wheel of a coach or cart from the ground, to make it turn freely upon its axle-tree when any thing is to be mended in it, and to support the coach on the side. There are many iron teeth in a cric, which move up and down with a turning handle.

There is at the foot of the table a roller of cast iron, five feet long, and a foot in diameter, resting upon a couple of timber tressels. This roller being laid upon the rulers, or bars on the table, that raise above the said table the pan full of matter, led by two men, who holding the two sides of the bars, they grasp it like pincers, cause the pan to swing in the manner of a sweep, and pour down the matter before the roller, which is held by a couple of workmen. These people make it roll swiftly, and in a parallel situation, over the matter towards the carquaille, and roll it back the same way, to bring it to its place again. They have the upper half of their body, and their face, wrapped up in a thick sarp cloth, to preserve themselves from the dartings of the fire.

There are on the three other sides of the table small wooden troughs, full of water, to receive the overplus of the matter just run. The men that run the glasses are 20 in number at least, and act so perfectly in concert, that the work is done quickly, and without confusion, every one having his peculiar province.

The running of the glasses is performed in presence of the head of the glass-house, attended by the overseer and the secretary. When the glass is run, these gentlemen examine it, whether there are any bubbles in it: these are small places, shining like stars when the glass is hot. If any are perceived, the glass is cut directly in that place; if it is at the third or fourth part of the glass, the parts cut off serve to make small glasses: when they are a few shards, they are thrown among the waste.

The glass being cooled, and declared good, or free from bubbles, by the approbation of the inspectors, they push it off the table into the carquaille level to it. This is done with an iron raker, as wide as the table, that has a handle two fathoms long.

There are on the other side of the carquaille without workmen, who, with iron hooks, pull the glass to them, and range it

it in the carquaille, which holds six large glasses. When it is full, they stop its apertures with the doors, which are of baked earth, and every chink of them with cement, that the glasses may be smothered and better heated. They remain in that condition for a fortnight, and then are drawn out with all imaginable caution, to be put in boxes, and sent by water to Paris, where they are polished.

It may be observed, that the oven-full, or the quantity of matter commonly prepared, supplies the running of 18 glasses, which is performed in 18 hours, being an hour for each glass. The workmen work but six hours, and are relieved by others, who perform the same operations, transporting both the crane and the table near another carquaille.

The manufacture would make vast profits, if the 18 glasses did all succeed, and were all of their intended measure; but there are sometimes runnings in which not one of the glasses will be able to preserve the finest size, which is 100 inches in length, and 50 in width: however, many of them succeed with these dimensions.

The last glass being run, they scour the pots before they put into the furnace the matter of another running, which is to begin 36 hours after the foregoing: so that they put the matter into the furnace, and begin to run it, every 54 hours. The men who run the glass have nothing to do whilst the matter is melting, except those who are appointed to watch the fire.

These are all the particulars belonging to the running: let us now see those of the blowing of glasses.

The hall of the blown glasses is smaller than that of the running: it is made in the same manner, with this difference, that there are no carquailles round it. But there is, over-against the furnace, a large covered gallery, 12 feet wide, in the middle of a building which is above 12 fathoms long: there are all along, and to both the right and left of this gallery, carquailles, the hearth of which is raised four inches above the ground-floor: they are 15 feet deep, and their arches three feet high, like those of the run glasses. The furnace here, as well as in the running, is not heated above six months together; so that there is a second hall to perform the blowing, whilst they are making all proper repairs in that at rest: the pots are of the same earth as those of the run glasses. They are scoured, and the matter put in the furnace in the same manner. The matter is melting the same space of time, to be fit for the blowing of glasses, which are all of them less than 40 or 50 inches.

The workman who blows the glasses when the matter is melted, takes an iron cane, six feet long, and two inches in diameter, bored hollow quite through, sharpened at the end which is put in the mouth, and widened at the other, that the matter may adhere to it. He dips this cane into one of the pots, through the mouth of the furnace, and by that means takes up a small ball of matter, four inches in diameter, which sticks to that end of the cane by constantly turning it. Then he takes it out, and blows a little into the cane, that the air may swell this ball of matter. Next to this, he carries his cane over a large round bucket, full of water, and resting upon a three-footed support, at the height of four feet; then with his hand he takes water and sprinkles the end of the cane to which the ball of matter sticks, still turning the cane, that, by this cooling, the matter may coalesce, and make but one body with the cane, so as that it may sustain a greater weight.

This operation being over, he again dips the cane into the same pot, to take a greater quantity of matter, still turning the cane as before: he takes it out, and cools it in the above-mentioned manner.

He, for the third and last time, takes in the same pot a quantity of matter sufficient to make his glass. He takes the cane out of the pot, loaded with matter, and being of the shape of a large pear, which may be 10 inches in diameter, and a foot long, he goes to the bucket, and cools it at the tail: this cooling is performed more quickly than the other two, not to lose the opportunity of the heat of this mass of matter. He at the same time blows into his cane, and, with the assistance of one of the labourers, gives his cane a ballancing motion, which causes the matter to lengthen, and which, by being thus blown and lengthened several times over, assumes the form of a cylinder, ending like a ball at bottom, and in a point at top, which sticks to the cane only by means of the several coolings already mentioned.

When the workman has blown sufficiently, and lengthened his matter so as to make it become of an even thickness, he desires his assistant to mount upon a stool, three feet and a half high, on which there are two small upright pieces of timber, with a cross beam of the same, to support the weight of the glass and cane, which are kept somewhat obliquely by the assistant, that the master may, with a punchion set in a wooden handle, and with a mallet, make a hole into the mass. This hole is drilled at the center of the ball that terminates the cylinder: it is an inch in diameter at most.

When the glass is pierced, if there are any defects in it, they are perceived after this operation: if it has too many, they break it directly, and throw the matter among the waste: if there are none, or very few about the extremities, the work-

man goes and lays his cane horizontally on a little iron tressel, placed on the support of the aperture of the furnace. He exposes the glass to the heat of it for about half a quarter of an hour, and then takes it away. In the mean time, the assistant mounts the foot-stool again, in the former situation, whilst the master, with a pair of long and broad shears, extremely sharp at the end, widens the glass, by insinuating the shears into the hole already made with the punchion, and by thrusting them more and more into it, as it grows wider. Whilst the assistant turns the mass of glass, the master goes on with opening it, till the opening is so large at last as to make a perfect cylinder at bottom.

Next to this, the workman lays his glass upon the tressel at the mouth of the furnace, to heat it. Then he takes it, and gives it to his assistant on the foot-stool, and with large shears cuts the mass of matter up to half its height. If there are any defects in the glass, it must be cut in that place, as this section makes the extremities of it.

There is at the mouth of the furnace an iron tool, called pointil, which is now heating, that it may unite and coalesce with the glass just cut, and do the office which the cane did before it was separated from the glass. This pointil is a piece of iron, six feet long, and much of the form of a cane: there is at the end of it a small iron bar, a foot long, laid equally upon the long one, and making with it a T. This little bar is full of the matter of the glass, about four inches thick. This red-hot pointil is presented to the diameter of the glass, which coalesces directly with the matter round the pointil, so as to be able to support the glass for the following operations. This done, they separate the cane from the glass, by striking a few blows with a chissel upon the end of the said cane, which has been cooled; so that the glass breaks directly, and makes this separation, the cane being unloaded of the glass now carried by the pointil.

This done, they present to the furnace the pointil of the glass, laying it on the tressel to heat, and redden the end of that glass, that the workman may open it with his shears, as he has already opened one end of it, to complete the cylinder, the assistant holding it on his foot-stool as before.

They then again, and for the last time, put the pointil on the tressel, that the glass may grow red-hot, and the workman cuts it quite open with his shears, right over-against the foregoing cut. This he does as before, taking care that the two cuts make but one and the same line.

In the mean time, the man who looks after the carquailles comes to receive the glass upon an iron shovel, two feet and a half long without the handle, and two feet wide, with a small border of an inch and a half to the right and left, and towards the handle of the shovel. They lay the glass upon it, flattening it a little with a small stick, a foot and a half long, so that the cut of the glass is turned upwards. They separate the glass from the pointil by striking a few gentle blows between the two with a chissel. This done, they carry the glass on the shovel to the mouth of the hot carquaille, where the glasses are to be nealed. They take away the shovel: the glass grows red-hot gradually, by the vast heat which is at the mouth of the carquaille: the workman belonging to it takes an iron tool, six feet long, and widened at the end in form of a club at cards, four inches long, and two inches wide on each side, very flat, and not half an inch thick. With this tool he gradually lifts up the cut part of the glass, to unfold it out of its form of a flattened cylinder, and render it smooth by turning it down upon the hearth of the carquaille. The said club, being insinuated within the cylinder, performs this operation, by being pushed hard against all the parts of the glass.

This done, and the glass being quite smooth, the workman pushes it to the bottom of the carquaille with a small iron raker. He ranges it with a little iron hook. When the carquaille is full, they stop and cement it as they do the carquailles of the run glasses; and the glasses remain there also for a fortnight, to be nealed. When this time is over, they take them out to polish them.

A workman can make but one glass in an hour, and he works but six together, after which he rests six hours, to begin the same operation a-new. He is never at rest but when the matter is melting in the pot.

Of the principal laws of England relating to GLASS.

By an act of the 19th of his late majesty, intitled, An act for granting to his majesty several rates and duties upon glass, it is enacted, That upon all crown, plate, and flint glass imported, a duty of 8d. per pound weight shall be laid; and on all green, or other glass imported, 2d. per pound weight; and on all quart bottles and flasks imported, 2s. per dozen; and on all bottles and flasks imported, containing more or less than a quart, 2s. per dozen quarts, be the bottles containing the same greater or lesser, to be paid by the importers. Also,

The sum of 9s. 4d. per 100 weight on all materials or metal, or other preparations made use of in the making of crown, plate, or flint glass, and all white glass, of what kind soever. And

Upon all the materials, or metal, or other preparations used in the making of common bottles, and all green glaſs, 2s. 4d. per 100 weight, and after that rate for a greater or leſſer quantity. Said duty to be paid by the maker.

In caſe any crown, plate, or flint glaſs, or ſuch bottles or flaſks ſo imported as aforeſaid, ſhall be landed before entry, and the duties paid, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to the uſe of his majeſty, the other to ſuch who ſhall ſeiſe or inform.

After the 1ſt of May, 1746, no perſon ſhall import into Ireland any crown, plate, or white glaſs, or common bottles, or other green glaſs, or of any other kind, other than of the manufacture of Great-Britain. All other kinds ſhall be forfeited, and deſtroyed within 10 days after condemnation, and the veſſel wherein imported ſhall be alſo forfeited, with her tackle and furniture; and the maſter, and all others concerned in loading the ſame, ſhall forfeit 10s. for every pound weight, and ſo in proportion for any greater or leſſer quantity.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE is an inland county, bordering on the eaſt on Warwickſhire, Oxfordſhire, and Berkſhire; on the ſouth on Somerſetſhire and Wilthire; on the north on Worceſterſhire; and on the weſt on Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire; and is about 156 miles in circumference. It's chief rivers are the Severn, Wye, Avon, Iliſ, Leden, Frome, Stroud, and Windruſh.

The air is wholeſome throughout, but the ſoil various. In the eaſt it is hilly; in the weſt woody; but the middle is enriched with a ſweet fruitful vale. The Severn, which waſhes the county for 40 miles together (70, including windings and turnings) brings neceſſaries to it from abroad, and conveys it's native commodities to foreign parts. This river is in ſome places two or three miles broad, and comes in with a violent tide, called the Boar, which rolls with a head from two to four feet high, carrying every thing before it, and overflowing it banks.

The county abounds with all ſorts of grain, cattle, fowl, and game, excellent bacon and cyder; and it's rivers afford great plenty of fiſh, eſpecially ſalmon from the Severn, with lamprays and conger-eels.

It is uſually divided into three parts, viz.

I. **COTESWOLD**, the hilly part, which is not very fertile, lying expoſed to the winds and cold, that it's corn is ſlow in coming out of the ground; hence the proverb among them, As long in coming as Coteſwold barley: but it is healthy, and feeds multitudes of ſheep, remarkable for the fineneſs of their wool. It has been computed that, before our wool began to be clandestinely exported to France, 50,000 cloths were made yearly in this ſhire, eſtimated at 10l. a cloth, the fine with the coarſe; and the number of ſheep kept in the county, moſt of which are fed here, is computed at 400,000.

II. The **VALE**. In this part moſt of their excellent cheeſe is made; though what is ſo called in London comes moſtly out of Wilthire, the real cheeſe of this county going more to Briſtol.

III. The **FOREST OF DEAN**, which was formerly covered with wood for the ſpace of 20 miles long and 10 broad; but the many rich veins of iron diſcovered there, and forges eſta bliſhed by act of parliament for working it, the woods are not only reduced to a narrower compaſs, but many towns and villages have been built in the foreſt. Where the woods are ſtill preſerved, the oaks are reckoned the beſt in England.

GLOUCESTER is ſeated on a branch of the Severn, which brings up ſhips to it. Here are 12 incorporated companies for it's trade, which was conſiderable till leſſened by the neighbourhood of Briſtol; but pin-making is now one of it's chief manufactures.

CIRENCESTER, vulgarly **CICETER**, has it's name from the Churn that paſſes by it. It's Friday market, which is chiefly for wool, that manufacture being the principal trade here, is reckoned one of the greateſt in the kingdom; and the weeks before Palma-Sunday and Bartholomew's are conſiderable fairs for cloth.

TEWKSBURY, on the conflux of the Severn and Avon, is a large, beautiful, and populous town, of which the chief manufacture is woollen cloth and ſtockings. The cloathing trade here is the better accommodated, by reaſon of it's nearneſs to Coteſwold Hills and Stroud Water, the former furniſhing the fleece, and the latter the dye. It has been long noted for muſtard-balls made here, and ſent into other parts.

CAMPDEN is famous for the manufacture of ſtockings.

DEAN, in the foreſt of that name. Cloth was once, but pins are now, it's chief manufacture; and the owners of lands here make good advantage by digging up iron cinders, which they ſell at a good price to the furnaces.

HELLENHAM, on a brook that runs into the Severn, drives a conſiderable trade in malt, and is much frequented on account of its mineral waters.

STOW on the **WOULD**. It's fairs, which are on May-day and the 13th of October, are famous for hops, cheeſe, and ſheep, of which it is ſaid 20,000 were ſold in one October fair.

STROUD ſtands on a hill, at the foot of which runs the river

Stroud, which is exceeding clear, and particularly famous for it's peculiar quality in dying ſcarlet broad cloth, and all other grain colours in the beſt manner: ſo that many clothiers live near, and along it's banks, for near 20 miles, who have erected many fulling-mills upon it.

DURRLEY; it's chief manufacture is woollen cloth.

LECHLADE. The Thames begins here to be navigable, and barges come to it's quay to take in butter, cheeſe, and other goods for London, which makes Lechlade very populous.

WOTTON under **EDGE**, is a pretty town, and has been long noted for the making of cloth. Its pariſh, in which are abundance of the woollen manufacturers, is 12 miles in circuit.

TEVBURY, a handſome populous town, has a trade in yarn; and great quantities of cheeſe, bacon, and other commodities, are ſold in it's markets.

CHIPPING-SADBURY has a good market for corn, and other proviſions, but eſpecially cheeſe, for which it is reckoned the greateſt in England, except Atherſtone in Warwickſhire.

MARSHFIELD is a conſiderable cloathing town, and drives a good trade in malt.

KINGSWOOD is the name of a foreſt near the city of Briſtol, containing about 5000 acres. On the edge of it, at a place called Conham, are thoſe famous works for ſmelting copper, carried on by Mr. Wayne, &c. who ſupply the Eaſt-India and other companies with vaſt quantities yearly, beſides what is uſed by the braſs-work in that neighbourhood. The chief part of the ore is brought from Ireland and Cornwall, and the coals from pits in the neighbourhood.

GOLD, is the heavieſt, and moſt ſimple of all known bodies, and compoſed of two ſubſtances; the one extremely pure and ſimple matter, of the nature of mercury; the other, which is ſaid to fix it, is equally pure, and of the nature of ſulphur. It is the moſt malleable and ductile of all metals, wholly incapable of ruſt, and not ſonorous when ſtruck upon, requires a ſtrong fire to melt it, a greater degree than ſuſes tin, but leſs than is neceſſary to fuſe iron or copper. It turns white before it runs, and when in fuſion it appears of a pale bluiſh green colour on the ſurface.

It amalgamates the readieſt of all metals with quickſilver; when in fuſion, eaſily and intimately blends itſelf with ſilver, with which, when mixed, it will alſo run into a maſs with iron. It more eaſily mixes with copper and the other metals, and with ſome of the ſemi-metals, as regulus of antimony. It will remain unaltered, and undiminished in weight, in the fierceſt common fire. Expoſed to the ſtrongeſt burning glaſſes, it ſparkles and flies off in ſmall maſſes, which, examined, are found to be pure unaltered gold; but, if often expoſed, it is ſaid, that part will fly off in fumes, and the remaining ſubſtance be of a purpliſh deep blue, more of the nature of vitriol than of gold, as wanting the malleability and ſpecific gravity.

Gold is the moſt divisible of all bodies; if melted with 100000 times it's weight of ſilver, it will be ſo perfectly blended with it, that any grain of the melted maſs is, on aſſaying, found to contain it's proportionate quantity of it; and a ſingle drop of its ſolution, in aqua regia, gives a metalline taſte to a pint of ſpirit of wine. It's ductility is ſuch, that the wire-drawers can extend a leaf of gold to the 12,000,000th part of an inch, in thinneſs, over a flattened ſilver wire, which will be perfectly covered, though viewed with a microſcope. It's ſpecific gravity is as 19420 to 1000.

It's peculiar ſolvent, aqua regia, owes it's power over it to the ſea-ſalt it contains, being almoſt the only ſalt that will act on gold. This ſolution affords one teſt for this metal, and fuſion, with antimony, gives another; for on keeping up the fire to a great height, the antimony will be driven off in fumes, and leave the gold, if pure, unaltered in weight; the antimony taking any other mixture away with it, ſilver not excepted.

If ſalt of tartar, or any other fixed alcali, be thrown into a ſolution of gold, it is precipitated in form of a powder, that has a greater exploſive power than gun-powder, and is called from its property aurum fulminans.

Gold is uſually found in the earth native, in it's own proper form, not in the ſtate of ore; but ſeldom quite pure, containing uſually ſome copper, and oftener ſome ſilver among it. Thus mixed with other metals, it is found ſometimes in ſmall granules among the ſands of rivers, ſometimes in larger maſſes, looſe and alone, or mixed with red or whitith marle, in the ſiſſures of rocks. But it's moſt uſual form is that which is vulgarly, though improperly, called gold ore; that is in maſſes of a whitith opaque ſtone, like cryſtal, in which the native gold lies like drops and threads, and ſometimes veins. It has many beautiful appearances, the ſtone itſelf being tinged with black, green, and other colours; ſome ſtones there are coarſer. In all theſe ores, the gold is in its proper form; but in ſome metalline ſubſtances it is reduced to the ſtate of ore, being reduced to a diſcoloured and brittle maſs, penetrated with ſulphur or arſenic, theſe two ſubſtances naturally debaſing the other metals into that ſtate. Whenever gold is found thus altered, it has always ſilver with it, and the maſſes are properly ſilver ores, or of ſome other metal in which there is ſilver, the gold being always in the ſmalleſt quantity.

Among

Among these gold ores, lapis lazuli is reckoned; some of them, beside the gold-coloured marcasite, containing also a little gold. Common sand and clay may also be reckoned among the ores, few but containing some gold, though not enough to pay the expence of working, as is the case with orpiment.

The colour of our yellow marcasites has tempted many to believe them almost all gold; but, on calcining them, they retain not their yellow colour, but turn red.

Gold resisting the action of lead, or glass of lead, and sustaining the copel and test, in which other metals, except silver, turn to scoria, is easily separated from its ore, by the common method of copelling and testing.

When in its native state, it is also conveniently separated by amalgamation with mercury, as mixing more readily with it than even silver does.

The ready way of separating it from its ore by the copel, is to mix a quantity of it in fine powder, with eight times its weight of granulated lead, keeping it red-hot in the test, till the scoria on the surface are perfectly vitrified; after which, the lead and gold, thus separated from the other particles, are to be put into a copel, and kept on the fire till all the lead is burnt into litharge and scoria, and the gold alone remains on the copel. When the ore is mixed with other substances, besides stones or earths, as pyrites and the like, a little glass of lead is to be added, which makes them run thin, and more easily precipitate the metal. These methods are to be used when it is in a state of ore; but when in its metallic form, though mixed, the short way is by amalgamation. To do this, powder the ore, then wash away the lighter and fouler part, infuse the rest in strong vinegar, with a little allum dissolved, pouring off the vinegar afterwards, and washing the ore with water; after which it is to be dried and rubbed with a mortar, with four times its weight of mercury, till all the gold be taken up by it, separating as much as can be of the loose mercury, by straining through a leather, squeezing well, and separating the remainder by distillation or evaporation; and the metal left behind, is to be fused with borax, till it is quite pure.

When there is gold and silver together, in the remaining mass, they are to be separated by aqua regia, evaporating it when it has dissolved all the gold, which must be melted in a crucible with borax: the undissolved silver is to be melted in another. Finally, gold mixed in a regulus, with any of the other metals, is readily separated from them by fusing the whole, with three or four times the weight of glass of lead. Aqua regia, [see that article] though the common solvent of gold is not the only one, it being long since discovered, that the fumes arising from a mixture of the oils of tartar and vitriol will dissolve it, and a common liquid menstruum may be produced from these, which will have the same power. Mercury is also a true solvent by amalgamation; and the liver of sulphur, fused with it, takes it up perfectly, that it will be carried into a milk of sulphur, by the common processes afterwards with it.

Its virtues, in medicine, seem altogether imaginary; wherefore, present practice allows it's use as an ornament only to medicines. The only preparation of it, ever received as a medicine, by rational people, is the aurum fulminans, and that has been of late proved to be a very mischievous one.

AURUM FULMINANS.

Take four ounces of aqua fortis, and one of common salt, mix, and they will make an aqua regia of a yellowish colour. Set off this liquor, in a sand-heat, and dissolve in it as much gold as it will take up, which is somewhat more than a fifth part of it's own weight. When the gold is dissolved, pour the solution from the black powder, which will remain at bottom, if any silver was in the gold, and drop into the liquor oil of tartar per deliquium, till there is no more ebullition. The gold will be found precipitated in form of a yellow powder; this is to be separated from the liquor by decantation, washed several times with water, and dried by a gentle heat. This powder is one fourth more in quantity than the gold used. If heated beyond a certain, very mild degree of heat, it goes off with a loud explosion, whether the heat be caused by fire, or only rubbing too violently. This effect is prevented, by adding a larger quantity of oil of tartar than necessary in the preparation, and if melted with flour of brimstone, and the sulphur burnt off, it also loses this property, and turns of a purple colour.

This powder, given internally as a sudorific and cordial, often occasions violent cholics, and other fatal symptoms, and ought, perhaps, to be wholly banished out of practice.

Tincture of gold, or aurum potable.

There is no such thing as a true tincture of gold; but those who are desirous of what is so called may make it thus: Dissolve any quantity of pure gold, refined with antimony, in 12 times it's weight of spirit of salt; add half the quantity of the essential oil of lavender, rosemary or the like: shake the two liquors together, and let it stand till the oil separates to the top; it will have acquired the yellow colour the menstruum had, and is to be then poured off, and mixed with

four times the quantity of spirit of wine: let these stand together till they are of a purple colour.

This is supposed to possess the virtues of a cordial and sudorific, which, if it have, must be owing to the essential oil, not to the gold, which may be separated in it's own proper form by mere evaporation.

Gold tinges transparent substances of a fine red colour: it is evident in the ruby, from the fragments of which gold may always be separated. The same effect follows the artificial production of them: the fine filings of it, fused with borax, adding a small quantity of salt of tartar and crude nitre, give a fine, though not a deep red, to the glossy matter resulting from this, as from all other fusions of borax. If one part of gold, and five of pure tin, be calcined together, they form a powder, a few grains of which, thrown into a composition of red lead and crystal, vitrify, give the glass the true colour of the ruby, and, if more be added, will be deeper and resemble the paler amethysts. The same effect will be also produced by a precipitation of gold from a solution in aqua regia, by adding a solution of tin.

Numberless have been the attempts to convert other metals into gold; but as they are all lighter, and as nothing is so hard to give by art as gravity, they have been hitherto, and are likely always to be without success.

The degradation of it seems nearly as difficult as the making it. Some have gone so far towards this, as to bring it to a state in which no reducing fluxes they were acquainted with would get it to itself again; but this is no proof others might not be invented that would. The vapour of phosphorus calcines it indeed to a kind of calx, and so will a long and gentle calcination of gold that has been amalgamated with mercury; but we have been able to reduce gold in this state, produced by either means, into pure and malleable gold again.

OF WORKING GOLD, &c. IN THE LARGE WAY OF BUSINESS.

In the large way of business, silver or gold ores are treated either by amalgamation with mercury, or by smelting and refining them with lead. The method by amalgamation is only used where the ore is exceeding rich, particularly at the silver mines at Potosi: for, by grinding such rich ores with mercury, the nobler metals will be drank up by it, and may be readily separated from it again by distillation; which carries over the quicksilver, and leaves the nobler metals behind. Lead is used along with the poorer ores, in order to drink up the nobler metals they may contain; which it does much after the same manner by fusion, as quicksilver does without; so as to separate many heterogeneous parts, by keeping them floating, and afterwards restoring the nobler metals by cupellation.

The large way of smelting gold and silver ores is analogous to the small one of assaying [see the article ASSAYING] all things being proportionably larger, the fire animated with bellows, and the blast directed upon the surface of the melted metal, so as to blow off the lead in the form of litharge, before it is fully vitrified. But here the silver is not perfectly refined at one operation; some proportion of lead still remaining mixed among it, that requires to be burned out after the same manner in a stronger fire: and even thus it is with great difficulty that silver can be obtained pure, or totally separated, either from lead or copper. This large way of working might, perhaps, be improved in respect of the vessel, or test employed, and the management of the fire, so as to work by the means of flame, without the assistance of bellows. With regard to the test, we are to observe that bone-ashes, though ever so well washed and sifted, are not, perhaps, the fittest matter to make tests of; the tests so made being apt to crack in the fire, unless dried very gently for many days before they are used. But there is a particular kind of talc, or unvitrifiable spert-stone, that, being calcined to fine powder, as it readily may, and made up with a small solution of vitriol in water, affords such tests as may be immediately used without danger of cracking.

Again, The flame of a wind-furnace may be made to play upon the surface of the melted metal, so as readily to perform this operation, without blowing with bellows, that violently tear away the silver along with the lead, in the form of litharge. And this farther convenience may be obtained, that not only smaller and cheaper wood, but even pit-coal, shall here serve for the fuel, provided the structure of the furnace be well contrived for the purpose; and in some places they have of late advantageously used common pit-coal for testing in the large way; and the same improvements might also be made in the small way of assaying.

To amalgamate gold, or to mix it with mercury, which is of use to gilders.

Take a penny-weight of fine gold, beat into very thin small plates; heat them in a crucible red-hot, then pour upon them 8 penny-weights of quick-silver, revived* from cinnabar; stir the matter with a little iron rod, and, when you see it begin to rise in fumes, which quickly happens, cast your mixture into an earthen pan, filled with water, it will coagulate, and become tractable; wash it several times, to take away it's blackness:

blackness: thus you have an amalgama, from which separate the mercury, which you will find is not united, by pressing it between your fingers, after you have wrapped it up in a linnen cloth.

* Reviving of quicksilver from cinnabar is thus performed; take a pound of artificial cinnabar, powder it, and mix it exactly with three pounds of quick lime, also powdered; put the mixture into an earthen pot, or glass retort, whose third part at least remains empty; place it into a reverberatory furnace, and, after having fitted to it a receiver filled with water, let it rest 24 hours at least; raise your fire by degrees, and at last increase it to the height, and the mercury will run in drops into the receiver; and having washed the mercury, to cleanse it from the little portion of earth it might carry along with it, dry it with linnen, or the crumbs of bread, and keep it for use.

A particular method of gilding, which may be done more expeditiously than with quicksilver.

Take the finest gold, dissolve it in aqua regia * [see the article AQUA REGIA] which has been prepared with salt; let the aqua regia be evaporated to half the quantity; then put the glass into a damp cellar, on sand, and the gold will overnight shoot into crystals, which take out, and let them dissolve again in distilled vinegar: put it again upon the fire, and let the half thereof evaporate; then put the glass again in the cellar, as before, in moist sand, and overnight the gold will shoot into crystals. Dissolve these in rain water, and evaporate that to half the quantity, and again it will shoot into crystals; when this is done, take the crystalline gold, grind it to powder with a knife; put that powder into the white of an hard-boiled egg, after the yolk has been taken out; set it in a cool and damp place, and overnight it will dissolve into an oil; and what silver you anoint with it, though ever so thin, drying it gently, you will find the gilding of a perfectly high and fine colour.

* The preparation of this aqua regia only differs from the following receipt in using of salt instead of sal ammoniac. The usual way of making aqua regia, according to Lemery, is thus:

Powder four ounces of sal ammoniac, and put it into a matrass, or other glass vessel, of a good bigness; pour upon it 16 ounces of spirit of nitre, place the vessel in sand a little warm, until the sal ammoniac is all dissolved; then pour the dissolution into a bottle, and stop it with wax. This is the right aqua regia.

REMARKS.

Among many things that are gross enough to be the objects of touch, and to be managed with our hands, there are some which may help us to conceive a wonderful minuteness in the small parts whereof they consist. I procured silver, says Mr Boyle, whose ductility is very much inferior to that of gold, to be drawn out to so slender a wire, that, when it was accurately measured, nine yards thereof weighed but about a grain in a very tender balance. And, since experience informs us that half an English inch may, by diagonal lines, be divided into 100 parts capable of being easily distinguished for mechanical uses, it follows, that a grain of this silver wire may be divided into 64,800 parts, and yet each of these will be a true metaline cylinder, which we may very well conceive to consist of a multitude of minuter parts: for, though I could procure no gilt wire near so slender as our silver wire, yet a grain of some I had by me was 14 feet long; at which rate, an ounce would reach about a mile. And if we suppose the gilt wire, as in probability it might have been drawn, as slender as the silver-wire, the instance will be still far more considerable: for, in this case, each of those little cylinders, of which 64,800 go to make up one grain, will have a superficial area, which, except at the bases, is covered with a case of gold, that is not only separable from it by a mental operation, but, perhaps, also by a chemical one. For, I remember, that from very slender gilt wire, though I could procure none so slender as this of mere silver, I more than once got out the silver; so that the golden films, whilst they were in a liquor that plumped them up, seemed to be solid wires of gold: but, when the liquor was withdrawn, they appeared oblong, and extremely thin double membranes of the metal; which, with a fine instrument, might have been ripped open, displayed, and made capable of further divisions and subdivisions. But, though each of the little silver cylinders just mentioned must not only have it's little area, but it's solidity, yet I saw no reason to doubt that it might be very possible to have drawn the same quantity of metal to a much greater length; since even an animal substance is capable of being brought to a slenderness much surpassing that of our wire.

An ingenious gentlewoman of my acquaintance, who kept silk-worms, had once the curiosity to draw out one of the oval cases they spin, into all the silken wire it was made up of; which appeared in measure to be much above 300 yards, yet weighed but two grains and a half; so that each cylindrical grain of silk may well be reckoned to be, at least, 120 yards long.

We took six leaves of beaten gold, and singly measuring them with a rule, purposely made for nice experiments, we found them to have a greater equality in dimensions, and to be nearer true squares, than could be well expected: the side of the square was, in each of them, exactly three inches and a quarter; which number being reduced to a decimal fraction, viz. 3. 25, and multiplied by itself, affords 10. 5625 for the area of the six leaves. These being carefully weighed, in a pair of tender scales, amounted all of them to one grain and a quarter; and so one grain of this leaf-gold was extended to somewhat above 50 inches; which differed but about a fifth part from an experiment of the like nature that I made many years ago, in a pair of exact scales: and so small a difference may very well be imputed to that of the pains and diligence of the gold-beaters, who do not always work with equal strength and skill, nor upon equally fine and ductile gold.

Now supposing an inch, divided into 100 sensible parts, to be applied to each side of a square inch of this leaf-gold, it is manifest that, by fine parallel lines, drawn between all the opposite points, a grain of gold must be divisible into 500,000 very minute squares, but yet discernible by a sharp eye: and, if we suppose the inch divided into 200 parts, the number of the squares into which a single grain is capable of being divided, will amount to no less than two millions.

There is yet another way to shew the great divisibility of gold. A refiner, with whom I used to deal, informed me, that to an ounce of silver he commonly allowed eight grains of gold, when it was to be drawn into well-gilt wire, as slender as a hair; but that, if it were to be more slightly-gilt wire, six grains would serve the turn. He also shewed me a fair cylindrical bar of silver, as it was at first gilt, whereon the leaf-gold that overlaid the surface did not appear to be, by odds, so thick as fine Venetian paper; yet, comparing this with gilt wire, the wire appeared to be the better gilt of the two; possibly because the gold, in passing through the various holes in the making, was, by the sides of them, not only extended, but polished, which made it look more vividly than the unpolished leaves that gilt the ingot. So that, if we suppose an ounce of the gilt wire lately mentioned to have been gilt with six grains of leaf-gold, it will appear, by an easy calculation, that, at this rate, one ounce of gold, employed in gilding wire of that fineness, would reach between 90 and 100 miles.

But if we further suppose, that the slender silver wire first mentioned were gilt, though we should allow it to have not six, but eight grains of leaf-gold to an ounce of silver, it must be acknowledged, that an hollow cylinder of gold, weighing but eight grains, may be stretched so as to reach as far as 60 times it's weight of silver wire, which it covers; and consequently, a grain of that wire having been found to be 27 feet long, an ounce of gold would reach 155 miles and above an half; and, if we yet farther suppose this hollow cylinder of gold to be slit along, and cut into as slender lifts as possible, we cannot deny that the gold may be made to reach a stupendous length.

Of the extreme ductility of the constituent particles of gold.
By the learned Dr. Edmund Halley.

It is evident, says he, from undoubted experiment, that gravity is in all bodies proportionable to the quantity of matter in each, and there is no such thing as a propension of some more, others less, towards the earth's center; since, the impediment of the air being removed, all bodies descend, be they ever so loose or compact in texture, with equal velocity. It follows, therefore, that there is seven times as much matter in gold as in a piece of glass of the same magnitude (their specific gravities being nearly as seven to one) and, consequently, that at least six parts of seven in the bulk of glass must be pore, or vacuity. This some favourers of the atomical philosophy have endeavoured to solve, by supposing the primary or constituent atoms of gold to be much larger than those of other bodies, and, consequently, the pores fewer. In order to examine the magnitude of those atoms, I informed myself among wire-drawers, that the very best double-gilt wire was made out of cylindrical ingots, four inches in circumference, and 28 inches long, which weigh 16 pounds Troy; on these they bestow four ounces of gold, that is, to every 48 ounces of silver one of gold; and that two yards of the superfine wire weigh a grain. Hence at first sight it appeared, that the length of 98 yards is in weight 49 grains, and that a single grain of gold covers the said 98 yards, and that the 10,000th part of a grain is above $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch long, which yet may be actually divided into 10, and so the 100,000th part of a grain of gold be visible without a microscope. And, by means of the specific gravities of the metals, viz. silver 10 $\frac{1}{2}$, and gold 18 $\frac{3}{4}$, I found the diameter of such wire the $\frac{1}{312}$ part of an inch, and it's circumference the $\frac{1}{123}$ part: but the gold in thickness not to exceed the $\frac{1}{332300}$ part of an inch; whence it may be concluded, that the cube of an hundredth part of an inch would contain above 2,433,000,000 (or the cube of 1345) of such atoms. And yet, though the gold be stretched to so great a degree as

is here demonstrated, it shews itself of so even and united a texture, as not to let the white colour of the silver under it appear (even with a microscope) through any the least pores; which argues, that, even in this exceeding thinness, very many of those atoms may still lie one over the other.

Gold and silver lace, thread or fringe, of their exportation.

* These are, upon exportation into foreign parts by way of merchandize, intitled to a drawback; wherefore, not only an entry must be made as for other goods, but proof of the manufacture, by oath, upon the bill of entry, as in the following example:

* 10 Ann. cap. 26 §. 62.

3d of March 1730.—No. 35.

In the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica.

Roger Granger.

Twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, } valued at
Twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, } 20*l.* in
Ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, } all.

William Brooks [the maker] maketh oath, That the twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, and ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoise weight, above mentioned, were all made since the 1st day of July 1712, and were all made of plate wire spun upon silk.

William Brooks.

Jurat 3 die Martii 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector of the customs.

And before they are shipped off, sufficient security must be given to the collector of the customs for the due exportation, as follows:

A bond for the exportation of gold and silver lace, thread, or fringe.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Roger Granger hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Tavistock of London, Daniel Bright master, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of silver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoise weight, all made since the 1st day of July 1712, and made of plate wire spun upon silk: and whereas the said Roger Granger, upon exportation of the said gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe for foreign parts, is to have an allowance or drawback according to an act of parliament of the tenth year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, on that behalf made:

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said gold thread, silver lace, and gold fringe, and every part thereof, shall be shipped, and really exported into parts beyond the seas, and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be reloaded, or unshipped with intent to be reloaded, or brought on shore again in any part or parts of Great Britain, then this obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered
in the presence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Roger Granger.
Daniel Bright.

British wrought plate, or manufactures of silver.

* As no molten silver whatsoever may be exported, but such only as has been marked or stamped at Goldsmiths-Hall; and † as no manufactures of silver may be made less in fineness than of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine silver in every pound Troy; therefore proof of such marking and fineness must be made on the bill of entry, and likewise on the back of the cocket, as in the following example:

* 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 5.
† 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 40.

12th of January 1730.—No. 6.

In the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Straights.

Joel Crisp.

One hundred and fifty ounces of wrought plate, of the fineness of eleven ounces two pennyweights per pound Troy, valued at fifty pounds all.

Arthur Strong [goldsmith] maketh oath, That the one hundred and fifty ounces of wrought plate above [or within] mentioned, are all of the fineness of eleven ounces two pennyweights to each pound Troy, on which there is the Goldsmiths-Hall mark.

Arthur Strong.

Jurat 12 die Jan. 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector.

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* But if 'tis exported by way of merchandize, and the exporter would have the duty repaid him, then, as a foundation for a debenture, proof must be made on the bill of entry, not only of the marking and fineness, but likewise of the making, as follows:

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18, 40.

Arthur Strong [goldsmith] maketh oath, That the one hundred fifty ounces of silver plate wrought, above mentioned, were all made since the first day of June 1720, and marked with the mark or stamp denoting it not to be less in fineness than that of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine silver in every pound Troy, on which there is the Goldsmiths-Hall mark.

Arthur Strong.

Jurat 12 die Jan. 1730, coram me;
A. B. Collector of the Customs.

And, before it be shipped, sufficient security must be given for the due exportation, as follows:

A bond for the exportation of wrought plate.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Joel Crisp hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Diligence of Bristol, Henry Hopkins master, for the Straights, one hundred and fifty ounces of silver plate wrought, all made since the 1st day of June 1720, and marked with the mark or stamp denoting it not to be less in fineness than eleven ounces, and two pennyweights of fine silver in every pound Troy: and whereas the said Joel Crisp, upon the exportation of the said plate, according to an act of parliament of the sixth year of the reign of his late majesty king George the 1st, on that behalf made, &c.

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said silver plate wrought, and every part thereof, shall be shipped, and really and truly exported into parts beyond the seas; and that the same, or any part thereof, shall not be reloaded, or unshipped with intent to be reloaded, or brought on shore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain, then this obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in
the presence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Joel Crisp.
Arthur Strong.

Of the importation of gold or silver thread, lace, &c.

Gold or silver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof, or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of copper, brass, or any other inferior metal, or gold or silver wire or plate, imported, to be forfeited or burnt, and 10*l.* paid by the importer for every parcel so imported. 10 Ann. cap. 26. sect. 65. And 15 Geo. II. cap. 20. sect. 7.

GOLD MINES.

* Among the seven mine-towns, says the learned Dr. Edward Brown, in Hungary (which are not far from one another, viz. Chremnitz, Schemnitz, Newfol, Koningsberg, Bochantz, Libeten, and Tila) Chremnitz is the richest in gold. They have also, at present, gold mines at Bochantz and Koningsberg; and they report in that country, that there hath been formerly a rich gold mine at Glafs Hitten, but lost since that Bethlem Gahor overrun those parts, when the undertakers stopped up the mine and fled.

They have worked in the gold mine at Chremnitz 900 years. This mine is several English miles in length, and about 160 fathoms deep. Many veins of the ore run to the north and to the east. They work also towards one, two, and three of the clock, as they speak; for the miners direct themselves under ground by a compass, not of 32 points (such as is used at sea) but by one of 24: which they divide, as we do the hours of the day, into twice twelve.

Of the gold ore, some is white, and some black, red, or yellow: that with black spots in white is esteemed the best, as also the ore which lieth next to the black veins. This ore is not rich enough to suffer any proof in small parcels, like that in other mines, whereby to know what proportion of metal is contained in it; but they pound a very great quantity thereof, and wash it in a little river, which runs nigh the town. The whole river being divided, and admitted into divers cuts, runs over the ore continually, and so washeth away the earthy parts from the metalline. And, from a clear river above the town, by its running through so many works, and over so much pounded ore, it becomes below the town a dark yellow stream, of the colour of the earth of those hills. See the article ASSAY.

There have been pieces of pure gold found in the mine; some of which I have seen in the emperor's treasury, and in

the elector of Saxony's repository: one piece as broad as the palm of my hand, and others less; and upon a white stone many pieces of pure gold, but these are very rare.

The common yellow earth of the country near Chrennitz, although it be not esteemed ore, affords some gold: and in one place I saw a great part of a hill digged away, which hath been cast into the works, washed and wrought in the same manner as pounded ore, with considerable profit.

Some passages in this mine, cut through the rock, and long disused, have grown up again; and I observed the sides of some, which had been formerly wide enough to carry their ore through, to approach each other, so as we passed with difficulty. This happens in moist places. The passages unite not from the top to the bottom, but from one side to another.

There is vitriol in this mine, white, red, blue, and green; and also vitriol waters. There is a substance found, which flicks to the gold ore, of small pointed parts like needles, called by them antimony of gold. There are crystals found here, and some tinged yellow.

The miners will not allow any quicksilver or brimstone to have been found here, yet, in the lately-mentioned antimony of gold, there is evidently sulphur, as I perceived by burning. The quicksilver mine, mentioned in the answer to Kircher's enquiries, Mund. Subter. is an Hungarian mile, or seven English miles distant from Chrennitz, and is not wrought in at present.

There is a vitriol mine in these hills near the gold mine: the earth or ore of it is reddish, and sometimes greenish. This earth is infused in water, and after three days the water is poured off, and boiled seven days in a leaden vessel, till it comes to a thick granulated whitish substance, which is afterwards reduced to a calx in an oven, and ferveth in the making aqua fortis, or the separating water used at Schemnitz. See the article AQUA FORTIS.

Of the method of extracting gold out of the ore.

They have divers ways of taking the gold out of its ore, by burning the ore, by melting, by adding silver ore and other minerals, sand, and lead, as they find the ore fluid or fixed. But without lead they proceed thus:

They break and pound the ore in water very fine, then wash it often, and lay it in powder upon cloths, and by the gentle oblique descending of the water over it, and their continual stirring it, the earthy, clayish, and lighter parts are washed away, while the heavier and metalline remaineth in the cloths. Those cloths are afterwards washed clean in several tubs, and the water, after some settling, poured off from its sediment, which sediment is again washed, and stirred up in several vessels and troughs, till at length they sprinkle quicksilver upon it, and knead it well together for an hour: and then washing it again in a wooden vessel, after the separating of much of it which the quicksilver touches not, by striking this vessel against their leg, they bring the gold and quicksilver together, in an amalgama, to one corner of it. From this amalgama they strain as much of the quicksilver as they can, through coarse cloths first, and then through fine; then they put the mass remaining upon a perforated plate, which they set over a deep pan placed in the earth, in the bottom of which pan they also put quicksilver. This pan they cover, and lute the cover well; and then making a charcoal fire upon it, they drive down the quicksilver yet remaining in the gold, to the rest in the bottom of the pan; then taking out the gold, they cast it into the fire that it may become purer.

Concerning Cranach gold, I cannot learn that there is any such gold, or place where gold is digged, in Hungary; but in Germany I think there is, for Agricola mentions such a place as Golde-Cranæum, and another called Golde-Crona.

Of the gold of the East-Indies.

The chief places, where it is found in any quantities, are (1.) Achim, the capital city of Sumatra, and is as a mere merchandize, not as money or coin, it being the chief return for goods carried thither for sale. (2.) In Pegu, whence it is brought to Achim to be sold to the merchants. (3.) In China and Japan: in the former they sell it for silver, and that to the great advantage of merchants, particularly at Canton, Amoy, and other places. (4.) At the Philippine Islands, particularly near Manila, where it is found in mines, and where they say one mine yields the king of Spain 200,000 ducats a year in gold, besides several others which they do not work in. (5.) In the island of Borneo, where they sift it out of the sands of the rivers, in their search after diamonds. It has been disputed by some, whether gold be not found as well in mines and rocks in bulk, as in dust; but this is now out of all doubt, it being frequent to see lumps of gold taken out of mines that shall weigh several ounces, and contain very little impurity. A few years since, I remember to have seen a lump of such gold, which, if I recollect right, weighed four or five ounces, in the possession of Charles Hayes, Esq; the deputy-governor of the late Royal African company of England; which he assured me he brought from

Guinea, as it was taken out of some of the mines by the negroes.

I have seen, says an author of good credit, one entire lump of pure gold, as it came from the mine, of an ounce weight, though it is not usually found in such large pieces: not but that I have seen enough to convince me, that in some places it grows in the middle of the hardest stones.

A Madras supercargo, in his return to Fort St. George from the west coast, brought a stone of about a pound and half weight: it seemed to have been beaten off, or parted by violence from some other stone to which it formerly grew: it was full of crannies or clefts, was coloured or veined like marble, and was very ponderous: it had several small branches of pure gold lying in these chinks or crannies, and shooting out from them, and from other rough craggy parts of the stone; all which rendered it the greatest natural curiosity I ever met with: the gold it contained was valued at 5l. 10s. sterling, though there was scarce the worth of 1l. in sight. There is likewise rock gold at Achim, which is very fine, and is known by its brightness.

It is an easy matter, in India, to cheat 5 or 6 per cent. in gold dust, by mixing small bits of other metal with it, which none but men of experience and judgment can detect: wherefore it is advisable to have one of the money-changers or examiners in this country present at all receipts, who probably may discover these defects, which the Europeans frequently overlook.

At Fort St. George, the mint brings above a thousand pagoda's a month into the company's coffers, at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for coinage of gold, and 2 per cent for silver. Gold and silver in relation to their fineness are reckoned by matts, and even fractional parts; as in England by carats, grains, &c. ten matts being equal to 24 carats, full fine.

To receive a thousand pounds, says Mr. Lockyer in his time, at Achim, in gold mace, would be an endless trouble; counterfeit ones in silver, brass, and mixt metals, being so common, that it is impossible to avoid them, though we have one or two money-changers to examine them for us: they judge of them by the found of a wooden dish, and are so nice, that in 100 they frequently refuse 60, which the next takes after the same manner, leaving above half for bad; though it may be, what he has made choice of, are not a jot better than the rest: however, if any are received by these fellows advice that prove so base as to be refused by every body, they are obliged to give good ones for them; in consideration of which, they are often honest than they otherwise would be. Tho' gold is found here [at Achim] adds he, in greater quantities than in any place I know of in India, yet the great demand for it keeps it at a very high rate. The current price, June 1704, was tale 7, 2 per bundle of 10 oz. 10 dwt. 21 gr. The current exchange from Fort St. George is 2 pagoda's a tale, which is not so much by 24 fanhams per bundle as the gold will produce in the mint, for it generally holds out above 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ matt, or 92 touch, and makes a bundle worth 14 pagoda's, 33 fanhams, 48 cash.

A merchant of Madras let out pagoda's 1000 at 16 per cent. respondentia, or on bottomy on the Strettham East Indiaman, for this place [Achim] which he received in gold dust at the above rate, and lost 18 per cent. on it in Malacca: betwixt which markets is often a greater disproportion in the value of gold.

Gold is a metal of such value, that a small mistake in its fineness may be 2 or 3 per cent. loss to the buyer. The Chinese reckon their gold by touches; 100 is full fine, and equal to 24 carats English; wherefore a sett of touches with silver alloy, from 50 to 100 touch, rising gradually as you are able to discern the difference of colours on a touch-stone, would be a great help, though it must be a nice judgment to distinguish to a touch, or rooth part.

Our East-India company had formerly an assay-master, to try their gold at Amoy; but the merchants of Canton would allow of no such practice, though there is no absolute security in buying without an accurate assay.

Gold-makers at Canton (as they are commonly called) cast all the gold, that comes through their hands, into shoes of about 10 tale weight, or 12 oz. 2 dwt. 4 gr. of an equal fineness: as one makes them 93 touch, another is famous for 94, &c. A private mark is stamped in the sides, and a piece of printed paper pasted to the middle of them, by which every one's distinct make is known; as our cutlers and other mechanics do, in their respective trades. Both ends of the shoes are alike, and bigger than in the middle, with thin brims arising above the rest, whence the upper side somewhat resembles a boat: from the middle, which in cooling sinks into a small pit, arise circles one within another, like the rings in the balls of a man's fingers, but bigger: the smaller and closer these are, the finer the gold is. When silver, copper, or other metal is enclosed in casting, as sometimes you may meet with it in small bits, the sides will be uneven, knobby, and a rising instead of sinking in the middle: sometimes they cast their gold in this form, not above 50 or 60 touch, and gild it four or five times over; so that, relying on our smooth stones, you are liable to be imposed on. Wherefore, experienced judges look on the rougher ones to

be the best, that are used by the Banians of Indostan, with a ball of black wax: but, for want of these, raise the sides with a graver, or cut the metal half through with a chissel, and break the rest; whence you may discern the colour and grain, and detect their fraud, even by the sight, when once the grain of gold of various degrees of fineness becomes familiar to a person. Should you cut it quite through, the chissel will so draw the gold over the alloy [see article ALLAY] that you can learn nothing from it.

This they will not permit, but, on the contrary, be affronted at a request, that shews so great a distrust of them: therefore, the most eligible way is to make a bargain before you begin the trial, and you may manage them afterwards as you will. The gold in this form is called after the makers names, or from the places whence it comes, but more commonly by the former; for there is a great deal thus cast at Pekin; but none of that name; those of Chuja and Chuckia are 93 touch, Tingza, Shing, and Guanza, 94. Of these the former turn to the best account. Sinchupoa and Chuchepoa are reckoned 96 and 95 touch. The Chinese, in gold and silver, always reckon one touch finer than it really is, and will allow you so in the receipt of money.

Gold in bars or ingots comes chiefly from Cochinchina and Tonquin, and differs in fineness from 75 to 100 touch. It is of several sizes, and easier much than the shoes to be counterfeit'd, which the foregoing precautions may guard a person against. Gold is a commodity as unsettled in its price in China, as any other.

Whatever you buy, as so much per piece, peccul, &c. you are to pay in silver 94 touch, which is really but 93, as traders will find in adjusting their custom accounts with the hoppers, who will not make the usual allowance of a touch as the merchants do, except you pay in dollars, which he may take at 95.

Bargains for gold at Canton are always so many tale weight of current silver, 94 touch for 10 tale weight of gold, reckoning so many tale as it touches, and adding or deducting as you agree for the over or under touch.—As, a shoe weighing 10 tale, touch 97 at touch for touch, amounts to 97 tale of current silver of 94 touch. Ten tale weight, touch 93 at 7 above touch, amounts to 100 tale current silver. Tale 10, touch 94 at 3 under, amounts to 91 tale current silver of 94. Formerly they used to sell for Sisee, or silver full fine, but the method is altered. Ten tale of gold 93 fine, sold for 94 tale weight of Sisee silver, is 7 above touch. Ten tale of gold 100 touch, sold for 94 tale Sisee silver, is touch for touch. Ten tale of gold, touch 94 for 100 Sisee, is 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ above.

To reduce Sisee into current silver, multiply by 100, and divide by 94. The hoppers divide by 93. All the eastern people alloy their gold with silver, therefore a copperish hue is grounds for suspicion. The coarsest, or gold of the lowest touch, is most advisable: for, in a particular assay, you get all the silver that is mixed with it for nothing, viz. 80 tale weight, touch 58, is 58 tale of pure gold, and 22 tale of silver alloy, which you pay not a farthing for.

This is according to Mr. Lockyer; but, by a more modern account of the China trade, the names and touches of gold are as follows, with some little variation in the orthography of the names; as well as in the touches, viz.

		Touch.
Chaya	— Gold shoes	93
Chroja	— — —	93
Chugra	— — —	93
Shinjepou	— — —	94
Tinjee	— — —	93
Poojee	— Bar gold	96
Yangpohooes	— — —	96
Cochinchina	— — —	96
Samoy	— Gold shoes - no chap - various touches	
Pekin	— Bars narrow	99
Shaja	— Small shoes	97

N. B. At Chinchew they falsify Yangpohooes gold.

Rule to bring different touches of gold into one.

Multiply the fineness of each sort by its particular weight, and adding their several products together, make a dividend of them; then adding the weights together, make that a divisor, and the quotient will be the fineness or touch.

Tale	Touch	
10	94	— — — 940
10	92	— — — 920
<hr/>		
20		201860
<hr/>		
		93 Touch of the whole.

R E M A R K S.

Pure gold, in England, is reckoned that which by the assay is found to be 24 carats fine; though it is no easy matter to refine it to so great perfection; and that which is less pure, as the English standard gold of 22 carats fine, is so many parts

of 24 pure fine gold, and the remaining $\frac{2}{24}$ is alloy. What is said to be 18, 19, 20, or 21 carats fine, is so many parts in 24 fine gold, and the remaining part, that makes up the 24, is alloy.—In China, their assay account is divided into 100 parts, and what is said to be fine gold, without alloy, is 100 waters, or touches, equal to our 24 carats fine. What is said to be 94 or 95 touches fine, is so many parts pure fine, and the remainder that makes up the 100 parts is alloy. The assay of China for gold ought to be all silver, but they sometimes mix copper for that purpose with the silver; and sometimes they unite all copper therewith instead of silver, which causes a great alteration in the colour of the gold; making it look and touch higher than is really it by $1\frac{1}{2}$, or $1\frac{2}{3}$, and sometimes 2 per cent. yet those who are constantly accustomed to deal in gold, will easily distinguish this by the sight: for, the copper alloy makes the gold look of a reddish yellow colour, whereas the silver makes it look of a more pure bright yellow, a little pale.

To know the goodness of gold or silver by the touch-stone, by comparing it to certain wires or needles of gold or silver of several assays; which was approved by Pliny, book 33. cap. 18. before the way of trial by assay with fire was known; though not with the accuracy it is at present performed by skilful modern assay-masters and refiners, the method of assaying by fire and aqua fortis being far preferable to that by the way of touch. But, since the Indians do not rarely care to deal by such a characteristic, it may be useful to give an account of the method by way of touch, viz.—Let these needles or wires, before mentioned, be made of four sorts. (1.) Let them be made of gold and silver. (2.) Of gold and copper. (3.) Of gold, silver, and copper. And (4.) Of silver and copper. The three first sorts are only for the trial of gold, and the latter for silver.

Let there be 24 needles of wire, made of the several mixtures or assays following:

$$\text{The } \left\{ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{matrix} 24 \\ 23 \\ 22 \\ 21 \\ 20 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ carats, that is, of fine gold, and } \left\{ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ Carat of silver.}$$

And so still 1 carat worse, till you have but one carat of fine gold, and 23 of fine silver, all marked of what fineness each needle or wire is of. There may also be made the like of the other two mixtures, viz. of gold and copper; likewise of gold, silver, and copper.

For the making these wires or needles for trial of silver, let the mixture or alloy be as followeth:

$$\text{The } \left\{ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ of } \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{fine silver} \\ 11 \\ 10 \\ 9 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ ounces of fine silver, and } \left\{ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ ounce per.}$$

And so till you have 1 ounce of silver, and 11 ounces of copper, all marked of what fineness it is.

The use of these several needles

Is, if you desire to know the goodness of any ingot, or piece of gold or silver by the stone, touch the said ingot or piece upon your touch-stone, and by it touch such of your needles as shall be most like the touch of your ingot, which will better appear by being wetted with your tongue, and that of your needle the gold or silver ingot, or piece, is best like unto, of that fineness it will be found.—This is esteemed one of the best methods of judging of the superior metals by the touch; but these are all very imperfect ways of knowing the qualities of gold and silver, in comparison to that of an accurate assay. See the article ALLAY, ASSAY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, REFINING, SILVER, ORES.

R E M A R K S.

In purchasing of gold by the touch, where there is no opportunity of having an assay, it requires very constant practice. Wherefore those who do not daily deal therein, but only occasionally in foreign countries, should, during the time of their voyage, often practise their touches, according to what has been before observed, rubbing them on the touch-stone one by another, till they become familiarized to distinguish the qualities of the one from those of the other; which constant practice will as easily enable the supercargo, &c. as the domestic goldsmith, to purchase with security. Gold, by the laws of China, is forbidden to be exported; yet the mandarines themselves will sometimes help you to it. Ten tale weight of gold, touch 92, bought at touch for touch (the most governing price) amounts to 111 oz. 8 dwt. 5 gr. current silver; at 5 s. 6 d. per ounce, is l. 30 : 12 : 8, for which you have 12 oz. 2 dwt. 4 gr. worth about 4 l. an ounce in London, amounting to l. 48 : 8 : 8, and makes upwards of 58 per cent. profit.

By reason of prohibiting the exportation of gold in China, the Europeans generally run privately most of their silver; not to avoid any duties payable thereon, but to conceal the amount of their imports, that thereby no conjectures may be made of the gold they export.

This valuable commodity is not altogether the produce of China, but is brought in great quantities by their junks from Cochinchina, in return for the goods sent thither.

Of the vast quantities of European coins which the Chinese receive, they preserve none entire, but run all down in iron moulds, forming a shapeless lump from 5 mace to 10 tale weight; every man melts his own money at the goldsmith's; what is applied to the payment of sance and emperor's duties must be Sisee, or 100 touch, no other being received into the emperor's treasury.—For other uses they make different touches, as they may serve their purposes of trade, in the different provinces of the empire.

Their weights for gold and silver.

10 Cash is	1 Candarine	oz. dwt. gr.
10 Candarines	1 Mace	
10 Mace	1 Tale, hitherto reckoned	1 : 4 : 5

but this is rather too much.

These are the weights for silver and gold, and may be called by the names of their money, for under these denominations are their accounts kept.

Of the gold trade of AFRICA.

To what a degree this country abounds in gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the French, who have settlements on the continent of Africa as well as we, but we have numberless living witnesses now among our own nation, and the vouchers of the most authentic historians; whose accounts, one would imagine, should rouse and animate us to push this traffic to the utmost degree and profit we are capable; for at present it is but in its infancy, which is no less true than extraordinary, notwithstanding we have been in possession of this trade ever since the reign of queen Elizabeth.

There are no countries in the world, says the celebrated historian Leo Africanus, richer in gold and silver than the kingdoms in Africa; as those of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi. By the means of settlements of strength, adds he, upon the continent of Africa, Europeans may traffic with the bordering people of Guinea and Lybia, and get into their hands the gold of Mandingo, and its adjacent territories; among which are those of the king of Congo, whose kingdom is one of the most flourishing and plentiful countries in Ethiopia.

From this country we might also easily have communication with that of Prete-Janny, which abounds with elephants, and such provisions and necessaries as would give singular ease and conveniency to facilitate such intercourses of commerce. Upon the confines of the kingdom of Congo lies Angola, with the king of which Paulo Dias, a Portuguese captain, waged war; the principal reason whereof was, certain silver mines that the captain discovered in the mountains of Cambabe, no way inferior to those of Potofi in the Spanish West Indies.

The same historian, speaking of the river Gambia*, observes, that, by the exchange of European merchandize with the natives, we may easily draw to us the gold of all those countries: and about ninety leagues up this river, there is a place called the Island of Elephants, in regard to the prodigious number of those creatures, which also affords a very advantageous branch of traffic.

* Our present African company of England have James Fort and Island in the river Gambia, on the north coast, with various factories, many leagues up the river; it formerly mounted 90, now 31 great guns, contains also small arms and stores, several warehouses for merchandize, a negro-house for 200 negroes, and apartments for the governors, factors, writers, officers, artificers, soldiers, and castle-slaves.

But it would be endless to transcribe all the passages in this historian, relating to the rich mines both of gold and silver, wherewith the Africans abound, and how easy a matter it is for Europeans to carry on a very extensive and very beneficial commerce with those people.

Ghana, or Guinea, says another eminent historian*, is the greatest city in all the countries of Negroland, the most populous, and the most abounding with merchandize: and not only very wealthy merchants travel thither from all the neighbouring parts, but also from the most remote corners of the west. This country borders upon the land of Vancara, very famous for the plenty and excellency of its gold mines. The king hath a grand palace near the banks of the Niger, and a mass of gold therein of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; but what is extraordinary is, that this mass of gold is completely pure and malleable, without being at all melted by the ordinary arts of refining and separation: it is also so extremely fine and soft, as, naturally produced, to admit of being hammered out as a spacious canopy of the prince's royal throne: to fo great a per-

fection has nature brought gold ore in many parts of Africa.

* Vide Geographia Nubienfis, &c. à Gabriele Stonita Syriacarum & Arabicarum literarum professore, 1619, p. 10.

A modern historian†, whose credit I never heard impeached, hath also confirmed the great treasures in this part of the world, and hath descended to a very minute specification of great variety of their mines.

† Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiste Labat.

The greatest part of our lands, says our author, where the mines are, produces gold in such plenty, that it is quite unnecessary to dig for it; it is needful only to take the superficies of the earth, and wash it in a bowl, to come at the gold dust, and very often pieces of gold of pretty good weight*, &c.—The earth, says he again, which produces it, is not very hard, or difficult to dig; it is generally of the clayey kind, of various colours, and mixed with some sandy kind of ore; so that ten men in Africa may do more work generally than 200 can in the richest mines of Peru.

* Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiste Labat. Vol. iv. p. 39.

The negroes, proceeds he, are totally ignorant of the peculiar nature of lands that yield gold; they have no art or methods of judging, which do or do not afford that metal: they have a general idea, that there is plenty of gold mines almost every where, and the drier the earth is, and more unkindly in the production of vegetables, the more reason they imagine there is to believe such places yield gold: wherefore they scratch and dig almost every-where indiscriminately; and, when by their rambling searches they happen to discover plenty in one place, they continue to work there so long only as a diminution of the first plenty does not discontinue, and this without any workman-like skill in sinking any depth, or discovering the course of the vein: and, so soon as the mine remarkably diminishes from its first plenty, they immediately forsake that place, and go in quest of a fresh one, without searching there any further*.

* Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiste Labat. Vol. iv. p. 40, 41.

When they find the mine rich, and that they can, without much trouble, obtain a considerable quantity of gold, they sometimes vouchsafe to remain digging at the same place, even six, or perhaps seven feet deep; but that extent generally determines their search; not because the mine ceases to be less plentiful (for they confess, the deeper they sink, the greater quantity of gold they find) but because they have no invention of shafts, nor any other knowledge in the methods and nature of mining, to prevent the earth from falling in upon them.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 46, 47.

After this general account of the riches of Africa, our author gives us a detail of variety of rich mines; the truth of which appears, by his representation, to be well attested. As 1. A gold and silver mine at Fourquarenne. 2. Another at Sambanoura, where he says the negroes find gold only by mere washing of the earth, without digging at all; they only rake it together with their hands from the surface of the earth. 3. A mine at Sagolla, where also they find gold upon the surface of the earth, by simple washing of it, without sinking at all. This gold is extremely pure, and very easy of fusibility. It may be presumed, he says, that those metallic earths would afford considerably more gold than what is found upon the bare superficies. 4. Guinguiua-Faranna is a place quite sowed, as it were, with gold mines; where take the earth almost indifferently, and wash it, you will find pure gold which melts with great ease*.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 47.

What indicates the riches of the land here still more is, that the very rivulets of water that arise from it, and run into the river Falleme, carry with them so much gold, that the neighbouring negroes, when the mines are not washed by the permission of their prince, come to these rivulets, and employ themselves with washing the sand, and find there considerable quantities of gold. Nor is this practice forbid them; and, if the negroes were not so indolent, they might greatly enrich themselves, even by this peddling work*. 5. The mountains about Guinguiua-Faranna are of a soft earth, strewed with gold sand, which yields well in fine gold; as also there are golden marcasites, which have proved of considerable value†.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 47, 48.

† Ditto, p. 47.

The mines likewise at Niasanbona are very rich, and easy to be worked; but this ore should be pounded and smelted. This requiring more art in refining than the negroes are matters of, it would be easy to get possession thereof*.

6. The most considerable mine that is at present open, and which the negroes work with more care, is that between the village of Tamba-oura and Nettico, about 30 leagues east of the river Falemo, in the center of the country of Bom-bouco. This is surprisingly rich, and produces a very fine gold; and, for 15 or 20 leagues round about, here is so great plenty of mines, that they cannot be well represented on the maps, by reason that so great a quantity would create confusion: it may be said, with great truth, that mines in this place are superior to all others in those parts of Africa †.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 50.

† Ibid. p. 51.

The want of almost all the conveniences of life here has put the negroes under the necessity of working their mines with something of more industry than is usual among them. They have sunk here even 10 feet deep, which is very extraordinary with them, and a matter of great difficulty to accomplish, they wanting both materials and experience for matters of this nature.

7. They find, however, at this depth, gold in much greater abundance than by merely searching the superficies of the earth, or by a little shallow digging, as they do in all other places. It happens sometimes, that the veins they meet with are mixed with a kind of sand, or some more congealed earth; and long experience has taught them to pound and wash this ore, to separate the gold from it; which then they find very plentiful, and very pure. But, if they were well acquainted with the arts of smelting and refining of ores, they would produce considerably more; but they have no knowledge thereof, nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines*.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 52.

8. There are two gold mines at Naye. That which is on the brink of the river has been a long time left off working, only because it is subject to be overflowed. But they have opened another a little distance from this, upon the right of the river, which is not liable to be overflowed, and, therefore, may be worked at all times*.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 54.

9. About 20 leagues above Coinoura, to the left of the river, there is a gold mine, in the land of Tomane Niacalen, which is very rich, and of a pure metal. It is very easy to work, and yet the negroes have left it, upon an idle superstition that prevails among them*.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 54, 55.

10. There are an infinite number of other places with evident signatures of mines of gold. Among others, there are many about 17 leagues from the mouth of the river Falemo, in the Niger, which are no way inferior in value to those before mentioned in the mountains of Nettico and Tamba-oura*.

Labat, vol. iv. p. 55.

R E M A R K S.

That the inland parts of Africa, which have been little frequented by traders, abound with gold, seems to be a point out of all doubt, if we pay any regard to human testimony, either by written or oral tradition; which might be shewn from great variety of other authorities, was it needful. That the article of gold alone, therefore, would supply the Africans wherewith to barter for European commodities to a far greater degree than has ever yet been experienced, is very reasonable to believe; and, consequently, those nations who have so established their trade to Africa, as to promote the greatest inland traffic with those people, are likely to be the greatest gainers thereby. May it not, therefore, still deserve consideration, whether the African trade of this nation is yet bottomed upon the most beneficial footing? The mere skimming a little of the coast-trade for gold, ivory, and slaves, seems to be but a very small advance in this commerce, in comparison to what it will certainly admit of.

By what means this traffic may be more honourably, and more humanely improved, see the articles AFRICAN TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.

Of the GOLD TRADE of AMERICA.

It is generally understood that silver is the peculiar wealth of Peru; and the Spaniards have also gold mines there.—There are also two washing-places for gold in the south part of Peru, near the frontiers of Chili. About the year 1709 there were two surprising large lumps of virgin gold found in one

of these places, one of which weighed 32 pounds complete, and was purchased by the count de Montticia, then viceroy of Peru, and presented to the king of Spain: the other was shaped somewhat like an ox's heart: it weighed 22 pounds and a half, and was bought by the corregidor of Africa.

To find these lavadero's, or washing-places, they dig in the corners of a little brook, where, by certain tokens, they judge the grains of gold to lie. To assist in carrying away the mud, they let a fresh stream into it, and keep turning it up, that the current may send it along.—When they are come to the golden sand, they turn off the stream another way, and dig with their mattocks; and this earth they carry on mules to certain bafons, joined together by small channels: into these they let a smart stream of water, to loosen the earth, and carry all the gross part away. The Indians standing in the bafons, and throwing out all the stones, the gold at bottom is still mixed with a black sand; and hardly to be seen, till it be farther separated.

In these washing-places are found gold grains as big as bird-shot; and in one, belonging to the priests near Valparaiso, some are found from two or three ounces to a pound and half weight.—This way of getting gold is much better than from the mines; here is no need of iron crows, mills, or quicksilver; so that both the trouble and expence are much less.

The most considerable port in Chili is that of Valparaiso, which is esteemed one of the best harbours in the South-Seas. It lies upon a river 15 leagues below St. Jago, the capital of Chili. To this port all the riches of the gold mines behind it, and on every side, are brought, particularly from those of Tilti, which are immensely rich; and lie between this port and the city of St. Jago.

The gold here is found in a very hard stone, some of which sparkles, and betrays the inclosed treasure to the eye; but most of it has not the least sign of gold, but appears to be an hard harsh kind of stone, of very different colours, some white, some red, some black. This ore, broken to pieces; is ground in a mill, by the help of water, into a gross powder, with which quicksilver is afterwards mixed: to this paste they let in a sharp stream of water, which having reduced it to a kind of mud, the earthy particles are carried off by the current, and the gold and quicksilver precipitated, by their own weight, to the bottom.—When this mud has settled a little, into a sort of paste, they put it into a linnen bag, and strain it very hard, by which operation the mercury is driven out, or at least the greatest part of it, and the remainder they evaporate by the help of fire; so that they have all the gold together in a little wedge, like a pineapple, whence it derives its name of pinna.—In order to clear the gold from the filver it is first impregnated with, the lump must be run, and then the exact weight is known, and the true fineness; it is not done otherwise there.—The weightiness of the gold, and the facility of its amalgamation with mercury, makes the dross easily separate from it: this is an advantage the gold-miners have over those of silver; they every day know what they get, which is not the case of the silver-miners.—See the article SILVER.

According to the nature of the mines, and the richness of the veins, every caxon, or 50 quintals, or 100 hundred weight, yields four, five, or six ounces.—When it yields but two, the miner does not make good his expence, which frequently happens; but he has sometimes good amends made him, when he meets with rich veins; for the gold mines are, of all mines, those which produce metals the most unequally.—They follow a vein, which grows wider, then narrower, and sometimes seems to be left in a small space of ground. This sport of nature makes the miners live in hopes of finding what they call the purse, being the ends of veins, so rich, that they have sometimes made a man wealthy at once: and this inequality sometimes ruins them; which is the reason that it is more rare to see a gold-miner rich than a silver-miner, or of any other metal, though there be less expence in extracting it from the mineral. For this reason, also, the miners have peculiar privileges; for they cannot be sued to execution on civil accounts, and gold pays only $\frac{1}{20}$ part to the king, which is called covo, from the name of the person to whom the king made the grant, because they used before to pay the $\frac{1}{2}$, as they do of silver.

On the descent of this mountain there runs, during the winter, or rather during the rainy season, a pretty brisk stream of water, which, passing through the gold ore, washes away abundance of that rich metal, as it ripens and breaks from its bed: and, therefore, for about four months in the year, this is accounted one of the richest lavadero's in Chili, since there are frequently found pellets of pure gold, of an ounce weight.

At Palma, which is but four leagues from Valparaiso, there is another rich lavadero; and, every-where throughout the country, the fall of a brook or rivulet is attended, more or less, with these golden showers, the richest whereof fall into the laps of the jesuits, who farm, or purchase, abundance of mines and lavadero's, which are wrought for their benefit, by their servants.

Yet it is agreed, that a great part of the inhabitants do not seem to abound in wealth; which, however, may be very well accounted for, if we consider that such as deal in cattle, corn, and other the product of the country, acquire but moderate fortunes; and such as are concerned in mines are frequently ruined, by launching into too great expence about them. But, after all, such as are easy in their circumstances, and, in consequence of that ease, retire to St. Jago, live in such a manner as sufficiently demonstrates the riches of Chili, since all their utensils, even those that are most common, are of pure gold; and it is believed that the wealth of this city alone cannot fall short of 20,000,000l.—Add to this, that the gold mines are continually increasing; and it is only for want of hands that they are not wrought to infinitely more advantage, those already discovered, and neglected, being sufficient to employ 40,000 men. It may be likewise observed, that the frauds practised for deceiving the king daily increase; and, as they measure the riches of the Spanish West-Indies by the standard of the king's revenue, this must necessarily make them appear poorer than they really are. As the policy of the Spaniards has hitherto consisted chiefly in endeavouring, by all ways and means possible, to restrain the vast riches of these extensive dominions from passing into other hands; so the knowledge that other nations have of the mighty wealth of these countries, on the one hand, and of the great demand for European manufactures among their inhabitants, on the other, has excited almost every nation in Europe to practise all methods possible, in order to gain a share in them; and this with so good effect, that it is very doubtful whether any considerable part of the riches of the West-Indies centers among the inhabitants of Old Spain. But the system of Spain is now upon the change; and they seem determined to reap all the benefit in their power by the commerce of the Spanish West-Indies, as well as by that in Europe. See the articles BISCAY, SPAIN; SPANISH AMERICA.

The gold trade of Brazil, belonging to the king of Portugal, being carried on in much the same manner as that of Spain, it is needless to say more at present, than to observe, that, in order to judge of the true value of gold belonging to the king of Spain, which there passes through the hands of the president and commissioners, it is all sold upon condition to be assayed, and not judged of merely by the touch, as is done in several parts of the East-Indies. For, Gold is so precious a metal, that any very small difference, in the assay of silver or copper in every piece, will run up to a considerable sum; and, therefore, the laws have settled the value of gold and silver, not by the touch, but by trial of assay, and this so exactly and demonstrably, that what a very small scale decides, is afterwards made out and proved by arithmetic. And because not only money was to be made of this metal, but jewels, chains, utensils, and other things; therefore the law appointed, that there should be a head marker and toucher, to overlook and approve of the rest of them, that, being expert at touching gold and trying silver, they might judge of the fineness of the goldsmiths work. And whereas, in order to make an assay, somewhat is to be taken of the ingot of gold or silver that is to be assayed, which cannot be done with jewels, chains, or rings, without spoiling the fashion; therefore the only and universal method has always been to touch the gold, and mark the plate, relying only upon the exactness of the eye at certain times of the day, and on a stone, upon which the true fineness does not sometimes appear superficially, either because the gold is ill coloured, or not so perfectly refined.

As for silver, they rely altogether upon the colour that appears after it is tried; both which methods are no better than conjectures or surmises, in comparison of the certainty of the assays. For which reason, in criminal causes, against such as do not work gold or silver according to the standard, no case has been decided by the head assayer, or judges to whom it belongs, without making experiment by assay; and had the touch been secure, it would certainly have been relied on in some cases; whereas, on the contrary, several persons have been cleared by the assay, who have been suspected for cheats by the touch. It follows, therefore, that merchants ought to be persuaded it is much safer for them to dispose of their gold by assay, than by touch; for otherwise there might be a vast trouble saved in assaying all the king's gold over again, as is done at Seville, though it has been all actually assayed in the Indies. This has been the practice of all times in Spain ever since gold was brought from the Indies, and touching was never yet admitted of.

A brief account of all the monies of gold and silver coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, with the true value thereof in current money.

	l.	s.	d.
Coined in sterling silver money in the mints in the Tower of London, from the year 1558 to the year 1572, in the time of Tho. Stanley and Tho. Fleetwood, undertreasurers, in weight 549,644 lb. 10 dwts. making at 31. the pound weight	1,648,932	2	6

More, from 1572 to 1581, in the time of John Lonifon, master and worker, in weight 255,338 lb. 2 oz. 8 dwt. 7 gr. making, at the same rate	766,014	12	$\frac{1}{4}$
More, from 1581 to 1601, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, master and worker, in weight 670,331 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwt. making, at the same rate	2,010,993	12	6
More, from September 1601, to 31 March, 1603, in the time of the same master, in weight 63,890 lb. 7 oz. making, at 31. 2s. the pound weight	198,060	16	2
Coined in March, 3 Eliz. in Irish money of 11 ounces fine, in weight 2,277 lb. making, at 31. the pound weight	8,931	—	—

The whole sum of sterling silver coined in the queen's time was in weight 1,542,181 lb. 8 dwt. 7 gr. making in money	4,632,932	3	$\frac{1}{4}$
Coined in base Irish money, in March, 1 Eliz. of 3 ounces fine silver, and 9 ounces of alloy, in weight 19,828 lb. worth, in sterling money	15,541	10	$\frac{3}{4}$
More of like base money, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, in weight 89,844 lb. 10 oz. 15 dwt. worth, in sterling money	70,105	9	$\frac{1}{2}$

So that the whole value of the silver money coined in the queen's time amounted to	4,718,579	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
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Coined in fine gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 12,201 lb. 8 oz. 22 gr. which made in current money, at 36 l. the pound weight	439,260	2	9
More, from 1601 to 1603, in weight 35 lb. 4 oz. 7 dwt. 8 gr. which made in current money, at 36 l. 10 s. the pound weight	1,292	6	$\frac{3}{4}$

The sum total of all the fine gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 12,237 lb. 18 dwt. 6 gr. and made in current money	440,552	8	$\frac{3}{4}$
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Coined in crown gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 10,086 lb. 3 oz. 18 dwt. 17 gr. which made in current money, at 33 l. the pound weight	332,848	16	$\frac{1}{2}$
More, from 1601 to 1603, in weight 643 lb. 10 oz. 8 dwt. 21 gr. which made in current money, at 33 l. 10 s. the pound weight	21,737	3	$\frac{1}{2}$
The sum total of all the crown gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 10,730 lb. 2 oz. 7 dwt. 14 gr. and made in current money	354,585	19	7

And the true value of all the gold and silver monies coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, amounted to	5,513,717	11	$\frac{1}{4}$
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The whole quantity of the money coined (says the learned Martyn Folkes, Esq; late president of the Royal Society of London *) in the reign of king James I. cannot, as Mr * See his Table of English Gold Coins, p. 71.

Lowndes has observed in his Essay, be known directly from the books of the Mint, by reason that, many of the records and papers of that office having been destroyed or embezzled during the time of the great rebellion, the memorials of all transactions there, older than the restoration of king Charles II. are now either lost, or remain in a very imperfect condition. Yet may a tolerable account be collected of this matter, by the assistance of other materials: and I have accordingly drawn out a memorandum, which will, I hope, be found sufficiently exact; partly from a paper of archbishop Williams, wherein is an account given of the coinage during the first 13 years of the king; partly from a certificate delivered to the council the 27th of November, 1618, in which is contained an account

account of the weight of the gold and silver coined in the several years from his 9th to his 15th; and partly from some extracts of the comptrollers accounts of his latter years, communicated to me formerly by the late John Conduit, Esq; then master and worker of his majesty's Mint. By which several particulars it appears, that there was coined, from the 31st of May, 1603, to the 31st of March, 1625,

In angel gold, at the several rates of 36l. 10s. 40l. 10s. 44l. 11s. and 44l. 10s. the pound weight, to the value of — — —	l. s. d. 32,093 17 9
In crown gold, at the several rates of 33l. 10s. 37. 4s. 40l. 18s. 4d. $\frac{3}{4}$, and 41l. the pound weight, to the value of — —	3,634,296 1 2
<hr/>	
	3,666,389 18 11
In sterling silver, at 3l. 2s. the pound weight — — —	1,641,004 13 3
In like silver for Ireland, to the sterling value of — — —	124,957 1 7
<hr/>	
	1,765,961 14 10
<hr/>	
And the total value of all the gold and silver monies coined in the reign of king James, exclusive of some base monies coined for Ireland, and of which I have seen no account, amounted to the value of — — —	5,432,351 13 9

By an account which Mr Lowndes has published in his Essays, the silver money coined in the reign of king Charles I. and by which we must only understand the silver money regularly coined in the Tower of London, amounted to the sum of 8,776,544l. 10s. 3d. but of the gold there also coined, during the same time, I am not able to give you an exact account. All I can say is, that, by a paper I saw in the hands of the late Mr Conduit, the weight of the angel gold coined from the beginning of the king's reign to the 25th of November, 1642, and which was coined into angels only, was that of 284 lb. 5 oz. 9 dwt. 9 gr. which made in money then current, at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the sum of 12,658 l. 5 s. 9 d. ob. And it appears, by the accounts of the pix, that there has been no angel gold coined in England since that time. It also further appeared, by the same paper, that there was coined in crown gold, from the king's accession to the 31st of March, 1641, in weight 68,832 lb. 11 oz. 11 dwt. 4 gr. and by two other papers, purporting to be the accounts of Sir Ralph Freeman, and Sir Thomas Aylebury, from the 1st of August, 1641, to the 5th of May, 1643, and Sir Robert Harley, from the 6th of May, 1643, to the 31st of March, 1646, that there was coined, during that time, in crown gold, the weight of 7,052 lb. 2 oz. 11 dwt. 1 gr. to which last weight, if we add proportionably for the four months elapsed between the 31st of March and the 1st of August, 1641, and for the 34 months between the end of these accounts and the 30th of January, 1648, we cannot very greatly mistake in supposing the weight of the crown gold, coined from the 1st of April, 1641, to the time of the king's death, to have been of about 11,826 lb. which, added to the former quantity, will make, for the whole weight of the crown gold coined in this reign, about 80,659 pounds; and which, reduced into money, at the rate of 41 l. to the pound weight, produces of the same 3,307,019 l. To which if we add the value before given of the angel gold, and of the silver coined in the same time, we shall find that the whole sum in gold and silver coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles I. did not, in current money, amount to less than about 12,096,220 l. sterling*.

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 78.

What quantity of money was coined during the commonwealth, I have, says the same author, never been able to learn. All the papers I have seen relating to that subject were only some extracts Mr Conduit had of Dr Guerdian's accounts, for about four years and a half elapsed between the 16th of May, 1649, when he entered upon his office, and the 30th day of November, 1653; by which it appeared that there was coined at the Tower, during that time, in crown gold, the weight of 1,768 lb. 7 oz. 17 dwt. 16 gr. making in tale, at 41 l. the pound weight, the sum of 72,514 l. 18 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; and, in sterling silver, the weight of 123,644 lb. 1 oz. 8 dwt. 12 making in tale, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of 383,294 l. 15 s. 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$: so that the whole coinage, both

in gold and silver, during the said time, amounted to the value of 455,809 l. 14 s. 0 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ *.

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 96.

By the duplicates and attested copies of the comptrolment-rolls, and other books remaining in his majesty's Mint, it appears that there was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king Charles II. and after his restoration, the several sums mentioned in the following account, that is to say,

In crown gold of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats of alloy, from the 20th of July, 1660, to the 31st day of December, 1662, the weight of 918 lb. 8 oz. 3 dwt. the which, being coined into units, commonly called broad-pieces, double crowns, and Britain crowns, and into milled units of the same weight as the others, made in money then current, at the rate of 41 l. the pound weight, the value of — — —	l. s. d. 37,665 16 11
In like gold, from the 1st of January, 1662, to the 6th day of February, 1684, the weight of 93,024 lb. 6 oz. 8 dwt. 13 gr. the which being coined into 20 shilling pieces, commonly called guineas, pieces of 10 shillings, 40 shillings, and 5 pounds, made in money then and still current, at 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of — — —	4,139,588 2 6
<hr/>	
Total of the gold in weight, 93,943 lb. 1 oz. 11 dwt. 13 gr. making in money — — —	4,177,253 19 5

Note, That although the warrant for the cutting the pound weight of gold into 44 guineas and a half was not signed until the 24th of December, 1663, yet the weight of 27 lb. 8 oz. coined some time before, and which was the only gold minted since the last day of the preceding December, was really coined into guineas, and as such delivered, on the 31st of the following December, 1663.

In sterling silver, of 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, and 18 dwt. of alloy, from the 20th day of July, 1660, to the 5th day of February, 1662, the weight of 175,691 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwt. the which being coined into hammered money, at 3l. 2s. the pound weight, made, in the coins then current, the sum of — — —	544,642 14 11
In like silver, from Feb. 6, 1662, to Feb. 6, 1684, the weight of 1,025,012 lb. 14 dwt. 14 gr. the which being coined into milled money, at the same rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, made in the coins then and still current, the sum of — — —	3,177,537 7 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total of the silver in weight, 1,200,703 lb. 3 oz. 4 dwt. 14 gr. making in money — — —	3,722,180 2 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

And the total value of all the monies, both of gold and silver, coined in this reign, according to the foregoing rates, amounted to the sum of — — —

How far the accounts of this ingenious gentleman are to be relied on, may be gathered from his own words, where he says, 'It may be noted, that part of the silver above mentioned was the produce of 1,500,000 French crowns, or 4,500,000 livres Tournois, received for the sale of Dunkirk; which produced, in standard silver, the weight of 108,636 lb. 6 oz. 3 dwt. 2 gr. and made, in coined English money by tale, 336,773 l. 3 s. 9 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; as also, that other part of the same silver was the produce of what were called the crown and harp monies, which Sir Thomas Vyner, Knt. and Bt. Francis Meynell, Esq; then sheriff of London, and Edward Backwell, Esq; contracted with his majesty

‘ majesty on the 6th of December, 1651, to take in by tale, and to coin with all convenient expedition, at their own charge, into English current monies; receiving for the same a consideration of 5 l. 10s. for every 100 l. in the tale, in lieu of want of weight, and expence of coinage; upon which there was accordingly coined, of the crowns and harp monies, the sum of about 500,000 l. in tale. And here I must acknowledge the particular favours of the honourable Richard Arundel, Esq; now master and worker of his majesty’s mint; who, knowing that I was making enquiries of this sort, was kindly pleased to direct I should have free access to any of the books or papers of his office; and by whose leave the ingenious and accurate Mr. Anthony Pollet, of the same, communicated to me his own extracts, drawn out with great labour and exactness from the original records, and wherein are contained the particular accounts of all the sums, both of gold and silver, coined since the restoration of king Charles II. From these extracts the foregoing account was taken, as were also those others of the same sort, that I shall have occasion to produce in the sequel of these pages. Nor must I at the same time omit returning thanks to my friends Mr Joseph Harris, one of the assay-masters, and Mr Charles Smyth, the deputy comptroller, who have, on all occasions, been ready to favour me with any informations I wanted in relation to this affair; as indeed every officer of the mint has been that I have on any occasion applied myself to, and from all which I have received particular instances of regard and great civility*.’

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 112.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king James II. that is to say, from the 7th day of February, 1684, to the 13th day of February, 1688.

In crown gold, the weight of 47,497 lb. 6 oz. 1 dwt. which being coined into 20 shilling pieces, called guineas, &c. made at the rate of 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — — —	l.	s.	d.
	2,113,638	18	8½
In sterling silver, the weight of 167,198 lb. 10 oz. 6 dwts. 20 gr. making in money, at the rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of — — —		9	5½
Total value of both the gold and the silver* — — —	2,631,955	8	1½

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 114.

An abstract of the accounts of the great recoinage.

Of the silver coined in the Tower of London, from the 30th day of September, 1695, to the 31st day of December, 1699, there was in 12 general remains of clipped hammered silver monies, taken in by the lords of the Treasury, melted at Westminster into 10 thousand, 9 hundred, and 33 ingots, and then sent to the Mint, the weight of — — —	lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
	790,860	1	19	8
There was likewise of hammered money and wrought plate imported into the Mint, and there melted, the weight of — — —	696,971	—	16	19
The hammered money and wrought plate imported into the five country mints, made in weight,				
At Bristol — — — — —	146,977	—	—	—
At Chester — — — — —	101,660	—	—	—
At Exeter — — — — —	147,296	—	—	—
At Norwich — — — — —	83,040	—	—	—
At York — — — — —	99,023	—	—	—
The total of the hammered and clipped silver money, and of the wrought plate imported, amounted to the weight of*	2,065,827	2	16	3

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 124.

Which makes, at 3 l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of 6,404,064 l. 8 s. 6d. but which being coined somewhat lighter, though within the remedy allowed, produced really in tale the sum of — — —	l.	s.	d.
	6,435,039	14	9½
There was coined in the Tower of London, during the joint reigns of king William and queen Mary; that is to say, from the 14th day of February, 1688, to the 28th day of December, 1694,			

In crown gold, the weight of 9,962 lb. 8 oz. 14 gr. making in money, at 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — — —	l.	s.	d.
	443,338	15	6
In sterling silver, during the same time, the weight of 25,492 lb. 4 oz. 18 dwt. 8 gr. making in money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of — — —	79,026	9	4½
Total value of all the money, both of gold and silver, coined during the joint reigns of king William and queen Mary — — —	522,365	4	10½

There was coined, during the remaining part of the reign of king William, after the queen’s death, in crown gold in the Tower of London, from the 29th of February, 1694, to the 8th day of March, 1701, the weight of 66,866 lb. 3 oz. 14 dwt. 11 gr. making in money, at the afore-said rate of 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — — —	2,975,550	16	1½
In sterling silver, during the same time, in the Tower, the weight of 1,684,600 lb. 19 dwt. 6 gr. and in the five country mints the weight of 577,996 lb. making together the weight of 2,262,596 lb. 19 dwt. 6 gr. and which produced in money, at the afore-said rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of — — —	7,014,047	16	11½

Total value of all the monies, both of gold and silver, coined from the decease of queen Mary to the decease of the king — — —	9,989,598	13	1
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And the whole value of all the same monies coined from the king’s accession to his death, amounted to the sum of — — —	16,511,963	17	11½
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There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of queen Anne, that is to say, from the 9th day of March, 1701, to the 1st day of August, 1714,

In crown gold; the weight of 55,832 lb. 2 oz. making in money, at the rate of 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — — —	l.	s.	d.
	2,484,531	8	4
And in sterling silver the weight of 66,804 lb. 9 oz. 15 dwt. which produced in money, at the rate of 3 l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of — — —	207,094	18	4½
Total value of both * forts — — —	2,691,626	6	8½

* It may be noted, that it appears by the particulars of the accounts from which the foregoing extract is taken, that, in the years 1709 and 1711, during which the greatest coinages of silver were made in this reign, there was coined, out of wrought plate brought in upon encouragement; the weight of 46,156 lb. 11 oz. 2 dwt. 3 gr. making in value about 144,000 l. sterling, which was more than two-thirds of all the silver coined in the Tower, from her majesty’s accession to her decease.

But there was further coined in this reign at Edinburgh, upon the union, and by the English moniers sent down thither, the weight of 103,346 lb. making in tale, at the afore-said rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the sum of 320,372 l. 12 s. sterling money, all which I take to have been of their first coinage in the year 1707, or the very beginning of 1708. Besides which, there was again a second coinage soon after, and, before the end of the last mentioned year, 1708, when some silver, that could not conveniently be minted before, was also, like the other, converted into current money of Great-Britain: but of this last coinage I have met with no particular account.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king George I. that is to say, from the second day of August, 1714, to the 11th day of June, 1727,

In crown gold, the weight of 184,763lb. which computed at 46l. 14s. 6d. the pound weight, guineas having been settled and made current at 21s. each, by his majesty's proclamation of the 22d of December, 1717, and being therefore no longer esteemed as pieces of 20s. but of 21s. each, in the Mint, produced after that rate in money, the value of	l.	s.	d.
In sterling silver, the weight of 75,176lb. making in money, at the rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the sum of	8,492,876	3	6
And the total value both of the gold and the silver, amounted to	8,725,921	15	6

The care of this learned author, in the collection of the foregoing, and various other delicate particulars, may seem of little import to those who will not deliberately weigh the extent of his penetration. For, amidst divers other national purposes that his judicious observations will answer, and which will naturally occur to every one that has a superior relish for studies of this kind, there is one that will be generally useful, and upon which some important principles, I apprehend, of political arithmetic, may be founded.—Let the gentleman speak for himself.

Having now, says he, gone through those observations I had to make upon our English silver coins, from the Norman conquest to the present time, I shall here add, as a general abstract of the foregoing pages, and of what I principally designed should be contained in them, a short table, exhibiting at one view the standard of our silver money as to goodness, together with the true weight of 240 pennies, 60 groats, or 20 shillings, making the pound sterling, at the several times there noted in the first column; to which I have also added, in the last column, the same intrinsic value of the nominal pound sterling, expressed in decimals of our present sterling pound: whereby the proportion of the intrinsic value of any former sums of money, as is now called by the same appellation, may immediately be known, and the prices of provisions, labour, and materials, in former times, may readily be compared with the different prices which the like provisions, labour, and materials, are found to bear at this day.

Year of the king's reign, and A. D.	Standard of the silver.	Weight of 20 shillings in tale.	Value of the same in present mon.	Proportion.
		oz. dwt. gr.	l. s. d.	
Conquest 1066	Old ster.	11 5 —	2 18 1½	2,906
28 Ed. I. 1300		11 3 5	2 17 5	2,871
18 Ed. III. 1344		10 2 —	2 12 5½	2,622
20 Same 1346		10 — —	2 11 8	2,583
27 Same 1353		9 — —	2 6 6	2,325
13 Hen. IV. 1412		7 10 —	1 18 9	1,937
4 Ed. IV. 1464		6 — —	1 11 —	1,455
18 H. VIII. 1527	oz dwt.	5 6 16	1 7 6¾	1,378
34 Same 1543	W. 1	2 5 —	1 3 3¼	1,163
36 Same 1545	W. 5	2 — —	0 13 11½	0,698
37 Same 1546	W. 7	2 — —	0 9 3¾	0,466
3 Ed. VI. 1549	W. 5	2 3 6	16 0 —	—
5 Same 1551	W. 8	2 — —	0 4 7¾	0,232
6 Same 1552	W. 0	1 4 —	1 — 6½	1,028
1 Mary 1553	W. 0	2 — —	1 — 3¾	1,024
2 Eliz. 1560	Old ster.	— — —	— — 8	1,033
43 Same 1601		3 17 10	1 — —	1,000

Now, by a comparison of the foregoing table of silver coins, with a table of gold published by the same author, it appears, that in the 27th year of king Edward III. 1353, when the first considerable coinage of gold was made in England, fine gold was rated in our coins at eleven times and about one sixth part, as much as fine silver. But even this value of gold was thought too great in the time of king Henry the IVth, and the same being complained of by the regulations made in his 13th year, 1412, gold came to be exchanged for ten times and about one third of an equal quantity of silver. In the fourth year of king Edward the IVth, 1464, gold was again valued at a little more than eleven times the price of silver. During the 140 years next following, there was scarce any alteration made in the proportional value of the two metals; excepting only in the times of confusion between the 34th year of king Henry the VIIIth, and the last of king Edward the VIth: and, by the indentures of the 43d year of queen Elizabeth, and those of the first of king James, 1603, the pound weight of fine gold in the coin was yet rated at somewhat less than eleven pounds weight of fine silver. But soon after that time the price of gold was very sensibly advanced, the pound weight of it being valued in the indentures of the 2d year of king James, at better than twelve pounds and an ounce; and, in the 17th of the same king, at

more than thirteen pounds four ounces and three pennyweights of fine silver; when guineas came first to be coined for 20s. pieces in the 15th year of king Charles the II, 1663, the pound of fine gold was therein made equivalent to fourteen pounds five ounces sixteen pennyweights and nine grains of fine silver; which value, by the running of guineas as they now do for 21s. each, is yet further advanced to fifteen pounds two ounces ten pennyweights and seven grains of the same silver*.

* Table of English Gold Coins, p. 143.

GOLDEN RULE, in arithmetic, a rule, whereby we find a fourth number proportional to three others that are given. It is called also the Rule of Three and the Rule of Proportion. See the article **ARITHMETIC**, where it is exemplified, and its reason demonstrated.

GRACE, days of grace, or days of favour or respite, are a certain number of days, allowed by custom for the payment of bills of exchange, or promissory notes, after the same becomes due, i.e. after the time they were accepted for is expired. In England, three days of grace are allowed; so that a bill accepted in order to be paid, e. gr. ten days after sight, is not to be paid till thirteen days. Throughout France, they allow ten days of grace; as many at Dantzic; eight at Naples; six at Venice, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp; four at Francfort; five at Leipic; twelve at Hamburg; six in Portugal; fourteen in Spain; thirty in Genoa, &c.

N. B. Sundays and holidays are included in the number of days of grace. See **ACCEPTANCE, BILLS OF EXCHANGE.**

GRAFTING, GRAFFING, or INGRAFTING, in agriculture and gardening. See **ENGRAFFING.**

GRATIAS, are allowances made by the king of Spain, and the farms of the customs, by way of abatement of the duties on importation of merchandizes into Spain, in consideration of the several alterations of the coin in that country, which had raised our duties, contrary to treaties, without the allowances of those gratias, or favours, if you please.

R E M A R K S.

In the making treaties of commerce between one nation and another, the negociators thereof cannot have too circumstantial a state of the nature of the trade between such nations. For want of which, in relation to the duties laid on, and the gratias granted in favour of our merchandizes in Spain, the treaty of Utrecht has been shewn to be very deficient. It may, therefore, prove a useful memento, to shew how this nation may be imposed upon, in regard to the tariffs and duties laid on our merchandizes in such foreign countries, where their coin is liable to be raised and fallen in an arbitrary manner, and our own is kept fixed and invariable. This matter being put by the opposers of the Utrecht treaty in a very intelligible light, and being applicable to future occasions of a similar nature, we cannot do better, 'tis apprehended, than to quote their sense.

An account of the customs and duties which were payable on our woollen manufactures at Cadiz and port St. Mary's, from the conclusion of the treaty of commerce in 1697 by the earl of Sandwich, to the commencement of queen Anne's war, and to what we were liable to pay by the treaty of Utrecht; together with some reasons, which induced the kings of Spain, from time to time, to vest the administrators or farmers of the royal duties, with power to make such just and reasonable allowances to our merchants, as were absolutely necessary to preserve their commerce, and support the revenue.

The **ALMOXARISFARGO** [see that article] or custom, which was paid upon taking our goods out of the custom-house of Spain; and the **alcavalla**, which was payable according to the laws of Castille, at the place where, and at the time when, they are sold, as well as all the other duties, which were afterwards imposed, were collected upon the established rates, in the old arancels, or registers.

These were originally made by the people in the chief trading cities and towns, but varied one from another one or two per cent. and sometimes more; however, they were generally esteemed moderate, never exceeding the prices our goods and merchandizes were sold at in that kingdom, in a current time of trade.

In the year 1667, and from thence until 1686, our bays, ferges, perpets, cloths, &c. were charged, according to their respective valuations, with

12 : 37 ½ per cent. almozarisfargo, and
12 : 82 ½ per cent. alcav. cien. &c. &c.

In all 25 : 17 ½ per cent. including premio's and 4to plata. And our lays, stockings, hats, &c. with
5 : 62 ½ per cent. almozarisfargo, and
17 : 32 ½ per cent. alcav. cien. &c.

In all 22 : 7 ½ per cent. including premio's and 4to plata.

And, in anno 1686, they were subject to an additional duty of 1 and $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. confulado and lonja, which, with a premio of 5 per cent. amounted to $1\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. whereby the whole duty on bays, &c. were $26\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. and on fays, &c. $24\frac{30}{100}$ per cent.

These were such exorbitant duties, that they formerly discouraged trade, and introduced clandestine importations: whereupon the administrators, who collected these duties for the king's account, or the farmers who received them for their own use, according to the power granted them, made it a constant practice in the custom-house to allow 25 per cent. to the merchants upon making up their customs, which was called the king's gratia; and this effectually secured their trade, and augmented the revenue.

When this abatement was first settled is very uncertain, but it has probably been of a long standing: it was an established rule in 1667, and was regularly and constantly allowed by the farmers, until superseded by the late treaty.

Since, therefore, by the third article of the earl of Sandwich's treaty, no new custom or duties whatsoever shall be taken or increased, other than those which in like cases the natives themselves and all other strangers are obliged to pay; and that the Spanish farmers never disputed this deduction for so many years successively with any foreign nation that traded into that kingdom, both before and after that treaty, or with the natives thereof; certainly, if this exemption had been insisted on, it must have been allowed us; for to be treated in the same manner as the most favoured nation was our right, and it is laid down as a basis of the treaty.

Thus then we had a right to the king's gratia, or rather abatement of 25 per cent. by custom or prescription; and it will also appear, that we had as just, if not a juster right to the farmers gratia, though this proceeds from another cause. For the Spanish dollar or piece of eight passing current, sometimes but for 12, and at other times for 15, 20, and 25 rials copper or vellon; therefore, as a greater or lesser number of these rials copper passed for a piece of eight, the administrators or farmers were necessitated to increase or diminish their gratias to the merchants.

In the year 1670, when the piece of eight passed for 20 rials copper, the farmers gratia was then but 20 per cent. on all woollen goods; and though the pieces of eight, between 1670 and 1680, rose by degrees to 25 rials copper, yet I cannot find that the farmers altered their gratias.

But after 1680, when the piece of eight, by the king's proclamation, passed for no more than 12 rials copper (whereby our customs were at once more than doubled) the administrators and farmers successively increased their gratias.

As appears at large by the adjustments made at Seville by the deputies of the English, Flemish, and Dutch nations, with Don Francisco Eminent, administrator general, and afterwards with Don Gaspar Ruiz Dias, who allowed us 50 per cent. on perpets, fays, &c. and 40 per cent. on bays.

And, from 1686 to 1702, during which time the piece of eight passed by another proclamation for 15 rials copper, the farmers gratia was reduced to and settled at 45 per cent. on fays and other goods, and 40 per cent. on bays, as all the merchants then resident at Cadiz and Port St. Mary's must acknowledge.

By this management of the farmers, the king's revenue was not lessened, nor the merchants injured. For example,

If a merchant in 1670 entered with the Spanish farmers 100 bays, though they allowed thereon but 20 per cent. gratia, (besides the king's constant gratia) yet, the piece of eight then passing for 20 rials copper, the custom and duties on the said bays, at $25\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. amount to $222\frac{6}{17}$ pieces of eight.

And, if in 1686 he entered the same quantity of bays, whereon the farmers gratia, or allowance, was then 40 (instead of 20 per cent. as in 1670) yet the piece of eight passing but for 15 rials copper, the custom and duties at the same rate of $25\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. will amount exactly to the same sum of $222\frac{6}{17}$ pieces of eight.

So that it is very apparent, the difference occasioned by the dollar, or piece of eight, passing but for 15 instead of 20 rials copper, was justly allowed the merchant by the increase of gratias from 20 to 40 per cent.

It is as obvious also by other accounts, that the administrators or farmers, upon every other considerable alteration of this copper money, either augmented or lessened their gratia, according to the rules of equity and justice.

From whence it must be concluded, that the said gratias did not proceed from a remissness, or a false suggested easiness in the Spaniards, but were granted, because reasonable and just. And, therefore, as they never deprived us of our undoubted right to these gratias or allowances, this also might probably have been fixed by the treaty, had it been well understood and strenuously endeavoured; and in such a case we should have been effectually secured against paying any greater duties than before the war.

For though, as aforesaid, the custom and duties payable in the reign both of king Charles II. and his present majesty, were,

On bays, perpets, &c. $26\frac{60}{100}$ per cent.
And on fays, &c. $24\frac{30}{100}$ per cent.

Yet by the said gratias allowed since 1686 on the established rates in the Spanish arancel, they were reduced to

$9\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. on perpets,
 $10\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. on fays, and
 $11\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. on bays.

And the valuation in the book of rates was so favourable, that all these duties upon their sales came out but at

$9\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. on perpets,
 $8\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. on fays, and
 $8\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. on bays.

But by the three explanatory articles of the late treaty, we are liable to pay 10 per cent. on all goods and merchandize imported and exported; and this is not to extend to the alcavallas, cientos, and millones.

Thus those goods which were charged with $12\frac{37\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

almoxarisfargo, are hereby to pay the said duty of 10 per cent. and the alcav. and cient. $14\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. thereon, are,

in all, $24\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

And those that paid $5\frac{62\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. almoxarisfargo, are also charged with the aforesaid duty of 10 per cent.

And the alcavallas or cientos thereon amount to $18\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$

per cent. in all $28\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

Which is really on the established rates,

$24\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. instead of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 9\frac{20}{100} \text{ per cent. on perpets, and} \\ 11\frac{20}{100} \text{ on bays, as aforesaid.} \end{array} \right.$

And $28\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. instead of $10\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. on fays.

Consequently, therefore, the duties lately demanded in Spain, on the foot of the present treaty, amount to more than, or are over and above the old duties,

On perpets $14\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On bays $12\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On fays $18\frac{68\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

R E M A R K S.

1. It may be observed, that 10l. custom paid on goods, which are valued at 100 l. is less than 10 per cent. of the real value of the goods, if they can be sold for 120l. or for any thing more than 100l.

It is apparent, from what has been said, that our English perpets, by the valuation in the arancel, or Spanish book of rates, did not pay above $9\frac{20}{100}$ per cent.; fays not above $10\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. and bays not above $11\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. But these goods usually sold for so much more than that valuation, that the real customs paid on the first did not exceed $9\frac{10}{100}$ per cent.; on the second $8\frac{20}{100}$, on the third $8\frac{10}{100}$ per cent. of the real value.

2. It is true, by gratias of the king of Spain, and by the farmers of his customs, as they were called, the aforesaid goods paid no more than the aforesaid duties; but then, as the king's gratia was always the same, viz. an abatement of one fourth part of the whole customs, ever since the treaty, of 1667, and during that time the farmers of the customs, or the administrators of the king's revenue, made always such an allowance in the tale of the goods, that notwithstanding all the variations in the Spanish coin, yet the customs paid on the real value were still the same; it is a violent presumption we had a right to that moderate valuation in their old arancel, and also to their gratias or abatements of the king and his farmers, or the administrators of his public revenue.

3. But the very words, in the third article of the treaty of 1667, put this matter out of doubt, viz. 'That no new customs or duties whatsoever shall be taken or increased, other than those which the natives themselves, and all other strangers, are obliged to pay.'

No new customs or duties to be taken by the treaty of 1667! But we ourselves consented by the Utrecht treaty, that the king of Spain may take more than have been levied ever since the former treaty, viz.

On perpets $14\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On bays $12\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On fays $18\frac{68\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

So that the duties were more than doubled in Spain by that treaty, and we consented to such duties as were inconsistent with any trade. But this was not the case of France at that time, for they were selling their goods, while ours lay perishing in the Spanish custom-house.

The treaty of 1667 was signed May 23, and the next day Sir William Godolphin, who was secretary to our embassy, and who was the chief contriver of that treaty, wrote thus to my lord Arlington: 'The treaty of commerce, I dare promise your lordship, comprehends not only all the privileges and advantages which this crown hath ever granted to any other state or people, but likewise some conveniences which it hath never yet permitted to any other; for the better security and perfection whereof, I have diligently perused all the treaties these people have made with others, and all the royal cedulas they have granted in favour of any particular factories, and have not received from our factories any grievance or proportion of advantage in their commerce to be either remedied or procured for them, which we think is not sufficiently provided for in this treaty.'

And, in another letter to his brother, May 15th, he says, 'I will only say to you in general of the treaty of commerce, That besides all the freedoms and advantages of trade, which the crown of Spain hath granted to any other state, we have thereby several concessions and conveniences whereof we find no example in their articles with any other. And, I think, they have not made any other these hundred years, which I have not learned as MY LESSON, in order to the treating and perfection of this.'

Sir William Godolphin might justly say this, and the world will believe him; since, after that treaty, we paid no more than the moderate duties above-mentioned; and since the privilege of a JUDGE-CONSERVATOR [see TREATISE OF COMMERCE] without which we cannot trade with any security in that country, and which was only granted before the royal cedulas to our merchants, and might have been revoked by the king, was confirmed to us by that treaty.

But no man can believe, that the contrivers of the Utrecht treaty had learned all former treaties as their lesson, or that indeed they had ever read that of 1667, though it is recited in their first article: it is of almost no use in that place, but to shew the people what privileges they enjoyed before, which were taken from them by the Utrecht treaty.

This confirms what lord Bellingbroke says, in his letter to Sir William Wyndham, that the ministry of his days were little acquainted with commerce; and he lays the blame all upon one man in the ministry of his time; which is a most pitiful subterfuge, when he had so great a share in it. For the nature and foundation of treaties of commerce between nation and nation, see our article TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

GRANAT, a precious stone, of a high red colour. They are either oriental or occidental; the former are brought from the East-Indies, the other from Spain and Germany. Those of the East are distinguished into three kinds, the deep brown red, of which there are some as large as an hen's egg; others are nearly of the hyacinth colour, with which it were easy to confound them, but for their superior redness. The last, having a mixture of violet with their red, are called by the Italians rubina della rocha.

The occidental granats are of divers reds. Those of Spain imitate the colour of the kernel of a pomegranate; those of Bohemia have a golden cast intermixed with their red, glittering like a live coal: those of Silesia are the darkest of all, and seldom thoroughly transparent.—Those of Bohemia are the most valued; some give them the preference to the oriental kind.

REMARKS.

Of the imitation of the granat colour in glass.

Take of crystal frit, of frit of rochetta, each an equal quantity; mix them well, and to 100 pound of these materials add one pound of manganese of Piedmont *, one ounce of zaffer; mix them well with the frits, then put them, little by little, into an earthen-pot made red-hot in the furnace, because the glass is apt to rise and run over. After four days, the glass being well tinged and purified, you may work it: you may increase or diminish the colour at pleasure; if the operation be performed with any judgment.

* Put the pieces of manganese into an iron ladle, and put them into a reverberatory fire, and, when it begins to whiten, sprinkle it with good vinegar; afterwards beat it and wash it while hot; after that dry it, and reduce it into powder, and sift it, and keep it in a vessel covered for use. The best is easy to break, and very shining, the great and less pieces of it full of rocky matter as can be.

To imitate a granat colour in glass of lead.

The vivacity of this colour appears no less in glass of lead than in crystal, if it be carefully made. To make it, take

20 pounds of crystal frit, with 16 pounds of calx of lead; and after having added three ounces of manganese of Piedmont to it, and half an ounce of zaffer *, both prepared as we have shewn, put the whole into a pot heated in the furnace: twelve hours after, cast that melted matter into the water, and take out the lead that remains behind in the pot. Then put the matter again in the same pot, where it will be purified ten hours after. Mix it well, and let the feces precipitate; then see if the colour pleases, and work it for what uses you require, for you'll have a glass of lead of a fine granat colour.

* Take zaffer in the largest pieces you can get, put it into earthen pans, and let it stand one day in the furnace; then put it into an iron ladle to be heated red-hot in the furnace, take it thence, and sprinkle it with strong vinegar: being cooled, grind it fine on a marble stone, after which wash it with warm water in earthen-pans, letting the zaffer settle to the bottom, and decanting off the water gently: this will separate the impurity from the zaffer, which will remain at the bottom pure and clean, which you must dry and grind again, and keep it in vessels well closed for use: this will tinge glass much better than at first.

Of making a paste for oriental granat.

Take two ounces of natural crystal prepared, [see CRYSTAL] six ounces of minium, with sixteen grains of zaffer, prepared as before; let the whole be well pulverized and mixed together, and put in a crucible into the furnace with its cover well luted, there to bake, with precaution, and you'll have a very fine granat, as resplendent as the oriental, if the process be dexterously managed.

A deep oriental granat.

This colour will be not only deeper, but also much fairer than the preceding. To make it, take two ounces of natural crystal prepared, five ounces and a half of minium: add fifteen grains of manganese of Piedmont prepared: having pulverized it, mix the whole well together. As this matter rises more than the other, you must leave a greater empty space in the crucible. Cover the crucible with an earthen cover, lute it well and dry it, then put it in the hottest place of a potter's furnace, and let it stand as long as their pots. You may take notice once for all; that you must not break the crucible before the matter be thoroughly baked and purified; for, if you do, and so are obliged to put the matter into another crucible, the paste will be painted and full of blisters. But, well conducted, you will have a deeper oriental granat than the former, which you may polish, &c.

GREECE. Modern Greece, in its present state, is divided into Macedonia, Albania, Epirus, Thessaly, and Achaia:

I. **MACEDONIA** hath for its present boundaries Servia and Bulgaria on the north, Bulgaria and the Archipelago on the east, Achaia on the south, and Albania on the west. It is rich in mines of gold, abounds with corn, pastures, cattle, and venison; and in some parts produces wine and oil.

SALONICHI, the capital city, stands at the bottom of a gulph, to which it gives its name. It is a large and very populous city; and carries on a very considerable trade, both because of the advantageous situation of it, and of the great quantity of silk, wool, leather of all sorts, wax, powder, grains, cotton and iron, continually worked here. The trade is chiefly managed by the Jews, who alone have the monopoly of the manufactures of all the stuffs, made for the use of the Janifaries.

II. **ALBANIA**, now called **ARNAUT**, lies between Macedonia on the east, and the gulph of Venice on the west, having on the north and north-east the Black Mountains, and on the south it is bounded by Epirus. Its soil is fruitful, chiefly in the north parts, producing flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as also wax in the woods, and salt is dug out of the mountains. The inhabitants make tapestry, which, with the other commodities, they send abroad.

SCUTARI, the capital, is reckoned a considerable trading town, as is also

DULCIGNO, seated on the gulph of Venice, 20 miles south-west of Scutari. The Franks have a consul here.

III. **EPIRUS** is bounded on the north by Albania, by Thessaly on the north-east, Achaia on the south, and the Ionian Sea on the west. Its soil is for the most part good, affording excellent pasturage.

LARTA, or rather **ARTA**, is seated at the bottom of a small bay, formed by the mouth of a river. This city, and the country about it, drive a great trade in tobacco, botargo (a kind of sausage made of eggs and the blood of a sea-mullet) and furs.

IV. **THESSALY**, now called **JANNA** by the Turks, is almost entirely surrounded with high mountains, which separate it on the north from Macedonia, on the west from Epirus, on the south from Achaia; on the east it has the Ægean Sea, and the gulph of Salonichi. This country produces very good horses, and large buffaloes, reckoned the best in Greece, except those of Santa Maura. The air is healthful, and the soil fertile in all sorts of grain and delicious fruits, and they make excellent wine.

LARISSA, its chief city, seated on the river Peneus, is much fallen from its ancient grandeur, but has some trade still, the most considerable branch of which is in Russia leather. It is said here are above two hundred Jewish families, most of them bankers, and extremely rich. Here is also an English consul, who carries on, for the account of his nation, a considerable trade in corn, with which he loads several vessels for different parts of the world, and to his own great profit.

V. ACHÆIA, now **LIVADIA**, is bounded on the north by Epirus, Thessaly, and the strait of Negropont, on the east by the Archipelago; on the south it has the gulph of Egina, isthmus of Corinth, and gulph of Lepanto, and on the west the Ionian Sea, and part of Epirus. It is a pleasant and fruitful country.

LIVADIA, the capital of this province, situated on the river Hercyna, is a large and populous town, inhabited by many rich Turks. The trade consists in some woollen stuffs made here, and in rice, which they sell ready husked, and prepared by the mills on the river, which comes with such a plentiful source from the mountain, at the foot of which the city stands, that it turns twenty of them in the town, not a bow-shot off its rise.

SALONA is situated upon a rock, in the inmost recess of a fruitful valley. Its trade consists in some cotton, but chiefly in tobacco.

DELPHOS has a small trade in the same commodities, and their wine is exceeding good.

LEPANTO, the chief town on the gulph, to which it has lately given its name, has a small harbour, but is too shallow for any large vessels to enter. The trade of this place consists in leather, oil, tobacco, rice, barley, and wheat; furs are also pretty cheap here.

VI. THE PELOPONNESUS, now **MOREA**, is a large peninsula joined to the main land of Greece, by the isthmus of Corinth. On the south it has the gulph of Lepanto and the sea of Candia, on the north-west that of Patras, the Ionian Sea on the south-west, the Ægean Sea on the east, and the gulph of Engia on the south-east.

The soil is exceeding fertile, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, &c. and its mountains are filled with game and medicinal plants.

PATRAS is situated on a hill, not above a mile from the sea. Their trade consists of raw silks, made in the Morea in great quantities; leather also is cheap, and so is honey, wax, wood, and cheefe.

MODON stands on a hill, which juts out into the sea, and at the foot of which is a good harbour: it is a strong, rich, and trading city.

CORON has no immediate port, but the gulph that bears its name is a safe harbour. The country about it affords good store of fruits, grain, oil, and silks, which the inhabitants export to their great advantage.

NAPOLI DI ROMANIA has a capacious harbour, one of the best in the Morea, being capable of containing a large fleet, but so narrow at its entrance, that but one can pass at a time. As its harbour is more secure and has better anchorage than any other on the west of this country, they drive here a considerable trade in corn, wine, oil, silks, cotton, and tobacco.

The Islands on the coast of GREECE.

St. MAURA is about forty miles in compass, it is fruitful in corn, oranges, lemons, almonds, and pasture for their cattle.

STRIVALI, **SAPIENZA**, are small islands of no great note.

CANDIA is the largest and most celebrated on the coast of Greece, and is about 600 miles in compass.

They breed here abundance of poultry, pigeons, oxen, sheep, and swine; the country abounds also in wine, and they export oil, wool, silk, honey, wax, cheefe, and laudanum. Their wine and wheat are excellent, but their wool, like that of Greece, is fit only for coarse stuffs. The silk would be exceeding good, if they knew how to manage it; the honey is excellent, and smells of the thyme, wherewith the whole country abounds.

This island has no rivers navigable, even for boats.

R E M A R K S.

With regard to the trade of Greece on the shore of the Ægean and Ionian Seas, it may be observed, that, were it a barren inhospitable soil and climate, that had neither production or people, or the people ignorant of traffic, we might easily account for the trifling trade carried on here, in comparison to what was heretofore.

Here is a rich soil, a delicate climate, excellent havens and ports, well-fortified harbours, populous cities, and in some places a well-peopled country, and yet little trade. The reason given for it is the ill government of the Turks, who, being averse to the improvement of useful arts, discourage commerce, leave nature to her rude self, and yet oppress the people in the pittance they by unexcited industry acquire.—Whence it is that the famed Arcadian plains, the flowery meads of the antients, lie desolate, without flocks of sheep,

herds of kine, without corn or wine, or oil in any quantity, suitable to the extent of the land, though able to produce all in great plenty.

The Morea, in antient times, maintained innumerable people, and could furnish and supply competent quantities of cattle, corn, oil, wine, silk, flax, wool, wax, honey, figs, almonds, pomegranates, lemons, citrons, and every thing, requisite to feed and employ two millions of people; here being a sufficient fund of manufacture, either in silk, wool, or flax. But,

For want of trade, it is now scarce able to supply its own sea coast towns, or support its own government; the people being few, poor, discouraged, and scarce able to raise corn and grapes for their food, oil for their lights, and a little fruit for their ordinary spending.—They buy their wines from their islands, while their own wines perish, and the grapes rot on the ground ungathered.—The land-owners call themselves gentlemen, value themselves on their alliances with ancient families, and lord it over the poor peasants with insufferable insolence, but meanly cringe to the meanest Turk, who treats them with the bastinado; so that all is tyranny and misery, and how should there be any trade?

If they have any thing to sell, it is their corn, which the French, or the Venetians, or Tartans, come to purchase; nor does all that rich country, where once the cities of Thebes, Sparta, Athens, and Corinth were situate, afford at present any product more worth carrying away, though the people are incapable of consuming a very small part of what the land would produce. At the best of their ports and most populous of their cities, we see nothing to buy, nor buyers for what may be carried for sale; the one for want of industry, the other for want of money.

They have two articles of trade here, which are found no where else in these parts of the world, not, however, in equal quantity or quality, which are wool and leather.—Here they dress the leather after the Turkish manner, very fine, and render it soft and pliable.

The wine of Thessaly is esteemed the best in all this part of the country; though that of Negropont, that is, of Attica and Achaia, is well accepted at Constantinople, keeping better than that of the other islands in the same latitude.

The great exportation at Larissa, the gulph of Volo, and along that coast, brings a considerable concourse of merchants thither. 'Tis a considerable place, populous and rich, and the Turks treat the merchants there with more civility and justice than in other places. By this means, as the inhabitants are rich, and enjoy liberty, there is a suitable return of European goods brought thither, not from the Turkish territories only, but from Italy and France; especially the French, who frequently bring many cargoes of manufactures of silk, wool, hair, and cotton, &c. by reason of their fetching hence so much corn.

Of the Italians, the Genoese mostly visit them, who come for corn, bringing cargoes of spices, paper, Brasil sugars, lead, tin, and fire-arms, with several other goods.—Also the Venetians bring them wrought iron and brass, and variety of other species of goods; and all carry back corn, but the Venetians also carry wine, oil, leather, wax, and honey.

North of this port is the city Salonichi, or Thessalonica, which is well situated for trade, and is the greatest city of business in these parts. No port of such a magnitude and situation can be without trade, Constantinople being also so near: it is, besides, the center of all the commerce of the three Macedonia's.

As the country behind it is extremely fruitful, rich, and populous, abounding with corn and cattle, and the product is almost all carried to Constantinople; so Salonichi is the medium of the trade, it being the port where all the corn, cattle, and wine are exported, and where all the returns of merchandizes are imported, as well from Constantinople and Smyrna, as from Venice, Genoa, and Marseilles, &c.—It is, indeed, a mighty city for wealth, trade, and numbers of people: there are reckoned 300,000 people in it, whereof a great number are Jews.

There is nothing wanting to make this part a mart of commerce for all this part of the world, but a fine navigable river, to carry vessels of burthen 200 miles into the country, and to bring back the growth and product of the countries which lie to the north and north-west of it, which are very large, populous, and opulent.—But, for want of navigable rivers, the inland trade here is carried on by land carriage with horses and mules.

They have tolerable good wool here, and the French carry some of it away, but it is not to be had in any great quantities. They have several curious manufactures of cotton, but not so delicate as the callicoes and muslins of the Indies.

As they carry corn, wine, fruit, leather, wax, &c. to Constantinople, and as they traffic with the Franks for the like kinds of goods; so they receive in return supplies of all the several sorts of merchandizes, which their markets call for. From Constantinople they receive all the fine silks of Persia and India, which are brought to that city by the navigation of the Black Sea, from Trapezond, and other ports of Armenia and Poatus, or by the caravans of Aleppo, [see the article

article CARAVANS] or by the Ægean and Levant from Alexandria. So that by this convoyance they have silks, callicoes, carpets, drugs, spices, coffee, and other rich goods, to a very great value; also all kinds of copper vessels, which the Turks use in abundance. From Smyrna they have the like correspondence, though only casually. From France, Genoa, Leghorn, and Venice, they have all the Italian and French manufacture, such as wrought silks, paper, fine woollen stuffs, and some English and Dutch manufactures, but these come chiefly by the way of Genoa and Leghorn. From these they have likewise tobacco, sugars, dyers stuffs, wrought iron and brass, lead, block-tin, fire-arms, shot, cast iron and bar iron. So that this port is the general magazine of all that part of Europe, and is the greatest city for wealth and trade that the Turks are any where masters of in Europe, except Constantinople.

On entering the mouth of the Hellespont, the great passage out of the Mediterranean into the Euxine Sea, which, did not the Turks shut up the passage from the European nations, would open new scenes of commerce to the world. Was our commercial interest more influentially cultivated with the Turks than it has ever yet been, this navigation might be opened, whereby our ships would have a free trade to the mouth of the Danube, and by that great river convey our manufactures up to Belgrade, and into Hungary, where we have no trade, and where probably a very considerable commerce might be raised. Also

By the Palus Mæotis and the river Don, a trade would be struck out into the Wolga, and so directly to the center of the great empire of Muscovy; likewise down that river to Astracan, thence into the Caspian Sea, and to the coast of Guylian and Persia.

By the fourth shores of the same Black Sea, the trade would be opened to the coast of Pontus, to Tripoli, Sinope, and to Trapezond: all which were formerly cities of great trade, made so by the free correspondence they held with the Mediterranean merchants, and by their trade to Corinth, to Venice, and principally to Genoa; by the Genoese had once the dominion of that whole coast as to trade. By this commerce a communication would be opened with all the northern part of the Lesser Asia, a part of the world where-with England has little commercial correspondence.

From Gallipoli to Constantinople, there is a tolerable trade for corn, and other provisions to that city, as there is at all the towns upon that shore; but no business back again worth notice, except some few necessaries and coffee, brought from Constantinople to Gallipoli, for the Turks use, for the poor Greeks cannot afford the expence of it.

Wine is sold pretty openly at Gallipoli, and is very cheap; and the Turks are said to take more liberty in drinking it there, than they do in any other place. They have some small cotton silk manufactures there, and in the country towns all the way to Constantinople: and their goods are sold at Constantinople to good advantage. The Turks encourage the Greeks to weave and spin, but none of them meddle with it themselves.

We now come to the Porte itself, the city of Constantinople, which is the center of trade of all that part of the world, as well of Europe as of Asia: and yet it must be said of Constantinople, that, except the city of Grand Cairo in Egypt, Constantinople is the largest city with the least commerce in the world.

The general trade of the city is little more than the supply of provisions and apparel; nor is the latter any thing considerable, compared to the other cities of Europe; the Turks not being like the Venetians or the French, who change their habits as often as they do their fashions. The chief trade, which employs the most people, is that of furnishing corn and cattle, and other provisions for the supply of the multitude of people there. Another article of provisions is that of rice, and next to that their coffee. The first comes chiefly out of Asia by the Black Sea, and the latter from Egypt also by sea, except in time of war, and then 'tis brought in caravans to Aleppo, and thence to Scutari by land.

As the Turks are not yet come into the drinking of tea, so they do not use any extraordinary quantity of sugar: and, as they are forbid wine, and what they drink is, as it were, by stealth, so the consumption is not so great as to be worth naming in trade.

The general supply of corn, except what comes from Thessaly, Macedonia, and Thracia, which is very insufficient for such a city, is from the coasts of the Black Sea, partly on the Asian side, but principally on the side of Bulgaria and Servia, and the country on both sides the Danube as high as Lemen-dria, and even to Belgrade. From these parts the quantity is so exceeding great, and sometimes so much above the consumption, that barley has been known to be sold at Constantinople for 3 d. sterling per bushel. The Turks generally feed their horses with barley, as we do ours in England with oats.

The ships from the Black Sea bring also fruits and roots, especially onions, in great quantities. And, from the coast of Greece, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, figs, raisins, and the like, as also salt. Before the conquest of that country by the Germans, the flesh meat was chiefly supplied

from Hungary; at present 'tis brought from Moldavia, Wallachia, Bosnia, and the several countries upon the banks of the Danube and the river Pruth: and the quantity of black cattle, brought every year from these countries, is very great. Their other branches of commerce consist chiefly of, (1.) That of the Franks, or that carried on by the French, the Dutch, the English, and the Italians.—The trade of England to Turkey consists but of few articles for this city, viz. block-tin, and the woollen manufacture, chiefly of fine cloths, some gold watches, lead, and toys; besides which, we carry little thither of consequence. The trade of the Dutch here is still less, being chiefly in cloth made in imitation of the English, whale-fins, train-oil, battery, with some dyeing stuffs and fine linen, but in no great quantities. The trade of France here, as well as to other parts of Turkey, is, perhaps, superior to that of all other the European powers considered together. See the article LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE.

The Italians, particularly the Venetians, have a pretty good trade thither, consisting in a great variety of goods of the growth and manufacture of other nations, not their own, as wrought iron, sugar, tobacco, oil, wine, pepper, and whatever goods they can find vent for.

The commerce of the east country, which we take to contain the importation of all such goods as come by caravans from Persia and India, either to Aleppo or Trapezond, consisting chiefly of fine wrought silks, plain and figured, of divers sorts and values; such as plain and striped Persian silks, taffeties, damasks, sattins, cloth of silver, and several of the richest kinds of such goods for the seraglio's, and for the household: also India damask, and other rich things, such as atlasses, fine carpet-chimts, and painted callicoes; besides plain callicoes, mullin, &c. All these, being a valuable product, are chiefly bought by the Jews, who do not keep shops in the bazars; but the Jew-women, making up their fardels, wait upon the ladies in their baths, and, like our pedlars, trade with them in their dwelling-houses; they are admitted into the seraglio itself, where they make them pay a sufficient price for most things they buy.

Another branch of their trade is from Egypt. There comes yearly a large fleet from Alexandria with corn, bringing also the Grand Signior's money, or revenues, and his coffee; also a great quantity of coffee for private trade. The same ships bring several merchandizes, as well of India, which comes to Egypt by the way of the Red Sea, as of the country of Egypt itself, and of Africa. With these ships come in others from Cyprus and Smyrna, and some of the islands of the Archæes, from whence they import to Constantinople several goods, such as wine, corn, oil, and other merchandizes, and manufactures of cotton, silk, and hair.

All these articles furnish considerable quantities of goods to Constantinople, which are the subjects of its commerce, and which are partly consumed in the city, and partly carried from thence to the Black Sea, and to the city of Adrianople, for the consumption of the inhabitants of that city, and the adjacent country; and also to all the ports on that side the Lesser Asia, they receiving all their European goods from this city. There is a considerable trade likewise in this city for naval affairs: all the Grand Signior's fleet, whether of gallees or men of war, are laid up here in the royal arsenal. Here most of them are built, repaired, and refitted, and all the usual trades are employed, and exceeding busy, when the fleets are fitting out, just as they are in other parts of the world; such as anchor-smiths, rope-makers, sail-makers, painters, carvers, and innumerable others, who are all to be found here, and ready at call.

The quantity of naval stores for these occasions must be exceeding great; and, as they are not to be found in the adjacent country, they must employ a considerable number of ships to fetch them from distant parts, as from the islands of the Archipelago, and the Adriatic Gulph.

The general apparatus of war makes no inconsiderable article in trade here, it being usually all performed in or near Constantinople: for example, casting their cannon, which is always very numerous, and the pieces exceeding large; casting shells, mortars, granadoes, and smaller pieces, even to their fire-arms: in fine, in furnishing the navy with stores, the troops with arms, and the men with provisions and apparel. Likewise,

All the carriages, horses, camels, &c. for any expedition, are ordinarily prepared here, especially when the war is in Europe.—Yet there are many obstructions to commerce: as, (1.) They have no course of exchange between the imperial city, however opulent, full of people, or commerce, and any other part of the world: so that if a merchant at Constantinople would buy a cargo of goods, suppose at Marseilles, Leghorn, Cadiz, or Lisbon, he cannot remit the money for payment, but must send a supercargo with it in the ship, to buy, pay for, and bring away the lading. (2.) They have no correspondence in distant parts of the world, or trading with the merchants any-where but such as come directly to it: even the commerce of Salonichi, a city of their own, is carried on to Constantinople, but not from it, the merchants going from Salonichi with their ships, and

selling their goods to those of Constantinople; but the merchants at Constantinople neither send to Salonichi, or go thither to buy.

Nor have they any post for carriage of letters from place to place; so that they may be said to have no regular correspondence (which is the life of commercial business) with any part of the world, nor with the parts of their own empire, and can scarce send any letters but by express messengers.

They give no credit in trade; purchases in general are for ready cash, and they borrow on pledges commonly. These things cramp trade, and prevent its flourishing.

All their trade with the Armenians, Georgians, Persians, and Egyptians, is managed by personal appearance: the Armenian, Persian, and Georgian merchants come with the caravans to Aleppo, to Nicomedia, and Constantinople (as they do to Scanderon and Smyrna) where they sell their goods, and carry back the same way the money they receive, or the goods they buy.

From the nature of this commerce it is reasonable to enquire, how it can subsist, where they receive a general import, and have no produce or manufacture to export in return? How do they discharge the balance, and whence comes all the money which must go out in specie? For it is evident the Armenian and Persian merchants carry away a great deal of money for their wrought and raw silks, manufactures, drugs, and India goods, and whatever else they bring. Some European cloths, indeed, and other goods, they take with them, as leather, paper, fine wrought iron, toys, &c. but not equal in value to the goods they sell. Likewise,

All the trade of Salonichi, Larissa, and the coast of Greece to Constantinople, which consists of the product of the adjacent countries, is chiefly paid for in money, and these countries are enriched by it. But whence comes all this money? The answer to which question gives us the éclaircissement, which is very singular, for there is not a city in the world, which, like Constantinople, has neither product or manufacture in or near it, and yet receives so much, and pays so well; for, as intimated, they neither give or take credit.

Now the source of money which supplies this commerce, and which flows, as it were, into one channel to Constantinople, is the Grand Seignior's revenues: here centers the public receipt: Constantinople is the grand exchequer of the whole empire, the money flowing hither in a full stream. The supply of money comes hither from all parts of the Turkish empire; hither the several governors, bashaws, and, as we term them, intendants, bring in the taxes from the several provinces: hither the fleet, or convoy, from Alexandria, brings annually the taxes from the whole kingdom of Egypt, and the adjacent places. The galleys go annually round all the islands of the *Ægean* and *Ionian* Sea, to receive the taxes of those that collect them; so much for the capitation, so much for the land-tax; 10,000 dollars from one, 5000 from another; and so more or less as the commerce, number of people, or produce of the islands direct. As this is the method throughout the whole empire, and all the treasures of the state comes to Constantinople, we need enquire no farther from whence the balance of their trade is supplied, without a return of merchandize.

This money, it is true, comes first into the Grand Seignior's coffers; but then, as the whole city, more or less, depends upon the Grand Seignior's household, that is, the seraglio, or upon the great officers of state, who receive their income from the government, or depend upon the naval affairs, or upon the army; so that money immediately circulates again, and all have a share of it, more or less: and thus it goes back in a great measure to the places from whence it came. See the article *LEVANT TRADE*.

GREENLAND, or SPITZBERGEN, as the Dutch call it, is undiscovered on the north; on the west it has the Northern Ocean, on the south the same, between it and the Muscovite Lapland, and the northernmost part of Norway, overagainst which it lies; on the east it has an undiscovered country, to which it is joined by an isthmus, which is by some called East, or New Greenland.

Spitzbergen lies nearest to the pole of any country yet examined by seamen; that is, from 76 to 82 degrees north latitude, and perhaps much farther for aught we know.

There are no towns nor villages in this whole country, that we know of, it not being inhabited by the human species that is any way certainly known. Such of the mountains as are exposed to the warm air and sun-beams are covered with heath and moss; and in the cliffs of these rocks there are infinite numbers of fowls, that rest there all the year. The dung of these birds, with the moss washed down by the melted snow, makes such a mould, in some places near the shore, where it produces a kind of lettuce, scurvey-grass, exceeding mild and pleasant snake-weed, mouse-ear, heart's-ease, strawberries, houseleek, wall-pepper, and some plants unknown to us.

The sea is observed not to be so salt here as in other places, and changes its colour with the sky. The air is so cold, that there is almost a continual frost, which is strongest in April and May. South or west winds bring snow or rain, and moderate the cold. In June, July, and August, the weather

is usually calm, and in the two last months, especially in July, the sun shines so hot as to melt the tar between the seams of a ship, if the wind cannot come at it.

This country abounds with a kind of white bear.—The largest are water-bears, which live upon what they can get at sea. Their skins make very comfortable cloathing for such as travel in winter; and are dressed in Spitzbergen by treading them in hot saw-duft. They have a fine kind of deer in this country; they abound in seal, sea-dogs, and horses. There are few land-fowl; but water-fowl in abundance.

The fish on this coast require the most notice, the taking them being the sole motive that brings ships into these seas, where the whale-fishing is carried on with great profit. The true large whale differs from the rest of the fish so called, by his having no teeth; instead of which, on each side of the upper jaw grows the whale-bone, in 4 or 500 different blades, at equal distances, some exceeding 12 feet in length, and a foot broad at bottom, growing narrow upwards, like the strokes of a fan inverted, the largest weighing about 20 pounds.

The head makes $\frac{1}{3}$ of the whole body; his tongue is about eight feet long, and 10 broad, weighing near 600 weight; his bones are hard, but, instead of a large cavity in the middle, are porous, and full of marrow; his belly and back are red; his flesh coarse and hard, mixed with many sinews, and is very dry and lean, because the fat lies between the flesh and the skin. The fat is mixed with sinews, which holds the oil as a sponge does water: the other strong sinews are about the tail, with which he turns and winds himself as a ship is guided by a rudder. He swims as swift as a bird flies, and makes a track in the sea like a large ship under sail. Besides the uppermost thin skin, there is another, almost an inch thick, but neither very strong, which is thought the reason why the whale does not exert that force that might be expected from a fish of that size. The middle sort of them are from 50 to 60 feet long, and yield from 70 to 100 barrels of blubber, though sometimes they are much larger. Martens mentions one that yielded 130 hogheads. This blubber lies immediately under the skin; they cut it into thin slices, which are put into hot coppers: the oil soon melting out, the skin is thrown away.

Of the manner of taking the whales in this trade.

As soon as the fishermen hear a whale blow, they cry out, Fall, fall! and every ship gets out its long boat, in each of which there are six or seven men; they row till they come pretty near the whale; then the harpooner strikes it with his harpoon, which is a sharp iron, resembling the head of an arrow, fixed to a stick; and this requires great dexterity. Through the bone of his head there is no striking, but near his spout there is a soft piece of flesh, into which the iron sinks with ease. As soon as he is struck, they take care to give him rope enough, otherwise, when he goes down, as he frequently does, he would inevitably sink the boat: this rope he draws with such violence, that, if it were not well watered, it would, by its friction against the sides of the boat, set fire to it. The line fastened to the harpoon is six or seven fathoms long, and is called the forerunner: it is made of the finest and softest hemp, that it may slip the easier: to this they join a heap of lines, of 90 or 100 fathoms each; and, when there are not enough in one long boat, they borrow from another. The man at the helm observes which way the rope goes, and steers the boat accordingly, that it may run exactly out before; for the whale runs away with the line, with so great rapidity, that it would overset the boat, if it were not kept straight. When the whale is struck, the other long boats row before, and observe which way the line stands, and sometimes pull it: if they feel it stiff, it is a sign the whale still pulls in strength; but if it hangs loose, and the boat lies equally high, before and behind, upon the water, they pull it in gently, but take care to cover it so, that the whale may have it easily again, if he recovers strength: they take care, however, not to give him too much line, because he sometimes entangles it about a rock, and pulls out the harpoon. The fat whales do not sink as soon as dead, but the lean ones do, and come up some days afterwards. They sink almost as soon as they expire.—When they spout, the fishermen know that he draws towards his end, and prepare for cutting him up. In order to which, they haul him close to the ship's side, and with great knives slice his sides, raising the blubber by a hook and a pulley, which they lift up as they cut. Many of these great flakes they string upon a rope, and so drag them on shore, where they are heaved up by a crane, laid on the whale's tail, and afterwards hewed into pieces no bigger than trenchers, and so thrown into coppers.—So soon as they become brown, they are called fritters, taken out, and cast away: the liquor is then laded into a boat half full of water, to cool and cleanse it; and thence by long troughs, that it may be more cool, conveyed into hogheads close to the shore. In the mean time, the head is cut off, and drawn as near as can be to the shore, and hoisted up by a crane, till the whale-bone is cut out, and tied by fifties; and then the rest of the head is also boiled for oil. The tongue is craned up with great care;

care; that of a large whale yielding from seven to twelve hogheads of oil, though there have been instances of their yielding 24 hogheads: but this is extraordinary.

Within the body of the whale is found seldom any thing but 10 or 12 handfuls of a kind of small black spiders, and some small quantity of green herbs, torn up from the bottom of the sea, and which are supposed to be the food upon which the whales chiefly subsist. The sea hereabouts is so covered with these insects, that it appears quite black; which is a sign, to those who go about catching of whales, that they are like to make a good booty, the whales delighting generally in that part of the sea which produces these insects.

All the requisite fishing instruments, such as harping-irons, or harpoons, lances, cutting-knives, nose-hooks, lines, thallops, casks, &c. must be provided, and the ships completely fitted, victualled, and manned before the end of March; when, every thing being on board, the ships must sail at farthest by the beginning of April for Greenland.

The vessels most proper for the whale-fishing are those we call fly-boats, or cats, or hag-boats; they should be very strong-built, and particularly doubled at the bow, that they may resist the shocks of the ice. The size of these ships commonly used is about 200 to 500 tons; and they are supplied with men and shallops in proportion to their burden, as follows:

	Tons.	Shallops.		
A ship of	200	must have 4	} And {	29
	250	— 5		36
	300	— 6		43
	450	— 7		50
				Men and boys.

The particular qualifications of the men for a ship of about 300 tons and six shallops, are generally as follow, viz.

The voyage to Greenland outwards is commonly performed in four or five weeks, allowing for variable winds and foul weather, the season of the year being usually stormy when they set out, and particularly subject to long easterly winds, otherwise they often run it, with a fair wind, in 18 or 20 days; and it is observed that they return home, from the time of beginning to sail, in less time than they go out. The fishery begins in May, and continues all June and July; but, whether they have good or bad success, they must come away, and get clear of the ice, by the end of August; so that, in the month of September at farthest, they may be expected home: but a ship that meets with a fortunate and early fishery in May, may return in June or July.

When the whale-fishers see several whales at a time, two or three vessels generally agree to pursue their game in concert, and to assist one another in the catching; and they divide what they catch according to agreement.

If a dead whale be found floating upon the sea, the property is theirs who find it, and take hold of it; and, to encourage the ship's crew to be always very watchful, he who discovers the dead whale has a premium of half a guinea. The train-oil of such a dead whale, especially if it died of itself, is of a reddish colour, and not so valuable as of a whale that is immediately killed; but the fins are of equal goodness.

There are, besides the whales, several other monstrous fish found and caught in these seas, namely, (1.) The pot-fish, or sperma-ceti-fish: he is as big as the whale, having a monstrous large head, from which they take from 12 to 20 barrels of brains; which being well cleaned, they call (but falsely) sperma-ceti: they cut also from the body of the fish several puncheons of blubber; but he is not near so fat as the whale. The fin-fish is almost as big as the whale, and is distinguished from it by a large fin on its back: he is not so fat, nor hath such fins in his mouth, as a whale; so that they are seldom thought worth the trouble of killing, or to venture the harpoons and lines on, as, being more nimble, they are more likely to escape. Also,

There is sometimes met with in these seas a fish called the unicorn, a creature beautifully spotted, with a horn growing out of his upper jaw, and pointing straight forward, from three to 12 feet long, according to the growth of the fish, which is as estimable as ivory. The fish will yield one or two barrels of blubber, and the train-oil of it is whiter than that of the whale.

The merse, or sea-cow, called by some the sea-horse, is found here both in the water and on the ice: it is as big as a large bullock. From one that is pretty large they cut about a puncheon of blubber.

The seal, or dog-fish, are often upon the ice, and are easily taken. They afford very good train-oil; and the fat of about 12 or 20 seals will fill a puncheon. Their skin is used by the trunk-makers, or dressed as leather for divers uses.

R E M A R K S.

Before we conclude this part of the trade of Great-Britain, it may be necessary to mention (though it be renovare dolorem) that the English were the first that ever made the bold attempt of attacking that terrible creature a whale; and, therefore, have a kind of title by inheritance to that trade, though

we enjoy but a small share therein, in comparison to those who have supplanted us.

The English were the first that ever attempted to sail among these islands of ice; and, in quest of new discoveries, they traversed the frozen zone to the latitude of 76, far within the arctic circle. Here they discovered Greenland, as we name it, or Spitzbergen, as others call it; and, though they found the land not capable of being cultivated or inhabited, yet they found the seas full of whales; and, finding them profitable, became dextrous harponiers. From them the Hollanders, Bremeners, and Hamburgers, learned it; and, in their first attempts, they were obliged to hire Englishmen for harponiers and steersmen, as we now are (so unhappily are the tables turned) to hire Dutchmen and Germans, if we engage in the same trade.

About the year 1597, when the English nation thriving in trade, and encouraged by queen Elizabeth, spread the northern seas, in quest of new discoveries; in 1598, they began this trade, though with two ships only. The first voyage they struck several whales, and such as would have made their voyage prodigiously profitable; but, by being unexperienced in the business when they struck the whales, they tore all away, overset their boats, drowned their men, and even sometimes endangered their ships: they killed several small whales, and made so gainful a voyage as to encourage further attempts. Accordingly in 1599, when they went with five ships, and furnishing themselves with such necessaries as they had found needful, they made a good voyage; and boiling their blubber on shore, on the isle of Spitzbergen, they brought home so much oil as turned to very great account. From that time they went on with great success, for 10 or 12 years, particularly in 1608, which proved extremely fortunate: and so their trade continued till 1612.

In which year the Hollanders, hearing of the success of the English, and in hope of the like advantages, sent the first time to Spitzbergen, supplying themselves with skilful pilots and harponiers from England. But the English claiming the property in this trade, as indeed was their due, forbid the Hollanders meddling with the fish, and sent them home for the first time empty. The Dutch, however, not giving it over, sent two ships the next year, 1613; and these, being ships of force, resolved to defend themselves. But the English attacked them and brought them to England; with all the oil, their thallops, fishing-tackle, &c. the Dutch ships being fully laden, and having made a good voyage; for the Dutch proved their loss to be 130,000 guilders.

After this they had various bickerings, the Dutch pushing into the trade, and the English attacking them, till at last, in the year 1617, the Dutch strengthening their fishery with ships of force, and the English attacking them again, it came to a kind of general action, wherein the English were worsted, the Dutch taking one of their ships.—This they carried to Holland; but the states general, being unwilling to give offence to king James I. then reigning, caused the ship to be very honestly restored, with all that was in her; and, in order to prevent the like for the future, sent over a deputation to England, to treat upon the subject, and to settle a freedom of the fishery both for the English and Dutch. But the king did not decide the question, nor encourage his subjects to disturb the Dutch; so it remained undetermined, and both sides went on fishing together.

The English had, indeed, possession of the island of Spitzbergen, and of the harbours and bays where the ships usually went for shelter, and where they built houses and sheds to lay up their casks, to boil their blubber, &c. and which were the best in the place, viz. Clock-Bay, the Safe-Harbour, English Bay, English-Harbour, and the like.—Upon this the Hollanders went farther north, and settled by themselves in several other places, as at North-Bay, South-Bay, Holland's-Bay, Amsterdam-Island, and the like.—The Danes, who came afterwards, settled likewise, and placed themselves between the English and the Dutch, at a place still called the Danish Bay.—The Hamburgers came after the Danes, and pitched farther west, calling their place Hamburg Bay.—After these came the French and the Spaniards, and they were obliged to go still farther north, and their settlement is called Biscay Hook.

But, as the island became farther discovered, and several other bays and harbours found out, all those nations shifted their stations, as they found the most for their convenience; the island and the fishery, also, being more than sufficient for them all, had they been many more than they were.

At that time, the whales, having not been used to be disturbed, frequently came near the shores, into the very bays, and were accordingly killed almost close to the shore; so that the blubber, being cut off, was immediately carried on shore in the shallops, and boiled into oil on the spot. Thus the ships took in nothing but the pure oil and the fins, and all the business was executed there; whereby a ship could bring home the product of many more whales than she can according to the present way of conducting this trade. The fishery also was then so plentiful, that they were obliged sometimes to send other ships to fetch off the oil they had made, the

the quantity being more than the fishing-ships could bring away.

Time and change of circumstances have shifted the situation of this trade. The ships coming in such numbers, the whales were disturbed, and gradually, as other fish often do, forsaking the place, were not to be killed so near the shore as before, but are now found, and have been so ever since, in the openings and spaces among the ice, where they have deep water, and where they go sometimes a great many leagues from the shore. This alteration has rendered all their warehouses and cookeries on shore useless, their ruins only remaining to be seen; for it is above 80 years since they have been forsaken.

This fishery requiring to be managed after a new manner, and to be carried on in the high seas, and among the ice, became more difficult and dangerous than it had been before; several ships were lost in the beginning of it, before they could so fully learn the nature and situation of the ice, as to know where it was, and was not safe to venture. Such as were over cautious in venturing among the ice, frequently came home without any cargo at all, to the great loss of their owners; and those who boldly followed the whales into the openings and hollows of the ice, not having had experience enough to judge where they might, or might not venture, were as often crushed to pieces in the ice. This discouraged the merchants, who before that carried on the trade in companies, not only in England, but in Holland and other countries, that they dissolved their societies, and so the trade seemed to be abandoned for a time, and by the English for ever.

The Dutch, however, resumed it, though not in a company, yet by their private merchants, about the year 1638, and soon subdued all those difficulties which had before discouraged them, and carried on the trade with more ships than heretofore, and with far more emolument: and in this manner they have gone on ever since.

The growth and increase of this trade, and the extraordinary benefit thereof to the Hollanders, were minutely represented, some years since, by Mr Henry Elkin, a merchant of Bremen, in a memorial to the late Sir John Eyles, when sub-governor of the South-Sea company, to induce the company to engage vigorously in that fishery; wherein he made it appear, that, from the year 1675 to the year 1721, the Dutch only, had

Sent to the whale-fishery	-	6,995	fail of ships.
Those ships killed	-	32,908	whales,
And brought home of train-oil	1,250,714	punchoons,	
And of whale-fins at least	40,000,000	of pounds weight.	

The value of oil and whale-fin, thus brought home by the Dutch, amounts to no less than 150 millions of guilders, or 14 millions of pounds sterling.

Add to this account all the advantages which accrue to the Dutch by the building, fitting out, and furnishing so many of their ships, the coöperation of so many casks, and the employment of so great a number of their seamen; of which we shall take more particular notice under the article HOLLAND. A melancholy article to be added to all this, as it relates to England, is, how great a quantity of this oil and fins the British nation have bought from the Dutch with their ready money, which they might otherwise have kept at home to so great an advantage; and, indeed, instead thereof, if they had been resolute in the first establishment of this trade, have sold oil and fins to the Dutch themselves, or at least to those nations whom the Dutch now supply with them.

Thus England has been obliged, ever since about the year 1638, to sit down with the loss of a trade which they were the first beginners of in the world. There was an attempt, indeed, to recover this trade in the year 1694, when a company of eminent merchants undertook it, and fitted out two ships the first year, having an act of parliament in their favour, particularly exempting them from any duties, and their men from being pressed into the king's service; which, at that time, was a valuable privilege.

But these gentlemen were ill served, and, wanting due information of the proper methods for managing the whole affair, they were imposed upon by almost all the people they employed, both at home and abroad, running them upon irregular measures and needless expences; so that it is no wonder they lost by every step they took, and at length annihilated their capital stock.

The next attempt was that made by the South-Sea company in consequence of Mr Elkin's proposition; but from what causes this, and other concerns of trade, have no better succeeded with that corporation, see the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

It remains now only to enquire, whether England is not capable of carrying on this trade as much to advantage as any other nation whatsoever? See the article FISHERIES.

The laws that have been made in England, from time to time, to encourage this trade.

I. Stat. 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 1. It shall be lawful for all his majesty's subjects, and for every other person residing here, to trade to Greenland, and those seas, and there to take whales, and other fish, and to import oil, blubber, and fins; and it shall be lawful for any person to import train-oil, or

blubber, of Greenland and those seas, or of Newfoundland, or of any other his majesty's plantations, made of fish, or other creature living in the seas, and whale-fins, caught in ships belonging to England, and imported in such ships, without paying any duty; and for the tun of such oil taken by any shipping belonging to his majesty's plantations, and imported in such shipping, there shall be paid 6s. and for every tun of whale-fins taken and imported in such shipping, 50s. and for the tun of such oil taken by the said shipping, but imported in shipping belonging to England, &c. 3s. and for every tun of whale-fins taken and imported in such shipping, 25s. and for the tun of all such oil and blubber of foreign fishing, 9l. and for every tun of whale-fins of foreign fishing, 18l.

II. Sect. 2. No English ship importing whale-oil, or blubber, or other fish oil, or whale-fins of Greenland, shall enjoy any benefit by this act, unless such ship did proceed on her voyage for Greenland and those seas from England, Wales, or Berwick, and was victualled for the said voyage in some of those places, to be attested by the collector of the port.

III. Stat. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 17. §. 9. The company of London merchants trading to Greenland shall during the continuance of the joint-stock hereby appointed (and since expired) enjoy the free trade of catching of whales, by sea or otherwise, to and from Greenland, and the Greenland seas, and all other seas and places, except in the seas belonging to their majesties plantations in America.

IV. Sect. 28. No ship belonging to England, Wales, or Berwick, employed in catching whales in the Greenland seas and other the places aforesaid, and importing whale-oil or blubber, or other fish-oil, or whale-fins, of Greenland, &c. shall enjoy any benefit by this act, unless such ship did proceed on her voyage for Greenland, &c. from England, Wales, or Berwick, and was victualled for the said voyage in some of those places, to be attested by the collector of the port.

V. Sect. 30. This act shall be a public act.

VI. Stat. 10 Will. III. cap. 25. §. 17. Whale-fins, oil, and blubber, taken and imported by the ships of the company of merchants of London trading to Greenland, were not intended to be made liable to the duty of 12d. for every 20s. value of goods imported, charged in the act 9 Will. III. cap. 23. but shall be free of the said duties, as all fish of English taking.

VII. Stat. 1 Ann. cap. 16. §. 1. It shall be lawful for any of her majesty's subjects, that will adventure to Greenland for fishing of whales, to have all the privileges that were granted to the Greenland company by the act 4 Will. and Mar. cap. 17. and shall not pay any other duty than if they had been of the said Greenland company.

VIII. Sect. 2. No harpooner shall be impressed for her majesty's service.

IX. Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. It shall be lawful for any persons for nine years, from the 25th of December, 1731, to import whale-fins, oil, or blubber, seal-oil, seal-skins, or any other produce of seals, or other creatures taken in the Greenland Seas, or Davis's Streights, or other parts adjacent, in British ships, whereof the captain, and one part of the mariners, are British subjects, without paying any duty.

X. Sect. 2. Nothing in this act shall give liberty of importing any of the beforementioned commodities duty free, unless the captain of the ship shall make oath before one of the commissioners, or principal officer of the customs, in the port of importation, that all the whale-fins, &c. imported in such ship, were really and bona fide the fins, &c. taken in the Greenland Seas, Davis's Streights, or other parts adjacent, by the crew of such ships only, whereof the captain and one third part of the mariners were British subjects.

During the continuance of the act 5 Geo. II. for encouraging the Greenland fishery (which by 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. is continued to 25 December, 1750, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament) every British vessel of 200 tons or upwards, bound to the whale-fishery to the Greenland seas, &c. shall be examined by the proper officers of the customs, and, if found to be duly qualified, certificate thereof to be made to the commissioners of the customs, and on oath of the owners and chief officers of the said ship, that it is their purpose that the ship shall proceed on a fishing voyage to those seas, and on the masters becoming bound with two sureties in the penalties of treble the bounty, the commissioners are to grant a licence to proceed on such voyage.

On the ship's return, the proper officers of the customs are to view her condition and lading, and take a schedule of the persons on board, and to certify the same; the master and mate making oath that they did directly proceed on such voyage as above, and no other, and used their utmost endeavours to take whales, and other creatures in those seas, and that all the whale-fins, oil, and blubber (if any) imported in their ship, was taken by their crew in those seas; there shall be paid by the receiver general of the customs the sum of twenty shillings per ton, according to the admeasurement of the ship

6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1. 3, 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4.
 Note, during the late war [with Spain] over and above the
 afore-mentioned 20 s. per ton, the commissioners of the cus-
 toms may, on demand, cause payment to be made of a fur-
 ther allowance of 10s. per ton.—13 Geo. II.

GREENWICH-HOSPITAL.

Duty of 6d. the month out of seamen's wages, for the sup-
 port of Greenwich-Hospital.

By 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 21.—First granted.
 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 23.—The former act enforced.
 10 Ann. cap. 17. ——— New regulations.
 2 Geo. II. cap. 7. ——— Further regulations.

Each man for every month employed - 0 0 6 duty,
 and so in proportion for any lesser time.

To be paid by every seaman or other person whatsoever, em-
 ployed in any of his majesty's ships, or of those belonging to
 the subjects of Great-Britain or Ireland, &c. and by every
 master or owner navigating his own ship, except only such
 boys as are actually put apprentices by parishes, till they are
 eighteen years of age; (who are exempted by 2 Ann. cap. 6.)
 which directs registering their indentures, and that none be
 allowed without endorsement; but not to extend to any
 other servants, apprentices, or boys whatsoever; and also
 except those employed in any coasting boat employed in fish-
 ing, and boats or vessels trading from place to place, within
 any river of Great-Britain and Ireland, or open boats on
 these coasts; and persons employed on board hoys, &c.
 belonging to London, and employed within the North
 Foreland in bringing corn, fish, or other provision for Lon-
 don.

But, that masters of coasting vessels may not possibly evade
 the duty under pretence of having been employed formerly
 in the manner before exempted, the receiver of the port to
 which they belong, must, from time to time, call them to
 account.

And this duty may be deducted and detained by every master,
 &c. of ships liable to it, out of the wages, &c. of all em-
 ployed, except apprentices, &c. as before exempted; to be
 paid by him to the receivers appointed, who in the out-ports
 are generally the collectors of the customs deputed from the
 commissioners appointed by the admiralty. In pursuance of
 which deputation, the collector is, on the first arrival of any
 ship or vessel, subject to the duty from foreign parts, to re-
 quire an account of the entries and discharges of all the men
 employed, since the last payment of it; for which must be
 produced regular receipts from some collector, under the of-
 fice-seal, stamp in the margin; which must be sent to the
 office, with the next return of accounts: in either of which if
 there appear any irregularity, it must be noticed to the com-
 missioners: but, if the master pretend he has paid the duty at
 some other port, and will take oath that his last receipt is
 lost or mislaid, the collector must not accept it, but oblige
 him to produce it, or leave a deposit for the duty till he can
 produce a duplicate. Which being produced, the receiver
 must carefully examine, that if he shall judge the number of
 men mentioned less than what the ship is usually sailed with,
 or suspect any deceit in the times of entry or discharge of
 any of the ship's company, or any other fraud intended, he
 may examine the master or any other upon oath: and, when
 satisfied of the truth, he must then, to adjust the duty, com-
 pute the time of each man's service, from the last payment,
 as mentioned in the receipt, to the time of the present com-
 putation: and, in case of ships lost homeward bound, the
 duty must be paid only to the time the ships arrived at their
 last delivering ports abroad.

Note, That, though ships from foreign parts must pay every
 voyage, yet, for coasting vessels, the receiver of the port they
 belong to, needs not account every voyage, unless they are
 30 days in arrear, or there be some particular reason: and
 that ships belonging to the isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alder-
 ney, Sark, and Man, or the British colonies in America, are to
 pay, in Great-Britain, that part of the duty due at their
 arrival, and during their stay; and ships belonging to Great-
 Britain, trading from thence to those islands, &c. and back
 again, are to pay the whole duty in Great-Britain.

The form of the computation of the service must be as
 follows:

Men's names.	Quality.	Time of		No. of		Money due.
		Entry.	Discharge.	Mo.	Days	
Jam. Bell	Master	3 Jan. 1730	*20 M. 1730	2	17	
Tho. Crofts	Mate	5 Ditto	16 Ditto	2	11	
W. Jones	Boatswain	12 Ditto	5 Ditto	1	21	
Ro. Wells	Able	2 February	*20 Ditto	1	18	
J. Finch	Ordinary	8 March	18 Ditto	—	10	
				8	† 17 ⁰ 4	3 ²

The service thus computed, the receiver must demand the
 duty of the master with whom alone the receiver should ac-
 count, and not with crimps, &c. unless the master is not to
 be found: the receipt to be given under the office-seal is as
 follows:

V O L. I.

The twenty-third day of March, one thousand
 seven hundred and thirty.

Tons Men
 80 5

(L. Sig.) Received of Mr. James Bell, master
 of the Providence of London, lately arrived from
 Rotterdam, the sum of four shillings and three
 pence half-penny, for the use of Greenwich-
 Hospital, being six-pence a month from each of
 the five persons belonging to his said ship Pro-
 vidence, between the third of January last,
 and the * twentieth instant, in pursuance of an
 act of parliament made in the tenth year of the
 reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled,
 An act for the better collecting and recovering
 the duties granted for the support of the royal
 hospital at Greenwich, &c. Paid last at Cowes
 the fifth of January 1730, amounting to six
 shillings and eight pence, as by receipt appears

0 4 3²

A. B. Receiver for the port of Southampton.

* The end of the voyage, or the time of the last man's dis-
 charge, so that the master and all the men must enter anew
 the next day, if the ship continues in pay, to account with
 the next receiver; but, if the ship be laid up, the beginning
 of the next voyage must be accounted from the time of the
 first man's entry for such voyage.

† The days amount to 77, which being divided by 30 (the
 number of days at which the month is always computed) the
 quotient is two months 17 days; therefore the 17 days are
 set down in the column of days, and the two months are
 carried to the column of months.

And, if the master omit payment on his first arrival, it must
 be paid * before his vessel may be cleared inwards by the
 officers of the customs; who are not, on forfeiture of twenty
 pounds, to clear such vessel, or suffer it to go out of the
 port, till the master produce an acquittance, and that he is
 not more than thirty days in arrear, or is exempted: but to
 prevent needless expence to the crown, by keeping tidemen
 on board on account of non-payment only, the commissio-
 ners, by printed advertisements, give notice of the penalties
 for refusal of payment, in the following form, viz.

* Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 2.

Receiver's office for Greenwich-Hospital.

(L. Sig.) Notice is hereby given to all masters of mer-
 chant-ships, That they are, by an act of parliament passed in
 the 2d year of the reign of his present majesty, to pay the six-
 pence a month, deducted out of their men's wages, for the
 use of Greenwich-Hospital, before their ships are cleared in-
 wards, by the officers of his majesty's customs, under a pe-
 nalty of twenty pounds, for the use of the said hospital, in
 case of refusal or neglect to do the same: they are likewise
 to take notice, That if any officer of the customs shall be
 continued on board their respective ships (purely for want of
 their not paying the duty) they must expect to reimburse the
 expence the crown may be at, on account of their negli-
 gence. These are to be delivered to the tidemen, when go-
 ing on board any ship liable to the duty; to give one to the
 master: and the collector and comptroller are to apply to the
 receivers for payment, if any tideman be kept on board by
 the master's not paying this duty.

Any master attempting to go to sea, not having paid, his ship
 may be detained; as likewise on discovery of any fraud, till
 all dues and charges be duly paid: and, any master opposing
 the receiver stopping his ship, the vice-admiral of the coun-
 ty must be applied to for assistance.

But, if the master (or, if absent, the owner) of any vessel not
 in the king's service, shall neglect or refuse to deliver in the
 account, and pay the duty, the receiver may summon him to
 his office, if not above ten miles off, and may examine him
 in the needful particulars; and upon non-appearance, or re-
 fusal to make full discovery upon oath, or on neglect of pay-
 ment before cleared inwards by the officers of the customs,
 to forfeit twenty pounds; one half to the hospital, the other
 to the person suing: the form must be as follows:

(L. Sig.) Whereas by act of parliament made in the tenth
 year of the reign of her late majesty queen Anne, intitled,
 An act for the better collecting and recovering the duties
 granted for the support of the royal hospital at Greenwich,
 &c. it is enacted, That it shall and may be lawful for the re-
 ceivers of the six-pence a month out of seamen's wages, or
 their deputies for the time being, for the better discovery of
 what shall be due, to examine all owners, masters, or others
 concerned, upon oath, and to summon them for this pur-
 pose; to which they are obliged by the said act to appear and
 answer accordingly, under penalty of twenty pounds for any
 neglect.

These are, by virtue of the authority to me given in pursu-
 ance of the said act, to require you to appear before me at
 my office at the custom-house, in the port of Southampton,
 to give an account, and forthwith pay all such money as
 shall appear due from your ship's company, during the time

they have served on board the ship, whereof you are master, as by the said act is directed, to avoid the penalties in the said act mentioned. Dated at my office at this port of Southampton, on the 24th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Receiver.

To James Bell, master
of the Providence.

Any master thus summoned, refusing to appear or give account, and any officer of the customs offending in clearing any ship, the receiver must return their names to the commissioners, to take proper methods for recovery of the penalties.

And, besides the aforefaid duty, the several following penalties and forfeitures are to be paid, for the use of Greenwich-Hospital, to the officer at each port, who collects the said duty.

1. Masters or commanders of any ship, &c. belonging to Great-Britain, bound to parts beyond the seas, carrying any mariner, except his apprentice, without first entering into a contract for his wages in writing, specifying the wages, voyage, &c. forfeit five pounds each man: recoverable upon information, on oath of one or more witnesses, before a justice of the peace.

Which forfeiture the receiver must endeavour to get information of, and, on the master's return, apply to a justice for a warrant to recover it.

2. Mariners absenting themselves from the ships they belong to, without the master's leave, forfeit for every day's absence two days pay.

3. Mariners (not entering into the king's service) leaving the ship they belong to, without a discharge in writing from the master, forfeit one month's pay.

These penalties are to be deducted by the master out of any mariner's wages, who is to enter them in a book, and make oath before the collector to the truth of it; the book to be signed by the master, and two or more principal officers, setting forth that they are the whole stopt during the voyage. And, on arrival of every ship from abroad, the receiver must demand, of the master, an account of penalties incurred by, and stopt from his mariners during that voyage, and must see the master's book, and compare the account with it. And any master deducting the penalties, and not paying them to the officer appointed to receive them, within three months after the deduction, forfeits treble the value: to be recovered (with the deduction) as the penalties for not duly paying the six-pence a month.

Upon receipt of any money for this duty, or for penalties, an entry must be made in a proper book for that purpose; from which must be transcribed, every quarter, an account in the same form, to be sent to the accountant for the out-ports, and the money, so received, must, from time to time, be remitted to the general-receiver of this duty.

And, in consideration of the care and trouble in collecting, recovering, and accounting for this duty and penalties, the receiver is to be allowed 2 s. 6 d. in the pound, for the money received or recovered by him.

The form of the account to be as follows :

GRONINGEN, one of the seven United Provinces. This province, or lordship, is bounded on the north by the German Ocean; and the country of Embden on the east; Overijssel on the south; and Friesland on the west. The air of this country is sharp, and well purified by continual breezes; and it abounds with good pastures, and large herds of great and small cattle.

GRONINGEM, the capital of the province, is situated on the conflux of the rivers Hunnes, or Schutten, and Aa. It has several natural and artificial canals. The river Aa is received into the city, and let out again by several large arches under the fortifications, and, where it goes out, receives the Hunnes, which encompasses the east and north parts of the city, and form an harbour capable of a great number of vessels, by which means this city enjoys a pretty good trade.

DELFTZYL, at the mouth of the river Ems, has a very good harbour, which, for situation, and other advantages, exceeds that of Embden.

GUINEA, in Africa. This great region is divided into two large countries, called Upper and Lower Guinea, the latter of which is commonly called Congo. These two together extend above 2500 miles along the sea coast.

The most general division of Upper Guinea is into three parts, viz. Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin; which together extend 500 leagues from west to east.

I. MALAGUETA. This country is generally known under the name of the Graia Coast, from the paradise grain, or Guinea pepper, called malagueta in Spanish, which grows here plentifully.

This country is divided into the kingdoms of Sherbro, Quoja, and Sanguin, along the coast, and Manou inland. But these are little known, except near the coast.

The chief places frequented by the Europeans are **SHERBRO**, the capital of a petty kingdom of the same name. Sherbro River is navigable for canoes a great way up.—The chief trade here is in cham-wood.—Near the mouth of this river there is York Island, on which the English had once a factory, and good fort, which is now in ruins.—There is also another island, called Farellons, which abounds with poultry, rice, potatoes, banana's, orange and lemon-trees. About 25 leagues distant from the mouth of the river Sherbro, to the south-east, is Cape Monte. It is furnished with numerous villages, and the negroes on this part of the coast are extremely industrious: in planting of rice and boiling of salt they are indefatigable.

II. GUINEA PROPER. This country extends from Cape Palmas to the river Volta, about 140 leagues along the sea-coast, which bounds it on the south: it has the kingdom of Beina on the east; Gago and Melli on the north; and Malagueta on the west. The Europeans divide it into two parts, the Tooth and the Gold Coast; the former extends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Casta; and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

The **TOOTH**, or **IVORY**, or **QUAQUA COAST**, is thus called from the great plenty of elephants-teeth traded in here. When they come to trade with any ship, the natives take some water into their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes, which is a kind of oath, by which they signify that they would rather lose their eye-sight than cheat those they trade with. They are no less averse to drunkenness than to fraud; and though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they drink no palm-wine, but only a certain small liquor, which they mix with water. They have manufactures of cotton habits, which are called quaqua gowns. A fundamental law of the country is, that every one is obliged to continue all his life-time in the condition in which he was born: so that one whose father was a fisherman, for instance, can never become any thing else but a fisherman; and so of all other trades and professions.

The **GOLD COAST** follows next: but why it is particularly so called cannot be well accounted for, since other countries in Guinea produce gold also. See the article **GOLD**.

Undoubtedly all the countries in Guinea abound with gold mines; and, though the natives are not artists enough to know where or how to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of gold in several of their mines, which are all so sacred to them, that they will not permit any European miner either to see their mines, or to search for others. Nevertheless, they bring down good stores of what they find to the sea-coast, to traffic with all. Besides which, the natives near the sea have another way of finding gold, thus: in the rainy seasons, after a wet night, the sea shore is covered with people, mostly women, each having a couple of bowls, made of calabashes; the largest of which they fill with such sand and earth as is drove down from the mountains, by violent floods, into the rivers and brooks, &c. This they wash with many waters, by often turning the bowl round, till it washes over the brim; the gold, if there be any, sinks to the bottom, by reason of its weight; and thus they continue, till they have washed all the earth and sand away, except two or three spoonfuls of the bottom, which they carefully take out, and lay by in the small bowl, after filling of which they carry the dregs home, and search it diligently for the gold.

The most remarkable places of trade are as follow, viz. **ASSINEE**, a country abounding with gold, and formerly a considerable trade was carried on here; but, since the devastation

made by a neighbouring nation, there is very little trade, in comparison to what there was; and the little gold-dust that is brought hither, is either sophisticated, or of very small value. From the Affines, to Cape Apollonia, there is a great deal of land cleared, and sowed with Indian corn.

AXIM. The inhabitants here are generally pretty opulent, driving a great trade with the Europeans for gold, which they chiefly vend to the English or Dutch. The natives industriously employ themselves either in trade, fishing, or agriculture; and the latter is chiefly exercised in the culture of rice, which grows here, above all other places, in an incredible abundance, and is transported hence all the Gold Coast over. The inhabitants, in lieu thereof, return freight with millet, yams, potatoes, and palm-oil, all which are very scarce here; for the soil is generally moist, and, though fit to produce rice and some fruit-trees, does not kindly yield other fruits.

The country upon all the Gold Coast abounds in hills, all adorned with extraordinary high and beautiful trees: the vallies between the hills are wide and extensive, proper for the planting of all sorts of fruits; and, if they were as well cultivated as watered, would supply half the coast with provisions. The earth produces, in great abundance, very good rice, the richest sort of millet, the grain of which is red; yams, potatoes, and other fruits, all good in their kind; nor is the soil deficient in fruit-trees. The sugar-canes grow here in greater plenty, and larger, than any where else on the coast of Guinea. Palm-wine and oil are here in abundance, and very good: the country also abounds in all sorts of tame and wild beasts. For the state of the fort and factories, see the articles **ENGLISH**, **DUTCH**, **FRENCH**, and **PORTUGUESE AFRICAN TRADE AND COMPANIES**. See also our new **MAP OF AFRICA**.

III. BENIN. This country, which comprehends also the Slave Coast, has Guinea Proper, or, more particularly, the Gold Coast, on the west; Gago, Brafera, with the desert of Seth, on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the east; and part of Congo, with the Ethiopic Ocean, on the south. It is commonly divided into three parts, viz. Whydah and Ardah, which two contain the Slave Coast, and Benin Proper.

WHYDAH, as it is called by the English, is called **JUDA** by the French, and **PIDA** by the Dutch. It is bounded on the west by the river Volta; on the south it has the gulph of Guinea; on the east the kingdom of Ardah, and, on the north, the kingdom of Dahomy. Whydah is allowed to be a very delightful country; the number and variety of tall and beautiful trees seem as if planted in fine groves for ornament; the lands were in general well cultivated, till the king of Dahomy conquered it; before which, the natives were so industrious, that few places thought fertile escaped cultivation: they were so anxious in that particular, that, the day after they had reaped, they always sowed again, without allowing the land time for rest.

The English African company have a fort here, wherein are mounted several pieces of cannon; and a little distant there is also a French fort.

SABEE, the capital town of Whydah, is about four miles distant from the French fort, towards the north; but it was reduced to ashes by the king of Dahomy. The town was very populous, and here were daily markets, wherein many sorts of European, as well as African commodities, were exhibited to public sale, as also great variety of provisions. Near the European factories was a spacious place, where grew a parcel of fine tall shady trees, under which the English, French, and Portuguese governors, factors, and sea-captains, walked and transacted business every day, as on an exchange. All these places were reduced to ashes by the King of Dahomy's army.

Adjoining to the kingdom of Whydah are several small royalties, as Coto, Little and Great, Popo, and Quahoe, situate on the Slave Coast. At Coto their land is flat, sandy, and barren; they have indeed the palm and wild cacao-trees, in tolerable plenty.—Their trade is chiefly that of slaves and fish. Quahoe, according to Bosman, abounds with gold, which the inhabitants carry through Aquamboe to Acra.

DAHOMY COUNTRY is situated to the north of the Slave Coast, and extends greatly inland: its boundaries on the west, north, and east, are unknown. This country is mighty healthy, lying high, and being refreshed with cool breezes. Their commerce here is chiefly in slaves, and some gold.

BENIN PROPER has part of the Gulph of Guinea, and the Slave Coast, or Ludra, on the west; part of Gago, and Brafera, on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the east; and Congo on the south. Its extent, from west to east, is about 600 miles; but that from south to north remains unascertained.

The country abounds with wild beasts, as elephants, tygers, leopards, boars, &c: as also with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pigeons, turtle-doves, &c. The soil also produces great variety of trees and plants, as orange, lemon, and especially cotton-trees; pepper, but not in such quantities as in the East-Indies.

The natives here are pretty well civilized, and, if humoured in their ceremonious way of traffic, they may be managed to pretty good advantage. They are very expert in business, though tedious; which, however, they manage with so much civility, that you cannot well be angry. The natives seem very

very obliging to each other; but this is only external grimace, for they repose little confidence in their countrymen: they are jealously prudent, and very reserved, especially in the management of their trade, which they conduct with the utmost secrecy, lest they should be represented as great traders to their governors; who, upon such discovery, would certainly accuse them of some crime or other, in order to possess themselves, though ever so unjustly, of the effects of these rich merchants: wherefore, those who have no share in the government, always pretend to be poorer than they really are, to escape the rapacious hands of those in authority. This obliges them to a cunning sort of civility, to avoid accusers; but those European dealers who will conceal their transactions with them, and deal upon the square, may do business with them to great profit.

Those men who have any thing of stock apply to merchandizes; very few of the commonalty among the males are industrious; they lay the burden of labour on their wives and slaves, whether it be tilling of ground, spinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, or any other handicraft employ.—Here are very few manual arts, besides weaving, practised or understood: the chief workmen are either smiths, carpenters, or leather-dressers; but all their workmanship is but mean, for want of proper instruction.

BENIN, which gives name to the empire, and is the king's residence, is situate about 60 miles from Agaton, a town at the entrance of the river Formosa, near the sea. Continual markets are kept here of kine, cotton, elephants teeth, and European wares.

The inhabitants of this city are all natives, foreigners not being permitted to live there. There are several rich men, who continually attend at court, not concerning themselves with either trade, agriculture, or any thing else, but leaving all their affairs to their wives, who go to all the circumjacent villages, to trade in all sorts of merchandizes, and are obliged to bring the greatest part of their gains to their husbands. All male slaves here are foreigners, for the inhabitants cannot be sold for slaves, and only bear the name of the king's slaves. Nor is it allowed to export any male slaves that are sold in this country, for they must remain there; but females may be dealt with at every one's pleasure.

AWERRI is about 20 leagues from Benin to the south, and is the capital of the kingdom of the same name, whose king is independent from the king of Benin.

AREBA, a common trading-place for the Europeans, situate above 50 miles higher up than the mouth of the river Formosa. So far ships may conveniently come in their passage, sailing by a great variety of branches of that river, besides creeks. There were here formerly two factories, one of which belonged to the English, the other to the Dutch; but, the English not having traded here but very little for several years past, they have no fort or factory.

AGATON has several circumjacent villages, whose inhabitants come hither at every considerable market, which is held here for five days.

At **CAPE FORMOSA** the trade consists in elephants teeth, wax, and honey.

CONGO, or LOWER GUINEA. This large country has Upper Guinea, or the kingdom of Benin, on the north: the Ethiopic Ocean on the west; the kingdom of Mataman, reckoned part of Caseria, on the south; but its boundaries east and north-east are not well known. The extent of this country, from Cape Lopo, in the first degree of south latitude, to Cape Negro, 23. 30. of the same latitude, is about 16 degrees 30 minutes, or about 990 English miles: how far it extends eastward is not known.

Congo is commonly divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela. The greatest part of the copper that is here comes from an inland kingdom called Jusijesses. It is brought by stealth, because that nation is always at war with the people of Loango. The Portuguese buy here great quantities of red-wood and elephants-teeth. It is said there are silver mines in Loango, but the people are so lazy that they will not work them. In some places there grows pepper, like that of Benin, ginger, and some sugar-canes, of which they make little or no account.

To the westward of Angola lies the kingdom of ANZICO, and the country of the JAGAS, whose inhabitants trade in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry slaves from their own country, and from Nubia, which they exchange for salt, glass-beads, silk, knives, and other wares.

SONGO, or, as father Labat writes it, SOGNO, has the river Zaire on the north; Sundi and Pango on the east; Bamba on the south; and the ocean on the west. The soil is dry and sandy. They are furnished with provisions from the mouth of the river Zaire, and their principal returns are in salt.

SUNDI, an inland country, has the river Zaire on the north; on the south-east the countries of Batta and Pango; on the north-east the kingdom of Makoko. The soil of this province is watered with so many rivers, that its fertility is no wonder. It requires only to be better cultivated; but nothing here, it is said, can conquer the laziness of the negroes: they chuse rather to live in want, than give themselves the trouble to get a comfortable livelihood.

The mountains here abound with the most precious metals; but, by reason of the turbulent spirit of the inhabitants about them, they are not suffered to be wrought. None but the iron mines are worked, because they want iron to make arms and instruments for agriculture. To the north of the Zaire there are mines of fine copper, which are worked; and here the people of Loango resort to purchase copper.

ANGOLA. This kingdom has that of Congo Proper on the north; Malemba, or Majemba, on the east; Benguela on the south; and the ocean on the west. Here are a prodigious number of slaves. The Portuguese Jesuits alone, who perform here the office of curates, and take care of the scholars, are said to have above 12,000 slaves at Loando, which is the usual residence of the Roman Catholic bishop.

BENGUELA. This country has Angola on the north; the country of Jaga Cafanii on the east; the kingdom of Matapan on the south; and the ocean on the west. The inland countries are little known. Along the sea-coast are several places, wherewith we are better acquainted. These are, according to De Lisle, as follow: Old Benguela, or Benguela Viella, Manikicango, Fort Cabuto, St Philip de Benguela, Angra de Sancta Maria, Farfa Bay, Tortuga Bay, Angra de Negros, and Great Wiiffers Bay.

The Portuguese have built a fort at Old Benguela, with palisadoes, and a ditch round it. The soil here is very fruitful, and the land low.—Here is plenty of black cattle, hogs, and Portuguese inhabitants, fine linnen and cotton cloths, gum, and gun-powder; and the European trade is here chiefly in slaves, some gold and ivory.

R E M A R K S.

The trade carried on here, whether by the English, or other European nations, consists in but three capital articles, viz. slaves, teeth, and gold: a very gainful and advantageous commerce, especially as it was once carried on, when these were all purchased at low rates from the negroes; and even those low rates paid in trifles and toys, such as knives and scissars, kettles, glass-beads and cowries, things of little value; but even this part of the trade is greatly declined in profit, since by the strife and envy among the traders, especially between our late royal African company and the separate traders, we have had the folly to instruct the negroes in the value of their own goods, and of the cheapness of ours; endeavouring to supplant one another, by underbidding and overbidding, by which we have taught the negroes to supplant both, by holding up the price of their own productions, and running down the rates of what we carry them for sale.

Thus that gainful commerce, once superior to all the trades in the world, which carried out the meanness of all exportations, and brought home the richest, is sinking daily, and we are sometimes said to buy even the gold too dear.

But all this while here is not the least use made of the land, the fruitful soil lies waste, a vast extended country, pleasant vallies, the banks of charming rivers, spacious plains, capable of improvement and cultivation to infinite advantage, barren and untouched.

Now, why is all this waste? What mean the Europeans, and others to neglect such advantages? Why do they not inclose, fence, and set a-part such lands for cultivation, as by their nature and situation appear to be proper for the most advantageous productions?

Let the same climates be examined in other parts of the world, and the soil in those climates be compared with the soil in the same latitudes on this coast; and if it is the same, or so near the same, as no visible difference is found in them, why should they not produce the same harvest, the same plants, fruits, drugs; or, whatever grows and is produced in one, why should it not be planted, grow, and produce the same in another?

Let us reduce this to practice, and bring the latitude of places together, with the productions proper to those places: for example.

1. The coffee-berry is the natural product of the earth at Mocha, on the eastern bank of the Red Sea, and the south-west point of Arabia Felix, in the latitude of 13 to 14 deg. there it grows, thrives and is produced, as it were wild, and with the least help of labour imaginable; what assistance of art is added to it, is after the fruit is ripened and gathered, viz. in the curing and drying the berry, and preserving them for a market, and that is to be done in the same manner in any part of the world as well as there.

The diligent Dutch, seeing the easiness of the managing and curing the berry, and how that part had no dependence, either upon the earth, the air, the water, or any thing else more there than in another place, took the hint, and planted the coffee-tree in the island of Java, near their city of Batavia; there it thrives, bears, and ripens every jot as well as at Mocha; and now they begin to leave off the Red Sea, and bring 20 to 30 tons of coffee at a time from Batavia, in the latitude of 5 degrees south.

Not content with this happy improvement, others of the same nation have made the same experiment, in near the same latitude, in another quarter of the world, and with the

like succées; and now they begin to bring large quantities of coffee from Surinam, on the north coast of South America, lat. $6\frac{1}{2}$ deg.

We are told likewise, though this, however probable, I do not affirm, that the less industrious Portuguese are planting it on the coast of Brazil, about the Rio de St Francisco, in the latitude of 12 degrees.

And besides these, we are assured the French have planted it without success at the Cape de Bon Esperanza: the reason is plain, the place was too cold, and it might as well be planted at our colonies of Virginia and Carolina, the cape lying, as we all know, in lat. 34 deg. 20 min. or thereabouts.

But if at Batavia and Surinam, in latitude 5 to 6 degrees; if at Mocha, in latitude 14 degrees; if at Port Dauphin, in latitude $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; why not at Seraleon, under Cape de Verd, in latitude 13 to 15 degrees? Why not at Cape Coast, and at Accra, in latitude 5 to 6 degrees? And in a word, why not upon all the Grain Coast, Tooth Coast, Gold and Slave Coast, where we have a free possession, strength for protection, and soil for production?

2. The sugar-cane. Our success with the sugar-canes is well known, it is produced to a very great advantage in our island colonies of America. From St Christopher's in latitude $17\frac{1}{2}$ deg. and Jamaica in latitude 18 deg. to Barbadoes, in latitude 13 deg. It is produced by the Portuguese in the Brazils, in the same latitude, south of the line from the port of Fernambuco, in the latitude of 9 deg. to the Bay de Todos los Santos, or Bay of All Saints, in the latitude of 13 deg. 20 m. and it is produced by the Spaniards on the continent of North America, in the provinces of Guaxara, Guatimala, &c. in the latitude of 14 deg. And why not then by us on the coast of Africa, where we have the choice of the country in the very same latitude from the Gold Coast in the latitude 6, to the Cape de Verd in the latitude 15?

Add to this the particular advantages which offer themselves to the planter in such an attempt as this, on the coast of Africa, which he has not, nor can have, in any of those parts where the sugar is now planted, especially by the English. For example,

1. The easiness of procuring negro labourers, which here would not cost above 4 or 5 l. per head, whereas they are at this time, in Barbadoes and Jamaica, worth from 25 to 30 l. a head; at the Brazils from 30 to 40 l. and to the Spaniards in the provinces of Guaxara, Guatimala, &c. 50 to 60 l. sterling per head.

N. B. The difficulty of keeping the negroes from running away is not so great as some imagine, since as they are brought from distant provinces, though it be upon the same continent, they know nothing of their own country; nor do they understand the language of the next negroes, any more than they do English; and if they should fly to these neighbouring negroes, they would but make slaves of them again, and sell them to the ships; so that the slaves would not be apt to fly, and, if they did, the loss would not be near so great as in Jamaica, &c.

2. The easiness of getting provisions, which they would be so far from fetching from Ireland or New England, as our colonies of Jamaica and Barbadoes do, and at a very monstrous rate, that they would be always able to furnish themselves, as they do now, by the produce of the soil: as for rice, Indian corn, or maize, with roots, such as potatoes, parsnips, carrots, plantanes, and innumerable other sorts, they grow freely upon all the coast.

The shortness of the distance, and the safe passage between England and these colonies, is such that the voyage is often performed in 15 or 20 days, whereas six or ten weeks is counted no bad voyage between Jamaica and London: the expence as well as other inconveniencies of which are exceeding great, and the difference would give the sugars of Africa a great advantage at market.

3. Of the planting of tea. Every one that has been the length of Amoy or Chufan on the coast of China, knows that the tea is produced chiefly in the provinces of Xantung, Nanquin, and Canton, as also in the islands of Japan, most of it between the latitudes of 30 deg. and 24 deg. north of the line. With how much greater advantage then of the climate, might the same plant be produced at Seraleon and on the Gold Coast of Africa, the plants being fetched from China, as well as the method of curing it? which, according to Mynheer Nieuhoft, is not difficult. See the article TEA.

I need say very little to the advantages of raising such a profitable plant so near home; the thing explains itself, and the difficulty of making the experiment seems not to be great. Nay, I am told, that, in the governor's garden at Cape Coast Castle, there is, or at least was in the time of the government of Sir Dalby Thomas, a large plant of tea planted, and that it grew and thrived to admiration: and why should it not?

I shall conclude this head with one particular yet more considerable than all the rest, and that is, the great article of the spices, such as nutmegs, cloves, and cinnamon; the two last are found in the islands of Ternate, and others adjacent in the latitude of 2 to 4 deg. The nutmegs, indeed, are found

only at Banda, and some small islands adjoining and almost under the line; and so it may be doubtful except in the same latitude, which is farther south than any of our settlements in Africa: but the trial might be made of that too.

But, as to the clove, it is found in the island of Borneo at Gilolo, and several other islands, from the latitudes of 2 to 7 deg. which is exactly the climate of our Gold Coast; likewise the cinnamon is found in Ceylon, in the latitude of 6 to 7 deg. and hits punctually with this coast; and we can see no reason why the same climate on the shore of Africa may not, by the help of art and industry, produce the same fruit. I sum up all with observing, that there is no reason to doubt, but all or most of the productions, either of the East or West-Indies, might be produced here; such as the cotton, ginger, sugar, cacao, pimento, indigo, and several others known at Jamaica; as also the cocheneal, the vanillees, and even the Peruvian bark, if industry and application were set on work to plant them.

Before we quit the improvements which might be made on the coast of Africa, without mentioning a great correspondence carried on among the several nations in the northern part of that country; which, even as it is now, causes a great commerce over land, or taking notice withal how wonderfully it might be improved; this trade is said to be carried on by the negro natives, upon the great river Nigris or Niger; or, as we call it, the river Gambia, in conjunction with the natives of several nations, upon the same river, east from the shore; and by all these together, corresponding with the Moors on the north coast of Africa, at Fez, at Morocco, at Mequiness, and other cities, where they now carry on a commerce, by vast annual caravans. They tell us, that it is already a very great trade; but how would our proposal not only increase this trade itself, but quite change and alter the very people themselves! while the north part of the country (being Christians) the savage part would be soon civilized, and become so too, and the people learn to live, to be clothed, and to be furnished with many things from Europe, which they now want; and, by consequence, would, with their manners, change the very nature of their commerce, and fall in upon the consumption of the European manufactures in general.

It would be needless to lay our schemes of commerce among the inhabitants of the nations with those southern lands: numbers of European people, being but once settled on the sea coast, would soon spread the commerce into the inland nations, and employ and enrich the inhabitants, by instructing them in the arts of living, as well as of trade; and this brings me to a view of one of the greatest scenes of improvement in the world, which is in short this, viz.

That there needs little more than to instruct and inure the barbarous nations in all our colonies, factories, &c. in the arts of living: cloathing with decency, not shameless and naked; feeding with humanity, and not in a manner brutal; dwelling in towns and cities with economy and civil government, and not like savages.

It is the most unaccountable mistake of its kind that can be imagined, that one should suppose civilizing nations does not increase commerce; the contrary is evident in all our colonies: civilizing the American savages, who inhabited the countries on the back of the European colonies in North America, as well our own, as those on the French side at Quebec and Canada, what has been the consequence? Take it in the following particulars, which, though few and small in the several articles, are yet considerable in the whole, and abundantly confirm the proposition.

The Indians or natives, before the Europeans came among them, had neither houses, cattle, clothes, tools, weapons, ammunition, or household stuff; their cattle were the beasts of the forest; their clothes were the skins of beasts; their weapons bows, wooden swords, clubs, javelins, and darts, pointed with teeth and bones of fishes; their ammunition arrows and stones; their houses mere wigwams, hovels and huts; their household stuff earthen-pans hardened in the sun; their beds mats, and skins, laid on the ground; they could strike no fire, but by rubbing two sticks together; they had neither edged tools or other tools, for they had neither iron, steel, brass, or lead; no grind-stone or mill-stone; their meat was flesh dried in the sun, and their drink no other than cold water.

The same Indians, even those remaining wild and savage almost as before, yet being convinced by their conveniencies, and prompted by necessity, serve themselves of us with an infinite number of things, for the abundant accommodation of life; and those that are more civilized, do it more, and these altogether increase our trade; for example, take their own goods first, with which they purchase ours. They sell the deer-skins, bear-skins, fox, beaver, and other furs; all which, together, we call peltry: these, I say, they sell to our people, and a very good merchandize they are, being an import that turns to very good account, when manufactured in these kingdoms.

With these they buy our woollen manufactures for their cloathing, such as duffels, blankets, half-ticks, kerseys, and such coarse goods; and others also of leather, with which

they dress and keep themselves warm in the coldest season; also they buy caps stockings, hats, shoes, gloves, for the same hard weather.

In order to provide fuel and food, they buy for the last fire-arms and ammunition, such as powder and shot; and for the first, hatchets and axes, knives, bills, as also spades, shovels, pickaxes, and other tools fitted for their work: for the building and furnishing houses to dwell in, they buy all kinds of edged tools, as also nails, spikes, hammers, saws, chisels, &c. wrought iron for hooks, hinges, locks, bolts, and many other things: for their household stuff likewise they sometimes buy chairs, stools, benches, beds, bedsteads, and the like; also pots, casks, and other vessels of earth, pewter, brass, and wood; and, in a word, every thing they want, which either art or trade can supply them with, according to their way of living: and, as they grow more civilized, and come more into the European way of life, the more of our product and manufactures will they stand in need of.

All these make trade, and as these demands increase, the trade and commerce of Europe must increase; for increase of the civilized people is an increase of commerce in its necessary consequences, let the degree of their demands be more or less.

What then have the people of England more to do, but to increase the colonies of their own nation, in all the remote parts where it is proper and practicable, and to civilize and instruct the savages and natives of those countries, wherever they plant, so as to bring them by the softest and gentlest methods to fall into the customs and usages of their own country, and incorporate among our people as one nation?

I say nothing of christianizing the savages, 'tis remote from my present purpose; but I speak of an incorporation of customs and usages as may in time bring them to live like Christians, whether they may turn such or not.

To bring this home to the coast and country of Africa, of which we were just now speaking: let the improvements proposed with regard to this commerce be calculated, in planting, fishing, shipping, and all the necessary employments that would attend a public improved colony; and let them tell us, if the consequence would not be a consumption of manufacture among the people where there was none before, and in a place where we had no commerce to carry on before.

Nor let any weak-hearted Christian suggest, that this would be to anticipate our West-India trade, supplant our other colonies, and weaken us on the one hand, while it strengthens us on another; let those who talk so consider, 1st, The great improvements proposed, without meddling either with sugar, ginger, or any of our island productions, and how great the improvement might be first made in these things. And, 2dly, Let us add, that as it is evident all our island colonies are not at this time sufficient to supply our markets with sugar, including the quantity that might be demanded for exportation; nor can the quantity, when our sugar trade comes to be properly encouraged, easily be too great, nor indeed is there any danger of it, so that those objections are easily to be answered: let us see the improvement begun, and let us see the danger begun, of overstocking our markets, and hurting the trade of our islands, and let us hear if our islands complain; it will be then time enough to answer those scruples: at present, they seem to merit no consideration. But, if the production of our sugars was three times, or, perhaps, twice three times more than it is, there is no great difficulty to find a vent for it, and to keep up the price to such a pitch, as may be greatly to the advantage of the planter too. See the article SUGAR.

On the other hand, there is a vast ocean of improvement in view upon the African coast (though the single planting of sugar was omitted) and as there are, as well on this side of the country, as on the eastern shores, vastly populous nations, nay, empires, where there are millions of people yet to trade with, who were never traded with before the prevailing on these nations to civilize and govern themselves, according as informed nature would soon direct them; would necessarily introduce trade, consume manufactures, employ shipping and hands, and in time establish such a commerce, as would be more than equal to any foreign exportation we have yet to boast of.

There is but one considerable country in the world that we have any knowledge of upon the surface of the globe, to which the inhabitants of Europe have no commerce, or with whom they have no manner of converse: and this is the great empire or class of kingdoms called Ethiopia, or the Abyssines.

There are but three ways for us to come to any part of this country in a course of trade or correspondence, and at present they are all made impracticable.

1. Over land from Tripoli and the coast of Barcan; and, were the Tripolites reduced by a proper confederacy for that purpose among the Christian powers, this trade would certainly be set on foot by caravans, as is done in Asia from Aleppo to Bagdat, to this day.

2. Up the Nile, from Grand Cairo into the lake of Dembea: but, though this is said to be in use at some certain

times, when the river is not swelled beyond its bounds and banks, yet those that have examined it more nicely, tell us, that those people are mistaken, and that the cataracts or water-falls, which are frequent in the river, from within 160 miles of Grand Cairo south, cut off all possibility of a navigation, or of any commerce by water farther that way.

3. The third way is by the coast of the Red Sea; and this also is cut off by the Turks, who have seized upon all the western shores of the gulph or Red Sea, and, driving the Ethiopians from the coast, have either shut all the nations of the world out from the Ethiopians, or have shut up the Ethiopians from conversing with the rest of the world.

The commerce, however, is apparently practicable from the coast of that gulph, farther south than the Turks have yet possessed it; and there are two particular rivers on that coast, viz. Zeila and the Houache, that are navigable far within the country, and beyond the coast, which the Turks are possessed of; and that, by these rivers, a commerce may be established into the very center of Ethiopia, which is indeed the richest and most populous part of it, and that the mouths of those rivers are open for any nation to settle and fortify at; which settlements would be easily defended, by having but two ships of force, from 40 to 50 guns, always there, by whom also, going and returning, the trade would be carried on round the cape.

It may be suggested, that such a trade would be within the circle of the East-India company's charter; to which it would be effectually answered, why then does not the company open the trade, and make a settlement themselves? If they do not, no exclusive privilege of commerce is granted to any men, or company of men, to obstruct or destroy a trade, but to improve and carry it on; and if they insist on their charter to have the right of trading to Ethiopia, but will not trade, their right is so far void of course; otherwise they may as well tell us, they have a charter granted them, to shut out the kingdom of Great-Britain from the Ethiopian trade, which would be absurd, and contrary to the nature of the thing.

Contrary to the whole tenor of our correspondence in the Indies, this trade would be exceedingly much to the advantage of Great-Britain, because they would both receive our growth and produce, and make to us returns in gold and ivory; whereas, in all the trade of India and China, our case is the reverse; for there we cannot sell our own goods at all, and cannot buy theirs, but with ready money. They will take off none, or but few of our manufactures, nor will they supply us with theirs, but for hard silver; to the detriment, not of England only, but, perhaps, of all Europe.

2. The people, though the country is hot, go all modestly and decently clothed; and 'tis known by those who have travelled among them, that they would buy our English fine cloths, in particular such as are carried to Egypt and Persia, if they could come at them; and some essays of that kind have been made from Grand Cairo by land, though not such as are considerable enough to be called a trade.

Upon the whole, such a trade would be infinitely advantageous; seeing the return for whatever of our manufactures could be sold there, would be in gold, in ivory, sulphur, civet, saltpetre, emeralds, and such-like valuable goods: there are other productions, which we have seen from thence also, as deer-skins in exceeding great quantities; hides of black cattle; leopards and lions skins, and others of those kinds; also fine copper, and some very rich gums and drugs, such as frankincense, gum arabic, and aloes soccotrina. In exchange for these, we should, without fail, introduce our broad cloths, fine scarlet shalloons, sayes, ferges, and such other thin stuffs as are usually worn in hot climates; besides a great quantity of hard-ware manufactures, wrought iron and brass, edged tools, weapons, fire-arms, ammunition, lead, pewter, tin, fine linnen, and perhaps silks also: for we are well assured, they have no more trade with India, or any other parts of the world, than they have with England. Thus you have three articles for the improvement of the British commerce on the coast of Africa only, all practicable, and all capable of raising an immense consumption of our woollen manufactures, where there was little or no consumption for them before: one of which articles, viz. that of Guinea, is actually in our own power, and so little to be said against the experiment, that nothing of its kind is more wonderful, than that the attempt has never yet been made. See the articles AFRICA, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE AND COMPANY, GOLD.

The security and extension of the trade to Guinea, and to all parts of Africa where Great-Britain has a right to trade, depends on keeping up forts and factories.

For near 300 years past, it has been the constant policy of all European nations, who have made new discoveries, and gained any established power and authority in barbarous countries, to erect and maintain forts and castles; and, by virtue of such possessions, to claim a right to whole kingdoms, and to EXCLUDE all other nations from trading with them.

By this means the Portuguese long enjoyed the whole trade to Africa and the East-Indies; the Spaniards claimed and engrossed to themselves almost the whole continent of America, and most of the islands adjacent thereunto: by this means also did the Hollanders become absolute masters of the Spice Islands, and now supply the whole world with them, by such quantities, and at such prices, as they think fit. We once shared the trade to India for nutmegs, cloves, and spice, with the Dutch and Portuguese; but, for want of due encouragement given to the old East-India company to preserve that branch of trade, the Dutch supplanted us both, and have monopolized that valuable commerce to themselves. About 1660 the Dutch likewise attempted to gain the intire possession of the most valuable parts of the coast of Africa, and to EXCLUDE Great-Britain from any share or interest therein, as they have done in the spice trade, and thereby brought on themselves a war with this kingdom in 1664. Before the late Royal African Company of England had built a sufficient number of forts and castles on the Gold Coast, the Dutch interrupted our trade, and seized and confiscated our ships on that coast, and within its dependencies*: since the company have built and maintained a sufficient number of forts and castles on the Gold Coast, the company's, and all other British ships and vessels have traded freely to this coast, and all places dependent thereon, without molestation from the Dutch, or any other nation.

*Under the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, we have given a short history of the African trade in general; and here it may be useful to observe more minutely, how this nation was annoyed by the Dutch in this branch of trade, and what struggles we have had to preserve any share in it. Having given an account hereof in a tract I drew up in the year 1745, when I was concerned in the direction of the Royal African Company of England, I shall quote what I have there said. It is an extract from a discourse published by Sir George Downing, who was envoy extraordinary to the states-general upon this occasion. The list of ships taken, says Sir George, underwent the strictest examination of the parliament, and was made out upon so clear and undeniable proofs, that it was impossible to add any thing either to the solemnity of the debate, or to the weight of evidence (a).

(a) See a Reply of Sir George Downing, Batt. envoy extraordinary from his majesty of Great-Britain, to the Remarks of the deputies of the states-general upon his memorial of December 20, 1664, O. S. Printed in the year 1665.

The ship St. John Baptist, Emanuel Hart commander, who had taken on board negroes on the coast of Guinea, and bartered them for sugars, and other commodities, at Bahia in Brazil, was seized in his return, in June 1661, by a Zealand man of war, called the Golden Port of Middleburgh, Cornelius Tromcap commander, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Merchant's Delight, belonging to John Young, and Company of English merchants, John Bonner commander, having set sail from Dover, was seized near Cape Corio, in Guinea, about August 1661, by a ship called the Amsterdam, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Paragon, belonging to Bernard Sparke, John Cooke, and company of English merchants, John Bariford commander, laden at Exeter, and bound for Guinea, was seized, October 15, 1661, by two ships belonging to the Dutch African company; the one called the Amsterdamer, of Amsterdam, Aaron Couzens commander; the other called the Arms of Amsterdam, Nicholas Yole commander.

The Daniel, belonging to John Knight, Thomas Knight, Henry Oakes, and company of English merchants, commanded by the said Henry Oakes, set sail from London about May 1661, from the coast of Guinea; was seized by the ship Amsterdam, belonging to the Dutch African company, Aaron Couzens commander.

The Brotherhood of London, belonging to Peter Caulier, Bartholomew Caulier, Abraham Caulier, John Beverly, and company of English merchants, was seized on the coast of Guinea in February 1665, by a frigate, called Gat,

Cox commander, and one Japoone, commander of a ship called the Kaler, both commissioned by the Dutch African company.

The Rappa Hannoock, belonging to John Jeffrys, and company of English merchants, laden at London, bound for the Coast of Guinea, was seized near Cape Lopez, about the 11th of September, 1656, by two Dutch African company's ships; the one the Mary, of Amsterdam, the other the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, John Sersael, of Munekedam, commander.

The Sarah, belonging to Anne Lewellin, administratrix of Robert Lewellin, merchant, Humphry Beane, and company of English merchants, Arthur Perkins commander, was seized on the coast of Guinea, August 1656, near Cape Lopez, by two Dutch ships, the Mary of Amsterdam, and the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, commanded by the forementioned Sersael, of Munekedam.

The Fortune, belonging to Constantine Silvester, and company of English merchants, was seized about August 1656, near Cape Lopez, on the coast of Guinea, by the said Mary of Amsterdam, and the Unicorn of Middleburgh, John Sersael, of Munekedam, commander.

The Black Boy of Dover, belonging to Arnold Breams, and company of English merchants, Ralph Wood commander, was seized, April 13, 1661, near to Commenda

Fort, on the coast of Guinea, by a Dutch ship, called the Grafenna, which came from the Dutch castle of Del Mina, and carried the said ship into that fort.

The St. John, Cornelius Van Ringen master, belonging to Vincent de la Barre, and company of English merchants, bought, by their order, at Middleburgh, April 1658, and there laden to Callibar for negroes, was taken near Port Callibar, by a ship belonging to the Dutch African company, and confiscated at Callibar, although the Dutch company had granted permission for the said ship to go thither.

The Ethiopian, belonging to John Allen and Matthew Babb, English merchants, Peter Blake commander, assigned to Bohuee, on the coast of Guinea, for negroes, was seized, in January 1661, by a ship belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Post-Horie, and carried to the castle of Del Mina.

The Lyon Providence, of London, belonging to Sir William Thomson and company of English merchants, laden at London for Guinea, was seized, in August 1656, near Cape Lopez, in Guinea, by two ships belonging to the Dutch African company; the one called the Mary, of Amsterdam, the other the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, John Sersael commander.

The Basil frigate, of London, belonging to John Bushell, Edward Bushell, and company of English merchants, was seized between Angola and Fernambuco, in 1675, by a ship from Flushing, called the Sluce, — Quarts commander.

The Content, of London, William Jordan commander, set sail from the Downs in October 1661, to trade on the coast of Guinea, was seized there by a ship belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Holy Barbara, and carried to the island of Gene.

The Charles, belonging to James Barkin, and company of English merchants, John Blacker commander, laden for the coast of Guinea, was seized on the said coast, in August 1661, by a ship belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Amsterdamer, of Amsterdam, Aaron Couzens commander, and carried to their castle Del Mina in Africa.

The Constant Mary, belonging to Francis Bellars, Thomas Fowke, Richard Glove, and company of English merchants, Daniel Lester master, laden at London, bound for Guinea, was seized on the 8th of May, 1654, 20 leagues from Cape St. Vincent, by a Dutch man of war, called the Holy Cecilia, Haufe Alburge commander, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Leopard, belonging to Nicholas Bouchart, of London, and company of English merchants, was seized near Cape Blanco, in October 1656, by the Chaloup, a Dutch man of war belonging to the Dutch African Company, and carried to the castle of Arengny in Africa, at Cape Blanco.

King Charles II. being acquainted that the nation rung with the outcries of our suffering merchants against the Dutch African company, judged it full time to think of effectual measures to protect this trade for the future, and to obtain reparation for depredations committed.

With regard to depredations, his majesty caused an account of them to be transmitted to Sir George Downing, then his envoy at the Hague, with orders to insist upon satisfaction; but none could be obtained: whereupon, April 1, 1664, both houses of parliament came to a resolution, viz. That the wrongs, dishonours, and indignities, done by the subjects of the United Provinces by invading his rights in Africa, &c. and the damages, affronts, and injuries done by them to our merchants, were the greatest obstructions of our foreign trade; and that the same be humbly and speedily presented to his majesty; and that he be most humbly moved to take some speedy and effectual course for redress thereof, &c.

Upon this resolution of parliament, his majesty renewed his instances with the states for satisfaction to our injured merchants; but their remonstrances were treated with contempt: the losses of our merchants were too considerable to be easily reimbursed; and the benefits of the African trade, could they have monopolized the whole to themselves, as they aimed at, were too important to be willingly parted with. Wherefore, instead of giving us satisfaction for the injuries sustained, they renewed their depredations in Africa, with greater violence than before, under the conduct of their admiral De Ruyter; so that the injuries of our merchants, upon the whole, amounted to between 6 and 700,000 l. sterling.

The king, having tried all other methods in vain, found himself at length under the necessity, upon first notice of De Ruyter's hostilities in Africa, of complying with the sense of his parliament, and the general voice of the people; and accordingly, on the 22d of February, 1664-5, he declared war in form against the states-general of the United Provinces: of such high estimation and concern to the nation was the trade to Africa then adjudged.

Nothing is more evident than that the chief view of the Dutch, at this time, and for some years before, had been totally to exclude the English from the trade to Africa, and to engross the same wholly into their own hands. Rather than suffer this nation to enjoy a share of it peaceably with them, though they were their predecessors therein, and had a prior right thereto, they chose to bear all the hazards and inconveniences of a war with England. However, they were happily disappointed; our African company maintained their footing in Africa, by the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, 1667 (a).

(a) See my tract, intitled, The National and Private Advantages of the African Trade considered, &c. Printed for John and Paul Knapton, in the year 1746.

REMARKS with regard to the incroachments of the FRENCH on our trade to AFRICA.

Before the French got possession of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the islands of Arguin and Goree, on the north coast, the English traded freely and openly to all places on that coast, without obstruction: since the French have been in possession of those forts, they have assumed the right and authority to EXCLUDE the British nation from those parts, and have actually taken and confiscated such British ships and vessels as venture to go thither.

Such is the incroaching policy of that nation, and such their desire to engross the African trade to themselves, that, by virtue of one fort on the River Senegal, and another a little distance from the same, on the island of Gorée, they not only claim an exclusive right to all the coast, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the shore above 400 miles, but carry on a considerable trade in the river Gambia, within sight of the British fort there: and, on the Gold Coast, where, heretofore, they were never permitted, or ever presumed to purchase a negro, they have, of late years, come in great numbers, and traded at a place called Anamaboe, within sight of Cape Coast Castle, the principal British fort and factory on that coast, and carried off yearly from thence ten times more of the best negroes to their sugar-colonies in America, than have gone to the British sugar-islands; to the unpeakable profit of the French sugar-islands, and detriment of the British. Can we, therefore, admire that the French should supplant us in a sugar-trade as they have done, when we have suffered such shameful incroachments on our rights of commerce in Africa, and the French are so tenacious of what is not their right there?

Have they not also incroached on our negro-trade of Whydah, as well as on the Gold Coast? And have they not, merely by our neglect and supineness, wonderfully improved their sugar colonies, and prejudiced ours? And what right has this nation to exclude us from the whole trade of the Gum Coast of Africa? See GUM TRADE.

In those places where our African company have forts, as in the river Gambia, on the Gold Coast, &c. all British private merchants now trade freely with the natives, under the protection of the forts and factories. In those places where other nations have forts and factories, and our African company have none, there all British private traders are either absolutely denied the liberty of trading, or their ships are actually taken and confiscated. What greater conviction, therefore, can any reasonable man require of the indispenfible necessity of Great-Britain's maintaining forts and settlements in Africa, while our rivals in that trade do the like?

It has been said by some, that although forts and settlements may be necessary for the support of the trade to Africa, yet they ought to be put solely under a military establishment, that being more naturally adapted for the purpose than a trading company.

Let gentlemen, who make this objection to the management of a trading company, inform themselves, by the example of the East-India company, how effectually a mere military government would support their trade with the natives in India, who are more civilized than the negroes.—Long experience in India hath proved, that a considerable military force may be wisely conducted by a trading company, when the former is absolutely dependent on the latter; but what instance have we of a trading company and interest being conducted by a mere military government, independent thereon? They are quite incompatible, unless united under one and the same head; and, since the great end we intend to answer in Africa is the benefit of commerce with the natives, a trading interest certainly should have the sole controul of the forts and settlements.

As our rivals in this trade act upon these principles, should we not be very impolitic to introduce any innovation in this respect; an innovation founded only on the conjectures of those who seem unacquainted with the nature and circumstances of this trade, in opposition to the experience of time immemorial? While we are, in every essential circumstance, upon the same footing in the African trade with our competitors, we need be under no apprehension of danger from them or the natives; but if we change our long-experienced system, and establish a new-fangled imaginary one in its stead, different from that of all other nations, is there not reason to doubt the successful event? Gentlemen are too apt to run into a great mistake upon this occasion: they judge of the African forts and settlements as they do of Gibraltar and Port-Mahon; but the case is widely different: for what inland trade do we draw from these places? None at all, as we do by virtue of the African settlements.—For more matter on this head, see the articles AFRICAN TRADE, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE: see also FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, BRITISH AMERICA, where are shewn the incroachments which the French have made, and are still attempting to make, on our trade to AMERICA, as well as on that of AFRICA, which has been the great support of their American trade; wherein, if they had been checked in due time by Great-Britain, they could never have made such rapid progress in their sugar colonies which they have done. See

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also our MAPS of NORTH and SOUTH AMERICA, and our new MAP of the COAST of AFRICA from Cape Blanco to the coast of Angola.

The EXPORTS from ENGLAND to AFRICA.

Annabasses, arrangos, rough amber, brafs of all sorts; blankets, bays, bells, amber beads, crystal beads, coral beads, all other beads, broad cloth, boyfadocs; carpets, camblets, copper of all sorts, coral, cotton stuffs of many sorts; worsted damasks, druggets, durois; earthen ware; fringe, flints, fire-steels, fuzees, muskets, carbines, blunderbuffs, buccaners, fowling-pieces, trading guns, pistols, gun-powder. Goods from the East-Indies, viz. atlases, atchabannies, allejars, allibannes, brawls, bafts, bejutepauts, Bombay stuffs; calicoes, carridaries, cherconnees, chelloes, chillas, chints, coopees, cowries, chucklaes, cushlaes, cuttanees; clatches; gingham, Guinea cloths; jamewares; long-cloths, longees, herba longes, silk or phota longees, lemannes; muffins, neganepauts, nillaes, nicones; pintadoes, photahs; poizees; romalls; fallampores, fattins, feerfuckers; tapseels, taffaties herba, taffaties silk, tepoy's, souffees, and many other silks and calicoes. Fine hats, felt hats, handkerchiefs, hollands: iron bars, wrought iron, knives, lead bars, and lead shot. Liquors, viz. arrack, brandy, beer, rum, malt spirits, wine. Long-ells, looking-glasses; medicines; paper, padlocks, pewter, perpetuanoes, or ranterers. Provisions, viz. beef, bread, butter, cheefe, flour, pork, suet, vinegar, oil, sugar, raisins, spices, tobacco. Shalloons, Silefia linnen, and all other German, Scotch, and Irish linnens, sealing-wax, swords of all sorts, hangers, scymetars, cutlaffes, soap, slops, tallow. Trimming, as lace, buttons, gold and silver thread, mohair-buttons, silk, thread. Ticking, striped hollands and striped linnens, Welch plains. Coats, waistcoats, breeches-drawers, shifts, shoes, slippers, stockings, perukes, wool-cards, all coarse woollen cloths, &c. &c.

The IMPORTS from AFRICA to ENGLAND.

Gold, bees-wax, elephants teeth, gums of various sorts, cotton-wool, divers dying woods, and negroes, or labourers, for the plantations, &c.

GUIENNE, in France, is bounded on the north by Saintonge, Angoumois, and Limoufin; on the east by Auvergne and Languedoc; on the south by the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from Spain; and on the west by the ocean. The government of Guienne is the greatest of all in France, for it contains 13 distinct provinces, all under the same governor, and which are as follow:

GUIENNE, properly so called, is bounded on the north by Saintonge; on the east by Perigord and Agenois; on the south by Bazadois and Gascony; and on the west by the ocean.

BOURDEAUX, the capital of the whole government of Guienne, and a place of great traffic, being resorted to by merchants from most parts of Europe, is situated on the banks of the river Garonne, in a very fruitful and well-manured country. Its haven is very capacious and safe; it is called the Port of the Moon, from its form, being like a crescent, into which the tide flows very high, and brings ships of great burthen to the key.

BLAYES on the GIRONDA, is built on a rock; it is divided by a small river into the upper and lower city, in which last the merchants live, and have their warehouses. Here all the ships that go to Bourdeaux are obliged to leave their guns, and other arms. This port is very much frequented by foreign ships, and by vessels from Britany, which come here to load wine of the growth of this district.

LIBOURNE, a small city on the confluence of the rivers Lille and Dordogne, is very well peopled, and drives on a considerable trade, the tide bringing up pretty large vessels. It is five leagues east from Bourdeaux.

II. PERIGORD is bounded on the north by Angoumois; on the west by Saintonge and Bourdelois; on the south by Agenois; and on the east by Quercy and Limoufin. It is a mountainous country, in which are several mines of iron, and mineral springs.

BERGERAC, a small city on the Dordogne, drove formerly a great trade, and was very populous. It is now the staple-town between Lyons and Auvergne.

Here are no other towns of any note.

III. QUERCY is bounded on the west by Agenois and Perigord; on the north by Limoufin; on the east by Auvergne and Rouvergne; and on the south by Languedoc. This province abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

CAHORS, the capital of the province, is a large and pretty well peopled city, and has a considerable trade in wine; of which they sell, one year with another, about 60,000 pipes: they send it by the Lot and the Garonne to Bourdeaux, from whence it is transported into England and Holland.

IV. ROUVERGNE is bounded on the west by part of Quercy, as also on the north; on the east by the upper Sevennes and Languedoc; and on the south by Albigeois.

RHODES is situated on a hill, surrounded with mountains. In the neighbourhood of this city they feed a vast number of mules, in which they drive a considerable trade: for it is said

that, during the two fairs kept yearly at Rhodes, that trade brings them in about three hundred thousand crowns. They make also here a great number of grey linnen cloths, serges, and other stuffs, which they sell in Languedoc, and send even into Italy.

VILLE-FRANCHE is a large, well-built and populous town, on the river Aveirou. They have here a pretty good trade of hemp-cloth, which they send to Touloufe and Narbonne.

V. BAZADOIS lies between Guienne Proper on the north and west; the Landes, or Sandy Grounds, on the south; and Agenois and Condomois on the east. It is a country very fertile in corn, wine, and fruit.

CASTEL-GELOUX, a small city on the banks of the river Avance, contains about 1200 inhabitants, whose trade consists chiefly in wine, honey and cattle.

NERAC, situated on the river Baife, which begins here to be navigable, so that the inhabitants drive a pretty good trade, for which reason they are richer than those of the neighbouring cities.

VI. AGENOIS. This province has Condomois on the south; Quercy on the east; Perigord on the north; and Bazadois on the west. It is the most fruitful country of all Guienne, and furnishes several provinces with corn, wine, and oil. The province is small, and has not many towns.

CLERAC, a small city on the river Lot, near the Garonne, is inhabited by rich merchants, who carry on a considerable trade in tobacco, wine, and brandy.

VII. CONDOMOIS lies between Armagnac on the south; the Garonne on the east, which parts it from Languedoc; Agenois and Bazadois on the north; and the Landes, or Sandy Grounds, on the west. The chief-towns are Condom, Gabaret, and Mont-de-Marfan.

VIII. ARMAGNAC is bounded by Languedoc on the east; by Agenois and Condomois on the north; by Gascony, properly so called, on the west; and by Comminges on the south. In this province they make brandy, which they send to Bayonne and Bourdeaux: they trade also in wool and flax. There is a mine of chalk in the town of Laverdan; and at Anch and Mauvefin they make about forecore or an hundred quintals of salt. The country besides is very fruitful in corn and wine.

IX. COMMINGES is situated between Languedoc on the east; Armagnac on the north; the county of Bigorre on the west; and Conserans on the south. The chief trade of this province consists in cattle and mules; Lower Comminges abounds in wheat and other corn, which they send to Touloufe by the Garonne.

MONTERGEAU, a small city near the Garonne, has a pretty flourishing trade.

X. CONSERANS has the county of Foix on the east; Comminges on the north and west; and the Pyrenean Mountains on the south. There is but one considerable city here, which is St Lizur.

XI. BIGORRE is almost intirely in the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from Arragon on the south; it is bounded on the east by Conserans and Comminges; on the north by the mountains of Armagnac; and on the west by Bearn. Its mountains are said to have mines of copper, but they are not open.

XII. GASCONY. This duchy is bounded on the east by Armagnac; on the north by Bazadois; on the west by part of the sea of Biscay; and by Bearn on the south.

DAX, or AQS, the capital city, drives a good trade by means of the river Adour, which runs by it, and falls into the ocean about nine leagues below it, and its neighbourhood to Spain. It is also famous for its baths of hot water.

ST SEVER, on the Adour likewise, has a trade in wine, which they send to Dax and Bayonne.

XIII. SOULES and LABOURD. The country of Soule is at the foot of the Pyrenean Hills, between Lower Navarre and Bearn. The woods here abound with timber proper for shipping.

The country of Labourd is bounded on the north by the river Adour, and the Landes, or Sandy Grounds; on the east by Lower Navarre and Bearn; on the south by the Pyrenean Hills, which separate it from Biscay, and Spanish, or Upper Navarre; and on the west by the ocean.

BAYONNE is situated near the sea, on the banks of the river Adour. The trade carried on here is very considerable. This city is the only one in France which has the advantage of being situated on two rivers, into which the tide flows. The Nive runs through it, the Adour washes its walls, and they join their streams a little lower. By means of these rivers the merchants here import all sorts of foreign commodities, which they send into Arragon and Upper Navarre on mules, which come to Bayonne loaded with Spanish wool, which is afterwards exported into several countries of Europe. They have also a great quantity of masts from the forests on the Pyrenean Hills, which they send to Brest, and the other ports of France, where the king's ships are built. They send likewise a great number of ships to the whale and cod-fisheries. They were the first who sent vessels, in the year 1605, to the coast of Finland and Greenland, to take whales; but, as they were

at a great distance, the fish was corrupted before they could get home, which made them invent the secret of melting the fat, and making the oil at sea.

GUM is a matter that exudes from certain trees and vegetables.

They are something between acid and oil, being an acid salt so fixed in earth, as that the greatest part of it is changed to an alkali, the other into oil, so that the mixture arising from thence is an oily salt, resembling the saponaceous concretes of the chemists, made of oil of olives and a lixivium of tartar, or the mucilaginous bodies formed of spirit of wine and the volatile spirit of urine. Thus we see that all feeds which are oily, when ripe, are in the beginning only a mucilage, or imperfect oil. Refins consist of oil and acid, and accordingly are artificially produced, by mixing spirit of vitriol with spirit of wine, or of turpentine. They are either solid or liquid; but these differ from one another only in the proportion of earth that enters their composition. Melleous juices, which either exude spontaneously from plants, such as manna, or are obtained by art, as sugar, are essential salts, consisting of a mixture of acid and alkali, with a large proportion of oil*.

* This gummous consistency vegetables attract from their roots, and from thence it ascends to the branches; but sometimes it happens by the way to break out at the bark, where meeting with the cold air, it subsists and congeals to a gum. This congelation is not sudden, but requires some small time; for, if you find it, while it is fresh, it is an exceeding subtle moisture, but glutinous, for it will spin into strings as small as any hair, and, had it passed up to the branches, it had been formed, in time, to a plumb or cherry. If this then should prove the true foundation of all vegetable philosophy, there seems something deducible from the nature and quality of gums, that has not, perhaps, been commonly observed; for, if this viscous consistency be the mother of all vegetables, some species of gums may be as nutritive to man, and other animals, as the fruits themselves, which from thence are produced. The nearer, indeed, this gummous matter approximates to become the specified vegetable, the more it may probably participate of the peculiar virtues of such vegetable. But, for illustration of my meaning by examples, see my NEW SYSTEM OF EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY, which will not be published till this work is completely finished.

In every plant, says the learned Boerhaave, is found one proper, or specific juice, formed by the joint force, or result, of all the parts of the body, successively applied to the crude juice imbibed; and, being thus ultimately prepared, contains the true properties of the plant, and the virtues arising from them. This can scarce be referred to any class of known things, but must be considered as a thing singular, and of its own kind.

If a leaf of the greater celandine be viewed as it grows on a living vigorous plant, the fibres may be seen issuing from the stalk of the leaf, and opening and dispersing themselves through the whole extent thereof. These ramifications frequently unite together, and form, as it were, a kind of net-work, wherewith the whole area of the leaf is filled. Upon pricking one of these nerves, there immediately issues out of the wound plenty of a golden juice, which contains the genuine virtues of the plant celandine: so in the common aloe, in the spring time, we find a yellow bitter juice, lodged in proper ducts for the purpose, and capable of being drawn thence by art: so a wounded poppy emits a pure milky opium. But, if these juices be mixed with others of the same plant, there will arise from the mixture something very different from what they are when separate (a).

(a) Vegetable bodies are found more uniform, in respect of their elements, than fossils: in the analysis, they all afford salt, water, earth, and sulphur; but then the salt is of three different sorts, viz. acid, urinous, and lixiviate. These principles are all more or less volatile, as a greater or lesser fire is used, or as the plant has been fermented or not.

Hence appears the vanity of those chemists who undertake to exhibit such parts of vegetables separate from the rest, wherein the whole virtue of each plant is lodged. It is certain they must have some other means for obtaining this end, very different from any hitherto known, or all their endeavours will little avail, unless to deceive themselves.

With the chemists leave, their distillation, fermentation, putrefaction, and calcination, make such a change in the peculiar texture of each body, and the medicinal virtues depending thereon, that the utmost care must be used, before the cause of their action can be assigned.

It does not hence follow that so noble a science should be rejected, but rather cultivated with the more zeal, as being the only one that shews what may be drawn out of a body by any certain operations, and the only one that detects the failings of its professors; two excellencies which enable it to produce an infinite number of beautiful and useful things. A spiritus rector, or presiding spirit; a sovereign oil, the true seat of this spirit; an acid salt, a neutral salt, an alkaline salt, either fixed or volatile; an oil mixed with salt, after the manner of a soap, and a saponaceous juice hence arising; an oil firmly adhering to the earth, so as scarcely to be separable therefrom; and, lastly, earth itself, the genuine firm basis of all the rest: these are the principles, or matters, which a well-conducted chemistry has hitherto produced from plants. See the article VEGETATION.

GUM AMMONIAC is so called, because it distils from a sort of ferula, or fennil-giant, that grows near the place where the oracle of Jupiter Ammon stood heretofore: the best is in large yellowish

yellowish tears, and white within, dry, pure, having a bitter and disagreeable taste.

It is given inwardly, in deopplative electuaries, for schirrous tumours of the liver, spleen, and mesentery; it is used in emollient and attractive plaisters.

The way to purify it, is to dissolve it in vinegar, then, passing it through a cloth, all the moisture is evaporated away over the fire; by this means it is cleansed from some straws, or other little impurities that it contained. But some parts of its volatile spirits are evaporated at the same time, and in them consists its greatest virtue, while some others are fixed by the acid, which always hinders the motion of volatiles: wherefore I would never advise, says Lemery, this purification to be made; only powder it in a mortar, to mix it with what may be thought fit; for, though there should be some little straws in it, that would never be able to alter the nature of the remedy, or diminish its virtue so much as doth the destruction of its volatile salts by the vinegar.

The same thing may be considered in the use of all other gums; and, if some of them, as galbanum and opopanax, are too moist to be powdered, you may cut them into little slices, and dry them in the sun.

Distillation of gum ammoniac.

This is a separation of the oil and spirit of gum ammoniac from its earthy part.

Put a pound of gum ammoniac into an earthen retort, or glass one luted, great enough for two-thirds to remain empty; place this retort in a reverberatory furnace, and, fitting to it a receiver, begin the distillation with a very little fire, to warm gently the retort, and drive forth, drop by drop, a little phlegmatic water. When the vapours begin to appear, throw out that which is in the receiver, and refitting it, and luting close the joints, increase the fire by degrees, and continue it until all is come forth. Then let the vessels cool, and unlute them; pour out that which is in the receiver into a tunnel lined with brown paper, the spirit will pass through, and leave the thick black oil in the filtre: keep it in a phial. It is good for the palsy and hysterical diseases: the diseased parts are rubbed with it, and it is given to women to smell to. Put the spirit into a glass alembic, and rectify it by distilling it in sand. It is a good remedy against the plague, and all sorts of malignant diseases; it is used in the scurvy, and all manner of obstructions; the dose is from 8 to 16 drops, in some proper liquor.

The spirit of all other gums may be drawn after the same manner.

R E M A R K S.

Two-thirds of the retort must remain empty, because the gum rarifies exceedingly as it heats, and would be apt to come forth in substance, if it had not room enough. There is no need of adding alkali's for the rectification of this spirit, as many authors would persuade us; this circumstance doth rather more hurt than good, because alkali's spoil those sorts of spirits.

The phlegm is taken out of the receiver before the spirits come forth; in order to their being purer, you will have six drachms of phlegm, three ounces and seven drachms of spirit, six ounces of a black and stinking oil, and there remain in the retort four ounces and six drachms of a black, light, and very spongy matter, which is to be flung away, according to the common practice: it is likewise a little inflammable, by reason of fuliginosities which have fallen upon it; and this is that which gave it the black colour; a great deal of the ashes of this matter is requisite to make a little salt, for, the salt of gums being commonly more volatile than fixed, it comes forth almost all of it in spirit.

The spirit of gum ammoniacum is nothing else but an essential or volatile salt, resolved and raised by fire, with some portion of phlegm; it is somewhat harsh to taste, and a little biting; it causes no sensible ebullition with oil of tartar, nor with the spirit of vitriol, but it renders the tincture of turnsole reddish, and thickens the dissolution of corrosive sublimate; which shews that it contains an acid and an alkali so weak, that they want force to destroy each other.

GUM DRAGON. Gum dragon, Mr More, in his Travels into the inland parts of Africa, comes out of a tree called pau de sangue, which has a very rough bark; upon wounding of it, it sweats out in drops like blood, which joining together, and being dried by the sun, congeals into lumps: there are some as large as pullet's eggs. One Junco Sunco, a jolloiff of Yanimarew, up the river Gambia in Africa, a stirring man, having heard that I enquired much after gum, sent me down a sample of about a pound of very fine white gum, which proved to be gum arabic: I believe in all I sent, at different times, about a tun of gum, from the factories I was at, to James Fort. I began now to hope that the gum-trade might be enlarged and made considerable, since Job's country, which is called Foota, lay on the edge of the forest, and was but four days journey from Fatatenda, and, by his bringing that people into a good opinion of the

English, they might be prevailed upon to trade with us, and bring quantities of that commodity to Fatatenda, from whence it might be carried by water, with small charge, to the fort. And this might not be only the making of the factors employed in it, but also of great service to the royal African company, and to the nation itself; since there is a great deal of gum Senegal imported in a year to England, and almost all of it bought of the French, who make a very profitable trade of it, as appears by father Labat's New Account of Africa, printed in 1728, wherein he says,

'That country, quite bad as it is, and those roads so dangerous for shipping, are nevertheless eagerly searched out by the French, English, Dutch, and Portuguese; they all strive to settle there, because they are the only places where a trade for gum can be had by those who are not masters of the Senegal river: a trade which seems a light matter in itself, but is, in effect, very considerable, whether we regard the price the Moors sell the gum for, which is very moderate, or the price it yields, out of Africa, which is very advantageous; or, lastly, the quantity of European merchandizes it takes off ready wrought, the vent of which makes manufactures spread, money circulate, and so finds work for abundance of hands, which is the main end of commerce.

No wonder, therefore, that the most experienced of European merchants have used all endeavours to hit into this branch of traffic, because, the French being sole masters of the Niger*, on which those other parts where a trade for gum may be had are situated, they find themselves obliged to take it as it passes through their hands, since the time there has been no free trade at Arguin or Portendie. This is the true motive that has put them on so great expence to settle and secure a factory at Arguin, and, when they were driven from thence, to endeavour an establishment among the Moors at Portendie. This was, in effect, their only way to come in for shares with the French in this commerce; in pursuit of which, they found means at length to engross it wholly to themselves, by raising the gum to an excessive rate, and making bargains to their loss, in order to engage the three nations of the Moors to bring their intire harvest to their market.

* Senegal.

They make two yearly gatherings of the gum: the first in the month of December, which is the most plentiful, and they pretend the balls are larger, cleaner, and drier, which are all the good qualities to be wished in gum. The second gathering is in March: this is the least, and they are convinced by long experience, that the gum of this gathering is more squeazy, droffy, and not so clear.

They do not weigh the gum, but put it in a cubic measure, called a quantar, or quintal, of a size agreed upon with the Moors, the capacity of which the Europeans take care to augment, when occasion offers.

That which the Dutch made use of, when they were masters of Arguin, held 220 pounds Paris weight.

It cost them a single piece of eight, worth three livres each;

Or a dozen of padlocks;

Or two ounces of coral;

Or four fatalas, or copper basons;

Or half an ell of fine woollen cloth;

Or three quarters of an ell of ordinary cloth;

Or three bars of flat iron;

Or three ells of bays;

Or six ells and three quarters of bastas linen, i. e. blue cutlin.

Or six ells of Silesia's.

Note, The ells are Dutch measure, which is about half an ell French.

Thus far Labat.

R E M A R K S.

Thus stood this article before the last war. But since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, SENEGAL and its DEPENDENCIES are ceded to Great Britain by the tenth article thereof, which says, "his Britannic Majesty shall restore to France the Island of Goree, in the condition it was in when conquered: and his Most Christian Majesty cedes in full right, and guaranties to the king of Great Britain, the RIVER SENEGAL, with the forts and factories of St Lewis, Podor and Galam; and with all the rights and dependencies of the said River Senegal."—Thus Great Britain is become possessor of the gum-trade of this coast, by virtue of the said article in the treaty of 1763.

GUM ARABIC is a dry and solid gum, brought in granules of various sizes. These granules being broke into several pieces, their surface is rough, their colour, when purest, perfectly limpid. Sometimes this gum is whitish, yellowish, or brownish, though the darker pieces are suspected of adulteration, the druggists too often mixing various gums together by art.

When this gum is purest, it is extremely pellucid, in the coarsest it is much so; it is hard to break, but not tough, and, when broke, resembles the surface of broken crystal. It has scarce either smell or taste; dissolved in water, it becomes thick and viscid.

It is brought from Arabia and Africa. It should be chosen pale-coloured, hard and dry, and free from all admixtures of foulness.

foulness. There is some of a brown-reddish kind, found in large masses; which may be used by divers artificers, but not medicinally, as the other may.

The tree which produces this gum is large and spreading. Its trunk grows to a foot, or more, in diameter: it is armed on the branches with large and sharp thorns. The leaves are pinnated, and about two inches long; the flowers yellow, of the shape of the pea blossom, and stand in clusters. The fruit is a pod, in shape of a lupine, four or five inches long: it contains six, eight, or more seeds, and swells to a considerable breadth where lodged, but is so narrow in the intermediate spaces, that the seeds look only threaded, as it were. The Egyptians bruise the pods and seeds of this tree, while yet young, and express from them a juice, which, when properly inspissated, is the acacia of the shops. [See ACACIA.] The bark of the trunk and large branches of the tree naturally crack in several places; from whence issues a thick liquor, as from our plumb and cherry-trees; which hardens in the air, and becomes what is called gum Arabic.

A pound of this gum, chemically analysed, yields first about two ounces of an insipid phlegm, about five ounces of a red acid liquor, after this about an ounce of an urinous alkaline liquor, and lastly about three quarters of an ounce of oil, partly fluid, and partly as thick as butter. The residue in the retort is a black coal, weighing nearly four ounces. This calcined in an open fire, and lixiviated, yields near two drachms of a fixed alkaline salt.

This being simply a gum, and having nothing of the resinous quality, is perfectly soluble in water, not in oil or spirit of wine. In the fire it does not flame at all, but burns to a black coal.

It is emollient and diuretic, and used in divers compositions for diseases of the thorax, it sheathing the sharp part of the ferum in the bronchia, by its mucilaginous parts; and, by the same means becomes useful in diseases of the kidneys, uterus, and bladder. For which reason it is given in a dysentery, strangury, heat of urine, &c. These are the principal gums.

GUM SENEGAL. It is so denominated from the river Senegal in Africa, belonging to the French, the forests bordering upon that river abounding with this gum. It greatly resembles the gum Arabic, but the granules thereof are usually larger than those of the Arabic gum. They are commonly of an oval form; the surface is very rough, and does not appear near so bright as the inner substance, where broken. It is very hard, but not rough, considerably heavy, and of an extremely fine and even texture. When broke, it is most frequently of a pale brown colour, but, like the gum Arabic, it is sometimes yellowish, reddish, or whitish. It is sometimes artfully blended with the gum Arabic by some dealers: the fraud, however, is of no great consequence, both being pretty much of the same nature and virtues; though that of Senegal is rarely used in medicine, unless as mixed with the Arabic: the dyers and other artificers consume the greatest quantities of it.

R E M A R K S.

The French find the gum Senegal so useful in their silk and linnen manufactures, that they occasionally prohibit its exportation. [See FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.] The gum trade upon the coast of Africa being one of the most beneficial branches there, the French have engrossed the whole to themselves, and excluded us from all the trade therein, to which we had a right, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the shore about 400 miles; but they carry on a considerable trade in the river Gambia itself, within sight of the British forts there; and also on the Gold Coast, where, heretofore, they were never permitted, or ever presumed to purchase a negro, they have of late years come in great numbers, and traded to Anamaboe, within sight of Cape Coast Castle, the principal British fort on that coast, and have carried off yearly, from thence, ten times more of the best negroes, to their sugar colonies in America, than have gone to the British sugar islands. See FRENCH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE, GUINEA; see also our new map of Africa, of the GUM COAST, the GRAIN COAST, the IVORY COAST, and the GOLD COAST, together with an account of all the forts and settlements belonging to the several European powers interested in this commerce. See also the articles AFRICA, and ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, under all which particular heads, the whole of this trade is represented in various lights, both national and mercantile.

GUNPOWDER.

Of what it consists, and how made.

It is a composition of saltpetre, sulphur, and coal made with willow, or any other light wood, which, by means of vinegar and a sieve, is made into greater or lesser corns. It is made in many parts of the world, but most plentifully in France and England.

To make it, you must chuse good and pure nitre, in large

crystals. Set on a moderate furnace fire in a kettle, gradually increasing the heat till the moisture be evaporated, and it grow very white, stirring it continually with a wooden or iron ladle; then cover the nitre with water, and, when dissolved and of a thick consistence, keep constantly stirring, till all the moisture be again evaporated, and it be reduced to a dry white meal. The sulphur must be the purest and best, in very large lumps, perfectly yellow, porous, and not too shining. If, when set on the fire, it freely burns all away, it is good. As also if pressed between two iron plates hot enough to make it run, if in running it be yellow, and the remainder reddish, it is excellent for the purpose; but, if foul, the powder-makers prepare it thus: melt the sulphur in an iron vessel over a gentle fire, well kindled, but not flaming; scum off what rises on the top, then strain leisurely through a double linnen cloth. Powder this finely.

The charcoal must be large, clear, free from knots, well burnt, and cleaving; but if not to be had, you must make it thus: cut down hazel, ash, or juniper, &c. in May or June, when it is apt to peel, cut into lengths of two or three feet long, taking off the rind and superfluous branches. When dry, make them into bundles, which being set upright and piled, cover very close with earth or turf, leaving only a few vent-holes; when it is well kindled and in a red burning heat, stop the vent-holes close with moistened earth. The fire being thus extinguished, the coals will be pure and whole, without ashes, and may in 24 hours be taken out for use, reducing it to a fine powder.

Of these ingredients the country people in Poland, and the coffacks, make it with their own hands: they put their proportions of nitre, sulphur, and charcoal (all in fine powder) into an earthen pot, pouring fair water on it, then boiling till all is evaporated, and the matter be thick like paste, which they dry in the sun or a stove, till it is fit to corn; then they granulate it by passing through a hair sieve.

But, in order to know and make it truly, it is fit to know the kinds of it, and their different strength. The kinds are threefold, I. Cannon, II. Musket, and III. Pistol-powder; and of each of these are two several kinds, viz. a stronger and weaker, according to the proportions of the three ingredients.

	Cannon.	Musket.	Pistol.	
Nitre	10 0	10 0	10 0	} Strong
Sulphur	2 5	1 8	1 2	
Coal	2 5	2 0	1 5	
Nitre	10 0	10 0	10 0	} Weak.
Sulphur	2 0	1 5	1 0	
Coal	2 4	1 8	1 8	

The preparations declared, I. Cannon-powder; 1. The stronger; to every 100lb. nitre, there is sulphur 25lb. charcoal 25lb. 2. The weaker; to every 100lb. of salt-petre, sulphur 20lb. charcoal 24lb. and so of the other sorts.

The way of making it.

The ingredients, all finely powdered, are to be moistened with water, vinegar, or urine, which is most usual; then well beat together, 24 hours at least, and afterwards granulated through a sieve, with a bottom of thick parchment full of round holes, but the paste must first be moistened with the following liquor, viz. brandy 10lib. camphire 1 ounce, mix and dissolve; the mass being made into balls as big as eggs, put them into the sieve, with a wooden ball, to break and pass them through the holes.

But, as making vast quantities by hand would be tedious work, mills have been devised, which do more in one day than a man can in a hundred.

In making pistol-powder, if desired stronger, it must be stirred up several times while in the mortar, and moistened with water distilled from orange or lemon-peels in an alembic, and then beat 24 hours as aforesaid.

Powder, when corned, is of much greater force than when in dust; hence it is concluded, the larger grains are stronger than the smaller; for which reason, cannon-powder is granulated larger than musket, and that than pistol; and powder in charging should not be forced so hard in, as to bruise the grains.

To know the goodness of gun-powder, it is tried three ways. First, by sight. If too black, it is too moist, or has too much charcoal in it; if it be of a dusky azure, inclining to red, it is a sign of good powder.

Secondly, by touching; if the grains break easily, without feeling hard, it has too much coal in it. If, pressing on a smooth hard board, some grains feel harder than others, the sulphur is not well mixed, and the powder naught.

Thirdly, by burning; lay little heaps of powder, three or four inches asunder, on white paper, and fire one of them; if it only fires and burns all away suddenly, without firing the others, and makes a small thundering noise, with a clear circling smoke, it is good; but, if it leave black marks; it

has too much coal, or is not well burnt. If it leave a greafiness, the sulphur or nitre are not well cleaned. And, if two or three corns be laid upon paper an inch asunder, and, one of them being fired, they all fire at once, leaving only a white smoaky colour in the place, and the paper not touched, the powder is good; as also, if fired in your hand, it burns it not; but, if black knots remain, it is not strong enough, but wants nitre.

Of the exportation thereof.

* Being permitted to be exported, only when the price does not exceed five pounds the barrel; and, if exported as merchandize, being intitled to a bounty, oath must be made on the bill of entry, as follows:

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 12.

19th of March, 1730.—No. 45:

In the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers, master, for Guernsey.

Henry Hubbard.

Fifty barrels, containing five hundred weight, an half, and sixteen pounds of gun-powder, under five pounds the barrel.

Henry Hubbard maketh oath, That the true value and price of gun-powder, at this time, do not exceed five pounds the barrel; * and that the gun-powder above mentioned is all of British manufacture, and is intended to be exported to Guernsey as merchandize, and not for the use of the ship in her voyage.

Henry Hubbard.

Jurat 19 die Martii 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector.

* The part after this mark must be omitted, when the bounty is not intended to be obtained.

* And, moreover, security must be taken at the time of entry, in the penalty of five pounds each barrel, containing one hundred pounds net weight for the due exportation thereof, in form following:

* 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

A bond for the exportation of British-made gunpowder.

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas by act of parliament made in the fourth year of the reign of his present majesty king George the III. intitled, An act for granting an allowance upon the exportation of British-made gunpowder, it is enacted, that there shall be paid to every person or persons, who at any time or times, within or during the term of five years, to be reckoned from the twenty-fourth day of June, one thousand seven hundred and thirty-one, or at any time or times before the end of the then next sessions of parliament, shall really and truly export out of this kingdom, as merchandize, any quantities of gunpowder of the manufacture of Great-Britain, an allowance of the sum of four shillings and sixpence for every barrel of such gun-powder, containing one hundred pounds net weight, and so in proportion for greater or lesser quantities; which allowance shall be paid and answered by the customer or collector of the customs, with the privity of the comptroller of the port from whence the same shall be exported, on a debenture to be made forth by the customer or collector, according to the entry of such gunpowder, without fee or reward, and the shipping thereof verified by the searcher on oath; or, being of the people called Quakers, solemn affirmation, made by the exporter on the entry or debenture, before the customer or collector, or comptroller of such port, that the gunpowder is of British manufacture; and is exported, or intended to be exported, to parts beyond the seas, by way of merchandize, and not for the use of the ship in her voyage, and not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed, in any part of Great-Britain, the exporter first giving security to the said customer or collector of the port, in a penalty of five pounds for each barrel, containing one hundred pounds net weight (which security they are thereby impowered to take in the name, and to the use of his majesty, his heirs and successors) that the gunpowder so shipped, or intended to be shipped, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed or brought on shore again into any port or part of Great-Britain: and such securities shall be discharged in the manner therein and herein after mentioned, (that is to say) for so much of the said gunpowder as shall be entered for, or landed in the kingdom of Ireland, the islands of Guernsey and Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of his majesty's colonies or plantations abroad. The condition of the bond shall be, to bring certificates in discharge thereof from each place respectively, importing, that such gunpowder was there landed, and testifying the landing

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thereof, which certificates shall be signed by the proper officer or officers of his majesty's customs, as respectively reside there; and for want of such officers residing there, then by the governor of those islands and colonies, or plantations, or the deputy-governor thereof respectively, who are thereby required to give the same without fee or reward. And, for such gun-powder as shall be so entered for any foreign port or place, to bring a certificate under the hand of any of his majesty's consuls residing in such port or place, or under the hands of two known British merchants, then being at such port or place, that such gunpowder was there landed. Or such bond or bonds shall be discharged, upon proof in either of the said cases, that the same was taken by enemies, or perished in the seas; the examination and proof thereof being left to the judgment of the commissioners of the customs in England or Scotland respectively, for the time being. And it is further enacted by the said act, that whereas gun-powder, exported for Africa, is sold and delivered in very small parcels, and at places along the coast, where no certificates can be had; in every such case, upon proof made upon oath, or, being of the people called Quakers, upon solemn affirmation, of the master, mate, purser, or other person having charge of the ship during the voyage, importing that such gunpowder was sold and delivered upon the coast of Africa: and also of the oath, or solemn affirmation, as aforesaid, of the merchant exporter, if living, that, to the best of his knowledge and belief, the said goods have been disposed of at the places to be mentioned in the respective oaths, affidavits, or affirmations of the master, mate, purser, or other person, having the charge of the ship, during the voyage, and that they have not been re-landed or brought on shore again in any port or part of Great-Britain: the same shall be taken in lieu of the certificates aforesaid, and be allowed of in full discharge of the bonds to be given in pursuance of this act. Any thing in the said Act contained, to the contrary thereof, in any wise notwithstanding.

And whereas the above-bound Henry Hubbard did, on the 19th day of March 1730, enter for exportation on board the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers master, bound for Guernsey, fifty barrels, containing forty-four hundred, and half, and sixteen pounds weight of gunpowder as merchandize, and not for the use of the ship in her voyage. Now the condition of this obligation is such, that if the above-mentioned forty-four hundred, and half, and sixteen pounds weight of gunpowder, and every part thereof, shall be exported into parts beyond the seas (the danger of the seas excepted) and that the said gunpowder, or any part thereof, shall not be re-landed, or brought on shore again into any port or part of Great-Britain; and that, if the above-bound Henry Hubbard and George Crowther shall bring and produce, or cause to be brought and produced, a certificate in discharge thereof, importing, that the above-mentioned gunpowder was there landed, and testifying the landing thereof, or make proof by oath or affirmation, as in and by the said act of parliament, in the respective cases, is directed and required; or if the said gunpowder shall be taken by enemies, or perish in the seas, and the commissioners of the customs shall be satisfied of the proof thereof, then this obligation to be void and of none effect, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in
the presence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Henry Hubbard*.
Geo. Crowther*.

Some other principal laws relating thereto.

No person is to keep more than six hundred pounds of powder at a time in a storehouse, &c. in the cities of London and Westminster, or the suburbs, within three miles of the Tower, St James's palace, &c. or two miles of any magazine. Persons dealing in gunpowder, having greater quantities, forfeit 20s. for every hundred weight; and, refusing to be examined, shall be committed to the county goal. 5 Geo. I. c. 26.

Storehouses may be searched by warrant in the day-time; persons opposing to forfeit 5l. to any who will sue within six months.

No more than twenty hundred weight of gunpowder to be carried at a time through London or Westminster, &c. and shall be in covered carriages, and the barrels close jointed and hooped, and put in leather or canvas bags, that it may not affect any of his majesty's magazines, &c. Stat. 5 Geo. I. c. 26.

By stat. 11 Geo. I. it is enacted, that it shall not be lawful to keep within London or Westminster, &c. more than 200lb. weight at one time in any house, or other place under the same roof, or in any yard, above 24 hours, on forfeiture of all the gunpowder, and the value.

Any person using any iron hammer, shod or plated with iron or steel, in such place, while gunpowder is there, on conviction in one month, forfeits 20s. to the informer, or be sent to the house of correction, &c.

Not to extend to the magazines of the crown, or to hinder the king's officers proving gunpowder as usual, or carrying it to and from such magazines, &c.

The act 5 Geo. I. c. 26. and all clauses therein not hereby altered, to be in full force, and both these acts to be deemed public acts.

By 22 Geo. II. after the 24th of June 1749, no person shall keep gunpowder more than 24 hours at one time, in greater quantity than four hundred weight in any city, &c. or within one hundred yards of the king's palaces, or one mile of the king's magazines; nor shall keep, above 24 hours at any time, more than 30 hundred weight, in any place whatsoever in England, except as hereafter.

That, after the 24th of June 1749, places wherein gunpowder is kept by persons making or trading in it, may be searched by warrant, and if more than four hundred weight be found in any house, &c. city or suburbs, or within 100 yards of any market-town, or two miles of the king's palaces, or one mile of the magazines, or more than 30 hundred weight in any other place (except as is excepted) to be forfeited, to any who shall sue within three months for it, or the value, with costs; persons detaining the same, on seizure, till determined if forfeited, shall not be liable to any action, other than for damage received during the time detained.

After the 24th of June 1749, none shall convey, in any carriage within England, more than 25 hundred weight, nor in any open barge or vessel, within one mile from any city,

or market-town, above 50 hundred weight; and all land conveyance shall be in covered carriages, and the barrels close joined and secured; persons offending forfeit their gunpowder to the informer.

After the 24th of June 1749, persons employed in any storehouse, or in conveying powder, wilfully committing any act that may endanger its taking fire, on conviction shall pay to the informer 5s. for every hundred weight, or be imprisoned for six months. This act not to extend to the king's storehouses, &c. or to any mills, or the magazines now erected at Barking-creek's mouth in Essex, and Erith-level in Kent, or to the magazines near Liverpool.

Justices in every county may at their sessions appoint convenient ground at two miles from any city or market-town, not above two acres in one place, with use of roads, to erect warehouses for keeping gunpowder in any quantity.

No forfeiture on account of gunpowder kept in greater quantities than 30 hundred weight, within any warehouse already built, unless adjudged dangerous by the justices at their sessions, and until six months after such adjudication, and provided such warehouse be not in any city or suburbs, or in, or within 100 yards of any market-town, or two miles of the king's palaces, or one mile of any magazine.

All suits to be tried in the court or place where the fact was committed, and within six months after the fact.

Nothing in this act to repeal any of the clauses in 5 Geo. I. for preventing mischiefs by gunpowder, or in 11 Geo. I. for making that act more effectual.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter F.

A brief abstract of the chief general laws relative to the IMPORTATION OF GOODS from foreign parts, or

GOODS INWARDS.

GOODS INWARDS—brought from beyond the seas may not be taken up, or laid on land, out of any vessel, lighter, or boat, being not in a leak or wreck (except fish taken by British vessels, and salt) but at lawful hours, and only upon such open places, keys, or wharfs, as shall be appointed by his majesty's commission out of the court of exchequer, without special sufferance and leave from the officer of the customs, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 100 l. by the master: offenders not revealing their offence within one month, are to forfeit 100 l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3, 7. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7, 14.

IMPORTED INTO THE PORT OF LONDON, may be unladen, or landed at any of the lawful keys between the Tower of London and London-bridge, and between sun-rising and sun-setting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March, and between the hours of six of the clock in the morning and six in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice to the proper officers: officers refusing to be present, to forfeit for every default 5 l. See **RULES OF THE CUSTOMS**, the latter end of letter A.

IMPORTED INTO OTHER PORTS, may not be taken up, discharged, and laid on land, out of any ship, lighter, &c. being not in a leak or wreck, except fish taken by British, and salt, but only in the day-light; that is, from the 1st of March to the 30th of September, betwixt sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the 30th of September to the 1st of March, between the hours of seven in the morning and four in the afternoon. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2.

WHARFINGERS, or their servants, landing, or knowingly suffering to be landed, any goods or merchandizes, prohibited or uncustomed, without the presence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (except in the port of Hull) are to forfeit 100 l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCTION, OR MANUFACTURE OF MUSCOVY, OR RUSSIA, or of any of the dominions of the emperor thereof, all masts, timber, boards, salt, pitch, tar, rosin, hemp, flax, raisins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn or grain, sugar, pot-ashes, wine vinegar, aqua vitæ or brandy, must be imported only in ships belonging to Great-Britain, or Ireland; and currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turkey, in ships British-built; except such ships as are of the build of the country whereof the said goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of such port where the said goods can only, or most usually are first shipped for transportation; on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

But during the late war with France, this is not to extend

to prevent any person importing the said goods, in shipping built in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or any of the lands, islands, dominions, or territories belonging to his majesty in Asia, Africa, or America, provided the master and three fourths of the mariners are British, or of the country of which the said goods are the growth, production, or manufacture: but if such ships are the property of foreigners, although British-built, the goods are to pay aliens, and all other duties, in the same manner as if they were foreign built. 29 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 19, 20.

OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCTION, MANUFACTURE OF ASIA, AFRICA, OR AMERICA, may be imported only in British ships legally manned, or in ships belonging to his majesty's plantations there, on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 3.

OF FOREIGN GROWTH, PRODUCTION, OR MANUFACTURE (that is, of ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA ONLY, and not of Europe) may be shipped, and brought from no other country but that of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from such ports where those goods can only, or have most usually been first shipped for transportation; and in British ships, or plantation shipping legally navigated; on forfeiture of ship and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 4.

But not to extend to goods of the **STREIGHTS AND LEVANT SEAS**, and **EAST-INDIA GOODS**, which may be brought from the usual places of lading, in British ships duly manned, though those places be not the very places of their growth, &c. but this exemption is repealed as to raw silk and mohair yarn of the product or manufacture of Asia, which can be imported from no parts or places in the Straights or Levant Seas, but such as are within the dominion of the Grand Seigneur. 22 Car. II. c. 18. §. 12, 13. and 6 Geo. I. c. 14. §. 1.

Nor to goods of **PERSIA** brought through **RUSSIA** by persons free of the **RUSSIA COMPANY**. 14 Geo. II. c. 36. §. 1.

Nor to **GUM SENEGA** imported from any place in Europe by British, in British-built ships legally navigated. 25 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

Nor to goods of the growth, &c. of the **SPANISH OR PORTUGUESE PLANTATIONS**; which may be brought by any person from Spain, Portugal, or Western Islands, commonly called Azores or Madeira, or Canary Islands, respectively, in British ships. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 14. and 17 Geo. II. c. 36. §. 4.

Nor to **BULLION**, nor to goods taken as prize by any ships belonging to Great-Britain, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 15.

Nor to **COCHINEAL**, nor **INDICO**.

Nor to **SPICE** by licence, &c.

OF THE PRODUCT AND MANUFACTURE OF JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, AND SARK, may, upon certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief, and oath before the magistrates of Jersey and Guernsey, that they are of the growth, &c. of the said islands, be imported into Great-Britain, duty-free, except

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

cept such excise, or other duty, as is now, or shall hereafter for the time being be, due and payable for the like goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great-Britain. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 5.

But goods of the product of any FOREIGN COUNTRY imported into those islands, or foreign goods in part or fully manufactured there, are, upon importation into Great Britain, liable to the same duties as if imported directly from the place of that product. 3 Geo. II. c. 4. §. 7.

BULK MAY BE BROKEN in any lawful port, and custom paid for no more goods than are entered and landed.

SMALL PARCELS OF FINE GOODS, OR OTHER GOODS found in cabbins, chests, trunks, or other small package, or in any private place; and all other sorts of goods, for which duties are not paid or secured within 20 days after the ships entry, may be brought on shore by the officers of the customs, and secured in his majesty's store-houses till the duties be satisfied, unless the said officers have a just cause to allow a longer time. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

The **OFFICERS MAY STAY** and remain on board till all the goods are delivered and discharged out of the said ships. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

PERMITTED TO BE TAKEN UP by bills at sight or view, must be landed at the most convenient keys, and there, or in his majesty's store-house of the port, be measured, weighed, and numbered by the officers, who are to perfect the entry, and return the same under their hands, the next day, to the collector, &c. upon forfeiture of 100 l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 21.

NOT REPORTED and found on board any ship without payment of duty, after clearing the ship by the proper officers, and discharging the tidemen or watchmen from their attendance, are forfeited; and if such goods have been concealed, the master, purser, or other person taking charge of the ship, forfeits 100 l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 5, and 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 14, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4. **NO PERSON, DENIZEN OR STRANGER,** may enter any goods, inwards or outwards, in the name of any other person than the very owner, being not sold, bargained or contracted for, to or with any person, before entry, or before the arrival of the goods in parts beyond the seas, upon forfeiture thereof, or their value; and offender to suffer imprisonment, and make fine thereof at the king's pleasure. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 6.

ONE BRITISH MAN may custom in his own name the goods of another British man, and so may one merchant-stranger enter the goods of another merchant-stranger; but he that so enters the goods of other persons, either inwards or outwards, that the king loseth his duty, forfeits the goods to the king, and the value thereof to the party grieved; and likewise all his own goods and chattels personal for ever: the prosecution to be in three years after offence committed. 1 Hen. VIII. c. 5. §. 3, 4, 5. and 2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 22. §. 4, 5. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 6.

IMPORTED, NOT RATED IN THE FIRST COLUMN OF THE BOOK OF RATES. The several provisions and clauses for ascertaining their values according to the oaths or affirmations of the importers, are repealed after the 25th of March 1725, in regard to such goods as are expressed and rated in the Additional Book of Rates. 11 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

NOT ANY WHERE PARTICULARLY RATED and valued upon oath of the importer; for the regulations thereon, vide the 4th Rule of Additional Book of Rates.

LIABLE TO DUTIES—imported into any port, place, or creek of this realm, by way of merchandize; unshipped, to be laid on land before the said duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered to the collector thereof, or his deputy, with the consent and agreement of the comptroller and surveyor there, or one of them at the least, or agreed for in the custom-house, are forfeited, 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and 18 Car. II. c. 5. §. 7, and 1 Jac. II. c. 3. §. 5, and—c. 4. §. 1. and 2 W. and M. c. 4. §. 56, and 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 5. §. 4, and 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 7, and 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 7. §. 4, and 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 10. §. 3, and 7 and 8 W. III. c. 20. §. 7, and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 13. §. 8, and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. §. 7, and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 45. §. 9, and 11 and 12 W. III. c. 3. §. 3, and 2 and 3 Anne, c. 9. §. 2, and 3 and 4 Anne, c. 5. §. 2, and 3 and 4 Anne, c. 4. §. 7, and 8 Anne, c. 7. §. 27, and 8 — c. 9. §. 2, and 9 — c. 6. §. 12, and 9 — c. 11. §. 5, and 9 — c. 12. §. 2, and 10 — c. 19. §. 2, 3, and 10 — c. 26. §. 4, 8, 47, and 12 — c. 9. §. 14, and 12 — c. 16. §. 1, and 6 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 5, and 8 Geo. I. c. 20. §. 47, and 19 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 7.

PORTERS, CARMEN, WATERMEN OR OTHERS, assisting in the landing of goods without a warrant and an officer, may be apprehended by a warrant from a justice of the peace; and being convicted by the oath of two witnesses, may, for the first offence, be committed to gaol, till they find surety for their good behaviour; and for the second offence, to lie in prison two months without bail, or till they be discharged by the court of Exchequer, &c. or pay 5 l. to the sheriff. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

NOT ONLY GOODS LIABLE TO DUTIES, unshipped, with intent to be laid on land before the said duties are paid or secured, or prohibited goods imported, are forfeited; but likewise the boats, hoys, vessels, horses and carriages employed in removing them; and the persons assisting, or otherwise concerned in the unshipping of the said goods, or to whose hands they shall knowingly come, forfeit treble the value of the goods. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7, and 8 Anne, c. 7. §. 5.

THE SEIZURE OF SUCH VESSELS, if of the burthen of 15 tons, or under, and of the horses or other carriages, may be adjusted by two or more justices of the peace, in the same manner as brandy, &c. by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 16, 17, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

CUSTOMABLE OR PROHIBITED found by an officer in the custody of any person being in a boat, &c. on the water, or coming directly from the water-side, without the presence of an officer, or found upon credible information in any house, &c. may be sent to his majesty's warehouse, till proof be made by oath, before a justice of the peace, or other proper person, or otherwise (to the satisfaction of the commissioners in London, or of the principal officers in the out-ports, in order to be forthwith transmitted to the commissioners for their directions) of the payment of the duty, or that they were bought in a lawful way of trade, or compounded for, or condemned in the court of Exchequer. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 39, 42.

SUCH PROOF NOT MADE WITHIN TEN days after the stop, the goods to be seized and prosecuted. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 40.

UPON PROSECUTION, proof to lie on the claimer: verdict given for the claimer, he may recover reasonable costs of suit. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 41.

DAMAGED BY SUCH STOP, action may be brought against the officer. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 42.

MAY BE PROSECUTED by the officer, notwithstanding the commissioners directions for delivery; or delivery not ordered, the proprietor may sue for the recovery. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 43.

PERSONS, BEING MORE THAN FIVE in company, carrying arms, or wearing any disguise, passing within 20 miles of the sea-coasts with foreign goods, landed without entry, and resisting officers, to be deemed felons, and to be transported to the British plantations for seven years. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 6, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

OFFENDERS DISCOVERING two or more of their accomplices, within two months, and before conviction, to be acquitted, and to receive of the commissioners of the customs or excise, 40 l. for each; provided the value of the goods recovered to his majesty does exceed 50 l. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 7, 8, 9, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

THE LIKEReward, besides former recompences, for others discovering within three months. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 7, 8, 9, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

PROHIBITED OR RUN GOODS, liable to customs, excise, or inland duty, knowingly harboured or concealed, forfeited with treble the value. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 16.

THE SINGLE VALUE, or worth of such goods, is to be taken according to the price that the best sort of that commodity is then sold for in London. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 17.

CLANDESTINELY RUN or imported, knowingly received or bought, before legally condemned, the offenders, upon conviction, upon the oath or oaths of one or more credible witnesses or witnesses, before one or more justice or justices of the peace, are to forfeit 20 l. one half to the poor of the parish, and the other half to the informer, or to suffer three months imprisonment. 7 Geo. I. c. 3. §. 19, and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 10, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

PROHIBITED GOODS, or goods liable to duties, fraudulently and clandestinely imported, insured to be delivered, the insurers, their aiders, abettors, and assistants, and the persons insured, or receiving the said goods, are for every offence to forfeit 500 l. each, besides all other penalties.

THE INSURER, CONVEYER, or manager, discovering the fraud, is to keep the insurance money, and be discharged of the penalties, and to have half the forfeiture of the insured. 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 15. §. 14, 15, 16, 18, and 8 and 9 W. III. c. 36. §. 2.

THE INSURED, DISCOVERING, is to receive back the insurance money, to have half the forfeiture of the insurer, and be discharged of his own forfeiture.

PROSECUTIONS FOR THE SAID PENALTIES may be commenced by any persons, within twelve months. 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 15. §. 14, 15, 16, 18.

PROHIBITED, or actually run, or pretended to have been run, offered to sale, are forfeited, with treble the value, and the package; and may be seized by the person to whom offered, or by any officer of the customs or excise. The goods to be secured in the nearest warehouse of the customs, excise, or inland duty, to which they are respectively subject; if within the bills of mortality, within 24 hours, or in any other place, 48 hours after seizure. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 18, 19.

SUCH

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SUCH GOODS BOUGHT, are forfeited, with treble the value and the package; and may be seized by the seller, or any officer of the customs or excise, and must be secured in the like manner as such goods offered to sale. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 20, 21.

BUYER AND SELLER not to be prosecuted for the same goods, but the first prosecutor to be acquitted. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 21.

A prosecution for such goods, not commenced by the seizer within one month, the warehouse-keeper may prosecute. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 12.

PERSONS GUILTY of the running of customable and prohibited goods, or of receiving such goods, knowing them to have been run, may be prosecuted for the same by action, bill, plaint, or information; and thereupon a *capias* in the first process (specifying the sum of the penalty sued for) may issue, and the offenders must give sufficient bail of natural-born subjects or denizens, to appear, &c. or yield their bodies to prison. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 15, and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

ANY PERSONS ARRESTED and imprisoned by virtue of a writ of *capias*, or information relating to the customs, making affidavit before the judge of the court, where the action is brought, or before any person commissioned by such court, that he is not worth five pounds, besides his wearing apparel, and thereupon petitioning the court to be admitted to defend himself in forma pauperis, the judge may assign council, and appoint an attorney and clerk of the court to advise and carry on his legal defence, without fee or reward. 2 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 8.

THE TREASURY may compound and agree for debts incurred for the customs, or other duties of goods clandestinely imported, before the 12th day of May, 1723; and upon payment of the composition money, to cause the remainder of the debt to be discharged, and to apply the composition money paid, in proportion to the several branches to which it belongs. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 32.

SALVED OUT of any stranded ships, except wrecked goods or jetham, flatham, or lagan, after the charges of salvage, &c. are paid, are liable to the same duties, and entitled to the same drawbacks, as if regularly imported. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 13.

BROUGHT INTO his majesty's store-houses for security of the duties, and remaining there six months unentered, are to be sold by the commissioners of the customs, by public auction, or inch of candle; the produce whereof is first to be applied to the payment of the freight, primage, and charges of warehouse room; next the duties, and the overplus to be paid to the proprietor or his order. 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 8. §. 11, and 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 19.

ROBBED ON THE SEAS, and afterwards brought to Great-Britain, the owner may prove his property by the marks, or by his chart or cockpit, or by good and lawful merchants; or if stranded, to be delivered upon the like proof, satisfying the salvors. 27 Edw. III. c. 13. §. 1.

UPON INFORMATION given upon oath before a justice of the peace, that three or more persons are or have been assembled, in order to assist in the running of goods, &c. and armed with fire-arms or other offensive weapons, the justice is to grant a warrant for apprehending them, and (if upon examination he find cause) to commit them to the county-gaol without bail or mainprize, till discharged by due course of law. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 10.

ANY SUCH PERSON, convicted of being so assembled and armed, in order to assist in the clandestine running, landing, rescuing, or carrying away prohibited or uncustomed goods, is to be transported as a felon for seven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 10.

FOR APPREHENDING any of the said offenders, the reward is fifty pounds for each person convicted. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 11.

ANY PERSON MAIMED or wounded in apprehending or endeavouring to apprehend, or pursuing any of the said offenders, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to: if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 11.

ANY OF THE SAID OFFENDERS, discovering, within three months after the offence, two or more of his accomplices to the commissioners of customs or excise, so that two at least be convicted, is to be discharged of his offence, and receive fifty pounds reward. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 12.

TWO OR MORE persons found passing together, within five miles of the sea, or a navigable river, with a horse, or any carriage, laden with more than six pounds weight of tea, or five gallons of brandy or other spirits, not having paid the duty, and without a permit, or with any other foreign goods above the value of thirty pounds sterling, landed without entry and payment of the duty, and carrying any offensive arms, or wearing a vizard mask, &c. when passing with such commodities, or forcibly obstructing the officers, are to be deemed runners of foreign goods within the meaning of 8 Geo. I. c. 18.—9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 13.

THE ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the persons found with the goods.

EVERY PERSON convicted of any of the said offences, is to be transported as a felon for seven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 13.

ALL THE GOODS so found, and the chests, bags, casks, and other package thereof, the weapons and arms, with the furniture of the horses and cattle, and of the carriages, are forfeited. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 14.

ANY PERSON MAIMED or wounded in apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend, or in pursuing any such offender, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to: if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 15.

ANY PERSON DISCOVERING to the commissioners of customs or excise any of the said offenders, within three months after the offence, is to receive fifty pounds for every one convicted, over and above any other reward he may, by any law now in being, be intitled to. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 16.

ANY PERSON LURKING, waiting or loitering within five miles of the sea, or navigable river, may (upon information to be given upon oath before a justice of the peace, that there is reason to suspect it is with intent to assist with the running, &c. of prohibited or uncustomed goods) be apprehended by a warrant, and carried before a justice of the peace; and not giving a satisfactory account of himself to the justice, he is to be committed to the house of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding one month. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 18.

BUT IF such person desire time to clear himself of the accusation, he is to be committed to the common gaol till he gives a satisfactory account of himself, or finds sufficient security, to the approbation of the justice, not to be guilty of any of the said offences. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 19.

THE INFORMER is to be paid by the commissioners of customs or excise, 20s. per head for every offender taken. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 18.

ANY WATERMAN, carman, porter, or other persons employed in carrying goods prohibited, run, or clandestinely imported, upon whom or in whose custody the same are found, and being therefore convicted, upon oath of a credible witness or confession of the party, before a justice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, or offender found, is to forfeit treble the value; one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the parish where the offence is committed; to be recovered by distress and sale of the offender's goods, by warrant from the justice. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 21.

FOR WANT OF DISTRESS, the offender is to be sent to the house of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding three months. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 21.

GOODS TAKEN IN AT SEA by any ship or vessel, or put out of any ship or vessel within four leagues from the coast, without payment of the duty (unless in case of necessity, or other lawful reason, notice whereof must be given to the chief officer of the port where they first arrive) are forfeited; and the master or person having charge of the vessel into which they are taken, and also the vessel out of which they are taken, and all persons concerned, are to forfeit treble the value; and the vessels into which the goods are unshipped and taken in, are also forfeited, unless exceeding the burthen of 100 tons. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 23.

FOUND CONCEALED on board any ship after the master's making his report at the custom-house, and not mentioned in his report, are forfeited.

THE MASTER, PURSER, or person having the charge of the vessel (if it appears they were any ways consenting, or privy to the concealment) are to forfeit treble the value. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 27.

ANY OFFICER ON BOARD a vessel within the limits of any port of this kingdom, being forcibly obstructed, wounded, or beaten in the execution of his duty, the offender and his assistants are to be transported as other felons, for any time not exceeding seven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 28.

KEEPER OF AN ALEHOUSE, tavern, &c. knowingly entertaining any person who absconds for obstructing or abusing officers, or for any offence against the laws for preventing frauds in the customs or excise; or who has made his escape after having been committed to prison for the said offence, or flies from justice after conviction, is to forfeit one hundred pounds, and be rendered incapable of having a licence for the future: provided public notice has been given of the persons absconding six days before, in two successive Gazettes, and in writing upon the door of the parish church, where he last dwelt before his absconding. 9 Geo. II. c. 31. §. 30, 31.

ANY PERSONS, to the number of three or more, armed with fire-arms or offensive weapons, being assembled in order to assist, or being actually assisting in the running, landing, or carrying away prohibited goods, or goods liable to any duties, which have not been paid or secured; or in reloading goods exported upon debenture or certificate; or in rescuing the same after seizure from an officer of the revenue, or his assistant, or from the place where lodged by them; or in rescuing any person apprehended for any offence made felony by any act relating to the revenue, or in preventing the

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the apprehending any such person; or in the illegal exportation of wool, or other goods prohibited to be exported, or in the carrying them in order thereto; or any person having his face blacked, or wearing a vizard mask, or other disguise, when passing with such goods, or assaulting or obstructing any officer in the seizing such goods; also every person maiming, or dangerously wounding any officer in his attempt to board any vessel within the limits of any port, or shooting at, maiming or dangerously wounding him, when on board, are, if convicted thereof, to be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall suffer death; and if convicted in Scotland, to suffer death, and confiscation of moveables. 9 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 1. and 9 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY PERSON is charged with any of the said offences, by information upon the oath of a credible person signed by him, before a justice of the peace, or one of the justices of the court of King's Bench, if committed in England, or before the lord justice general, or one of the lords of judicatory, or a justice of the peace, if in Scotland; such justice, &c. respectively, is to certify under his hand and seal, and return the information to one of the principal secretaries of state, who is to lay it before his majesty in privy council, who may there make an order for the offender to surrender himself, within forty days after the first publication in the London Gazette, to one of the justices, &c. above mentioned, according as the offence was committed, in England or Scotland respectively. This order is to be published in the two successive Gazettes, and to be sent to the sheriff of the county where the offence was committed, who is to cause it to be proclaimed within fourteen days in the market-place of two market-towns of the county near where the offence was committed, on the market days, between the hours of ten in the morning and two in the afternoon, and a copy to be fixed in some public place of the said towns. The offender, upon his surrender, is to be committed to gaol without bail or mainprize, that he may be forthcoming to answer the charge; if he does not surrender, or escapes after surrender, he is to be deemed convicted, and attainted of felony without benefit of clergy, in England, or convicted of a capital crime in Scotland, and execution may be awarded accordingly. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 2. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY PERSON ordered to surrender as above, should be taken and secured before the time appointed for his surrender, no further proceedings are to be had upon the order made in council, but he is to be brought to trial by ordinary course of law. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 4. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1. PERSONS KNOWINGLY harbouring, receiving, concealing, aiding, abetting, or succouring any offender as above, after the time appointed for his surrender (and prosecuted within one year after the offence) are to be transported as felons for seven years; and returning into Great Britain or Ireland before the expiration thereof, to suffer as persons attainted of felony, without benefit of clergy. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 3. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

BUT HIS MAJESTY'S court of King's Bench, or any of the judges thereof, or the court of judicatory in Scotland, or any of the judges thereof, may bail any person committed for felony upon this act, and not convicted or attainted thereof, in such manner as they may by law in other cases of felony. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

OFFENCES MADE FELONY by any act relating to the revenue of customs or excise may be tried in any county of England, as if the fact had been committed therein, provided that no attainder for felony upon this act shall work corruption of blood, loss of dower, or forfeiture of lands and tenements. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 5. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

WHOEVER APPREHENDS or discovers any offender in England, advertised as above, who has not surrendered himself within forty days, and causes him to be brought before a justice of the King's Bench, or a justice of the peace for London or Middlesex, is to be paid five hundred pounds for every offender (within one month after execution is awarded) by the commissioners of the customs or excise respectively, who are to divide the reward among the persons concerned, in such proportions as they think reasonable; and if the discoverer is any such offender (against whom no such order of council has been made) he is, besides his share of reward, to be discharged from his offence, and all former like offences, for which no prosecution has been commenced. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

PERSONS LOSING a limb or an eye, or otherwise grievously maimed or wounded, in apprehending or endeavouring to apprehend, or making pursuit after such offenders, to be paid fifty pounds, besides any other reward they are entitled to, as apprehenders, by this act: and if such persons are killed, their executors or administrators (laying proof thereof before the commissioners of the customs or excise) are to be paid 100 l. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1. ANY OFFENDER in England, before such order in council is made, discovering his accomplices, and causing them to be apprehended, so as two at least be convicted, is to be paid 50 l. for each, besides being discharged of his own offence, and all

former offences of the like nature, for which no prosecution has been commenced. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 11. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

ALL WHICH REWARDS are to be paid by the receiver general of the customs, or cashier of excise respectively, upon an order from the commissioners, and to be allowed of in their accounts as money paid to his majesty. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10, 11. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY OFFICER of the revenue, or other person employed in seizing, conveying or securing any wool, or other goods forfeited; or in endeavouring to apprehend any offender against this act, shall be beat, wounded, maimed, or killed by any offender against this act, or the goods rescued by persons so armed as aforesaid (unless the offender is apprehended and convicted within six calendar months after the fact) the rope or lath, or hundred where the fact was committed in England, is to make satisfaction on, not exceeding forty pounds, for the damages by beating, wounding, maiming, and not exceeding two hundred pounds for damages by loss of goods; and to pay to the executors or administrators, for each person killed, one hundred pounds, to be levied upon the inhabitants by a proportionable tax; and actions to be prosecuted in the same manner as directed by 8 Geo. II. cap. 16. with respect to damages recovered upon hundreds in cases of robbery. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 6, 8. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

NO PERSONS to recover such damage unless he cause notice to be given of the offence, within four days, to two or more of the inhabitants of some town, village, or hamlet, near the place; and unless within eight days after, he declares upon oath, before a justice of the peace of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, whether he knows any person concerned, and is bound by recognizance to prosecute such as he knows; and unless he also gives such notice, and enters into such recognizance, as is required by 8 Geo. II. c. 16. of persons robbed; and unless the action is commenced within a year. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 7, 9. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

A short abstract of the chief laws relative to the EXPORTATION OF GOODS, OR GOODS OUTWARDS.

GOODS OUTWARDS may not be laden, or put off from any key or wharf, into any vessel, lighter, or boat (except fish taken by British, sea coal, stone and bestial) in order to be exported, but at lawful hours, and at such open places, keys, or wharfs, as shall be appointed by his majesty's commission out of the court of Exchequer, without special sufferance and leave from the officers of the customs, upon forfeiture thereof or the value, and one hundred pounds by the master. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7, 14.

THE LAWFUL HOURS for exportation, the same as for importation; for which see GOODS INWARDS.

EXPORTED, in whose name to be entered, vide GOODS INWARDS.

LIABLE TO DUTIES, shipped or put into any boat or vessel, with intent to be exported before the said duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered or agreed for in the custom-house, are forfeited. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and 6 Ann. c. 8. §. 2. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 14.

LIABLE TO DUTIES OUTWARDS, or prohibited to be exported, shipped without a warrant, or without the presence of a proper officer of the customs, are forfeited, of the value. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7. and 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 18.

LIABLE TO DUTIES, shipped secretly, and before payment thereof, escaping the discovery of the officers, and exported to parts beyond the seas; the owner to forfeit double the value of such goods, according to the Book of Rates, except for coals, which see. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 9.

PROHIBITED or uncustomed, except jewels, may be brought on shore, from any ship, by the officers of the customs. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

WHARFINGERS, or their servants, shipping off, or suffering to be water-born at or from their wharfs, &c. any goods or merchandizes prohibited or uncustomed, without the presence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (except the port of Hull) or goods passing by certificate, waste-cocket, or otherwise, without the presence of, or notice given to one or more officers, are to forfeit one hundred pounds. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

TAKEN IN from the shore into any bark, hoy, lighter, &c. in order to be carried on board any ship outward bound, without a warrant, and the presence of one or more officers, such bark, &c. is forfeited. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

PORTERS, CARMEN, &c. assisting in the unlawful shipping of goods, subject to the same penalties as for the illegal landing; for which see GOODS INWARDS. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

BEING THE PROPERTY of any merchant born denizen, taken by enemies or pirates, or perished in the service of, or before the treasury, or chief baron of the Exchequer, and

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certificate thereof, to the collector of the port, goods of the like value in custom may be shipped off duty free. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 5.

FOREIGN GOODS OUTWARDS, having paid all duties inwards, and having been kept in the merchants hands in regard of bad sales, after one year is elapsed, may be exported, without payment of any subsidy outward.

EXPORTED WITHIN THREE YEARS, for the drawback, see the respective branches in Book of Rates.

PROHIBITED to be worn here, and foreign goods shipped for exportation, and afterwards unshipped or reloaded, unless in distress, or in the presence of an officer, are forfeited; and the master permitting the same, forfeits the value thereof; and the persons to whose hands they shall come, knowing of the reloading, are to forfeit double the value, unless they make discovery to the officers of the customs within six days. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 6. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

WHEREON there is a drawback, bounty or premium, or goods prohibited to be used here, or pepper; after entry, and before or after shipping, the officers of the customs may open, and strictly examine any bale, truss, chest, or other package, to see if they are right entered. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

IF FOUND to be right entered, the same must be repacked at the officers charge, which the commissioners of the customs are to allow if they think it reasonable. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

BUT IF FOUND to be less in quantity or value, than expressed in the exporter's indorsement upon his entry, or entered under a wrong denomination, whereby the king would have been defrauded, are forfeited, with the benefit of the drawback or bounty, and the value thereof. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

ANY PERSON who puts, or causes to be put, on board any vessel or boat, not bound directly to some port in Great-Britain or Ireland, or in some other of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, any tools or utensils commonly used in, or proper for the preparing, working up, or finishing the woollen or silk manufactures, forfeits the tools, &c. and two hundred pounds to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any court of record at Westminster, court of sessions in Scotland, or in any of the four courts at Dublin. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 3.

ANY MASTER of a vessel or boat, knowingly permitting them to be put on board, forfeits one hundred pounds to be recovered in the same manner; and if the vessel belongs to his majesty, the captain to forfeit one hundred pounds and his employment, and to be incapable of serving the crown. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

SUCH TOOLS, &c. may be seized by any officer of the customs in Great-Britain, or officer of the revenue in Ireland; and after condemnation, publicly sold to the best bidder. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

ANY OFFICER of the customs in Great-Britain, or revenue in Ireland, suffering any entry outwards to be taken, or signing any cocket, warrant, or sursance for shipping, or exporting thereof, or permitting it to be done, forfeits one hundred pounds and his office, and is incapable of serving his majesty. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 6.

GOODS COASTWISE INWARDS, foreign goods imported into and entered at any port of Great-Britain, afterwards carried to any other port, must be accompanied with a certificate under the customer's seal, mentioning the natural colour, length and value, if they are measurable goods; or the natural weight, content, or value, if they are goods used to be weighed or valued; which certificate must be delivered to the customer, that he may examine whether the goods agree therewith. 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 8. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

DISCHARGED or unpacked before the certificate be delivered, and without the presence of an officer, such goods, or their

value, are forfeited: 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 8. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

NO GOODS coming into any one port of Great-Britain from any other, may be unshipped before the coast-cocket, transire, let-pals, or certificate, be delivered to the customer or collector and comptroller, and their warrant or sursance granted for the landing, upon forfeiture of the value of the goods by the master, knowing and consenting thereto. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 8. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

FOREIGN, taken in at sea, or out of any ship or vessel, by any coaster, in order to be landed, or put on board another vessel, within the limits of a port, without payment of duty, are forfeited with treble the value by the master of both vessels, unless in case of necessity. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

FOREIGN, taken on board any coasting vessel in parts beyond the seas, or out of any ship at sea, or in any port of this kingdom, other than the port from whence certified, are forfeited, with double the value, and the master of such vessel is to forfeit the value of the goods. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 8.

OFFENCE DISCOVERED to any officer of the customs by any person (except the owner or claimer of the goods) such person is to have half of the officer's or prosecutor's share of what shall be recovered, the charges of prosecution being first deducted: the commissioners of the customs are to cause such charges to be equally paid by the crown and the prosecutor. Persons aiding the owner or claimer, discovering their offence, are to be acquitted. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 29.

ANY OFFICER, upon producing his warrant or deputation, may go on board any coasting vessel, within the limits of any port, and rummage for prohibited and uncustomed goods, and remain on board during the vessel's stay in the port. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 9.

ANY PERSON, obstructing or molesting the officer in so doing, shall forfeit one hundred pounds. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 9.

GOODS COASTWISE OUTWARDS, may not be laden, and carried from one port or creek of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernsey, or Jersey, to any other port or creek of the same, in any ship or vessel, whereof any stranger born (unless such as be denizens, or naturalized) are owners, part owners, or masters, and whereof at least three fourths of the mariners are not British, upon forfeiture of the ship and goods. 5 Eliz. c. 5. §. 8. and 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 6.

SHIPPED, or put on board any ship, to be carried forth to the open sea, from any one port, member or creek in Great-Britain, to be landed at any one place in this realm, without a sursance first obtained from the officers of the customs, are forfeited. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

AND BEFORE the departure of the ship out of port, the master must take out a cocket, and become bound to his majesty with good security in the value of the goods, for the delivery thereof in some port within Great-Britain, and to return a certificate within six months, under the hands and seals of the officers of the port of discharge, upon forfeiture of the bond and security. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

THE SUBSTANCE OF SUCH CERTIFICATES must be indorsed on the back of the bonds, and signed to by the officers transmitting them into the Exchequer, upon penalty of treble damages, and costs of suit. 1 Ann. c. 26. §. 3.

OR IF A SHIP be laden with coals only, and the master pays the custom, or oversea duty, in any port of Great-Britain, the customer and comptroller of such port are to grant a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers of the loading port, will discharge the coast-bond, in like manner, as if the coals had been landed in Great-Britain. 9 Ann. c. 28. §. 6.

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HADDINGTONSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north and east by the Firth, on the south by the hills of Lammarmour, and by Mid-Lothian or Edinburghshire on the west. It abounds with corn of all sorts, and has good store of grafs, coal, and limestone, with some considerable woods. It has many salt-pans, where much white salt is made. Here are several convenient harbours, with the advantage of some fishery towns; particularly there is a herring-fishery every year after Dammas at Dumbar, where they take enough both for home consumption and exportation.

DUMBAR, or **DUNBAR**, has a good market, and generally a noble herring-fishery at the season, which is their chief trade, tho' of late years much decayed. They cure the herrings here as they do at Yarmouth, but they are larger and fatter than those. It is a handsome well-built town, and it's port of vast advantage to all ships in the river, in case of strefs of weather; but the entrance being difficult, by reason of steep rocks at the mouth of the harbour, an act of parliament was made in 1718, to continue 'till 1763, for improving and preserving it.

HALBERSTADT, a principality in Germany. This is a small province, bounded on the north-east by the duchy of Magdeburg, on the south by the principality of Anhalt, on the west by the archbishopric of Hildesheim, on the east by part of the electorate of Saxony, and on the north by Brunswic Wolfembutte. It has a good soil, yields plenty of corn, and the forests store of venison.

HALBERSTADT, heretofore an imperial city, is it's principal town, but the trade here is inconsiderable, by reason of the smallness of the river.

HALLAGE, a fee paid at any public hall, where goods are measured or searched; as at Blackwell-Hall, where woollen cloths are inspected, by proper officers appointed for that purpose.

HAMBURGH, a city in Germany. It stands on the north side of the river Elbe, 72 miles from the mouth of it, and is seated with very extraordinary advantages for trade, both foreign and domestic. It has such a port and river as nothing in Europe excels, unless it be the Thames. Besides the Elbe, which enters the German Ocean here, they have a channel opened to the river Trave, for the sake of a communication with Lubeck and the Baltic Sea, to avoid toll and other difficulties of the Sound: and vessels lying in the Trave are within 40 miles of the Baltic, whereas it is upwards of 400 round the coast of Jutland by the Sound.

It's trade, in fact, exceeds that of any city in the world which has no kingdom or commonwealth annexed to it; and it's exports and imports are superior to those of many great kingdoms, even in Germany itself. The Elbe, and the many other great navigable rivers that fall into it after a course through some of the largest, richest, and most trading parts of Germany, furnish it with all the product and manufactures of Austria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony.

By the Havel and Spree, it has a trade with the electorate of Brandenburg; and, by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, it's commerce is extended into Silesia, Moravia, and Poland, almost to Hungary.

The chief merchandize which it exports (to Great-Britain principally) is linen of several countries and sorts; particularly Silesia diapers, and the lawns of Misnia and Lusatia, well known at London; German linen, called so in general from the counties of Osnabrug, Lunenburg, &c. Hamburg dowlas, and other linen from Lower Saxony; coarse linen, barras, crocus, hinderlands, and many other sorts from Lower Germany; linen yarn in great quantities from the same countries, especially Silesia and Lusatia; tin plates; and wire of iron, brass and steel, chiefly from Upper Saxony; clap-boards, pipe and hoghead staves, waincot-boards, oak plank and timber, with kid-skins in great quantities, from Brandenburg; corn from many of the German provinces, but chiefly from Brandenburg and Saxony. Of the numerous articles which they import, the chief are the woollen manufactures of England. The value of which

yearly sent from Yorkshire only, and generally shipped at Hull, is said to be above 100,000*l.* the single article of stockings, sent hither, comes to above 20,000*l.* yearly, and in short, all the English goods vendible here amount to several hundred thousand pounds a year. The English merchants in particular, having extraordinary privileges granted them from this city, make a great figure here, different from those of all other nations: they appear as a body, with particular jurisdiction and powers among themselves, and, as they are called in London the Hamburg company, so they are called at Hamburg the English hanse, or society. The English are pretty numerous here, this being really, as it was antiently called, the staple of the English trade for this part of the world. They had a particular grant from the city by a treaty in queen Anne's reign, of the same privilege to import herrings, that was allowed to the Dutch. [See FISHERIES.] The Hamburgers drive a very great trade also to Russia and Livonia; and, for the goods which they send to the north part of the empire and Poland, they have a great return, not only in linen yarn and fine flax, but in honey, wax, anniseed, linseed, drugs, &c. all which come by the navigation of the Oder into the Spree, and so into the Elbe in the marquisate of Brandenburg; and therefore the Danes cannot interrupt this trade, or obtain any part of it, nor hinder the great vent of English manufactures back into all the before-mentioned countries; which is the capital branch of all the Hamburg trade, and has vastly enriched it. The number of vessels of any considerable burden, belonging to the town, is computed at 400, of which 30 of the principal are employed in the trade to and from London. They have many in the French trade, particularly about 40, which bring wine and other commodities from Bourdeaux; 50 or 60 in the Greenland trade, besides many which navigate the Baltic, and some also to Portugal, Spain, the Mediterranean, &c.

This city has also a good share in the Greenland whale-fishery, to which they commonly send 50 or 60 ships every year, and have generally had good success. See GREENLAND. Besides the beer brewed here, of which great quantities are exported, they have not long ago erected several manufactures, which they carry on with great industry and success: particularly, 1. The weaving of damasks, brocades, velvets, and the richest kinds of silks. 2. Sugar-baking, here being as good loaf-sugar as is made in London, but, having no colonies, they are obliged to buy their muscovado sugars from Great-Britain and France. 3. Callico-printing, which employs abundance of their people; and of late they have begun also to print linens, and make some gold and silver lace. By these and several other branches of it's trade, it is become a rich and powerful city, and, without dispute, dives the greatest inland trade at this time, of any city, at least, in Europe, London and Amsterdam only excepted.

REMARKS.

The British factory, which is removed from Flappers to Hamburg, are possessed of privileges since 1610, confirmed by a convention with the regency, as distinguished as any body of foreigners enjoy in any part of the commercial world. The Hamburgers found it their interest to indulge them; inasmuch that, till the revolution, they had an exclusive privilege of importing cloth; but this liberty is now free to any of the inhabitants of the city. This factory is incorporated into a company, consisting of 13 members, a governor, and deputy-governor. All disputes among themselves are referred to the final decision of a majority of voices. They also judge with regard to their demands on burghers, but in this case a deputation of two senators is required to act in concert with them. Their judgments are so just and summary, that the burghers generally make application to them, when they have demands upon any of the British factory, preferring their decisions to any other court in the jurisdiction of the city.—The trade of this company is not so considerable as it was at the latter end of the last century. Hamburg is a hanse-town [see the article HANSE-TOWNS] of more importance than any in Europe. This place may

be considered, with respect to Germany, what Amsterdam is to Europe, a magazine of the different produce and merchandize of the trading world. Commission business made a very considerable article of the profits of Hamburg, but a great part of this branch is fallen into the hands of the merchants of Altena, the Hamburgers having injudiciously charged a small duty on them, which they have since taken off, and made it a free port for the transit of all merchandizes; but they cannot recover this business in the same manner as before; so difficult is it to alter the channel of trade from the current it has once obtained.

There are other branches of which the Hamburgers have been obliged to yield a part to other nations. The trade of Lubec, which was sunk very low, has mended of late years: Steint, which was hardly known as a trading town, now begins to make some figure in commerce; and we find the king of Prussia endeavouring to establish Embden as a place of trade. [See PRUSSIA.] Copenhagen of late years is improved; and a vast trade is established in St. Peterburgh, which did not exist till this century; but, above all, France, since queen Anne's war, has made large strides in the advancement of her commercial interest. See the article FRANCE, and FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA. These concurring reasons must necessarily diminish the trade of Hamburg.

What has clipped the wings of the Hamburgers, though not in so great a degree as generally imagined, is the neighbourhood of Altena, as before intimated, which signifies much too near, as indeed it is for their interest, having the advantage of situation the same as Hamburg; but it has no fortifications, nor is the Danish sovereignty so great a security of its commerce as the independency of a Hanse-Town is to Hamburg. Altena has been long considered by the Hamburgers as an object of great jealousy. In the war with Sweden, in 1713, this town was burned to the ground, and now appears as new.

The continual losses suffered by the Algerine rovers, who thought it their interest to decline accommodation, have been a great obstruction to the trade of Hamburg; and the more as they can hardly, with any assurance, ask the assistance of any sovereign prince, and particularly a maritime power, who is a competitor in point of commerce. During the last war, they had several ships on the Western Ocean and the Mediterranean; but hostilities at sea were no sooner ended, than they were obliged to alter their measures.

The Algerines, finding the Spaniards meant to make war with them in good earnest, entered lately into a treaty with the Hamburgers, not of friendship only, but of commerce also. This the Spaniards highly resented, and put the Hamburgers under the necessity of annulling that treaty, or of being excluded from their trade with Spain. Being reduced to this alternative they have chosen the former.

This city seems to owe its safety to the jarring interests of the neighbouring powers. It is surrounded by the Danes on the north side, in Holstein, Sleswick, Deitmarfen, &c. who have often made pretensions to it. It had the Swedes on the west side, in the duchies of Bremen and Verden; and both these had forts upon the Elbe, the one at Gluckstadt, the other at Stadt, where, by their ships of war they could intercept the Hamburgers trade. They had the princes of the house of Lunenburgh on the south, possessed of Lawenburg on the Elbe, above the city, and so able to stop all their navigation upwards, and of Harburg over against them. And, lastly, they had the house of Brandenburg, now Prussia, on the east.—All these princes have been ready enough to find pretensions upon the city of Hamburg, and were severally able to push those pretensions; but none of them being willing that the Hamburgers should fall into the hands of any but themselves; this clashing of interests has been the preservation of the city, they having never failed of success on one side or other.

MONIES and EXCHANGES of HAMBURGH.

They keep their accounts at Hamburg in rixdollars, fols, and deniers lubs, or in marks, fols, and deniers lubs. The rixdollar is worth three marks, or 48 fols lubs, or 96 deniers gros*.

* In the year 1623, it was regulated that the standard should be 10 deniers 14 grains, and that it should weigh 532 grains.

The dollar is equal to 2 marks, or 32 fols lubs, or 64 deniers gros.

The mark is equal to 16 fols lubs, or 32 deniers gros.

The livre gros is equal to 20 fols gros, or 120 fols lubs, or 7½ marks lubs.

The fol gros, or schelling, is equal to 12 deniers gros, or 6 fols lubs.

The common fol is equal to 2 gros, or 12 deniers, or penings. To reduce marks lubs into dollars and rixdollars must be so easy, as to need no explication.

Suppose you owe the following sums of Hamburg money to your correspondents at the following places, what sums must be paid for the same in the monies of their respective countries.

		fols lubs.	Course of exchange.
At Amster.	1728 dollars	16 ½ at	32 ½ fols banco per dollar of 32 fols.
Paris	975 marks	2 ½ at	27 ½ fols lubs per crown of 60 fols.
London	154 1	14 ½ at	32 ½ fols gros per pound sterling.
Cadiz	2025	12 ½ at	93 ½ gros per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Lisbon	1030	1 at	42 ½ gros per crufoe of 400 rees.
Venice	1500	at	86 ½ gros per ducat banco of 24 gros.
Vienna	1200	at	139 rixdollars per 100 rixdollars banco.
Nurem.	600 rixdol.	at	135 rixdollars per 100 rixdollars banco.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon HOLLAND.

C A S E I.

To reduce 1728 dollars, 16 ½ fols lubs banco, Multiply by 32 ½ fols banco of exchange.

3456
5184
864 for ¼ the 1/4 of 1728
432 for 1/8 the 1/8 of 1728
216 for 1/16 the 1/16 of 1728
16 3/8 16 fols the 1/2 of the exchange
1/2 fol the 1/2 of 16 fols

5682 5/8 fols

2841 florins, 5 fols banco, for which the draught must be made on Amsterdam.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the sum of dollars by the price of exchange of 32 ½ fols, and take the aliquot parts, as directed by the operation, and the sum total will be fols or stivers bank money, which, being divided by 20, gives for answer florins and stivers bank, to be received at Amsterdam.

P R O O F.

O P E R A T I O N.

Florins 2841 : 5 at 32 ½ per dollar
20 8
5682 5/8 263

263)454600(1728 dollars, 16 ½.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Reduce the sum and price of exchange into the same denomination, viz. eights of stivers, and divide the sum by the price, and the quote will give the number of times that the price is contained in the sum, which is the answer in dollars: for the remainder, multiply by 32 (the fols lubs in a dollar) and divide by the common divisor, and you have the fols equal to the fraction.

N. B. In ordinary practice, the descending to the eighth or sixteenth of a fol is reckoned sufficient.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon FRANCE.

C A S E II.

Reduce 975 marks, 2 ½ fols lubs, bank money of Hamburg, into livres, fols, and deniers Tournois of France, exchange at 27 ¼ fols lubs bank, per crown of 60 fols Tournois of France.

O P E R A T I O N.

975 marks, 2 ½ fols lubs ban. ex. at 27 ¼ fols lubs
16 24
5852 109
975 54
15602 1/3 = 8/27 649—24ths divisor
24
82416
31204

649)394456—24ths dividend (576 crowns, 58 fols, 5 deniers, 3 livres

1730 livres, 18 fols, 5 deniers Tournois, for which the draught must be made upon Paris.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Reduce the sum given, and the price of exchange, into the 24ths of fols lubs (viz. by 16 s. the value of a mark) and for the 1/4 of a fol reckon 1/27, which is equal thereto. [See the article ARITHMETIC.] Divide the product of the sum by the product of the price of exchange, and the quotient will shew how many times the price of exchange is contained in the sum, or how many crowns are contained in the number of marks. For the remainder 632, multiply by 60 fols (the value of the crown) and, dividing by the common divisor, it gives

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gives 58 fols, and a further remainder of 278, which, multiplied by 12, and divided as before, gives 5 deniers.—To reduce the crowns into livres, multiply by 3 (so many livres making 1 crown) and add 2 livres, 18 fols, and 5 deniers, for the 58 fols 5 deniers. This gives 1730 livres, 18 fols, 5 deniers Tournois of Paris, to be there received for the 975 marks 2½ lubs banco of Hamburg.

PROOF of the foregoing.

3) livres 1730 : 18 5 Tournois exchange, at 27 $\frac{1}{24}$ fols [lubs per crown]

Crowns 576 . 58 : 5

4032
1152

24 = $\frac{1}{24}$ of 576
13 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 30 fols $\frac{1}{2}$ of } the exchange
9 for 20 fols $\frac{1}{2}$ of } price
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 4 fols $\frac{1}{2}$ of 20
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 4 fols $\frac{1}{2}$ of 20
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 4 deniers $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4 fols

fols lubs 16)15602 $\frac{1}{18}$ (975 marks, 2 fols, and allowance for the fractional parts will make $\frac{1}{2}$.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon ENGLAND.

C A S E III.

To reduce 1541 marks 14 fols $\frac{1}{2}$ lubs, bank money of Hamburg, into sterling money of England, exchange at 32 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols gros per pound sterling.

OPERATION.

1541 marks 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ lubs - - at 32 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols
32 deniers de gros 12

3082 384
4623 4 den. = $\frac{1}{3}$

16 for 8 fols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of the 32
8 for 4 fols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 8 388
4 for 2 fols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4 3
 $\frac{2}{3}$ for $\frac{1}{3}$ of a fol = $\frac{1}{6}$ of 2 fols

49340 $\frac{2}{3}$ Divisor 1164 thirds of
3 [deniers]

1164)148022 thirds of den. dividend (l. 127 : 3 : 4 sterling) for which the draught is to be made on London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the sum given, and the price of exchange, into thirds of deniers, by multiplying the marks by 32 deniers gros, the value of a mark, and taking the aliquot parts for the 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols, as above directed.—After which, multiply the product by 3, which gives thirds of deniers gros.—Then multiplying the exchange fols by 12, gives deniers.—For the $\frac{1}{3}$ of a fol add 4 deniers, that being $\frac{1}{3}$ of 12.—And multiply also the product by 3, gives thirds of deniers.—The sum and price being both reduced into the like denomination, divide the sum by the price, and you have the answer in pounds sterling.—For the remainder 194, multiply by 20, and divide by the common divisor, and you have the shillings; and for the second remainder, 388, multiply by 12, and divide by the same divisor, and you have the pence.

The PROOF.

l. 127 : 3 : 4 sterling, exchange at 32 $\frac{1}{2}$

32 $\frac{1}{2}$

254

381

42—4 deniers for the $\frac{1}{3}$

5—5 near, for 3 shillings 4 pence $\frac{1}{2}$ of the exchange

$\frac{1}{2}$) 411 | 1 f. 9 deniers gros,

liv. 205 : 11 fols, 9 deniers gros, to be multiplied by 7 marks 8 fols lubs, the value of a livre gros

1435

102 marks, 8 fols, for 8 fols, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the livres

3

12 for 10 the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ marks

6

3 for 1 the $\frac{1}{10}$ of 10 fols

3

1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 6 den. the $\frac{1}{2}$ of a fol

1 $\frac{1}{2}$

for 3 den. the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 6 den.

1541 marks 14 fols $\frac{1}{2}$, for which the draught must be made on Hamburg.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the l. 127 : 3 : 4 sterling, by the price of exchange, 32 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols gros, and divide the product of fols by 20, gives livres, fols, and deniers gros. Multiply the 205 livres, 11

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fols, and 9 deniers, by 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ marks, the value of a livre gros, and take the aliquot parts as above, and you will have the product 1541 marks 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols bank, as proof sufficient of the preceding case.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon CADIZ.

C A S E IV.

To reduce 2025 marks 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols lubs, bank money of Hamburg, into ducats, fols, and deniers, and afterwards into rials and marvadees of Spain, exchange at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per ducat of 375 marvadees old plate.

OPERATION.

2025 marks 12 $\frac{1}{2}$, exchange at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$
Multiply by 32 deniers gros 6

4050

6075

25 $\frac{1}{2}$

64825 $\frac{1}{2}$

561 sixths of den.

561)388952 sixths of deniers (693 ducats, 6 fols, 4 den. for which the draught should be made upon Cadiz.

These 693 ducats, 6 fols, 4 deniers, multiplied

By 11 rials 1 marvadee

7623

20 rials, 13 marv. for 693 marv. divided by 34

2 25 for 5 fols, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 11 rials

18 for 1 the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 5 fols

6 for 4 den. the $\frac{1}{2}$ of a fol

7646 rials, 28 marvadees old plate, to receive in Spain.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the sum and the price of exchange into sixths of deniers, by multiplying the former by 32 deniers gros, the value of a mark (adding 25 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the 12 $\frac{1}{2}$) and after by 6.—With regard to the exchange, multiply that by 6, and for the $\frac{1}{2}$ take in $\frac{3}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$, and divide the product of the sum by that of the price of exchange, and the quotient will be 693 ducats, with the remainder of 179, which multiplied by 20, the value of a ducat in fols, and divided by the same, it produces 6 fols, and a further remainder of 214, which multiplied by 12 deniers; the value of a fol, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 4 deniers; which quotients being multiplied by 11 rials 1 marvadee, value of a ducat, will produce 7646 rials, 28 marvadees, to be received at Cadiz. But, if you would at once reduce the marks into rials and marvadees, and not into ducats, you must multiply by 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, the 64825 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros, and divide the product 24309500 marvadees by 3179 marvadees, which is the exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros, multiplied by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial; and this will give you for quotient the same sum of 7646 rials, with a remainder of 2866; which multiplied by 34 marvadees, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 30 marvadees, two more than the preceding method does.

PROOF.

Reduce 7646 rials 28 marvadees, old plate of Spain, into marks, fols, and pence lubs, bank money, at the course of exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros per ducat of 375 marvadees of Spain.

OPERATION.

7646 rials 28 mar. 375 mar. multiplied by 32 gros,

34

32

30612

750

22938

1125

259992

12000 gros—Divisor

Excha. 93 $\frac{1}{2}$

779976

2339928

129996

Quotient

24309252 gros—dividend (2025 marks, 12 fols, 4 pence bank, for which the draught upon Hamburg should be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7646 rials, 28 marvadees, into marvadees, by multiplying them by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and multiply the product, 259992 marvadees, by the price of exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros, it gives 24309252 gros for dividend. Multiply also the 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, by 32 gros, the value of a mark lubs, it gives 12000 gros for a divisor, and 2025 marks lubs for a quotient, with a remainder of 9252; which multiplied by 16 fols, the value of a mark, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 12 fols lubs; and a further remainder of 4032, to be multiplied by 12 penings,

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penings, the value of a fol, and divided by the same, you will have four penings bank money of Hamburg.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon LISBON.

CASE V.

To reduce 1030 marks 1 fol lub, bank money of Hamburg, into cruñados of Portugal, exchange at $42\frac{3}{4}$ deniers gros, per cruñado of 400 rees.

OPERATION.

1030 Marks 1 fol lub at $42\frac{3}{4}$ deniers gros	
32 deniers gros	4
2060	171 quarters of gros
3090	
2 for the fol	
32962	
4	

171.) 131848 quarters of deniers gros (771 cruñados 16 rees, for which the draught upon Lisbon should be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the sum of 1030 marks 1 fol by 32 gros, and afterwards by 4 for quarters of gros.—Reduce the price of exchange also into quarters of gros, and divide the one by the other, and you will have a quotient of 771 cruñados, with a remainder of 7; which multiply by 400 rees, the value of a cruñado, and divide by the same divisor, you will have 16 rees. By multiplying the cruñados by 400 rees, and adding the 16 rees, the sum total will be 308416 rees to be received at Lisbon.

PROOF.

771 Cruñados 16 at $42\frac{3}{4}$	
1542	
3084	
385 $\frac{1}{4}$ for $\frac{1}{4}$ of 771 cruñados	
192 $\frac{1}{2}$ for $\frac{1}{2}$ of ditto	
1 $\frac{1}{4}$ for 16 rees, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of 400 marks	

32) 32962—(1030—1 fol of Lisbon.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply 771 cruñados 16 rees by the price of exchange, and take the aliquot as above. The product being deniers gros (32 of which makes a mark) divide thereby, and the quotient gives marks $\frac{3}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{16}$, or fol lub.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon VENICE.

CASE VI.

To reduce 1500 marks lub, bank money of Hamburg, into ducats, fols, and deniers, bank money of Venice, exchange at $86\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros of Hamburg, per ducat of 24 gros.

OPERATION.

1500 marks lub each at $86\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros	
Multiply by 32 deniers gros	8
3000	695 eighths of deniers gros
4500	
48000 deniers gros	
8	

695) 384000 eighths of deniers gros (552 ducats 10 fols 4 deniers, for which the draught must be made on Venice.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the sum and price, according to the foregoing examples, into one denomination, the eighths of deniers gros, and dividing the former by the latter, the quotient gives ducats 552, with a remainder 360; which multiplying by 20 fols, the value of a ducat, and dividing by the same divisor, it gives 10 fols, and 250 remaining.—This multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol, and divided again by the same, it gives 4 deniers bank money to be received at Venice.

PROOF.

552 Ducats 10 fols, 4 at $86\frac{1}{4}$	
86 $\frac{1}{4}$	
3312	
4416	
2880	
483 . . . for $\frac{1}{4}$	
17 $\frac{3}{4}$. . . for 4 fols the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the exchange $86\frac{1}{4}$	
17 $\frac{3}{4}$. . . for 4 ditto, the $\frac{1}{2}$	
8 $\frac{1}{2}$ and more for 2 ditto, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4	
1 $\frac{1}{8}$ and more for 4 deniers, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 2 fols	

32) 4800—(1500 marks lub, reckon $\frac{1}{4}$ for the fractional parts remaining.

H A M

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the sum by the price, and, for the $\frac{1}{4}$, multiply by the 7, cancel the product, and divide by 8 gives the value of the $\frac{1}{4}$. For the ten fols 4 deniers, take the aliquot parts as above, and the sum total will be deniers gros; which, divided by 32, the value of a mark, the quotient gives 1500 marks, the proof.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon VIENNA.

CASE VII.

To reduce 1200 marks 12 fols lub, bank money of Hamburg, into rixdollars, gros, and fenings of Vienna, exchange at 139 rixdollars of Vienna, of 90 kreutzers per 100 rixdollars, of 48 fols lub of Hamburg, of the same money.

OPERATION.

If 100 rixdol. of Hamburg give 139 rixdol. of Vienna, what will 400 $\frac{1}{4}$ of Hamburg?

	55600
	34—22—6 for the $\frac{1}{4}$
Rixdollars 556	34—22—6
	30
Gros 10	42
	12
Fenings 5	10

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 1200 marks lub into rixdollars, in taking $\frac{1}{4}$ thereof, the rixdollar being worth 3 marks lub, it produces 400 $\frac{1}{4}$ rixdollars (each making 48 fols lub, the 12 fols make $\frac{1}{4}$): so that the proportion will run thus: as 100 rixdollars of Hamburg is to 139 rixdollars of Vienna, so is 400 $\frac{1}{4}$ rixdollars of Hamburg to 556 rixdollars, 10 gros, and 5 fenings of Vienna.

The product of the multiplication of the second term by the last, is 55,634 rixdollars, 22 gros, 6 fenings, which being divided by the first term (100) 'tis only cutting off two figures to the right-hand; and the remainder being multiplied by 30 gros, the value of the rixdollars, and divided again by the 100, you have 10 gros; this further remainder also being multiplied by 12 fenings, the value of a gros, and divided again by 100, it gives 5 fenings to be received at Vienna.

PROOF of the foregoing.

OPERATION.

If 139 rixdollars of Vienna give 100 of Hamburg, what will 556 rixdollars, 10 gros, five fenings?

	55600
	33 16 for 10 gros the $\frac{1}{4}$
	1 : 18 for 5 fenings

Divide by 136) 55634 : 34 fols (400 $\frac{1}{4}$ rixdollars, bank money.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon NUREMBERG.

CASE VIII.

To reduce 600 rixdollars of 48 fols lub, bank money of Hamburg, into rixdollars of 90 kreutzers, current money of Nuremberg, exchange at 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg per 100 of Hamburg.

OPERATION.

If 100 rixdollars of Hamburg give 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg, what will 600 of Hamburg?

	81000
--	-------

Answer 810, for which the draught should be made upon Nuremberg, of rixdollars.

INSTRUCTION.

After stating the case according to the rule of proportion, you multiply the second and third terms together, and divide the product by the first, by cutting off two figures on the right-hand, as in the preceding case, and you have the number of rixdollars to be received at Nuremberg.

If the remainder had been otherwise than cyphers, you must have multiplied by 90 kreutzers, the value of a rixdollar, and, separating two figures to the right as before, you would have the kreutzers.—And if any further remainder should occur, you should multiply it by 4 fenings, the value of a kreutzer; and, separating the same, it would give the fenings.

PROOF.

H A M

P R O O F.

If 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg give 100 of Hamburg, what will 810 of Nuremberg?

100

135)81000(600 rixdollars bank, for which the draught upon Hamburg should be made.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

From a direct rule of three, saying: if 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg give 100 of Hamburg, how many will 810 give?

The product of the second and third terms being multiplied is 81000, which being divided by the first 135, the quotient is 600 rixdollars of 48 fols lubs, to be received in bank at Hamburg.—If any thing had remained, you should multiply by 48 fols lubs, the value of the rixdollar, and divide by the 135, it gives fols lubs.—And, if any further remainder had arose, it should be multiplied by 2 gros, the value of the fol, and divided by the same, it gives gros to be received with these rixdollars.

These are some of the principal places of Europe, with which Hamburg has dealings by way of exchange.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of HAMBURGH.

In their weights they reckon as follows, viz. 2 loodt = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = 1 lb. 10 lb. = 1 stone of wool or feathers, 14 lb. = a dispound, 20 lb. = 1 stone of flax, 8 dispound = 1 center, about 120 lb. avoirdupois of London, 16 lb. is a dispound, 20 dispound = a schippound of feathers or wool, and 16 dispounds = 1 tun of butter or tallow. 100 lb. of Hamburg = 98 in Amsterdam, 103 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of Antwerp, and 107 $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. in London.

Of the ordinary CLOTH MEASURES of HAMBURGH.

100 Ells = in Amsterdam 38 $\frac{1}{2}$ auns, in Breslaw 104 $\frac{1}{4}$ auns, in Dantzic 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ auns, in London 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards, in Nuremberg 87 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells. The Lubec ell is $\frac{1}{16}$ shorter than the Hamburg one.

All silken goods are for the most part bought and sold in Hamburg by the Brabant ell, 5 whereof = 6 Hamburg ells.

In regard to corn, they reckon 9 scheppels to a last, and 83 scheppels = 10 quarters in London.

Of the BANK of HAMBURGH.

This bank is judged to be inferior to none in Europe, in point of security. It is under the direction and management of four of the most distinguished persons of the city, who are, at certain seasons, elected by the whole body of the republic, who stand engaged to make good all deficiencies that may happen by fraud or embezzlement of any kind. However, to prevent these things, the officers are obliged to state and clear all their accounts twice a week.

Here they receive only, as at Amsterdam, the finest and best of their current money into the bank, and will allow $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{8}$ per cent. to those who make payments there in rixdollars. This bank is under much the same regulation as that of Amsterdam; and all persons who do business therein, are subject to divers fines and penalties, as checks upon their conduct. For instance, no sum under an 100 marks can be entered in the bank, and for every sum that is under 300 marks, 2 stivers must be paid for entering the same.

The time for writing in the bank is from $\frac{7}{8}$ to 10 in the morning. You may write therein at any hour from 10 to 1, or from 3 to five, but then you must pay 2 stivers for every sum that shall be entered within these hours.

The time for enquiring if a sum has been entered in the bank, is from 7 to ten in the morning; yet a person may be informed at any of the hours between 10 in the morning and 5 in the afternoon, if he pays 2 stivers, and then he may ask divers other questions of the like nature, at the same time, without farther charge. But the merchants, and other considerable dealers in the bank, commonly give the bank book-keepers from 20 to 40 marks per ann. for any extraordinary trouble they may give them at undue hours; but none but the inhabitants of the city have the privilege of keeping accounts in the bank: if a stranger is desirous of keeping an account therein, he must purchase his freedom of the city for that purpose.

This bank, however, will lend money to foreigners, as well as citizens, upon their pledging to them the value in jewels, plate, or the like securities, to restore the like sum with interest, for six months time; and, if they fail in so doing, the effects are forthwith exposed to sale, upon a day specified in a placart affixed at the bar, to give notice to any person who is inclined to purchase them.

The bank is generally shut up from the last of December, to the 15th of January.

The agio is often very high here, it amounting sometimes from 30 to 40 per cent.

VOL. I.

H A M

R E M A R K S.

All bills of exchange are paid in bank.

The value of the rixdollar being every-where known, and it's standard invariable, it is used to the valuation of all sorts of merchandizes, and of all coins, and also in exchange.—But the current money in many respects differs from the rixdollar, as well in the fineness as weight; every prince, and almost every city in Germany coining a different species: and, by these coins, the commerce is regulated in every province and city respectively.

The principal current coins in those parts, are those of Denmark and Holstein, and the cities of Lubec and Hamburg. 125 Dollars current money $\frac{2}{3}$ ths ought to make 100 crowns or rixdollars, or crowns of the empire: so that the mark filver of 16 lots, or 12 deniers, which is 9 rixdollars, make 11 $\frac{1}{3}$ dollars of this current coin: and, by this proportion, the city of Hamburg has always governed itself in it's commerce.

But his Danish majesty and the duke of Holstein, after observing the same regulation for many years, as their ancestors also did, at length changed the rate of their money, and coined sixpenny pieces, about 18 per cent. inferior to the ancient money.

Here began all the confusion that has happened in these parts, on account of the coin; these princes, and especially the king of Denmark, endeavouring by seizing the Hamburgers ships, to compel them to receive these new coins according to such rate or value, as he arbitrarily imposed upon them, and without any regard to the difference of their intrinsic value.

This necessarily caused the agio of the current coin, which before was at but from 14 to 16 per cent. in exchange for crowns of the bank, to rise in proportion; till at last, before the introduction of the new money at Hamburg, the agio rose to 43 per cent. and the false coiners made their market of this disorder, picking up all sorts of the old species of money, which was good according to the standard, melting them down, and selling them to the managers of the mint, to coin into sixpenny pieces of the new alloy; or, which was worse, coining them for themselves of a yet baser kind: and thus gradually all the good money disappeared, and the sixpenny pieces spread over the whole country, but especially in the city of Hamburg, till it threatened the ruin of the citizens, and of their whole commerce: for that visibly declined, the value of houses and land, which, according to custom, were always rated in rixdollars, fell, and the public revenues were almost annihilated.

In this extremity the city of Hamburg, after many deliberate consultations how to prevent the growing mischief, resolved to coin a considerable quantity of money of her own, according to the ancient standard which she had long adhered to, and such a quantity as should be sufficient to answer the ordinary demands of her commerce.

This being done, they published such constitutions under the authority of their government, as should fix an invariable agio upon this money, agreeably to it's intrinsic value, and settle the difference in all payments between the new money, and the payments in bank. This agio was found to be 16 per cent. and it was then settled accordingly; so that any one might receive 100 crowns bank for 116 crowns of the new money, and so vice versa, any one paying in 100 crowns bank might receive 116 crowns new specie.

For the establishing this new settlement with more security, laws against falsifiers of the coins being always insufficient to prevent the evil, they erected a bank of this new money in particular, after the manner of a fund for circulation, and according to the method of their predecessors, to preserve the currency of the new species; which new bank was obliged to correspond on all occasions with the old bank: by which means, besides making the payments of money easy and current on all occasions, the new coin is preserved from being clipped, melted down, counterfeited, or otherwise defaced in any manner whatsoever; for now there was no more to do, than to lodge the new species in it's proper bank, and upon any occasion of payment, either in one specie or the other, to write off the money, or transfer it, as 'tis called, by a draught, or assignment, from one bank to the other, as the nature of the payment directed.

By this regulation, payment of money in Hamburg is now made the certainest and plainest thing imaginable, and the advantages thereof are apparent to all the trading part of the world: for the commerce of the city of Hamburg greatly encreased upon this occasion, all foreign merchants becoming abundantly satisfied with their payment of any specie; because they are secure that they can never suffer any loss upon a coin, whose value is always the same, unalterably established by authority, and liable to no change in it's intrinsic value.

It cannot be wondered if this regulation of the money, so much to the public credit and advantage of the city of Hamburg, gave for some time a blow to the currency of the foreign money of Denmark and Holstein, and that the king of Denmark took great offence at it: nor is it to be wondered,

that, finding the species of *Hamburgh* immutably fixed, the king took all measures to mortify the *Hamburghers* in other parts of their commerce: and this may account for all the prohibitions and edicts of the Danish court, for excluding the *Hamburghers* from their trade in *Denmark*.

HAMPSHIRE, is bounded on the west by *Dorsetshire* and *Wiltshire*; on the north by *Berkshire*; on the east by *Surrey* and *Suffex*; and on the south by the *English Channel*, and is above 150 miles in circumference.

The air of this country is pure and piercing, especially on the downs. The soil is various as to its fertility, the hilly parts being barren, like other downs, and fit only for sheep; but the lower grounds are fruitful in corn and herbage. This county is particularly famous for its honey; and their bacon is allowed by all to be the best in England, the swine being plentifully supplied with acorns from the *New Forest*, and other woods, in which they run at large. Kersey and cloth is made here; and, though not in so great plenty as in *Wiltshire*, *Somerfetshire*, and *Gloucestershire*, yet sufficient not only for home-consumption, but for a foreign trade, which the convenient ports and harbours it has have brought to it; and, in the war with France, *Portsmouth* was a sure market for any of its commodities, as it always will be on such occasions.

SOUTHAMPTON, the county town, has been formerly a place of great trade, and famous for the great resort of merchants to it, for the number and neatness of its buildings, and for the wealth of its inhabitants; but having lost much of its trade by the late wars with France, and other accidents, it has also lost many of its inhabitants. There are some merchants here that carry on the Port and French wine trade; but their greatest dealings are with *Jersey* and *Guernsey*. There are, indeed, others who trade to *Newfoundland* for fish, which they carry to the *Streights*, &c.

PORTSMOUTH, the key of England, and its only regular fortification, stands at the entrance of a creek of the island of *Portsea*, which is about 14 miles in compass. Since the revolution, this port has flourished mightily, being the constant rendezvous of the grand fleets and squadrons, for convoy of merchant ships homeward and outward bound. By these means it is so increased and enriched, that the houses and inhabitants are near double to what they were before, and the fortifications as regular as any in Europe. A thousand sail of ships may ride safe in this harbour. The entrance is secured on *Gosport* side by four forts, and a platform of above 20 great guns. *Gosport* is a large town of great trade, where the sailors wives live for most part, and travellers generally lodge, every thing being cheaper and more convenient there than in *Portsmouth*, and boats continually passing from one to the other, it being as *Southwark* to *London*, only there is no bridge; but it is all called *Portsmouth*, though they are different parishes.

CHRIST-CHURCH, is a large, populous borough. Here are officers employed to take care of the customs; but it is rather to prevent the smuggling of goods, than in expectation of a receipt of duties, the foreign trade here not being worth the mentioning. Its chief manufacture is stockings and gloves.

LYMINGTON, is a small but populous sea-port town, on a hill opposite to the isle of *Wight*. Its chief trade is in salt, of which great quantities are made here; and it is said to exceed most in England for preserving flesh. The sea comes within a mile of the town; and, though the river on which it stands is not navigable very far up, yet here it makes a very good and commodious port for shipping.

WHITCHURCH is but a small mean town; its principal trade is in shalloons, ferges, and other woollen manufactures.

ANDOVER is a great maling town, and its chief manufacture is shalloons. To the west of it is a village named *Weyhill*, where is only a desolate church, on a rising-ground, with hardly a house about it, yet it is of note for a fair, reckoned one of the biggest in England for hops, cheese, and several other commodities; and for sheep there is none so big, which the farmers come or send for from several counties.

RINGWOOD is a large thriving place, on the river *Avon*. It has a pretty good manufacture in druggets and narrow cloths, stockings and leather.

BASINGSTOKE, is a large populous town, and has a great market for all sorts of corn, especially barley, there being a great malt trade carried on here. Of late years the manufactures of druggets, shalloons, and such slight goods, have been carried on here with good success.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT. This isle is separated from the British continent by so small, though rapid a channel, that it seems to have been joined to it. It is about 60 miles in circumference. The air is very healthy, and the soil as fruitful, it being observed that one year's crop of corn is enough to serve the inhabitants seven. Through the middle of the island runs a ridge of hills, where is plenty of pasture for sheep, whose wool is in great request among the clothiers; and here is found the milk white tobacco-pipe clay, the best in its kind, which they export, as also fine white sand, of which drinking-glasses are made, as good as those formerly at *Venice*.

NEWPORT, the principal town, seated near the middle of the

island, on *Cowes River*, is a large populous town. Small vessels can come up to the key here, but the bigger ships deliver at *Cowes*, and the merchandize is brought up hither in barges.

COWES is the name of two towns, one on the east, the other on the west side of its river. These ports thrive apace while the heavy duties lay on the plantation goods; for then ships from *Virginia* and the *West-Indies* used to unload here, pay the customs, take in their cargoes, and then proceed to *Holland*, *Hamburgh*, and other markets; by which they were entitled to a drawback of the greatest part of those heavy imposts. Here also masters of ships, and merchants homeward or outward bound, are furnished with money for bills, and the ships supplied with stores of fresh provisions. Several merchants live here, and good houses have been built within these 50 years; but it lies low, and is not reckoned very healthy.

JERSEY. This island lies about 16 leagues from *Carteret*, or *Port Bail*, in *Normandy*; its buildings may be discerned from either coast. It is not above 12 miles in length, nor much above six where broadest, which is at the two extremities.

In the west part of the island is a large track of land, once a very good soil, and cultivated, but now a barren desert, caused by the west wind's continually throwing up of sand to the top of the highest cliffs. The middle part is somewhat mountainous, but the vallies have a rich soil, and are finely watered with brooks, that drive near 40 corn-mills, besides fulling-mills. It produces all manner of trees, roots, and herbs, but not corn enough for the inhabitants, who have it from England and France, and sometimes, for cheapness, from *Dantzic*; for the increase of the stocking manufacture has caused a decay of tillage, to the improvement, however, of navigation and commerce, and to the culture of cyder, of which no place in the world, of the same extent, produces so much; they having made in some years 24,000 hogf-heads. Their butter and honey is excellent, which last bears four times the price of what comes thither from France. They have store of fish common to other places, besides some peculiar to this island.

The air of the island is healthy, and the people live to a great age. There is such a vast chain of rocks about it, and the tides so rapid, that there is never any still water, and the navigation is extremely dangerous to those who are not perfectly acquainted with the coast.

ST. HELIER is the capital of the island; its market is more like a fair. The inhabitants are chiefly shopkeepers, artificers, and retailers of liquor.

ST. AUBIN is a town of merchants and masters of ships, who first settled here for the sake of its port, the best and most frequented in the island. Its market is rather an exchange for the merchants.

Trade, which is the life of this island, was very much improved before the late war with France, tho', in the main, they did not lose much by it; for, as they lie so convenient, their privateering did, and always will, turn to their advantage. They not only trade to England and France, but also to Spain and *Newfoundland*, to which last place they sometimes send near 30 fail of ships.

Its staple manufacture is stockings, which are knit by the women and children; whereof 8 or 10,000 pair have been bought weekly in *St. Helier's* market for exportation, though, since *Colbert* the French minister laid so high a duty on this manufacture as amounted to a prohibition, *London* has been their chief market. The wool they are wrought with comes from England, 2000 tods uncombed being allowed them yearly, by act of parliament, for the support of the said manufacture, and employment of their poor.

GUERNSEY. This island, about 24 miles distant from *Jersey*, is naturally much more rich and fertile than it, but does not yield so much, the inhabitants neglecting the culture of it for the sake of commerce. However, they are sufficiently supplied with corn and cattle, both for their own use and that of their ships. Here is a better harbour than any in *Jersey*, which occasions a greater concourse to it of merchants. It is full of gardens and orchards, and cyder so plenty, that it is the common drink of the meaner people, the better sort having French wine almost as cheap as beer is in England.

The only harbour here is **ST. PETER LE PORT**, a little market town on the south-east side of the island. The mouth of the haven is well set with rocks, and defended by a castle on each side. It has a good road, from whence ships may go out with any wind.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass; it is a healthy island, and fruitful both in corn and pasture. The inhabitants here are all compact together, for the greater safety, in one town of the same name, of about 200 houses, and 1000 inhabitants. This island is not so much inclosed as the others. It is said there is a common field of about 500 acres, that bears excellent corn, and has not once lain fallow this hundred years, being always kept in heart by a sea weed called *uraic*. The island has but one harbour, to the south, called *Crabbie*, which is a good distance from the town, and only capable of small vessels.

SARK is another small island, not above five miles in length, and three where broadest. The soil is, for the most part, hot and sandy, yet fruitful enough to afford all necessaries for it's inhabitants; and fish and wild fowl they have in great plenty.

The trade extends no farther than to Bristol, and some of the west ports; and the chief, if not the only manufacture of the island, is knitting of stockings, gloves, caps, and waistcoats, in which the men, women, and children are employed; and these they trade with to the ports of England, and return with necessaries, for which purpose they have several small vessels.

HANOVER. This is a part of those German dominions that belong immediately to his Britannic majesty, as elector of Brunswick Lunenburg, or Hanover. The extent of the particular dominions of the elector are represented by the author of the Present State of Germany.

	Miles long.	Miles broad.
The principality of Grubenhagen	40	40
The duchy of Hanover, or Calenberg	40	12
The duchy of Lunenburg	80	50
The duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg	30	15
The duchy of Bremen, including Verden	60	40
The county of Hoya	30	15
The county of Diepholt	30	10

The principality of **GRUBENHAGEN** is intersected in two parts by the bishopric of Hildesheim: that on the east is bounded on the north by the duchy of Wolfenbüttele; on the west by Hildesheim; on the east by Hart's Forest; and on the south, by Eisfeld. The west part is also bounded on the north by Wolfenbüttele; on the south by Oberwaldt; and, both on the east and west, by Hildesheim. Both parts are almost overgrown with woods of fir and pine, that formerly belonged to the Grabes, and is of a barren soil, most of it's treasure being hid under-ground, especially in the east part, where are most of the mines of silver, copper, and lead, besides the numerous sorts of minerals.

The east part is generally inhabited by miners. The chief places are,

ARDREARBURGH, famous for it's rich mines of iron.

EYMBECK, the capital of Grubenhagen: it stands in a fine corn country, and carries on a considerable trade in beer, which is in great request, but was more so before the sweet malt liquor, called the brewan, came so much in vogue.

GOTTINGEN is of most note lately for an university founded here, in 1734, by his late majesty.

Duchy of **HANOVER**, is very fruitful, has fine meadows and fields, breeds excellent horses, and affords sheep and wool for export, and salt and tobacco sufficient for home consumption.

The chief town of this duchy is

HANOVER, the metropolis, and the seat of the present elector. It is pleasantly situated, in a sandy soil, on the river Leine, which is navigable here for small boats. Here are four trading fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners. It was once a free imperial city, and a hanse-town, when it had a flourishing commerce [see the article **HANSE-TOWNS**] but its chief trade is now in beer.

BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG DUCHY, in which Zell is comprehended, and therefore called Lunenburg-Zell, has the dominions of Brandenburg and Mecklenburg on the east; the county of Hoya, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, on the west; the territories of Lubec and Hamburg, and the duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg, on the north; the duchy of Brunswick, the bishopric of Hildesheim, and the duchy of Calenberg, on the south.—The duchy abounds with woods and forest, consisting of good fir, oak, and elm, which they sell to the Hamburgers and the Dutch, together with wild swine, and all sorts of deer, and other venison; of which there is such plenty, that the neighbouring princes and nobility have an annual assembly here for hunting.—A great part of it consists of vast heaths and wastes, the largest of which is on the west side, between Lunenburg and Harburg, where it is desert for several leagues; yet in the barren parts the inhabitants keep bees, and make great profit of their honey and wax.—Their lakes, pools, and rivers, abound with good fish, and breed great numbers of pheasants.

ZELL lies on a sandy plain, near the conflux of the Aller and Fuhse, 24 miles north of Hanover, 32 north-east from Brunswick, 35 south of Lunenburg, and 47 south of Harburg. Between this town and Harburg it is a sandy road, with scarce any thing but heath. Though there is a great deal of heath between this town and Hanover, yet the country is very well cultivated; for the inhabitants not only make turf of the heath for fuel, but it also serves for pasturage and manure.—There is a trade from hence to Bremen by the river Aller.

WALSTRADÉ, on the river Bohme, is a considerable town, with a good trade in honey, wax, wool, and beer. It stands in a pleasant valley, encompassed with woods and mountains.

HARBURG, on the river Lotze, near it's influx into the Elbe, almost over against Hamburg. It has great privileges, is populous, and enjoys a pretty good trade, having near as convenient a situation for it as Hamburg, with a tolerable

harbour, which has been much improved since it fell into the hands of a power able to protect it from the insults that Hamburg is liable to from it's neighbours. The islands between this and Hamburg are all of them very agreeable, being surrounded with dykes, and by that means being recovered out of the Elbe, and made firm. They look much like the meadows in Holland, and bring the owners a good revenue.

LUNENBURG, which gives name to the duchy, and is it's metropolis, stands on the river Elmenaw, which is navigable here, and falls into the Elbe 13 miles below the town.—It's chief trade is in salt, made from springs that rise within the walls: the water is greenish, but a mixture of lead purifies it, and makes it preferable to that of all other salt springs.

The salt-houses are fenced, and constantly guarded, as being the main support of the city, a considerable branch of the elector's revenue, and an incessant employment for the poor. The salt is esteemed the best in Germany for colour and taste, and, therefore, much of it is exported.

DANNEBERG, which gave title to a branch of the family, stands in the most eastern part of the duchy, on the river Jetze, 6 miles from it's influx into the Elbe, and 33 south-east of Lunenburg. It is the chief town of the rich and fruitful country of this name.

SNECKENBURG, which belongs to this county, is a large trading town, at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weckto, or Belle, 65 miles south-east of Lunenburg.

SAXE-LAWENBURG DUCHY is the farthest province to the north-east of the king of Great-Britain's dominions, and lies on the north and south banks of the Elbe, between Holstein on the west and north; Mecklenburg on the east; and Lunenburg on the south. It abounds in pasture and good cattle, is well supplied with wood and water, and is, in short, much of the same nature with Holstein, and has some small, but populous trading towns on the Elbe, besides it's capital.

LAWENBURG TOWN is well situated for trade, only that is most engrossed by Hamburg.

The **DUCHY OF BREMEN** has the Weser on the west; the Elbe, and part of Lawenburgh on the east; the German Sea on the north; and part of Verden, and Oldenburg, on the south. The Present State of Germany makes it 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, including Verden, between Bremen and Stade the country is desert, and either a barren sand or a morass; but the other parts towards the rivers are very pleasant, and abound with fields, meadows, and orchards. The situation of the country between two such navigable rivers has turned the thoughts of it's inhabitants in general to trade.

REMARKS.

The Swedes continued their masters till 1712, when this country, and Verden, was conquered by the king of Denmark. This prince mortgaged it soon to the late elector of Hanover; who, in 1715, had 250,000*l.* granted him by the parliament of England, to enable him to make the purchase of it. There was an opposition, indeed, made to it, in both houses, and a clamour raised against it without doors; but, however convenient it might be for the elector of Hanover, whose family was possessed of Bremen once before, and to whose dominions it lay contiguous, the British legislature wisely judged it might be of the most dangerous consequence to the crown of Great-Britain that any foreign prince, especially a maritime power, should hold the key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Weser.

Any one who takes the pains to peruse the maps of this part of the empire will perceive, that, whilst that king was in possession of the duchies of Bremen and Verden, he was master of the sea-coast from Denmark almost to the Seven Provinces. The maps shew that the Elbe runs, for above 500 miles through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the rest of Germany; and that the Weser passes, for above 250 miles, through Hesse, Westphalia, Oldenburg, and some other countries of the empire; and the vast importance of these rivers to the British trade will be confessed by every one who considers that all our woollen, and other English manufactures, and almost all our commodities, both domestic and foreign, to the value of above 300,000*l.* a year, are by those streams conveyed to innumerable markets; and that, by the same navigation, a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreign power, either to lock it from us, or to lay what impositions they pleased thereon, as might have been the case, if his late Britannic majesty had not got Bremen and Verden out of the hands of the king of Denmark. In 1720 the crown of Sweden consented in form to the dismemberment of this duchy from it's other dominions, and confirmed it to the house of Brunswick.

STADE, the second town in the duchy next to Bremen, has a good trade and air, in a fruitful country, on the river Zwinga, Schwingel, which falls into the Elbe two miles below it, 27 miles west of Hamburg, and 44 north of Bremen.

This, besides it's having been a free imperial city, and one of the hanse-towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges, with a right of toll for ships passing up the Elbe; but became so poor, by Hamburg's outstripping it, that it was forced to sell it's stock to that city, and put itself under the protection

protection of the archbishop of Bremen, it having formerly been the capital of a marquisate of its own name, which was annexed to that see by its marquis, in the 13th century. After its above-mentioned decay, our English merchants, upon some disgust taken at Hamburg, removed hither; which revived the trade, so that it again became rich and populous, and is in good condition at present, though the English returned to Hamburg.

Here is a large commodious haven, that will admit larger ships than Hamburg: and, as it stands fairer for trade than Bremen, and 30 miles nearer the sea, 'tis thought strange that it has not more engaged the attention of the ministry of Hanover.

BRUNSHUSEN, at the mouth of the Schwing, a fort where our king has a considerable toll; all ships, except the Hamburgers, that come up the Elbe out of the sea, being obliged to stop here, and give an account of their lading; for which, when they come to Hamburg, they must pay a certain duty to a comptroller, placed there by the government of Hanover: and an English man of war, of 24 guns, rides at anchor on the Elbe, at the entrance into the Schwing, in order to oblige them to bring to; which vessel is of great service also to the English trade and navigation in these parts, for preventing clandestine practices, and preserving the rights and freedom of our commerce.

RITZBUTLE, a bailiwick, consisting of a castle with fourteen villages, belonging to the Hamburgers, and situate on the coast where the South Elbe falls into the North Sea, not ten miles from the utmost point of land of this country, and 32 north-west of Stade. Here the Hamburgers have a pretty good harbour, called Cuhaven, which is of great benefit to ships coming on the Elbe in winter, when the river is full of ice. Here likewise their ships often stop, at their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news, and to know whether all is well with the city, before they venture up. Here are their privileged pilots, who, by their statutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at sea, near the outermost buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occasion shall require, on board of every ship coming into the Elbe.

BREMEN, the capital of the duchy, stands in a fruitful plain, 23 miles east of Oldenburgh, 60 south-west of Hamburg, 55 east of Embden, 83 north-west of Brunswick, 80 west of Lunenburg, 65 west of Zell, 90 north of Munster, and about 460 north-west of Vienna.

'Tis a great, populous, and flourishing town, a free Imperial city, and the third in rank among the hanse. The inhabitants have the privilege of fishing from the bridge of Hoyer, four German miles above Bremen, down to the sea, as likewise in divers rivers which flow into the Weser. The city is well supplied with fish, both from its rivers and the sea; and they have every month several sorts in season. Among others, they catch great quantities of salmon and lampreys, the former of which, being dried and smoked, and the latter pickled, are in great esteem throughout all Germany. It has a jurisdiction about 10 miles round, abounding with pastures well stocked with cattle, and is bordered with territories belonging to his Britannic majesty, for which reason it always courts his favours.

HANSE-TOWNS. The hanseatic society was a league between several maritime cities of Germany, for the mutual protection of their commerce. Bremen and Amsterdam were the first that formed it, whose trade received such advantage, by their fitting out two men of war each, to convey their merchants ships, that more cities continually entered into their league: even kings and princes made treaties with them, and were often glad of their assistance and protection: by which means they grew so powerful, both by sea and land, that they raised armies as well as navies, enjoyed countries in sovereignty, and made peace and war, though always in defence of their TRADE, as if they had been a united state, or commonwealth.

At this time also abundance of cities, though they had no great interest in trade, or intercourse with the ocean, came into their alliance for the preservation of their liberties; so that, in 1200, we find no less than 72 cities in the list of the towns of the hanse; particularly Bremen, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Dort, Bruges, Ostend, Dunkirk, Middleburg, Calais, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Rochel, St. Malo, Bayonne, Bilbao, Lisbon, Seville, Cadiz, Carthagen, Barcelona, Marfeilles, Leghorn, Naples, Messina, London, Lubec, Roslock, Stralsund, Stetin, Wismar, Koningberg, Dantzic, Elbing, Marienburg.

This alliance of theirs was so powerful, that their ships of war were often hired by other princes, to assist them against their enemies. They not only awed, but frequently defeated, all that opposed their commerce; and particularly, in 1348, they took such revenge of the Danish fleet in the Sound, for having interrupted their commerce, that Waldemar III, then king of Denmark, for the sake of peace, gave them up all Schonea for 16 years, by which they commanded the passage of the Sound in their own right.

In 1428, they made war upon Erick king of Denmark, with 250 sail, and 12,000 men on board, sacking and plundering

all the coast of Jutland, &c. so that he was glad to make peace with them. Many were the privileges granted and confirmed to them by the kings Lewis XI, Charles VIII, Lewis XII, and Francis I, of France, as well as by the emperor Charles V, who had divers loans of money from them; and by king Henry III, who also incorporated them into a trading body, in acknowledgment for money which they advanced to him, as well as for the good service they did him by their naval forces in 1206.

They exercised a jurisdiction among themselves, to which purpose they were divided into four colleges, or provinces, distinguished by the names of their four principal cities, viz. Lubec, Cologne, Brunswick, and Dantzic, wherein were held their courts of judicature. They had a common stock or treasury of Lubec, and power to call an assembly as often as necessary.

They kept magazines or warehouses for the sale of their merchandizes in London, Bruges, Antwerp, Berg in Norway, Revel in Livonia, Novogrod in Muscovy, which were exported to most parts of Europe in English, Dutch, and Flemish bottoms. One of their principal magazines was at London, where a society of German merchants was formed, called the Steel-yard company, to which Edward I. had granted great privileges; which in 1552, in the reign of Edward VI, were revoked by act of parliament, on complaint of the English merchants, that this company had engrossed the cloth trade, that in the preceding year they had exported 50,000 pieces, while all the English together had shipped off but 1100.

Queen Mary, who ascended the throne the year following, having resolved to marry Philip the emperor's son, suspended the execution of the act for three years; but after that term, whether by reason of some new statute, or in pursuance of that of king Edward, the privileges of the said company were no longer regarded, and all efforts of the hanse-towns, to recover this loss, were in vain.

Another accident that happened to their mortification, was while queen Elizabeth was at war with the Spaniards; when Sir Francis Drake, meeting with 60 ships in the Tagus, laden with corn, belonging to the hanse-towns, took out all the corn as contraband goods, which they were forbid to carry by their original patent.

The hanse-towns having complained of this to the diet of the empire, the queen sent an ambassador thither to declare her reasons. The king of Poland likewise interested himself in the affair, because the city of Dantzic was under his protection. At last, though the queen strove hard to preserve the commerce of the English in Germany, the emperor excluded the English company of merchant-adventurers, who had considerable factories at Stade, Embden, Bremen, Hamburg, and Elbing, from all trade in the empire. In short, the hanse-towns in Germany, in particular, were not only in so flourishing, but in so formidable a state, from the 14th to the 16th centuries, that they gave umbrage to all the neighbouring princes, who threatened a strong confederacy against them; and, as the first step towards it, commanded all the cities within their dominion or jurisdiction, to withdraw from the union, or hanse, and be not farther concerned therein. This immediately separated all the cities of England, France, Spain, and Italy, from them.

The hanse, on the other hand, apprehending danger, prudently put themselves under the protection of the empire. And, as the other cities just now mentioned, had withdrawn from them, so they withdrew from several more, excluding them from their society; and made a decree among themselves, that none should be admitted to their confederacy, but such cities as stood within the limits of the German empire, or were dependent thereon, except Dantzic, which continued a member, though in no wise dependent on the empire, only it had been summoned formerly to the imperial diet. By this means they maintained their confederacy for the protection of their trade, as it was begun, without being any more envied by their neighbours. Hereby, likewise, they were reduced to Lubec, Bremen, Hamburg, and Dantzic; in the first of which they kept their register, and held assemblies once in three years at least. But this hanse, or union, has been for some time dissolved, and now they carry on a trade every one separately for itself, according to the stipulation in such treaties of peace, &c. as are made for the empire, betwixt the emperor and other potentates.

HARPINEER, or **HARPONEER**, a fisherman, employed in the whale-fishery of Greenland, who manages and throws the harping-iron, which is a sort of spear fastened to a line, wherewith they catch whales and other large fish in the Greenland seas.

The harponeers are the most dextrous persons among the ship's crew. Their place is at the end of the pinnace, and they direct the steersman as well as the rowers. When they come within reach of the whale, they dart their harpoon with great vehemence into a part near his head, so as to penetrate the skin and fat, and enter deep into the fleshy part. Upon which the whale dives with surprizing swiftness to the bottom, and, when he returns to the surface of the sea to take breath,

breath, the harpooner strikes him again with another harpoon. See the articles FISHERIES, GREENLAND FISHERY.

HARTFORDSHIRE, is bounded on the east by Essex, on the south by Middlesex, on the north by Cambridgeshire, and on the west by Buckinghamshire, and is about 130 miles in compass.

The fertility of it's soil is more owing to the culture bestowed on it, than to it's own natural goodness, but the air is accounted very healthful.

It's chief rivers are the Lea, Coln, Stort, Ver, and New-River. As there is little or no manufacture in this shire, which is full of maltsters, millers, dealers in corn, &c. so the trade would be inconsiderable, but that it is a great thoroughfare, and for it's neighbourhood to London, which makes the chief market-towns much frequented, for the sale of wheat, barley, and all sorts of grain, the growth of this and several other shires.

HARTFORD, the shire-town, is pleasantly seated on the river Lea. The chief commodities of it's market, are wheat, malt, and wool. 'Tis said it sends 5000 quarters of malt weekly to London, by the river Lea. It's fair on St. Simon and Jude is for all sorts of cattle; as is also another on the Saturday fortnight after Easter, and the Monday following; and it's Midsummer fair is chiefly for horses.

HITCHIN, is reputed the second town in the shire for number of streets, houses, and inhabitants. Great store of malt is made here, and the market at which great quantities of it and corn are sold, is held by prescription free from the payment of toll for any fort of grain that is vended here.

WARE, is one of the most noted towns in the county, and a place of trade by means of it's market, and it's navigable river the Lea. The market is a very great one, especially for corn; and the malt trade here and in the neighbourhood is so large, that 5000 quarters of malt and corn are often sent in a week to London by the barges, which return chiefly with coals.

HEMPSTED is a pretty populous town, watered by the river Gade; the market is one of the greatest in the county, for wheat brought out of the neighbouring counties; and 'tis said to exceed even that of Farnham in Surry, 20,000l. a week having been frequently returned there for meal only, which is ground by eleven pair of mills, within four miles of the place. Besides it's great corn market, some thousand pounds are returned here every year, in the mean manufacture of straw-hats.

TRING is a pretty little town, and the market no inconsiderable one, especially for corn, of which here are very large granaries.

BARNET is a famous market for corn and cattle, especially swine.

HATS, make a considerable article in commerce. Those most in esteem are made of the pure hair of the castor or beaver; which are plentifully taken in Canada, and other provinces of North America. They are also made of the hair or wool of divers other animals.—The method of making all is much the same.—To make the beaver hats, they tear off the long and short hair from the skin, with knives suitable to the occasion. After which, they proportion the quantity of the divers sorts of beaver hair, by mixing one third of the dry castor or two thirds of old coat, which is a term for a skin that has been worn sometimes by the Indians of America, who catch and sell them to the Europeans. This hair, so mixed, is carded and weighed out into parcels, according to the size and thickness of the hat intended. The stuff is now laid on the hurdle, with an instrument called a bow, resembling that of a violin, but larger; whose string being worked with a small bow-stick, and made to play on the furs, they fly and mix them together, the dust and filth at the same time passing through the chinks. Instead of a bow, some hat-makers use a sence of hair, through which they pass the stuff. Thus they form hats of an oval figure, ending in an acute angle at top. With what stuff remains, they strengthen them where slenderest.—Yet they designedly make them thicker in the brim, near the crown, than towards the circumference, or in the crown itself. They next harden the stuff so managed into more compact flakes, by pressing down a hardened leather thereon. This done, they are carried to the bason, upon which laying one of the hardened flake, sprinkled over with water, and a sort of mould applied thereto, the heat of a small fire, with the water and pressing, embody the stuff into a slight hairy sort of stuff, or felt: after which, turning up the edges all around over the mould, they lay it by, and thus proceed to another. This finished, the two are joined together, so as to meet in an angle at top, forming one conical cap.—The next step they take is to remove the basoned hat to a trough, resembling a mill hopper, which is a copper-kettle filled with water and grounds, kept hot for the purpose; and after being dipped in the kettle, the basoned hat is laid on the sloping side, called the plank. Here they proceed to work it, by rolling and unrolling it again and again, one part after another, first with the hand, and afterwards with a small wooden roller, taking care to dip it from time to time: till at length, by thus tulling and thickening it four or

five hours, it is brought to the dimensions intended. To secure the hands from being injured by this frequent rolling, &c. they usually guard them with a kind of thick leather gloves. The hat thus wrought, they give it the proper form, by laying the conical cap on a wooden block, of the crown size, and tying it round with a string, called a commander. After which, with a bent iron called a flasper, they gradually beat down the commander all around, till it has reached the bottom of the block: thus the crown is formed; what remains at bottom belongs to the string, below the brim.—Then it is set to dry, and, when sufficiently so, they singe it, by holding it over a flair of straw, or shavings, and afterwards rubbing it with pumice to take off the coarser nap; then it is rubbed over afresh with seal-skin, to lay the nap still finer; and, lastly, it is carded with a fine card, to raise the fine cotton; then fitting it to the block, they tie it cut round the edges, and send it to be dyed, which is done in a copper so large, as to hold 10 or 12 dozen of hats. The dye used for this purpose, is made of logwood, verdigrise, copperas, alder bark, galls, and sumac. Thus the hat is kept boiling for about three quarters of an hour, then taken out to cool, and returned to the dye, for ten or twelve times successively.—The dye being compleated, the hat is returned to the maker, who dries it, by hanging it on the roof of a kind of stove, heated with a charcoal fire. When dry, it is stiffened with melted glue, or rather GUM SENEGAL [see that article] applied thereon, by first smearing it, and beating it over with a brush, and rubbing it with the hand. Then it is steamed on the steaming-bason, which is a little hearth or fire-place, raised about three feet high, with an iron plate laid over it, exactly covering the hearth, or fire-place. On this plate they first spread clothes, which being sprinkled over with water to secure the hat from burning, it is placed thereon, brim downwards. When moderately hot, the workman strikes gently on the brim with the flat of the hand, to make the jointings incorporate and bind, so as not to appear; turning it from time to time, and at last setting it on the crown.—When thus sufficiently steamed and dried, it is put again on the block, brushed, ironed, and well smoothed, and fitted for lining.

REMARK'S before the last war.

The process of hat-making, or indeed of any other general manufacture, may appear insipid to those who do not enter into the public utility of bringing every manufactural art to it's last perfection; for excelling in that, and the article of cheapness, are the great wiredraws to gain or advance any branch of trade. And, by means of the goodness and cheapness of this manufacture, we have taken this trade out of the hands of the French, for this was a very considerable manufacture once in France, hats being made in immense quantities at Caudebec on the river Seine, and exported in great quantities to England, Spain, Italy, and Germany: but we have not only left off wearing these French hats, but have fallen into the way of making light hats like these, so much better, and yet so cheap, that there are scarce any hats at present made at Caudebec; what they use being made now chiefly at Rouen and Paris, and very few exported in comparison to what there used to be; for England now supplies Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Germany, with hats in extraordinary quantities: and this manufacture, considered as a merchandize for exportation, is, in a great measure, lost to that kingdom. But,

As this general manufacture greatly depends on the furr trade of North America; and as the French at Canada, and on the river Mississippi, are using every endeavour to draw off the Indians from our alliances, from whom we have a considerable part of the furr trade; it behoves us to be on our guard, to protect our colonies from their incroachment, and to cultivate a commerce with the Indians to the utmost degree it will admit of, by bringing them into such a civilized European way of living, as may occasion the greater vent of our manufactures among them. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FRENCH AMERICA, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI.

It is true, the northern parts of Europe, as well as of America, furnish us with great variety of furs, of great softness and lustre. Yet the less quantity we take from foreign countries, and the more we take by means of our own plantation-trade in return for our own manufactures, the greater will our exports thither be, and the more independent shall we be in regard to materials, which support so many valuable manufactures, as the skin trade with foreigners in general does.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES, being ceded to the crown of Great-Britain by the definitive treaty, [see AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA], we shall, in time, very probably, be able to grasp into British hands, the whole furr and peltry trade of Canada: and this, added to that of Hudson's Bay, and what other branches thereof

thereof we may naturally be presumed to derive from our other new acquisitions on the continent of America, especially, if we shall be able effectually to attach the Indians to our interest, will enable us to obtain great plenty of materials for the manufacture of HATS of the best quality: and if we can be able to make them of a price suitable to the abilities of our foreigners customers to buy them, we can never want a vent of that article; and may, at a reasonable rate, supply our home consumption with a very good commodity.

HAWKERS and **PEDLARS**, in a trading sense, are such, who go up and down the town and country on foot or on horseback with packs, &c. to sell goods by retail.

The principal laws of England relating to hawkers and pedlars.

By stat. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 25. every hawker, pedlar, or petty chapman, or other trading person, going from town to town, or other men's houses,

	1. s. d.
If on foot must pay — — —	4 0 0
If with horse, ass, or mule, for every one of them four pounds a-piece	4 0 0

Every hawker, &c. must take a licence; and, if he travels without, or contrary to his licence, he forfeits for every offence, to the informer and poor of the parish where discovered, 12l.

And, if he refuse to shew his licence, being demanded by any officer of the peace, he forfeits to the poor where the demand shall be made 5l. and for non-payment of the same must suffer as a vagrant, and be sent to the house of correction.

Whoever shall forge, or travel with any forged licence, forfeits 50l. one moiety to the king, the other to the prosecutor, to be recovered in the courts of Westminster, and be subject to the penalties for forgery.

Persons sued may plead the general issue, and give the act in evidence, and, if verdict for them, shall have treble costs. Constables, or other officers, neglecting or refusing to assist in the execution of this act, convicted on oath before a justice of the peace, forfeit for every offence to the poor and prosecutor, to be levied by distress, &c. 2l.

Any person may seize and detain such hawker till he produce a licence, or, if trading without a licence, till notice be given to a parish officer, who is to carry him before a justice of peace, who, upon confession of the party, or oath of one witness, that the offender had traded without a licence produced, shall by warrant levy 12l.

Not to extend to sellers of

Acts of parliament.	Markets, selling goods therein.
Almanacks licensed.	
Fairs, selling goods therein.	
Fish.	
Fruit.	
Gazettes.	
	Prayers, forms thereof.
	Papers licensed.
	Proclamations.
	Victuals.

Makers or their agents, apprentices, children, servants, of any goods or wares in this kingdom, and selling goods of their own making.

Artificers, coopers, glaziers, harness-makers, plumbers, tinkers, or other persons trading in mending kettles, tubs, household goods, or harness, going about and carrying with them proper materials for mending the same.

All persons may sell any sorts of goods in any public market or fair, as they lawfully might have done before the making the said act. And, by 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 27. the act is not to extend to licence any hawker, &c. to sell any wares, &c. in any city, borough, town corporate, or market-town, otherwise than might have been done before the making the said act.

By 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. the said acts are continued from 1710, for 96 years; and every person trading as a hawker, &c. is to produce his licence on demand, or else he shall be liable to the same penalties, as if he had traded without a licence. And, if any person lend a licence to hire, the lender or the trader shall forfeit 40l. one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer, to be recovered by action of debt, information, &c. and the lender shall forfeit the licence. But traders in the woollen and linen manufactures, selling their goods at markets or fairs, are not to be deemed hawkers. And makers and sellers of English bone-lace, going from house to house, &c. are not adjudged hawkers, by 4 Geo. I. c. 6.

A conviction of a hawker refusing to produce his licence.

Memorandum, That on, &c. at, &c. A. B. came before me, and, as well for himself as the poor of the parish, exhibited an information on oath against E. F. of, &c. that he the said E. F. not being the real worker or maker of any goods, wares, or merchandizes, within the kingdom of England, &c. and not being the apprentice or servant of any real worker or maker of goods, wares, or merchandizes, on, &c. in the parish of, &c. was found wandering abroad from house to house, and trading as a hawker, pedlar, and petty chap-

man, carrying about with him divers parcels of goods, viz. &c. and that, in such wandering, he the said E. F. did expose to sale several goods, not being in any market or fair, without producing any licence for the same, contrary to the statute in that case made. And the said E. F. after having been first summoned, in his own proper person, appearing before me one of his majesty's justices of, &c. (and the information being read to him and heard) he the said E. F. did confess before me, that he did on, &c. sell, &c. as in the information mentioned. Whereupon it doth manifestly appear, that he the said E. F. is guilty of the offence laid to his charge in the information; and I do hereby declare him convicted thereof, &c. In witness, &c.

A warrant to levy 12l. for hawking without a licence.

Effex, ff. Whereas information hath been given unto me, one of his majesty's justices of the peace for the said county, upon the oath of C. D. of, &c. that A. P. of, &c. labourer, did, on the 4th of May instant, trade and hawk without licence, in, &c. and carried about, and exposed to sale, three pieces of silks, called, &c. he not being the maker of such silks, nor apprentice, agent, child, or servant, to the real worker or maker of such silks he so carried abroad and exposed to sale as aforesaid, which the said A. P. hath confessed before me upon his examination, contrary to a late act of parliament for licensing hawkers, &c. For which said offence he the said A. P. hath forfeited the sum of 12l. the one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the parish of, &c. where the said offence was committed: these are therefore to authorize and require you, or any of you, upon sight hereof, to demand of the said A. P. the said sum of 12l. and, in case he refuse to pay the same, that then you levy the said sum by distress and sale of the goods, wares, and merchandizes, of the said A. P. (tending to him the overplus, if any be, reasonable charges for taking the said distress being first deducted) to be employed to the use above-mentioned; and, in case of his inability for payment thereof, that then you forthwith bring the said A. P. before me, or any other of his majesty's justices of the peace of the county aforesaid, to be farther dealt with as the laws in that case provided do direct. And hereof fail not. Given, &c. See the article **FAIRS**.

H E M P, may be ranked in the same class with flax. See the article **FLAX**. When the hemp and flax have been gathered, which is done by plucking them from the earth, the stalks are exposed to the sun, in order to ripen the seeds, which are afterwards threshed out of the heads, and then the stalks are tied up in bundles, and steeped in a standing water (the clearest is always the best) they are fastened to poles, and left to soak about 15 days.

When the substance of the stalk is almost rotten, the bundles are taken out and well dried. But, instead of steeping the flax in a standing water, it is usually exposed to the moist air of the night, and the heat of the sun, alternately, by which it receives a finer colour. When the flax and hemp are well penetrated, and afterwards completely dried, they are bruised by handfuls on a block, with a kind of mallet; all the bullen, which is the inward substance of the stem, flies off in shivers, by the force of the blows, and nothing remains in the hand of the beater but the thin bark, disengaged in large threads, through the whole length of the stem. This parcel of threads is afterwards hung on a perpendicular board, and bruised with a wooden beetle, in order to shake out all the little straws that may happen to remain in the bullen. All the gross parts are now separated from the stem, and the threads of the bark that remain in the hand of the manufacturer are intirely pure, and receive their perfection from the comb; or, in other words, they are drawn first through large cards, or iron teeth, and afterwards through others that are finer, that they may be purified from whatever may be still too thick and gross. This refuse is what they call tow, of which matches for the artillery are made, and likewise a thick yarn, for packing cloths, whose usefulness is infinite, since they wrap up and preserve the most valuable commodities in their transportation from one country to another.

When the hemp has been thus prepared, it is tied up in bundles, to be sent to the rope-yards; but, if it prove fine and fit for the spinster and weaver, it is formed into twills, and fitted for the distaff and spindle.

REMARKS before the last war.

Hemp and flax are the materials of variety of profitable manufactures; for, though weaving of linen is not so much used in South-Britain as of woollen, yet in North-Britain it is, and may be further improved, not so much by laws to direct the workmen in their making it, as by apt methods to encourage them: and even in South-Britain several counties are employed thereon, who not only supply themselves, but furnish those bordering on them with such cloth as answers the ends of foreign linens we were wont to import: besides which, great quantities of ticking, of all finesses, inclt, tapes, sackings, girtwip, and many other things, are made thereof: also cordage, twine, nets, with multitudes of other manufactures,

factures, which employ the poor, and bring, by their exports, profit to the nation; and, with regard to sail-cloth, we have made a wonderful progress therein, at the expence of private stocks. But, as we are under the necessity of importing very large quantities of hemp from foreign countries, the production of this article among ourselves, and in our plantations, cannot be too plentifully cultivated, nor too highly encouraged. See the article NAVAL STORES.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE, 1763.

However excusable we might be before the last war, for not supplying ourselves from our North American colonies with HEMP, which has cost this nation such large out-goings to Russia for that purpose, it is to be hoped we shall now be no longer neglectful of a matter so apparently interesting to the kingdom; otherwise, to what end have we made those conquests, and to what end have such extensive territories been ceded to the crown of Great-Britain? We can no longer complain for want of variety of climates, wherein this article may be plentifully produced, and that of the best qualities, and to the best advantage, as well of those engaged in it, as the kingdom in general. As our whole mercantile, as well royal maritime power, depends on supplying ourselves at a reasonable expence with cordage, we shall never longer disregard a matter so manifestly lucrative to the kingdom, out of complaisance to a nation we are not sufficiently obligated to, as to throw away near a million a year, for what we can have in our own territories.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating to HEMP and FLAX.

By stat. 15 Car. II. c. 15. Foreigners using the trades of breaking, hickling, or dressing hemp or flax, and of making and whitening thread, and spinning, weaving, making, whitening, and bleaching cloth, made of hemp or flax only, and making twine, or nets, for fishery or stores, cordage, or making tapestry hangings, and taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy before two justices, shall enjoy all privileges whatsoever as the natural-born subjects of this kingdom, after having exercised the said trades three years; nor shall they be liable to other impositions than natural-born subjects, unless they trade as merchants to and from foreign parts, in which case they shall pay aliens custom for five years next ensuing, and no longer.

HEREFORDSHIRE, is bounded on the north by Gloucestershire; on the south by Monmouthshire; on the west by Brecknockshire and Radnorshire; and on the north by Worcestershire and Shropshire; and is about 108 miles in circumference.

The air is accounted good, and the soil is very fruitful, abounding in good corn and pasture, wool, water, and wood; and their cyder, the general drink of the county, was generally esteemed the best in the kingdom till of late years, that the rough has been preferred to the soft, and the Southam cyder of Devonshire has justly got the preference; not but that there is a great quantity of rough cyder made of late years in this county.

The rivers which water this fruitful county are the Frome, Loden, Lug, Wye, Wadel, Arrow, Dare, and Monaw: they abound with salmon, especially the Wye.

It's metropolis, and only city, is HEREFORD, seated on the Wye. It's chief manufacture is gloves, and other leather commodities.

LEOMINSTER, or LEMSTER, is a large, handsome, populous borough town. It lies in a rich valley, through which three rivers run swiftly, where the inhabitants have mills, and other machinery in the various branches of their trade, which is very considerable in wool, hat-making, leather-dressing, &c.

KYNETON, is inhabited chiefly by clothiers, who drive a good trade in narrow cloths, and it's market is one of the most considerable in the county. Some of the wool of this county is esteemed as good as Spanish wool.

R E M A R K S.

This county is reputed the orchard of England, it excelling many other places, in general, in good husbandry. It is observable, that here the wisest and best of our gentry are remarkably careful in pursuing such kind of husbandry as best agrees with the nature of the soil where they inhabit. From personages of the first rank, even to the meanest cottager, every habitation is encompassed with orchards and gardens, and in most places the very hedges are enriched with numberless rows of fruit trees. For the breed of large flocks of sheep, the shepherds of Lemster-orer and Irchin-Field are incomparably more expert than those of any other county in England, and therefore the wool is superior. Upon the whole, this county seems to be an example to all others in the kingdom.

HERRING-FISHERY. Under the article FISHERIES we have given a pretty ample account of the white herring branch: wherefore here we shall only observe the extraordinary progress which has been made therein since the parliament has been pleased to encourage the same.

The Society of the Free British Fishery have now off Shetland 50 vessels, among which is the Prince of Wales's store-ship, burden 330 tons; the whole protected by his majesty's floop the Grampus. Besides the above vessels, there are 4 buffes from the chamber of Whitehaven, 2 from that of Edinburgh, 2 from Montrose, and 2 from Inverness; the total (with those of the society) make 60 British vessels; on board of which are above 1000 shipped men. There are not many apprentices on board yet; but it is assured that the society will have a large number next year.—Besides the above vessels, there are many private adventurers.

June 25, 1753.

FREE BRITISH FISHERY OFFICE, Royal-Exchange.

To the Trustees of the several Charity-Schools and Work-houses.

The Society of the FREE BRITISH FISHERY, being desirous of furnishing employment for the POOR (particularly children from 8 to 14 years of age) throughout the kingdom, in order to ease the several parishes, to which they are now a burden, and to assist in training up the present growing generation to INDUSTRY, to prevent their falling into the vices now in fashion, the bad consequences of which are but too visible at this time: do hereby propose to employ charity-schools and workhouses in braiding of nets for their fishery, in manner following, viz.

The charity-school, or workhouse, hires a man or woman, by the quarter, the half, or whole year, to teach the children, &c. to braid; which is first done with an ordinary sort of twine, till such time as the children, &c. are capable of braiding the twine, so as to be fit for the society's nets.

As soon as a number of children, &c. are become expert at braiding, then the society will supply such school or workhouse with a quantity of good twine, in proportion to the number of children, &c. qualified to braid. This twine is weighed out to the school or workhouse, for which the overseer must give a receipt. The charge of carriage, out and home, is to be borne by the school or workhouse; and is weighed out, by the overseer, on delivering it, when braided, to the society (or their agent) who will make an equitable allowance for wastage in the braiding.

The meshes are of two kinds, viz. the Shetland, or large mesh, and the Yarmouth, or small mesh. The dimensions of these will be best known by the samples, which the society give, at their office, to each school or workhouse (or their agents) where they may likewise have pins, of the proper dimensions, for the performing this work.

The prices paid by the society for braiding are, 16 d. per score yards for the Shetland mesh, and 18 d. per score yards for the Yarmouth mesh.—Each yard (in length) both of the Shetland and Yarmouth netting, is to be 80 meshes deep.

It may be observed, that this sort of work (braiding) is better adapted to children than to grown persons.

By order of the COUNCIL,

John Lockman, Secretary.

R E M A R K S.

The Dutch, to the number of ten or eleven hundred sail, enter fishing upon the coast of Shetland the beginning of June, where they continue fishing till the beginning of September, during which space they load sundry times, carry the first to Holland, where they sell them at an exorbitant rate, seeing a hundred dollars is reckoned but a small price for a barrel of herrings at Amsterdam or Rotterdam, for the first that are caught upon this our coast; afterwards, when they are served, they send the other loads all over Europe, up the Mediterranean, and all over Italy; and the Italians, who are great eaters of fish, on account of their many lent, readily barter their goods with the Dutch for their herrings, the product of our coasts; the profit of which must, upon a moderate computation, bring the Dutch in a million sterling annually; they even dispose of them at our own markets, and we have been so weak as to pay them ready money for them; so that, in this great article, the Dutch have hitherto outdone us, both in industry and prudence. But 'tis to be hoped, that we have at length seen through our mistake, and shall make the best advantage of this blessing, that the divine providence has thrown in our way.

The Dutch method of curing and lasting, or casking the herrings, though they have been always very shy, and backward to let any of the natives of the island of Shetland into it, yet, in spite of all the arts they could make use of to conceal that secret, it has been discovered, and their method is this:

After they have hawled in their nets, which they drag in the sterns of their vessels, backwards and forwards in traversing the coast, they throw them upon the ship's deck, which is cleared of every thing for that purpose; for they never carry any boats or yawls along with them, as they would be an incumbrance to them in dressing the herrings; they carry many hands on board, even to the number of thirty or forty

in each vessel, whom they separate into sundry divisions, and each division has a peculiar task; one part opens and guts the herrings, another cures and salts them, by lining or rubbing their insides with salt (which is all done upon the deck) the next packs them, and, between each row or division, they sprinkle handfuls of salt; then the coopers put the finishing hand to all, by heading the casks, and stowing them in the hold; thus they go on, while barrels and salt last, and, when that is exhausted, then they retire; but the jiggers or store-ships commonly provide them with every thing necessary, so that they seldom or never depart the coast before they are brimful; and really (to give them their due) they are the best fishermen in the world; for they are not only ingenious in every article of their tackling or materials, but also diligent, industrious, and endure the great fatigue to admiration. See FISHERIES.

Further REMARKS since the last edition.

It has greatly puzzled and confounded many men of sense, candour, and integrity, how it has come to pass, that this design has not succeeded to the degree it was at the first expected: it has not seemed to want any necessary encouragement, which makes it the more extraordinary. What avails the liberality of nature to us, in bestowing upon us such immense shoals of these excellent fish, if we will suffer our neighbour and rival nations to reap the benefits of our rights and property, and we not? However bountiful we may chuse to be to others, does it not appear impolitic to make so little advantage of what foreigners do so great, at our expence? Where the fault lies, I am not able to conjecture, it being thought the gentlemen, who have had the management of this design, have not been less judicious than incorruptible. The only colourable reason, which I have ever heard for the ill-success, has been, that we are not able to carry on these our own coast-fisheries at so cheap a rate as foreigners are able to do, though it has received such encouragement.—If this is the only true cause, should it not alarm us? If the extent of our public debts and taxes are the occasion of this, may they not soon operate as fatally upon our other branches of traffic? For if our produce, as well as manufactures, come so dear to foreign countries, that they cannot purchase them, 'tis no wonder that they will give the preference to those sold by foreigners at a cheaper rate, although foreigners know those very produce comes from our own coasts? When foreigners experience this to be the case, in regard to our whole produce, no less than our manufactures in general, does it not become the wisdom of the nation to remove the cause, with all possible expedition, lest we irremediably lose gradually our other branches of trade? See the encouragement given by parliament to this FREE BRITISH FISHERY, at the end of this letter H.—THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

The landgrate of HESSE, in Germany, lies on the north side of the river Mayne. The whole country is bounded on the north by Westphalia; on the west by the duchy of Berg, and electorate of Triers; on the south by the electorate of Mentz, and Franconia; and on the east by the duchy of Weimar, and Thuringen.

The air is cold, but healthful, the water wholesome, and the soil fruitful, producing much corn, and, towards the banks of the Rhine and Lohn, grapes. Here are also large forests, with store of deer, and other game: and mountains, in which are some mines of copper and lead.

The chief commodity of this country is wool, the vallies abounding with sheep, which have the finest in Germany. It used to be bought by the English merchants, and made into cloth here, or in their factories abroad.

CASSEL, one of it's principal towns, seated in a rich pleasant plain, on the river Fuld, is a place of good trade for wool, and other merchandizes. It is observed, as a reproach to the inhabitants, that, for want of industry, they suffer other nations to run away with the profit of manufacturing their wool. The streets of this city are spacious, and full of shops, and here are several fine markets, with good provisions of all sorts.

SMALCALD, 50 miles south-east of Cassel, has a good trade for iron ware, many mines of the neighbourhood furnishing the inhabitants with plenty of that metal, which they work and send abroad for foreign parts. They also make and temper steel, from whence a village near it is called Stahlberg.

GISSEN is a fair town; it's trade is dressing and selling of cloth. FRIEDBURG is a rich and imperial city; it hath four annual fairs, one of which is held on the first Sunday after Trinity, in remembrance of the dedication of their church on that day, which at first brought only pedlars thither with toys, but came at last to a substantial trade.

WALDECK is a small city, the capital of a principality about 20 miles in extent, which is reckoned one of the most considerable and wealthiest in the empire, for it's bigness, and fertility in corn, wine, and pasture, besides mines of coal, iron, copper, lead, quicksilver, &c.

The bishopric of HILDESHEIM, in Germany. This country lies between the rivers Leina and Ocker, with Hal-

berstadt, on the north-west; and Lunenburg, or Zell, on the north; Grubenhagen on the south; and is elsewhere surrounded by the dominions of the duke of Brunswic.

The city of HILDESHEIM, which was one of the hanse-towns, stands on the river Innerste, 15 miles south-east from Hannover: it's chief trade is in corn.

HOLLAND. This province, including North Holland, otherwise called West Friesland, is bounded on the west by the German Ocean; on the north by the Zuyder Sea; on the east by the same sea, by the province of Utrecht, and part of Gelderland; and on the south by Dutch Brabant and Zealand. The soil is low and marshy; but, by the industry of the inhabitants in draining out the waters with mills and canals, it is made to yield very good pasture, and some corn. This province is divided into South Holland and North Holland, generally named West Friesland.

AMSTERDAM, the capital city of South Holland, is situated on the conflux of the Y and the Amstel.

The strong situation of this city, seconded by all the advantages that art can furnish, secures the town against the attempts of an enemy from without; and the popular government places the force and power of the city in the hands of her proper magistrates, who are too much interested in the happiness of it to wish a revolution. These circumstances ought naturally to procure a very great credit to the BANK, but are still insufficient to make money deposited there of greater value than what a man has in his own custody, which is in reality the case, however; and bank money is worth a great deal more than current. This is expressed by the word agio, a term denoting the difference between bank money and common specie. In 1690 the agio rose to 17 per cent. on account of a base coinage then made current; which being afterwards reduced to near the intrinsic value, the agio has been since from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$, and sometimes even 6 per cent. part of which may be accounted for thus: a ducatoon passes for 63 pence in current payment; but, when paid into the bank, it is only received for 60 pence, or 3 guilders, which is it's intrinsic value, the odd three-pence having been added to it to answer the charges of the mint. In the same manner wedges, bars, and ingots of gold and silver are received in the bank by their weight, and the sum brought to the account of the proprietor. Thus there is a real difference of 5 per cent. between bank and current money; but the agio fluctuates with the exchange; so that it is not absolutely determined by the difference of intrinsic value between one specie and the other. This will be understood more perfectly, by observing that all bills of exchange drawn upon Holland must, if the proprietor pleases, by the customs and laws of the country, be paid in bank, which necessarily obliges every considerable merchant to keep an open account there: and thus bills of exchange drawn upon Amsterdam or Rotterdam are, after acceptance, frequently lodged in the bank; and the acceptor is obliged, at the time they become due, to make a transfer of bank money to the proprietor's account, for the amount of the bill, which would otherwise be liable to a protest, without ever presenting it for payment, after it has been once accepted. Thus when large remittances are made upon the bankers of Amsterdam, and they are under a necessity from thence of having a great deal of money in bank, the agio rises; it sinks in proportion when, on the contrary, there are many sellers and few buyers. But, when this happens, the directors have recourse to stratagem, in order to keep up the value of the agio, by agreeing privately with some of the monied men to buy up such a quantity of bank money as answers the immediate necessity of the sellers. Thus appearances are saved; and, by supplying their agents with cash in the most secret manner, they support the common opinion, that the whole business of the bank of Amsterdam is managed by transfer, and that no money is ever issued thence upon any occasion.

It costs near a pound sterling to open an account with the bank, and six-pence for each transfer; and there is a penalty on every person that draws upon the bank within about two pounds sterling of the whole money he keeps there; and the advantage made upon all this is applied to pay the clerks, and defray other charges: whence it is evident, that every proprietor pays considerably for keeping his money in the bank, instead of drawing an interest upon it.

The reason of which is, a firm belief that it remains untouched, which opinion is industriously spread by those concerned.

If the bank lends money occasionally, it is certainly to the directors of the Lombard, an incorporated body, authorized to lend money upon pledges, at a moderate interest. This being granted, it will prove, indeed, that the bank traffics, in some proportion, as well as the other banks in Europe; but this can be no just cause of discredit, the money being advanced upon real security; for the Lombard lends sufficiently within the intrinsic value of the pledge, and the interest is not suffered to accumulate. Thus the elector of Bavaria's jewels, pawned to the Lombard of Amsterdam, were more than once ordered for sale, and would certainly have been sold, had not the interest been discharged. Where a pawn is very considerable, and a large sum demanded, probably the bank

bank both advances the money, and receives the interest, under the borrowed name of the Lombard. Thus if a merchant has a commodity not perishable, as tin or lead, for which there may possibly be no immediate demand, he may have two-thirds of the value advanced, on a very small interest, which enables him to wait for his market. The use and advantage of such practice, in a trading country especially, is very obvious; but the reason of this conduct's being made a secret may be, that should, the proprietors of treasure there know it to be so, they would be apt to think they might employ it that way themselves.

As to the government of the bank, it is very solemn and regular. The whole city is bound to make good the money there deposited, and the treasure is secured under four different locks, the keys of which are kept by four of the principal magistrates, one of whom is always the president burgo-master for the time being.

The harbour of Amsterdam is one of the largest and safest in Europe; but there is at the entrance of it a bar of mud and sand, called the Pampus! It could have been easily removed, but the magistrates chose rather to leave it, for very good reasons: for, as the large vessels cannot come into the harbour without being unloaded, or carried over the bar by what they call camels; so that same bar secures the city, no enemy's fleet being able to approach it; besides, it affords a livelihood to vast numbers of people continually employed in loading and unloading the vessels.

This city alone is in possession of half that immense trade which the Dutch carry on to the East-Indies, and governs the whole. It's commerce with Spain and the Spanish West-Indies is very great, nor is it less considerable to the Levant, Italy, and Portugal. It alone ingrosses the whole Northern trade, which the Dutch carry on to Norway, and the countries situated on the Baltic, Denmark, Sweden, Pomerania, Livonia, Polish Prussia, and Muscovy, together with the greatest part of Germany. Navigation and general commerce between this city to France and England are not very great, but the correspondence between the bankers, or money-negotiators, of Amsterdam and those of London and Paris, and the business of exchange, is very considerable.

To this prodigious extent of foreign commerce may be added the manufactures, which, though carried on in other towns of Holland, are also more or less practised here, excepting only Delft ware. A multitude of hands are employed in all kinds of tapestry: there are numbers of mills for sawing all sorts of wood; others to work and polish marbles; powder-mills, snuff-mills, and for drawing oil from seed; refineries for sugar, salt, cinnamon, borax, sulphur, yellow wax, &c.

HAERLEM, 10 miles west of Amsterdam, is a large and populous city, and a place of good trade; for, besides the fine linen wove here, they draw vast quantities from the neighbouring provinces of Groningen, Friesland, and Overijssel, from the country of Cleves, and even from Silesia; all which are bleached at Haerlem, and receive that beautiful white so generally admitted, and for which the waters here have a particular quality hardly to be met with elsewhere. They also manufacture here plain and flowered velvets, gold and silver stuffs, rich and light silks, gauzes, &c.

LEYDEN is advantageously situated, in the middle of the other cities of Holland, and is surrounded with canals. There is here an annual fair, which begins on Ascension-Day, and continues a whole week.

There is a woollen manufactory carried on here in all it's branches of broad and narrow cloth, camblerts, ferges, druggets, &c. but that of cloths is very much decayed of late, their trade to Turkey and the Levant being almost lost, as well as that of England, and engrossed by the French, their common rival.

DELFT is a large and stately city, and is famous for it's fine earthen ware, made in imitation of china, and called Delft ware. Here are also a great many brewers, who make a vast quantity of excellent beer, which is sold in the villages round. They have likewise a few clothiers, employed in the woollen manufactory.

ROTTERDAM is seated on the north bank of the Maes. The canals which run through this city are so very broad and deep, that ships of the greatest burden lade and unlade at the merchant's doors.

This city is in possession of the trade to Great-Britain and Ireland, almost to the exclusion of all the rest. It's commerce to France is likewise very considerable, and much superior to that of any other town in the province; it's trade also to the East and West-Indies, and to the Levant, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, is considerable.

The glass-house here is one of the best in the Seven Provinces: it makes abundance of glass toys and enamelled bowls, which are sent to India, and exchanged for China ware, and other oriental commodities.

SCHIEDAM is a small but populous town, where they make a vast quantity of fishing-nets for their herring buffes.

The **BRIEL** stands in the island of Voorn, near the mouth of the Maes. This town has a convenient port, which brings it a pretty good trade, and makes it populous.

DORDRECHT, and by abbreviation **DORT**, is a large, rich,

and populous city, and was formerly famous for the English trade, as it is now for Rhenish wine, which is brought down the Rhine by a very cheap and commodious transport; and a vast quantity of timber is sent from Germany in floats down that river, directly to this city, from whence it is distributed, into other parts of Holland. The best linen thread is spun here, and they have several refiners for salt, and now and then an English ship unloads at Dort; and the magistrates omit nothing that may possibly encourage our countrymen to return thither; but at present there is no appearance that they will ever recover the English trade from Rotterdam.

GORCUM is a neat well-built city. They have a daily market for corn, butter, cheese, fowls, wild ducks, and other provisions, brought thither by the river Ling, on the mouth of which it stands, from the country of Retau in Gelderland, which they send by the Maes into Holland, Zealand, and adjacent countries.

SCHOONHOVEN stands on the river Lech, and is chiefly famous for the great quantity of salmon caught here, of which they have a very good trade; and they have considerable advantage by herring-fishing.

GOUDA, **GAUDA**, or **TER-GOW**, is seated on the small river Gow, and the Yessel, which, about five miles lower, falls into the Maes. There were formerly here 350 brewhouses, which furnished Zealand and a great part of Flanders with beer; but that branch of trade is dwindled almost to nothing, and their chief manufactures at present are of cordage, and particularly of pipes, which are the neatest in the world, and of which they have a very extensive trade. They make, also, in the neighbourhood of this city, a vast quantity of bricks and tiles.

In North Holland, or West Friesland are

SARDAM, at the mouth of the river Saren; it is but a village, yet deserves mentioning, for it is very populous and large, and so remarkable for ship-building, and well stored with ship-carpenters, that they build here above 300 vessels a year: and these carpenters, if they have but two months notice, will undertake to build, during the whole year next following, a man of war every week ready to launch. This is their chief trade, by which their town is grown very rich.

EDAM, at a small distance from the Zuyder Sea, to which it has a small channel, which makes a pretty good haven. It's chief trade is ship-building, and making excellent cheese, with a red rind, much like our Cheshire cheese.

ALCMAER is a beautiful town, surrounded with pleasant gardens and rich pastures. From the milk of their numerous herds of cows they make vast quantities of cheese and butter, which enriches the town.

HOORN, situated on a bay of the Zuyder Sea, is a pleasant, rich, and large town; the trade of it consists chiefly in butter and cheese, great quantities of which they export to Spain and Portugal, and other parts, especially at their annual fair, in the month of May. They have also a considerable trade in Danish cattle, which, being brought lean here, are fattened in the adjacent pastures, and then drove to the other places in Holland. They have also here a good trade in building ships, which makes it a rich and splendid town, having besides a share in the whale-fishery. Here is one of the six chambers of the Dutch East-India company: the chamber of North Holland for the West-India company is also settled here.

ENCHUYSEN stands on the Zuyder Sea: the harbour is one of the best in this country. They build many ships here, drive a great trade in herring-fishing, and send large fleets into the Baltic, and other places; by which, as also by their refining salt from Britany in France, the city is in a very flourishing condition.

MEDENBLICK lies on the Zuyder Sea, seven miles north-west of Enchuyfen. The town is small, but has a noble harbour, capable of containing 300 large vessels. The chief trade of the inhabitants consists in timber, which they fetch from Norway, and other places in the Baltic. The neighbouring country abounds in excellent pastures, where they breed a prodigious number of cattle. See our articles **FLANDERS**, **DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY**, **DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY**, **NETHERLANDS**.

An account of the **BANK OF LOAN** of Amsterdam, commonly called the **LOMBARD**.

This house was first built as a magazine for the use of the poor inhabitants, and was finished in the year 1550, and made use of on the 19th of August, and in the year 1614; and then the following resolution was taken by the magistrates of Amsterdam:

Whereas the six-and-thirty lords of the council of Amsterdam have thought it fit and useful that the table of loans shall be supported by the city, and belong to it; and that also the house of the poor inhabitants, situated on the Old Side, shall be appropriated for this: therefore have the lords, the burghermasters of this city, at the desire of the masters of the said house, given 2000 guilders a year, during the time the aforesaid house shall be made use of as before-mentioned: to begin on the first of May, 1614. And the lords burghermasters promise, on the part of the city, to cause

the said 2000 guilders to be paid to the masters of the afore-named house. In witness of which, the seal of the city was hereunto affixed, January 19, 1615.

The government of Amsterdam hearing daily the melancholy complaints of their poor inhabitants, and how they were forced, in time of want, and when oppressed by poverty, to pawn their goods to the pawnbrokers and lombards, and were vexed by large unreasonable interest, have resolved (in order to free them of such a confuming interest) to erect by the city such a bank of loan, or Lombard, as the above-cited resolution sets forth.

This resolution being taken by the thirty-six counsellors, they ordered the said house to be fitted up for it on the 25th of April, 1614, and prohibited other persons to lend in this manner, either in public or private, trusting the direction of this bank to two commissioners, the first of which were Mr. Francis Henry Oetjens, formerly burgher-master, and Mr. Jonas Cornelius Witfen, formerly a judge. These were chosen by the burghermasters; and the said commissioners were either yearly changed, or continued at the pleasure of the magistrates.

The city increasing in extent and number of inhabitants, there was another very large house built; and it was, in the year 1669, joined to the abovesaid house. Since the enlargement of the buildings there is a place made on the side of the canal, where the goods that have been left a year are publicly sold; and in the front of one of these buildings is wrote, On the 29th of April, 1514, was the first pawn brought in here.

The commissioners of the city sit in the new building, and see none but the great pawns; the lesser being managed by a servant appointed by them, at a building in the middle of the street, where a gate of stone is built, with a basse relief, representing the manner of borrowing, &c. The lenders sit every day in the morning, from eight till eleven, and, in the afternoon, from two till four o'clock, to lend on all pawns, and to release them, except on Wednesdays in the afternoon.

The above-named commissioners meet every morning, from nine till eleven o'clock, and no longer, and then enter into a book all the pawns on which a hundred guilders and upwards are lent, and which are called the great pawns. They also keep the account of the cash themselves, and keep all these large pawns in their own custody, so that none can come at them without their consent: they have also in their own keeping the great chest with money; and in their service a person who has the direction over all the inferior servants; also a cashier, who is called the great cashier, and an appraiser of the jewels, gold, and silver, who is obliged to appraise these treasures at his own peril; for, if the bank should hereafter lose by it, then he must make it good, for which he gives sufficient bail.

The above-named great cashier gives security for 10,000 guilders. The servant who looks after the goods gives bail for 4000 guilders. There is, besides this, an appraiser of woollen goods that are valued at above 100 guilders; and the cashier makes up his accounts with the commissioners every month. If he has then much money in his hands, he is obliged to deliver it up to the commissioners; if he has but little, then they give him what they think necessary; and these commissioners deliver up their accounts every year to the burghermasters, who appoint also the under-servants; that is, as far as it regards the great bank of the pawns of above 1000 guilders each pawn.

The little bank has a cashier; four lenders, who lend on all pawns that are not of gold or silver, according to their orders; three releasers, to whom all who come to redeem their pawns must address themselves. These have likewise a book-keeper, or comptroller, and each of them finds security for 400 guilders. These lenders tax all small pawns under 100 guilders; and those who pawn their goods receive a note, on which the name of the owner, and the sum, or the value, is wrote, as also the quantity of the things; and such a note is also hung to the pawn. When this has been shewn to the cashier, then he gives the money upon it, and enters it in the book, which he daily examines, and checks with the book-keeper's book. All these goods are set down by the book-keeper, and he makes each chamber (which are divided according to the values) debtor to the cash. Here is also a chamber for silver, from 95 guilders to 25; and one from 25 guilders to one guilder.

The chamber of copper, pewter, and pictures, belong to the first chamber of silver; there are besides chambers for woollen and linen goods, as one from ninety-one to twelve guilders; one from twelve to five; from five to three and two guilders; and one from two guilders to two stivers, or pennies. Each of these chambers have a keeper of the pawns, or an overseer, who, when any one comes to redeem his pawn, goes with the above described note to the redeemer, who sends it up to the keeper of the pawns, who must then immediately deliver it up. The chamber or warehouse-keepers must answer for all the pawns delivered into their custody, and, if any are missing, then they must make them good. All these pawns lie in order, each in their pro-

per chamber, and every one according to its month and day, that so they may be the easier found.

All the notes for the pawns are wrote in cypher, or unknown characters, and none can read them but those who have the key, that so all deceit and counterfeiting may be prevented. All these chambers are kept very neat and clean by the pawn-keepers, and they are every day aired by opening of the windows. This bank has twelve watchmen to prevent all thieving; these walk about all night, and the servant of the bank (who lies there) is the captain of them, because the city must make good all that is stolen. All these servants are under oath of fidelity and secrecy.

This being the foundation of this very laudable work, it was necessary, in order to keep it up, to support it by good decrees, which were made on the 25th of April 1614, and on the 8th of July 1616.

All pawns worth less than a hundred guilders, or about ten pounds, pay every week one sixteenth part of a stiver, or one sixteenth of a penny interest. Those from a hundred to four hundred seventy-five guilders, at the rate of eight in the hundred in a year; and all pawns of five hundred guilders and upwards, six in the hundred in a year. To be thus understood, that, at all times when the owner will redeem his pawns, in that case, the weeks, months, and six weeks entered into shall be counted, and they do not lend by days.

This city is security for all pawns that are delivered into the hands of these managers, who are obliged to restore the pawns to those who bring the notes, and pay the sum borrowed with the interest, without taking any notice whether they be the real owners or no, unless it appeared to them that there was a manifest deceit; for, in that case, all stolen and intrusted goods are restored to the owners, provided they give security to the satisfaction of the directors.

If it should happen that the pawns deposited in this house should be lost by fire, or other strange accidents, in such a case, the owners of the pawns on which from a hundred guilders to five hundred guilders and upwards are lent, must bear and suffer the loss, and they are besides obliged to pay the sum they have borrowed on them.

All pawns that are brought into this house, and have lain there a year and six weeks without paying the interest that is due, unless that the owners have agreed with the directors, are sold either by auction before the door, or within by brokers, which is done four times in the year. Though the overplus money goes back to the proprietors, yet the interest goes on to the prejudice of the owner, till the money for which the pawns are sold is received. Those whose goods are thus sold, are obliged to demand and to receive this money; out of which the charges of the sales are deducted, within three years, according to the orders of the 24th of March 1616, else the said surplus goes to the profit of the poor of the city. And those who shall after that time demand the said overplus money, shall be deprived of all right to it; nor shall the overseers of the poor, who may receive this money, be obliged to restore it.

In order to prevent all damages or losses by sales, an auditor is appointed, who is chosen out of the most skillful officers of this bank, and who gives security that the goods sold shall be paid for, before he lets them go; and he has from the city five in the hundred for his trouble, on condition that he shall answer all losses.

If it should happen that stolen goods were brought into this bank of loans, and money was advanced thereon, then the right owner cannot have his things back without returning back the money, unless he had given notice to the bank that such goods were stolen before any money was lent on them: in that case, the goods are retained and restored to the owner; for which he is to give something to the poor's box, of which the burghermasters have the disposal.

On the 30th of January 1682, all this was confirmed and explained by a placart, or sort of proclamation.

When any person loses his note, and comes to claim his pawn, then he must give security, to the satisfaction of the directors; and the bail is attacked by a sudden execution, in case any fraud be discovered.

On the 24th of April 1682, it was ordered by the government, that none should lend money on any moveable goods; and also that no private person shall be allowed to keep a lombard-house, (which answers to our pawn-brokers shops); and that no person whatever should lend less than a hundred guilders on goods, nor then take more than four in the hundred for the interest of a whole year.

The government of the city having found, that, notwithstanding their repeated orders, many persons did secretly lend money on pawns at a high interest, and kept lombard-houses to the great prejudice of the bank of loan, and also to poor people, who were quite exhausted by them, therefore they published, on the 27th of January 1684, the following order:

I. That hereafter no persons whatsoever shall be allowed to make it their business to lend money on moveables usually brought into the bank of loan, at a higher interest than at the rate of four in the hundred in the year; and that those who shall be convicted to have erected a lombard in their houses shall not only be deprived of all right or action against

against the owners or givers of such pawns, who shall have power to challenge them and retake them at any time, without restoring the money borrowed, or the interest; but such lenders shall besides be fined in a sum equal to the sum they shall have so lent; and, besides that, according to the circumstances, they shall undergo a farther punishment, according to the will and arbitration of the judges.

II. That those who heretofore used to make such loans, and continue to do it, be obliged, after the time for which the money is lent shall be expired, to restore all the pawns to the owners, and not continue them at a higher interest than at the rate of four in a hundred in a year, or to bring them to the bank of loan, where they will receive what is due. Those who shall fail to follow this order, shall be subject to the penalties mentioned in the first article.

III. That hereafter no person whatsoever shall presume to lend less than a hundred guilders on any pawn, be it at a high or at a low interest, on the above-named penalty.

IV. That this order may be the better observed and executed with greater vigour, the lords of the government and justice have ordered all the officers and servants of the justice, as also all the officers of the bank of loan of this city, to inform them from time to time, whether this order be in any manner infringed or broke, and, if they find it is not observed, they shall inform the lord high officer of this city of it, and he is to prosecute in that case; and those who are convicted by half, or imperfect proofs, shall be obliged to clear themselves by a solemn oath, and swear that they have not lent any thing in that manner; and, in default of this, or if they refuse to take the said oath, they shall be condemned into the penalties here above-mentioned. One third of all these forfeitures shall go to the informer, though he should be the person that borrowed the money; one third to the lord high officer, and the other third to the hospital of the children supported by alms.

The bank was first erected by people who raised a sum of money by subscription, at six in the hundred; which was afterwards reduced to four, and then to three and a half in the hundred; and, in the year 1682, the city redeemed it, and became entire master of this bank of loan. It consisted in a fund of a million of guilders.

Two watchmen stand continually centinel in two centry-boxes before the warehouses, and they have dark lanterns. This bank appoints a good number of brokers, whose employment is wrote on a board before their door, and there those who do not care to discover their want or poverty, can go and have their goods brought to the lombard by the said brokers, who keep it secret, and do this service for a small matter, and security to the city for their fidelity.

R E M A R K S.

What an advantage might it have proved to the city of London, if that had been blessed with a CHARITABLE CORPORATION, as wisely constituted and as equitably conducted, as the lombard of Amsterdam has been?

O F T H E M O N I E S A N D E X C H A N G E S O F H O L L A N D.

The Hollanders keep their accounts in florins or guilders, stivers and penings. The florin = 20 stivers, the stiver = 8 duits or 16 penings, or 2 deniers gros.

The rixdollar or patagon = 50 sols, or deniers gros. It was regulated in 1606, that they should be of the standard of $10\frac{1}{2}$ deniers, and of the weight of 536 grains; and in 1721, that the ducat of gold should be of the standard of $23\frac{1}{2}$ carats, weighing 64 grains = 5 florins bank.

The pound gros = 6 florins, or 20 sols gros.

The fol gros or schelling = 6 common sols, or 12 deniers gros, the gros = 8 penings.

There are two sorts of money, current and bank; all bills of exchange are paid in the latter; the difference between them is from about 3 to 6 per cent. according to the state of commerce and money transactions relating thereto, and this difference is called the agio.

C A S E I.

To reduce CURRENT into BANK MONEY.

Suppose the agio 5 per cent. say,

O P E R A T I O N.

If 105 florins current give 100 bank, what will 1628 florins 6 sols 4 penings current give?

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 162800 \\ 25 : 0 : 0 \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols} = \frac{1}{4} \\ 5 : 0 : 0 \text{ for } 1 \text{ fol} = \frac{1}{5} \text{ of } 5. \\ 1 : 5 : 0 \text{ for } 4 \text{ pen.} = \frac{1}{4} \text{ of a fol.} \end{array}$$

105) 162831 : 5 : 0 (1550 florins 15 sols 8 penings bank money, to which the said 1628 florins 6 sols and 4 penings are equal.

And, as there will be a remainder of 81, that must be multiplied by 20 sols, the value of the florin, and divided by the same divisor, and it will give 15 sols, and a further remainder of 50, which being multiplied by 16, the penings in a fol, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 8 penings.

T O R E D U C E B A N K M O N E Y I N T O C U R R E N T.

State the question according to the rule of proportion, thus: If 100 fl. bank give 5 advance, what will 1550 fl. 15 f. 8 p.

$$\begin{array}{r} 5 \\ \text{Flo. } 77 \mid 53 : 17 : 8 \\ 20 \\ \hline 1550 \text{ flor. } 15 \text{ sols } 8 \text{ p. bank Sols } 10 \mid 77 \\ \text{Agio } 77 \quad 10 \quad 12 \text{ added} \quad 16 \end{array}$$

Makes 1628 6 4 cur. Pen. 1240 Money. The answer and proof to the foregoing is so easy to those acquainted with common arithmetic, that 'tis needless to give further explanation, than what is done under the articles ENGLAND, EXCHANGES, GENOA, HAMBURGH.

Suppose a merchant of Holland owes the following sums bank money of Amsterdam, to his foreign correspondents at the respective places hereafter mentioned.

C O U R S E O F E X C H A N G E.

At	Flo.	Sols.	P.	at	den.	per	den.
Paris	2133	2	—	at 55 $\frac{3}{8}$	den.	gros	per crown of 60 sols Tournois.
London	2480	10	—	at 34 $\frac{1}{2}$	sols	gros	per pound sterling.
Hamburgh	2842	5	—	at 32 $\frac{3}{8}$	sols	per	dollar.
Madrid	1550	15	8	at 97 $\frac{1}{2}$	den.	gros	per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Lisbon	1242	14	—	at 44 $\frac{3}{8}$	den.	gros	per cruafado of 400 rees.
Genoa	1325	5	8	at 92 $\frac{1}{2}$	den.	gros	per piafter of 5 livres bank.
Venice	2340	10	8	at 88 $\frac{1}{2}$	den.	gros	per ducat of 24 gros.
L'ghorn	1832	7	—	at 86 $\frac{1}{2}$	den.	gros	per piafter of 20 sols d'or.
Geneva	1434	12	—	at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$	den.	gros	per crown of 60 sols current.

O F T H E E X C H A N G E O F H O L L A N D O N F R A N C E.

To reduce 2133 florins 2 sols bank money of Holland, into crowns, sols, and deniers of France, exchange at 55 $\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros, per crowns of 60 sols Tournois.

C A S E I I, O P E R A T I O N.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2133 : 2 \text{ at } 55 \frac{3}{8} \\ \text{Multiply by } 40 \text{ deniers gros} \\ \hline 85324 \text{ deniers gros} \quad 443 \text{ eighths} \\ 8 \end{array}$$

By 443) 682592 eighths (to be divided, give 1540 crowns, 50 sols, 4 deniers.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the florins by 40 deniers gros, the value of a florin, adding 4 for the two sols, the fol being worth 2 deniers gros; and reduce the product into eighths, the same denomination with the price of exchange; and divide the sum by the price, and the quotient will show how often the one is contained in the other, which is the answer, 1540 crowns, with a remainder of 372; which multiplied by 60 sols, the value of a crown, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 50 sols, and a further remainder of 170, to be multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol, and divided by the like divisor, it produces 4 deniers.

P R O O F.

$$1540 \text{ Crowns, } 50 \text{ sols, } 4 \text{ den. at } 55 \frac{3}{8}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 7700 \\ 7700 \\ 385 \text{ for } \frac{3}{8} \text{ the } \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } 1540 \\ 192 \frac{1}{2} \text{ for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ the } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } \frac{3}{8} \\ 27 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 30 \text{ sols the } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of the exc. } 55 \frac{3}{8} \\ 9 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 10 \text{ sols the } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of ditto} \\ 4 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols the } \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } 10 \\ 4 \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 5 \text{ sols ditto} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \mid 085324 \\ \hline \text{Fl. } 2133 : 4 \text{ den.} = 2 \text{ sols } \frac{3}{8} \text{ for } 4 \text{ deniers } \frac{1}{3} \text{ of } 5 \text{ sols} \end{array}$$

85324 $\frac{3}{8}$ with the other small fractions [above, allow $\frac{3}{8}$ more.

I N S T R U C T I O N.

Multiply the sum by the price of exchange, 55 deniers, and for the $\frac{3}{8}$ take the aliquot parts as directed above. For the 50 sols 4 deniers, make the divisions also as explained in the operation.—Add the whole together, and the sum will be deniers gros, the same denomination with the exchange, by which you multiply: this sum divided by 40, the deniers gros in a florin, the quotient gives florins, 4 deniers = 2 stivers, the proof.

HOLLAND

OF THE EXCHANGE OF HOLLAND UPON LONDON.

CASE III.

To reduce 2580 florins 10 fols bank of Amsterdam, into sterling money of England, exchange at $34\frac{1}{2}$ fols gros of Holland, per pound sterling.

OPERATION.

2580 Florins 10 fols at $34\frac{1}{2}$	12
40 deniers gros	
103200	414 deniers gros.
20 for the $\frac{1}{2}$	

414) 103220 den. gros (1. 249 : 6 : 5 sterling, for which the draught is made on London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the sum and price of exchange into deniers gros, and divide the former product by the latter, and the quotient is the answer. 40 Deniers gros making a florin, as in the preceding case, you multiply thereby: for the 10 fols you add 20 deniers gros, 2 being = 1 fol; this gives the deniers gros contained in the sum. For the $\frac{1}{2}$ fol in the price of exchange take in 6 deniers, 12 deniers gros making 1 fol, and divide the product of the sum by that of the price: the remainder, 134, multiplied by 20, the shillings in a pound sterling, and divided by the divisor, gives 6 shillings, with a further remainder of 196, which multiplied by 12, the pence in a shilling, gives 5 pence sterling.

PROOF.

1. 249 : 6 : 6 sterling, exchange at $34\frac{1}{2}$	
414 = 1 l. sterling	12
996	414 deniers gros
249	
996	
103 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 5 shillings, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 414	
20 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 1 shilling, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 5 l.	
7 $\frac{1}{2}$ near for 4 pence, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 l.	
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 1 penny, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4 d.	

4|10321|9

Flor. 2580 : 19 = $9\frac{1}{2}$, and allowing for the small fractions above, will make the other half fol, near enough for practice, without descending, in these cases, to larger fractions.

OF THE EXCHANGE OF HOLLAND UPON HAMBURGH.

CASE IV.

To reduce 2841 florins 5 fols, bank money of Amsterdam, into marks and fols lubs of Hamburg, bank money, exchange at $32\frac{7}{8}$ common fols of Holland per dollar of 32 fols lubs bank of Hamburg.

OPERATION.

2841 $\frac{1}{2}$ florins bank, at	$32\frac{7}{8}$
40 demi fols	8
113640	263 eighths
10 for the $\frac{1}{2}$	
113650	
8	

263) 909200 eighths (3457 marks 6 deniers lubs bank, for which the draught must be made upon Hamburg.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the sum given by 40, because the mark lubs is half one dollar, and reduce the same into eighths, and also the exchange of $32\frac{7}{8}$: then divide the product, 909200, by 263, which gives a quotient of 3457 marks: for the remainder, 9, multiply by 16 fols, the value of a mark, and, as the product is less than the divisor, multiply by 12 penings, and divide by the same divisor, and you have 6 deniers, or penings, the answer, in Hamburg money. For proof hereof see the article HAMBURGH, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

OF THE EXCHANGE OF HOLLAND UPON SPAIN.

CASE V.

To reduce 1550 florins, 15 fols, 8 penings, bank money of Amsterdam, into ducats, fols, and deniers, and afterwards into rials and marvadees, old plate, exchange at $97\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, per ducat of Spain of 375 marvadees.

HOLLAND

OPERATION.

1550 florins, 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ fols, at	$97\frac{1}{4}$
40	4
62031	389 quart.
4	
[must be made in Spain.]	
389) 248124 quart. (637 ducats 17 fols, for which the draught	
11 rials 1 marvadee	
637	
637	
18 rials 25 mar. for 637 mar. divided by 34	
5 17 for 10 the fols $\frac{1}{4}$	} of 11 rials
2 25 for 5 the fols $\frac{1}{4}$	
1 3 for 2 the fols $\frac{1}{4}$	
7035 rials 2 mar. old plate.	

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply, by 40 deniers gros, the 1550 florins $15\frac{1}{2}$ fols, as in the former case, and take in 31 for the $15\frac{1}{2}$ fols: reduce the product, 62031, into quarters, and also the price of exchange, $97\frac{1}{4}$; (if the fraction had been eighths, you must have reduced the same into eighths: divide the product of the sum by that of the price, and the quote will be 637 ducats, with a remainder of 331; which being multiplied by 20 fols, the imaginary subdivision of the ducat, and divided by the same divisor, it gives 17 fols, and a further remainder of 7.—This multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol; but the product, 84, being less than the divisor, 389, it gives no deniers; for the proof whereof, see the article SPAIN, the exchange thereof on HOLLAND.

To reduce these 637 ducats 17 fols, into rials, they must be multiplied by 11 rials 1 marvadee, the value of an exchange ducat, and it will produce 7035 rials 2 marvadees, old plate, to be received at Madrid.

ADVERTISEMENT.

Although the subdivisions of the ducat are rials and marvadees, and not fols and deniers, it is better, for the facility of computation, to multiply the remainder by 20 and 12, to obtain fols and deniers; because, if you multiply the remainder by 11 rials 1 marvadee, and by 34, the operation would be very troublesome for dispatch in business: but, when you may require a quotient of rials and marvadees, and not of ducats, the following is the method:

Take the preceding 62031 deniers gros, at $97\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros multiplied by 375 mar. = 1 duc. 34 mar. = 1 rial

310155	388
434217	2918 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the $\frac{1}{4}$
186093	
23261625 marvades	3306 $\frac{1}{2}$ marvadees
2	2
6613 divisor	

6613) 46523250 divid. (7035 rials 4 mar. old plate, the same as before produced.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the sum, as above, by 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, and afterwards by 2, for half marvadees.—Multiply also the exchange, $97\frac{1}{4}$, by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and afterwards by 2, to produce half rials, taking in the one half.—The quotient is 7035 rials, with a remainder of 795; which multiplied by 34, and divided as before, it gives 4 marvadees, two more than by the other method, which is with greater precision, though the other is accurate enough for business.

OF THE EXCHANGE OF HOLLAND UPON GENOA.

CASE VI.

To reduce 1325 florins, 5 fols, 8 penings, bank money of Amsterdam, into piaffers of 5 livres, or 20 fols d'or, and afterwards into livres, fols, and deniers, bank money of Genoa, exchange at $92\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros per piaffer.

OPERATION.

1325 florins, 5 fols, 8 penings, or 11 demi-fols	
40 deniers gros, or demi-fols	
53011 gros	Exchange $92\frac{1}{4}$
4	4
369 quarters—divisor	
369) 212044 dividend (574 piaffers, 12 fols, 10 deniers bank, for which the draught must be made.	

I N

H O L

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce the sum and the price of exchange into quarters of deniers gros, and divide the product of one by that of the other, and you have a quote of 574 piafters, with a remainder of 238; which multiplied by 20 fols d'or, the value of the piafter, and divided by the fame, gives 12 fols, and a remainder of 332; which multiplied by 12 deniers d'or, and divided by the like divisor, you will have 10 deniers d'or to be received at Genoa.—For the proof whereof see the article GENOA, for the exchange of GENOA on HOLLAND.

But, if you would reduce the said florins at once into liras, fols, and deniers bank, instead of operating as above, and afterwards multiplying the 574 piafters, 12 fols, 10 deniers, by 5 liras, the value of a piafter, to have 2873 liras, 4 fols, and 5 deniers bank (which is too tedious) you may multiply the product, 53011 deniers gros contained in the sum, by 5 liras, the value of a piafter, and afterwards by 4, for the quarters, the product whereof, 1060220, being the dividend, and the quarters in the exchange, 369, the divisor, the quotient will be the same, 2873 liras; and for the remainder, 83, multiply by 20 and 12, and divide by the common divisor, 369, and you will have the 4 fols 5 deniers.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon PORTUGAL.

C A S E VII.

To reduce 1242 florins 14 fols bank money of Amsterdam, into cruzadoes and rees of Portugal, exchange at $44\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros per cruzado of 400 rees.

O P E R A T I O N .

$$\begin{array}{r} 1242 \text{ flor. } 14 \text{ fols bank; at} \\ 40 \text{ deniers gros} \quad \quad \quad - \quad 44\frac{3}{8} \\ \hline 49708 \text{—Add 28 for the 14 fols} \quad 355 \text{ eighths} \\ 8 \end{array}$$

355) 397664 (1120 cruzadoes 72 rees, for which the draught is made on Lisbon.

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce both the sum and the price of exchange into eighths of deniers gros, and divide the product of the sum by that of the exchange-price, and you will have 1120 cruzadoes, with a remainder of 64; which being multiplied by 400 rees, the value of the cruzado, and divided by the 355, gives 72 rees, to be received at Lisbon. For proof hereof see PORTUGAL, for the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon LEGHORN.

C A S E VIII.

To reduce 1832 florins 7 fols, bank money of Amsterdam, into piafters, fols, and deniers of Leghorn, exchange at $86\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per piafter of 20 fols d'or.

O P E R A T I O N .

$$\begin{array}{r} 1832 \text{ florins } 7 \text{ fols bank, at} \\ 40 \text{ deniers gros} \quad \quad \quad - \quad 16\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline 73294 \text{ deniers gros} \quad \quad \quad 173 \text{ demi-deniers} \\ 2 \end{array}$$

173) 146588 demi-deniers (847 piafters, 6 fols, 7 deniers, for which the draught should be made upon Leghorn.

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce into half deniers gros both the sum and the price of the exchange, and divide the product of the former by that of the exchange-price, and you have the piafters, with 57 for a remainder; which being multiplied by 20 fols, the value of a piafter, and divided by the same divisor, you will have 6 fols, and 102 remaining.—This multiplied by 12, and divided by the like, gives 7 deniers, to be received at Leghorn.—For proof hereof see LEGHORN, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon VENICE.

C A S E IX.

To reduce 2340 florins, 10 fols, 8 penings, bank money of Amsterdam, into ducats, fols, and deniers, bank money of Venice, and into liras, fols, and deniers, of the said money.

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O P E R A T I O N .

$$\begin{array}{r} 2340 \text{ florins } 10 \text{ fols } \frac{1}{2}, \text{ at } - - 88\frac{1}{2} \text{ deniers} \\ 40 \text{ deniers gros, or demi-fols } 4 \\ \hline 93621 \\ 4 \\ \hline 353) 374484 \text{ quart.--div. (1060 duc. } 17 \text{ fols } 3 \text{ den. for which} \\ 6 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 6360 \\ 212 : - : - \text{ for } 4 \text{ foldi, the } \frac{1}{3} \text{ of} \\ 3 : 2 : - \text{ for } 10 \text{ fols } \frac{1}{4} \\ 1 : 11 : - \text{ for } 5 \text{ fols } \frac{1}{4} \\ 12 : 4 \text{ for } 2 \text{ fols } \frac{1}{4} \\ 1 : 6 \text{ for } 3 \text{ den } \frac{1}{8} \text{ of } 2 \text{ fols} \end{array}$$

$$6577 : 6 : 10 \text{ to be received at Venice in bank.}$$

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce the sum and the price of exchange into quarters of deniers, and divide the product; 374484, by 353, and you will have a quote of 1060 ducats, with a remainder of 304: which multiplied by 20 imaginary fols, by way of facility of operation, and divided by the said divisor, it gives 17 fols, and 79 for a remainder; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of the said fol, and divided by the aforefaid divisor, produces 3 deniers; the proof whereof you will find under the article Venice, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

To reduce the ducats into liras, multiply by 6 liras 4 foldi, the value of a ducat, as above, and you will have the 6577 liras, 6 fols, 10 deniers bank.

Although the ducats are of 24 groffi, I have nevertheless reduced them by 20 and 12, for reasons given in the exchange of Holland upon Spain.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon GENEVA.

C A S E X.

To reduce 1434 florins 12 fols, bank money of Amsterdam, into crowns of 3 livres, fols, and deniers, and also into livres, fols, and deniers, current money of Geneva, exchange at $90\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per crown of 60 fols of Geneva.

O P E R A T I O N .

$$\begin{array}{r} 1434 \text{ florins } 12 \text{ fols bank, at } 90\frac{1}{2} \\ \text{mul. by } 40 \text{ den. gros, or demi-fols } 2 \\ \hline 57384 \\ 2 \\ \hline 181 \text{ demi-den.--divisor} \end{array}$$

181) 114768 demi. (634 crowns, 4 fols, 8 den. for which the draught should be made on Geneva.

1902 livres, 4 fols, 8 deniers, current money of Geneva.

I N S T R U C T I O N .

Reduce both the sum and price of exchange into demi-deniers gros, and divide the former by the latter product, and you will have a quotient of 634 crowns, and 14 a remainder; which multiplied by 60 fols, the value of the crown, and divided by the 181, you will have 4 fols, with a further remainder of 116; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a fol, and divided by the said divisor, it gives near 8 deniers, to be received at Geneva; which may be easily proved, if the examples before given are understood.

To find the livres, you need only multiply them by their value of 3 livres; and, if you would reduce the said florins directly into livres, they must be multiplied by 240 common deniers, the value of the livre of Geneva, and the product divided by the same divisor, 181, the quotient will be the same sum of 1902 livres, 4 fols, 8 deniers, with the trifling difference of near a denier.

Of the WEIGHTS of HOLLAND.

24 grains = 1 drachm; 3 drachms, or 72 grains, = 1 gros; 30 grains = 1 engel; 10 engels, or 4 gros, and 2 grains = 1 loot; 16 loots, or 8 ounces, = 1 mark; 2 marks = 1 lb. 8 pounds = 1 stone; 165 pounds = 1 waggon, or wage; 400 pounds = 1 load; 15 pounds = 1 lifpond; 20 lifponds = 1 schippon.

The weights of Holland compared with foreign weights.

100 lb. of Amsterdam make in foreign places, viz.	100 lb. in the following places make in Amsterdam, viz.
In Antwerp 105½	In Antwerp - 94½
Alicant - 108	Alicant - 92½
Archangel - 125	Archangel - 80
Avignon 125	Avignon - 80
Audenard 112	Audenard - 89
	12 E 100

H O L

100 lb. of Amsterdam make in foreign places, viz. lb.	100 lb. in the following places make in Amsterdam, viz. lb.
In Aufburg - 103	In Aufburg - 96
Ancona - 149	Ancona - 67
Bremen - 103	Bremen - 96
Bergen and Norway 95½	Bregen, &c. - 105
Bern - 111	Bern - 90.
Bresslau in Silesia 125	Bresslau - 80
Boudeaux - 100	Bourdeaux - 100
Bergam - 169	Bergam - 59
Burge in Bresse 104	Burge, &c. - 96
Bruges - 106	Bruges - 94
Copenhagen 101½	Copenhagen - 98½
Coningberg - 125	Coningberg - 80
Cologn - 104	Cologn - 96
Cadiz - 106	Cadiz - 94½
Constantinople, Rot. 88	Confant. 100 Rot. 114
Dantzic - 112½	Dantzic - 89
Dixmude - 114	Dixmude - 88
Frankfort - 98	Frankfort - 102
Florence - 152	Florence - 65
Geneva - 89	Geneva - 112
Geneva { Great weight 90½	Geneva { Great weight 105½
Small weight 66½	Small weight 120
Common weight 100	Common wt. 100
Great ballance 144	Great ballance 69½
Small ballance 150	Small ballance 66½
Ghent - 112	Ghent - 89
Gelders - 105	Gelders - 95
Hamburgh - 102	Hamburgh - 98
Lyons - 116	Lyons - 86
London, Troy wt. 97	London, Troy wt. 103
Ditto, avoirdupoise 109½	Ditto, avoirdupoise 91½
Leipic - 105	Leipic - 95
Leghorn - 145	Leghorn - 69
Liege - 105½	Liege - 95
Lubec - 105	Lubec - 95
Lille - 114	Lille - 88
Milan - 168	Milan - 60
Marfeilles - 123½	Marfeilles - 81
Mantua - 175	Mantua - 57
Messina - 164	Messina - 65
Montpelier - 120	Montpelier - 83
Mons - 105	Mons - 95
Middleburg - 105	Middleburg - 95
Nantz - 99	Nantz - 101
Naples - 169	Naples - 59
Norway - 95	Norway - 105
Noremburg - 98	Noremburg - 102
Paris - 98½	Paris - 101½
Petersburg - 125	Peterburg - 80
Portugal - 114½	Portugal - 87½
Roan viscompt wt. 96	Roan, &c. - 104
Riga - 121½	Riga - 82½
Raconis - 151	Raconis - 66
Rochel - 99	Rochel - 101
Stockholm - 117	Stockholm - 85½
Stetin - 101½	Stetin - 98½
Seville - 106	Seville - 95
Sicily, Rot. 62	Sicily - 162
Saragoffa - 158	Saragoffa - 63
Strafburg - 100	Strafburg - 100
Toulouie - 118	Toulouie - 85
Tortofa - 161	Tortofa - 62
Turin - 151	Turin - 66
Tournay - 113	Tournay - 89
Venice, small wt. 166	Venice - 60
Valencia - 158	Valencia - 63
Ypres - 114	Ypres - 88

Of the weights of Holland for gold and silver.

32 aces = an engel; 20 engels = 1 ounce; 8 ounces = 1 mark. These weights are used for gross gold; but, in the weighing of fine gold, 24 parts = to a grain, 12 grains = 1 carat, 24 carats = 1 mark; and the mark weights are about 1 per cent. lighter than the Troy weight of London.

Their long measure.

The common one is an aun, or ell, and is reckoned here ¾ of a yard: it consists of 2 feet, 1 inch, and 2 lines, of the pié du roy of France, and is divided into ¼, ⅓, ⅔, ⅕, ⅙, or into ⅓, ⅔, ⅕, ⅙. This is found, by observation, to be something more than 27 ½ inches in length; so then an English ell is about ⅓ of a Dutch aun: and

100 auns of Amsterdam make in foreign places, viz. auns.	100 auns in foreign places make in Amsterdam, viz. auns.
In Antwerp, Brabant, &c. 98½	In Antwerp, Brab. &c. 101½
Paris - 58½	Paris - 171
London - ells 58½	London - 171
Hamb. and Lubec 120	Hamburgh - 82½
Frankfort - 120	Frankfort - 83½

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100 auns of Amsterdam make in foreign places, viz. auns.	100 auns in foreign places make in Amsterdam, viz. auns.
Noremburg - 100	Noremburg - 100
Leipic Naumberg' 120	Leipic - 83½
Bresslau in Silesia 125	Bresslau - 80
Ofnaburg - 57½	Ofnaburg - 173
Dantzic - 112½	Dantzic - 89
Bergen and Dron- } 111½	Norway - 90
theim in Norway } 111½	Sweden - 89
Sweden or Stockholm 117	Denmark - 91½
Denmark and Copenh. 109½	Cologn - 63½
Cologn - 120	St. Gall for linen - 110
St. Gall for linen 86	Ditto for woollen - 89½
Ditto for woollen 112	Bern and Basil - 83½
Bern and Basil - 120	Geneva - 166½
Geneva - 60	100 Canes of Marfeilles 286½
Marfeilles Canes 35	Toulouie - 266½
Toulouie - 37½	Genoa - 328
Genoa - 39½	Rome - 303
Rome - 33	Naples - 329
Naples and Sicily 30	Barcelona - 226
Barcelona - 41½	Seville - 125
Seville - 80	Ditto of Portugal - 164
Portugal - 61	Ditto of ditto - 100
Ditto Cavados 100	Venice - 98
Venice - 102	Bologna - 98
Bologna - 102	Mantua - 98
Modena, and } 102	Bergam - 95
Mantua - 102	Florence - 85½
Bergam - 105	Leghorn - 85½
Florence - 116½	Lucca - 85½
Leghorn - 116½	Milan for silk - 78
Lucca - 116½	Ditto for cloth - 98
Milan for silk 128½	
Ditto for cloth 102	

Their wine measure.

2 ½ Virges or virtules = 1 steekon, 2 steekons = 1 anchor, 4 anchors = 1 aum, 14 auns of Amsterdam = 1 voedar. N. B. The voedar is a vessel used in Germany, for keeping the wines that grow upon the Rhine and the Moselle. 2 Pints = 1 mangle, 2 mingles = 1 stoop, 8 stoops = 1 steekon, 6 mingles = 1 virge for wine, and 6 ¼ ditto = 1 virge for brandy, upon the Rhine and Moselle.

Their brandy measures.

It is common to put French, Spanish, and Portugal wines into pipes, butts, and other pieces; some of which contain at Amsterdam, from 60 to 90 virges: therefore 'tis usual with the Hollanders to reduce these measures into butts, by the following reckoning, 27 Virges of Coniac, Mougouin, Rochelle, and the isle of Rhé. 29 Ditto of Nantz, and other places in Britany and Anjou. 32 Ditto of Bourdeaux, and the other places in Guicenne. 32 Ditto of Amsterdam, and other places in Holland. 30 Ditto of Hamburgh and Lubec. 27 Ditto of Embden.

At Bruges they call the virges sestiers, reckoning 16 stoops to a sestier, and they sell it at so much a stoop.

Measure of salt.

Salt is sold in Amsterdam by a great hundred of 404 schep-pels, which is reckoned 7 lafts, or 14 tun, or 23,000 lb. weight, = 208 sacks, and is sold by the pound Flemish: 11 ½ lafts of Amsterdam = the great hundred of the isle of Rhé in France.

Measure for grain.

Three schepfels = 1 sack, 4 schepfels = 1 muid, 36 sacks, or 27 muids, = 1 laft, weighing 4000 lb. weight, and in London is about 10 ¼ quarters.

The land laft is not the same in all places, there being some difference introduced by custom, in the several countries in Europe.

A laft of wheat, in Amsterdam, commonly weighs between 4200 and 4300 lb.

Ditto of rye, between 4000 and 4200 lb. Ditto of barley, between 3200 and 3400 lb.

There is a duty upon wheat sold for the use of the inhabitants of Amsterdam, of 131 florins 12 stivers per laft, besides brokerage and meetage, &c. which the citizens and bakers likewise pay. The above, and such sort of goods, are commonly bought and sold in Amsterdam, by the gold stoin of 28 stivers.

The laft of Amsterdam = in Paris 19 sextiers, in Bourdeaux 38 bushels, and 3 lafts of Amsterdam = 4 lafts of Rouen; the laft of North Holland is the same as that of Amsterdam. In Hoorn, Enchuyfen, Muyden, Naerden, and Weelop, a laft is 22 muids, or 44 sacks of 2 schepfels each.

In Haerlem they reckon 33 sacks to the laft; their sack is 3 fcheppels, 4 of which make the hoedt of Rotterdam, and 14 of thofe sacks make one hoedt of Delft.
 In Alchmear, in North Holland, a laft contains 26 sacks.
 In Leyden, they reckon 8 fcheppels to a sack, and 44 sacks to a laft.
 In Rotterdam, Delft and Schedam, they reckon 29 sacks to a laft, 3 fcheppels to a sack, and 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ sacks to a hoedt; the laft of thefe places are two per cent. more than that of Amftterdam.
 In Tergow, they reckon 28 sacks to a laft, 3 fcheppels to a sack, and 32 fcheppels to the hoedt.
 In Utrecht, they reckon 25 muids or sacks to the laft, and 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ sacks to the hoedt of Rotterdam.
 In Montfoort, Yelftain, and Vianen, &c. they reckon 2 sacks to a muid, and 18 muids to a laft.
 In Friefeland, Lewarden, Haerlingen, and in other towns in Weft Friefeland, and at Groningen in Eaft Friefeland, they reckon 33 muids to the laft.
 In Gelderland and the county of Cleves, viz. in Nimeguen, Arnheim, and Doerburgh, they reckon 4 fcheppels to a mouver, and 22 mouverers to a laft, and 8 mouverers make one hoedt of Rotterdam.
 In Thiel, they reckon 33 fcheppels to a laft.
 In Ruremond, they reckon 68 fcheppels to a laft.
 In Haerderwick, they reckon 11 muids equal to 10 muids of Amftterdam.
 In Over-Yffel in Champen, 25 muids are equal to a laft, and 9 muids = 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
 In Zwell, 9 muids = 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
 In Deventer, 4 fcheppels = 1 muid, and 36 muids to a laft.
 The lafts of Zealand. In Middleburg 4 sacks $\frac{1}{2}$ = to a laft, the sack being not much more than 2 fcheppels.
 In Flufhing, Zurickfee, Brill, and fome other places in the neighbourhood, 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ fcheppels = to a sack.
 In Liege, 12 fextiers = 1 muid, 8 muids = 1 laft.
 In Tongres, 15 muids = 1 laft of corn, and 14 muids = 1 laft of oats.
 The lafts of Brabant. At Antwerp, 30 virtules make a laft, and 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ of their virtules make a laft of Amftterdam; 4 mukens make a virtule, and 32 virtules make a sack of oats.
 In Bruffels, 25 sacks make a laft of Amftterdam.
 In Malines, 28 virtules make a laft of Amftterdam.
 In Lovain, 37 muids make a laft, and 8 halfters make a muid.
 In Breda and Steenberge, 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ virtules make a laft of corn, 29 virtules a laft of oats, and 13 of thefe virtules make 18 sacks, or 1 hoedt of Amftterdam.
 In Bregenopzoom, 34 virtules make a laft of corn, and 28 $\frac{2}{4}$ virtules a laft of oats.
 In Boifleduc, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ mouverers, 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
 The lafts of Flanders. In Ghent 2 halfters make a sack, 6 sacks a muid, 29 sacks, or 58 halfters, a laft of corn, and 19 sacks, or 38 halfters, a laft of oats.
 In Bruges, 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ hoedt make a laft of corn, and 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ hoedt a laft of oats, the latter being equal to the laft of Amftterdam.
 In St. Omer's 2 fcheppels make a razior, and 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziors a laft.
 In Dixmude, 30 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziors make a laft of wheat, and 24 raziors a laft of oats.
 In Lifle, 41 raziors make a laft of wheat, and 30 raziors a laft of oats.
 In Dunkirk, 18 raziors make one hoedt of Rotterdam.

Of oils and honey.

The oil olives are ufually kept in butts and pipes, containing from 20 to 25 fteekens; 16 mingles make a fteeken; 717 mingles, or 1434 pints, make a tun of oil in Amftterdam, which is there fold at fo many pounds Flemifh per tun. Coarfe fifh oil is commonly kept in barrels, containing between 15 to 20 fteekens, and is ufually fold in Amftterdam at fo many florins per barrel.
 Honey is kept in various kinds of veffels, both of wood and earth: in fome places it is fold by meafure, in others by weight. In Amftterdam, they fell it at fo many pounds Flemifh per tun, confifting of 6 tierces, or aums, and alfo by fo many florins per barrel, or by the hundred weight. The duty of weighing is 43 ftivers per 1000 weight; and this, as well as brokerage, is paid one half by the buyer, the other by the feller.

Of fome curious cafes, exempling the arbitration of the foreign exchanges, wherein Holland is concerned.

Suppofe that you are prefented with bills of exchange upon Naples, for which an exchange of 82 fols per ducat of 10 carlins is required.

To this fuppofition let us add another, which is, that before you receive thofe bills of exchange, you would know how many fols you can afford to give for every ducat, after having circulated them through feveral places, and paying $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. provifion to each correspondent through whole hands the money fo circulates.

Let it be further fuppofed, that Naples which is the chief object of confideration, exchanges with Rome, by giving 124 ducats del regno for 100 Roman crowns:—that Rome

retains a provifion, and exchanges with Venice, by giving 62 crowns d'eftampe for 100 ducats bank money:—that Venice exchanges with Amftterdam, by taking 90 deniers gros per the laid ducat, and alfo referves provifion money:—that Amftterdam exchanges with Madrid at 96 deniers gros per ducat, of 375 marvadees, and retains the provifion: and, laftly, that Madrid exchanges with Lyons at 76 fols per piafter of 272 marvadees of plate, and retains provifion money.

Thefe things previoufly fuppofed, the queftion is to find the answer above required, according to that admirable rule of conjunction, praftifed by the moft fkilful money-negotiators in Europe.

In order to judge of the rationale of this operation, the reader is defired to confult what I have laid under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES; alfo the article EXCHANGES, and fuch others to which I refer from thofe heads.

The cafe, ftated according to the reafons there given, will ftand as follows:

Antecedents.	Equality.	Consequents.
124 Ducats Naples	=	92 $\frac{1}{2}$ Roman crowns, provifion deducted.
8 Roman crowns	=	7 Crowns d'eftampe of Rome.
87 Crowns d'eftampe	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ duc. bco. of Venice, provifion deducted.
1 Ducat bco. of Venice	=	124 Marchetti bco. of Ven.
1000 Marchetti bco.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Marchetti bco. provifion deducted.
124 Marchetti bco.	=	83 3 Deniers gros bco. of Amftterdam.
1000 Den. gros bco. of Amft.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Deniers gros bco. provifion deducted.
83 Den. gros bco. of Amft.	=	87 3 Marvadees of plate, of Madrid.
100 Marvadees of plate	=	99 Marvadees provif. ded.
272 Marvadees	=	19 Sols Tournois.

Then quere, How many of thefe laft fols will be equal to one ducat of Naples?

EXPLANATION.

The antecedents and confequents, being thus ranged, are abridged and cancelled, according to the axioms given under the before-mentioned article of ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES; and the product of all the confequents multiplied together for a dividend, and alfo the product of all the antecedents multiplied together for a divisor, the quotient will give the answer 83 fols Tournois of Lyons per ducat of Naples.

The advantage, propofed to be reaped by this operation, is to difcover if the profit of a fol per ducat, that is fuppofed to be made, by the circulation of your money in this manner, will fufficiently answer the negociator's end in being out of his money: that it will not, is apparent at firft glance of the eye, if due attention be given to what I have laid under the before intimated articles; fo that it may be obferved, that the answer, produced by this operation, is a touchftone to the foreign banker whereby to regulate his conduct, upon occafions of the like nature.

Another EXAMPLE.

To know the profit, by circulating of money as follows, in divers foreign places.

Suppofe you have 2000 florins bank money in a correspondent's hands at Amftterdam, and would know if it is more profitable to draw direftly at 56 deniers gros per crown of 60 fols, or to pafs the net proceeds to Mr. Berens of London, at 34 fols gros per pound fterling, with order to remit to Mr. Deftaundau of Lifbon, at 66 pence fterling per milree, and he to remit to Nozzolini of Leghorn, at 770 rees per piafter of 20 fols d'or; and this latter to remit to Mr. Joyez of Madrid, at 123 piafters of 8 royals old plate, per 100 of the laid piafters of Leghorn, in order to make a remittance at 76 fols Tournois per piafter of 8 royals, in paying $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. provifion to each correspondent, excepting him at Lifbon, according to mutual agreement.

1 Florin bco.	=	48 Den. gros bco. of Amftterdam.
1000 Deniers gros	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, provifion deducted.
12 Deniers gros	=	1 Sol gros bco.
12 Sols gros bco.	=	15 Pence fterling.
1000 Pence fterling.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, provifion deducted.
88 Ditto	=	10000 Rees of Lifbon.
770 Rees of Lifbon	=	1 Piafter of Leghorn.
1000 Piafters of Legh.	=	123 64 Piafters of Madrid.
1000 Piafters of Madr.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, provifion deducted.
1 Ditto	=	19 Sols Tournois of Lyons.
1000 Sols Tournois	=	99 Sols ditto, provifion deducted.
88 Ditto	=	8 Livres Tournois.

Quere, How many livres Tournois will 2000 florins bank money of Amftterdam make? Answer, 4414 livres 12 fols 2 deniers Tournois.

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EXPLANATION.

The antecedents and the consequents of this numerical equation are also abridged, according to the axioms given, under the article of ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, and the one divided by the other, as in the preceding example.

EXAMPLE of another kind.

To know by time and rule, how much per cent. profit is to be made by arbitrating the exchanges, and the place through which the circulation should be made preferably to another. As the mercantile student cannot understand the true advantage, without computing what a sum will produce, if drawn directly from one place upon another; to compare this way with that of the circulation through one or more places, to know what you have gained or lost upon the 2000 florins that were due to you at Amsterdam, the operation should be made first directly, according to the course of exchange of the day, upon which you have given your correspondent orders: as for example, of 56 deniers gros per crown, by stating it by the rule of conjunction, thus:

1 Florin bco. = 48 Deniers gros bco.
 $\frac{2000}{56}$ Deniers gros = $99\frac{1}{2}$ Deniers gros, provision deducted.
 $\frac{2000}{56}$ Dittó = 3 Livres Tournois.

Quere, How many livres Tournois will 2000 bco. make?

EXPLANATION.

The antecedents and consequents abbreviated, according to the foregoing direction, will give a product to the latter of 29850 for a dividend, and 7 will remain as an antecedent divisor, which will produce a quotient of 4264 livres, 5 sols, 8 deniers: but the sum, produced from the foregoing instance by circulation, is 4414 livres, 12 sols, 2 deniers: so that the former deducted from the latter affords a profit, by circulation, of 150 livres, 6 sols, and 6 deniers.

Now, if you would know how much per cent. profit this produces, say, by the direct rule of proportion, If 2000 florins give 150 livres, 6 sols, 6 deniers, what will 100?

Answer, $7\frac{1}{2}$ livres per cent. florins, which is the advantage, and something more, that may be made by this procedure.

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The student should be apprized, that he ought not to expect the returns of his funds after the circulation, in order to discover the profit or loss; but his calculation should be made before engagement, or he may be greatly disappointed by this kind of banking.

REMARKS before the last war.

Under the article FRANCE, we have shewn the general system of French politics with regard chiefly to their commercial interests, ever since the time of Mazarine, and the glaring effects thereof to various powers in Europe, and more particularly with regard to the true interests of Great-Britain and Holland, in the destruction of the Dutch barrier: which, as it has continued in a very precarious state, and does to this moment, notwithstanding the conclusion of the late peace some years since, it behoves the public wisdom to consider, what was the general sense of the nation, when this matter was before in a state of the like uncertainty. See also the article FLANDERS, where we have spoke to this matter.

In respect to the house of commons, their sense can no way be better seen than from their own journals, and therefore I shall give the reader the abstract of them.

In the beginning of 1677, the commons in very pressing terms represented to the king, that the minds of his people were very much disquieted with the dangers arising from the manifest growth and power of the French king; especially by the acquisitions made, and like to be made by him, in the Spanish Netherlands. 'In the preservation and security whereof, say they, we humbly conceive the interest of your majesty, and the safety of your people, are highly concerned; and therefore we most humbly beseech your majesty to take the same into your royal care, and to strengthen yourself with such stricter alliances, as may secure your majesty's kingdoms, and preserve the said Spanish Netherlands, and thereby quiet the minds of your majesty's people.'

And when the lords, who concurred with the commons in this address, would have had particular mention likewise made of Sicily, it being of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king; the commons disagreed to it for this reason, because 'the special mentioning of Sicily would seem to put less weight upon the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; the conservation of which they conceive to be of much more moment to his majesty's kingdoms, than that of Sicily. For tho' it may be of great importance to our trade that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king, yet the safety of his majesty's kingdoms is not so immediately endangered thereby; and therefore it ought not to be equally insisted on.'

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The king agreed with his parliament, in owning the great importance the conservation of FLANDERS was of to ENGLAND; but the rest of his answer, which shewed his aversion to enter into a war for it's defence, was so little satisfactory, that a motion was immediately made for a second address to his majesty, to enter into a strict and speedy alliance with the confederates; and, in pursuance of this motion, the house did about a fortnight after (March 30) in a second address, 'with most earnest and repeated desires, implore his majesty, that he would be pleased to take timely care to prevent those dangers, that may arise to these kingdoms by the great power of the French king, and the progress he daily makes in the Netherlands and other places; and that he would not defer the entering into such alliances as may obtain those ends, promising fully to assist his majesty, if he should be engaged in a war in pursuance of such alliances.'

Within three days after the king's answer to this address, April 13, the house made a third address, to assure his majesty, that 'they would with most cheerful hearts proceed, both then and at all other times, to furnish his majesty with such large supplies upon this occasion (to preserve the NETHERLANDS and check the growth of France) as might enable him, by God's assistance, to maintain the alliances they had advised, against all opposition whatsoever.' This address, upon the king's answer to it, was immediately followed by a fourth, April 16, assuring his majesty of their duty and affection; and that he might not only depend upon the supply he desired, but upon all such assistances as the posture of his affairs should require: 'In confidence whereof, say the commons, we hope your majesty will be encouraged in the mean time to speak and act such things as your majesty shall judge necessary, for attaining those great ends we have formerly represented to your majesty.'

These repeated addresses from so loyal a house of commons sufficiently shew how much the nation was alarmed upon the dangers to which they saw the NETHERLANDS exposed. The commons were so bent upon this point, as a matter of the last consequence, that they would take no denial, which made the court resolve upon adjourning them for 5 weeks. But what passed in this interval did not make the commons alter their sentiments, or less earnest in the pursuit of them. When they met again, May the 21st, they fell into very warm debates, and resolved to advance still one step farther in a matter of so great concern, which was to address his majesty to enter into a league OFFENSIVE and DEFENSIVE with the States, and to make other fit alliances against the growth and power of France, and for the preservation of the Spanish NETHERLANDS: and in this address they tell his majesty, how highly sensible they are of the necessity of supporting, as well as making, the alliances desired in their former addresses; 'which we still conceive, say they, so important to the safety of your majesty and your kingdoms, that we cannot, without unfaithfulness to your majesty and those we represent, omit upon all occasions humbly to beseech your majesty, as we now do, to enter into a league offensive and defensive with the States, &c.' And, that no time might be lost in doing this, they gave his majesty this reason amongst others; 'the great danger and charge which must necessarily fall upon your majesty's kingdoms, if, through want of timely encouragement and assistance, the States, or any other considerable part of the confederates, should make a peace with the French king (the prevention whereof hitherto, say they, must be acknowledged to be a singular effect of God's goodness to us;) which, if it should happen, your majesty would afterwards be necessitated with fewer, perhaps with no alliances, to withstand the power of the French king, which has so long and so successfully contended with so many and potent enemies; and, whilst he continues his overbalancing greatness, must always be dangerous to his neighbours: since he would be able to oppress any one confederate, before the rest could get together, and be in so good a posture of offending him as they are now, being jointly engaged in a war; and if he should be so successful as to make a peace, or disunite the present confederation against him, it is much to be feared, whether it would be possible ever to reunite it. At least it would be a work of so much time and difficulty, as would leave your majesty's kingdom exposed to much misery and danger. Having thus discharged our duty, in laying before your majesty the dangers threatening your majesty and your kingdoms, and the only remedy we can think of for preventing it, and quieting the minds of your people, we most humbly beseech your majesty to take such resolutions, as may not leave it in the power of any neighbouring prince, to rob your people of that happiness they enjoy under your majesty's gracious government.' Then they oblige themselves not only by their promises with great unanimity renewed in a full house, but by the zeal and desires of those they represent, and by the interest of all their safeties, most cheerfully to give his majesty speedy and plentiful supplies.

This earnest and importunate address, which was presented May the 26th, expressed not only the sense of a very full house,

house, but, indeed, of the whole nation; which gave it so much weight that the court saw they should be forced to comply with it, unless they betook themselves to the last refuge in such cases, and immediately put an end to the session. The parliament, therefore, was accordingly dismissed, and not suffered to sit again till the end of January 1677-8. But, though the court could interrupt the sitting of the parliament as they pleased, it was not possible to change their sentiments; and they no sooner met again, but they resumed their former debates with more earnestness, if possible, than before. For, as that long interval, in which they had not been suffered to have any opportunity of interposing their counsels with his majesty, had given the French so much farther leisure to finish their design upon the Netherlands, the nation was so much the more alarmed; and, in a new address, January 31, they 'humbly desire his majesty, with the highest zeal for his honour and the safety of his people, not to admit of any treaty of peace, whereby the French king shall be left in possession of any larger dominions and territories, or of any greater power than what he retained by the Pyrenean treaty; less than which, they conceive, can't secure his majesty's kingdoms and the rest of Europe, from the growth and power of the said king, but that he alone may be able to disturb the peace thereof, whenever he is inclined to attempt it.'—And they farther desire, that, in all treaties in order to the obtaining that end, his majesty would be pleased to provide, that none of the parties that shall join with him in making war for that purpose may lay down their arms or depart for their alliances, until the said king be reduced at least to the said treaty.' The commons had reason to hope for a compliance with this address; the king having in his speech acquainted them, that he 'had made, according to their desire, such alliances with Holland, as were necessary for the preservation of FLANDERS; that, since a good peace could not be had by fair means, it should not be his fault if it were not obtained by force of arms; that if he be supported by them, he will not be weary, till Christendom be restored to such a peace, as it shall not be in the power of any prince alone to disturb.'

But, whatever influenced the counsels of the court, this address met with no better reception than their last. They had been then told, that 'what they did was an invasion of the prerogative;' and now they were told, not only the same thing, but, what is more surprizing, that, 'the king, having asked the advice of both houses, can't act upon any that does not jointly come from both.' The commons, however, not rebutted by this treatment, persevered; and immediately voted a good supply, and, upon March 14, resolved to address his majesty, 'That, to quiet the minds of his subjects, and encourage the confederates, he would be pleased immediately to proclaim and enter into an actual war against the French king, promising constantly to stand by and assist his majesty with plentiful supplies: to which address they desired the concurrence of the lords; but, before it could be entirely obtained, they were adjourned to the middle of April, and from thence to the 29th; when the lord chancellor acquaints them, in the king's name, 'that the States, whom he had long found weary of the war,' (and, indeed, had made so; for they were quite discouraged from expecting help from England, when they saw the zeal and spirit of the nation entirely defeated and eluded by the court;) 'were making haste to get out of it, and were entered upon considerations of accepting such a peace, as France had thought fit to offer, though it be, without his majesty's consent or privity; a peace as ill for themselves and the rest of Christendom, as their enemies could wish.' And, in this difficult conjuncture, the king desires their advice, (when it is too late) and resolves to pursue it now; though their giving it before in time, when it would have been of the greatest consequence, was made a high crime. It is not my business to expose the insincerity of the court in this whole affair: they who would see this, need only read Sir William Temple's Letters and Memoirs; a person of undoubted reputation and authority, and who was in those times his majesty's ambassador in the Low Countries. But I cannot but observe from these words, what a character the king gives of that peace that was a little after concluded at Nimeguen; and, what made that peace so ill a one, was the leaving so much of Flanders in the possession of France, and the remainder so much exposed by a weak and insecure BARRIER.

But to proceed: the commons, who were willing to hope, that if the court were sincere, things might be yet retrieved, came May the 4th to two resolutions, which they laid before the king, without staying to put them into the usual form of address, by reason of the importance of the affair; and the exigency of the time. In the first, they 'declared the league made with the States to procure a peace between the two crowns upon certain terms therein specified, not to be pursuant to their addresses, nor consistent with the good and safety of the kingdom: and yet by these terms (had France been obliged to accept them) Tournay, Conde, and Valenciennes, were to be restored, together with the

dukedom of Lorrain. The other resolution was, to desire his majesty 'forthwith to enter into the confederacy for the vigorous carrying on of the present war; and particularly, that effectual endeavours might be used for continuing the States in the confederacy; and that no peace might be made with France, without general consent first had.'

And, upon the king's refusing to give any answer till he had the concurrent advice of both houses, they immediately resolved to address his majesty to give a speedy answer to their last address, and to remove those counsellors who advised the answers to the former addresses of the 26th of May and 31st of January, or either of them; 'by which answers, they say, his majesty's good subjects had been infinitely discouraged, and the state of his affairs reduced to a most deplorable condition.' They mean the progress of the French in FLANDERS, and the great jealousy and uneasiness which that gave the nation. And, notwithstanding the king told them May the 23d, that things were driving violently on towards a peace, yet still, to prevent so much of Flanders remaining in the hands of France, they resolved, if his majesty would then enter into a war against the French king, they were, and always would be, ready to assist him. But these, and all the other efforts the commons could make, could not force the court into right measures, or prevent an ill peace; and served only to vindicate themselves to posterity from having any hand in it.

It is impossible to read this short account of the proceedings of the commons, and not observe of how very great importance they thought the saving of Flanders was to the safety and security of this nation. This was so plainly the known and certain interest of England, that all the arts the court could use, could not divert them from pursuing this point. This was the first parliament that was chosen after the restoration, which continued sitting above 17 years, and cannot be suspected either of not having a true regard for the prerogative, or a due deference for the sentiments of the court. But the interest and safety of their country was so much concerned in the preservation of Flanders, that this consideration carried them into these measures, in opposition to the ministry, in which they steadily and unalterably persevered, and the nation was entirely with them; the point, they pressed against the court, having apparently no other foundation than their hearty zeal and concern for its true interest. And the king himself thought fit, when it was too late, to express at least the same concern they did, and to concur in the same sentiments; as appears from his speech to them not long after, in which he opens his heart freely to them, and tells them he was 'resolved to save Flanders, either by a war or a peace, as the greatest foreign interest of this nation: that things seem already to have determined in a peace, at least as to Spain and Holland; that he is resolved to give his guaranty to it in the strongest manner he is able; but that he could not tell how far that would go, for that they had already sent him word, that unless England and Holland will both join in the charge of maintaining Flanders, even after the peace, the Spaniards will not be in a condition of supporting it alone, and must fall into other measures: that France on the other hand will be left so great, that nothing abroad can treat them hereafter upon an equal foot, without the hopes of being supported by this crown: that though after the supplies they had given towards a war, they may think the peace an ill bargain; perhaps they won't believe it so, if they consider that by it so great a part of Flanders is likely to be saved; whereas, without the paces made towards a war, there is nothing so certain as that the whole of it would have been absolutely lost that campaign. And I believe you would, says the king, give much greater sums than this will cost you, rather than the single town of Ostend should be in the French hands, and forty of their men of war in so good a haven over-against the river's mouth.'

If a nation will ever be allowed to speak its own sense, it must be owned the English nation did so on this occasion; and the reader will observe, that the king in this speech, where he opens his heart to them, justifies their sentiments.

Here then is the voice of the nation, declaring in the fullest and most unexceptionable manner, that it is the true interest of England, that there should be preserved a good barrier in the Netherlands; and in order thereunto, that France should on that side be reduced, at least, to the terms of the Pyrenean treaty. And, it adds to the weight of this authority, that in this concurrence of prince and people in the same sentiments, the people don't concur with the prince (in which they might be thought to be influenced or overawed) but the prince with his people; which it is certain could proceed from nothing in this case, but that they had most evident reason on their side, which was too manifest to be denied, however their desires were eluded or refused. See our article FRANCE, FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS.

REMARKS ON HOLLAND since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Since the treaty of Utrecht, the Dutch have declined acting in concert with Great-Britain against France in the two last

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great wars. In the year 1742, the court of London sent the earl of Stair to Holland, to influence them to join in British measures; and afterwards the earl of Chesterfield, then principal secretary of state, was sent by his Britannic majesty, with fresh applications to the States General. His first proposition was, that the republic should join with England and her allies in declaring war against France. The second was, that they should garrison the strong places belonging to the queen of Hungary in Flanders, that she might be at liberty to employ her troops in the field. Thirdly, that Great-Britain should take into pay 30,000 of the republic's troops, who were to be lent to the queen of Hungary, who was then likely to be greatly distressed. The fourth and last, was an offer of a new TREATY of COMMERCE between Great-Britain and Holland.

Their High Mightinesses declined all these propositions, and left Great-Britain alone to sustain the expence of that war against Spain and France; yet, at the peace of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, all their BARRIER TOWNS were restored to them by the 11th article of that treaty, at our expence, we giving France up CAPE BRETON, the only valuable conquest we then made.

In the last war, as well as the former, the Dutch reaped the full advantages of a neutrality in trade, and encouraged that of our enemies, to our great disadvantage; whereby their gains became so extravagantly great, that they were enabled to lend us MILLIONS UPON MILLIONS, to carry on these wars; and we are now tributaries to them as our public creditors, for above one fourth part of our whole PUBLIC DEBTS thereby contracted; which, with what we were before indebted to them by the wars of king William and queen Anne, we now pay them near a million a year interest money: a prodigious drain from the wealth of this kingdom, and enables them still more and more to ruin our trade and navigation, by extending that of our competitors; for the commodities of France are now become so much CHEAPER than ours, that the Dutch give them the preference, and purchase and carry them to all parts of the world; while they experience English commodities to be so excessively DEAR, that foreign nations are not able to purchase them of the Dutch, who formerly were wont to buy them, and transport them to all parts of the commercial globe. See our articles DUTIES and LABOUR. And, Till the TAX-INCUMBRANCES of this nation are greatly reduced, and the general prices of our commodities are so lowered that we shall be able to sell them as cheap as our rivals in trade, neither HOLLAND nor other nations can, or will be capable of dealing with us at all: and what increases this national evil daily, is, that while we grow more and more unable to vend our own commodities in foreign countries, foreigners will intrude theirs upon us, because they here find a better market for them than in any other country; for the magnitude of public debts, and in consequence the increase of the circulation of paper credit, adds a higher value to foreign commodities as well as our native.—Thus, while we are rendered less and less able to sell our own wares, traders will deal in foreign, till the nation becomes unable to buy them because they cannot sell their own.

The duchy of **HOLSTEIN** in Germany. It is the most northern part of Germany, on the confines of Denmark, being separated from the duchy of Sleswic by the river Eider. It has the German Ocean on the west, the Baltic, or the gulph of Lubec, on the east, and Lawenburg, with the territory of Hamburg on the south.

The country in general is fruitful, abounds with corn, orchards, black cattle, and hogs, and is well seated for trade.

LUBEC is an imperial city, and chief of the hanse-towns, at the conflux of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave, which brings ships of burden into the very heart of the city, 8 or 10 miles from the sea. It employs about 150 sail of it's own ships, for it has a considerable trade with Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterburg, and with this last more immediately than any other country.

As the Lubeckers have such an immediate commerce with the ports of Livonia and the East Sea, so they have always great magazines of the merchandize of those countries at Lubec; and large warehouses again at those ports respectively, with the manufactures and other goods of England, France, Spain, the East and West-Indies, &c. Here they are able to supply the neighbouring countries with naval stores, and with iron, copper, beer, and all sorts of goods, supplied by the Baltic trade.

Their chief home commodity, besides corn, is beer, which is highly valued; much of it is transported, and used medicinally for wounds and bruises.

KIEL, at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, is the capital of all Holstein. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ships from Germany, Sweden, &c. is populous and wealthy. It is much enriched by it's yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks. Vast sums of money are here negotiated, and payments made of sums contracted before-hand, as punctually as by an Amsterdam banker up-

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on the exchange; inasmuch that the man who does not preserve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and subjected to punishment, beside the scandal. During this fair Hamburg looks like a desert, because every body hurries hither to pay their rents, or to renew their leases, or to let out money, &c.

ITZEHO, on the river Stoer, is a small town at the foot of a mountain, and has some trade by it's river, which falls about 7 miles below it into the Elbe.

HOPS, a plant of the reptile kind, whose flower is an essential ingredient in the brewing of malt-liquors. See BREWING.

Of the land fit for the planting of hops.

A rich, deep, mellow, dry soil, more inclining to sand than clay, is in general, the fittest for hops; and, in particular, a black garden mould is excellent.

The best situation for hop-grounds, is such as inclines to, or lies open to the south, so that they may have the benefit of the sun the greatest part of the day.

Having pitched upon your ground and situation, the next business is to prepare it for the planting. In many parts of England, where they break up ground for this purpose, the plough goes first, and men follow it with their spades, and dig one spit in the furrow where the plough has gone, and throw it on the sward, and so plough and dig till the whole be done.—Continue the same tillage which is practised on land for corn; or, rather, which is preferable, cross-plough and harrow it well in summer; and, in the end of July or beginning of August, sow it with turnip-feed, which being hoed twice, at the distance of 8 inches from each other, will make the ground fine, destroy the weeds, and make the turnips large.—When the turnips are off, give it another ploughing, which, with the winter mellowing, will make it fit for hop-planting in the spring; but, if your ground be rich, mellow, and dry, whether it be lay or fallow, begin to plough it in October as deep as you can, and let it lie all the winter to mellow by the frosts, rains, and snows; and, in the beginning of spring, harrow it well and plough it again, and in March harrow it fine, and lay it as even as you can.

When your ground is thus prepared, then on a straight side of the field, at 15 or 30 feet distance from the hedge, stretch a line parallel to the hedge, with knots or rags tied in it, at such distance as you design your hills, and stick in the ground a sharp-pointed stick at every knot, as marks where the hills are to be; continue the line in the same manner the whole length of your ground; and from this first row you may mark out the rest of the ground either in squares, chequer-wise, by making parallel lines at the distance the hills are to be, or in the quincunx form, where the hills of every row lie opposite to the middle of the first, in a triangular form.

The distance of the hills should be according to the nature and goodness of your soil; if it be dry and shallow, about six or seven feet will be a convenient distance; if rich, moist, and subject to bear large hops and leaves, then eight or nine feet is the proper distance. But, in old ground, if your hills are too far asunder, that inconveniency may be remedied by enlarging the hills, and increasing the number of roots and poles: if your hills be too near, then lessen the roots and number of poles, for over-poling is more injurious than the contrary.

The season for planting is from the end of February to the 10th of April, at the time when the hop begins to sprout.

There are several kinds of hops; those most esteemed are, the long white, the oval, and the long square garlic hop; which differ from one another in the colour and shape of the bells, or hops, in their degree of bearing, and time of ripening.—The long white is a great bearer; the beauty of hops consists in their pale bright green colour. The oval hop is beautiful, but does not produce so great a quantity: there is a sort of this kind of white hop, called the earthy, or rash hop, which is ripe a week or 10 days before the common; but it is more tender, and bears but a thin crop: the chief advantage therefore is, that it comes first to market.—The long and square garlic hop is the greater bearer, more hardy, and something later ripe than the former; but, by reason of the redness round the stalk, is not so beautiful to the eye, and, therefore, not so much esteemed.

There is a hop called the female hop, and, by some, the wild hop, which puts out a great number of branches of small flowers about the beginning of July, not like the true hop; but in the latter end of that month, just before the true hop begins to flower, they are ripe, and then, with the least motion of the wind, they shed a farina, which disperses itself quite round about, and possibly may be of use to impregnate other hops; and, therefore, some advise to leave one or two hills of them standing in the hop-ground, till farther trial be made whether they are of any, or what use; but the ordinary practice is to mark them at their first appearance, and to root them out afterwards, because they bear no bells or hops, and being commonly the strongest plants, without care in marking them, sets may by mistake be taken from them.

There is a poor starved hop, called a wild hop; but this is not judged to be a distinct sort, but a hop which has degenerated for want of culture.

The several kinds and goodnefs of hops may be known alfo by the colour of the vines, binds, or stalks: the whitifh binds produce the white hop, both the long and the oval; the grey or greenifh binds commonly yield the large fquare hop; but the red binds produce the brown hop, which is leaf of all effeemed.

You ought to be very curious in the choice of your plants, or fetts, as to the kind of hop, for it is a great trouble and lofs to the planter when his garden proves a mixture of feveral forts of hops, ripening at different times. He that plants the three forts of hops before-mentioned, viz. the early, the long white, and fquare hop, in three diftinct parts of his ground, will have the conveniency of picking them fucceffively as they become ripe.

Hop-fetts are cuttings from the roots or branches which grow from the main root or ftock.—Procure fetts, if poffible, out of ground, of the fame fort you would propogate; let them be 6, 7, or 8 inches long, with three or more joints, or buds, on them, all the old bind, and hollow part of the fett, being cut off.

The ground being prepared, as obferved, then in the latter end of February, if your ground be light, or late in March, if the ground be ftrong and moift, in the places where you laid your fticks, make holes, about a foot or 16 inches over, but their depth muft be according to the nature of the ground; 10 or 12 inches depth in general is fufficient.—But, if the ground be fhallow, and you meet with hard clay or gravel, by no means enter into it, for then you make a bafon to retain water; but, in fuch cafe, inftead of going deeper, raife up a fmall hill of good mould. If there is a good depth of rich mellow mould, then dig the hole a foot and a half, or two feet deep, and you will find the hops thrive better, for the top roots naturally run downwards.

When all things are ready for planting, fill up the holes with the mould which you threw out, if the fame be naturally good, having firft broke it fine with a fpade; but, if the fame be not rich enough, then make ufe of fine frefh mould, or compoft provided for that purpofe, about a peck or two to a hill, but by no means put any dung into it.

Then with a dibble make 5 or 6 holes, the depth of your fetts, one in the middle perpendicular, and the reft round about floping, and meeting at the top near the centre; put your fetts therein, and let them ftand even with the furface; prefs the mould clofe to them, and cover them with fine mould, two or three inches thick.

Be careful to fet the ends of every fett upwards which grew fo before, and let no part of the dead ftalk remain on the upper joint.—If the fetts have begun to fhoot before you have time to plant them, by no means cover the young buds with mould, for that would deftroy them.

The ground firft planted, the fummer following keep the hills and alleys clear from weeds; in the month of May raife a fmall hill round about the plants, and throw fome fine mould on the roots in the latter end of May, or beginning of June, and twift all the vines or branches together into a bunch, or loofe knot, and lay them thus twifted on the top of the hill.—Some chufe to put one or two fticks, of three or four feet long, to each hill, for the vines to twift about, as more agreeable to the hop, efpecially if the vines be vigorous; but care muft be taken to prevent the hop from bearing the firft year, for that would weaken the plant.

The hop-ground being kept clear from weeds in fummer, the Michaelmas following lay on the alleys, between the hills, rotten dung, or that mixed with earth, or other manure, about 60 or 80 cart-loads to an acre, more or lefs, according to the goodnefs of the land. In November or December following plough it in, that it may the better incorporate with the foil.

The latter end of February, in the fecond year, when the weather is kindly, open the hills, and with a fharp knife cut off the fhoots of the firft year to within an inch of the old ftock, together with all the young fuckers that have fprung from the fetts, and cover the ftock with the fine earth.—In the third and fourth years, when you dig your hop-ground in February, let the earth be taken away with a fpade, or hoe, round about the hills very near them, that you may the more conveniently come at the ftock to cut it.—Then in fair weather, towards the beginning of March, will be the beft time, for late dreffing refrains their too early fpringing, which is the caufe of many injuries to the hop.—If your hops are old, or worn out of heart, in the beginning of winter, or at fartheft in January or February, if the weather be open, dig about them, and take away as much of the old barren earth as you can, and apply good fat mould, or compoft, to their roots; fuch winter-dreffing will recover your hops, and deftroy the weeds.

When you have dreffed your hops, pole them.—In the firft year of planting poles are not required; you need only twift the binds together into a knot on the top of the hill about the end of May, and let them lie fo all the feafon; but fome think it better to give them fhort poles or fticks, of four or five feet long.

The fecond year provide poles of 10 or 12 feet long, or more;

the third year they come to their full bearing ftate, and then require poles of full fize, according to the vigour of the ground.

When the poles are fet, and the vines are grown two or three feet high, fuch as have not taken to poles of themfelves fhould be guided by hand fo to do; the ftrongeft vines always to the tallft poles: be extremely cautious of breaking the tender fhoots in doing this.

Having dreffed and poled your hops judiciously, then fome time in May, efpecially after rain, give the ground the fummer's digging, and throw fome of the fine earth on the hills, and enlarge their breadth, cutting away and burying all fuperfluous roots of hops and weeds you find on the hills or alleys, whereby you will hinder the weeds from impoverifhing your hops, and keep your hills moift: by no means make up and finifh your hills all at once, but by degrees, and at different times.

Hops are greatly checked in growth by a very dry fpring; in fuch cafe, when the hop is branching, or in bloffom, you fhould have the command of a fream, to give them a thorough watering; flowing the allies will be fufficient, provided you throw the pareings on the hills immediately.—If the weather continues very dry, repeat this watering three or four times in the feafon, and be fure, after each watering, to throw fome of the pareings of your alleys on your hills, to keep them cool and moift.

About the latter end of July hops begin to bloffom; about the beginning of Auguft they bell, and are fometimes ripe, in forward years, at the end of Auguft, or beginning of September.—When the hops begin to change colour, or are eafily pulled to pieces, or fmell fragrantly, and the feeds begin to look brown and grow hard, you may conclude them ripe; then pick them with all expedition, for a form of wind will do them great mifchief at this time; and hops picked green and bright, without bruifing or difcolouring, will fell for a third part more than thofe that are otherwife.

As faft as you pick your hops, dry them on a kiln, or they will change colour; but, if you cannot thus immediately dry them, fpread them on fome floor, not too thick, and by that means the damage may not be great.

Great care fhould be taken that your hops be thoroughly and evenly dried: this is a great delicacy in the management of hops; for, if they are over-dried, they will change colour, look brown, and be judged to be burned, and fo greatly lofe in their value; and, if they be under-dried, they will lofe their colour and flavour.—It has been experienced, that even an handful of under-dried, hops has fpoiled many pounds of others, by depriving them of their pleafant fmell and colour.

The beft way of drying them is with a charcoal fire, on a kiln covered with hair-cloth, as they dry malt.—Lay the hair-cloth very even on the floor of the kiln, and fpread the green hops thereon, about fix inches thick, laying them with a rake as fmooth as poffible, not thicker in one place than another.—Let the kiln be firft moderately warmed before you lay on the hops; then keep an even and fteady fire under them; let not your heat be too fierce at firft, left you fcorch them; and let not your fire flacken, but rather increafe, till the hops be near dried, left the expelled humidity fhould return, and difcolour the hops.—If they do not dry in one place fo much as in the reft, which may be perceived by touching them with a wand, and obferving whether they rattle or no, then make them thinner in fuch places where they do not rattle fo much.

Hops are fully dried when the inner ftalks become brittle, and break fhort on rubbing, and when the hop-leaves eafily fall off, and feel very crisp: when you find them to crackle and leap a little, as they will do upon burfting of the feeds, then it is time to take them off the kiln.

The fire ought to be gentle, and of a due heat, and that it may be confiantly the fame, it may be of fervice to make ufe of a thermometer: this inftrument has a long, flender, hollow glafs tube, with a round ball at bottom, clofed at both ends, quite empty of air, but partly filled with fpirit of wine tinged; which liquor riles or falls in the tube in proportion as the outward air is either hot or cold.

When you have once found the degree of heat which is proper for drying of hops, and marked it on the thermometer, you may always after know how to regulate your fire with great exactnefs; for, putting the thermometer within-fide the kiln for fome fhort time, you may obferve, by the height of the liquor, when the heat is come to a right pitch, and when it is either too high or low, and fo increafe or flacken the fire accordingly.—Any fervant may, by help of this inftrument, be able to correct the degree of heat with great certainty, and not be liable to commit miftakes, which often prove extremely detrimental to hops.—When you begin drying, lofe no time in that work, but employ people night and day, with the utmoft care, till all be dried.

Hops break all to powder, if they are bagged hot from the kiln; to prevent which, they fhould be laid in a heap, to fweat and grow tough.—There is no certain time for their fweating, that varying according to the weather; three or four days are commonly fufficient; but it is a certain rule, that,

that, when you find the hops feel moist and clammy, and that they can be squeezed in your hand, or trodden close without breaking, then they are fit for bagging; and the harder they are trodden, the better they will keep.

The bags proper for this occasion are made of coarse linen cloth. They are commonly about 11 feet long, and near two yards and a half round, and contain about 2 C. $\frac{1}{2}$; small bags, or pockets, contain about half that weight: the thicker and closer the bag is, the better it will keep the hops.—When they are bagged, lay them upon a boarded floor, and in a dry place, for dampness will injure them much.—Take also care of rats and mice, which are apt to spoil them, not by eating them, but by making nests and lodging in them.

Some, in treading the hops, use a 50 pound weight, fastened to a rope, and place it in the middle of the bag; the man in the bag treads about it with his feet, and lifts it up now and then, to press them closer together.

As soon as the hops are picked, strip off the vines from the poles; then take care, as your last work, to preserve the poles during winter, which is done either by stacking, piling, or housing.

From October to March there is nothing to be done but to provide manure for the hop-ground, and to give the alleys a winter's digging or ploughing.

Ground that is fit for the raising of hops is generally so for the raising of poles. Ground that lies low, wet, cold, marshy, boggy, or near rivers, is fit for all the aquatic kind, such as poplars, abeles, alders, willows, oziers, and fallows, which will produce hop-poles in four or five years time from their planting, and are raised in great quantities, at small expence.

If your soil be dry, or a strong, mellow, rich loam, ash and chestnut, which make the best poles for hops, will thrive greatly, and be fit for poles, from their first planting, in about 9 or 10 years; and, if they are planted about your hop-ground, they will both shelter your ground, and supply you with poles, without the expence of carriage.—Elms also are quick growers, and when planted close together, grow tall and straight.

The charge of an acre of hop-ground, in some parts of England, is computed thus: 3l. for the husbandry, 4l. for the wear of poles, 5l. for picking and drying, 1l. 10s. for dung, 1l. for rent, and 10s. for tythe; in all, 15l. a year; and, in some places, they pay 4 or 5l. an acre yearly for the rent of the land.

The hop planters in England commonly agree with hop-dressers, to do all the husbandry part, for 3l. to 3l. 10s. per acre, which takes in the summer and winter dressing of the ground, and pruning and dressing the hops and hills, and poling and tying, several hoeings, and making up the hills from time to time; they laying the dung on the ground, and doing all other work, except the bringing the dung to the ground, and the picking and drying the hops, which work is performed by others.—So that a gentleman has little trouble with his hop-ground; he need only take care that the undertaker does every part of the work in it's proper season; and it is so much the interest of the undertaker to do so, that if he neglects hoeing when the weeds appear, he will, by such neglect, greatly multiply his trouble and labour in rooting them out afterwards.

R E M A R K S.

An English acre requires about 3000 poles; their price varies according to their size: it is usual in several places to give as many shillings for 100 poles as the poles are feet long; so that, for 100 poles of 20 feet long, they give 20s. but where poles are in plenty, they give but 15s. for such. It is computed that a recruit of 500 poles yearly will keep an English acre of hop-ground in constant repair: so that poles are about a third part of the yearly charge, and picking and drying another third, and the rest is laid out in the managing of the ground.

The hop-planters in England reckon that they have but a moderate return, when the produce of an English acre of hops sells for no more than 30l. They frequently have 50, 60, 80, or 100l. for an acre; nay, some have got considerably more for every acre of their hop-ground, at a time when other hops have generally failed, and theirs have succeeded. Such extraordinary profit, being very uncertain, is not to be depended on, but may be reckoned to make amends for failing years.

But if the whole charge of an acre is computed as above, at 15l. a year, and it's produce, at an average of years, at 30l. only, the clear profit per acre will be 15l. per annum. We must take notice, that, when we speak of the profit or quantity of hops growing on an acre, we suppose all along the hop-ground to be rich, and due care taken both in the culture of the ground and management of the hops; for, if they should be mismanaged or neglected, or the soil be poor, instead of yielding profit, they will be a certain loss.

It is requisite here to give this farther caution, that it is not proper for poor farmers, or men of small fortunes, to engage far in this improvement; for it requires a pretty considerable stock at first to cultivate a large plantation, to furnish poles, and to perform every other necessary: the expence will be

great, and the undertaker must expect to lie out of his money for two or three years, before he can have any return of profit: and even when his hops come to their bearing state, and he is in hopes of making good the charges he has been at, he may be disappointed by a bad season: these are risks and expences which a person who has not a tolerable fund should not in prudence venture upon.

It is not hereby intended to discourage any one from planting small parcels of hops, suitable to his abilities; for the poorest farmer may easily spare time and labour to plant a few hops in a corner of his garden, and fallows, willows, or ash for poles in his hedges; which will yield him a considerable profit, without laying out any money for the same.

A large hop-plantation is an undertaking fit for gentlemen who live upon their estates, or for rich substantial farmers. Where such are willing to engage herein, and find, upon trial of a small plot of ground, that their land is fit for hops, it is advised that they employ several acres of their best land this way, make early provision for poles, by planting coppices of trees fit for that purpose, and making this their chief care and business: whereas, if they content themselves with a small hop-yard, as it will not be worth their attention, it will soon come to be neglected. A gentleman who shall lay out 10 acres on hop-plantations, and employ skilful hands, and spare no cost in the right management thereof, may get as much profit by those 10 acres, as by 500 acres, perhaps, otherwise employed.

The hops of 10 acres, rightly managed, may very well be supposed to sell for 500l. and, allowing even 200l. for all expences, there will remain 300l. clear profit, which is more than could be got by 500 acres in other ways of ordinary husbandry.

It is common in England to see 10, 20, or 30 acres of hops, or more, in the hands of one man; and some receive 2000l. a year for their hops, notwithstanding the high price of labour, manure, and every other article relating to the management of hops; but then no care, industry, or expence is wanting, to make the plantation flourish.

It may be urged, as a discouragement to the hop-planter, that hops are a very tender plant, and an uncertain commodity to deal in; that they are very apt to suffer by winds, blights, mildews, rains, droughts, and insects; and, when they wholly fail, the loss is intolerable; and, if there be a general good crop, the price will be so low that it will hardly answer the charge.

It must be acknowledged, that hops often fail, by some one or other of the causes before-mentioned; yet we find by experience in England, that they are not discouraged by accidents of those kinds from keeping up and enlarging their plantations of hops: though they fail in one place, they may, and do thrive in another; they may succeed in higher grounds, when they fail in lower; and in failing years, if your quantity be small, they are sure to sell at a high price: it may be your good fortune, by careful and judicious management, that, when other hop-grounds generally fail, yours may prosper: and, if this should happen, you may gain more by such a crop in one year, than others may in three; and, if we should suppose a general scarcity, which happens frequently in three or four years time, yet this is frequently a benefit to the planter, because it will serve to consume the old stock of hops, and keep up the price of new hops for several years following, which will make ample compensation for the failing years; and it must be observed, that, in years when hops fail, you avoid a great part of the charge, which is that of picking and drying; but, if they should be every-where in plenty, and their price very low, if you can forbear selling, lay up your hops, and you may, in a failing year, which may follow a plentiful one, be well repaid for your forbearance.

HUDSON'S STREIGHTS and BAY. The mouth of the streight, which is in about 61 degrees of north latitude, is six leagues over, or, according to Mr. Dobbs, 12 or 13 leagues. At the mouth is an island called Resolution: Charles Island, Salisbury Island, and Nottingham, are in the streights; and Mansfield Island in the mouth of the bay. The streight, from Resolution Island to Cape Diggs, at the entrance of the bay, is about 140 leagues in length: the land on both sides, namely, Labrador and North Main, are inhabited by savages, of whom we have very little knowledge. The bay is about 300 leagues wide, from south to north, or rather above 530, if we reckon from the cod of James Bay, in about latitude 51, to that of Repulse Bay, in latitude 67. 10. but it's breadth is unequal, being 130 leagues where broadest; but it grows narrower, both to the southward and the northward, being not above 35 leagues broad in some places. That part of the bay on the west side, in latitude 57, is called Button's Bay; and the eastern part, from latitude 55. 15. to 51, and the most southern part, is called James's Bay. The coast, from Cape Henrietta Maria, in latitude 55. 15. where James's Bay begins, to the bottom of the bay, is about 100 leagues, and of much the same breadth all the way, being 50 and 60 leagues over.

On the eastern shore or coast of Labrador, lie several islands, called the North Sleepers, the West Sleepers, Bakers Dozen, Belchier's Isles; and, in James's Bay, Bear Island, Viner's Island,

Island, Charlton Island, Cape Hope Island, &c. All the country from Button's Bay, southward and eastward, as far as Labrador, is called New South Wales. This country is of very great extent, lying all round the southern part of Hudson's Bay, which make above 100 leagues or 300 miles, from the north-west to the south-east. It has New France, or Canada, on the east and south; on the west a vast track of unknown countries, inhabited by several Indian nations, who come and trade here; but how far it may be supposed to extend towards these several countries cannot yet be ascertained; since the English, who are the only Europeans, at present, who trade here, have no plantations or settlements within land, but live near the coast, within their forts, in little huts, wherein the builders consider nothing but how to defend themselves from the cold and rain, though they are not so much disturbed by the latter as by the former. The continent at the bottom of the bay, is by the French pretended to be part of New France, and, indeed, to cross the country, from St. Margaret's River, which runs into the river of St. Lawrence, to Rupert's River, at the bottom of Hudson's Bay, which is not above 150 miles. The country of Labrador is called the East Main, and that of New Wales the West Main.

The Hudson's Bay company have several forts and settlements on the latter, namely, 1. At the mouth of Churchill River, in about latitude 59. and longitude 95 west from London. 2. York Fort, at the mouth of Nelson's River. 3. At the New Severn. 4. At Albany River. 5. At Hayes's Island, And, 6. At Rupert's River.

The air, even at the bottom of the bay, though, by the latitude, it is nearer the sun than London, being in 51 degrees latitude, is excessive cold for nine months, the other three months very hot, except on a north-west wind. The soil on the East Main, as well as the West, bears no manner of grain, according to some; but others say the contrary.

Of the HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY.

This company was erected in king Charles the II'd's time, upon the following occasion: Mr. Radisson and Mr. Des Groseilliers, two French gentlemen, meeting with some savages in the lake of Assimponels in Canada, they learned of them that they might go by land to the bottom of the bay, where the English had not yet been; upon which, the Frenchmen desired the Indians to conduct them thither, which the savages accordingly did. The Frenchmen returned to the Upper Lake the same way they came, and from thence to Quebec, the capital of Canada, where they offered the principal merchants to carry ships to Hudson's Bay; but their project was rejected. Hence they went to France, in hopes of a more favourable hearing at court; but, after presenting several memorials, and spending a great deal of time and money, they were answered as they had been at Quebec, and the project was looked upon as chimerical †.

† The infidelity of men in power, in regard to matters of this nature, has been, in many nations, attended with consequences highly disadvantageous: but, although one of many projects of this kind should prove successful, yet that might very amply compensate the nation for the expence of those which might prove abortive.

The king of England's ambassador at Paris, hearing what proposal they had made, imagined he should do his country good service, by engaging the above-mentioned Frenchmen to serve the English, who had already some claim to the bay. He persuaded them to go to London, where they met with a favourable reception from some persons of quality, merchants and others, who entrusted Mr. Gillam, a person long used to the Newfoundland trade, to perfect this discovery. He sailed in the Nonfuch catch, in the year 1667, into Baffin's Bay, to the height of 75 degrees, and from thence southwards to 51 degrees, where he entered a river, to which he gave the name of Prince Rupert River; and, finding the savages disposed to a friendly commerce, he erected a small fortrefs there, which he called Charles Fort. The success of this expedition was so remarkable, that the persons concerned in fitting out the vessel, upon the return of Gillam, applied themselves to king Charles II. for a patent; who accordingly granted them one, dated the 2d of May, in the 22d year of his reign, A. D. 1670.

The commodities for trade here are gun-powder, shot, cloth, hatchets, kettles, tobacco, &c. which the English exchange with the Indians for furs, beavers, martens, foxes, moose, and other skins and furs. The great profits acquired by this trade, and the prospect of engrossing it wholly, engaged the new company to prosecute their measures vigorously, to settle a good correspondence with the natives, whom they found very tractable, and willing to traffic with them on reasonable terms: for the Indians about Rupert's River, and other places in the bay, are less subtle than the Canadians, who have had long commerce with the Europeans. They are generally peaceable and not given to quarrel, either among themselves or with others, except the Nodways, a wild barbarous nation, on the borders of Hudson's Streights; who sometimes, in slight parties, make excursions on the other Indians, and, having murdered 8 or 10, return in triumph.

In the year 1670, the Hudson's Bay company sent over Charles Bailey, Esq; as their governor, who, with Mr. Radisson, settled at Rupert's River; and another factory was established at Fort Nelson. In the year 1683, Henry Sergeant, Esq; was made governor at Rupert's River, with orders to be very careful of the French, who began now to shew themselves very jealous of the trade carried on by the English company with the natives. At the same time the company was not a little perplexed, by some bad practices among their own servants; who, considering the hardships they endured in that cold country, thought they might make bold with part of the profits, which were intirely owing to their labour, and negotiations with the natives: for the company, by their governors and agents, made such contracts with the captains, or kings of those people, where they had settlements, for the freedom of trade there, exclusive of all others, that the Indians could not pretend they had incroached upon them.—These contracts were as firm as the Indians could make them, by such ceremonies as were most sacred and obligatory among them. In the year 1686, we find the company in possession of five settlements, viz. Albany River, Hayes's Island, Rupert's River, Fort Nelson, or York, and New Severn.

Their trade at each of them was very considerable. From Albany River they had generally 3500 beavers a year; and, by governor Sergeant's great care and fidelity, their commerce increased so much, that the French began to be afraid that all the upland Indians might be drawn down to the bay.

They knew they could do any thing with king James II, who then reigned in England; and, therefore, they resolved to drive the English out of all their places in the bottom of the bay. They first took Hayes's Island, and, after that, the fort on Rupert's River. The French company procured a detachment of soldiers to be sent, under the chevalier de Troyes, who came over-land from Quebec, and, in a time of profound peace, committed those acts of hostility. It is to be observed, says our author, that the French have so good an opinion of the great work of their American colonies, as to take not only all lawful, but even all unlawful measures, to preserve and enlarge them: whereas, observes the same gentleman, the English, who, next to the Spaniards, have the richest plantations in that part of the world, have been as negligent of them as if they were not worth keeping. The 8th of July, 1686, the chevalier de Troyes came before the fort at Albany River, where the governor, Mr. Sergeant, then resided. Two Indians having informed him, that the French had surprized the forts at Hayes's Island and Rupert's River, and had brought with them the great guns from these places, the governor did all that was in his power to defend the fort, but was not able to defend it above a week, as appears by the articles of surrender, dated July 16, 1686, which articles were but indifferently kept. In 1693 the Hudson's Bay company, being assisted by the government, retook all the forts and factories of which the French had deprived them in time of peace: but, soon after, they were driven out of them again by the French.

In the year 1696, the company applied to king William, representing their own incapacity to maintain themselves against the French, and praying the assistance of the crown for their support.—Upon which, two men of war were ordered for their assistance, under the command of captain Allen; who, coming to Hayes's Island, sent to summon all the forts to surrender. The French governor, finding that he could not defend them against the English, capitulated; and, on the 2d of August in the same year, surrendered Albany Fort, upon certain articles. The other forts suffered the fate of Albany. After this time, the trade of the Hudson's Bay company declined extremely; and, in the next general war, the French renewed their attacks upon the settlements of the Hudson's Bay company with such success, that they left them nothing but Fort Albany; which accounts for the low state of their trade to the end of the war; and some time after. At the treaty of Utrecht great care was taken of this company, who, by the 10th and 11th articles, have every thing restored to them that had been taken from them, and an equitable satisfaction was stipulated for their losses; since which time, the trade of the company has wonderfully increased; inasmuch, that it became, at least, treble to what it was at the time that peace was made, and continues still in a very flourishing condition. In regard to the product and commerce of this part of the world, the most authentic account is as follows: The Indians being obliged to go ashore every day to hunt for provisions, delays them very much in their voyages; for their canoes are so very small, holding only two men, and a pack of 100 beaver-skins, that they can't carry provisions for any time. If they had larger canoes, they would make their voyages shorter, and carry a greater quantity of beaver skins to market, besides other skins of value, which are too heavy for their present canoes. This, and the high price of European goods, says Capt. Dobbs, given by the company in exchange, discourages the natives so much, that if they were not absolutely under a necessity of having guns, powder, and shot, hatchets, and other iron tools for hunting; and tobacco, brandy, and some paint, for luxury; they would not go down to the factory with what they now carry.—At present

present they leave great numbers of furs and skins behind them. A good hunter among the Indians can kill 600 beavers in a season, and can carry down but 100; the rest he uses at home, or hangs them upon branches of trees, upon the death of his children, as an offering to them, or uses them for bedding and coverings. They sometimes burn off the furr, and roast the beavers like pigs, upon any entertainments; and they often let them rot, having no farther use for them. See the article BEAVER.

The Indians on the west of the bay, living an erratic life, can have no benefit by tame fowl or cattle; they seldom stay above a fortnight at a place, unless they find plenty of game. The natives, according to the same author, are so discouraged in their trade with the company, that no ships are worth the carriage: and the finest furs were sold for very little, when they came to the factory in June 1742. The prices they took for the European goods, were much higher than the settled prices fixed by the company, which the governor had thus raised, to shew the company how zealous they were to improve their trade, and sell their goods to advantage. They gave but a pound of gunpowder for 4 beavers; a fathom of tobacco for 7 beavers; a pound of shot for 1; an ell of coarse cloth for 15; a blanket for 12; two fish-hooks, or three flints, for one; a gun for 25; a pistol for 10; a common hat, with white lace, for 7; an ax for 4; and a chequered shirt for 7; a bill-hook for one; a gallon of brandy for 4; all which, says Mr. Dobbs, are sold at a monstrous profit, even to 2000 PER CENT.—Notwithstanding this discouragement, the two fleets went down with Joseph de la France, from whom Mr. Dobbs had this account, carried back 200 packs, 100 in each pack, making in all 20,000 beavers; and the other Indians who arrived that year, carried down 300 packs, of 100 each, making 30,000 beavers, in all 50,000 beavers, and above 9000 martens. The martens are taken in traps, for, if they are shot, their skins would be spoiled. They have generally 5 or 6 at a litter.

The furs there are much more valuable than those upon the Canada lakes sold at New York; [see CANADA] for these will fetch 5 or 6 s. per pound, when the latter sell at 3s. 6d.—If a fort was built at the Great Fork, 60 leagues above York fort towards the south-west, and a factory, with the European goods fixed there, and a reasonable price put upon them, the trade would be wonderfully increased. The Great Fork is that part where the rivers Nelson and Hayes join; and, having run a little way together, separate again, forming an island, which is called Hayes's Island. The northernmost branch is still called Nelson River, near the mouth of which stands fort York; the southernmost branch is called Hayes's River by the English, and St. Theresa by the French; who call Nelson River the river of Bourbon, which name they also give to fort York. If such a factory were settled, as just mentioned, the natives from the south-west of the lake Pachegoia could make, at least, two returns in a summer; and those at greater distances could make one, who cannot now come at all; and above double the number would be employed in hunting, and many more skins would be brought to market, than they can now afford to bring, for the expence and low price given for them. The stream is so gentle from the Fork to York fort, on either branch, that large vessels and shallops may be built there, and carry down the bulky goods, and also return against the stream.

The climate there is good, and fit to produce grain, pulse, &c. and very good grass for cattle. And if afterwards any settlements were made upon the lake Pachegoia, which is not more northerly than the latitude of 52 degrees, and vessels built to navigate that lake, the trade would be still vastly enlarged and improved: it would spread not only up the river and lakes, as far as the lakes Du Bois and Du Puis; but also among the Affinibouels, and nations beyond them; and the nation Des Vieux Hommes, or old Men, who are 200 leagues westward of Pachegoia. The nations who go up the above-mentioned river, with presents to confirm the peace, are three months in going, and say they live behind a range of mountains, beyond the Affinibouels.

Mr. Dobbs further observes, from the account of Mr. Frost, that the factory is built near the mouth of the river, in latitude 51. 28. upon a navigable river, which, at twelve miles distant from the fort, is divided into two branches; one comes from the southward, the other from the south-west. Upon the southern branch all sorts of grain thrive; as barley, beans, and pease do at the factory, though exposed to all the chilling winds which come from the ice in the bay. Upon the southern part, above the falls, there grows naturally along the river a kind of wild oats and rye, the husk being black, but the grain perfectly white and clear, like rice. The Indians beat it off, when ripe, into their canoes, as they pass along the river, it growing in the water, like rice. In the woods, at the bottom of the bay of Moose and Albany, as well as at Rupert's River, are very large timber-trees of all kinds; oak, ash, &c. as well as pine, cedar, and spruce. They have exceeding good grass to make hay, which improves every day as they cut, and feed it; and they may have every-where, within land, all sorts of pulse and grain, and all sorts of fruit-trees, as in the

same climate in Europe, for all sorts they have tried thrive very well.

The French have got a settlement for trade, near the southern branch, about 100 miles above the factory, where they sell their goods cheaper than the company do; although it be very difficult and expensive to carry them so far from Canada. They give as much for a marten-skin, as we do for a beaver, when we insist upon three for one: so that the French get all the choice skins, and leave only the refuse for the company. The French have also got another settlement pretty high up, upon Rupert's River, by which they have gained all the trade upon the east main, except a little the company get at Slude River, the mouth of which is about 30 leagues to the north of Rupert's River.

On the south-side of the great inland sea lately discovered upon the east main, there is an exceeding rich lead mine, from which the natives have brought very good ore, which might turn to great advantage, as well as the furs upon that coast; which might be greatly increased, if the trade was laid open, and settlements made in proper places.

When Mr. Frost was at Churchill, he travelled a considerable way in the country, north-west of the river of Seals. He was acquainted there with an Indian chief, who traded at Churchill, and had often been at a fine copper mine, which they struck off from the rocks with sharp stones. He said it was upon islands at the mouth of a river, and lay to the northward of that country, where they had no night in summer.

The trade at Churchill is increasing, being at too great distance from the French for them to interfere therein. In the year 1742, it amounted to 20,000 beavers. There were about 100 upland Indians, who came in their canoes to trade; and about 200 northern Indians, who brought their furs and skins on sledges: some of them came down the river Seals, 15 leagues northwards of Churchill in canoes, and brought their furs from thence by land. They have no beavers to the northward of Churchill, not having there such ponds and woods as those animals choose to live in, or feed upon: but they have great numbers of martens, foxes, bears, reindeer, buffaloes, and other beasts of rich furs.

There is a great deal of the spruce, or fir kind of wood, near the old factory; but the wood improves as it is farther up the river from the bay; where they have juniper, birch, and poplar: and more southerly the timber is larger, and there are great variety of trees.

They are under great inconveniencies at the new fort, which is upon an elevated situation upon a rock, without shelter, close by the shore, surrounded with snow and ice for eight months of the year, exposed to all the winds and storms that happen, and is very barren. But, if a settlement were made higher up the river, southwards, some leagues from the bay, in shelter, without the reach of chilling winds, they would have grass and hay sufficient, and might also have gardens and proper greens and roots, propagated there. 'Tis affirmed, that there is a communication between Churchill and Nelson's Rivers, at a great distance within land, or a very short land-carriage between them: for the Indians who trade here tell them what chiefs, with their followers, go down to Nelson or Albany River.

We may justly wonder, that we never had till lately any clear account of these matters, considering how long we have had factories in these parts; and that, on the contrary, all the accounts, hitherto given, represent the coasts of Hudson's Bay, as the most forlorn part of the universe, hitherto discovered. But for this the same gentleman whom we quoted, has fully accounted; and it is requisite that the public should be well acquainted with the account that he has given; for, since the great council of the nation has thought fit to encourage an attempt to discover a passage this way into the South Seas, it is reasonable to suppose, that endeavours will not be wanting to push that attempt to the utmost; to facilitate which, there is nothing of so great importance, as the proving that the discouragements which have been hitherto represented as insuperable, have been over-rated; and that, notwithstanding all that has been said of them, it is not only possible, but probable, that they may be overcome: towards which, nothing can contribute more than the pointing out the motives, upon which they have hitherto been represented, in so strong a light, which is very effectually done, in the following passage from the same author; who, as he has studied this point, so it must be allowed he has made it as clear as with reason could well be expected.

“The company, says he, avoid all they can making discoveries to the northward of Churchill, or extending their trade that way, for fear they should discover a passage to the western ocean of America, and tempt, by that means, the rest of the English merchants to lay open their trade, which they know they have no legal right to; which, if the passage was found, would not only animate the rest of the merchants to pursue the trade through that passage, but also to find out the great advantages that might be made of the trade of the rivers and countries adjoining to the bay, by which means they would lose their beloved monopoly. But the prospect they have of gain to be made by trading with the

the Eskimaux Indians, for whale-fin, whale and sea oil, and sea-horse teeth, induces them to venture a sloop annually, as far as 62 deg. 30 min. to Whale Cove, where these Indians meet them, and truck their fins and oil with them. But though they are fully informed of a fine copper mine on a navigable arm of the sea, north-westward of Whale Cove, and the Indians have offered to carry their sloops to it; yet their fear of discovering the passage puts bounds to their avarice, and prevents their going to the mine, which by all accounts is very rich. Yet those who have been at Whale Cove own, that from thence northwards is all broken land; and that, after passing some islands, they from the hills see the sea open, leading to the westward. And the Indians who have been often at the mine, say it is upon a navigable arm of the sea, of great depth, leading to the south-west, where are great numbers of large black fish spouting water, which confirms the opinion that all the whales seen between Whale Cove and Wager River, all come there from the western ocean, since none are seen any where else in Hudson's Bay or Streight. All along this coast from the latitude 62 degrees to 65 degrees, a very beneficial fishery of whales may be carried on with these Eskimaux Indians; who, even without the use of iron, can harpoon and kill whales; and if they were supplied with iron harpoons, and proper cordage, they might be brought to kill great numbers of them. At present all their nets, lines, and snares, are made of whale-bone, and most of their boats and other necessaries of the seal-skins, fish-bones, and sea-horse teeth, and, in making all things necessary for them, they are very neat and ingenious.

The same judicious person, from whom we have borrowed so much already, has taken the pains to give, from very authentic relations, a very clear, as well as a very copious account, of most of the Indian nations that lie at the back of our northern colonies, and between the French settlements in Canada, and on the Mississippi River; with the countries they inhabited, and the product of those countries, which I esteem a thing of very great consequence, and as material a service to this nation, as has been rendered for many years; the account is too long for me to insert, but the inferences he draws from it are so just, and of so high consequence, that I think it would be an injury done the reader not to report them, as it would certainly be doing both him and the subject great wrong, to report them in any other than his own words, which without farther preface I shall use; only it is necessary to premise, at the time this gentleman published his book, the war with France was not actually broke out.

How glorious, says he, would it be for us at the same time to civilize so many nations, and improve so large and spacious a country, by communicating our constitution and liberties, both civil and religious, to so many numbers, whose happiness and pleasure would increase at the same time, that an increase of wealth and power would be added to Britain!

There is, at present, a beginning of this scheme, by the zeal of Mr. Barclay, who is instructing and civilizing the Mowhawks, among the Iroquois, who from a warlike nation have embarked in trade, and entered into alliances with all nations round the lakes Huron and Erie, and to the westward as far as the Mississippi, which is firmly established by the gain they make by the trade. The English from New York have fixed at Oswego, in their country, upon equitable terms with all the Indians, who come now to trade there, whose names were never before known to the English. This therefore seems to be the critical time to begin this settlement, on the banks of Conde River. If there be a war with France, as we are at a great expence to save the liberties of Europe, and support the house of Austria, since we can have nothing in Europe beneficial for us, in case we are successful at the conclusion of the war, we ought to stipulate for something advantageous in America; and the least we ought to claim is our right to the American lakes, and securing the navigation of them. See the article CANADA.

The French have, at present, two little forts, and about thirty men in each, at Niagara, and the streights of St. Joseph; and a few men at Missiliackinac, and at the bottom of the Illiniese lake. These we ought to have from them, either by force or treaty, which would secure the inland trade to us, and prevent their future incroachments, either there or in Hudson's Bay; and to do this effectually would be to make a settlement near the lake Erie, which may be done with little or no expence, considering our present barrier and alliance, and trade with the natives; and, whenever our troops are disbanded, some of them may be sent over upon half pay, to fix in proper places, and make good our possessions; which would be a fine retreat to our soldiers, who can't so easily, after being disbanded, bring themselves again to hard labour, being so long disused to it. By these settlements, and those adjoining to Hudson's Bay, and by opening the trade to the bay, many thousands more would be employed in trade, and a much greater vent

would be opened to our manufactures: whereas all the trade we have at present, whilst it is thus confined to the company, is the employment of one hundred and twenty men in all their factories; and two or three ships in that trade, manned perhaps with one hundred and twenty men in time of war, to enrich nine or ten merchants at their country's expence, at the same time betraying the nation, by allowing the French to incroach upon us at the bottom of the bay, having given up by that means the greatest part of their trade there to the French. It is therefore humbly submitted to the government, whether it is not just, as well as prudent, to open the trade to all the British merchants, and resume, at the same time, the charter, so far as to take from them all the lands they have not reclaimed or occupied, after seventy years possession, leaving them only their factories, and such lands as they have reclaimed, adjoining to them; and to give grants as usual, in other colonies, to all who shall go over to trade, and make settlements in the country; for no grant was ever intended to be made to them, to enable them to prevent other subjects of Britain from planting those colonies, which they themselves would not plant or occupy; for such a power, instead of being beneficial, would be the greatest prejudice to Britain. It is therefore become a general law in all the colonies, that those who take grants of land, and don't plant them in a reasonable limited time, forfeit their right to those lands, and a new grant is made out to such others as shall plant and improve them; and, if this grant be not immediately resumed so far, and the trade laid open, and some force be not sent to secure our southern plantations in the bay by the government, in case there should be a French war, we shall see the French immediately dispossess the company of all their factories but Churchill, and all these countries and that trade will be in possession of the French.

To the making such settlements some objections have been made by the friends of the company: as the great difficulty of getting people to go to settle and plant in so cold a country, and the difficulty and danger attending the making settlements higher up upon the rivers, and navigating them, as they are so full of falls and rapids, that can only be navigated by the natives in small canoes, made of birch-bark, which cannot contain above two men with any cargo; and in these they are often overset, and are in such danger of being drowned, and of spoiling their goods, that they are often obliged to carry their canoes and cargo from place to place, which obstructs greatly, and delays the navigation; and that scarce five men out of 120, which the company now have in the bay, will venture themselves in, or can conduct such canoes, without imminent danger of being drowned; and, consequently, these hardships and difficulties will counterbalance the profit to be made of settling higher up in the country, upon the rivers, in pleasanter and warmer climates.

To this I answer, That, by the accounts already given here of these climates and countries, by impartial persons, who do not want to disguise the truth, it appears that the cold is tolerable, even at these disadvantageous settlements at present in the bay; and that, upon passing only five or six leagues up the rivers into the country, the climate is so altered as to be equal to those of the same latitudes in Europe; and that these prodigious accounts of the effects of cold are calculated only to serve the company, in order to prevent people from going there to settle, and incroach upon the company's monopoly of trade. And to the difficulty they make about navigating these rivers in those small canoes, and the small number employed by the company who will venture in them, or can conduct them, I answer, That their servants, being at present no gainers by trade, will not endeavour to learn to navigate these canoes, where there is any risque and care necessary to prevent the danger. Besides, the company allows them no time to learn, by confining them to their factories, whilst the Indian trade continues, and the navigation is open; and at other times keeps them employed in cutting wood for firing, bringing it home, shooting, fishing, and digging in their gardens, to supply themselves with provisions, to lessen the company's expence; so that they are allowed no time to learn to navigate these boats, or to go up the rivers to observe the soil and climate, or what improvements might be made in the country. But, if they were masters of their own time, and could advance their wealth by trade, and found a considerable profit to arise to them by their dexterity in managing these canoes, and the great pleasure and satisfaction they would have by living in a fine climate, among these lakes and rivers, they would be as enterprising and dextrous as the Cureur de Bois, and be as able to navigate among these water-falls, as the French. Neither is it impracticable to prevent even those canoes from oversetting, by out-lagers, or blown bladders, fixed to their sides; or other kind of boats may be used, such as are made at Torneo in Sweden, upon the rivers falling into the Bothnic Gulph; and Laplanders might be prevailed upon to go there to teach them how to make and manage these boats, and train up

rein-deer to draw in sledges in winter, and also to use Lapland shoes, which are better than those used in America.

If the trade was once made free, the profit made upon it would induce many to go and settle upon those rivers, when not only horses, and other conveniences, would be had near the water-falls, to assist the land-carriage in summer, but also horses and rein-deer to draw their sledges in winter, as in Russia, which is almost as cheap a carriage as by water, when the proper roads are made through the woods: so that objection must be of no force to prevent our opening the trade, and settling these countries. But supposing the worst, that we could not manage these canoes, that could not prevent our settling to advantage upon these rivers and lakes above the falls, for the natives might still be our carriers, in navigating those dangerous places, and taking our goods from one settlement to another, whilst we should be employed in navigation and trade among the lakes and rivers where there are no falls, in larger vessels, and push our commerce southward, into better climates and richer soils, and put the natives upon improvements in trade, by civilizing and instructing them in building convenient houses, and associating in towns, making gardens, and tilling their lands; providing them with horses and tame cattle, and fowl, for their use, and proper tools, which our trade would furnish them with.

Another objection is, that it is a difficult and dangerous navigation into the bay, and the trade is not worth the risk. To this I answer, That the navigation is not so dangerous as it is apprehended to be, but appears to be more so by the insinuations and report of the company, and their friends, who gave it out in order to deter others from venturing and interfering in their trade; and for that reason they oblige their captains, under a penalty, not to publish any charts of the bay and freight. Captain Middleton, who was in their service, made above 20 voyages, to different parts of the bay, and never lost a ship, nor had any accident in these voyages; nor have I heard that the company, in about 23 years, have lost any ships in that trade but two, and the men and cargo were saved by captain Middleton. Where captains are careful in the ice, there is not much danger; it is of great advantage to them that there is no night at that season they enter the bay, where the quantity of ice is greatest; and when they return in September, or even in October, all the ice is in a manner dissolved, or passed out of the freight into the ocean, and none seen that can hinder their passage.

It is probable that, during the whole winter, from October to March, there is no ice in the freight to obstruct their passage into or out of the bay; for a ship which chanced to be closed up with ice in an inlet, by breaking of the ice got out, and came through the ice at Christmas, without finding any ice in the freight to prevent her passage: for the ice which is formed in bays and rivers in winter, does not break up and get into the channel or freight until it begins to thaw upon the shore, in March or April; at which time it is carried by the winds and tide into the freight, and obstructs the passage in May or June, until it is dissolved; yet, even then, good pilots know how to avoid it, and get into the eddy-tide, out of the current, where the ice is more open, and not drove together by the winds and current, as it is in the channel. But these difficulties would lessen every day, if the trade were opened, and the voyages more frequent, by the great number of ships, which would make many more experienced pilots.

And as there is now a more accurate chart published of the freight and bay, by captain Middleton, with the islands, soundings, tides, and variation, the navigation will become less dangerous daily, and coves, and places of shelter for ships, will be found out, by the number of ships which would then pass, and be trading in those seas which are now unknown. I therefore apprehend that the danger of the ice is more in imagination than reality, when care and judgment are employed; for ships are mostly inclosed in ice in calm weather and fogs, when the ice prevents the motion of the sea; stormy weather disperses and breaks the ice, unless they get under the lee of a large island of ice, and then they fasten to it, and drive along with it, whilst the smaller ice to leeward is drove from them by the wind, and the large islands, being many fathoms deep in the water, come on ground before the ships are in danger of being forced on shore in shallow water.

The greatest danger and delay from the ice is in the entrance into the freights; for the first 40 leagues from thence the quantity is less, and they pass on with less difficulty; and after getting into the bay, the north-west side is the freest from ice; the bottom of the bay is full of low flat ice, which is all dissolved in the latter end of summer.

Upon the whole, except two ships, which were lost in king William's reign, and a French ship, after an engagement with our ships, when they attacked fort Nelson, I have heard of none, except the ships already mentioned, which have been lost in the voyage. The two ships which went out with Barlow, in 1719, to find the north-west passage, contrary to the inclinations of the company, if they did not make the passage, were probably in the winter surprized by

the natives, and were not lost in the ice; for they say that the natives, in about latitude 63 degrees, where they suppose they were lost, are shier, since that time, in trading with the company's sloop; which they apprehend to be from a consciousness of guilt, fearing that, if it were known, they should still be punished for it. Since, therefore, the greatest danger from the ice is in passing the freight, and so few accidents have happened in so many years, the navigation, I think, cannot be called dangerous, though it has been so apprehended, and not equal to the whale-fishery, who go annually to Spitzberg and Davis's Straights, to latitudes 78 and 80 degrees, without any objection to that navigation, either by the Dutch, Hamburgers, Danes, Biscayners, or English.

He concludes from thence, that the opening the trade, and settling in the bay, would prove a great benefit to, and great improvement of, our trade, which might be vastly increased, as well in respect to furs as to mines, and the whale-fishery; all which might be carried on with the assistance of the Indians, and would turn to a very high profit, even supposing that no passage to the north-west should ever be found; but, should future experience demonstrate that this gentleman's notions are, in this respect, well founded, and this long-sought-for passage should actually be discovered, it would then certainly follow that this country, so little known, and so much despised till very lately, would become of more consequence to us than almost any colony in America. Here let me take the liberty of observing, what hitherto, as far as I know, has never yet been considered: that, if such a passage to the north-west should be discovered before these countries are tolerably planted, the French would have a fair opportunity of supplanting us in the advantages expected from that important attempt; and, perhaps, we should then be forced to fight for the possession of countries that are now thought not worth the having.

It may likewise deserve some thought, whether it be not better to attempt such settlements without loss of time, as must at all events be highly useful and serviceable to this nation, by dividing the French settlements in Canada, and on the Mississippi, from each other, than to wait till the importance of such settlements shall appear in so glaring a light, as they must immediately do, if such a passage should be discovered; for we ought to remember, from the famous instance of our being disappointed in our design of settling the islands of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, that it is a very difficult matter, in a time of full peace, for us to acquire any advantage in point of commerce, at the expence of the French, who, in such a case, would not fail to take the same vigorous measures that they did in the case before-mentioned. I have taken the more pains to place this matter in a fair and true light, because I am persuaded this is the time in which only it can be considered to advantage; for if the case now in view (I mean the discovery of a north-west passage) should ever come, as I am convinced, sooner or later, it will come to be the case in fact, the face of affairs will be quite changed, and this new rout to the South-Seas and East-Indies will produce such an alteration in the whole commercial system of Europe, that things will be seen to be then of the utmost consequence, which at present most people look upon as dreams and visions, notwithstanding the late sanction given them by the wisdom of the parliament.

But it becomes a prudent and sensible people, and above all it imports a maritime power, to consider things in time, and while what is proposed for their benefit is easy, or at least practicable, and not to defer and delay things, till, from being troublesome and difficult, they come to be absolutely impossible. We know what sharp and cutting remarks have been made on the meanness of king James's spirit, in suffering the Dutch to despoil us of the spice trade: we cannot but remember the severe reflections on queen Anne's ministry, for not securing to us Cape Breton; and, therefore, we should be cautious of falling a third time into the same mistake, and of running the hazard of making a great discovery, such as all the world allows that of the north-west passage would be, rather for other people's benefit than our own, since it must pass for a blunder, greater than ever was made by our ancestors, and would render us effectually ridiculous in the eyes of latest posterity.

REMARKS before the last war.

The accounts given by the company being repugnant to what has been said by others in relation to the country in general, and the commerce of the company in particular, we shall conclude with what has lately been published with regard to this matter, by Mr. Joseph Robson, in his Account of six years residence in Hudson's Bay, from the year 1733 to 1736, and from 1744 to 1747, late surveyor and supervisor of the buildings to the Hudson's Bay company, &c. and, if there are any falsehoods and misrepresentations contained therein, only to injure the company, and no way to serve the public, let the author answer for them, for the public can only depend upon the reports of those who have been in these countries.

I shall now proceed, says Mr. Robson, page 62, to sum up the material part of the evidence produced against the company

pany [before the committee of the honourable house of commons] relative to their misconduct, and to the country, climate, trade, fisheries, and navigation of the bay.

First, It appears that the countries about the bay are capable of great improvement; that the lands southward and westward of the bay are in good climates, equal, in their several latitudes, to those of Asia and Europe, and that the climate improves farther within land, the spring being earlier, and the winter shorter; that by Kelsey's Journal, produced by the company, and by Joseph de la France's, which they have not controverted, the country abounds with woods, champaigns, plains, ponds, rivers and lakes, several hundred leagues west from the bay, that the land is covered with beavers, buffaloes, deer, martens, and other valuable furs; and the rivers and lakes are full of sturgeon, and other excellent fish.—It appears, also, that these fine rivers are navigable every-where with canoes, and in most places with larger vessels, having but inconsiderable falls, up which canoes can be towed against the streams, and that the lakes are navigable by larger vessels.—That upon these rivers, and about the lakes, are many nations, or tribes, of docile and humane Indians, willing to be instructed, and eager to engage in trade.—That the lands are capable of tillage, affording good pasture for horses and cattle in the summer, and good hay for their subsistence in winter.—That at Churchill, the most northerly factory, horses and cows have been kept in winter, though greatly exposed to the frost and cold.—That all sorts of garden-stuff flourish at the factories; and, where barley and oats have been sown, they come to perfection: at Moose factory, at the bottom of the bay, sown wheat has stood the winter frosts, and grown very well the summer following, though the cold and frost is greater, and continues longer here than within land: black cherries also planted here have grown and borne fruit, as would other trees, if propagated.—That the rivers upon the bay abound with white whales, and other valuable fish; and the sea to the northward with black whales, sea-horses, seals, and white bears, which afford whale-fin, oil, ivory, and skins; the western coast being no way mountainous, as in Davis's and Hudson's Streights.—That the seas and navigation are not dangerous, there being few instances of the loss of ships in the bay, or in the passage thither.

Secondly, It appears that, notwithstanding the unspeakable advantages to be obtained by planting and settling these countries, the climates of which are not worse than Sweden, Denmark, Russia, Poland, and North Germany, yet the company have not made, nor encouraged to be made, any one settlement or colony, having only four small factories, in which they keep about 130 servants, and two small houses with only eight men in each, which is all the force they have provided to keep the possession, and protect the trade of a country, equal to one-third of Europe.—That they have not, in 50 years, sent above one person to make discoveries within land, which was Norton, who, by Brown's evidence, had been at the copper mine, though his journal was not produced to the committee; but none to make friendships and alliances with the natives, discouraging even their servants from going up into the inland to trade, though for their own benefit, nor even to prevent the natives from trading with the French, though they are sensible of their PERPETUAL INCROACHMENTS, and that they daily carry away the richer furs.—That, notwithstanding there are incontestable evidences of rich copper and lead mines, and even of cinnabar, out of which mercury has been extracted, yet no encouragement has been given, or attempts made to search after them, with a view to their improvement.—That the annual exports of the company have not exceeded 4000 l. and, in time of peace, their navigation has been confined to three ships, of 150 or 200 tons, with two or three small sloops stationed in the bay, that some years are not sent out of harbour.—That no means have been used to civilize or convert the natives, nor even a clergyman sent over to instruct and take care of the souls of their own servants; on the contrary, the learning the Indian language, or keeping up any correspondence with the people, is severely prohibited, under penalty of loss of wages, and bodily correction.—And that none but plausible and insincere attempts have been made to find out a passage to the western ocean of America, though the probability of there being such a passage is more and more strengthened from the late discovery of bays, inlets, and broken lands, the western ends of which are not yet discovered, and from there having been no rivers yet observed on the north-west coast.

And what have the company and its friends been able to advance, in opposition to these accumulated proofs of neglect and folly? Why no more than this,—“That, if the country and trade could have been improved to the degree that is alleged, merely by making fresh discoveries, and carrying on an industrious cultivation, it is not to be supposed that the taking such practicable steps would have been omitted by the company, which, without doubt, is composed of men of experience, who are wise enough to pursue their

own interests.”—“This was the fundamental point with regard to which the committee ventured to cross-examine the petitioners witnesses against the company; most of whom were men of inferior stations, unqualified to assign the true reason why the company have acted so manifestly against the interest of the public, and so apparently against their own. But the true reason is obvious: “they had no legal right to their exclusive trade since the year 1698, at which time the act expired that confirmed their charter only for seven years: if, therefore, at this period the least evidence had been suffered to transpire that the climate of Hudson's Bay is very habitable; that the soil is rich and fruitful, fit for growing corn, and raising flocks of cattle, and abounds also with valuable mines; and that the fisheries are capable of great improvement, and the navigation not more dangerous than in other countries; that the trade may even be extended by means of a navigable passage, or at least by a short land passage, to the Western Ocean; and that the company, from these discoveries and improvements, are grown immensely rich and powerful:” “I say, had such proofs of a fine country and beneficial trade stolen abroad in the world, as they must unavoidably have done, if proper experiments had been made, “the company knew that the legislature would have taken the right into its own hands, and settled the country, and laid the trade open, for the benefit of Britain.” “They have, therefore, contented themselves with dividing among 100 persons a large profit upon a small capital; have not only endeavoured to keep the true state of the trade and country an impenetrable secret, but industriously propagated the worst impressions of them; and, rather than enjoy the inconceivable advantages of a general cultivation, in common with their fellow subjects, have, even to the hazard of their own separate interest, exposed both country and trade to the incroachments of the French.

The French, who are grasping at universal dominion, watch every opportunity for extending their trade, and securing all those countries which we abandon. But timely to suffer them to dispossess us of this important source of wealth and power, is, besides the loss, a disgrace not to be borne by Britain; though borne it must be, if the company are permitted any longer to sacrifice the good of the nation to their private interest. The legislature only can prevent the one, by putting an immediate stop to the other; and the legislature has but two methods to make choice of; either,

First, To purchase the company's right to any lands they have a legal title to; to lay the trade open, with the customary privileges and immunities; to settle the rivers, and coasts adjoining, with European Protestants, who are now in great numbers seeking for places of shelter, in which they may enjoy their civil and religious liberties with safety; and, lastly, to civilize the natives, treat them with gentleness and humanity, instruct them in the knowledge of useful arts, and encourage their industry, by allowing them an equitable trade, and thus lay a foundation for their conversion to Christianity. Or,

Secondly, To confirm the sole property of these extensive countries, with all the royalties, powers, and privileges originally granted by the charter to the company for ever. For, As by this they would become lords paramount, like the Dutch company in the Indies, and but barely subordinate to the crown of Great-Britain; so by this, and by this only, they will be induced to pursue those measures that can produce any advantages to the company.’

REMARKS ON HUDSON'S BAY since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE 1763.

This company having been deemed a monopoly of an injurious nature to the commerce of this part of the world, and has greatly tended to obstruct the advances that private traders would have made therein, had it been laid entirely open, or been constituted a well-regulated company; and as there appears grounds sufficient to induce the legislature to think of altering the present state of the trade; and more especially so, since this is so contiguous to CANADA, and may be said to fall under its DEPENDENCIES; for otherwise this company may spread itself, and prove detrimental to the free trade of our new acquisitions.—And as our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES are swelled to such an enormous bulk, should we not attempt to open and extend every vein of commerce that promises any benefit to the kingdom, and bring in riches that will enable us to lessen our commercial incumbrances?

HUNGARY, a kingdom situate between 16 and 23 degrees of east longitude from London, and between 45 and 49 degrees of north latitude, bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north, by Transylvania and Wallachia on the east, by the river Drave, which separates it from Slavonia on the south, and by Austria and Moravia on the west.

The country abounds with mines of gold, silver, and other metals, as also pits of salt. No soil is scarce more fruitful in the general. It produces good corn in such plenty, that it is six times as cheap as in England. Their grapes are large and

luscious, and their wines, particularly those of Tockay, preferred to any in Europe. They have as great plenty of grafs and cattle, of which latter they sell incredible numbers to Germany, not less than 80,000 a year to Austria alone. Among other medicinal plants, they have rhubarb. Their breed of buffaloes is very good, which serve them in ploughing and husbandry. Their horses are swift, but not large, and therefore more used for riding than draught. They have such numbers, that their kings have brought 50,000 into the field. Here's abundance of deer, wild fowl, and other game, which every body has the privilege of taking, so that they are the common food of the very boors.

They have no great foreign commerce, besides the exportation of their cattle and wines; and no other manufactures of consequence, besides those of copper, and other hard wares, though the queen of Hungary at present, is greatly encouraging divers capital manufactures, which are likely to prove very prosperous. No country produces so many metals as this, tin excepted; and in some parts are found even diamonds, and other precious stones. The peasants, even as they till the ground, sometimes find grains of gold. They have likewise great plenty of white, red, and black marble, and some fine porphyry.

It's air is temperate, but in the summer the days are excessive hot, and the nights as cold. It's many marshes and lakes render it frequently unwholesome: and it's waters, except those of the Danube, are stinking, but they are all well stocked with fish, especially the Theyffe, or Tibiscus, where 1000 carp have been sold for a crown, and in some places they throw their fish to the hogs: which prolific quality of the rivers is ascribed to the hot exhalations that rise everywhere out of the sulphureous soil, especially in the south part. It's other noted rivers are, the Danube, Drave, Save, Raab, the Vag, or Waag, and the Gran. The Theyffe rises at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and, after running west, and passing by Tockay, it turns south, and falls into the Danube over-against Salankemen. The Danube, entering Hungary on the west side, runs to the south-east as far as Belgrade, and, in a course of near 300 miles through this country, forms several islands. The Drave, which enters Hungary on the west side, runs almost directly east, till it falls into the Danube, a little below Esbeck. The Raab, rising in Stiria, enters this country also on the west side, and, running north-east, falls into the Danube near the city of it's own name. The Waag rises also in the north of Hungary, and falls into the Danube, a little below Kommora. This country abounds with salutary hot baths and fountains, of vitriolic, petrifying, and other peculiar qualities.

CHREMNITZ, or **KREMNITZ**, on the frontiers of Nitra, is the chief, and most ancient of mine-towns. Dr. Brown says, it's gold mine [see the article **GOLD**]: has been wrought near 950 years; that 'tis the richest of the seven mines in these parts; that the entrance into it through an horizontal passage, called the Erbfal, is 170 fathom deep, and that the vein runs 9 or 10 miles in length. Some of the passages cut long ago through the rocks are, by disuse, grown up again, and hardly passable.—It has 6 perpendicular shafts or pits, one of them 150 fathom deep, and lined with planks, to prevent the earth from falling in upon the miners, who direct themselves by a compass to trace the veins, of which most part run to the north-east.

The gold ore is of divers colours, of which the white, variegated with black spots, proves the best. They try or assay the ore [see the article **ASSAY**] by washing it, after 'tis pounded, in a small river that runs by the town, and is divided into several artificial channels, which pass continually over the ore, and wash the earthy parts from the metal.—They convey the ore from the places where 'tis dug to that part of the pit, from whence 'tis drawn up in a four-wheeled cart, with a tongue of iron at the bottom; which, being fitted to a trough of wood cut in the middle of each passage, cannot alter it's course, so that a boy easily draws it. These carts carry 3 or 4 hundred weight of ore.—So rich is this mine, that they have sometimes found lumps of pure gold, of which specimens are preserved in the emperor's repository at Vienna; and even the common earth, on the neighbouring hills, affords gold dust. There is a mint in the town for the coinage of gold ducats, &c.

Not far from the gold mine is another of vitriol, 80 fathom deep, the earth of which, purified and reduced to a calx, is used in making aqua fortis. See the article **AQUA FORTIS**.

SCHEMNITZ, lies 28 miles south-east of Nitra, 10 east from Konisberg, 21 from the city of Bars, 36 from Newhawel to the north-east, 20 south of Chremnitz, and 36 north of the Danube. This is said to be the largest of all the mine-towns. 'Tis famous for fine medicinal baths, but more for six rich mines of silver; of which, that, called the Trinity, is 70 fathom deep; and another, called Windschat, is much deeper. 'Tis in some places very cold, and in others so wonderfully hot, that the miners are forced to work naked.—Most of the ore holds some gold. There are also found in those mines crystals, amethysts, and vitriol, naturally crystallized. The country being rocky, 'tis difficult to bring provisions to the town; so that, if it were not for the silver

mines, it would have but few inhabitants.—Not far from it there is a rock, where is found a red substance, which grows to the ore, called cinnabar of silver, which makes as fine a vermilion for paint as the cinnabar itself.

Dr. Brown went down into one of the silver mines by a ladder of 300 steps, at the foot of which was an engine that pumped up the water by a wheel, which moved several other engines, and carried up the water to a neighbouring valley. Here are 200 men constantly at work.—This learned naturalist says, the ore is covered with a white clay, which he calls, according to some ancient chemists, lac lunæ; and that some of it yields half silver, though in other parts of it they think it well, if it yields 20 ounces upon the hundred weight.

He says, that black ore is the richest, mixed with a shining yellow marcasite [see the article **MARCASTE**] which makes the ore fluid; but, if it exceeds in quantity, preys upon the silver*. [See the article **SILVER**.] He adds, that near the town there is a high perpendicular rock, part of which is a shining blue, mixed with beautiful green and yellow spots, so that it looks like an entire mass of lapis lazuli, finely polished.

* This is a very useful intimation to those who may discover any kind of ores upon their estates; for they may contain such a proportion of the nobler metals, as might well answer the extraction; but if the sulphureous, or marcasitical quality of the ore is not duly considered in the assay, and the large way of working, it will so embody and entangle itself with the purer metals, as well as the inferior, as to disguise them, and conceal their true value from the artist. See the articles **ASSAY**, **GOLD**, **SILVER**, **ORES**, **METALLURGY**, **REFINING**.

NEWSOL, the capital of the county of Newfol (which lies east from those of Nitra and Bars, and is about 28 miles each way) is also called Biltricia, and stands on the river Gran, 10 miles north of Novogrod, and 80 north-west of Hermanstadt. 'Tis reckoned the third of the mine-towns, and is plentifully supplied with provisions. It has not only silver, but the best copper mines in Hungary, with convenient furnaces, and other requisites for the extraction of the silver from copper, the ore affording it. The ore is here so firmly incorporated with it's stone-bed, that the separation cannot be made without great difficulty, the ore being sometimes melted 14 times, according to Dr. Brown, before it produces copper fit for use. [See the article **SMELTING**, where these tedious and expensive operations will be shewn to be greatly shortened.] **PAGGANTZ**, **KONINGSBERG**, **TILLEN**, and **LIBETEN**, have been capital mine-towns, but what with the incursions of the Turks, and the failure of the veins, they are pretty much abandoned. But,

HERMGRANT, about 7 miles from Newfol, has copper mines so rich, that an hundred weight of ore yields from 20 to 60 pounds weight of copper. The ore is either yellow or black; the former of which yields most metal, but the latter contains some silver.—There are also several sorts of vitriol found in these mines, as white, green, blue, and a transparent red, besides a green earth, called Berg-green, used in painting. Here are said also to be two springs of vitriolic water, which in 14 days turn iron into copper. They tell us these fountains are highly esteemed, because thereby the worst old iron is made pure copper †, more ductile and malleable than the other made of the ore, which must be often melted, before it can be useful. Dr. Brown says, that this mine, for the number of passages and workmen, looks like a subterranean city; and that it yields the emperor 120,000 l. sterling per annum.

† We cannot believe this to be true, but rather judge that the deception arises from this; that the vitriolate water, as it is called, is a water so strongly impregnated with the natural nitrous and mineral fumes of the earth, as to be capable of dissolving the copper in the manner of common aqua fortis, and of suspending the copper so dissolved in it's belly; and, when the iron is applied hereunto, the same nitrous mineral water lays hold of the iron, dissolves that, and precipitates the copper, according to the ordinary principles of dissolutions with aqua fortis. For confirmation hereof, see the articles **MINES** and **MINERALS**.

GLASHITTEN, or **TEPLITZ**, was formerly noted for a rich mine of gold. This place, at present, is much resorted to for it's hot baths; among which is a sweating-bath, the hot springs of which drain through a hill, and fall into a bagnio, built on purpose to receive them, at one end of which there's a noble stove, heated by the steams of those waters, where the degrees of heat are more or less, according to the higher or lower seats. The springs of these baths, which are 40 or 50 in number, are transparent, yield silver, have red and green sediment, and leave a strong crust on the seats under water.

ESPERIES, a strong town on the river Tarza, 4 miles from the frontiers of Poland, 15 north of Carchaw, 60 north of the Theyffe, and 150 east of Presburg, is capital of the country

country of Scaros, and famous for its fairs and salt-mines, particularly one 180 fathom deep, out of which have been dug pieces of pure salt of 1000 pounds weight. 'Tis of several colours, some greyish, and of delicate blue, some of a transparent yellow, and some so clear and hard, that they cut it into divers shapes like crystal. The water of the mine, when boiled, produces a blue salt which they give to the cattle.

LEUTSCHE, the capital of the county of Zips, or Czepus, stands near the Polish frontiers, 20 miles west of Esperies, and 24 north of Torna. 'Tis a handsome large fortified town, with a considerable annual trading fair, inhabited chiefly by German Lutherans. They trade with all the neighbouring places, and are remarkable for their courtesy and plain dealing.

TOCKAY, a strong town and citadel, on a marshy plain, formed by the conflux of the Theyffe and the Bodrock, 47 miles east from Agria, 33 south from Cafchaw, and 60 from Ungwar, 72 north from Zolnock, and 76 from great Woradin, and 90 east from Buda. 'Tis famous for its wine, reckoned the best in Hungary, much esteemed all over Europe, and sold at a great price; and also for a sort of earth found in the neighbourhood, called Bolus Tockaviensis, noted for its medicinal virtues.

These are the chief places of trade in the **UPPER HUNGARY**, we proceed now to

LOWER HUNGARY, whose productions are much the same as those of the Upper Hungary, though of infinitely less value in the general.

BUDA, and its adjacent country, is pleasant and fruitful, and produces rich wines, though in some places they have a sulphureous relish.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, has Northamptonshire on the west and north, Bedfordshire on the south, and Cambridgehire on the east, and is not above 70 miles in circumference. The many meers and fens in it prevent the air's being pleasant or wholesome in general.

'Tis a great corn country, and, though the hilly parts don't produce so much as the others, yet the goodness of the air, and the pasture they afford for sheep, make amends.

HUNTINGDON, the shire-town, is a populous trading place, and has several good inns.

RAMSEY, has one of the best and cheapest markets in England for fat cattle, and water-fowl.

HUSBANDRY, is the art of improving lands.

Our late accounts from Italy having informed us, that a public academy is established at Florence, for the advancement of the art of agriculture, it may be useful to urge a word in favour of the like institution in Great-Britain; all improvements of this nature being left wholly, as it were, to the farmer, who rarely has philosophy, leisure, or fortune sufficient for the purpose.

As there is no subject of more general advantage than the cultivation of lands, and improvement of the vegetable kingdom; so there is none which has been more copiously treated of, nor none wherein the public have been more disappointed in their expectation. And how should it be otherwise, when the undertakers have either been covetous and illiterate gardeners and planters; or such, that, if they acquired any thing new and curious, have not had public spirit enough to communicate it: others have joggled on in the old beaten track, without ambition to excel their predecessors. We have had now and then, indeed, a gentleman studious and capable of obliging the world, free from those narrow self-interested views. An Evelyn, a Nourse, a Lawrence, a Bradley, a Tull, have given us something equally new and just, founded on experiment; but these are few, when compared to that useless tribe of unimproving writers.

In ancient times, nothing was esteemed more honourable than pasturage and tillage, for even princes themselves did not think them unworthy of their study and application.

Without entering into any detail of the progress this art seems to have made in the different ages of the world, it may be sufficient to observe, that, in proportion as either private families or nations have applied themselves to this necessary art, they have accordingly prospered, and increased in number and power, and made the greatest figure in the world. But,

As we judge it needless to say any thing in behalf of what is so generally allowed, we shall only recommend to the public regard the most recent improvements that have been made in this important art; which are to be met with in the before mentioned authors, and more particularly in an excellent tract, written by that ingenious gentleman Jethro Tull, Esq; of Shelborne in Berkshire: intitled, *Horse-Hoeing Husbandry: Or, An Essay on the Principles of Vegetation and Tillage*. Designed to introduce a new method of culture, whereby the produce of land will be increased, and the usual expence lessened.

As this essay has been published some years, a pretty good judgment may be formed of the performance. Every man who has considered the principles upon which our author's method of culture is founded, may discern how far his theory is consistent with nature; though few, as yet, have made sufficient experiments to be fully informed of its worth.

How it has happened, that what proposes such advantages, hath been so long neglected in this country, may be matter of surprize to those only who are acquainted with the characters of the men, on whom the practice thereof depends; but to those who know them thoroughly it can be none. For 'tis certain, that very few of them can be prevailed on to alter their usual methods; though their continuing therein disables them from maintaining their families, and paying their rents. And, what is still more to be lamented, those who are averse to improvements themselves, dissuade others also from thinking of them. This accounts for Mr. Tull's husbandry being so little practised.

But, as the methods commonly used, together with the mean price of grain for some years past, have reduced the farmers every-where so low, that they pay their rents very ill, and in many places have thrown up their farms; the cure of these evils is certainly an object worthy of the public attention; for, if the proprietor must be reduced to cultivate his own land, which cannot be done but by the hands of these obstinate and indocile people, it is easy to discern on which side his ballance of profit and loss will turn*.

* If a public academy was established by authority, for the improvement of the art of husbandry, as is said to be done in Florence; and the general practice of the experimental improvements, made by such a body, was enforced by authority, by suitable rewards, &c. this would tend to render the discoveries of learned and public-spirited men generally useful; which are now too generally neglected, for want of being duly propagated and encouraged among the people.

And if the improvements, made from time to time by such an academy, were, after divine service, obliged to be read in all places of public worship, it is humbly submitted, whether such a general practice may not tend as much to the temporal interest of all concerned in husbandry, as public praying and preaching may to their spiritual?

This consideration, together with many others which might be urged, hath induced us to recommend this treatise to the serious attention of all who wish well to their country; in hopes that some may be prevailed on, from regard either to the public good, or their own interest, to give the method therein proposed a fair and impartial trial: for, could it be introduced into several parts of Great-Britain, by men of generous and benevolent principles, their example might, in time, establish the practice thereof, and bring it into general use; which is scarce to be expected by any other means, unless by such as we have humbly suggested.

It is therefore to such only, as are qualified to judge of a theory from the principles whereon it is founded, that we do ourselves the honour to address them, to give this essay an attentive reading, craving leave to remind them, how unqualified the common practisers of husbandry are to pass a judgment, either on the theory or practice of this method; for which reason it is hoped that none will be influenced by such, but try the experiments themselves with proper care.

As a motive to this it is to be observed, that, although the method of culture proposed by Mr. Tull has made little progress in England, it is not like to meet with the same neglect abroad, especially in France; where a translation of Mr. Tull's book was undertaken, at one and at the same time, by three different persons of consideration, without the privacy of each other: but, afterwards, two of them put their papers into the hands of the third, Mons. Du Hamel du Monceau, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and of the Royal Society at London, who has published a book, intitled a *Treatise of tillage, on the principles of Mr. Tull*. The ingenious author has, indeed, in some measure, altered the method observed by Mr. Tull in his book, yet has very exactly given his principles and rules: but, as he had only seen the first edition of the *Horse-Hoeing Husbandry*, so he is very defective in his descriptions of the ploughs and drills, which in that were very imperfect, and were afterwards amended by Mr. Tull, in his additions to that essay.

One of the principal reasons for taking notice of this book is, to shew the comparison this author has made between the old method of husbandry and the new. By his calculation, the profits arising from the new are considerably more than double those of the old. For, according to him, the profits of 20 acres of land, for 10 years, amount, at 10d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per livre,

By the old method, to 3000 livres, or l. 131 : 5 : 0 } ster-
By the new method, to 7650 livres, or 334 : 13 : 9 } ling.

Which makes a prodigious difference in favour of the latter. As this computation was made by one who cannot be supposed to have any prejudice in favour of Mr. Tull's scheme, it will naturally find more credit with the public than any comparison made by Mr. Tull himself, or by such who approve his principles.

There have appeared no objections against Mr. Tull's principles or practice, which may not be equally urged against every sort of improvement. One of the principal, it seems, is its being impracticable in common fields, which make a great part of this country, without the concurrence of every one who occupies land in the same field. But doth not this equally affect the old husbandry? For every such person is obliged to keep the turns of ploughing, fallowing, &c. with

the other occupiers; so that if any of them were inclinable to improve their lands, by sowing grafs-feed, or any other method of culture, they are now under the same difficulties as they would be, were they to practise Mr. Tull's method. This, therefore, is rather to be lamented as a public misfortune, than to be brought as an objection to the practicableness of that method. Others object, that the introducing this sort of husbandry is unnecessary, seeing the improvements which are made by grafs-feeds are so considerable: besides that the returns made by the fold and dairy, being much quicker than by grain, engage the farmer to mix ploughing and grazing together. But,

When this is considered, it can have no fort of weight: for is it not well known, that, in those farms where the greatest improvements have been made by grafs-feeds, the quantity of dressing, required for the arable land often runs away with most of the profit of the whole farm? especially when the price of grain is low. If this be the situation of the most improved farms, what must be the case of those which chiefly consist of arable land; where most of the dressing must be purchased at a great price, and often fetched from a considerable distance? Add to this the great expence of servants and horses, unavoidable in arable farms; and it will appear, how great the advantages are, which the grazier hath over the ploughing farmer. Wherefore it is much to be wished, that the practice of mixing the two sorts of husbandry were more generally used in every part of the kingdom; which would be far from rendering Mr. Tull's method of culture useless, seeing that, when it is well understood, it will be found, we apprehend, the surest method to improve both. For,

Although Mr. Tull chiefly confined the practice of his method to the production of grain, which is a pity, yet it may be extended to every vegetable which is the object of culture in the fields, gardens, woods, &c. and, perhaps, may be applied to many other crops, to equal, if not greater advantage, than to corn.

In the vineyard it hath been long practised with success, and may be used in the hop ground with no less advantage. For the culture of beans, pease, wood, madder, and other large-growing vegetables, as also for lucern, faint-foin, and the larger grasses, we conceive it the only method of culture for profit to the farmer, seeing that, in all these crops, one sixth part of the seeds now commonly sown will be sufficient for the same quantity of land, and the crop, in return, will be much greater; which, when the expence of seeds is duly considered, will be found no small saving to the farmer. Nor should this method of culture be confined to England, Scotland, and Ireland: for it may be practised to as great advantage in the British colonies in America, where, in the culture of sugar-canes, indigo, cotton, rice, and almost all the crops of that country, it will certainly save a great expence of labour, and improve the growth of every plant more than can be imagined by such as are ignorant of the benefit arising from this culture. And, should the subjects of Great-Britain neglect to introduce this method into the colonies, it may be refused our neighbours will take care not to be blameable on this head; for they seem to be as intent upon extending every branch of trade, and making the greatest improvements of their lands, as we are indifferent to both: so that, unless a contrary spirit be soon exerted in this nation, the balance of trade, power, and every other advantage, must be against us.

There have been objections made by some to Mr. Tull's method, as if it were practicable only on such lands as are soft and light, and not at all on stiff or stony ground. We have not learned that it has, as yet, been practised on either of these lands in England; but the impossibility thereof must not from thence be inferred: for the hoe-plough has been very long used in the vineyards in many countries, where the soil is stronger, and abounds with stones full as much as any part of this country. Though the use, however, of this plough may be attended with some difficulties upon such land, for wheat, or plants of low growth, whose roots may be in danger of being turned out of the ground, or their tops buried by the clods or stones; yet none of the larger-growing plants are subject to the like inconveniencies. Beside, the stronger the soil is, the more benefit will it receive from this method of culture, if the land be thereby more pulverized; which will certainly be the consequence where the method laid down by Mr. Tull is duly observed.

But as most instruments, in their first use, are attended with some difficulty, especially in the hands of such as are indocile, the hoe plough has been complained of, as cumbersome and unweidty to the horse and ploughman. But, perhaps, this arises chiefly from the unwillingness of the workmen to introduce any new instrument. It is proper to observe here, that the swing-plough, which is commonly used in the land about London, will do the business of the hoe-plough in all ground that is not very strong or very stony; and that, where it is so, the foot-plough, made proportionably strong, will completely answer all purposes. But it must be remembered, that, when these are used to hoe corn, the board on the left-hand of the plough, answering the mould-board, must be

taken off; otherwise so much earth will run to the left-side as to injure the crop, when it is low.

The drills are excellent instruments; yet we imagine them capable of further improvement, Parallel grooves, at about an inch asunder, round the inside of the hopper, would shew the man who follows the drill whether or no both boxes vent the seed equally.—By an hitch from the plank to the harrow, the latter may be lifted to a proper height, so as not to be in the way when the ploughman turns at the head-land. Two light handles on the plank, like those of the common plough, would enable the person who follows the drill to keep it from falling off the middle of the ridge; it may also be useful, in wet weather, to double the drill; by which means two ridges may be sown at the same time, the horse going between them: for the planks of two drills, each plank having one of the shafts fixed to it, may be joined end for end, by two flat bars of iron, one on each side, well secured by iron pins and screws; and, by corresponding holes in the planks and bars, the distance between the drills may be altered, according to the different spaces between the ridges.

As Mr. Tull has endeavoured to recommend his theory, by making a comparison between the old method of culture and the new, so we shall annex a computation of the expence and profit of each; both of which, it seems, hath been experimentally tried, by a gentleman of veracity, in a country where the soil was of the same nature with that from whence Mr. Tull drew his observations, viz. light and chalky; and we chuse to give this the rather, as it comes from one who has no attachment to Mr. Tull's method, farther than that he found it successful by his own experience: and experience may be appealed to, whether every article in this calculation is not estimated in favour of the common husbandry; whether the expence be not rated lower than most farmers find it, and the crop such as they would rejoice to see, but seldom do, in the country where this computation was made.

In the new husbandry, every article is put at it's full value, and the crop of each year is four bushels short of the other; though, in several years experience, it has equalled, and generally exceeded, those of the neighbourhood in the old way.

An estimate of the expence and profit of 10 acres of land in twenty years.

I. In the old way.

First year, for wheat costs 33 l.				
5 s. viz.		1.	s.	d.
First ploughing, at 6 s. per acre	3	—	—	—
Second and third ditto, at 8 s. per acre	4	—	—	—
Manure, 30s. per acre	15	—	—	—
				22 : — : —
Two harrowings and sowings, at 2 s. 6 d. per acre	1	5	—	—
Seed, 3 bushels per acre, at 4 s. per bushel	6	—	—	—
Weeding, at 2 s. per acre	1	—	—	—
Reaping, binding, and carrying, at 6 s. per acre	3	—	—	—
				11 : 5 : —
				33 : 5 : —

Second year, for barley, costs 1 l. 11 s. 6 d. 8, viz.				
Once ploughing, at 6 s. per acre	3	—	—	—
Harrowing and sowing, at 1 s. 6 d. per acre	—	15	—	—
Seed, 4 bushels per acre, at 2 s. per bushel	4	—	—	—
Weeding, at 1 s. per acre	—	10	—	—
Cutting, raking, and carrying, at 3 s. 2 d. per acre	1	11	8	—
Grafs-feed, at 3 s. per acre	1	10	—	—
				11 : 6 : 8
				44 : 11 : 8

Third and fourth years, lying in grafs, costs nothing: So that the expence of 10 acres, in four years, comes to l. 44 : 11 : 8, and, in 20 years, to } 222 : 18 : 4

First year's produce is half a load of wheat per acre, at 7 l. per acre	35	—	—	—
Second year's produce is two quarters of barley per acre, at 1 l. per acre	20	—	—	—
Third and fourth year's grafs is valued at 1 l. 10 s. per acre	15	—	—	—
				70 : — : —
So that the produce of 10 acres, in 4 years, is	70	—	—	—
And in 20 years it will be	350	—	—	—

Deduct the expence, and there remains clear profit on 10 acres, in 20 years, by the old way } 170 : 1 : —

II. In the new way.

	l.	s.	d.
First year's extraordinary expence is,	22	—	—
For ploughing and manuring the land, the same as in the old way	—	—	—
Ploughing once more, at 4s. per acre	1	2	—
Seed, 9 gallons per acre, at 4s. per bushel	2	5	—
Drilling, at 7d. per acre	—	5	10
Hand-hoeing and weeding, at 2s. 6d. per acre	1	5	—
Horse-hoeing six times, at 10s. per acre	5	—	—
Reaping, binding, and carrying, at 6s. per acre	3	—	—
<hr/>			
The standing annual charge on 10 acres is	13	15	10
Therefore the expence on 10 acres, in 20 years, is	275	16	8
<hr/>			
Add the extraordinaries of the first year, and the sum is	297	16	8
<hr/>			
The yearly produce is at least two quarters of wheat per acre, at 1 l. 8s. per quarter, which on 10 acres, in 20 years, amounts to	560	—	—
<hr/>			
Therefore all things paid, there remains clear profit on 10 acres, in 20 years, by the new way	262	3	4

So that the profit on 10 acres of land, in 20 years, in the new way, exceeds that in the old way by 1. 135 : 1 : 8, and consequently, is considerably more than double thereof: an ample encouragement to practise a scheme, whereby so great advantage will arise from so small a quantity of land, in the compass of a 21 years lease, one year being allowed, both in the old and new way, for preparing the ground. It ought withal to be observed, that Mr. Tull's husbandry requires no manure at all, though we have here, to prevent objections, allowed the charge thereof for the first year; and moreover, that, though the crop of wheat from the drilling-plough is here put only at two quarters on an acre, yet Mr. Tull himself, by actual experiment and measure, found the produce of this drilled wheat-crop amounted to almost four quarters on an acre: and, as he has delivered this fact upon his own knowledge, so there is no reason to doubt his veracity, which has never yet been called in question.—But, that we might not be supposed to have any prejudice in favour of this practice, we have chosen to take the calculations of others rather than his, having no other view in what we have said than to promote the cause of truth, and the public welfare. For more matter on this subject, see the articles LAND, SOIL.

R E M A R K S.

We would not be thought, by recommending Mr. Tull's theory of husbandry to trial, as if it contained the greatest advance that might be made in the art of husbandry; there are various other particulars requisite to be taken into consideration, in a matter of this importance, by those who would excel herein; a variety of which have been shewn in this work already, with regard to many of the capital productions of nature, which are the foundation of commerce; and the same will likewise appear in the future part of this work, we having endeavoured to reduce the principles and experiments of the greatest philosophers into the narrowest compass, and in the plainest language, in order to render them intelligible to ordinary practisers. See FARMING, MANURE.

HYPOTHECATION of ships and salvage. To hypothecate a ship, is to pawn or pledge the same for necessaries: and into whose hands soever the ship comes it is liable, 'tis the same if goods be hypothecated.

R E M A R K S.

By the common law of England, a master could not pawn the ship or goods; for no such authority, general or special, is given to him by appointing him master: but, by the civil law, in cases of necessity he may, that the voyage be not lost: and the common law hath held the law of Oleron reasonable, that, in extreme necessity, the master may pawn for money, or other things.

But, for any debt of his own, he may not pawn the ship, nor sell or dispose of her, without special licence from the owners; and, when he doth, should have consent and advice of his mariners; but, when the ship is well engaged, she's for ever obliged, and the owners concluded till redemption. But the master may not pawn in every case of necessity. If a vessel in her voyage be cast away, and the mariners by great pains recover some of the wreck and lading, the master in that case may pledge the same, and distribute the produce amongst his distressed crew, to carry them home: but, if they no way contributed to the salvage, their reward is lost. And, if considerable part of the lading be saved, the

master should not dismiss his men, till he knows the owners or freighters will, or he may be liable to damage.

Merchants freighting a ship at their own charges, which entering some harbour is there wind-bound, and the master detained till he wants necessaries, he is not only to write home for supplies, but may pawn the ship or lading at pleasure, or at least what he can most conveniently raise money on: and, if he cannot pawn the lading, he may sell what's necessary. However, orders and instructions are carefully to be followed.

A ship being greatly distressed at sea, and wanting a cable, the master contracted for one, which was delivered to him, &c. In an action for the money it was held, that, by maritime law, every contract of the master implies an hypothecation; but it is not so at common law, unless expressly agreed.

In the case of Johnson against Shippen, a ship in distress on the high sea put into Boston in New England, where the master took up necessaries, and, by bill of sale, hypothecated the ship: suit being in the admiralty against ship and owners for repayment, on a motion for prohibition, the court held, that the master's contract could not make the owners personally liable, but the suit against the ship was good; and to hypothecate is necessary to preserve navigation, for the master can have no other credit. If a ship in harbour in England be pawned, the party shall not sue for it in the admiralty.

A master may also subject part of the ship and cargo, to save the whole, and redemption is a kind of salvage: the master represents the owners and freighters, and may detain the goods for freight; and it is reasonable that a master compounding for goods, under the circumstances of a capture, should be satisfied by the owners.

By the naval laws of Oleron, if a ship laden be in the course of her voyage rendered unfit to proceed, and the seamen save what they can of the lading, the master may deliver the goods to the merchants requiring them, if he pleases, they paying freight in proportion to the part of the voyage performed, and costs of the salvage; but, if the master can readily refit, he may; and, though he has promised those who helped to save the ship the third or half of the goods saved, for their hazard, in a court of judicature their pains will be considered, and the reward be accordingly, without regard to the promises made them by the parties concerned, in their distress.

If a laden ship put to sea, and there perish, through the fault of the master or his men, the goods saved shall be secured: but, if it be proved the misfortune was caused by tempest, the remainder of ship and goods shall be brought to contribution, and the master retain half the value of freight, by the laws of Rhodes; which also ordain, to any person saving any part of a wreck, one fifth part of what he saves.

And for charges of salvage very great allowances have been made; as to the divers and salvors, the half, third, or tenth of the things saved, according to the depth of water, whether 15, 8, or 1 fathom; also a tenth for salvage on the coast, and the fifth to him, who, saving himself, carries something with him. If the ship only perishes, and the goods be saved, then they to pay the tenth or fifth, as the difficulty of saving requires; and gold, silver, silk, and the like, shall pay less than heavier and more burthenfome goods, which are in greater danger.

In France they allow one third part for salvage; but, by the common custom of countries, every lord of the manor, &c. claims all his own, if it comes upon his land; contrary to some sea laws, which give it to the finder; though, by the opinion of lawyers, the finders should do as with other goods found on land; they should proclaim the things to be forthcoming to the true owner, and, none claiming, the finder to keep them to himself.

By stat. 12 Ann. cap. 18. All persons required by constables, &c. who shall act in saving any ship in distress on our sea-coasts, or the cargoes, shall, within 30 days, be paid a reasonable reward by the master or merchant; in default, the ship and goods to remain in custody of the officers of the customs, till payment be made; and, if any difference arise about salvage, three justices of the peace shall adjust the quantum, which shall be binding to all parties, and recoverable in an action at law.

And, if goods thus saved are not claimed in 12 months, they shall be sold, the justices taking an account in writing, signed by the officer to whom they are intrusted; and, if perishable, must be forthwith sold, and, after charges deducted, the money arising to be transmitted to the Exchequer, with a fair account of the whole, for the use of the owner, who on proof of his property before one of the barons of Exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same.

If any persons shall molest any one in saving the ship or goods, or, when saved, shall deface the marks of any, before they are entered in a book for that purpose, such persons shall, in twenty days, make double satisfaction to the party grieved, at the discretion of the two next justices; or, in default thereof, shall be sent to the house of correction for twelve months.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued from the end of letter G.

BOUNTY for the ENCOURAGEMENT of the BRITISH WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

BY 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6. was granted to the society of the Free British Fishery, for fourteen years, from the 11th of October 1750, the date of their charter.

And by 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 4. was further continued for three years; and is,

For every hundred pounds actually employed in the said fishery, 3l. per ann. to be paid to the proprietors of the stock out of the customs, by the receiver-general of the customs, by equal half-yearly payments; provided the society shall employ 100,000 l. at least in the said fishery, within eighteen months after the date of their subscription. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6, 7.

In order to ascertain the sums from time to time actually expended and employed by the society in the said fishery, the account thereof must be delivered to the commissioners of the customs, signed by three, at least, of the council of the society, as an attestation that they have examined it, and believe it to be just, and attested by the oath of the accountant of the society at the foot of the account; upon which, the commissioners are to order payment accordingly. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6.

The society are also to lay their accounts annually before parliament; and if loss should arise by one year's adventure, and there should be gain by succeeding years, the gain must be applied to make good the original stock of 100,000 l. before any dividend is made. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 7.

By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 1, 2. this bounty is allowed to the society on the sum of 104,509 l. for two years, to October 22, 1752, and all future interest on that sum is to be computed from that day; and all future computations of interest on any additional sum paid in by the society, in order to be employed in the said fishery, are to be made from the day on which each sum respectively is paid into the bank of England.

Any number of persons subscribing 10,000 l. or upwards, into the stock of the said society, and carrying on the said fishery under their own management, and on their own account, from the port named by them; conformably, nevertheless, to this act and the charter (except as to being obliged to use the marks of the said society) and subscribing under the name of the fishing-chamber of such city, port, or town, are entitled to the same bounty. But their account of expences, attested by three of their committee, signed by their accountant, and verified by his oath, and also the vouchers, if required, is to be transmitted to the society in London, whose accountant is to enter it in their account, delivered to the commissioners of the customs, as a sum expended in the said fishery by the said society. The bounty is to be paid to the society in London, and by them paid over to the fishing-chamber, after deducting the necessary charges of receiving. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 18, 20.

BOUNTY ON SHIPS built for, and employed in the BRITISH WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 11, 12, 16. was granted for fourteen years, from the commencement of this act.

By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 4. further continued for three years; and is, for

Every decked bus or vessel, from 20 to 80 tons burthen, built in Great-Britain after the commencement of this act, for the use of the said fishery, and proceeding thereon from some port of Great-Britain, and fitted out and employed therein by the society of the Free British Fishery, or any other person, manned and navigated according to law, for every ton burthen 1 l. 10 s. BOUNTY, to be paid annually to the owners thereof, out of the produce of the customs, subject to the following regulations.

Every such vessel must have on board twelve Winchester-bushels of salt for every last of fish she is capable of holding, barrelled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as she can carry, and two fleets of tanned nets, viz. for a vessel of 70 tons, one fleet of 50 nets on board, each 30 yards upon the rope, and seven fathoms deep; and another fleet of 50 nets in a tender, or proper place on shore, each 30 yards upon the rope, and not under 5 fathoms deep, and so in proportion. And must have on board at the rendezvous six men for a vessel of 20 tons, and one man more for every five tons above 20; and must return into port with the same number, unless reduced by death, sickness, or desertion, without fraud or collusion. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 4.

Before she proceeds on such voyage, she must be visited by the proper officer of the customs, who is to examine if she is qualified as above, and take account of her tonnage by admeasurement, and certify the same to the commissioners of the

customs, and whether she is a proper vessel to be employed in the fishery.

And further, upon one of the owners, or their agents, or a proper officer or agents of the society, and the master of the vessel making oath at the foot of the certificate, before the collector and comptroller of the port, that it is their firm purpose, and determined resolution, that vessel shall proceed, so manned, furnished, and accoutered, either to Brassey's sound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 22d of June, and not shoot or wet their nets before the 24th of June, and shall continue fishing among the shoals of herrings as they move southward, unless prevented by loss of masts, or other unavoidable accidents, to the 12th of October; or shall proceed to Campbell-town in Argyleshire, or Kirkwall in the Orkney Islands, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 12th of September, and continue fishing among the shoals of herrings as they move to the 11th day of January, unless they shall sooner have completed their loading*; and fish in an orderly manner, without obstructing others; and shall keep a journal of their proceedings, and an account of the quantities of fish dispatched to foreign markets, before they came into port, and the quantity they shall bring into port with them; and upon the same persons giving security, in treble the value of the bounty, for the faithful dealings of the master and ship's company, the collector and comptroller of the port are to give them a licence to proceed on the voyage. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 2, 7.

* By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5, 6. the society may follow the White-Herring Fishery in any part of the British seas; and are not to forfeit this bounty, though the buffes should not arrive at one of these places of their rendezvous on the respective days appointed, provided she took her departure from one of those at least five days before the day appointed for their being there.

But in the interval, between the SHETLAND and YARMOUTH FISHERIES, the vessels may put into any port of Great-Britain, or Ireland, to change their nets, or otherwise prepare for the YARMOUTH FISHERY; and are not obliged to carry more than one fleet of nets to the latter fishing. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 8.

Upon the return of the vessel to her port of discharge, the chief officer of the customs, or one appointed by him, must go on board and examine her condition and lading, and certify the same, with their observations thereon, and also the tonnage and names of the master, and other persons on board*; and the master must make oath, before the collector and comptroller of the port, on the back of the licence, or to be annexed to it, that the vessel was at one of the places before-mentioned at the time appointed, and has not since been on any other voyage, or pursued any other design, or view of profit; and that they did remain fishing according to the directions of this act, and had at the time of their rendezvous, the quantity of nets and other stores, and number of men, as above directed †. The licence is to be delivered up, with an account of what was done in pursuance of it; and the certificate, schedule, licence, and oath, together with the account of the fish taken, are to be transmitted, by the collector and comptroller of the port, to the commissioners of the customs for that part of Great-Britain, from whence she is departed with her licence; who, being satisfied of their faithful dealings, are (upon the owners producing a proper certificate, from the receiver of the duty of six-pence per month from all seamen, for the use of Greenwich-hospital, that all money due on that account for every seaman on board such vessel has been paid) to cause payment of the bounty to be made by the receiver-general of the customs. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 15.

* A true copy of this certificate must be transmitted by the commissioners of the customs with all convenient speed, to the receiver of the duty of six-pence per month from all seamen for the use of Greenwich hospital, in London. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 10.

† If, by virtue of the liberty granted, any bus quits her station, appointed by 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. in order for fishing at other stations, or does not arrive at one of the stations there mentioned on the day appointed, this oath is to be varied, and made conformable to the circumstances attending such respective bus. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 7.

The society may lett out to hire any of their buffes to be used and employed in the said fishery only, and subject to the same regulations and restrictions as if employed by the society. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5.

I

J A P

JAPON, or JAPAN. This great country consists of several large islands, besides a great number of small ones, all making but one empire, called by the name of the largest in it, and which, exclusive of the small islands, that lie scattered at a distance, consists of the three principal ones, viz. Japon, or, as the inhabitants call it, Niphon, Ximo, the next in bigness, and Xi-Coco.

The soil produces great plenty of the finest and whitest sort of rice, yearly exported hence in vast quantities by the Dutch. It produces a great variety of other fruits, and breeds vast numbers of cattle of all sorts. Its mountains are enriched with mines of gold and silver, copper, tin, lead, and iron.

The commodities they export are chiefly rice, silks, cotton, &c. the finest of porcelane, varnish, gold and silver, copper and steel, both excellent in their kinds, elephant's-teeth, and very rich furs; tea of all sorts, some kinds of such excellent flavour and taste, that it is sold at a prodigious rate, even above that of gold, weight for weight; a great variety of medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. all of which, as well as the tea, are sold genuine, without the adulterations committed by the Chinese in theirs: ambergrease, pearls, coral, &c. In exchange for which, the Dutch bring them not only glasses of all sorts, woollen and linen cloths, &c. from Holland, but furnish them likewise with many other commodities from Siam, China, and other parts of India. In the carrying on which commerce is this further encouragement, that no custom is paid for goods, either imported or exported; only care must be taken to deal with the same fairness and honesty that the Japanese use, for those who trespass herein are sure to be punished with the utmost severity. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

In the island of NIPHON is

MEACO, once the metropolis of the whole empire. It is situated near the middle of the south coast, in a spacious and fertile plain. It is still the grand storehouse of all the manufactures of the empire, and a place of the greatest commerce for all sorts of merchandize that come from abroad. But the most valuable wares in it are either those which are wrought in gold and silver, the finest of silk, Japon cabinets, &c. the richest porcelane, and the best steel blades of all sorts; all of them, especially the last, greatly exceeding those wrought in China.

JEDDO, the other, or new metropolis, stands at the end of a bay, famed for its great plenty of fish, but so shallow as not to admit ships of bulk, which they are forced to unload about a league below the city.

OSACCA and **SACCAI** are situate on each side of a large river, near the mouth of it. The former is reckoned one of the chief sea-ports in the whole empire. It swarms with artificers of all kinds, besides rich merchants, and much nobility and gentry.

SURUNGA is another maritime city, but it is at present in a great measure abandoned. The English were once allowed to trade here.

In the island of **XIMO**, are **CANGOXUMA**, situate on the southern coast of the island, and which was made the center of commerce by the Portuguese, on account of its commodious situation and harbour, though the entrance be somewhat dangerous, on account of the many rocks near it.

NANGAZAKI is situate on the western coast, at the end of a deep convenient bay. The Dutch are lodged on a small island, facing the town, where they are confined and watched all the time they stay.

The town is well filled with merchants, and artists in all trades and manufactures, which bear here a greater price than in other parts of Japan. The haven, which is long, deep, and commodious, is seldom without 50 or 60 merchant-ships, besides smaller vessels, and a great number of fishing-boats.

The last considerable island in the whole empire is

XICOKO, lying between Ximo on the west, and Niphon on the east and north.

It hath several good ports round it; **AWA** is the principal city. Round about the coasts of these three principal islands are a vast number of smaller ones, of different sizes and natures, some inhabited, others desert. Some few of them are large,

J A V

and fertile enough to maintain a governor, and produce not only corn, cattle, sugar, and other such commodities, but likewise, variety of metals and minerals, and, among them, gold and silver, besides several of precious stones, quarries of marble, &c.

One of them, called **FIRANDO**, was the first on which the Dutch chose to make their head settlement.

JAVA, an island in the East-Indies, in Asia, the greatest part of it under the dominion of the Dutch. It extends from longitude 105 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 116; and from south latitude 5 to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$. It is separated from the south east part of Sumatra by the straits of Sunda, where they are not above five or six leagues over; is about 120 miles off Borneo, to which there is a convenient passage for small vessels; and has the ocean on the south: it stretches almost due east and west, only the east end declines a little to the south.

The air is not very hot, and about Batavia especially it is temperate and healthy. The east and west winds blow all the year along the shore, besides the ordinary land and sea winds.

Their summer begins in May, but June is reckoned the pleasantest month; and here is a continual clear sky till November, when the winter comes on with hard rains, that hold sometimes three or four days together, without intermission.

In December the winds are so violent, that there is no passing by sea. In February it is changeable weather, with sudden thunder-storms. In March they begin to sow; in July the sugar and rice begin to ripen; in September they gather them; and in October they have plenty of all sorts of fruits, flowers, and herbs. The low lands near the shore are generally marshy, and over-run with reeds and bamboes, except about Batavia and Bantam, and a few other towns, where the meadows, being drained, are fitted for tillage; and their rice-fields and kitchen-gardens are well supplied with water, from the numerous rivulets which run through the country.

Great part of the island, indeed, is still unknown, by reason of the several high mountains and unpassable forests. The north part, between Bantam and Batavia, is populous; and, besides the Indian fruits and rice (the only corn that grows here) produces pulse, and all sorts of European garden-stuff, with some tobacco, salt and pepper; the last of which, though by some reckoned the best, is not so good as that of Malabar. The inland people, being suffered to traffic with no other nation, are forced to sell this, and their other merchandize, to the Dutch, at their own price. It abounds so greatly with pepper, that it can export 10,000 tons a year. It also produces bees-wax and benzoin, and has mines of gold and silver, copper and iron, and some diamonds, rubies, emeralds, &c. besides stone-quarries near Batavia, and good earth for bricks.

Their pasture is rank and sour, and, consequently, the flesh of their cattle is coarse. The Dutch have introduced vines about Batavia, which will bear seven times within two years, yet they can make no wine, and have none but what comes from Europe or Persia, which is valued at four or five shillings a bottle.

The Javans on the coast drive a considerable trade from port to port, and from one island to another in this Indian Archipelago, and particularly to Borneo, exchanging goods in one place for such as they can sell in another; but they are such a cheating people that no body cares to deal with them, except in public. They carry with them strings of coral, and coral-beads; and sometimes the Dutch buy diamonds of them, which they get at Borneo.

The trade being here wholly in the hands of the Dutch, and, indeed, so much of the island itself as they require, they have the benefit of the product, &c. as much as if the natives were their subjects: for they not only submit to trade with them, but come freely with their commodities, especially pepper, to Batavia, where the Dutch buy it ready cured, so that they are at no trouble to make it marketable.

The Dutch have planted so many sugar-canes in the country, especially about Batavia, that, besides supplying that large and populous colony, and their factories in the Spice Islands, &c. we see large entries of sugar in Holland by all their fleets from Batavia.

Coffee is another addition which the Dutch have made to the produce of Java, the quality of which is said to improve as the quantity increases; so that, though it be not altogether so good as that of Mocha, they send considerable quantities of it every year to Europe.

As for their rice, they sell it to the Chinese and Malayan merchants, who export it. They have also a very great trade among themselves, in the consumption of European commodities, of which they bring greater quantities to the Indies than the English, it being computed that, since the vast conflux of strangers to Batavia, the Dutch have not less than half a million of people under their government, here and in the Spice Islands.

They have naval stores, partly the product and manufacture of this island, and partly imported as copper from China and Japan; iron from Pegu; damer, or pitch from Malacca; brimstone from Formosa; salt-petre from Surat, and that coast of India; and wheat from Bengal, though the Europeans, &c. prefer boiled rice to bread.

They have timber of their own sufficient for building, particularly good oak, and a red wood like cedar, beside cacao's and bamboo's; and the only military stores they can want is small arms, of which they bring great quantities from Europe; though, as they have very good iron enough, they might make them on the spot.

BANTAM, is the first place of commerce, at the west end of Java, and was the metropolis of a great kingdom, till the Dutch destroyed it, and deposed the king. It stands in a plain at the foot of a mountain, from whence issues a river that divides itself into three streams, two of which surround the town, and the third passes through it. When in it's glory, it was reckoned 12 miles in compass, very populous, well fortified and adorned with several grand buildings and palaces; one of the greatest ports in these seas, to which all nations resorted, and where the English and Danes also had flourishing factories, till the Dutch, by a pretended authority from the new king, whom they had assisted the rebel natives in placing on the throne, after they had taken his father prisoner, and sent him to Batavia, obliged them both to quit the place, which they afterwards fortified for their own interest. But the natives and the king too, who was in his turn stripped of all regal power, by his ally the Dutch, have ever since lamented the loss of the English trade in particular, and, how well they like the Dutch, may be learnt from Capt. Hamilton, who says, that, if a Hollander strays but a musket-shot from their fort, 'tis five to one if ever he returns, the natives being so dextrous at throwing a lance, or shooting a poisoned arrow from a trunk unknown. Bantam, in short, is become a ruinous place, being without trade, and therefore without gentry, which are both engrossed by Batavia; yet Bantam has a good safe road and a pleasant bay, where are several little islands that still retain their English names. But,

BATAVIA is the glory of this island, and of all the European settlements in these Indies. This city is the center of all the strength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, and the seat of their governor-general and council of the Indies; where they are so powerful, and have so many subjects, so many dominions dependent on them, and are so able to support, protect, and employ them, that some think it a wonder, they do not supplant or drive all the other European factories out of the country; for they can fit out so many ships, and raise so many seamen, that no European nation can produce a force at a distance, able to cope with them.

When the Dutch first came to it, which was in the year 1619, it was but a village, surrounded with a kind of pallisade of bamboo-canes, in a flat country, encompassed with fenny grounds, and liable to inundations; a situation which might have discouraged the Europeans from making a settlement on it, but the Dutch, being accustomed to provide against the like inconveniences in their own country, demolished the old place, and built a new one by the name of Batavia.—For this purpose, they cut canals and drains to carry off the water upon any land floods, so that they can turn the currents which way they will: and, as to storms from the sea there are 17 or 18 small islands in the offing, which so break the violence of the winds and waves, that 1000 sail of ships may ride safe in it at a time, besides small craft, which go into the river, and lie with their heads close under the shore, fastened to piles. Two large piers run out half a mile into the sea, between which 100 slaves are constantly employed in taking up the soil, which is washed out of the town, or the mouth of the river would soon be choked up. Here all vessels pay toll. A sea-gale rises every morning at ten o'clock, to bring vessels into the bar, and a land one at 10 at night, to carry them out: the one comes from the north, the other from the south.

The Dutch have erected so many works for the service of their factory, that they have rendered themselves able to subsist, though their communication with Europe should, for a time, be cut off, and even to carry on not only trade, but war; for in the islands of Ormus and Onrost, in the bay, two leagues from Batavia, where several good platforms of guns lie level with the water, they have yards and docks

for ships, with plenty of timber, and all other materials; large rope-walks, forges for anchors, &c. and founderies for iron and brass cannon, mortars, bombs, shells bullets, &c. And this city is said to be the best supplied with flesh meat of any European factory in all the Indies, though the beef is generally lean, and the mutton dear, because it is hard to raise it, and it soon rots. The regular troops with which this city and neighbouring forts are garrisoned, are 10 or 12,000; about 1000 of which are upon guard every day, and they are formed out of the native Javans, the Chiffese, Malayans, Amboynesses, Topasses, Bugaffes, Tymoreans, and many other people, who have been brought from many distant countries and islands by the Dutch, besides their European forces to keep their subjects in awe.

This city being the great magazine of the Dutch East India company, they import hither not only what Europe affords, but the merchandizes of Japan, the Spice Islands, Persia, Surat, Bengal, the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, &c. Though the Dutch suffer no Europeans to trade hither, yet 15 or 20 sail of Chinese junks come hither every November or December, from 3 to 500 tons each, and return the beginning of June; by which means the Dutch are furnished with the goods of China, much cheaper than if they sent their fleets thither.

MADURA ISLAND, is opposite to the easternmost point of Java, and produces nothing for a foreign market but deer-skins, which may be had here very cheap.

PATAMBOAN, the capital of a kingdom or principality, independent of the Dutch, stands on a bay at the south-east end of Java, in a pleasant country, watered with several rivulets, which fall on each side of the town into the neighbouring straits of Bally. This part produces gold, pepper, and cotton in abundance, rice, Indian corn, roots and garden-stuff.

TIMOR, is another place of some account for trade. It is an island which produces sandal wood, the best and largest in the world, which is a valuable commodity in China; also gold and bees-wax, and plenty of all kinds of provisions, but the coast is subject to frequent thunder and tornadoes. This island lies almost north-east and south-west, betwixt 124 and 128 degrees of longitude east from London, and the middle of it is 9 degrees of south latitude. It has no navigable rivers or harbours, but several bays, where ships may ride safe at some seasons of the year, it being a bold shore, free from rocks and shoals.

R E M A R K S.

From the state of the Dutch affairs at Batavia, they have such a fleet of men of war in their ports, that they can command all the coast of Asia, and give law to the Europeans, who have any share in the commerce of those seas, as well as to the natives.—They have absolutely excluded the English, and all other Europeans, from the commerce of the Spice Islands, which is one of the most estimable branches of the trade of the Indies, and from that of the islands of Java and Macassar, or Celebes, and Malacca: and, by their fleets and garrisons near the straits of Malacca and Sunda, they can exclude all countries from the traffic of China.—They levy what taxes they please on the inhabitants; the Chinese, who were the most expert merchants in these parts, brought them in the most considerable revenues, by the duties and customs they paid, and yet grew very rich and powerful.—The Dutch propagated, that they entered into conspiracies to dispossess them of the island, and pretend they had no way to secure themselves, but by a general massacre of the Chinese, which they put in execution in the year 1740, when 30,000 Chinese were murdered at Batavia.

The whole commerce of the Dutch in India is divided into governments and directions, viz.

- I. **BATAVIA** is the chief and capital place, where reside the governor-general, and council in ordinary of India, to whom all other governments and directions are subordinate, transmitting their accounts to them; the balance whereof is entered into the accounts general of India, and kept there. Besides which, there are several places immediately under the government and direction of the governor and council of Batavia, viz.
 1. Japan, a chief-ship.
 2. Tonqueen, a chief-ship.
 3. Macassar, a commandant.
 4. Siam, a chief-ship.
 5. Bantam, a factory.
 6. Japera, a factory.
 7. Jambee, a chief-ship.
 8. Pullambam, a chief-ship.
 9. Arrakan, a chief-ship.
- II. **AMBOYNA**, a government, under which are certain islands, where they pay a yearly rent, not to suffer cloves or other spices to grow.
- III. **BANDA**, is a government, and under it are several islands; to the natives of which, they pay money yearly to destroy the spice.
- IV. **TERNAT**, is a government.
- V. **MALACCA**, is a government.

- VI. CEYLON, a government, where they have many factories, whose accounts are sent to Columbo, the principal place.
- VII. COCHEN, is a government, and under it is the Malabar coast.
- VIII. POLICAT, a government, under which are the coast of Coromandel and Pegu.
- IX. BENGAL is a direction, and under it are all the Dutch factories in that bay: Hugly is the chief, from whence they send their accounts to Batavia.
- X. SURAT, another direction, under which are many factories.
- XI. PERSIA, a direction, the chief residence Gombroon, and under it are Ispahan and Bassora.
- XII. CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, a government, and under it the Maurittias.

N. B. Governments are, when the places are their own. Directions are, when they are under a foreign prince, and have no garrisons. Batavia excepted, no government, direction, or command, hath precedence of place; but the persons in those places, and all other degrees and qualities, take place according to their seniority in standing. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The manner of stating and keeping their accounts.

In all governments and directions of great business, as at Batavia, Columbo, Policat, Hugly, &c. they keep three sets of books, journal and ledger, with all the auxiliaries.

The first set contains the general accounts, wherein is entered the balance of all books of accounts under the place; and those at Batavia, are called accounts general of India; at Columbo, accounts general of Ceylon; at Policat, of Coromandel; at Hugly, of Bengal, &c.

The second set, commonly called the negotia books, contains the particular traffic of buying and selling, and these are called accounts of the place where they are kept.

The third set only contains the wages, paid and due to their servants. Accounts in all parts of India, are generally kept in guilders, stivers, and pennings, as in most part of the United Provinces in Europe; and, in an inward column, the coins of each place: for instance, Policat, viz.

In the first set of books, called accounts Coromandel; if any goods be sent to, or received from Batavia, they Dr. to Cr. account general of India to, or by account guildria for it, if the goods be directly to or from Policat; if not, Metchelatan, or such other place to, or from which the goods are sent or received.

In the second set, or negotia books, called accounts geldria: if any goods be sent to, or received from Batavia, or other places, they Dr. and Cr. account Coromandel for the same. And, when such entries and invoices are made in the general books, called account Coromandel, they must specify the particulars of each species of goods in the journal, but not give every particular sort of goods in the ledger.—When the books of accounts of subordinate factories are entered into the general books, they mention the letter and mark of such subordinate books, the debts of their balance, and the debts upon balance amounting in guilders, &c.—That the Cr. upon balance amounts to guilders—And that the rest upon balance amount to guilders.

The books filed accounts geldria, are cleared and entered into the books filed accounts Coromandel, as the books of subordinate factories are.

The subordinate factories are obliged, every three months, to send a copy of their journal to Policat, and a copy of their account Coromandel out of their ledger.

The general books, or those filed accounts Coromandel, are always kept by the second, at Policat, and an under-copeman, in subordination to him, to post the journal into the ledger, according to the principle of Dr. and Cr. by double entry. See the article ACCOUNTANTSHIP. The like is done at Bengal, Surat, &c.

The accounts geldria, are kept by a copeman, or under-copeman, at Policat.

The accounts of their servants wages are kept in two or three sets of books for that purpose, at Batavia; those at Policat are kept by an under-copeman.

At Batavia, the books of accounts of India are severally audited; and, if any errors be discovered, the person who kept them is fined for every error a certain sum of money, which is accordingly deducted out of his salary.

The accounts general of India, are kept by an upper-copeman. And the negotia books, filed accounts castle of Batavia, are kept by the first upper-copeman of the two that are under the director-general; and they have the assistance of able copeman, under-copemen and book-keepers, to examine, inspect, and copy under them.

The books of accounts at Policat and Hugly are ballanced the last of July, those at Surat the last of May, and at Batavia the last of October.

The government, order, and provision, for the Dutch East-India company's ships and fleets, viz.

All their ships are the company's own, and the men belonging to them are all in their pay, sworn to serve them, either by sea or land, as occasion shall require.

They have two persons who have the file of admirals, and are of the ordinary council of India.

For the care of their shipping at Batavia, they have one called equipage-master, who is of the quality and pay of an under-copeman, and vulgarly called a commandore: he hath the care of fitting all their ships, and is constantly visiting them in the road, and supplying them with all requisites.

There is a small island about three miles from Batavia, where they have a fort, which serves them as a storehouse for all manner of necessaries for ships, under the charge of a master shipwright, who has also command of the fort and island: he is of the quality of upper-copeman, and has large pay and allowances.

When they send out a fleet for war, they make a MERCHANT of the quality of upper-copeman, and sometimes of the extraordinary council, admiral or general, who has a council of merchants, and military officers to assist him as occasion requires.

The admirals of the fleet that go from Batavia to Europe, are such as have served the company as governors, directors, commandores, or upper-copemen.—As to their admirals out of Europe, the flag is worn by turns. Amsterdam squadron carries it three years, and the Zealand squadron every fourth year. The Amsterdammers having two parts of the flock, the other lesser chambers add theirs to it, and the Zealanders have one quarter of their own. The MERCHANT, who is sent admiral, must either take his passage on the Amsterdam, or Zealand squadron.

If a copeman, or under-copeman, goes from port to port on any ship, they have the command of her, and also of the whole fleet in company.

When there is a fleet under the command of a commandore, the council is to consist of copemen and skippers. When a ship is single, the council is to be a copeman, skipper, under-copeman, book-keeper, and steerman; and they are always to steer their course by the printed directions, and to set off their work every day upon charts, which are delivered up, when they come to Batavia or Holland. For more matter relating to this great trading company, see the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The COINS of BATAVIA.

8 Doits make	— —	1 Cash, or double kye.
3 Cash	— —	1 Satallie.
6 Cash (or 2 fatallies)	— —	1 Sooka.
9 Cash	— —	1 Sooka fatallie.
15 Ditto	— —	1 Rupee.
24 Ditto (or 48 stivers)	— —	1 Ducado, or rixdollar.
39 Ditto (or 13 fatallies)	— —	1 Ducatoon.

Accounts are kept as well in rixdollars and stivers, as in guilders, stivers, &c.

Of the COINS, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES, of the chief factories and governments belonging to the Dutch, under the government of BATAVIA.

Variety of coins are current here; that in which accounts are kept, is rixdollars, an imaginary coin; but the money most current in the shops and bazaars, are rupees, skillings, double keys, and doits.

4 Doits make	-	1 Stiver.
6 Stivers	-	1 Skillings.
8 Skillings	-	1 Rixdollar.
1 Ducatoon in curr.	for 13	Skillings.
1 English crown-piece	10	Ditto.
1 Bombay or Surat rupee	5	Ditto.
1 Madras rupee (though of the value with Bombay)	-	4 Ditto.
1 Arcat rupee (tho' but 1 per cent. worse than that of Surat)	-	4 Ditto.

} Because they are not so broad as the Bombay, or Surat rupees.

W E I G H T S.

16 Tales make	1	Catty.
100 Cattys	1	Pecul, equal to 135 lb. avoirdupoise.
3 Pecul	-	1 Baaker.

All goods are weighed by the company's dotchin, for which you pay the captain of the Chinese, who is the dotchin-keeper, 1 per cent.

G O L D W E I G H T S.

		oz.	dwt.	grs.
16 Miams = 1 Boncal,	equal to Troy weight	1	9	18.72
20 Boncals = 1 Catty				29: 16

M E A S U R E S.

A Malacca quoin is 3200 chupas, or 800 cantins, equal to 5000 Dutch lb. or 5475 lb. English; or Canton peculs (according to the Dutch calculation of 125 lb. to a pecul) 40 peculs.

A last is 2000 chupas, 500 cantins, 3000 Dutch lb: 24 peculs, 3285 lb. English.

ICE

Of the COINS, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES of SIAM.

Their coins are tuals, miams, tuangs, and samporfs.

2 Samporfs make	—	—	—	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	—	—	—	1 Miam
4 Miams	—	—	—	1 Tual.

Their accounts are kept in cattys, tales, tuals, miams, tuangs, and cowries.

800 Cowries make	—	—	—	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	—	—	—	1 Miam
4 Miams	—	—	—	1 Tual
4 Tuals	—	—	—	1 Tale
20 Tales	—	—	—	1 Catty

10 Miams pass for a tale China, and 85 tales Siam make always 8 tale China.

GOLD and SILVER WEIGHTS

Are by tual, which weighs nearest 9 dwts. 10 grs. and is 9 1/2 dwts. better than standard silver.

GREAT WEIGHTS.

Are from their coins likewise, as lb. oz. dr.

80 Tuals	—	make 1 Catty, or	2 : 9 : 4 1/2 Avoir.
50 Catty	—	1 Pecul, or	129 : 0 : 13 ditto.

But 50 cattys Siam should make 1 pecul China of 132 lb. for they weigh all their goods by the China dotchin; but it is never found that the king's dotchin at Siam gives more than 129 lb. which should be 132 lb.

CUSTOMS.

The Chinese, Moors, and Banians, pay 8 per cent. customs. The English, at present, pay only measure for their ships; a ship of 200 tons pay from 1150 to 1200 rupees measure; and so for other vessels in proportion to their burden.

Of the COINS, WEIGHTS, and CUSTOMS of TONQUIN.

They have no other coin than copper cash, accounting

600 great, and	} Cash to one maradoc.
1000 small	

The price of silver is always variable here, which they rise and fall according to the quantity brought in, by which the Chinese make great advantage.

In the year 1739 they allowed 28 1/2 maradoes for one barry, or 10 tale silver; and, in 1748, but 21 maradoes. They run all the Mexico and pillar dollars, without distinction, into bar-silver, which ought to weigh 10 tale each, and into which they frequently put alloy; so that they are seldom so good as the dollar silver, though in payments you are obliged to allow them 3 per cent. to make it their standard.

	oz.	dwt.	gr.	
10 Tale weigh, with the 3 per cent. included	12	6	2 1/2	Troy
1 Ditto, ditto	—	—	—	—
Which is more than the China tale	—	9	9	9 1/2

Their accounts are kept in tales, mace, and candarines, which are regulated according to the price of their maradoes and copper cash.

WEIGHTS.

Their weights are by the Chinese dotchin, and the king's weight holds out full 132 lb. to the pecul; and however, it is necessary to have a true dotchin of one's own.

CUSTOMS.

The English pay no customs inwards; but the presents they are obliged to make to the king and his officers are very considerable.

Upon goods exported, as silk and lacquered wares, the English pay 5 per cent. See the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE in general, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, and DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

ICELAND, an island belonging to Denmark, situate between 10 and 26 degrees west longitude, and between 64 and 67 degrees of north latitude, about 480 miles distant from the coast of Norway to the west, and 400 from Scotland to the north. It was formerly reputed fruitful in wheat, and covered with large forests, of the timber whereof the Icelanders built fine and large vessels. The country at present is now so barren, that wheat will not grow there, and they have no trees but a few indifferent birch and shrubs. Their fuel is turf. Besides which, vast trunks of trees are frequently brought thither on shoals of ice, from countries which still lie nearer to the pole. These also serve them not only for firing, but for building their huts. At this season, about May, the inhabitants flock to the shore, in quest of these shoals, which bring them not only trees, but also stags, foxes of several sorts, bears, wolves, and what they call unicorns: these animals, being too far advanced upon the ice, are drove away with it, when it comes to be loosened from the shore by the thaw.

JER

This country is stony and mountainous; but their pastures are so excellent, that they are obliged to drive their cattle out of them after they have fed sufficient, otherwise they would eat till they are bursted; and the grass is of such an agreeable scent, that foreigners transport and dry it, to put among their cloaths*: yet their beef is not good, and their mutton is rankish, but they dry their meat in the sun and wind, which takes off the ill taste.

* This may be worth the consideration of philosophers; and the truth hereof may seem to be confirmed from the following experiment: the snow that falls in hard frosts, which being taken up, while it is fresh, and digested in a blind glass in ashes, for 24 hours, if then you open the glass, whilst the solution is warm, you shall perceive in the breath of the water all the odours in the world, and certainly far more pleasant than they are in the flowers at May.

They make great quantities of butter, which they lay up in casks, or, for want of them, they pile it up in their huts, like heaps of mortar. Their ordinary drink is milk and whey, which they mix with water. They have pretty good horses, which, in winter, they feed with dried fish, when the hay fails them, as they also do their other cattle. Foreigners bring them meal; and when that is gone, and the rigour of the season prevents vessels from coming to their island, they make meal and bread of their dried fish.

They have abundance of cold springs, the water whereof is very clear and palatable, and some as nourishing as beer*. Here are also several hot springs, very wholesome to bathe in; divers ponds and lakes full of fish, and various large and navigable rivers.

* This also may deserve serious consideration; but in my Experimental Philosophy I shall demonstrate the reasons hereof, where will be shewn how nature dictates to experiment, and experiment confirms the truth of nature.

As the Icelanders have no sort of money, their trade consists only in bartering one commodity for another; namely, their own product, which is dried fish, butter, tallow, brimstone in very large quantities, foxes, bears, stags, and wolveskins, for flour, beer, wine, strong waters, iron, woollen, and linen cloths, &c. The Germans, when they arrive, set up their tents near the harbours, where they exchange cloaks, shoes, looking-glasses, knives, and several toys, for the Iceland commodities.

SKALHOLT is a good town or port, on the south of the island.

The town is populous, and the port well frequented with ships; for the produce of both the land and the sea is considerable, and, consequently, the consumption of other merchandizes here brings many ships and merchants to the place. The whole shore of the island, except on the side of Mount Heckela*, is full of very deep inlets and bays, affording good ports and harbours. The king of Denmark maintains a governor and a garrison always here, to defend the place against strangers. His Danish majesty is so far a merchant, that he receives yearly a quantity of brimstone from hence, for the supply of his magazines of gunpowder.

* Of all parts of the globe some would not expect to find subterranean fires here, and yet Iceland is famous for the vulcano, or burning mountain, called Heckela, or Heckla, the largest and most furious one in Europe, except Aetna, and far exceeding Vesuvius. Upon what principles of reason and philosophy this may seem to be accounted for, see the article SULPHUR.

The chief employment of the inhabitants is fishing, and making a coarse sort of cloth of their sheep's-wool, or rather hair. They make their breeches, boots, and stockings, of sheepskins, and their shoes of seal-skins.

The king's revenue is raised in flesh, oil, fish, coarse cloth, and brimstone; for which he sends about eight ships every year, who carry them necessaries in exchange for their commodities.

The Icelanders are expert harponiers in the open sea, and dextrous in catching the smaller fish about the American shores, where they go as far as Davis's Streights; but they rarely venture in among the ice, or meddle with the whale-fishery, which they leave to the Dutch.

As they are a Danish colony, so their trade is confined chiefly to Denmark, from whence they receive back all the necessaries of life which their own country does not produce. See DENMARK.

JERQUE. After a ship is unloaded, the surveyor, or some other officer of the customs, goes on board, and searches to see if there be no unentered goods concealed: this is called jerquing the ship.

The form of the Custom-House account relating thereto.

A JERQUE ACCOUNT of the COASTING VESSELS entered inwards, in the quarter ending at Lady-Day, 1731, where there is any variation in the quantities or qualities of the goods from what is mentioned in the cockets.

Date of importation.	Ships names, and of what places.	From whence.	Date of the cocket.	Quantities.				Duties.			
				Taken in a per cocket.		Delivered as per meter's or weigher's cert.		Paid.	Secured.		
				Chal.	Ton	Chal.	Bu.			Ton	Hu.
7 Jan. 1730	George of Pool	Newcastle	2 Jan. 1730	50	—	104	18	—	—	l. s. d.	l. s. d.
9 Ditto	Henry of London	Ditto	4 Ditto	23	23	44	—	23	15	25 10 7 ¹ / ₂	—
12 Ditto	Swift of Sunderland	Sunderland	6 Ditto	55	—	119	27	—	—	14 11 8 ¹ / ₂	—
19 February	Neptune of Hull	Newcastle	11 February	31	—	20	—	—	—	29 3 9 ¹ / ₂	—
21 March	Anne of Whitby	Ditto	8 March	70	—	33	—	—	—	5 — —	—
22 Ditto	Hope of Lanelly	Lanelly	17 Ditto	37	—	43	27	—	—	8 — 10 ³ / ₄	10 18 9
21 December	Rachel of Rochester	Newcastle	16 December	60	—	131	—	—	—	32 15 —	—
				326	23	496	—	23	15	115 2 —	10 18 9

And, besides the before-mentioned quarterly accounts of coals, culm, and cinders, there must be likewise sent to the register-general * monthly accounts of all ships entering inwards, and clearing outwards coastwise, with the particulars of their cargoes.

* Though it is the practice of most ports to transmit these accounts for each calendar month, yet from Bristol they are sent weekly, and from some ports every fortnight.

The FORM of a JERQUE ACCOUNT outwards, by the proper officers of the customs.

When debentures made out.	Date of entry.	No. of entry.	Exportation in Lady-Day quarter, 1731.	
23 March 1730	18 March	7	Joshua Wright	8 lb. Rhubarb } from the place of their growth, by Samuel 14 lb. Gentian } Hurst, the 18th of April and 16th of No- 7 lb. Scammony } vember last. 2. 3. 14. Battery } by Ralph Snow, the 3d of August 5. 1. 7. Metal prepared } and the 19th of November last. 544 lb. of tea, by the united company, the 18th of August last, as per certificate and land-carriage cocket from London in the name of Andrew Bell, dated the 3d instant. In the Goodfellow, prædict.
	23 March	8	Joel Thornton	20 Taffaties, 40 cushtaes, 10 photaes, 15 damasks, 12 pe- longs, came hither by land-carriage from London, per cocket, in the name of A. Bell, dated the 3d instant.

N. B. Besides the aforefaid account of goods exported, which is to be transmitted by the collector, customer, and comptroller of the customs, there must be likewise an account sent by the surveyor, to the register-general of all ships belonging to Great-Britain, in the following form:

Port of South- } A JERQUE ACCOUNT of all ships and vessels cleared outwards, in the quarter ending at Lady-day, 1731.

JER

Dates of clearing.	Ships names and places.	Whither bound.	British goods, and such foreign goods as pay duty outwards, or are exported out of time.								Duties paid.		Foreign goods, for which debentures are to be allowed.
			Bone lace Yards 740	Shoes lb. 249	Saddles 4 Great 6 Small	Leather gloves 25 Dozen	Earthen ware 3500 Pcs.	Silver watches 4	Woollen stuffs 150 lb.	Gold thread 28 lb. 10 oz.			
24 March	Tavistock of London	Jamaica	Silver lace lb. oz. 24 1	Go. fringe lb. oz. 10 5	Worsted hofe 10 Dozen	British linen 20 Pieces	British wrt. silk 20 lb.	Swedish iron 77 C. 2	For cord- age. 18 C.			7 C. 2 Narrow Germany linen, 10 lb. nutmegs. 147 Ells Holland linen, 8 lb. rhubarb. 3 C. 2 qr. Currants, 14 lb. gentian.	
12 March	Hope of Dublin	Ireland	British copperas 50 C.	Fustic 100 C.	Peafe 12 Quar- ters.	Pewter 10 C.	English falt 450 Bush.	Hops 175 C.				20 Reams of ordinary paper, 7 lb. of scammony. 4 C. 0 18 lb. Raisins folis. 2 C. 3 qr. 14 lb. Battery, 72 calicoes.	
The total of the two ships exemplified										1	3	9	5 C. 1 qr. 7 lb. Metal prepared. 87 C. 3 qr. 14 lb. Cacao-nuts. 45728 lb. Tobacco.
The total of the other ships not exemplified										121	12	3	
The total, agreeable to the collector's quarter-book										122	16	0	

N. B. As we thought the lading of two ships sufficient fully to exemplify the method of a jerque account, we have purposely omitted the other ships whereon goods have been laden, and which have been cleared in the aforefaid quarter; but to make the total of the duties agree with the collector's quarter-book (which in practice must be carefully observed) we have added the amount of the duties of the remaining ships, not exemplified.

D. E. Surveyor.
E. F. Searcher.
F. G. } Land-waiters.
G. H. }

I N W A R D S.

A JERQUE ACCOUNT of all ships and vessels discharged in the quarter ending at Lady-day, 1731.

JER

Date of importation.	Ships names and places.	From whence.	When cleared.	The total quantities of the several species of goods.								Duties.		Dam. &c. allowed.	Over-entries allow.
				Tobacco lb. 93000	Rad. fer- pent. 90 lb.	Wax can- dles 50 lb.	Staves C. 20.	Deals C. 40 0 0	Mid. balks C. 3 2 0	Ro. wood C. 1 2 c	Smallspars C. 2 0 12	Oars C. 1 0 0	Middle mast 10		
1730 28 January	Olive Branch of Liverpool	Virginia	19 February									345 6 11	1700 0 0	Tobac. deftroj. 1359 lb.	
20 January	Swallow of Ipswich	Norway	3 February									56 2 7			Deals C. 1 1 16
1 March	Welcome of London	Leghorn	22 March	Brimstone C. 356 2 14	Paper Reams 170	Worm- feeds 200 lb.	Capers lb. 1096	Ancho- vies 100 Barr.	Soap C. 58 3 7	Wine 84 Gal- lons.		243 11 11½		Soap dam. ⅔ C. 41 3 7	
The total of the three ships exemplified												645 2 5½	1700 0 0		
The total of the other ships not exemplified												7554 4 11¼	1028 18 4½		
The total agreeable to the collector's quarter-book												8199 7 4½	2728 18 4½		

N. B. As we thought the loadings of the above ships were sufficient fully to exemplify the method of a JERQUE ACCOUNT, we purposely omitted the other ships, wherein goods have been imported, and which have been discharged in the aforefaid quarter; but, to make the total of the duties agree with the collector's quarter-book, we have added the amount of the remaining ships: though in practice there will be frequently found a variation of a few shillings and pence, by reason that the discounts are deducted out of each duty on the several warrants from whence this account is taken; and in the quarter-books they are deducted from the total only, of each duty collected during the whole quarter.

A. B. Surveyor.
B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

REMARKS.

The merchandizes imported by each ship, having been duly delivered, and all requisites relating thereto performed, and the ships having been cleared, and all port-entries duly made, the land-waiters are to make up the accounts in their books, [see the article LAND-WAITER] and the several warrants granted for the delivery of the goods are to be filed together, and a paper prefixed to them with a title, after the following manner:

The Providence of London, James Bell, master, from Rotterdam.

Reported the 8th day of January, 1730.
 A. B. } Land-waiters.
 B. C. }

And the said warrants are to be carried to the warehouse-keeper, who must, on the title-page, certify if any goods, landed out of such ship, are remaining in his custody unentered, thus:

4th of March, 1730.

There are * not any goods, landed out of the above ship, remaining in the king's warehouse.

C. D. Warehouse-keeper.

* But, if there are any goods remaining in the warehouse unentered, the marks, numbers, and package, must be specified.

Which being performed, the said books and warrants are to be delivered to the surveyor or jerquer, within three days after the clearing of the ship: and, in order to keep the land-waiters punctually to the delivery of their books, the surveyor must lay before the collector, the first custom-house day of every month, a list of all books then standing out, for such ships as are then cleared, with the reasons from the land-waiters, why they are not delivered in: and, if the surveyor neglects to deliver in such list, the collector is to call upon him for the same.

The land-waiters books, and the several warrants, being delivered to the surveyor or jerquer, he is first of all carefully to examine the several operations, as the additions of the several weights, measures, and gauges, the computation and subtraction of all draughts and tares, and likewise the computations of the contents of the goods paying duty, either by running, square, or solid measure, and the contents of every cask, according to the dimensions inserted in the books: and he is also to observe, that there are proper warrants for the delivery of all goods, and that such warrants are duly entered in each book before the execution; and that, where goods have been short-entered, there be likewise post or additional entries for such deficiency; and that the land-waiters books do exactly agree with each other, and that all other requisites, relating to the landing and delivering of the goods, are punctually performed. See LAND-WAITER.

The execution of the land-waiters duty being carefully examined into, the surveyor or jerquer is next to compare the said land-waiter's accounts of the landing and delivering, with the tidemen's account of the unloading of the goods [see the article TIDESMAN] to see that they have been all duly accounted for; and, in case of any difference, to acquaint the collector therewith; who, after examination, is to lay the case before the commissioners, provided there be any appearance of fraud or wilful negligence: and lastly, the said land-waiter's and tidemen's accounts are to be compared with the master's report of his cargo, in order to discover whether the same be just, so as to intitle him to the allowance of portage [see the article PORTAGE] (which in case of any variation is not to be allowed) as that he may be prosecuted for a false report, and for that purpose the commissioners must have speedy notice: and, in order thus to compare and adjust the officers accounts, and the master's report, the said surveyor or jerquer must keep a particular book, wherein every ship must be separately entered.

JERSEY, an island in the English channel.—See the article HAMPSHIRE, where this island, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, and SARK, are taken notice of. To which we shall here add what is necessary to be done at the custom-house of England, in regard to the importation of goods from Jersey, Guernsey, Sark, and Alderney.

Goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of the above-said places, may be imported from thence free of all duties * (except such as are due for the like goods of the growth, &c. of Great-Britain, and except † salt, and ‡ brandy, aqua vitæ, strong waters, or spirits, vinegar, cyder, perry, beer, ale, and mum) upon producing a proper certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief: the tenor of which certificate is usually as follows:

* 3 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 5.
 † 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 11.
 ‡ 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10.

Guernsey. By the Hon. A. B. Esq; lieutenant-governor and commander in chief of his majesty's castle and island of Guernsey, &c.

These are to certify, That B. C. hath here shipped and laden on board the Delight of Newcastle, whereof Mark Low is master, for Southampton, two bales, containing 50 dozen pair of hose, and 30 waistcoats, and 20 tons of pebble-stones, of the product and manufacture of this island, as per oath made before the royal court: therefore are to pass custom-free.

Given under my hand and seal at St. Peter's port, this 2d of March 1730.

Jurat coram nobis A. B.
 C. D. Judge-delegate.
 D. E. _____

Which certificate must be produced to the principal officers of the customs at the port of importation; and the truth thereof confirmed by oath, made on the warrant, to which it must be annexed: the form of which oath may be as follows:

12th of March 1730.—No. 68.

In the Delight of Newcastle, Mark Low from Guernsey.
 William Fell.

Twenty tons of pebble-stones, 50 dozen pair of hose, 30 waistcoats, of the product and manufacture of Guernsey, as per certificate from thence dated the second instant, and heretofore annexed.

Mark Low, master of the above ship, maketh oath, That the goods above-mentioned were actually laden on board his said ship in the island of Guernsey; and that they are the same which are mentioned in, and for which the annexed certificate from thence, bearing date the second instant, was granted; and that he verily believes and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the said goods are of the product and manufacture of the island of Guernsey. Signed

Mark Low.

Jurat 12 die Martii 1730, coram me
 A. B. Collector.

JETSAM. See FLOTSAM, and LOGAN.

JEWELS. See the articles DIAMOND, and PEARL.

IMPORTATION; the bringing into a kingdom merchandizes from foreign countries, and is used in opposition to exportation.

R E M A R K S .

The true interest of trading nations depends upon having a vigilant eye over their imports and exports, that their foreign traffic may not drain them of their treasure, instead of enriching them. That our readers may make a good judgment, whether our own nation gains or loses by it's commerce with other countries; or in other words, whether our imports of merchandizes exceed our exports; we have already considered this matter very fully, under the three following articles, to which we refer.

1. Under that of BALANCE OF TRADE.
2. Under that of BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN.]
3. Under that of EXCHANGE.

The principal points taken into consideration under the preceding heads are, viz.

1. That the price of exchange between one nation and another which has commercial dealings together, is a more certain characteristic to know whether the balance of trade, and money transactions of all kinds included, is for or against the nation than any other. And,
2. That it is the shortest and easiest way of determining a point of this consequence at all times.
3. That, if a nation has no established courses of exchange with another wherewith it trades, the shortest way to determine whether the balance of trade is in favour or otherwise of the nation, is to compute the exchanges according to the mercantile principles of arbitrating the exchanges. See the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES.
4. In consequence of what has been said under the several before-mentioned heads, we have shewn with what principal countries the balance of trade is either for or against Great-Britain; and also how to judge and determine the general balance with all, as well as the particular balance with any distinct state. And lastly,
5. It is also shewn how, and by what means, this balance may be preserved in equilibrio, or if not turned to our advantage with such nations, where it is at present against us; which in the general, is by lessening those IMPORTS from foreign countries, with which we can the best do without, and increasing our EXPORTS that we can the best spare. To accomplish which great ends, we have further endeavoured to shew,

1. That it depends upon improvements made on our land, either at home or in our plantations, in all the arts of husbandry and agriculture; and more especially in such productions as we are under the necessity of importing from other nations, such as **FLAX, HEMP, PITCH and TAR, POT-ASH, INDICO, SILK, &c. &c.**

And, how these things may, in all probability, be brought about and effectuated, we have endeavoured to point out, under those respective articles, and in divers other parts of our work.

2. That it depends likewise upon improvements made by our artificers, mechanics, and manufacturers in every branch of traffic whatsoever: upon the invention of new arts and manufactures, as well as the improvement of the old.

3. That these great things depend as much upon the application and sagacity of thinking studious men, who delight in the contemplations of nature and philosophy, as upon the judgment and dexterity of the artificers and manufacturers themselves. That therefore,

4. All reasonable public encouragement ought to be given to both, that the one may be always upon the wing of invention, and the other advancing in the delicacy of execution; and delighting in the residence of our own country, from the encouragement they meet with, instead of suffering themselves to be decoyed into other nations, to the ruin of our trade, and the advancement of theirs. See the articles **ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.**

These are the outlines of what we have particularly suggested throughout this whole work, in order to increase our exports, employ our people, and diminish our foreign imports. For, all countries thrive or decline by trade, as they well or ill manage their product and manufactures: and wise nations observe carefully every part, where they think to have any probable advantage. If they excel in product and manufacture, wise governments will bend themselves to encourage the people in the pursuit of what is beneficial to the public in these respects.—If they have little product of their own, as in Holland, they turn carriers of the world, and buy goods in one place to vend to advantage in others, whereby the bulk of their riches has been gained. See the article **FREIGHT.** Great-Britain has excellent products of her own, wherewith to sustain it's inhabitants; the woollen manufacture, if accommodated to the taste of foreign nations, and can be afforded as cheap as any rivals therein can do, is a wealth, in some measure, peculiar to ourselves. We have besides the product of other countries subject to our dominion, the **West-Indies.** The East-Indies are an inexhaustible mine of vanities, to barter for the vanities of other countries, which a rich nation will always covet, and whose export and import improve our navigation and breed experienced seamen.—See **EAST-INDIA TRADE and COMPANY.** We have ports and situation, and every thing that can contribute to make us the greatest people in the commercial world; and, if public encouragement is not wanting, there is not likely to be want of industry and ingenuity on the side of the people.

REMARKS since the last **WAR,** and the **DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763.**

By the **DEFINITIVE TREATY,** and the extensive possessions thereby ceded to the crown of Great-Britain, it is to be hoped, that we shall be able in the most effectual manner to lessen our **IMPORTS** from foreign nations. For certainly **NORTH AMERICA** will now be able to furnish us with all the **TIMBER** we have hitherto taken from **NORWAY,** and every species of **NAVAL STORES** we have taken from the east countries. Can we, at present, want competent territories, in their variety of climates, to supply us amply with **HEMP** and **FLAX** in abundance, or pitch and tar, or every species of timber for **SHIP-BUILDING?** Can we now stand in need of **INDICO** or **COCHENEAL,** or **SILK,** or even **WINE** and **POT-ASH,** from our colonies, if we consider them in their extent from south to north? Now, all **CANADA** and it's **DEPENDENCIES** are become **BRITISH,** we certainly can never have occasion to import **FURRS** or **PELTREY** of any kind, except from our own continent plantations.

We assuredly can never want longer to purchase from other nations, what our colonies will most amply supply us with; provided right, vigorous, and effectual measures are taken by Great Britain to people these prodigious territories with plenty of industrious foreign protestants, duly encouraged for those purposes. For it cannot be imagined, that it will be thought better policy to drain the mother-kingdom of people.

For the encouragement hitherto given since the **DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE,** see his majesty's proclamation under our article **BRITISH AMERICA.**

Some of the principal **LAWS of ENGLAND,** with regard to the importation of merchandizes.

If goods imported are conveyed away without entry, and paying customs, or securing the same to be paid, the lord

treasurer, barons of the Exchequer, or chief magistrates of the place where the offence was committed, or next adjoining thereto, may grant a warrant to any person, who, with the assistance of a constable, may break open any house in the day-time, in case of a resistance; and may break open doors, chests, trunks, or other package, and take thence any prohibited or unaccustomed goods, to which all officers are to be aiding and assisting: but no proceeding shall be upon this act, unless within one month after the offence is committed.—And, if false information is given, the person wrongfully accused may recover cost and damages, 12 Car. II. cap. 19. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. Sect. 5. revived, 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No ship, or vessel arriving from beyond sea, shall be above three days sailing, from Gravesend to the place of discharge, in the river of Thames, unless apparently hindered by contrary wind, or other just impediment, by 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No ship, bound for the port of London, shall touch or stay at any place, adjoining to any shore, between Gravesend and Chester kay; and true entries shall be made of all such ship's lading, upon oath of the master or purser, for that voyage, to the best of their knowledge: also, where she took in her lading, of what country built, how manned, who was master during the voyage, and who were owners thereof. And in all out-ports, to come directly to the place of unlading, and make true entries as aforesaid, upon penalty of forfeiture of 100l. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

After any ship is cleared, and the watchmen and tidemen discharged from their attendance, if there be found on board such ship any goods which have been concealed, and not paid duty inward, then the master, or other person taking charge of such ship, shall forfeit 100l. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

Porters, carmen, watermen, &c. assisting in carrying on board, or landing uncustomed or prohibited goods, being convicted by the oath of two witnesses, shall, for the first offence be committed to the next gaol, until he find security for his good behaviour; and for his second offence to be committed for two months, without bail or mainprize, or until he be discharged by the court of Exchequer, or pays to the sheriff of the county 5l. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary.

No merchant denizen shall cover a stranger's goods, but shall by himself, or known agent, sign one of his bills of every entry, with the mark, number, and contents, of every parcel of goods, as are rated to pay by the piece, measure, or weight, of such as are rated duty by weight, without which no entry shall pass. And no children of aliens, under 21 years, shall have entry made in their names, nor be permitted to trade. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

Merchants, trading into the port of London, shall have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any of the lawful kays, between the Tower and London-Bridge, sun-rising and sun-setting, from the 10th of September to the 10th of March; and between 6 o'clock in the morning and 6 in the evening, from the 10th of March to the 10th of September: giving notice thereof to the respective officers, appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods. And such officers as shall refuse, upon due calling, to be present, shall forfeit 5l. for every default: half to the king, and half to the informer or prosecutor; by the thirteenth article of the book of rates, made 12 Car. II. cap. 4. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No goods (fish taken by his majesty's subjects, sea-coal, stone and bestial excepted) shall be landed or laden on board, but at lawful kays and places (except Hull, 1 Eliz. cap. 11.) or such other places as his majesty shall appoint, by commissioners out of the court of Exchequer, upon forfeiture of such goods. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

To prevent combination between importers and seizers of goods, unlawfully imported or exported, none shall seize the same but the officers of the customs, or such as shall be authorized so to do, by the lord-treasurer, under-treasurer, or a special commission from his majesty, under the great or privy-seal, notwithstanding any law to the contrary. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11.

If any seizer of prohibited or uncustomed goods shall not make due prosecution thereof, it is lawful for the custom-house officers, or others deputed thereto, to make seizure of such goods, and bring his action by way of devenerure; and they shall be in law adjudged the first true informers and seizers, and have the benefit thereof, notwithstanding any law and statute, &c. to the contrary.

All foreign goods permitted to be landed, by bills of lading, bills at view or suffrance, shall be landed at the most convenient kays and wharfs, as the officers of the customs shall direct; and there, or at the king's storehouse of the respective ports, shall be measured, weighed, numbered, &c. by the officers appointed, who shall perfect the entry, and thereunto subscribe their names; and the next day make their report

port to the customer, collector, or comptroller; or, in default thereof, shall forfeit 100l.

No sort of wine (except Rhenish) spicery, grocery, tobacco, pitch, tar, pot-ashes, salt, rosin, deal-boards, fir, timber, or olive oil, shall be imported into England, Wales, or town of Berwick, from the Netherlands, or Germany, upon the penalty of forfeiting ship and goods.

Any merchant who shall import goods, shall have liberty to break bulk in any lawful port or kay; the master or purser first making oath of the true contents of the ship's lading, as by the first article of the book of rates.

Brandy in any vessel less than sixty gallons, or in ships less than fifteen tons burthen, is forfeited by 4 and 5 Will. and Mary, cap. 5.

After December the 1st 1696, no one shall put on shore, in Scotland or Ireland, any merchandize of the growth or product of any of his majesty's plantations, unless the same have been first landed in England, Wales, or Berwick, and paid the duties wherewith the same be chargeable, under penalty of forfeiting ship and goods: three-fourths to the king, and one fourth to the informer, or him that shall sue for the same: except ships being disabled or driven into any part of Ireland, and unable to proceed on her voyage, her goods may be put on shore under the hands of the principal officers of the customs there residing, until the goods can be put on board some other vessel or ship, to be transported to some part of England, Wales, or Berwick.

After the 1st of August 1696, natives of England or Ireland may import into England, directly from Ireland, any hemp, flax, thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, custom-free, the chief officer for importing, bringing a certificate from the chief officer in Ireland, expressing the particulars of the goods, with the names and places of abode of the exporters thence, and of such as have sworn the said goods to be bona fide of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and who they are consigned to in England: and the chief officer of the said vessel shall make oath, that the said goods are the same that are on board, by virtue of that certificate.

Wool may be imported from Ireland to the ports of Whitehaven, Liverpool, Chester, Bristol, Bridgewater, Minehead, Barnstaple, and Biddeford, and no other, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28.

Of goods prohibited importation.

No cloths, made beyond sea, shall be brought into England, Ireland, Wales, or Scotland, upon penalty of forfeiture, and further punishment at the king's pleasure.

No woollen cloths, woollen caps, laces, crosses, ribbands, fringes of silk or thread, thread-laces, silk twined, silk any wise embroidered, or gold-laces, saddles, stirrups, or any harness pertaining to saddles; spurs, bosses for bridles, hand irons, grid-irons, no manner of locks, hammers, pincers, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis-balls, purses, gloves, girdles, harnesses for girdles of iron, latten, steel, tin or alcamine: nothing that is wrought of any tanned leather; corks, knives, daggers, sword-blades, bodkins, sheers, razors, scissars, chestmen, playing-cards, combs, pattens, pack-needles; no painted wares, forcers, calkets, rings of copper, or latten gilt, chafing-dishes, chafing-balls, hanging-candle-sticks, curtain-rings, ladles, scummers, counterfeit basons, ewers, hats, brushes, wool-cards: nor any of these wares or chaffers shall be imported, uttered, and sold within England or Wales, upon penalty of forfeiting half to the king, and half to the informer; excepting wares taken in the sea by a wreck. 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4.

No girdlers, point-makers, pursers, glovers, joiners, card-makers, wire-mongers, weavers, bottle makers, or copper-smiths wares, shall be imported by merchants or strangers, 1 Rich. III. cap. 12.

No great cattle, sheep, or swine, or any beef, pork, or bacon, shall be imported into England, or town of Berwick (except for the necessary provision of the ships in which they are imported, and except from the isle of Man) nor any ling, cod, or pilchards, fresh or salted, dried or bloated; nor any salmon, eel or conger, taken by any foreigners, shall be imported, upon penalty of forfeiting the same, one half to the poor of the parish where the same shall be found, and half to the feizer: but that part relating to bacon is repealed, 18 Car. II. cap. 32.

No foreign wool-cards, card-wire, or iron-wire for wool-card, shall be imported into England or Wales under the penalty of forfeiture; one half to the king, and half to the informer. No foreign bone-lace, cut-work, embroidery, fringe, button, or needle-work, shall be imported into England or Wales, upon the penalty of forfeiting the goods, and 100l. one half to the king, and the other to the informer, or prosecutor, 14 Car. II. cap. 13.

No foreign hair-buttons, or other buttons whatsoever, shall be imported into England or Wales, or town of Berwick, under penalty of forfeiting the same, one half to the king, and the other to the prosecutor, 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 13. No thrown silk of the product or manufacture of Italy, Sicily, Naples, that is to say, Italian, coarser than third; Bo-

lognia, Sicilian, coarser than second orny, except as in 3 Annæ, until the 29th of September, 1705, nor thrames, or thrown silk, of the production of Turkey, China, Persia, or the East-Indies, shall be imported under the penalty of forfeiture.

No whale-fins, cut into short lengths, shall be imported, under the penalty of forfeiture, and double the value thereof, 9 and 10 Will. III.

An additional duty of one shilling in the pound is laid on all goods and merchandize imported, except goods allowed by former acts to be imported duty-free, and goods imported by the East-India company. And a drawback of this duty shall be allowed on re-exportation of them within three years, except such goods on which no drawback is allowed by former acts, 21 Geo. II.

A drawback of three shillings in the hundred weight shall be allowed on all sugars refined and exported.

Any person residing in his majesty's dominions may import thrown silk of the growth of Italy or Sicily, as shall be the produce of the effects of English merchants trading thither, in English shipping for Leghorn, 1 Annæ, cap. 27.

IMPOST, signifies a tax, or duty, laid by the sovereign authority upon such merchandizes as are brought from foreign countries: it is sometimes applied to a tax imposed upon domestic productions and manufactures. See the articles CUSTOMS, DUTIES, EXCISES.

ENAMELLING. See ENAMELLING.

INDIA TRADE. See EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, JAVA, and such other heads as we from those refer to.

INDIA-HOUSE of Spain, for the management of the Spanish West-India trade and navigation of that kingdom. Upon the discovery of the Spanish West-Indies, the affairs and transactions that occurred in those countries and islands, as they became known, were administered by several commissions, which their Catholic majesty's directed, from time to time, to private persons successively.

In the first West-India fleet that was dispatched by queen Joanna of Spain, in the year 1501, she gives commissioners appointed to manage the same to understand, that, with the concurrence of the king, she had ordered a house to be built in the ship-yards of the city of Seville, for the conduct of the trade and commerce of the West-Indies, Canaries, and other islands, which were already, or should be for the future discovered. To which house were to be brought all merchandizes, and other things necessary for the trade, and such as were carried to the said islands, and brought from them.

That in the said house there was to be appointed a factor, a treasurer, and an escrivano, register, or clerk, who were to take charge of all the said trade, as would appear to them more fully, by an instruction their majesty's had ordered to be drawn up to that purpose, signed with their names, and superscribed by their chief contadores and comptrollers, &c.—That their majesties, relying on the great abilities and integrity of the persons mentioned in the said commission, had thought fit to name and appoint them for that service; that is to say, &c.—Charging and commanding them to accept of the said employments, and to execute them with all possible care and diligence, according to the aforesaid instruction.—That they should, from time to time, write their majesties an account of all such things as they thought convenient for the execution of the said instruction, or otherwise, that they might give the necessary orders, as were most for their service, and the advancement of the said trade.

To which effect she gave them full powers, during their majesties will and pleasure, and that she would order their salaries to be appointed.

This was the foundation of instituting the first judges, or commissioners, in Spain, whose power was expressed in the instruction therein mentioned, which contains in substance as follows:

In regard that the employment of escrivano was not instituted only for keeping and stating of accounts, but also to secure and preserve the books, papers, and records of the house (as is done to this day) therefore he was called escrivano, or register, and is so named in the first warrant, but ever after contador or comptroller.

From the first institution of the commissioners it seems to have been her Catholic majesty's will, that the three judges, or commissioners, should live in the India-House, as appears by the order of the 14th of February, 1503; till afterwards, in the year 1518, the emperor Charles V. sent orders that none of them should live there, but leave it all for the business of trade, and to hold their meetings as the historiographer Anthony de Herrera mentions; and this was the occasion of a new ordinance, by which the comptroller, treasurer, and factor are, for the future, obliged to live in the India-House, in which, as appears, the treasurer's deputy had an apartment, and afterwards it was given to the eldest judge that was a lawyer, when the chamber of justice was erected.

The Spanish historian, Anthony de Herrera, says also, that, in the year 1510, the business relating to the West-Indies daily increasing, and the king conceiving the good management of it depended on the India-House at Seville, he re-

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solved to honour it, and therefore commanded the admiral to send an account to those officers of all things he thought fit to acquaint his majesty with, and to keep constant correspondence with them: and, at the same time, he ordered the officers of the house, that, whenever they issued any orders for the West-Indies, they should consult with, and receive information from such persons as were acquainted with the countries discovered, for the better giving such directions as were proper, and for discovering the secrets of those parts. He charged also the judges of the court of Grados not to intrench upon the jurisdiction of the said house. To shew how much their Catholic majesties, and the emperor Charles V. relied upon the commissioners of the India-House at Seville, for what related to the improvement of the West-India commerce, it is material to observe what Anthony de Herrera writes, when mentioning his imperial majesty's care about building of ships for those parts, and having shipwrights to go over to Hispaniola, to stay there some time, and thence pass over to the continent, and other parts; and that this method should be observed for the future, not only as to shipwrights, but all other persons that were to go over into those countries, because at Hispaniola they would become acquainted with the food, air, and other things of that country, and would then go with more safety into any other parts of the West-Indies: he says his majesty writ then to the commissioners, telling them, He wondered they had not thought of this particular, since they had nothing else to mind but the trade of the Indies; that, for the future, they ought to be more attentive to it, and take care to find out methods to advance those parts, since he relied on them, as he had at other times given them to understand, because the ministers about him had multiplicity of business to attend, whereas they had none but that, and were always settled, which the court was not.

The historian tells us further, That his majesty said so in regard that, till then, there was no particular council appointed for the affairs of the Indies: for, though, as he says, there had been one during a short time, his majesty had suspended it on account of the bishop of Burgos's disgust, who by means of his friendship with the commendary Francis de los Cobos, in the year 1517, obtained of the king the re-establishment of the council of the Indies, where he mentions the persons then admitted to it; though D. John de Solorçano does not assign the institution of it till 1524, because it was then the emperor named a president and counsellors for that supreme royal council, and looks upon those which Anthony de Herrera took for a council only as particular assemblies, to consult upon occasion. And thus we hence infer, in honour of the Spanish India-House, that, in a great measure, it supplied the defect of that council during that interim, and has ever since continued a sovereign court, as erected by that great emperor.

The more the wealth, business, and authority of the India-House increased, the more it was attacked by the civil magistrate, who took it ill that affairs of such consequence should run through other hands; but their Catholic majesties judged that the affairs of a new world, of such vast extent and consequence, should run through a particular channel of their own establishment. In short, it seems from Herrera, that, in the year 1518, there had happened some disputes at Seville about jurisdiction, and the king ordered D. Francis Fernandes de Quinones, earl of Luna, then supreme magistrate of Seville, not to intermeddle, on any account, with what concerned the jurisdiction of the India-House, but rather diligently to support and maintain it in the privileges granted by his majesty.

The same order was given to Sancho Martinez, who succeeded the earl, for that the king did not only design to support what he had done, but even to add other authorities to it, if necessary. The same historian, in another place, acquaints us, that the supreme magistrates of Seville received a severe reprimand, because they refused to aid and assist the treasurer of the India-House, Sancho de Martinez, who demanded their assistance against an alcaide belonging to the admiral of Castille's deputy, who hindered Ferdinand Magallanes from setting up his colours where other captains used to do; and the king commissioned the judges of the house to make inquiry into the matter, in order to punish those severely who were found guilty.

Herrera further tells us, That, the contador, or comptroller, John Lopez de Recalde, who was a commissioner, or judge-officer, being suspended in the year 1523, that business might not be obstructed, whilst his cause was in debate, his majesty ordered the earl of Oforno, then chief magistrate of Seville, to act in conjunction with the treasurer and factor: but, it being hard to reconcile different jurisdictions, there happened several contests.

King Philip II. made such account of this India-House, that he would not only have it be the repository of all his treasures brought from the West-Indies, but the treasury of all his revenues arising by tolls, customs, salt pits, and cards, in Andalusia, which was begun in 1579; and in 1580, it seems his majesty ordered the revenue should run through the hands of the president of the house, then the licentiate, James Gasca

de Salazar, the earl of Villar, chief magistrate of Seville, and the treasurer, D. Francis Tello; and it appears, that the president of the India-House took place of the chief magistrate, and signed before him.

King Philip II. did not only make use of the president and commissioners of the India-House, in what directly belonged to their employment, but in things remote, and of vast consequence; and they, together with the duke of Medina Sidonia, who commanded it, had the care of fitting out that grand armada against England in 1588: and, in 1582, the same king appointed them to chuse a founder for the mint, that place being then vacant.

And here it may not be amiss to mention an occurrence, which shews the state of his Catholic majesty's finances at that time, and how ready the India-House was to serve the city of Seville. In the year 1590, that city begged of king Philip II. that he would lend them 150,000 ducats out of his returns in the last fleet, till they could raise that sum at interest. His majesty ordered the commissioners of the India-House to inform him whether he might grant that favour without present mis of the money. They answered, That, the city of Seville having of late fallen under many disappointments, and being always ready to serve his majesty, they thought it expedient he should lend them as far as 100,000 ducats, of which sum there would be no great want.

There was then not only a considerable bank in specie, but the public credit was good; for, in the year 1611, we find a letter sent to his majesty, wherein the commissioners of the India-House acquaint him, that his punctual payments had so advanced his credit, that he might take up as much money as he pleased, at easier interest than private persons. And, in the year 1629, another letter, acquainting the council, that, for fitting out of galleons, it would be easier to take up money on his majesty's credit, and by his commissioners, in his name, than on the fund of haberias, or duty of convoys.

It will not therefore be improper, in this place, to observe the greatness of this court, whose jurisdiction is as large as it's territory is boundless; whose authority is so extraordinary, that it has supplied the place of a council, and acted as such, not only in reference to the Indies, but to the public revenue and military affairs of the kingdom, when orders passed immediately from the king to it; whose wealth is such, that none in Europe can compare with it; whose credit is so high, that no private person could equal it; whose preeminences were such, that they had the appointing of all officers, even to the admirals of fleets, and civil magistrates; the giving passes to ships to all parts, and sending advice-boats with only their own orders; one of whose judges, or commissioners, being wanting at the board, the place has been supplied by the chief magistrate of Seville, being a nobleman of Castille; the appointing of whose officers the emperor Charles V. reserved to himself, together with viceroys and archbishops, when he went into Flanders, leaving the disposal of all other places to the prince his son, afterwards king Philip II. though the vicissitude of times has of late deprived it of the privilege of choosing officers, those places being since sold.

Notwithstanding the decay which time, and several accidents, have occasioned in the greatness of this India-House, there is not in all the Spanish monarchy a nobler court, next to the king's council; for the commissioners of both the chambers of direction and justice enjoy all the same privileges and immunities with the judges in chancery, and other courts, and may be termed a council, inasmuch as their advice is asked upon several occasions by his majesty.

The licentiate Alonso Morgado says, that the treasure of the India-House has been so great, as would suffice to pave the streets of Seville with tiles of silver and gold. Roderick Caro also says, that it was part of the palace and royal apartments, and it's authority is so great, that no ship can fail to the West-Indies without it's leave. And again, that, for this reason, authors justly called Seville queen of the ocean. And D. John de Solorçano and Anthony de Herrera say, that it is a tribunal of great power, having to do with all business concerning the commerce and trade of the Spanish Indies, and whatever arises consequentially therefrom, and no magistrate can intermeddle in what concerns it.

From what has been said, we find that queen Joanna, at the time she appointed the three first commissioners, or judges, assigned the jurisdiction, but how far it extended, or under what laws and ordinances, is not extant; only we find the rules then prescribed were given in two sheets of parchment, hung up in frames.

This is further to be made out, by several orders from the emperor Charles V. wherein mention is made of those ordinances; and more lately, in the year 1539, by an order of council, which allows them private jurisdiction, civil and criminal, in all causes belonging to owners and masters of ships, seafaring people, and such as lose ships, or are the cause of losing them; to factors and merchants; to them that intercept, and open letters or instructions, relating to the West-Indies: and to the observation of all laws and ordinances made for regulating the trade and commerce of those parts.

And they are hereby authorized to take cognizance of all crimes, thefts, or other offences, committed in sailing to or from the West-Indies; and, after that, till the gold and silver, or merchandizes, are delivered at Seville; and to enquire into, and punish the transgressors they shall find, so that no other judge shall intermeddle therein; and their sentences shall be executed in the usual places for that purpose; and, though the prohibition to other judges to intermeddle be general, yet those of Cadiz, St. Lucar, and other ports, are particularly named, and the captains-general of the coasts of Andalusia, those being the places where this jurisdiction is usually exercised.

By an order signed at Valladolid, the 14th of June, 1558, it is appointed that the same method be practised in trying of causes in the India-House, as is used in the royal courts of Valladolid and Granada; and, besides this, in several other warrants, it is styled his majesty's court, even before there was a chamber of justice.

The trade of the West Indies increasing, this, like other courts, received several new laws and ordinances, for the better management thereof; and the execution of justice; and to the three commissioners and judges, by their offices, there were added a president, three oydores, that is, lawyer-judges, so called from the word *oyr*, to hear; an alcaide, a head alguazil, much like our judges tipstaff; a fiscal, or solicitor, and several other officers. To this court are subordinate those of the prior and consuls of the trade of Seville and its territory, of the contadores, or auditors of haberias, or the duty for convoys, the tribunal for affairs of India at Cadiz, the judges of registers in the Canary Islands, and many others.

This court, besides the privative, enjoys an ordinary jurisdiction, with all the prehemines annexed to it. Now to leave the canvassing of these two jurisdictions to the learned, the laws of Spain informing us, that jurisdiction may be called ordinary which is immediately granted by the prince, or by the law; besides the perpetuity of the offices in a tribunal that has jurisdiction, renders them ordinary. This court, being established by the prince, cannot be denied to be thus qualified; and it is privative, by reason of its jurisdiction without any particular territory, which yet does not obstruct its being ordinary: for though, by its ordinances, it seems confined only to persons and causes, yet the persons offending being ordered to be brought to it from any parts, tho' at never so great a distance, it appears that its territory is as large as his majesty's dominions.

It further appears to have full jurisdiction and authority over its own officers, as has been evident from several cases, and particularly in the contest that arose in the year 1655, when Thomas de Arenas killed D. Alonso de Villa Corta, both of them being contadores of haberias, that is, comptrollers of the duty for convoys; which murder, though committed in a street at Seville, and far from the India-House, yet the city judges insisting that the cognizance of that affair belonged to them, and the determination being remitted to Madrid, it was given in favour of this court.

By an order from the emperor Charles V. whereof mention has been made before, it appears his majesty's design was not only to maintain the India-House in its original privileges and jurisdiction, but to increase them, as was afterwards done upon several occasions, by deciding sundry disputes and controversies in favour of it, whereof I will give some instances. And here we shall observe, that the method practised by this court for preserving its authority, before these contests were regulated, was to summon the plaintiff, who had entered his action in another court, against any person subject to the jurisdiction of the India-House, to appear there, and make good his assertions, and this upon pain of imprisonment and forfeiture of goods; which was the occasion of erecting the chamber of competition, in the year 1621; and this form has been followed ever since.

At other times the *escrivanos*, or registers, were summoned to lay before the court the proceedings of the parties; if they refused, they were proceeded against upon contempt, and if, upon complying, the cause was found to belong to the India-House, they were obliged to leave all the original process, and the parties were ordered to follow their suit in that court.

The kings of Spain have not only supported the authority of this court, by exempting it from any subordination to others, but have also made it independent of all other councils, except that of the Indies, as appears by several grants and orders; and, lastly, by one of king Philip IV. in the year 1647, forbidding the president and commissioners to obey any orders sent them by any court or council, except only that of the Indies.

The commissary-general, under commissary, and sub-delegates of the croisade, have often attempted to intermeddle with merchandizes coming from the West-Indies, but the president and commissioners ever carried it against them, as they have done against all other magistrates; instances whereof are too tedious to insert, and not material, it being our business only to represent how far the authority of the court extends. Nor has this court been less peremptory in re-

fusing to obey orders sent down from any councils, except that of the West-Indies, only in particular cases, such as delivering of the revenue, by order of the council de Hazienda, or of the revenue, and the money arising by the croisade, by order from the commissary, and council belonging to it; but, in other cases, only his majesty's order, and that of the council of the West-Indies, were obeyed. Yet the council de Hazienda, or of the revenue, cannot draw bills upon the plate that is aboard the galleons, flota, or other vessels coming up the river, nor upon plate-masters, they having no command over any but what is actually brought into the treasury of the India-House; because the council of the Indies is first to declare what part falls to their disposal. The judges or commissioners for contraband goods, pretending to seize West-India goods, upon any account whatsoever, have been ordered to desist; and the governors of St. Lucar and Cadiz, endeavouring to inroach upon the jurisdiction of the supreme court of the India-House, have been severely reprimanded.

This court of the India-trade has not only power to inspect the gold and silver brought from the West-Indies, and to take care it be effectually delivered in the kingdom of Spain, but to provide and see it be not carried out to other nations; for, though this seems to be the charge of the ordinary magistrates, or commissioners for the export, when once the plate is delivered out of the mints, yet this court has an accumulative power in this particular, granted by the council of state the 3d of April, 1608. In relation to the inquisition at Seville in the year 1663, it was resolved, that, when the said tribunal required any papers to be delivered, or certificate to be made, a secretary be sent with the message, who comes into court with his sword and hat on, sits down on one of the side-benches, and, having delivered his message, the president answers, They will take the demands of the inquisition into consideration, and, in the mean while, he may wait without. When they are come to a resolution, he is called in, and orders are given for putting their decree in execution.

To conclude, this court, by an order of the 21st of June, 1574, is authorized to take cognizance, independent of any other court, of all causes mentioned in the ordinances, and to proceed against all persons that shall any way contradict them; to see them observed and kept, and to perform all things relating to, and depending on them. And this court accordingly has proceeded to give judgment, independent of all other courts, in criminal matters, to imprisonment, sending to the gallees, banishment, and hanging; of which nature many instances might be mentioned, as also of the imprisonment of generals, and other persons in high posts, for offences within its jurisdiction. It is but reasonable, says our author, that this court of trade should exercise jurisdiction over its own officers, it being a curb and check upon them, to know their own tribunal will punish the crimes they shall commit, without being necessitated to carry them before any other magistrate. In Seville, besides the officers of the India-House, all those belonging to the artillery, gunners, pilots, owners of ships, and sailors, are independent of the civil magistrate, and only subordinate to the court of the India-House, called in Spanish, *Casa de la Contratacion*; that is, The House of trade. See the articles *ANDALUSIA, FLOTA, GALLEONS, SPANISH AMERICA.*

R E M A R K S.

We have seen, from the foregoing narrative, with what great power and authority the India-House of Spain is invested, in order to preserve and maintain the commerce of the Spanish-Indies. The immense treasures which have been drawn from Spanish America are too well known to need intimation; [see our article *AMERICA, ACAPULCO*] but the Spaniards experiencing that these treasures have been chiefly disseminated among the European nations, and but a small proportion of the whole has remained in Spain, they have, for above these 30 years past, set about a reform of the manner of carrying on this trade. [See the articles *FLOTA, GALLEONS, REGISTER-SHIPS, and SPANISH AMERICA.*] That the trade of England, as well as France and Holland, has, for many years past, depended greatly on our exports to Spanish America, by the way of Old Spain, is certain: that the dominions of the new world which are subject to his Catholic majesty may no longer depend upon being supplied with the fabrics of other European nations, the Spaniards have been many years endeavouring, and still zealously continue to endeavour to raise, within themselves, whatever produce, and to manufacture whatever fabrics they can, in order to supply their own American colonies therewith, that other nations may not ingross the greatest share of those advantages.—This is the commercial system which, at present, prevails at the court of Madrid, and is founded on the same principles as that of other nations is, to the end that the mother kingdom may reap all advantages she can by their colonies and plantations.

That Spain is really making these efforts in her commerce, we have already shewn in great variety of instances through-

but this work, and shall further shew the same in the sequel: and whether this ought not so to alarm this nation as to excite a resolution to compensate ourselves for those evils we must certainly hereby sustain, is submitted to those who have candidly attended to what we have hitherto urged, and shall continue to do through the whole of our public service.

But, as the court of Spain could never effectuate these great things without the aid of artificers and manufacturers, they are daily decoying them from all nations whence they are to be had; and many more perhaps, are gone from this nation in particular, within a few years, than we are apprized of.

That this may appear to our traders from the actual measures which have been some years since taken by Spain, we judge it most satisfactory to produce our testimonials, which we shall do from

Copies of letters, sent by order of his late Catholic majesty, December 12, 1718, to the captain-general and intendants of the Spanish provinces, charging them with the kind treatment of foreigners, and other instructions in favour of those that shall come into Spain, either to work or serve in the army.

The following order has been sent by the captain-general, and commanding officers on the frontiers.

Complaints being made that there has not been shewn to foreigners, who have come into Spain by sea or land, that kind treatment which his majesty desires, and is fitting, he has resolved that orders be sent by the captain-general, to the governors of the fortresses on the frontiers, or seaports, that kind reception should be given to the foreigners that shall come thither; and that, if any of them please to go into the inland parts of these kingdoms, either to serve in the army, or exercise any MECHANIC TRADE, or other occupation whatsoever, according as it shall be the inclination or ability of each person, that they be allowed to pass freely, and without interruption; and that, to all such as shall come on foot, be granted passports for the inland parts, for such term of time as shall be sufficient for their arrival at the place desired, using such precaution, that the said term inserted in the pass may not serve them for a return back to their own country; and the said travelling passes are to have the following general clauses, that no obstruction be given them, but all the relief that shall be necessary in their journey, and an especial charge, that, in all places they shall pass through in the direct road, there be provided for each person a lodging and bed, for one night only, at the expence of the said places, and all other necessaries for money at the customary prices, without any exceeding whatsoever: and in order that strangers, who shall come into these dominions, may find such favourable treatment and kind reception, the governors of the fortresses and ports shall inform themselves of all such as shall arrive there, and be inclined to settle in Spain, and use all their address to prevail with those that understand any MECHANIC ARTS, to be sent to the places where the FABRICS, MANUFACTURES, or other CRAFTS are carried on, according to the inclination and abilities of each person, more especially to the chief town of the district, where the intendants reside: and that all such as be willing to serve in the army, &c. &c.—All these things I communicate to your excellency, by his majesty's command, that you may dispatch the necessary instructions for the execution and observation of them, as far as shall concern you; your excellency, giving also an especial charge to the governors not to suffer their secretaries to demand any fee for such travelling passports, or upon any other pretence. God preserve, &c.

And his majesty orders, that, as soon as the intendants are made acquainted with this resolution, that they use also the utmost of their power to procure kind treatment for foreigners that shall come into the kingdom; and direct, in those provinces where there shall be no military commanding officers, that lodging be found them, in the same manner as has been already provided for such as shall come on foot, it being understood only when they are travelling into the inland parts of Spain, but not when they shall be returning towards their own, or other foreign countries, for at that time they shall bear their own charges; and, in case of their labouring under any infirmity or sickness, that they take care to see them cured in the hospitals of that jurisdiction, and, upon their recovery, to furnish them with such travelling passes as are already directed, for the prosecuting of their journey, if it be not to go out of the kingdom: moreover, it is his majesty's pleasure, that the intendants use their influence to prevail upon them to serve in the army; and that such as shall be MANUFACTURERS, be directed and settled in the places of their respective fabrics, letters being sent along with them to the corregidores and justices, to receive and introduce them into the said fabrics, the cultivation of lands, or other occupations advantageous to the community; but without any violence, or suffering them to be distressed, and rather assisting and favouring of them

to the utmost of their power; and, in case of it's being discovered that there are amongst them any skilful MASTERS or WORKMEN for the MANUFACTORIES, and other occupations useful to the public, and they shall be desirous of settling in any city, or other place, it is his majesty's intention, that the intendants, their deputies, the corregidores, and other justices be diligent in settling and procuring them a convenient HABITATION, at the charge of the same places, together with an exemption from the EXCISES and other TAXES, that shall be the property of the said towns, equivalent to what THEY or their WORKMEN can consume, but both of them for a limited number of years, while they shall labour at their fabrics, or other occupations, which shall be amicably adjusted between the parties concerned; it being understood, that, for what concerns the royal duties, or revenues, there be no immunity granted them, without a previous order from his majesty; for the obtaining of which, the intendant shall present a memorial, at such times as there shall be any inducement to such an indulgence: it is also his majesty's pleasure, for the better securing this important purpose, that the intendants, and their deputies, be vigilant in the execution of every thing, provided with this intent in the instructions to the intendants, and particularly in the 43d article, and that they regularly transmit an account of the progress that has been made therein: all which I communicate to your lordship by his majesty's command, for your observance of that part which concerns, &c. God preserve, &c. The Pardo, December 12, 1718.

DON MIGUEL FERNANDES DURAN.

Again:

Certain articles in the instructions to the intendants, that are calculated to cherish trade and manufactures, issued by the late king, the 4th of July, 1718, &c.

ARTICLE XLII.

As to the vagabonds and poor, that shall not be fit to bear arms, or for the culture of lands, or other sorts of hard labour, you shall see that houses be provided for them in cities and villages, at their charge, where they shall be collected together, and made to work, either in spinning or preparing wool, silk, and other materials for the fabrics, and mechanic trades, each of them employed in that sort of labour that shall best suit his age, health, and genius: so that by these, and other provisions which you shall judge proper to make, no person may be idle, and every one gain a livelihood without begging, or using other unlawful means; and that only those that by their age and infirmities shall be unable to work, shall be maintained by the alms that shall be collected, and other reliefs which the community shall provide: and because there are many that work only on certain days of the week, and are idle the rest, though there be no want of work, ye shall also take care to correct this misdemeanour, by causing them to be mortified by confinement, and other means prudence shall dictate, and their several cases require, and also forbid their assembling in taverns, or entertaining themselves with unlawful sports, especially on WORKING DAYS.

XLIII.

To the same end it shall be your especial charge to encourage, in all towns fit and qualified for them, all FABRICS of CLOTH, STUFFS, PAPER, GLASS, SOAP, any sort of WOVEN GOODS, the growth of SILK, LOOMS, and all other MECHANIC ARTS, TRADES, and CRAFTS whatsoever, which can with most ease be set on foot; for, besides the numbers maintained by the labour of the MANUFACTORIES, and employed in the conduct of them, commerce is by this means promoted, and the provinces enriched, since the exporting of any sort of goods whatever, MANUFACTURED, will yield a far greater advantage than that of the materials or simple commodities of our own growth, such as wool, silk, flax, wood, sofa, barilla, ore, &c.

Ye shall also lay before me the most practicable and likely means to gain this end of inducing the common people to labour and industry, on which depend their own ease and the public interest. And should it be necessary to assist them in any shape, or to grant them SUMS of MONEY, not too large, it shall be freely dispensed to them as the advantage resulting from it is manifest; and, in case private persons shall not have sufficient means to set them on foot, by forming an association, or company, of some of the most proper persons, or when the public chest fails; and the want of MASTERS, owing to the ruin of so many manufactories, mechanic trades and crafts, should clog it; you shall consider of methods to draw them from other parts of the kingdom, or from ABROAD, into the places under your jurisdiction; or, according to the sorts of fabrics to be established, you shall send youth and children to the places where they are, to learn, and by this means, in time, accomplish a scheme so IMPORTANT and INTERESTING: and as we are sensible

sible that one great cause of the ruin of the Spanish manufactures, is the vast improvement foreigners have made in theirs, whose cloths, stuffs, &c. are finer and more beautiful, made with fewer materials, and with less charge, and yet have sufficient strength, I shall order a standard for the MEASURE, NUMBER OF THREADS, form of the COMBS, PRESSES, FULLING-MILLS, and other RULES to be observed by the MANUFACTURERS of WOOL, SILK*, &c.—You shall also take care that the colours for dyeing cloths and silks be good and lasting, and punish all such as offend in this way: and I order, that, in all these and other cases which may occur, you encourage and favour TRADE, and, consequently, the TRADERS, MANUFACTURERS, their WORKMEN, and other DEPENDENTS, as it is my intention, that they be all supported and assisted by my TRIBUNALS, MINISTERS, CAPTAINS-GENERAL, and other commanders and persons whom it shall concern, as it has been directed and given them in charge, more especially taking care that they be involved in no vexatious affairs; and if any LAW-SUITS of their own, or their families, should happen, that they be DISPATCHED quickly, and in PREFERENCE TO ALL OTHERS, doing them justice, and shewing all the favour that can be, without inconvenience.'

* The utmost care has lately been taken that these ordinances should be duly regarded.

REMARKS before the last war.

This is the grand system that at present prevails in Spain, with regard to the interest of commerce, and which must inevitably, in a few years, enable them to supply the Spanish West-Indies with their own manufactures, which they at present export thither in greater abundance than they ever did: and, how the trade of Great-Britain must be affected thereby, we leave every man of sense to judge. For further confirmation hereof, see the articles AMERICA, ACAPULCO, BISCAYANEERS, CASTILE, CATALONIA, CONSULS, FACTORS, SPAIN.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE 1763.

In what manner our late conquest of the Havanna, and the cession of Florida, in consequence of our restoring the same to the king of Spain again may operate at the court of Madrid, with respect to the increase of BRITISH EXPORTS to Old Spain, and from thence to the Spanish-Indies, may be rather too early for us to make any pre-judgment of. Should the peace have an effect rather to diminish than augment our EXPORTS to Spain, and they should exercise every politic art to shew their resentment, 'tis to be hoped, that we shall retaliate the treatment in a commercial way, by lessening our importations from Spain, in return for their civility; and take less of their wines and other fruit, with which we may be able, perhaps, soon to do without, by means of the new acquisitions we have obtained from them and France together, in America. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, SPAIN.

INDIAN AFFAIRS in NORTH AMERICA.

The furr and peltry trade of our North American colonies depending upon the Indians on this continent, it has always made an essential part in the government of those colonies, to cultivate an amicable understanding with these people, who look upon themselves as the aborigines. In effecting this, and keeping those Indians steady in their friendship and alliances with us, has been a matter of difficulty, and attended with a constant expence in presents to those people, which are frequently no sooner received than forgot. This has been attributed to various causes. One of which the Indians themselves have often complained, that is to say, their sachems, or their wisest men among them have complained, has been, that our traders in their dealings with them, take opportunities to intoxicate them with spirituous liquors, and then to impose upon and over-reach them in their commercial bargains.

That this charge brought against our people is not groundless, has been too notorious to be gainsaid. To remedy practices of this nature, effectual measures must be taken by every distinct provincial government; and every wise regulation for the purpose, should be so enforced as to execute itself, by proper rewards and punishments.

Another cause has been the intrigues and machinations of the French to poison and irritate the savages against us, by representing those trafficable impositions upon them on our

side, in the most aggravated and enormous light, the more effectually to alienate their attachment for us, and engross their good-will and friendship wholly to themselves. To this end, the French have practised every cunning, every artifice and policy they could devise; and particularly by acting by them in their dealings, exchange, and barter, with strict justice; and never so imposing on them, as to make an impression to their disadvantage: and to strengthen them in their good opinion of the French, and the contrary of our people, they have encouraged intermarriages among them with their people, and sent numbers of artful missionaries among them, who enter into all their customs and manners, and become resident always with them, to footh them in their regard for our enemies, and influence them to our detriment.

Measures of this kind having been unpractised on our side, it has been no wonder that we have had, and still continue to have, broils and misunderstandings with these savages; and we must reasonably expect, that the notions the French have, for many years, endeavoured to infill into them against us, cannot suddenly be obliterated. But since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, has ascertained the boundaries of territory between Great-Britain and France, and given us so great advantages over the French to what we before had, it will be our own faults, if we do not gain the ascendancy over the affections of the Indians, and attach all those tribes, within the British limits, to the British interest for the future. For now we have Canada and its dependencies annexed to the crown of England, and thereby obtained the navigation of the gulph and river of St. Lawrence, it is in our power to cut off all supplies by the French, of arms and ammunition to the Indian nations, settled any way contiguous to our new acquisitions in those parts. If we cannot obtain their friendship, by all fair, upright, amicable, and humane measures, which must be effectually tried, we must over-awe them, and make them our friends by force and compulsion; we must be at length obliged to erect such a chain of forts as the French have been many years devising, from the north to the south of that continent, at the proper places, which will contribute greatly to compel them to adhere to the treaties and alliances which they shall make with us.

And as we are intitled to the navigation of the Mississippi, while we preserve a maritime force able to cope with our enemies there, we shall by that means be able to distress the refractory Indians; and by our settlements in East and West Florida and Georgia, and by our ports of Mobile, Pensacola, and St. Augustine, and all the aid and assistance that can be brought by means of a happy union of our colonies, which we hope will take place now, from the east, west, north and south of the whole continent to the Mississippi, we shall be able to secure the lasting friendship of the Indians, and for evermore defeat the machinations of enemies to annoy us; which we, perhaps, should never have been able to have done, had not the last definitive treaty taken place. See our article MISSISSIPPI, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

INDIAN ISLANDS. Although we have been obliged to take notice already of these islands, as particularly under the DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. and under the distinct head of JAVA, in order to shew more fully the nature of the Dutch commerce in Asia; yet having occasion to refer to these islands, as considered united, we have judged proper to give a summary view of their commerce all together. And first,

OF CEYLON ISLAND, which is about 62 leagues from Cape Comorin, is nearly 300 miles in circumference.

The air is temperate, and the soil fruitful. It supplies Coromandel with rice, has all the fruits of the Indies, and produces grapes all the year, except in the three rainy months of the winter; has plenty of ginger, pepper, cardamum, sugar-cane, mulberry-trees, palm, calabasses, cotton, and arch-trees, &c. but it's most valuable produce, and staple-commodity, for which the Dutch have been so careful to exclude all other Europeans, is a particular sort of CINNAMON, that grows here and no where else. Here are mines of gold, silver, and other metals; but it does not appear that they work any except those of iron, of which they have great plenty, and make pretty good steel. Besides the Dutch, who possess the coast, at least all the havens of this island, there are great numbers of Moors, Portugueze, and Malabars, but are tributary to the Dutch.

The natives sell for exportation cardamum, jaggory, oil, black-lead, turmeric, salt, rice, betel-nuts, musk, wax, pepper, black coral, and amber. The commodities they import are velvets, silks, red caps, porcelane, spices, opium, China-roots, camphire, sandal-wood, lead, copper, tin, gilt looking-glasses, glass-bottles, and printed calicoes. They make brass, copper, and earthen vessels, swords, knives, and other manufactures of iron and steel, in which they work very well, as they do also in goldsmiths wares, painting and carving; but most of the people are employed in husbandry.

The coasts, generally possessed by the Dutch, being most known, we shall take notice of the most remarkable places round it.

MANAAR, is a fruitful island, seven miles in compass. The Dutch took it from the Portuguese in 1658.

COLUMBO, is the capital of the Dutch settlements in the isle of Ceylon, and which they took also from the Portuguese in 1656. The town being too large to be defended with a few forces, the Dutch have contracted it to a fourth of its ancient bounds, and have strongly fortified it.

The Dutch have a fort also at Galture, 8 leagues from Columbo.

POINT DE GALLE, is a fort and harbour on the south-west point of the island, 20 leagues from Columbo. The Dutch company have 15,000 crowns a year from the jurisdiction of this town.

JAFFNAPATAM, is a town in the north part of Ceylon, taken by the Dutch from the Portuguese by capitulation, in 1658, after they had kept it forty years. It exports great quantities of tobacco, and some elephants; and, when the Dutch took it, they discharged the duties on tobacco, to encourage the country to settle in it.

Here are two markets, one for fish, the other for silks, linen, pearls, gold, silver, spices, salt, butter, allum, tobacco, herbs, &c.

The **MALDIVE ISLANDS**, lie 200 leagues in length, and are said to be above 1000 in number, each of a circular form, and about 80 leagues in circumference. They are generally flat low land, so that some of them are overflowed at high water: they are said to produce cacao, and all the usual Indian fruits, and now and then some ambergrease. There are only four channels betwixt these islands navigable by large ships, and those not without danger, unless they have natives for their pilots. The inhabitants are ingenious in manufactures, especially of silk and cotton.

Above a hundred ship-loads of cacao are exported hence in a year. The natives make oil, cordage and sails. Their other manufactures are fine reed mats, and cloths of cotton and silk. The goods imported hither, are some cotton and silk, iron, steel, spices, China ware, rice, &c. all which are engrossed by the king, who sells them to his subjects at his own price, for what he wants.

The island of **SUMATRA**, is about 480 leagues in compass, and consequently one of the greatest islands in the world. 'Tis the first of the noted islands, which form the great Archipelago of the east; the entrance whereof is, as it were, blocked up by this and the isle of Java, the opening between which two islands is called the Streight of Sunda, and is about six leagues over. Through this streight pass the European ships bound to Batavia or China, without touching in the Indies, stretching away at once east from the Cape of Good Hope, and making no land, till, having traversed the whole Indian Ocean, they make the point called Java-Head.

The air of Sumatra is reckoned very unwholesome. Yet 'tis very populous, especially in the north parts, where they have all necessaries.

Gold they have in good quantities out of the rivers and mountains in the north part of the island, and the trade of Achem depends on that valuable commodity; which brings them supplies of ships and merchandize from all parts of Asia, and some from Europe. There are also mines of silver, tin, iron, brass, copper, &c. and sulphur. It has no wheat or rye, but vast quantities of barley, honey, wax, sugar, ginger, pepper, with which they load many vessels every year; and send their pepper and gold in exchange for rice and opium, which is sent them from Bengal and other parts.

ACHEM, the capital, is a large populous city, on the north-west point of the island. The harbour is good and capacious. 'Tis a very considerable port, for the great quantities of goods sent yearly to it from all parts of India, for which returns are chiefly made in gold dust. The commodities imported, are opium, saltpetre, rice, gee, i. e. buffaloes butter turned to oil; all sorts of cotton and silk manufactures from Bengal; tobacco, onions, callico and muslin, especially brown and blue long cloths and sallampores, with several sorts of chints for clothes, and sometimes gunpowder from Madras. The Moors employ two large ships a year, to fetch the product of Cambaya from Surat, whose merchants buy up elephants teeth here. The Chinese also glut the markets with their commodities, and the Malaysians here trade with large prows to Pegu, Quedah, Jehore, and all their own coasts; from whence they are supplied with ivory, bees-wax, mortivan, and small jars; as also with pepper, which grows, indeed, in this island, but not in this part of it.

BENCIOLEN, is an English colony and factory for pepper, but the European inhabitants are not very numerous.

The island of **JAVA** lies south-east of Sumatra, and is computed to be about 300 leagues in compass. It has abundance of commodious creeks, bays, harbours, and good towns, on the north coast, with many small islands near the shore. The air is said to be not very hot, and, about Batavia especially, it is temperate and healthy. Great part of the island is still unknown, for it does not appear that the Dutch have any towns or forts above 20 miles from the coast; but the north part, betwixt Bantam and Batavia, is populous; and, besides the Indian fruits and rice (the only corn that grows here) produces pulse, and all sorts of European garden-stuff, with

some tobacco, salt, and pepper, bees-wax and benzoin, and has mines of gold, silver, copper, and iron, and some diamonds, rubies, &c.

The Javans on the coast drive a considerable trade from port to port, and from one island to another; particularly to Borneo, exchanging goods in one place, for such as they know they can sell in another. But they are such a thieving, cheating, murdering race, that nobody cares to deal with them, but in public, and in company with others.

The trade here being wholly in the hands of the Dutch, and indeed so much of the island itself as they require, they have the benefit of the product, &c. as much as if the natives were their subjects: for they not only submit to trade with them, but come freely with their commodities, especially pepper, to Batavia, where the Dutch buy it ready cured, so that they are at no trouble to make it marketable. The Dutch have planted so many sugar-canes, especially about Batavia, that, besides supplying that large and populous colony, and their factories in the Spice Islands, &c. we see large entries of sugar in Holland, by all their fleets from Batavia. Coffee is another addition they have made to the produce of Java, the quality of which is said to improve as the quantity increases; so that, though it be not altogether so good as that of Mocha, they send considerable quantities of it every year to Europe. As for their rice, they sell it to the Chinese and Malayan merchants, who export it. They have also a very great trade among themselves in the consumption of European goods, whereof they bring much more to the Indies than the English; it being computed, that, since the vast influx of strangers to Batavia, the Dutch have not less than half a million of people under their government, here and in the Spice Islands. They have naval stores, partly the product and manufacture of this island, and partly imported; as copper from China and Japan, iron from Pegu, damer, or pitch from Malacca, &c. They have timber of their own sufficient for building, particularly good oak, and a red wood like cedar, besides cacao and bamboos.

BANTAM, is the first place of commerce at the west end of Java, and was the metropolis of a great kingdom till the Dutch destroyed it, and deposed the king. The English and Danes had flourishing factories here, till dispossessed by the Dutch. It is now become a poor ruinous place, without trade or gentry, which are both engrossed by

BATAVIA, the glory of this island, and of all the European settlements in the Indies. A city which is the center of all the strength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, and the seat of their governor general and council of the Indies, where they are so powerful, and have so many subjects and dominions dependent on them, that some think it a wonder they do not supplant or drive all the European factories out of the country.

This city being the great magazine of the Dutch East-India company, they import hither not only what Europe affords, but the merchandize of Japan, the Spice Islands, Persia, Surat, Bengal, the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, &c. Though they suffer no Europeans to trade hither, yet 15 or 20 sail of Chinese junks come hither every November or December, from 3 to 500 tons each, and return the beginning of June; by which means the Dutch are furnished with the goods much cheaper, than if they sent their fleets thither.

The other Dutch forts and factories on the north side of this island, which is both pleasant and fruitful all the way along shore, are Cheriboa, Toagal, Samarang, Japara, where was once an English factory, Tampeira, and Rambang.

The island of **MADURA**, opposite to the easternmost point of Java, produces nothing for a foreign market but deer-skins, which are very cheap.

BORNEO, is a pretty round island, the last of those called the Sunda Islands, and is in compass about 250 leagues. It produces many sorts of fruits in great plenty, excellent mastic, and other gums, wax, rice, cassia, honey, cotton, the best camphire in the world, frankincense, musk, aloes, agaic, brasil wood, sapan, pepper, cinnamon, and other spice; excellent diamonds are found in the rivers, and gold dust in their sands, and the richest bezoar stones in the stomach of the wild ape. Here are also mines of iron, tin, and very good load-stone.

The towns and factories here, are built for the most part on floats of timber in their rivers, forming one long street, and fastened to trees near the shore, by cables made of rattans.

The trading nations here besides the Dutch, are the Chinese, Malaysians, Japanese, Siamese, Macassars, Javans, and some from Mogul, Portugal, and England, who all have their different views in trade. The Chinese and Japanese buy spices, the Malaysians gold, and so of others. There are pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, sold at Bendermassin, without interruption from the Dutch, because they reckon them inferior to the product of their Spice Islands. The Dutch supply the natives with the manufactures of India and of Europe, particularly cloth of cotton and flax, for which trifles they receive in return diamonds, gold, and other the most valuable goods of the place. The chief articles our merchants import hence, are pepper, gold, and precious stones. The goods proper for exportation to it are, besides dollars, small cannon,

cannon, blunderbusses, small arms with brass mountings, gunpowder, sheet lead, hangers, and knives, and other cutler's wares, iron and steel bars, nails, red leather boots, spectacles, &c. The purchasing of gold here, which is giving a certain number of silver dollars for the weight of one dollar in gold, turns to the best account next to pepper; and diamonds may be bought to advantage, though there's seldom any to be had at Banjar of above three carats. Some think the trade to Borneo might, with good management, be rendered as beneficial to the English as any, because here they meet the China ships, and might be supplied here with China goods very near as cheap, and perhaps at a better hand than in the country itself, all circumstances considered. Besides, about Michaelmas, the Macassar prows come hither, which, in spite of the Dutch, will bring cloves, nutmegs, mace, gamboge, lignum aloes, cassia, and other rich merchandize. The dragon's-blood, produced here, is reckoned the finest in the world; the best is sold at about forty dollars the pecul, which is 132 lb. Jambec canes are sold for about four dollars a hundred, and their fine monkey bezoar for about five times the weight in silver. The best are of a greenish colour, and are from a pennyweight to an ounce; but, if larger, they are thought to be goat bezoar. The pepper is commonly sold at the rate of 4 or 5 dollars the pecul. There are three sorts of black pepper here: 1. The Molucca, or Lout pepper, which is the best. 2. The Caytongee pepper, which is a middling sort. 3. Negaree pepper, of which they have the greatest quantity. This is a small, hollow, light pepper, and usually very full of dust. The white pepper, brought from this country, is twice as clear as the black, though said to be the produce of the same tree, and to acquire that colour by dropping from it, and lying for some time on the ground, from whence 'tis gathered by the poor people, and carried to the merchants: 'tis so much dearer, not only because there's so little of it to be had, but because 'tis really the best fruit, having the fire taken out by lying on the ground.

They have no coin but dollars, half dollars, and quarter dollars, except their cash, which are rings of base metal strung, that serve for small matters. The Benjareens will scarce take any dollars under 17 pennyweights 9 grains.

On the fourth side of Borneo, lies an island called PULLOLOUR, about 20 leagues in length, and 12 where broadest; it has an excellent harbour, but is not very populous, and produces nothing but rice. The north end lies near many rivers, that come out of the pepper country.

We enter Borneo on this side more to the west by the river Benjar, towards the source of which grows the greatest quantity of pepper: twelve miles up this river was formerly an English factory, called Benjar-massem, as also another at a place called Succadaana, but they have quitted both. There are found small diamonds hereabouts, but, their water being of a yellowish cast, they are not so much esteemed as those of Golconda [see DIAMONDS.] The finest in this country are found at the port of Landa, in the south part, and therefore is frequented by lapidaries and jewellers of several nations, as Golconda is, and who often get a prize, which they endeavour to conceal and make off with.

Borneo city stands among fens, near a great salt-water lake, at the north-west corner of the island, and is situate upon small isles like Venice. There is a safe deep harbour on the east side of it, at the mouth of a great river, capable of the biggest ships. It is the chief mart or seat of commerce for the island, and sometimes the port is thronged with ships and sloops of all sorts, from China, Cambodia, Siam, and Malacca, and boats of sundry kinds from the Philippine, and other islands; so that here are Dutch, Spaniards, Portuguese, and English, all at a time loading and unloading. The Dutch import hither glass, cinnabar, cloths, woollen stuffs, and iron, which is much valued here, besides other European and Indian goods, and have camphire, gold, diamonds, and pepper, in exchange. The Portuguese and English also have some trade here, though no settled factory; but there are merchants of both nations who correspond with the companies factors on the coast of Coromandel and elsewhere, and have sometimes ships running between.

The island of CELEBES is a large populous country, divided by the straits of Macassar from Borneo, 30 leagues to the west, as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Islands on the east, and the Philippines on the north.

The air is hot and moist, and subject to great rains during the north-west winds, that blow from November to March, when the coast is very unsafe, and the country overflowed. The chief vegetables of this, and indeed all the eastern islands, are rice and cacao, but they have ebony, Calambac sanders, and other dyeing woods. They have pepper, sugar, betel, and arac, the finest cotton and opium, and very delicious fruits.

The only towns of any note here, are, 1. JAMPANDAM, where is as commodious a harbour as any in the Indian sea. This was the first place of consequence taken here by the Dutch, who have a fort here, whence they expelled the Portuguese.

MACASSAR, is a city near the south-west corner of the island,

where the Dutch have a fort also, mounted with 70 guns, and garrisoned by 700 men, to awe the king of the country, and have made it a place of good trade.

The **MOLUCCAS**, are a cluster of islands, betwixt Celebes on the west, and New Guinea on the east. They are called also the Spice Islands, from the spices they abound with, and which grow no where else in the known world. The Banda Islands alone produce nutmegs: and Ternate, Tidor, Amboyna, Ceram, and a few other small islands, furnish the whole world with cloves; which they produce in such abundance, that great quantities drop from the trees ungathered, and are suffered to rot on the ground; and, of nutmegs, millions are often destroyed on the spot by the Dutch, who are the engrossers of these commodities, to prevent the markets being overstocked, and to keep up the price of them.

BANDA, the principal and largest of the Nutmeg Islands, is a small island, not above 20 miles long and 10 broad, but is exceeding fertile, yielding oranges, and other fruits, besides whole forests of nutmeg-trees and cloves, without cultivation. The commodities chiefly imported here are rice, cloths of Coromandel, Cambaya, and Malacca; broad cloth, flannel, damasks, ruffians, velvets, gold chains, and coins, silver cups gilt, China boxes, basons, head-pieces, guns, and damasked sword-blades.

There are 5 or 6 other very small islands, which produce nutmegs, and lie all round about Banda, at a few leagues distance, all which the Dutch have in subjection. They lie 30 leagues south-east of Amboyna.

TERNATE, **TIDORE**, **MOTIR**, **MACHIAM**, and **BACHIAN** Islands, are of as much note for the clove-trade, as the Banda Islands are for the nutmeg.

TERNATE, the chief, though not the biggest of them, is not above 8 leagues in extent, and affords but little provisions, except goats and some poultry: but its chief product is the clove-tree, which grows spontaneous, and bears fruit the eighth year to so great increase, that the Dutch have cut down whole woods of them.

Though these only be the real or proper Molucca Islands, and produce both cloves and nutmegs in the greatest quantities, there are some others, the largest and most noted of which are,

1. **BOURO**, about 50 leagues in compass. The blacks, belonging to the Dutch company, have fine plantations here. The product is cacao and other Indian fruits, rice, millet, barley, beans, pot-herbs, and tobacco.

2. **AMBOYNA**, 25 leagues west, 6 north from Banda, is about 24 leagues in circumference, producing nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, sugar-canes, cacao, potatoes, millet, tobacco, bamboes, &c. The chief town has to the west of it a very fair bay, where is good anchorage and shelter for ships. This bay enters deep, so as almost to divide the country in two. The castle or fort of Victory, built by the Dutch, and made the staple of the company, stands about 2 leagues up in the bay east from the harbour, and is defended by 4 bulwarks, and a considerable garrison. This castle was the scene of the massacre of the English factory by the Dutch in 1623. The Dutch have several other forts in this island, which are reckoned their best settlements in the East-Indies next to Batavia.

CERAM ISLAND, a little to the north of Amboyna, bears both cloves and nutmegs. The Dutch factory here is called Ambay.

The **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS**, are computed at 1200 in number, of which 5 or 600 are pretty considerable.

The Spaniards made their first settlement in them in the reign of Philip II. in honour of whom they are so called.

The air is very hot, with little difference of seasons. Their chief product is gold, rice, the usual Indian fruits, beasts, fowl, fish, and insects, with good large nutmegs, which they don't cultivate however, lest it should tempt the Dutch to attack them. They neither allow the English nor Dutch to trade here, lest they should discover their riches and weakness.

Their chief islands are, 1. **MINDANAO**. It has many deep bays, affording good harbours for shipping.

Its chief trade is with the island Manilla, but partly with Borneo. The Dutch come hither in sloops from Ternate and Tidore, for rice, bees-wax, and tobacco, which last grows plentifully here, and is of an excellent sort.

Several other islands lie about this, with good harbours.

BOHOL, about 40 leagues in compass, lies north of Mindanao. The soil yields cacao, and divers roots, much cattle and fish, and is rich in gold mines.

LAYTE, is above 90 leagues in compass. Its plains are very fruitful, and yield plentiful crops of rice, grain, cacao-trees, and good timber for shipping. The commodities for trade are, rice, bees-wax, and cotton quilts.

XOLO is an island where all the ships of Borneo touch, and may be called the mart of all the Moorish kingdoms in the east. It abounds with rice, and the sea throws abundance of amber-grate on its shore, and yields pearl as well as amber.

But the biggest and richest of all the Philippine Islands, is **LUCONIA**, which the Portuguese call **MANILLA** from its chief town, and the Spaniards **NEW CANTILLE**. It is a plentiful

plentiful island, and able to furnish good materials for carrying on a considerable commerce, only the Spanish inhabitants are so rich, lazy, and proud, that they rather discourage than improve it.

MANILA, or **MANILLA**, the chief city, is the seat of the Spanish viceroy. The Chinese, who inhabit the suburbs, are the only mechanics among them, the Spaniards and Indians seldom applying to any business, unless compelled by necessity.

This island has the liberty of sending two ships every year to New Spain, but, being limited to that number, they build them very large. These carry the spices and rich commodities of India to Acapulco, a port in the South Sea, in the kingdom of Mexico, and bring back the valuable commodities of America and Europe, by which trade the gain is said to be 400 per cent.

The harbour of Manilla is spacious, safe, and commodious; and they admit of trade to it from India and China, but not with any European nation. See our article **ACAPULCO**.

The tobacco of this island is very pleasant to smoke. The people sell it all over India at a great price, while that of Mindanao, which is really as good, if it were as well managed, is sold so cheap, that a rial will purchase 10 or 12 pounds of it.

The Spaniards build very good ships here, at least the Portuguese do for them, with which they trade to China, Siam, Sumatra, and all parts of the country round; besides the junks which are built for the Chinese traders, who employ abundance of ships of all shapes and sizes.

The **LADRONES ISLANDS** belong also to Spain, and were discovered in 1565. They are about 20 in number.

The soil of **GUAM**, or **GUANA**, the chief of them, yields pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, &c. They have excellent pork, their hogs being fed with cacao-nuts, of which here are large groves.

The Acapulco ship which touches here, both outward and homeward bound, seldom carries less than 1100 people from Old Spain (besides her crew of 400) whom she leaves at the Philippine Islands, to recruit the Spanish plantations there: she has no less than seven decks, and carries the cargo of seven ships from Manilla to Acapulco, and in return brings abundance of silver from the Philippine Islands.

The Spaniards have a small fort at Guam.

INDICO, is a plant which grows about two feet high, with round leaves, of a green, inclining towards brown on the upper side of the leaf, and silver-coloured underneath, and pretty thick; after which come flowers, almost like those of pease, of a reddish colour, from whence come long-crooked pods, resembling a fiddle, which inclose a little seed in them, like radish-seed, of an olive colour.

Of the method of cultivating indico in America.

When the Americans sow this plant, they first dress the ground, and afterwards make holes in it, about a foot distance one from another, and into each hole they throw ten or twelve of these seeds, which they cover lightly with earth, and in three or four days time, this little seed will be sure to appear, especially in a wet season; and in two months, or six weeks sometimes, this plant will be ready to cut and make indico, as the sequel will shew; and, if it is left in the ground, in three months time it will yield both the flower and the seed: what they fear most, upon account of this plant, is a kind of caterpillar, which in St. Christopher's they find sometimes to breed in a night, and ruin all the promising hopes of the inhabitants: the way they have to remedy this is, immediately to cut down all the plant, and throw it into a vat, or tub, with the caterpillars and all, which also are of some service. The other way to remedy this misfortune is, to clear a large place betwixt what they have eat, and what they have not touched: this havock is not seen in Martinico. Indico is a fecula, or settling, made by means of water and oil-olive, out of the leaves of the anil, or indico plant: there is a difference between that made of the leaves only, and that which is made of the leaves and small branches. The choicest of the former sort, is that which bears the surname of Serquiffe, from a village of that name, which is 24 leagues from Surat, and near Amadabat in the East-Indies. It is made likewise about Biana and Coffa near Agra, also in the kingdom of Golconda: the Dutch bring some of it from Brampour and Bengal, but that is the least valuable of all.

When the inhabitants of the places above-named would make the feculae of anil, in order to make indico of it, they cut the said herb with a fiddle, when the leaves begin to fall upon touching them; and, after they have stripped them from the branches, they put them into a sufficient quantity of water, which is in a vessel called the steeping-vat, there letting them infuse thirty or thirty-five hours; after which they turn the cock, in order to let the water run off, which is become of a green colour, inclining towards blue, into a vessel of the nature of a churn, where it is worked by a negro, by means of a roller, or turner of wood, the ends of which are pointed and faced with iron: this they work

till the water abounds with a lather, then they cast into it a little oil olive; to wit, one pound into such a quantity of the liquor as will yield seventy pounds of indico, such as is saleable; and, as soon as the said oil is thrown in, the lather separates into two parts, so that you may observe a quantity curdled, as milk is when ready to break; then they cease working, and let it stand to settle; which, when it has done some time, they open the pipe or cock of the vessel, in order to let the water clear off, that the fecula which is subsided may remain behind, at the bottom of the vessel, like the lees of wine: then taking it out, they put it into straining bags of cloth, to separate what water was left; after which they convey it into chests or boxes that are shallow, to dry it; and, being dried, it is what we call indico; and that name is given to this, in all appearance, because it comes from India. Sometimes the Indians make their indico in a sort of ponds, in form of a basin, which they prepare with lime, that becomes of an equal hardness almost to marble. Chuse the indico of Serquiffe, in flat cakes, of a moderate thickness, neither too soft nor too hard, of a deep violet colour, light, and such as swims on water, and, when broken, has no white spots in it; and lastly, such as is copperish or reddish, on being rubbed with one's nail, and has the least dust or broken pieces among it.

Of the adulteration of indico.

We have no sort of commodity liable to more various ways of being sophisticated or counterfeited, than indico, when it bears a good price; which, if we should attempt to relate, it would make a small volume of itself; but we do not think it necessary, since it is easy to distinguish that which is good from the bad, from what has been said in relation to the choice of it.

There is another sort called chestnut indico, or Agra indico, which is almost as good as the Serquiffe; but, as the form does not recommend it to all the world, it is only in use with the dyers. There come to us, besides this, several other sorts of indico, which have no other difference, than what arises from the places where they are made, and the different seasons and age of the herb from which they are made; for the indico made of the plant of the first gathering, is better than that of the second, and the second better than the third; the younger the leaf is which is used, the finer the indico is, being of a more lively, shining, violet colour.

Of the use of indico.

The use of the indico is for the dyers and laundresses, serving the last to put among their linen. The painters use it to grind with white, for painting in blue; for, if it is used alone and neat, it turns black; ground with yellow, it makes a green. Some confectioners and apothecaries very preposterously employ this to colour sugars to make conserves with, and syrup of violets, by adding some orrice.

Of the other sort thereof.

This indico is also the feculae, made from the anil, which differs not from the former, but as it is made of the whole plant, stalk and leaf; the best of which kind is that which bears the name of Guatimala, which comes from the West-Indies. It ought to be light, moderately hard, reddish upon one's nail, such as will swim upon water; and, in short, to come as near the other kind as may be. The surest proof of it's goodness is, it's burning upon the fire like wax, and leaving only a little ashes behind.

The second sort of this indico is that of St. Domingo, which differs not from the Guatimala, only that it is not of so lively a colour. The third is the Jamaica indico, that is brought to England. The fourth is that of the Leeward Isles; all the sorts are better or worse, according as they are more or less neat and pure; for those who make this, mix it sometimes with sand or dirt; but the cheat is easy to discover, in that the indico, which is fine and neat, will burn like wax; and, when this is burnt, the earth or sand will be left behind. Mons. Tavernier observes in his book, page 242, that the indico-dust is so subtle and so penetrating, that those who sit it are obliged to have their face covered, and drink very often: and to confirm this, and make good the penetration of the indico-powder, he says, having put several times an egg in the morning, near the sisters of indico, and at night breaking it, the inside has been all stained through with a blue colour. This is used only by the dyers.

The laws of England, in order to encourage the growth and manufacture of indico in the British plantations.

From and after the 25th of March 1749, all persons who shall import into this kingdom, directly from any of the British colonies in America, in vessels that may legally trade, and are manned as by law required, any good and merchantable indico, free from any false mixtures, and fit for dyers use; being the product of the colony from whence the same is imported, shall be intitled to six-pence for every pound thereof, to be paid out of the customs, upon demand, by the collector

lector of the port where the same shall be imported; and, for want of sufficient money in his hands, he shall certify the same to the commissioners of the customs, who shall cause the bounty of the indico imported into England, to be paid by the receiver-general of the customs in England; and of that imported into Scotland by the receiver-general there. If any person shall make entry of foreign made indico, under the name of British plantation made, or shall mix any foreign indico, or other false mixture with that made in the British plantations, in order to claim the premium, he shall forfeit all such indico, and, in case of such mixture, the quantity so mixed, both foreign and British plantation made, and double the value thereof, shall be forfeited by the person making such mixture.

An ACT concerning INDICO, anno tertio Georgii III. regis.

An act to continue and amend two acts made in the twenty-first and twenty-eighth years of his late majesty's reign, for encouraging the making of INDICO in the British plantations in America; and for extending the provisions of an act of the thirteenth year of his late majesty's reign, with respect to bringing prize goods into this kingdom, to Spanish prize goods taken since the late declaration of war with Spain.

Whereas the law for encouraging the making of indico in the British plantations in America, has been found to be very useful and beneficial to the public, and so near expiring, that it is fit it should be continued; be it therefore enacted, by the king's most excellent majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That an act made in the twenty-first year of the reign of his late majesty king George the Second, intituled, An act for encouraging the making of indico in the British plantations in America, which was to continue in force for seven years, from the twenty-fifth day of March, one thousand seven hundred and forty-nine, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament; and which, by another act of the twenty-eighth year of his said late majesty's reign, is further continued, from the twenty-fifth day of March, one thousand seven hundred and fifty-six, until the twenty-fifth day of March one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament; shall be, and the same is hereby further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the twenty-fifth day of March, one thousand seven hundred and seventy, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament.

Provided always, and be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after the time limited by the said act, of the twenty-eighth year of his late majesty's reign, no more than four-pence on the pound weight shall be paid and allowed as a bounty on indico imported from his majesty's colonies, under the regulations and restrictions mentioned in the said act of the twenty-first year of the reign of king George the Second; and that no part of the said bounty of four-pence on the pound weight shall be repaid upon the exportation of such indico.

Provided also, and be it enacted, That in case any doubt or dispute shall arise between the surveyors or officers of the customs, and the owners or importers of indico imported into any of the out-ports of Great-Britain, as to the quality of the same, it shall and may be lawful for the collector of his majesty's customs in any such out-port, to call two or more dyers, dry salters, brokers, or others, well skilled in that commodity, who shall declare upon oath, if required, their opinion as to the quality of the same; and, according to the best of their judgment, determine whether the said indico is or is not intitled to the premium granted by the above recited act.

Provided nevertheless, That if a competent number of persons, well skilled in that commodity, to be approved of by the collector of the customs in any out-port where indico is imported, cannot be found in such out-port, then, and in such case only, where any doubt or dispute shall arise as aforesaid, samples of such indico, if imported into any out-port in England, shall be taken and sent to the commissioners of the customs of London: and if imported into any out-port at Scotland, to the commissioners of the customs at Edinburgh, in such manner as the respective commissioners shall direct, in order to be inspected and adjudged by such persons, and in such manner as are prescribed by law for indico imported into the port of London.

And be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, That all the provisions of an act passed in the thirteenth year of his late majesty's reign, intituled, An act for the relief and encouragement of the captors of prizes, with respect to the bringing and landing prize goods in this kingdom, be extended to Spanish prize goods taken since the late declaration of war with Spain.

INDOSTAN, or the EMPIRE of the GREAT MOGUL. It's bounds are Tartary on the north, the peninsula of India within Ganges, and the bay of Bengal on the south, India beyond Ganges on the east, and Persia on the west. The

greatest breadth east and west, from the frontier of Persia to the kingdom of Ava, is 1400 miles; but 'tis much contracted towards the south, and much indented by Tartary towards the south-west. Excepting some Indian sovereigns on the Malabar coast, and others in the heart of India, the Mogul may be said to be master of all the open country as far as it's southern extremity Cape Comori; but, as scarce any geographers have extended his dominions farther south than latitude 20, we shall conform to the tables of the Sanfons and Luyts, and restrain Indostan to it's sixty kingdoms.

The tropic of Cancer runs through the middle of it. The longest day in the north is about 14 hours and $\frac{1}{2}$, and in the south about 12 $\frac{1}{2}$; the south part lies within the torrid zone, and is generally very hot, but, in the hottest part of the year, the rains refresh the earth and cool the air. The best account of the winds which blow in those seas, as well the constant trade winds as the monsoons, has been published by Dr. Halley, to whom we refer the curious.

The rains keep the earth in so due a temperance, that vegetables spring with incredible speed. Rice, being the corn of most general use, is the chief grain cultivated; they have wheat also, which is finer than any in Europe; especially in Bengal, [see BENGAL] and in the north part of this country. In this part also, are variety of the European fruits.—Their chief Asiatic fruits are dates, figs, pruneloes, pomegranates, plantains, tamarinds, guavas, jaccas, ananas, brindoins, jambos, cayans, mirabolans, mangoes, almonds, cacao, limes, oranges, and lemons; and the pepper-plant, sugar-caes, indico, cotton, the arac and betel-trees, melons, cardamums, saffron, turmeric, opium, ginger.—The soil in general is fat and rich, yet light: it also produces all the beautiful flowers that can be expected in the climate: and, as for it's fundry barren mountains, these produce jasper, agate, granates, chrysolites, amethyfts, rubies, and diamonds.

Of the cotton-shrub, whereof they make their calicoes, muslins, ginghams, &c. they plant large fields with the seed, which grows up as high as a rose-bush. See COTTON. The valuable plant of indico, also, is a shrub that grows here to the size of a gooseberry-bush. See INDICO. Abundance of these shrubs are planted about Amadabat and Agra, but the best sort comes from Biana near Agra. They have great quantities of fine woods and groves, which afford timber for building, either houses or shipping, and good quantities of red-wood for dyeing; but their most remarkable trees are the banyan, palm, and toddy-trees. As for their mulberry-trees and their silk-worms, they are as fine as in any part of the world.

Here is plenty both of wild and tame beasts. They have oxen, camels, dromedaries, asses, mules, but their oxen are the most serviceable, either for draught or carriage. 'Tis common to meet a caravan [see the article CARAVAN] of 8 or 10,000 of them, employed in the carrying salt, rice, and other grain. Their drivers have no other employment, nor any fixed abode, so that they carry their families with them. There is a captain of every caravan, who carries a string of pearl about his neck, and affects the state of a prince.—These carriers are divided into four tribes, of about 100,000 fowls each, and live always in tents. The first carries only corn, the second rice, the third pease and beans, and the fourth salt, and are distinguished by certain marks made in the foreheads of every tribe.

The flesh of the Indian hogs is reckoned the best butcher's meat in this country, of which there is great plenty; these, together with the antelopes, not being the property of any particular person, all are at liberty to hunt and kill them; so that, though the people have no lands which they can call their own, yet the privileges they enjoy are almost an equivalent, the lion being the only beast of the forest, the hunting of which the Mogul reserves to himself.

Towards Persia and Tartary they have fine large sheep, whereas those in the south are thin and long-shanked, with red hair on their backs instead of wool, and their flesh is lean and dry. They have great variety of tame and wild fowl, as well as plenty of poultry, whose flesh is generally lean and dry.

They have great plenty of excellent fish in their rivers and seas, both scale and shell fish; and of the latter there are as good at Fort St. George as we have in England.

Besides cotton, which is the prime and staple commodity of this country, it yields also for exportation indico, sugar, opium, assa foetida, cardamums, aloes, borax, saltpetre, sulphur, allum, lacque, and other gums; cassia, camphor, sandal-wood; and besides diamonds and other precious stones, as the bezoar, the serpentine stone, as also civet, ginger, Malabar pepper, and a great variety of drugs.

The manufactures which are therewith exported to Europe, are calicoes and muslins of all the finest sorts and stains; raw and wrought silks of many kinds; cabinets, escrutores, and other curious wood works, very finely lacquered; the finest canes, of which many are most curiously cased with tortoise-shell, and abundance of other toys.

The merchandizes brought hitherto from Europe, are English cloth and stuffs, of which our merchants send several bales up to the great Mogul's court, to Agra, Lakur, and other places;

places; likewise lead, looking-glasses, sword-blades, knives, haberdashery wares, gold and silver lace, tin-ware, wine, brandy, beer, and some other provisions, taken off chiefly by our own factories.

Upon the whole, it has been said, that there are not greater merchants in the world than the Mogul's subjects: for though their shipping never passes the Cape of Good Hope, they drive a very great trade to Persia and Turkey, with all the rich merchandizes of India: in return for which, they bring back carpets, pearl, and other Persian commodities, but chiefly treasure, which they often put on board English and Dutch vessels. And the freight hereof is observed by Mr. Lockyer to be one great branch of our East-India company's profit, and is all clear gain to this nation; for a ship seldom comes to Surat from Persia, but she is as deeply loaded as she can swim with passengers, and vast quantities of pearl and treasure on board, to the amount sometimes of 2 or 3,000,000 l. sterling.

The Mogul's subjects, indeed, have ships of their own of 4 or 500 tons burden, built after the English model; but they judge it safer to make use of the European ships and commanders against the dangers of the pirates, with which those seas are often infested, their own natives being but very indifferent soldiers or sailors. There is not a man of war, or any ship of force belonging to the Mogul, in all India.

They build their merchant-ships with teak, a firm lasting timber; and, instead of caulking the seams, the planks are rabbeted, and let one into the other; which with oakham, and a sort of pitch called dammer, brought from the Maldivé Islands, make them very tight.

Their cables and other cordage, are made of the cacao-tree, and they have their anchors and guns from Europe: they have flat-bottomed vessels, whose sides are five or six feet high; the planks of which are very thin, and sewed together with their cordage, so that they will yield like pasteboard, and are in no danger of splitting when they strike, as they must do several times on many parts of their shores; for which reason, the English seldom attempt to send any thing ashore in their own boats.

Of the chief provinces or kingdoms for trade.

KAKARES; the country in the general is barren; but has a good trade from Tartary and China.

SIBA, it's country is pretty fertile, and it enjoys a pretty good trade.

NAUGRACUT, or NAGRACAT, is a mountainous kingdom. The chief city of the same name, is a place of good trade for drugs, and other commodities brought from Tartary.

CASSIMERE, enjoys a clear healthy air, as temperate as any in Europe, and a soil well cultivated, abounding with all the conveniencies of life, and so far exceeding all the neighbouring sun-burnt provinces, that Catrou says, 'tis stiled the paradise of India.

It is surrounded by mountains, rising one above another, the lower covered with cattle, and all kind of game creatures, without any noxious animals; and the higher covered with snow, which, melting, forms the many rivulets that water the country, besides several small lakes, and render it so fruitful, that it looks like a large garden of ever-greens, cut through with canals, and abounding with all sorts of pulse, rice, corn, saffron, hemp, apricots, peaches, apples, pears, plums, vines, &c. and the same pot-herbs as the Europeans, but not so good, for want of skilful gardeners. The woods also abound with bees; so that it may be truly called a land flowing with milk and honey. The waters of it's pleasant streams join, and form the river Tehenas, which breaks through a mountain, and carries goods through the greatest part of the kingdom, into the Indus, or Sinde, at Attock.

The people in this country make household furniture, which they send over all the Indies, and they excel in the delicacy of their varnish; but their chief trade is in the stuffs called chales, wherein they employ their children. Both sexes wear them in winter, on their heads, and throw one end over their shoulders. They make one sort of their own wool, which is finer than Spanish; and another of wild goats-hair, which they have from Tibet: they are finer and softer than castor, and more valued than the former, but must be often aired, to prevent their being worm-eaten.

Some of these cost 150 roupies, but the others not above 50. They are about an ell and a half long, and an ell broad, and are embroidered about a foot at the ends. They are made in other parts of the Indies, but not so fine as here, which is ascribed to their water.

The Cassimere merchants, that go every year from one mountain to another, to gather wool, say, that, between those mountains which are independent on this province, there are several vallies of good land, which pay annual tribute to the government in leather and wool, and abound with corn, rice, apricots, melons, and grapes that afford very good wine.

CABUL, or CABOULISTAN, a province abounding with plenty of provisions, a good trade with Persia, Tartary, China, and the Indies, buy 60,000 horses annually of the Usbec Tartars, which they send to the greatest part of India, and deal much in drugs that grow in the mountains, where they have iron-

mines and canes, which supply their manufacture for halberds and lances.

HACHACAN: the people of this province subsist chiefly by letting out camels, and conducting the caravans laden with merchandize. See the article **CARAVANS**.

MULTIN, a province that produces vast quantities of sugar, of which they send a great deal to Tatty and Lahor; galls, opium, brimstone, and some spices.

Their manufactures are good white cloths and napkins, cotton, thread, silk of Bengal, [see the article **BENGAL**] painted callicoos, which they sell to Agra, Tatta, &c. with red stuffs and turbands. They vend also great numbers of camels into Persia, and divers parts of the Indies.

It once had a great trade, when they send merchandizes at an easy rate to Tatta, by the Indus, as well as other rivers from the mountains of Cassimere; but, since the mouth of the Indus has been stopped up with sand, they send their goods by land-carriage to Agra, and thence to Surat, which has lessened their trade and number of people. It has many good towns in it's dependence, and is the chief rendezvous of wealthy Banians that trade into Persia.

BUCKOR, a province through which the river Indus runs, and, dividing it into two parts, renders it both rich and fruitful: so that it's banks abound with corn and cattle; but the west part is desert.

BUCKOR TOWN, which lies on an island of the Indus, has a considerable traffic in Indian cloths, and other commodities.

SUCKER, is another town of some note for it's trade and agriculture on the river Damiañ, or Dimtudee; and Rawree, on the same river, near it's mouth, is a place likewise of good trade, and sends barks down the river; which trade as far as Mozambique, and other parts of Africa.

TATTA, or SINDI. This province, which is the western boundary of the Mogul empire, is very conveniently situated for trade, and was very much enriched by it, before so great a share thereof was drawn away by Surat.

The river Indus supplies it with great variety and plenty of fish. Here are also store of peacocks, pigeons, partridges, plovers, wild geese, ducks, and other wild fowl, which are free to every body. The country abounds with wheat, rice, pulse, and with provender for cattle. They never have a dearth of provisions, because the Indus overflows all the low grounds, and leaves a fat slime, which never fails to produce a good crop. It's other productions are saltpetre, sal ammoniac, borax, opopanax, assa foetida, bezoar, lapis-tutia, lapis-lazuli, and raw silk, but not fine. The wood lignum-dulce grows only in this country; the root is chiefly useful, called putchcock, or radix-dulcis, which is a good ingredient in perfumes; so that great quantities of it are exported to Surat, and from thence to China, where it bears a good price, it being burned in their incense-pots before their images.

They manufacture both cotton and silks, make chints, very fine and cheap, also beautiful coverlets for beds, fine cabinets, both lacquered, and inlaid with ivory, and japanned wooden dishes and tables. They export great quantities of butter, which they melt and put in jars, made of the hides of cattle, in the form of a globe, with a neck and mouth on one side.

The capital, of the same name, and the chief trading town of the province, stands in an island formed by the Indus. The chief commodities here are fine cotton, linen, turbands, carpets, leather-work, boxes, cabinets, and other curious utensils of wood, inlaid with mother of pearl. Here is also oil of cacao-nuts, butter, sugar, pitch, rosin, stuffs of all sorts, anniseed, &c. which are brought down the Indus in vessels from the other provinces.

LARRIBANDAR, at the mouth of the river, is the port of the city, and will receive ships of 200 tons.

DIUL, or DOBIL, is another port, and is the most commodious and celebrated harbour in the kingdom, and is the place where ships usually touch that sail from India to Ormus.

JESSELMERE PROVINCE. The north parts are mountainous, but the south are watered by the river Padder, and the greatest part of the country is fruitful in corn and cattle, especially sheep.

JESSELMERE TOWN, it's capital stands on the north part, within land, but has a very good trade for indico, cotton, and woollen cloths.

SORET PROVINCE, the last on the western class, is a very rich and fruitful province, well-furnished with all the necessaries of life.

JANAGAT, it's chief city, is populous and rich, by reason of it's commodious situation near the river Padder, which falls a little below it, into the gulph of Indus, and renders it a place of good trade.

The chief midland provinces for trade are,

CHITOR: the chief product for which it is noted is stone, salt, and assa foetida, which grows on mountains and barren places. The Banians mix assa foetida with their fauces, reckoning no dish good without it.

CHETIPORE, or CHIPPOR, is the only place of note here. It stands on the banks of a river, and is inhabited by Banians, who make cotton-yarn, and weave great quantities of those callicoos called chints.

MALVAY PROVINCE, produces all that grows in the other provinces, and has a great many trading towns, of which the capital, and that of the greatest traffic, is

RATISPORE, or **RANTIPORE**, or **RATIBOR**; and also **SEROG**, which lies between Surat and Agra. This is a great city, chiefly inhabited by Banian merchants and handicraftsmen, who drive a great trade in callicoes, both white and painted, called chites, which, the more they are washed, the brighter are the colours. They are worn by the common people of Persia and Turkey, and are used in other countries for bed quilts and napkins. They make another sort of linen here, so very fine that the body is plainly seen through it. This the merchants are not allowed to export; for the government sends it all to the Mogul's court, for the fultaneffes of the seraglio, and the ladies of quality, who dance in the very hot weather with nothing on them but shifts, or robes, made of this linen. It is computed to be about 100 leagues of this country from hence to Brampour, through fine fields of corn and rice; the soil is of much the same nature from hence to Agra, and the villages are very thick all the way.

NADER is a great city here: the inhabitants make great quantities of quilted coverlets, some white, others embroidered with gold, silk, and fatten flowers.

NARYAR, a province abounding with wool and cotton, and with such quantities of sugar-canes and mangoes, that they feed their horses with them. Here are vast flocks of sheep, whose wool is esteemed no way inferior to that of Spain.

The chief towns of any trade are **HANDEE**, remarkable for rhinoceros's-horns, which are much valued in India.

SANDAYE, or **SANDAGE**, noted for manufactures of wool, cotton, and fire-arms, and much frequented by merchants.

BARANDON, a thoroughfare for caravans, and remarkable for a great trade in arms, hart's and elephant's-teeth.

GDALIOR PROVINCE. It's capital of the same name is a large city, but not distinguishable for any sort of commerce.

AGRA, or **INDOSTAN PROPER**, is called so from being the principal kingdom of the Mogul empire. It is a plain country, and, though not so fruitful of wheat and other corn as Dely, abounds with oranges, lemons, and many other fruits, besides rice, indico, and cotton; and it's manufactures of white cloth, stuffs of silk, silver and gold lace, &c. render it one of the richest countries in the Indies. It is one of the largest provinces in the Mogul's dominions, according to Thevenot, though it does not appear so by the ordinary maps.

AGRA, it's capital city, whither a great number of Popish merchants resort, because Eckbar, the emperor who founded it, in 1566, allowed the Jesuits a settlement and pension here, which they enjoy to this day*. This is a place of great traffic, being resorted to by merchants from China, Persia, all parts of India, and by the English and Dutch. Our nation once had a factory here; but the long distance from Surat, and the hazards and difficulties they sustained in passing thro' the countries of many rajahs and raboutes, made them withdraw it, though they still continue to trade here.

* It is remarkable, that the religious missionaries of Popish countries have been greatly instrumental to promote the trade of their countries, especially those of France; which being done under the disguise of religion, it is the less perceptible. The religious have been remarkably busy on these occasions among the Indians of North America, and have moulded and fashioned them to the form of the court, to answer the interests of commerce, and to make such alliances with the French as may the better enable them to advance their trade, and increase their possessions at the expence of those of Great-Britain; but what **TRADING MISSIONARIES** has England to promote it's commerce and navigation?

The Dutch have still a factory in this city, and trade chiefly in scarlet cloth, looking-glasses, silver, gold, and white lace, hard-ware, indico, cloth of Jelapour, and spices. They have houses at several other towns, to which they send factors annually, and have always some persons near the court, to prevent being imposed on by the covetous tyrannical governors at the settlements on the coast of Bengal.

Here are above 60 very large caravanera's, nobly built [see **CARAVANSERA**] some of which have six large courts, with their portico's, and most commodious apartments for the merchants.

FETTIPORE, or **FATAPOUR**, a town about 17 miles west of Agra. The emperor Eckbar, before-mentioned, built here a stately palace, and a noble bazar for trade [see **BAZAR**:] they have here a grand manufacture for taffata's. The bazar, whose top is full of little pyramids, is 500 paces in length, well built, and neatly paved. The court within is six times larger than the Royal Exchange of London, and the whole supported with beautiful columns, each of one stone.

BIANA, another town about 35 miles west of the former: they have here, and at Scanderbad, the best indico in the whole country. See **INDICO**.

There are many other towns in this province, where they have manufactures of painted callicoes, chints, &c. but they do not merit a particular description.

BANDO, a province, which produces opium, azure, salt petre, and musk.

GODAH, a town, stands in the most fruitful part of this province for cotton, corn, pasture, and in a great plain, where there is a village almost at every mile's end, with gardens of mangoes, tamarinds, and other fruit-trees. The streets are full of rich tradesmen's shops.

HENDOWNS PROVINCE. It's chief town, of the like name, is large, populous, and opulent, with a considerable trade in cotton and callicoes, and in flattening the round indico, which they make far better than any other, and sell for twice the money.

MEARTA, another town in this province, has a great trade in indico, callico, and woollen cloth.

LAHOR PROVINCE, produces rice, corn, pulse of all sorts, fruit, sugar, wine; and in their towns are manufactures of every thing made in the empire, particularly fine linen, silks of all colours, embroideries, tapestry, plain and flowered, and coarse woollen stuffs.

LAHOR, it's chief town, was formerly very splendid and opulent, and the chief of all Indostan for trade, when the Armenians and Indians traded from the Indies by land to Aleppo, and was the staple for indico, which was formerly called the indico of Lahor, till the Europeans found out a way by sea to the East-Indies; since which the trade is so fallen off, that the place could scarce subsist*, were it not for the residence of the court here for five or six months in the year, during the cold season, the air being pure and restorative. The inhabitants here still make the coarsest and cheapest sort of painted callicoes.

* This is the fate of all great towns and cities, when once they lose their trade; which ought to convince every one, from fact and experience, of the unspeakable benefits of commerce to a nation, and to peculiar towns and cities.

DEHLI PROVINCE, lies in the heart of the whole empire.

Though cultivation of the land is neglected in many parts, yet in others it produces plenty of wheat, rice, miller, excellent sugar, good indico, pulse, and fruit of all sorts, especially extraordinary anana's [see **ANANA'S**.] They have melons cheap enough in summer, but not very good, except they have the seed from Persia, which none but the quality are able to purchase. They have pretty good flesh-meat, though it will not keep above a day. They have good fish, but in no great plenty, because none but the omrahs may catch them, when they please. They have no wine but what is imported from Persia, or the Canary Islands, for strangers, the Mahometans and Gentiles too, in this country, not being allowed to drink either thar or arac. See the article **ARAC**.

DEHLI CITY. The rich goods here are sold in the warehouses, so that in the common shops there is little besides provisions, such as rice, barley, wheat, oil, butter, &c. Many of the inhabitants, especially the rajah's, are very rich, particularly in jewels, which they preserve from father to son. There are no handicraftsmen in this city; not that they want skill, but because they are maltreated by the omrahs and manfederars, who compel them to work for them, and pay them as they please.

The caravanera here is a magnificent structure, in a very large square, surrounded with arches that support open galleries, where the Persian, Ufbec, and other foreign merchants, lodge in very commodious apartments, which are also ware-houses for their merchandizes.

Of the eastern provinces.

PATNA PROVINCE is very fruitful.—It's chief city, of the same name, stands on the river Persely, but so far inland, that it is never resorted to by foreigners, so that we have no account of it; though some geographers have confounded this with Patna, on the west side of the Ganges, in the kingdom of Bengal [see **BENGAL**]; nor is there any considerable place of trade in this eastern division.

In regard to the southern division,

Having already taken notice of Bengal, under the article **BENGAL**, by reason of the trade that our East-India company has there, we shall pass that over here, and refer to Bengal. The next province in this division is that of

ORIXA, or **ORISTAN**, a province separated from Bengal, on the north, by the river Guenga; has the bay on the east; the mountains of Ballagate and Berar on the west, and Golconda on the south. The soil is fruitful in rice. It's other commodities are white cloth, bengals, oil, butter, mirabolans, bees-wax, lacque, ginger, and pepper, annise and cummin-seeds; of which commodities, when it was governed by it's own king, Mr. Frederick says they used to export 25 or 30 ship-loads a year; but such impositions have been laid on them by the Mogul, as have much lessened the trade. Iron here is very plentiful, and they cast anchors in moulds; but those made of their cast iron are not near so good as those made in Europe of hammered bar-iron.

The places on this coast which travellers and navigators have most noted are,

CUNNACA RIVER, capable of receiving a ship of 200 tons. The north side of this river is subject to the nabob of Cattack, and the south side to a rajah, which makes them both court the merchants that come hither, for the sake of the custom which is paid only to that sovereign on whose side of the river the vessels lie.

RAYPORE, on the banks of the river Cattack. It has a fine bay, which, at spring-tides, has seven fathom water, but is little frequented by traders at present, though otherwise formerly, and still abounds with corn, butter, oil, and fine cloth. The harbour though convenient, is the less frequented, because many rajahs, of different interests, have their countries on the sides of the river, who overburthen the trade with imposts, which ever ruins commerce.

CATTACK TOWN stands on an island of this river. The English East-India company had once a fine factory here. It's manufactory is cotton cloths of all sorts, very cheap.

BADNECK, about 50 miles from Cattack. The chief employment of it's inhabitants is husbandry, spinning, weaving, and churning; and butter is so cheap, that a penny per pound is reckoned dear.

ASIPORE has a fine river, which invites foreigners to frequent it for cotton, cloth, and rice, which this country affords in great plenty. At

ORIXA TOWN, they make a great deal of cotton cloth, and of the herb or grass of Bengal.

BEZAR is one of the most fruitful provinces of the Mogul empire, in corn, rice, pulse, and poppy, from which opium is extracted; and sugar-canes thrive here almost without cultivation.

CANDISH PROVINCE is mighty populous, and has not only plenty of rice and indico, but abounds more with cotton than any of the provinces of the Indies, and drives a great trade in cotton-cloth; and they manufacture calicoes, both white and painted; the former of which are much esteemed for their stripes of gold, silver, and silk, intermixed with flowers, which render them very dear: and, indeed, they are only used by the richer sort, for veils, scarves, handkerchiefs, and coverlets. They are transported to Persia, Turkey, Muscovy, Poland, Arabia, Grand Cairo, &c. It's chief towns are,

BRAMPOUR, the capital. Here is a large caravanfera. The Dutch, who have a factory here, barter pepper for opium. The English, who also had a factory here once, sold cloths, lead, quicksilver, sabres, sattins, velvets, and gold stuffs; for which they returned money, by bills of exchange, to Agra and Surat.

CANOW, is a large city, which drives a great trade in cloth, swords, muskets, and a certain fruit for dyeing.

CAMBAYA, or **GUZURATTE KINGDOM**. See **CAMBAYA**.

The **PENINSULA** of the **INDIES** within **GANGES**, has the two coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, where the English, Dutch, French, Portugueze, and Danes, have forts and factories, the former on the west side of it, and the latter on the east.

DECAN PROVINCE, in general, bears many excellent fruits, and much cotton, of which the inhabitants make very fine cloth; and some parts of it yield diamonds, and other precious stones, beside an excellent pasture for variety of cattle, which are sold at Goa, and other places. The inhabitants of Decan Proper are chiefly employed in carrying wheat and rice, in caravans of 1000 beasts at a time, into the neighbouring countries. The most remarkable places on the coast, are the islands of Salfet and Bombay.

SALSET ISLAND abounds with game of all kinds, and has herbage and fruit in great plenty, and a manufacture of stuffs of silk and cotton. The Portugueze have no trade here, because the channel belongs to the English, and all customs of goods imported and exported are paid to the custom-house of Mahim. Trombay is a small island here, which pays custom to the English.

BOMBAY is an island to the south of Salfet. It's harbour is capable of containing 1000 ships. The island is about eight miles long, and 20 in circumference. The soil is barren, and the climate unhealthful, but it lies convenient for trade. The government here is subject to the president and council of Surat, who have a judiciary, with a court of pleas, and a committee for regulating affairs, and presenting complaints, all which are determined by the laws of England.

CUNCAN PROVINCE is, in general, fertile, rich, and plain, except towards the sea, where it is mountainous, and covered with woods, but the latter abound in cattle. The vallies yield plenty of rice and cocoa-nuts, and they have many rivers, both fresh and salt.

DUNDEE RAJAPORE, the first town on the coast belonging to the Mogul, has a good harbour, and the adjacent country feeds great numbers of black cattle, with which the factory at Bombay is mostly supplied, when they keep on good terms with the Mogul general; otherwise they are obliged to subsist on their fish alone, wherewith that island is plentifully stored.

GOA is the metropolis of India under the dominion of the crown of Portugal, the seat of it's viceroys, the see of an archbishop, who is primate of all the East, and the supreme court of ju-

dicature for all the Portugueze in Asia, as well as the staple of their trade. The banks of the river are capable of receiving the largest ships within a mile of the town.

The chief trade of the city of Goa is in arac [see **ARAC**.] This liquor is made in such quantities, that though the English are supposed to be the best customers for it of any one nation of Europe, yet all India is supplied with it as far as the freights of Malacca. The double distilled, which is commonly sent abroad, is but a weak spirit, in comparison of Batavia arac, yet it has a flavour so peculiar to itself, that it is with justice preferred to all other aracs in India. The triple distilled is worth about 21. 5s. a hoghead.

CARWAR, or **COROUAL**, 36 miles south from Goa, where the English have a factory and small fort. The factory stands on the south side of a bay, and a river capable of receiving ships of 300 tons, overagainst a pleasant island, full of game. Here is a chief and council, to manage the trade for the company. Mr. Lockyer says, the best pepper in the world grows hereabouts, for which alone the East-India company are at the charge of the factory. In the neighbourhood there is abundance of cassia-lignum, or bastard cinnamon, and nux. Carwar is said to be the most healthful and pleasant place on the Malabar coast. Ships ride about two miles from the factory, in Battee Cove, safe from the south-west wind, and the river is navigable by the largest vessels, but the entry difficult. Here is abundance of red deer, and other game.

The rajah has one half per cent. for goods imported by the English, which is seldom demanded, however, for small parcels, and they account with him only once a year. They have considerable markets for diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones.

GOLCONDA KINGDOM abounds with black cattle, sheep, poultry, and all sorts of provisions, and has many lakes, full of fish: it has plenty of grapes, of which they make white-wine. The country produces indico, bezoar, two crops of rice a year, and other grain; and, in short, all necessaries of life. Here are no mines of gold, silver, or copper, but many of salt, iron, and several of diamonds, and other precious stones. See the article **DIAMOND**, where the diamonds of Golconda are described.

BAGNAGAR. The English and Dutch have factories here only for the sake of the diamond-trade, it being too far inland to be engaged in maritime traffic. It has whole streets of gold-smiths, as the jewellers and bankers of Europe are here termed, as also of Jews, Armenians, and Greeks, who are the most expert cutters of diamonds, and the best judges of their worth.

GANJAM, an English factory on this coast, and the most eastern town in the province, abounding with rice and sugar-canes, where they make good sugar, both white and brown. The woods produce timber for building, together with bees-wax, stick-lack, and pretty good iron.—The inland country manufactures cotton cloth for exportation.

There are several places on the coast which drive a pretty good trade in corn.

BINLIPATAN is where the Dutch have a small factory, and a trade in rice, cloth, iron, wax, lacque, as they have also at Patiloco and Dacheron, on the same coast; as they import copper, tin, lead, and pepper. The country people manufacture cloth, both coarse and fine, which the Dutch buy up for Batavia.

VIZAGAPATAM is a factory belonging to the English. The adjacent country affords cotton-cloth, both coarse and fine, and the best dureas, or striped mullins, in India.

NARSIPORE NARAPOUR, is a place where the Dutch have, and the English had, a factory for long cloth, for the use of their factory at Masulipatan, when they manufactured chints there.

ANGERANG, a little way up Carrengo-Bay, has the best and finest cloth in India, and is sold cheap; but such are the impositions and exactions on all cloth, which comes down the river, by the rajahs of the several inland countries laying near it, that they ruin that beneficial trade, and make the harbour little frequented.

MASULIPATAN. Here the Dutch have a factory for carrying on the chints trade.

The adjacent country and islands are fruitful in grain, timber for building, and the best tobacco in India: and the islands of Diu produce not only the best of butter, but the famous dye called shaii, a shrub growing in grounds that are overflowed with the spring-tides, which stains their calicoes with the most beautiful and lively colours in the world. They paint calicoes here the best of any in the Indies; and the very children of the pagans do it nicely with their pencils.

MALABAR. The inland part of this country not being much known, we shall describe the coast chiefly, which has many commodious bays and harbours, abounding with fish, and mountains that produce iron. It affords timber for masts, as good as that of Norway; also pepper, cardamums, borboris, canders, wild cinnamon, nux-vomica, ginger, aloes, bezoar-stones, gum-lacque, cassia-fitulua, oculus Indiar, saltpetre, wax and honey, areka, cotton and cocoa-trees; with the oil and bark of which they carry on a considerable commerce. They have little wheat, but plenty of maize, and other grain, and precious

precious stones. The natural produce of this country is so rich and profitable to the merchants, that the English, Dutch, French, Portuguese, Danes, &c. have made large settlements on these coasts, since the discovery of the passage to the East-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

CANARA, or the kingdom of the **CHATINS**. Dr. Fryer calls all the track from Guzuratte to Malabar by the name of the Canatic country; but says, that Proper Canara begins at the town of Gongola, from whence it extends along the sea to Malabar, and within land as far as the Sunda rajah's Pepper Mountains.

Baldæus says, the country is very fertile in rice, and other necessaries, and produces wild nutmegs, used in dyeing, betel-nuts, and pepper, which is called Carwar pepper. The plains bear two crops of corn in a year, and the higher grounds produce sandal-wood and iron.

BARCELOAR, or **BASSELORE**. There are two crops of rice here, owing to the advantages of some lakes at the feet of the mountains Gatti, whose waters, being confined by sluices, are let out frequently to water the fields. The Dutch have a factory here, to buy up rice for their factories on the Malabar coast. The Portuguese also get supplies of it for Goa; and they have six or eight ships belonging to Barceloar, which carry their cargoes of rice to Mufkat, and bring back horses, dates, pearl, and other Arabian products. Here is a considerable trade likewise, for pepper, ginger, and drugs. The English have a fort here, called Moor's Fort, to the south-east of the Dutch fort; and the Danes have a factory on the same river.

MANGULOR, or **MANGALOR**, a small town, said to be the greatest mart for trade in all this country. The Portuguese have a factory here for rice, and the French and Dutch have factories here.

RAOLCONDA, 50 leagues east of Goa, is noted for a diamond-mine. Tavernier places it five days journey from Golconda, and eight or nine from Visapour, and in the kingdom of that name; he says, the diamonds found here are the clearest, and of the whitest water. The king has 2 per cent. for all that are sold, besides a duty from the merchants, according to the number of hands employed in digging. The miners have so little pay, that they sometimes hide a stone, notwithstanding all the care to prevent it, they being quite naked, with only a rag about their privities; so that they often swallow them: and our author says, he saw one detected, who had put a stone into the corner of his eye; but he observes, that, if they meet with a stone of 15 or 16 carats, they are allowed a reward.

The merchants, who are Moors, have lodgings about the mines, and every morning the masters of the miners, who are Pagans, bring their diamonds, which are bargained for by signs, without one word spoke. The buyer and seller sitting cross-legged, facing one another, the seller takes hold of the buyer's right-hand, and covers them both with his girdle, under which they secretly agree, without discovering what it is to the merchants, who are at the same time in the hall, for the buyer and seller understand each other by the motion of the fingers only; and the person who weighs the stones is appointed by the king.

The chief provinces on the Malabar coast are,

CANANOR, or **CONONAR**, province and town. It abounds with elephants, camels, buffaloes, lions, tygers, wolves, black cattle, sheep, antelopes, civet-cats, large partridges, &c. There is a mine of stone in this country, called azazimit, of the same virtue as the terra sigillata, valued all over the Indies for being an antidote against poison, and for the cure of fevers, bloody-fluxes, and indigestions. Here are good trees for masts; choice fruits, such as the anana's, banana's, &c. and such plenty of cocoa-trees, that they serve for fuel.

The town of the same name lies on the coast, about 240 miles south-east of Goa, and 140 north of Cochin. The Dutch have a fort here, which they took from the Portuguese in 1663; but their trade is very small. The town is populous, and chiefly inhabited by Mahometan merchants. It has a spacious safe harbour. The commodities here are pepper, cardamums, ginger, mirobolans, tamarinds, cassia, ambergrease, hyacinths, granates, sapphires, and rubies. The inhabitants drove a great trade formerly to Surat, Cambaya, and even to the Red Sea; but it is much decayed.

TILLICHERY is an English factory, 10 miles south from Cananor. The English East-India company have a fort here, to defend their trade, which is chiefly in pepper and cardamums; sometimes they have ambergrease, coire, cowries, and chank from the Maldiv Islands: the best opium of a deep purple colour, is made hereabouts.

PANOLA, five miles south of Tillichery, is a French factory for pepper.

BURGARA, three miles south of Cananor. The country produces pepper, and the best cardamums in the world.

CALLICUT, the next country towards the south. It abounds with pepper, betel, and cacao-trees, sandal-wood, iron, cassia-lignum, and timber for building. They have much cotton, plenty of precious stones, and make cotton-cloth and tapestry. This place is as considerable for trade as any port between Surat and Cape Comorin.

The goods that turn to account here from other parts of In-

dia, are sugar, sugar-candy, China silks, lacquered wares, Bengal calicoes, white and blue, rose-water, and all sorts of fruit from Persia cotton-wool, &c. from Suifat, broadsword-blades, and necessaries for Europeans from England. All goods are rated for custom according to the forts, not ad valorem, as at Surat and Carwar; but strangers who deal with the English and French factories are never charged with it.

COCHIN KINGDOM, produces coarse cinnamon, good store of cacao, and great quantities of pepper. The woods afford good teak for building, and pawheat and angelique, or angeline, a timber harder and more durable than iron; of this, and the pawheat, they make large chests and cabinets, and small vessels, that will carry 20 or 30 pipes of wine. It abounds also with great quantities of black cattle; and the great number of it's canals afford plenty of fish, and the mountains are well stored with wild game.—Here are also sugar-canes, and bamboes, with iron in plenty, and bees-wax for exportation.

COCHIN CITY has a Dutch factory; it is a place of great trade, and the best of the settlements the Dutch have on the Malabar coast.

PORCA KINGDOM.—At the town of it's name, the Dutch have a small factory here for rice and pepper chiefly.

MARTA KINGDOM abounds with pepper, peas, beans, rice, and salt fish.—The Dutch have a large factory here. And at **CERNOPOLY**, where the king resides, and exacts customs for all sorts of goods exported, they have another small factory.

Also at **PENDERAROUTE** and **PESSE**, further south, near the shore, the Dutch have a factory for weighing their pepper.

COILCOLOAN, or **CALECOULAN**, another small kingdom, with a town a little to the south of Porca, where the Dutch have another factory, that buys a great quantity of pepper, which they carry to Surat and the Red Sea, and make their return to Batavia in the product of those places.

COLOAN, a small principality; and a pleasant and fruitful country, subject to the Dutch; and the Danes have a small factory here.

TRAVANCOUR, the most southern province of Malabar, abounds with pepper, rice, and other grain, and the best cinnamon; it affords as fine long cloth as any made in India. The chief places of trade on the coast are,

ANJENGO, which is the most southerly settlement that belongs to the English on the Malabar coast. The chief trade is in pepper, though not so good in quality as that about Carwar, more to the north. Here is a manufacture of several sorts of cotton, of which great quantities are sent to Madrapatan.

TEGNAPATAM, where the Dutch have a small fort and factory. The chief trade here is in cordage of cocoas, and brown sugar-candy, which they send to Cochin; yet the country produces pepper; and a coarse cloth called catches.

On the east side of the peninsula is **BISNAGAR KINGDOM**.

BISNAGAR PROPER. The soil is fruitful, well watered, and abounds in cattle and wild beasts. The inhabitants are ingenious in watering and painting calicoes, which is the chief trade of the country.

BISNAGAR CITY is the second in the kingdom for grandeur, wealth, and it's trade, which is in Arabian horses, velvets, damasks, fattsins, chints, saffron, scarlets, Turkey jewels, and gold ducats.

COROMANDEL COAST stretches south-west from the bay of Bengal, or the limits of Golconda, to those of Madura. This country is very fruitful in rice. They have here multitudes of sheep, with no wool, but a little hair: their cotton cloth is the finest in the Indies. Not only European goods are in request here, but all sorts of spice, and gold, which they understand very well.

The English and Dutch have so many forts and factories, and other settlements, on the coast, that they may be said truly enough to possess the whole; yet they are under subjection to the Mogul, who has numbers of his subjects also in all the places they possess; whereas the Portuguese at Goa have possession thereof in sovereignty.

POLIACATE, or **POLICAT**: at the mouth of a river of that name, 9 leagues from Fort St. George, and 140 miles south from Pettipoly, lies the chief factory on this coast belonging to the Dutch East-India company, to which all their others on this coast, and in the dominion of Golconda, are subordinate. The Pagans here trade in painted and white calicoes, and other linens. The market is well stored with rice, and other grain; and a caravan comes hither every month from Agra. The Banians and Jews are the chief traders. Here the Dutch refine what saltpetre they bring from Bengal, and make gunpowder for their other factories; they have great warehouses for cotton-cloth. The gold pagodas, coined here by the Dutch, pass best at the diamond-mines of Golconda. Great quantities of cotton stockings are knit here, and exported to all the European factories in India.

FORT ST. GEORGE, or **MADRASPATAN**, which signifies the town of Madras.

The English East-India company were put in possession hereof by one of the Pagan princes above 120 years ago, and had it ratified by the king of Golconda, to whom the company pays 7000 pagodas (worth about 9 shillings a piece) per ann. for the royalties and customs; but they gain four times that sum

sum by them. This is a place of the utmost importance to the company for its strength, wealth, and the great annual returns it makes in callicoes and muslins. The governor is not only so of Fort St. George, but of all the settlements on the Coromandel coast, and the west coast of Sumatra, the person who is sent to Bencoolen being but a deputy-governor there. The chief revenues of the company arise from customs of 5 per cent. on goods imported and exported by sea; choultry, or land-custom, of 2½ per cent. on cloth, provisions, &c. brought in from the country, which, when exported, pay 2½ per cent. more; anchorage-duty, passes, coinage; which all together are very considerable, for the mint alone brings above 1000 pagodas a month into the company's coffers, at ½ per cent. for coinage of gold, and 2 per cent. for silver. The bullion that comes from Europe, &c. is coined into roupees, which are stamped with Persian characters, declaring the Mogul's name, year of his reign, and some of his epithets. They also coin gold into pagodas of different denominations and value. Mr. Lockyer says, the Moors have also several toll-houses round the city, where they receive about 7 per cent. custom on all goods that pass by them, except what is for the English, who pay no other than the choultry. Besides the neighbouring villages, which the merchants or others farm of the company, at certain rents, the scavenger, fishing-farm, wine-licence, &c. are equally advantageous to it.—Another considerable branch of the company's profit is the tobacco and betel-farm, which is a small duty laid on those commodities, and leased out to the Black merchants for 8000 pagodas per annum. Another branch is the arac farm, or the sole licence of making pariar arac, for which they are paid 3600 pagodas a year. The common people prefer this to the best Batavia or Goa arac, only because it is more heating. These three last mentioned commodities, from whence such considerable profit arises, are all consumed by the inhabitants, who were not less, according to Mr. Lockyer, than 300,000 souls; but Capt. Hamilton makes the inhabitants in the town and villages to be but 80,000, and of them no more than 500 Europeans.

They trade from hence to all parts east of the Cape of Good Hope; but the greatest ships use the Mocha, Persia, and Surat market, with Bengal and China commodities; and touch, by the way, on the Malabar coast, for pepper, cacao-nuts, coire, and several drugs, the produce of that coast. As there are partners in almost every ship and stock, both vessel and cargo are sold at her return from a voyage, either by outcry or auction. Merchants, acquainted with the place, have their goods disposed of by the inhabitants, at 2, and sometimes 1 per cent. discount; 5 per cent. is allowed to supercargoes, and married women trade as well as the men. Land-interest is settled by order of council, at 10 per cent. but money may be had of the church at 8 or 9. Money is also lent here on bottomree, from 16 to 45 per cent. according to the length of the voyage.

The bullion here that is not coined into roupees, is bought up for the China market, where pillar dollars are most esteemed, and therefore bear the highest price here. See the article EAST-INDIA TRADE, and EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Mr. Lockyer says, that, as the English company's settlements here surpass all their others in grandeur, so the orders and members of the council are more regarded.

The European goods that sell best here, are lead, wine, beer in casks or bottles, ale, cyder, cheese, cloth-hats, fine ribbands, gold and silver lace, thread and worsted stockings, flint ware, looking-glasses light coloured wigs, stuffs for coats, with trimmings, cases of spirits, cherry brandy, case-knives, tin-ware, tobacco-pipes, and all other sorts of haberdashery.

Returns are made to Europe in all the product of the Indies, particularly cotton cloth and muslins, which are cheaper here than at Surat, but dearer than in Bengal.

The colony produces very little of its own growth or manufacture for foreign markets; the good trade which it formerly had to Pegu, is now removed into the hands of the Armenians, Moors, and Pagans; the English trade to China is divided betwixt them and Surat; the gold and some copper being for their own markets, and the gross of their own cargo, which consists in sugar, sugar-candy, alum, China ware, and some drugs, as China root, galengal, &c. being all for the Surat market. As the trading articles from hence to Persia must first be brought down the Ganges before they come hither; and as Fort St. David supplies the product and manufactures of Coromandel, which are sent from hence to Mocha; Fort St. George is, therefore, an emblem of Holland, in supplying foreign markets with foreign goods. Their rice is brought by sea from Ganjain and Orixa, their wheat from Surat and Bengal, and their fire-wood from the islands of Diu near Matulipatan.

COBELON, or **COBLON**, 6 leagues south of Fort St. George, is the place where the Ostend company settled their factory in a fruitful soil with good water, and the conveniency of a point of rocks, to facilitate the landing of boats. See **OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY**.

SADRASPATAN, 30 miles south of Fort St. George, and 8

leagues north of Pondicherry, is a small factory belonging to the Dutch to buy up long cloths.

CANYMERE was of note many years for an English factory, 'till, on their purchasing Fort St. David, they transferred it thither.

PONDICHERRY is 5 leagues north of St. David, is one of the eminent factories belonging to the French East-India company. See the article **FRANCE**, of the **EAST-INDIA TRADE OF FRANCE**.

GINGI principally abounds in rice, salt, and fruits, but is so stocked with people, that they are forced to have provisions from other countries. Its chief manufactures are linen and woollen stuffs, which it exports to other parts of the Indies; and the chief goods which it imports are spices, sandal-wood, Chinese silks, velvets, fattsins, embroidered carpets, raw silk, Patana girdles, musk, quicksilver, brads, tin, lead, and copper. It's sovereign is tributary to the Great Mogul.

TANJAOER principality. This kingdom is enriched by its great trade with the Europeans in rice, painted callico, dyewood, and other commodities, for which they have bars of silver in exchange.

FORT ST. DAVID, called by the Indians **TEGAPATAN**, is a strong fort and factory of the English. Mr. Yale, governor of Fort St. George, having bought it of a prince of the royal family here, in 1686, for 90,000 pagodas, for the East-India company. This is of great advantage to the company, because of the rents they have here, and the great quantities of callicoes and muslins that are carried home to Europe.

When the English bought this fort, the Dutch had a little factory about a mile from it, where the English, whose bounds reach above 8 miles along the shore, and 4 miles within land, permit them still to trade, on paying customs to the company. This colony produces large quantities of good long cloths, brown, white, or blue dyed; also salampores, morees, dimitties, ginghams, succatoons, &c. And Capt. Hamilton gives it as his opinion, that, were it not for this colony, Fort St. George would not make near so good a figure as it does in trade.

PORTO NOVO, 18 miles south of Fort St. David. The country is fertile, pleasant, and healthful, and produces good cotton cloth, which is either sold at home, or exported to Pegu, Tanaceissim, Queda, Jehore, and Atcheen, or Sumatra.

TRANQUEBAR, a fortress and colony belonging to the Danes, in a country whose produce is cloth, both white and dyed. The Danish missionaries, who arrived here about 1706, say 'tis 36 German miles from Fort St. George; and that, next to Batavia, 'tis one of the largest towns in the Indies. The chief support of this place, according to Capt. Hamilton, is the hire for which they freight their ships to Achem, Malacca, and Jehore; and sometimes, though rarely, to Persia.

NEGAPATAN. The adjacent country abounds with rice; it affords also some tobacco, and long cloth. There is good anchoring in the road before the town, but no haven.

MADURA extends from Cape Callimere to Cape Comorin. 'Tis commonly called the Fishing-Coast, because of the oyster-fishery here, which produces great quantities of pearl, but they are small, not comparable to the true original pearl at Baharan, in the gulph of Persia; and 'tis also called the Pearl-Coast, from the pearl-banks, as they call them, which lie off at some distance, almost all along the shore, betwixt that and the isle of Ceylon. They are certain rocks of white coral stone, to which the oysters are found sticking or growing, nobody knows which. 'Tis said, that no less than 60,000 people are employed in this fishery, and guarding the vessels.

The banks are searched every year in October, when the weather is calmest, to see whether the shells are come to maturity, of which proclamation is made through the country immediately; when the merchants, who resort from all parts, even from Arabia and Turkey itself, set up tents on the shore, and hire boats and divers.

When the fishery is ended, the oysters are opened before commissioners, that come from the island of Ceylon to preside over it. [See **FISHERIES** and **INDIAN ISLANDS**.]

TUTUCORIN. The Dutch have a factory here, whose jurisdiction extends over six villages on the east. A great quantity of cloth is wove in this town, which has the better trade, because it furnishes the inhabitants along the coast with foreign commodities. Provisions are sold here, to the great advantage of the Dutch. Capt. Hamilton says, this country produces much cotton cloth, though not fine, but they both stain and dye it for exportation; and the Dutch colony here superintends the pearl-fishery, which is said to bring their company 20,000l. a year.

MARAPPAAR has another Dutch factory.

MARAVA kingdom. The greatest trade they have here is in fish, which they carry up the country, to exchange for rice and other necessary provisions, of which the fishing-coast is quite destitute. See our **NEW MAPS OF ASIA**.

INDULTO, a term used in the Spanish commerce.

As soon as the galleons [see **GALLEONS**] and merchant-ships in Spain come to an anchor, a waiter is sent aboard each of them,

them, though the plate and merchandize be upon indulto, that is, composition, that none may be carried ashore, but in the boats appointed for unloading, or with special licence, and guide assigned to bring it up to Seville. This is to be punctually observed as to gold and plate uncoined, for, since the new way of contribution, the pieces of eight are allowed to be left at the ports, and the same is practised with such commodities as are not exported.

The deducting of as much money as will suffice to pay the foldiers and failors aboard the galleons, belongs to the admiral, but, if he be dead, the vice admiral, unless he have the title of royal, or particular commission from the king to command the galleons, has no right to it. But this, and all things else, are to be managed by the commissioner of the India-House [see INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN;] but the admiral of the flota [see FLOTA] cannot take up any sum of money, either at sea or in the port, to pay the men. Before any payments are mad, the admirals, vice-admirals, and other commanders of armada's and flota's, are to take care that no failors or foldiers go ashore (if the plate be unladen in the bay of Cadiz) 'till all the plate is unshipped, and the boats are out of that port; that the foldiers stay aboard 'till their colours are carried ashore, and the failors 'till the ships be moored at the dock. But the gunners may be allowed to go ashore, as soon as the guns and gunners stores are landed, to save the charge of unrigging; and, if any be, the captains pay it, since it must be through their neglect that the failors go off.

Since the new method of contribution has been brought into practice, which has taken off the duty of convoys from plate and gold, and all other commodities, and all other customs formerly paid for bringing them into the kingdoms of Spain, very little of what comes over is entered; and, therefore, the better to discover what parcels are to have the benefit of the indulto, or composition, it is convenient, that, when the visitation is made, the masters give an account, upon oath, of the quantity of goods they have aboard, specifying the several sorts, but without mentioning who are the owners, that they may have guides for as much as they have given an account of. The main end of bringing the galleons and flotas back to St. Lucar, being to prevent the exportation of plate, and other precious commodities, it will be of good consequence to appoint men of note and reputation, says our Spanish author, to command the boats that go round to observe the vessels, that they may do it very strictly: and it will not be against the indulto, to oblige the masters of plate, upon oath to declare, what quantity of bars of silver and gold each of them brings for private persons, without declaring their names, that they may have guides to conduct them up to Seville; and that proclamation be made aboard every galleon, for those who bring any gold, or silver, in ingots, that is not in the custody of the masters, to make it known, without telling whose it is, that it may be brought to Seville, upon penalty, that, if they fail, within a short limited time, it shall be taken as forfeited. See the article MEXICO, PERU, FLOTA, GALLEONS.

INSOLVENT. See the article BANKRUPT, where the laws of England, with great variety of cases adjudged in our courts of law, are briefly stated: also the laws and regulations of other nations, in relation to bankruptcy.

INSURANCE. See the article ASSURANCE of shipping and merchandizes, where this matter is treated of in a very copious manner.

INTEREST, of money, is the use paid for the loan thereof, and is either simple or compound.

Simple interest is that which is paid for the loan of any principal or sum of money, lent out for some time, at any rate per cent. agreed on between the borrower and the lender; which, according to 12 Ann. sess. 2. c. 6. no person is to take for loan of monies, &c. above 5 l. for the forbearance of 100 l. a year. Bonds, contracts, &c. made for money, let at a greater interest, to be void, and the offender to forfeit treble value.

Those who are any thing skilled in common arithmetic, do not require to be shown the ordinary method of computing the interest of money. See, however, our article ARITHMETIC.

It may be useful, nevertheless, to lay down the several theorems algebraically, relating to simple interest, from whence the reason of the rules usually given are deducible.

All computations which relate to simple interest, are grounded upon arithmetic progression; from whence are raised such general theorems, as will suit with all cases. In order to which,

Let $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P = \text{any principal sum put to interest.} \\ R = \text{the rate of interest per cent. per ann.} \\ t = \text{the time of the principal's continuance at interest.} \\ A = \text{the amount of the principal, and it's interest.} \end{array} \right.$

N. B. The rate, above signified, is only the simple interest of 1 l. for one year, at any given rate, which is thus found, viz. 100 : 5 :: 1 : 0.05, the rate decimally expressed at 5 per cent. per ann.

And, if the given time be whole years, then $t =$ the number of whole years: but, if the time given be either pure parts of

a year, or parts of a year mixed with years, these parts must be turned into decimals: and then $t =$ those decimals, &c.—The common parts of a year may be easily reduced into decimal parts, if it be considered,

That one $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Day is the } \frac{1}{365} \text{ part of a year} = 0.00274 \text{ fere.} \\ \text{Month is the } \frac{1}{12} \text{ part of a year} = .0833333, \&c. \\ \text{Quarter is the } \frac{1}{4} \text{ part of a year} = .25 \end{array} \right.$

These particulars premised, the theorems may be easily raised.

Let $R =$ the interest of 1 l. for one year, as before.

Then $2R =$ the interest of 1 l. for two years.

And $3R =$ the interest of 1 l. for three years.

$4R =$ the interest of 1 l. for four years, and so on for any number of years proposed.

Hence 'tis obvious, that the simple interest of one pound is a series of terms in arithmetic progression increasing; whose first term and common difference is R , and the number of all the terms is t ; therefore the last term will always be $tR =$ the interest of pounds for any given term signified by t .

Then, As one pound is to the interest of 1. $1 : tR ::$ so is any principal or given sum : to it's interest.

That is, $1.1 : tR :: P : tRP =$ the interest of P .—Then, the principal being added to the interest, their sum will be $= A$, the amount required: which gives this general theorem.

(1.) Theorem $tRP = A$.

From whence the three following theorems are easily deducible.

Theorem (2.) $\frac{A}{tR + 1} = P$. Theorem (3.) $\frac{A - P}{tP} = R$.

Theorem (4.) $\frac{A - P}{RP} = t$.

These four theorems resolve all questions about simple interest, which any one may apply, who is acquainted with the reduction of simple equations algebraically.

OF SIMPLE INTEREST.

The annual interest of any sum of money is found, by multiplying the principal sum decimally, by the hundredth part of the rate of interest, the product being the answer.

If the rate of interest be 2 per cent. the hundredth part is .02; if $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. .025; if 3 per cent. .03; if $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. .035, &c.

EXAMPLES.

What is the interest of 75 l. for one year, at 3 per cent. ?

75
.03

2.25 Answer, 2 l. 5 s.

What is the interest of 157 l. 17 s. 6 d. at 5 per cent. ?

157.875
.05

7.89375 Answer, 7 l. 17 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$

What is the interest of 3635 l. at 4 per cent. ?

3635.
.04

145.40 Answer, 145 l. 8 s.

Thus the yearly interest of any sum is found by one multiplication.

Daily interest is found, by dividing the annual interest by 365, the quotient being the answer.

Thus .05 being the interest of 1 pound for 1 year at 5 per cent. divided by 365, the quotient will be, .0001,3698,6301, &c. which is the interest of one pound for one day at the same rate.

The interest for one day being thus found, that interest multiplied by 2,3,4,5,6, &c. gives the interest of one pound for any number of days.

EXAMPLE, at the said rate of 5 per cent.

The interest of 1 pound for 1 day, is — .0001,3699 *

Which mult. by 2. gives the int. for 2 days .0002,7397

3.	—	—	3	—	.0004,1096 *
4.	—	—	4	—	.0005,4795 *
5.	—	—	5	—	.0006,8493
6.	—	—	6	—	.0008,2192 *
7.	—	—	7	—	.0009,5890
8.	—	—	8	—	.0010,9589
9.	—	—	9	—	.0012,3288 *
10.	—	—	10	—	.0013,6986
100.	—	—	100	—	.0136,9863, &c.

And thus the following table of simple interest is made.

Note, That in contracting a decimal fraction, from many to fewer places, it is proper to add one to the last figure retained, if the next figure omitted exceed 5. This is observed in all the following tables, as it is above, where marked *.

A TABLE of SIMPLE INTEREST.

The interest of one pound for any number of days, &c.

Table with 5 columns: Days, 3 per cent, 3 1/2 per cent, 4 per cent, 4 1/2 per cent, 5 per cent. Rows 1-100.

A TABLE of SIMPLE INTEREST.

The interest of one pound for a number of years.

Table with 5 columns: Years, At 3 per cent, 3 1/2 per cent, 4 per cent, 4 1/2 per cent, 5 per cent. Rows 1-25.

The USE of the preceding TABLE.

When the interest of any sum of money is required for any number of days, look in the tables for the number of days, and even with that number, under the given rate of interest, will be found the interest of one pound, for that time, and at that rate; which interest, so found, being multiplied by the principal sum, the product answers the question.

EXAMPLE.

What is the interest of 462 l. for 85 days, at 5 per cent. per annum?

In the table, even with 85 days, and under 5 per cent. you find the interest of 1 l. to be .0116,438

Which multiplied by the principal 462, the product will be 1.5 : 7 : 7.

N. B. If the principal sums contains shillings and pence, you must reduce them into decimal parts.—[See ARITHMETIC.] and multiply accordingly.

When the interest of any sum is required for a number of years and days together, as it frequently happens upon paying off a bond or mortgage, add the interest of one pound for the years at the end of the foregoing tables, to the interest of one pound for the odd days; multiply that by the principal sum, and the product will answer the question.

For the method of calculating annuities, see ANNUITIES.

COMPOUND INTEREST is that which arises from any principal sum, and it's interest added together, as the interest becomes due; so that at every payment, or at the time when the payment becomes due, there is created a new principal, and for that reason it is called interest upon interest, or compound interest.

And, although it be not lawful to let out money at compound interest, yet in purchasing annuities or pensions, &c. and taking leases in reversion, it is very usual to allow compound interest to the purchaser for his ready money, and therefore it is requisite to understand it.

In order, therefore, to raise the theorems algebraically, which are necessary in all cases relating to compound interest,

Let { P = the principal put to interest, t = the time of it's continuance, A = the amount of the princ. and inter. } as in the case of simp. int. R { the amount of 1 l. and it's interest for 1 year, at any given rate.

viz. 100 : 105 :: 1 : 1.05, the amount of 1 l. at 5 per cent. and so for any other assigned rate of interest.

Then if R = the amount of 1 l. for one year, at any rate. RR = the amount of 1 l. for two years. RRR = the amount of 1 l. for three years.

R^4 = the amount of 1 l. for four years. R^5 = the amount of 1 l. for five years.—Here t = 5.

For 1 : R :: R : RR :: RR : RRR :: RRR : R^4 :: R^4 : R^5 &c. in &c.

That is, to read the same verbally, as one pound : is to the amount of one pound, at one year's end : so is that amount : to the amount of one pound at two years end, &c.

Whence it is plain, that compound interest is grounded upon a series of geometrical proportions continued, wherein t (viz. the number of years) always assigns the index of the last and highest term of the series, viz. the power of R, which is R^t.

Again, as 1 : R :: P : RR t = A the amount of P for the time, that R t = the amount of 1 l.

That is, as one pound : is to the amount of one pound for any given time : so is any proposed principal sum to it's amount for the same time.

Hence the reason of the following theorem will be very easily understood by a tolerable algebraist.

I N T

The FIRST TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.
The amount of one pound in any number of years, &c.

Years	3 per cent.	3 1/2 per cent.	4 per cent.	4 1/2 per cent.	5 per cent.
1	1.0148,891	1.0173,495	1.0198,039	1.0222,524	1.0246,950
1 1/2	1.0300,000	1.0350,000	1.0400,000	1.0450,000	1.0500,000
2	1.0453,358	1.0529,567	1.0605,960	1.0682,537	1.0759,298
2 1/2	1.0600,000	1.0712,250	1.1816,000	1.0920,250	1.1025,000
3	1.0766,959	1.0878,102	1.1030,199	1.1163,251	1.1297,263
3 1/2	1.0927,270	1.1087,178	1.1248,540	1.1411,661	1.1576,250
4	1.1089,967	1.1279,535	1.1471,407	1.1665,598	1.1862,126
4 1/2	1.1255,088	1.1475,230	1.1693,585	1.1925,186	1.2155,062
5	1.1422,666	1.1674,319	1.1930,263	1.2190,550	1.2455,232
5 1/2	1.1592,740	1.1876,863	1.2106,529	1.2461,819	1.2762,815
6	1.1765,346	1.2082,920	1.2407,473	1.2739,125	1.3077,994
6 1/2	1.1940,523	1.2292,553	1.2653,190	1.3022,601	1.3400,956
7	1.2118,307	1.2505,822	1.2903,772	1.3312,385	1.3731,894
7 1/2	1.2298,738	1.2722,792	1.3159,317	1.3608,618	1.4071,004
8	1.2481,856	1.2943,526	1.3419,923	1.3911,442	1.4418,488
8 1/2	1.2667,700	1.3168,090	1.3685,620	1.4221,006	1.4774,554
9	1.2856,312	1.3396,550	1.3957,790	1.4537,457	1.5139,413
9 1/2	1.3047,731	1.3628,973	1.4233,118	1.4860,951	1.5513,282
10	1.3242,001	1.3865,429	1.4514,988	1.5191,643	1.5896,383
10 1/2	1.3439,165	1.4105,987	1.4802,442	1.5529,694	1.6288,946
11	1.3639,261	1.4350,719	1.5095,589	1.5875,267	1.6691,203
11 1/2	1.3842,311	1.4599,697	1.5394,540	1.6228,530	1.7103,393
12	1.4048,439	1.4852,994	1.5699,412	1.6589,654	1.7525,763
12 1/2	1.4257,608	1.5110,686	1.6010,322	1.6958,814	1.7958,563
13	1.4469,892	1.5372,849	1.6327,389	1.7336,188	1.8402,951
13 1/2	1.4685,337	1.5639,560	1.6650,735	1.7721,961	1.8856,491
14	1.4903,989	1.5910,899	1.6980,484	1.8116,317	1.9322,153
14 1/2	1.5125,897	1.6186,945	1.7316,764	1.8519,449	1.9799,916
15	1.5351,109	1.6467,780	1.7659,704	1.8931,551	2.0288,261
15 1/2	1.5579,674	1.6753,488	1.8009,435	1.9352,824	2.0789,271
16	1.5811,642	1.7044,152	1.8366,092	1.9783,471	2.1302,684
16 1/2	1.6047,064	1.7339,860	1.8729,812	2.0223,751	2.1828,745
17	1.6285,991	1.7640,698	1.9100,735	2.0673,727	2.2367,808
17 1/2	1.6528,476	1.7946,571	1.9479,005	2.1133,768	2.2920,165
18	1.6774,571	1.8258,122	1.9864,765	2.1604,045	2.3486,198
18 1/2	1.7024,330	1.8574,892	2.0258,165	2.2084,787	2.4066,192
19	1.7277,808	1.8897,157	2.0659,355	2.2576,227	2.4660,508
19 1/2	1.7535,060	1.9225,013	2.1068,491	2.3078,603	2.5269,502
20	1.7796,142	1.9568,557	2.1485,730	2.3592,157	2.5893,534
20 1/2	1.8061,112	1.9927,888	2.1911,231	2.4117,140	2.6532,777
21	1.8330,027	2.0293,107	2.2345,159	2.4653,804	2.7188,211
21 1/2	1.8602,945	2.0674,314	2.2787,680	2.5202,411	2.7859,625
22	1.8879,927	2.0991,615	2.3238,965	2.5763,226	2.8547,621
22 1/2	1.9161,034	2.1315,115	2.3699,187	2.6336,520	2.9252,607
23	1.9446,325	2.1648,924	2.4168,254	2.6922,571	2.9975,237
23 1/2	1.9735,805	2.2001,144	2.4647,155	2.7521,663	3.0715,237
24	2.0029,715	2.2443,894	2.5133,265	2.8134,087	3.1473,752
24 1/2	2.0327,941	2.2833,284	2.5630,041	2.8760,138	3.2250,999
25	2.0630,607	2.3229,430	2.6140,675	2.9400,120	3.3045,440
25 1/2	2.0937,779	2.3632,449	2.6658,393	3.0054,344	3.3853,542
26	2.1249,525	2.4042,261	2.7186,303	3.0723,126	3.4699,819
26 1/2	2.1565,912	2.4459,585	2.7724,697	3.1406,790	3.5576,726
27	2.1887,010	2.4883,947	2.8273,755	3.2105,667	3.6434,803
27 1/2	2.2212,890	2.5315,671	2.8833,685	3.2820,095	3.7334,563
28	2.2543,621	2.5754,885	2.9404,705	3.3550,422	3.8256,543
28 1/2	2.2879,276	2.6201,719	2.9987,033	3.4296,999	3.9201,291
29	2.3219,920	2.6656,306	3.0580,893	3.5060,191	4.0169,370
29 1/2	2.3565,655	2.7118,779	3.1186,514	3.5840,364	4.1161,356
30	2.3916,527	2.7597,277	3.1804,129	3.6637,899	4.2177,838
30 1/2	2.4272,624	2.8089,937	3.2432,975	3.7453,181	4.3219,423
31	2.4634,023	2.8554,901	3.3076,294	3.8286,605	4.4286,730
31 1/2	2.5000,803	2.9050,314	3.3731,334	3.9138,574	4.5380,394
32	2.5373,044	2.9554,323	3.4399,346	4.0009,502	4.6501,067
32 1/2	2.5750,827	3.0067,075	3.5080,580	4.0899,810	4.7649,414
33	2.6134,235	3.0588,724	3.5775,327	4.1809,930	4.8826,120
33 1/2	2.6523,355	3.1119,423	3.6483,811	4.2740,301	5.0031,885
34	2.6918,262	3.1659,329	3.7206,332	4.3691,671	5.1267,426
34 1/2	2.7319,053	3.2208,603	3.7943,163	4.4663,615	5.2533,447
35	2.7725,810	3.2767,406	3.8694,586	4.5657,488	5.3830,798
35 1/2	2.8138,624	3.3335,904	3.9460,889	4.6673,478	5.5160,153
36	2.8557,844	3.3914,205	4.0242,569	4.7712,075	5.6522,337
36 1/2	2.8982,783	3.4502,661	4.1039,325	4.8773,784	5.7918,161
37	2.9414,312	3.5101,265	4.1852,064	4.9859,119	5.9348,454
37 1/2	2.9852,266	3.5710,254	4.2680,898	5.0968,604	6.0814,069
38	3.0296,741	3.6329,809	4.3526,146	5.2102,779	6.2315,877
38 1/2	3.0747,834	3.6960,113	4.4388,134	5.3262,192	6.3854,772
39	3.1205,644	3.7601,352	4.5267,192	5.4447,404	6.5431,671
39 1/2	3.1670,269	3.8253,717	4.6163,659	5.5658,990	6.7047,511
40	3.2141,813	3.8917,399	4.7077,880	5.6897,537	6.8703,255
40 1/2	3.2620,377	3.9592,597	4.8010,326	5.8163,045	7.0399,887
41	3.3106,067	4.0279,508	4.8960,995	5.9457,927	7.2138,417
41 1/2	3.3598,989	4.0978,338	4.9930,614	6.0781,009	7.3919,881
42	3.4099,249	4.1689,291	5.0919,045	6.2133,533	7.5745,338
42 1/2	3.4606,958	4.2412,579	5.1927,839	6.3516,154	7.7615,875
43	3.5122,227	4.3148,410	5.2956,213	6.4929,542	7.9532,605
43 1/2	3.5645,167	4.3897,020	5.4004,952	6.6374,581	8.1496,669
44	3.6175,834	4.4658,611	5.5074,460	6.7851,372	8.3509,235
44 1/2	3.6714,522	4.5433,416	5.6165,151	6.9361,279	8.5571,502
45	3.7261,171	4.6221,662	5.7277,440	7.0904,683	8.7684,697
45 1/2	3.7815,958	4.7023,585	5.8411,756	7.2482,484	8.9850,077
46	3.8379,006	4.7839,421	5.9568,537	7.4095,394	9.2068,932
46 1/2	3.8950,437	4.8669,411	6.0748,227	7.5744,196	9.4342,581
47	3.9530,376	4.9513,800	6.1951,279	7.7429,687	9.6672,379
47 1/2	4.0118,950	5.0372,840	6.3178,155	7.9152,684	9.9059,710
48	4.0716,287	5.1246,783	6.4420,330	8.0914,023	10.1505,998
48 1/2	4.1322,158	5.2135,880	6.5705,287	8.2714,555	10.4021,266
49	4.1937,776	5.3040,221	6.7005,503	8.4555,154	10.6518,298
49 1/2	4.2562,194	5.3960,645	6.8334,493	8.6436,710	10.9113,331
50	4.3195,929	5.4896,836	6.9686,166	8.8360,136	11.1710,362
50 1/2	4.3839,060	5.5849,268	7.1066,833	9.0326,362	11.4373,997

The SECOND TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.
The present value of £1. payable at the end of any number of years, &c.

Years	3 per cent.	3 1/2 per cent.	4 per cent.	4 1/2 per cent.	5 per cent.
1	.9853,292	.9829,463	.9805,806	.9782,319	.9759,000
1 1/2	.9708,737	.9661,835	.9615,384	.9569,378	.9523,809
2	.9566,303	.9497,066	.9428,660	.9361,071	.9294,286
2 1/2	.9425,959	.9335,107	.9245,562	.9157,299	.9070,294
3	.9287,673	.9175,909	.9066,019	.8957,963	.8851,701
3 1/2	.9151,416	.9010,427	.8889,963	.8762,966	.8638,376
4	.9017,158	.8865,031	.8717,326	.8572,213	.8430,191
4 1/2	.8884,870	.8714,422	.8543,041	.8385,613	.8227,024
5	.8754,523	.8565,809	.8382,044	.8203,075	.8028,754
5 1/2	.8626,087	.8419,731	.8219,271	.8024,510	.7835,261
6	.8499,536	.8276,144	.8059,658	.7849,832	.7646,432
6 1/2	.8374,842	.8135,006	.7903,145	.7678,957	.7462,154
7	.8251,977	.7996,275	.7749,671	.7511,801	.7282,316
7 1/2	.8130,915	.7859,909	.7599,178	.7348,284	.7106,813
8	.8011,628	.7725,869	.7451,607	.7188,326	.6935,539
8 1/2	.7894,092	.7594,115	.7306,902	.7031,851	.6768,393
9	.7778,280	.7464,608	.7165,007	.6878,781	.6605,275
9 1/2	.7664,167	.7337,309	.7025,867	.6729,044	.6446,089
10	.7551,728	.7212,182	.6889,429	.6582,566	.6290,738
10 1/2	.7440,939	.7089,188	.6755,641	.6439,276	.6139,132
11	.7331,775	.6968,291	.6624,451	.6299,106	.5991,179
11 1/2	.7224,212	.6849,457	.6495,809	.6161,987	.5846,792
12	.7118,228	.6732,649	.6369,665	.6027,853	.5705,885
12 1/2	.7013,798	.6617,883	.6245,970	.5896,638	.5568,374
13	.6910,901	.6504,974	.6124,678	.5768,280	.5434,176
13 1/2	.6809,513	.6394,041	.6005,740	.5642,716	.5303,213
14	.6709,612	.6284,999	.5889,113	.5519,446	.5175,406
14 1/2	.6611,178	.6177,817	.5774,750	.5399,897	.5065,679
15	.6514,187	.6072,463	.5662,609	.5282,187	.4928,958
15 1/2	.6418,619	.5968,906	.5552,645	.5167,204	.4810,171
16	.6324,453	.5866,114	.5444,816	.5054,724	.4694,246
16 1/2	.6231,669	.5765,059	.5339,081	.4944,693	.4581,115
17	.6140,246	.5666,709	.5235,400	.4837,057	.4470,710
17 1/2	.6050,164	.5572,037	.5133,732	.4731,763	.4362,966
18	.5961,404	.5477,014	.5034,038	.4628,762	.4257,819
18 1/2	.5873,946	.5383,611	.4936,281	.4528,003	.4155,266
19	.5787,771	.5291,801	.4840,422	.4429,438	.4055,066
19 1/2	.5702,860	.5201,556	.4746,424	.4333,017	.3957,339
20	.5619,195	.5112,851	.4654,251	.4238,696	.3861,968
20 1/2	.5536,757	.5025,658	.4563,869	.4146,428	.3768,894
21	.5455,529	.4939,953	.4475,242	.4056,169	.3678,064
21 1/2	.5375,492	.4855,709	.4388		

The THIRD TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The amount of one pound per annum in any number of years, &c.

Table with columns for Years (1 to 50) and interest rates (3 percent, 3 1/2 percent, 4 percent, 4 1/2 percent, 5 percent). Rows show the amount of one pound per annum for each year and rate.

The FOURTH TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The present value of 1 l. per ann. for any number of years to come, &c.

Table with columns for Years (1 to 50) and interest rates (3 percent, 3 1/2 percent, 4 percent, 4 1/2 percent, 5 percent). Rows show the present value of 1 l. per annum for each year and rate.

The FIFTH TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The annuity which 1 l. will purchase for any number of years to come, &c.

Table with 6 columns: Years, 3 per cent., 3 1/2 per cent., 4 per cent., 4 1/2 per cent., 5 per cent., Years. Rows range from 1 to 50 years.

The Use of the preceding TABLES.

The amount, or present value of any sum of money, for any number of years, not exceeding 50, at any of the rates of interest in the tables, is thus found:

Look in the first and second table for the given number of years, and even with that number, under the given rate of interest, is the amount or present value of one pound; which amount or present value, so found, being multiplied by any given principal sum, the product will be the amount or present value required.

After the same manner, the amount, or present value of any annuity, or yearly payment, is found, by the third or fourth table.

And the annuity, which any sum of money will purchase, by the fifth table.

So that most useful questions in compound interest are answered by one multiplication.

The variety of CASES resolvable by these TABLES.

CASE I.

Any principal rate, and time being given, to find the amount. The Rule. Find in the first table the amount of 1 l. at the rate and for the time given; which being multiplied by the principal, the product answers the question.

Example. What will 523 l. amount to in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The amount of 1 l. in 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the first table to be 2.0789, &c. which being multiplied by 523, the product will be 1087.2794, &c. = 1. 1087 : 5 : 7.

CASE II.

Any principal, rate, and amount being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the principal, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. at the given rate; which look for in the first table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.

Example. In what time will 523 l. amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7, at the rate of 3 per cent. per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 523, the quotient will be 2.0789, &c. which under 5 per cent. in the first table, is found to be even with 15 years, and answers the question.

CASE III.

Any principal, time, and amount being given, to find the rate of interest.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the principal, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. in the given time; which look for in the first table, even with that time, and it will be found under the rate required.

Example. At what rate per cent. per ann. will 523 l. amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 523, the quotient will be 2.0789, &c. which, even with 15 years in the first table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and answers the question.

CASE IV.

Any amount, rate, and time being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Divide the amount, by the amount of 1 l. in the first table, at the rate and for the time given, and the quotient will be the principal required.

Example. What principal sum will amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 2.0789, &c. being the amount of 1 l. at the rate, and in the time given, the quotient will be 523.

N. B. This question is easier answered by the second table, as you will find by case 13.

CASE V.

Any principal, rate, and time being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find in the fifth table, the annuity which 1 l. will purchase, at the rate, and for the time given; multiply the annuity so found by the principal, and the product will be the annuity required.

Example. What annuity, to continue 15 years, will 523 l. purchase, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The annuity which 1 l. will purchase for 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the fifth table to be .0963, &c. which multiplied by 523, the product will be 50.3870, &c. or 1. 50 : 7 : 9 per ann.

If the question had been, What annuity, to continue 15 years, will pay off a debt of 523 l. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. the answer had been the same.

CASE VI.

Any principal, annuity, and rate being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Divide the annuity by the principal, and the quotient will be the annuity which 1 l. will purchase at the given rate; which look for in the fifth table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.

Example. An annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9, is purchased with 523 l. at the rate of 5 l. per cent. per ann. what time ought that annuity to continue?

Divide

Divide 50.3870, &c. by 523, the quotient will be .0963, &c. which, under 5 per cent. in the fifth table, is found to be even with 15 years, and answers the question.
 Note, If the question had been, in what time will an annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9 pay off a debt of 523l. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. the answer had been the same.

C A S E VII.

Any principal, annuity, and time being given, to find the rate.
 The Rule. Divide the annuity by the principal, and the quotient will be the annuity, that 1l. will purchase for the given time; which look for in the fifth table, even with that time, and it will be found under the rate required.
 Example. If an annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9, to continue 15 years, is purchased with 523l. what rate of interest per cent. per ann. is made of the purchase money?
 Divide 50.3870, &c. by 523, the quotient will be .0963, &c. which, even with 15 years in the fifth table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and answers the question.

C A S E VIII.

Note, This question is easier answered by the fourth table, thus: multiply 50.3870, &c. the annuity, by 10.3796, &c. the present value of 1l. per ann. in the fourth table, at the rate and for the time given, the product will be 523.

C A S E IX.

Any annuity, rate, and time being given, to find the amount.
 The Rule. Find in the third table, the amount of 1l. per ann. at the rate and for the time given; by which multiply the annuity, and the product will be the amount required.
 Example. What will an annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9, being forborne 15 years, amount unto at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?
 The amount of 1l. per ann. in 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the third table to be 21.5785, &c. which being multiplied by 50.3870, &c. the product will be 1087.2794, &c. = 1. 1087 : 5 : 7.

C A S E X.

Any annuity, rate, and amount being given, to find the time.
 The Rule. Divide the amount by the annuity, and the quotient will be the amount of 1l. per ann. at the given rate; which look for in the third table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.
 Example. In what time will an annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9 amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?
 Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 50.3870, &c. the quotient will be 21.5785, &c. which, under 5 per cent. in the third table, is found to be even with 15 years, and answers the question.

C A S E XI.

Any annuity, time, and amount being given, to find the rate.
 The Rule. Divide the amount by the annuity, and the quotient will be the amount of 1l. per ann. for the given time; which look for in the third table even with the time, and it will be found under the rate required.
 Example. At what rate per cent. per ann. will an annuity of 1. 50 : 7 : 9 amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7, in 15 years?
 Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 50.3870, &c. the quotient will be 21.5785, &c. which, even with 15 years in the third table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and answers the question.

C A S E XII.

Any amount, rate, and time being given, to find the annuity.
 The Rule. Divide the amount by the amount of 1l. per ann. in the third table, at the rate and for the time given, and the quotient will be the annuity required.
 Example. What annuity will amount to 1. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?
 Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 21.5785, &c. being the amount of 1l. per ann. in the time, and at the rate given, the quotient will be 50.3870, &c. = 1. 50 : 7 : 9.

C A S E XIII.

Any principal sum in reversion, rate, and time being given, to find the present value.
 The Rule. Find in the second table the present value of 1l. at the rate and for the time given, which being multiplied by the principal, the product answers the question.
 Example. What is the present value of 1. 1087 : 5 : 7, payable at the end of 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?
 The present value of 1l. payable at the end of 15 years, at 5 per cent. is found in the second table to be .4810, &c. which being multiplied by 1087.2794, &c. the product will be 523, the answer.
 Note, This is the same with case the 4th, only the question is put in different terms, and the answer given by a different table.

C A S E XIV.

Any annuity, time in reversion, and rate being given, to find the present value.
 The Rule. Find in the fourth table the present value of 1l. per ann. at the given rate, both for the time in being, and the time in being and time in reversion added together; subtract the one from the other, and multiply the remainder by the annuity, the product answers the question.
 Example. What is it worth in present money to add 14 years to a term of 7 years in being, and thereby make up the term 21 years, the annuity or rent being 35l. per ann. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The present value of 1l. per ann. in the 4th table, for 2 years, is ————— } 12.8211,527
 For 7 years, is 5.7863,734
 Remainder — 7.0347,793
 Multiplied by ————— 35
 The product — 246.2172

&c. or 1. 246 : 4 : 4.

C A S E XV.

Any annuity, several times in reversion, and rate being given, to find the several present values.
 The Rule. Find the present value of 1l. per ann. in the fourth table, at the given rate, and for the several given times; which being severally multiplied by the annuity, the products will be the several present values of that annuity for these several times: subtract the several present values the one from the other, and the several remainders answer the question.
 Example. A has a term of 7 years in an estate of 35l. per annum; B has a term of 14 years in the same estate in reversion, after the expiration of 7 years; and C has a farther term of 20 years in reversion after the 21 years; it is required to know, what is the present value of the several terms, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The present value of } 41 years will be found 1. 605 : 6 : 0½
 35l. per ann. for }
 See case 8. 21 — — — 448 : 14 : 9½
 7 — — — 202 : 10 : 5½
 Which being subtracted one from the other, it will appear,
 That the present value of A's term is 202 : 10 : 5½
 B's — 246 : 4 : 4
 C's — 156 : 11 : 3

Which answers the question 605 : 6 : 0½

C A S E XVI.

Any annuity in fee simple, fee case 20, and rate being given, to find the present value.
 The Rule. Find the present value of 1l. per ann. in fee simple by means of the fourth table at the given rate; which multiplied by the annuity, the product answers the question.
 Example. What is the value of an estate of 35l. per ann. in fee simple, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?
 The present value of 1l. per ann. in fee simple, is found to be 20; which multiplied by 35, the product will be 700l. the answer.

C A S E XVII.

Any present value, time in reversion, and rate being given, to find the annuity.
 The Rule. Find by case the 1st, what the present value will amount to, in the time preceding the commencement of the annuity; then find by case the 5th what annuity that amount will purchase, which answers the question.
 Example. What annuity to continue 14 years, after the expiration of 7 years, will 246l. 4s. 4d. purchase, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?
 By case the 1st I find 1. 246 : 4 : 4 will, at that rate in 7 years, amount to 1. 346 : 9 : 0½; and by case the 5th I find, that 1. 346 : 9 : 0½ will, at the same rate, purchase an annuity of 35l. per ann. to continue 14 years.

C A S E XVIII.

An annuity in reversion, present value, and rate being given, to find the time.
 The Rule. Find the amount of the present value as above, by case the 1st; then, by case the 6th, find the time the annuity ought to continue.
 Example. An annuity of 35l. per ann. to commence after the expiration of 7 years, is purchased with 1. 246 : 4 : 4, what time ought that annuity to continue, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?
 I find by case the 1st, that 1. 246 : 4 : 4 will, in 7 years, amount to 1. 346 : 9 : 0½ as above; by which divide the annuity, the quotient will be .1010.2397, which in the fifth table under 5 per cent. will be found even with 14 years, as by case the 6th, and answers the question.

CASE XIX.

Any annuity in reversion, present value, and time being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. Find the amount of the present value as above, by case 1; then, by case the 7th, find the rate of interest.

Example. An annuity of 35 l. per ann. to continue 14 years, after the expiration of 7 years, is purchased with l. 246 : 4 : 4. What rate of interest per cent. per ann. is made of the purchase money?

I find by case the 1st, that l. 246 : 4 : 4 will, in 7 years, amount to l. 346 : 9 : 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ as above; by which divide the annuity, the quotient will be .1010,2397, which in the fifth table, even with 14 years, will be found under 5 per cent. as by case the 7th, and answers the question.

CASE XX.

Any principal and rate being given, to find the annuity in fee simple.

The Rule. Divide the principal by the present value of 1 l. per ann. in fee simple*, and the quotient answers the question.

* Compound interest is a series of geometrical proportions, as was before observed; and, therefore, the amount in any one time given, being multiplied into itself, the product will be the amount in double that time; and the amount of any two several times given, multiplied one into the other, the product will be the amount in those two several times added together.

This the reader may easily prove: for if he multiplies the amount of 1 l. in 50 years, at any given rate, into itself, he will find the product to be the amount of 1 l. in 100 years at the same rate, &c. so that the fee simple being reckoned at 100 years, you may easily calculate it's value, by the tables of 50 years only.

Example. What annuity in fee simple will 700 l. purchase, at the rate of 5 l. per cent. per annum?

700 l. the principal, divided by 20, the present value of 1 l. per ann. in fee simple, the quotient will be 35 l.

CASE XXI.

Any principal, annuity, and rate being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find the time by case 6, then having principal, annuity, rate, and time, find the amount as before, either by case the 1st or 9th.

CASE XXII.

Any principal, annuity, and time being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find the rate by case 7, then having principal, annuity, rate, and time, find the amount as before, either by case the 1st or 9th.

CASE XXIII.

Any annuity, amount, and time being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Find the rate by case the 11th, then having annuity, amount, rate, and time, find the principal, either by case the 4th or 8th.

CASE XXIV.

Any annuity, amount, and rate, being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Find the time by case the 10th, then having annuity, amount, rate, and time, find the principal as before, either by case the 4th or 8th.

CASE XXV.

Any amount, principal, and time being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find the rate by case the 3d, then having amount, principal, rate, and time, find the annuity either by case the 5th or 12th.

CASE XXVI.

Any amount, principal, and rate being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find the time by case the 2d, then having amount, principal, rate, and time, find the annuity as before, either by case the 5th or 12th.

CASE XXVII.

Any amount, principal, and annuity being given, to find the time.

The Rule. This is found, either by dividing the amount by the principal, as in case the 2d, or by dividing the annuity by the principal, as in case the 6th.

CASE XXVIII.

Any amount, principal, and annuity being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. This is likewise found, either by dividing the

amount by the principal, as in case the 3d, or by dividing the annuity by the principal, as in case the 7th.

Note, In these tables we have carried the decimal fractions to seven places, though four or five would have been sufficient to have answered most questions: and millions may be computed by them with exactness, of which we will give an example by case the 5th.

These TABLES applied to the NATIONAL DEBTS.

What annual sum is sufficient to pay off a national debt of 50 millions in 30 years, computing at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum?

By the fifth table, the annuity, which will discharge a debt of 1 l. in 30 years at 4 per cent. is found to be .0578,301
Which being multiplied by _____ 50,000,000

The product will be _____ 2,891,505
Or 2,891,505 l. per ann.

So that suppose a national debt to be 50 millions, and the interest paid 2 millions per ann. or 4 per cent. then will a sinking fund of 891,505 l. per ann. discharge the whole debt in 30 years.

Another example by CASE the 8th, in proof of the preceding. What is the present value of 2,891,505 l. per ann. for 30 years to come, at the rate of 4 l. per cent. per annum?

By the 4th table, 1 l. per ann. 30 years to } 17,2920,333
come, at 4 per cent. is found to be worth }
Which being multiplied by _____ 2,891,505

The product will be _____ 50,000,000

In like manner it will be found, that a sinking fund of 1,200,598 l. per ann. will pay off a debt of 50 millions in 25 years; that 1,679,087 : 10 per ann. will do the same in 20 years, &c.

Another EXAMPLE, by CASE VI.

Suppose ten millions were borrowed, at the rate of 6 l. per cent. per annum, then the fund for payment of the interest must be 600,000 l. per annum. Suppose, after some time, by agreement, the interest should be reduced to 4 l. per cent. per annum,

Quere, In what time will the said fund of 600,000 l. per annum pay off the said debt of ten millions, after the interest is so reduced?

The annuity of 600,000 l. being divided by the principal, 10,000,000, the quotient will be .0600,000, which look for in the Fifth Table, under 4 per cent. and you will find .0600,1298, which is very near what was looked for, even with 28 years.

By the Fourth Table, 1 l. per annum, 28 }
years to come, at 4 per cent. is found to } 16,6630,632
be worth _____ }

Which being multiplied by the annuity of _____ 600,000

The product will be the exact principal, which }
will be paid off in that time _____ } 9,999,838

Which wants about 2162 l. of the ten millions.

And, therefore, two days more than the 28 years will be sufficient to overpay the whole debt.

This shews the great difference between paying a large or a moderate interest for money, since by sinking only 2 per cent. as you find by this example, ten millions are paid off in 28 years, which otherwise would have remained a debt for ever.

N. B. The greater the rate of interest, the sooner, by such reduction, will the debt be paid off: for instance, reducing the interest from 10 to 8 per cent. will discharge a debt in less than 21 years; from 8 to 6, in less than 24 years; whereas, if it be from 6 to 4, it will require something more than 28 years, as above.

For the further application of the tables, and the principles here laid down, see the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], FUNDS.

REMARKS.

This article being pretty large already, and yet containing nothing but what is absolutely necessary, I must defer making such observations on the ordinary methods of computation of INTEREST, which I intended to have done 'till I come to the article MONEY, where we shall endeavour to point out some vulgar errors practised upon these occasions. See also the articles ANNUITY, LEASE, LOTTERY.

Of the INTEREST OF MONEY, considered in a national and political view.

Under the article BARTER we have, from the plainest principles of reason, shewed the nature of money and commodities, considered by way of exchange for each other; also under the articles CASH and CIRCULATION OF MONEY, as well as the article SILVER, we have pursued this point, upon one consistent plan of reasoning, we apprehend. And,

Agreeably

Agreeably to the same principles, we shall now inquire into the interest of money.

Under the preceding articles, we have supposed a fixed quantity of money, and considered the nature of it's circulation, as it is given and received in pledge and barter for all other commodities, between which it fixes a par and proportion of value.

Of the INTEREST of MONEY.

It does not appear that money begets an interest by passing for a pledge in barter, nor that it's exchange for other commodities produces a great quantity of it in a state.

If we consider a proprietor, who keeps his land in his own hands, and employs slaves to procure him the necessaries and conveniences of life, and sets overseers to inspect them, it does not appear, in that economy, that money is necessary to carry it on, since he can attribute so much meat, drink, and cloaths, to maintain them and their children, as he thinks fit, out of the produce of the land and their own labour; as also what he pleases to the overseers, to maintain them on a better foot than the slaves.

But, if the business be carried on by undertakers, money seems absolutely necessary to fix the par and proportion of values; since, in that case, they must barter absolutely their commodities one with another: and it appears, from the inductions made under the foregoing articles, that money, and it's circulation, is only necessary for barter with undertakers.

Now it is plain that the undertakers get a subsistence and profit by the business they undertake (whereby they correspond to the overseers of slaves) and that the said profit is naturally proportionable to the quantity of the business that is carried on under their inspection, and the number of workmen and journeymen they employ; and, since they carry on their business by advances of money for the materials they purchase to work upon, and for the maintenance of their servants, their profits are naturally proportionable to the quantities of money they advance in their business.

A master hatter, who sets up an undertaker, hires a workhouse of a proprietor for his work, buys wool, poil de castor, &c. buys utensils and instruments fit for the work, hires several journeymen for daily wages, and makes all advances of money necessary in that business: as he corresponds to the overseer of slaves, and is the master and inspector of his journeymen; as he lays out his money at an uncertainty, and runs the hazard of losing it; he must get, in the price of his hats, a profit proportionable to his risk, expence, and situation; and so he commonly does, lives pretty well, and maintains a family, and breeds up children; and, if he computes what his advances of money amount to, and what money he has by his profits, which he spends in his family, he will find that he has made 30 or 40 per cent. of his money; he will have sold 10,000 hats, or more, in a year, to a haberdasher of hats, who has paid him money for them, which reimburses his advance, and leaves the said profit, and enables him to go on with his employment, and advance for the ensuing year.

The haberdasher of hats hires a shop from the proprietor of land, advances to the hatter, at one or different times, the value of 10,000 hats, hires servants to attend the sale by retail, and sells his hats gradually to 10,000 different persons: he is also an undertaker, who advances his money at an uncertainty, depends on his customers, pays his servants, and maintains his family, by selling his hats at an advanced price, which also may answer from 10 to 20 per cent. advantage on the money he advances in his undertaking: so that the profits of the hatter, as well as of the haberdasher, are found in the price the consumers give for the hats. Other petty undertakers make cent. per cent. of their money, otherwise they cannot subsist; and, if customers will employ them, they must give them such advanced prices as will enable them to subsist.

Now, if any one who has saved a sum of money, offers to lend it to a journeyman hatter, who earns but his small daily wages, by which the said journeyman may be enabled to set up for a master hatter, and turn undertaker, he would gladly promise him a share of his profits; for, though he were not to clear so much as the master hatter above-mentioned, who had money of his own to set up with, yet it would mend his condition to be an undertaker; and a little experience would determine how much this journeyman, now master hatter, might well allow out of his profits to the person who lends the money, and enables him to set up; and his share of profit would be proportionable to the sum lent, and be called INTEREST of the money.

If this new master hatter, by his skill, industry, and assiduity, works himself into good business, and has many customers, he will be able to increase and augment his undertakings; he will borrow more money to carry them on, out of which he will give a share of profit or an interest; or, if he can buy wool and other materials, payable at a long term, he will give a higher price for them than the current, which is in effect, to give a share of his profit, or an interest.

This seems to be the source and original cause of interest in a state. The wool merchant, or undertaker, gets an interest

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for the price of his wool from the hatter, in the term he gives him for payment; he himself borrows money, at a smaller interest, from some richer undertaker, and takes also time for payment; and this undertaker again gives a smaller interest to the monied man, who commonly lends it to the most solvable and considerable undertakers.

The monied man, who has no hire to pay for workhouses, nor shops, nor no care of the labour, which originally produces interest or profit, gets less for lending, or advancing his money.

As the proprietor of land sets and farms out his land, so the proprietor of money farms out his money, to avoid the trouble of managing it himself, and turning undertaker.

From these considerations it may be inferred, that all commodities which have gone through the hands of undertakers, include in their price an INTEREST of money. That all bills, bonds, and notes, payable at a remote term, suppose an interest, and the proportion of interest is grounded upon the share of profit given by undertakers, and that all interest falls ultimately upon the consumers.

The quantity of money which circulates in a state (regard being always had to the quickness of it's circulation) fixes the price of commodities; and, where there is most money in circulation, or paper that answers the end of money, commodities are dearest, and vice versa; but the quantity of money does not fix the price of interest, which is often higher in countries where commodities are dear, and lower in others where they are cheap: higher in London, and lower in Genoa. In the South-Sea time, all the ready money almost in England was brought to London, and the paper credit vastly accelerated in motion and circulation. Commodities were indeed grown dearer, so far as more money was brought into that channel of barter; yet the interest of money arose to 50 per cent. per annum, instead of falling; the reason was, that almost every body turned undertaker in the South-Sea stock and bubbles; there were more borrowers than lenders. Those undertakers offered a share of the profits they expected to make, to the lenders, just as the journeyman hatter to him who sets him up. This shews, that the greater or lesser quantity of money is not the essential cause of the fall or rise of interest, according to the notion commonly received.

There are two circumstances which seem mostly to contribute to the keeping interest high in a state: the first and principal one is, where noblemen and wealthy proprietors spend their incomes upon tick, and pay the butcher, baker, wine-merchant, &c. slowly. In this circumstance, these undertakers and tradesmen sell their commodities at an advanced price, and get commonly 20 per cent. more than if they sold for ready money: so they not only can afford to pay a good interest, but they want also to borrow money to go on with their undertakings, till they are paid by the proprietors. The second circumstance is, when the proprietors run out; and pay a great interest to supply their extravagancies; this is the source of mortgages; but the price they give undertakers for what they consume upon credit, is the source of higher interest; but, where the state itself anticipates it's revenues, as in cases of war, then interest will naturally rise still higher; and this is the source of public debts.

The contrary reasons fall interest; as when a state is small and frugal, and has but few proprietors in it who are expensive, and where every undertaker has money enough of his own to carry on his business, as in Genoa, Holland, &c.

It seems pretty extraordinary that the interest of money is commonly in China at 30 per cent. It is allowed, that the workmen and labourers in China are satisfied to work for what barely subsists them, at the lowest expence. It is probable that the farmer in China gives the landlord, or proprietor there, five parts in six of the produce of his land: the Chinese are so hardy and skilful naturally, that the learning of trades is little or no expence, and the undertakers and tradesmen, if they get but little more than common labourers, are contented; so that they probably allow the proprietors of the land, and the proprietors of money the most part of their gains; and, as they are all very industrious and intelligent, they are all able and ready to turn undertakers, and the number of borrowers to lenders is probably so great, as to keep up that high interest. It is allowed that almost every thing in China is carried on by undertakers; the very labourers diners are carried to them by undertakers, into the streets and the fields where they work. But to return to the Europeans. When the wealthy expensive proprietors of land do not buy every thing of the butcher, baker, &c. for ready money, though they be punctual in paying them afterwards, yet it is easy to conceive they lose 20 per cent. more or less of their revenues, by that method of living upon credit; and this sum naturally goes to the undertakers and money-lenders, who have each their share of it.

But, when the proprietors exceed their income, they spend their estates, and the money-lenders, or undertakers, get them.

From whence it is apparent, that, though there be a fixed quantity of money in a state, yet the interest of it, which is accumulated constantly, will be found real by mortgages on the said estates, or the absolute possession or property of them.

And so it may happen that particular people may be proprietors of more money than there is actually in the state; but, in that case, they may be considered as subaltern proprietors of a proportionable quantity of the LAND, or of the GOODS and COMMODITIES that are in the state; otherwise their pretensions will end in bankruptcies. The proprietors also of the public debts may be esteemed subaltern proprietors of such part of the public revenues as are appropriated for the payment of their interest; and if these revenues were, through any exigencies of that state, to be applied to other uses, they would find that their money was lost, though, in reality, the money of the nation was not diminished one farthing.

It may be further observed, that the highest price of interest is offered by the lowest undertakers and trademen, whose business and payment is most uncertain; and this high interest commonly comes out of the extravagant price they gave for commodities, payable at time; but, where the undertakers are men of substance, the lenders let them have money at less interest, in regard to the greater confidence in the payment; and where the payment is certain, by mortgages in land, or security in goods and effects, the interest is lowest; and it is this interest is called common interest, and it rises and falls in some proportion with that of money lent upon uncertainty; and, in these several channels of loans upon interest, the price of it always rises or falls in proportion to the number of lenders and borrowers.

The undertakings in a state which are concerned in supplying meat, drink, and cloaths, and other conveniences of life, are the principal channels of the circulation of hard money; as they are all branched into as many minute parts of consumption as there are inhabitants to maintain, they require hard money to circulate them.

There seems no more hard money necessary for the circulation of the sales and purchases of funds, than what pays the interest of them, which commonly goes to the subsistence of the proprietors of them; the rest may be carried on by evaluation and paper credit. See the articles CREDIT [PAPER CREDIT] CURRENCY [PAPER CURRENCY;] see also the article MONEY, and those others to which we have before referred.

OF LEGAL INTEREST.

After the banishment of the Jews there were, from time to time, many laws and ordinances made in this kingdom, as well by the church as state, against usury; but all to little purpose; for persons who wanted money, and were willing to give great interest, always found those who would lend enough to supply their wants, upon good security.

Wherefore, as the practice could not be prevented, the parliament, anno 37 Hen. VIII. cap. 9. made an act to prohibit the taking more than 10 per cent. and great penalties were to be inflicted on those who should take above that rate. This act commenced from the 23rd of January, 1545, and is the first act of parliament in which we find any rate of interest mentioned. In this act, USURY was declared to be a thing unlawful.

In less than seven years, anno 5 Edw. VI. cap. 20. the foregoing statute was repealed; and it was enacted, That no person, by any means, should lend or forbear any sum of money, for any manner of usury or increase, or to be received or hoped for, above the sum lent, and this under severe penalties.

Anno 13 Eliz. cap. 8. the statute of Edw. VI. was repealed, and that of Henry VIII. was revived, with additional clauses, still prohibiting the taking above 10 per cent. This act commenced from the 25th of June, 1571, and in it are these words, That all usury, being forbidden by the law of God, is sin, and detestable.

When this act was depending in the house of commons, there were warm debates about it, in which usury had a great many hard names given it. It was said to be præter naturam, idem ac hominem occidere, proxima homicidio, malum in se, and damnable; as may be seen at large in D'Ewe's Journal of queen Elizabeth's parliaments, p. 171, & seq.

Anno 21 Jac. I. cap. 17. it was made penal to take above 8 per cent. This act commenced from the 24th of June, 1625, and concludes thus: Provided that no words in this law contained shall be construed or expounded to allow the practice of usury in point of religion or conscience.

Anno 12 Car. II. cap. 13. it was made penal to take above 6 per cent. This act commenced from the 29th of September, 1660. Note, the interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. nine years before, by an ordinance passed the 8th of August, 1651, and which commenced the 29th of September following; but this, being made in the time of the usurpation, could be of no force after the restoration of king Charles II.

Anno 12 Annæ, cap. 16. it was made penal to take above 5 per cent. as before observed. This act commenced from the 29th of September, 1714, and remains in force at this time.

R E M A R K S.

From this short account of legal interest, it will not be improper to add, that there is likewise a natural interest of money which may be compared to the market price of other commodities; for money itself may be looked upon as a commodity which, like others, rises and falls, as there is a demand

for it; and, therefore, when the legal interest has been 6 per cent. money enough might be had at 5 or 4½ per cent. on the contrary, since the legal interest has been 5 per cent. 10 per cent. and more, has been given for the loan of money, not for a year, but for a very few days. This seems to shew, that no law can absolutely fix the interest of money. It is to be observed, that, till the year 1625, the legal interest of money was never under 10 per cent. and that, within the space of ninety years after that time, it was reduced to 5 per cent.

OF THE REDUCTION OF THE INTEREST OF MONEY in the PUBLIC FUNDS, made before the last war.

Though we have treated pretty amply of this matter under the heads of CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, and MONEY; yet, as this is a point of great concernment to the interest of the nation in general, nothing should be omitted that tends to elucidate the same more fully: and what we have further to urge, shall be only by way of quere, which, we apprehend, can give offence to none.

Quere 1. Whether the great plea for the reductions of the interest of the public creditors from 6 per cent to 5, and from 5 to 4 per cent. has not been in order to establish a SINKING FUND, for the sure and certain payment, or redemption, of the principal debt; and whether this is not the obvious meaning of those acts of parliament, as well as the sense and spirit of all the debates within doors and without, which relate thereunto, till the alienation of the SINKING FUNDS took place?

2. Whether this fund for the security of payment of the principal debt, was not many years the support of the public credit of the kingdom?

3. Whether the inviolable application of the sinking fund to the primary purpose for which it was intended by parliament, would not, from what has been said under the preceding articles, have put the national debt in a certain way of redemption; and if we had occasion to have contracted some proportion of NEW DEBTS while the OLD was discharging, would it not have proved far more to the interest of the nation to have provided for such proportion of new debt, by new funds, rather than to have alienated the sinking fund, as has been the case?

4. Whether the contrary conduct, according to the sentiments of that ingenious gentleman, the late Archibald Hutcheson, Esq; member of parliament for Hastings in Suffex, does not give just reason to suspect, that there is nothing less in view than the discharge of the public debts? And that all that is intended by lessening of interest, is only to provide NEW FUNDS for such NEW DEBTS as the ill management of the public affairs shall require? And so a fund of three millions, which, at the rate of 6l. per cent. per annum, is sufficient to answer the interest of a debt of fifty millions, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, will be sufficient to answer the interest of a debt of sixty millions; and at the rate of 4l. per cent. per annum, to answer a debt of seventy-five millions, &c.— And may not, adds this gentleman, the national debt be increased to a moiety* more than it at present is, without raising any new taxes on the people? But, if the debt should once increase to so monstrous a bulk, by reduction only of interest to so low a rate, and without any new provision of funds, will there be afterwards a possibility for the discharge thereof? And it is very easy to guess what the consequence would be, if the nation once saw that they were to groan, not for a FEW YEARS, but for EVER, under so insupportable a load: therefore it is impossible to hope, that the proprietors of the funds would concur in the lessening their present income, if they have any grounds left them to suspect that this will be so far from securing to them the repayment of their principal, that, instead thereof, it may be a most effectual method intirely to defeat the same?

* What the national debt was at the time when Mr. Hutcheson wrote, appears by the following letter, which he addressed to his late majesty, January the 14th, 1714.

‘ May it please your MAJESTY,
 ‘ The state of the nation with relation to the public debts
 ‘ and funds, is a subject of great importance to your ma-
 ‘ jesty and your people, and in the very first rank of things
 ‘ which claim a share in your royal majesty's thoughts.
 ‘ From the revolution to this time, the public debts have
 ‘ been continually increasing, and now amount to upwards
 ‘ of forty-five millions: and the funds appropriated for pay-
 ‘ ment of the same do little, if any thing, exceed the yearly
 ‘ interest: and thereby there is a necessity, even in time of
 ‘ peace, of providing yearly for the fleet, guards, and gar-
 ‘ risons, by a tax on land and malt; the revenues formerly
 ‘ applicable to those purposes being in mortgage for the
 ‘ aforesaid debt.
 ‘ Had the nation at first raised, within the year, those sums
 ‘ which they afterwards did, the expence of the last two
 ‘ wars had been annually discharged; no debt had ever
 ‘ been contracted; all the grievous new impositions might
 ‘ now have ceased; nor had there been any further need ei-
 ‘ ther of land or malt-tax, the revenue only existing at the
 ‘ revolution being fully sufficient for all the services of the
 ‘ government in a time of peace.

These, and many other, had been the happy effects of such a management; and no less fatal has the contrary conduct been; for we run in debt to subsist, even in a time of peace, and, by any future war must become intirely bankrupt: and, to prevent this, it seems absolutely necessary to raise, for the future, within the year, the supplies which are wanted in it, and to repair, with all possible dispatch, the misfortunes which are brought upon us by the unhappy expedient of mortgaging, which has been so much resorted to for these last twenty years. In the last parliament I expressed myself fully on this important subject; and do most humbly beg leave to lay before your majesty the thoughts I have had thereon. I am sensible that in this, and all other weighty affairs, your majesty will have the most proper intimations, from those who have so justly the honour to serve your majesty in the chief parts of the administration: but, although the great and rich, out of the abundance of their knowledge and experience, will bring into your treasury presents worthy of themselves, and such as supersede the need of any other, yet I persuade myself, from your majesty's goodness, that this poor mite of mine, being offered with a heart full of loyalty, will also meet with your majesty's gracious acceptance. May the accomplishment of this great work lay a solid foundation for the future glories of your majesty's most happy reign; a foundation, and the only one, on which the wealth and honour of the nation can be firmly built, and raised to the highest pinnacle of perfection, and where, by your majesty will be enabled to give laws to Europe, and to make such a figure therein as no British monarch ever did. These, great Sir, are the most passionate wishes of my soul, having the welfare of my country nearly at heart, and being, as I am obliged to be by the strongest ties of duty, gratitude, and inclination,

May it please your MAJESTY,

Your MAJESTY'S

Most loyal, most obedient, and

Most devoted subject and servant.

5. Whether the reductions of interest on the public debts have not tended to have the effect this gentleman so long since has foretold, is notorious enough?

6. Whether future reductions, even below 3 per cent. which some people affect to give out, may not, if procured upon the like principles as the former, tend more and more to the increase, rather than the discharge of the national debts, is submitted to every man of common sense in the kingdom, who takes experience for his guide?

7. Whether the alienation and anticipation of the sinking fund to other purposes than those originally intended by parliament, has not proved very detrimental to the PUBLIC CREDIT, and contributed to entail such taxes upon our trade and navigation as we are never likely to get rid of, unless that sinking fund, which was proposed to have been the redemption of the nation, is some how speedily redeemed itself, and applied to the primary intention of the legislature?

8. Whether one general equal tax, or duty, laid something in the nature of that so zealously proposed by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. might not be instrumental gradually to redeem all other funds and taxes, may deserve the public consideration? For, if the FUNDS ARE SUFFERED TO CONTINUE IN THE STATE AND CONDITION THEY AT PRESENT ARE, AND NO SALUTARY AND EFFECTUAL MEASURES ARE TAKEN TO MAKE PROVISION AGAINST OUR RUNNING FURTHER IN DEBT ON FUTURE EXIGENCIES OF THE STATE, MAY NOT THE CONSEQUENCE BE MORE FATAL AND CALAMITOUS THAN ANY FRIEND TO HIS COUNTRY WILL CARE TO REFLECT ON?

9. Will not further reduction of interest take away so much of the SPENDING MONEY of the nation; and may not these funds, which constitute the sinking fund, be annihilated? What a blow this might give to the public credit we leave others to consider.

10. Whether, before farther reductions of the interest-money of the public funds are thought of, in order to force people more into trade, as is pretended by some, it does not become the wisdom of the nation so to advance and encourage its commerce and navigation, as to admit of the beneficial employment therein of MANY MORE MILLIONS OF THE NATIONAL CAPITAL?

11. Why have we not public colleges for the improvement of all the commercial arts and sciences, as long since pointed out by the great lord Bacon? Why are private persons left to themselves to advance trade, at their private expence, unaided and unencouraged by the public in numberless respects? Why have we not well-encouraged establishments for the promotion of new mechanical and manufactural arts, which are one great source of commerce?

It is the old thread-bare argument, indeed, that low interest raises the price of lands; but Mr. Locke has so long since shewed the fallacy of this suggestion, that it is needless to repeat it here but briefly: for, when the landholder has transformed himself into the monied-man, and he finds that a large sum at a lower interest is really of no more advantage to him than a smaller sum at a greater interest, where will be his benefit? If lands

will sell for 20 years purchase, when interest is at 5 per cent. can it be supposed, was interest reduced to 1 per cent. or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. that the price of land would rise to 100 or 200 years purchase? However the value of land might rise upon the NATURAL reduction of interest, the increase of money, and high price of commodities, and without the reduction of their consumption, does it follow that lands will rise at all from the UNNATURAL reduction of all these particulars? Nay, unless it can be proved that diminishing the consumption will make the farmer sell more of the produce of his lands, and forcing down the interest of money, by compulsive measures, will produce greater plenty of money, and lowering the price of our goods will turn the ballance of commerce more in our favour; unless, I say, these can be demonstratively proved, lands must necessarily fall, and the landholder experience a REAL loss for his IMAGINARY gain. Provided money should become so plenty as to yield but 1 or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest, will not the price of labour, and all sorts of materials necessary for land improvements, rise in proportion? So that any improvement of an estate would then cost five or ten times as much as when the money was at 5 per cent. and if, in conformity to the scheme of further reduction, the landholder must reduce the price of his commodities as the expence of his produce increased, will this be any encouragement to the culture and melioration of land?

To such land proprietors, indeed, who have contracted debts, the lowering of interest seems to be some advantage; but is not this advantage exactly ballanced in the public accounts, by an equal loss to the mortgagees? And, if one fourth part of the usual profits of the personal estates, lent upon mortgages, be deducted from the whole of their ordinary annual expence, must not this occasion a considerable diminution in the consumption and value of the mortgager's commodities? And will not the public lose as much, or more, in their revenues arising from the consumption of commodities among us, as may be saved by the reduction of interest? may not likewise the proprietors of lands be obliged to furnish from their own revenues those supplies for the service of the government which they hitherto have been furnished by our expences?

Suppose this wonderful expedient of reduction of interest would really help the landholder the more easily to get rid of his debts, which does not appear to be the case; for what he gained on the one hand he must lose on the other: suppose, however, that the landholder, from such a motive, should be decoyed into further projects of this nature, how would it encourage him to industry, and the improvement of his lands? A politic project to help him off with his debts may rather make him indolent and supine than industrious; for, the easier men pay their debts, the easier they contract fresh; and, therefore, this may be a good expedient to run the landholder further in debt, but can have no tendency to encourage him to improve his estate.

That this fashionable doctrine of plundering the public creditors, to ease the landholder, is a mistake in our politics, hence further appears. I will suppose myself to have lent the public a sum of money, when interest was at 6 per cent: which brought me an annual income of 500 pounds, and now I am reduced to 3 per cent. and receive but 250l. a year, instead of 500l. and the other 250l. goes to pay myself my principal. In this case, it will be allowed that I must spend 250l. a year less, or be ruined by breaking into my capital; and, if so, I can take but one half of what I could have done before, of the butcher, baker, brewer, clothier, and all those who take of the farmer the produce of his land could do no more: if so, the farmer cannot possibly sell the same quantity of his produce as before, consequently his profit cannot be so much upon that lesser, as it would have been upon a greater quantity; whereby he becomes incapable of paying the same rent to his landlord.

But money and goods must always meet, otherwise dealings of all kinds must cease; and this is the reason why markets rise and fall. A short instance will illustrate my meaning: suppose that two bushels of corn are brought to market to be sold, and there come ten shillings in money to buy corn, it will there sell for five shillings a bushel; but, if there come but five shillings to market, corn must sell for half a crown a bushel, or the farmer carry home his corn, and the other his money. But this cessation of dealing cannot be of continuance: for the farmer will soon find himself under a necessity of complying, when he wants those other necessaries of life his farm will not afford him, nor can be had without money, or when his landlord's pressing occasions will not admit longer forbearance of rent.

Experience evinces that the reductions hitherto made have greatly affected land; and, if we carry them further, we shall certainly repent of our policy.

This lessening the circulating money of the nation will soon bring down the price of all commodities; for, according to the consumption of all goods, and the occasion there is for them, the price will rise. When money is wanting, men consume less; they are better economists, and make every thing last longer, which lessens the consumption of the native commodities, and makes the price of them to fall; and, if the price of native commodities fall, the rents of the lands will sink: for the tenants cannot pay the same rent when the

corn and wool, and other commodities which are the produce of land, fall to half the value.

As the wealth and power of a nation depend on trade, and trade on money, so, to be powerful and wealthy in proportion to other nations, we must have money in proportion to them; for the best laws, without money, can neither employ the people, improve the product, or advance trade and manufactures. The specie of this kingdom bearing little proportion to the magnitude of our commerce, we have been obliged to have recourse to it's representative, credit, which secures the payment of money. Had we therefore, no paper effects in circulation, we must have more money, or trade must be cramped for want of it. If credit in all respects answers the purposes of money, it cannot be of unequal estimation, and lands and trade must be equally advantaged by it.

Many have suggested that stocks are chimerical riches, because of an equivalent of real specie, to answer them, not existing in the state. To this it may be answered, the value of all the houses in London, put together in one aggregate total, exceeds, perhaps, the value of all the specie in the kingdom: and all the gold which still lies hid in Peru would not be sufficient to answer the value of all the lands in England: yet does it follow from thence that the value of houses and lands is chimerical? It may with equal reason be urged, that houses, lands, and commodities, are imaginary riches, as stocks are, because they can never be realized and converted into money. What is it keeps up lands to their just value, be they ever so high, but because people never sell them, in order to realize or hoard up, but only to make settlements? They generally content themselves with enjoying the income of their lands, which, therefore, are so rarely put to sale, that there are always as many buyers as sellers. Wherefore ought we not to entertain the same notion of stocks and annuities as we do about other estates? Nay, those who are proprietors of more money than there is actually in the state, may justly be considered as subaltern proprietors of a proportionate quantity of the lands, their produce, and all commodities in the nation, as before intimated.

And the proprietors of the public debts may be justly esteemed as subaltern proprietors of such parts of the public revenues, as are appropriated for the payment of their interest; and, therefore, both principal and annuity of the national creditors are as real riches to the individuals, and consequently to the nation, as it's lands and houses, and their annual produce, and the value of all commodities are. For these are absolutely mortgaged by the public for their interest, till the redemption of the principal. Mistake me not, that I would insinuate that our national debts are so much additional wealth to the nation; for, then, the more we increased our debts, the more we increased our riches: no, what I would be understood to mean is no more, than that, as the whole property of land and commodities of the public are absolutely engaged for the principal and interest of our debts, so, in the estimate of national wealth, the value of the former must be diminished by that of the latter: but so far as these riches are due from the public to the creditors of the public, and the creditors, as members of the public, are also indebted to themselves as creditors of the public, this debt is no diminution of the wealth of the nation: what indeed is due to foreigners, must be deducted to find the net balance of our riches. Whence it follows, that the properties of our stockholders ought to be considered as so much REAL property as well as that of the landholders; and, therefore, they are intitled to an equal regard from the legislature.

REMARKS since the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE in 1763.

Every one will discern, who attends to what he reads, that all we have urged under this article, of interest, in relation to the necessity of lessening the public debts and taxes before the commencement of the last war, will hold good still far more strongly at present, seeing that war has so greatly increased them. And if any thing should induce SPAIN and FRANCE to a contravention of the peace, so suddenly as some are inclined to believe, must not the motive be, the conception which those potentates entertain of the bad state of our finances? If they were convinced that this kingdom was in a condition to enter into a fresh war with them so soon after the peace, they would hardly be so much their own enemy, as to provoke us to another rupture. But their conduct, if it has not been misrepresented, seeming to signify, that they do not think us in a capacity to resume the war, it is no way impossible but they might be tempted to draw the sword soon again: and as sure as they do, I will presume to say, so sure will they again experience themselves mistaken. When we made the peace of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, it was said to be, because that we were unable to carry on the war longer; and had not this been credited by France and Spain, they would hardly have so soon again prepared for, and forced us into another. What deceived them then was, their ignorance of the resources of

this nation, wherein all their spies and emissaries were not able to give them right information: and I will venture now to declare, and inform France and Spain, that SUCH A CHANGE MAY BE IN THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REVENUES OF ENGLAND, AND HER PAST CONDUCT, AND THOSE VERY SOON AND EASILY ACCOMPLISHED, as will put this nation into a capacity to enter into another war; a war that will prove more fatal to them than the last; for I will venture to foretel, that WHATEVER CONQUESTS WE SHALL MAKE FROM SPAIN AND FRANCE, THEY WILL FOR EVER MORE BE DEPRIVED OF, and THE PRACTICE OF RESTORATION WILL END WITH ANOTHER WAR.—Whether we are credited in this or no, let it be remembered, that our pre-judgment, with relation to what has happened, ought to give them no mean opinion of our present pre cognition, and the warning we have hereby given.

INVERNESSHIRE in Scotland. It contains that part of Murray-Land which lies near the town of Inverness, together with Badenoch, Lochaber, and the fourth part of Ross; so that 'tis bounded with Ross and Cromarty on the north, Murray Land on the east, the Western Sea on the west, and Lorn, Broadalbin, and Athol on the south. It has plenty of iron ore, some woods of fir ten miles long, and large woods of oak.

The country of **BADENOCH** has part of Murray-Land on the north, Lochaber on the west, Athol on the south, and part of Murray-Land and the Braes of Mar on the east.

This tract abounds with deer.

That part of the shire, called **LOCHABER**, has Badenoch on the north, Athol and part of Badenoch on the south, and a mountainous tract on the west towards the coast. It abounds with pasturage, woods, goats and deer; and has some veins of iron, but not much corn, being reckoned one of the most barren countries in Scotland, yet 'tis very pleasant; and for multitudes of fish, both salt and fresh, scarce any country in Scotland can compare with it.

INVERNESS, the shire town, is seated at the bottom of the Frith of Murray, where it receives the river Ness from Lochness. It lies conveniently for trade, of which it has a considerable share, with a harbour for small ships open to the Frith. It is a clean, well built, and pleasant town, has two very good streets, with coffee-houses and taverns, and the people are more polite than in most towns of Scotland.

INVOICE, or **INVOYCE**, an account of merchandizes, with their value, customs, provisions, charges, &c. sent by one merchant to another in foreign countries. See the article **BOOKS** [MERCHANTS BOOKS.]

REMARKS.

The goods, for which an invoice is made, are either for the fender's own account, and the account of the person to whom they are sent and consigned, or for his account in company. In which ever case it happens to be, all care should be taken to purchase such goods at the best hand; and the nearer that is done to the maker or the manufacturer, the cheaper they are bought; by reason that every one through whose hands such commodities pass, will have a profit upon them; which enhances the price, and brings them dearer to foreign markets.

The less time of credit also, for which they are bought, or, if for ready money, at proper seasons, they are generally bought at a cheaper rate, and are more likely to turn to a better account.

The invoice is made out in the money of the country where the merchandizes are purchased, or from what country they are sent.

This account is intended for the government of the seller, that he may so dispose of such commodities as to leave a reasonable profit, suitably to the time that principals for whose account they are, may be out of their money.

'Tis customary, however, for an additional charge to be made upon invoices, in order to procure a larger profit upon their sales.

If they are for the persons own account, who sends these goods to foreign countries to be sold by commission; this sometimes has a good effect, especially if the goods are well bought at first hand, and for ready money, or for small credit, and of the maker, &c. And on the other hand,

If this is done injudiciously, it sometimes retards the sales of such goods, because the factor, not being able to make such a profit as his principal may expect from the face of the invoice, he jets them lie by frequently till he can; which is too often rather attended with loss than gain: for small profits and quick returns, say the most experienced traders, is the life of commerce, and the support of a trader's credit, let him deal at home either for time or otherwise.

And if such merchandizes be bought, by commission, for the account of a foreign correspondent, the cheaper they are bought, and the more moderate the invoice appears, the more commissions such a factor is likely to obtain; for, by not attempting to grow rich too soon, he is the more certain to become so. Or, if such goods be for account in company,

the better they are bought, and the nearer the invoice is made out to the truth, the greater credit, and consequently the greater gain, in time is brought to the agent.

If a merchant buys goods for his own account and risque, and consigns them to foreign correspondents for sales, he should likewise consider, when he may certainly expect his returns of the net proceeds. And, unless a trader thoroughly knows his correspondent, and can absolutely depend upon his honour and punctuality in business, he runs great hazards; he may irrecoverably strain his credit; for one of the greatest delicacies, in conducting foreign traffic, is to make a proper choice of your correspondents: and this is no easy matter.

The young and unexperienced trader, by over confidence, may soon be undone. During the time of his clerkship or apprenticeship, a young man cannot be too attentive to the conduct of his master's correspondents; to discern whether they are men of punctuality, and take wise measures to uphold their commercial honour and credit, for such are fit for them to have dealings with, after the expiration of their servitude.

Skilful traders, who have large concerns in the same way, with divers correspondents, will easily discover whether they are imposed upon by an invoice; and those who promote their interest the most, may be sure to have the greater share of their commission-business.

For more matter on this essential particular, see the articles ACCOUNTANT, ACCOUNT OF SALES, APPRENTICESHIP, BOOK-KEEPER, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, where abundance of matter very interesting both to the foreign and inland trader will be found; and more, in this work in general, than is to be met with, we will humbly presume to say, in any other whatsoever: for we have endeavoured to reduce the doctrine of commercial business to a regular science; and as such it ought to be studied, before young gentlemen hazard their fortunes therein.

I have now before me a surprizing variety of invoices and accounts of sales, from the greatest houses of trade throughout Europe; together also with an extraordinary variety of real mercantile letters, wrote to and from the most judicious and experienced merchants in the world: I have likewise before me the JOURNAL and the LEDGER of the most universal merchants; that this, or perhaps any other, nation ever produced: they are the books of several of the most eminently distinguished merchants; and those in particular of old Sir John Lambert, Bart. whose mercantile negotiations are almost beyond the pitch of credit: he had also the remittances of a considerable proportion of the money expended by this kingdom, in the wars of queen Anne. Nor was there scarce a merchant in all Europe, any thing conspicuous for his dealings, who was contemporary with him, that he had not accounts with. And this great merchant seems to have excelled in one art above all the rest, which is the art of inventing, contriving, and forming advantageous business for himself, when others, less profound in mercantile negotiations, could scarce find any thing to do. This appears as well from his invoices, as other parts of his accounts. See also the CONTENTS of our Dictionary, printed at the beginning of the first volume, and our General Preface to the second volume.

IRELAND, lies between longitude 5. 40, and 10. 37 west from London; and betwixt north latitude 51. 16, and 55. 20. 'Tis an island, separated from part of England and Scotland, by St. George's, or the Irish channel on the east; has the Scots Western Islands on the north and north-east, the mouth of St. George's channel on the south, and the Atlantic ocean on the west.

Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth but 159, gives it an area of 27,457 square miles. Sir James Ware makes it above 200 from north to south, and 120 from east to west. 'Tis of an oblong form, somewhat oval, and near as long as 'tis broad; but, if we consider all the various windings and turnings, scarce any thing can be imagined to be more irregular. 'Tis reckoned to be about half as large as England.

The air is much the same with those parts of Britain that lie under the same parallel, only in several parts of this kingdom 'tis more gross and impure, by reason of the many lakes and marshes; yet 'tis said that no frogs, moles, snakes, nor any venomous animal, can live in it, and that the wood of it's forests breeds neither worms nor spiders. 'Tis, however, generally speaking, so temperate a climate, that the inhabitants are not forced to fly to the shade in the summer, or to the fire in the winter; but being so much cooler in the summer, and warmer in the winter than England, 'tis therefore judged not so proper for ripening the corn and fruits.

The soil, according to Dr. Beale, physician to the state, who published his account in 1657, is naturally fitter for pasturage than tillage, the grass in some places being so long and sweet withal, as would suffice their cattle, if they were not restrained; and in other places their soil is so very fat, as not to admit of being dunged. Though a great deal of wood has been cut down to make charcoal for the iron works, and many hundred acres of bogs drained of late years, yet several large woods are still remaining in Ulster, &c. and other

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parts are still incumbered with various bogs of different sorts, the deepest of which are not passable in summer, except such as have some paths of firm ground, which are known only to the natives.

Here are a great many iron mines, but they have been chiefly worked by the English, who have been great gainers by them since the reign of queen Elizabeth. Of these there are three sorts, the rock mine, the bog mine, and the mountain mine. The first, lying near the surface, is dug out with little charge; the ore is full of good tough metal, but in melting 'tis mixed with other sorts of ore, because 'tis too harsh of itself, melts too suddenly, and chokes the furnace. The second sort is hewn with little trouble from the rocks; 'tis not so rich as the former, and the iron is so brittle, that 'tis scarce fit for any thing but plough-shares, unless it be mixed with other sorts. The mountain ore is tough, of a middle substance between the other two, and, when the iron is well smelted and refined, 'tis frequently as good as Spanish iron.

Here are many quarries of free-stone, marble, slates, flint, and sea-coal, but their principal fuel is turf; in towns near the coast, indeed, they are supplied with coal from England and Scotland. Their chief commodities for export are cattle, hides, furs, tallow, butter, cheese, honey, wax, salt, linen cloth, timber, pipe-staves, wool, and woollen cloth, coarse rugs, and shag mantles, freezes, ratteens, camblets, fowl, variety of fish, as salmon, herring, &c. some lead, tin, and iron. Here are also some glass-works, but they have their sand for making it from England.

There are many medicinal springs near Dublin, of the nature of spaws. There are others, which the superstitious vulgar call holy-wells, and ascribe great cures to them, because dedicated to their Romish saints.

The chief of their rivers are, 1. The noble Shannon, which rises in the province of Connaught, divides it from Leinster and Munster, and, after running through various lakes, falls into the sea betwixt Kerry-Point and Loch-Head, after a course of 145 miles, besides turnings. The bay, at it's mouth, is about 10 miles broad. The river is in most parts wide and deep, but not navigable by ships above 50 miles, by reason of a cataract 6 miles above Limerick. It has several fruitful pleasant islands in it, a fertile soil on both banks, and receives several lesser rivers.

The Liffie, though not near so considerable as the former, yet, because it graces the capital city of the kingdom, it is called the princess of the Irish rivers. It rises in mountains about 10 miles south of Dublin, but has so many windings, that the course of it is betwixt 40 and 50 miles before it falls into the bay of Ringsend.

The next river that deserves mention is the Boyne, celebrated for the victory gained on it's bank by king William III. of immortal remembrance. It rises in King's County, not far from the fountains of the Barrow; falls into the sea at Drogheda Bay, but it's navigation far into the country is stopped by wears.

The Barrow and Ouze, two rivers in the province of Leinster; the former navigable by large boats, the latter by small ones, join a little above the town of Ros, and afterwards mixing with the Sure, fall into Waterford-Haven. The Slane falls into the harbour of Wexford. The principal river in Ulster that falls into the sea, is the Band or Bafin, which is not navigable many miles, because of a cataract within three miles of Loughneagh, from whence this river falls into the sea a little below Coleraine.

There are also numerous loughs in Ireland, both of salt and fresh water, of which the latter are properly inlets of the sea at the mouths of rivers. The chief of these are, (1.) Lough-Ern, in the province of Ulster, which is formed of two spacious loughs, with a channel or river betwixt them, and runs into Donnegal-Bay, below Bailly-Shannon. In this lough there are several islands that are inhabited, and contain eight or nine hundred acres of land, where is good fowling and fishing, and others are left for pasture.

(2.) Loughneagh in the north-east part of Ulster, falls into the seas by the river Bann below Coleraine.

MUNSTER, is in form of a long square, extending 130 miles in length from Waterford-Haven in St. George's channel, to the west point in Kerry near Dingle; and 120 in breadth from the north of Tipperary to Baltimore in Cork, but, from Baltimore to the north of Kerry, 'tis but 68 miles.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays and havens, and opulent towns, and the soil in some parts hilly and woody, but the vallies are adorned with pleasant meadows and fruitful fields of corn. The most plentiful commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fish.

It is divided into 5 counties, which are subdivided into 52 baronies.

WATERFORD COUNTY, is 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and, though in some parts 'tis pleasant and fruitful, yet 'tis for the most part mountainous.

WATERFORD, the only city of the county, was reckoned the second in the kingdom before Cork outvied it. 'Tis as conveniently situated for trade as most ports; it has a good harbour, and ships of burden come close to it's quay. Galway

contends with this city for it's priority, and claims the preference in point of trade, though others think Waterford exceeds it, as driving a considerable trade with England, which Galway cannot have, by reason of it's situation.

TALLAGH, or TALLOO, near the borders of Cork, situate in a fruitful vale, near the river Bride, which, being navigable from hence to Youghall, renders this a place of good trade.

CORK COUNTY, has Waterford on the east, Kerry on the west, Limerick on the north, and the Vergivian Ocean south and south-east. 'Tis divided into 15 baronies, and is partly woody, mountainous, and fenny; yet it has many good towns, abounds in fine rivers and good harbours, is both rich and populous, and the inhabitants industrious. A copper mine has lately been discovered near Cork, which is likely to turn to very good account.

YOUGHALL, or YOUGHILL, is the first considerable sea-port next to Waterford, lies at the mouth of the Broadwater, and is a place of good trade. The convenience of the harbour, which has a good well-fenced kay, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draws so many merchants hither, that the town is well inhabited and rich.

CORK CITY, is large, populous, and wealthy. The river Lee passes by it. The people here have so greatly improved their estates by trade, since the former troubles to which this place was liable, that it is judged to be the richest city in Ireland, except Dublin. 'Tis the chief port for mercantile business in the kingdom; there being more beef, butter, and tallow, shipped off here, perhaps, than in all the other ports of the kingdom put together, as well for France as the British colonies, and butter in particular for Flanders and Holland. This commerce occasions a great resort of shipping always to this port, particularly those bound from England to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Islands, which put in here to complete their lading.

KINSALE, is a neat, handsome, and wealthy town, in a fruitful soil, near the mouth of the river Bandon, with a trade the most considerable of any on this side of the island, next to Cork. Many good ships belong to it, and a great quantity of provisions is exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the British Islands in the West-Indies. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay, with a light-house that guides the ships in the night to the mouth of the river.

CAPE CLEAR is an island, where a castle is kept for the security of ships, which shelter themselves under it's cannon, with these peculiar advantages, because of it's being far advanced into the sea, and because 'tis also an opening to the south coast, from whence the principal trade of Ireland by sea is carried on.

DOWNHAM'S, or DUNMANUS-BAY, is a large and commodious retreat for ships in a storm. So likewise is **BANTRY-BAY**.

KERRY COUNTY, has that of Cork on the south and east, Limerick on the north, and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. Though in many places there is good corn and grass, 'tis in general a woody and mountainous county. 'Tis divided into eight baronies.

DINGLE stands near the end of a peninsula, near a bay of it's own name, with several good harbours, very convenient for trade.

SMERWIC, or ST. MARY-WIC, has a safe road for ships. So also has

CASTLEMAIN, a town with a tolerable harbour on the river Mana.

MAIR, or KILMAIRE RIVER, is a bay on the south-east corner of the county, and has a safe harbour for the greatest ships.

LIMERICK COUNTY, has that of Tipperary on the east, Cork on the south, a part of Tipperary and the Shannon river, which parts it from Clare at Thomond, on the north, and Kerry on the west. 'Tis fruitful, even without the charge of manure, in all sorts of corn and rape, has a large breed of cattle, and is well inhabited, but has few remarkable towns. 'Tis divided into 11 baronies.

LIMERICK CITY, is elegant, rich, and populous. Though here are some merchants to whom shipping belongs, yet 'tis not so famous for it's wealth as it's strength. The chief trade it used to drive was to France; but a pernicious one to the fair trader, is the carrying out wool to be manufactured in France, and importing wine and brandy by stealth.

TIPPERARY COUNTY, is bounded on the west with that of Limerick and the river Shannon, on the east with the Queen's County and that of Kilkenny, on the south with those of Cork and Waterford, and on the north and north-east with King's County, and the territory of the O-Carols. The south part is very fruitful, produces much corn, and is well inhabited. The west part is watered by the long course of the river Glafon. These two parts abound in good pastures and fine sheep-walks, and are furnished with the largest and best flocks in Ireland. The north part is but barren and mountainous.

CASSIL, or CASHEL, is the chief town or city of this county. **CONNAUGHT PROVINCE**, is separated from that of Leinster on the east by the Shannon, which also parts it from Mun-

ster on the south and south-east, has the province of Ulster, and a part of the Western Ocean on the north and north-west, and the main ocean on the west. In some places 'tis verdant and pleasant, in others gloomy and dangerous, being pretty thick set with bogs and woods. The soil, however, is fruitful enough, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of considerable note, besides the Shannon. 'Tis divided into six counties, and subdivided into 51 baronies.

THOMOND, or the county of CLARE, is one of the six. 'Tis hilly and irregular, but not deficient in good pasture, either for feeding or breeding, and produces the best horses in the kingdom. The soil is likewise good in tillage for corn and rape. It's trade is much promoted by the river Shannon.

GALLWAY COUNTY, has part of Roscommon, King's County, and Tipperary on the east and south-east, the main ocean on the west, Mayo, Meath, and Roscommon on the north and north-east, and Thomond on the south. 'Tis the largest county but one in Ireland. It is divided into 17 baronies. It being much of a warm limestone soil, it abounds in general with corn, pasture, and cattle.

GALLWAY TOWN, or CITY, stands on an island by the fall of the Lough Corbes, into a bay of it's own name. 'Tis a strong, elegant, and opulent city, the capital of the west part of Ireland; 'tis not inferior to any of the rest in wealth, it being so well situated for commerce, not only to France and Spain, but to the West-Indies, on a large, safe, and delicate harbour, called the Bay of Gallway, capable of containing a large fleet of shipping, that it has been esteemed as the greatest place of trade in all the kingdom. Gallway Bay has numberless harbours and roads on every side, and is one of the noblest entrances in the world, were there a suitable conflux of ships and trading towns; but there seems no occasion for more than what belongs to Gallway itself. 'Tis sheltered at the mouth of the south isles of Arran, through which there are three passages for ships, besides the north passage at the mouth of the bay. In the season here is a very considerable herring-fishery.

BATTERBAY HARBOUR, is as fine a one as most in Europe for it's extent, and has good anchorage without rock or shoal; but here are no towms, ships, or commerce, which is the fate of all this coast.

EYRE'S COURT, is a pretty thriving English plantation.

MAYO COUNTY, has the sea upon the west and north, is bounded on the south and south-east by the county of Gallway, by Roscommon on the east, and on the north-east by Slego. On the side next the sea 'tis mountainous and rough, but on other parts has pasturage, and is well stocked with cattle, deer, honey, and watered with variety of large and delightful lakes.

In the north-west corner of the county, there's a good salmon-fishery.

ROSCOMMON COUNTY, has Mayo and Gallway with the river Sue betwixt them on the west, King's County and part of Gallway on the south and south-east, Slego and Leitrim on the north and north-east, and Longford, East Meath, and part of King's County on the east, with part of Leitrim, from which it is separated by the Shannon. 'Tis for the most part a champaign and fruitful country, which, with little cultivation, yields plenty of corn, grass, and is well stocked with cattle. It is divided into 6 baronies.

CASTLEREAGH is a very improving plantation, and a good market-town.

SLEGO, or SLIGO, lies full upon the sea to the north and north-west, where it is also bounded by the river Trobis, which springs from the Lough-Ern in Ulster. It has Mayo on the west, part of that county and Roscommon on the south, and the county of Leitrim on the east. Great part of this county is mountainous and boggy, but it's lower grounds and vallies have a good soil, both for the ploughman and grazier.

SLEGO, a borough and market-town, lies on a bay of the same name, and is the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ships of 200 tons may come up to the town-kay. The trade here is not considerable, though much better than in any of the other places beyond it.

LEITRIM COUNTY, has Slego and part of Roscommon on the west and south-west, Donnegal-Bay on the north, Longford in Leinster on the south-east, and the counties of Fermanagh and Caven in Ulster, on the east and north-east. 'Tis a wild mountainous country, and full of rank grass, which feeds an infinite number of cattle: Camden says, that above 120,000 have been grazing in this narrow county at one time. 'Tis divided into 5 baronies.

LEITRIM, reckoned the chief town, stands near the Shannon, which has it's head in this county, but 'tis decayed.

ULSTER PROVINCE, is encompassed on three sides with the sea, having St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea on the east, the main Atlantic on the west, and the Deucalidonian Ocean on the north: on the south it is bounded by the province of Leinster, and on the south-west with that of Connaught.

Its air is healthful and temperate, being cooled with various winds in summer, and qualified by moderate rains in winter. It has many lakes and rivers that abound with fish, many thick woods, plenty of corn and grafs, and store of sheep and black cattle. Here are more falmon in some rivers of this province, than in any other in Europe.

Its principal counties, remarkable for any thing of trade, are, **DONNEGAL**, which has some mountains, and a coarse soil, but is generally plain and fertile. It abounds with harbours, and has 5 baronies.

LOUGH-SWILLY, has an island called Inch, and abounds with fish.—Here 1000 fail of good ships may ride safe for 20 miles together, yet here is no trade; they have, indeed, a few fishing boats, for catching herrings and falmon, of which they have great plenty.

SHEEP-HAVEN, is also a bay with a very good harbour to the west. All the north-west part of Ireland is full of excellent bays, roads, and harbours, but yet have little commerce.

LONDONDERRY COUNTY, is a pretty champaign country, and very fruitful. It has the river Bann, famous for it's falmon.

LONDONDERRY, the capital of the county, is the center of trade for this part of the country, and is a good port; for ships of the greatest burden go up without interruption, which renders it one of the most commodious harbours in Ireland. There is abundance of shipping belonging to this city, whose merchants not only drive a great trade in the herring-fishery, but have a considerable share in many other branches of foreign trade, especially to the West-Indies, for which they are very advantageously situated, being open to the Northern and Western Ocean: and with regard to the city of London itself, 'tis judged, that Londonderry is more than half way on the voyage to the West-Indies, but especially to Newfoundland or New-England, considering the difficulty of the passage, the uncertainty of winds, the hazards of shoals and shores, the danger from enemies in time of war, the waiting for convoys and other accidents; so that, considering such almost unavoidable remoras, a ship from Londonderry bound to America, supposing it to set out exactly at the same time as another bound from London, shall often arrive there before the London ship is got clear of the soundings, and arrive in the latitude of Londonderry: for from hence a ship is no sooner out of the river, but she is immediately in the open sea, and has but one course to the banks of Newfoundland, or to New-England, and so to any other part of North America, with very little variation.

LOUGH-FOYL, which serves it instead of a road, is a bay of the sea 14 miles long, and 7 where broadest. There is a channel broad enough for ships to pass in 14 or 15 fathom water, and it has 8 or 10 fathom at the mouth.

COLERAIN, on the east side of the mouth of the river called the Great Bann, near the borders of Antrim. It has very little trade, except for it's falmon-fishery, which is very beneficial.

ANTRIM COUNTY, has that of Londonderry on the west, part of Armagh on the south, the county of Down on the south-east, the Deucalidonian Ocean on the north, and St. George's Channel on the east. 'Tis pretty fruitful and populous, though incumbered to the north with bogs and marshes. 'Tis divided into 9 baronies.

BELFAST, is the chief town and port of all this part of Ireland, as well for the elegance of the place and number of it's inhabitants, as for it's wealth, trade, and shipping. Ships come up to Cormoyl-Road, which is a safe commodious harbour, below the town, with a good depth of water. There is a very considerable trade from this port to Scotland, particularly to Glasgow.

TYRONE, or **TIR-OEN COUNTY**, has Londonderry on the north, the river Liffey and part of Fermannah on the west, part of Antrim and part of Fermannah and Armagh on the south and south-west. Though great part of it is rough and mountainous, yet in other parts 'tis not inferior to many counties in the kingdom for richness of soil and good pastures. 'Tis divided into 4 baronies.

LOUGH-EAUGH, is a beautiful place in this county. 'Tis about 30 miles in extent, and full of fish, and the banks are variegated with shady groves, meadows always verdant, and rich corn fields adorned with gentle hills and pleasant brooks.

FERMANNAGH COUNTY, has Leitrim on the south-west, Donnegal on the north-west, Tir-Oen on the north and north-east, Monaghan on the east, and Cavan on the south. 'Tis full of large well inhabited islands, shaded with thick woods, and so abounds with falmon, trout, and pike, of a size incredibly large, that the fishermen's nets are not able to hold the draught which they sometimes take.

CAVEN COUNTY, has Fermannagh on the north, Longford and West Meath on the south, Leitrim on the west, part of Monaghan, Meath, and Louth on the east. 'Tis divided into 7 baronies. It has several pleasant lakes, and though much fenny pasture and coarse land, yet has a rich fertile soil in other parts, well planted and improved.

ARMAGH COUNTY, is separated in part from that of Down, on the east by the river Newry, has Tyrone and Monaghan on the west, the Lough-Neath on the north, and Louth on the south. It's soil is said to be richer and more fruitful than

any in Ireland, and as well improved in all parts, except a ridge of coarse mountains, called the Fews.

SURGAN, has a thriving plantation, noted for a linen manufacture.

DOWN COUNTY, is bounded on the east and south by St. George's Channel, on the west by the county of Armagh, and on the north by that of Antrim.

NEWRY, a borough and market-town. Since the settlement of the kingdom of Ireland, it is so improved in trade, and consequently wealth and buildings, that 'tis the largest and most-trading town in the county, to which the increase of the linen manufacture hath greatly contributed; and it is likely to receive additional advantages, by means of the new navigable canal, lately promoted by parliamentary encouragement, for the benefit of the inland navigation.

ROSS TREVOR, a village on the north side of Carlingford-Harbour, has a kay for ships, which safely ride at anchor near the shore, a salt-house, and a pottery for white earthen-ware, made of the noted fine potter's clay found near Carrickfergus, and exported from thence to foreign parts.

KIRKEEL, a village extending some miles along the coast, has a good soil, the country well inhabited, and shoals of herrings.

RATHERYLAND, is one of the greatest marts for linen in this county.

KILLOGH, or **PORT ST. ANNE**, on the north side of St. John's Point. There is a secure passage either to the east or west of it. Opposite to Coney Island, the harbour on both sides affords good lying for shipping of 150 tons or under. Here is a charter-school for the advancement of the linen manufacture and salt-works: but it's principal traffic is, at present, in the exportation of barley, and importation of most sorts of commodities consumed in the adjacent country.

At **INCH ISLAND**, the linen manufacture spreads, as it does in most other principal places of this county.

STRANGFORD, an ancient town. Though, for the convenience of trade, the collector of the customs is removed to Down, yet he is obliged to keep a clerk here, who makes entries of all ships that do not proceed to Down. The lake here abounds with various kinds of excellent fish, as bass, mullet, whiteing, large sea-trout, oysters, lobsters, shrimps, &c. and there are great quantities of kelp burnt on the islands in the lakes, and on the stony flat coasts.

CASTLEWARD-BAY, is particularly famous for the discovery of the first marle in the county, which hath proved of extraordinary benefit in the cultivation of their lands here.

PORTAFERRY, is a town of some trade, and abounds with excellent fish.

DONAGHADEE, is the port where the Scotch packets land. By the confluence of passengers, it hath obtained some share of trade, and has a collector of the customs and excise.

BANGOR, spins considerable quantities of fine linen yarn.

NEW-TOWN, pleasantly situated at the north-end of the lake Strangford. 'Tis famous for it's fine diaper, and has a tolerable harbour.

KILLELEAGH, a town situate over an arm of the lake of Strangford. Here the linen manufacture has spread to advantage, and the delicate white thread made in it is remarkable.

BALLYNAHINCH, stands on a small river, near the center of the county. The papists, being numerous here, induced the incorporated society for promoting English Protestant schools to settle a charter working-school at this place, for the education of poor Popish children of both sexes in the Protestant religion, who are constantly employed in labour, chiefly in the linen manufacture.

MARALIN, a town, part of the land whereof, and of the soil leading to the county of Antrim, abounds with a stinty white lime-stone, with a mixture of chalk; and the springs which burst from the rising grounds are extremely soft and well tasted, and particularly noted for whitening linen. Marle-pits are opening in this neighbourhood, and in most other places of this county: here are linen-weavers and bleach-yards, and scarce a farmer but carries on some branch of the linen business.

WARINGSTOWN, a neat village, where the linen manufacture has spread to considerably, that a colony of weavers have gone from hence and settled at Dundalk.

GILFORD and **BANN-BRIDGE**, abound with bleach-yards, for carrying on the linen manufacture, the Bann-water being proper for that use.—The greatest fairs for linen cloth in the kingdom are held here.

LOUGHBRICKLAND, Marle has been lately discovered here, which has greatly enriched the farmer's lands; and the linen manufacture enables them to pay their rents well.—In short, the staple commodity of this county is the linen cloth, of which the northern commonalty already experience the benefit; being freed from much of that wretchedness, too visible among the lower sort in other parts of the kingdom, where this branch of trade has not yet been improved to purpose. The county in general is populous and flourishing, and daily increases in wealth and inhabitants.

LEINSTER, or **LEMSTER PROVINCE**, is washed on the south and east by the sea, and is indented by those of Munster, Connaught,

Connaught, and Ulster, the two former bounding it on the west and south-west, the latter on the north. 'Tis separated from Connaught by the Shannon, and from a part of Munster by the Shure. It has a temperate clear air, a soil fruitful in corn and pasture; and, although some parts are woody, it abounds in general with cattle, fowl, milk, butter, cheese, fish, &c. and also those small ambling horses, called hobbies.—The principal counties, which have any trade deserving our notice, are as follow:

LOUTH COUNTY, which, though the least in the kingdom, is fruitful in corn, and a sweet herbage.

CARLINGTON, is one of the best harbours in Ireland, at the mouth of the river Newry; but, the town lying a little out of the way, the commerce is not equal to the goodness of the harbour. Yet it has a well-frequented market, and is far from a despicable place, there being some merchants who have good ships built here, and which use the coal-trade to Whitehaven; as also the fishing in the season, which is the life of trade on all this side of Ireland, especially north.

DROGHEDA, is the chief town of the county, on a bay of its own name. They have a tolerable trade here to the north parts of England, and are supplied with large quantities of coals from Whitehaven, which they again send by land to all the country round, as well as up the Boyne.

EAST MEATH COUNTY, is a plain, fruitful, and populous country, feeding many herd of cattle, and abounding in corn.

WEST MEATH COUNTY, so called, in respect of its situation from the former, runs west to the Shannon, and lies betwixt King's County on the south, and Longford on the north, to neither of which it is inferior in fertility, number of inhabitants, or any other advantage.

LONGFORD COUNTY, though small, and has some bogs and fenny places, yet, in the main, 'tis a rich pleasant country.

DUBLIN, or DEVELIN COUNTY. The south parts are but little cultivated, being somewhat mountainous; but the rest is level and fruitful in grass, corn, and abounds with fish, game and wild fowl; but the wood is so cut down, that their fuel is turf or sea-coal. These parts are also well inhabited, and distinguished for a peculiar neatness and elegance, and, indeed, improvements of all kinds; beyond the other provinces. 'Tis divided into 6 baronies.

This is truly, what the learned Camden justly calls it, a royal city, and a most noble emporium, it being, without dispute, the largest, the best built, and the most populous of all the cities in the king's dominions, London only excepted; the suburbs are to this day so increasing on every side in additional buildings, besides alterations, that like London, which it resembles also in the manner of building, and names of streets, &c. it would require a new description every year.

It is the grand mart, and the center of commerce for the whole kingdom, especially for the communication of trade with England; and though Cork, as before observed, is the chief port for the trade to foreign parts, and for the exportation of provisions to the West-Indies, a trade of great importance to Ireland, yet the trade of Dublin is unspeakably beyond that of Cork in this particular, viz. that, by its great import of all kinds of merchandize from all the countries in the world, either directly, or by the way of England, it has the chief part of the inland trade; and from hence those goods are again conveyed, in the ordinary method of trade, to all the inland cities and towns of the kingdom; by which means Dublin is the mart, or center, of the whole trade of the kingdom, with exception to those parts only which we have observed to be eminent for this or that peculiar branch of commerce, as Cork or Kinsale for the West-India trade, Limerick and Galway for that to France and Spain, and Londonderry and Belfast for the fishery and trade to Scotland.

The only misfortune of this city is the deficiency of its harbour, occasioned by the bar at the mouth of the river Liffy, where there are such heaps of sand brought in by the tides, that it is difficult for laden ships to come in, except at spring-tides; and even then ships of great burden dare not venture in, the bar being so shoal, that, at low water, it is but six feet, and at high water not above 16 or 18 feet deep, except in extraordinary high tides; nor when they are in the haven, can any ship come to the quay, if they draw above seven or eight feet of water, all the rest being obliged to lie below in the river, and deliver their goods by lighters, and other vessels, at Ringsend, about three miles from the bar. There is, however, very good riding in all parts of the bay, on the north side for some winds, and on the south for others; also on the north side of the Hoath, a promontory of land that forms the north point of the bay, there is a very convenient road for large ships, near an island called Ireland's-Eye; so that the merchants of Dublin are not without a convenient secure retreat for their great ships on all occasions, unless in violent storms of wind from the south-west, which often drive them from their anchors out at sea.

The city is supplied with coals by shipping from Whitehaven in Cumberland, and Swansea in Wales, in such large fleets, that it is common to see 200 sail of colliers in the road at a time.

KILDARE COUNTY is an open, pleasant, and plentiful country, abounds in corn and pasture, and is well watered with the Barrow, Liffy, and other rivers. It is divided into ten baronies.

KING'S COUNTY was formerly boggy, but is now a populous well-improved county.—It has several good market-towns; and at Bally-Bay is a well-situate thriving plantation, near the center of the county.

QUEEN'S COUNTY has also several good market-towns, and flourishing plantations.

WICKLOW COUNTY is pretty mountainous, but fruitful in the low lands, and has been so much improved since the suffering by the Popish massacre, that it is inferior to few counties in Ireland. A copper-mine was a few years since discovered here, which is likely to turn to very good account.

WICKLOW, the chief, or shire town, has a narrow haven at the mouth of the river Leitrim. It has no great trade, unless in carrying provisions to the city of Dublin, for the haven is good for little. This place is remarkable for the best ale in Ireland.—At Dunlavin is a fine English plantation, and a good market.

CATHERLAGH COUNTY is very fruitful and woody, and divided into 5 baronies.

KILKENNY COUNTY is a plentiful country, so populous as to be adorned with more towns and castles than any county in the kingdom; and, though it is mountainous in the south part, yet it is said to have fire without smoke, earth without bog, water without mud, and air without fog; so that, having all the four elements in such perfection, it is justly reputed a healthful, as well as a pleasant country. It comprehends 10 baronies.

KILKENNY TOWN is a large, populous; neat, well-built, wealthy city, with as good a trade as any inland town of that kingdom.

WEXFORD COUNTY is, in some places, very fruitful in corn and pasture, though in others it has a coarse and barren soil.

ROSS is a town of good trade, by means of its own river, formed by the conjunction of the Nure and Barrow, which brings up ships of very considerable burden to its quay.

WEXFORD TOWN stands at the mouth of the river Slane. It is a large corporation, as well as shire-town, and has a very good harbour for vessels that draw about 12 or 15 feet water; and all which draw more water are obliged to lade and unlade in a creek, near the mouth of the haven on the south side three miles from the town, where is water enough, but no shelter from the south-west winds that come overland.

R E M A R K S.

If the reader will please to consult the article **BRITAIN** [**GREAT-BRITAIN**] he will there find the commercial state of England comparatively considered with that of Ireland and Scotland, with an impartial view to the mutual interest of the three kingdoms, and not to the distinct and separate interest of either, independent of the other two. See also the articles **LINEN** and **WOOL**.

In addition to what we have there urged, we shall further observe,

That if the linen trade of Ireland had not suffered some checks from the jealousy of England, Ireland might have answered every end of a beneficial colony to the kingdom, by making this branch its peculiar or local manufacture, and restraining their attempts in such other branches as are more injurious to England. The discouragement on their linens has compelled them to take up other manufactures, as well as to return to their old business of victualling, in which their sale being chiefly to France, or the Straights, and all merchants being apt to buy where they sell, they are induced to bring back many commodities similar to those they would receive from hence, if their linen-trade was greater, and their others less.

Laws to prevent the importation of cattle, butter, &c. from Ireland into England, seem to give a monopoly, to a few breeding counties to impose upon the rest of the people high prices for cattle, &c. to the ruin of our manufactures, and force the labourer to live dear, and of course to raise wages. This is greatly detrimental to our navigation; for whatever enhances the expences of a ship, enhances its freight and gives opportunity to foreigners to victual cheaper in Ireland than we can do at home.

To this it has been objected, That this is done to keep up or raise the value of our lands.—To which it has been answered,

That there is always a great clamour about encouraging the domestic consumption, which, making necessaries bear a great price, can arise only from a mistake in the knowledge of trade; for this is so far from beneficial, that it has the contrary effect, because, the less is consumed within, the more will be left to export; the cheaper things are, the more of them will be exported, and it is exportation only that makes a nation rich.

This

This monopoly, with respect to the people, is unjust, and the benefit to the landholders only imaginary: for instance, A hath a grazing estate, to raise the value of which, all cattle from Ireland are to be prohibited: A, having the sole market, raises the price of his cattle upon the rest of the people, B, C, D, down to Z, and their pockets are to be emptied to fill his. Is this dealing equally by the nation in general? Though these people were as blind as puppies, yet necessity, and the natural course of things, will force them to retaliate upon him; for as a monopoly raises the price of cattle, their dearth raises the price of labour; dear labour makes dear goods; so that the food, cloathing, utensils, labour, every thing A wants, come dearer to him; an enhanced, imaginary value is given to every thing: so that, though A should have more rent for a time (which yet the decline of foreign trade must bring down afterwards) the money he receives is of less value, not going so far, or being able to purchase so much, as when goods bore their natural value only: wherefore what he thinks he gains on the one hand is lost on the other; it is a deceptio visus, setting people to prey upon one another, and letting foreigners in the mean while eat the bread out of their mouths; for a nation that adds an artificial value to it's commodities, by monopolies, cannot export them in such quantities to foreign parts, where they are rivalled by those that bear only their natural value; and their home-consumption in general will sink in price, by the nation's having less money brought in by foreign trade: such a two-edged sword are like the monopolies to lands.

Every home commodity, in a free trade, will find it's natural value; for, though that fluctuates, as of necessity it must, according to the plenty or scarcity of seasons, yet, for the home-consumption, every home commodity must have great advantages over the foreign, as being upon the spot, and free from freight, insurance, commission, and charges; which, on the produce of lands, being all bulky commodities, must, in the general, be about 15 per cent. and a greater advantage cannot be given without prejudice; for 15 per cent. makes a great difference in the price of necessaries, between the nation selling and the nation buying, and is a great difficulty on the latter, but, arising from the natural course of things, cannot be helped; though it is sufficient security to the landholders, that foreigners can never import more necessaries than are absolutely required; and it is presumed, in such cases, they have more charity than to starve the people, merely for an imaginary profit, which yet would prove their ruin in the end; for it is an egregious fallacy, and an absurdity, to think to raise or keep up the value of lands by oppressions on the people, that cramp the commerce of the nation; for, if trade declines, the common people must either come upon the parish, or fly for business to other trading nations. In the first case, they become a heavy tax upon the rich, and, instead of purchasing the produce of the lands, must have it given them: and, in the other case, when the consumers are gone, what price will the produce of land bear?

A small consumption makes a small demand, and a small demand makes a small price for any commodity: so that when in conversation the wisdom of our laws is magnified to prevent the importation of cattle, &c. from Ireland, how would a Hollander or Frenchman smile when he reflected, that, in his country, the poor, getting provisions from any place where they can be had the cheapest, are thereby enabled to work at prices the English cannot live on, and, by working cheaper, run away with their trade, their money, and their working people; and, when these are gone, we may as well give them the land into the bargain, for any value it will be of.

After the fear that the value of our lands should be lessened by the improvement of Ireland, had produced a destructive prohibition of Irish cattle, the people of that country, being necessitated to find out some other employment for their lands, turned their thoughts to the breeding of sheep, and raised a growth of wool. No sooner was this effected, but a prohibition ensued on our part, to export the manufactures made of that wool.

This prohibition on the Irish, it is to be greatly feared, has much contributed to the ruin of the woollen trade of Great-Britain, and raised that of France; for, unless the English take off the Irish wool, and manufacture it themselves, or unless the Irish are suffered to export woollen goods, they will sell their wool to the best bidder, and that is France; and they have and will work the same up into fabrics, *façon d'Angleterre*, i. e. according to the same make of the English, in length, breadth, and all other peculiarities, and have deceived foreigners, by passing them for the British woollen manufactures. See the article FRANCE, with regard to their woollen manufactures.

As, therefore, the woollen trade of France has increased, that of Britain has declined: so that such restraints as these have not only hurt the Irish, and injured ourselves, but enriches France; for, as the case now stands, with regard to the article of cheapness, it should seem that either Ireland or France must, at length, have the woollen manufacture,

unless Ireland is effectually encouraged by England in the linen manufacture, &c. and England can herself work up the wool of Ireland as cheap as France or Ireland can do. The Irish export clandestinely some camblets to Lisbon, and undersell the French; therefore it seems very probable that the Irish might some how be made instrumental to recover the woollen trade out of French hands, which the English do not seem capable of, till it's heavy taxes upon trade, and some monopolies, are removed. And shall we compliment the French with a trade that we deny to our own subjects? Nay, one third of what Ireland gets centers here at last; and shall we refuse such a sum, which the Irish would draw from the hands of our rivals, and put into our own? See the article BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, LINEN and WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.

Further REMARKS ON IRELAND, since the last WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By our prohibiting, by a perpetual law, 32 Car. II. cap. 2. the importation of black cattle, sheep, or swine; or beef, mutton, lamb, pork, bacon, butter, or cheese from Ireland, we forced the people of that island into the curing of all sorts of salt provisions, which they exported to France, whereby the French were enabled to furnish their infant colonies in the West-Indies, at a much cheaper rate than they could otherwise have done; and, at the same time, by prohibiting the exportation of sugars, cotton, indico, &c. from the British colonies, directly to any place but England, we kept the price of all those commodities at so high a rate, that the planters in the French colonies found a ready sale, and considerable profit upon every thing they could produce in their plantations; which they could not have done, had our colonies been indulged, under more eligible restrictions, with a direct exportation to every market in Europe.

By these means we contributed to the establishment of the French colonies; and to shew how we contributed to their woollen manufactures, it may be observed, that by prohibiting the importation of black cattle, &c. from Ireland, we put the people there upon keeping numerous flocks of sheep, and producing large quantities of wool they sent to England, which we still allowed; but another part they began to work up in a coarse sort of manufacture for themselves: this established a sort of woollen manufacture among them, which increased so fast, that, before the year 1699, they had begun to export considerable quantities, especially of the coarser sort; but in that year a selfish monopolizing spirit again seized England, and by an act 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. we prohibited the exporting or conveying out of Ireland, into any foreign parts, other than into England and Wales, any worsted, bay, or woollen yarn, cloth, serge, bays, kerseys, says, frizes, druggets, cloth-ferges, shalloons, or any other drapery stuffs, or woollen manufactures whatsoever. What was the consequence? An immediate stop was put to many of the woollen manufactures of Ireland, and most of the poor manufacturers made shift to get over to France, where they were kindly received, and set to work as fast as possible; and for this purpose, a clandestine intercourse was set on foot for running wool from Ireland to France; which has continued ever since, notwithstanding the severity of the punishment; so that instead of having our fellow-subjects of Ireland for our rivals, we have had our enemies, the French, for such, in the whole of our woollen manufactures: and this will always be the case, when we give a monopoly of any trade or manufacture to any set of people, or to any part of our own dominions: we may prevent the rest of our own people from interfering, but we cannot prevent foreign states; and our monopoly will probably enable them to interfere.

To apply what has been said to our AMERICAN COLONIES: If we could prevent them from supplying themselves at FOREIGN PORTS with FOREIGN MANUFACTURES, it would be the interest of Great-Britain to allow them a free and direct importation of every commodity they can produce, or manufacture, to every foreign port, where it can be disposed of to advantage: but if we have, by our misconduct, unhappily raised the manufactures of this kingdom to an extravagant price, [see DUTIES and LABOUR] I must think, that this might be done by such a small duty upon importation, as cannot make it worth a man's while to run the risk of clandestine importation of any sort of foreign manufacture, into any of our colonies.—But, if our manufactures have been, or should be, raised to such a high price, as cannot be counter-balanced by such a small duty upon the importation of foreign, it may be safely enough prophesied, that it will be impossible to confine our colonies to the use of our manufactures, by any restraint we can lay upon their trade: they will, by degrees, set up every sort of manufacture within themselves, and soon become our rivals, as Ireland did, at the foreign markets; in which case, it will not, we hope, be said, that we ought to do by them as we have done by Ireland; for we should then be justly compared to the dog in the manger, who cannot eat his oats himself,

nor allow the horse to eat them that can. And till they could supply themselves, they would be chiefly supplied by foreign manufactures; for foreigners would imitate our manufactures so exactly, that it would be impossible to distinguish them, after being landed and lodged in the merchant's warehouse, or retailer's shop, and equally impossible to prevent smuggling them ashore, upon such extensive coasts as we now have in America. See the article FRANCE.

Therefore, if we can keep the manufactures of this kingdom at a moderate price, which, considering the extent and fertility of this island, it will be our own fault if we do not, [see AGRICULTURE] we have no occasion for laying restraints upon the trade of any part of the British dominions: if we cannot do this, we ought, we must, at length, encourage manufactures in other parts of our dominions; in order to prevent a clandestine importation of foreign manufactures even into this island itself. Let us, therefore, abolish all those restraints which a misapprehension of the nature of trade has induced us to lay upon our distant settlements, and content ourselves with the profits that must accrue to this island from dominion alone: for whilst the seat of government is here, we may be convinced from history as well as experience, that the riches of all our dominions, how remote soever, will center in this island. Rome was never remarkable for trade or manufactures; nor was there a city in Italy, famous for trade during the time of the Romans; yet the riches of the conquered world centered in Italy, and chiefly in the city of Rome. Thither every man in the empire repaired, as soon as he had got a fortune sufficient for supporting him with grandeur and magnificence in that city. Madrid has no trade, yet all the riches of Spain, and as much of the riches of America as their pride and laziness will allow them to retain, center in Madrid. Paris has no trade, nor any great manufacture for export, yet all the riches of France center at Paris. It seems, therefore, to be our interest, as well as our duty, to promote, as much as we can, the trade and manufactures of every part of our dominions, without being scared by that old and foolish jealousy of their interfering with the trade and manufactures of their mother-country; for if they can, foreign nations will and may; and if we must lose any trade or manufacture we are now possessed of, surely we ought to wish that it may be gained by our fellow-subjects, who will bring most of their riches hither as soon as acquired, rather than that it should be gained by foreigners, who will never bring a shilling of their riches into this island, and whose riches may the very next year be employed for our destruction.

Of linen, hemp, flax, thread, or yarn, imported from Ireland.

* Hemp or flax, thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, being permitted to be imported directly from thence by British or Irish, duty-free, the master of the vessel, in order to exempt them from duty, must bring a certificate from the chief officers of the port of Ireland where shipped, expressing the marks, numbers, weights, or tale of the species of each bale, or parcel, mentioned in the bill of lading, with the names and places of abode of the persons that have sworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and where, and to whom in Great-Britain consigned. The form of which certificate is usually as follows:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. sect. 1. 1 Ann. cap. 8. sect. 2. 12 Ann. cap. 16. sect. 1. 5 Geo. I. cap. 25. sect. 2. 10 Geo. I. cap. 17. sect. 4. 16 Geo. I. cap. 26. sect. 6.

Port of Dublin.

These are to certify, that A. B. of this city hath entered here 310 pieces, being 7580 yards of plain Irish linen cloth, duty free; to be shipped on board the Hope of London, William Wilson master, for Southampton; which said linen cloth is the product and manufacture of this kingdom, as appears by the affidavit of B. C. of this city, taken before us the 5th instant.

Witness our hands and seals of office, this 10th day of February, 1730.

C. D. Collector, D. E. Customer, E. F. Comptroller.

Which certificate must be produced to the principal officers of the customs at the port of importation, and the truth thereof be confirmed by oath made on warrant, to which it must be annexed. The form of which oath must be as follows:

25th of February, 1730.—No. 54.

In the Hope of London, William Wilson master, from Dublin.

Francis Willis.

F. W. Five bales, containing 7580 yards plain Irish linen, as per certificate dated the 10th instant, hereunto annexed.
No. 1 & 5.

William Wilson, master of the above ship, maketh oath, That the five bales of linen above-mentioned were actually laden on board his said ship at Dublin in Ireland, and that the said bales, and linen therein contained, are the same which are mentioned in, and were taken on board, by virtue of the certificate from thence, dated the 10th instant, now produced: and that he verily believes, and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the said linen is of the product and manufacture of the kingdom of Ireland.

Signed—William Wilson.

Jurat 25^o die Februarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland.

* Wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wooll-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ferges, bays, kerseys, fays, frizes, druggets, shalloons, stuffs, cloth ferges, or any other drapery made of, or mixed with, wool or woollen-flocks, and manufactured in the kingdom of Ireland, may be imported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kinfale, Cork, Drogheda, and New Rois, into Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford Haven, Chester, or Liverpool, provided notice be first give to the customer or collector, &c. of the port into which the same are intended to be brought, of the quality, quantity, and package, with the marks and numbers, and the name of the ship and master, and the port into which they are to be imported; and bond must be entered into with one or more sufficient sureties, in treble the value of the goods, for the due landing of the same.

* 1 Will. and Mary, cap. 32. sect. 6. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. sect. 5. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 10. 14. 4 Ann. cap. 7. sect. 1.

The form of which bond must be as follows:

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Benjamin Forward hath given notice, to the customer or collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Chester, of his intentions of lading at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, 80 packs, containing 1800 stone of Irish wool (marked and numbered as in the margin) on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master, in order to be imported into the port of Chester, and for which he hath desired a licence accordingly.

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said Benjamin Forward, or his assigns, or any of them, shall not carry the said wool, so laden at Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, into any port beyond the sea, but shall duly and truly import the same in the aforesaid vessel, into the port of Chester, or into some of the following ports of Great-Britain, viz. Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford Haven, or Liverpool, and shall there unlade, and put on shore the same, the dangers of the seas excepted: then this present obligation to be void, and of none effect, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Benjamin Forward,
James Hopkins.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

And, when bond is thus given, the chief customer or collector, &c. of the port, must grant a licence under their hands and seals of office, for the importation of the goods therein specified; which licence must be in the following form:

Port of Chester.

In pursuance of an act of parliament made in the tenth and eleventh years of the reign of king William the Third, intitled, An act to prevent the exportation of wool out of the kingdoms of Ireland and England into foreign parts, and for the encouragement of the woollen manufactures in the kingdom of England:

We do hereby certify, That Benjamin Forward, of Chester, hath given us notice of his intention of lading, at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, 80 packs, containing 1800 stone of

B. F. Irish wool, marked and numbered as in the margin, on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master, to be imported into the port of Chester; and hath here given security, according to the said act, for the landing thereof accordingly, the danger of the seas excepted: therefore he said the Benjamin Forward is hereby licensed to lade and import the same

same, according to the said act. Witness our hands and seals of office, the 27th day of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* And when, by virtue of the aforesaid licence, such wool, &c. arrives at the intended port of Great-Britain, it must be observed whether the cockets granted in Ireland for the exportation thereof, are wrote on paper (and not on parchment) and are signed by three of the chief officers of the port; and whether the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, are indorfed thereon as the law directs, otherwise the landing must not be permitted: but, if the said requisites are duly performed, entries are to be made, and warrants granted for the landing, as for other goods; and, at the landing the said goods, they are to be carefully viewed and examined by the surveyor and land-waiters, in order that the landing may be certified to the officers of the loading-port in Ireland, after the following manner:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. sect. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 7.

Port of Chester.

Know ye, that Benjamin Forward hath landed in this port, out of the ship Fortune of Liverpool, James Hopkins master, from Dublin, 80 packs, containing 1800 stone of Irish wool, as appears by the endorsed particulars; which came by cocket from thence, dated the 18th day of February, 1730, mentioning to have there laden 80 packs, containing 1800 stone of Irish wool, and for which a licence was granted at this port the 27th day of January, 1730; which said goods were consigned to Benjamin Forward, and delivered by D. E. land-waiter.

Loading ports.	Date of cockets.	Ships names.	Masters names.	Owners names.	To whom consigned.	Marks and numbers.	Quality of the packa.	Quantities of wool.	Quantities of wool-flocks.	Quantities of woollen	Yarn worked.	Numb. of wool-fells.
Dublin.	18 Feb. 1730	Fortune	J. Hopkins	J. Dod	B. Forward	B. F. 1 a 80	80 packs	1800 stone				

↳ The circumstances are much the same in regard to what other ports are permitted to import the aforesaid particulars from Ireland into England.

Wrought silks, stuffs, &c. mullins and callicoës, of the manufacture of East-India, China, or Persia, may not be imported into Ireland but from Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ship, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

Officers of the customs of Ireland conniving thereat, &c. forfeit 500l. and are rendered incapable.

No sugars, paneles, fyrups, or melasses, of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or spirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his majesty's colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unless shipped in Great-Britain, in ships legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ship, and all her furniture; and may be seized by the lord-lieutenant, lord deputy, lords justices, or any person authorized by them, or by warrant of a justice of the peace, or other magistrate, or by any custom or excise officer, or their assistants. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4.

Any person assisting in the unlawful landing, or receiving any of the aforesaid goods so landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and, for obstructing officers, 50l. and to suffer three months imprisonment. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Any officer conniving at such illegal landing, or making collusive seizures, is to forfeit 50l. and be rendered incapable of serving his majesty. Masters of ships (being his majesty's subjects) receiving any of the aforesaid goods on board, in order to land the same contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit 100l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be prosecuted and recovered in any of the courts of record at Westminster, or in Dublin, at the option of the informer or prosecutor, within two years after the offence. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 11.

The onus probandi to lie upon the claimer, or owner, of the goods. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

These are some of the principal laws of England for the regulation of the trade of Ireland.

IRON, is the least heavy of all metals, except tin, but considerably the hardest of them all; when pure, and well wrought, is very tough, malleable, and ductile, but less so than either gold, silver, lead or copper; when wrought into steel, it is less malleable: or in the impure state from it's first fusion, called cast iron, it is very friable; and the most ductile, if only heated, and suddenly quenched in cold water, loses much of this quality.

It is extremely capable of rust, more than any other metal; it is very sonorous, and requires the strongest fire of all the metals to melt it.

Iron is of less simple composition than any of the heavier metals, containing a sulphur so imperfectly blended with it's other

Consisted the 15th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller,
C. D. Surveyor.

* This certificate to be made on paper, not parchment, and to express the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers of the goods, which are not to be obliterated or interlined.

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. sect. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 7, 9.

Duplicates of which certificates, with the endorsements thereon, are likewise from time to time to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in London.

* And it is required that a register be kept, at the Custom-House in London, of all the wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland; wherein are to be specified the particular qualities and quantities thereof, the master's and owner's names, and to whom consigned, in order to be compared with an account that is to be sent from the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland every half year: therefore, besides the aforesaid duplicates, on account of all wool, &c. imported into the respective ports, must be transmitted every half-year to the commissioners of the customs, in the following form:

* 1 Will. and Mary, cap. 32. sect. 11. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. sect. 6. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. sect. 6.

Port of Chester.

An account of wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ferges, bays, kerseys, lays, frizes, druggets, shallons, stuffs, cloth-ferges, &c. imported from Ireland into this port, between the 25th of December, 1730, and the 24th of June, 1731.

constituent parts, that it will readily get loofe, and, in a strong heat, appear in visible flames.

It is the most difficultly of all metals amalgamated with mercury, and is less fixed in the fire than most others, losing part of it's weight in a moderate degree, and much more when in fusion. Fire renders it more ductile, being most of all malleable when nearest to fusion, the signs of which are, it's becoming whiter, and sparkling; if kept long in fusion, it's sulphur dissipates, it becomes much more brittle, and at last runs into a bluish glass.

Exposed to a great burning-glass, it instantly grows red-hot, then turns whitish, sparkles, flames, and melts; after which, most part flies off in sparks; the remainder turns to a bluish glass, which exposed again to the same focus, on a piece of charcoal, takes up the sulphur it had lost, and becomes true iron again.

It's specific gravity to that of water, is as 7632 to 1000; it is the only known substance attracted by the load stone. When perfectly pure, it readily melts, and unites in fusion with gold and silver; but, if impure, it separates, and forms a distinct regulus on the surface.

Heated, it increases in bulk and weight, but, when cold, returns to it's former gravity and dimensions. All the stronger acids dissolve it; spirit of nitre, or aqua fortis, most readily; but by lying long, even in common water, it gives a taste to it, contracts a rust, and throws off a yellow ochre. All salts, except alkaline, dissolve it. It is also most easily destroyed by many other means: neither resisting the force of lead or antimony, but, fused with them, presently vitrifies, and goes off in scoræ.

It's great test is attraction by the magnet; but it must be in it's true metalline state, for many of the ores will not answer the trial. It may be produced by art, out of almost every thing we know. Many earths afford it by calcination; all the parts of animals and vegetables, in the ashes of all which it will be found so perfect, as readily to answer the magnet.

In the bowels of the earth, when it enters the composition of crystals and spars, it sometimes determines their figure; at others only their colour. Among gems, the amethyst, garnet, and hyacinth, owe their colours to iron.

The iron ores are extremely various in form and colour, discovering themselves by their resemblance to wrought iron in structure and look, or by their yellowish or purplish tinge: the richest have most of all the appearance of the metal they contain. The poorer ores are generally of a more lax and friable texture, and of a yellowish or reddish hue, or of a mixed colour between these, with a brown or blackish cast in it. The common ochres, both yellow and red, are very rich in the metal, and worked for in some places, to great advantage.

REMARKS.

R E M A R K S.

Since this nation has given encouragement to the making of iron in our American plantations, we have experienced the benefit of it; and we hope it will prove true, that new iron works are about to be established in CANADA, since the late French colonies have been in our hands. Thus we are likely to save that money that we used to pay for iron, to our great disadvantage: nor can it be long, we hope, before we also experience the benefits of supplying ourselves from America, with every kind of naval stores we stand in need of, which will prove of no little additional emolument to these kingdoms. See our articles HEMP, PITCH and TAR, and NAVAL STORES, and BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS at the END of LETTER I.

I R O N, as applied to medicinal uses.

It has greater medicinal virtues than any of the other metals, being alone any way soluble in the human body; for even it's crude filings, taken inwardly, are always so much acted upon by the juices, as to produce considerable effects. The preparations of it in most frequent use are, beside the crude filings reduced to an impalpable powder, the following, viz.

Salt of iron.

P R O C E S S.

Mix together a quart of water, and eight ounces of oil of vitriol; pour the oil of vitriol in by little at a time; put the mixed liquor into a glass vessel, and add four ounces of filings of iron; when the ebullition is over, evaporate the liquor to a pellicle, and set it to shoot; there will be a green vitriol, or salt, in fair crystals; dry them for use.

This is one of the most powerful preparations of this metal in use; it opens all obstructions, and strengthens the viscera, and is good against worms. The best manner of giving it is in solution, half an ounce in a quart of water; the dose four ounces, drank as chalybeate waters, will be found to exceed most of them in it's good effects. But, in many cases, the crude filings succeed better than any other form. When taken in female disorders, in which the body is weak, and full of acidities, the juices are themselves the best menstruum for it; the natural heat, before wanting, being always excited by this means, and more good found than from all the laboured preparations ever invented.

Aperient crocus of iron.

P R O C E S S.

Expose a quantity of pure iron filings to the air in the spring, till by dews and rains they are perfectly converted into a reddish rust; powder, and keep them for use.

There is another preparation of it with sulphur, thus; mix together equal quantities of iron filings and powder of common brimstone; make them into a stiff paste with water, roll it into a ball, and lay it by for five or six hours, it will half calcine with the heat it acquires; then put it into an earthen pan, set it over the fire, and burn away the sulphur, and there will remain a red powder for use.

The dose of either of these is from 10 to 30 grains, in cases of obstructions; but the first is most esteemed.

Tincture of iron with spirit of salt.

P R O C E S S.

Take filings of iron half a pound, Glauber's spirit of sea salt three pounds, rectified spirit of wine three pints; di-

gest the spirit of salt and filings without heat, as long as the spirit will work upon them; let the fæces subside, and pour off the clear liquor; evaporate to one pound, and add the spirit of wine. This is preferable to any tincture hitherto in common use: it is good in all cases in which the salt or crocus are.

Flowers of iron.

P R O C E S S.

Take of iron filings, or of the colcothar of common green vitriol washed, one pound, of crude sal armoniac two pounds; mix together, and sublime in a retort; mix the flowers again with the residuum, and repeat the process till they are of a beautiful yellow colour. To the remainder may be added fresh sal armoniac half a pound, and, repeating the process, more flowers will arise, like the former. This is the same with the ens. veneris of Mr. Boyle, except that he used blue vitriol: both, however, are good medicines.

Steel wine.

P R O C E S S.

Take filings of iron four ounces, cinnamon and mace of each half an ounce, of Rhenish wine two quarts; infuse a month without heat, often shaking the vessel; then filter off for use.

This wine is an excellent stomachic and aperient: it may be drank a glass once or twice a day, or mixed in apozems of the aperient vegetables.

Astringent crocus of iron.

P R O C E S S.

Expose a quantity of clean and fine iron filings to the air, and sprinkle them at times with vinegar; let them remain thus till almost converted into rust, then set the whole in a strong reverberatory fire, till it be of a deep purple colour; when cold, levigate it to an impalpable powder for use.

This is a good medicine in hæmorrhages, and in obstinate diarrhoeas and dysenteries: the dose is from 10 grains to 30. It must be given in a bolus or pills, for in any liquid it sinks to the bottom too suddenly to be taken without waste.

Antiphthytic tincture.

P R O C E S S.

Take sugar of lead and green vitriol, of each three ounces; rectified spirit of wine a quart; powder the salts separately, and digest them in the spirit, without heat, and there will be a fine purple tincture.

It is the most powerful astringent and styptic tincture we are yet acquainted with; it's dose is from 15 to 40 drops.

R E M A R K S.

As we pay to Sweden, Russia, and Spain, between 3 and 400,000 l. a year for bar iron, does it not become the wisdom of the nation to offer a parliamentary reward to any one or more who shall discover the secret of making bar-iron by the means of pit-coal fuel, that the kingdom may be enabled to supply itself with a commodity that carries so much money annually out of it?

2. Whether also the art of making of cast iron more pure, tough, and malleable than is done at present, whereby it may be applied to various uses that hammered bar-iron itself is, does not merit some public reward and encouragement? See the article **FOUNDERY**.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE

continued from the end of letter H.

INFORMATIONS, with respect to violating the laws of the customs, &c.

INFORMATIONS. — Every informer, upon a penal statute, must exhibit his suit in proper person, and pursue the same only by himself, or by his attorney in court; which pursuit must be by way of information, or original action; upon which information, the time of exhibiting must be noted. — No process to be sued out upon such information, till exhibited in due form; upon which process must be indorsed the party's name that pursueth, and the statute whereon grounded. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 1. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

The offence not to be laid in the information, to be done in any other county, than where really committed. 31 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 2. and 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 2.

Actions, suits, bills, or indictments for frauds relating to the customs, may be laid in any county; and on actions for forfeitures upon penal statutes, any officer, &c. may sue within a year; which being expired, the king may sue within two years more, unless shorter time be appointed by any other statute. 31 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 5, 6. and 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 3, 5.

But for DRAWBACK-GOODS relanded, suit may be within five years after offence committed. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 16.

Informer or plaintiff may not compound or agree with the offender, but after answer made in court to the information; nor after answer, but by order and consent of the court: and if the informer, &c. delay, or discontinue his suit, or is non-suited, or has verdict passed against him, he must pay the defendant his costs, charges, and damages. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 4. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

Informers offending in suing out of process, making of compositions, &c. without order or consent of the court, upon conviction, are to stand in the pillory for two hours, and to forfeit 10l. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 4. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

Bills or plaints not to be filed till the informer has sworn before some of the judges of the court, that the offence was committed in the county alledged in the information, and that he believes it was committed within a year. 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 3.

May not be entered in any of the courts in Westminster, or Edinburgh, against any person for the recovery of penalties inflicted by the laws of the customs, excise, and salt duties, unless in the name of the attorney-general, or an officer of the said revenues. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 28.

Persons taken up by *capias*, in prison for want of bail on any information relating to the customs, &c. not pleading for the space of one term, judgment must be entered by default, and execution awarded against body and estate. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 27.

And suits for forfeitures and penalties relating to the customs, &c. incurred to his majesty, may be commenced in any of the courts of record at Westminster, and in the court of exchequer in Scotland; unless in some few cases, where the justice of the peace or the commissioner of the customs and excise, may, in a summary way, proceed to condemnation of goods seized: for which, see the several heads referred to, under the article of SEIZURES and forfeitures of goods, and penalties pecuniary. 6 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. at the end of letter S.

Or indictments being commenced or prosecuted for assaults upon officers, the offence may be tried in any county of England. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 26.

Sheriffs, mayors, or bailiffs, or other persons, having the execution of any process against any offender in relation to the customs or excise, are upon request (indorsed upon the back of the said process, signed by the solicitor of the customs or excise) to grant a special warrant to such person as is named by the said solicitor, for apprehending the offender; and in default thereof, are subject to such penalties, &c. as they are now liable to, for refusing or neglecting to execute such process. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 32.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, with regard to the RESTRICTIONS of the TRADE of IRELAND.

IRELAND. — Hemp, or flax, and any manufacture made thereof in Ireland, may be imported by British or Irish directly into Great-Britain, FREE OF ALL DUTIES, upon certificate of the officers of the port where shipped, expressing the marks, number, tale, or weight of the species in each bale or parcel, mentioned in the bill of lading, with the name and place of abode of the exporter from Ireland, and of the person who shall have sworn that the goods are the manufacture of Ireland, and where, and to whom in England con-

signed; and oath of the master, that the goods are the same mentioned in such certificate. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. §. 1. and 16 Geo. II. cap. 26. §. 6.

Wrought silks, stuffs, &c. mullins and calicoes of the manufacture of East-India, China, or Persia, may not be imported there, but from Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ship, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

Officers of the customs in Ireland conniving thereat, &c. forfeits 500l. and are rendered incapable. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

No sugars, panelles, syrups, or molasses of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or spirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his majesty's sugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unless shipped in Great-Britain in ships legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ship and all her furniture: — But not to extend to restrain the importation of sugars of the produce of any of the dominions of the king of Spain or Portugal, from any place from whence they might have been lawfully imported before. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 13.

Any person assisting in the unlawful landing or receiving any of the aforesaid goods so landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and for obstructing officers, 50l. and to suffer three months imprisonment. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Any officer conniving at such illegal landing, or making collusive seizures, is to forfeit 50l. and be rendered incapable of serving his majesty. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Masters of ships (being his majesty's subjects) receiving any of the aforesaid goods on board, in order to land the same contrary to the true intent of this act, to forfeit 100l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be prosecuted and recovered in any of the courts of record at Westminster, or in Dublin, at the option of the informer, or prosecutor, within two years after offence. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 11.

The ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the claimer or owner of the goods. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

No glafs of any kind or denomination, other than the manufacture of Great-Britain, may be imported into Ireland, upon forfeiture thereof, and of the ship, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and 10s. for every pound weight by the master of the ship, and every other person concerned or assisting in importing or landing it, and the glafs to be destroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 22.

The master of every ship which shall carry any kind of glafs to Ireland, must, before he is permitted to sail out of the port of Great-Britain, take from, and under the hands and seals of, the collector or comptroller thereof, a duplicate of his contents in writing, of all the glafs taken on board, which is to be delivered him without fee; and upon his arrival at the port in Ireland, where he intends to unlade, he must deliver upon oath, such duplicate to the collector, comptroller, or other officer of the customs there, before he is permitted to land such glafs; for landing such glafs, before the duplicate is so produced, the penalty is the same as in the foregoing article. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 23.

No glafs of any kind may be exported from Ireland, or laden upon any horse, cart, or other carriage, or on board any vessel, in any place belonging to the kingdom of Ireland, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the glafs, and 10s. for every pound weight, by every person concerned or assisting therein; and also of every ship or vessel, barge, boat, or other bottom, on board which it was laden, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the glafs to be destroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 24.

Offences against this act, relating to the exportation of glafs, and importation, are to be heard and determined by the commissioners, and sub-commissioners of excise, in their respective districts in Ireland; who may proceed in a summary way, and give judgment, and levy the penalties and forfeitures in such manner, as they may in cases of excise in Ireland. 16 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 25.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, respecting IRON.

IRON, notwithstanding the act of 28 Edw. III. cap. 5. may be exported by any person. 5 and 6 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 2.

Armour, bandeliers, bridle-bits, halbert-heads, and sharps, holsters, musquets, carbines, fowling-pieces, pistols, pike-heads, sword or rapier-blades, saddles, snaffles, stirrups, calve-skins dressed or undressed, geldings, oxen, sheep-skins dressed without

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

without the wool, and all sorts of manufactures of leather may be exported by any persons. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 11.

Pig-iron, made in, and imported from, the British colonies in America, may be imported into any port of Great-Britain; and bar-iron, made in and imported from the said colonies, may be imported into the port of London, FREE OF ALL DUTIES, under the following regulations. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

The person shipping the pig or bar-iron in America must, before clearing out the vessel for Great Britain, make oath before the governor, collector and comptroller of the customs, and naval officer, or any two of them, that the iron so shipped, expressing the true weight, was made at _____ within the colony of _____, with the name of the person to whom sold or consigned. Thereupon the said officers are to grant a certificate, under the hands and seals of office, of such oath having been made before them. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 5.

The said pig or bar-iron must also be stamped with a mark, denoting the colony where it was made, and the certificate above-mentioned must be produced to the chief officer of the customs at the place of importation, and oath made before him by the commander of the vessel, that the iron so imported is the same mentioned in the certificate, otherwise to be chargeable with the DUTIES as before. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 6, 7.

For falsely making such certificate, the penalty is, forfeiture of 200 l. loss of office, and being incapable of serving his majesty; for falsely making the oaths above-mentioned, the offender incurs the punishment by law for wilful and corrupt perjury; and for counterfeiting the stamp or certificate, the punishment by law for forgery.—The penalties for falsely making such stamps or certificates recoverable in any court of record at Westminster or America, or in the exchequer in Scotland respectively, where the offender shall dwell when the offence was committed, or information, &c. brought; and every information, &c. brought in Great-Britain, is to be laid either in the county where the offence was committed, or where the offender dwells when the information, &c. is brought. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 8, 11.

Bar-iron imported into the port of London by virtue of this act, is to be entered at the custom-house, and stamped with such mark as the commissioners shall direct in three different parts of each bar; that is, two at the distance of a yard from each end, and one in the middle. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 13.

Such bar-iron may not be exported or carried coast-wise, except for the use of his majesty's dock-yards, on forfeiture thereof, together with the vessel; and the person exporting or sending it coast-wise, the master of the vessel and mariners are subject to the same penalties as in case of being laden with prohibited or uncustomed goods, or goods clandestinely imported or exported: and any officer of the customs granting a cocket, or other warrant for such purpose, forfeits 200 l. and is to lose his office, and be rendered incapable of serving his majesty, and the cocket, &c. to be void. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 2.

Such bar-iron may not be conveyed by land to any place

beyond ten miles from any part of the port of London, except to his majesty's dock-yards and for his use, on forfeiture of 20 s. per hundred weight by the person conveying it, or causing it to be conveyed. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 4.

For counterfeiting, destroying, or defacing the stamps, with intent to convey the iron ten miles from the port of London, the penalty is 100 l. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 14.

No bar-iron may be carried coast-wise, unless mention is made in the certificate of the day on which the duties were paid at importation, and by whom. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 3.

BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS with respect to the ISLE of MAN.

ISLE OF MAN.—Corn of the growth thereof may be imported into Great-Britain. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 21.

No goods but such as are of the growth, produce and manufacture of the said isle, may be imported from thence into Great-Britain, or within the limits of any port thereof. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Vessels found, or discovered to have been with such goods within the limits of any port of Great-Britain or Ireland, whether bulk has been broke or not, are forfeited, with the tackle, &c. and likewise the goods or their value. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Persons concerned in landing or conveying away such goods, forfeit 100 l. or six months imprisonment, at the discretion of the court. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Foreign goods entered outwards for any other parts than the Isle of Man, and yet carried thither and landed; the exporter is to forfeit the drawback, or the amount thereof, as also treble the value of the goods. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 23.

Masters of the vessels subject to the like penalties, and to suffer six months imprisonment, without bail or main-prize. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 23.

To be added to, and included in, the oath of the exporter, upon all debentures for foreign goods exported. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

The treasury, in behalf of the crown, may treat for the absolute purchase thereof. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 25.

With respect to JURIES.

JURIES, in cases relating to the customs, to consist of free-born subjects only. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 11.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, with respect to JUSTICES of the PEACE.

JUSTICES of the peace, magistrates, and all other his majesty's officers and subjects, are to be aiding and assisting to the officers of the customs in the execution of this act, and for such aid, &c. shall be thereby defended and saved harmless. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 32.

K.

K A Y

KALI, is a grey salt, which we bring from Alicant and Carthagena in Spain, in loaves or cakes of different sizes. It is made from a plant that grows along the sea-coast, which the botanists call kali, and we salt-wort, soap-wort, glass-weed, kelp, and many other names. This plant bears a stalk a foot and a half high, or thereabouts, furnished with small narrow leaves. They sow this herb, and, when it is come to a due height, they cut and manage it like hay.

When it is dried, the Spaniards make large holes or pits in the ground, in the nature of lime-kilns, into which they throw a bundle of the dried herb, to which they put fire; and, when it is well lighted, they throw in other bundles, till they fill it full of the dried herb; when they have filled it, they stop it up, and leave it all together for some time, that it may not only be reduced the better to ashes, but likewise incorporate, and be capable to form into a stone or cake, in which form it is now brought to market: when they have opened the pit, they find the said herb burnt into a hard stone, which they are obliged to break and raise up, just as they do stone out of the quarry.

There are sold at Paris four sorts of pot-ashes; the first and most valuable of which, is that of Alicant: which, when they are right, ought to be dry and clean, of bluish grey without and within, having little holes made like partridge's eyes, and, when spit upon and held to the nose, have no offensive smell. And beware the stones be not inclosed with a greenish crust, or full of pebbles; for the first will stain and spot, and entirely spoil linen, according to the nature of the stones that are found within. Likewise take heed that the bales be not opened, and the commodity that was good, exchanged for that which is naught, and chuse such as is in small pieces. This is very much used by the glass-makers, to make the best glass; and the soap-boilers likewise use it considerably, drawing it's salt from it, which they use in the making of white and marbled soap; but the greatest part of that which comes from Spain is consumed at Paris and the neighbouring villages, by the scourers or whiteners, who use it to whiten their linen.

They make from this salt, which the French call soude, by the assistance of common water, a white salt, called salt of kali, or alkali; which is as much as to say, soude salt, because al is an Arabian word that signifies salt, and kali, soude. It is to be observed, that this salt is only properly called alkali salt; though the fixed salts of other plants may be also called alkali salts, with the addition of the name of the plant they are made from, as the alkali salt of wormwood.

The second sort is that of Carthagena, which only differs from that of Alicant in not being so good, neither is it of the bluish cast, but more crufted, and the bales are much larger. The third sort of pot-ashes is that named the Bourde kind, which ought to be entirely rejected, as being so bad, that it is fit for nothing but to deceive those that buy it. This is usually moist, of a blackish green colour, and very foetid. The fourth sort is that of Cherbourg, which is made of an herb found along the sea coasts of Normandy. This is likewise a very bad kind, being extremely humid, of the same colour and smell with the last sort, and filled with stones. These two sorts are good for nothing, but to impose upon the unwary buyer, and cheat the whiffers, and damage their linen. See the article BLEACHING, GLASS-MAKING.

K A Y, or **KEY**, or **QUAY**, a wharf for shipping and landing of goods in the port of London.

In rotulo scaccarii, anno 19 Car. II. In pursuance of * an act of parliament, it is there ordained, That † the kays, wharfs, and places hereafter named, and no others, be assigned, appointed, and allowed by his majesty, to be lawful kays, wharfs, or places, for the shipping, lading, or landing of goods: that is to say, the kays or wharfs called,

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 14.
† 13th Rule, page 178.

1. Brewer's-kay, bounded on the east with Tower-dock, containing from east to west 73 feet, and in breadth from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

K A Y

Chester's-kay, containing from east to west 51 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

3. Gally-kay, containing from east to west 101 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

4. Wool-dock; containing from east to west 61 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

5. Custom-house-kay, containing from east to west 202 feet, besides 6 feet more at the east end thereof, betwixt that and Wool-dock, being a common sewer arched over; and, from the river of Thames northward, all the extent of ground which shall not be employed or used in the building of his majesty's custom-house and offices thereunto belonging. But the stone-stairs on the west side thereof, containing 15 feet in breadth, is declared to be a place for wherries and passengers, and fetching of water only, and not for any goods or merchandize.

6. Porter's-kay, containing from east to west 103 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

7. Bear-kay, containing from east to west 62 feet 4 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

8. Sab's-dock, excluding the stairs there (which are hereby declared no lawful place of shipping or landing of goods or merchandize) containing from east to west 30 feet; and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet.

9. Wiggon's-kay, containing from east to west 52½ feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

10. Young's-kay, containing from east to west 46 feet 4 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

11. Ralph's-kay, containing from east to west 81 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

12. Dice-kay, containing from east to west 111 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet; and if the stairs on the east side thereof be taken away, and the passage leading thereunto be laid into the said kay, then to contain 6 feet more from east to west, and northward from the river of Thames, the said passage to contain 40 feet: but, in the mean time, the said stairs are declared unlawful for the landing, lading, or shipping of goods or merchandize.

13. Smart's-kay, at the south end thereof, containing from east to west 27 feet 2 inches, and extending northward along the side of Billingsgate-dock 176 feet 6 inches, and in all other parts extending from the said dock eastward 40 feet.

14. Somer's-kay, containing from east to west, and including the passage leading to the stairs on the east side thereof, 73½ feet, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet: but the place where the said stairs now stand, is hereby declared to be no lawful place of landing or shipping of goods and merchandize, until the stairs be taken away.

15. Lyon-kay, containing from east to west 36 feet 9 inches, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet: but no stairs, as formerly, to be erected thereupon, or thereunto.

16. Botolph-wharf, containing from east to west 78 feet, and from the river of Thames northwards, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

17. Hammon's-kay, containing from east to west 23 feet, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet.

18. Gaunt's-kay, containing from east to west 31 feet, including the small stairs on the east side thereof, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet; but the stairs are hereby declared unlawful for shipping, lading, or landing of goods and merchandize.

19. Cock's-kay, containing from east to west 40 feet 8 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place:

20. One place betwixt Cock's-kay and Fresh-wharf, commonly called Part of Fresh-wharf, containing from east to west 25 feet, including the stairs at the east side thereof, and northwards

northwards from the river of Thames 40 feet in the narrowest place: but the said stairs are hereby declared unlawful for shipping or landing of goods.

21. Fresh-wharf, containing from east to west 115 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narrowest place.

22. Billingsgate, containing from north to south 171 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and in breadth from east to west 40 feet; to be a common open place, for the landing or bringing in of fish, salt, victual or fuel of all sorts, and all native materials for building, and for fruit, (all manner of grocery excepted) and for carrying out the same, and for no other wares or merchandize. And if the lord mayor and aldermen of the city shall think fit to fill up any part of the said dock, at the north end thereof, not exceeding 40 feet in length, the same ground, so filled up, may have the same privilege as the rest of the wharf before prescribed.

Bridge-house in Southwark may be allowed as a place convenient for the landing of any kind of corn, bought or provided for the provision or victualling of the city, and not upon any private or particular person's account, and for no other goods or merchandize.

It may be lawful for any person to ship or lade into any ship or vessel, on the river of Thames, bound over seas, and lying between London and Woolwich; any of the goods or merchandize hereafter mentioned, viz. horses, coals, beer, ordinary stones for building, fish taken by any of his majesty's subjects, corn or grain: provided that the custom and duties of such goods be duly paid, and cockets or other lawful warrants passed for the same, and delivered to the searcher, or one of his majesty's under-searchers, and shipped in the presence of some of them, and in the presence of a deputy, to such persons as shall be appointed, from time to time, to manage or receive the customs in the port of London, and not otherwise.

It may be lawful for any person, or persons, to unship and lay on land deal-boards, balks, and all sorts of masts, and great timber, at any place of the river of Thames betwixt Westminster and Limehouse-dock: provided the owners of such goods do first pay or compound for the custom and other duties, and declare the place at which they will land them (before they unship any of the goods) to the officers or farmers of the customs thereof for the time being, and receive sufferance or permission from them so to do; and that they unship none of the said goods, but in the presence of a waiter or officer appointed thereunto, unless by a special licence of the said officers or farmers of the customs for the time being, otherwise the said goods to be liable to forfeiture according to law.

It may be lawful for the owners or possessors of the several wharfs, called Lyon-kay, Somer's-kay, Dice-kay, and Sab's-dock, to fill up, or wharf over and enlarge into the river of Thames, so much as will make the front of their wall or campshot range equally with the adjoining kays or wharfs.

If any of the houses or buildings be intended for warehousing upon the wharf, or hereafter so employed, the two upper stories and garrets of the said houses to be made, and from time to time continued with glazed windows.

The number of cranes upon the said several wharfs to be at the election of the owners or possessors of the ground, provided they exceed not the dimensions following, viz. A single crane with one wheel, 12 feet in breadth, and a double crane with two wheels 20 feet, and each of them in depth or length from the wall or campshot, 21 feet at the most; and that the said cranes, as well single as double, be kept open and free, for common passage from the ground to the floor under the wheels, without any other inclosure, partition, separation, or hindrance by posts or spurs, than the necessary posts and timbers, which support the same at both ends, and that the open height of the said crane be at least 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet from the ground to the floor under the wheels, that carts and carriages may freely pass under them.

It shall not be lawful for any person to build any outsets, jets, penthouses, warehousing, rooms, lodgings, or any manner of posts, sheds, or buildings, contiguous or annexed to the said cranes, or any part of the open wharf of 40 feet in breadth, described as aforesaid, more than what is convenient about the cranes, for the wheels to work in and upon, and sufficient covering thereunto, not exceeding the height, breadth, and length aforesaid. And, for further ornament, those cranes to be laid in oil and coloured blue, and, in the front thereof towards the Thames, be placed the king's arms, painted and set in an escutcheon, or other frame, with a decent moulding about it, of at least 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter.

That all the passages, lanes, or cartways, leading to the said kays or wharfs from Thames-street, and every of them, be made of the breadth of 11 feet at the least: but, if any was of a larger breadth or dimension heretofore, this shall not be construed or meant to lessen or straighten it, but that it continue at the ancient or larger dimension.

The several kays and wharfs described, and allowed to be free places for shipping and landing of goods and merchandizes as aforesaid, and which according to the tenor of the said act of parliament for rebuilding the said city, is and ought to be

left open and free at the distance of 40 feet from the water-side, shall not be separated or divided one from another by any house, wall, pail, post, rail, or other impediment whatsoever, but only by mere stones or marks in the pavement, for the distinction of property, and not otherwise.

If any wharfinger or owner of any of the wharfs or grounds allowed for shipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandizes as aforesaid, do not conform to the present form, rules, and method, hereby prescribed and directed, for their wharfs, cranes, or buildings, or hereafter shall discontinue or alter the same, or make new encroachments thereupon, after public notice given by any three or more of the principal officers or farmers of his majesty's customs, by fixing up a writing under their hands, upon the wharf where the fault shall be committed, declaring the offence and limiting a day and time for the amendment thereof; which if not amended or performed accordingly, that then such wharf, or crane, shall from thenceforward be no more reputed or taken, to have the benefit or privilege as a lawful place of shipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandize; but be thenceforward utterly debarred thereof, unless restored by his majesty's special warrant; and nevertheless the said buildings, alterations and encroachments, to be demolished and removed, as the law in that case hath directed.

If at any time it shall seem reasonable to the principal officers or farmers of the customs for the time being, and consistent with his majesty's service, to give sufferance or permission for the shipping, lading, or landing, of any goods or merchandize, at any other place or places, or in any other manner than is herein before nominated and advised, or assigned to be lawful kays and wharfs; it shall and may be lawful for them so to do, and such sufferance and permission shall be good and warrantable, without any forfeiture or advantage to be taken against the goods so landed, notwithstanding any thing herein before declared to the contrary.

Whoever shall accept of, or from henceforward employ any of those kays or wharfs, by virtue of such concessions, to the use of shipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandize, it is to be understood, and it is declared to be with this covenant and condition, that they perform all and singular the orders, assignments, and appointments, which on their parts and behalfs is before declared to be performed and done, and not otherwise.

The several wharfingers or possessors of any of the said kays or wharfs, or their servants, shall not suffer to stand or remain upon their wharfs, or passages leading to them from Thames-street, any more than such cars or carts as shall be immediately called to lade or take up goods, wares, or merchandize there.

To prevent all future differences and disputes touching the extent and limits of the port of London, and the many frauds and abuses which have been acted and committed, as well upon and within the river of Thames, as without the mouth thereof upon the sea, the said port is declared to extend and be accounted from the promontory or point called the North Foreland, in the isle of Thanet, and from thence northward in a supposed right line, to the opposite promontory or point called the Naes, beyond the Gunfleet, upon the coast of Essex, and so continued westward through the river of Thames, and the several channels, streams, and rivers falling into it, to London-bridge: saving the usual and known right, liberty, and privilege, to the ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and either of them, and the known members thereof, and of the customers, comptrollers, searchers and their deputies, of and within the said ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and the several creeks, harbours, and havens to them, or either of them respectively belonging, within the counties of Kent or Essex: but that every part and place of the river Thames, and sea, within the limits and bounds aforesaid, not included or belonging to the said ports of Sandwich or Ipswich, or the several creeks, harbours, or havens, to them, or one of them, respectively belonging, within the said counties of Kent or Essex, shall be deemed and taken to be within, and part and parcel of the port of London.

No further or other passage to be made or enlarged to the wharfs, or any part of the river of Thames from Thames-street, within the limits aforesaid, other than the ancient and common passages to the same.

KENT, is bounded with Suffex on the south-west; Surrey on the west; the English Channel on the south; Dover Straights on the south-east; the Downs on the east; and it is divided from Essex and Middlesex on the north, by the river Thames, and is about 166 miles in circumference. Both the air and soil of it are various. The shore from Woolwich to Gravesend, is low, and spread with marshes and unhealthy grounds, excepting about Erith, Greenhithe, Northfleet, &c. where the chalk-hills almost join the river; and from thence the city of London, and parts adjacent, and even Holland and Flanders are supplied with chalk; which is also carried by lighters and hoys to all the ports and creeks in Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk, where it is sold to the farmers, who give from half a crown to four shillings a load for it, according to the distances.

The country, in general, abounds with plantations of hops, corn-fields, pastures, and woods of oak, beech, chesnuts, &c. and many woods of birch, whence the broom-makers, who live in Kent-street, Southwark, are supplied. They have mines of iron, pits of marl and chalk, wood and madder for dyers; wool, flax, faintoin; and on the cliffs between Folkstone and Dover, is plenty of samphire.

CANTERBURY, the chief city, is seated on the Stour, which runs through it.

Here are computed to be about 2 or 3000 French protestants, who, with some others that came hither before them, brought over the art of weaving broad silks, which is now arrived to such perfection, that the silks woven here are as good, if not better, than any foreign silks, and are sent to London in great quantities.

But what has added most to the advantage of this city, is the hop-grounds all round it, to the amount of several thousand acres; so that, till it was equalled by Farnham, it was reckoned the only great plantation of hops in the whole island. This city and Shrewsbury are the two most noted places in England for brawn.

ROCHESTER, lies in a valley on the east side of the Medway, in several creeks and branches of which, within the jurisdiction of this city, is an oyster-fishery, which is free to every one who has served seven years apprenticeship to any fisherman or dredger that is free of the said fishery; for regulation of which, an admiralty-court, as they call it, is held by the mayor and citizens, as occasion requires; at which they appoint what quantities shall be taken, and when. Every licensed dredger pays 6 s. 8 d. yearly, to the support of the courts.

MAIDSTONE, the county town, is seated on the Medway also. It's chief trade is in linen-thread, and in hops, of which are great plantations about the town, as well as orchards of cherries. This town, and country about, is so eminent for it's plenty of provisions and rich lands, that London is supplied from hence with more commodities than from any single market-town in England; as also with a sort of paving-stone, about 8 or 10 inches square, exceeding durable, and with a fine white sand for the glass-houses and stationers.

RUMNEY, is one of the Cinque Ports, the sea having deserted it's haven; the chief trade it has now is grazing cattle in the marsh, which is reckoned some of the richest pasture in England. This marsh is the place from whence the owlers have for so many ages exported our wool to France.

HYTHE, is another of the Cinque Ports, but a place of no trade, it's harbour being choaked up.

DOVER, another Cinque Port, is a large populous place, and noted for it's tide, harbour, and the station of the packet-boats, which go twice a week to France and Flanders.

SANDWICH, is the last and most easterly of all the Cinque Ports. This port has for many years past been so choaked up with sands, that it will receive only small vessels. It's chief trade at present is in shipping and malting.

On the west point of the island of Sheppey, lies **SHEERNESS**, a regular fortification, with a line of heavy cannon to guard the mouth of the Medway. Here is also a yard for building ships, and a dock for repairing.

CHATHAM is, as it were, a suburb to Rochester; it was built

by king Charles II. and has been noted ever since as the station for the royal navy. The dock was begun by queen Elizabeth, but so much improved since, that there is not a more complete arsenal in the whole world; the warehouses, or rather streets of them, being the largest that ever were.

TUNBRIDGE, is of chief note for the wells near it.

DEAL, is a handsome large town, and carries on some foreign trade.

FEVERSHAM, is a populous flourishing place, situated in so fruitful a part of the county, that it may be called it's garden, and has the conveniency of a creek from the Thames, which is navigable by hoys, lighters, &c. 'Tis one of the towns that supply London markets with abundance of fruit, and the largest and best oysters for stewing, which the Dutch also fetch away in great quantities, that a prodigious number of men and boats are employed here in the winter in dredging for them.

MILTON, is a large town, and has a considerable market for corn, fruit, and other provisions; which with oysters taken in the creeks, among which it is situated, are sent mostly to London.

GRAVESEND, has so much gardening about it, that they not only supply the towns for several miles round with garden-stuff, but send great quantities to London, where the asparagus in particular is preferred even to that of Battersea.

WOOLWICH, is of note for the yards and works erected here for the naval service.

DEPTFORD has also a large yard, and noble dock.

KINCARDINSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the east with the German Ocean, on the south with the water of North Esk, on the west with the Granbain-Hills, and on the north with the river Dee and Aberdeenshire.

The soil is fruitful in corn and pasturage, and on the sea-coasts are several convenient creeks and some good harbours.

STONEHIVE, the county-town, is one of it's best harbours, and, for it's greater safety, the late earl marshal, having a salmon-fishing on the north side of it, raised a pier of stone.

PALDYKIRK, is noted for a yearly fair, which lasts three days, when great quantities of coarse cloth are bought up here and exported to the Netherlands.

The stewarty of **KIRCUDBRIGHT** in Scotland. 'Tis one of the two districts or divisions of Galloway. It begins at the middle of the bridge of Dumfries, lies between the water of Cree on the west, and Nithdale on the east; is bounded by part of Kyle on the north, and has the Irish Sea on the south. There's such plenty of pasture in it, that vast flocks of small cattle and sheep grazed here are sent into England.

KIRCUDBRIGHT, stands on a bay of the same name in the Irish Sea, at the mouth of the river Dee, in which it has a good salmon-fishing. Here is a commodious harbour, with depth of water, and room enough to hold the English navy. Yet it is a place of no great trade.

NEW GALLOWAY, on the river Ken, has a good weekly market, well frequented for corn and other provisions; and a good salmon-fishing in Lochken; which abounds not only with salmon, but other fish; contains several islands, is about five miles long, and in some places about one mile broad.

A N

I N D E X

O F T H E

M A T E R I A L A R T I C L E S,

Contained in the FIRST VOLUME of the UNIVERSAL
DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE.

L E T T E R A.

A AGGI-DOGGII, a dangerous passage for the trading caravans through Persia, &c.

AAM, or HAAM, a measure used at Amsterdam and Bourdeaux, &c.

ABACA, a kind of flax or hemp in the Manillas, &c.

ABASSI, a silver coin in Persia, &c. various sorts, &c.

ABATELEMENT, a sentence of the French consul in the ports of the Levant, &c.

ABATEMENT, rebate or discount; it's various applications.

ABB, in the clothing manufacture, &c.

ABEL-MOSC, a seed of various uses, &c.

ABERDEENSHIRE, it's product, trade, and ports; with remarks, shewing the encouragement given to the Scotch linen manufactures, and it's consequence. See SCOTLAND, &c.

ABLAQUE, a sort of silk from Persia, &c.

ABOUCCOUCHOU, a sort of woollen cloth made in France, and sent to the Levant, &c.

ABRA, a silver coin in Poland.

ABROHANI, the name of a certain muslin, &c.

ABRUZZO, a province of Naples, it's produce and trade.

ABUCCO, a weight in Pegu.

ABYSSINIA; in Æthiopia, it's produce and trade, with remarks instructive, &c.

ACACIA, a fruit, it's uses.

ACACIA VERA, ditto.

ACACIA GERMANICA, ditto.

ACAJOU, ditto.

ACANTHUS, it's natural history.

ACAPULCO, it's trade from Mexico to Manilla, in the Philippine islands.

ACCEPTANCE, in regard to bills of exchange in general.

ACCEPTOR OF BILLS, ditto.

ACCOMMODATION. See ARBITRATION.

ACCOUNT, or ACCOMPT, considered in various lights.

ACCOUNT OF SALES, in practical trade.

ACCOUNTANT, or ACCOMPTANT, ditto.

ACCOUNTANTSHIP, ditto.

ACCOUNTING-HOUSE, ditto.

ACHAIA, a province in Turkey, it's trade.

ACHIA, it's natural history.

ACHAR, a Malayan word explained.

ACHOLT, a drug.

ACHTELING, a measure in Germany.

ACHTENDEELEN, ditto in Holland.

ACICÖCA, a valuable herb in Peru.

ACORI, a curious sort of coral.

ACQUIESCENCE, term in French commerce.

ACQUITANCE, it's divers senses in trade.

ACTION in law, and in commerce, and finances.

ACTIONARY, or ACTIONIST, a proprietor in stocks.

ADARNE, a weight in Spain.

ADATIS, a species of muslin.

ADDITIO, in arithmetic.

ADIT, in mining.

ADMINISTRATION, a term in the trade of Peru.

ADMIRAL, as connected with the French trade.

ADMIRALTY, in France and England, as it relates to commerce.

ADMIRALTY, of Holland, as it relates to commerce.

ADVANCE, it's various senses in trade.

ADVENTURE, a mercantile term.

ADVENTURERS, of divers kinds in trade.

ADVENTURINE, a precious stone.

ADVERTISE, it's use in trade.

ADVICE, in several lights.

AEM, a liquid measure in Holland.

AFFA, a weight on the coast of Guinea.

AFFAIR, in trade.

AFFICHÉ, a term in the French trade.

AFFIDAVIT, with remarks. See OATH.

AFFIRMATION, the oath of a quaker.

AFRICA, a view of it's trade.

AGATE, a precious stone.

AGE, in trade.

AGENCY, ditto, with remarks.

AGENDA, a remembrancer.

AGENOIS, a province in France, it's trade.

AGENT, in affairs of business.

AGENT, in regard to trade and finances in France and Holland.

AGIO, it's signification in several senses.

AGITO, a weight in Peru.

AGNUS-CASTUS, it's natural history.

AGRA, a kingdom in the Mogul empire; it's trade, with remarks.

AGRA, a drug in China.

AGRA-CORAMBA, ditto.

AGRICULTURE, remarks on it's benefit to the landed interest, and it's natural connection with trade.

AGROTEUR, a term in French trade.

AJAM, in Africa, it's trade.

AID, it's sense in trade and finances.

AIDERBEITZEN, a province in Persia, it's trade.

AIGRIS, a stone passing for current coin in a part of Africa.

AIRSHIRE, in Scotland, it's trade.

AKEND, an officer of justice in Persia.

ALABASTER, it's natural history and use.

ALADULIA, a province in Asia, it's trade.

ALAMODE, a manufacture; laws relative thereto in England.

ALBANIA, a province in Turkey, it's trade.

ALBE, a piece of money in Germany.

ALBERTUS, a Flemish coin.

ALCANA, a drug used in dyeing.

ALCAVALA, a duty of customs paid in Spain.

ALE, a malt liquor in England, with laws relating to the same.

ALENTEJO, a province in Portugal; it's trade.

ALFANDIGA, the Portuguese custom-house.

ALGARVA, a small kingdom in Portugal; it's trade.

ALGIER, a kingdom in Africa; it's trade.

ALIEN, residing in England; the laws concerning such.

ALIQUNT PART, a term in arithmetic and geometry.

ALIQUNT PART, ditto.

ALLEVEURE, a coin in Sweden.

ALLAY, or ALLOY, as it concerns refining gold and silver, with remarks.

ALLEGATION, a rule in arithmetic.

ALLOCATION, a term in finances.

ALLOTING, or ALLOTMENT, a term in commerce.

ALLOWANCES, as they concern merchants at the English custom-house.

I N D E X.

- ALLUM**, a fossil salt; the manner of discovering, and preparing it for uses of several sorts.
- ALLURE**, or **ALLEVURE**, a coin in Sweden.
- ALMADY**, a small kind of vessel.
- ALMENE**, a weight.
- ALMOKARIFARGO**, a duty on goods in Spain.
- ALMONDS**, their trade.
- ALNAGE**, a measure; remarks.
- ALNAGER**, a public officer; remarks.
- ALOES**, it's various descriptions and uses.
- ALOSE**, a species of fish, valued in the East-Indies.
- ALPAGNA**, an animal useful in Peru.
- ALPHENIX**, explained.
- ALQUIER**, a foreign measure.
- ALQUIFOU**, or **ARQUIFOU**, a mineral.
- ALSACE**, formerly belonging to Germany; it's trade, with remarks political.
- ALTIN**, a coin in Muscovy.
- ALTON**, a coin in Turkey.
- AMALGAMATION**, a chemical operation.
- AMALGAMATE**, ditto.
- AMASIA**, a province in Asia; it's trade, with remarks.
- AMAZON'S RIVER**, in America; it's trade.
- AMBASSADOR**, with remarks political, as relative to trade.
- AMBER**, it's natural history.
- AMBERGHESE**, ditto; with remarks.
- AMBER-SEED**, or **MUSK-SEED**, it's natural history.
- AMBEREDA**, factitious amber.
- AMBULANT**, an exchange broker at Amsterdam.
- AMENB**, relating to woollen-cloths.
- AMENDABLE**, relating to the care of manufactures in France.
- AMENDABLE**, ditto, in another sense.
- AMERICA**, it's commerce, the great wealth of Spain arising thence; with the last treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the most Christian king, the king of Spain, and the king of Portugal, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February, 1763.
- AMMUNITION**, laws in England concerning the same.
- AMOUNT**, a term in numbers.
- AMPHUSCII**, a term in geography.
- AMPHORA**, a measure at Venice.
- AMPLIATION**, a term in the French trade.
- AMPLITUDE**, in navigation and astronomy.
- ANA**, a term in pharmacy.
- ANABASSES**, a manufacture.
- ANACOSTE**, a sort of diaper.
- ANAGROS**, a Spanish measure.
- ANANAS**, the pine-apple, a curious account of that valuable vegetable.
- ANATTA**, or **ANATTO**, a species of dyeing wood.
- ANATOCISM**, a commercial term.
- ANATOLIA**, in Turkey, it's produce and trade.
- ANCHOR**, concerning shipping, a useful account thereof.
- ANCHORAGE**, ditto.
- ANCHOVY**, a fish, it's trade.
- ANCONA**, in Italy, it's produce and trade; with remarks political.
- ANDALUSIA**, a province in Spain; it's produce and trade, with remarks political.
- ANDIRA**, a brazil wood, for building and other uses.
- ANEE**, or **ASNEE**, a French measure for grain.
- ANEGRASS**, a measure for corn in Spain.
- ANGEL**, an ancient English coin.
- ANGELICA**, a medicinal plant.
- ANGELOT**, a sort of cheese in France.
- ANGESEY**, an island in Wales; it's produce and trade.
- ANGOLA**, in Africa, belonging to the Portuguese; it's produce and trade, with remarks political.
- ANGOUMOIS**, a province in France; it's produce and trade.
- ANISE**, or **ANIL**, a wood used in the East-Indies.
- ANKER**, a liquid measure at Amsterdam.
- ANNUITY**, how to compute it's value, according to Dr. Halley, and others of most fame.
- ANNUL**, in book-keeping.
- ANONYMOUS**, relating to mercantile partnerships; with remarks.
- TO ANSWER**, a term in trade.
- ANTARCTIC-POLE**, in geography.
- ANTEDATE**, a term in practical trade.
- ANTICIPATE**, ditto.
- ANTILLES ISLANDS**, in America; their produce and trade.
- ANTIMONY**, a mineral; it's various uses, and divers curious processes for it's preparation.
- ANTIPODES**, in geography.
- ANTISCHII**, ditto.
- ANTOECI**, ditto.
- ANTWERP**, a remarkable city in the Netherlands; it's trade.
- ANYIL**, in smithery.
- APOTHECARY**, with remarks.
- APPEAL**, in law, as well as trade.
- APPENZEL**, a canton of Switzerland; it's produce and trade.
- APPRAISE**, and **APPRAISER**, his peculiar regulations in trade in France.
- APPRENTICE**, his regulation in France and England.
- AQUA FORTIS**, how prepared for it's divers uses in several arts and trades; with remarks.
- ARABIA**, it's produce and trade; with remarks.
- ARAC**, how made.
- ARANEA**, a silver ore, found in the mines of Potosi.
- ARBITEK**, or **ARBITRATOR**, the regulations thereof in France, and the laws in England relating thereto.
- ARBITRATE**, and **ARBITRATION**, of personal disputes in trade.
- ARBITRATION**, in matters of foreign exchange, illustrated by divers cases; with curious mercantile remarks.
- ARCHIPELAGO**, their situation, produce, and trade.
- ARCHITECT**, and **ARCHITECTURE**; with remarks.
- AREE**, a money of account in the Mogul empire.
- ARECK**, a famous East-India fruit, wherein there is a vast trade.
- ARITHMETIC**, the whole art comprehended in a few pages, from rational principles.
- ARMADA**, that of Spain explained, as the same concerns the Spanish trade.
- ARMADILLA**, it's use in the Spanish trade.
- ARMAGNAC**, a province in France; it's produce and trade.
- ARMENIA**, a kingdom in Asia; it's produce and trade.
- ARMENIANS**, their distinguished skill in commerce; with political remarks.
- ARMOISIN**, a kind of silk stuff in France and in Italy, as well as the East-Indies.
- ARMONICAC**, an alkaline salt, it's various species, and uses in several trades.
- ARMOURERS**, regulations of their trade, as well in France as England.
- ARMS**, the laws concerning the same in France and England.
- AROE**, a weight used in several parts in the world.
- AROUCHAN**, a kind of beaver in North America.
- AROUÉ**, ditto, in Spanish America.
- ARPENT**, a measure of land, in divers countries.
- ARQUEBUSE**, or **HARQUEBUSE**, a peculiar-sort of fire-arms.
- ARRACAN**, or **ARRACKAN**, a kingdom in the East-Indies; it's produce and trade.
- ARRAGON**, a kingdom in Spain; it's produce and trade.
- ARREAR-CHARGE**, what so called in trade.
- ARREARS**, in trade.
- ARSCHEIN**, a long measure in China.
- ARTS and TRADES**, in France, what filed so.
- ARTICLE**, what reckoned such in commerce.
- ARTIFICER**, or **ARTIZAN**, or **MECHANIC**; with national remarks thereon for the public interests.
- ARTILLERY**, how prepared, and the care thereof in France and England.
- ARTOIS**, a province in France; it's produce and trade.
- ASBESTOS**, or **ASBESTUS**, a curious incombustible matter; it's qualities and it's manufacture.
- ASCII**, a term in geography.
- ASEN**, or **AZEM**, or **ACHEM**, or **ACHAM**, a kingdom in the East-Indies; it's produce and trade.
- ASIA**, one of the four parts of the world; a succinct account of it's produce and trade.
- ASIA MINOR-ISLANDS**, their situation, produce, and trade.
- ASLANI**, or **ASELANI**, a certain dollar.
- ASPEE**, a corn measure in France.
- ASPER**, a coin in Turkey.
- ASPHALTUM**, a species of bitumen; with political remarks.
- ASPIC**, a kind of lavender in France; applicable to divers uses.
- ASS**, productive of valuable mules.
- ASSA-FOETIDA**, it's natural history and use.
- ASSAY**, **ESSAY**, or **SAY**, in metallurgical operations; with remarks in assaying ores, mundics, marcasites; and it's utility to landed gentlemen, and merchants, and others, to prevent frauds.
- ASSIENTO**, a Spanish term, signifying a contract; more particularly applied to the **ASSIENTO CONTRACT**, as it was called by the English, that we had with Spain for the sale of negroes, to supply their Spanish Indies, to work their mines—of the treaty between Spain and England for that purpose; with political remarks thereon.
- ASSURANCE**, or **INSURANCE**, of ships and merchandizes; it's practical nature, together with variety of important cases that have occurred, and been litigated and determined in our courts of judicature; also a national enquiry into the practice of insuring the ship of our enemies in times of war, in a political light.
- ASTREBAD**, or **ESTARABAD**, in Persia; it's produce and trade.
- ASTRACAN**, a kingdom in the empire of Muscovy; it's produce and trade.
- ASTURIAS**, a principality in Spain; it's produce and trade.
- ATCHE**, a coin in Turkey.
- ATIBAR**, a name for gold-dust in Africa.
- ATLAS**, a manufacture of the East-Indies; with remarks.
- ATTACHMENT**, in trade; our chief laws relating thereto.
- ATTORNEY AT LAW**, of his profession; with remarks thereon.
- AVA**, including the kingdom of Pegu; it's produce and commerce.

AUDITOR OF ACCOUNTS, as he relates to the revenue in England.

AVERAGE, with regard to affairs of insurance of ships and merchandizes. See **ASSURANCE**, or **INSURANCE**; the laws relating thereto.

AVIGNON-BERRY, a shrub produced in France; and used in dyeing.

AUNIS, a province in France; it's produce and trade.

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT, a weight used in England.

AURICALCUM, a factitious metal.

AURIFIGMENTUM, a mineral substance; or gleebe; it's produce and use.

AURUM FULMINANS, how prepared, and it's uses.

AUSTRIA, an archduchy in Germany; it's produce and commerce, with remarks.

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, their produce and commerce; with remarks.

AUVERGNE, a province in France; it's produce and commerce.

AWARD, in matters of amicable arbitration of personal disputes, how to be legally made.

AWME, a Dutch liquid measure.

AZIMUTH COMPASS, in navigation.

AZOGA SHIPS, concerned in the Spanish trade, and how.

AZORES ISLANDS, their produce and trade.

OF THE BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued at the end of every letter.

The origin of custom duties.
 An explanation of the book of rates.
 How to compute the duties of custom pursuant thereto.
 Of methods of entering goods at the Custom-house on importation, with divers forms of writings requisite.
 Of allowance at the Custom-house to merchants of divers kinds.
 Certain rules, orders, directions, and allowances for the advancement of trade, and encouragement of the merchant, ought to be well attended to by merchants.—Those signed by Harbottle Grimstone, Bart. Speaker of the House of Commons.
 The other rules signed by Spencer Compton, Speaker of the House of Commons.
 An enquiry, whether the merchants of Great-Britain are not legally intitled to a discount, upon payment of the subsidy of 1747, and that also of 1759, which they have never yet received.

L E T T E R B.

B A A T, a weight in China.

BACALIANS, or **BACALLAO**, the fish bearing that name among merchants.

BACHELOR, the name given amongst the corporations of trades at Paris; his business.

BACK-MAKER, a trade useful to brewers.

BADEN, a county in Switzerland; it's produce and trade.

BADGER, affording several sorts of merchandize.

BADIONE, a seed; it's use in China.

BAFFETAS, or **BAFTAS**, a species of cloth in France described.

BAGAUZ, sugar-canes in the Antilles Islands, after undergoing an operation.

BAGS, as used in money-affairs by bankers, &c.

BAHAMA, or **LUCAYA ISLANDS**, their situation, produce, and trade; with remarks, relating to the utility they may prove to Great-Britain, since the peace of 1763.

BAHER, **BAHARIE**, or **BARRE**, weights used in the East-Indies.

BAILLOQUE, a species of feathers in France.

BAIOCA, a coin.

BAKERS, the regulation of this trade in England and France.

BALAUSTINES, belonging to the pomegranate-tree; natural history.

BALAZEES, a kind of cotton cloth.

BALE, of merchandize described, for exportation.

BALESTRI, a kind of cloth.

BALLANCE, a power in mechanics.

BALLANCE of a watch described.

BALLANCE OF A TRADER'S books of accounts.

BALLANCE OF TRADE, in a political light, with illustrative remarks, not incurious; useful to merchants, and gentlemen of distinction, who would understand trade in a national view.

BALLAST of a ship, in merchandizing.

BALLIAGE, a duty payable to the city of London, for merchandizes of aliens and denizens.

BALLIN, a term in the French trade.

BALLON, a brigantine vessel, used in Siam, and has other significations in commerce.

BALM, curious account of various species; with remarks,

concerning the preparation of several kinds of the finest sorts for merchandize.

BAMBOE, or **BAMBOU**, it's uses.

BAMFFSHIRE, in Scotland; it's situation, produce and trade.

BAN, a sort of muslin; it's signification in other respects.

BANCO, an Italian term in commerce.

BAND, a weight used on the gold coast.

BANIANS, a kind of Indians in Asia, through whose hands the trade with the Europeans is carried on.

BANKING, the nature and use in various respects, both domestic and foreign; with political remarks in a national view.

BANKRUPT, laws concerning bankrupts; with variety of the most material cases relative thereto, that have been determined in our courts of judicature. Also the last act of parliament, relating to bankrupts having privilege of parliament. The lights wherein bankruptcies are considered in France; also in Holland; also in China; with remarks to avoid such like misfortunes in trade.

BAPTISM, a ceremony practised at sea in long voyages.

BARATRY, according to the laws of England; cases concerning it, as they have been determined in our courts of law.

BARBARY, it's produce and trade, and chief trading towns, cities and ports; with suitable remarks thereon.

BARBATINA, a seed; it's use.

BARCALAO, relating to fisheries.

BARGAIN, what is so in law; with illustrative remarks.

BARK, a vessel.

BARK, in other senses.

BARLEY, it's divers sorts for malting.

BARRA, a Portuguese measure, and of various other countries.

BARRACON, a species of camblet manufacture; how made.

BARRIERES, what they are in France; with useful remarks thereon.

BARTER, in trade; with political remarks in a national view.

BARUTH, a measure.

BARUTINE, a silk.

BASALTES, a species of marble.

BASARUCCO, a coin.

BASIL, a canton in Switzerland; it's produce and trade.

BASIN, as used in commerce.

BASLE, the name of a Venetian consul for affairs of trade.

BASTION OF FRANCE, a certain settlement for the coral fishery.

BATE, or **BATZ**, a coin.

BAVARIA, in Germany; it's situation, produce and trade, and it's trading towns, cities, and ports.

BAY.

BAYS, a manufacture; with remarks.

BAZAR, **BAZARI**, or **BAZAARD**, in the eastern nations, a place of trade.

BAZAT, or **BAZE**, a kind of cotton.

BAZGENDE, what.

BDELLIUM, what kind of curious gum.

BEAM, in house and ship-building.

BEAN, a pulse in several countries, of various sorts. That of St. Ignatius greatly famed in medicine, with it's nature and uses; with curious remarks.

BEAR, an animal; his uses to several trades.

BEARER, of a bill.

BEARING, in geography and navigation.

BEAUCAIRE, a famous trading fair, with remarks.

BEAUCE, in France; it's produce and trade.

BEAVER, an animal of use in traffic; with remarks, with respect to our new acquisitions in North America.

BEDFORDSHIRE, a county in England; it's produce and trade.

BEE, an animal, it's productions and uses in commerce; with remarks how it's value may be increased.

BEECH-TREE, it's several sorts, uses, and propagation.

BEER, a liquor made from malt; the chief laws relating thereto in England.

BEGUVELLA, a plant; it's use.

BEID, a plant; it's several kinds and uses.

BEIGE-SERGE, a manufacture.

BEIRA, in Portugal, it's produce and trade; with remarks.

BELELAIS, a manufacture.

BELEMNITES, a fossil, it's uses; with suitable remarks on fossils.

BELL, how manufactured.

BELLASOR, in Asia, it's commerce.

BELLOWS, it's manufacture.

BENGAL, in Asia, it's situation, produce, and trade; with remarks.

BENZION, a gum; it's uses.

BERCHEROIT, a weight in Russia.

BERGAMO, a manufacture.

BERKSHIRE, a county in England; it's produce and trade.

BERMUDAS ISLANDS, their situation, produce and trade.

BERNE, in Switzerland; it's produce and trade, and chief towns and trading cities.

BERRY, in France; it's produce, and chief towns and cities of trade.

BERWICKSHIRE, in Scotland; it's produce and trade.

BERYL, a precious stone.

BESISTAN, a place set apart for trade in Turkey.

BESORCH, a coin.

I N D E X.

- BETEL**, a plant of great repute throughout Asia, a great trade therein.
- BEURT-SCHEEPEN**, exclusive vessels for trade in Holland; how wisely regulated.
- BEZOAR**, a medicinal stone, curious and valuable.
- BIA**, a coin.
- BICHET**, a measure.
- BIDON**, ditto.
- BIGONTIA**, ditto.
- BIGORRE**, in France; it's produce and trade, with suitable remarks.
- BILL**, it's various significations in trade.
- BILLS OF EXCHANGE**, their nature and use among traders; laws relating thereto; various curious cases, as they have been determined in courts of justice in England: of the laws and usages in Scotland concerning bills of exchange, with many curious cases, as the same have been adjudged in the courts of judicature in Scotland. The regulation of bills of exchange, according to the laws and customs in France. The orders and regulations of the city of Hamburg with regard to bills of exchange. An edict of the imperial city of Frankfort upon the Maine, relating to exchange and commerce. A later edict of the like nature. The regulations of exchange of the states of the city of Augsbrough. Some observations necessary for those, who have bills to receive at Amsterdam, in Holland. The elector of Saxony's decree for regulating the payment of bills of exchange. The ordonnances of exchange, established at Bologna in Italy. With remarks upon the whole.
- BILLS OF LADING**, their nature, use, and regulations concerning the same, with usages relating thereto.
- BILL OF PARCELS**.
- BILL OF SALE**, laws relating thereto.
- BILLEDULGERID**, in Africa; it's produce and trade.
- BINNELAND-PASS**, in Holland; what called fo.
- BIRCH-TREE**, it's uses in trade.
- BIRD-CATCHER**, the wise regulations of this mean trade in France.
- BIRDS-NESTS**, a spice in great esteem in China, and throughout the East-Indies; with remarks.
- BIRMINGHAM** hard-ware-men, their employ in England. See **WARWICKSHIRE**.
- BIS**, it's meaning in business.
- BISA**, or **BIZA**, a coin or weight.
- BISCAY**, in Old Spain, it's situation, produce and commerce, and it's chief towns, cities and ports; with interesting remarks to Great-Britain, both before and since the last war, and the peace of 1763.
- BISCAY-NEW**, in Mexico in America; it's produce and trade.
- BISKET**, or **BISCUIT**, sea-bread, the manner of making it in France curious; on the shipping it.
- BISMUTH**, a mineral; it's use.
- BISTI**, a coin.
- BITCHEMARE**, a fish; it's trade in Asia.
- BITTACLE**, a sea term.
- BITTS**, a part in a ship.
- BITUMEN**, a drug, it's various sorts and uses; with philosophical remarks.
- BLACK**, **DYERS BLACK**, several sorts, how prepared for several uses in dyeing of manufactures; with philosophical remarks.
- BLACK SEA**, or **EUXINE SEA**, it's situation and trade; with remarks political.
- BLADE** [SWORD-BLADE] that manufacture.
- BLAFART**, a coin.
- BLAISIS**, in France, it's produce and trade.
- BLANC**, a coin.
- BLANCHING**, the art of whitening, applied to various manufactures.
- BLANK**, applied to divers particulars in trade.
- BLANKET**, a manufacture made of several other materials besides wool.
- BLANQUIL**, a coin.
- BLASTING**, in mineralogy.
- BLEACHING**, an art of whitening, as it concerns linen, cloth, wax, iron, woollen-stuffs, hair, &c.
- BLIND**, in trade.
- BLOMARY**, in the manufacture of iron.
- BLOOD-STONE**, a mineral; it's virtues and uses.
- BLOWING OF GLASS**, in the manufacture of glass-making.
- BLUE**, with respect to the art of dyeing; painters blue, Prussian blue, &c. with philosophical illustrations.
- BOA ATI**, a Malayan word, and excellent fruit in the Molucca Islands, in which a great trade is drove.
- BOARD**, timber; with remarks.
- BOAT**, a vessel of divers kinds, used in business; with remarks.
- BOCAL**, a measure.
- BOCKING**, or **BOKKING**, applied to herrings in Holland.
- BODY**, or **COMPANY** of trade, applied to those in France, as the six bodies of traders, &c.
- BOHEA**, a species of tea; it's nature, growth, quality, gathering, and application.
- BOHEMIA**, a kingdom; it's produce and trade.
- BOLE**, a fossil; with philosophical remarks.
- BOLOGNESE**, in Italy; it's produce and trade.
- BOMB**, in cast iron.
- BOND**, a written obligation lawfully executed; our laws relating thereto; with divers useful cases determined in our courts of law thereon; with various forms.
- BONDING OF GOODS AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE**, the hardship of such practice to merchants.
- BOOK**, as the same concerns literature; with remarks on literary property.
- BOOK-KEEPING**, the art explained; with remarks.
- BOOK OF RATES**, with respect to the duties paid on the importation of foreign goods by merchants; or on the exportation of native commodities.
- BOOK-BINDER**, the trade.
- BOOKSELLER**, the trade; the regulation of that branch in France.
- BOOK-TRADE**, ditto; with remarks.
- BOOK-KEEPER**, his accomplishments; with remarks.
- BORAX**, a mineral salt, used in various arts.
- BORROWING OF MONEY**; it's dangers in trade. See **CREDIT** [PRIVATE CREDIT.]
- BOŚNIA**, a province between the house of Austria and the Turks; it's produce and trade.
- BOTTAGE**, a duty on merchandise in France.
- BOTTOMRY**, it's nature and use as a marine contract in commerce; laws relating thereto; many curious cases determined thereon in our courts of law, &c. Bottomry bills and bonds.
- BOUNTIES**, allowed on goods imported and exported. See conclusion of Vol. II.
- BOURBONNOIS**, a territory in France; it's produce and trade.
- BOX**, a wood, applied to divers uses.
- BRABANT**, in Flanders; it's produce and trade.
- BRACLET**, a wear, used in various parts of the world.
- BRANDENBURGH**, belonging to Prussia; it's produce and trade.
- BRANDY**, a spirituous liquor; it's manufacture and trade, with philosophical remarks; laws and regulations in France and England; of judging of it's quality; and it's use in health.
- BRASS**, a factitious metal; it's manufacture and trade.
- BRAZIER**, a trader in brass ware; the laws concerning it.
- BRAZIL**, in America; it's produce and trade, as carried on by the Portuguese.
- BRAZIL-WOOD**, it's use and trade.
- BREAD**, of it's manufacture and regulations in France as well as England.
- BREAKING**, as a bankrupt, in a commercial sense.
- BREAKING BULK**, in shipping.
- BREATH**, in regard to manufactures.
- BRECKNOCKSHIRE**, in Wales; it's produce and trade.
- BREMEN**, it's situation, produce, and trade; with remarks.
- BRENTA**, a measure.
- BREWER**, a trade, it's regulations in France and England.
- BREWING**, the art of; with explanatory remarks, as applied to divers other vegetables, as well as malt and hops.
- BRICK**, laws relating to brick-making.
- BRICKLAYER**, the trade of one.
- BRISTLE**, the business therein.
- BRITAIN** [Great-Britain] it's territories, produce and trade, before and after the last peace of 1763. With political remarks on the trade of Great-Britain in various interesting lights; with animadversions, tending to unite Great-Britain and the United Provinces more firmly together in affairs of commerce, than ever they have been, for their mutual commercial interests.
- BRITANY**, in France; it's produce and trade.
- BRITISH AMERICA**, it's produce and trade there, both before and since the last war, and treaty of peace of 1763; with political remarks, before and since the last peace of 1763. Of the different exchanges between our plantations and London.
- BROCADE**, a silk manufacture; regulations in France, and the laws in England relating to brocades.
- BROKAGE**, what in trade.
- BROKER**, various sorts; the laws of England concerning them, as well as in France; with remarks thereon.
- BRUNSWICK DUCHY**, it's situation, produce, and trade.
- BRUNSWICK LUNENBURGH**, ditto.
- BUBBLE**, a variety of sorts that have been practised in England and France, highly detrimental to the nation, and ruinous to great numbers of families; with political remarks to guard the kingdom against them in future times, as well stock bubbles, which affect the **PUBLIC CREDIT**, as commercial ones.
- BUCCANEERS**, of their ways of trade. French buccaneers of St. Domingo; buccaneer ox-hunters; buccaneer wild boar-hunters; Spanish buccaneers.
- BUCKINGHAMSHIRE**, county in England; it's produce and trade.
- BUCKRAM**, a manufacture.
- BUDZIACK TARTARY**, it's situation, produce and commerce.
- BUFF**, a manufacture.
- BULGARIA THE GREAT AND THE LESS**, it's situation, produce and trade.
- BULLION GOLD AND SILVER**, the nature thereof; the dealing therein, with the proper cautions; divers useful tables for the purpose; with political interesting remarks.

I N D E X.

BUOY, a sea term; it's use for safety of shipping.
BURGUNDY DUCHY, in France; it's situation, produce and commerce.
BURTHEN, of a ship, explained.
BUSS, a vessel used in the herring fishery.
BUTESHIRE, in Scotland; it's situation and trade.
BUTLERAGE and PRISAGE, a duty of customs explained.
A Continuation of the Business of the Custom-house, from the end of Letter A; with political remarks.

L E T T E R C.

CABALISTE, a commercial term in France, explained.
CABECA, or **CABESE**, a sort of silk traded in by the Portuguese in Asia; with remarks.
CABIDOS, or **CAVIDOS**, a measure in Portugal.
CABINET-WORK, the nature of the trade thereof.
CABLE, used in shipping; it's nature and strength illustrated; with remarks.
CACAO, or **COCAO**, the chocolate-nut, fully explained, and the trade therein; with political remarks, for the mutual benefit of Great-Britain and her colonies.
CAFFRARIA, a country in Southern Africa; it's situation, produce and trade.
CAFILEA, a company of merchants, who travel together in the Mogul empire.
CHAFRYS, a corn measure.
CAJOU. See **ACAJOU**, what it is.
CALAMANCO, a species of the woollen manufacture.
CALAMINE, or **CALAMINARY stone**, a fossil, explained; with illustrative remarks.
CALAMUS VERUS, or **CALAMUS AMARUS**, what.
CALCULATION explained.
CALCULATOR ditto.
CALENDAR, what, in variety of senses.
CALF, an animal well known.
CALVES-HAIR, it's use in trade.
CALVES-LEATHER, how prepared; with useful remarks.
CALIN, a sort of metal, peculiar to the East-Indies.
CALKING, applied in ship-building.
CALLICOE, a manufacture in the East-Indies; with political remarks.
CALLICOE-PRINTING; with philosophical remarks, for improvements.
CALLIFORNIA, it's situation, produce and trade; with political remarks.
CAMBAYA, a kingdom in the Mogul empire; it's situation, produce and trade, largely illustrated.
CAMBIO, what in trade.
CAMBIST, what ditto.
CAMBRESIS, a province in France, famed for the manufacture of cambrics.
CAMBRIC, a species of fine linen, formerly generally wore in England; the laws of England relating thereto, with political remarks.
CAMBRIDGESHIRE, a county in England; it's situation, produce and trade; with political remarks.
CAMBODIA, in the East-Indies; it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks.
CAMBLET, a stuff for ware, and it's manufacture explained.
CAMP, a place appointed for trade in the East-Indies.
CAMPHERE, or **CAMPHER**, a drug; with philosophical remarks and illustrations.
CANADA, in North America, ceded, with all it's dependencies, by France to Great-Britain, by the treaty of peace made in 1763; it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks political before, and since the said cession, by the treaty of 1763.
CANARY ISLANDS, their situation, produce and commerce; with suitable remarks.
CANDIDATE, how the term is applied in France to articles of trade. No candidate is admitted to the freedom into the several bodies of traders, without passing a due examination to evince their accomplishments for the purpose; shewing what the accomplishments are of divers kinds, &c.
CANDLE, a manufacture, in order to be of good quality, how regulated in France; with the chief laws of England relating thereto.
CANDLE, of sales in trade by candle.
CANDO, **CANDI**, or **CONDI**, a foreign measure.
CANE, walking-cane, their species and trade therein; it's various other senses, wherein taken in foreign states.
CANE, sugar-cane. See **SUGAR**.
CANICA, a sort of spice.
CANNON, a piece of ordnance.
CANOE, a small boat, used to trade in divers parts.
CANTARO, a foreign weight; also a measure.
CANTHARIDES, a species of fly; their uses in divers particulars.
CANTIMARONS, a kind of float, or raft, to fish and trade on in foreign countries.

CANVAS, a manufacture; with remarks.
CAP-MERCHANT, an officer in a French trading ship, explained.
CAPER, a fruit so called; with remarks.
CAPHER, a duty in Turkey.
CAPITAL, it's various senses among traders, and other people of business.
CAPLAN, a sort of fish.
CAPSTAN, an engine used on ship-board.
CAPTAIN OF MERCHANTMEN. See **COMMANDERS of MERCHANTMEN**.
CARACOLI, a kind of metal used in America.
CARAGI, duties of importation and exportation paid in Turkey explained.
CARAGROUGH, a coin.
CARAMONGOE, a drug.
CARANNA, or **KARANNA**, a gum.
CARAPACE, a shell.
CARAT, or **CARACT**, a term used in refining gold and silver; explained.
CARAVAN, a company of travelling traders, used in the East-Indies; also with remarks, shewing the nature of caravans in Africa, &c.
CARAVANSERA, a place appointed for receiving and loading the trading caravans.
CARAVANSERASKEER, who; his office and employ.
CARBEQUI, a coin.
CARBUNCLE, a precious stone.
CARD, an instrument used in the woollen manufacture; with remarks.
CARD, gaming cards, the method of making; laws relating thereto.
CARDAMOMUM, or **CARDAMUM**, a medicinal seed; it's utility.
CARDER, in the woollen manufacture; his regulations in France to promote that manufacture.
CARDING, in ditto, ditto.
CARD-MAKER, in ditto.
CARD-MAKER, of gaming cards; the French laws and regulations thereof.
CARDIGANSHIRE, in Wales; it's situation, produce and trade.
CARGADORS, a kind of ship-brokers among the Dutch, explained.
CARGO, a mercantile term, explained.
CARLINA, **CAROLINA**, or **CHAMÆLEON ALBUS**, a medicinal plant; it's uses.
CARLINO, a coin.
CARMARTHENSHIRE, in Wales; it's situation, produce and trade.
CARMELINE WOOL, a species of Spanish wool.
CARMEN, carriers or merchandize; their regulation.
CARMINE, a fine colour used in miniature painting.
CARNARVONSHIRE, in Wales; it's situation, produce and trade.
CARNATION, a fine colour used in dyeing.
CAROBES, a pulse, wherein there is a large trade in the island of Cyprus.
CAROLINA, in North America. See **BRITISH AMERICA**.
CAROLUS, a coin.
CARPET, a manufacture, it's regulations in France; with suitable remarks.
CARRIAGE, in trade, with remarks; the laws relating thereto, with cases determined thereon in our courts of judicature.
CARRIER, how regulated in France.
CART, ditto.
CARTWRIGHT, ditto; with remarks.
CARTWRIGHTS TIMBER, for their use, described.
CASAN, **CAZAN**, or **KASAN**, a kingdom in Muscovian Tartary; it's situation, produce and trade.
CASE-HARDENING, an art in metallic works.
CASH, in commerce; with remarks mercantile and political, respecting the money necessary to carry on the trade of a nation.
CASHOO, a drug, described, and it's use.
CASSAVA, the root of a shrub, of which the Americans make bread; with suitable remarks.
CASSIA, a drug; it's nature and use.
CASSIA-LIGNEA, ditto.
CASSIDONY, a precious stone.
CASSONADE, or **CASTONADE**, a sort of sugar. See **SUGAR**.
CASTILLANE, or **CARTELLAN**, a coin in Spain; also
CASTILLANE, a weight in Spain.
CASTILLE, New and Old, in Spain; it's situation, produce and trade; with political interesting remarks.
CASTING, in foundery.
CASTOREUM, what, and it's use.
CATALONIA, in Spain; it's situation, produce and trade; with interesting political remarks.
CATERGI, name of public carriers in the Grand Seigneur's dominions; a remarkable usage concerning them.
CATHNESSHIRE, in Scotland; it's situation, produce and trade.
CATTLE, **HEADS OF**, the laws of England relating thereto.
CAUDEBEC, hats so called in France.

- CAVIARY, CAVEARS or CAVEER**, the spawn, or roes of sturgeon properly cured, wherein there is a considerable trade in Russia.
- CEDAR**, a well known fine scented wood; a curious description of it's growth and uses.
- CEDRA, CEDRAT**, a kind of citron-tree, and fine cedrat water.
- CENSAL**, a trading term, used in the Levant and Provence, in France.
- CENT**, a commercial term, used in divers senses.
- CERUSE, or CERUSSE**, a calx of lead, for various purposes prepared.
- CESSION**, a mercantile term used in France, in cases of bankruptcy, when a trader gives up to his creditors all his effects, both moveable or immoveable, either voluntarily, or by a sentence of a court of justice, to avoid a warrant for seizing his person; the French laws and regulations relating thereto, not incurious.
- CESSIONARY**, he who accepts the cession. See **CESSION**.
- CHAMBER**, in France, is said of those places where some assemblies are held, either for the administration of justice, or for treating of other business, either of a public or a private nature.—Of
- CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE**, the establishment and utility of them in France, for the advantage of the French trade. Of the chamber of commerce at Lyons. Of the chamber of commerce at Rouen. Of the chamber of commerce at Touloufe. Of the chamber of commerce at Montpellier. Of the chamber of commerce at Bourdeaux. Of the chamber of commerce at Rochelle. Of the chamber of commerce in the city of Lisle; with interesting political remarks on this article chamber of commerce in various lights.
- CHAMBER OF ASSURANCE** in France; it's institution and regulations.
- CHAMPAGNE**, a province in France; it's situation, produce and trade; with important observations in the course of this article.
- CHARTER-PARTY**, a mercantile instrument; drawn between merchants and masters of ships; laws and usages relating thereto in England and France.
- CHEMISTRY**, it's use and application in matters of trade, with divers leading experiments, conveying the idea of it's important utility in many commercial concerns; with cautionary remarks to guard against chemical impostures.
- CHESHIRE**, in England; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CHILI**, in Spanish America; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CHINA**, a vast opulent empire in Asia; it's situation, produce and trade; with interesting political remarks.
- CHOCOLATE**, it's manufacture and trade.
- CINNAMON**, a spice; it's growth in the Spice-Islands, in the East-Indies, and it's trade.
- CIRCULATION** of money and merchandize in a nation, considered in a national and political light. See the article **CASH**.
- CITRON**, a fruit that comes from hot countries; it's uses.
- CIVET**, a kind of perfume, the commerce therein.
- CLACKMANNANSHIRE**, in Scotland, it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks.
- CLAYS**, of divers sorts, found on landed estates; with interesting remarks to landed gentlemen.
- CLERK**, in trade and business; with suitable remarks thereon.
- CLOCK-MAKER**, the laws in France concerning this trade, the laws of England relating to clock-making; with political remarks.
- CLOCK-WORK**, the art represented.
- CLOTH**, a manufacture made of wool; the manner of manufacturing cloths at large; with interesting political remarks on this article in divers lights.
- CLOVE**, a spice; it's nature and uses in trade.
- CLOUGH**, what; a term in trade.
- COACH**, it's origin and improvement; sumptuary law once in France relating thereto; coach-making in England, incorporated in the reign of Charles II.
- COAL**, the variety of sorts in England; the laws relating thereto, with interesting political remarks thereon.
- COBALT**, a kind of marcasite; it's uses and preparation.
- COCHNEAL**, a dug used in dyeing and medicine; with political interesting remarks.
- COCHINCHINA, or WEST CHINA**, in Asia; it's situation, produce and trade; with illustrative remarks.
- COD-FISH**, the various sorts; of the Newfoundland cod-fishery; with political interesting remarks, both before, and since the last war, and the last peace of 1763.
- COIN**, Sir Isaac Newton's table of the assays, weights, and values of most silver and gold coins actually made at the mint, by order of the privy council of England; with notes and explanations, shewing the methods of keeping accounts in those cities, on which negotiations in bills are usually made, and a calculation of the real and intrinsic par of exchange. Also interesting political remarks on the augmentation and diminution of the coin in denomination. Of the augmentation and diminution of the coin in denomination, to fix a par between gold and silver. Sir Isaac Newton's representation relating to the coin in England in the year 1717. With further political remarks thereon. The laws of England relating to it's coin.
- COLONIES**, British colonies in America, with interesting political remarks. An act of parliament for granting certain duties in the British sugar isles in America, for continuing, amending, and making perpetual, an act passed in the 6th year of the reign of Geo. II. (intituled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar colonies) for applying the produce of such duties, towards defraying the expences of defending, protecting, and securing the said colonies; for explaining an act made in the 25th of Charles II. (intituled, An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland trades); and for altering and disallowing several drawbacks on exports from this kingdom; and more effectually preventing the clandestine conveyance of goods to and from the said colonies, and improving and securing the trade between the same and Great-Britain, after the year 1764. The whole at large.
- COMMANDERS, or CAPTAINS OF TRADING SHIPS**; with remarks. Also a new and universal problem to discover the longitude at sea; in which is geometrically demonstrated, that not only the longitude and course, but also the distance run, is corrected by the same observation of latitude and distance run. With a general challenge to all the mathematicians in the world to confute it, or to shew any other method of discovering the longitude at sea, that may be depended upon, by Richard Locke, a clergyman. This article seems to be a very interesting point, and has been printed in the first and second editions of this work, ever since the year 1751, at the request of the author and his friends.
- COMMERCE**, shewing as many great and illustrious families have sprung from trade, as the learned professions, or other employments. This is a curious and interesting article, as it animates persons to engage in trade. Of the order of merchants engaged in commerce. The whole calculated to the honour of trade and traders, and deserving the attention of all families of distinction, as well as others. With remarks, also shewing the advantage of a due knowledge in trade, to gentlemen of distinction.
- COMPANIES**, the origin of all the trading inland companies incorporated in the city of London. Of the first companies that were established in this kingdom for the benefit of foreign trade; with suitable remarks.
- CONNAUGHT**, a province in Ireland; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CONSULS**, the nature, power, and authority of their office in England relative to trade; also of the consuls of the French nation. Of the order and ceremonies used at Paris, in the election of a judge and four consuls of the merchants. Of the prior and consuls of Touloufe. Of judges. Consuls of Bourdeaux, and divers other parts of France, and their commercial utility in that kingdom. Of the nature of the consular power in Spain; with political remarks, interesting to Great-Britain.
- CONTRIBUTIONS and AVERAGES**, in insurance of ships and merchandize; the chief laws relating to this point.
- CONVOYS and CRUIZERS** at sea; with the laws relating thereto, and some adjudged controverted cases determined in our courts of judicature.
- COPIES** of authors, the defence of literary property.
- COPPER-MINES**, where they are generally met with; of smelting and refining copper ore; with useful philosophical remarks.
- COPPERAS, COPPERAS STONES**, where found; the operation for making copperas; it's uses in various particulars.
- CORAL**, where to be had; of the coral fishery.
- CORAZAN, or KHORASSAN**; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CORDAGE**, how made for shipping. See **CABLE**.
- COREA**, a kingdom in Asia; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CORN**, lands that produce the best and largest quantity. Of the method of preserving corn. Of the political maxims of France and other parts concerning corn. Laws of England relating to corn. Of the bounty granted on the exportation of corn. The bounty on spirits, drawn from barley, malt, or other corn exported. An account of the several sorts and quantities of corn, which were exported from Christmas 1734, to Christmas 1735: as also from what places and ports of England, and in what quantities they were exported; together with an account of the bounty that was paid on such exportation. An account of the true market price of wheat and malt at Windfor, for above one hundred years past. With political remarks on the bounty granted on corn.
- CORNWALL**, in England, it's situation, produce and trade.
- COROMANDEL**, in the Mogul empire; it's situation, produce and trade.
- CORSICA**, in Italy; it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks.
- COTTON-TREE**, it's nature, growth, and management, and the trade therein; with remarks.
- COURLAND**, it's situation, produce and trade.
- CREDIT**, of private credit in trade; with remarks on the consequences of long credit in private trade, useful.
- CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT]**, explained and illustrated; with computations on the efficacious operation of a sinking fund, invariably applied to the payment of the national debt, if it had

had so been; with political observations on the past reductions of interest.
CROATIA, it's situation, produce and trade.
CUMBERLAND, in England, it's situation, produce and trade.
CURRENCY, PAPER CURRENCY, of the British plantations; an explanation thereof, with political observations thereon.
CUSTOMS, the numerous custom-house duties in Great-Britain; with remarks. Of some determined disputable cases that have been determined in our courts of law, relating to the business of the custom-house.
CYDER, a liquor, it's manufacture, and last act relating thereto, 1763.
 Of the Business of the Customs, continued from the end of letter B.

L E T T E R D.

DAALDER, a coin.
DACZAJIE, ditto.
DALLE, a nominal money of account.
DALLER, a coin of various value in different countries.
DALMATIA, it's situation, produce and trade; with political remarks.
DAMASK, a silk manufacture.
DAMASKEENING, or DAMASKING, an art applied to iron and steel, to beautify them in divers manners.
DAMASSE, or PETITE VENISE, a species of wrought linen.
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FLUX, in metallurgy, to make ores or metals melt the sooner and the cleaner.

FORESTALLERS, REGRATORS, and ENGROSSERS; laws to prevent such persons; with remarks thereon since the last war and peace of 1763.

FORFARSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

FOSSILS, natural productions in the bowels, or on the surface of the earth; with proper remarks.

FOUNDER, a practiser of metallic castings.

FOUNDRY, the art of metal casting. The method of casting in sand all sorts of small works made of brass. Of casting of statues. Of bell-foundry. Of casting of cannon and brass mortar-pieces. Of iron cannon.

FRANCE, it's situation, produce and trade. Of the productions of France, as such are the objects of commerce. Of the coast of France in the Mediterranean. Of the coast from Dunkirk to St. Malo, and from thence to St. Sebastian. The rise and progress of their trade and navigation; with the remarkable artifices of France in propagating their manufactures for English at foreign markets. Of the manufactures established in France, and by what commercial policy they have succeeded therein. Of the several sorts of woollen fabrics established in France, and where. Of the generality of Champagne and Soissons. Of the trade of Limosin, Poictou, &c. Of the trade of the generality of Orleans. Of the commerce of Touraine, Anjou, Maine and Perche. Of the commerce of the generality of Berry. Of the commerce of Normandy, as divided into the generalities of Rouen, Alençon, and Caen. Of the commerce of Burgogne, and the generality. Of the state of the manufacture of Dauphiny and Provence. Of the commerce of Languedoc. Of the commerce of Low Navarre and Bearne, Flanders, Lorrain and Bar. Of the commerce of the three bishoprics, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; of Alsace and Roussillon. Of the other branches of the trade of France; with remarks thereon before the last war, when they were in possession of all their late territories in North America. Of the trade of the French islands in America, as it stood before the last war, and the definitive treaty of peace in 1763 took place; with remarks thereon since the last war, and the said last treaty of peace of 1763. Of the East-India and African trades of France, as those articles

stood before the last war, and treaty of 1763. Of the commerce of the French company of the East-Indies, shewing the number of ships returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes, from the year 1727 to 1742 inclusive; with remarks on the French East-India trade since the last war, and the peace of 1763. Of the African trade of France, as the same stood before the last war, and peace of 1763. Particular remarks on the trade of France in general, as before given, and the manifest tendency of the extent thereof, and their political schemes of power to arrive at universal monarchy, as the same appeared in this work before the last war, and the definitive treaty of 1763; also remarks on our article FRANCE, since the last war, and the definitive treaty of peace made in the year 1763.

FRANCHE COMTE, its situation, produce and trade.

FRANCONIA, ditto.

FREIGHT, with regard to France. The custom of Amsterdam, and other parts of the United Provinces, in freighting ships. An order of the council of state in France in 1701, regulating the payment of the duty of freight. Of the article freight according to the laws and usages of England; with some essential cases litigated and determined in our courts of law. Of some generally allowed maxims in Europe, in regard to freight. Of the validity of charter-parties in regard to freight, according to Wifhey laws of sea affairs. Of lets and impediments in voyages. Of freighting ships, and giving earnest. Of some regulations in regard to freight from Old Spain to New, in the trade of Spanish America; with political remarks.

FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE AND COMPANY, as the same stood before the last war and peace of 1763. Of the trade of Senegal ditto. Of the trade of Gallam ditto. Of the trade of Goree. The trade of Joal. The trade of Gambia. The trade of Bisseaux; with illustrative remarks. Of the Gold Coast; with political remarks on the French African trade in general, as the same stood before the last war, and treaty of peace of 1763. The French king's letters patents for the liberty of trade upon the coast in Africa in 1716. Letters patents, containing regulations for merchandizes which the traders of France import from Holland and the North for the Guinea trade, in 1728. The French king's proclamation, concerning the commerce of Guinea; ordering that three negro boys should be paid for upon the footing of two negroes of maturity; and two negro girls for one negro, in 1716. An arret of the king's council of state, concerning the commerce of Guinea in 1729, extracted from the register of the council of state. The king's ordonnance, prohibiting captains of ships that shall bring negroes to the islands, from landing, or sending their crews and cargoes thither, without permission from the governors, 1718. An arret of the king's council of state, for the payment of the bounty of 13 livres for each negro, and 20 livres for every mark of gold that the Senegal company from the African coast shall cause to be imported into France, coming from those countries, granted to the said company by the twenty-fourth article of his majesty's letters patents of the month of March 1696, during the establishment of the said company, 1724: shewing how inviolably the French have observed their acts relating to their trade. The king's declaration concerning negro slaves of the colonies, 1738. An arret of the king's council of state, which prohibits gum from the river Senegal, being exported out of the kingdom for one year, under pain of confiscation, and 300 livres penalty, 1751; with remarks suitable to the whole of the French laws relating to their African trade, before the last peace of 1763: shewing the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements given by the French to their African Company; taken from a memorial of the deputies of the Council of Trade in France, to the Royal Council of Commerce there; with remarks on the French African trade since the last war, and the definitive treaty of 1763.

FRENCH AMERICA, as the same stood before the last war, and definitive treaty of 1763; with remarks since the last war, and the definitive treaty of 1763. A continuation of the French deputies of trade's representation concerning their African trade and sugar islands; with remarks thereon, in regard to the French laws, ordinances, and regulations of their American colonies, before the last war, and peace of 1763. Regulations concerning hired servants and fire-arms, exported by merchantmen to the French colonies in America and New France, in 1716; with illustrative remarks thereon. Marine laws to be observed in all the ports of the islands and French colonies, wherever situated, in 1717. The French king's letters patents, concerning the regulations for commerce of the French colonies, in 1717. In the year 1718 a royal ordonnance was made, prohibiting all captains of ships who shall carry negroes to the French islands, against landing them, or any of their cargo, without leave had and obtained from the governors, in order to prevent any contagious distemper being thereby spread among the inhabitants. Royal letters patents, containing regulations of trade between Marseilles and the French islands in America, in the year 1719. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all

governors and lieutenants-general, all particular governors, and intendants of colonies, from having plantations, in the year 1719. A royal ordonnance issued against captains and supercargoes of merchantmen, who shall carry on foreign trade to the French islands in America, in 1719. Regulations by the king, concerning foreign or contraband trade carried on in the French colonies, 1720. The king's declaration with regard to merchandizes of the French colonies, 1722. Letters patents upon the arrets, which fix the times of the year of the entrepost of merchandizes coming from the French islands and colonies, into the ports therein mentioned, and of those which shall be declared by the entrepost for the said islands, 1726. An arret of the king's council of state, revoking those permissions before granted to the merchants of the kingdom, to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn and Naples, directly from the French islands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the said islands, 1723. A remarkable royal ordonnance, declaring Gilles Robin, captain of the ship St. Michael, of Havre, incapable to sail for the future, in any ship intended for the colonies, on account of his having carried on a CONTRABAND TRADE to St. Domingo, in 1724. Royal letters patents, in the form of an edict, concerning the foreign or contraband commerce to the islands and colonies of America, 1727. An arret of the royal council of state, containing regulations on the point of contests, between the admiralty of France and the farmers-general of the revenue, with regard to contraband and prohibited trade made as well at sea, and in the ports, havens, and creeks of the said kingdom, as in the French islands and colonies of America, 1728. In the year 1730, a royal declaration was issued, concerning the regulation and collection of the capitation-tax at the windward islands in America: and in the year 1731, instructions were issued, to facilitate the execution of the said declaration. In regard to the first of these, although there is every thing done that could be to prevent the evasion of the tax, and all frauds in the collection; yet there does not seem less judgment in joining moderation with rigour and severity. A royal regulation with respect to the wheat-meal of Canada, issued 1732, to preserve the trade of Canada with the French islands. An arret of the Royal Council, forbidding all privateers and merchants carrying on trade in the French islands and colonies, to send stuffs or painted linens of the Indies thither, or those of Persia, China, or the Levant, 1733. An arret of the Royal Council of State, granting the merchants of St. Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod-fisheries at Canada and Cape-Breton, the same rights, privileges and exemptions, granted by letters patents of the month of April 1717, for the trade of the French islands and colonies of America, 1734. An arret of the Royal Council of State, and letters patents in consequence thereof, concerning the entrepost as well in respect to merchandize intended for the French islands and colonies, as those which came from thence, 1738. In 1741 was issued an arret of the Royal Council of State, permitting privateers for the French islands and colonies to load salt in Bretagne, or in any other customary port, to be employed at Cape Verde, for the salting of beef designed for the said islands, without paying any duties, &c. In 1742 a royal ordonnance was made, forbidding all captains of ships disarmed in the said islands, paying the balancé due to their ship's crew, and injoining them to make the discounts in presence of the officers charged to take an account of the several classes of sailors, and regulating the peculiar forms requisite upon these occasions, &c. In the year 1743 a royal ordonnance was issued, concerning the regulation made on the reception of captains and masters of ships in the French colonies of America. Also in the year 1743 an arret of the Royal Council of State was issued, ordering that merchandizes of the produce of the French islands in America, intended for Cape-Breton, shall be discharged, the 1st of January 1747, of the duty of weight of 1 per cent. and that those merchandizes of the produce of the said islands, designed as well for Cape-Breton as for Canada, shall be discharged, during the said time, of the duties of 3 per cent. of the western domaine, together with the duty of 40 sols per 100 weight upon sugars of the said islands, which shall be sent there. In 1743 an arret of the Royal Council of State was issued, ordering that the merchants and privateers of Marseilles shall be obliged to bring to the office of the western domaine, all merchandizes coming from the French islands in America, as well as those which shall be embarked for the said islands, to be there visited, and the duties discharged. In the year 1744 an arret of the Royal Council of State was made, suspending, during the late war, the execution of the second article of the letters patents of the month of April 1717, concerning the commerce of the French islands of America. In the year 1750 an arret of the Royal Council was declared, containing an exemption of the duties of 3 per cent. of the western domaine, on cottons brought from the French colonies of America for home-consumption, and to subject them to the same duties of exportation that they paid before the arret of November 1749: also, ordaining that the duty of 3 per cent.

I N D E X.

cent. of the western domaine shall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the French colonies exported to other nations; that the duty of half per cent. established by the declaration of the 1st of November 1727, shall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the said colonies, in the same manner as collected upon other merchandizes which come from thence. In the year 1751, an arret was issued by the Royal Council, fixing at 8 livres per 100 weight the duties on the exportation of cotton-wool out of the kingdom, coming from the French island colonies; and those on cotton-yarn at 10 livres per 100 weight, as well for the duties of the five farms, as for those of the western domaine: ordaining, likewise, that the duty of half per cent. augmentation of the western domaine, shall remain to be collected at importation into the kingdom, upon cottons coming from the said islands; with remarks on this article FRENCH AMERICA before the last war, and the peace of 1763: also, at the conclusion of this article, remarks since the last war, and the definitive treaty of 1763.

FRIEZLAND, it's situation, produce and trade.

EAST FRIEZLAND, ditto.

FULLER, a workman in the woollen manufacture.

FULLERS-EARTH, an earth almost peculiar to England. Of it's utility in the said woollen manufacture; also philosophical observations thereon, with remarks.

FULLING, the art of it as practised in manufactures. Of fulling cloths and woollen stuffs with soap.

FUNDS; of the funds or taxes of Great-Britain, with explanatory remarks thereon, as they stood before the last war, and the definitive treaty of peace of 1763; with further remarks thereon.

For the Business of the Custom-house at the end of the Letter F, see the article FEES of the Officers of the Customs, as settled by act of parliament; also relating to fish, see the article FISHERIES, wherein the several acts concerning the same are referred to.

L E T T E R G.

GABEL, a tax in France.

GALICIA, in Spain, it's situation, produce and trade.

GALLOONS, GALLIONS, or GALLEONS; Spanish galloons, how regulated to carry on the commerce of Spanish America; with remarks.

GASCONY, in France, it's situation, produce and trade.

GAUGING; the art explained, with variety of practical examples, arithmetically illustrated; also tables, shewing by weight the quantity of gallons any cask of spirits contains, from one gallon to a ton. Of gauging of ships in Spain. The laws of England relating to gauging.

GELDERLAND, it's situation, produce and trade.

GEMS, precious stones; with philosophical illustrations and remarks.

GENEVA REPUBLIC, it's situation, produce and trade.

GENEVA, a liquor so called; with remarks.

GENOA, it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks. Of the bank of Genoa. Of Corfica, considered as a part of Genoa. Monies of account and exchange of Genoa. The foreign exchanges of Genoa upon most parts of Europe.

GERMANY. See the several states and electorates contained therein.

GEORGIA, in Asia, it's situation, produce and trade.

GEORGIA, an English colony. See BRITISH AMERICA.

GILIAN, a province in Persia, it's situation, produce and trade.

GINGER, it's quality and use.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

GLASS, a manufacture, described; with philosophical remarks. Decrees of his late majesty the king of Spain, for settling a fabric of crystal and glass in Spain. A memoir on the fabric of glass at St. Gobin in France. The principal laws of England relating to glass.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

GOLD, a metal; the most curious operations relating thereto, in the great and small way; with philosophical remarks. Of gold and silver lace. Of gold-mines. Of extracting the gold out of the ore. Of the gold of the East-Indies; with remarks of various kinds. Of the gold-trade of Africa; with remarks political. The gold-trade of America. A brief account of the gold and silver coined in the reign of queen Elizabeth, with the true value in current money. Account of the money coined in the reign of James I. Ditto in Charles the 1st and 2d's time. Ditto in James the 2d's reign. Abstract of account of the great recoinage in king William's reign. In queen Anne's reign. In the reign of George I. Of the use of the foregoing accounts.

GOLDEN RULE IN ARITHMETIC, what.

GRACE, a term in trade, explained.

GRAFTING, GRAFFING, or INGRAFTING. See ENGRAFFING.

GRATIAS, a term in commerce in Spain; with remarks re-

lating to the treaties of commerce subsisting between Great-Britain and Spain.

GRANET, a precious stone; with philosophical remarks.

GREECE, [MODERN GREECE], it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks.

GREENLAND, it's situation, produce and trade. Of the whale-fishery.

GREENWICH-HOSPITAL; with political remarks. What seamen pay to the support of that hospital.

GRONINGEN, it's situation, produce and trade.

GUINEA, in Africa, ditto; with political remarks.

GUIENNE, it's situation, produce and trade.

GUMS, of their nature and quality; with philosophical and political remarks thereon.

GUNPOWDER, it's composition; how made. Of the exportation thereof. The principal laws of England relating thereto.

Of the Business of the Custom-house continued.

L E T T E R H.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

HALBERSTADT, ditto.

HALLAGE, what.

HAMBURGH, it's situation and trade; with political remarks. Monies of exchange of Hamburgh; and their computations with other parts of Europe. Of their weights and measures. Of the bank of Hamburgh; with remarks.

HAMPSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

HANOVER, ditto; with remarks.

HANSE-TOWNS; of the Hanseatic league, &c.

HARPINEER, or HARPONEER, who.

HARTFORDSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade.

HATS, a manufacture; with remarks thereon before and since the last war, and treaty of 1763.

HAWKERS and PEDLARS, the principal laws of England relating thereto.

HEMP, a vegetable, how prepared for use; with remarks before and since the last war, and peace of 1763. Laws of England relating to hemp and flax.

HERFORDSHIRE, it's situation, produce and trade; with remarks.

HERRING-FISHERY; with remarks before and since the late war, and peace of 1763.

HESSE LANDGRAVIATE, it's situation, produce and trade.

HILDESHEIM, ditto.

HOLLAND, ditto. The bank of loan of Amsterdamb, called the Lombard. Of the monies of exchange of Holland, and computation, as they relate to other European nations. Of the weights and measures; with political remarks before and since the last war, and peace of 1763.

HOLSTEIN DUCHY, it's situation, produce and trade.

HOPS, a plant. Of lands fit for planting hops; with remarks.

HUDSON'S-BAY AND STREIGHTS, it's situation, produce and trade represented; with remarks before the last war, and since the peace of 1763.

HUNGARY, it's situation, produce and trade.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, ditto.

HUSBANDRY represented, with remarks.

HYPOTHECATION, in mercantile commerce, explained; with remarks.

The Business of the Custom-house continued.

L E T T E R I.

JAPON, or JAPAN, it's situation, produce and trade.

JAVA, ditto; with remarks relating to the commerce of the Dutch in the East-Indies.

ICELAND, it's situation, produce and trade.

JERQUE, a term used at the custom-house; with remarks.

JERSEY, it's situation, produce and trade.

JETSAM, what. See FLOTSAM and LAGAN.

JEWELS. See DIAMOND, PEARL and GEMS.

IMPORTATION; with political remarks before and since the last war, and peace of 1763. Principal laws of England relating to importation of merchandize. Of goods prohibited importation.

IMPOST, what.

INDIA TRADE. See EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, JAVA, &c. &c.

INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN. Explanation of the Spanish West-India trade and navigation; with political remarks before the last war, and peace of 1763.

INDIAN AFFAIRS IN NORTH AMERICA represented.

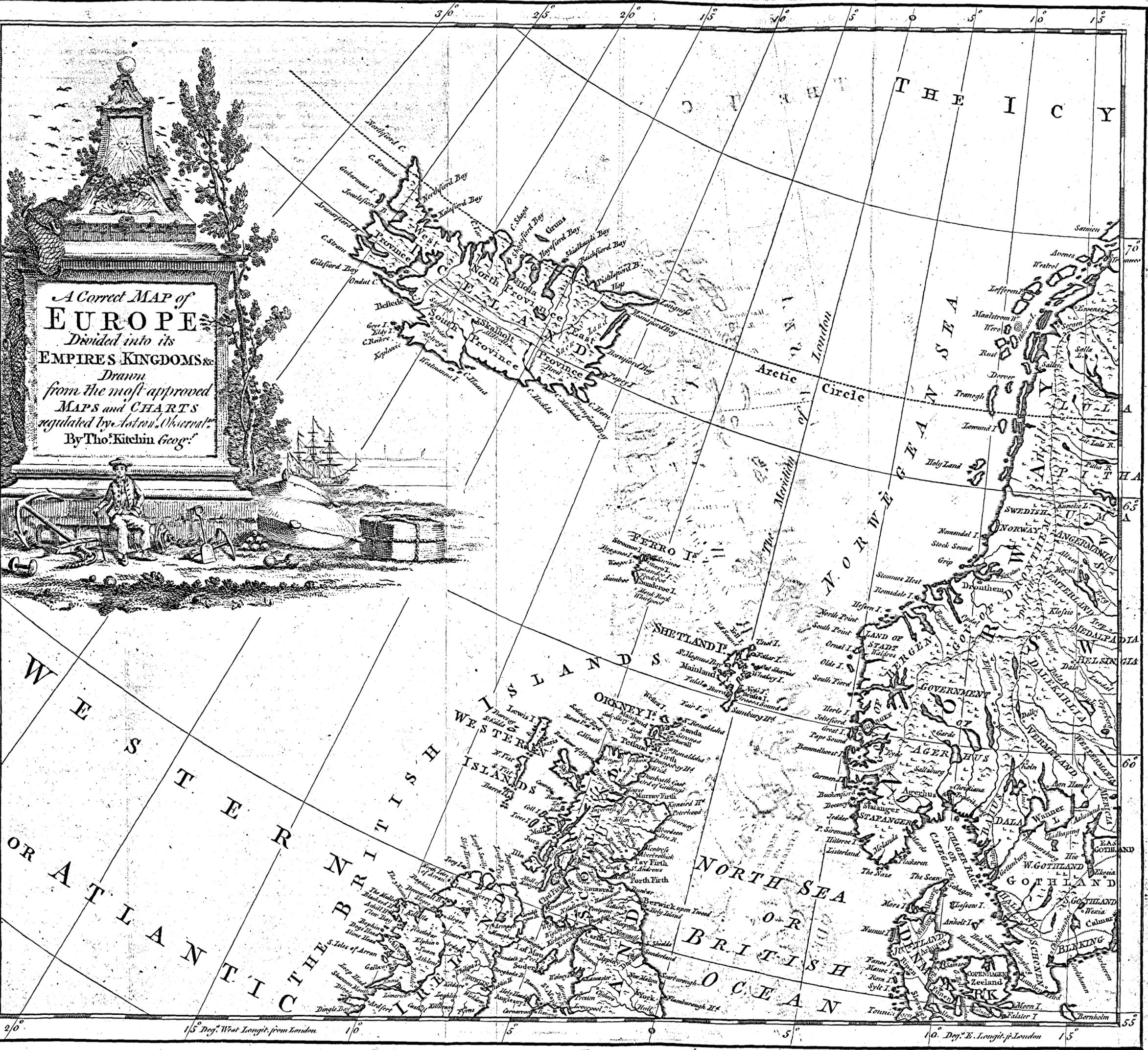
INDIAN ISLANDS, in Asia, their situation, produce and trade.

INDICO, a plant; method of cultivating indico in America. Of

I N D E X.

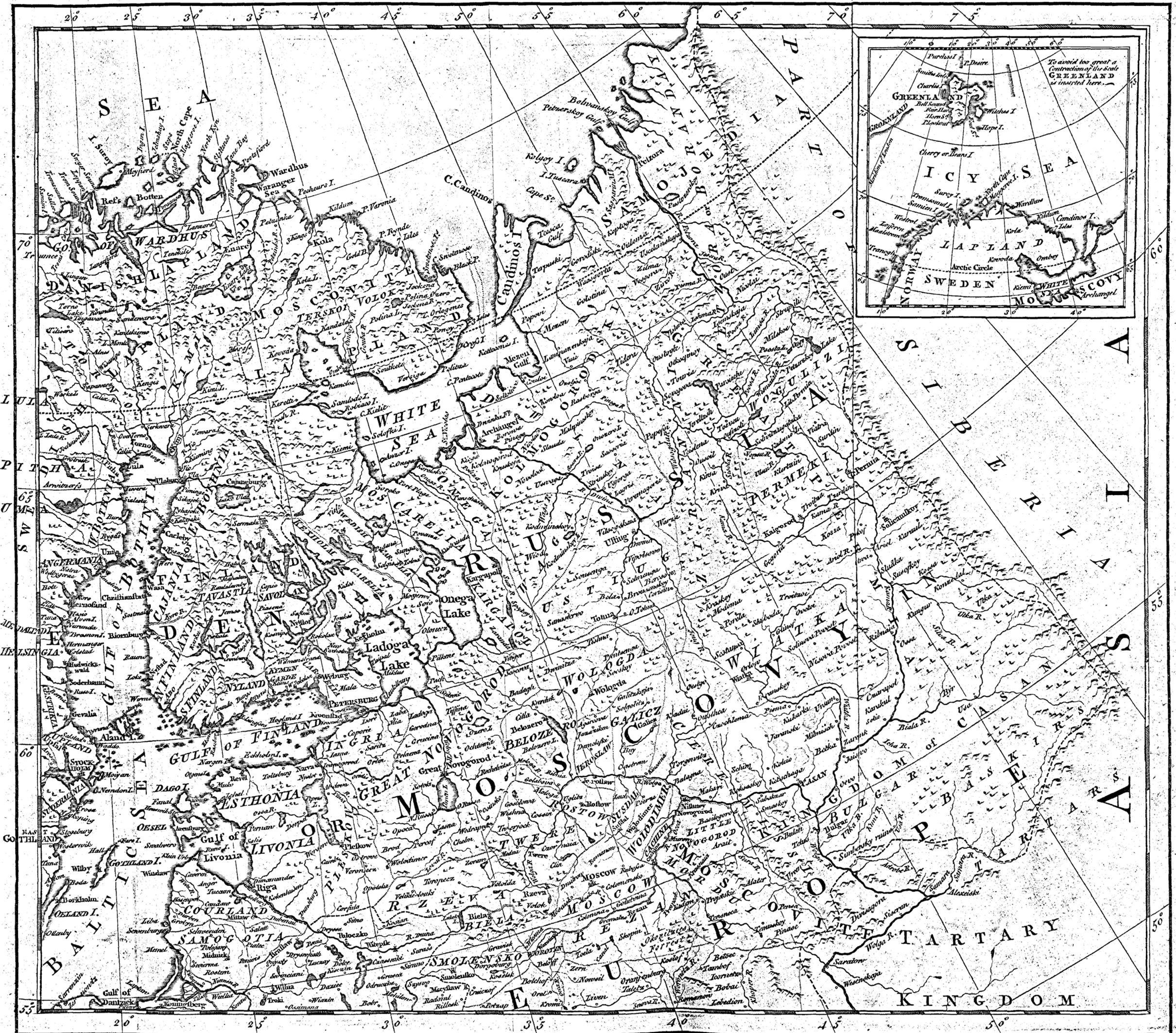
- Of the adulteration of indico. Of the use of indico.
Laws of England in regard to indico.
- INDOSTAN**, or **EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL**, it's situation, produce and trade; with observations interspersed.
- INSURANCE**. See **ASSURANCE**, as relative to mercantile trade.
- INTEREST OF MONEY**; various cases of computation thereon, with tables of interest simple and compound. The several uses thereof, as applied in business of divers kinds. Of the interest of money, considered in a national and political view. Of legal interest. Of the reduction of interest in the public funds, before and since the last war, and peace of 1763.
- INVERNESSHIRE**, it's situation, produce and trade.
- INVOICE**, a mercantile account; with remarks.
- IRELAND**, it's situation, produce and trade; with political remarks before and since the last war, and peace of 1763.
- IRON**, it's manufacture and trade; with remarks. Iron as applied to medicine.
The Business of the Custom-house continued.
-
- L E T T E R K.**
- KALI**, a salt, it's nature and trade.
- KAY**, or **KEY**, or **QUAY**, described. The laws relating thereto.
- KENT**, it's situation, produce and trade.
- KINCARDINSHIRE**, ditto.
- The Stewarty of **KIRCUBRIGHT**, ditto.

The **END** of the **FIRST VOLUME**.



A Correct MAP of
EUROPE
 Divided into its
 EMPIRE'S KINGDOMS &c.
 Drawn
 from the most approved
 MAPS and CHARTS
 regulated by Astron. Observat.
 By Tho: Kitchin Geog.

EUROPE, Plate I.



EUROPE Plate II.



EUROPE Plate III.

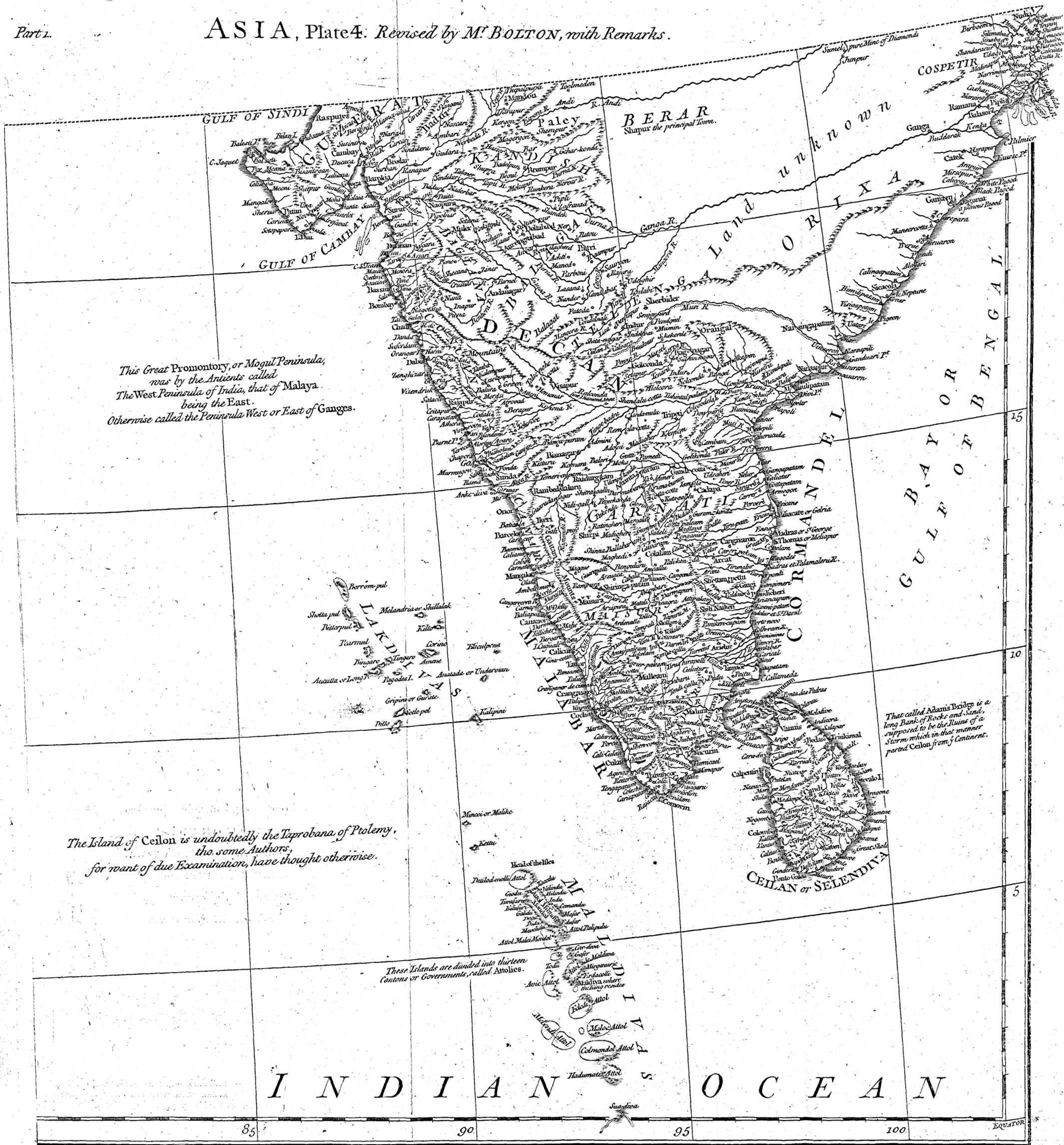


Part 1.

North Arabia, ASIA, Plate I. including the Turkish Dominions with most of Persia. Revised and Examined by M^r BOLTON.



ASIA. Pl. II. Part of INDIA, PERSIA, TIBET, and TARTARY Examined & Rectified by M^r. BOLTON.



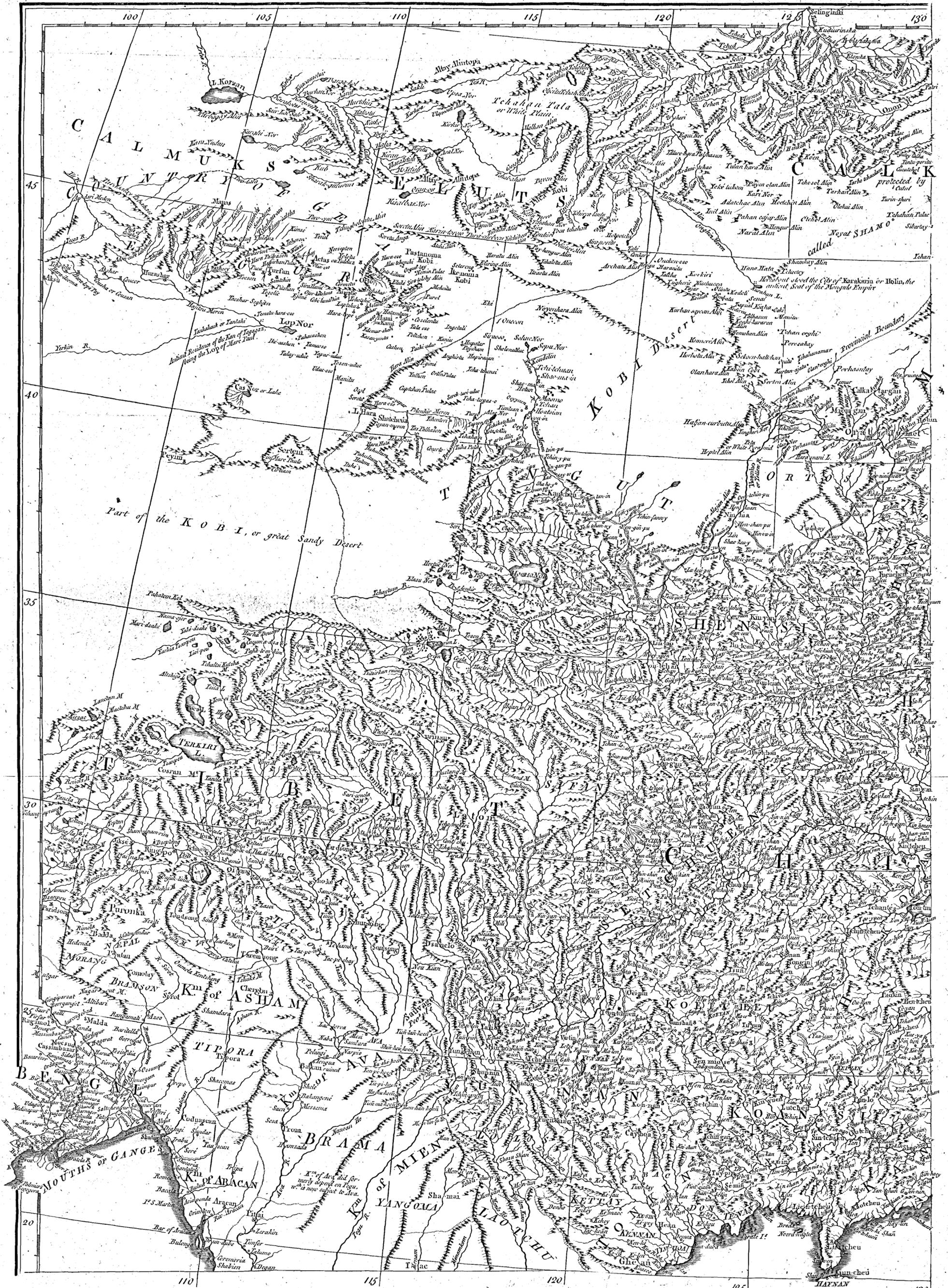
This Great Promontory, or Mogul Peninsula, was by the Antients called The West Peninsula of India, that of Malaya being the East. Otherwise called the Peninsula West or East of Ganges.

That called Adams Bridge is a long Bank of Rocks and Sand, supposed to be the Ruins of a Storm which in that manner parted Ceilon from the Continent.

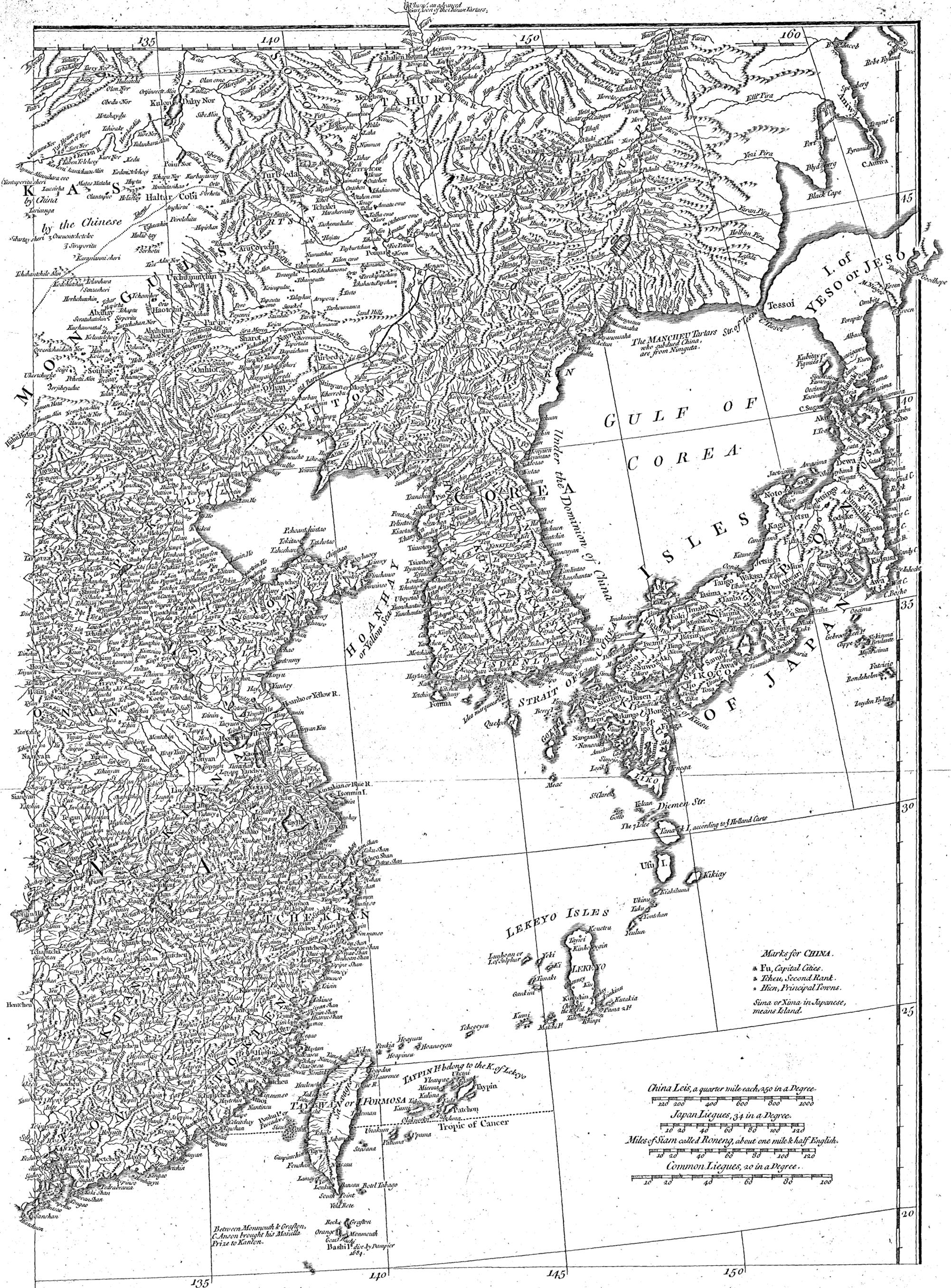
The Island of Ceilon is undoubtedly the Taprobana of Ptolemy, tho some Authors, for want of due Examination, have thought otherwise.

These Islands are divided into thirteen Cantons or Governments, called Atollies.

INDIAN OCEAN

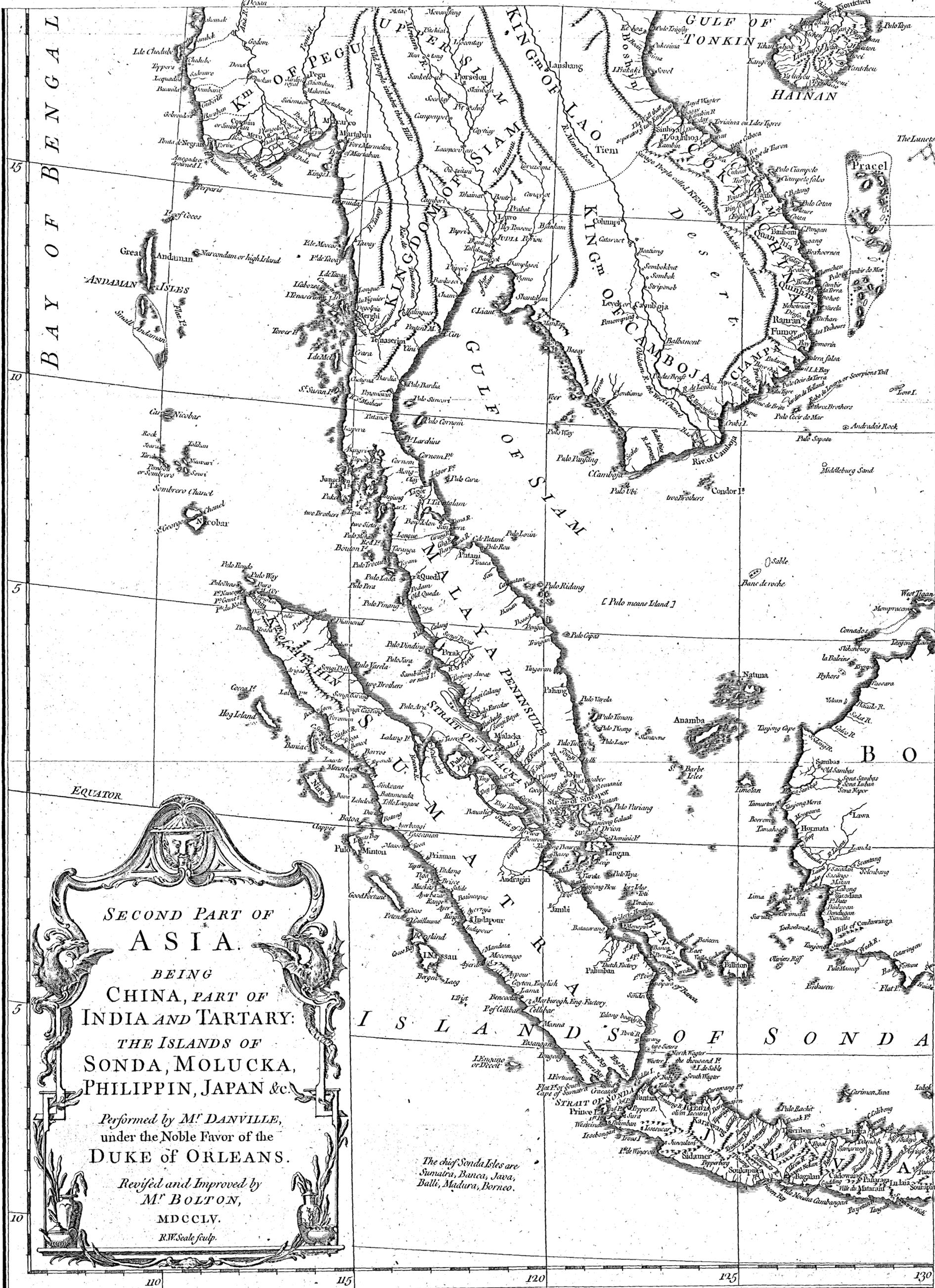


ASIA, P.IV. Part of CHINA, TIBET and TARTARY. Revised by M^r BOLTON



Part 2. ASIA, Plate VI. JAPAN, COREA, The MONGULS, and Part of CHINA; Examined & Improved by M^r BOLTOX, Engraved by R.W. Seale.





SECOND PART OF
ASIA.
 BEING
CHINA, PART OF
INDIA AND TARTARY:
 THE ISLANDS OF
SONDA, MOLUCKA,
PHILIPPIN, JAPAN &c.
 Performed by *M^r DANVILLE,*
 under the Noble Favor of the
DUKE OF ORLEANS.
 Revised and Improved by
M^r BOLTON,
MDCCCLV.
R.W. Sculp.

*The chief Sonda Isles are
 Sumatra, Banca, Java,
 Bali, Madura, Borneo.*